# An overview of problems in the classification of plant-parasitic *Clavicipitaceae*

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Abstract: The current status of the taxonomy of the plant-infecting Clavicipitaceae is evaluated. Particular emphasis is placed on current problems in classification, including the paraphyletic relationship of the Clavicipitales with the Hypocreales and the definition of the genera Balansia, Claviceps, Epichloë, Neotyphodium, Parepichloë, and Ustilaginoidea. The use of a phylogenetic approach is advocated to assist in the definition of genera. The morphological and ecological criteria employed to define species among the plant-infecting Clavicipitaceae are also discussed.

Key words: Balansia, Claviceps, Epichloë, Neotyphodium, Parepichloë, Ustilaginoidea, ITS rDNA, 18S rDNA, Hypocreales, endophytes

## Introduction

Species of the family Clavicipitaceae (Hypocreales) have numerous impacts on humans. For example, Cordyceps subsessilis Petch (anamorph Tolypocladium inflatum W. Gams) is a source of the powerful immunosuppressant drug cyclosporin, used to prevent rejection after organ transplantations (Drefuss & Chapela, 1994; Hodge et al., 1996). Alkaloids produced by C. purpurea (Fr.) Tul. have been employed in western medicine for hundreds of years (Lewis & Elvin-Lewis, 1977). Ergonovine and other indole alkaloids, employed in the treatment of migraine headaches and to induce uterine contractions, are derived from this fungus (Lewis & Elvin-Lewis, 1977). This fungus was responsible for ergotism, which historically afflicted human populations consuming sclerotia mixed with grain (Alexopoulos et al., 1996). The same fungus was the original source of lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD25), a fungal product that gave rise to the psychedelic era of the 1960's (Schultes & Hoffmann, 1973). Anthropological evidence demonstrates that another member of the Clavicipitaceae, Balansia cyperi Edg., is employed among women of the amazonian Achuar Jivaro tribe to facilitate child birth (Lewis & Elvin-Lewis, 1990; Plowman et al., 1990). In addition to pharmaceutical uses and potentials, recent investigations of the graminicolous Clavicipitaceae have suggested ecological benefits to the host plants because of the increased resistance to herbivory by insects and mammals (Clay, 1988, 1989; West et al., 1990), increased drought tolerance (West et al., 1990), and increased fungus disease resistance (Clarke et al., in press). Clay (1988) has characterized the relationship between mycosymbiont and host as a defensive mutualism.

Rogerson (1970) included 13 genera of the graminicolous Clavicipitaceae in his outline of the family. Diehl's (1950) monograph of the Balansieae is the most complete work available on the graminicolous Clavicipitaceae but treated only three genera, paying very little attention to important genera such as Claviceps Tul., Epichloë (Fr.) Tul., and Ustilaginoidea Bref. Diehl's monograph is now very dated.

Among the important systematic problems in the graminicolous Clavicipitaceae are: 1) resolution of suprageneric classification; 2) definition of genera; and 3) definition of species. We believe that these systematic problems will be resolved only by taking a holistic approach to systematics of the entire family. The following treatment expands on each of these problems and provides summary data on the state of the systematics to date. Entomogenous members of the Clavicipitaceae, which comprise the other large

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ecological group of the family, are not discussed here.

# Ordinal classification and centrum development

There is a historical and ongoing debate concerning classification of the Clavicipitaceae, with perithecial ontogeny being a crucial element. Historically, the Clavicipitaceae have been classified with the Hypocreaceae because of the production of colourful ascomata and well-defined perithecial walls. For example, in an 1865 treatise on fungi, Selecta Fungorum Carpologia, the Tulasne brothers placed members of both families in their section Nectriei of the order Pyrenomycetes (Grove et al., 1931). Ellis & Everhart (1890) classified members of both families in the 'suborder' Hypocreaceae (order = Pyrénomycètes) following the system devised by Winter (1887). Saccardo (1891) placed both families in his family Hypocreaceae, but classified them in distinct sections, Scolecosporae for the Clavicipitaceae and Hyalodidymae for the Hypocreaceae.

Nannfeldt (1932) was the first to separate the Clavicipitaceae into a distinct order, the Clavicipitales, but he recognized its affinity to the Hypocrea-Luttrell (1951) examined centrum ontogeny and perithecial structure in pyrenomycetous ascomycetes and concluded that the Clavicipitaceae bear affinity to the Xylariales because of similarities in centrum ontogeny. He classified the centrum of the Clavicipitaceae as a Xylaria-type, and that of the Hypocreales as the Nectria-type. Chadefaud (1960) removed the Clavicipitaceae from the Xylariales into the Clavicipitales, based on the many unique features of the group. Rogerson (1970) classified them in distinct orders, Clavicipitales and Hypocreales, because of differences in perithecial ontogeny, but considered both orders to be part of a 'hypocrealean complex'.

Recent studies on small and large subunit rDNA (Spatafora & Blackwell, 1993; Rehner & Samuels, 1995) suggest that the *Clavicipitales* bear closer relationship to fungi of the *Hypocreales* than to those of the *Xylariales*, thus supporting the classification of *Clavicipitaceae* and *Hypocreaceae* in the same order. Spatafora & Blackwell (1993) concluded that centrum ontogeny and perithecial structures in the *Clavicipitaceae* were misinterpreted by earlier investigators (e.g. Luttrell, 1951; Mhaskar & Rao, 1976) who weighted perithecial ontogeny heavily in determining ordinal classification (Reynolds, 1981).

In order to reexamine structural and centrum ontogenetic features of the Clavicipitaceae, a study was conducted on perithecia of five collections of Epichloë from Europe and North America (White, 1997). Epichloë (Clavicipitaceae) has a centrum development that is distinct from both the Xylariatype centrum and the Nectria-type centrum development. It is distinguishable from the Nectria centrum in several features. The perithecial primordium in Epichloë is oblong to ovate rather than spherical, as seen in the Nectria-type centrum (Hanlin, 1961; Samuels, 1973). This is reflected in subsequent differences in the pattern of perithecial wall elongation. In the Nectria-type centrum, the perithecial wall expands evenly, so that a spherical primordium develops. In Epichloë, apical expansion occurs more rapidly than lateral expansion, so that an ovate primordium gradually gives rise to an ovate perithecium. The ascogenous mycelium in the clavicipitalean centrum remains as a central mound at the base of the perithecial cavity, rather than spreading out over the base and sides of the inner wall of the perithecium, as seen in the Nectria-type centrum (Luttrell, 1951; Hanlin, 1961). In the Nectria-type centrum, a subhymenial parenchyma layer is often present just beneath the asci (Samuels, 1973), while in Epichloë, the ascogenous mycelium is appressed directly to the wall of the perithecium. In the Nectria-type centrum, an apical meristem gives rise to the paraphyses (Luttrell, 1951). In Epichloë, the paraphyses bear no relation to apical or lateral meristems; instead, they form early in the process of cavity development. In the Nectria-type centrum, paraphyses intermix with asci (Samuels, 1973), while in Epichloë the paraphyses do not occur within the cluster of asci at any stage of development. A final developmental difference between the Nectria-type centrum and that seen in Epichloë relates to the origin of periphyses bordering the ostiole. In both, the ostioles form in a similar way. At the apex of the perithecial primordium, a pore develops through initiation of a meristem in the perithecial wall. In many species of Nectria and related genera, the determinate hyphae of the meristem that gave rise to the ostiole become the periphyses. In Epichloë, the hyphae of the meristem that formed the ostiole become the collar that borders the ostiole at the apex of the perithecial neck; the periphyses appear to be derived from short paraphyses that developed on the wall along the apex of the perithecial primordium.

Spatafora & Blackwell (1993) proposed that the clavicipitacean centrum was derived from the Nectria-type centrum through modification. If this hypothesis is correct, it may be possible to find stages of this evolutionary modification in members of the Clavicipitaceae that show evidence of being basally-

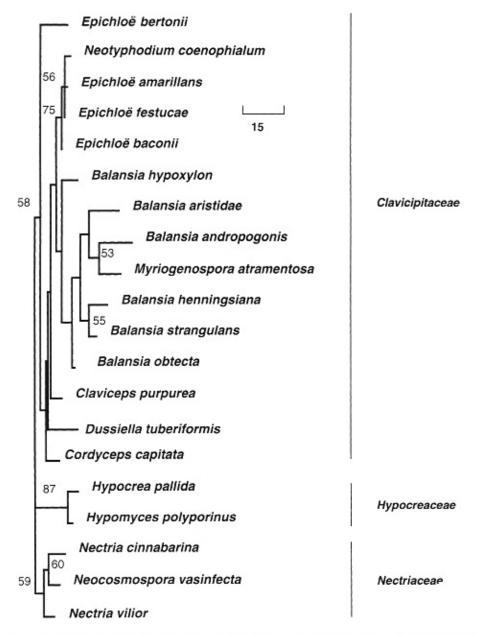


Fig. 1. Phylogenetic analysis of 18S rDNA from selected *Hypocreales* showing placement of *Epichloë bertonii* (arrow) and *Myriogenospora atramentosa*. The most parsimonious tree resulting from a heuristic analysis (135 steps; CI = 0.75; RI = 0.71). Numbers near branches are bootstrap values (250 replicates).

derived in phylogenetic analysis. Less derived species may exhibit a greater number of plesiomorphic (ancestral) features. *Epichloë bertonii* Speg. appears to be the most basally-rooted species in our 18S rDNA analysis (Fig. 1). This species shows the typical clavicipitalean features of thickened ascus tip (Fig. 2A) and filamentous ascospores. A detailed study of centrum ontogeny in *E. bertonii* may help to resolve the apparent conflict between centrum ontogeny and molecular phylogenetic data.

# Genera of graminicolous Clavicipitaceae

#### USTILAGINOIDEA

The anamorph genus Ustilaginoidea Bref. includes

species that infect tropical grass species of variable economic importance. *Ustilaginoidea virens* (Cooke) Takah. is a significant and common parasite of rice, causing a disease known as 'false smut'. Infections by *U. virens* result in slight to significant reductions in yield. Yield losses are especially high in newer high-yielding rice cultivars (Verma & Singh, 1988). *Ustilaginoidea virens* infects rice wherever it is grown, with reports from Africa, Asia, Central America, South America, and North America (BPI Collections). It also infects corn, and sporadic outbreaks of false smut on corn have been reported from Central America and North America (Haskell & Diehl, 1929). *Ustilaginoidea* species may also be a source of anticancer drugs. A family of cyclic peptides, called ustilo-

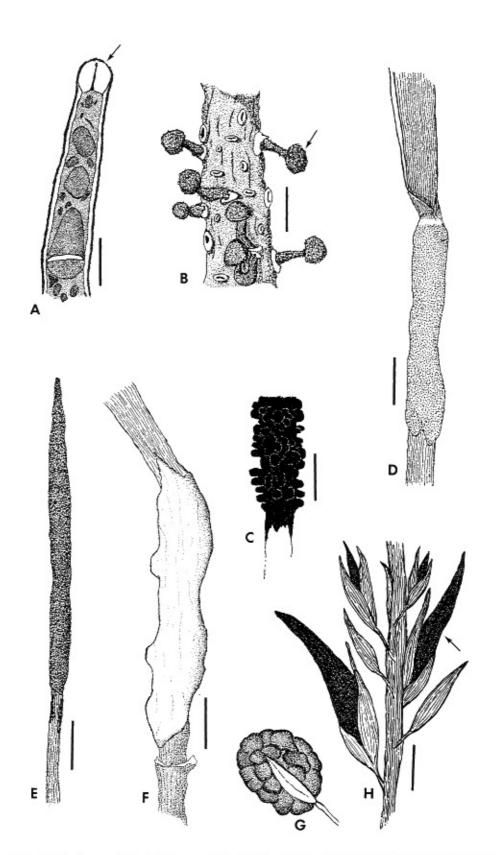


Fig. 2. Morphological features of Clavicipitaceae: A) typical refractive ascus tip (arrow) on immature ascus, bar = 7  $\mu$ m; B) stroma of Balansia claviceps showing stipitate ascomatal stromata (arrow), bar = 3 mm; C) stroma of Balansia aristidae showing a flattened layer of perithecia on the stroma, bar = 2 mm; D) stroma of Epichloë baconii, bar = 3 mm; E) stroma of Parepichloë cinerea, bar = 6 mm; F) stroma of Epichloë bertonii, bar = 5 mm; G) sclerotium of Ustilaginoidea virens, bar in H; H) sclerotia (arrow) of Claviceps purpurea on Spartina sp., bar = 4 mm.

xins, produced by *U. virens*, are potent microtubule inhibitors (Koiso *et al.*, 1992) and are under investigation as potential anticancer agents (Ludueña *et al.*, 1994). Examination of additional species in this genus may yield new potentially useful secondary products.

The genus Ustilaginoidea was established by Brefeld (1896) to accommodate U. oryzae (Pat.) Bref. and U. setariae Bref. Since its inception, the genus has come to include more than a dozen species names, although it is unknown how many distinct species are actually represented. Previous investigators (Takahashi, 1896) have shown that Brefeld's type of genus Ustilaginoidea, U. oryzae (Patouillard, 1887), is a nomenclatural synonym of U. virens (Cooke, 1879). Marchionatto (1940) examined Ustilaginoidea strumosa (Cooke) Ciferri, Munkia martyris Speg., and Shropshira chusqueae Stevens, concluding that they were conspecific. This needs to be confirmed because, if appropriate, the correct name of the species would employ the basionym of Munkia martyris Speg., the first described species (unless the name U. virens is proposed for conservation).

Ustilaginoidea is an anamorph genus with confused phylogenetic affinities. Studies of U. virens (Hashioka et al. 1951) suggest affinities with the teleomorph genus Claviceps, because the fungus produces sclerotia that replace ovaries (Fig. 2 G, H) and stipitate ascomata, as do species of Claviceps. The teleomorphic binomial Claviceps oryzae-sativae Hashioka was established on the basis of sclerotial and ascomatal features of U. virens. An examination of the features of U. strumosa (Cooke) Ciferri (Marchionatto, 1940) suggests affinities with the genus Balansia Speg.. Because U. strumosa forms sclerified stromata on culms of Chusquea species and produces flattened ascomata as seen in species of Balansia Speg. (see Brefeld, 1891), Hennings (1904) classified it in that genus, proposing the teleomorphic binomial Balansia chusqueicola P. Henn. Diehl (1950) recognized that the possession of an Ustilaginoidea anamorph was problematic for classification in Balansia, because Balansia species possess Ephelis Fr. anamorphs. Similarly, Claviceps species are known to produce Sphacelia Lév. anamorphs. The anamorph is considered an important taxonomic criterion in most cases. The Ustilaginoidea anamorph is characterized by elongate, cylindrical conidiogenous cells that bud sphaeroid conidia pleurogenously along its length (see Fig. 3B). The Ephelis anamorph is characterized by narrow, cylindrical conidiogenous cells that bud holoblastic filamentous conidia at an apical locus (Fig. 3A). The Sphacelia anamorph (Fig. 3C) is characterized by isodiametric conidiogenous cells that may elongate by a tube-like extension to form phialidic, ovate to cylindrical, conidia at an apical locus. Recent work in the Balansieae (Kuldau et al., 1997; White, unpublished) has suggested that possession of the Ephelis anamorph defines a monophyletic group. underscoring the value of the anamorph for identifying phylogenetically-related groups of species. The possession of an Ustilaginoidea anamorph may be a strong indication that U. virens, U. strumosa, and similar species should be classified in a genus other than Claviceps or Balansia. Preliminary analysis of rDNA sequences of ITS1, 5.8S, and ITS2 regions place Ustilaginoidea intermediate between several Balansia species and Claviceps purpurea, with some bootstrap support (67%) suggesting a stronger linkage to genus Balansia than to Claviceps (Fig. 3). A more extensive study of taxonomic features and sequence analysis of additional representatives of the genera Balansia, Claviceps, and Ustilaginoidea are necessary to clarify whether teleomorphs of Ustilaginoidea belong in Balansia, Claviceps, or instead represent a distinct teleomorphic genus.

### CLAVICEPS

Claviceps species affect many of the world's cereal and forage crops. Claviceps purpurea and C. paspali Stevens & Hall commonly infect forage species in the southern United States and Central and South America, frequently resulting in toxic syndromes in grazing animals. Claviceps africana Frederickson, Mantle & De Milliano has recently become epidemic wherever sorghum is grown. This species is considered a global threat, with seed losses up to 80% in some places.

Claviceps was erected in 1853 for C. purpurea (Saccardo, 1883). Since that time, the genus has come to contain almost a hundred species worldwide. The criteria for classification of a clavicipitaceous fungus in Claviceps is the formation of a sclerotium or sclerotium-like stroma in florets of grasses or sedges. The paucity of additional criteria has resulted in the lumping of species that are likely not closely related in Claviceps. For example, some species, such as C. diadema (Moell.) Diehl and C. flavella Berk. & M.A. Curtis, envelop part of the host inflorescence in a mycelial stroma and produce ascomata while still attached to the plant. These are features exhibited in species of the genus Balansia (e.g. B. claviceps Speg.). In Claviceps species, the sclerotium is contained within the floret (Fig. 2H) and is dispersed with the seeds. The possibility that species like C. diadema and C. flavella belong in other genera needs to be evaluated. Claviceps

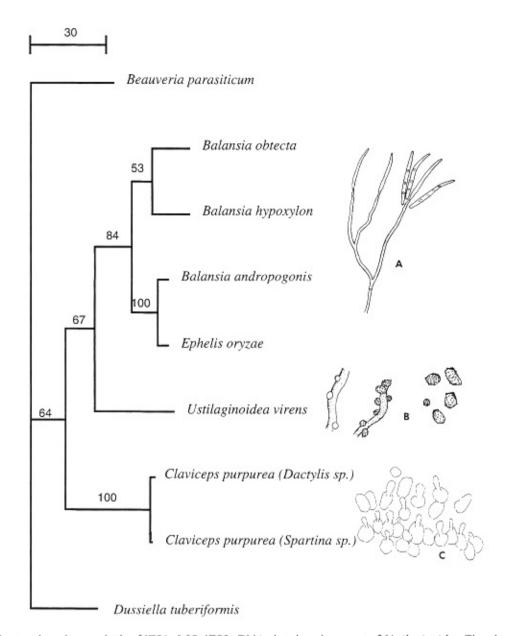


Fig. 3. Phylogram based on analysis of ITS1-5.8S-ITS2 rDNA showing placement of *Ustilaginoidea*. The phylogram was the most parsimonious tree resulting from a heuristic analysis (572 steps; CI = 0.72; RI = 0.64). Numbers near branches are bootstrap values (250 replicates). A-C anamorphs: A) *Ephelis* sp.; B) *Ustilaginoidea* sp.; C) *Sphacelia* sp.

purpurea has been reported on 50 genera distributed among 17 tribes of grasses. Collections of C. purpurea need to be examined using morphological and molecular approaches to determine if the species as it is now understood might contain multiple species or subspecies.

Langdon (1954) proposed that physiological and ecological adaptation are the key factors driving diversification in the genus Claviceps. In preliminary studies on populations of C. purpurea on the hosts Spartina alterniflora, Festuca rubra, Dactylis glomerata, and Lolium perenne, this principle seems well-established. Sclerotia on the semiaquatic plant S. alterniflora are large and contain numerous intercellular air spaces, allowing them to float. Sclerotia

on terrestrial hosts are smaller, lack the abundance of internal intercellular spaces, and also lack the capacity for flotation. They thus appear adapted for dispersal with the seeds in the terrestrial environment. A comparison of ITS sequences of an individual from the Spartina population and that of an individual from Dactylis glomerata demonstrated only three nucleotide substitutions in the rDNA ITS1, 5.8S, and ITS2 regions (White, unpublished). The paucity of base substitutions between the two populations may be an indication of the recency of divergence of the two populations.

It is generally considered that *C. purpurea* is homothallic, with populations being isolated genetically. However, similar rDNA sequences might be

explainable if there were gene flow between the populations with adaptive features being maintained through stabilizing selection on particular traits. Claviceps purpurea would have ample opportunity for genetic exchange because it has a 'honevdew stage', in which conidia of the sphacelial anamorph are exposed to insects that visit florets. There is no evidence that isolating mechanisms exist that would exclude the mixing of sphacelial conidia from different populations and subsequent parasexual recombination. If such a mechanism is operational in Claviceps, the evidence of it might be detectable in the form of polymorphic genes, as has been observed in numerous anamorphic endophyte populations in the genus Neotyphodium Glenn, Bacon & Hanlin. One way to screen for the presence of polymorphisms is to conduct isozyme analysis. Isozyme studies could be followed by cloning and sequencing of certain of the polymorphic genes, such as that for β-tubulin, to determine their origins. The presence of such a mechanism for genetic exchange might explain the diversity and adaptability of Claviceps purpurea.

#### **EPICHLOË**

Epichloë is a genus of parasites of grasses adapted to predominantly temperate regions. Species of Epichloë perennate as endophytic mycelium in leaf sheaths and culm tissues of their hosts. They are often also seed-transmitted, first by growth of the mycelium from the maternal plant into developing ovules, followed by penetration of the embryo within the seed. The teleomorphic Epichloë morph is characterized by production of a stromatal mycelium on the culm, which embeds the living inflorescence primordium and a leaf sheath in a stroma (Fig. 2D). Spermatia, followed by perithecia, are produced on the surface of the stroma. Several species of Epichloë have been well characterized (see Table 1).

Examination of herbarium material suggests that additional morphologically distinct species of *Epichloë* are yet to be described. One such species has been collected exclusively in the states of Morelos and Hidalgo in Mexico on an unknown grass. This species is distinguished from all known species of *Epichloë* by its perithecia, which are deeply embedded within the stroma, while those of other species are not or only partially embedded within the stroma tissues. The Mexican *Epichloë* species appears to be adapted for growth in an arid environment; perhaps deeply embedded perithecia aid in conservation of water during development. In previous studies (White & Camp, 1995), we demonstrated that high water losses occur from the surface of stromata of *E. ama-*

rillans. In an arid environment, considerable selective pressure may stimulate adaptive changes in stromata to conserve water. It is interesting that even the behavior of the symbiotic fly Botanophila sp. (= Phorbia) appears adapted to the arid conditions of growth of the Mexican Epichloë species. Adult females of Botanophila species vector spermatia between mating types of Epichloë, depositing them along with eggs on the stroma. In most species of Epichloë, the Botanophila eggs hatch and the larvae emerge to crawl around on the surface of the stroma to consume developing perithecia (Bultman et al., 1995). However, in the Mexican Epichloë species, eggs hatch and larvae immediately burrow into the stroma to feed exclusively on the internal mycelium of the stroma. The larvae are thus protected from the dry arid air by the developing ascomatal stroma that covers them. Because sequence data has played a key role in defining the species of Epichloë documented to date, it is logical to employ sequence data to test the hypothesis that the Mexican Epichloë species is distinct from all previously established species.

Three life cycle patterns of Epichloë/Neotyphodium endophytes have been described (White, 1988; Table 1). Type I endophytes are those species of Epichloë that are not seed-transmitted; a high percentage of the host culms bear stromata. Type II endophytes have stroma development on some culms and seed transmission on other culms. The percentage of culms that bear stromata may be a function of environmental conditions such as soil fertility (Funk & White, 1997). Seasonal variation is also evident. In some years, grass crops of fine fescues containing E. festucae produce many stromata, while in other years fewer stromata are formed (White, unpublished). As yet unknown environmental conditions may alter the balance between endophyte and plant and affect the degree of stroma development. Type III endophytes very rarely or never form stromata. These endophytes appear to rely on seed transmission as the primary means of dispersal. These Epichloë species are typically classified by their anamorphs in the genus Neotyphodium and are frequently referred to as Neotyphodium endophytes.

Biogeographic patterns in the distribution of endophyte types are evident. For example, all three types of life cycles are found on native grasses in the Northern Hemisphere wherever cool-season grasses are grown. However, in South America only Type III endophytes have been identified on native grasses. Perhaps, *Epichloë* originated in the Northern Hemisphere as a parasite of cool-season grasses. Founder populations that colonized South America may have been exclusively of the Type III variant. The tropical

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Table 1. Epichloë/Neotyphodium species, hosts, and life cycle type.

Selected Species	Selected Hosts	Assoc. Type	Reference
E. amarillans	Agrostis hiemalis	Type II	White, 1994
E. baconii	Agrostis stolonifera	Type I	White, 1993
E. brachyelytri	Brachyletrum erectum	Type II	Schardl & Leuchtmann, 1999
E. bromicola	Bromus ramosus	Type II	Leuchtmann & Schardl, 1998
E. clarkii	Holcus lanatus	Type I	White, 1983
E. elymi	Elymus canadensis	Type II	Schardl & Leuchtmann, 1999
E. festucae	Festuca rubra	Type II	Leuchtmann et al., 1994
E. glyceriae	Glyceria striatica	Type I	Schardl & Leuchtmann, 1999
* -	Brachypodium Ty sylvaticum	ype II	Leuchtmann & Schardl, 1998
E. typhina	Dactylis glomerata Lolium perenne Poa pratensis	Type I	White, 1983
N. coenophialun		Type III	Morgan-Jones & Gams, 1982
N. lolii	Lolium perenne	Type III	Latch et al., 1984
N. starrii	Festuca arizonica	Type III	White et al., 1987
N. uncinatum	Festuca pratensis	Type III	Gams et al., 1990
N. tembladerae	Poa huecu Festuca argentina	Type III	Cabral et al., 1999

zone along the equator may serve as a barrier to the movement of endophytes between Northern and Southern Hemispheres because of the absence of the cool-season grass hosts (Cabral *et al.*, 1999).

Sexually-reproducing species of Epichloë (Types I and II endophytes) have given rise to the asexual Neotyphodium endophytes (Type-III endophytes) (White, 1988). Asexual Neotyphodium species perennate in the leaves, rhizomes, and culms of infected grasses and grow into seeds when they are produced, infecting the embryos within. It has long been assumed that Neotyphodium endophytes lack the capacity for external spread or genetic interaction and that they remain endophytic at all times. We have observed that many grasses infected by endophytes commonly have an epiphyllous network of mycelium on which conidia are produced (White et al., 1996; unpublished). This suggests that Neotyphodium endophytes may possess an external, potentially contagious stage.

Many Type-III endophytes show polymorphisms in several genes, while Types I and II endophytes tend not to show such polymorphisms (Tsai et al., 1994; Schardl et al., 1997; Leuchtmann & Schardl, 1998; Cabral et al., 1999). This has been interpreted by Tsai et al. (1994) as evidence of past hybridization events, involving Types I and II endophytes, that gave rise to Type-III endophytes. Thus, gene polymorphisms are suggested to be remnants of species origin events. It seems equally plausible to hypothes-

ize that gene polymorphisms may be the result of a parasexual process that is a function of the epiphyllous stages of endophytes. Anastomosis of the mycelium of endophytes on leaf surfaces is a frequently observed phenomenon (White et al., 1996). Chung & Schardl (1997) demonstrated that Epichloë/Neotyphodium endophytes show interspecies vegetative compatibility. It may be that anastomoses on leaf surfaces are part of a parasexual process that endophytes employ to compensate for the loss of stromata and sexual reproduction. This may be an important means by which asexual endophytes evolve and change genetically.

Epichloë bertonii Speg. was described by Spegazzini (1922) to accommodate a fungus that formed its stroma on living twigs of Mikania scandens (Asteraceae) in Paraguay. We have studied collections of what appears to be E. bertonii on species of Asteraceae from Costa Rica, Indonesia, and Thailand. This species is readily excluded from Epichloë for morphological and ecological reasons. Stromata of E. bertonii often form bright orange to red collars of stromatic tissues that surround the stem of its host and superficially resemble stromata of Epichloë (Fig. 2F). However, E. bertonii appears to be exclusively epibiotic on nonmeristematic tissues of dicots, whereas E. typhina and other graminicolous species of Epichloë are endophytic, forming the stroma on the developing inflorescence primordium and a leaf sheath that surrounds the primordium (Fig. 2E).

Differences in the anamorphs provide another indication that E. bertonii should not be classified in the genus Epichloë. An examination of the anamorph of E. bertonii shows that conidia progressively develop several septa as they mature, while in E. typhina and other graminicolous species conidia are aseptate. Preliminary phylogenetic analysis of 18S rDNA sequences demonstrates that E. bertonii does not group with Epichloë (Fig. 1). Instead, it is more deeply rooted in the Clavicipitaceae. The correct generic placement of E. bertonii remains to be evaluated. Genera to which E. bertonii may show affinity include Podocrella Seaver, Dussiella Pat., Fleischeria Penzig & Sacc., Konradia Racib., Oomyces Berk. & Broome, Mycomalus A. Möller, Ascopolyporus A. Möller, and Globulina Velen.

#### BALANSIA

Balansia includes both endophytic and epibiotic species. The majority of the endophytes are classified in the subgenus Dothichloë, and the epibionts in subgenus Eubalansia. Subgenus Dothichloë is characterized by the possession of flattened ascomatal stromata that develop on leaves or culms of grasses (Fig. 2C), while subgenus Eubalansia was defined to include species with pulvinate or stipitate ascomatal stromata (Fig. 2B). Future research will need to address whether the subgenera in Balansia represent natural (i.e., phylogenetic) groupings.

Several genera have been allied with the genus Balansia, including Atkinsonella Diehl, Balansiopsis Hohn., and Myriogenospora Atk. Diehl (1950) defined genera largely on the basis of their anamorphs. Species were classified in Balansia if they possessed only an Ephelis anamorph, and in Atkinsonella if they possessed an Ephelis anamorph and an acremoniumlike synanamorph. Balansiopsis included species that did not appear to produce any anamorph. Myriogenospora was distinguished from these genera on the basis of differences in perithecial, ascus, and ascospore morphology (White & Glenn, 1994). A recent phylogenetic analysis (Kuldau et al., 1997) indicated that species of genera bearing the Ephelis anamorph form a monophyletic clade (Fig. 1). Additional work is needed on more complete data sets to determine whether lumping these genera into a single genus is warranted.

#### Conclusions

The graminicolous Clavicipitaceae comprise several genera that are relatively well-defined. Systematic problems that need to be addressed include rectification of the apparent conflict between perithecial ontogeny and DNA sequence-based phylogenetic data. This problem may extend beyond the *Clavicipitaceae*, because centrum ontogeny is weighted heavily in classification of ascomycetes. Among the problem genera in the *Clavicipitaceae* are *Myriogenospora* and *Ustilaginoidea*.

Sequence-based phylogenetic analysis has the potential to provide better-defined taxa at all levels of classification. However, its optimal application demands that systematists have a broad knowledge of the organisms, their genetics, morphology and biology. Systematics that relies solely on molecular approaches is incomplete and runs the risk of producing erroneous results. With the advent of molecular phylogeny, mycologists now have the means to fuse anamorph taxa into teleomorph groupings. The application of anamorph names such as Neotyphodium for anamorphs of Epichloë is a practice that is rapidly becoming obsolete. The classification of these species in the genus Epichloë, even though some may lack a teleomorph (perithecia), is logical and inevitable.

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