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A histological investigation of Arceuthobium pusillum infections in Picea rubens and Picea glauca

An Honors Paper for the Department of Biology By Sade McClean

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Abstract

Arceuthobium pusillum is a hemiparasite that infects select Picea species. The hosts of A. pusillum do not experience the same symptoms of infection. A. pusillum infections are more fatal to P. marinara, and P. glauca. P. rubens, on the other hand, can survive longer with sustained infection. This presents itself as a contemporary issue because P. glauca, one of the parasite's most vulnerable hosts, was untethered from ecological competition when old growth forests were subjected to large scale anthropogenic disturbances. These disturbances allowed P. glauca to proliferate, with A. pusillum following. A deeper understanding of the host-species specific responses to A. pusillum infection can broaden general knowledge of parasitic growth and development while also potentially inspiring conservation techniques. This study took advantage of the intrinsic differences between host and parasite to visualize infections in *P. rubens* and *P.* glauca, highlighting differences in infection outcome. By illuminating lignin and callose within cross sections of infected P. rubens and P. glauca branches, it was revealed that P. rubens forms dense bands of cells around the cortical strands of infection. These bands form more frequently in P. rubens than in P. glauca and are of a significantly larger area in P. rubens than in P. glauca (t(8), p=0.003, p=0.005). The discovery of the exterior bands is novel and exciting, as the bands are possibly made of callose and potentially facilitate *P. rubens* survival against *A. pusillum* infection. The foundational discoveries and results of this study should inspire, and warrant, further analysis.

Introduction

Dwarf mistletoes, members of the *Arceuthobium* genus, are widespread, hemiparasitic angiosperms. They are found across the world, following the distributions of their hosts in the *Pinaceae* and *Cupressaceae* families (Hawksworth and Wiens, 1996; Kuijt, 1955). Although a large group, dwarf mistletoes are distinguishable by certain characteristics. These include their ability to form complex endophytic systems and aerial shoots within and along host branch tissue (Figures 1 & 2). Infections originate from a single hydrostatically propelled seed that land on a young host branch (Figure 3) (Gray et al., 2022; Hawksworth and Wiens, 1996; Kuijt, 1955). Dwarf mistletoe infections disfigure the host tree. This disfigurement is known as a 'witch's broom', a conglomeration of dense and irregular, self-shading branches (Figure 4). Witches' brooms are a symptom of the parasite's ability to sequester host resources (Hawksworth and

Wiens, 1996; Kuijt, 1955; Tinnin et al., 1982). Although dwarf mistletoe infections are not systemic (i.e. they are confined to a host branch), branches that are infected and form witches' brooms impact the entire tree by consuming a disproportionate share of the tree's resources such as water, fixed carbon and nitrogen (Muir and Hennon, 2007; Reblin et al., 2006). Typically, after years of sustained and serious infection, the witches' brooms are all that remain before a tree succumbs fully (Hawksworth and Wiens, 1996; Muir and Hennon, 2007). While dwarf mistletoes often induce mortality in their hosts, the severity of infections, and their symptoms, vary greatly by host species and regional conditions (Eaton, 1931; Gray et al., 2022; Hawksworth and Wiens,

1996; Muche et al., 2022; von Schrenk, 1900).

Eastern dwarf mistletoe, *Arceuthobium pusillum*, is a prolific species of dwarf mistletoe in North America. Eastern dwarf mistletoe is native to the northeastern United States and eastern Canada (Figure 5) (Baker et al., 2006; Hawksworth and Wiens, 1996; Kuijt, 1955). This species of dwarf mistletoe is a principal parasite of the spruce species *Picea mariana, P. glauca* and *P. rubens,* and its abundance largely follows the range and distribution patterns of these



Figure 1. Two examples of dwarf mistletoe aerial shoots of the species *Arceuthobium pusillum* on *Picea glauca* branches. Left image from Baker et al., 2016. Right image, Monhegan Island, Maine, 2023.

hosts (Figure 5) (Baker et al., 2006; Gray et al., 2022; Hawksworth and Wiens, 1996; Kuijt, 1955; Logan et al., 2013). Like other dwarf mistletoes, eastern dwarf mistletoe infection begins when a single hydrostatically projected seed successfully lands on the branch of an acceptable host (Figure 3) (Eaton, 1931; Gray et al., 2022; Hawksworth and Wiens, 1996; Thoday and Johnson, 1930). After the seed germinates it penetrates the host's cortex by creating a radicle (Dodds, 2022; F. G. Hawksworth and A. L. Shigo, 1980; Thoday and Johnson, 1930). After

successful penetration of the host cortex, the parasite is able to develop a complex endophytic system (Figure 2) (Dodds, 2022; Thoday and Johnson, 1930). The endophytic system of *A*.

pusillum is made of a cortical strand growing along the cortex and phloem of the host tree, accompanied by sinkers that extend into the woody interior (xylem) of the host (Figure 2) (Thoday and Johnson, 1930). It is with this intricate, and root like, structure that eastern dwarf mistletoe can sequester resources from the host. With the endophytic system established, the mistletoe is set to grow and proliferate. Roughly four years after initial germination, the parasite is mature enough to grow aerial shoots, and is one step closer to

repeating the cycle of infection (Dodds, 2022; Thoday and Johnson, 1930). Eastern dwarf mistletoe infects different host species with consistent, physiological mechanisms, though, like other dwarf mistletoes, the mortality rate of infection differs across host species (Baker et al., 2006; Muche et al., 2022; (Muche et al., 2022; Reblin et al., 2006).

Variability in infection intensity is thought to be largely due to host species responding differently to the parasite (Baker et al., 2006; F. G. Hawksworth and A. L. Shigo, 1980; Gray et al., 2022; Hawksworth and Wiens, 1996; Kuijt, 1955; Logan et al., 2013; Reblin et al., 2006; Stanton, 2006). For instance, eastern dwarf mistletoe infections are more fatal to black spruce trees,





Figure 3. A single dwarf mistletoe seed (*A. pusillum*) moments before hydrostatically projected dispersal. Pictured in the red circle. Monhegan Island, Maine, October 2023.

P. marinara, and white spruce trees, *P. glauca* (Baker et al., 2006; Gray et al., 2022; Logan et al., 2013). Infections have proven less fatal to red spruce trees, *P. rubens* (Baker et al., 2006; Hawksworth and Wiens, 1996; Logan et al., 2013; von Schrenk, 1900). Red spruce trees can

survive longer with sustained infection than black spruce and white spruce trees (F. G. Hawksworth and A. L. Shigo, 1980). Red spruce trees are also known to shed infected branches, enabling them to survive past their initial infection (Baker et al., 2006; Hawksworth and Wiens, 1996). The physiological mechanisms that allow red spruce trees to withstand eastern dwarf mistletoe infection are unknown, though it is hypothesized that the parasite's impact on host water relations is mitigated in red spruce trees (F. G. Hawksworth and A. L. Shigo, 1980; Logan et al., 2013). For instance, it is possible that red spruce trees, being a more shade tolerant species than white spruce trees, have a lower baseline expenditure of carbon (Barton M. Blum, 1990; Reblin et al., 2006). This difference in uninfected, or baseline, resource



Figure 4. Example of a witch's broom caused by dwarf mistletoe (*A. pusillum*) on a Picea glauca tree. Picture, red circle. Monhegan Island, Maine, October 2023.

usage may mean that red spruce trees have a greater capacity to tolerate the parasite actively sequestering its resources than white spruce trees do, allowing them to withstand the infection (Logan et al., 2013).

Eastern dwarf mistletoe infections in red spruce and white spruce trees are not a modern phenomenon, there is a long historical record of eastern dwarf mistletoe's influence across the northeast and specifically, within coastal Maine, though it has only recently become an issue for forests' integrity (Eaton, 1931; Jack, 1900; Norton, 1907; von Schrenk, 1900). Eastern dwarf mistletoe was first documented on black spruce trees (*P. marinara*) around 1870 in New York State. After its initial discovery and description, there was a period of disinterest in the mistletoe as it was not a prolific parasite at the time (Jack, 1900; von Schrenk, 1900). That was, until infections were found in unprecedented places and abundances around New England in the 20th century. Eastern dwarf mistletoe transitioned from a native, seemingly unnoticeable parasitic plant in the nineteenth century, to being wildly destructive by the mid twentieth century. This was largely because white spruce, one of eastern dwarf mistletoes most vulnerable hosts, was untethered from ecological competition when old growth forests were subjected to large scale agricultural disturbances (Eaton, 1931; Norton, 1907; von Schrenk, 1900). This allowed white spruce to proliferate, expanding eastern dwarf mistletoes host range and thereby enabling the parasites own proliferation. Because eastern dwarf mistletoe, was, historically, not a particularly destructive plant, specific interactions between this parasite and its primary hosts were not well studied, but there is a growing need for research as eastern



Arceuthobium pusillum. From Hawksworth and Wiens 1996.

dwarf mistletoe continues to ravage forests at a historically unprecedented level (de Lafontaine et al., 2010; Hawksworth and Wiens, 1996; Kuijt, 1955; Logan et al., 2013; Nowacki et al., 2010; Reblin et al., 2006).

Homogenous forest stands of white spruce are more vulnerable to devastation than more diverse stands, as in the monoculture effect (Felton et al., 2016). Homogenous white spruce stands, while rare across the rest of the United States, are common on Maine's headlands and islands specifically because of the unique climate and its history of centuries of agricultural use and timber harvesting that abruptly ended in the early the twentieth century (Cogbill, 2013). White spruce, being shade intolerant, was historically unable to establish itself in great abundance due to the existence of heavily shaded old growth forests prior to colonial settlement (Hans Nienstaedt and John C. Zasada, 1990; Reblin et al., 2006; Tolonen, 1983). After pre-colonial forests were cleared for agricultural purposes and subsequently deserted, the same land that was once heavily shaded by old trees was suddenly saturated with sunlight. This enabled the establishment of homogenous white spruce trees in coastal Maine (de Lafontaine et al., 2010;

Hans Nienstaedt and John C. Zasada, 1990). The shift in forest composition, from heterogenous old growth forests to early successional and largely homogenous stands of white spruce, has left forests in coastal Maine and the rest of New England vulnerable to disturbances, particularly those that are species specific (Felton et al., 2016). This is especially true of the parasitic eastern dwarf mistletoe which, today, can ravage forests in an unprecedented manner given the higher abundance of its most sensitive principal host (Davis, 1966; Felton et al., 2016).

Given the evolution of eastern dwarf mistletoe's ecological impact and its current status as a destructive parasite, a more extensive exploration of the anatomy of infected host trees is called for (Mudgal et al., 2022). It would be particularly impactful to analyze red spruce trees and their response to eastern dwarf mistletoe, as it compares to the response of white spruce trees. This would strengthen the general understanding of host-parasite relationships as it relates to host-species differences. It could also inform conservation efforts of white spruce stands and, potentially, preventative conservation of other vulnerable species (Mudgal et al., 2022).

As an angiosperm, eastern dwarf mistletoe has fundamentally different anatomy than red spruce and white spruce trees, as they are gymnosperms. For instance, the relative amount of lignin, a structural polymer found in plants, differ greatly between angiosperms and gymnosperms. Gymnosperms have a higher relative lignin content than angiosperms (Spaulding, 1906; Spaulding, 1906; Zhang et al., 2022). As such, it is possible to utilize histochemical staining to highlight differences in features such as lignin, to differentiate host and parasite (Brown, 1961; Currier, 1957; Evert and Derr, 1964; Kutscha and Gray, 1972; Li et al., 2023; Nikolov et al., 2014; Spaulding, 1906). Additionally, under the conditions of infection, the host trees are gymnosperms under biotic stress. When plants experience stress, including of a parasitic nature, they are known to respond with callose depositions (Chen and Kim, 2009; Currier, 1957; Li et al., 2023; Poovaiah, 1974; Wang et al., 2021). Callose depositions can function to 'seal off' and contain pathogens or parasites from infiltrating other areas of the host. By utilizing histological staining to analyze callose content, it is possible to assess the differences between the infection responses of red spruce and white spruce trees. With histochemical staining, qualities of eastern dwarf mistletoe infection and response of the host tree can be measured and quantified with imaging (Brown, 1961; Cochrane and Ford, 1978; Currier, 1957; Kutscha and Gray, 1972; Muche et al., 2022; Nikolov et al., 2014; Srebotnik and Messner, 1994). Staining for lignin enables the visualization of uninfected host tissue, while staining for callose content

enables the visualization of the hosts' response to the infection. Analysis of the differences between stained, infected branch cross sections, can provide valuable information about the physical defenses host species implement in the face of *A. pusillum* infection and what leads white spruce trees to succumb to infection while red spruce trees manage to withstand it.

Methods

Site Selection

Monhegan Island, Maine, was used as the initial site for the collection of *A. pusillum* infected red spruce and white spruce branch samples because of its uniquely well documented history of land use and land management (Figure 6). Its rich historical record allows this analysis of parasite-host relationships to also reflect post agricultural reforestation's impact on parasites' proliferation (Foster et al., 2002). One of the earliest firsthand reports of vegetation on Monhegan Island dates to the year 1605 and the landing of George Waymouth (Tolonen, 1983). During his travels, Waymouth wrote that Monhegan was "woody, grouen with Firre, Birch, Oke and Beech, as farre as we saw along the shore; and so likely to be within" (Rosier, James and Burrage, Henry, S., 1887, 95). Waymouth's account of Monhegan Island's vegetation is incongruent with what is found today. All that is left of the virgin, old growth tree stands, like that which were viewed by Waymouth on Monhegan in 1605, are known as the "Cathedral Woods" (Figure 6).

The contrast of Waymouth's record to modern reports reflects this broad change in the composition of coastal Maine's forests from rich and biologically diverse habitats to more homogenous stands of opportunistic species (Cogbill, 2013; Davis, 1966; Lorimer, 1977). The impacts of anthropogenic disturbances are exaggerated on Monhegan Island with the juxtaposition of the younger, white spruce forests, with the untouched "Cathedral Woods" that is still largely populated by shade tolerant and later successional species such as red spruce (Figure 6) (Barton M. Blum, 1990; Reblin et al., 2006). The proximity of old growth forests that contain red spruce trees to newer, early successional forests that are mainly white spruce stands, on Monhegan Island, lends it to be an exceptional site to compare how eastern dwarf mistletoe infections manifest in red spruce and white spruce trees.



Figure 6. Collection site maps. Left (A) shows the site of sample collection, Monhegan Island, Maine (red circle), relative to the coast of Maine from Brunswick to Columbia Falls. From etravelMaine.com. Right (B) is a map of Monhegan Island and its Cathedral Woods, outlined with the red circle. From the Cartographic and Architectural National Archives, 1937.

Sample Collection

Ten branch clippings of ~12 inches were removed from different red spruce and white spruce trees (20 total). Five infected and five uninfected branches were collected from each species of spruce. These samples were collected from Monhegan Island, Maine in October 2023 (Figure 6). Additional branch samples from uninfected red spruce trees were collected from the 'Bowdoin Pines' in Brunswick, Maine in February 2024. Branch trimmings were removed using gardening shears and refrigerated at 4° C until they were sectioned.

Sectioning

To standardize cross sections by age, whorls of each branch sample were counted, starting from the terminal bud, to estimate segments of branch growth from three years ago (Cochrane and Ford, 1978). The segments of branches were trimmed down into 3cm long pieces and measured for diameter. Pieces did not require embedding prior to sectioning. The woody tissue of the branches and the short time between initial sampling and sectioning led to cross sections maintaining structural integrity and quality (Lux et al., 2005). A Microm HM35S rotary microtome was used to cut each 3cm piece into 120 µm thick cross sections. While sectioning

was continuous, every 10th section was kept for further analysis, for a total of 25 sections per branch type (250 total sections).

Dual Staining

All the branch cross sections were double stained with Safranin O and Aniline Blue. Under light microscopy, Safranin O stains and defines lignified cells with red while Aniline Blue stains and defines un-lignified cells and other molecules, such as callose, with blue (Cochrane and Ford, 1978; Kutscha and Gray, 1972; Mulyaningsih et al., 2022; Nikolov et al., 2014; Thomas et al., 1894). Trial runs of staining techniques narrowed down methods to the following. During the initial staining of Safranin O, sections were submerged in a 0.2% Safranin O solution and rinsed with ethanol, according to the technique in Mulyaningsih et al., 2022. For the secondary staining, sections were submerged in a 0.05% solution of Aniline Blue for a longer period of up to 20 hours and then rinsed repeatedly with ethanol, according to the methods in Conti et al., 1983.

Light Microscopy and Data Collection

Of the 25 stained sections from each branch treatment ten complete sections were selected and mounted for analysis under a standard compound microscope (Olympus CHBS). Sections were mounted in water and images of each slide were taken using a phone mount. A series of photos were taken to capture the entirety of each mounted section. Photos were later analyzed using ImageJ to quantify the area of the infections' interiors and the infections' exterior bands within each section (Figures 7 & 8). For statistical analysis, each sample branch reflected the average values of its ten selected cross sections. T-tests were used to statistically compare the mean values for red spruce and white spruce branches.



Figure 7. Illustrative and descriptive diagram of branch cross section from a *Picea rubens* tree that is infected with *Arceuthobium pusillum* (not a specific sample). Non bolded labels identify major, known, components of *P. ruben's* structural composition. Bolded labels identify components of *A. pusillum* infection defined in this study. Infection's banded exterior is defined as the lighter and distinct strip of cells encompasing the darkened cells of the infection interior. Colors of the section diagram resemble the results of *Picea* branch cross section dual staining with Safrinin O stains and Aniline Blue.



Figure 8. Imaging of *Picea* branches infected with *Arceuthobium pusillum* after dual staining with Safranin O and Aniline Blue. Left, image of *Picea rubens* branch 4, section number 1. Two clear examples of infection occurrences are pictured in this sample. The infection occurrences exterior bands are stained yellow/green while the infections interior is the darkened center of the band. Phloem is stained blue/purple while xylem is stained red. Right, image of *Picea glauca* branch 5, section number 6. One clear example of an *Arceuthobium pusillum* infection occurrence lacking a banded exterior. The infection is the darkened amalgamation of cells. Phloem is stained blue/purple while xylem is stained red.

Results

Staining

The staining of cross sections was successful (Figure 8). It was concluded through cross analysis with known structural and compositional features of woody tissue, that the colors retained in this study's samples, were congruent with the appropriate stains' use (Figure 7 & 8).

Uninfected Samples

Stained cross sections from uninfected red spruce and white spruce trees were imaged and analyzed. Data from the uninfected branches were used as a control to confirm the anomalies in the cross sections that were caused by the eastern dwarf mistletoe (Figures 7 & 8). Data from uninfected branches are not reflected in the results, which focus upon host specific differences in infection.

Occurrence Counts

Mean number of cortical strands in branches of infected red spruce and white spruce trees were calculated (Figures 2 & 9). One infection occurrence was defined one cortical strand with or without a banded exterior (Figures 7 & 8). The difference in mean number of infection occurrences or cortical strands for red spruce and white spruce was not statistically significant, but red spruce branches did, on average, had slightly more infections (3.8 vs 3.6) (Figure 9, Table 1). The mean number of banded and un-banded cortical strands were also calculated for each tree species (Figure 10). *P. glauca* branches, on average, had fewer infection occurrences that were banded, 0.29 vs 3.03, respectively. *P. rubens* branches on the other hand, had a greater number of infection occurrences with bands than without, 2.88 vs 0.82, respectively. Red spruce trees had more banded infections than white spruce trees, though this trend just exceeded the threshold for statistical significance (t(8), p=0.053) (Figure 10, Table 1). White spruce branches had a significantly larger number of non-banded infection occurrences than red spruce branches (t(8), p=0.005) (Figure 10, Table 1).



Figure 9. Mean number of *A. pusillum* infection occurrences in two tree species, *Picea glauca* and *Picea rubens*. No significant difference between the two means (t(8) p = 0.908). Gray and red bars represent the mean count of infection occurrences from *P. glauca* and *P. rubens* respectively. Black lines represent mean \pm se. Mean \pm se of the number of infection occurrences for *P. glauca* and *P. rubens* were 3.6 ± 0.5 and 3.8 ± 1.6 respectively. A single infection occurrence was counted for each cluster of deeply stained and concentrated cells in the phloem, presence of band was not considered. Mean count for both tree species were calculated from the mean count of infection occurrences were calculated from the first mean count of infection occurrences were calculated from infection occurrence counts of 10 different cross sections (n=10).

	mean				
	Picea rubens	Picea glauca	df	t	р
Number of Infections	3.800	3.6000	8	0.12	0.908
Infection Area/Branch Area	0.008	0.0020	8	2.52	0.036
Area of Infections' Interior/Branch Area	0.005	0.0018	8	1.83	0.105
Band Area/Infections' Interior Area	0.710	0.1300	8	4.25	0.003
Number of Banded Infections	2.880	0.2930	8	2.27	0.053
Number of Non-Banded Infections	0.820	3.0300	8	-3.78	0.005

Table 1. T-Test values from six different statistical tests comparing mean values from *Picea rubens* and *Picea glauca* branches infected with *Arceuthobium pusillum*. Red p values indicate statistically significant values, black are insignificant. Mean values were calculated from five independent branches' means. Branch means were calculated from 10 cross sections' data points. Each statistical test is reflected in graphical figures 9-13.



Infection Area Relative to Branch Size

The average area of infected cross section, relative to shoot cross-sectional area for both *Picea glauca* and *Picea rubens* cross sections were calculated as a percentage (Figure 11). Infection area measured was inclusive of the banded exterior if present (Figure 6). *Arceuthobium pusillum* infection, on average, consumed a larger portion of white spruce cross sections than red spruce cross sections (t(8) 0.036) (Figure 11) (Table 1).



Area of Infection Interior relative to Cross Section Area

The average area of each infection's interior, relative to its cross-section area for both *Picea glauca* and *Picea rubens* were calculated as a percentage (Figure 12). Infection area did not include the banded exterior if present. There was no significant difference in the mean area of

the infections' interiors relative to the cross sections' areas between *Picea rubens* and *Picea glauca* (Figure 12) (Table 1).



Area of Banded Exterior Relative to Infection's Interior

The mean area of the infections' banded exterior relative to the infections' banded interior were calculated as percentages for branches of *P. glauca* and *P. rubens* infected with *A. pusillum* (Figure 13). On average, the banded exterior portions of infections, were of a greater area in red spruce cross sections than in white spruce cross sections (t(8), p=0.003) (Figure 13) (Table 1).



Discussion

This study identified host-species specific differences in the appearance of Arceuthobium pusillum infection by utilizing histological staining. Our study identified infection occurrences within branch cross sections using methods described in Lye (2006). This included the identification of parasite cell clusters by density and location within the cross sections. It was observed that P. rubens forms large groupings of cells around the localized site of the infections' cortical strands. Data from our study shows that *P. rubens* forms these bands more frequently than P. glauca branches do. Additionally, the bands are significantly thicker relative to the contained infection's center in P. rubens branches than in P. glauca. The bands themselves were consistently a yellow/green color, indicating that they are possibly formed of callose. This unique color could be caused by Safranin O staining callose a yellow hue and Aniline blue staining the callose and un-lignified cells, blue as well. Resulting in a dark yellow/green color (Mulyaningsih et al., 2022; Poovaiah, 1974). If the bands indicate callose depositions around the infection, that would have implications in terms of the wounding responses each host tree species implements. The possible callose rings could serve to slow the rate of parasitic growth as literature suggests (Li et al., 2023; Poovaiah, 1974; Wang et al., 2021). If this is the case, and the host tree is encompassing the invading parasite's cortical strand tissue with callose, that could help explain the discrepancy in mortality rates between rubens and P. glauca infected with A. pusillum. If the yellow bands around sites of infection are callose, P. rubens is potentially 'containing' the A. pusillum infection, slowing its growth and minimizing the influence it has on the host tree at much higher rates than *P. glauca*. If the bands are not callose deposits, it is still likely that they are the result of the host trees' wounding response and are benefiting the host tree. This is indicated by the bands' relative absence in P. glauca compared to P. rubens and given that P. glauca cannot survive infection while P. rubens can.

The histological stains used in this study, Safranin O and Aniline Blue, have been utilized to define lignin and callose in plant tissue for decades (Cochrane and Ford, 1978; Karuppaiyan et al., 2006; Kutscha and Gray, 1972; Mulyaningsih et al., 2022; Nikolov et al., 2014; Thomas et al., 1894). The different colors mapped onto components of *Picea* shoot's anatomical structure known to be high in lignin or callose (Figure 7, 8) (Karuppaiyan et al., 2006; Kutscha and Gray, 1972; Mulyaningsih et al., 2022). The phloem of plants, such as the *Picea* species sampled in the present study, are known to have greater amounts of callose than the xylem, while also

containing un-lignified cells (Calvin et al., 1984; Evert and Derr, 1964; Li et al., 2023; Montwé et al., 2019). The phloem is typically high in callose due to the controlling function of callose in the sieve tubes, not necessarily as a wounding response (Chen and Kim, 2009; Montwé et al., 2019). Both factors, high callose and low lignin, lead to the phloem staining a blue/purple color in samples under full light (Montwé et al., 2019). On the other hand, the xylem consists of specialized, lignified, cells, staining a bright red color under full light because of the application of Safranin O (Baldacci-Cresp et al., 2020; Brown, 1961; Mulyaningsih et al., 2022). By first identifying the phloem and xylem and their staining patterns, allowed the orientation of *A*. *pusillum* infection observations within the cross sections, enabling a more informed analysis of the host trees' responses.

Results from this study show that *P. rubens* experience the same signs of *A. pusillum* infection intensity as *P. glauca* in terms of the number of infection occurrences and the area of the infections' contained interior. The difference in outcome of infection, in terms of mortality, may be a result of the host trees response to the parasite. Data reveal that *P. rubens* trees that are infected with eastern dwarf mistletoe, respond by actively 'banding' sites of infection, significantly more frequently than *P. glauca* trees of the same condition. The exterior bands of *P. rubens* infections were significantly larger than the few exterior bands around *P. glauca* infection as a wounding response is clearly lacking in *P. glauca*, possibly having a large impact on its survivability of *A. pusillum* infection (Poovaiah, 1974)

It is well documented that there are different manifestations of *Arceuthobium pusillum* infections in *P. glauca* and *P. rubens* (F. G. Hawksworth and A. L. Shigo, 1980; Hawksworth and Wiens, 1996; Logan et al., 2013; Reblin et al., 2006). In the field, these differences are largely visualized as high mortality in *P. glauca*, and differing 'witches broom' characteristics (F. G. Hawksworth and A. L. Shigo, 1980; Tinnin et al., 1982). It is known that *Picea rubens* is able to withstand infection while *Picea glauca* eventually succumbs to the *A. pusillum* infection (Eaton, 1931; F. G. Hawksworth and A. L. Shigo, 1980; Kuijt, 1955). Despite this understanding, the specific physiological mechanisms by which the infections intensities differ to such a dramatic degree across species is unknown. In an effort to bridge this gap of knowledge, this study presents an introduction into the differences between the responses of *P. rubens* and *P. glauca* to *A. pusillum* infection at the shoot anatomical level.

This study provides a framework for future analysis. To further investigate and deepen an understanding of the host-species specific differences in Arceuthobium pusillum infections, there are several avenues of research worth pursuing. First, it would be beneficial to histologically stain and examine the banded exteriors of infections. Examining a smaller, and thinner, tissue sample may reveal cellular qualities of the exterior bands that were absent in this study's staining of the whole branch cross section. Second, it would be interesting to experiment with other histological stains. For instance, using other stains to differentiate gymnosperms and angiosperms, such as phloroglucinol which stains for lignin, would serve to corroborate this study's results (Pradhan Mitra and Loqué, 2014). Implementing stains with different uses than the ones in this study also has the potential to further this line of inquiry by possibly identifying more characteristics of the infections in red spruce trees as they compare to those in white spruce trees. Third, and finally, it would worthwhile to quantify other conventional qualities of conifers' wounding responses. For example, conifers, and most plants, often respond to wounding with certain terpenes, which can operate as warning signals, anti-inflammatory treatments, or herbivory repellents, to name a few functions (Łukowski et al., 2022). Analyzing the concentrations of terpenes or terpene rich molecules, such as oleoresin, in red spruce trees and white spruce trees infected with eastern dwarf mistletoe, may provide information about how red spruce trees can shed infected branches and withstand infection (Celedon and Bohlmann, 2019).

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