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### Arbuscular mycorrhizal soil infectivity in a stand of the wetland tree Pterocarpus officinalis along a salinity gradient

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#### Abstract

18 Pterocarpus officinalis (Jacq.) is the dominant wetland legume tree species of the seasonally flooded swamp forests in Guadeloupe, Lesser 19 Antilles. This tree is periodically exposed to saline and flooded soil conditions. We examined mycorrhizal soil infectivity (most probable number 20 (MPN) values) and arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) colonization of *P. officinalis* along the salinity gradient where the salt levels ranged from 26 to 2‰ and from 22 to 5‰ at the end of the dry and wet season, respectively. MPN values were higher in the dry season than in the wet season. They 21 22 decreased when the salt levels increased whatever the season. AM colonization of P. officinalis was well developed (up to 50%) only within the low 23 salinity levels (below 10%) whatever the season. No spores were found in soil cores, suggesting that propagules were only mycelium pieces and/or 24 root fragments of colonized Pterocarpus roots. These AM fungi may be adapted to salt stress and explain the maintenance of the high mycorrhizal inoculum potential in the P. officinalis swamp forest. 25

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Keywords: Arbuscular mycorrhizal colonization; Swamp forest; Salinity; Flooding; Guadeloupe

#### 1. Introduction

Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) in wetland habitats are 31 32 exposed periodically to anaerobic soils and high soil salinity (Bohrer et al., 2004; Carvalho et al., 2004). Since AMF require 33 34 oxygen to thrive, stressful environments regularly flooded with salt water may be detrimental for their survival and infectivity. 35 Nevertheless, some AMF are able to persist in flooded soils and 36 to colonize wetland plants (Khan, 1993; Miller and Bever, 37 1999; Turner et al., 2000; Landwehr et al., 2002). More than 38 50% of the plant's population were colonized by AMF in some 39 wetlands conditions (Ragupathy et al., 1990). One species, 40 41 Glomus geosporum, is usually dominant in European salt 42 marshes (Landwehr et al., 2002; Carvalho et al., 2004). These 43 studies suggest fungal adaptation to salt and flood conditions. In this respect, AMF possess propagules allowing long-term 44 survival in soils and immediate opportunistic root colonization 45 (Smith and Read, 1997). Spores, infected root fragments and 46 extraradical mycelia are the main sources of inoculum potential 47 in soils contributing to the infectivity of plants. The relative 48 contribution of each type of propagules to plant root 49 colonization is difficult to establish. Depending on fungal 50 species, spore production and germination were affected by 51 salinity and soil water levels (Miller and Bever, 1999; Carvalho 52 et al., 2004). Le Tacon et al. (1986) reported that anaerobic 53 conditions inhibited the germination of spores of Glomus 54 *mosseae*, but that this effect was reversible upon exposure of the 55 spores to air. The identity of the host plant was also known to be 56 an important factor affecting density of AM propagules and 57 sporulation (Smith and Read, 1997). However, extraradical 58 mycelia and root fragments seemed to be relatively more 59 important than spores for the initiation of plant colonization in 60 wetlands, salt mashes and aquatic systems (Brown and Bledsoe, 61 1996; Carvalho et al., 2004). 62

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In the present work, we studied the AM inoculum potential in swamp soils from a monospecific stand of the wetland legume tree *Pterocarpus officinalis*. This tree is useful for the study of AM soil infectivity because it grows along a gradient of salinity. This allowed us also to determine the effect of salinity on AM colonization, while keeping the host plant constant.

#### 2. Materials and methods

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2.1. Study site

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The Pterocarpus swamp forest covers 2600 ha of freshwater, 71 coastal wetlands in Guadeloupe (Imbert et al., 2000). It is found 72 mainly around the bay of the Grand cul-de-sac Marin, behind 73 mangrove areas. The study site is located on the eastern side of 74 the bay, in the Abymes coastal plain ( $61^{\circ}30'N$ ,  $16^{\circ}10'W$ ). At 75 this site, the swamp forest is separated from the mangrove 76 forest by a narrow strip (ca. 50 m-wide) of mainly herbaceous 77 vegetation, dominated by the fern Acrostichum danaefolium 78 and the liana Rhabdadenia biflora. Some stunted Pterocarpus 79 trees, mostly dead, occur inside this ecotope zone. From the 80 swamp forest edge inwards, tree height gradually rises from 81 82 about 5 to 20 m and over. As the canopy rises, stem density decreases, whereas basal area increases. P. officinalis is the only 83 tree species contributing to the forest canopy. Understorey 84 85 species, like Coccoloba venosa and Montrichardia arborescens, are few and far between. The forest is flooded most of the 86 year, depending on the duration of the rainy season. Water level 87 may vary from place to place, due to Pterocarpus buttresses that 88 create low mounds. The soil is clayey, soft and brownish in the 89 upper 30 cm, denser and grever below. 90

#### 2.2. Sampling and measurements

The investigations were conducted along a transect starting 92 from the seaward edge toward the inner part of the swamp 93 94 forest. Sampling was made on three mature trees of P. officinalis in six plots  $(3 \text{ m} \times 3 \text{ m})$  along a part of the transect 95 that spanned an existing salinity gradient. The length of this 96 part of the transect was approximately 170 m. Water-table level 97 was assessed around each sampled tree by measuring water 98 99 depth in comparison with ground surface. Pore-water salinity at 20 cm below ground level and salinity of above-ground 100 standing water were measured using an ATAGO ATC-S, 101 temperature-compensated hand refractometer (ATAGO Inc., 102

Bellevue, WA, USA). Salinity and water depth measurements were made at the end of the dry and wet season.

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For each plot, five soil cores (20 cm in depth; 7 cm in diameter) 105 were taken around each mature tree, pooled per soil salinity level 106 and stored at room temperature (20 °C). The method chosen for 107 mycorrhizal soil infectivity determination was the most probable 108 number (MPN) method (Porter, 1979). The method involves 109 cultivation of a test plant having a high mycorrhizal dependency 110 (Plenchette et al., 1983) on a range of successive dilutions of the 111 soil to be tested. Soil samples were air dried and sieved (2 mm) 112 prior to disinfect a sub sample of each by autoclaving (115 °C, 113 45 min). The remaining humidity was determined. Then, for each 114 sample, non-disinfected (ND) and disinfected (D) soils were 115 mixed together to obtain the following range of dilutions: 1, 1/4, 1/4116 1/16, 1/64, 1/256 and 1/1024 (ND/D; w/w). Five replicates were 117 made for each dilution. Soil (100 g) were placed in small pots then 118 planted with a 2-week-old seedling of millet (Pennisetum 119 americanum L.) for a 6-week growing period. Pots were placed in 120 a controlled environment (24 °C day/18 °C night; relative 121 humidity 80%; light intensity 112  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>). After 6 weeks 122 the entire root system of each plant was gently washed, cleared 123 and stained (Phillips and Hayman, 1970). Observation of 124 colonization was made under a dissecting microscope  $50\times$ . 125 One infection point was considered as sufficient to state that the 126 plant was colonized. Calculation of MPN values were made as 127 described by Sieverding (1991) according to Fisher and Yates 128 (1948) and expressed per 100 g of dried soil. 129

The fine roots were randomly collected for each mature tree 130 of P. officinalis (three replicates per tree), gently washed, 131 cleared and stained (Phillips and Hayman, 1970). Roots were 132 then cut into 1 cm pieces, mixed and placed on slides for 133 microscopic observations at 250× magnification (Brundrett 134 et al., 1985). One hundred root pieces were observed per plant. 135 The extent of AM colonization was expressed as a percentage 136 of the number of mycorrhizal root pieces/number of non-137 mycorrhizal root pieces. Data of mycorrhizal colonization were 138 subjected to one-way analysis of variance, and mean values 139 were compared using Newman-Keuls multiple range tests 140 (Gagnon et al., 1989). Data of mycorrhizal colonization were 141 transformed by arcsin (square root) before analysis. 142

#### 3. Results

The salinity gradient ranged from 26 to 2‰ and from 22 to 144 5‰ at the end of the dry and wet season, respectively (Tables 1 145

Table 1

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Soil salinity, mycorrhizal soil infectivity (MPN a	and confident limits) and mycorrhizal	colonization of <i>P. officinalis</i> at the end of	the dry season

Plots Salinity ‰ (0–20 cm		Water depth (cm)	MPN <sup>*</sup> (100 g)	Confident limits $p < 0.05$	Colonization <sup>**</sup> (%)	
1	26	4	75 a	35–160	14.5 a	
2	20	3	150 a	70-320	29.4 b	
3	15.5	21	560 b	262-1196	47.5 c	
4	10	-12	2400 bc	1123–5126	66.0 d	
5	3	-3	3402 c	1592-7266	76.9 e	
6	2	-7	3800 c	1779-8166	82.8 e	

\* Values followed by the same letters are not significantly different (confident limits, p < 0.05).

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> Values followed by the same letters are not significantly different (Newman–Keuls, p < 0.05).

Table 2

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Plots	Salinity (‰) (0–20 cm)	Water depth (cm)	MPN <sup>*</sup> (100 g)	Confident limits $p < 0.05$	Colonization** (%)
1	22	16	20 a	9–42	22.1 a
2	15	15	31 a	15-67	40.3 b
3	13.5	33	90 bc	42–191	48.8 b
4	8	0	1157 d	542-2472	65.1 c
5	3	9	688 d	322-1469	68.9 c
6	5	5	301 cd	141–644	75.1 c

Soil salinity, mycorrhizal soil infectivity (MPN and confident limits) and mycorrhizal colonization of P. officinalis at the end of the wet season

\* Values followed by the same letters are not significantly different (confident limits, p < 0.05).

\*\* Values followed by the same letters are not significantly different (Newman–Keuls, p < 0.05).

#### Table 3

Correlation coefficients (r) between mycorrhizal soil infectivity (MPN values), soil salinity (S%) and mycorrhizal colonization of roots (% AM colonization)

	Dry season			Wet season		
	MPN	S	AM (%)	MPN	S	AM (%)
MPN		$-0.96^{*}$	$0.95^{*}$		$-0.86^{*}$	0.75*
S			$-0.99^*$			$-0.97^*$

\* Significant (p < 0.05).

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and 2). There was not an evident flooding gradient in wet and dry seasons in the *P. officinalis* swamp forest (Tables 1 and 2).

Spores were not found in the soil samples collected during the 148 149 dry and wet seasons (Tables 1 and 2). Nevertheless, AMF were 150 present in the root samples of P. officinalis, whatever the salt level (Tables 1 and 2). The higher AM colonization (82-75%) was 151 recorded for the lowest salt level (2-5‰) (Tables 1 and 2). AM 152 colonization was greater to 50% until the salt levels of 8 and 10‰ 153 154 were reached in wet and dry seasons, respectively. MPN values 155 due to mycelium and root fragments also decreased as salt level increased (Tables 1 and 2). However, MPN values were higher in 156 157 the dry season than in the wet season.

Significant negative correlations were obtained between the
salt levels and the MPN values both in wet and dry seasons
(Table 3). MPN values and AMF colonization were positively
correlated in dry season (Table 3). Whatever the season,
colonization percentage was negatively correlated with salinity
level (Table 3, Fig. 1).

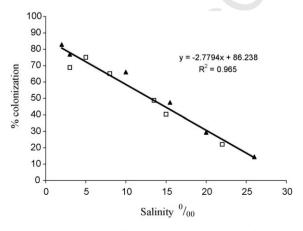


Fig. 1. Relationship between salinity level and development of AM colonization.  $(\Box)$  Dry season;  $(\blacktriangle)$  wet season.

#### 4. Discussion

Salinity has been shown to be an important factor 165 influencing AM colonization of P. officinalis and fungal 166 inoculum potential in swamp soils. AM colonization was 167 indicated by the presence of aseptate hyphal coils and vesicles 168 as Paris-type mycorrhizas (Bâ et al., 2004). Surprisingly, no 169 spores were found in sieved soil samples collected during the 170 dry and wet seasons. Since spores were absent, we conclude 171 that the infection units and colonization of roots were due to 172 mycelium and/or root fragments. We do not know the relative 173 proportion of infection units and AM colonization derived from 174 mycelium or root fragments. Furthermore, it is not clear 175 whether the absence of spores in swamp soils was due to the 176 toxic levels of minerals and/or to variations of depth water in 177 dry and wet seasons. Some studies indicate that water depth is 178 an important factor determining the distribution of spore 179 species along a dry to wet gradient (Miller and Bever, 1999). 180 The overall trend was for fewer spore species in wetter sites 181 than in drier sites. Other studies suggest that soils from salt 182 marshes contain spores of AMF in high numbers, whereas 183 reduction of spore germination at water levels above field 184 capacity may be related to the low tolerance of AMF to hypoxic 185 conditions (Landwehr et al., 2002; Carvalho et al., 2004). 186

We found evidence for potential adaptation of native AMF to 187 salt swamp soils and for the ability of AM propagules to spread 188 into the roots. Indeed, AMF colonization was greater to 50% 189 until the salt level of 8‰ was reached in dry and wet seasons 190 and decreased in both seasons as salt level increased. Since AM 191 colonization was already recorded on wetlands plants (Bohrer 192 et al., 2004), some results were unexpected at very high salinity 193 levels (Brown and Bledsoe, 1996). Our results suggest that 194 AMF were well adapted to stressful salt swamp soils. The 195 absence of spore in sieved swamp soils did not permit 196 conclusions as to the taxonomy of these AMF. PCR with taxon-197 specific primers have been used to identify AMF within 198 colonized roots (Landwehr et al., 2002). We plan to incorporate 199 such techniques in our future work. 200

AM colonization did not vary significantly from wet to dry 201 season, whereas the MPN values did. One possible explanation 202 is that fungi may endure prolonged exposure to salt and 203 flooding by spreading inside the *Pterocarpus* roots, whereas 204 extraradical mycelium and root fragments in soils may not. In 205 this respect, roots of *P. officinalis* would be well aerated due to 206 aerenchymatous tissue, adventive roots and buttress lenticels. 4

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Brown and Bledsoe (1996) observed AMF in the aerenchy-208 209 matous tissue of salt marsh plants, suggesting that AMF are adapted to life in oxygen-deficient soils. MPN values were 210 mainly higher than those recorded in other tropical soils, i.e., 211 10 propagules/100 g for a lowland wet forest in Costa Rica 212 213 (Fisher et al., 1994) or 1-100 propagules/100 g for soils used 214 for intensive banana cultivation in Martinique (Declerck et al., 1999). This suggests that P. officinalis may be considered as a 215 216 high mycorrhizal dependent tree which favor AM fungal development. The high mycorrhizal soil infectivity could be 217 218 also a real potential for the traditional culture of taro in the Pterocarpus swamp forests (Saur and Imbert, 2003). From an 219 ecological point of view, AM soil infectivity and seasonal 220 dynamics of AM colonization should be considered further to 221 better assess the role and the distribution of AMF in the 222 223 Pterocarpus swamp forests.

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