SHORT NOTE

Rutaceae sampled from Germany, Malta, and Mallorca (Spain) are associated with AMF clustering with Glomus hoi Berch & Trappe

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Abstract Six Rutaceae species collected from natural habitats (Malta, Mallorca (Spain), and Tenerife (Spain)) and the Botanical Garden in Marburg were examined with respect to mycorrhizal structures and fungal identity. All species have the same gross colonization pattern of arbuscular mycorrhiza (AM) with distinct intracellular and intercellular phases but show remarkable differences in details, especially in terms of the extent of the intracellular phase. The associated AM fungi, identified using molecular methods, cluster together with Glomus hoi Berch & Trappe, although the plants were collected from very distant locations.

Keywords Arbuscular mycorrhiza . Rutaceae . Fungal identity . Colonization pattern

Introduction

The Rutaceae (Sapindales/Rosids II) consist of about 1,815 species in 161 genera (Stevens [2001](#page-5-0) onwards) with Citrus L. being the best known and agriculturally most important. There are few works on mycorrhizal structures in Rutaceae (Janse [1896](#page-5-0); McLuckie and Burges [1932](#page-5-0); Rayner [1933](#page-5-0); Johnston [1949;](#page-5-0) Yamato and Iwasaki [2002;](#page-5-0) Hawley and Dames [2004;](#page-5-0) Muthukumar et al. [2006](#page-5-0)), the latter four of which are survey investigations listing the mycorrhizal status without structural details. On the basis of these

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investigations, Smith and Smith ([1997\)](#page-5-0) and Dickson et al. [\(2007](#page-4-0)) list the Rutaceae under those families in which both Arum- and Paris-type of arbuscular mycorrhiza (AM) may occur. The present study presents the detailed pattern of mycorrhizal colonization in seven Rutaceae species and first indications for a specificity with regard to the fungal partners in this family. The structures found are integrated into the continuum of AM symbioses postulated by Dickson [\(2004\)](#page-4-0).

There are many studies trying to improve the yield of Citrus plantations including tests of increased resistance against pathogens using fungal inoculants (e.g., Menge et al. [1978;](#page-5-0) Graham and Fardelmann [1986](#page-5-0)). A possible specificity of Rutaceae regarding their fungal endophyte, hence, may be of high economic relevance.

Materials and methods

Seven species of Rutaceae, Cneorum tricoccon L., Cneorum pulverulentum Vent., Ruta chalepensis L., Dictamnus albus L., Orixa japonica Thunb., Ptelea trifoliata L. and Phellodendron amurense Rupr. were collected and fixed as indicated in Table [1](#page-1-0).

Parts of the collected roots were stained with trypan blue and squashed after Phillips and Hayman [\(1970](#page-5-0)) in order to check their colonization status. For a detailed structural examination, 12–20 fine roots per specimen were dehydrated in an ascending ethanol series and then embedded in Unicryl™ (Brithish Biocell Int.). Series of 4-μm sections (transvers and longitudinal) stained with Toluidine Blue O (1 g of Toluidine Blue O plus 1 g of sodium tetraborate in 100 ml of Aqua_{dest}; after Krause [1927\)](#page-5-0) were prepared and mounted on slides in Corbit-Balsam. Full series of slides were investigated in order to reconstruct the three-dimen-

Table 1 Collection sites and fixation procedures

CTAB N-cetyl-N,N,N-trimethyl-ammonium-bromide

sional colonization pattern. Light microscopy was done using a Leica DMRB microscope equipped with a digital photo device (Leica DFC280).

For every specimen of C. tricoccon, R. chalepensis, O. japonica, and D. albus, one primary root piece of about 3 cm length was used to extract DNA following the CTAB-protocol of Doyle and Doyle [\(1990](#page-5-0)). Fungal 18S rDNA was amplified through polymerase chain reaction (PCR; Saiki et al. [1985\)](#page-5-0) using the fungus specific primers AM1 (Helgason et al. [1998](#page-5-0)) and NS31 (Simon et al. [1992\)](#page-5-0). The PCR was carried out with the following profile: initial denaturation for 3 min at 94°C; 30 cycles of 30 s at 94°C, 30 s at 60°C, 40 s at 72°C, and a final extension for 10 min at 72°C. After purifiying the PCR products with a NucleoSpin Extract II Kit (Macherey-Nagel), they were directly sequenced without prior cloning by the didesoxynucleotide chain termination method (Sanger et al.

Table 2 NCBI accession numbers and authors of the species of Fig. [2](#page-3-0)

[1977](#page-5-0)) using an ABI 377 (Applied Biosystems, Rodgau– Jügesheim, Germany).

The sequences were edited with the Sequencher™ (Gene Codes Corporation, Ann Arbor, MI, USA) program. Sequences were aligned by hand using BioEdit (Hall [1999\)](#page-5-0). A nucleotide–nucleotide Basic Local Alignment Search Tool search revealed the highest sequence similarities to a number of undescribed Glomus species as well as Glomus hoi. The phylogenetic analysis was carried out using MrBayes 3.1.2 (Ronquist and Huelsenbeck [2003\)](#page-5-0) including the species listed in Table [2.](#page-1-0)

A Bayesian Analysis was performed, using gamma distribution rate variation among sites, ten million generations of the MCMC chains in two independent runs, trees sampled every 100 generations. The first 25,000 trees were discarded as burn-in as the analysis then reached stationar-

Fig. 1 Differences in colonization pattern of AM fungi in roots of Rutaceae. a, b Ruta chalepensis (\mathbf{a} = transverse section, \mathbf{b} = longitudinal section). The intracellular phase comprises four cells in radial, four cells in longitudinal, and five cells in tangential direction (a transverse section, b longitudinal section). c Cneorum pulverulentum (longitudinal section). The intracellular spread of mycorrhization covers eight cells in longitudinal direction. The asterisks indicate those cells in which intracellular hyphae are found in subsequent sections. d Dictamnus albus (longitudinal section) The intracellular phase is limited to two cells in each direction. e Orixa japonica (transverse section). Only a single row of cells is colonized in the intracellular phase. f Ruta chalepensis (transverse section). Intercellular spaces are closely packed with AM hyphae. $A =$ arbuscule; $iaH =$ intracellular hypha; $ieH =$ intercellular hypha; $In =$ intercellular space; V = vesicle; VC = vascular cylinder. Scales: (a, b, d, e) = 50 μm, $(c) = 100 \mu m$, $(f) = 20 \mu m$

ity. All other trees sampled were used to calculate a strict consensus tree.

Results

Colonization of the outer cortex layers (intracellular phase)

The fungus enters a primary root by penetrating a single rhizodermis cell (penetration point) with little coiling therein and proceeds directly into the following outer cortex cells. Here, the hyphae start to coil, branch, and spread into several cells in longitudinal, tangential, and radial direction. Up to this point, the colonization is exclusively intracellular and no signs of hyphal degradation were seen. This intracellular phase differs among the

species. In C. tricoccon, R. chalepensis, Ph. amursense, and Pt. trifoliata, the extention of the intracellular phase is about four to five cells in longitudinal and tangential direction per penetration point, with three to four cells (including the rhizodermis) in radial direction (Fig. [1a](#page-2-0), b). In C. pulverulentum, the intracellular phase is extended to up to eight cells in longitudinal direction (Fig. [1c](#page-2-0)), whereas the spread in tangential and radial direction is the same as in the former species. In contrast, the intracellular phase of D. albus is reduced to two cells of colonization in longitudinal and tangential as well as in radial direction (Fig. [1](#page-2-0)d). A special form was found in O. japonica, where the intracellular phase is mostly confined to a single row of up to six cells colonized in radial direction (Fig. [1](#page-2-0)e). Here, branching of the colonizing hyphae is reduced.

Colonization of the inner cortex layers (intercellular phase)

After having colonized a species specific number of outer cortex layers, the hyphae transist into the intercellular spaces. There, they spread in longitudinal, tangential, and inner radial direction, forming lateral branches which penetrate single cells and develop arbuscules (e.g., Fig. [1a](#page-2-0), f). These arbuscules are terminal structures, characterized by eventual finely dichotomous branching and, thus, are typical for the Arum-type AM. Vesicles (Fig. [1f](#page-2-0)) develop intercellularly and, like the arbuscules, are confined to the inner cortex layers. In the specimen of C. pulverulentum and Ph. amurense of our material, hyphae occurred singly or in pairs in an intercellular space, whereas the intercellular spaces of the other species were mostly closely packed with numerous hyphae (Fig. 1f). In contrast to the specific colonization pattern of the outer cortex, a specificity of this feature is not certain but also could be a phenomenon of colonization density.

Identity of the AM fungi

The extraction and sequencing of fungal DNA succeeded in three (out of six) specimens of C. tricoccon, in one (out of four) for R. chalepensis, and in all specimen of D. albus and O. japonica. The sequencing data, although without cloning, were unambiguous, speaking for the colonization of only a single fungus species per root preparation. Despite

Fig. 2 Strict consensus tree of the NS31-AM1 region of the SSU rRNA from the Endophytes in the Rutaceae species and relevant reference species. Posterior probabilities of the Bayesian analysis are shown on the branches. NCBI accession numbers and names of authors from the reference species are given in Table [2](#page-1-0)

the large distances between the collection sites (up to 1,600 km apart), the sequencing of partial 18S rDNA showed that the fungi cluster with G. hoi Berch & Trappe, which is part of the Glomus A lineage (Schüßler et al. [2001a](#page-5-0); Schwarzott et al. [2001\)](#page-5-0). The monophyly of the group of G. hoi and the endophytes in Rutaceae is strongly supported by 0.95 posterior probability (Fig. [2\)](#page-3-0).

Discussion

AM structures used to be classified into the predominantly intercellular Arum-type or the exclusively intracellular Paris-type (Gallaud [1905;](#page-5-0) Smith and Smith [1997\)](#page-5-0). More recently, Dickson (2004) stated a continuum of structures between Arum- and Paris-type, which can be amended by the aberrant mycorrhizal colonization pattern found in mycoheterotrophic plants (e.g., Imhof [2003,](#page-5-0) [2007\)](#page-5-0). Considering Dicksons (2004) classification, the AM patterns described here fit best into the "intermediate 1"-type, provided that "intracellular hyphae in the outer cells" also means coiled intracellular hyphae, which is not explicitly mentioned by Dickson (2004). The present findings in Rutaceae prove that the intracellular phase, even within the "intermediate 1"-type, can differ greatly in extent as well as in pattern, strongly corroborating the notion of a structural continuum in AM. This is also reflected in the published mycorrhizal surveys, which ambiguously report Arum- (Yamato and Iwasaki [2002;](#page-5-0) Muthukumar et al. [2006](#page-5-0)) as well as Paris-type (Johnston [1949;](#page-5-0) Hawley and Dames [2004\)](#page-5-0) for Rutaceae. In fact, species with a limited intracellular phase may easily be categorized as "Arumtype," especially when only investigated using the quick but less detailed squeezing method of Phillips and Hayman [\(1970](#page-5-0)). Interestingly, the description of Acronychia sp. by Janse ([1896](#page-5-0)) indicates what we today call "intermediate 1," whereas McLuckie and Burges ([1932\)](#page-5-0) report an early intercellular colonization in Eriostemon crowei (both Rutaceae). Rayner [\(1933\)](#page-5-0), working on *Citrus*, only mention "intercellular as well as intracellular infection." If we consider the arbuscules to be the functionally most important interface between fungus and plant in AM (Harrison et al. [2002;](#page-5-0) Balestrini and Lanfranco 2006), the inner cortex colonization is crucial for the symbiosis in Rutaceae, whereas the intracellular (outer cortex) phase only link the extraradical mycelium with the intercellular phase developing the arbuscules. The often reported phenomenon of arbuscules developed close to the central cylinder of a root (e.g., Noldt and Bauch [2001;](#page-5-0) Russell et al. [2002\)](#page-5-0) is plausible, since there the exchanged nutrients and carbohydrates can be most easily relocated. Since the coiled intracellular hyphae of the investigated Rutaceae do not disintegrate, as they sometimes do in Paris-type AM (e.g.,

McGee et al. [1999](#page-5-0); Imhof [2001\)](#page-5-0), they can actually serve as a permanent connection to the rhizosphere. The decreasing longitudinal extent of outer cortex colonization from C. pulverulentum over C. tricoccon and D. albus to O. japonica may be interpreted as a focusing of hyphal development towards the inner cortex. In other words, compared to the other Rutaceae under investigation, the colonization pattern observed in O. japonica represents the shorter, more efficient way to reach the essential symbiotic interface.

All fungal DNA extracted from seven roots of Rutaceae in this investigation is nearly identical, although the plants have been collected from location as distinct as Malta, Mallorca (Spain) and Marburg (Germany), as well as from Garrigue, Mediterranean forests, and Central European soils. This may be interpreted as a first hint of mycorrhizal specificity within the Rutaceae, which, however, should be backed up through further investigations. Specificity with regard to their mycorrhizal partners is so far only known for mycoheterotrophic plants (Bidartondo and Bruns 2002; Bidartondo et al. 2002; Selosse et al. [2002](#page-5-0); Franke et al. [2006](#page-5-0); Merckx and Bidartondo [2008\)](#page-5-0).

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