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Structural characteristics of root–fungus associations in two mycoheterotrophic species, Allotropa virgata and Pleuricospora fimbriolata (Monotropoideae), from southwest Oregon, USA

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Abstract All members of the Monotropoideae (Ericaceae), including the species, Allotropa virgata and Pleuricospora fimbriolata, are mycoheterotrophs dependent on associated symbiotic fungi and autotrophic plants for their carbon needs. Although the fungal symbionts have been identified for A. virgata and P. fimbriolata, structural details of the fungal–root interactions are lacking. The objective of this study was, therefore, to determine the structural features of these plant root–fungus associations. Root systems of these two species did not develop dense clusters of mycorrhizal roots typical of some monotropoid species, but rather, the underground system was composed of elongated rhizomes with first- and second-order mycorrhizal adventitious roots. Both species developed mantle features typical of monotropoid mycorrhizas, although for A. virgata, mantle development was intermittent along the length of each root. Hartig net hyphae were restricted to the host epidermal cell layer, and fungal pegs formed either along the tangential walls $(P. fimbriolata)$ or radial walls $(A. virgata)$

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of epidermal cells. Plant-derived wall ingrowths were associated with each fungal peg, and these resembled transfer cells found in other systems. Although the diffuse nature of the roots of these two plants differs from some members in the Monotropoideae, the structural features place them along with other members of the Monotropoideae in the "monotropoid" category of mycorrhizas.

Keywords Fungal pegs · Hartig net · Mantle · Microscopy · Monotropoid mycorrhiza

Introduction

The subfamily, Monotropoideae (Ericaceae), consists of ten genera, all of which are achlorophyllous mycoheterotrophs (Leake [1994](#page-5-0)). The fungal symbionts vary according to plant species (Bidartondo [2005](#page-5-0)), with some hosts showing considerable specificity toward particular fungi (Bidartondo and Bruns [2001,](#page-5-0) [2002;](#page-5-0) Taylor et al. [2002](#page-6-0)).The fungal genera identified as symbionts with members of the Monotropoideae form ectomycorrhizas on autotrophic tree and shrub species (Leake [2004](#page-5-0), [2005](#page-5-0); Peterson et al. [2004\)](#page-5-0). The unique structural characteristics of the plant–fungus interaction have been used to describe the mycorrhiza category as "monotropoid" (Duddridge and Read [1982;](#page-5-0) Peterson et al. [2004](#page-5-0); Smith and Read [2008](#page-6-0)). The species studied to date share consistent features: a mantle, a Hartig net confined to the epidermis, "fungal pegs", hyphae that enter epidermal cells but are then enclosed in finger-like wall projections (Lutz and Sjolund [1973;](#page-5-0) Duddridge and Read [1982](#page-5-0); Massicotte et al. [2005,](#page-5-0) [2007\)](#page-5-0). Although there is some reference in the literature to fungal pegs developing in

outer cortical cells (Duddridge and Read [1982\)](#page-5-0), it is clear now that only epidermal cells are invaded by fungal hyphae (Peterson and Massicotte [2004;](#page-5-0) Bidartondo [2005\)](#page-5-0). Detailed structural studies have only involved Monotropa hypopitys L. (Duddridge and Read [1982](#page-5-0); Dexheimer and Gérard [1993\)](#page-5-0), Monotropa uniflora L. (Lutz and Sjolund [1973](#page-5-0); Massicotte et al. [2005\)](#page-5-0), Pterospora andromedea Nutt. (Robertson and Robertson [1982;](#page-6-0) Massicotte et al. [2005](#page-5-0)), Sarcodes sanguinea Torrey (Robertson and Robertson [1982](#page-6-0)), and to a lesser extent Pityopus californicus (Eastw.) H.F. Copel. (Massicotte et al. [2007](#page-5-0)), and Monotropastrum humile (D. Don) H. Hara (Matsuda and Yamada [2003](#page-5-0)). Kuga-Uetake et al. [\(2004\)](#page-5-0) were the first to document the interaction between the fungal peg and the plant epidermal cell cytoskeleton in M. uniflora. Historically, there has been a lack of structural information concerning plant–fungus interactions for many of the species in the Monotropoideae, as noted by Leake [\(1994](#page-5-0)).

The monotypic genera Allotropa (Allotropa virgata Torrey and A. Gray, commonly named sugar stick or candy stripe) and Pleuricospora (Pleuricospora fimbriolata A. Gray, fringed pinesap) are found in mixed and evergreen forests (Wallace [1975](#page-6-0)) in western North America. Both genera are distributed from British Columbia to California; in addition, Allotropa has also been identified in Nevada, Idaho, and Montana (eFloras [2009](#page-5-0)). A. virgata was listed as a "sensitive" species, which has led to some recommendations concerning its management (Wogen and Lippert [1998\)](#page-6-0). Based on previous molecular data and the specificity exhibited by the fungal symbionts shown to be associated with A. virgata (Tricholoma magnivelare (Peck) Redhead), and P. fimbriolata (Gautieria monticola Harkn.; Bidartondo and Bruns [2001](#page-5-0), [2002](#page-5-0); Bidartondo [2005](#page-5-0)), it is assumed that the same fungal species may be present as fungal symbionts in the plants sampled in this study. No structural studies with G. *monticola* and any plant species were found in the literature. However, Lefevre ([2002\)](#page-5-0) provides descriptions of several T. magnivelare mycorrhiza associations, including those with A. virgata, Lithocarpus densiflorus, and Arbutus menziesii.

The diffuse roots of both A. virgata and P. fimbriolata are described as being perennial, slender, and brittle (Wallace [1975\)](#page-6-0) in contrast to roots of some monotropoid species such as P. andromedea and M. uniflora, which form dense clusters of large robust root tips (Massicotte et al. [2005\)](#page-5-0). Copeland [\(1938](#page-5-0)) described the morphology of the root system of A. *virgata* noting that the roots ranged in diameter from 1 to 4 mm. His description of the anatomy from microtome sections was based on a single root tip; no mycorrhizal association was detected on that tip.

The objective of this study was to determine the features and cellular details of A. virgata and P. fimbriolata mycorrhizas using various forms of microscopy in order to further our understanding of the structural interactions

between members of the Monotropoideae and their associated symbionts.

Materials and methods

Plant material

Root samples from three to five individuals each of A. virgata and P. fimbriolata were collected on May 2007 and June 2008 from plants growing in a mixed conifer/ hardwood forest dominated by old-growth Douglas-fir [Pseudotsuga menziesii (Mirbel) Franco] and a subcanopy of A. menziesii Pursh. Lesser amounts of tan oak [L. densiflorus (Hook. & Arn.) Rehd.] and golden chinquapin [Chrysolepis chrysophylla (Hook.) Hjelmqv.] were also present. Sparsely scattered patches of Gaultheria shallon Pursh provided the primary shrub cover. The location was on a north-facing slope above Grayback Creek, about 16 km ESE of Cave Junction, OR, at an elevation of 800 m.

Light microscopy

Root samples were cleaned of soil and individual roots excised and fixed in 2.5% glutaraldehyde in 0.10 M N-2 hydroxy-ethylpiperazine-N-1-2-ethane sulfonic acid buffer pH 6.8 at room temperature for 4–8 h. For light microscopy of embedded tissue, samples were washed with buffer, dehydrated in an ascending series of ethanol to 100%, and embedded in LR White resin (Canemco, Lachine, Quebec, Canada). Sections $1-1.5$ µm thick were cut with glass knives on a Porter-Blum Ultra-Microtome MT-1 (DuPont Co., Newton, CT, USA), heat-fixed onto glass slides, and stained with 0.05% toluidine blue O (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) in 1% sodium borate. For each species, sections of at least ten separate roots obtained from several plants were examined with a Leitz Orthoplan compound microscope (Leica, Mississauga, Ontario, Canada) to which a Nikon Coolpix 4500 digital camera (Nikon, Canada, Mississauga, Ontario, Canada) was attached to capture images.

Fluorescence microscopy

Fixed roots were hand-sectioned with a two-sided razor blade and stained with berberine-aniline blue following the protocol in Brundrett et al. ([1988](#page-5-0)). These were viewed with a Leitz SM-LUX epifluorescence microscope (Leica, Mississauga, Ontario, Canada) using UV and blue light (350–460 excitation wavelength). Images of these sections were captured using the same camera system as for resinembedded sections.

Transmission electron microscopy

Thin sections $($0.1 \mu m$)$ of LR White-embedded material were cut with glass knives on a Reichert microtome [model OM-U3; Reichert-Jung (Leica), Wetzlar, Germany], picked up on copper grids, stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate, and viewed at 100 kV on a Philips CM10 (Philips Electron Optics, Eindhoven, The Netherlands) transmission electron microscope (TEM) interfaced with a digital imaging system.

Scanning electron microscopy

Samples fixed as for light microscopy were rinsed in buffer and post-fixed in 2% aqueous osmium tetroxide for 2 h at 4°C, rinsed in water and dehydrated in an ethanol series to 100% prior to critical point drying. Specimens were then mounted on aluminum stubs using two-sided sticky tape, coated with gold–palladium, and viewed with a Hitachi S-570 (Nissei-Sangyo, Tokyo, Japan) scanning electron microscope. Images were captured with a digital camera.

Results

Allotropa virgata

Emergent shoots of A. virgata were often found in clusters or small groups (1 in Fig. 1); shoots were erect, pink-

Fig. 1 Field samples of *Allotropa virgata* $(1-3)$. Cluster of shoots at different stages of emergence, from Oregon, USA (1). Single emerging shoot (arrow) with scale-like leaves, from Vancouver Island, BC (2). Excavated rhizome with a portion of the root system (arrows) and shoot buds (arrowheads) (3). Resin-embedded (4, 6, and 7) and fixed free-hand sectioned (5) Allotropa virgata mycorrhizas. 4 Transverse section showing collapsed epidermis (arrow), exodermis (E), cortex (asterisk), and vascular cylinder with xylem (arrowhead)

and phloem (double arrowhead). 5 Hand section stained with berberine-aniline blue and viewed with blue-UV light showing Casparian bands in the exodermis (arrowhead) and endodermis (arrow). 6 Longitudinal section of root showing small apical meristem (asterisk) and some fungal colonization (arrowheads) in the sub-apical region. 7 Oblique longitudinal section of root showing Hartig net (arrowheads) and fungal pegs (arrows)

purple, and each consisted of a single axis with overlapping scale-like leaves (2 in Fig. [1\)](#page-2-0). The typical white and pinkstriped appearance, giving the species the common name of candy cane or sugar stick, is shown in Fig. [1](#page-2-0) (2). Underground rhizomes (Luoma [1987\)](#page-5-0) often had developed one or more non-pigmented shoots and many adventitious roots, some with lateral branches (3 in Fig. [1](#page-2-0)). Portions of the root system appeared phenolized and darkened. Root systems and soil released a characteristic strong odor, typical of the fungus T. magnivelare, as plants were being excavated and cleaned. Root systems were often intermingled with those of several other angiosperm species, most notably A. menziesii and L. densiflorus.

Sectioned roots showed that they consist of a simple anatomy: an epidermis (often collapsed at distances back

from the root apex), four to five rows of cortical cells, and a vascular cylinder consisting of a few xylem tracheary elements and phloem (4 in Fig. [1\)](#page-2-0). A distinct endodermis and exodermis, both with Casparian bands, were present (5 in Fig. [1\)](#page-2-0). Longitudinal sections showed sporadic colonization confined to the epidermis (6 in Fig. [1\)](#page-2-0). Paradermal sections in regions of colonization showed the presence of a Hartig net also confined to the epidermis and branches of Hartig net hyphae forming fungal pegs that are initiated on the radial walls (7 in Fig. [1\)](#page-2-0).

Pleuricospora fimbriolata

Emergent shoots of P. fimbriolata were cream-colored to slightly pink (8 and 9 in Fig. 2), and the root systems were

Fig. 2 8 Field samples of Pleuricospora fimbriolata collected in Oregon, USA. A shoot with an inflorescence (arrow) and several younger emerged shoots (arrowheads) attached to a root system. 9 An emerged shoot. Surface litter has been removed to show the fungal mat (arrowheads). Light microscopy of resin-embedded $(10-12)$ and free-hand sectioned (13) Pleuricospora fimbriolata mycorrhizas. 10 Longitudinal section of a root tip showing apical meristem (asterisk), epidermis (arrows), exodermis (E), and a well developed fungal mantle (arrowheads). 11 Paradermal section

showing labyrinthine branching of inner mantle hyphae (arrowheads). A fungal peg (arrow) is evident in one epidermal cell. 12 Longitudinal section showing a fungal peg (arrowhead) that has formed along the outer tangential wall of an epidermal cell. The mantle (arrow) consists of several layers of hyphae. E exodermis. 13 Hand section stained with berberine and viewed with blue-UV light showing Casparian bands in the exodermis (arrows) and endodermis (arrowhead). Tracheary elements in the xylem (double arrowhead) also fluoresce

often associated with surrounding fungal mats (9 in Fig. [2](#page-3-0)). The overall underground systems were similar to those of A. virgata, consisting of rhizomes with adventitious roots (8 in Fig. [2](#page-3-0)). Most roots were extensively colonized, although more intermittent colonization was apparent on some apices. As with A. virgata, roots of neighboring trees and shrubs occurred intermingled with roots of P. fimbriolata.

Longitudinal sections showed that roots of this species also had a simple anatomy; when colonized by the fungal symbiont, roots possessed a characteristic mantle that surrounded the root apex, as well as a Hartig net restricted to the epidermis (10 in Fig. [2\)](#page-3-0). The mantle was multilayered, with the inner layer showing a labyrinthine branching pattern (11 in Fig. [2](#page-3-0)) and compact arrangement of hyphae (12 in Fig. [2](#page-3-0)). Fungal pegs, initiated by inner mantle hyphae adjacent to the outer tangential wall of epidermal cells, were present in all roots sampled (11 and 12 in Fig. [2\)](#page-3-0). Suberized Casparian bands were present in the endodermis and exodermis (13 in Fig. [2\)](#page-3-0), the latter possibly acting to restrict the Hartig net to the epidermis. Scanning electron microscopy showed the extent of the mantle and loose extraradical mycelium (14 in Fig. 3) as well as the presence of clamp connections on some extraradical hyphae (15 in Fig. 3). A. virgata mycorrhizas had similar mantle features and extraradical hyphae bearing clamp connections (not shown). Ultrastructure showed that fungal pegs were encased in plant-derived wall material that branched extensively (16 in Fig. 3); similar features were observed in A. virgata (not shown).

Discussion

This is the first structural study that describes in detail the interaction between the fungal symbionts and two mycoheterotrophic species, A. virgata and P. fimbriolata. Results show that, consistent with other members of the Monotropoideae (Peterson et al. [2004;](#page-5-0) Smith and Read [2008\)](#page-6-0), a mantle, epidermal Hartig net, and fungal pegs characterize these plant–fungal symbiotic associations. This combination of mycorrhizal structural features places them in the general description of "monotropoid" mycorrhizas (Duddridge and Read [1982](#page-5-0); Peterson et al. [2004\)](#page-5-0).

Roots of A. virgata had limited colonization compared to P. fimbriolata and other members of the Monotropoideae such as *M. uniflora* and *P. andromedea* (Massicotte et al. [2005](#page-5-0)). This might reflect either the nature of the habitat and time of year that roots were collected or the interaction between this plant species and its known fungal symbiont, T. magnivelare. Lefevre [\(2002](#page-5-0)) also found that A. virgata roots had thin, often inconspicuous, patchy white mantles and noted that Hartig net palmetti were rarely observed. Field collected Tricholoma matsutake (S. Ito & S. Imai) Singer (a closely related fungal species)–Pinus densiflora Siebold & Zucc. ectomycorrhizas showed signs of incompatibility, including limited extraradical hyphae and the deposition of phenolic compounds and necrosis (Gill et al. [2000](#page-5-0)).

Although considerable ultrastructural information is available concerning the nature of the interface between the fungal peg and epidermal cell cytoplasm in several members of the Monotropoideae (Lutz and Sjolund [1973;](#page-5-0) Duddridge and Read [1982](#page-5-0); Robertson and Robertson [1982](#page-6-0)), the function of the fungal pegs is still in question. It has been suggested, since the formation of the plantderived wall ingrowths resembles that of transfer cells in other systems (Gunning and Pate [1969\)](#page-5-0), that the fungal pegs might be involved in nutrient mobilization from the Hartig net into epidermal cells via this mechanism (Lutz and Sjolund [1973;](#page-5-0) Duddridge and Read [1982;](#page-5-0) Robertson

Fig. 3 Scanning electron microscopy of Pleuricospora fimbriolata mycorrhizas (14, 15). 14 Low magnification of a root with mantle and surface hyphae (arrowheads). 15 Higher magnification showing loose

arrangement of hyphae with clamp connections (arrowheads). 16 Transmission electron microscopy of Pleuricospora fimbriolata mycorrhiza showing a fungal peg with surrounding wall ingrowths (arrowheads)

and Robertson [1982\)](#page-6-0). An additional means of nutrient transfer could involve the tip of the fungal peg that opens at some stage in its development (Lutz and Sjolund 1973; Robertson and Robertson [1982\)](#page-6-0).

In the Monotropoideae, the fungal symbionts differ depending on the plant species, but all develop fungal pegs; this suggests that the plant genome controls the development of the nutrient transfer interface. The positioning of the fungal pegs in relation to the epidermal cell wall shows some differences. For example, M. uniflora (Massicotte et al. 2005), M. hypopitys (Duddridge and Read 1982), M. humile (Matsuda and Yamada 2003), and, from this study, P. fimbriolata, all develop fungal pegs restricted to the outer tangential epidermal cell walls. However, in S. sanguinea (Robertson and Robertson [1982](#page-6-0)), P. andromedea (Robertson and Robertson [1982;](#page-6-0) Massicotte et al. 2005) and A. virgata, as shown in this study, fungal pegs occur along the radial walls. This level of plant control over the colonization and developmental process supports the view that increased plant control is an important trend in mycorrhizal evolution (Brundrett 2002). Whether the orientation of pegs impacts their functioning or efficiency is unknown.

Future work with monotropoid species could further our understanding of how fungal symbioses facilitate the functioning of mycoheterotrophic plants. As well, developmental studies from seed germination to seedling establishment, using experimental approaches such as those described for other members of the Monotropoideae (Bruns and Read 2000; Leake et al. 2004), would extend our understanding of how these species establish themselves in natural habitats. To date, experiments, using seed of both A. virgata and P. fimbriolata enclosed in cloth packets buried in forest soils in habitats where these species occur, have failed to result in seed germination (Bidartondo and Bruns 2005).

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