Plant-Soil Organism Symbiosis: The Importance of Mycorrhiza

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Editor's Note: The use of mycorrhiza is fairly new to the turf industry and studies are not fully developed for their use in turf. Use of the organisms in forestry and nursery industries is better documented. This article is published to provide a general knowledge of mycorrhiza and how they work in forest soil as reported by a research team from the World Bank. The Bank's guidelines are created to assure proper use of World Bank loan funds. Therefore, it can be said the use of mycorrhiza has been recognized for specific industries around the world. This article might change your attitude about soil health, plant fertility, clipping removal and overuse of pesticides.

Productivity of the forest plant community is a consequence of the interaction of tree shoots and roots with the environment. One of the more important, and perhaps the least understood, zones of biological interaction is the soil immediately surrounding the root — the rhizosphere. Numerous microorganisms colonize this region and influence plant growth through physiological effects on uptake, storage and cycling of nutrients.

Despite their importance, soil organisms are rarely considered when degraded sites are replanted, trees are established on farmer’s fields or when existing forests are manipulated. Yet, we know some interactions between soil organisms and plants can be essential to plant survival and normal growth. One such interaction termed ‘mycorrhiza,’ literally ‘fungus-root,’ is the association between specialized root inhabiting fungi and the roots of living plants.

In this mutually beneficial association, or symbiosis, each partner receives nutrients while also contributing to the other partner’s survival. This development of plant and fungus together over time, or coevolution, has become an 'obligate' association in many cases. Obligate means each organism requires the presence of the other. In other cases, both organisms benefit from the association but do not require the symbiosis for survival. The association is especially critical in disturbed areas or areas that have been progressively degraded over time since rhizosphere organisms can be affected by shifts in land management practices.
Protecting or restoring the diversity of rhizosphere microorganisms through proper management practices is essential to maintenance of ecosystem health and resiliency. The practical importance of mycorrhizal fungi to tree establishment is discussed in this report. The recent work with mycorrhiza on dipterocarp species could change the face of plantation forestry, forest rehabilitation and sustainable management in Southeast Asia.

**Introduction**

Forest researchers and managers are becoming more aware of the diversity of life forms and associations which make up the living soil that supports existing forest communities. Much of this biological diversity is hidden from view beneath the soil surface.

Soil organisms can total as many as 10,000 species per gram of soil; such orders of magnitude are never found above ground. The biological soil resource is one of the most important factors governing soil fertility (Figure 1). Through close mutual interaction between trees and soil organisms, conditions are created that govern forest systems and productivity.

 Severing the close linkages between trees and the soil organisms has significantly contributed to degradation of many ecosystems, particularly tropical ecosystems, so restoring these links will be critical to any rehabilitation of degraded sites.

 Scientists have studied microscopic organisms for years. The technical nature of these studies has resulted in terminologies difficult, not only for laymen, but also for many scientists to understand. In the course of this text it will be necessary to use these terms. Every effort will be made to include explanations in the text.

The aim of the report is to examine the important and intricate relationship which higher plants (such as trees and shrubs) have with soil microorganisms, in this case mycorrhizal fungi.

**Discussion**

Fungi, unlike higher plants, lack chlorophyll pigment, which is necessary to the process of photosynthesis. During photosynthesis, plants produce carbohydrates from carbon dioxide and water using sunlight.

Though we normally think of fungi as mushrooms, these are only one of the fruiting bodies of some types of fungi. The actual growth form of fungi is an immense network of fine threads called hyphae. The mat of hyphal threads is called the mycelium.

Mycorrhiza refers to the symbiotic association between fungal mycelia and plant roots. Benefits accrue to both organisms. The fungus gains essential carbohydrates from the plant and the plant gains improved access to soil nutrients and moisture through the fungi’s extensive hyphal network, which functions like additional fine feeder roots for the plant.

Under circumstances resulting in the removal of higher plants, such as deforestation and grading, the food supply for many microorganisms disappears and, though they can sustain life through special adaptive responses for short periods, they eventually die. When this happens, soils become virtually sterile and inhospitable to both the higher and lower forms of organisms. This is also true of many of the mycorrhizal fungi.

 The re-establishment of the mutualistic relationship of mycorrhizal fungi and host plants is then key to any restoration activity, particularly from the practical standpoint where trees are being reintroduced to degraded sites.

**Soil-Plant Relationships**

The importance of soil to forest production is well documented. Soils provide the reserves of water and nutrients, and provide the matrix for the biological processes involved in nutrient cycling. In return, plants play a role in soil formation and they provide energy that sustains the biological processes and, either directly or indirectly,
they create much of the structure within soils (Figure 2). Plants allocate a large proportion of their photosynthates to roots. In forest ecosystems, trees may divert up to 80 percent of the net carbon fixed above ground in the leaves to below ground processes (Fogal 1985, Vogt et al. 1982). Some of this goes to root growth; however, a relatively high proportion may be used to feed organisms in the rhizosphere (root zone) and the soil. The wide variety of life forms that participate in the below-ground forest community range from the smallest living organism to small mammals. These include viruses, bacteria, actinomycetes, fungi, algae, protozoa, arthropods, earthworms, amphibians, reptiles and mammals (Elliot et al. 1980, Coleman et al. 1984, Ingham et al. 1985).

Estimates of the number of organisms are impressively large. For example, up to a billion bacteria and actinomycetes and several kilometers of fungal filaments can be present in less than a thimbleful of forest soil. The tremendous amounts of energy that trees divert below ground support the rich assortment of organisms that benefit tree growth through decomposition, capture and uptake of nutrients, nitrogen fixation, protection against disease causing pathogens, buffering against moisture stress and maintaining soil structure (Persson 1983, Louisier and Parkinson 1984).

Perry et al (1989) described a situation in the western United States at high elevation of the Klamath Mountains where repeated failure of reforestation in previous productive forest could be directly related to major shifts in beneficial soil microorganisms following clearcut of old growth forests. Studies of soil microorganisms

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**Figure 1. Summary of factors that affect soil fertility.**
 Addition of this soil to each new planting hole on the clearcut site doubled the growth and increased the survival of conifer seedlings by more than 50 percent in the first year after planting (Amaranthus and Perry 1987).

By the third year, only those seedlings receiving soil transfers remained alive. Clearcut and transfer soil did not differ significantly in macronutrient concentrations, and the small amount of soil added to planting holes further suggested that seedlings were responding to the addition of beneficial organisms, whose numbers were reduced in or eliminated from the clearcut soil, rather than to any possible fertilization effect.

Further studies indicated that seedlings inoculated with transferred soil had significantly greater symbiotic mycorrhizal association on their roots than uninoculated seedlings and that abundant mycorrhizal inoculant was available on reforested clearcuts (Schoenberger and Perry 1982).

**Mycorrhizal Fungi as Key Species**

Of the various soil organisms, perhaps the most is known about mycorrhizal fungi. Roughly 90 percent of plant species belong to families thought to form symbiotic mycorrhizal associations (Harley and Smith 1983; Malajczuk 1992). The fungal partner, the mycorrhizal fungus, can be classified into two broad groups: ectomycorrhizas (ECM) and endomycorrhizas.

Ectomycorrhizas are so termed because of their external modification of the root characterized by:

1. Development of an external fungal sheath around the fine root tissue and
2. Penetration of the fungus between (not into) the cells of the root cortex (the support tissue of greatest volume in the root).

Trees forming ECM include most of the commercially important species in the temperate and boreal forests and 70 percent of the species planted in the tropics (Evans 1982). Trees belonging to the

beneath forest and clearcut sites showed dramatic increases in bacteria and actinomycetes antagonistic to plants and reductions in beneficial microbes, such as mycorrhizal fungi.

In experiments at these clearcut sites, small quantities of soil (150 g) were collected from the root zone of healthy conifer
Pinaceae, Fagaceae, Betulaceae, Juglandaceae, Myrtaceae and Dipterocarpaceae form ECM. Ectomycorrhizal trees are often dominant on infertile tropical soils (Janos 1980). Worldwide, there are more than 5,000 species of fungi that form ECM with over 2,000 species of woody plants.

Of the three subgroups of endomycorrhizas, the vesicular-arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (VAM) are the most common type. The fungal hyphae enter the root cells causing no noticeable structural changes on the outside of the root. The name, vesicular-arbuscular, comes from structures which are formed within the root cortical cells: vesicles, which are thought to be storage or reproductive structures; and arbuscules, branched multiple-tipped hyphal structures within the plant cell.

VAM fungi associate with legumes, cereals, temperate forest trees, tropical timber trees, plantation and industrial crops as well as horticultural and ornamental crops (Barea and Axon-Aguillar 1983). The widespread occurrence and regularity of infection of tropical trees by VAM fungi is documented from Asia, Africa and the Neotropics (Janos 1987). Some important tree species, such as alders, willows and eucalyptus form both ECM and VAM fungal associations.

One of the key determinants of a root's ability to acquire nutrients from the surrounding soil is the extent to which it is colonized by appropriate mycorrhizal fungi (Harley and Smith 1983). Mycorrhizas improve seedling growth and survival by enhancing uptake of nutrients and water and increasing root life span. Mycorrhizae help protect the root against other organisms and against environmental stresses, such as heavy metal toxicity or soil salinity (Harley and Smith 1983; Malajczyk et al 1992). Mycorrhizae are thought to be crucial for acceptable growth and survival in many cases.

Tree species, such as pines and oaks, grown on sites void of ECM die or do not grow well unless inoculated (Mikola 1970, 1973; Marx 1980). The symbiosis is also critical for VAM forming trees, including the majority of tropical tree and many temperate deciduous families. On low fertility soils of the tropics, lack of phosphorus availability limits tree and crop growth (Vitousek 1984). Phosphorus, the main element of the ATP molecules that provide energy for plant's physiological processes, is fixed or chemically immobilized in these highly weathered soils.

VAM roots, with a network of mycelia, explore a larger soil volume than non-mycorrhizal roots and enhance the uptake of phosphorus into the plant. Improved nutrition on degraded sites though use of VAM fungi lowers the demand for fertilizer input. This improves growing conditions and therefore lowers the cost for site restoration.

The types of mycorrhiza vary with the environment. Functional diversity must be considered: different fungi do different jobs for different hosts in different environments. Some mycorrhizal fungi benefit the host plants in clearly definable ways, such as nutrient uptake (Bougher et al 1990). Some only benefit the hosts during periods of extreme temperature or drought, at certain times during plant development, or following disturbance. Indirectly, mycorrhizal fungi influence important ecosystem properties, such as soil structure and moisture storage. The diversity of mycorrhizal fungi contributes to the 'buffering capacity' of the forest ecosystem, or the ability of the systems to withstand and recover from disturbance (Moorland and Reves 1979).

An interesting and very important study carried out by the Forestry Research Project in Indonesia has changed significantly the approach to planting species of the valuable dipterocarps. It was formerly believed that dipterocarps could not be established on open sites and it remains a fact that dipterocarps seed irregularly and seeds are usually recalcitrant; that is, lose viability rapidly. The study found that dipterocarps have obligate mycorrhizae and die or stagnate if these are not present. However, these fungi are killed when soil temperatures exceed 32 degrees C — hence the need for shade.

An experiment has been carried out
planting inoculated depterocarps on a grassland site in full sunlight. All plants were mulched and have established well and are demonstrating excellent growth.

Maintaining mycorrhizal diversity helps minimize site degradation by assuring plant adaptability to unpredictable or varying environments. This has special significance in forest ecosystems that now face unprecedented changes due to human activity.

Mycorrhizal species are central to successful tree species establishment and the concept of biological diversity. Because mycorrhizal fungi have a great influence on the survival of plants in new and reclaimed sites, the tree health and site quality, we believe they are the cornerstone to proper establishment of functional forest ecosystems.

**Mycorrhizal Diversity and Forest Productivity**

Of the estimated 10 million species of life on earth, only some 1.4 million have been named (May 1988). Incomplete knowledge of the numbers and distribution of organisms is particularly striking for some groups of organisms, such as mycorrhizal fungi. Many surveys document mycorrhizal fungal associations with forest tree species in India, Sri Lanka, Malaysia, the Philippines and other Asian forests. Information on collection and identification of the fungal symbionts, however, is just becoming available. For example, until quite recently, no large scale systematic exploration of mycorrhizal fungi associated with eucalyptus had been described in Australia.

In three recent expeditions to Australian tropical and temperate rainforests in Queensland and Tasmania, more than 2,000 specimens were collected, including several new families, over a dozen new genera and as many as 100 new species. Expeditions of this nature help to develop a base for understanding the relationship of mycorrhizal fungi and forest function.

There is, however, no simple relationship between biological diversity of an ecosystem and its productivity. Nor is there a simple relationship between loss of biological diversity and productivity losses. Productivity and diversity vary depending upon which species and ecosystems are involved. In forest ecosystems, loss of mycorrhizal fungi substantially decreases primary plant productivity due to reduced acquisition of nutrients and water and loss of protection against other organisms.

The effect of mycorrhizal diversity on forest productivity is evident where indigenous host plants are planted outside their native range. ECM trees, especially pines in the tropics, grow poorly or may not survive in the field without their fungal symbionts that high yields are obtained; that is, when inoculum is applied as pure cultures or in soil collected from beneath indigenous stands.

**Mycorrhizal Dynamics**

In the forest environment, the mix of mycorrhizal species is constantly changing. Assessment of trees for their association with the fruiting bodies (mushrooms, toadstools or truffles) of ECM fungi show marked spatial and temporal distribution. Similar patterns of distribution have been observed for many different forest species in both temperate and tropical environments (Moss et al 1981; Mason et al 1983; Hilton et al 1987). Studies by Mason et al and Malajczuk (1987) of birch and eucalyptus stands indicated successional patterns of distribution of sporocarps (fruiting bodies) of specific mycorrhizal fungal genera.

Furthermore, not only do the dominant species of mycorrhizal fungi change with stand age, but the fungi’s species diversity also increases with age of the forest. Janos (1980) hypothesized that late successional trees (invading species like some legumes)

and those on richer soils may or may not be part of a fungal association.

Invariably these successional changes in the fungal species are dynamically linked to the above-ground plant community. While some mycorrhizal fungi are not selective towards a particular plant species root, many are specific in their association with particular plant species. Douglas fir, for example, forms mycorrhizal associations with hundreds of fungi that are incompatible with other conifers, oaks or alders. Thus, as above-ground communities change, the diversity of mycorrhizal fungi below ground also changes.

Mycorrhizal diversity may also be closely tied to the structure or variety of forest communities within the forest ecosystem. Any change in the forest floor litter will affect populations of ECM fungi since they predominate in the immediate vicinity of fine roots and the organic layers of soil (Trappe and Goal 1977; Harvey et al 1979).

Any variety of trees or weeds left on a managed site will contribute substantially to maintenance of mycorrhizal fungi by providing essential nutrition, just as a variety of habitat types, such as large woody material on the forest floor, will promote fungal diversity.

Habitat diversity can also promote mycorrhizal diversity as conditions change within a growing season. In periods of ade-
quate soil moisture, humus supports the highest level of ectomycorrhizal activity. However, during periods of drought, soil wood becomes the most active site (Harvey et al. 1982; Larsen et al. 1982).

In the past few decades, the extent of tropical forests has changed dramatically with the ever increasing demand for wood fiber and conversion to agriculture. Because above- and below-ground organisms are tightly linked, such changes result in dramatic losses which decrease hope for restoration of degraded sites through natural regeneration. With rapid conversion of tropical forest, it is imperative to collect and assess indigenous mycorrhizal fungi for successful establishment of tree plantations.

**Mycorrhizal Diversity, Disturbance and Site Rehabilitation**

Mycorrhizal fungi are not evenly distributed throughout the soil, but rather as islands of activity around roots. What happens to populations of mycorrhizal fungi when the energy inputs from plant roots are eliminated? Since mycorrhizal fungi are often entirely dependent upon utilizing carbon directly from the roots (they do not decompose organic matter for their energy source as other, saprophytic fungi do) they die, form resting spores or are replaced. If the energy source is not restored, populations of organisms depending upon those plants are lost or replaced by saprophytic organisms. The ability of forest soils to maintain viable populations of mycorrhizal fungi depends upon environmental, biological and physical factors. The ability of mycorrhizal fungus spores and hyphal fragments to survive without energy sources will vary with climate and soils. This activity period may be predictably shorter in the tropics where spore or fragment survival is limited by the higher respiration rates caused by warm temperatures.

In the long term, maintenance of mycorrhizal species may require continuation of natural patterns of disturbance to preserve patterns of succession. In temperate forests, periodic disturbance, such as fire, may be beneficial in that it promotes high species richness by creating a mosaic of habitat patches, species composition and successional stages. Successional stages of mycorrhizal fungi seem well established and they parallel disturbance in above-ground plant communities.

Forest practices that encourage succession, but reduce the biological diversity through intense organic matter loss, compaction and erosion, have a negative impact on mycorrhizal diversity.

Often not only the type of, but the severity of the activity is critical. For example, Parke (1982) found pine seedlings formed 20 percent fewer mycorrhizas in soil from unburnt clearcut and 40 percent fewer mycorrhizas in burnt clearcut than seedlings grown in undisturbed forest soil in northwest California and southern Oregon.

Deforestation provides the extreme of site disturbance. The challenge to tree planting or establishing plantations on already degraded sites in the tropics is to use technologies that restore mycorrhizal populations to planting sites, assure tree growth and production. To date, results from replanting activities in the tropics vary, even though much effort has been concentrated on tree selection and site preparation, because we have ignored mycorrhizal fungi as a vital component for restoration.

The consensus to date is that inoculation of tree seedlings with mycorrhizal fungi is extremely valuable where the indigenous fungi are not abundant, where the introduced fungi will tolerate the site’s conditions better, or where they are simply more effective under the existing site conditions.
the introduced fungi will better tolerate the site's conditions, or where they are simply more effective under the existing site conditions (Mikola 1973).

**Conclusions**

The biological diversity of natural forests and plantations is a product of the varied and often complex interactions both above and below ground level which develop through mutually beneficial associations. Species within the forest are strongly interdependent and, in many instances, their survival is being threatened by poor land management practices.

The vast majority of tree and shrub species form mycorrhizal associations with symbiotic fungi. This marriage convenience shapes and maintains the biological diversity of any forest system. Practices that influence the existence of either segment of this biological complex will significantly reduce the productive potential of the site.

Soil organisms, such as the mycorrhizal fungi, have evolved and are constantly interacting with the chemical, environmental and biotic factors that surround them. Each is adapted for specific activities which inevitably affect the function, growth and development of the above-ground plant associations.

The interactions of below-ground diversity and above-ground forest ecosystems were once viewed as interesting, but rather irrelevant phenomena. Increased and continued scientific study is finally highlighting their importance in the healthy functioning of ecosystems. From these studies, we now recognize that certain interactions, such as that between mycorrhizal fungi and plants, are undeniably essential.

Dipterocarp studies in Indonesia could have a major influence on the future of forestry throughout Southeast Asia. These new findings will change all this so that Southeast Asian forest planners will have to return to the drawing board and allocate these valuable species. This is a major role in forest planting and land rehabilitation. Vast areas lost to the ubiquitous and noxious imperata grass (Imperata cylindrica) could be recovered into dipterocarp forest. The logged-over, often burned forest land could be enriched with these indigenous species that would effectively maintain the presently endangered genetic diversity of the forest.

As we continue to develop approaches to conserve biological diversity in forest ecosystems, we must appreciate the inseparable connection to the diverse array of mycorrhizal fungi. The close mutualistic interaction between higher plants and mycorrhizal fungi is one key factor underlying forest health. Management practices must recognize the importance of maintaining growing conditions in the soil suited to beneficial microorganisms.

Unfortunately, there are areas where recognition of these organisms has come too late, the organisms have been greatly reduced or eliminated and the areas are now known as wasteland sites. A large amount of money is spent annually attempting to establish a vegetative cover on such areas.

For effective rehabilitation of deforested sites in the tropic and subtropic regions of Asia, trees along with an appropriate and diverse selection of mycorrhizae will be needed as components of forestation programs. The message which becomes clear from the extensive study of plan symbioses is that establishment practices must be directed at both the above- and below-ground communities. In some cases, direct inoculation will be adequate. But for sites that have long been without vegetation, establishment practices will have to be directed towards soil amelioration by whatever means possible.

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