

<http://www.pjbs.org>

PJBS

ISSN 1028-8880

**Pakistan
Journal of Biological Sciences**

ANSI*net*

Asian Network for Scientific Information
308 Lasani Town, Sargodha Road, Faisalabad - Pakistan

RESEARCH ARTICLE

OPEN ACCESS

DOI: 10.3923/pjbs.2015.1.10

Diversity of Arbuscular Mycorrhizal Fungi in the Growth Habitat of Kayu Kuku (*Pericopsis mooniana* Thw.) In Southeast Sulawesi

¹Husna, ²Sri Wilarso Budi, ²Irdika Mansur and ²Dan Cecep Kusmana

¹Department of Forestry, Faculty of Forestry and Environmental Science of Halu Oleo University, Kendari, 93121, Southeast Sulawesi, Indonesia

²Department of Silviculture, Faculty of Forestry, IPB, Dramaga Bogor 16680, Indonesia

ARTICLE INFO

Article History:

Received: October 25, 2014

Accepted: December 11, 2014

Corresponding Author:

Husna,

Department of Forestry,
Faculty of Forestry and Environmental
Science of Halu Oleo University,
Kendari, 93121, Southeast Sulawesi,
Indonesia Tel: +6285241627519

ABSTRACT

Arbuscular Mycorrhizal Fungi (AMF) are categorized as fungi which have symbioses with terrestrial plants and are distributed in various habitat types. The objectives of this research were to investigate the diversity of AMF in stands of kayu kuku (*Pericopsis mooniana* Thw.) in Southeast Sulawesi. Collection of samples of soil and root were conducted in six locations. Isolation of spores used the method of wet sieving and decanting, whereas AMF identification was conducted by observing morphology of AMF spores. Parameters of AMF diversity, namely species richness, diversity index, dominance index, evenness index and colonization were studied using method of infected root length. Research results showed that location differences affected significantly the spore density and parameters of AMF diversity, except colonization of AMF ($p < 0.116$). Location around the Governor office showed the highest number of spores (208.6 spores/100 g of soil). Soil chemical properties, such as C, N, P and heavy metal contributed towards AMF spore density and diversity. Soil C and N correlated negatively with spore density. In terms of location, Glomeraceae constituted the genera with the largest number of species and possessed wide distribution in all research locations. In general, natural forest has higher AMF diversity index (Shannon-Weiner diversity index- H'), evenness (E) and species richness (S) as compared with location of PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk.

Key words: Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi, *Glomus*, *Pericopsis mooniana* Thw, mining

INTRODUCTION

Arbuscular Mycorrhizal Fungi (AMF) are obligate fungi which have symbioses with 97% of terrestrial plants (Smith and Read, 2008). Phylum Glomeromycota possesses four orders (Glomerales, Diversisporales, Paraglomerales and Archaeosporales), 11 families, 18 genera and around 300 species which have been recognized (Schußler and Walker, 2010). Such symbioses are generally mutualistic, although they are sometimes parasitic depending on the species of plants and AMF (Klironomos, 2003). AMF possess fungal structures in the form of arbuscule, vesicle and hyphae which are found in roots and external hyphae and spores in soil (Smith and Read, 2008). AMF constitutes an important component in natural and artificial environment (Bainard *et al.*, 2011). Host plants obtain nutrients and water

from the fungi and as a return the fungi obtain carbon from photosynthesis products of the host plants (Smith and Read, 2008).

The role of AMF in maintaining and improving ecosystem productivity occurs in various ways, such as: (1) Improvement of community structure and plant ecosystem productivity (Van der Heijden *et al.*, 2006; Wolfe *et al.*, 2007), (2) Improving plant health and soil fertility (Jeffries *et al.*, 2003), helping the absorption of nutrients and water and protecting the roots from root pathogen (Smith and Read, 2008) and (3) Improving plant resistance towards heavy metal pollution (Amir *et al.*, 2008), salinity (Giri and Mukerji, 2004) and drought (Auge, 2004). AMF could improve soil structure and aggregation (Nichols, 2008) colonization of AMF could increase plant productivity (Koide, 2010).

AMF has a wide range of biodiversity and could be found in various ecosystems. These species live together with other organism communities existing in rhizosphere in various ecosystems, such as coastal areas (Delvian, 2003; Puspitasari, 2005), sandbar in South Brazil (Sturmer *et al.*, 2013), natural and degraded forests (Cuenca *et al.*, 1998), lowland forest ecosystem in Indonesian Ujung Kulon National Park (Kramadibrata, 2012) and natural forest and secondary forest and other land use types such as agricultural land, animal husbandry land and agroforestry land in western part of Brazilian Amazon (Sturmer and Siqueira, 2011) and peat swamp area (Ekamawanti, 1997). Besides occurrence in various ecosystems, AMF are also reported to be in symbiosis with various species of terrestrial plants which comprise among others plant species threatened with extinction (Wang and Qiu, 2006). Wang and Qiu (2006) in their review results reported that there were 139 plant species which were threatened with extinction, among the 2469 species which are associated with AMF, either in dry land or wet land. In Indonesia, forest tree species in IUCN list, have been reported to form symbiotic relationship with mycorrhizal fungi. The tree species among others are *ramin* (*Gonystillus bancanus*) (Tawaraya *et al.*, 2003), *gaharu* (*Aquilaria* sp.) (Turjaman *et al.*, 2006), *eboni* (*Diospyros celebica* Back) (Rahman and Abdullah, 2002) and kayu kuku (*Pericopsis mooniana* Thw.) (Husna *et al.*, 2006).

Kayu kuku (*Pericopsis mooniana* Thw.) belongs to subfamily Papilionaceae and grows naturally in Kolaka District, Southeast Sulawesi (Whitmore *et al.*, 1989; Surianegara and Lemmens, 1994) produces fancy wood (Surianegara and Lemmens, 1994). This species has been categorized as threatened species with extinction and with vulnerable status (VU A1c, d ver 2.3) (IUCN., 2014). Efforts to save *Pericopsis mooniana* Thw. from extinction should be conducted (Hardiyanto and Na'iem, 2001). Establishment of Lamedai Nature Reserve in Kolaka District constitutes the only form of *in-situ* conservation for *P. mooniana* Thw. which has been conducted in Indonesia, while those of *ex-situ* conservations have been conducted in several regions of Southeast Sulawesi (Sultra), such as in nickel post mining reclaimed land of PT Inco Tbk (now is referred to as PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk. Pomalaa), campus area of Halu Oleo University (UHO) and urban forests around the governor Office of Southeast Sulawesi province.

Study on diversity of AMF of *P. mooniana* Thw. in Indonesia has been conducted. In *Pericopsis mooniana* Thw. which grow in Nature Reserve Lamedai Kolaka, there were generally found 4 genera of AMF, namely *Glomus*, *Scutellospora*, *Acaulospora* and *Gigaspora* (Husna *et al.*, 2006). However, such study is still confined to the identification of AMF and has not covered the study on their diversity. Therefore, to obtain comprehensive information on diversity of AMF in *Pericopsis mooniana* Thw. rhizosphere, there is a need for study on AMF diversity in various *P. mooniana* Thw. growth sites in Southeast Sulawesi.

The objectives of this research were to study the diversity, colonization and density of AMF spore in *P. mooniana* Thw. stands in their distribution area in Southeast Sulawesi.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Time and locations of research: Research was conducted for three months from February to April. Locations of soil sample collection in the natural habitat of kayu kuku, Lamedai Nature Reserve, Lamedai village (04°18'44.6'' S-121°3'22.8'' E) and natural forest in Tangetada village (04°0'44.6'' S-121°2'18.0'' E) and *Pericopsis mooniana* Thw. plantation forests which were located in Bali Jaya village (04°7'57.6'' S-121°2'59.2'' E). The three places belong to sub district of Tangetada. Soil samples were also collected from *Pericopsis mooniana* Thw. revegetation area in block of zone III of Nirwana of PT. Vale Indonesia (Tbk) in Pomalaa subdistrict (04°2'30.2'' S-121°38'57.6'' E), Kolaka district; Campus of Halu Oleo University (UHO) (04°00'17.1'' S-122°31'06.1'' E) and urban forest around Southeast Sulawesi Governor Office, both of them in Kendari (04°01'19.5'' S-122°32'17.5'' E). Analysis of soil physical and chemical properties were conducted in Soil and Plant Laboratory of SEAMEO BIOTROP. Isolations of AMF spores were conducted in Biotechnology Research Center of IPB and identification of AMF species was conducted in Laboratory of Low Level Plants (Biological Research Center, Indonesian Institutes of Sciences) and Laboratory Wood Anatomy (Forest Research and Development Center, Bogor).

Exploration of mycorrhizal fungi

Collection of soil samples: Soil samples were collected randomly under the trees or stand of *P. mooniana* soil depth of 0-20 cm, as many as ten trees at each location. At each tree with a distance of 1-2 m from the based of the trees, four soil sample points were collected: West-East, North-South, it was taken as 250 g at each point and totally of samples weigh was 1 kg each tree. Soil samples were filled and labelled into plastic bags. All of soil samples for AMF isolation, identification and nutrients soil analysis were dried in the Laboratory.

Colonization of mycorrhizal fungi: For the first step, fresh fine roots were selected from sample plants. Afterwards, those roots were put inside KOH 10% solution for 24 h at room temperature. The KOH solution was afterwar discarded and the root samples were washed with flowing water until became clean. Roots were then soaked in HCl 2% solution for 30 min. The HCl solution was discarded. The root samples were subsequently soaked in staining solution (trypan blue 0.05%+glycerol 70%+aquadest 30%) for 24 h. The roots were washed again and put into glycerol 50% solution.

Enumeration of AMF colonization used the method of infected root length observation (Giovannetti and Mosse, 1980). From the roots which had been stained, ten root

samples which had length of ± 1 cm were taken and arranged in preparation glasses. Root segments in the preparation glasses were observed for each angle of view. Fields of view which showed colonization were marked with (+), whereas those which did not, were marked with negative sign (-).

Isolation of spores: Technique being used for AMF spore isolation was sieving and decanting method from Pacioni (1992) and was followed with centrifugation technique from Brundrett *et al.* (1996). The steps being conducted were as follows: (1) Mixing soil sample as much as 50 g with 200-300 mL of water and stirred, (2) The mixture was sieved in a set of sieves with sizes of 670, 125 and 45 µm in ordered sequence from upper to lower side, (3) Materials which passed the sieve of 125 and 45 µm were afterwards transferred to centrifuge tube, added with glucose 60% (w/v), (4) Centrifuge tube was tightly closed and centrifuged at speed of 2500 rpm for 3 min, (5) supernatant was decanted into sieve of 45 µm and washed with flowing water to eliminate glucose and (6) The remaining precipitate was decanted to Petri dishes and observed under compound microscope with 200X magnification to enumerate spore population and to make preparation for identification of AMF spores being found.

Identification of mycorrhizal fungi: Identification of AMF spore was performed by morphological observation color, shape, size, hyphal attachment, spore ornamentation and spore reaction towards Melzer's solution (Schneck and Perez, 1988; Schußler and Walker, 2010). Spore enumeration was conducted under stereo microscope and spore identification was conducted under microscope Axio Imager A₁m/Axiocam MRc5 with 200 X magnification.

Parameters: Parameters of AMF diversity observed in this research include frequency of isolation, relative abundance, importance value, spore density, species richness, spore diversity (Shannon-Wiener diversity index, evenness and Simpson's index) (Yang *et al.*, 2011) and root colonization (Brundrett *et al.*, 1996) as shown in Table 1.

Data analysis: Data was analyzed using analysis of variance (F test) on variables such soil chemical properties, spore density and AMF colonization, species richness, Shannon-Weiner indexes, Evenness and Simpson Index. If test results showed significant effect, then there would be test of treatment differences using LSD at level of 95%. Correlation between soil chemical properties and spore density was conducted by using Pearson's correlation.

RESULTS

Soil properties: Soil physical and chemical properties in the research locations are presented in Table 2. Table 2 shows that the highest pH, C and total N were found in location of PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk. However, PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk also showed smaller amount of available P (0.94 ppm) as compared with those of other locations. Distribution area of *P. mooniana* Thw. which is dominated by sand fraction, except the location of PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk.

Colonization and density of AMF spores: All roots of the surveyed *P. mooniana* Thw. were colonized by local AMF. AMF structures found in roots were internal hypha, external hypha, hyphal coil, vesicles and arbuscules. Internal hypha structure was found to be dominant (77%) in the roots of *P. mooniana* Thw. in all locations, followed by that of vesicle

Table 1: Parameters of AMF variability and the calculation techniques

Parameters	Formula
Frequency of isolation (FI)	[number of samples where species and genera of AMF were found /total number of sample]×100%*
Relative Abundance (RA)	Percentage of number of spores from each species or genera*
Importance Value (IV)	(FI + RA)/2. If IV ≥ 20 it is categorized as dominant species or genera*
Spore density	Number of spores per 100 g of soil*
Species richness	Number of species for each soil sample*
Shannon-Weiner diversity index	$H' = -\sum p_i \ln p_i$ *
Evenness	$E = H'/H'_{max}$
Simpson's index	$D = \sum [n_i(n_i-1)/N(N-1)]^{-1}$ *
AMF colonization	$\frac{\sum \text{field of view with mycorrhiza}}{\text{Total number of field of view observed}} \times 100\%^{**}$

Pi = n_i/N, where n_i is the number of spore per species and N is total number of spores being identified. H'_{max} = ln S, where S is total number of species being identified. *Shi *et al.* (2006), Yang *et al.* (2011) and ***Brundrett *et al.* (1996)

Table 2: Soil physical and chemical properties in various locations *P. mooniana* Thw. distribution in Southeast Sulawesi

Habitat	Soil chemistry				Soil texture		
	pH	C org (%)	N Tot (%)	P available (ppm)	Sand (%)	Silt (%)	Clay (%)
KG	4.5±0.09**	0.56±0.05 ^d	0.09±0.01 ^c	2.9±0.22 ^{bc}	61±0.31 ^{ab}	19±0.30 ^{bc}	21±0.28 ^b
UHO	5.1±0.12 ^b	1.04±0.08 ^c	0.16±0.03 ^b	4.26±0.29 ^{ab}	46±0.58 ^b	32±0.50 ^{ab}	22±0.47 ^b
Vale	5.8±0.09 ^a	2.43±0.10 ^a	0.35±0.04 ^a	0.94±0.13 ^c	13±0.33 ^c	42±0.35 ^a	45±0.42 ^a
CA	4.3±0.12 ^c	1.33±0.13 ^b	0.17±0.04 ^b	6.36±0.24 ^a	69±0.85 ^a	12±0.60 ^c	19±0.64 ^b
BJ	4.1±0.09 ^c	0.88±0.07 ^{cd}	0.13±0.03 ^{bc}	6.24±0.25 ^a	57±0.46 ^{ab}	21±0.49 ^{bc}	23±0.40 ^b
HA	4.2±0.08 ^c	1.00±0.06 ^{bc}	0.13±0.01 ^{bc}	5.38±0.22 ^{ab}	68±0.75 ^a	16±0.66 ^c	16±0.51 ^b
Pr>F	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001

KG: Governor office, UHO: University of Haluoleo, Vale: PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk, CA: Nature reserve, BJ: Bali Jaya and HA: Natural forest, *Average ±SE

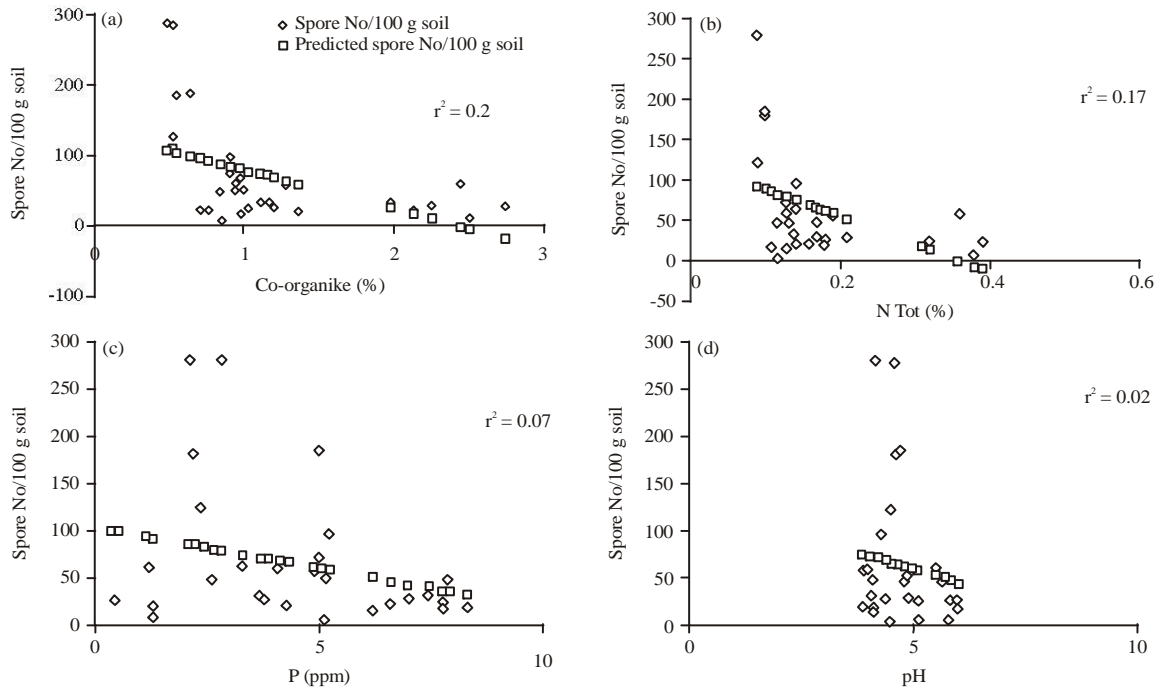


Fig. 1(a-d): Relation between soil properties and density of AMF spores, (a) Co-organic (%), (b) Total N (%), (c) Available P (ppm) and (d) pH

Table 3: Colonization and Structure of AMF in various habitats

Location	Colonization (%)	AMF structure				
		Internal hypha	External hypha	Vesicle	Arbuscule	Hyphal coil
KG	71±0.51**	77.0	3.3	17.9	0.0	1.8
UHO	60±0.63 ^a	81.3	7.7	9.0	0.0	2.0
Vale	70±0.76 ^a	72.4	6.2	19.2	0.9	1.4
CA	59±0.56 ^a	77.4	5.0	15.9	0.6	1.2
BJ	57±0.63 ^a	83.2	2.5	11.6	1.1	1.8
HA	73±0.75 ^a	67.4	9.3	18.0	1.5	3.8
-	-	76.4	5.7	15.3	0.7	2.0

KG: Governor office, UHO: University of Haluoleo, Vale: PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk, CA: Nature reserve, BJ: Bali Jaya and HA: Natural forest, *Average ±SE

Table 4: Spore density, species richness, shannon-Weiner diversity index, evenness and simpson's index of AMF in various habitats

Locations	Spore density/100 g of soil	Species richness	H'	E	D
KG	208.6±1.66**	4.6±0.15 ^{ab}	1.05±0.09 ^{ab}	0.69±0.07 ^a	0.39±0.06 ^{ab}
UHO	41.2±0.77 ^b	4.8±0.18 ^{ab}	1.18±0.09 ^a	0.76±0.07 ^a	0.30±0.04 ^{ab}
Vale	25.6±0.87 ^b	3.4±0.23 ^b	0.68±0.11 ^b	0.46±0.08 ^b	0.52±0.09 ^a
CA	37.8±0.97 ^b	4.8±0.18 ^{ab}	1.40±0.08 ^a	0.90±0.04 ^a	0.25±0.04 ^b
BJ	13.8±0.51 ^b	3.6±0.19 ^{ab}	1.08±0.07 ^{ab}	0.86±0.07 ^a	0.27±0.08 ^b
HA	57.4±0.98 ^b	5.4±0.21 ^a	1.37±0.10 ^a	0.82±0.07 ^a	0.29±0.06 ^{ab}
Pr>F	<0.0001	0.023	0.001	<0.00	0.023

KG: Governor office, UHO: University of Halu Oleo, Vale: PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk, CA: Nature reserve, BJ: Bali Jaya and HA: Natural forest, *Average ±SE, H: Shannon-Weiner index, E: Evenness dan D: Simpson's index

(15%) and the least was that of arbuscule (0.7%) (Table 3). Colonization of AMF was not affected by difference in growth site ($p > 0.05$) and there was no correlation between soil properties and AMF colonization (Table 3, 5). In this research, AMF spores were found with greatest abundance in location of Governor office (208.6 spores/100 g of soil). Organic C and total soil N were negatively correlated with AMF spore density (Table 5). Correlation between C and N

was relatively high as compared with those of pH, available P and soil structure ($r^2 = 0.23$ and 0.17) (Fig. 1a-d). Colonization was not correlated with number of spores ($r = 0.141$; $p > 0.467$).

Diversity of AMF: Total number of AMF species found in the rhizosphere of *P. mooniana* Thw. was as many as 11 species which belonged to 4 families and 7 genera, namely *Glomus* (4 species), *Acaulospora* (2 species) and *Rhizophagus*,

Septogloium, *Claroideogloium*, *Racocetra* and *Scutellospora* which comprised one species of AMF, respectively. *Glomus* cf. *canadense* and *Claroideogloium etunicatum* (syn. *Glomus etunicatum*) constituted the dominant AMF species in the whole research area (Table 6). *Racocetra gregaria* (syn. *Gigaspora gregaria*) was found to be dominant in PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk and that of *Scutellospora* cf. *Auriglobosa* was dominant in natural forest. Habitat variation affected significantly the species richness. Natural forest habitat possessed the highest species richness although it did not differ significantly with other habitat, except with location of PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk (Table 4). Species richness were found to be 2-7 individuals per soil sample which ranged between 3.4 in PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk and 5.4 in Natural Forest (Table 4). Besides possessing low species richness, PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk also possessed low species diversity (Shannon-Wiener diversity index) and low evenness (E), namely 0.68 and 0.46, respectively. However, PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk possessed higher Simpson's Dominance Index (D) and did not differ significantly with those of Governor Office, Campus of Halu Oleo University and Tangketada Natural Forest.

At family level, relative density and frequency varied greatly between families at various locations. The highest FI and RA were shown by family Glomeraceae, followed by

Claroideo Glomeraceae, Gigasporaceae and Acaulosporaceae. Glomeraceae was categorized as family with FI 100% at all research locations. FI from family Acaulosporaceae ranged between 10-30% at locations of Halu Oleo University Campus, CA Lamedai and Bali Jaya (Fig. 2). For variable RA, family Glomeraceae was dominant with range between 57-71% at all locations. Unlike Glomeraceae, RA values for the other three families showed different trends. In terms of variable RA, Gigasporaceae showed the highest value in location of PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk (18.28±0.98%), whereas that of Acaulosporaceae being highest in Bali Jaya (11.3±0.913), while Claroideoglomeraceae showed highest RA in Governor Office (42.2±0.71%) followed by location of natural forest Tangketada with value of 35.4±0.96% (Fig. 3a-d).

DISCUSSION

Research results showed that roots of *P. mooniana* Thw. in six habitats in Southeast Sulawesi were colonized by AMF. Percentages of AMF colonization did not differ in all habitats, with percentage >50%. Colonization of AMF was marked with the finding of AMF structure in roots. AMF structure being found were internal hypha, external hypha, vesicle and arbuscule. Each structure possessed different roles

Table 5: Analysis of correlation (r) and regression (r² = figures in brackets) between environmental factors and AMF symbiosis of *P. mooniana* Thw. plants

Parameters	pH	C	N	P	Sand	Silt	Clay
Spore density	-0.12 (0.018)	-0.48** (0.23)**	-0.49** (0.17)**	-0.27 (0.07)	0.21 (0.04)	-0.21 (0.04)	-0.19 (0.04)
Colonization	0.04 (0.002)	0.08 (0.006)	0.07 (0.006)	-0.10 (0.01)	0.01 (0.0002)	-0.03 (0.0008)	0.006

** Highly significant with p<0.01

Table 6: Species of AMF in the rhizosphere of *k* in various growth sites

Species	KG	UHO	Vale	CA	Bali Jaya	HA
Glomeraceae						
<i>Rhizophagus</i>						
<i>Rhizophagus diaphanum</i> (Morton and Walker) Walker and Schussler	+	+	+*	+	+*	
Glomus						
<i>Glomus</i> cf. <i>versiforme</i> (Karst.) Berch	+*	+*		+	+*	+*
<i>Glomus</i> cf. <i>canadense</i> (Thaxt.)	+*	+*	+*	+*	+*	+*
Trappe and Gerd.						
<i>Glomus</i> cf. <i>boreale</i> (Thaxt.)						
Trappe and Gerd.					+	
<i>Glomus</i> cf. <i>halonatum</i> rose and trappe	+			+		+*
Septogloium						
<i>Septogloium constrictum</i> (Trappe)	+	+*	+	+*	+	
Sieverd. Silva and Oehl						
Claroideoglomeraceae						
<i>Claroideogloium</i>						
<i>Claroideogloium etunicatum</i>	+*	+*	+*	+*	+*	+*
(Becker and Gerd.) Walker and Schussler						
Acaulosporaceae						
<i>Acaulospora</i>						
<i>Acaulospora scrobiculata</i> Trappe		+			+	
<i>Acaulospora</i> cf. <i>delicata</i>						
Walker, Pfeitt and Bloss	+*					
Gigasporaceae						
<i>Racocetra</i>						
<i>Racocetra gregaria</i> Souta and Sieverd.	+		+*	+		+
Scutellospora						
<i>Scutellospora</i> cf. <i>auriglobosa</i> (Hall.)						
Walker and Sanders	+	+	+	+		+*

KG: Governor office, UHO: University of Halu Oleo, Vale: PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk, CA: Nature reserve, BJ: Bali Jaya and HA: Natural forest, + The species was found, *NP ≥ 20

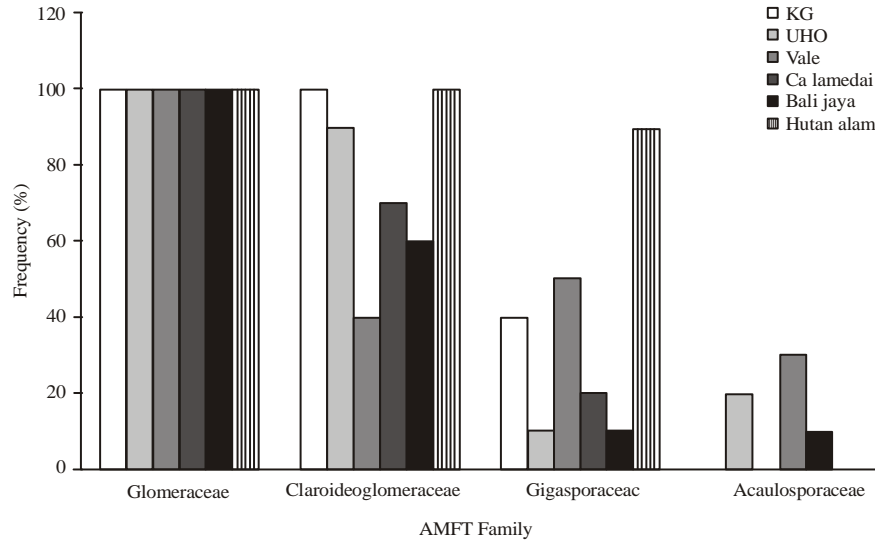


Fig. 2: Frequency of AMF families in various research locations

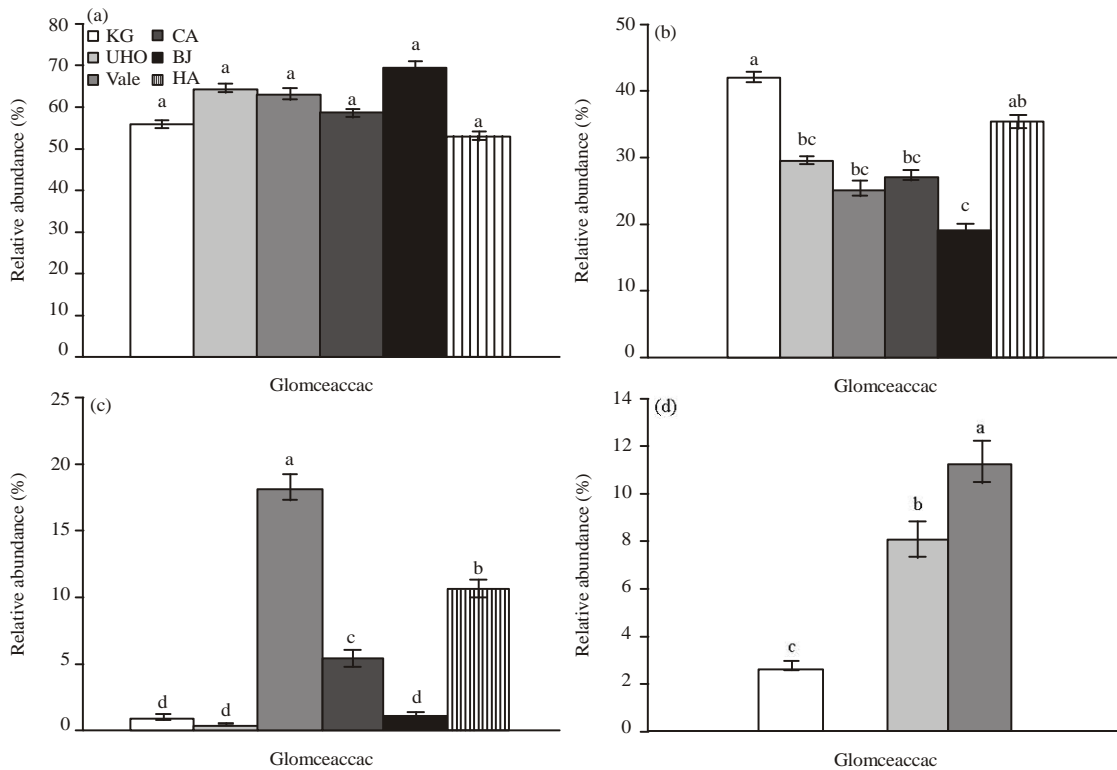


Fig. 3(a-d): Relative densities of AMF families in various research locations, (a) Glomeraceae, (b) Claroideoglomeraceae, (c) Gigasporaceae and (d) Acaulosporaceae

(Smith and Read, 2008). Colonization of AMF which occurred in all habitats showed that AMF possessed ability to colonize *P. mooniana* Thw. in various habitats.

Differences in habitat affected significantly the spore density ($p < 0.001$). Number of spores ranged between 14-208 spores per 100 g of air dried soil. The greatest number (density) of spores per 100 g of air dry soil in *P. mooniana*

Thw. stand was found in the office of Southeast Sulawesi Governor, Kendari (Table 4) (208 spores). The high density of AMF spores in the area (98% of spore were those of *Glomus* as the dominant species) was due to low soil fertility. This was proven from the correlation analysis of organic C and total N which were negatively correlated with spore density (Table 5) and also from the phenomenon of low content of

available P (Table 2). Negative correlation between soil organic C and AMF spore density was also reported by Gai *et al.* (2012). In relation with P availability in soil, several research results reported that the number of AMF spores were high at condition of low P availability (Lee *et al.*, 2009; Birhane *et al.*, 2010; Tian *et al.*, 2011). This was in agreement with Fig. 1d which shows the trend of decrease in number of spores in line with increase in available. Verma *et al.* (2008) and Pande and Tarafdar (2004) reported that areas with low soil fertility could increase the population of AMF. Muthukumar and Udaiyan (2002) reported that high availability of soil N could suppress the AMF colonization and spore production. This explanation was supported by Powell and Bagyaraj (1984) which showed that soils which were less fertile would decrease the root phospholipid membrane, increase root cell permeability, followed by leaking in roots and resulted in decrease in carbohydrate and amino acid and these phenomena would accelerate the formation of mycorrhiza. However, soil properties did not affect the level of AMF colonization in roots of *P. mooniana* Thw. in various research locations (Table 2 and 5). There was no correlation between AMF colonization and spore density. This was in agreement with statement of Ragupathy and Mahadevan (1991) that there was no correlation between number of spores and percentage of root colonization in host plants.

Total number of AMF species being found were 11 species and were categorized into seven genera, namely *Glomus*, *Rhizophagus*, *Septoglomus*, *Claroidoglomus*, *Racocetra* *Acaulospora* and *Scutellospora*. Total number of AMF species being found was smaller than those which had ever been reported for species *P. mooniana* Thw. (Husna *et al.*, 2006), *cacao* (Kramadibrata, 2009) and *Citrus reticulata* (Wang *et al.*, 2013). The genus *Glomus* dominated AMF species, wherein 5 species possessed high relative density and frequency in all research locations. According to Mosse (1981), naturally, the genus *Glomus* possessed very large distribution. Besides that, *Glomus* was categorized as genus with very many species of AMF (INVAM., 2003; Schußler and Walker, 2010). *Glomus* also constituted the kind of AMF which was abundantly found in various types of habitat (Cuenca *et al.*, 1998; Sturmer and Siqueira, 2011; Gai *et al.*, 2012) and in various kinds of plant in terrestrial region (Shi *et al.*, 2006; Kramadibrata, 2009; Wang *et al.*, 2013) and in wet land (Miller and Bever, 1999; Escudero and Mendoza, 2005).

Domination of *Glomus* was also reported in various types of forest ecosystem and agriculture land in Indonesia. There were found 4 species of *Glomus* in natural forest ecosystem with pH of 3,89-6,10 in Gunung Halimun National Park (Suciati, 2002), 6 species of *Glomus* which associated with various plants in Ujung Kulon National Park (Kramadibrata, 2012), 7 species of *Glomus* in rhizosphere of soybean crop in Lampung and West Java (Kramadibrata *et al.*, 1995). Four species of *Glomus* in rhizosphere of Bisbul

(*Diospyros blancoi*) in Bogor (Ningsih *et al.*, 2013) and 5 species of *Glomus* which were found in rhizosphere of 4 species of bamboo in Java island (Kramadibrata *et al.*, 2007).

Besides spore density, difference in location also affected the component of AMF diversity. Research results showed that natural habitat tended to possess higher species richness and AMF diversity as compared with those of *P. mooniana* Thw. development habitat. Plantation of *P. mooniana* Thw. such as that at PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk. revegetation area possessed low species richness, index of species diversity (Shannon-Wiener diversity Index) and Evenness (E). The low diversity of AMF at PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk. location was due to change in landscape and poor composition of vegetation species. Several study reported that number of spores and AMF diversity were low in soil which were heavily contaminated with heavy metal (Del Val *et al.*, 1999; Khan *et al.*, 2000). Besides *Glomus*, genus *Racocetra* (*Gigaspora gregaria*) was also dominant (importance value >20) and possessed highest frequency in PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk. Regyar *et al.* (2006) and Pawlowska *et al.* (1997) reported that *Gigaspora* was found in land contaminated with heavy metal.

Besides that, low value of species richness in PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk. and that of high value in natural habitat such as in natural forest Tangketada were probably related with species richness of the plants (Lee *et al.*, 2009; Kivlin *et al.*, 2011; Sturmer and Siqueira, 2011). However, plant species richness is not always correlated with species richness of AMF (Cuenca *et al.*, 1998). Species richness of AMF (5,5 species) in natural forest Tangetada Kolaka was still lower than those in young secondary forest in Brazil Amazon forest (12.8) (Sturmer and Siqueira, 2011) riparian forest in La Gran Sabana Venezuela (9) (Cuenca *et al.*, 1998) and forest in Mount Segrila Tibet (10 species) (Gai *et al.*, 2012). In general, distribution of AMF was greatly affected by many environmental factors such as soil type and texture, land degradation, humidity, temperature and nutrient availability (Kivlin *et al.*, 2011). Rillig *et al.* (2002) confirmed that the magnitude of abiotic factors, namely climate and soil properties which combined with other factors such as composition of host communities and intra and interspecific interaction, constituted the important factors determining the extent of AMF distribution.

Results of this study showed that difference in habitat of *P. mooniana* Thw. affected the species richness and AMF diversity. This was in agreement with statement of Opik *et al.* (2008) and research results of Opik *et al.* (2006) which showed that number of AMF species per species of host in particular location was possibly different between regions and habitat types. This statement was in agreement with research results of Wubet *et al.* (2006) which found differences in species richness of AMF species in rhizosphere of *Juniperus procera* in different locations and there was found variation of AMF species richness in two research locations in the rhizosphere

of *Prunus africana*. Opik *et al.* (2006) concluded further that AMF species richness was higher in natural forest as compared with other habitats (ecosystems), such as disturbed habitat due to human activities. The same phenomenon was reported by Wubet *et al.* (2006) which showed that AMF diversity was found to be high in natural habitat.

Variation of population and AMF diversity was affected greatly by variation of soils (mainly soil chemical properties), environmental condition (temperature and season), kinds of host and destruction regime (Opik *et al.*, 2006; Wubet *et al.*, 2004, 2006; Verma *et al.*, 2008). In relation with aspect of habitat destruction, Johnson *et al.* (2013) explained that high intensity land use could change soil properties and had implication on decrease of species richness and AMF diversity. Species richness and AMF diversity were probably related with host species, life cycle and specific site condition (Opik *et al.*, 2006).

Study on species richness variation and AMF diversity in various locations and rhizosphere in Indonesia, had been conducted. Difference in species richness and AMF diversity based on location had been reported in rhizosphere of soybean (Kramadibrata *et al.*, 1995). *Rambutan* (Muliawan *et al.*, 2002), bamboo (Kramadibrata *et al.*, 2007) and *Bisbul* (*Diospyros blancoi*) (Ningsih *et al.*, 2013). Besides location and rhizosphere, difference between natural habitat and degraded habitat, affected also the existence of AMF. Sabaruddin (2004) and Suciati (2002) reported that forests (natural habitats) possessed species richness and AMF diversity which were higher than disturbed habitat (agricultural land).

Table 6 shows that the genus of *Glomus* (*Glomus* cf. *Canadense* and *Claroideoglomus etunicatum*) dominated the distribution and diversity of AMF in growth sites of kayu kuku in Southeast Sulawesi. Domination of the two *Glomus* were possibly due to several factors which were among others: (1) The two species possessed small spore sizes, (2) Possession of sporulation (spore production) ability at various environmental conditions, (3) Possession of adaptive capability in various conditions of soil and climate and (4) Ability to produce inoculum (propagule) in rhizosphere of *P. mooniana* Thw. (Shi *et al.*, 2006; Verma *et al.*, 2008; Kivlin *et al.*, 2011; Shukla *et al.*, 2013).

On the basis of research results it could be concluded that difference in growth sites of *Pericopsis mooniana* Thw. affected the spore density of Arbuscular Mycorrhizal Fungi (AMF) and parameters of AMF diversity, except the AMF colonization. Soil chemical properties, such as C, N, P and heavy metal contributed toward spore density and component of AMF diversity. Soil C and N correlated negatively with spore density. Glomeraceae constituted the genus with the greatest number of species and possessed wide distribution in all research locations. Natural forests possessed high diversity index (Shannon-Weiner diversity index-H), evenness (E) and species richness as compared with those of PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank DIKTI/Ministry of Education and Culture scholarship, PT. Vale Indonesia Tbk. and Bogoriense herbarium laboratory.

REFERENCES

- Amir, H., D.A. Jasper and L.K. Abbott, 2008. Tolerance and induction of tolerance to Ni of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi from New Caledonian ultramafic soils. *Mycorrhiza*, 19: 1-6.
- Auge, R.M., 2004. Arbuscular mycorrhizae and soil/plant water relations. *Can. J. Soil Sci.*, 84: 373-381.
- Bainard, L.D., J.N. Klironomos and A.M. Gordon, 2011. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in tree-based intercropping systems: A review of their abundance and diversity. *Pedobiologia*, 54: 57-61.
- Birhane, E., T.W. Kuyper, F.J. Sterck and F. Bongers, 2010. Arbuscular mycorrhizal associations in *Boswellia papyrifera* (frankincense-tree) dominated dry deciduous woodlands of Northern Ethiopia. *For. Ecol. Manage.*, 260: 2160-2169.
- Brundrett, M., N. Bougher, B. Dell, T. Grove and N. Malajczuk, 1996. Working with Mycorrhizas in Forestry and Agriculture. Australian Centre for International Agricultural Research, Canberra, Australia, ISBN: 1862301815, pp: 374.
- Cuenca, G., Z. de Andrade and G. Escalante, 1998. Diversity of Glomalean spores from natural, disturbed and revegetated communities growing on nutrient-poor tropical soils. *Soil Biol. Biochem.*, 30: 711-719.
- Del Val, C., J.M. Barea and C. Azcon-Aguilar, 1999. Diversity of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungus populations in heavy-metal-contaminated soils. *Applied Environ. Microbiol.*, 65: 718-723.
- Delvian, 2003. Diversity of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in fungi in coastal forest and its potential use. Ph.D. Thesis, Bogor Agricultural University, Indonesia.
- Ekamawanti, H.A., 1997. Biodiversity of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in peat ecosystems in West Kalimantan. Proceeding of the International Conference on Mycorrhizas in Sustainable Tropical Agriculture and Forest Ecosystems, October 27-30, 1997, Bogor, Indonesia, pp: 77-84.
- Escudero, V. and R. Mendoza, 2005. Seasonal variation of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in temperate grasslands along a wide hydrologic gradient. *Mycorrhiza*, 15: 291-299.
- Gai, J.P., H. Tian, F.Y. Yang, P. Christie, X.L. Li and J.N. Klironomos, 2012. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungal diversity along a Tibetan elevation gradient. *Pedobiologia*, 55: 145-151.
- Giovannetti, M. and B. Mosse, 1980. An evaluation of techniques for measuring vesicular arbuscular mycorrhizal infection in roots. *New Phytol.*, 84: 489-500.

- Giri, B. and K.G. Mukerji, 2004. Mycorrhizal inoculant alleviates salt stress in *Sesbania aegyptiaca* and *Sesbania grandiflora* under field conditions: Evidence for reduced sodium and improved magnesium uptake. *Mycorrhiza*, 14: 307-312.
- Hardiyanto, E.B. and M. Na'iem, 2001. Present status of conservation, utilization and management of forest genetic Resources in Indonesia. Proceedings of the South East Asian Moving Workshop on Conservation, Management and Utilization of Forest Genetic Resources, February 25-March 10, 2001, Thailand.
- Husna, R. Adowiyah, L.O. Albnuddin and F.D. Tuhde, 2006. Status Cendawan Mikoriza Arbuskula (CMA) pada empat tanaman lokal sulawest tenggara. [Diversity of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi of four species plant local in Southeast Sulawesi]. *Majalah Ilmiah Agriplus*, 16: 173-182, (In Indonesia).
- INVAM., 2003. International culture collection of (Vesicular) arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (INVAM). <http://invam.wvu.edu/?Taxonomy/classification.htm>.
- IUCN., 2014. IUCN red list of threatened species, version 2014.2.3. International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN), Gland, Switzerland.
- Jeffries, P., S. Gianinazzi, S. Perotto, K. Turnau and J.M. Barea, 2003. The contribution of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in sustainable maintenance of plant health and soil fertility. *Biol. Fert. Soil*, 37: 1-16.
- Johnson, J.M., P. Houngnandan, A. Kane, K.B. Sanon and M. Neyra, 2013. Diversity patterns of indigenous arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi associated with rhizosphere of cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata* (L.) Walp.) in Benin, West Africa. *Pedobiologia*, 56: 121-128.
- Khan, A.G., C. Kuek, T.M. Chaudhry, C.S. Khoo and W.J. Hayes, 2000. Role of plants, mycorrhizae and phytochelators in heavy metal contaminated land remediation. *Chemosphere*, 41: 197-207.
- Kivlin, S.N., C.V. Hawkes and K.K. Treseder, 2011. Global diversity and distribution of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi. *Soil Biol. Biochem.*, 43: 2294-2303.
- Klironomos, J.N., 2003. Variation in plant response to native and exotic arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi. *Ecology*, 84: 2292-2301.
- Koide, R.T., 2010. Mycorrhizal Symbiosis and Plant Reproduction. In: *Arbuscular Mycorrhizas: Physiology and Function*, Koltai, H. and Y. Kapulnik (Eds.). Springer, New York, USA., ISBN-13: 9789048194896, pp: 297-320.
- Kramadibrata, K., E.I. Riyanti and R.D.M. Simanungkalit, 1995. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi from the rhizospheres of soybean crops in Lampung and West Java. *J. Biotropia*, 8: 30-38.
- Kramadibrata, K., H. Prastyo and A.W. Gunawan, 2007. Jamur arbuskula pada bambu di jawa [Arbuscular fungi of bamboo in java]. *Berita Biologi*, 8: 531-536, (In Indonesian).
- Kramadibrata, K., 2009. The distribution of glomeromycota in cacao rhizosphere in Indonesia. *Reinwardtia*, 12: 347-356.
- Kramadibrata, K., 2012. Jamur arbuskula di taman nasional ujung kulon [Arbuscular fungi in ujung kulon national park]. *Berita Biologi*, 11: 205-210, (In Indonesian).
- Lee, K.J., K.H. Lee, E. Tamolang-Castillo and S.W. Budi, 2009. Biodiversity, spore density and root colonization of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi at expressway cut-slopes in Korea. *J. Korean For. Soc.*, 98: 539-547.
- Miller, S.P. and J.D. Bever, 1999. Distribution of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in stands of the wetland grass *Panicum hemitomon* along a wide hydrologic gradient. *Oecologia*, 119: 586-592.
- Mosse, B., 1981. Vesicular-arbuscular mycorrhiza research for tropical agriculture. *Research Bulletin*, No. 194, Hawaii Institute of Tropical Agriculture and Human Resources, University of Hawaii, HI., USA., pp: 1-82.
- Muliawan, J., A.W. Gunawan and K. Kramadibrata, 2002. Mikoriza rambutan di Bogor dan sekitarnya. [Mycorrhizal of rambutan in Bogor and surroundings]. *Journal Mikrobiologi Indonesia*, 7: 24-25, (In Indonesian).
- Muthukumar, T. and K. Udaiyan, 2002. Seasonality of vesicular-arbuscular mycorrhizae in sedges in a semi-arid tropical grassland. *Acta Oecologica*, 23: 337-347.
- Nichols, K.A., 2008. Indirect Contribution of AM Fungi and Soil Aggregation to Plant Growth and Protection. In: *Mycorrhizae: Sustainable Agriculture and Forestry*, Siddiqui, Z.A., M.S. Akhtar and K. Futai (Eds.). Springer, New York, USA., pp: 177-194.
- Ningsih, D.R., K. Kramadibrata and A.W. Gunawan, 2013. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi associated with Bisbul (*Diospyros blancoi*). *J. Biotropia*, 20: 112-121.
- Opik, M., M. Moora, J. Liira and M. Zobel, 2006. Composition of root-colonizing arbuscular mycorrhizal fungal communities in different ecosystems around the globe. *J. Ecol.*, 94: 778-790.
- Opik, M., U. Saks, J. Kennedy and T. Daniel, 2008. Global Diversity Patterns of Arbuscular Mycorrhizal Fungi-Community Composition and Links with Functionality. In: *Mycorrhiza: Genetics and Molecular Biology, Eco-Function, Biotechnology, Eco-Physiology and Structure and Systematics*, Varma, A. (Ed.). Springer, New York, USA., pp: 89-112.
- Pacioni, G., 1992. Wet-Sieving and Decanting Techniques for the Extraction of Spores of Vesicular-Arbuscular Fungi. In: *Methods in Microbiology*, Volume 24: Techniques for the Study of Mycorrhiza, Norris, J.R., D.J. Read and A.K. Varma (Eds.). Chapter 16, Academic Press, San Diego, CA., USA., ISBN: 978-0-12-521524-4, pp: 317-322.
- Pande, M. and J.C. Tarafdar, 2004. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungal diversity in neem-based agroforestry systems in Rajasthan. *Applied Soil Ecol.*, 26: 233-241.
- Pawlowska, T.E., J. Blaszkowski and A. Ruhling, 1997. The mycorrhizal status of plants colonizing a calamine spoil mound in Southern Poland. *Mycorrhiza*, 6: 499-505.
- Powell, C.L. and D.J. Bagyaraj, 1984. *VA Mycorrhiza*. CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL., USA., ISBN-13: 9780849356940, Pages: 234.

- Puspitasari, R.T., 2005. Diversity of Arbuscular Mycorrhizal Fungi (AMF) at coastal Forest Ujung Genteng, Sukabumi-West Java. M.Sc. Thesis, Bogor Agricultural University, Indonesia.
- Ragupathy, S. and A. Mahadevan, 1991. Vesicular Arbuscular Mycorrhizal (VAM) distribution influenced by salinity gradient in a coastal tropical forest. Proceeding of the 2nd Asian Conference on Mycorrhiza Biotrop, March 11-15, 1991, Bogor, Indonesia, pp: 91-97.
- Rahman, W. and M.N. Abdullah, 2002. Efek naungan dan asal anakan terhadap pertumbuhan eboni (*Diospyros celebica* Bakh.). [Effect of shade and original seedling on the growth Eboni (*Diospyros celebica* Bakh.)]. Berita Biologi, 6: 297-301, (In Indonesia).
- Regvar, M., K. Vogel-Mikus, N. Kugonic, B. Turk and F. Batic, 2006. Vegetational and mycorrhizal successions at a metal polluted site: Indications for the direction of phytostabilisation? Environ. Pollut., 144: 976-984.
- Rillig, M.C., S.F. Wright, M.R. Shaw and C.B. Field, 2002. Artificial climate warming positively affects arbuscular mycorrhizae but decreases soil aggregate water stability in an annual grassland. Oikos, 97: 52-58.
- Sabaruddin, 2004. Keanekaragaman mikoriza arbuscular indigen pada tiga tataguna lahan. [Diversity of indigenous arbuscular mycorrhizae of three landuses]. Journal Agrikultura, 15: 80-85, (In Indonesian).
- Schneck, N.C. and Y. Perez, 1988. Manual for the Identification of VA Mycorrhizal Fungi. 2nd Edn., University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida.
- Schußler, A. and C. Walker, 2010. The *Glomeromycota*: A species list with new families and new genera. The Royal Botanic Garden, Gloucester, England, December 16, 2010, pp: 1-56.
- Shi, Z.Y., Y.L. Chen, G. Feng, R.J. Liu, P. Christie and X.L. Li, 2006. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi associated with the Meliaceae on Hainan island, China. Mycorrhiza, 16: 81-87.
- Shukla, A., D. Vyas and J. Anuradha, 2013. Soil depth: An overriding factor for distribution of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi. J. Soil Sci. Plant Nutr., 13: 23-33.
- Smith, S.E. and D.J. Read, 2008. Mycorrhizal Symbiosis. 3rd Edn., Academic Press, London, UK., ISBN-13: 9780080559346, Pages: 800.
- Sturmer, S.L. and J.O. Siqueira, 2011. Species richness and spore abundance of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi across distinct land uses in Western Brazilian Amazon. Mycorrhiza, 21: 255-267.
- Sturmer, S.L., R. Sturmer and R. Pasqualini, 2013. Taxonomic diversity and community structure of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (Phylum Glomeromycota) in three maritime sand dunes in Santa Catarina State, South Brazil. Fungal Ecol., 6: 27-36.
- Suciatmih, K.K., 2002. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi at different ecosystems of Gunung Halimun National Park. Berita Biologi, 6: 145-149.
- Surianegara, I. and R.H.M.J. Lemmens, 1994. Timber Trees: Major Commercial Timbers (Plant Resources in South-East Asia, No. 5, Part 1). Pudoc Scientific Publishers, Wageningen, The Netherlands, ISBN-13: 9789798316005, Pages: 610.
- Tawarayana, K., Y. Takaya, M. Turjaman, S.J. Tuah and S.H. Limin *et al.*, 2003. Arbuscular mycorrhizal colonization of tree species grown in peat swamp forests of Central Kalimantan, Indonesia. For. Ecol. Manage., 182: 381-386.
- Tian, H., R.A. Drijber, X.S. Niu, J.L. Zhang and X.L. Li, 2011. Spatio-temporal dynamics of an indigenous arbuscular mycorrhizal fungal community in an intensively managed maize agroecosystem in North China. Applied Soil Ecol., 47: 141-152.
- Turjaman, M., E. Santoso and Y. Sumarna, 2006. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi increased early growth of gaharu wood of *Aquilaria malaccensis* and *A. crasna* under greenhouse conditions. J. For. Res., 3: 139-148.
- Van der Heijden, M.G.A., R. Streitwolf-Engel, R. Riedl, S. Siegrist and A. Neudecker *et al.*, 2006. The mycorrhizal contribution to plant productivity, plant nutrition and soil structure in experimental grassland. New Phytol., 172: 739-752.
- Verma, N., J.C. Tarafdar, K.K. Srivastava and J. Panwar, 2008. Arbuscular Mycorrhizal (AM) diversity in *Prosopis cineraria* (L.) Druce under arid agroecosystems. Agric. Sci. China, 7: 754-761.
- Wang, B. and Y.L. Qiu, 2006. Phylogenetic distribution and evolution of mycorrhizas in land plants. Mycorrhiza, 16: 299-363.
- Wang, P., B. Shu, Y. Wang, D.J. Zhang, J.F. Liu and R.X. Xia, 2013. Diversity of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in red tangerine (*Citrus reticulata* Blanco) rootstock rhizospheric soils from hillside citrus orchards. Pedobiologia, 56: 161-167.
- Whitmore, T.C., I.G.M. Tantra and U. Sutisna, 1989. Tree flora of Indonesia: Checklist for Sulawesi. Ministry of Forest Research, Agency for Forestry and Development Centre, Bogor, Indonesia.
- Wolfe, B.E., D.L. Mummey, M.C. Rillig and J.M. Klironomos, 2007. Small-scale spatial heterogeneity of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungal abundance and community composition in a wetland plant community. Mycorrhiza, 17: 175-183.
- Wubet, T., M. Weiâ, I. Kottke, D. Teketay and F. Oberwinkler, 2004. Molecular diversity of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in *Prunus africana*, an endangered medicinal tree species in dry Afromontane forests of Ethiopia. New Phytol., 161: 517-528.
- Wubet, T., M. Weiâ, I. Kottke, D. Teketay and F. Oberwinkler, 2006. Phylogenetic analysis of nuclear small subunit rDNA sequences suggests that the endangered African Pencil Cedar, *Juniperus procera*, is associated with distinct members of Glomeraceae. Mycol. Res., 110: 1059-1069.
- Yang, A.N., L. Lu and N. Zhang, 2011. The diversity of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in the subtropical forest of Huangshan (Yellow Mountain), East-Central China. World J. Microbiol. Biotechnol., 27: 2351-2358.