# International Journal of Advanced Research in Biological Sciences ISSN: 2348-8069 www.ijarbs.com

# **Research Article**

# NI I I NA NI VANA NI PANAN

# Arbuscular mycorrhizae enhanced the growth and freezing tolerance of Mongolian crested wheatgrass (*Agropyron cristatum* (L.) Gaertn.)

Burenjargal Otgonsuren<sup>1</sup>, Jung-Tai Lee<sup>2</sup> and Ming-Jen Lee<sup>2\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Graduate Institute of Agriculture, National Chiayi University, Chiayi 60004, Taiwan, Republic of China <sup>1</sup>Department of Ecology, School of Agroecology, Mongolian University of Life Sciences, Khan-Uul District, Ulaanbaatar 210153, Mongolia <sup>2</sup>Department of Forestry and Natural Resources, National Chiayi University, Chiayi 60004, Taiwan,

Republic of China

\*Corresponding author: mjlee@mail.ncyu.edu.tw

#### Abstract

Agropyron cristatum (L.) Gaertn. (Crested wheatgrass) is a dominant endemic grass species of the Mongolian steppe. Our earlier study showed that the arbuscular mycorrhizal fungus (AMF) Acaulospora scrobiculata Trappeis capable of forming a symbiotic association with Mongolian crested wheatgrass. In this study, the effects of the arbuscular mycorrhizae (AM) on growth and freezing tolerance of crested wheatgrass were determined. Plant height, biomass and concentrations of chlorophyll, minerals and proline were significantly higher in mycorrhizal (M+) than non-mycorrhizal (M-) crested wheatgrass when grown at  $20\pm 3^{\circ}$ C in greenhouse. To test its cold tolerance, cold-acclimated crested wheatgrass seedlings were subjected to a freezing temperature of - 8, -11, -14, -15, -16 or-17^{\circ}C for 2 h and then cultivated at  $12 \pm 2^{\circ}$ C for 10 d. The leaf LT<sub>50</sub> (lethal temperature for causing 50% mortality) of the M- and M+ crested wheatgrass were -8 and -12.5°C, respectively. Consistently, the seedling LT<sub>50</sub> of M- and M+ crested wheatgrass were -11 and -15.5°C, respectively. These results demonstrated that *A. scrobiculata* could effectively form arbuscular mycorrhizae with crested wheatgrass, which significantly improves its nutrition concentrations, growth, and freezing tolerance.

Keywords: Agropyron cristatum, Acaulospora scrobiculata, Arbuscular mycorrhizae, Chlorophyll, Freezing Tolerance, Proline.

### Introduction

*Agropyron cristatum* (L.) Gaertn. (Crested wheatgrass) is a dominant endemic species in the Mongolian steppe. Available forages in this area consist primarily of *Stipa krylovii*, crested wheatgrass and *Allium polyrrhizum* (representing 80% of available phytomass), all of which are regarded as desirable forage plants (Retzer 2007).Crested wheatgrass is widely used in the restoration of the Mongolian grassland.

Arbuscular mycorrhizae (AM) is one of the most common symbioses worldwide and about 80% of

the known plant species form AM (Smith and Read 2008).The symbiosis contributes to improved water use and nutrient uptake, especially for elements with low soil mobility, such as P and Zn, and it increases plant tolerance to environmental stresses, such as nutrient deficiency, diseases, drought and salinity (Smith and Read 2008; Gupta and Kumar 2000).Previous research has examined the distribution of AMF in sandy area (Blaszkowski et al.2002), in agricultural soils (Oehl et al.2009), and in certain natural ecosystems (Guadarrama and Alvarez-Sanchez 1999), but few of them have looked into grasslands

(Smith and Read 2008), especially in arid and semiarid areas (Lugo and Cabello 2002), or areas with freezing temperatures.

Low temperature is one of the most important stress factors that reduce plant growth by affecting various physiological and metabolic processes (Charest and Phan 1990; Guy 1990). Low temperature decreases the capacity and efficiency of photosynthesis through changed pigment composition, declined electron transport and impaired chloroplast development (Farooq et al. 2009). Mycorrhizae enhance protection against low temperature stress, via better access to nutrients and maintenance of active physiology, i.e. intercellular CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, electron transport and photosynthetic enzyme activity (Zhu et al. 2010; Wu and Zou 2010). Charest et al. (1993) reported that mycorrhizae counteract chilling injury in maize (Zea mays L.). Volkmar and Woodbury (1989) also demonstrated that AMF are beneficial to the growth of barley (Hordeum vulgare L.) under different soil temperatures.

Frost injury to plants during the reproductive stage is a common problem in temperate region. Injury to leaves caused by late spring and early autumn frosts significantly reduces the growing season, and exerts a strong influence over plant production and its distribution (Woodward 1987). Late spring frosts are particularly damaging because they occur at a time when most plants have broken dormancy, and introduce significant costs for leaf replacement. Freezing injury is caused primarily by the physical disruption of cellular structures by ice crystal and desiccation resulting from the higher water potential of cellular contents than extracellular ice (Pearce 2001). However, the protective effect of mycorrhizae on plants subjected to cold temperatures has not yet been extensively studied.

Mongolia has a continental climate with extreme fluctuations in temperature, both daily and seasonally. Freezing events are critical to the ecology of the Mongolian steppe during spring time. Grasses in Mongolia usually begin to grow at the end of April or early May. Late spring frosts generally occur during May. Freezing injury can cause serious mortality of crested wheatgrass, the important endemic species of Mongolian steppe. Therefore, cold tolerance and survival play an important role in growth and survival of crested wheatgrass. Some measures must be taken to maintain or restore Mongolian grasslands. Thus, the aims of this study were to assess the effects of the native AMF on growth and freezing tolerance of Mongolian crested wheat grasses seedlings through mycorrhizal inoculation and freezing test. It is hoped that the findings from this study may contribute to the application of mycorrhizal technique in restoration of Mongolian grasslands.

# Materials and Methods

# Isolation, identification and propagation of AMF

Spores of AMF in rhizosphere soils of crested wheatgrass were extracted by wet sieving and decanting method (Gerdermann and Nicolson 1963; Tommerup 1992) and sucrose density gradient centrifugation (Daniels and Skipper, 1982), and then identified with reference to the key provided by the Culture Collection of Vesicular International Arbuscular **Mycorrhizal** Fungi (INVAM, http://www.invam.caf.wvu.edu). After identification, spores were subsequently propagated with corn seeds germinated in sterilized sand pot culture for AM fungal inoculum preparation. Spore sand was quantified for a further inoculation test.

# Plant material and growth conditions

Seeds of crested wheatgrass were collected from natural grassland in the vicinity of Ulaanbaatar city  $(107^{\circ}08\ 31\ E,\ 47^{\circ}45\ 767\ N,\ at\ an\ elevation\ of\ 1597m)$  of Mongolia. Seeds were first sterilized with a 10% sodium hypochlorite solution for 15 min, rinsed three times with sterile distilled water, and then germinated on sterilized mixture of peat moss, vermiculite and per litre (1:1:1, v/v). As the seedlings attained4cm in height, one plant was transferred to each pots (12 cm diameter and 10 cm height) filled with sterilized sand for AMF inoculation.

# AMF inoculation

The grass seedlings were inoculated with 10 g sand spore (*Acaulospora scrobiculata* containing  $15 \pm 5$  spores/g sand). Non-inoculated seedlings treated with the sand-spore filtrate served as the control. All seedlings were cultured in a greenhouse set at 20°C and 1000  $\pm$  200 µmole photons m<sup>-2</sup> sec<sup>-1</sup> photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD), and

watered with deionized water as needed without supplemental fertilization.

### Examination of mycorrhizae

After three months of culture, the roots of seedling were sampled and cleaned with water in a supersonic oscillator (Upson et al., 2007). Roots were cut into 1 cm segments, cleared in 10% KOH, treated with 3%  $H_2O_2$  and 1% HCl, and then stained with 0.05% Trypan blue. The morphology of mycorrhizae was observed with a stereomicroscope (Abbott 1982; Brundrett et al.,1996). Mycorrhizal root colonization was assessed by grid line intersection method (Giovannetti and Mosse 1980).

# **Cold acclimation**

Plants were subjected to four treatments (40 pots/treatment) as follows:

- **Non-stressed treatment**: plants, inoculated with AMF (*A. scrobiculata*) or non-inoculated (control), were grown in a greenhouse at 20±3°Cfor 9 months.
- Cold acclimation treatment: plants, inoculated with AMF (*A. scrobiculata*) or non-inoculated (control), were hardened for two weeks at 12°C under a 10 h photoperiod, and then cold acclimated at 2°C under an 8 h photo period for two weeks, 0°C for 24 h, and 2°C for 24 h (Pociecha et al. 2009). The cold acclimated plants were used for freezing test subsequently.

# Assessment of freezing tolerance

After hardening and cold acclimation, all dead leaves were removed and six plants in each treatment were subjected to freezing test at -8, -11, -14, -15, -16,or- $17^{\circ}$ C for 2 h (Rapacz et al. 2004). Then, the plants were transferred to a greenhouse at  $12\pm 2^{\circ}$ C,  $1000 \pm 200\mu$ mole photons m<sup>-2</sup> sec<sup>-1</sup> PPFD, and watered with deionized water. The extent of leaf injury was assessed in all plants exposed to freezing treatments. The total numbers of dead (>67% leaf area with necrotic symptom) and green leaves were counted in the following 3-7 days, and used to calculate leaf LT<sub>50</sub>. LT<sub>50</sub> was determined by controlled freezing treatment followed by visual rating of plants after 10 days of cultivation at  $12\pm 2^{\circ}$ C (Palonen and Buszard 1998).

# Estimation of photosynthetic pigment concentration

The photosynthetic pigments (chlorophyll a, b and a+b) were extracted and determined in the fresh leaves of crested wheatgrass, according to the spectrophotometric method of Tseng et al. (1991).Fresh tissue (0.05g) was sampled from the voungest fully expanded leaf, and chlorophyll was extracted with 10 ml 80% acetone and read at 663 and 645 nm using a UV/visible spectrophotometer.

# **Proline analysis**

Determination of free proline concentration was performed according to Bates et al. (1973). Leaf samples (0.5 g) from each plant were homogenized in 3% (w/v) sulphosalycylic acid and homogenate filtered through filter paper. After addition of acid ninhydrin and glacial acetic acid, the resulting mixture was heated at 100°C for 1 h in a water bath. Reaction was then stopped by cooling in an ice bath. The mixture was extracted with toluene, and the absorbance of fraction with toluene aspired from liquid phase was read at 520 nm. Proline concentration was determined using a calibration curve and expressed as mg/g fresh weight.

# Growth and yield measurements

After cold acclimation, four plants per treatment of non-inoculated and inoculated seedlings were harvested. Growth parameters including plant height, root length, number of leaves, areas of leaves, fresh and dry weights of leaves, stems and roots were determined. Dry weights were measured after drying the samples in an oven at  $70 \pm 2$ °C for 48 hr. Plant water contents were calculated using the following formula.

Plant water content = (fresh weight of plant – dry weight of plant / fresh weight of plant) \* 100%

Leaf area was measured using a Li-3100 leaf area meter (Li-COR, Inc., Lincoln, Nebraska, USA) and specific leaf area (SLA) was calculated according to the following equation.

(SLA  $(cm^2/g) = leaf area (cm^2) / leaf dry weight (g)).$ 

#### Leaf anatomy

Leaves were sampled and cut into 1cm long pieces, fixed in F.A.A. (Formalin: Acetic acid: Alcohol, 5: 5: 50, v/v) overnight, then rinsed with distilled water 3 times and dehydrated in 70% ethanol and a series of TBA concentration of 20, 35, 55, 75 and 100%. The specimens were embedded in paraffin wax (m.p. 56°C), and transverse sections of 10-12  $\mu$ m thickness were cut with a rotary microtome. Paraffin was removed with xylol and sections were stained with Safranin and Fast green (Ruzin 1999).

#### Mineral concentration analysis

For mineral concentration analysis, root, shoot, and leaf samples were oven-dried at 70±2°C and digested with concentrated  $H_2SO_4$  and  $H_2O_2$ . Nitrogen concentrations of root, shoot, and leaf were estimated by microkjeldahl method (MacDonald 1977). Phosphorus, potassium, calcium, sodium. and magnesium concentrations estimated by were inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometry.

## Quantification of mycorrhizal dependency

Mycorrhizal dependency was defined as the ratio of the dry weight of seedlings with and without inoculation with AMF (Graham and Syvertsen 1985).

#### Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using the software Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS 12.0, IL. USA) for window program. All data represent means of 4 separate experiments  $\pm$  standard error (n = 4). Differences in growth and physiological characteristic rates among treatments were analyzed by Tukey's multiple range tests at  $p \leq 0.05$  significant level.

#### **Results and Discussion**

# Identification and morphology of arbuscular mycorrhizae

After extraction, spores of AMF were collected. The AMF species was identified as *Acaulospora scrobiculata* using the synoptic keys and species morphology of the INVAM website (http://invam.caf.wvu.edu). *A. scrobiculata* were

formed singly in soil, orange yellow to orange brown and globose to subglobose (Fig. 1a). Three layers (L1, L2 and L3) of spore wall were observed in the *A. scrobiculata* (Fig. 1a). Also, germinal wall (gw), hypha remnant and pits were found (Fig. 1a).

Significant AM colonization was observed in crested wheatgrass inoculated with A. scrobiculata. The roots of inoculated seedlings produced network of external hyphae (Fig. 1b). Staining of root samples revealed that AM developed well in the roots of inoculated crested wheatgrass seedlings. Arbuscules and vesicles were also present abundantly in the roots of inoculated crested wheatgrass seedlings (Fig. 1c and d).Other AMF. such as Glomus macrocarpum, G. macrocarpum var. macrocarpum, were also found to form AM with Agropyron smithii in Colorado, USA (Singh, 2004). Caldwell et al. (1985) reported that the Asian Agropyron desertorum (Fisch. Ex Link) Schultes had a greater frequency of arbuscule formation than the North American species Agropyron spicatum (Pursh) Scribner & Smith in response to phosphorus fertilization. In our study, three months after inoculation, 65% root colonization and external hyphae, spores, vesicles, and arbuscules, were observed in roots of crested wheatgrass seedlings (Fig. 1b, c and d).

#### **Plant growth**

The cold temperature treatments significantly decreased all growth parameters of crested wheat grasses, such as plant height, root length, dry weight of AMF inoculated and non-inoculated plants (Tables 1and 2). However, the height and root length of AMF inoculated crested wheat grass were significantly higher than those of non-inoculated ones under both normal growth and cold acclimation conditions (Table 1). At normal growth condition, the enhancements in these two parameters were 103% and 90%, respectively, whereas at cold acclimation, the enhancements in plant height and root length were 134% and 186%, respectively. In addition, the dry weights of roots, stems and leaves of AMF inoculated crested wheat grass were also significantly higher than those of the controls under both conditions (Table 2).In our study, the beneficial effect of AMF symbiosis on plant growth and dry weight under different temperature conditions was in agreement with previous studies using other plant species (Anderson et al. 1987; Volkmar and Woodbury 1989; Charest et al. 1993; Gavito et al. 2003; Zhu et al.



Fig. 1 Morphology of root of crested wheat grass inoculated with A. scrobiculata. a Morphology of A. scrobiculata.
 b External hyphae (arrowhead) and chlamydospores (s) produced by A. scrobiculata. c Structure of root with vesicles (arrowhead). d Structure of root with arbusculus (arrowhead). Bars=100 μm.

Treatment	Plant height (cm)	Root(cm)
As	$55.8\pm4.35^{\text{a}}$	$27.5\pm2.08^{\rm a}$
AsC	$33.5 \pm 8.02^{b}$	$19.3\pm1.50^{\mathrm{b}}$
С	$27.5 \pm 2.08^{b}$	$14.5 \pm 2.65^{\circ}$
CC	$14.3 \pm 4.19^{\circ}$	$6.75\pm0.96^{d}$

 Table 1 Growth of inoculated and control (non-inoculated) seedlings under normal growth and cold acclimation conditions

All values were means± standard error of four replicates.

Values in the same column with different superscript letters are significantly different at 5% significant level. As A. scrobiculata + normal condition. AsC A. scrobiculata +cold acclimation. C control + normal condition. CC control + cold acclimation

Table 2 Dry biomass of inoculated and control seedlings under normal growth and cold acclimation conditions

		Dry biomass (g)	
Treatment	Root	Stem	Leaf
As	$0.99\pm0.31^{\rm a}$	$1.09\pm0.34^{\rm a}$	$1.32\pm0.27^{\rm a}$
AsC	$0.54\pm0.07^{\rm b}$	$0.82\pm0.31^{ab}$	$0.82\pm0.60^{\rm b}$
С	$0.15 \pm 0.03^{\circ}$	$0.34 \pm 0.01^{bc}$	$0.49 \pm 0.11^{bc}$
CC	$0.07 \pm 0.04^{\circ}$	$0.12\pm0.07^{\circ}$	$0.18 \pm 0.06^{\circ}$

All values were means± standard error of four replicates.

Values in the same column with different superscript letters are significantly different at 5% significant level. The treatments were the same as those specified in Table 1.

2010; Wu and Zou 2010). Di and Allen (1991) reported that root dry biomasses of AM inoculated 2 diploid cultivars (Agropvron cristatum cv. 'Fairway' and A. cristatum ssp. puberulum) were significantly lower than non-ionculated plants, but AMF inoculated other cultivars (A. desertorum cv. 'Nordan', A.cristatumxdesertorum 'Hycrest', CV. A. cristatum (Iran) and A. cristatum (USSR) )showed no significant differences in dry biomass. Another study showed that A. smithii had increased biomass with AM inoculation in low P soils, but had no significant change in biomass with inoculation in high P soils (Duce 1987; Miller et al. 1987). Our study revealed that Acaulospora scrobiculata inoculation largely promoted the growth and biomass of crested wheatgrass seedlings under normal and cold acclimation (Tables 1 and 2). The mycorrhizal influence was more pronounced in aerial biomass than in root biomass (Table 2) which may be due to a proportionally greater allocation of carbohydrates to the shoot than to the root tissues after AMF colonization (Schwab et al. 1982).

Furthermore, under normal and cold acclimation conditions, the inoculated crested wheatgrasses had

significantly higher leaf blade number, leaf area and specific leaf area compared with non-inoculated plants (Table 3).Under normal condition, the enhancements in leaf blade number, leaf area and specific leaf area were 91, 182 and 25%, respectively, whereas after cold acclimation, the enhancements in these parameters were 88, 311 and 130%, respectively. Taken together, these results showed that A. scrobiculata could effectively stimulate leaf growth of crested wheatgrass. Consistently, Berta et al. (1995) found that inoculated arbuscular mycorrhizal colonization with either of the arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi Glomus mosseae or Glomus intraradices increased root, stem and leaf weights, leaf area, root length and specific leaf area of Prunus cerasifera. Busquets et al. (2010) also reported that plants of cvtisoides inoculated with Anthyllis Glomus intraradices produced more leaves than the control. Di and Allen (1991) found AM inoculated a hexaploid cultivar (A. cristatum from U.S.S.R) produced significantly higher tillers, while AM inoculated the tetraploid A. desertorum cv. 'Nordan' had fewer tillers and wider leaves.

Treatment	Leaf area (cm <sup>2</sup> )	Leaf blade (n)	Specific leaf area (cm <sup>2</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> )
As	$110\pm9.2^{a}$	$42\pm3.3^{a}$	121±3.5 <sup>a</sup>
AsC	$78 \pm 3.7^{b}$	$30 \pm 4.8^{b}$	$106{\pm}6.5^{ m ab}$
С	$39 \pm 2.8^{\circ}$	$22 \pm 3.9^{bc}$	$97 \pm 10.2^{\mathrm{b}}$
CC	$19{\pm}1.4^{d}$	$16 \pm 1.7^{\circ}$	$46 \pm 2.9^{\circ}$

Table 3 Leaf area, leaf blade and specific leaf area of seedlings after cold acclimation

All values were means± standard error of four replicates.

Values in the same column with different superscript letters are significantly different at 5% significant level. The treatments were the same as those specified in Table 1.

Under cold acclimation, the water content of stem and leaf of non-inoculated crested wheat grasses were significantly higher than normal treatments, while there was no differences between root water content of cold acclimated and normal control plants (Table 4). However, the water content of root and stem of A. scrobiculata inoculated grasses were significantly decreased by cold acclimation, while the water content of leaf was significantly higher under cold acclimation (Table 4). Little is known about the influence of AM inoculums on water status of plants under low temperature. Zhu et al. (2010) reported that relative water content and water saturation deficit in mycorrhizal and non-mycorrhizal plant leaves were similar at all temperature treatments, but water conservation in the leaves and water use efficiency

were higher in mycorrhizal than non-mycorrhizal plants at all temperature treatments. EI-Tohamy et al. (1999) pointed out that mycorrhizal bean plants had higher leaf water potential during chilling stress. However, our study showed that leaf water content of mycorrhizal and non-mycorrhizal plants had no significant differences under normal condition, while water contents of root, stem and leaf of mycorrhizal plants were significantly lower than non-mycorrhizal plants under cold acclimation.

The mycorrhizal dependency of crested wheat grass on arbuscular mycorrhiza with *A. scrobiculata* was estimated to be 291% based on biomass accumulation under normal growth condition and 489% under cold condition. These results showed that mycorrhizal

#### Int. J. Adv. Res. Biol. Sci. 2(8): (2015): 191-204

dependency is more significant at low temperatures. The mycorrhizal dependency of crested wheatgrass with *A. scrobiculata* indicated a high degree of responsiveness of crested wheatgrass growth to mycorrhizal colonization. A similar effectiveness of AMF for tree species in arid land was also reported by Dixon et al. (1997). Furthermore, Bhoopander and Mukerji (2004) reported that under salt stress condition, the mycorrhizal dependency of *Sesbania aegyptiaca* and *S. grandiflora* increased with the age of the plants.

		Water content (%)	
Treatment	Root	Stem	Leaf
As	$67.3 \pm 0.2^{b}$	$50.2\pm0.2^{ m d}$	$66.1 \pm 0.1^{\circ}$
AsC	$66.0 \pm 0.3^{\circ}$	$53.5\pm0.6^{\rm c}$	$67.7 \pm 0.1^{b}$
С	$74.7\pm0.8^{\rm a}$	$59.3 \pm 0.3^{b}$	$66.0 \pm 0.1^{\circ}$
CC	$75.0 \pm 0.1^{a}$	$64.5\pm0.3^{\rm a}$	$79.0\pm0.1^{a}$

All values were means± standard error of four replicates, and analyzed after arcsine transformation. Values in the same column with different superscript letters are significantly different at 5% significant level. The treatments were the same as those specified in Table 1.

# **Chlorophyll concentration**

In general, the concentrations of chlorophyll (a, b, and a+b) in all treatments were significantly reduced by temperatures (Table 5). However, low the concentrations of photosynthetic pigments (chlorophylls a, b and a+b in leaves) of crested wheatgrass inoculated with A. scrobiculata were significantly greater than those of non-inoculated ones under normal growth, hardening and cold acclimation conditions (Table 5). For example, after cold acclimation the chlorophyll concentrations (a, b, and a+b) of inoculated crested wheatgrass (AsC) increased two fold compared to non-inoculated ones (CC) (Table 5).These results showed that AMF inoculation significantly increase the chlorophyll concentration of crested wheatgrass leaves at low temperatures, in agreement with the results of wheat and maize under cold stress by Paradis et al. (1995) and Zhu et al. (2010). Clearly, mycorrhizae improved the nutritional status and support higher chlorophyll concentration (Rachel et al. 1992), which would subsequently lead to a higher photosynthesis.

Table 5 Chlorophyll concentrations of seedlings under normal growth, hardening and cold acclimation conditions

		Concentration(mg g <sup>-1</sup> )	
Treatment	Chlorophyll a	Chlorophyll b	Chlorophyll a+b
As	$1.98\pm0.16^{\rm a}$	$1.04\pm0.19^{\rm a}$	$3.03{\pm}0.30^{a}$
AsH	$1.31 \pm 0.76^{b}$	$0.80{\pm}0.05^{a}$	$2.11 \pm 0.10^{b}$
AsC	$0.88 \pm 0.11^{\circ}$	$0.39 \pm 0.07^{bc}$	$1.27 \pm 0.16^{\circ}$
С	1.25±0.17 <sup>b</sup>	$0.51 \pm 0.07^{ m b}$	$1.76 \pm 0.13^{b}$
СН	$0.71{\pm}0.18^{cd}$	$0.44\pm0.18^{\text{b}}$	$1.15 \pm 0.32^{\circ}$
CC	$0.45 \pm 0.09^{d}$	$0.14\pm0.08^{ m d}$	$0.58\pm0.06^{ m d}$

All values were means± standard error of four replicates.

Values in the same column with different superscript letters are significantly different at 5% significant level. **As** A. scrobiculata + normal growth condition. **AsH** A.scrobiculata + hardening.**AsC** A. scrobiculata + cold acclimation. **C** control + normal growth condition.**CH** control + hardening.**CC** control + cold acclimation

#### **Proline concentration**

Proline is an osmoprotectant, which has been shown to accumulate in response to abiotic stresses (Janda et al. 2003; Naidu et al. 1991). Proline accumulation was more pronounced in low temperature treated plants of tobacco than in non-treated control plants (Konstantinova et al. 2002).In our study, proline concentration was significantly higher after cold acclimation in both AMF inoculated and noninoculated crested wheatgrass, as compared to hardened and cold acclimated plants (Table 6). However, under normal growth condition there were no significant differences in proline concentration between AM-inoculated and noninoculated grasses. Cold acclimation and hardening increased the proline concentration of crested wheat

grasses inoculated with A. scrobiculata by 53.9% and 14.7%, respectively, in comparison with noninoculated crested wheatgrasses. Abdel Latef and Chaoxing (2010) reported that proline concentration in the leaves of mycorrhizal tomato plants was lower than in non-mycorrhizal plants at 8°C.On the contrary, our results indicated that the accumulation of proline in crested wheatgrass leaves is increased by AMF inoculation under both hardening and cold acclimation conditions and higher leaf proline concentrations were found in AMF inoculated crested wheatgrass compared with non-inoculated seedlings. Our results clearly showed that A. scrobiculata inoculation significantly stimulates proline accumulation at low temperatures, which may contribute to cold tolerance of crested wheatgrass.

Table 6 Proline concentrations of seedlings under normal growth, hardening and cold acclimation treatments

Treatment	Proline concentration (ppm)
As	$2.95\pm0.51^{\rm d}$
AsH	$6.07 \pm 0.31^{\circ}$
AsC	$18.71 \pm 2.42^{\mathrm{a}}$
С	$2.83\pm0.66^{\rm d}$
CH	$5.29\pm0.47^{\rm cd}$
CC	$12.16\pm0.88^{\mathrm{b}}$

All values were means± standard error of four replicates.

Values in the same column with different superscript letters are significantly different at 5% significant level. The treatments were the same as those specified in Table 5.

#### **Concentrations of mineral elements**

AMF inoculation significantly increased the nitrogen and mineral (P, K, Ca, Mg, and Na) concentrations in roots, stems and leaves of crested wheatgrass seedlings under both normal growth condition and cold acclimation conditions (Tables7 and 8).The concentrations of elements (Ca, K, Mg, Na, P and N) in roots, stems and leaves of AMF inoculated and noninoculated crested wheatgrass seedlings reduced significantly when subjected to low temperature stress. However, the mineral concentrations were higher in AMF inoculated crested wheatgrass than the controls. In this study, A. scrobiculata inoculation was found to significantly increase the acquisition of nitrogen and mineral (P, K, Ca, Mg, and Na) in roots, stems and leaves of crested wheatgrass seedlings under normal and cold acclimation (Tables7 and 8), that presumably stimulated its growth productivity (Tables 1-3). Consistent to our results, previous studies also have shown that growth and mineral nutrition of plants are

198

commonly enhanced by AMF inoculation (Clark and Zeto2000; Javot et al. 2007; Wu and Zou 2009). Smith and Read (2008) reported that AMF increases plant growth mainly by increasing nutrient acquisition and thus enhances the plant's resistance to both biotic and abiotic stresses. Thus, our results also demonstrated the significant effect of *A. scrobiculata* inoculation on the nutrition and growth of crested wheatgrass.

#### **Freezing tolerance**

The freezing tolerance test revealed that leaf mortalities of non-inoculated crested wheatgrass were higher than those of the inoculated plants. The leaf  $LT_{50}$  of the non-inoculated crested wheatgrass was -8°C, whereas the leaf  $LT_{50}$  of the inoculated ones was lowered to -12.5°C (Table 9, Fig. 2a). Similarly, the plant  $LT_{50}$  of non-inoculated crested wheatgrass was -11°C, while that of the inoculated ones was lowered to -15.5°C (Table 10, Fig. 2b). In both analyses, the freezing tolerance was enhanced by 4.5°C.

	Treatments	Ca (mg g <sup>-1</sup> )	K (mg g <sup>-1</sup> )	Mg (mg g <sup>-1</sup> )	Na (mg g <sup>-1</sup> )	P (mg g <sup>-1</sup> )
	As	$1529 \pm 185^{a}$	$1774 \pm 298^{a}$	$281 \pm 76^{a}$	$736 \pm 46^{a}$	$7534 \pm 3803^{a}$
Deet	AsC	$874 \pm 155^{b}$	$1016 \pm 123^{b}$	$151 \pm 11^{b}$	$352 \pm 77^{b}$	3626±234 <sup>b</sup>
ROOL	С	$434 \pm 50^{\circ}$	509±93°	$92\pm34^{bc}$	187±19 <sup>c</sup>	1293±306 <sup>bc</sup>
	CC	$218 \pm 50^{d}$	$299 \pm 52^{d}$	$48\pm3^{c}$	$98{\pm}29^{d}$	693±39 <sup>c</sup>
	As	$1849 \pm 563^{a}$	3099±1166 <sup>a</sup>	$872 \pm 351^{a}$	$803 \pm 62^{a}$	5616±906 <sup>a</sup>
Stam	AsC	$877 \pm 74^{b}$	$1753 \pm 357^{b}$	$462 \pm 21^{b}$	493±65 <sup>b</sup>	$3073 \pm 1016^{b}$
Stem	С	601±37 <sup>bc</sup>	726±52 <sup>bc</sup>	114±11 <sup>c</sup>	$187 \pm 5^{c}$	724±135 <sup>c</sup>
	CC	273±14 <sup>c</sup>	332±41 <sup>c</sup>	$74 \pm 10^{d}$	$102 \pm 16^{d}$	$498 \pm 13^{d}$
	As	1233±196 <sup>a</sup>	$5071 \pm 215^{a}$	$302 \pm 92^{a}$	$805 \pm 82^{a}$	5369±268 <sup>a</sup>
T f	AsC	$906 \pm 151^{b}$	$3254 \pm 489^{b}$	$127 \pm 8^{b}$	$502 \pm 114^{b}$	3164±161 <sup>b</sup>
Lear	С	$527 \pm 92^{c}$	1171±117 <sup>c</sup>	$103 \pm 16^{bc}$	250±112 <sup>c</sup>	$1225 \pm 88^{\circ}$
	CC	$247 \pm 51^{d}$	$602 \pm 37^{d}$	$55\pm10^{\circ}$	$140 \pm 15^{d}$	$859\pm66^{d}$

Int. J. Adv. Res. Biol. Sci. 2(8): (2015): 191-204

Table 7 Mineral concentrations of root, stem and leaf of inoculated and control seedlings after cold acclimation

All values were means  $\pm$  standard error of four replicates.

Values in the same column with different superscript letters are significantly different at 5% significant level. The treatments were the same as those specified in Table 1.

Table 8 Nitrogen concentrations of inoculated and control seedlings after cold acclimation

		N (% dry weigł	nt)
Ireatment	Root	Stem	Leaf
As	$1.19 \pm 0.25^{a}$	$2.42{\pm}0.57^{a}$	$2.94{\pm}1.41^{a}$
AsC	$0.73 \pm 0.18^{b}$	$1.37 \pm 0.19^{b}$	$1.21 \pm 0.15^{b}$
С	$0.47 \pm 0.08^{bc}$	$0.76 \pm 0.39^{bc}$	$1.17 \pm 0.30^{b}$
CC	$0.30\pm0.14^{\circ}$	$0.33 \pm 0.05^{\circ}$	$0.69{\pm}0.07^{\circ}$

All values were means  $\pm$  standard error of four replicates, and analyzed after arcsine transformation. Values in the same column with different superscript letters are significantly different at 5% significant level. The treatments were the same as those specified in Table 1.

Table 9 Leaf mortality percentage of seedlings after cold acclimation and freezing treatments

			Leaf mort	ality (%)		
Treatment	-8°C	-11°C	-14°C	-15°C	-16°C	-17°C
A. scrobiculata	18.8±5.7 <sup>b</sup>	$34.7 \pm 7.3^{b}$	67±3.9 <sup>b</sup>	81.9±2.5 <sup>b</sup>	93.1±3.4 <sup>a</sup>	100±0.0 <sup>a</sup>
Control	$50.6 \pm 5.6^{a}$	$88.9 \pm 12.9^{a}$	$100{\pm}0.0^{a}$	$100{\pm}0.0^{a}$	$100 \pm 0.0^{a}$	$100{\pm}0.0^{a}$

All values were means  $\pm$  standard error of four replicates, and analyzed after arcsine transformation. Values in the same column with different superscript letters are significantly different at 5% significant level. Control: non-inoculated seedlings.

Examination of plant recovery after the freezing treatment revealed that crested wheatgrass inoculated with *A. scrobiculata* had better freezing tolerance than the non-inoculated ones as well. For example, at -11°C, a temperature occurred frequently in the winter in Mongolia, the plant mortality rates for inoculated and non-inoculated plants were  $16.7\pm4.1$  and  $50.0\pm5.5\%$ , respectively, representing a 3fold increase

in cold tolerance (Table 10). Clearly, AMF inoculation could largely improve the survival rate of crested wheatgrass, with a 100% survival rate at temperature as low as  $-8^{\circ}$ C. These results, taken together, demonstrated that inoculation of AMF *A. scrobiculata* significantly improves the freezing tolerance of crested wheatgrass, by as much as  $4.5^{\circ}$ C (Fig. 2b).

Int. J. Adv. Res. Biol. Sci. 2(8): (2015): 191–204 Table 10 Whole plant mortality percentage of seedlings inoculated with *A. scrobiculata* and control under different freezing temperatures

Treatment			Plant morta	ality (%)		
	-8°C	-11°C	-14°C	-15°C	-16°C	-17°C
A. scrobiculata	$0.0{\pm}0.0^{b}$	16.7±4.1 <sup>b</sup>	16.7±4.1 <sup>b</sup>	$33.3 \pm 5.2^{b}$	66.7±5.2 <sup>b</sup>	$100{\pm}0.0^{a}$
Control	$33.3 \pm 5.0^{a}$	$50.0 \pm 5.5^{a}$	$66.7 \pm 5.1^{a}$	$100{\pm}0.0^{a}$	$100{\pm}0.0^{a}$	$100{\pm}0.0^{a}$

All values were means  $\pm$  standard error of four replicates, and analyzed after arcsine transformation. Values in the same column with different superscript letters are significantly different at 5% significant level. Control: non-inoculated seedlings



Fig. 2 Leaf (a) and seedling (b) mortality  $LT_{50}$  of crested wheatgrass inoculated with *A. scrobiculata* and the non-inoculated control.

Observations of the inoculated and non-inoculated control plants showed that leaves rolled up during freezing. Under sunlight, the leaves of crested wheatgrass exhibited a freeze-injury symptom of browning, followed by leaf desiccation. Freezing injury of leaves in the control crested wheatgrass seedlings was higher than the inoculated seedlings. For example, -14°C freezing stress caused serious damage of many leaf cells in the leaves of control seedlings including chloroplasts, vascular bundle and epidermis, while the freezing temperature caused less freezing injury in the epidermis and mesophyll cells in leaves of the inoculated seedlings (Fig. 3). In this study, comparison of the cross section of leaves of AM inoculated and the control seedlings showed that the sizes of bulliform and bundle sheath cells were increased by freezing stress (Fig.3). These enlarged bulliform cells are very crucial in adaption to freezing temperatures as these cells are responsible for leaf folding and rolling movement to reduce water loss (Abernethy et al. 1998). Ball et al. (2004) also found that frost-freezing in unacclimated leaf tissues of Eucalyptus pauciflora caused irreversible tissue damage consistent with tissue death as intracellular ice formed in the cambium and phloem, killing the cells

and leaving persistent gaps between xylem and phloem.

Examination of leaf cross sections showed that the number of mesophyll cells of AM inoculated and noninoculated crested wheatgrass decreased after freezing stress, as compared with non-stressed plants, presumably due to cell lysis, whilst the numbers of mesophyll cell of AM inoculated crested wheatgrass were higher than non-inoculated ones after freezing stress (Fig. 3). Furthermore, our results showed that the leaf thickness was significantly increased by freezing temperature with the expansion of cells compared with those of normal condition treatments (Fig. 3, Table 11). The increase in leaf thickness of the inoculated crested wheatgrass was 31.5%, while that of non-inoculated crested wheatgrass was 36.2% after freezing test. However, the differences in leaf thickness were not significantly different between AM inoculated and non-inoculated crested wheatgrass (Table 11). Other studies also showed a similar coldinduced increase in leaf thickness and cell dimensions in oilseed rape (Brassicanapus L. var. oleifera) (Maciejewska and Kacperska 1987; Stefanowska et al. 1999).



**Fig. 3** Cross section of leaves of crested wheatgrass inoculated with *A. scrobiculata* and control. *a* Crested wheatgrass inoculated with *A. scrobiculata* under normal condition. *b* Crested wheatgrass inoculated with *A. scrobiculata* after 2 hrs of -14°C freezing stress. *c* Non-inoculated crested wheatgrass under normal condition. *d* Non-inoculated crested wheatgrass after 2 hrs of -14°C freezing stress. Stars indicated (\*)severe freezing injury in the mesophyll cells and vascular bundle of crested wheatgrass inoculated with *A. scrobiculata* and control, respectively; *Bars* =50 µm. **E** (**upper**)Upper epidermis; **E**(**lower**)Lower epidermis. **EP** -Epidermal papilla. **Sc**- Schlerenchyma. **P**-Phloem. **X-**Xylem. **M**-Mesophyll cells. **BS**-Bundle sheath cells. **BC**- Bulliform cells. **St**- **S**toma.

Treatment	Leaf thickness(mm)
As	$0.074 \pm 0.002^{b}$
AsF	$0.111 \pm 0.001^{a}$
С	$0.076 \pm 0.002^{\mathrm{b}}$
CF	$0.116 \pm 0.003^{a}$

 Table 11 Leaf thickness of crested wheatgrasses after freezing test

All values were means  $\pm$  standard error of four replicates.

Values in the same column with different superscript letters are significantly different at 5% significant level. **As***A*. *scrobiculata* + normal condition. **AsF** *A*.*scrobiculata* + *freezing*. **C** control + normal condition. **CF** *control* + *freezing* (2h,  $-14^{\circ}$ C).

These results collectively showed that leaves of noninoculated grasses were more sensitive to freeze temperatures, whereas leaves of AMF inoculated grasses were relatively freezing tolerant. Thus, AMF inoculation can improve the freezing tolerance of crested wheatgrass leaves, presumably by enhanced proline accumulation (Table 6).

# Conclusion

Our study showed that *A. scrobiculata* could effectively form arbuscular mycorrhizae in the roots of crested wheatgrass seedlings (Fig. 1). *A. scrobiculata* inoculation significantly promoted the growth and biomass accumulation of crested wheatgrass seedlings.

The enhancement in growth was reflected in increased plant height, root length, leaf blade number, leaf area and specific leaf area of A. scrobiculata inoculated crested wheatgrass. A. scrobiculata inoculation also significantly increased the chlorophyll, mineral (P, K, Ca, Mg, and Na) and nitrogen concentrations in all tissues of crested wheatgrass (Tables5, 7 and 8). Furthermore, our results showed that low temperature and A. scrobiculata inoculation increase the freezing tolerance of crested wheatgrass (Tables 9 and 10), presumably due to the accumulation of the compatible solute proline (Table 6). Most significantly, the leaf and plant LT<sub>50</sub> of the inoculated crested wheatgrass were4.5°Clowerthan non-inoculated plants (Fig. 2) with a lower cellular damage (Fig. 3). Inoculated crested wheatgrass plants exhibited a total survival at temperatures as low as -11°C, while only 50% of the non-inoculated crested wheatgrass could survive this freezing temperature. Taken together, these results demonstrate that A. scrobiculata could effectively form arbuscular mycorrhizae with crested wheatgrass and improve its growth and freezing tolerance, which will be very useful for the restoration of Mongolian steppe.

# Acknowledgments

The authors wish to thank Professor Maurice S. B. Ku of Department of Bioagricultural Science of National Chiayi University for reviewing the manuscript. Financial support from the National Chiayi University is also gratefully acknowledged.

# References

- Abbott LK (1982) Comparative anatomy of vesiculararbuscular mycorrhizal formed on subterranean clover. Aust J Botany30:485–499
- Abdel Latef AAH, Chaoxing H (2010) Arbuscular mycorrhizal influence on growth, photosynthetic pigments, osmotic adjustment and oxidative stress in tomato plants subjected to low temperature stress. Acta Physiol Plant.DOI 10.1007/s11738-010-0650-3
- Abernethy GA, Fountain DW, McManus MT (1998) Observations on the leaf anatomy of *Festuca novae-zelandiae* and biochemical responses to a water deficit. N Z J Bot36:113–123
- Anderson CP, Sucoff EI, Dixon RK(1987) The influence of low soil temperature on the growth of

vesicular-arbuscular mycorrhizal *Fraxinus pennsylvanica*. Can J For Res 17:951–956

- Ball MC, Canny MJ, Huang CX, Heady RD (2004) Structural changes in acclimated and unacclimated leaves during freezing and thawing. Func Plant Biol 31:29–40
- Bates LS, Waldern RP, Teare LD (1973) Rapid determination of free proline for water stress studied. Plant Soil 39:205–206
- Berta G, Trotta A, Fusconi A, Hooker JE, Munro M, Atkinson A,Giovannetti M,Morini S, Fortuna P, Tisserant B,Gianinazzi-Pearson V, Gianinazzi G (1995) Arbuscular mycorrhizal induced changes to plant growth and root system morphology in *Prunus cerasifera*. Tree Physiol 15:281–93
- Bhoopander G, Mukerji KG (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
- Blaszkowski J, Tadych M, Madej T (2002) Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (Glomales, Zygomycota) of the Bledowska DesertPoland. Acta Soc BotPol71:71– 85.
- Brundrett MC, Bougher N, Dell B, Grove T, Malajczuk N (1996)Working with mycorrhizas in forestry and agriculture. *ACIAR* Monograph 32:1– 374
- Busquets D, Calvet C, Victoria A, Esta n V (2010)Differential effects of two species of arbuscular mycorrhiza on the growth and water relations of *Spartium junceum* and *Anthyllis cytisoides*. Symbiosis 52:95–101
- Caldwell MM, Eissenstat DM, Richards JH, Allen MF (1985) Competition for phosphorus: Differential uptake from dual-isotope-labeled soil interspaces between shrub and grass. Science 229:384–386
- Charest C, Phan CT (1990) Cold acclimation of wheat (*Triticum aestivum*): properties of enzymes involved in proline metabolism. Physiol Plant80:159–168
- Charest C, Dalpé Y, Brown A (1993) The effect of vesicular arbuscular mycorrhizas and chilling on two hybrids of *Zea mays* L. Mycorrhiza4:89–92
- Clark RB, ZetoSK (2000) Mineral acquisition by arbuscular mycorrhizal plants. J Plant Nutr 23:867– 902
- Daniels BA, Skipper HD (1982) Methods for the recovery and quantitative estimation of propagules from soil. Methods and Principles of Mycorrhizal

Research. Ed. N. C. Schenck. The American Phytopathological Society, pp29–36

- Di JJ, Allen EB (1991) Physiological responses of six wheatgrass cultivars to mycorrhizae. J Range Manage 44:336–341
- Dixon RK, Mukerji KG, Chamola BP, Kaushik A (1997) Vesicular arbuscular mycorrhizal symbiosis in relationship to forestation in arid lands. Ann For 5:1–9
- Duce DH (1987) Effects of vesicular-arbuscular mycorrhizae on *Agropyron smithii* grown under drought stress and their influence on organic phosphorus mineralization. M. S. Thesis, Utah State Univ., Logan.
- EI-Tohamy W, Schnitzler WH, EI-Behairy U, EI-Beltagy MS(1999) Effect of VA mycorrhiza on improving drought and chilling tolerance of bean plants (*Phaseolus vulgaris*). J Appl Bot 73:178– 183
- Farooq M, Aziz T, Wahid A, Lee DJ, Siddique KHM (2009) Chilling tolerance in maize: agronomic and physiological approaches. Crop Pasture Sci 60:501–516
- Gavito ME, Schweiger P, Jakobsen I (2003) P uptake by arbuscular mycorrhizal hyphae: effect of soil temperature and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> enrichment. Glob Change Biol 9:106–116
- Gerdemann JW, Nicolson TH (1963) Spores of mycorrhizal Endogone species extracted from soils by wet sieving and decanting methods. Trans Br Mycol Soc 46:235–244
- Giovannetti M, Mosse B (1980) An evaluation technique for measuring vesicular and arbuscular mycorrhizal infection in roots. NewPhytol84:489– 500
- Graham JH, Syvertsen JP (1985) Host determinants of mycorrhizal dependency of citrus rootstock seedlings. New Phytol101:667–676
- Guadarrama P, Alvarez-Sanchez FJ (1999) Abundance of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi spores in different environments in a tropical rain forest Veracruz Mexico. Mycorrhiza8:267–270
- Gupta R, Kumar P (2000) Mycorrhizal plants in response to adverse environmental conditions. *In*: Mycorrhizal Biology, Plenum Publisher, India, pp 67–84
- Guy CL (1990) Cold acclimation and freezing stress tolerance: role of protein metabolism. Ann Rev Plant Physiol Plant MolBiol41:187–223
- Janda T, Szalai G, Rios-Gonzalek K, Veisz O, Paldi E (2003) Comparative study of frost tolerance and

- antioxidant activity in cereals. Plant Sci 164:301-306
- Javot H, Pumplin N, HarrisonMJ (2007) Phosphate in the arbuscular mycorrhizal symbiosis: transport properties and regulatory roles. Plant Cell Environ 30:310–22
- Konstantinova T, Parvanova D, Atanassov A, Djilianov D (2002) Freezing tolerance tobacco transformed to accumulate osmoprotectants. Plant Sci 163:157–164
- LugoMA, CabelloMN (2002) Nativearbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) from mountain grassland (*C rdoba argentina*) I. Seasonal variation of fungal spore diversity. Mycologia 94:579–586
- MacDonald DC (1977) Methods of soil and tissue analysis used in the analytical laboratory. Canadian Forestry Service Information Report MM-X-78
- Maciejewska U, Kacperska A (1987). Changes in the level of oxidized and reduced pyridine nucleotides during cold acclimation of winter rape plants. Physiol Plant69:687–691
- Miller RM, Jarstfer AG, Pillai JK (1987) Biomass allocation in an *Agropyron smithii-Glomus* symbiosis. Am J Bot 74:114–122
- Naidu BP, Paleg LG, Aspinall D, Jennings AC, Jones GP (1991) Amino acid and glycine betaine accumulation in cold-stressed wheat seedlings. Phytochem 30:407–409
- Oehl F, Sieverding E, Ineichen K, Mader P, Wiemken A, Boller T (2009) Distinct sporulation dynamics of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungal communities from different agro-ecosystems in longtermmicrocosms. Agri Ecosys Environ 134:257– 268
- Palonen P, Buszard D (1998) In vitro screening for cold hardiness of raspberry cultivars. Plant Cell Tiss Org Cult 53:213–216
- Paradis R, DalpéY, Charest C (1995) The combined effect of arbuscular mycorrhizas and short-term cold exposure on wheat. New Phytol 129:637–642
- Pearce RS (2001) Plant freezing and damage. Ann Bot 87:417–424
- Pociecha E, Plazek A, Janowiak F, Zwierzykowski Z (2009) ABA level, proline and phenolic concentration, and PAL activity induced during cold acclimation in androgenic Festulolium forms with contrasting resistance to frost and pink snow mould (*Microdochium nivale*). Physiol Mol Plant Path 73:126–32
- Rachel EK, Reddy SR, Reddy SM (1992) Seedling pre-inoculation with VAM fungi on transplant

survival and growth of sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.). Proc Natl Acad Sci India(Section B, Biological Sciences) 62:429–432

- Rapacz M, Gasior D, Zwierzykowski Z, Le niewska-Bocianowska A, Humphreys MW, Gay AP (2004) Changes in cold tolerance and the mechanisms of acclimation of photosystem II to cold hardening generated by anther culture of *Festuca pratensis* x *Lolium multiflorum* cultivars. New Phytol 161:105–14
- Retzer V (2007) Forage competition between livestock and Mongolian Pika (*Ochotona pallasi*) in Southern Mongolian mountain steppes. Basic Appl Ecol 8:147–157
- Ruzin SE (1999) Plant Microtechnique and microscopy.Oxford University Press, New York
- Schwab SM, Johnson ELV, Meng JA (1982) The influence of Simazine on formation of vesiculararbuscular mycorrhizae in *Chenopodium qunona* Willd. Plant Soil 64:283–87
- Singh S (2004) Effect of soil moisture on arbuscular mycorrhizal development in plants. Part 1. In grasses, cereals, and fodder crops. Mycorrh News 15:2–19
- Smith SE, Read DJ (2008) Mycorrhizal symbiosis. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. Academic Press, London
- Stefanowska M, Kura M, Kubacka-Z balska M, Kacperska A (1999) Low temperature affects pattern of leaf growth and structure of cell walls in winter oilseed rape (*Brassica napus* L., var. *oleifera*) Ann Bot 84:313–319
- Tommerup IC (1992) Methods for the study of the population biology of vesicular-arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi. Meth Microbiol 24:23–51
- TsengSH, KuoSR, LeeYC (1991) Physiological damages of Casuarinas caused by salt spray. Q J Chin For 24(3):27–34
- Upson R, Read DJ, Newsham KK (2007) Microscopy analyses of field-collected *Cephaloziella varians*. New Phytol 176:460–471
- Volkmar KM, Woodbury W (1989) Effects of soil temperature and depth on colonization and root and shoot growth of barley inoculated with vesiculararbuscular mycorrhizas indigenous to Canadian prairie soil. Can J Bot67:1702–1707
- Woodward FI (1987) Climate and plant distribution. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge
- Wu QS, Zou YN (2009) Arbuscular mycorrhizal symbiosis improves growth and root nutrient status of citrus subjected to salt stress. Sci Asia 35:388–91

- Wu QS, Zou YN (2010) Beneficial roles of arbuscular mycorrhizas in citrus seedlings at temperature stress. Scientia Hort 125:289–293
- Zhu XC, Song FB, Xu HW (2010) Arbuscular mycorrhizas improves low temperature stress in maize via alterations in host water status and photosynthesis. Plant Soil doi: 10.1007/s11104-009-0239-z.