EFFECT OF MYCORRHIZAL INOCULANTS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF MEXICAN LANDRACE AVOCADO ROOTSTOCKS

[EFECTO DE INOCULANTES MICORRÍZICOS EN EL DESARROLLO DE PORTAINJERTOS DE AGUACATE CRIOLO DE LA RAZA MEXICANA]

Edgar Castro Alvarado1, Ana Tetzqui Chávez Bárcenas1, Pedro Antonio García Saucedo1, Leovigilda Reyes Ramírez1 and Ana Elizabeth Bárcenas Ortega1

1Facultad de Agrobiología “Presidente Juárez”, Universidad Michoacana de San Nicolás de Hidalgo. Lázaro Cárdenas esq. Berlín S/N, CP 60190, Uruapan, Michoacán, México. E-mail: abarcenas@prodigy.net.mx

*Corresponding author

SUMMARY

The aim of this work was to assess the effect of two arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) inoculants in the development of avocado rootstocks. Seeds of Mexican landrace avocado (Persea americana Mill. var. drymifolia) were used, with two commercial inoculants: T1 containing Glomus fasciculatum, G. constrictum, G. tortuosum, G. geosporum and Acaulospora scrobiculata, and T2, containing G. mosseae and G. cubense. The plants inoculated with AMF showed more rapid growth than the no inoculant control as measured by plant height (50% and 54%), stem diameter (35% and 36%), leaf number (48% and 37%) and length (31% and 40%), and root fresh weight (85% and 59%); however, no significant differences were observed between T1 and T2. The chlorophyll concentration in the leaves from T1 was 16.4% and T2 was 19% higher than the control suggesting a higher photosynthetic capacity in T1 and T2. Finally the shoot/root ratio, as an indicator of the potential development of plantations, was 79% and 50% higher in mycorrhizal plants than in the control. In conclusion both T1 and T2 inoculants improved growth rate and vigor of avocado nursery rootstocks producing higher quality plants.

Key words: Arbuscular Mycorrhizal; biofertilizers; Persea Americana; rootstocks.

INTRODUCTION

Avocado production is a major economic activity in Mexico, considered the world’s leader in planted surface area, production, consumption and exportation of this fruit crop. More than 74% of the avocado’s planted surface area in this country is located in the State of Michoacan, with an annual production of 1,117,338.5 tons (SIAP, 2012). This agronomic activity encompasses remarkable economic and social impact due to the volume of production and to the large amount of direct and indirect employment it generates (Sánchez, 2007).

RESUMEN

El objetivo de la investigación fue evaluar el efecto de dos inoculantes de hongos micorrizógenos arbusculares (HMA) en el desarrollo de plantas de aguacate en vivero. Se usaron semillas de aguacate criollo mexicano (Persea americana Mill. var. drymifolia) y dos inoculantes comerciales: T1 con Glomus fasciculatum, G. constrictum, G. tortuosum, G. geosporum y Acaulospora scrobiculata; T2 con G. mosseae y G. cubense. Las plantas inoculadas con HMA mostraron un mayor desarrollo que las plantas testigo respecto a la altura de planta (50% y 54%), diámetro del tallo (35% y 36%), número (48% y 37%) y longitud de hojas (31% y 40%), así como peso fresco de la raíz (85% y 59%), sin presentar diferencias significativas entre T1 y T2. El contenido de clorofila en las hojas de T1 y T2 fue 16.4% y 19% mayor que en el testigo, respectivamente, sugiriendo una mayor capacidad fotosintética en T1 y T2. Finalmente, el cociente tallo/raíz, como indicador del desarrollo potencial de las plantaciones, fue 79% y 50% mayor en las plantas inoculadas que en el testigo. Se concluye que ambos inoculantes mejoran el desarrollo y vigor de los portainjertos de aguacate en vivero y promueven mayor calidad de las plantas.

Palabras clave: Micorriza arbuscular; biofertilizantes; Persea americana; portainjertos.
The most popular cultivar in Michoacán is “Hass”, grown on the Mexican landrace, *Persea americana* Mill. var. *drymifolia*, as rootstock. Avocado has hairless mangrove-like roots (Salazar-García, 2002) that are highly dependent on mycorrhizal symbiosis (Alarcón *et al.*, 2001). Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) establish symbiotic relationships with plant roots and perform important functions, contributing quite sufficiently to the growth and survival of crops due to their capacity to increase water uptake (Augé, 2004; Ruiz-Lozano and Azcón, 2006) and the absorption of sparingly mobile nutrients such as P, Cu and Zn (Krishna *et al.*, 2010; Smith and Smith, 2011). AMF also diminish the incidence of pathogenic diseases in plants (Pozo and Azcón-Aguilar, 2007) and contribute to ameliorate the soil structure (Cuenca *et al.*, 2007).

The positive effect of mycorrhiza on avocado plants has been observed in seedlings and micropropagated plants. Menge *et al.* (1980) reported that *Glomus fasciculatus* increased the growth of ‘Topa Topa’ avocado seedlings, Rivera *et al.* (2011) observed a increases on the development of avocado when seedlings were inoculated with AMF, showing higher results with *G. hoi-like* than with *G. mosseae*, the survival and development of micropropagated avocado plants have shown to improved when they are inoculated with *Glomus* spp, during the *ex vitro* acclimatization (Azcón-Aguilar *et al.*, 1992; Vidal *et al.*, 1992), additionally mycorrhizal avocado plants are more tolerant to *Phytophthora cinnamomi* damage than the nonmycorrhizal plants (Davis *et al.*, 1978).

Avocado seedlings are grown in local nurseries, on substrates treated with chemical insecticides and fungicides in order to keep them free from plant pathogens, treatments which can negatively affect beneficial AMF. Application of AMF biofertilizers (Gianinazzi and Vosátka, 2004) can reduce the negative effects of pesticide treatments and increase sustainability of the agricultural production systems. Due to the importance of this association and the benefits that these fungi provide, it is valuable to evaluate how best to use mycorrhizal inoculants at nurseries to prevent remediate the loss of microorganisms in the substrate, while fostering the rapid growth of seedlings, before they are planted in the field. Herein, we assess the effects of two commercial AMF inoculants on the development of Mexican landrace avocado rootstocks.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Location**

Studies were done in a greenhouse and laboratory facilities of the “Presidente Juárez” Agri-biology school of the Universidad Michoacana de San Nicolás de Hidalgo, at Uruapan, Michoacan, Mexico.

**Biological Material**

Since avocado is an allogamous plant with high genetic variability, the seeds to be used were obtained from one single tree. 90 fruits were collected from a Mexican landrace avocado tree (*P. americana* Mill. var. *drymifolia*) located at Tancitaro, municipality in Michoacan. The seeds were separated from the mesocarp of the fruit and 30 seeds with similar size and shape were selected to conduct the experiment.

Two commercial AMF inoculants were used: inoculant-1 is a consortia of five AMF species (*Glomus fasciculatum, G. constrictum, G. tortuosum, G. geosporum, and Acaulospora scrobiculata*) at a density of 20 spores g⁻¹ (Mena *et al.*, 2011) and inoculant-2, which contains 20 to 30 spores g⁻¹ of *G. mosseae* and *G. cubense* species (Rodríguez *et al.*, 2011).

**Substrate**

A blend of soil from local crop fields, sand and organic matter (pine tree bark) was used at a ratio of 3:1:1 (v:v:v), and was disinfected using wet heat in an autoclave at 121 °C and 15 psi for three cycles of 1 h every 24 h. The blend was air dried for 24 hours and bagged in black polyethylene 3-kg bags.

**Treatments**

Three conditions were evaluated: T1, avocado seeds coated with inoculant-1; T2, avocado seeds coated with inoculant-2; and T3, avocado seeds not inoculated (control). The experimental unit consisted in two avocado seeds, and five repetitions were considered per treatment, which were randomly distributed. The experiment was conducted during seven months after sprouting.

**Inoculation and planting**

The selected seeds were dried for 72 hours at room temperature, then the seed coat was removed and seeds were disinfected by submersion in 70% alcohol for 5 min; followed by soaking in 0.8 % sodium hypochlorite for 20 min, followed by a profuse rinse with sterile water and left to dry at room temperature. Subsequently disinfected seeds were covered with a fluid paste prepared with 50g of the corresponding, T1 or T2 inoculants and 30 ml of water, as described by Rivera *et al.* (2011), while T3 control seeds were left untreated. Afterwards the seeds were sown one per bag in the sterile substrate.
and placed in a greenhouse with partial shade and kept at a mean temperature of 19 °C.

**Plant and mycorrhizal response measurements**

*Plant height, stem diameter, number and length of leaves* were measured every month during six months, starting one month after sprouting. A graduated ruler and a Vernier gauge were used to measure plant height from the neck of the first root to the apex; the stem diameter at 5 cm from the soil and the leaf length from the point where the petiole joins the leaf blade.

*Chlorophyll concentration* was measured six months after inoculation and planting using the third leaf of each plant. Measurements were made with a Minolta Spad 502 meter taken on the same day at 10:00 am-11:00 am. The data were converted into the chlorophyll’s concentration rate using the slope and intercept calculated from a standard curve (Figure 2) in which the Spad units of leaves with different green hues were correlated to chlorophyll concentrations measured using an acetone extraction method proposed by Porra et al. (1989) and the Arnon’s formula (Arnon, 1949).

\[
\text{Chlorophyll (µg/g fresh tissue)} = (\text{CCR} \times \text{EV}) / \text{Fresh weight (g)}
\]

Where:
- CCR= Chlorophyll’s concentration rate (µg/ml)
- EV= Extract’s volume

*Root fresh weight (RFW)* was recorded as the weight in grams of freshly excised roots.

*Foliar dry weight (FDW) and root dry weight (RDW)* were determined by drying roots and shoots at 60 °C until constant weight was reached (72 hours). These weights were then used to provide the FDW/RDW or Shoot/Root ratio.

*Mycorrhizal colonization*. A sample of roots was taken from the plants and, each sample was stained as described by Chávez-Bárcenas et al. (2013). Stained roots were analyzed under a compounded microscope at 40X and 100X, quantifying the typical structure of mycorrhizal symbiosis present on the sample roots. The colonization percentage of individual root hair segments was calculated using Phillips and Hayman (1970) formula.

\[
\text{Total colonization (%) = } \frac{N^\circ \text{ colonized segments}}{N^\circ \text{ total segments}} \times 100
\]

Destructive analyses were performed seven months after sowing (six months after sprouting). At that point the roots of the avocado plants were carefully disaggregated from the soil and cut apart from the upper aerial part of the plant to achieve the determinations.

**Statistical Analysis**

Statistical differences in all the variables determined between the inoculated and not inoculated treatments were assessed by variance analysis and Tukey means comparison test (p<0.05), using the ANOVA module of the statistical package V 2.5 (Olivares, 1994).

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

*Mycorrhizal colonization*

Arbuscular mycorrhizal structures were observed in the roots of plants inoculated with T1 and T2, while the roots of plants without AMF did not show any evidence of mycorrhizal colonization (Fig. 1). These results reveal that at least some AMF species from both inoculants are able to develop mycorrhiza with studied avocado roots.

The total colonization percentage in T1 roots was 6% higher than in T2 (Table 1). These results, together with the fact that inoculants in T1 include a wider AMF species diversity and lower spore density than T2, suggest that AMF species within T1 bear a greater capacity to establish symbiosis with avocado roots than AMF species from T2. Nevertheless, more acute and specific experiments should be design to ascertain the colonization capacity of the species within inoculants 1 and 2.

![Figure 1](image_url)  
Figure 1. Avocado plant roots colonized with AMF from T1 and T2, and non-colonized roots in T3 control.
Morphological variables

Both AMF treatments developed plants with better morphological traits than the non-inoculated control (Table 1). However, no statistically significant differences were observed between T1 and T2 plants, but T1 and T2 differed significantly of control. Plant height was 50% to 54% higher in AMF treated plants than in the control. Similarly, higher values were registered in AMF inoculated plants as regards to stalk diameter (35% to 36%), leaf number (37% to 48%), leaf length (31% to 40%), and root fresh weight (59% to 85%), when compared to the non inoculated control. These results coincide with previous reports that showed positive effects of different AMF species on the growth and development of avocado plants when compared to a non-mycorrhizal control (Azcón-Aguilar et al., 1992; Reyes et al., 1997; Rivera et al., 2011).

Shoot/root ratio

Shoot/root ratio was higher in T1 (0.74) than in T2 (0.63) and T3 (0.41); the difference between T1 and T3 was significant (Table 1). The shoot/root ratio is an important indicator of “quality” of nursery tree seedlings for achieving high survival and good takeoff after transplanting (Larsen et al., 1986; Zandstra and Lyptay, 1999; Dans et al., 1999; Vaario et al., 2009; Negreros-Castillo et al., 2010), denoting equilibrium between the size of the plants aerial parts and their root size, and a balance status of carbon partitioning and allocation (Basil et al., 2009; Landhäusser et al., 2012). The shoot/root ratio is usually higher in more fertile soils and substrates (Lambers et al., 1998; Greenwood et al., 2007). Our results suggest that avocado nursery plants inoculated with AMF are closer to a shoot/root biomass balance, than the non-inoculated plants, this agreed with Navarro et al. (2011) who reported a higher balance of root/shoot radio in mycorrhizal plants of Arbutus unedo L. when compared with non-mycorrhizal during the nursery period, Zhang et al. (2011) also showed that AMF affect the interaction root vs. root allocation and thus allometric allocation and biomass-density relationships. Notwithstanding, our results also suggest that these allometric adjustments are also dependent on the AMF species, since both inoculants attained different shoot/root species compared to the control.

Chlorophyll concentration

Chlorophyll concentrations in leaves of T1 and T2 plants were 16% and 19% higher, respectively, than those of the non-inoculated control (Table 2, Fig. 2). These results are consistent with Azcón-Aguilar et al. (1992) and Reyes et al. (1997) results, which showed that besides improving the uptake and utilization rates of nutrients in avocado plants, AMF also increased their photosynthetic capacity, promoted higher growth rates and enhanced plant health. This study also agrees with Alarcón and Ferrera-Cerrato (1999), who noted that the symbiotic association of mycorrhizal fungi with plant roots produces several changes and/or modifications at a physiological level; among which an increase in the photosynthetic capacity can be highlighted, due to a greater CO₂ fixation capacity, and the resulting increase in growth and biomass rates.

Moreover, the difference on the chlorophyll concentration between the inoculated treatments T1 and T2 (Table 2) are in agreement with previous studies that have shown a differential response of plants to AMF inoculants within treatments of diverse AMF composition, as well as when compared to non-inoculated, less developed plants (Janousková et al., 2009; Mena et al., 2011; Rivera et al., 2011). Additionally, it is to be noticed that although T1 showed greater mycorrhizal colonization percentage (Table 1), T2 had higher chlorophyll content, suggesting that the mycorrhizal symbiosis with the AMF species in T2 might promote enhancement of the photosynthetic capacity of plants.

Table 1. Mean comparison of the variables measured in avocado nursery plants inoculated or not with AMF.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TREATMENTS</th>
<th>PH (cm)</th>
<th>SD (mm)</th>
<th>NL</th>
<th>LL (cm)</th>
<th>RFW (g)</th>
<th>S/RR</th>
<th>C%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T1</td>
<td>33.6a</td>
<td>8.79a</td>
<td>21.9a</td>
<td>13.3a</td>
<td>31.5a</td>
<td>0.75a</td>
<td>79.5a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>34.6a</td>
<td>8.87a</td>
<td>20.3a</td>
<td>14.2a</td>
<td>27.0a</td>
<td>0.63ab</td>
<td>75.0b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T3</td>
<td>22.4b</td>
<td>6.5b</td>
<td>14.8b</td>
<td>10.1b</td>
<td>17.0b</td>
<td>0.42b</td>
<td>00.0c</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PH, Plant Height; SD, Stem Diameter; NL, Number of Leaves; LL, Leaf Length; RFW, Root Fresh Weight; S/RR, Shoot/Root ratio; C%, Total Colonization Percentage. The same letters in a column indicate statistically equal values (p≤0.05)
CONCLUSIONS

AMF from both inoculants used in this essay are able to establish a mycorrhizal symbiosis with Mexican landrace avocado; however inoculant T1 showed higher mycorrhizal colonization rates. Both inoculants promote positive developmental traits on avocado plants, with minor differences between them. Better plant fitness due to higher balance in shoot/root ratio was obtained with inoculant T1, while higher photosynthetic potential due to superior chlorophyll concentration is developed in leaves of plants was observed with inoculant T2. Together our results may have critical implications in the avocado production in Mexico.

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REFERENCES


Table 2. Chlorophyll concentration in avocado nursery plants inoculated or not with AMF.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatments</th>
<th>Chlorophyll concentration (µg/g fresh tissue)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T1</td>
<td>1886.9b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>1929.1a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T3</td>
<td>1621.0c</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The same letters in a column indicate statistically equal values (p≤0.05)

Figure 2. Standard curve of chlorophyll concentration in avocado leaves.


arbusculares en el desarrollo de portainjertos de aguacate en un sustrato suelo-cachaza. Cultivos Tropicales. 32:172-183.


