

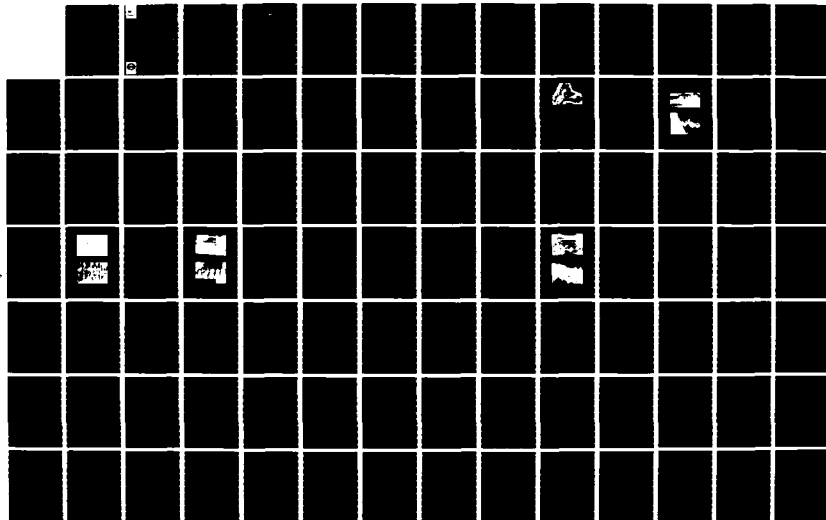
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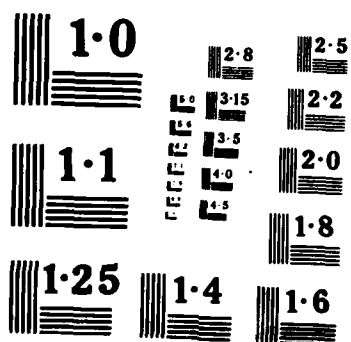
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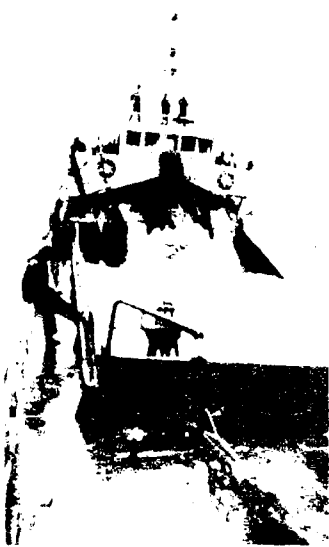
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DREDGING OPERATIONS TECHNICAL SUPPORT PROGRAM

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FEASIBILITY OF USING MYCORRHIZAL FUNGI FOR ENHANCEMENT OF PLANT ESTABLISHMENT ON DREDGED MATERIAL DISPOSAL SITES: A LITERATURE REVIEW

by

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fertilizers at initial planting and at subsequent intervals may be difficult logistically and costly. Detoxification of dredged material can require longer periods of time than are acceptable for the desired stabilization or reclamation of the site with vegetation. Moisture deficiencies are sometimes a problem when water drains rapidly from a sandy disposal site. Abundant evidence from reforestation, reclamation of strip-mined sites, and agriculture suggests that all of these problems are potentially amenable to solution by the use of mycorrhizal fungi.

Mycorrhizal fungi are one of the most extensively occurring groups of beneficial soil microorganisms. Few plants lack them. Mycorrhizal fungi form an intimate mutualistic association with plant roots (mycorrhizae) that extends the absorptive area of the roots (sometimes thousands of times) and contributes greatly to mineral nutrition, water absorption, and root system stabilization of the host plant. Beneficial effects of using mycorrhizal tree seedlings are so profound that the US Forest Service established a special research facility in 1977, the Institute of Mycorrhizal Research and Development, at Athens, Ga., to study the occurrence and beneficial uses of mycorrhizae on conifers and hardwoods. The Institute is presently engaged in efficacy testing of commercially produced mycorrhizal spore formulations. Researchers at the Institute have found that mycorrhizae are capable of increasing growth rates 2- to 80-fold in hardwood seedlings.

The literature documents increased plant tolerance to adverse or toxic soil conditions by mycorrhizal plants in revegetation of strip-mined sites, kaolin spoils, iron tailings, and processed oil shale. Mycorrhizal plants are consistently more successful in these areas, sometimes exhibiting shoot dry weights 1370 to 1528 percent higher than nonmycorrhizal plants. Not only do mycorrhizae contribute to plant success in adverse substrate conditions, but also have been shown to sequester and store certain heavy metals, thereby detoxifying soils.

The extensive external mycelium together with an amorphous polysaccharide secretion are a dominant factor in the aggregation of soil particles by mycorrhizal plants. The effectiveness of these two mechanisms is especially evident in stabilization of sand dunes. These same mechanisms, assisted by additional absorption mechanisms, account for increased soil moisture retention and enhanced water availability and uptake by host plants.

This literature review discusses the potential role of mycorrhizal plants in the development of upland, marsh, and aquatic habitats. Tremendous potential exists for enhancing the establishment and growth of vegetation on upland dredged material disposal sites with mycorrhizae. Although much less is known about the mycorrhization of marsh plant species, the limited research available suggests that use of mycorrhizae has some potential for enhancing establishment and growth of marsh plants on dredged material disposal sites. Very few studies of the mycorrhizal status of aquatic plants were found; therefore, the potential for using mycorrhizae to enhance development of aquatic habitat is not known.

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PREFACE

This is a literature review initiated to determine the feasibility of using mycorrhizal fungi for enhancing the establishment of vegetation on dredged material disposal sites. The study was sponsored by the Dredging Operations Technical Support (DOTS) Program funded by the Office, Chief of Engineers, through the Water Resources Support Center, Dredging Division (WRSC-D). DOTS is managed through the Environmental Effects of Dredging Programs (EEDP) of the Environmental Laboratory (EL) of the US Army Engineer Waterways Experiment Station (WES). Mr. Charles C. Calhoun, Jr., was EEDP Manager at the initiation of the study; Dr. Robert M. Engler was EEDP Manager during publication; and Mr. Thomas R. Patin was DOTS Coordinator in EEDP. The work was monitored by Mr. David B. Mathis, WRSC-D.

Mrs. Judith C. Pennington of the Wetland and Terrestrial Habitat Group (WTHG), Environmental Resources Division (ERD), EL, WES, conducted the literature search and prepared this report. The review was conducted under the technical supervision of Mr. Edwin A. Theriot and Dr. Dana R. Sanders, Sr., WTHG; under the direct supervision of Dr. Hanley K. Smith, Chief, WTHG; and under the general supervision of Dr. Conrad J. Kirby, Jr., Chief, ERD, and Dr. John Harrison, Chief, EL. The report was edited by Ms. Jamie W. Leach of the WES Publications and Graphic Arts Division.

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FEASIBILITY OF USING MYCORRHIZAL FUNGI FOR ENHANCEMENT OF PLANT
ESTABLISHMENT ON DREDGED MATERIAL DISPOSAL SITES:
A LITERATURE REVIEW

PART I: INTRODUCTION

Rationale

1. To maintain the navigable waterways of the United States, the US Army Corps of Engineers dredges 300 million cubic yards* of sediment annually. Habitat development for the reclamation of dredged material disposal sites received special emphasis under the Dredged Material Research Program (DMRP), and continues to be important as US Army Engineer Waterways Experiment Station (WES) personnel monitor the long-term ecological status of man-made habitats to determine the most efficient, low-cost stabilization and reclamation methods for disposal areas. Rapid establishment of vegetation on dredged material disposal sites is often essential for stabilization of the dredged material, and for development of beneficial uses (habitat development, reforestation, reclamation, agriculture, and so on).

2. Herbaceous and arborescent plant species often have difficulty establishing on dredged material because nutrient availability is low and microorganisms capable of ameliorating the nutrient status are absent. Addition of commercial fertilizers is usually necessary to satisfy initial nutrient requirements of establishing vegetation, but initial and required subsequent additions are often difficult and costly to supply. Providing plants with a complement of mycorrhizal fungi may reduce amounts of fertilizer required initially, and may sustain vegetation over longer periods of time by stimulating more rapid development of normal rhizosphere microflora.

3. Mycorrhizal fungi are one of the most extensively occurring groups of beneficial soil microorganisms. Very few plant species occur naturally without mycorrhizal fungi associated with their roots. These mutualistic fungi make major contributions to mineral nutrition, water absorption, and root system extension in host plants. In fact, many plants are dependent upon mycorrhizae for survival and growth. The forest industry, agriculture, and

* 229 million cubic metres.

land reclamation efforts have increased survival and productivity of vegetation by including mycorrhizal fungi in planting programs. Mycorrhizae have also been implicated in increased plant tolerance to adverse or toxic soil conditions, in conferring resistance to plant disease, and in stabilization of substrates.

Purpose

4. The purpose of this literature survey is to determine the feasibility of using mycorrhizal fungi to enhance the establishment of vegetation on dredged material disposal sites.

Objectives

5. The objectives of the survey are to:
- a. Review the physical and chemical characteristics of dredged material that are relevant to its revegetation and to mycorrhizal development and benefits.
 - b. Review problems with vegetation establishment for habitat development on dredged material that may be amenable to solution by mycorrhization of plants.
 - c. Review relevant factors affecting establishment and growth of mycorrhizae.
 - d. Review the beneficial uses of mycorrhizae in reforestation, land reclamation, and agriculture.
 - e. Describe the potential benefits of mycorrhization for establishment of vegetation on dredged material disposal sites.
 - f. Compile a list of plant species with associated mycorrhizal fungi that would be suitable for use in reclamation of dredged material disposal sites.

Approach

6. Most references used in this report were generated by a computer search of the AGRICOLA (National Agricultural Library) back to 1970, Comprehensive Dissertation Abstracts 1861-Jan 1983, CAB (Commonwealth Agricultural Bureau) 1970-Jan 1983, and Conference Papers Index 1973-1982. Key words sought were mycorrhiza, -l, -e, -s; endomycorrhiza, -l, -e, -s;

ectomycorrhiza, -l, -e, -s; ectendomycorrhiza, -l, -e, -s; actinorrhiza, -l, -e, -s; rhizobacteria; root-colonizing bacteria; root-colonizing fungi; soil microflora; and mycorrhizae and -revegetation, -spoils, -roots. Many additional relevant references were obtained from reference sections of journal articles and bibliographies of books. References on dredged material and disposal sites were selected from "Publication Index and Retrieval System" (WES Technical Report DS-78-23) and reference sections of WES technical reports.

7. Common names of plant species were used throughout the text for the convenience of the reader with scientific names added in parentheses when the plant was first mentioned. Occasionally the cited research was of foreign origin and only common or only scientific names were given. In such cases, only the name occurring in the reference was used. Tables were alphabetized by scientific names of plants in order to show the mycorrhizal similarities within plant genera. Although common names are also given in tables, occasional blanks occur where no common names are indicated by authoritative references (Fernald 1950; Long and Lakela 1978; Godfrey and Wooten 1979). Only scientific names are given for mycorrhizal fungi.

PART II: DREDGED MATERIAL

Physical Characteristics

8. Physical characteristics of dredged material that are important to developing vegetation, and potentially important to mycorrhization, are particle size, bulk density, moisture retention characteristics, and extensibility. Each is discussed below.

Particle size

9. Dredged material has particle sizes varying from relatively coarse sand to fine clay. The distribution of variously sized particles (texture) affects many physical and chemical characteristics of dredged material and can exert important constraints on the kinds of vegetation successfully establishing on disposal sites. For example, fine-textured silts and clays provide a large surface area per unit weight for sorption and exchange reactions. Therefore, these materials exhibit a high cation exchange capacity and a high affinity for organic matter, trace metals, pesticides, and nutrients (Yu et al. 1978). These characteristics relate directly to establishment and growth of vegetation by impacting nutrient availability and toxin immobilization.

10. Ideal agricultural soil is loam that is composed of 50 percent or less sand, 40 percent or less clay, 60 percent or more silt (Gupta et al. 1978). Dredged material samples differ greatly in the ratio of clay to sand. In one study, the percentage of sand in dredged material samples varied from more than 50 percent to more than 90 percent (Yu et al. 1978), and in another, more than 30 percent clay was found in four samples of dredged material, 11 to 30 percent in four samples, and less than 10 percent in two samples (Gupta et al. 1978). The ratio of sand to silt is frequently determined by soil texture in the area. For example, an average of 20 percent clay was found in dredged material at a Sayreville, N. J., site, while 24 percent occurred in soils found near the site (Yu et al. 1978).

11. The texture of any dredged material is an important factor in disposal site design. For example, barren, extensively ponded areas are excellent for containment of coarse-textured sediments and for initial containment of fine-textured sediments that are high in clay and silt. However, these are not suitable for continuous discharge and require prolonged periods of

sediment dewatering. Large diked areas of wetland vegetation lacking extensive ponding or high dikes are most efficient for long-term disposal of fine-textured dredged material (Hoeppel et al. 1978). Fine-textured dredged material generally requires some kind of containment, with the requirement becoming progressively less critical as particle size increases (Smith 1978). The types and success of vegetation establishing on dredged material can be greatly affected by the design of disposal sites.

Bulk density

12. Bulk density, defined as weight per unit volume of material, is an indication of the size and arrangement of soil particles. Bulk densities of medium- and fine-textured dredged material were found to be lower (0.67 to 1.24 g/cm^3) than those of productive agricultural soils (1.0 to 1.6 g/cm^3), and bulk densities in very coarse-textured dredged material (1.50 to 1.59 g/cm^3) were similar to those of agricultural soils (Gupta et al. 1978). However, data on bulk densities in dredged material vary. Bulk densities ranged from 1.2 to 2.2 g/cm^3 in a study of four confined land disposal areas in the United States (Yu et al. 1978) and from 0.91 to 1.41 g/cm^3 in dredged material taken from several harbors and lakes in Canada (Mudrock and Zeman 1974). This latter dredged material was high in organic matter that contributes to low densities. No data were found specifically correlating bulk densities of dredged material to plant establishment and growth. However, high bulk densities (not the typical case in dredged material) can make penetration of the substrate by plant roots difficult. It is possible that inoculation with mycorrhizae may be beneficial to establishing vegetation in such situations. When bulk density is low, mycorrhizae may be helpful in aggregating loose, unstable material.

Moisture retention characteristics

13. Moisture levels in dredged material can be determined by application of several water-related soil parameters. Those relevant to plant establishment and mycorrhization are water retention, available water capacity, and hydraulic conductivity.

14. Water retention. Water retention is the moisture-storing capacity of a soil. It is influenced by the arrangement of solid components of the soil or sediment, the quantity of fine particles, and the organic matter content. The clay fraction of dredged material has a high water-retention

capacity. Conversely, sand has very low water-retention capacity. Water-retention capacity of dredged material varies with texture, bulk density, and organic matter content. Gupta et al. (1978) developed a method for predicting water-retention characteristics of dredged material that takes these variables into account.

15. Available water capacity. Available water capacity is a term applied in agriculture to the amount of water a crop can remove from the soil before its yield is seriously affected by drought. Available water capacity is the difference between water-retention values (cubic centimetres of water per cubic centimetre of substrate) at 0.33 bars (the moisture content at field capacity) and 15 bars (the permanent wilting point of many plants) (Gupta et al. 1978). Available water capacity of dredged material varies with site design and textural composition of the deposited material. In a study by Gupta et al. (1978), available water capacity ranged from $0.03 \text{ cm}^3/\text{cm}^3$ to $0.27 \text{ cm}^3/\text{cm}^3$ in dredged material samples from ten sites.

16. Hydraulic conductivity. Hydraulic conductivity is an expression of the ability of water to move through a material. It is determined by pore size and water-retention capacity. The clay fraction of dredged material exhibits low hydraulic conductivity; conversely, sand exhibits high hydraulic conductivity. Low hydraulic conductivity provides longer reaction times for dissolved contaminants and applied nutrients. In the Gupta et al. (1978) study, saturated hydraulic conductivities ranged from 0.3 cm/hr to 302.2 cm/hr at ten widely varied dredged material disposal sites. These values were high compared to agricultural field values which ranged from 2 to 5 cm/hr.

Extensibility

17. The coefficient of linear extensibility describes the swelling and shrinking potential of soils. Changes in soil volume can affect infiltration of nutrients and water. Excessive shrinking can cause cracks that increase water loss by evaporation. A coefficient less than 0.03 is considered most desirable for agricultural purposes. Dredged material has a relatively low coefficient (Gupta et al. 1978). In ten sites sampled, coefficients ranged from 0.000 to 0.074 ($\bar{X} = 0.024$). Therefore, extensibility should not pose a problem to establishing vegetation in dredged material disposal sites, except in the few instances where extreme coefficients occur.

18. Moisture-retention characteristics of dredged material affect the types and success of establishing vegetation. Mycorrhizae have been shown to

extend the root systems of plants, thereby enhancing water-absorption efficiency and soil-moisture retention. Therefore, they may make a great contribution to revegetation of upland sites where moisture occurs at low levels.

Chemical Characteristics

pH and Eh

19. pH. The pH of dredged material from ten disposal sites located in the eastern and central United States varied from 2.9 to 7.9 (Gupta et al. 1978). Yu et al. (1978) found a range of 6.5 to 7.6 for four dredged material disposal sites. Significant increases in pH may occur during the dredging and disposal cycle, with average surface background water, influent, and effluent values of 6.6, 7.15, and 7.5, respectively (Hoeppel et al. 1978). However, several site-specific increases above 9 were reported. Such elevations in pH can be caused by high nutrient concentrations, low solids content, and long residence time of ponded water, which favors extensive photosynthesis by planktonic algae. Alkalinity showed an overall decrease during containment. Freshly dredged sediment pH values in eight disposal areas tested were found to be very close to neutral, which is typical for anaerobic sediments (Hoeppel et al. 1978).

20. Marine sediments frequently contain sulfides that oxidize to sulfates, consequently reducing pH to levels as low as 3.0 to 4.0 (Hunt et al. 1978). When available sulfur levels are high (530 to 1300 $\mu\text{g/g}$), application of lime is required to neutralize the acidity before revegetation efforts are undertaken (Gupta et al. 1978; Hunt et al. 1978; Yu et al. 1978). At one site, three times the normal rate (i.e., rate for agricultural soils) of application of lime was required to increase the pH from 3.1 to 6.4 (Gupta et al. 1978).

21. The limited available data indicate that pH in dredged material disposal sites varies, and is dependent on many factors [e.g., chemical characteristics of the dredged sediment (especially sulfide, nitrogen, and carbonate levels), solids content, biological activity, and containment time].

22. Eh. Electrochemical potential (Eh) is a measure of the availability of electrons in a system (Yu et al. 1978). Values of Eh give an indication of the overall oxidation-reduction intensities within a system. In one study, Eh values ranged from -232 to + 353 millivolts (mv) for dredged

material and -82 to + 368 mv for soils (Yu et al. 1978). This wide range in Eh, accompanied by a rather consistently neutral pH, is not uncommon in sediments and soils.

23. The Eh becomes extremely significant in predicting the availability of nutrients and toxins in dredged material. The oxidation states of hydrogen, carbon, nitrogen, oxygen, sulfur, and several metals are affected by Eh.

Cation exchange capacity

24. The exchange of one cation for another on soil colloids (cation exchange) is one of the most common and most important soil reactions. Cation exchange capacity (CEC) is the total exchangeable cations adsorbed by a soil, expressed in milliequivalents per 100 grams of dry soil (meq/100 g) (Millar et al. 1958). The CEC has a direct impact on availability of nutrients and other minerals present in a substrate.

25. Organic matter is responsible for most of the ion exchange in sediments due to the large surface area and the number of charged groups in organic matter (Hoeppel et al. 1978). Troth and Ott (1970) attributed 80 percent of CEC in bottom sediments to organic matter.

26. In river sediments, bay sediments, and freshwater impoundment sediments, CEC ranged from 7 to 100 meq/100 g, which was much higher than in soil (1 to 15 meq/100 g) (Troth and Ott 1970). This was probably due to the fine texture of deposited sediments (Brady 1974; Yu et al. 1978). Fine-textured soils tend to have higher CEC than coarse soils. In the study by Yu et al. (1978), a wide range of CEC was found in dredged material. Mean values reflected relative texture of samples, ranging from the lowest (11 meq/100 g) in sandy material to the highest (51 meq/100 g) in material having the highest clay content. The CEC values for all fine-textured dredged material samples were similar to those for productive agricultural soils (1.0 to 32.5 meq/100 g) (Gupta et al. 1978).

27. The CEC is also affected by pH. In most soils CEC increases with increases in pH (Brady 1974). No correlations between CEC and pH of dredged material were found in the literature.

Salinity

28. High salinity may be expected in dredged material taken from marine sources and from sediments high in salts from irrigation or fertilization practices. Saline dredged material can contain sufficient quantities of chloride to produce water quality problems in ground water into which leachates

penetrate (Yu et al. 1978). One measure of salt levels is electrical conductivity. The electrical conductivity of dredged material was almost always less than 2.0 mmhos/cm in tests by Gupta et al. (1978). They found conductivities of all the tested dredged material samples to be acceptable for agricultural purposes when compared to those recommended for crops in saline soils (less than 2.0 mmhos/cm), and that soluble salts did not limit plant growth in the study. However, in dredged material where salinity is excessive, an extended period may be required before leaching produces nontoxic levels, perhaps a year or longer (Hunt et al. 1978). Occasionally, treatment of a site with gypsum (CaSO_4) may be necessary before revegetation can commence. Unless salinity is exceptionally high, salt-tolerant plant species may naturally revegetate saline disposal areas (Hoeppel et al. 1978).

Phosphorus

29. The form in which phosphorus exists in soils varies with the pH of the soil solution. In acidic soils, H_2PO_4 ions predominate, while HPO_4 ions are most common in alkaline soils. A mixture of HPO_4 and H_2PO_4 ions is most desirable to prevent the formation of insoluble phosphorus compounds. Soil pH affects the solubility of phosphorus forms. At low pH (especially below 5), iron, aluminum, and manganese reactions increase, causing fixation of soluble phosphate into complex, insoluble phosphorus compounds of these elements. As the soil pH rises above 7, soluble phosphates complex with calcium forming insoluble calcium phosphate. Minimum phosphorus fixation occurs when the soil pH is in the range from 6.0 to 7.0 (Brady 1974). The presence of organic matter can reduce phosphorus fixation by binding much of the available iron and aluminum. The successful use of phosphorus fertilizers in combination with animal manure is evidence that organic matter increases availability of phosphorus (Brady 1974).

30. When soils are submerged and oxygen supply becomes depleted, phosphorus is liberated by hydrolysis of iron and aluminum compounds, and release from clay. Noncalcareous sediments resorb and retain much of this phosphorus. Therefore, water-soluble phosphorus is frequently low in acid clay sediments (Ponnamperuma 1972).

31. Some evidence suggests that phosphorus is insoluble during dredged material disposal activities and that the insoluble fraction is selectively retained within dikes constructed for marsh development (Lunz et al. 1978). The few studies for which data are available indicate that total phosphorus is

high in dredged material, but that it is frequently unavailable for uptake by plants.

32. Some of the conditions described for soils hold true in dredged material. Phosphate associates with iron and aluminum in acid materials, and with calcium in neutral and alkaline materials (Yu et al. 1978). In studies by Yu et al. (1978), total phosphorus content in dredged material samples ranged from an average of 1280 mg/kg to 1360 mg/kg. In another study, a high concentration of available phosphorus (39-120 kg/ha) was found in seven dredged material disposal sites, medium concentration (18 kg/ha) in one site, and low concentrations (4 and 11 kg/ha) in two sites (Gupta et al. 1978).

33. Phosphorus solubility and transport within dredged material is greatly dependent upon pH, just as in soils. The highest soluble phosphate concentration found in leachates of dredged material occurred in a sample having the highest pH, but all concentrations were low (Yu et al. 1978). Soluble phosphate ranged from 0 to 0.11 ppm (low level) in leachates of a confined land disposal area (Yu et al. 1978). When the concentration of phosphorus in leachates is low and total phosphorus in dredged material samples is high, phosphorus may occur in an insoluble or bound form, especially when pH is extremely high or extremely low. Therefore, phosphorus may be unavailable for plant uptake.

Nitrogen

34. Nitrogen exists in at least three forms in mineral soil: (a) organic nitrogen associated with soil humus, (b) ammonium nitrogen fixed by certain clay minerals, and (c) soluble inorganic ammonium and nitrate compounds. Most soil nitrogen is associated with organic matter and about half of that is in the form of amino compounds (Brady 1974). Nitrogen conditions in submerged soils differ from those in terrestrial soils primarily because of the reduced state of submerged sediments. The rate of organic matter degradation is considerably greater in oxidized soils than in reduced soils. Nitrogen requirements for anaerobic metabolism in reduced soils are so low that ammonium nitrogen release is greater than would be expected (Gambrell and Patrick 1978). Soil and sediment reduction resulting from submergence favors physical, chemical, and biological processes that remove available nitrogen. Therefore, nitrogen deficiency is common in sediments (Gambrell and Patrick 1978). Total Kjeldahl nitrogen (organic nitrogen) often decreases in sediments during disposal of dredged material (Lunz et al. 1978). Nitrogen

continued to decrease through the 2-year period following disposal. Yu et al. (1978) found an average onsite total Kjeldahl nitrogen in dredged material ranging from 269 mg/kg to 3170 mg/kg. The principal form of nitrogen in sediments was organic compounds, most of which occurred as protein fragments. Dredging results in a rapid release of ammonium to the solution phase (Hoeppel et al. 1978). Therefore, rapid conversion of ammonium to nitrate should be favored in land containment areas since oxidizing conditions generally prevail. However, data have failed to show a direct relationship between residence time and effluent nitrate concentration. High concentrations of ammonium nitrogen in disposal area effluents seem to be a major problem for the land containment of dredged material. Ammonium nitrogen concentrations in pore water of bottom sediments can average 130 mg/l; however, additional ammonium may be released from solids as a result of the dredging operation (Hoeppel et al. 1978). In aqueous environments where the pH exceeds 8.5 (which may occur in some confined disposal areas), appreciable quantities of ammonium ions revert to free ammonia that not only escapes readily, but is very toxic.

35. Growth of saltmarsh cordgrass (*Spartina alterniflora*) in a Louisiana salt marsh was limited by nitrogen deficiency, in spite of high levels of total sediment nitrogen and comparatively high nitrogen mineralization rates. It has been suggested that loss of inorganic nitrogen is so rapid that plants are unable to use it (Patrick and DuLaune 1976). Analogous rapid loss of inorganic nitrogen may occur in marshes developed by disposal of dredged materials.

Potassium

36. The concentration of available potassium appears to be highly variable. The concentration of potassium was high in four tested dredged material samples (361-1577 kg/ha), medium (288 kg/ha) in one, and low (121-250 kg/ha) in five others (Gupta et al. 1978). Yu et al. (1978) found a higher concentration of potassium in dredged disposal sites than in offsite samples. Hoeppel et al. (1978) found no noticeable increases in soluble potassium during land containment of dredged material. Available potassium is readily lost by leaching and is reduced during the disposal process. Nevertheless, Gupta et al. (1978) found exchangeable potassium varied from 0.01 to 1.52 meq/100 g of dredged material, which is within normal ranges found in agricultural soils.

Organic matter

37. Dredged material contains a mixture of organic compounds, many of which are toxic and/or highly resistant to biochemical degradation. They include carbohydrates (e.g., cellulose and chitin), polyaromatic compounds (e.g., lignins and humic matter), and small soluble molecules (e.g., fatty acids, alcohols, and aldehydes) (Hoeppel et al. 1978). In one study, fine-textured dredged materials were higher in organic matter than were productive agricultural soils. The range for dredged material samples varied from 0.07 to 13.05 percent, compared with an average of 2.43 percent for productive agricultural soils (Gupta et al. 1978). In another study, total organic carbon in dredged material ranged from 0.27 to 3.8 percent. In that study high correlation between total organic carbon and alkalinity was also found. This was probably due to the correlation between alkalinity and carbonate, or bicarbonate ions (Yu et al. 1978).

Trace elements

38. Plant micronutrients. The eight commonly recognized plant micronutrients are iron, manganese, zinc, copper, boron, molybdenum, cobalt, and chloride (Brady 1974). Micronutrients are required by plants, but in extremely small amounts. As for other plant nutrients, availability of micronutrients is dependent upon substrate pH and oxidation-reduction intensity (Eh).

39. Low soil pH increases the solubility of iron, manganese, zinc, copper, boron, cobalt, and molybdenum. However, in strongly acid soils, molybdenum can become bound by other soil minerals (silicon, iron, and aluminum), limiting its availability (Brady 1974). Iron and manganese are more available in reduced flooded soils than in oxidized soils. In contrast, zinc and copper are less available in reduced flooded soils than in oxidized soils.

40. Iron. High concentrations of iron in dredged material occur mainly when acidic water contacts sediments or under reduced conditions in the absence of high sulfide levels (Hoeppel et al. 1978). Levels of soluble iron in dredged material are comparable to the surrounding environment, and are low when compared with the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) drinking water standards (Yu et al. 1978). Of all the trace metals occurring in dredged material examined by Yu et al. (1978), only iron and manganese occurred in sufficient quantities to pose water quality problems.

41. Manganese. Manganese is the most soluble of the micronutrients (Yu et al. 1978). It has a greater tendency to be released into the aqueous phase of dredged material than iron, and remains in the soluble form for a longer period than iron (Hoeppel et al. 1978).

42. Zinc. Levels of soluble zinc were lower in onsite dredged material than in the surrounding soils (Yu et al. 1978). All sites averaged lower than the EPA drinking water standard for zinc (5 ppm). Insoluble zinc sulfide formation and possible greater zinc complexation with insoluble humic materials contribute to the decrease in zinc availability under reduced conditions (Gambrell and Patrick 1978). Removal of soluble zinc from dredged material has been attributed to biological uptake and to precipitation as carbonate complexes, while release of additional zinc is promoted by degradation of organic matter and solubilization of carbonate complexes (Hoeppel et al. 1978). More than 55 percent of the total zinc occurred in the organic-sulfide phase of influent solids in dredged material (Hoeppel et al. 1978).

43. Copper, lead, and cadmium. Stability of copper, lead, and cadmium complexes decreased with insoluble organics as reduced sediments were subjected to an oxidized environment (Gambrell et al. 1977). However, copper is relatively stable in most dredged material solids during the typically short retention time and mobility of copper should occur rarely in land containment areas (Hoeppel et al. 1978). Concentrations of copper (1 to 2616 µg/l) posed no threat to ground-water quality (Yu et al. 1978).

44. Chloride. Chloride ions move with water up and down within the soil profile. Chloride availability is seldom a problem in agricultural soils, but ions may be leached from soils in humid areas and concentrated to toxic levels in semiarid and arid areas (Brady 1974). The onsite chloride concentration ranged from an average of 167 mg/l to 8333 mg/l, which is typical for freshwater to brackish water systems (Yu et al. 1978). The concentration of available chloride is highly site-dependent.

Contaminants

45. Immobilization of contaminants that may be present in dredged material is frequently an objective of revegetation efforts. Retention of fine-grained solids in the containment area results in maximum retention of potentially toxic chemical constituents (Barnard and Hand 1978); therefore, vegetation establishing in these areas is especially subject to uptake of and/or inhibition by any contaminants that are present. The types of

contaminants and the levels at which they occur are site-specific. Some data available in the literature are indirect, examining the levels of hazardous leachates rather than levels of contaminants retained by dredged material. Most trace metals, oil and grease, and pesticides exhibit strong affinity for solid particles. The availability of contaminants to vegetation depends on the oxidation-reduction status of the dredged material as well as texture of the dredged material, and its organic matter content, and pH. Plant availability of heavy metals in dredged material is covered comprehensively in Simmers et al. (1981) and Folsom and Lee (1981a, 1981b).

PART III: MYCORRHIZAE

Definition

46. The word mycorrhiza (pl. mycorrhizae, or mycorrhizas), literally "fungus root," was coined in 1885 by A. B. Frank to describe the intimate association of plant roots with certain fungi (Maronek et al. 1981). These associations are usually mutualistic (i.e., beneficial to both the plant and the fungus) and are by definition nonpathogenic (Smith 1980). Almost without exception, mycorrhizae enhance plant growth. They tend to be rather constantly present and specific to plant species. Very few plants have been found to lack mycorrhizae.

47. Mycorrhizae are associated with autotrophic or heterotrophic plants. They may be obligate symbionts, active saprophytes, or even parasitic. Mycorrhizal fungi utilize the host plant as a carbohydrate source since they are incapable of carbohydrate synthesis. They contribute to the mineral nutrition of the host plant by extending the absorptive area of the root system, thereby increasing absorption efficiency.

Types of Mycorrhizae

48. Mycorrhizae are divided into two broad classes, ectomycorrhizae and endomycorrhizae, based on the method by which the fungus is attached to roots of the host plant. This simple structural basis for classification does not reflect physiological relationships, which have only recently begun to be investigated and which many feel will provide more accurate and concise classification categories (Smith 1980). Overlapping exists between the two classes, and mycorrhizae exhibiting characteristics of both classes are described as ectendomycorrhizae.

Ectomycorrhizae

49. Ectomycorrhizal fungi do not penetrate host root tissue (Figure 1). Instead, they colonize the intercellular spaces of the cortical cells forming a network of hyphae called the "Hartig net." Root colonization is usually visible as a fuzzy mycelium covering the small feeder roots (Beattie 1976). Hyphae can radiate from the root surface several metres into the soil. The



Figure 1. Longitudinal section of *Pisolithus tinctorius* ectomycorrhiza on loblolly pine (*Pinus taeda*). The first arrow (1) indicates the root cortex; the second arrow (2), the "Hartig net" formed by the ectomycorrhizae. (Dr. Donald H. Marx, Director and Chief Plant Pathologist, Institute for Mycorrhizal Research and Development, US Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Athens, Ga., provided all photographs appearing in this report)

hyphae greatly increase the absorptive ability of the roots. In return, the fungus absorbs reduced carbon compounds exuded from the roots (Maronek et al. 1981).

50. Ectomycorrhizae are known to occur in about 2000 plant species and are most common in the plant families Pinaceae, Fagaceae, Betulaceae, Fagaceae, Tiliaceae, Rosaceae, Leguminosae, Ericaceae, and Juglandaceae. Ectomycorrhizal fungi most frequently encountered belong to the class Basidiomycetes and include the following families: Amanitaceae, Boletaceae, Cortinariaceae, Russiellaceae, Tricholamataceae, Rhizopogonaceae, and Sclerodermataceae. Certain orders of Ascomycetes (Eurotiales, Tuberales, Pezizales, and Helotiales) also form ectomycorrhizae (Maronek et al. 1981; Pirozynski 1981).

Endomycorrhizae

51. Endomycorrhizal fungi penetrate the host root epidermis or root

hairs and enter the cortical cells of the root. The mycelium is usually not visible, but a network of fine, hairlike hyphae extend outward several centimetres from the root (Maronek et al. 1981). Short-lived vesicles and arbuscules (specialized fungal structures) are frequently produced within the root cortex (Figure 2). Discovery of these structures has given rise to a subclass of endomycorrhizae known as vesicular-arbuscular mycorrhizae (VAM) (Maronek et al. 1981). The spores of VAM are formed outside of the root (Figure 3).

52. Endomycorrhizae are the most widely distributed class of mycorrhizae. Their spores occur in nearly all natural soils (Marx and Beattie 1977). Most endomycorrhizal fungi belong to the class Phycomycetes and include the genera *Glomus*, *Sclerocystis*, *Endogone*, *Gigaspora*, and *Acaulospora*. All of these form VAM. Certain members of the class Basidiomycetes also form endomycorrhizae, primarily in association with members of the plant families Orchidaceae, Gentianaceae, and Ericaceae.

Factors Affecting Establishment and Growth of Mycorrhizae

53. Many factors influence the establishment and growth of mycorrhizae. Their intimate association with the soil makes them sensitive to all variations in soil conditions (e.g., nutrient level, pH, temperature, moisture content, aeration, and salinity). Environmental conditions such as light and atmospheric pollutants also influence mycorrhizae. Other conditions that affect plant vigor also have potential effects upon mycorrhizae. Ecological factors (e.g., residual inoculum in the soil from a previous plant community and interactions with adjacent fungal communities or other soil microorganisms) influence mycorrhizal development. Intrinsic factors (e.g., source and age of the fungal inoculum and stimulation by host excretions) determine the type and extent of fungal colonization of the host root system. Each of these major factors are discussed below.

Soil conditions

54. Soil conditions exerting the greatest influence on mycorrhizae include nutrient levels, pH, temperature, and moisture. Effects of the physical and chemical characteristics of soil (e.g., texture, bulk density, extensibility, Eh, cation exchange capacity, and salinity) have been mentioned in the literature only incidentally to reclamation efforts (Part IV). No



Figure 2. VAM of sweetgum (*Liquidambar styraciflua*) showing internal vesicles and small arbuscules (arrow)



Figure 3. Spores of VAM (arrow) fungi outside of sweetgum VAM

reference was found describing the effects of iron, molybdenum, cobalt, or chloride on mycorrhizae, either in levels considered to be excessive or deficient for plant growth.

55. Phosphorus. Mycorrhizae flourish in low phosphorus soils and are inhibited by high phosphorus soils. The literature substantiates this fact for a wide range of plant species. Examples of species for which this is true are listed below:

Scientific Name	Common Name	Source
<i>Allium cepa</i>	Onion	Nelsen et al. (1981); Ojala (1982)
<i>Citrus aurantium</i>	Brazilian sour orange	Ratnayake et al. (1978)
<i>Elymus</i> sp.	Ryegrass	Jasper et al. (1979); Powell et al. (1980)
<i>Glycine max</i>	Soybean	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1982a)
<i>Hordeum vulgare</i>	Barley	Jensen (1982); Jensen and Jakobsen (1980)
<i>Medicago sativa</i>	Alfalfa	Barea et al. (1980)
<i>Pinus rigida</i>	Pitch pine	Lee (1981)
<i>P. strobus</i>	Eastern white pine	Piché and Fortin (1982)
<i>Quercus rubra</i>	Red oak	Ruehle (1980a)
<i>Q. velutina</i>	Black oak	Dixon et al. (1981c)
<i>Sorghum vulgare</i>	Sudangrass	Ratnayake et al. (1978)
<i>Trifolium</i> spp.	Clover	Powell (1980a, 1980c); Powell et al. (1980)
<i>Triticum</i> spp.	Wheat	Jensen and Jakobsen (1980)
<i>Vigna unguiculata</i>	Cowpea	Islam et al. (1980)

At least two reasons have been proposed to explain mycorrhizal dependence on low phosphorus levels. Net leakage of soluble amino acids and reducing sugars from plant roots are lower in high phosphorus soils (Dixon et al. 1981c; Graham et al. 1982; Jasper et al. 1979; Ratnayake et al. 1978). Phosphorus within the root tissue apparently induces a decrease in phospholipid levels, which decreases membrane permeability to nutrients that could have been exuded. These essential nutrients are then unavailable to the fungi for use in establishment and growth, resulting in inhibition of mycorrhizal

development. It has also been suggested that high phosphorus concentrations produce host resistance to mycorrhizal fungal infection by some mechanism other than nutrient restriction (Jasper et al. 1979); however, this hypothesis has not been confirmed.

56. Many factors have been found to influence phosphorus inhibition. Reduced light intensity increased phosphorus inhibition of VAM in sudangrass when phosphorus was added to the soil (Graham et al. 1982). In low phosphorus soil (0.5 mg P/kg), decreased light intensity did not affect VAM formation. The reason suggested for lack of effect is that root phosphorus content did not change and root exudation was not reduced. Increased soil temperature counteracts phosphorus inhibition by directly increasing root exudation of nutrients, thereby stimulating mycorrhizal fungi (Graham et al. 1982).

57. Phosphate fertilizers generally exert the same effect on mycorrhizal development as naturally high soil phosphorus levels (Barea et al. 1980; Hayman 1981; Jasper et al. 1979; Jensen and Jakobsen 1980; Lee 1981; Nelsen et al. 1981; Piche and Fortin 1982; Powell 1980a, 1980c; Powell et al. 1980; Ratnayake et al. 1978; Ruehle 1980). Superphosphate depresses infectivity of mycorrhizal fungal inoculum not only by decreasing sporulation, but also by stimulating production of fungal propagules that are less aggressive in colonizing roots (Powell 1980a). As soil phosphate levels increase, fewer external hyphae are produced, and host dependency on mycorrhizae for phosphorus decreases.

58. Hayman (1981) suggested that the primary effect of mycorrhizae is improved phosphorus uptake, and that plants with fine, fibrous root systems only need mycorrhizae in phosphorus-deficient soils, while coarse-rooted plants may need mycorrhizae even when supplied with moderate levels of phosphate fertilizer. However, Powell (1980a) found that mycorrhizae remain important in phosphorus nutrition of white clover even when moderate to heavy levels of phosphate are applied. Pines normally infected by mycorrhizae can grow without them when phosphorus is supplied (Marais and Kotze 1978b). Phosphorus metabolism of mycorrhizal native grasses and grains has been studied extensively (Jasper et al. 1979; Powell 1980a, 1980c; Powell et al. 1980; Rabatin 1979). In general, mycorrhizae have been shown to improve phosphorus uptake in these fibrous-rooted plants.

59. Mycorrhizae may be effective in high phosphorus soils where high levels of calcium and clay cause fixing of phosphorus. In such soils, total phosphorus is high, but available phosphorus is low. Plants can also respond to mycorrhizal inoculation even after appreciable amounts of fertilizer have been added to such soils (Hayman 1981). Therefore, mycorrhizae are capable of making bound phosphorus available to plants.

60. High soil phosphorus levels do not always suppress mycorrhizae. Much depends on other chemical aspects of the soil and on the form of phosphorus present. The addition of sparingly soluble rock phosphate to phosphorus retaining soils does not impede mycorrhizae formation even when levels are high enough to stimulate plant growth (Powell 1980b).

61. One means of mitigating the potential inhibition of phosphorus fertilizers to mycorrhizae has been foliar application of phosphorus. Black oak seedlings receiving foliar fertilizer developed 36 percent more ectomycorrhizal roots than seedlings receiving fertilizer in growth medium (Dixon 1981c).

62. In summary, mycorrhizae may (a) increase phosphorus absorption by the host plants in phosphorus-deficient soils and in soils having bound forms of phosphorus and (b) be inhibited by soils with abundant available phosphorus and by phosphate fertilizers. However, many factors other than soil phosphorus concentration affect the interaction between mycorrhizae, soil phosphorus, and the host plant.

63. Nitrogen. The literature generally supports a correlation between increased levels of soil nitrogen and decreased incidence of mycorrhizal infection (Chambers et al. 1980a, 1980b; Hayman 1981; Jensen and Jakobsen 1980; Lee 1981; Marais and Kotzé 1978b; Ruehle 1980a). An explanation for this is that in high soil nitrogen conditions the host plant diverts its energies toward protein synthesis rather than for carbohydrate synthesis. Mycorrhizal fungi have only limited ability to compete with the plant for the reduced carbohydrate supply (Maronek et al. 1981).

64. Soil nitrogen may be available to mycorrhizae in the form of ammonium ions, nitrate ions, and/or organic nitrogen compounds or ions. These various forms have different mobilities in the soil and different assimilation pathways in fungal and plant tissues (Smith 1980). The form of nitrogen affects other aspects of soil chemistry that may be important in its uptake

and to the vigor of the mycorrhizal fungus and its host. For example, ammonium and nitrate ions contribute to total salt concentration in the soil along with such ions as phosphate, potassium, sulfate, and chloride. The few studies that have been conducted on the effects of high soil salt concentrations (usually phosphate salts) suggest that they are inhibitory to mycorrhizae (Chambers et al. 1980b). Soil pH is also affected by the form of nitrogen present in the soil. Ammonium assimilated into amino acids results in a decrease in soil pH (Smith 1980). On the other hand, nitrates assimilated by mycorrhizal fungi are reduced, producing an excess of hydroxyl ions that can be excreted into the soil, causing an increase in soil pH (Smith 1980). Distribution of fungal species is frequently dictated by soil pH.

65. Several studies have been conducted to compare effects of various forms of nitrogen on mycorrhizae (Beckjord et al. 1980; Brown et al. 1981; Chambers et al. 1980a, 1980b; Peeler and Mullins 1982; Smith 1980). Greater reductions in mycorrhizal infection of clover occurred with ammonium ions than with nitrate ions (Chambers et al. 1980a, 1980b). However, greater root and leaf nitrogen content occurred in mycorrhizal sweetgum seedlings that were given ammonium sulfate than in those receiving either ammonium nitrate or potassium nitrate (Brown et al. 1981). This suggested that mycorrhizal sweetgum seedlings preferentially take up ammonium nitrogen over nitrate nitrogen. The nitrogen requirement of *Pisolithus tinctorius* in laboratory cultures can be satisfied with nitrate alone (Peeler and Mullins 1982).

66. The age of red oak seedlings at the time of application of nitrogen fertilizer greatly affected mycorrhizal response (Beckjord et al. 1980). Sodium nitrate enhanced mycorrhization when applied to 40-day-old seedlings more than application of either sodium nitrate or ammonium chloride enhanced 15-day-old seedlings.

67. Accompanying minerals also influence nitrogen effectiveness of mycorrhization (Dixon et al. 1979). Nitrogen applied to foliage of shortleaf pine seedlings (*Pinus echinata*) increased mycorrhization. Nitrogen and zinc in combination was a more effective promoter of mycorrhization than nitrogen and magnesium when applied to foliage. Nitrogen and zinc applied to foliage was more effective than either nitrogen and zinc or nitrogen and magnesium applied to rooting medium.

68. Urea, a simple organic form of nitrogen, inhibited mycorrhizal formation when applied to Douglas fir seedlings (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*) in concentrations greater than 100 ppm available nitrogen (Sinclair 1974). This was the only study found on effects of organic nitrogen.

69. Variability in effects of nitrogen on mycorrhization is an indication that complex factors influence its availability and uptake. The form in which nitrogen occurs in the soil, other aspects of soil chemistry, and characteristics of specific plant/fungus associations may all contribute to nitrogen effects on mycorrhization.

70. Inconclusive evidence has been presented that mycorrhizae fix atmospheric nitrogen. Certain ectomycorrhizal and endomycorrhizal fungi have been found to exhibit nitrate reductase activity (Trappe 1977; Ho and Trappe 1975). Mycorrhizae have been found on plants capable of fixing nitrogen, and mycorrhizae are known to stimulate nodulation of these plants (Maronek et al. 1981). However, actual nitrogen fixation by mycorrhizal fungi has not been conclusively demonstrated.

71. Potassium. Even though potassium is a major component of most fertilizers, no studies were found dealing with its individual effects on mycorrhization apart from phosphorus and nitrogen. Mycorrhizae increased plant uptake of potassium in potassium-deficient soils (Powell 1975), but no data were found concerning the effects of high potassium concentrations on mycorrhizae. Inhibition by high levels of applied NPK fertilizers have been documented (Csinos 1981), but much of this effect may be attributable to phosphorus.

72. Micronutrients. The relationships of several micronutrients to mycorrhizae have been studied. As concentrations of manganese (0.014-1.4 mg/l), copper (0.1-1.0 mg/l), and zinc (0.7-7.0 mg/l) ions increased in cultures of *Glomus caledonius* spores, germination decreased (Hepper 1979). Excess zinc was found to be toxic to mycorrhizal fungi (Hepper and Smith 1976; McIlveen 1977 cited by Lambert et al. 1980a), and copper, although tolerated at low levels by endomycorrhizae of certain citrus species, prevented establishment of ectomycorrhizae (Harris and Jurgensen 1977; Lambert et al. 1980a). Highest uptake of cadmium, zinc, and phosphorus by mycelia of *Amanita muscaria* and *Suillus variegatus* (ectomycorrhizal fungi) occurred during the most intensive growth of mycelia. These elements can be absorbed rapidly by the fungi without the influence of mycorrhization (Stegnar et al. 1978).

73. Fertilization of soil with 1.1 ppm boron increased shoot dry weight of mycorrhizal clover by an average of 16 percent, but did not affect non-mycorrhizal clover weight. Inadequate levels of boron reduced shoot dry weight of mycorrhizal plants by 71 percent versus a reduction of 35 percent for nonmycorrhizal plants. Growth of both mycorrhizal and nonmycorrhizal plants decreased when excess boron was present, but colonization by mycorrhizae was unaffected. Uptake of phosphorus and copper was improved by boron application (Lambert et al. 1980b).

74. Organic matter. Several studies have been conducted that illustrate the transfer of carbon compounds, particularly sugars, from host plants to mycorrhizal fungi (Bevege et al. 1975; Lewis 1975; Purves and Hadley 1975; Stribley and Read 1975). However, only limited investigations were found on the effect of soil organic levels on mycorrhizae. An organic layer in the soil inhibited both growth and mycorrhization of white fir (*Abies concolor*) (Alvarez, Rowney, and Cobb 1979). Dry weight, total root length, total number of mycorrhizal tips, and the number of mycorrhizal tips per centimetre of roots were higher in seedlings grown in mineral soils than in those grown in mineral soils with an organic layer. A negative correlation was found between percent of mycorrhizal tips or number of mycorrhizal tips per centimetre of roots in a hybrid pine (*Pinus rigida* x *taeda*) with soil organic matter (Lee 1981). Apparently, addition of organic matter inhibits mycorrhizae in soils of poor to moderate fertility.

75. pH. The literature presents conflicting reports on whether or not pH affects mycorrhizal development. A positive correlation was found between percent mycorrhizal tips or numbers of mycorrhizal tips per centimetre of root in hybrid pine with soil pH (Lee 1981). A very slight correlation occurred between infection percentage, clay content, and pH on 2-year-old barley crops in commercial fields (Black and Tinker 1979). However, much more evidence has been cited that pH has no effect on mycorrhization. A 5-year study of barley, oats (*Avena sativa*), wheat (*Triticum* sp.), and rye led to the conclusion that neither soil type nor pH had a determinable effect on mycorrhizal infection (Strzemeski 1974). Nonmycorrhizal roots of these cereals were generally deformed, but this was also unrelated to soil type or pH. Neither nitrogen application nor pH change caused by lime dressing had any effect on mycorrhizal infection in Pennine grasslands (Sparling and Tinker 1974). Jelecote pine (*Pinus patula*) developed mycorrhizae equally well over pH ranging from

4.8 to 7.1, indicating a low degree of pH specificity (Marais and Kotze 1978a). Mycorrhizal infection of citrus roots did not change significantly with pH (Ojala 1982). The wide tolerance of pH ranges described above can be attributed to several factors (e.g. differences in host characteristics and differences in soil nutrient levels). Mycorrhizal host plants apparently exert a strong influence on the absorption efficiency of VAM at different pH values in association with the same fungus. Mycorrhizal infection (*Glomus macrocarpus*) changed the influence of pH and absorption of phosphorus compounds differently in marigold (*Tagetes minuta*) and *Guizotia abyssinica* (Graw 1979). Mycorrhizae depressed phosphorus absorption in *G. abyssinica* at pH 4.3 in the presence of fertilizer compounds, whereas marigold absorbed phosphorus well at pH 4.3. Increased pH (6.6) improved phosphorus uptake and growth of mycorrhizal *G. abyssinica*, but either did not change, or decreased, absorption by mycorrhizal marigold (Graw 1979).

76. The specific host-fungus association itself seems to be dependent on pH. Responses of soybean cultivars to two mycorrhizal fungi (*Gigaspora gigantea* and *Glomus mosseae*) were compared in limed (pH 6.2) and unlimed (pH 5.1) soils (Skipper and Smith 1979). Greater responses were obtained with *G. mosseae* in limed soil and with *G. gigantea* in unlimed soil.

77. Several investigators have demonstrated the complexity of soil nutrient interactions with pH (Graw 1979; Lambert et al. 1980a; Marais and Kotze 1978a; Ojala 1982). Changes in pH influence the solubility of various phosphorus compounds and alter the absorption of phosphorus by soil components (fertilization effectiveness) differently (Graw 1979; Ojala 1982). Zinc, copper, iron, manganese, and aluminum vary in their availability with pH, and their concentrations may be of equal or greater importance than hydrogen ion concentration per se in the effect of soil acidity on mycorrhization (Lambert et al. 1980a).

78. Soil pH perhaps exerts selective pressure on mycorrhizal formation and specificity. Spore numbers are more closely related to pH than to other soil factors (e.g., organic matter, potassium, or phosphorus) (Kruckelmann 1974). Different species of endomycorrhizal fungi germinate at different pH levels and it has been suggested that pH thereby contributes to fungal distribution and host range (Green et al. 1976). Distribution of "honey-colored sessile" and "yellow vacuolate" spore types in western Australia has been related to soil pH (Abbott and Robson 1977; Hayman 1982).

79. Temperature. Most investigators agree that high soil temperatures promote mycorrhizae formation (Daniels and Trappe 1980; Graham et al. 1982; Marais and Kotzé 1978c; Pugh et al. 1981; Smith and Bowen 1979; Warnke 1982). Increased root temperature was positively associated with increased numbers of "entry-points" during the preinfection phase in mycorrhizal *Medicago truncatula* and subterranean clover (*Trifolium subterraneum*) grown in soils at 12°, 16°, 20°, and 25°C. Infection of roots was so intense at 20°C and 25°C at 10 and 12 days, respectively, that it was no longer possible to accurately count entry-points (Smith and Bowen 1979). Mycorrhization of cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum*) by *Gigaspora margarita* was stimulated at 30°C and 24°C and was slight or absent at 19°C or 14°C. Root infection was also abundant (65 percent) at the two higher temperatures, less than 5 percent at 19°C, and undetected at 14°C (Pugh et al. 1981). Jelescote pine mycorrhization was stimulated by high temperatures, but this did not result in increased growth (Marais and Kotzé 1978c). Three explanations for this result were suggested:

- a. High temperatures may stimulate root exudation of substances which stimulate the mycorrhizal fungi, and the composition of these substances may also undergo changes at higher temperatures (35°C) to the advantage of the fungi.
- b. Short root production may be stimulated by high temperatures, which in turn increases the number of infection sites, resulting in a higher incidence of mycorrhizal infection.
- c. Optimum temperature for growth of mycorrhizal fungi of Jelescote pine may be relatively high.

80. Most mycorrhizal fungi have an optimum temperature for establishment of the symbiotic relationship and survival of the mycorrhizal condition. However, there may be considerable variation in the temperature tolerance of fungal species (Maronek et al. 1981). The optimum temperature for germination of *Glomus epigaeus* spores is between 18°C and 25°C (Daniels and Trappe 1980). Optimum germination may be closely correlated with optimum growth conditions of the host. There is some indication that optimum temperatures may be an adaptation to climatic conditions. Higher optimum temperature was found for *Gigaspora* spp. from Florida than for *Gigaspora* spp. from eastern Washington (Daniels and Trappe 1980).

81. Phosphorus inhibition of VAM can be overcome by increased soil temperature (Graham et al. 1982). Reduced inhibition in plants treated with 15 mg/kg phosphorus was associated with significant increases in root membrane permeability and exudation without a corresponding change in root phosphorus

concentration. Higher soil temperature may increase VAM formation through a direct effect of temperature on the fungus, or an indirect effect through an increase in leakage of root metabolites necessary for fungal activity, or both.

82. Moisture. Most mycorrhizal fungal spores are capable of germinating under conditions of high moisture. Maximum germination of *Glomus epigaeus* occurred in petri dish cultures at moisture levels above field capacity (Daniels and Trappe 1980). However, laboratory cultures are not subject to the great reduction in aeration that accompanies soil saturation with water. Waterlogging of soils has been shown consistently to suppress mycorrhizal function, probably due to insufficient oxygen for the fungi (Hayman 1981). Oxygen concentration in the soil atmosphere greatly influenced the growth and mineral uptake of thoroughwort (*Eupatorium adorum*) inoculated with *Glomus macrocarpus* (Saif 1981). Similar effects can be expected with other mycorrhizal fungi since all are aerobic. Mycorrhizae often become established during dry periods on plants that grow under nearly continuous inundation (Warnke 1982). For example, trees commonly associated with periodic and continual inundation became mycorrhizal when drier conditions prevailed (Keeley 1980; Warnke 1982), and roots of rice (*Oryza sativa*) were devoid of VAM infection in flooded soils, but became infected under drier conditions (Gerdemann 1974). Spore production is also reduced under waterlogged conditions (Redhead 1971 cited by Warnke 1982). Studies of sorghum (Sieverding 1979) and other grasses (Rabatin 1979) showed that soil moisture affected the degree of infection. Greater development of mycorrhizae occurred under water-deficient conditions. When soil moisture content is seasonal (e.g., high in spring) mycorrhizal development occurs only after moisture levels have declined (Rabatin 1979).

Environmental factors

83. Light. There is conflicting evidence in the literature as to whether mycorrhizae develop better at high or at low light intensities. *Cenococcum graniforma* associations with beech (*Fagus* sp.) (Harley and Waid 1955) and birch (*Betula* sp.) (Mikola 1948 cited by Maronek et al. 1981), and *Gigaspora calospora* associated with onion (Furlan and Fortin 1977) were enhanced by low levels of light. However, *Pisolithus tinctorius* with eastern white pine (Piché and Fortin 1982) and *Endogone* sp. on onion (Hayman 1974) were inhibited at low light intensities. Higher light intensities increase

photosynthetic activity and subsequent carbohydrate translocation to the roots where mycorrhization can be stimulated (Maronek et al. 1981).

84. Effects of light on mycorrhization are probably complex. Light could exert an influence on many factors that affect mycorrhizae, including specific plant/fungus interactions. Light intensity and soil temperature affect the relations between phosphorus nutrition, root exudation, and VAM formation in sudangrass (Graham et al. 1982). Phosphorus-induced inhibition of VAM formation was increased at low light intensities because phosphorus content of roots corresponded with decreases in root membrane permeability and exudation. All of these factors are related to the photosynthetic system of the plant. Thus, the effects of light are probably indirect, exerting an influence via the mechanisms of photosynthesis and nutrient translocation.

85. Inhibitors. Many substances exert inhibitory or lethal effects on mycorrhizae. Pesticides, atmospheric pollutants, and specific metabolic inhibitors can affect mycorrhizae. VAM are affected by an array of substances, which include fungicides, general biocides, nematocides, and insecticides (Ocampo and Hayman 1980). Usually the effect is deleterious, causing decreased mycorrhization and reduced numbers of fungal spores. These negative effects may be greatest in less fertile soils where plants are more dependent on mycorrhizae. Substances toxic to mycorrhizae are not necessarily toxic to plants. On the other hand, mycorrhizae are often capable of overcoming inhibition by substances toxic to host plants.

86. Fungicides have been shown to decrease mycorrhizal development and sporulation (Jalali and Domsch 1975; Rhodes and Larsin 1979 cited by Warnke 1982). However, when mycorrhizae are abundant and thoroughly embedded in root material, much higher doses of fungistatic fumigants are necessary to kill them than to kill the common targets of fumigation (e.g., plant pathogenic fungi). Therefore, soil fumigants do not completely eliminate mycorrhizal fungi in treated fields.

87. Atmospheric pollutants may exert an influence over mycorrhizal fungi. Mycorrhizal fungi of a forest community were changed over a long period by fallout of industrial ash and dust (Sabotka 1974 cited by Maronek et al. 1981). Effects of atmospheric pollutants on mycorrhizae must surely be related to effects on the host plant and on the chemical characteristics of the soil.

88. Few studies have addressed the response of ungerminated spores to

inhibitors of protein and nucleic acid synthesis. Responses of *Glomus caledonius* spores to cycloheximide, actinomycin D, proflavin hemisulphate, 5-fluorouracil and ethidium bromide resemble those of saprophytic fungi more than those of obligate fungi (Hepper 1979). Cycloheximide, a specific inhibitor of protein synthesis, prevents germination of *G. caledonius* spores, as is the general case with obligate pathogens and with many saprophytes. Actinomycin D, thought to be an inhibitor of messenger RNA synthesis, prevented branching of *G. caledonius* germ tubes. Proflavine hemisulphate inhibited germination by reducing RNA synthesis. Germination and growth of *G. caledonius* were sensitive to 5-fluorouracil, which stimulates synthesis of ribosomal and soluble RNA. Ethidium bromide, a specific inhibitor of mitochondrial DNA synthesis, prevented or delayed germination at 5 and 3 µg/ml, respectively. Pregerminated spores were less sensitive (Hepper 1979).

Ecological factors

89. Residual inoculum. Mycorrhizal establishment is subject to the selective pressures of the soil environment. However, experimental evidence has shown that field plots inoculated with *G. caledonius* retain high levels of the fungus for as long as 21 months even though the soil already contained other mycorrhizal fungi (Mosse et al. 1982). The residual growth may be due to the continuous presence of a host plant over winter, which was the case in the cited study. A long delay was found before appreciable percentage infection of roots developed with all rotations of barley and kale (*Brassica oleracea*) with fallow fields over 2 years. Once mycorrhization commenced, it increased rapidly until a constant level was achieved, but this level was reached relatively late in the growing season. Presence of the host plant seems to be a requirement for maintenance of residues from one growing season to another. Such late infection appearance is unlikely to be beneficial to crops that are rotated (Black and Tinker 1979).

90. Host stimulation. Mycelial growth is subject to or regulated by many host plant hormones. Most of these interactions are not thoroughly understood, but researchers have proved that certain unidentified substances from the host plant are capable of controlling mycorrhization (Maronek et al. 1981). Cytokinins from pine seedlings stimulate mycelial growth of *Boletus edulis* var. *piniculus* (Gogala 1970 cited by Maronek et al. 1981). In addition, indolacetic acid, diphosphopyridine nucleotide, colchicine, kinetin, and various vitamins stimulate mycorrhizal fungi (Maronek et al. 1981).

PART IV: BENEFICIAL USES

Habitat Development

91. Revegetation of dredged material for the reclamation or establishment of habitat is both a means of stabilizing dredged material (thereby preventing its return to the waterway and reducing future maintenance dredging), and a means of conserving environmentally and economically productive ecosystems.

Aquatic habitat development

92. Marine. Typical submersed habitats extend from near sea level down to several metres. Examples are tidal flats, oyster beds, seagrass meadows, and clam flats (Smith 1978). Revegetation efforts have focused on establishment of seagrass beds.

93. Dredging and disposal activities in shallow coastal areas often destroy seagrass beds, eliminating shelter areas and food resources for many associated organisms. The extensive loss of the beds can impact commercial fishing, including shellfishing and shrimping. The goal of developing aquatic habitat in dredged and disposal areas is recovery of these highly productive ecosystems (Phillips et al. 1978). Seagrass beds do not recover rapidly following physical disturbance. For example, turtlegrass beds (*Thalassia testudinum*) damaged by motorboat propellers require 2 to 5 years to recover sufficiently to blend with surrounding undisturbed areas (Zieman 1976).

94. The greatest difficulty in revegetation of dredged areas and dredged disposal sites with seagrasses is stabilization of the plants in tidal currents. Once this is accomplished, plants are likely to survive, unless other growth conditions are inadequate. Nutrient limitations are not usually a problem in seagrass establishment, but favorable responses have been demonstrated by the addition of fertilizers (Orth 1977; Orth and Moore 1982b). Sediment texture appears to have a very important influence on nutrient levels. Limited available data indicate that fine-textured sediments are higher in nutrients than coarse-textured sediments. This is probably due to the negligible adsorption of exchangeable nutrients on coarse-textured sediments (Orth 1977). There is also some indication that pH and Eh, which greatly affect nutrient availability, are lower in coarse-textured sediments (Zieman 1976). Although the reducing environment in marine sediments forms a

sink for many heavy metals, there is no evidence that these metals affect the seagrasses (Phillips 1980).

95. None of the seagrasses used in revegetation of dredged material have been investigated to determine their mycorrhizal status. The study of marine fungi in general is very new and extremely limited. The high salt tolerance required, the generally reduced sediment environment, and the fibrous nature of seagrass root systems decrease the likelihood that mycorrhizae are present, and, if present, that they play any significant role in seagrass establishment or survival.

96. Fresh water. No situations have arisen to occasion the development of freshwater aquatic habitat on dredged material disposal sites. In riverine systems, dredged material is typically deposited on upland or diked disposal sites or placed on low energy bars where erosion occurs gradually. In the Great Lakes, the only large freshwater area other than riverine systems that is routinely dredged, material is placed in diked containment areas because of the potential presence of contaminants. Therefore, no references were found in the literature concerning experimental establishment of vegetation for development of freshwater aquatic habitat.

Marsh habitat development

97. Marsh habitat development is the best understood of all dredged material habitat development alternatives. This is due to the facility and economy with which dredged material marshes can be constructed. Marsh development technology is sufficiently advanced for the design and construction of productive systems at costs little above the cost of normal project operations (Smith 1978).

98. Marshes are defined as wetland areas dominated by nonwoody vegetation, and include tidal freshwater and saltwater marshes, and relatively permanently inundated freshwater marshes (Smith 1978). Natural invasion of plants can be expected if the environmental requirements for a marsh community are met and there is an abundant source of propagules nearby. The principal disadvantages of natural invasion are (a) it may occur too slowly (perhaps over a period of years), and (b) undesirable plant species may predominate (Environmental Laboratory 1978). In situations where cover is needed for rapid stabilization, or where environmental conditions are harsh, planting is desirable. Species selected for artificial propagation are usually

representative of the native flora in adjacent marshes. Most exotic species are readily overcome by local natural invaders.

99. According to Lunz et al. (1978), the primary determinant of plant distribution on marsh sites is the magnitude, frequency, and duration of flooding. They also found that species diversity increased with decreased frequency of inundation, a typical marsh characteristic.

100. Common problems encountered in planting for marsh habitat development are high wave or current energies, and coarse-textured sediments that are low in nutrients. When wave energies are extreme, protective and retaining structures are constructed. However, if the foundation is weak or unstable (as at Rennie Island in Grays Harbor, Washington), marsh development may not be feasible and the project may have to be abandoned (Vincent 1978).

101. The most important physical characteristic of dredged material in revegetation with marsh plants is texture, which is highly correlated with nutrient levels. Fine-textured materials tend to be rich in nutrients and, therefore, do not require fertilization. Coarse-textured materials, especially those occurring where rapid cover is needed, require fertilization. An all-purpose fertilizer [e.g., 13-13-13 (NPK)] is usually applied at a rate based on sediment analyses. Spring application followed by a midsummer application has resulted in more evenly distributed available nutrients than use of slow-release fertilizers (Environmental Laboratory 1978). Even with application of fertilizer, rapid leaching of coarse-textured dredged material during periods of high rainfall or flooding can minimize nutrient availability (Lunz et al. 1978).

102. Like nutrient levels, sediment microbial levels vary with sediment texture. In one study, textural differences accounted for 80 percent of the variance in bacterial numbers of intertidal sediments with coarse material exhibiting fewest microorganisms (Dale 1974).

103. Landin (1978) listed 115 marsh plant species for use in wetland development based on their ability to grow in dredged material, to stabilize the substrate, and to provide for wildlife needs. Most of these plants have not been investigated for occurrence of mycorrhizae.

Upland habitat development

104. Upland habitat is a very broad category of terrestrial communities characterized by vegetation that is not normally subjected to inundation. Types may range from bare ground to mature forests. Regardless of the

condition or location of a disposal area, considerable potential exists to convert it to a more productive habitat. The greatest potential is for enhancement of residential areas, and development of parks, recreational areas, and wildlife habitat. Dredged material disposal sites tend to become vegetated regardless of reclamation or revegetation efforts. However, well-planned and managed habitat development adds little to the cost of the disposal operation while greatly improving site quality and productivity, and dramatically increasing the rate of reclamation (Smith 1978).

105. Variations in elevation and moisture levels are important factors in determining species survival. Coastal bermuda grass (*Cynodon dactylon* var. *alecia*), bitter panic grass (*Panicum amarum*), live oak (*Quercus virginiana*), winged sumac (*Rhus copallina*), and wax myrtle (*Myrica cerifera*) temporarily stabilized a planted upland disposal site on Bolivar Peninsula, Galveston Bay, Texas (Allen et al. 1978). (The site was later naturally colonized by other species.) The most tolerant of these species to variations in elevation and moisture were live oak, winged sumac, and wax myrtle. Salt cedar (*Tamarix gallica*) and sand pine (*Pinus clausa*) performed poorly on the higher, drier soils suggesting that these species might be more suitable in areas where soil moisture was more uniform (Allen et al. 1978).

106. Typical site preparation for upland revegetation includes liming, fertilizing, seeding or sprigging, and perhaps mowing to control undesirable invading species. Fertilization has proven especially beneficial in establishment of vegetation on upland disposal sites. Fertilization of upland sites yielded higher aboveground biomass, and more vigorous, competitive legumes (Clairain et al. 1978). Plant growth, density, and other performance factors for grasses were greatly increased with repeated applications of fertilizer (Allen et al. 1978). In a revegetation study at Miller Sands on the Columbia River, Oregon, red clover (*Trifolium pratense*), white clover (*T. repens*), hairy vetch (*Vicia villosa*), tall fescue (*Festuca elatior*), Oregon bentgrass (*Agrostis oregonensis*), barley (*Hordeum vulgare*), and tall wheatgrass (*Agropyron elongatum*) became well established in fertilized meadows following seeding, but fertilization had no long-range impact on survival (Clairain et al. 1978). At the Bolivar Peninsula site, coastal bermuda and bitter panic grasses grew better when fertilized, but fertilization had no effect on their survival (Allen et al. 1978). In both studies fertilization encouraged invasion and competition by undesirable plant species. At the Miller Sands

site, the most intense competition was from common velvetgrass (*Holcus lanatus*) and rat-tail fescue (*Festuca myuros*), but common broadleaf and moss species also invaded.

107. On sites where soils retain little moisture and are relatively infertile, the goal of maintaining a highly productive area probably cannot be achieved without continued maintenance, including periodic discing, seeding, and fertilization. Such intensive efforts may not be cost-effective.

108. Very few references were found in the literature concerning microbial flora establishing on or associated with dredged material. In studies of chemical composition of the material, its leachates and interstitial waters, mention is sometimes made of microbial processes that were either substantiated or surmised. The only other mentionings of specific microflora concerned nitrogen fixation and, in one instance, plant disease. At a Nott Island, Connecticut, site, grasses were more successful colonizers than clover (Barry et al. 1978). Investigators attributed the failure of clover to the absence of nitrogen-fixing bacteria. None were added to seeds; none were found naturally present in the dredged material; and no nodulation occurred. At Miller Sands, hairy vetch plantings that had been successful for one full growing season and into the spring of a second declined dramatically in ground cover and biomass as a result of black stem rust disease (*Ascochyta imperfecta*) (Clairain et al. 1978).

109. No mention was made in the literature of mycorrhizal associations of plants used in revegetation of dredged material disposal sites. However, many of the plants used have been shown to have mycorrhizal associations (Tables A1-A3).

Reforestation

110. Mycorrhizae were discovered about a century ago, but their beneficial effects have been realized and exploited for only the last 20 to 25 years (Patrick 1979). The forest industry was the first to recognize the potential use of mycorrhizal associations. Most trees have a complement of mycorrhizal fungi upon which they depend for efficient nutrient and water absorption. Trees that have lost their mycorrhizal fungi frequently become stunted due to decreased absorption, especially if the soil in which they are

growing is nutrient-deficient. Therefore, good reforestation practices require the incorporation of mycorrhizae into seedling production methods.

Tree seedlings

111. Beneficial effects of mycorrhizae on tree seedlings are the direct or indirect results of the intimate association of mycorrhizal fungi with tree root systems. Mycorrhizal fungi increase root surface area and root collar diameter, promote efficient water and nutrient absorption, increase plant resistance to adverse soil conditions, and afford protection from some root pathogens (Ruehle 1980b). Indirect effects of increased root efficiency are seedling vigor; increased number of lateral shoots from stems; greater stem weight, biomass, and height; enhanced growth rate in low fertility soils; and, in general, better field performance.

112. Roots. Mycorrhizal fungi benefit the host root system in several ways. *Lactarius rufus*, an ectomycorrhizal fungus of spruce (*Picea sitchensis*), increased root weight of seedlings and stimulated the production of short roots (Alexander 1981). An experimental formulation of *Pisolithus tinctorius* increased the number of roots per cutting, the average root length, the total root length, and the root dry weight of inoculated poplar (*Populus* spp.) hybrids (Navratil and Rochon 1981). Increases in root collar diameter in inoculated versus uninoculated seedling have been shown in sweetgum (Barham 1978; Kormanik et al. 1981), loblolly pine (Ruehle 1982), and black oak (Dixon et al. 1981a) (Figures 4 and 5).

113. Root growth rate of red pine (*Pinus resinosa*) seedlings above a specific threshold level progressively inhibited a formulation of *Pisolithus tinctorius* (Sohn 1981). Not only did rapid root growth rate reduce mycorrhizae formation, but, conversely, mycorrhizae formation was capable of reducing root growth rate. These results suggest a feedback mechanism that controls the plant/fungus relationship.

114. Stems. Enhancement of shoot development has also resulted from mycorrhization of seedlings. Shoot weight and number of lateral shoots from stems increased in mycorrhizal seedlings (Alexander 1981). VAM development increased stem weight 2- to 80-fold over nonmycorrhizal seedlings of the following seven forest species: red maple (*Acer rubrum*), sweetgum, black walnut (*Juglans nigra*), green ash (*Fraxinus pennsylvanica*), boxelder (*Acer negundo*), sycamore (*Platanus occidentalis*), and black cherry (*Prunus serotina*) (Kormanik et al. 1982). Sweetgum seedlings treated with a mixture of two mycorrhizal



Figure 4. Root systems of loblolly pine seedlings inoculated naturally by mycorrhizal fungi present in the soil



Figure 5. Root systems of loblolly pine seedlings planted as in Figure 4 above, but inoculated with the mycorrhizal fungus *Pisolithus tinctorius*

fungi (*Glomus mosseae* and *Glomus etunicatus*) in various concentrations exhibited significantly greater biomass, height, and stem diameter at each of four fertilizer levels (140, 280, 560, and 1120 kg/ha of 10-10-10) than did untreated seedlings (Schultz et al. 1979). The dramatic impact of inoculation with mycorrhizae is shown in Figures 6 and 7.

115. Nutrient adsorption. Mycorrhizae have been demonstrated to enhance nutrient and water uptake by seedlings of several forest trees. Phosphorus and zinc significantly increased in pine seedlings (*Pinus caribaea* var. *hondurensis*) inoculated with mycorrhizae (Hart et al. 1980). Foliar phosphorus and plant dry weight were increased in sycamore seedlings inoculated with *Glomus fasciculatus* (Pope 1980).

116. Adverse soil conditions. Improvements in survival and growth of tree seedlings in adverse soil conditions have been extensively investigated in relation to reclamation of disturbed sites (Figures 6 and 7). These studies are discussed in paragraphs 130-138. Generally, mycorrhization has been shown to enhance seedling growth and survival in adverse soil conditions. Seedling survival has been improved by mycorrhization in coal spoils high in aluminum, sulfur, manganese, copper, and iron (Marx 1975). Specific instances have been found in which mycorrhizal plants were not only tolerant of certain heavy metals, but capable of sequestering and storing them, thereby detoxifying soils (Maronek et al. 1981). Endomycorrhizae tend to be prevalent in low fertility soils, especially when nitrogen and phosphorus are low. Loblolly pine seedling growth has been increased in low fertility soils by inoculation with *Pisolithus tinctorius* (Marx and Barnett 1974).

117. Mycorrhizae may also play an important part in development of soil structure and in soil stabilization. Mycorrhizae hyphae contribute to aggregation of soil particles 2 mm in diameter (Tisdall and Oades 1979), and bind sand grains for stabilization of dunes and sandy soil (Clough and Sutton 1978).

118. Fertilizers. Effects of phosphorus and nitrogen fertilizers on mycorrhizal growth and development are discussed in Part III. Mycorrhizal sweetgum seedlings had significantly greater biomass, height, and stem diameter at each of four fertilizer levels, but mycorrhization of the fertilized seedlings did not increase nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium, or magnesium concentrations in leaves, stems, or roots (Schultz et al. 1979). The rate of fertilizer release may influence mycorrhizal development. A greater

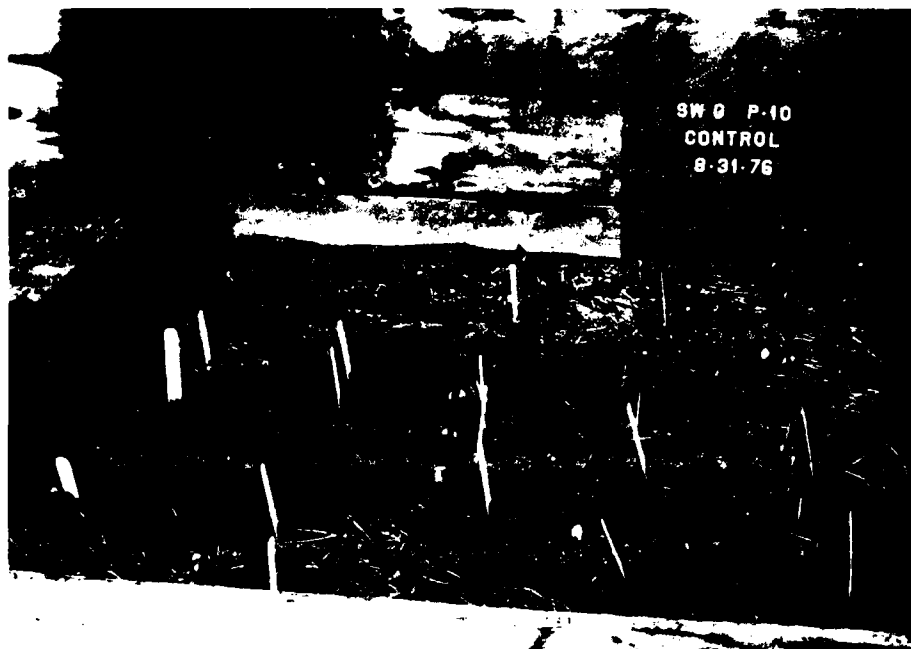


Figure 6. Five-month-old sweetgum seedlings grown from seeds in fumigated nursery soil



Figure 7. Five-month-old sweetgum seedlings grown from seeds in fumigated nursery soil and treated with VAM

percentage of roots became mycorrhizal when treated with 4.5 kg/m^3 of a slow release fertilizer than when treated with 1.9 kg/m^3 of a rapid release fertilizer (Maronek et al. 1981).

119. Container-grown seedlings. Most investigators have found that mycorrhization of containerized tree seedlings improves survival and growth at outplanting (Cordell and Marx 1980; Dixon et al. 1981a, 1981b; Johnson 1980). The success of containerized mycorrhizal seedlings was attributed to an increased number of lateral roots (Johnson 1980), larger size of mycorrhizae (Dixon et al. 1981b; Mexal 1980), more infection sites on container-grown seedlings (Johnson 1980), and increases in the extent of infection (Cline and Reid 1982; Ruehle and Brendemuehl 1981; Ruehle et al. 1981a).

120. Outplanting. The most important test of the value of mycorrhizal inoculation of tree seedlings is their subsequent success when outplanted. An extensive survey of the literature concerning the value of inoculation of container-grown and bare-root nursery seedlings with specific mycorrhizal fungi is given by Marx (1978). Most studies show that inoculation generally improves survival, quality, and growth of seedlings (Cordell and Marx 1980; Kelley 1979; Mexal 1980; Ruehle and Brendemuehl 1981; Ruehle et al. 1981).

Forest ecology

121. Nutrients. Mycorrhizae exert other influences on the forest ecosystem in addition to beneficial effects on trees per se. The fine mycorrhizal roots of Pacific silver fir (*Abies amabilis*) contribute approximately 45 percent of the net primary production (both biomass and nutrient distribution) in young stands and 75 percent in mature stands (Vogt et al. 1982). Mycorrhizae account for 50 percent of the annually assimilated biomass and 43 percent of the annually released nitrogen in a Douglas fir ecosystem (Fogel 1980). These transfers are five times larger than the releases from litter fall or litter decomposition.

122. Drought. Mycorrhization of seedlings enhances drought resistance during periods of soil water deficits (Aldon 1975; Dixon et al. 1980; Theodorou 1978; Worley and Hacskeylo 1959). White oak seedlings (*Quercus alba*) inoculated with *Pisolithus tinctorius* showed increased drought resistance, greater capacity to absorb water, and recovery to significantly higher levels when soil water was resupplied than nonmycorrhizal seedlings (Dixon et al. 1980). Fourwing saltbush (*Atriplex canescens*) grown in semiarid areas of New Mexico where precipitation is less than 250 mm per annum showed increased

survival when inoculated with *Glomus mosseae* as compared to uninoculated plants (Aldon 1975). *Cenococcum graniforme* has been found to form mycorrhizae under severe moisture stress. *Rhizopogon luteolus* and *Suillus granulatus* increased survival of Monterey pine (*Pinus radiata*) during very dry conditions following planting (Theodorou 1978). *Pisolithus tinctorius* is often found in drought conditions in coal spoils (Theodorou 1978). Changes in soil water potential may have less impact on absorption processes than effective penetration of soil by mycelial strands and hyphae in offsetting lowered transfer of ions to roots under conditions of low soil moisture (Reid and Bowen 1979).

123. Flood tolerance. Mycorrhizal fungi do not seem as well adapted to flooded soils as to soils under low moisture stress. Maronek et al. (1981) consistently found poorer mycorrhizal development on conifer and hardwood species inoculated with *Pisolithus tinctorius* growing in poorly drained container media. However, both *Hymenogaster alnicola* and *Lactarius obscuratus* form mycorrhizae on alder (*Alnus* sp.) in continuously wet soils (Trappe 1977), and blackgum (*Nyssa sylvatica*) seedlings grown for a year under flooded conditions established endomycorrhizal associations with *Glomus mosseae*, while showing significant increases in biomass over nonmycorrhizal controls (Keeley 1980).

124. Disease resistance. Many investigators have observed increased resistance to disease in mycorrhizal plants as opposed to nonmycorrhizal plants. All nonmycorrhizal roots of shortleaf pine became infected with *Phytophthora cinnamomi*, but those with well-formed mantles of *Thelephora terrestris* (29 μ m thick) or *Pisolithus tinctorius* (76 μ m thick) were resistant to infection (Marx 1970a, 1970b). The thick mycorrhizal mantle may provide a physical barrier to potentially invasive pathogens. Five types of naturally occurring ectomycorrhizae of shortleaf pine with mantles ranging from very thin (5-8 μ m) to thick (47-52 μ m) were resistant to pathogenic infections, while nonmycorrhizal roots were 100 percent infected with *Phytophthora cinnamomi* (Marx and Davey 1969a).

125. Other investigators suggest that selective pressure on the rhizosphere microflora exerted by host/fungus interactions confer disease resistance to the plant root system. For example, Oswald and Ferchau (1968) found that certain species of bacteria in the mycorrhizosphere occurred only in association with mycorrhizae while other species were associated with nonmycorrhizal roots. Bacteria growing on mycorrhizal roots of yellow birch (*Betula lutea*) have complex nutritional requirements, while those growing on

nonmycorrhizal roots need only minerals and glucose (Katznelson et al. 1962). Root pathogens (*Pythium* and *Fusarium* spp.) were the predominant fungi in nonmycorrhizal roots, but were absent in mycorrhizal roots, and the incidence of *Cylindrocarpon* sp. was reduced from 38 percent in nonmycorrhizal roots to 21 percent in mycorrhizal roots.

126. Chemical inhibitors (e.g., antibiotics) have also been implicated in disease resistance of mycorrhizal roots (Maronek et al. 1981; Marx 1972), and the antibiotic diatretylene nitrile has been identified in the ectomycorrhizal association between *Leucopaxillus cerealis* and shortleaf pine seedlings (Marx and Davey 1969b). A less direct effect of inhibitory substances may be the control of the fungal symbiont by the plant root system. Maintenance of a balanced relationship between fungus and plant may simultaneously provide protection against pathogens (Maronek et al. 1981). The use of benomyl, a systemic fungicide, together with the ectomycorrhiza *Pisolithus tinctorius* in combatting brown-spot needle blight (*Scirrhia acicola*) on young longleaf pine seedlings (*Pinus palustris*) has been successful (Kais et al. 1981). The effect of the ectomycorrhiza was stimulation of early height growth in seedlings, which hastened them through their most susceptible period, while the benomyl offered protection from the pathogen during the same period.

Current research

127. The effectiveness of mycorrhizae in enhancing growth of high value woody plants has been so well documented that government and private forest services are sponsoring research and development of mycorrhizal fungi for large-scale use. At the US Department Agriculture Forest Service Institute for Mycorrhizal Research and Development at Athens, Ga., scientists are conducting nationwide tests on the potential use of mycorrhizal fungi to improve forest productivity (Marx 1978; Marx and Beattie 1977). The National *Pisolithus tinctorius* Mycorrhizae Evaluation was expanded in 1978 to include 33 bare-root nurseries in 28 states and container-grown seedling nurseries in 8 states and Canada. The objective was to compare the effectiveness of inoculum produced by the Institute with inoculum produced on a larger scale by Abbott Laboratories, Chicago, Ill. Effectiveness of the inocula in stimulating feeder root formation, seedling growth and quality, and tree survival and growth in subsequent field outplantings was examined. The two inocula were found to be comparable and very effective on a variety of conifers and some hardwoods in both bare-root and container seedlings (Cordell et al. 1978). A

commercial formulation of *Pisolithus tinctorius* has the potential to improve nursery and field performance of numerous tree species throughout the world. The same principles are being expanded to include additional hardwoods (Marx and Beattie 1977).

128. The Natchez Forest Research Center, established in 1979 by International Paper Company, is surveying and sampling areas within the company's land holdings to determine mycorrhizal fungi that are most effective on certain tree species. The company will consider large-scale production of promising ectomycorrhizal fungi by another commercial firm (Patrick 1979).

129. In the future tree farmers will be able to request seedlings tailored with mycorrhizae from state and private nurseries. Any added cost should be offset by greater survival and growth potential (Marx and Beattie 1977). Mycorrhization for the improvement of reforestation practices is already a reality.

Reclamation

130. Increased environmental awareness over the last decade has necessitated the reclamation of strip-mined areas and waste disposal sites. Mycorrhizal associations of trees, shrubs, and herbaceous plants are being examined because of their potential contribution to the rapid and successful re-establishment of vegetation in these areas. Since mycorrhizal fungi are more or less restricted to the uppermost layer of the soil, any land-disturbing activity that mixes or inverts soil from deeper horizons has the potential of reducing the mycorrhizal fungus population below effective levels (Schwab and Reeves 1981).

Strip-mined sites

131. Strip-mining of coal is one example of soil-inverting activity. Not only are mycorrhizae diluted or destroyed in such sites, but coal spoils are deficient in micronutrients and frequently contain substances toxic to plants (Berry and Marx 1977). If abandoned, most strip-mined sites become revegetated naturally and the volunteer species usually develop mycorrhizal associations by the end of the first year (Barnhill 1981; Daft and Hacskeylo 1976; Riley and Brown 1978; Rothwell and Vogel 1982; Shuffstall and Medve 1979). However, the extent of mycorrhization and seedlings growth is improved when mycorrhizal plants are used (Aldon 1975, 1978; Barnhill 1981; Berry

1982b; Daft and Hacskeylo 1977; Daft et al. 1975; Lambert and Cole 1980; Lindsey et al. 1977; Marx 1975, 1980) (Figures 8 and 9). Maximum benefits can be achieved when host genotype and specific mycorrhizal fungus are carefully matched (Berry 1982b), when the reclamation site is graded prior to planting to disperse fungal propagules (Ponder 1979), and when a "starter" pellet of fertilizer is used to stimulate seedlings (Marx 1977a).

132. Strip-mining of kaolin presents some of the same problems to reclamation efforts as posed by strip-mining of coal. Kaolin spoils are highly variable in pH and in physical and chemical characteristics. A major problem is low cation exchange capacity, a result of low organic matter. Sewage sludge has been used to provide organic matter, and has effectively stimulated growth and mycorrhizal development (Berry and Marx 1977). Fertilization tends to decrease loblolly pine seedling survival on kaolin spoils regardless of mycorrhizal condition (Marx 1977c).

Waste disposal sites

133. Limited studies have been conducted on mycorrhizal effects on revegetation of copper and iron tailings. No mycorrhizae developed on roots of willow (*Salix* spp.) and poplar in copper tailings (Harris and Jurgensen 1977). Tree tops and roots were stunted and showed limited survival. However, extensive mycorrhizal development occurred on iron tailings, and trees showed vigorous growth.

134. Mycorrhizal shrubs grown on processed oil shale were more effective in uptake of water and phosphorus, and had greater shoot biomass and height than nonmycorrhizal shrubs (Call 1981).

Other disturbed sites

135. Stabilization of various types of eroded soils can be enhanced by revegetation with mycorrhizal plants. Mycorrhizae have been found to be beneficial in the stabilization of barrier sand dunes (Clough and Sutton 1978; Daft and Hacskeylo 1977; Jehne and Thompson 1981; Koske and Halvorson 1981; Nicolson and Johnston 1979). The network of fungal hyphae are very common in the upper 0 to 20 cm of bare sand in the colonizing zone and the fungi intermesh sand grains to form aggregates that appear to stabilize loose sand (Jehne and Thompson 1981). Marked seasonal variations occur in levels of mycorrhization, with infections persisting into the winter and spring (Nicolson and Johnston 1979). Sand grain size has been shown to influence the mycorrhizal species that establish in dunes. Smaller grain size appears to favor fungi



Figure 8. Pitch pine (*Pinus rigida*) inoculated with ectomycorrhizae naturally occurring in nursery soil. Seedlings show second year growth on toxic (pH = 4.0) coal spoil in Tennessee



Figure 9. Pitch pine seedlings treated exactly as those shown in Figure 8, except inoculated with the mycorrhizal fungus *Pisolithus tinctorius*

(e.g. *Gigaspora gigantea*) that produce large spores (Koske and Halvorson 1981).

136. Mycorrhizal plants are more successful than nonmycorrhizal plants in erosion control in high elevation revegetation with woody species (Ledgard 1976), as protection against winter frost heave, and in pasture revegetation with clover (Powell 1980b).

137. Natural revegetation of disturbed surface soils is usually a slow process. Reeves et al. (1979) suggest that recovery is delayed because of the absence of viable propagules of mycorrhizal fungi. Without mycorrhizae, seedlings either do not survive, or their growth is significantly reduced. For example, old roadbeds constitute severely disturbed sites for reestablishment of plants. Studies have shown that less than 2 percent of the plants surviving on these sites were mycorrhizal, while 77 percent (Moorman and Reeves 1979) to 99 percent (Reeves et al. 1979) of plants in an adjacent undisturbed community were mycorrhizal. Successful reclamation of these sites depends on selecting and maintaining mycorrhizal fungi on colonizing plants (Reeves et al. 1979). Mycorrhizae improve establishment and growth of ornamental trees in an urban environment such as in narrow tree lawns and holes in concrete where tree root zones are restricted (Kuhns 1980).

138. Limited studies have been conducted on barrow pit reclamation with mycorrhizal pine seedlings. However, naturally occurring mycorrhizae (*Pisolithus tinctorius*) formed so abundantly on test sites that no nonmycorrhizal seedlings were available for comparison with treatments (Berry and Marx 1980).

Agriculture

Incidence of mycorrhization in crop plants

139. Most crop plants have naturally occurring populations of mycorrhizal fungi, and their beneficial effects have been documented for a wide range of agronomic species. The following tabulation lists examples:

<u>Scientific Name</u>	<u>Common Name</u>	<u>Source</u>
<i>Allium cepa</i>	Onion	Hirrel and Gerdemann (1960); Manjunath and Bagyaraj (1981); Nelsen (1981); Owusu-Bennoah and Mosse (1979)
<i>A. porrum</i>	Leek	Snellgrove et al. (1982)
<i>Boutelous gracilis</i>	Grama	Allen (1982); Allen et al. (1981)
<i>Capsicum annum</i>	Bellpepper	Hirrel and Gerdemann (1980)
<i>Citrus aurantium</i>	Sour orange	Krikun and Levy (1980); McGraw and Schenck (1981); Timmer and Leyden (1979)
<i>C. jambhiri</i>	Rough lemon	Krikun and Levy (1980); Levy and Krikun (1980); Levy et al. (1981); Menge et al. (1977)
<i>C. reticulata</i>	Cleopatra mandarin	Krikun and Levy (1980)
<i>Eleusine coracana</i>	Millet	Bagyaraj and Manjunath (1980)
<i>Elymus</i> spp.	Rye	Hall and Armstrong (1979); Powell (1979a)
<i>Glycine max</i>	Soybean	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1981), (1982c); Carling and Brown, 1980; Carling et al. (1979); Gianinazzi-Pearson et al. (1981)
<i>Gossypium hirsutum</i>	Cotton	Bagyaraj and Manjunath (1980)
<i>Hordeum vulgare</i>	Barley	Jensen (1982); Owusu-Bennoah and Mosse (1979); Powell (1981)
<i>Lotus uliginosus</i>	Grassland maku	Hall and Armstrong (1979); Powell (1982a)
<i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i>	Tomato	McGraw and Schenck (1981)
<i>Malus</i> spp.	Apple	Covey et al. (1981); Greene et al. (1982); Plenchette et al. (1981)
<i>Manihot esculenta</i>	Cassava	Kang et al. (1980); Zaag et al. (1979)
<i>Medicago sativa</i>	Alfalfa	Lambert et al. (1980c); O'Bannon et al. (1980); Owusu- Bennoah and Mosse (1979)

(Continued)

Scientific Name	Common Name	Source
<i>Persea americana</i>	Avocada	Menge et al. (1980)
<i>Poncirus trifoliata</i>	Troyer citrange	Menge et al. (1977), (1982)
<i>Prunus persica</i>	Peach	McGraw and Schenck (1981); Strobel et al. (1982); Covey et al. (1981); Green et al. (1982); Plenchette et al. (1981)
<i>Rubus idaeus</i>	Raspberry	Hughes et al. (1979); Morandi et al. (1979)
<i>Sorghum bicolor</i>	Sorghum	Krishna and Bagyaraj (1981)
<i>Trifolium</i> spp.	Clover	Abbott and Robson (1978); Buwalda (1980); Hall and Arm- strong (1979); Hayman and Mosse (1979); Powell (1982a); Rangeley et al. (1982); Smith (1982); Sparling and Tinker (1978b)
<i>Vaccinium angustifolium</i>	Blueberry	Reich et al. (1982)
<i>Vigna unguiculata</i>	Cowpea	Bagyaraj and Manjunath (1980)
<i>Zea mays</i>	Corn	Covey et al. (1981)

Beneficial effects of mycorrhization

140. Plant growth. The beneficial effects of mycorrhizae on agronomic species are similar to their effects on other plant species. The mycorrhizae increase shoot height, leaf surface area, root volume, stem diameter, and dry weight more than fertilization (Plenchette et al. 1981). They stimulate the growth rate of Troyer citrange (Menge et al. 1982), siratro (*Macroptilium atropurpureum*) (Lopes et al. 1980), clover (Abbott and Robson 1978; Hayman and Mosse 1979), and axenically propagated raspberry (Morandi et al. 1979). They stimulate root activity in eucalyptus (*Eucalyptus st-johnii*) (Chilvers and Gust 1982a), eliminate stunting and nutrient deficiency in several citrus species (Menge et al. 1977), and increase vegetative and reproductive growth in sour orange, tomato, peach, chrysanthemum (*Chrysanthemum morifolium*), and podocarpus (*Podocarpus macrophyllum*) (McGraw and Schenck 1981).

141. Phosphorus uptake. Mycorrhizae increase nutrient uptake, particularly phosphorus, in many agronomic species. Inoculation of ryegrass with *Glomus tenuis* increased phosphorus uptake to levels higher than found with indigenous mycorrhizae, suggesting that specific host-fungus

relationships are important, and that supplementing existing mycorrhizae populations may be helpful (Powell 1979a). Mycorrhizae provide plants with more efficient means of exploiting labile phosphorus pools in the soil (paragraphs 74-81) (Gianinazzi-Pearson et al. 1981). Studies of phosphorus absorption by clover (Smith 1982), cassava (Kang et al. 1980; Zaag et al. 1979), red raspberry (Hughes et al. 1979), and soybeans (Bethlenfalvay et al. 1982c) showed that mycorrhizal plants were more efficient than nonmycorrhizal plants in phosphorus absorption. Enhancement of plant growth by mycorrhizae in phosphorus-deficient soils has been demonstrated for alfalfa (O'Bannon et al. 1980), citrus (Krikun and Levy 1980), cotton, cowpea, and finger millet (Bagyaraj and Manjunath 1980).

142. Phosphorus uptake by grasses is frequently less affected by mycorrhizae because their fine, many-branched root systems permit efficient absorption. Therefore, grasses are not usually enhanced by mycorrhizae until soil levels of phosphorus are severely depleted (Sparling and Tinker 1978a). Effects of mycorrhizae on white clover growth are minimal and confined to the lowest soil phosphate levels (Crush and Caradus 1980).

143. Mycorrhizal inoculation of crop plants may provide an alternative to rising energy and fertilizer costs by increasing crop yields while reducing fertilizer and energy input (Menge 1983; Krishna and Bagyaraj 1981). Mycorrhization in combination with reduced applications of phosphate fertilizers has been shown to be efficient in stimulating plant growth in clover (Powell 1982a; Sparling and Tinker 1978b), soybeans (Bethlenfalvay et al. 1981), and lotus (*Lotus pendunculatus*) (Powell 1982a). Mycorrhizae do not seem to be inhibited by fertilization until high levels are reached.

144. Uptake of other nutrients. In addition to improving phosphorus absorption, mycorrhizae have been shown to improve translocation of carbon from shoots to roots (Snellgrove et al. 1982), and increase uptake of copper (Jensen 1982) and zinc (Jensen 1982; Swaminathan and Verma 1979).

145. Water transport. Mycorrhizae contribute to water transport in plants by increasing the absorptive surface of roots (Allen 1982). Effects of mycorrhizae on the plant-water relationship are not limited to increased water absorption, but also include increased transpiration rates (Allen et al. 1981; Levy et al. 1981). The more rapid recovery of mycorrhizal than nonmycorrhizal lemon seedlings from drought stress has been attributed to stomatal regulation rather than root resistance (Levy and Krikun 1980). Mycorrhizal plants have

also been found more resistant to drought than nonmycorrhizal plants (Nelsen 1981). The inhibitory effects of salinity on onions and bellpeppers inoculated with mycorrhizal fungi were less than on uninoculated controls, suggesting that mycorrhizae may contribute to salt tolerance (Hirrel and Gerdemann 1980).

146. Disease resistance. The role of mycorrhizae in plant disease resistance has been investigated more extensively in trees than in agronomic species. However, some evidence exists for mycorrhizal-induced resistance to several pathogens of agronomic species. Several species of mycorrhizae have been shown to reduce infections by *Thielaviopsis basicola* on tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*) and alfalfa; *Fusarium oxysporum* form species *lycopersii* on tomato; *Phytophthora megasperma* var. *sojae* on soybean; *Pyrenochaeta terrestris* on onion; and *Rhizoctonia solnani* and *Pythium ultimum* on poinsettia (*Euphorbia pulcherrima*) (Schenck and Kellam 1978). Several species of VAM have been found to suppress root-knot nematodes on tomato, cotton, soybean, tobacco, carrot (*Daucus carota* var. *sativa*), and oats. Most mycorrhizal plants had fewer galls and/or larvae than nonmycorrhizal plants (Schenck 1981). *Gigaspora margarita* suppressed reproduction of the nematode *Meloidogyne incognita* in tests where the fungus improved growth of peaches (Strobel et al. 1982).

147. Competitive ability. Mycorrhizae improve the competitive ability of plants. Mycorrhizal clover shoot yield and phosphorus absorption increased while the clover successfully competed with ryegrass (Buwalda 1980).

148. Protection from toxic substances. There is limited evidence that VAM afford protection from toxic substances. Corn was protected from arsenic toxicity by VAM (Covey et al. 1981).

PART V: POTENTIAL USE OF MYCORRHIZAE FOR REVEGETATION OF
DREDGED MATERIAL DISPOSAL SITES

Enhancement of Nutrient Absorption

149. One of the greatest potential benefits in mycorrhization of plants used for revegetation of dredged material disposal sites is more efficient nutrient absorption. Mycorrhizal fungi are not only capable of improving nutrient absorption in nutrient-deficient soils, but can also increase the availability of soil-bound nutrients. Extensive evidence from the literature also substantiates the ability of mycorrhizae to promote the early, successful establishment of vegetation, an important consideration when rapid stabilization and cover of dredged material disposal sites is necessary.

Phosphorus

150. Phosphorus availability is frequently a problem in dredged material disposal sites. In some cases total phosphorus is low and in others, especially when pH is extreme, insoluble phosphate complexes are formed that render the often ample phosphorus supply unavailable for uptake by plants. Mycorrhizal fungi are efficient providers of phosphorus to their hosts. Mycorrhizal fungi can make phosphorus available to plants even when it is soil-bound. In most dredged materials, when high phosphorus levels occur, the phosphorus is in bound complexes which are not inhibitory to mycorrhizae. Even addition of phosphate fertilizers has not limited mycorrhizal fungi until extremely high levels have been reached (Powell 1980a, 1980c). Mycorrhizae have tremendous potential for improving phosphorus absorption by plants in dredged material and for limiting the amount of phosphate fertilizer required for the early, successful establishment of desirable plant species.

Nitrogen

151. Nitrogen is deficient in most dredged material. Submergence favors reactions that remove nitrogen from sediments. Continued nitrogen decreases in dredged material after placement on disposal sites have been demonstrated (Lunz et al. 1978). No evidence was found in the literature indicating that mycorrhizal fungi enhance nitrogen adsorption or availability to host plants, nor have mycorrhizal fungi been conclusively implicated in nitrogen fixation. However, low nitrogen levels (e.g. those commonly

occurring on dredged material disposal sites) have been shown to favor mycorrhizal development, which confers other survival advantages on the host plants.

Potassium

152. Potassium levels in dredged material are variable from site to site, but are frequently reduced as leaching progresses. Mycorrhizal fungi are capable of increasing potassium adsorption in deficient soils (Powell 1975). The positive response of plants on dredged material disposal sites to treatment with potassium-containing fertilizers suggests that assistance in potassium adsorption is beneficial and that mycorrhizae may be able to contribute to potassium adsorption in deficient dredged material.

Trace elements

153. Most essential micronutrients are present in sufficient quantities in dredged material, and their availability to developing plants should not usually be a problem. Studies of enhancement of micronutrient adsorption by mycorrhizal fungi are limited. Only absorption of zinc has been shown to improve in mycorrhizal as opposed to nonmycorrhizal plants (Stegnar et al. 1978). Excessive levels of zinc and copper have been shown to inhibit endomycorrhizae of citrus (Hepper and Smith 1976, McIlreen 1977 cited by Lambert et al. 1980a; Harris and Jurgensen 1977; Lambert et al. 1980a). Evidence was not found that such inhibition occurs among mycorrhizae of other plant species. No documentation of the role of mycorrhizae in absorption of other micronutrients was found.

Organic matter

154. Although evidence is limited, mycorrhizae seem to occur more frequently in mineral than in organic soils. Studies comparing growth and mycorrhization of white fir (*Abies concolor*) (Alvarez, Rowney, and Cobb 1979) and pine (Lee 1981) in mineral and organic soils show greater success in mineral soils. Fine-textured dredged material is potentially high in organic matter. Whether the organic matter levels present are sufficiently high to exert an inhibitory effect on desired mycorrhizal fungi is not known. Coarse-textured, sandy dredged material is low in organic matter and, therefore, conducive to mycorrhization.

Stabilization of Substrate

155. Often the most pressing problem in revegetation of dredged material disposal sites is rapid substrate stabilization. A good vegetative cover is desirable for this purpose. Even when physical retaining structures are necessary, vegetation establishment often provides excellent reinforcement. This is especially true where consideration is given to development or improvement of the site.

156. While the texture of dredged material varies considerably, many sites are composed of sandy material. Mycorrhizae enhance the establishment of vegetation in low-nutrient, sandy soils (Clough and Sutton 1978; Jehne and Thompson 1981; Koske and Halvorson 1981; Nicolson and Johnston 1979). The extensive external mycelium of *Glomus* sp. was the dominant factor in the aggregation of soil particles around long-leaved reedgrass (*Calamovilfa longifolia*) and beardgrass (*Andropogon* sp.) in Lake Huron sand dunes (Clough and Sutton 1978). Sand grains were attached to the fungal hyphae by an amorphous polysaccharide deposit. *Glomus fasciculatus* was a dominant agent in the aggregation of sand particles leading to sand stabilization at Tentsmuir National Nature Reserve, Fifeshire, Scotland (Nicolson and Johnston 1979). The mycorrhizal plants studied were European beachgrass (*Ammophila arenaria*) and *Agropyron junceiforme*.

157. Mycorrhizae may also enhance establishment of vegetation in dredged material composed primarily of silt and clay by extension of the plant root system and penetration of the substrate.

Availability of Water

158. Hydraulic conductivity of most dredged material is high compared to that of agricultural fields (Gupta et al. 1978). This means that materials placed in upland disposal areas may readily lose moisture by drainage. Therefore, upland disposal sites containing sandy material tend to have low water holding capacities and have water related problems when establishment of selected vegetation is important for development of specific habitat types (Allen et al. 1978; Clairain et al. 1978). Mycorrhizae enhance water absorption by plants (Allen 1982; Allen et al. 1981; Levy and Krikun 1980; Levy et al. 1981). This is most dramatically illustrated by drought resistance of

mycorrhizal plants (Aldon 1975; Dixon et al. 1980; Nelsen 1981; Reid and Bowen 1979; Theodorou 1978; Worley and Hacskeylo 1959).

Habitat Development

159. Mycorrhizae have the potential to play a major role in the early, successful establishment of desired vegetation on dredged material for the development of upland and marsh habitats. The potential for aquatic habitats is much less certain because very little research has been done concerning mycorrhization of aquatic vegetation.

Upland habitat

160. The greatest potential for immediate benefits from mycorrhization of plants on dredged material disposal sites exists on upland sites. Extensive research has been conducted by the forest industry and in reclamation of mining spoils to elucidate plant/mycorrhizal fungus interactions. Mycorrhizal occurrence, sensitivities, and beneficial effects on host survival and productivity have been well defined. Moisture levels, nutrients, and other soil conditions tolerated by mycorrhizae in upland areas have been well documented. Mycorrhizal plants have been demonstrated repeatedly to establish more quickly, survive longer, and grow more vigorously than nonmycorrhizal plants on disturbed sites. This information can be used to tailor mycorrhizal fungi to plant species already determined to be desirable for revegetation of dredged material.

Marsh habitat

161. Although mycorrhizal fungal spores survive and are capable of germinating under conditions of high moisture, waterlogging of soils has been demonstrated to suppress their function because of the anoxic conditions accompanying soil saturation. It is important, however, to point out that most studies of the effects of waterlogging on mycorrhizae were conducted with mycorrhizae of plant species normally adapted to terrestrial rather than marsh habitats. Studies conducted by Read et al. (1976) and Meador (1977) on marsh plants revealed infection levels that were low to absent. However, evidence of mycorrhizal infection of alder (*Alnus* spp.) and blackgum under intermittent to continuously flooded conditions was found in the literature (Trappe 1977;

Keeley 1980). Mycorrhizal blackgum has also been shown to exhibit increased biomass over nonmycorrhizal controls (Keeley 1980). Willows were found to be consistently mycorrhizal throughout the growing season in spite of anaerobic soil conditions as indicated by negative redox potentials (Marshall and Patullo 1981). Chaubal et al. (1982) reported mycorrhization of the following 11 freshwater marsh species,* some of which exhibited extensive VAM of roots:

<i>Brassica juncea</i>	Chinese mustard
<i>Drosera</i> sp.	Sundew
<i>Drymaria cordata</i>	West Indian chickweed
<i>Galium rotundifolium</i>	Bedstraw
<i>Impatiens chinensis</i>	Impatiens
<i>Panicum brevifolium</i>	Panic-grass
<i>Plantago major</i>	Common plantain
<i>Polygonum capitatum</i>	Knotweed
<i>Rumex nepalensis</i>	Dock
<i>Sonchus</i> sp.	Sow-thistle
<i>Utricularia</i> sp.	Bladderwort

162. Limited evidence from the literature suggests that mycorrhization has potential in revegetation of marshes, but initial efforts would require more basic research than is currently necessary for revegetation of upland areas.

Aquatic habitat

163. Literature concerning the mycorrhizal status of aquatic plants is extremely limited. The few investigations that have been documented show that some aquatic vascular plants are devoid of mycorrhizae (Khan 1974, 1979b; Read et al. 1976) and that others are slightly to extensively mycorrhizal (Bagyaraj et al. 1979b; Sondergaard and Laegaard 1977; Chaubal et al. 1982).

Mycorrhizal aquatic species** are listed below:

<i>Callitriche hamulata</i> †	
<i>Cyanotis cristata</i>	
<i>Eichhornia crassipes</i>	Waterhyacinth
<i>Eleocharis palustris</i> †	Spike-rush

* Some authors classify certain of these species as aquatic rather than marsh.

** Some authors classify certain of these species as marsh rather than aquatic.

† Sondergaard and Laegaard (1977).

<i>Hydrilla verticillata</i>	Hydrilla
<i>Isoetes lacustris</i> *	
<i>Littorella uniflora</i> * (= <i>L. americana</i>)	
<i>Lobelia dortmanna</i> *	Water-lobelia
<i>Nymphaea alba</i> **	Water lily
<i>Paspalum dilatatum</i> **	Dallis-grass
<i>Phragmites australis</i> *	Common reed
<i>Polygonum hydropiper</i> **	Common smartweed
<i>Rotala rotundifolia</i> **	Rotala
<i>Salvinia cucullata</i> †	Water fern

164. Occurrence of mycorrhizae on aquatic plants may be dependent upon nutrient levels in the sediments (Sondergaard and Laegaard 1977). The heavy infection levels in *Littorella uniflora* (as high as 96 percent) and *Lobelia dortmanna* (as high as 55 percent) were attributed to the poorly developed root hairs of these plants and to phosphorus-deficient sediments. To determine the feasibility of revegetation of dredged material disposal sites with mycorrhizal aquatic plants, much more must be learned about mycorrhization of these plants.

165. No literature was found concerning the mycorrhizal status of aquatic marine plants.

Resistance to Salinity, Toxic Substances, and Disease

Salinity

166. Even though high salinity cannot be classified as contamination, many desirable plant species are salt-sensitive. Hunt et al. (1978) suggested that long periods (perhaps several years) of leaching may be required to remove excessive salinity from some dredged material disposal sites before revegetation can progress. However, most saline dredged material disposal sites do not contain sufficiently high salt levels to inhibit salt-tolerant plant species. Salt-tolerant plants usually invade all but extremely saline

* Sondergaard and Laegaard (1977).

** Chaubal et al. (1982).

† Bagyaraj et al. (1979b).

disposal areas (Hoeppel et al. 1978). Salinity has little effect on the formation of VAM in plants adapted to saline soils (Hirrel and Gerdemann 1980). VAM have been found in saline environments associated with nine plant families including Fabaceae, Poaceae, and Solanaceae (Mason 1928; Fries 1944; Khan 1974, all cited by Hirrel and Gerdemann 1980). Two species of salt-sensitive plants, onion and bellpepper, have been demonstrated to be more salt-tolerant when mycorrhizal than when nonmycorrhizal (Hirrel and Gerdemann 1980). Therefore, mycorrhization may contribute to salt tolerance of plants in saline dredged materials thus expanding the number of plant species capable of establishing on saline disposal sites.

Toxic substances

167. The presence, types, and concentrations of contaminating toxins on dredged material disposal sites vary with site location. The availability of contaminants such as heavy metals, oil and grease, and organic pesticides to vegetation is also dependent upon the texture, organic content, pH, Eh, and water saturation level of the dredged material.

168. Metals. Evidence from reclamation of mining tailings suggests that mycorrhizal effects on establishing vegetation in the presence of toxic levels of metals are variable and specific to the metal present. Mycorrhization enhanced tree growth on iron tailings, but mycorrhizae were completely inhibited by copper tailings (Harris and Jurgensen 1977). *Glomus caledonius* was inhibited by manganese (0.014-1.4 mg/l), copper (0.1-1.0 mg/l), and zinc (0.7-7.0 mg/l) (Hepper and Smith 1979, cited by Lambert et al. 1980a). On the other hand, literature confirming the enhancement of vegetation by mycorrhizae on coal spoils is extensive (paragraphs 131-132). Coal spoils are characteristically high in such potentially toxic metals as aluminum, sulfur, manganese, copper, and iron (Marx 1975). Protection from arsenic toxicity in corn by mycorrhizae was demonstrated by Covey et al. (1981).

169. Limited evidence is available that mycorrhizae may function in the detoxification of soils high in certain metal toxicants (Maronek et al. 1981). Heavy metal tolerance mechanisms have been demonstrated in fungi, even in certain mycorrhizal fungi (Ashida 1965). Accumulation and storage of toxic minerals (e.g. sulfur) have been detected in *Pisolithus tinctorius* sporocarps (Muncie et al. 1975, cited by Maronek et al. 1981). Sequestering and storage of heavy metals could be a functional biological transformation system for detoxification (Maronek et al. 1981).

170. Pesticides. Yu et al. (1978) reported higher levels of chlorinated hydrocarbons [i.e. polychlorinated biphenyls (PCB's), analogs and isomers of dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (DDT), and dieldrin] in contaminated dredged material disposal sites than in local offsite soil samples. This indicates that the disposal sites studied sometimes retain high levels of these contaminants. After studying the effects of eight pesticides on mycorrhizal barley, maize, and potatoes (*Solanum tuberosum*) in field soils, Ocampo and Hayman (1980) concluded that VAM are affected by fungicides, general biocides, nematocides, and insecticides. They sometimes found effects slight or even positive, but the pesticides usually decreased mycorrhizal infections and spore numbers. Effects of pesticide levels occurring in dredged material disposal sites on mycorrhizae are not known.

Disease

171. Only one instance of disease-induced decline of vegetation planted at dredged material disposal sites was found in the literature (Clairain et al. 1978). However, this example illustrates that plant disease is a potentially limiting factor on the success of revegetation efforts. The most extensive investigations of mycorrhizal-conferred disease resistance have been conducted on pines and horticultural crops (Maronek et al. 1981) (paragraphs 124-126). These studies indicate that mycorrhizal plants are more disease resistant than nonmycorrhizal plants. Several mechanisms proposed to explain resistance are: (a) protection of roots by a well-formed mantle of mycorrhizal fungi; (b) selective pressure on the rhizosphere microflora exerted by host/fungus interactions; (c) utilization of surplus carbohydrates in the roots by mycorrhizal fungi, thereby reducing attraction of pathogens; and (d) inhibition by mycorrhizal secretions of antibiotics and other chemical inhibitors. Similar mechanisms for host resistance may well have evolved for other plant species in addition to pines and horticultural crops. Disease resistance may provide an additional advantage incidental to those for which more extensive documentation is available in the literature.

PART VI: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

172. Mycorrhizal fungi offer significant potential for enhancing establishment of vegetation on dredged material disposal sites. Specific conditions under which mycorrhizae are likely to exert the greatest positive influence occur in upland disposal sites where:

- a. Dredged material is sandy and nutrient-deficient.
- b. Rapid substrate stabilization is imperative.
- c. Essential plant nutrients are present but often soil-bound.

173. Potentially enhancing effects can also be expected on upland sites that are subjected to:

- a. Moisture stress.
- b. Extremes in pH.
- c. Presence of toxins that inhibit plant growth.
- d. High risk of plant disease.
- e. Marginally high salinity.

174. Although occurrence of mycorrhizae on many marsh plants and a few aquatic plants has been demonstrated and enhancement of plant growth has been observed in marsh species, application of mycorrhizae to development of marsh or aquatic vegetation on dredged material disposal sites will not be practical until more is known about the mycorrhizal status of these plants.

Recommendations

175. To evaluate the efficacy of mycorrhizae in the enhancement of establishing vegetation on dredged material disposal sites, the following studies are recommended:

- a. A greenhouse/laboratory study designed to compare mycorrhizal and nonmycorrhizal plant species grown in dredged material samples collected from various disposal sites. Plant height, growth rate, vigor, and seed production (when appropriate) should be used to determine plant success. Total aboveground plant yield should also be used to determine plant success.
- b. A greenhouse study to determine the most efficacious mycorrhizal (fungus/plant) combinations for revegetation of specific dredged material types.

- c. A small-scale field study to determine feasibility and efficacy of mycorrhizal plants on dredged material disposal sites.

176. If the above studies establish the efficacy of mycorrhization for enhancing the establishment of vegetation on dredged material disposal sites, techniques for rapid dissemination of the fungi should be developed and field tested on a large scale. Success of these efforts could lead to routine applications of mycorrhizal fungi as part of standard revegetation efforts on dredged material substrates.

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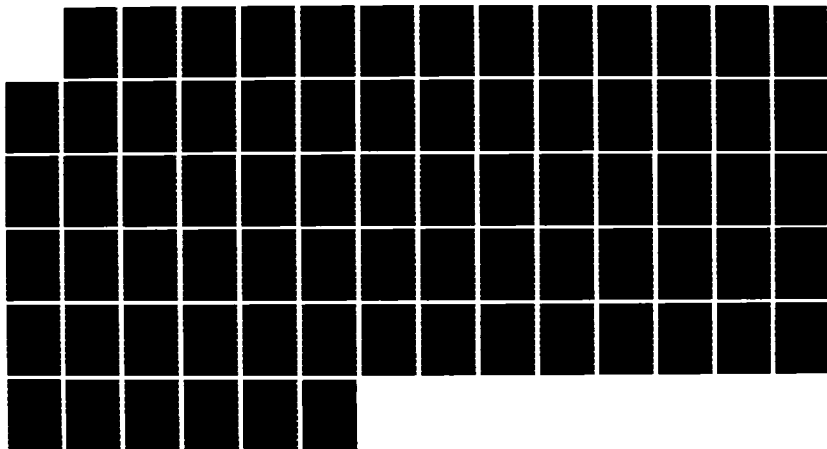
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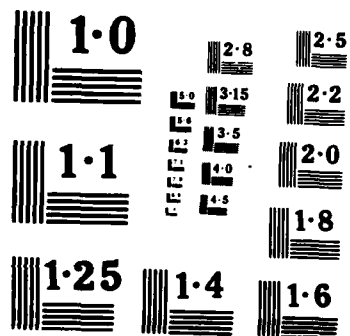
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APPENDIX A: TABLES

Explanation of Tables

1. The following three tables of plants that have been found to exhibit mycorrhizae are not offered as a comprehensive list. Data for the tables were drawn only from the References of this literature survey. Therefore, they represent plant/mycorrhizal fungus associations from areas of research having relevance to the subject of this paper. The tables are restricted to the scope of this literature review, which deals primarily with beneficial uses of mycorrhizae in reforestation, land reclamation, and agriculture. The articles in the References include some of international origin; therefore, some plant species from foreign countries are included.

2. Table A1 lists trees, shrubs, and woody vines. Table A2 lists herbaceous plants, including moss, ferns, and cacti. Table A3 lists grasses, sedges, and rushes.

Table A1
Trees, Shrubs, and Woody Vines Exhibiting Mycorrhizae

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Abies</i>	Fir	Nonspecific	Kormanik et al. (1977b); Kuhns (1980); Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>A. arabilis</i>	Pacific silver fir	Nonspecific	Vogt et al. (1980)
<i>A. balsamea</i>	Balsam fir	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>A. concolor</i>	White fir	Nonspecific	Alvarez, Rowney, and Cobb (1979)
<i>A. procera</i>	Noble fir	<i>Amanita muscaria</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Boletus edulis</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Laccaria laccata</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Lactarius deliciosus</i>	Marx (1977d); Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Rhizopogon cokeri</i>	
		<i>R. occidentalis</i>	
		<i>Suillus brevipes</i>	
		<i>S. lakei</i>	
		<i>Truncocolumella citrina</i>	
<i>Acacia*</i>	Acacia	Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>A. arabica</i>		Nonspecific	Khan (1974)
<i>A. greggii</i>		<i>Glomus epigaeum</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
		<i>G. intraradices</i>	
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	
		<i>Glomus</i> sp.	

(Continued)

* All genera and species followed by an asterisk in this table were listed by Landin (1978) as "Selected Upland Plant Species for Habitat Development on Dredged Material Sites." When only the genus exhibits an asterisk, Landin has listed a different species from the one (if any) cited here.

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>A. frmesiana</i>		Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>A. senegalensis</i>	Maple	<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
		Nonspecific	Kuhns (1980); Malloch et al. (1980); Shuffstall and Medve (1979)
<i>A. negundo</i>	Boxelder	<i>Glomus mosseae</i>	Schultz et al. (1981)
		<i>G. etunicatus</i>	Schultz et al. (1981)
<i>A. rubrum*</i>	Red maple	<i>Gigaspora gigantea</i>	Daft and HacsKaylo (1977); Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>Glomus aggregatum</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i> var. <i>geosporus</i>	Daft and HacsKaylo (1977)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Daft and HacsKaylo (1977)
		<i>G. etunicatus</i>	Schultz et al. (1981)
<i>A. saccharum*</i>	Sugar maple	Nonspecific	Schultz, et al. (1981)
		<i>G. etunicatus</i>	Spitko and Tattar (1978)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Schultz et al. (1981)
<i>Aesculus*</i>	Horse-chestnut, buckeye	Nonspecific	Kuhns (1980)
<i>Afaelia</i>	Afzelia	Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>Aldina</i>	Aldina	Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>Alnus</i>	Alder	Nonspecific	Kuhns (1980)
<i>A. glutinosa</i>	European alder	Nonspecific	Shuffstall and Medve (1979)
		<i>Alpova diplophloeus</i>	Molina (1981)
		<i>Astraeus pteridis</i>	Molina (1981)
		<i>Farillius involutus</i>	Molina (1981)
<i>A. rubra*</i>	Red alder	<i>Alpova diplophloeus</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Gelleromyces gilkeyae</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)

(Continued)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>A. rugosa</i> (= <i>A. incana</i>)	Smooth alder, grey alder, speckled alder	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>A. sinuata</i> *	Sitka alder	<i>Alpova diplophloeus</i> <i>Astraeus pteridis</i> <i>Parillus involutus</i> <i>Alpova diplophloeus</i> <i>Astraeus pteridis</i> <i>Parillus involutus</i>	Molina (1981)
<i>A. rhombifolia</i>	White alder	<i>Alpova diplophloeus</i> <i>Astraeus pteridis</i> <i>Parillus involutus</i>	
<i>A. crispa</i>	Green alder, mountain alder	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982)
<i>Amelanchier</i> *	Serviceberry	Nonspecific	Kuhns (1980)
<i>A. sanguinea</i>	Serviceberry	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982)
<i>Anthronotha</i>	Anthronotha	Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>Anthyllis vulneraria</i>	Lady's-s-fingers	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Aralia</i>			
<i>A. nudicaulis</i>	Wild sarsaparilla, salsepareille	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>A. spinosa</i>	Hercules' club	Nonspecific	Shuffstall and Medve (1979)
<i>Arucaria</i>			
<i>A. cunninghami</i>	Hoop pine	<i>Endogone araucareae</i> <i>E. macrocarpa</i> <i>E. mosseae</i>	Bevege et al. (1975) Bevege et al. (1975) Bevege et al. (1975)
<i>A. excelsa</i>	Norfolk island pine	<i>Glomus epigaeus</i>	Carling and Brown (1980)

(Continued)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Arbutus</i>			
<i>A. menziesii</i>	Madrona	Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
		<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	Largent et al. (1980)
		<i>Leccinum manzanitae</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
<i>A. unedo</i>	Strawberry tree	Nonspecific	Read (1983)
<i>Ardisia escallonioides</i>	Marlberry	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Arctostaphylos</i>	Bearberry		
<i>A. canescens</i>		Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>A. columbiana</i>		<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	
		Nonspecific	
		<i>C. geophilum</i>	
		<i>Leccinum manzanitae</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
<i>A. glandulosa</i>		Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>A. intricata</i>		Nonspecific	
<i>A. manzanita</i>		<i>C. geophilum</i>	
		Nonspecific	
<i>A. nevadensis</i>		<i>C. geophilum</i>	
		Nonspecific	
<i>A. nummularia</i>		<i>C. geophilum</i>	
<i>A. patula</i>		Nonspecific	
<i>A. uva-ursa</i> *	Common bearberry	<i>C. geophilum</i>	
		Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980); Read (1983); Scannerini and Bonfante-Fasolo (1983)
		<i>Leccinum manzanitae</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)

(Continued)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>A. uva-ursa*</i> (cont'd)		<i>Scleroderma hypogaeum</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Tricholoma flavovirens</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
<i>A. viscida</i>		Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
		<i>C. geophilum</i>	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>Artemisia</i>	Wormwood	Nonspecific	Call (1981); Call and McKell (1982)
<i>A. nova</i>		Nonspecific	Call (1981); Call and McKell (1982)
<i>A. tridentata</i>			
<i>Atriplex*</i>	Orach		
<i>A. canescens*</i>	Fourwing saltbush	Nonspecific	Call (1981); Call and McKell (1982)
		<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	Lindsey et al. (1977)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Lindsey et al. (1977)
<i>A. confertifolia</i>		Nonspecific	Call (1981); Call and McKell (1982)
<i>A. cunnata</i>		Nonspecific	Call (1981); Call and McKell (1982)
<i>A. polycarpa</i>		<i>Glomus</i> sp.	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
<i>Baccharis halimifolia*</i>	Groundsel	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
var. <i>angustior</i>			
<i>Bauhinia</i>		Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>Betula</i>	Birch	Nonspecific	Kuhns (1980); Marx (1977d)
<i>B. alleghaniensis</i>	Yellow birch	<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Maronek and Hendrix (1980)
<i>B. lenta</i>	Cherry birch	Nonspecific	Marx (1975)
		<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1976), (1977d)
<i>B. nigra*</i>	River birch	<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>B. papyrifera</i>	Paper birch	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>B. pendula</i>	Common silver birch, European white birch	Nonspecific	Shuffstall and Medve (1979)
		<i>Laccaria laccata</i>	Ford et al. (1980)
		(Continued)	

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>P. pendula</i> (cont'd)		<i>Lactarius pubescens</i>	Ford et al. (1980)
		<i>Favilla involutus</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Marx (1975), (1976), (1977d); Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Hebeloma</i> spp.	Ford et al. (1980)
<i>B. populifolia</i>	White birch	Nonspecific	Marx (1975)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Marx (1976), (1977d)
<i>B. furcata</i>	Swamp birch	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982)
<i>Boletus cinnamomeus</i>	Torchwood	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Calina</i>	Heather	Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980); Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>C. vulgaris</i>	Common heather	Nonspecific	Bradley et al. (1982); Read (1983); Scannerini and Bonfante-Fasolo (1983)
<i>Cordia alliodora</i>	Papaya	Nonspecific	Hayman (1980); Janos (1980a)
		<i>Gigaspora heterogama</i>	Schenck and Kellum (1978)
		<i>G. margarita</i>	Schenck and Kellum (1978)
		<i>Glomus macrocarpus</i> var. <i>macrocarpus</i>	Schenck and Kellum (1978)
<i>Carpinus</i> *	Hornbeam, ironwood	Nonspecific	Kuhns (1980)
<i>Carya</i> *	Hickory	Nonspecific	Kormanik et al. (1977b); Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>C. illinoensis</i> *	Pecan	<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>Cassiope mertensiana</i>		Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>Castanopsis</i>	Redroot		
<i>C. praecox</i>		<i>Acaulospora trappae</i>	Kormanik et al. (1977b)
<i>C. velutina</i>		<i>A. trappae</i>	Biermann (1983)
<i>Cedrus</i>	Cedrus	Nonspecific	Kuhns (1980)
<i>Cedrus</i> *	Hackberry	Nonspecific	Kuhns (1980)

(Continued)

(Sheet 6 of 44)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Cercidiphyllum</i> sp.	Katsura	Nonspecific	Kuhns (1980)
<i>Cercocarpus montanus</i>		<i>Glomus</i> sp.	Williams (1979)
<i>Cercis canadensis</i>	Redbud	Nonspecific	Maronek et al. (1981)
		<i>G. aggregatum</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>G. caledonius</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
<i>Chamaedaphne calyculata</i>	Leather-leaf	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982)
<i>Chilopsis linearis</i>		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
		<i>Glomus</i> sp.	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
<i>Chimaphila</i>	Wintergreen		
<i>C. menziesii</i>		Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>C. umbellata</i>		Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>Chrysothamnus nauseosus</i>	Rubber rabbitbrush	Nonspecific	Call (1981); Call and McKell (1982)
		<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	Lindsey et al. (1977)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Lindsey et al. (1977)
<i>Cistus salicifolius</i>	Rock rose	<i>Hebeloma sacchariolen</i>	Rosell (1981)
<i>Citrus</i>	Citrus	Nonspecific	Hayman (1980)
		<i>Gigaspora gregaria</i>	Nicolson and Schenck (1979)
		<i>G. margarita</i>	Nemec et al. (1981); Nicolson and Schenck (1979)
		<i>Glomus constrictus</i>	Nemec et al. (1981)
		<i>G. etunicatus</i>	McGraw and Schenck (1981); Nemec (1983); Nemec et al. (1981); Nicolson and Schenck (1979)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Nemec et al. (1981); Nicolson and Schenck (1979)
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i>	
		<i>G. microcarpus</i>	
		<i>G. monosporus</i>	
		(Continued)	

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Citrus</i> (cont'd)			
<i>C. amblicarpa</i>	Brazilian sour orange	<i>G. mosseae</i>	Marx (1975); Nemec et al. (1981); Nemec (1983)
		<i>Sclerocyrtis sinuosa</i>	Nemec et al. (1981); Nicolson and Schenck (1979)
		Nonspecific	Menge (1983); Menge et al. (1977); Mehraveran (1977)
<i>C. aurantium</i>	Sour orange, keen sour orange	<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	
		Nonspecific	Menge et al. (1977); Ratnayake et al. (1978)
		<i>Gigaspora margarita</i>	Schenck and Kellum (1978)
		<i>Glomus epigaeus</i>	McGraw and Schenck (1980)
		<i>G. etunicatus</i>	McGraw and Schenck (1980)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Mehraveran (1977); Timmer and Leyden (1979)
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i>	McGraw and Schenck (1980); Schenck and Kellum (1978)
		<i>G. microcarpus</i>	McGraw and Schenck (1980)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Krikun and Levy (1980); McGraw and Schenck (1980)
<i>C. jambhiri</i>	Rough lemon	Nonspecific	Levy and Krikun (1980); Menge et al. (1977)
		<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	Mehraveran (1977)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Krikun and Levy (1980)
<i>C. macrophylla</i>	Alemow	Nonspecific	Menge et al. (1977)
		<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	Mehraveran (1977)
<i>C. reticulata</i>	Cleopatra mandarin	<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Manjunath et al. (1983)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Krikun and Levy (1980)
<i>C. sinensis</i>	Sweet orange	<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Johnson et al. (1982b); Schenck and Kellum (1978)
<i>Citrus sinensis</i> X <i>Foncirus trifoliata</i>	Carrizo citrange	<i>Gigaspora margarita</i>	Schenck and Kellum (1978)
		<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	Mehraveran (1977)
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i>	Schenck and Kellum (1978)

(Continued)

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Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>C. trifoliata</i>	Trifoliate orange	<i>G. fuseticulatus</i>	Mehraveran (1977)
<i>C. azcoloba</i>	Sea grape	Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>C. diversifolia</i>	Tie tongue	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Coffea</i>	Coffee	Nonspecific	Hayman (1980); Rao and Parvathi (1982)
<i>Comptonia peregrina</i>	Sweetfern	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>Cornus</i> *	Dogwood, Cornell		
<i>C. amomum</i> *	Red willow, silky dogwood	Nonspecific	Barnhill (1981)
<i>C. canadensis</i>	Dwarf cornel	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>C. florida</i> *	Flowering dogwood	Nonspecific	Barnhill (1981); Shuffstall and Medve (1979)
<i>C. stolonifera</i>	Red-osier dogwood	<i>Glomus aggregatum</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
<i>Corylus</i>	Hazel	Nonspecific	Molina (1981); Barnhill (1981)
<i>C. avellana</i>	Cobnut	Nonspecific	Kuhns (1980)
		<i>Parillus involutus</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Tuber macrosporium</i>	Scannerini and Bonfante-Fasolo (1983)
<i>C. cornuta</i>	Beaked hazel	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982)
<i>Crataegus</i> *	Hawthorne	Nonspecific	Shuffstall and Medve (1979)
<i>Cupressus</i>	Cypress	Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>Diervilla lonicera</i>	Bush honeysuckle	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>Ephedra salicifolia</i>	Bustic	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Eptychandra</i>		Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>Eodonia viscosa</i>	Varnish leaf	<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Flaegmus</i> *		Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>F. umbellata</i> *	Autumn olive	Nonspecific	Shuffstall and Medve (1979)

(Continued)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>E. umbellata</i> (cont'd)		<i>Acaulospora bireticulata</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
<i>Epemia</i>		<i>A. elegans</i>	
<i>Ephedra</i>		<i>Glomus constrictus</i>	
<i>E. californica</i>	Mormon tea	<i>G. macrocarpus</i> var. <i>geosporus</i>	
		Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
		<i>Glomus fasciculatum</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	
		<i>G. fasciculatum</i>	
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	
<i>Epigaea repens</i>	Trailing arbutus, may flower	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>Erica</i>	Heath		
<i>E. baueri</i>	Cape heath	Nonspecific	Read (1983)
<i>Eucalyptus</i>	Eucalyptus	Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
		<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
		<i>C. graniforme</i>	Pope (1980)
		<i>Boletus portentosus</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
		<i>Cortinarius archeri</i>	
		<i>C. microarcheri</i>	
		<i>Hydnangium carneum</i>	
		<i>Hymenogaster albus</i>	
		<i>Hysterangium incarcerationum</i>	
		<i>Lycoperdon gemmatum</i>	

(Continued)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Eucalyptus</i> (cont'd)		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982); Marx (1977d)
		<i>Scleroderma albidum</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
		<i>S. bovisia</i>	
		<i>S. cepa</i>	
<i>E. antheri</i>		<i>Hydnangium carneum</i>	
		<i>Hymenogaster albellus</i>	
		<i>Scleroderma albidum</i>	
<i>E. bridgiana</i>		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982); Marx (1977d)
<i>E. calophylla</i>		<i>Ramaria sinapiicolor</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
<i>E. camphora</i>		<i>Cenococcum graniforme</i>	Rose (1980a)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Rose (1980a)
		<i>Scleroderma geaster</i>	Rose (1980a)
<i>E. camiculensis</i>	River red gum	<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982); Marx (1977d)
		<i>Scleroderma verrucosum</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
<i>E. citricolora</i>	Lemon-scented gum	<i>Scleroderma verrucosum</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
<i>E. dalrympleana</i>		<i>Hydnangium carneum</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982); Marx (1977d)
<i>E. deglupta</i>		<i>Scleroderma verrucosum</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
<i>E. dives</i>		<i>Octaviania densa</i>	
		<i>Scleroderma cepa</i>	
<i>E. erythrocorae</i>		<i>Lycoperdon gemmatum</i>	
		<i>Tricholoma pardinum</i>	
<i>E. fastigiata</i>		<i>Octaviania densa</i>	
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982); Marx (1977d)

(Continued)

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Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>E. forrestiana</i>		<i>Lycoperdon gemmatum</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
<i>E. gigantea</i>		<i>Tricholoma pardinum</i>	
		<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	
		<i>Hydangium carneum</i>	
<i>E. glaucescens</i>		<i>Hydangium carneum</i>	
<i>E. globulus</i>	Blue gum	<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	
		<i>Hydangium carneum</i>	
		<i>Hymenogaster albellus</i>	
		<i>H. albus</i>	
		<i>Hysterangium incarceratum</i>	
<i>E. gomphocephala</i>		<i>Scleroderma verrucosum</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982); Marx (1977d)
<i>E. grandis</i>		<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	
		<i>Macrolepiota procera</i>	
		<i>Octaviania densa</i>	
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	
		<i>Scleroderma verrucosum</i>	
		<i>Tricholoma pardinum</i>	
<i>E. gunnifera</i>		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	
<i>E. gunnii</i>		<i>Hydangium carneum</i>	
<i>E. kintoniana</i>		<i>Scleroderma verrucosum</i>	
<i>E. laevopinea</i>		<i>Cenococcum graniforme</i>	Rose (1980a)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Rose (1980a)
		<i>Scleroderma geaster</i>	Rose (1980a)
<i>E. leucorylon</i>		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982); Marx (1977d)

(Continued)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>E. macrorrhyncha</i>		<i>Scleroderma cepa</i> (= <i>S. flavidum</i>)	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
<i>E. maculata</i>		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982); Marx (1977d)
<i>E. macarthurii</i>		<i>Cenococcum graniforme</i>	Rose (1980a)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Rose (1980a)
		<i>Scleroderma geaster</i>	Rose (1980a)
<i>E. marginata</i>		<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	Malajezuk and Hingston (1981); Malajezuk et al. (1982)
		<i>Ramaria sinapicolor</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
<i>E. microcorys</i>		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982); Marx (1977d)
<i>E. niphophylla</i>	Snow gum	<i>Hydnangium carneum</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
		<i>Hymenogaster albellus</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
<i>E. nitens</i>		<i>Hydnangium carneum</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
<i>E. nova-anglica</i>		<i>Cenococcum graniforme</i>	Rose (1980a)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Rose (1980a)
		<i>Scleroderma geaster</i>	Rose (1980a)
<i>E. odorata</i>		<i>Scleroderma verrucosum</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
<i>E. paniculata</i>		<i>Scleroderma verrucosum</i>	
<i>E. pauciflora</i>		<i>Scleroderma cepa</i> (= <i>S. flavidum</i>)	
<i>E. perriniana</i>	Spinning gum	<i>Hydnangium carneum</i>	
		<i>Hymenogaster albellus</i>	
		<i>H. albus</i>	
		<i>Octaviania densa</i>	
<i>E. pilularis</i>		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982); Marx (1977d)
<i>E. polyanthemus</i>		<i>Hydnangium carneum</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
<i>E. pulverulenta</i>		<i>Hymenogaster albellus</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)

(Continued)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>E. punctata</i>		<i>Scleroderma verrucosum</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
<i>E. pyriformis</i>		<i>Lycoperdon gemmatum</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
		<i>Tricholoma pardinum</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
<i>E. radiata</i>		<i>Cenococcum graniforme</i>	Rose (1980a)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982); Marx (1977d); Rose (1980a)
<i>E. regnans</i>		<i>Scleroderma geaster</i>	Rose (1980a)
		<i>Agaricus xanthodermus</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
		<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	
		<i>Cortinarius fragilipes</i>	
		<i>C. ochraceus</i>	
		<i>C. purpurascens</i>	
		<i>C. radicans</i>	
		<i>C. subcinnamomeus</i>	
		<i>Gymnopilus pampeanus</i>	
		<i>Hygrophorus coccineus</i>	
		<i>Hymenogaster violaceus</i>	
		<i>Hysterangium inflatum</i>	
		<i>Mesophellia arenaria</i>	
		<i>Inocybe olivaceofulvus</i>	
		<i>Naematoloma fasciculare</i>	
		<i>Russula purpureoflava</i>	
		<i>Tricholoma coarctatum</i>	
		<i>Octaviania densa</i>	
<i>E. robusta</i>		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982); Marx (1977d)
		<i>Scleroderma verrucosum</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)

(Continued)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>E. rossi</i>		<i>Octaviania densa</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
<i>E. rudis</i>		<i>Octaviania densa</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
		<i>Scleroderma verrucosum</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
<i>E. sieberi</i>		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982); Marx (1977d)
<i>E. st.-johnii</i>		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982); Marx (1977d); Rose (1980a)
		<i>Scleroderma cepa</i> (= <i>S. flavidum</i>)	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
<i>E. tereticaomis</i>		<i>Scleroderma verrucosum</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
<i>E. tonelliana</i>		<i>Scleroderma verrucosum</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
<i>E. viminalis</i>		<i>Cenococcum graniforme</i>	Rose (1980a)
		<i>Octaviania densa</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Rose (1980a)
		<i>Scleroderma geaster</i>	Rose (1980a)
<i>Eugenia longipes</i> (= <i>Myrtus bahamensis</i>)	Stopper	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Eupera</i>		Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>Fagus*</i>	Beech	Nonspecific	Harley (1981); Harley and McCready (1981); Kormanik et al. (1977b); Kuhns (1980)
		<i>Rhizoctonia</i> sp.	Harley and Waid (1955)
		<i>Trichoderma viride</i>	Harley and Waid (1955)
<i>F. sylvatica</i>	Common beech	Nonspecific	Harley (1978)
<i>Fouquieria splendens</i>	Ocotillo	<i>Glomus epigaeum</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
		<i>Glomus</i> sp.	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
<i>Ficus</i>	Fig		
<i>F. citrifolia</i>	Wild banyan tree	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>F. glabrata</i>		Nonspecific	Janos (1980)
		(Continued)	

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Fraxinus*</i>	Ash	Nonspecific	Kormanik et al. (1977b); Kuhns (1980)
<i>F. americana*</i>	White ash	Nonspecific	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	Ponder (1984)
<i>F. nigra</i>	Black ash	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982)
<i>F. pennsylvanica*</i>	Green ash	<i>Glomus etunicatus</i>	Schultz et al. (1981)
<i>Fuchsia</i> sp.	Fuchsia	Nonspecific	Phillips and Hayman (1970)
<i>Gaultheria*</i>	Aromatic wintergreen	<i>Glomus mosseae</i>	Schultz et al. (1981)
<i>G. hispida</i>	Creeping snowberry	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>G. ovatifolia</i>		Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>G. procumbens</i>	Winterberry	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>G. shallon</i>		Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
		<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>Gibbertioidendron</i>		Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>Ginkgo</i>	Ginkgo	Nonspecific	Kuhns (1980)
<i>Gleditsia*</i>	Honey locust	Nonspecific	Kuhns (1980)
<i>Glycyrrhiza</i>		Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>Grayia spinosa</i>	Spiny hop sage	Nonspecific	Call (1981); Call and McKell (1982)
<i>Griselinia littoralis</i>		<i>Glomus microcarpus</i>	Powell (1975)
<i>Hedera helix</i>	English ivy	Nonspecific	Hayman (1974); Read et al. (1976)
<i>Hevea</i>	Rubber	Nonspecific	Hayman (1980)
<i>Inga</i>		Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>Intsia</i>		Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>Juglans</i>	Walnut	Nonspecific	Kormanik et al. (1977b); Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>J. nigra*</i>	Black walnut	Nonspecific	Ponder (1979)
		<i>Glomus etunicatus</i>	Schultz et al. (1981)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Ponder (1984)

(Continued)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>L. nigra</i> (cont'd)			
<i>Euhermania</i>		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Schultz et al. (1981)
<i>Juniperus</i> *	Juniper	Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
		Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>L. californicus</i>		<i>Glomus epigaeum</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
<i>Kalmia</i>	Laurel		
<i>K. angustifolia</i>	Lambkill, sheepkill	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>K. polifolia</i>	Pale laurel	Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>Larix</i>	Larch	Nonspecific	Kormanik et al. (1977b); Kuhns (1980)
		<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	Danielson (1982)
<i>L. laricina</i>	Eastern larch	<i>Compleries moniliformis</i>	Danielson (1982)
<i>L. occidentalis</i>	Western larch	<i>Fusoboletinus</i> <i>aluginascens</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
<i>Larrea divaricata</i>	Creosote bush	<i>Glomus mosseae</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
		<i>Glomus</i> sp.	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
<i>Ledum</i>	Labrador tea		
<i>L. glandulosum</i> var. <i>californica</i>		Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>L. glandulosum</i> var. <i>glandulosum</i>		Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
		<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>L. groenlandicum</i>		Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>Leiothylax</i>	Sand myrtle	Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>Leucospora leucosiphala</i>	Lead tree	Nonspecific	Yost and Fox (1979)
<i>Leucothoe daviseae</i>	Fetter-brush	Nonspecific	Read (1983); Scannerini and Bonfante-Fasolo (1983)
		<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	Largent et al. (1980)

(Continued)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Liquidambar styraciflua</i> *	Sweetgum	Nonspecific	Hayman (1980); Kormanik et al. (1977b); Maronek et al. (1981); Phillips and Hayman (1970)
		<i>Gigaspora</i> sp.	Brown et al. (1981); Kormanik et al. (1981)
		<i>Glomus aggregatum</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>G. constricta</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>G. etunicatus</i>	Brown et al. (1981); Kiernan et al. (1983); Kormanik et al. (1981); Schultz et al. (1979)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Brown et al. (1981); Kiernan et al. (1983); Kormanik et al. (1981)
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i> var. <i>geosporus</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i> var. <i>macrocarpus</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>G. microcarpus</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Brown et al. (1981); Kormanik et al. (1977a); Kormanik et al. (1981); Marx (1975); Schultz et al. (1979)
<i>Liriodendron</i>	Poplar	Nonspecific	Barnhill (1981); Kormanik et al. (1977b); Kuhns (1980)
<i>L. tulipifera</i> *	Yellow poplar	Nonspecific	Scannerini and Bonfante-Fasolo (1983)
		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Gerdemann (1974)
		<i>Glomus caledonius</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Maronek et al. (1981)
		<i>G. microcarpus</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
<i>Ionicea canadensis</i>	Fly-honeysuckle	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982)
<i>Lysiloma latissiliqua</i>	Wild tamarind	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Macrolobium</i>		Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>Malus</i> *	Apple	Nonspecific	Kuhns (1980)
(Continued)			

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>M. domestica</i>	Orchard apple	<i>Glomus mosseae</i>	Covey et al. (1981); Strobel et al. (1982)
		<i>Fisolithus tinctorius</i>	Green et al. (1982)
<i>M. parvifolia</i> *	Apple	<i>Glomus epigaeum</i>	Craw (1979); Jasper et al. (1979)
<i>M. subfieldii</i>		Nonspecific	Barnhill (1981)
<i>M. sylvestris</i>	Common crab apple	<i>Gigaspora calospora</i>	Trappe et al. (1973)
		<i>Glomus caledonius</i>	
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i>	
		var. <i>geosporus</i>	
<i>Magnolia* grandiflora</i>	Southern magnolia	<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Maronek et al. (1981)
<i>Nastionodendron foetidissimum</i>	Mastic	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Nerziesia</i>	Minnie-bush	Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>Peperomia torrifera</i>	Poisonwood	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Monopetalanthus</i>		Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Myrica</i> *			
<i>M. cerifera</i> *	Wax myrtle	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>M. pennsylvanica</i>	Bayberry	<i>Acaulospora scobiculata</i>	Koske (1981)
		<i>Gigaspora calospora</i>	
		<i>G. gigantea</i>	
		<i>Glomus etunicatus</i>	
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	
<i>Myrsine guianensis</i>	Myrsine	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Myrtandra caribaea</i>	Lancewood	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Nyssa</i>		Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>Quercus</i>	Beech	Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
		(Continued)	

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Nyssa sylvatica</i> *	Black gum	<i>Glomus mosseae</i>	Keeley (1980)
<i>Olea europaea</i>	Olive	<i>G. constrictus</i>	Daniels and Menge (1981)
		<i>G. epigaeus</i>	
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	
<i>Ostrya</i> *	Hop-hornbeam, ironwood	Nonspecific	Kuhns (1980)
<i>Tanacetum lobatum</i>		Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>Parthenocissus quinquefolia</i>	Virginia creeper	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Persea</i>		Nonspecific	Read (1983)
<i>P. americana</i>	Avocado	Nonspecific	Maronek et al. (1981); Schenck and Kellam (1978)
<i>P. bertoniana</i> *	Red bay	<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	Menge et al. (1980)
<i>Phyllocladus empetrifolius</i>		Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Picea</i>	Spruce	Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>P. abies</i>	Norway spruce	Nonspecific	Kuhns (1980); Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>P. engelmanni</i>	Englemann spruce	<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Maronek and Hendrix (1980)
<i>P. glauca</i>	White spruce	Nonspecific	Oswald and Ferchau (1968)
<i>P. mariana</i>	Black spruce	Nonspecific	Danielson (1982); Malloch and Malloch (1982)
<i>P. pungens</i>	Colorado spruce	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>P. sitchensis</i>	Sitka spruce	<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Chambers et al. (1980a)
		<i>Amanita muscaria</i>	Genua et al. (1982)
		<i>Boletus edulis</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Laccaria laccata</i>	
		<i>Lactarius deliciosus</i>	

(Continued)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>P. sitchensis</i> (cont'd)		<i>L. rufus</i>	Alexander (1981)
		<i>Rhizopogon fusciorubens</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
<i>Pinus</i>	Pine	Nonspecific	Kormanik et al. (1977b); Kuhns (1980); Malloch et al. (1980)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Peeler and Mullins (1982)
<i>P. albicaulis</i>	Whitebark pine	<i>Gastroboletus subalpinus</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
<i>P. aristata</i>	Bristle-cone pine	Nonspecific	Oswald and Fercnau (1968)
<i>P. ayacahuite</i>	Mexican white pine	<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>P. banksiana</i>	Jack pine	Nonspecific	Danielson (1982); Malloch and Malloch (1981); Marx (1980)
		<i>Amanita muscaria</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Boletus edulis</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Laccaria laccata</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Marx (1976), (1977d); Marx et al. (1982)
<i>P. caribaea</i> * (= <i>P. elliotii</i>)	Slash pine	Nonspecific	Marx (1975)
		<i>Cenococcium graniforme</i>	Haiskaylo and Vozzo (1967)
		<i>Corticium bicolor</i>	Haiskaylo and Vozzo (1967)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Marx (1976), (1977d); Marx et al. (1977), (1982)
		<i>Rhizopogon roseolus</i>	Haiskaylo and Vozzo (1967)
		<i>Suillus cothurnatus</i>	Haiskaylo and Vozzo (1967)
		<i>Thelephora terrestris</i>	Marx et al. (1977)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>P. caribaea</i> var. <i>bahamensis</i>		<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>P. caribaea</i> var. <i>caribaea</i>			

(Continued)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>P. caribaea</i> var. <i>elliottii</i>		<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>P. caribaea</i> var. <i>hondurensis</i>		Nonspecific	Hart et al. (1980)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>P. cembra</i>	Arolla pine	<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>P. clausa</i> *	Sand pine	Nonspecific	Marx (1975)
		<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1976), (1977d)
<i>P. clausa</i> var. <i>clausa</i>		<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>P. clausa</i> var. <i>imuginata</i>		<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d); Marx et al. (1977); Ruehl and Brendemuehl (1981); Schenck (1981)
<i>P. contorta</i> *	Lodgepole pine, Shore pine	<i>Thelephora terrestris</i>	Marx et al. (1977)
		<i>Lactarius deliciosus</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Leccinum manzanitae</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Parillus involutus</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Cline and Reid (1982); France and Reid (1983); Maronek et al. (1981); Marx (1977d)
		<i>Rhizopogon cokeri</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>R. fuscovirens</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>R. luteolus</i>	Cline and Reid (1982)
		<i>R. occidentalis</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Scleroderma hypogaeum</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Suillus brevipes</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>S. granulatus</i>	Cline and Reid (1982)
		<i>Tricholoma flavovirens</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
<i>P. densiflora</i>	Japanese red pine	Nonspecific	Lee (1981)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
(Continued)			

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>P. echinata</i>	Shortleaf pine	Nonspecific	Berry (1979b); Marx (1975)
		<i>Laccaria laccata</i>	Marx and Davey (1969a)
		<i>Leucopaxillus cerealis</i> var. <i>piceina</i>	Marx and Davey (1969a)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Berry and Marx (1976); Dixon et al. (1979); Marx (1970), (1976), (1977d); Marx and Davey (1969a), (1969b); Marx et al. (1982); Ruehl et al. (1981a), (1981b)
		<i>Suillus luteus</i>	Marx and Davey (1969a)
		<i>Thelephora terrestris</i>	Marx (1970a); Ruehl et al. (1981a), (1981b)
	Limber pine	Nonspecific	Oswald and Ferchau (1968)
<i>P. flexilis</i>	Jeffrey pine	<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>P. jeffreyi</i> (= <i>P. ponderosa</i> var. <i>jeffreyi</i>)			
<i>P. khasya</i>		<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>P. koraiensis</i>	Korean pine	Nonspecific	Lee (1981)
<i>P. lambertiana</i>	Sugar pine	<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>P. leiophylla</i>	Chihuahua pine	<i>P. tinctorius</i>	
<i>P. merkusi</i>		<i>P. tinctorius</i>	
<i>P. microacana</i>		<i>P. tinctorius</i>	
<i>P. monticola</i>	Western white pine	<i>Amanita muscaria</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
<i>P. montana</i>	Montana pine	<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>P. mugo</i>	Dwarf mountain pine	Nonspecific	Ledgard (1976)
		<i>Lactarius rufus</i>	Alexander (1981)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>P. niger</i>	Australian pine	<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Maronek and Hendrix (1980); Marx (1977d); Marx et al. (1982)
<i>P. oocarpa</i>		<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)

(Continued)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>P. occidentalis</i>		<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>P. palustris</i> *	Longleaf pine	<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Kais et al. (1981); Marx (1977d); Marx et al. (1982)
<i>P. patula</i>	Jelegote pine	Nonspecific	Marais and Kotze (1978a), (1978b), (1978c)
		<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>P. pinaster</i>	Maritime pine	<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>P. ponderosa</i>	Ponderosa pine	<i>Boletus edulis</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Cortinarius pistorius</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Hebeloma crustuliniforme</i>	Trappe (1977)
		<i>Hysterangium separabile</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Laccaria laccata</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982); Trappe (1977)
		<i>Lactarius deliciosus</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Cline and Reid (1982); Marx et al. (1982); Molina and Trappe (1982); Riffle and Tinus (1982); Trappe (1977)
		<i>Rhizopogon cokeri</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>R. luteolus</i>	Cline and Reid (1982)
		<i>R. occidentalis</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Suillus granulatus</i>	Cline and Reid (1982)
		<i>Thelephora terrestris</i>	Riffle and Tinus (1982); Trappe (1977)
		<i>Tricholoma flavovirens</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
<i>P. pseudostrobus</i>		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>P. radiata</i>	Monterey pine	Nonspecific	Berry (1979b)
		<i>Amanita muscaria</i>	Chu-Chou (1979); Malajezuk et al. (1982)
		<i>A. phalloides</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
		<i>Boletus auriporus</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
		<i>B. piperatus</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)

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Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>P. radiata</i> (cont'd)		<i>Cantharella cibarius</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
		<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	
		<i>Chroogomphus rutilus</i>	
		<i>C. vinicolor</i>	
		<i>Endogone flammispora</i>	
		<i>E. lactiflua</i>	
		<i>Hebeloma crustuliniforme</i>	
		<i>Hysterangium separabile</i>	
		<i>Inocybe lacera</i>	
		<i>Laccaria laccata</i>	
		<i>Lactarius deliciosus</i>	
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982); Marx (1970a), (1977d); Marx and Barnett (1974); Marx and Beattie (1977); Marx et al. (1979); Ruehl (1982); Ruehl and Brendemuehl (1981)
		<i>Rhizopogon luteolus</i>	Bevege et al. (1975); Malajezuk et al. (1982); Reid and Bowen (1979); Theodorou (1980)
		<i>R. ochraceorubens</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
		<i>R. roseolus</i>	
		<i>R. rubescens</i>	
		<i>R. subaerulescens</i>	
		<i>Scleroderma bovista</i>	
		<i>S. citrinum</i>	
		<i>S. verucosum</i>	
		<i>Suillus acerbus</i>	
		<i>S. bovinus</i>	
		<i>S. brevipes</i>	

(Continued)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>P. radiata</i> (cont'd)		<i>S. granulatus</i>	Malajezuk et al. (1982)
		<i>S. grevillei</i>	
		<i>S. luteus</i>	
		<i>S. pungens</i>	
		<i>S. subacerebus</i>	
		<i>S. subaureus</i>	
		<i>Thelephora americana</i>	
		<i>T. terrestris</i>	Chu-Chou (1979); Kelley (1979); Lee (1981); Reid and Bowen (1979); Ruehl (1982)
<i>P. resinosa</i>	Red pine	Nonspecific	Marx (1975)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Marx (1976), (1977d); Sohn (1981); Yang and Wilcox (1984)
<i>P. rigida</i>	Pitch pine	<i>Suillus subluteus</i>	Yang and Wilcox (1984)
		Nonspecific	Lee (1981); Marx (1975), (1976)
<i>P. rigida</i> var. <i>taeda</i>		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d), (1980)
<i>P. rudis</i>		Nonspecific	Lee (1981)
<i>P. serotina</i>	Pond pine, pocosin pine	<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>P. strobus</i> *	Eastern white pine	<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
		Nonspecific	Marx (1975)
		<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	Piché and Fortin (1982)
		<i>Hebeloma cylindrosporum</i>	Piché and Fortin (1982)
		<i>Parillus involutus</i>	Piché and Fortin (1982)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Marx (1976), (1977d); Marx et al. (1977); Piché and Fortin (1982); Piché (1983)
		<i>Suillus granulatus</i>	Piché and Fortin (1982)
		<i>S. tomentosus</i>	Piché and Fortin (1982)
		<i>Thelephora terrestris</i>	Marx et al. (1977); Piché and Fortin (1982)

(Continued)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>P. sylvestris</i>	Scots pine	<i>Cenococcum graniforme</i>	Genua et al. (1982)
		<i>Endogone pisiiformis</i>	Berch and Fortin (1983a)
		<i>Lactarius rufus</i>	Alexander (1981)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Alexander (1981); Genua et al. (1982); Marx (1977d); Marx et al. (1982); Riffle and Tinus (1982)
<i>P. rzedae*</i>	Loblolly pine	<i>Thelephora terrestris</i>	Riffle and Tinus (1982)
		Nonspecific	Berry and Marx (1977); Lee (1981); Maronek et al. (1981); Marx (1980)
		<i>Cenococcum graniforme</i>	Marx et al. (1978)
		<i>Laccaria laccata</i>	Marx and Davey (1969a)
<i>P. taiwanensis</i>		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Berry and Marx (1976), (1978); Mahoney et al. (1982); Marx (1976), (1977d), (1980); Marx and Artman (1979); Marx and Davey (1969a); Marx et al. (1977), (1978), (1982)
		<i>Suillus luteus</i>	Marx and Davey (1969a)
		<i>Thelephora terrestris</i>	Berry and Marx (1978); Marx and Artman (1979); Marx et al. (1977), (1978)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Yang and Wilcox (1984)
<i>P. teocote</i>	Japanese jack pine	<i>Suillus sublatus</i>	Yang and Wilcox (1984)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
		Nonspecific	Lee (1981)
		Nonspecific	Marx (1975)
<i>P. thunbergii</i>	Scrub pine	<i>Cenococcum graniforme</i>	Marx (1975), (1976)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Berry and Marx (1978); Marx (1977d); Marx et al. (1977)
		<i>Thelephora terrestris</i>	Berry and Marx (1978); Marx et al. (1977)
		Nonspecific	Powell (1979b)
<i>Pisonia</i>	Cockspur	(Continued)	

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Pittosporum</i>	Pittosporum	Nonspecific	Maronek et al. (1981)
<i>Platanus*</i>	Sycamore	Nonspecific	Kormanik et al. (1977b); Kuhns (1980); Marx (1975)
<i>P. occidentalis</i>	Sycamore	<i>Glomus constrictus</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>G. etunicatus</i>	Schultz et al. (1981)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Pope (1980); Schultz et al. (1981)
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i> var. <i>geosporus</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
<i>Podocarpus macrophylla</i>	Kusamaki	Nonspecific	Maronek et al. (1981)
		<i>G. epigaeus</i>	McGraw and Schenck (1980)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i>	
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	
		Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>Pomaderris</i>	Trifoliolate orange	Nonspecific	Menge (1983); Menge et al. (1977)
<i>Poncirus</i>	Troyer citrange	<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	Menge et al. (1977), (1982)
<i>P. trifoliata</i>		<i>Glomus constrictus</i>	Daniels and Menge (1981)
<i>P. trifoliata</i> X		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Daniels and Menge (1981)
<i>Citrus sinensis</i>		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Daniels and Menge (1981)
<i>Populus*</i>	Aspen	Nonspecific	Harris and Jurgenson (1977); Kormanik et al. (1977b); Kuhns (1980); Shuffstall and Medve (1979)
<i>P. balsamifera</i>	Balsam poplar	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982)
<i>P. deltoides*</i>	Cottonwood	<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Navratil and Rochon (1981)
<i>P. deltoides</i> var. <i>deltoides</i>		Nonspecific	Kiernan et al. (1983)

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Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>P. grandidentata</i>	Large tooth aspen	Nonspecific <i>Glomus</i> sp. <i>G. constrictum</i> <i>G. fasciculatus</i> <i>G. pallidum</i> <i>P. tinctorius</i>	Shuffstall and Medve (1979) Morton and Rizzo (1983) Marx (1975), (1976), (1977d) Malloch and Malloch (1981); Marx (1975); Shuffstall and Medve (1979) Marx (1976), (1977d)
<i>P. tremuloides</i>	Quaking aspen	Nonspecific	
<i>P. trichocarpa</i> *	Black cottonwood	<i>P. tinctorius</i> <i>Amanita muscaria</i> <i>Psyllus involutus</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982) Molina and Trappe (1982) Janos (1980)
<i>Pouteria lucentifolia</i> <i>Prosopis</i>	Sapote	Nonspecific	
<i>P. juliflora</i> <i>P. spicigera</i> <i>Prunus</i> *	Mesquite Plum	<i>Glomus mosseae</i> <i>Endogone</i> sp. Nonspecific	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984) Khan (1974) Malloch et al. (1980); Maronek et al. (1981); Strobel et al. (1982)
<i>P. angustifolia</i> *	Chickasaw plum	<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
<i>P. besseyi</i> <i>P. macrophyllum</i> <i>P. munsoniana</i> <i>P. persica</i>	Sand cherry Podocarpus Wild-goose plum Peach	Nonspecific <i>G. epigaeus</i> Nonspecific Nonspecific <i>Endogone</i> sp. <i>Gigaspora margarita</i> <i>Glomus epigaeus</i> <i>G. etunicatus</i>	Barnhill (1981) McGraw and Schenck (1980) Barnhill (1981) Schenck and Kellam (1978) Gerdemann (1974) McGraw and Schenck (1980); Strobel et al. (1982) McGraw and Schenck (1980) McGraw and Schenck (1980); Strobel et al. (1982)

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Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>P. persica</i> (cont'd)		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	McGraw and Schenck (1980)
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i>	McGraw and Schenck (1980)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Marx (1975); McGraw and Schenck (1980)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	McCouch and Rohde (1982)
<i>F. pennsylvanica</i>	Wild red cherry	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981), (1982)
<i>P. serotina</i> *	Black cherry	Nonspecific	Shuffstall and Medve (1979)
		<i>Gigaspora calospora</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>G. gigantea</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>G. pellucida</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>Glomus etunicatu</i>	Schultz et al. (1981)
		<i>G. microcarpus</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Schultz et al. (1981)
<i>Pseudotsuga menziesii</i>	Douglas fir	Nonspecific	Berry and Marx (1976); Heilman and Ekuon (1980); Kormanik et al. (1977b); Kuhns (1980); Malloch et al. (1980); Oswald and Ferchau (1968)
		<i>Alpova diplophloeus</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Amanita muscaria</i>	
		<i>Astraeus pteridis</i>	
		<i>Boletus edulis</i>	
		<i>Cenococcium geophilum</i>	
		<i>C. graniforme</i>	Genua et al. (1982)
		<i>Cortinarius pistorius</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Hebeloma crustuliniforme</i>	Genua et al. (1982); Trappe (1977)
		<i>Hysterangium separabile</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Laccaria laccata</i>	Genua et al. (1982); Maronek et al. (1981); Molina and Trappe (1982); Sinclair et al. (1982); Sylvia (1981); Sylvia and Sinclair (1983a), (1983b); Trappe (1977)

(Continued)

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Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Pseudotsuga menziesii</i> (cont'd)		<i>Lactarius deliciosus</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Lecanum manzanitae</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Melanogaster intermedius</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Berry and Marx (1976); Genua et al. (1982); Maronek et al. (1981); Marx (1977d); Molina and Trappe (1982); Trappe (1977)
		<i>Rhizopogon cokeri</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>R. vinicolor</i>	
		<i>Scleroderma hypogaeum</i>	
		<i>Suillus brevipes</i>	
		<i>S. lakei</i>	
		<i>Thelephora terrestris</i>	Trappe (1977)
		<i>Truncocolumnella citrina</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Zelleromyces gilkeyae</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
	Guava	Nonspecific	Janos (1980); Meador (1977)
<i>Psidium quajava</i>	Wild coffee	Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>Psychotria</i>	Purshia	<i>Acaulospora</i> sp.	Williams (1979)
<i>Purshia tridentata</i>		<i>Gigaspora</i> sp.	Williams (1979)
<i>Pyrola</i>	Pyrola		
<i>P. picta</i> f. <i>picta</i>		Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>P. picta</i> f. <i>aphylla</i>		Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>P. rotundifolia</i> ssp. <i>maritima</i>	White lily-of-the-valley	Nonspecific	Read (1983)
<i>P. secunda</i>	One-sided pyrola	Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>Quercus</i> *	Oaks	Nonspecific	Kormanik et al. (1977b); Kuhns (1980); Marx (1975)

(Continued)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Quercus</i> (cont'd)			
<i>Q. acutissima</i> *	Sawtooth oak	<i>Boletus edulis</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Marx (1976), (1977d)
<i>Q. agrifolia</i>		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Anderson et al. (1983); Marx (1977d)
<i>Q. alba</i> *	California live oak	<i>Thelephora terrestris</i>	Anderson et al. (1983)
	White oak	<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Beckjord et al. (1983); Dixon et al. (1980); Marx (1977d)
<i>Q. falcata</i> *	Spanish oak	<i>Scleroderma aurantewm</i>	Beckjord et al. (1983)
		<i>P. tinctorius</i>	
		<i>S. aurantium</i>	
<i>Q. falcata</i> var. <i>pagodifolia</i>	Cherrybark oak	<i>P. tinctorius</i>	
		<i>S. aurantewm</i>	
<i>Q. gambelii</i>	Gambel's oak	<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>Q. garryana</i>	Oregon white oak	<i>Melanogaster intermedius</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
<i>Q. laevis</i>	Turkey oak	<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>Q. lobata</i>	California white oak	<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>Q. macrocarpa</i>	Bur oak	<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Marx et al. (1982)
<i>Q. michauxii</i> *	Swamp chestnut oak	<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Maronek et al. (1981)
<i>Q. palustris</i>	Pin oak	<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Anderson et al. (1983); Maronek and Hendrix (1979); Maronek et al. (1981); Marx (1977d)
<i>Q. robur</i>	English oak	Nonspecific	Zare-Maivan and Gessner (1983)
<i>Q. rubra</i>	Red oak	<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Beckjord et al. (1980), (1983); Maronek et al. (1981); Marx (1977d); Ruehl (1980a)
<i>Q. velutina</i>	Black oak	<i>Scleroderma aurantewm</i>	Beckjord et al. (1983)
		Nonspecific	Marx (1975)
		(Continued)	

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>A. velutina</i> (cont'd)		<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Dixon et al. (1981a), (1981b), (1981c); Marx (1976), (1977d)
<i>A. virginiana</i> *	Live oak	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Akamus</i> sp.	Buckthorn	<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1977d)
<i>Rhododendron</i>	Rhododendron	Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
		Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980); Moore-Parkhurst and Englander (1982)
<i>F. macrophyllum</i>	Pacific rhododendron	Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
		<i>Cenococcium geophilum</i>	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>A. occidentale</i>		Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>H. ponticum</i>		Nonspecific	Bradley et al. (1982); Read (1983)
		<i>Pezizella ericae</i>	Duddridge and Read (1982)
<i>A. simsi</i>		<i>Glomus mosseae</i>	Maronek et al. (1981)
<i>Phus</i> *	Sumac		
<i>R. glabra</i> *	Smooth sumac	Nonspecific	Shuffstall and Medve (1979)
<i>A. radicans</i> *	Poison ivy	<i>Acaulospora trappii</i>	Biermann (1983)
<i>A. trilobata</i> (= <i>A. serotina</i>)		Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Fotinia</i>		Nonspecific	Call (1981)
<i>A. fereitis</i>	Locust	Nonspecific	Kuhns (1980)
<i>A. pseudocarya</i> *	Bristly locust	Nonspecific	Barnhill (1981)
	Black locust	<i>Acaulospora elegans</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>Gigaspora calospora</i>	
		<i>Glomus aggregatum</i>	
		<i>G. glarus</i>	
		<i>G. constrictus</i>	

(Continued)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>R. pseudoacacia</i> (cont'd)		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i> var. <i>geosporus</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Marx (1975)
<i>Rosa* multiflora*</i>	Rose	<i>Glomus clarius</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i> var. <i>geosporus</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
<i>Salix*</i>	Willow	Nonspecific	Harris and Jurgensen (1977); Kormanik et al. (1977b); Kuhns (1980); Marshall and Patullo (1981)
<i>S. humilis</i>	Small pussy-willow	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981); Marx (1975)
<i>S. rotundifolia</i>	Dwarf willow	<i>P. tinctorius</i>	Marx (1976), (1977d)
		<i>Cenococcium geophilum</i>	Antibus et al. (1981)
		<i>C. mucosus</i>	
		<i>Entoloma sericeum</i>	
		<i>Hebeloma pusillum</i>	
		<i>Lactarius lanceolatus</i>	
<i>Salvadora oleoides</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Sambucus* pubens</i>	Elderberry	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982)
<i>Sassafras albidum*</i>	Sassafras	Nonspecific	Kiernan et al. (1983); Shuffstall and Medve (1979)
		<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i> var. <i>geosporus</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
		<i>G. microcarpus</i>	Kiernan et al. (1983)
<i>Schinus terebinthifolius*</i>	Brazilian pepper tree	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Sclerolobium</i>		Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)

(Continued)

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Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Sequoia</i>	Redwood		
<i>S. gigantea</i> (= <i>Sequoia-dendron giganteum</i>)	Giant sequoia	Nonspecific	Nicolson and Johnston (1979)
<i>S. sempervirens</i>	Coast redwood	Nonspecific	Nicolson and Johnston (1979)
<i>Simarouba glauca</i>	Paradise tree	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Simmondsia chinensis</i>		<i>Glomus mosseae</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
<i>Sophora secundiflora</i>	Sophora	Nonspecific	Kuhns (1980)
		<i>Gigaspora</i> sp.	Strong and Davies (1982)
<i>Sorbus</i>		Nonspecific	Kuhns (1980)
<i>S. decora</i>	Mountain ash	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>Straphodendron excelsum</i>		Nonspecific	Janos (1980)
<i>Tachigalia</i>		Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>Tamarix pentandra</i>	Tamarisk	<i>Glomus mosseae</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
		<i>Glomus</i> sp.	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
<i>Taraxacum officinale</i>	Yew	Nonspecific	Scannerini and Bonfante-Fasolo (1983)
<i>Terminalia</i>	Almond	Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>Thea chinensis</i>	Tea	Nonspecific	Hayman (1980)
<i>Tilia</i>	Linden, basswood	Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>Tetrazigla bicolor</i>	Florida tetrazygia	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Theobroma cacao</i>	Cacao	Nonspecific	Hayman (1980)
<i>Thuja occidentalis</i>	White cedar	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982)
<i>Tsuga</i>	Hemlock		
<i>T. canadensis</i>	Eastern hemlock	<i>Amanita phalloides</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Boletus edulis</i>	
		<i>B. huronensis</i>	
		<i>B. mirabilis</i>	
		(Continued)	

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>T. canadensis</i> (cont'd)		<i>B. piperatus</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>B. radicans</i>	
		<i>B. rubinellus</i>	
		<i>B. subvelutipes</i>	
		<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	
		<i>Elaphomyces granulatus</i>	
		<i>E. monnettii</i>	
		<i>Hymenogaster separabile</i>	
		<i>Lactarius pseudoaffinis</i>	
		<i>L. subpurpurascens</i>	
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982); Maronek and Hendrix (1980)
		<i>Suillus flavoluteus</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>S. intermedius</i>	
		<i>Tricholoma matsutake</i>	
<i>T. diversifolia</i>	Japanese hemlock	<i>Elaphomyces granulatus</i>	
		<i>Tricholoma matsutake</i>	
<i>T. heterophylla</i>	Western hemlock	Nonspecific	Heilman and Ekuan (1980); Kormanik et al. (1977b); Kuhns (1980); Marx (1977d)
		<i>Albatrellus flettii</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Alpova aleasmithii</i>	
		<i>Amanita aspera</i>	
		<i>A. fulva</i>	
		<i>A. gemmata</i>	
		<i>A. muscaria</i>	
		<i>A. smithiana</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982); Molina and Trappe (1982)
		(Continued)	

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>T. heterophylla</i> (cont'd)		<i>A. vaginata</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Astraeus pteridis</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Barssia oregonensis</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Boletus appendiculatus</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>B. edulis</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982); Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>B. fragrans</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>B. mirabilis</i>	
		<i>Boletus porosporus</i> var. <i>americana</i>	
		<i>B. pulverulentus</i>	
		<i>B. subtomentosus</i>	
		<i>B. zelleri</i>	
		<i>Byssoporia terrestris</i>	
		<i>Camarophyllus borealis</i>	
		<i>Cantharellus cibarius</i>	
		<i>C. tubaeformis</i>	
		<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	Christy et al. (1982); Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Chamoniria caespitosa</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Chroogomphus tomentosus</i>	
		<i>Cortinarius delibutus</i>	
		<i>C. griseoviolaceus</i>	
		<i>C. mucosus</i>	
		<i>C. zakii</i>	
		<i>Elaphomyces granulatus</i>	
		<i>E. muricatus</i>	

(Continued)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>T. heterophylla</i> (cont'd)		<i>Gastroboletus subalpinus</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982); Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>G. turbinatus</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Gautieria monticola</i>	
		<i>Genea gardneri</i>	
		<i>G. harknessii</i>	
		<i>Gomphus floccosus</i>	
		<i>Hebeloma crustuliniforme</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982); Trappe (1977)
		<i>H. mesophaeum</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Hydnотrya cubispora</i>	
		<i>H. variiformis</i>	
		<i>Hydnum fuscotindicum</i>	
		<i>Hygrophorus camarophyllus</i>	
		<i>Hymenogaster parksi</i>	
		<i>Hysterangium crassum</i>	
		<i>H. separabile</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982); Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Inocybe albodisca</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>I. calamistrata</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>I. sororia</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Laccaria laccata</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982); Trappe (1977)
		<i>Lactarius deliciosus</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982); Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>L. fallax</i> var. <i>concolor</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>L. glutigriseus</i>	
		<i>L. kauffmanii</i>	
		<i>L. kauffmanii</i> var. <i>sitchensis</i>	
(Continued)			

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>T. heterophylla</i> (cont'd)		<i>L. pallescens</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>L. scrobiculatus</i>	
		<i>L. subviscidus</i>	
		<i>L. substriatus</i>	
		<i>L. trivialis</i>	
		<i>Leucogaster microsporus</i>	
		<i>L. rubescens</i>	
		<i>Leucophleps magnata</i>	
		<i>Macowanites chlorinosmus</i>	
		<i>M. iodiolens</i>	
		<i>Martellia maculata</i>	
		<i>M. parksi</i>	
		<i>M. subfulva</i>	
		<i>Martellia subochracea</i>	
		<i>M. vesiculosa</i>	
		<i>Melanogaster eurypermus</i>	
		<i>M. intermedius</i>	
		<i>Parillus involutus</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982); Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Phaeocollybia kauffmanii</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Picoa carthusiana</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Piloderma croceum</i>	Christy et al. (1982); Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Pisolithus tinctorius</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982); Marx (1977d); Marx et al. (1982); Trappe (1977)
		<i>Polysellus multiplex</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Ramaria subbotrytis</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)

(Continued)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>T. heterophylla</i> (cont'd)		<i>Rhizopogon colossus</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>R. hawkeri</i>	
		<i>R. ochraceisporus</i>	
		<i>R. parksii</i>	
		<i>R. pseudovillosulus</i>	
		<i>R. rubescens</i>	
		<i>R. subgelatinosus</i>	
		<i>R. villosulus</i>	
		<i>R. vinicolor</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982); Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Russula atrata</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>R. brevipes</i>	
		<i>R. cascadenensis</i>	
		<i>R. decolorans</i>	
		<i>R. dissimulans</i>	
		<i>R. emetica</i>	
		<i>R. fragrantissima</i>	
		<i>R. nigricans</i>	
		<i>Suillus imitatus</i>	
		<i>Thelephora americana</i>	
		<i>T. terrestris</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982); Trappe (1977)
		<i>T. ponderosum</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>T. vaccinum</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Tylopilus pseudosaber</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Trileteromyces gilkeyae</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982); Molina and Trappe (1982)
<i>T. mertensiana</i>	Mountain hemlock	<i>Alpova alexsmithii</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Amanita gemmata</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		(Continued)	

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>I. mertensiana</i> (cont'd)		<i>A. muscaria</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982); Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Boletus calopus</i> var. <i>frustosus</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>B. edulis</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982); Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>B. mirabilis</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>B. piperatus</i>	
		<i>B. pulverulentus</i>	
		<i>B. rubripes</i>	
		<i>B. smithii</i>	
		<i>B. subtomentosus</i>	
		<i>Camarophyllus</i> <i>tubaeformis</i>	
		<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	
		<i>Chroogomphus loculatus</i>	
		<i>Cortinarius montanus</i>	
		<i>C. mutabilis</i>	
		<i>C. phoeniceus</i> var. <i>occidentalis</i>	
		<i>C. vibratilis</i>	
		<i>Dentinum repandum</i>	
		<i>Elaphomyces granulatus</i>	
		<i>E. muricatus</i>	
		<i>Endogone lactiflua</i>	
		<i>Gastroboletus imbellus</i>	
		<i>G. subalpinus</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)

(Continued)

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>T. mertensiana</i> (cont'd)			
		<i>G. turbinatus</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Gautieria monticola</i>	
		<i>G. pterosperma</i>	
		<i>Hydnotrya variiformis</i>	
		<i>Hygrophorus goetsii</i>	
		<i>Hymenogaster brunescens</i>	
		<i>H. subcaeruleus</i>	
		<i>H. separabile</i>	
		<i>Inocybe xanthomelas</i>	
		<i>Laccaria laccata</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982); Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Lactarius glutigriseus</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>L. mucidus</i>	
		<i>L. scrobiculatus</i>	
		<i>Leucophylops magnata</i>	
		<i>Martellia brunescens</i>	
		<i>M. fragrans</i>	
		<i>M. idahoensis</i>	
		<i>M. monticola</i>	
		<i>M. subfulva</i>	
		<i>M. vittadinii</i>	
		<i>Radiigera atrogleba</i>	
		<i>Rhizopogon abietis</i>	
		<i>R. atroviolaceus</i>	
		<i>R. cokeri</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982); Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>R. evadens</i> var. <i>subalpinus</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		(Continued)	

Table A1 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>T. mertensiana</i> (cont'd)		<i>R. milleri</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>R. obscurus</i>	
		<i>Rhizopogon smithii</i>	
		<i>R. subcaerulescens</i>	
		<i>R. subpurpurascens</i>	
		<i>R. subalmoneus</i>	
		<i>R. vulgaris</i>	
		<i>Rozites caperata</i>	
		<i>Suillus brevipes</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>S. lakei</i>	Molina and Trappe (1982)
		<i>S. punctatipes</i>	Kropp and Trappe (1982)
		<i>Tricholoma virgatum</i>	
		<i>Trucocolumella rubra</i>	
<i>T. sieboldii</i>	Southern Japanese hemlock	<i>Tricholoma matsutake</i>	
		<i>T. robustum</i>	
<i>Ulmus</i>	Elm	Nonspecific	Kormanik et al. (1977b); Kuhns (1980); Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>Vaccinium</i> *			
<i>V. angustifolium</i>	Blueberry	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982); Reich et al. (1982)
<i>V. arbuscula</i>		Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>V. macrocarpon</i>	Cranberry	Nonspecific	Bradley et al. (1982); Read (1983); Stribley and Reed (1975)
<i>V. membranaceum</i>		Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>V. occidentalis</i>		Nonspecific	
<i>V. ovatum</i>		Nonspecific	
		<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i> (Continued)	

Table A1 (Concluded)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>V. parvifolium</i>		Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>V. scoparium</i>		Nonspecific	Largent et al. (1980)
<i>Viburnum* suspensum</i>	Arrowwood	Nonspecific	Csinos (1981)
<i>Vitis</i>	Grape	Nonspecific	Hayman (1980); Scannerini and Bonfante-Fasolo (1983)
<i>V. aestivalis</i>	Summer grape	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>V. labrusca*</i>	Fox grape	<i>Glomus macrocarpus</i> var. <i>geosporus</i>	Nicolson and Schenck (1979)
<i>V. vinifera</i>		<i>G. epigeus</i>	Scannerini and Bonfante-Fasolo (1983)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Scannerini and Bonfante-Fasolo (1983); Schenck and Kellam (1978)
<i>Zelkova</i>	Zelkova	Nonspecific	Kuhns (1980)

Table A2

Herbaceous Plants Exhibiting Mycorrhizae

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Agave deserti</i>	Aloe	<i>Glomus epigaeum</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
<i>Alhagi</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>A. camelorum</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>A. maurorum</i>	Onion	Nonspecific	Scannerini and Bonfante-Fasolo (1983)
<i>Allium</i>	Common onion	Nonspecific	Yost and Fox (1979)
<i>A. cepa</i>		<i>Endogone pisiformis</i>	Berch and Fortin (1983a)
		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Hayman (1974); Nicolson and Johnston (1979)
		<i>Gigaspora calospora</i>	Furlan and Fortin (1977)
		<i>G. margarita</i>	Hirrel and Gerdemann (1980); Schenck (1981)
		<i>Glomus caledonius</i>	Owusu-Bennoah and Mosse (1979)
		<i>G. etunicatus</i>	Hayman (1980); Nelsen (1981); Nelsen et al. (1981)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Hayman (1983); Hirrel and Gerdemann (1980); Manjunath and Bagyaraj (1981)
		<i>Glomus mosseae</i>	Black and Tinker (1979); Hayman (1983); Rao and Parvathi (1982); Schenck (1981); Schenck and Kellam (1978)
<i>A. porrum</i>	Leek	<i>Glomus</i> sp.	Spitko and Manning (1981)
		<i>Endogone pisiformis</i>	Berch and Fortin (1983a)
		<i>Glomus epigaeum</i>	Plenchette et al. (1983a), (1983b)
		<i>G. monosporum</i>	Plenchette et al. (1983a), (1983b)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Snellgrove et al. (1982)
<i>Alternanthera philoxeroides</i>	Alligatorweed	Nonspecific	Marx and Davey (1969a)

(Continued)

Table A2 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Amannia coccinea</i>	Scarlet ammannia	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Arpeiosia arborea</i>	Pepper vine	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Ananas comosus</i>	Pineapple	Nonspecific	Hayman (1980)
<i>Anemone nemorosa</i>	Anemone	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Anthyllis vulneraria</i>	Kidney vetch	Nonspecific	Strzemiński (1974)
<i>Ipocynum androsaemifolium</i>	Spreading dogbane	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982)
<i>Arachis hypogaea</i>	Peanut	<i>Acaulospora trappaei</i>	Nicolson and Schenck (1979)
		<i>Glomus clarus</i>	Nicolson and Schenck (1979)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Rao and Parvathi (1982)
<i>Antemisia maritima</i>	Wormwood	<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Asparagus officinalis</i>	Asparagus	<i>Glomus constrictus</i>	Daniels and Menge (1981)
		<i>G. epigaeus</i>	
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	
<i>Aster</i>	Aster		
<i>A. macrophyllus</i>		Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982)
<i>A. tripolium</i>		Nonspecific	Hayman (1974)
<i>Astragalus</i>	Milk-vetch		
<i>A. psilacanthus</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>A. tribuloides</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Eacopa monnieri</i>	Water-hyssop	<i>Glomus mosseae</i>	Bagyaraj et al. (1979b); McGraw and Schenck (1981)
<i>Fidens pilosa</i>	Bur-marigold	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Blackstonia perfoliata</i>		Nonspecific	Gay et al. (1982)
<i>Erickellia frutescens</i>		<i>Glomus fasciculatum</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
		(Continued)	

Table A2 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Eupatorium falcatum</i>	Thoroughwax	Nonspecific	Hayman (1974)
<i>Cajanus cajan</i>	Pigeon-pea	<i>G. mosseae</i>	Zambolin and Schenck (1983)
<i>Callitriche hamulata</i>	Water-starwort	Nonspecific	Sondergaard and Laegaard (1977)
<i>Calluna vulgaris</i>	Heather	Nonspecific	Bradley et al. (1982)
<i>Calotropis procera</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Campanula rotundifolia</i>	Harebell	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Capsicum annuum</i>	Bellpepper	<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Hirrel and Gerdemann (1980)
		<i>Gigaspora margarita</i>	Hirrel and Gerdemann (1980)
<i>Capsicum frutescens</i>	Pepper	<i>Glomus mosseae</i>	Marx (1975)
<i>Caruldovicia palmata</i>		Nonspecific	Janos (1980)
<i>Cassia</i>			
<i>C. armata</i>		<i>G. epigaeum</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
		<i>Glomus</i> sp.	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
<i>C. fruticosa</i>		Nonspecific	Janos (1980)
<i>Castilla elastica</i>		Nonspecific	Janos (1980)
<i>Centaurea nigra</i>	Knapweed	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Centaureum erythraea</i>	Centaury	Nonspecific	Gay et al. (1982)
<i>Centrosema</i> sp.	Butterfly pea	Nonspecific	Hayman (1980)
		<i>G. epigaeus</i>	McGraw and Schenck (1981)
		<i>G. etunicatus</i>	McGraw and Schenck (1981)
<i>Chrysanthemum morifolium</i>	Chrysanthemum	<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	Johnson et al. (1982a); McGraw and Schenck (1981)
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i>	McGraw and Schenck (1981)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	McGraw and Schenck (1981)
<i>Circaea alpina</i>	Enchanter's nightshade	Nonspecific	Hayman (1974)
<i>Clintonia borealis</i>	Bluebead-lily	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>Convolvulus spinosus</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)

(Continued)

Table A2 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Opuntia trifoliata</i>	Goldthread	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>Quercus embotata</i>		<i>Glomus macrocarpus</i>	Bagyaraj et al. (1979b); McGraw and Schenck (1981)
<i>Lactydomiza maculata</i>	Orchid	Nonspecific	Scannerini and Bonfante-Pasolo (1983)
<i>Lycium aurea</i>	Carrot	<i>G. mosseae</i>	Schenck and Kellam (1978)
<i>Echin. cactus acanthodes</i>		<i>G. epigaeum</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
		<i>G. intranidices</i>	
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	
		<i>Glomus</i> sp.	
<i>Emmoneurus engelmannii</i>	Cactus	<i>Glomus epigaeum</i>	
		<i>Glomus</i> sp.	
<i>Echinops echinatus</i>	Globe-thistle	<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Eichhornia crassipes</i>	Waterhyacinth	Nonspecific	Spitko, Tattar, and Rohde (1978)
<i>Eptilobium angustifolium</i>	Fireweed	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982)
<i>Eremosackys leasifolia</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Eriogonum</i> sp.	Umbrella-plant	Nonspecific	Malloch et al. (1980)
<i>E. fasciculatum</i>		<i>Glomus epigaeum</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
<i>E. nodosum</i>		<i>Glomus mosseae</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
<i>Eupatorium coelestinum</i>	Mistflower	<i>G. mosseae</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
<i>Euphorbia</i>	Spurge	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>E. polycarpa</i>		<i>Glomus epigaeum</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
<i>E. pulcherrima</i>	Poinsettia	<i>Glomus</i> sp.	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Schenck (1981); Schenck and Kellam (1978)
<i>Euphrasia officinalis</i>	Eyebright	<i>Gigaspora margarita</i>	Maronek et al. (1981)
		Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)

(Continued)

Table A2 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Filipendula ulmaria</i>	Queen-of-the-meadow	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Fragaria</i> sp.	Strawberry	<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Gerdemann (1974)
<i>F. chiloensis</i> var. <i>anariassa</i>	Cultivated strawberry	Nonspecific	Schenck and Kellam (1978)
<i>F. vesca</i>	Woodland strawberry	Nonspecific	Schenck and Kellam (1978)
<i>Franseria dumosa</i>		<i>Glomus epigaeum</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
		<i>Glomus</i> sp.	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
<i>Galium</i>	Bedstraw		
<i>G. serotile</i>	Heath-bedstraw	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>G. sterneri</i>		Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>G. triflorum</i>	Sweet-scented bedstraw	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982)
<i>Gentianella amarella</i> (= <i>Gentiana amarella</i>)	Felwort	Nonspecific	Gay et al. (1982)
<i>Geranium robertianum</i>	Geranium	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Glycine</i>			
<i>G. hispida</i>		Nonspecific	Strzemiński (1974)
<i>G. max</i> *	Soybean	Nonspecific	Schenck and Kellam (1978)
		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Gerdemann (1974)
		<i>Gigaspora gigantea</i>	Carling and Brown (1980); Nicolson and Johnston (1979); Ross (1980)
		<i>G. heterogama</i>	Schenck and Kellam (1978)
		<i>G. margarita</i>	Schenck and Kellam (1978)
		<i>Glomus caledonius</i>	Carling and Brown (1980)
		(Continued)	

* All genera and species followed by an asterisk in this table were listed by Landin (1978) as "Selected Upland Plant Species for Habitat Development on Dredged Material Sites." When only the genus exhibits an asterisk, Landin has listed a different species from the one (if any) cited here.

Table A2 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>J. mdr</i> (cont'd)		<i>G. clarus</i>	Nicolson and Schenck (1979)
		<i>G. epigaeus</i>	Carling and Brown (1980)
		<i>G. etunicatus</i>	Carling and Brown (1980); Schenck (1981)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Bagyaraj et al. (1979a); Bethlenfalvay et al. (1981), (1982b), (1982c); Carling and Brown (1980); Carling et al. (1979); Groth and Martinson (1983); Nicolson and Schenck (1979); Yost and Fox (1982)
		<i>G. geosporum</i>	Brewer and Heagle (1983)
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i>	Schenck and Kellam (1978)
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i> var. <i>geosporus</i>	Nicolson and Schenck (1979); Ross (1980); Schneek and Kellam (1978)
		<i>Glomus mosseae</i>	Asimi et al. (1980); Carling and Brown (1980); Gianinazzi-Pearson et al. (1981); Groth and Martinson (1983); Marx (1975); Nicolson and Schenck (1979); Schenck and Kellam (1978); Zambolin and Schenck (1983)
<i>Gossypium hirsutum</i>	Cotton	<i>G. microcarpus</i>	Carling and Brown (1980)
		<i>Acaulospora trappaei</i>	Nicolson and Schenck (1979)
		<i>Gigaspora margarita</i>	Pugh et al. (1981); Schenck and Kellam (1978)
		<i>Glomus constrictus</i>	Daniels and Menge (1981)
		<i>G. epigaeus</i>	Daniels and Menge (1981)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Bagyaraj and Manjunath (1980); Daniels and Menge (1981); Schenck (1981)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Daniels and Menge (1981); Marx (1975); Schenck and Kellam (1978)
<i>Gurania spinulosa</i>		Nonspecific	Janos (1980)
<i>Guthierrezia sarothrae</i>		<i>G. fasciculatum</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
		(Continued)	

Table A2 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Gymnocarpium dryopteris</i>		Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982)
<i>Lamprocarpum appendiculata</i>		Nonspecific	Janos (1980)
<i>Helianthemum chamaecristus</i>	Rockrose	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Heliotropium ophioglossum</i>	Turnsole	<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Hertia intermedia</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Hieracium pilosella</i>	Mouse-ear	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Hydrocotyle bonariensis</i>	Water pennywort	Nonspecific	Koske (1975)
<i>Hymenoclea salsola</i>		<i>Glomus epigaeum</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
		<i>Glomus</i> sp.	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
<i>Hyptis</i>	Bittermints		
<i>H. capitata</i>		Nonspecific	Janos (1980)
<i>H. obtusiflora</i>		Nonspecific	Janos (1980)
<i>Inula grantioides</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Ipomoea pes-caprae</i>	Morning-glory	<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Iris stocksii</i>	Iris	<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Isoetes lacustris</i>	Quillwort	Nonspecific	Sondergaard and Laegaard (1977)
<i>Isomeris arborea</i>		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
<i>Iathyrus</i>	Vetchling		
<i>L. japonicus</i> var. <i>glaber</i>		<i>Acaulospora scrobiculata</i>	Koske (1981)
		<i>Gigaspora calospora</i>	
		<i>G. gigantea</i>	
		<i>Gigaspora</i> sp.	
		<i>Glomus etunicatus</i>	
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	
<i>L. sylvestris</i>	Flatpea	Nonspecific	Lambert and Cole (1980)
<i>Lauanaea procumbens</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
		(Continued)	

Table A2 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Lens esculenta</i>	Lentil	Nonspecific	Strzemiński (1974)
<i>Leontodon hispidus</i>	Hawkbit	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Lepidospartum squamatum</i>		<i>Glomus fasciculatum</i>	Bethlenfalvai et al. (1984)
		<i>G. intraradices</i>	Bethlenfalvai et al. (1984)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Bethlenfalvai et al. (1984)
<i>Lespedeza bicolor</i>	Bush-clover	Nonspecific	Barnhill (1981)
<i>Lilium longiflorum</i>	Easter lily	<i>Acaulospora trappet</i>	Maronek et al. (1981)
<i>Linnaea borealis</i>	Twinline	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>Linum catharticum</i>	Fairy-flax	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Littorella uniflora</i> (= <i>L. americana</i>)		Nonspecific	Sondergaard and Laegaard (1977)
<i>Lobelia dortmanna</i>	Water-lobelia	Nonspecific	Sondergaard and Laegaard (1977)
<i>Lotus</i>	Birdsfoot trefoil		
<i>L. corniculatus</i>		Nonspecific	Lambert and Cole (1980); Lambert et al. (1980a); Read et al. (1976); Strzemiński (1974)
<i>L. pedunculatus</i>	Grasslands maku	<i>Gigaspora margarita</i>	Powell and Sithamparanathan (1977)
<i>L. uliginosus</i>	Greater birdsfoot trefoil	Nonspecific	Strzemiński (1974)
		<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	Powell and Daniel (1978)
<i>Ludwigia</i>	False loosestrife		
<i>L. adscendens</i>		Nonspecific	Bagyaraj et al. (1979b)
<i>L. octovalvis</i>		Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>L. peruviana</i>	Primrose willow	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Luffa actangula</i>	Angular gourd	<i>Glomus mosseae</i>	Rao and Parvathi (1982)
<i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i>	Common tomato	Nonspecific	Phillips and Hayman (1970)
		<i>Glomus constrictus</i>	Daniels and Menge (1981)
		<i>G. epigaeus</i>	Daniels and Menge (1981); McGraw and Schenck (1981)

(Continued)

Table A2 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i> (cont'd)		<i>G. etunicatus</i>	McGraw and Schenck (1981)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Bagyaraj and Menge (1978); Daniels and Menge (1981); McGraw and Schenck (1981)
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i>	McGraw and Schenck (1981)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Daniels and Menge (1981); McGraw and Schenck (1981); Rao and Parvathi (1982); Schenck (1981); Schenck and Kellam (1978)
<i>Maianthemum canadense</i>	False lily-of-the-valley	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>Manihot esculenta</i>	Cassava	Nonspecific	Hayman (1980); Howeler et al. (1982); Yost and Fox (1979)
		<i>Glomus mosseae</i>	Kang et al. (1980)
<i>Medicago</i>			
<i>M. lupulina</i>	Black medic	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976); Strzemska (1974)
<i>M. sativa</i> *	Alfalfa, lucerne	Nonspecific	Lambert et al. (1980c); Smith and Bowen (1979); Schenck and Kellam (1978)
		<i>Acaulospora laevis</i>	Schenck and Kellam (1978)
		<i>A. trappei</i>	O'Bannon et al. (1980)
		<i>Gigaspora margarita</i>	Carling and Brown (1980)
		<i>Glomus caledonius</i>	Owusu-Bennoah and Mosse (1979)
		<i>G. deserticola</i>	Steinberg (1982)
		<i>G. epigaeus</i>	O'Bannon et al. (1980)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Lambert et al. (1980b); O'Bannon et al. (1980); Steinberg (1982)
		<i>G. monosporus</i>	O'Bannon et al. (1980)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Azcon-Aguilar and Barea (1981); Barea and Azcon-Aguilar (1982); Black and Tinker (1979); Lambert et al. (1980b); O'Bannon et al. (1980); Steinberg (1982)

(Continued)

Table A2 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Melilotus albus</i>	Melilot, sweet clover	Nonspecific	Koske et al. (1975); Meador (1977); Strzemiński (1974)
<i>Mercurialis perennis</i>	Mercury	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Nyctophylus alterniflorum</i>	Watermilfoil	Nonspecific	Sondergaard and Laegaard (1977)
<i>Nerium indicum</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Nicotiana tabacum</i>	Tobacco	Nonspecific	Phillips and Hayman (1970); Scannerini and Bonfante-Fasolo (1983)
		<i>Acaulospora gerdemannii</i>	Nicolson and Schenck (1979)
		<i>A. trappet</i>	Nicolson and Schenck (1979)
		<i>Gigaspora gigantea</i>	Schenck and Kellam (1978)
		<i>G. margarita</i>	Csinos (1981)
		<i>Glomus margarita</i>	Nicolson and Schenck (1979)
		<i>Glomus microcarpus</i>	Nicolson and Schenck (1979)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Schenck (1981); Schenck and Kellam (1978)
<i>Nymphaea stellata</i>	Waterlily	Nonspecific	Bagyaraj et al. (1979b)
<i>Ocotea naga</i>		Nonspecific	Janos (1980)
<i>Oenothera lutea</i>	Sainfoin	Nonspecific	Strzemiński (1974)
<i>Oenothera lutea</i>	Cactus		
<i>O. acanthocarpa</i>		<i>G. epigaeum</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
<i>O. lasiocarpa</i>		<i>Glomus</i> sp.	
<i>O. bigelovii</i>		<i>G. mosseae</i>	
<i>O. echinocarpa</i>		<i>G. epigaeum</i>	
<i>O. rhodantha</i>		<i>Glomus</i> sp.	
		<i>G. epigaeum</i>	
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	
		Nonspecific	Call (1981); Call and McKell (1982)

(Continued)

Table A2 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Ornithogalum</i>	Star-of-bethlehem	Nonspecific	Scannerini and Bonfante-Fasolo (1983)
<i>O. umbellatum</i>	Nap-at-noon	<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Scannerini and Bonfante-Fasolo (1983)
<i>Ornithopus sativus</i>	Common serradella	Nonspecific	Strzemiński (1974)
<i>Oxalis acetosella</i> (= <i>O. montana</i>)	Common wood-sorrel	Nonspecific	Hayman (1974)
<i>Pelalonix thurberi</i>		<i>Glomus mosseae</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
		<i>Glomus</i> sp.	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
<i>Pentactlethra</i>		Nonspecific	Janos (1980)
<i>P. macroloba</i>	Silkvine	<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Periploca aphylla</i>	Sweet coltsfoot	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982)
<i>Petasites palmatus</i>	Petunia	Nonspecific	Schenck and Kellam (1978)
<i>Petunia violacea</i>	Kidney-bean		
<i>Phaseolus</i>			
<i>P. aureus</i>	Green gram	<i>G. mosseae</i>	Rao and Parvathi (1982)
<i>P. mungo</i>	Black gram	<i>G. mosseae</i>	Rao and Parvathi (1982)
<i>P. vulgaris</i>	Common bean	Nonspecific	Howeler et al. (1982); Phillips and Hayman (1970); Scannerini and Bonfante-Fasolo (1983); Strzemiński (1974); Sutton and Sheppard (1976)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1982a)
		<i>Glomus</i> sp.	Clough and Sutton (1978); Sutton and Sheppard (1976)
<i>Pisum</i> (=Lathyrus)	Vetchling		
<i>P. arvense</i>	Field pea	Nonspecific	Strzemiński (1974)
<i>P. sativum</i>	Garden pea	Nonspecific	Scannerini and Bonfante-Fasolo (1983); Strzemiński (1974)
<i>Pithecellobium longifolium</i>	Cat claw	Nonspecific	Janos (1980)

(Continued)

(Sheet 11 of 15)

Table A2 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Plantago</i>	Plantain		
<i>P. lanceolata</i>	Ribgrass	Nonspecific	Christie et al. (1978); Whittingham and Read (1982)
<i>P. ovata</i>	Isbagol	<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	Mexal (1980)
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i>	Mexal (1980)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Mexal (1980)
		Nonspecific	Janos (1980)
<i>Ponteria lucentifolia</i>			
<i>Potentilla</i>	Cinquefoil		
<i>P. erecta</i>		Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>P. tabernaemontani</i>		Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Poterium sanguisorba</i> (= <i>Sanguisorba minor</i>)	Garden burnet	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Pteridium aquilinum</i>	Bracken fern	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>Pueraria phaseoloides</i>		Nonspecific	Waidyanatha and Ariyaratne (1979)
<i>Pyrola secunda</i>	Shinleaf	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982)
<i>Rhazya stricta</i>	Dogbane	<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Rubus</i>	Bramble		
<i>R. idaeus</i>	Raspberry	Nonspecific	Scannerini and Bonfante-Fasolo (1983)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Morandi et al. (1979); Hughes et al. (1979)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Morandi et al. (1979)
		<i>G. tenuis</i>	Morandi et al. (1979)
		Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>R. saxatilis</i>	Salvinia	Nonspecific	Bagyaraj et al. (1979b)
<i>Salvinia cucullata</i>	Garden-burnet	Nonspecific	Gay et al. (1982)
<i>Sanguisorba minor</i>		Nonspecific	Call (1981); Call and McKell (1982)
<i>Sarcobatus vermiculatus</i>		Nonspecific	Janos (1980)
<i>Sickingia maxonii</i>			

(Continued)

Table A2 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Sida rhombifolia</i>			
<i>Solanum</i>	Nightshade	Nonspecific	Janos (1980)
<i>S. quitoense</i>		Nonspecific	
<i>S. rugosum</i>		Nonspecific	
<i>S. surattense</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>S. tuberosum</i>	Potato	Nonspecific	Hayman (1980); Ocampo and Hayman (1980)
		<i>Glomus macrocarpus</i>	Swaminathan and Verma (1979)
<i>Solidago</i> (=Brachystegia)	Goldenrod	Nonspecific	Mahloch et al. (1980)
<i>S. sempervirens</i>	Seaside goldenrod	<i>Acaulospora scrobiculata</i>	Koske (1981)
		<i>Gigaspora gigantea</i>	
		<i>Gigaspora</i> sp.	
		<i>Glomus etunicatus</i>	
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	
<i>Soracea pubivena</i>		Nonspecific	Janos (1980)
<i>Sphagnum</i> sp.		<i>Endogone pisiformis</i>	Berch and Fortin (1983a)
<i>Stemmadenia donnell-smithii</i>		Nonspecific	Janos (1980)
<i>Streptopus roseus</i>	Rose mandarin	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982)
<i>Stylosanthes</i> spp.	Wild bean	Nonspecific	Hayman (1980)
<i>S. guyanensis</i>		Nonspecific	Waidyanatha and Ariyaratne (1979)
<i>S. hamata</i>		Nonspecific	Yost and Fox (1979)
<i>Tagetes palulius</i>	Marigold	<i>G. monosporum</i>	Plenchette et al. (1983a), (1983b)
<i>Tetrademia canescens</i>		Nonspecific	Call (1981); Call and McKell (1982)
<i>Terminalis oblonga</i>		Nonspecific	Janos (1980)
<i>Teucrium scorodonia</i>	Wood-sage	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Thymus drucei</i>	Thyme	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)

(Continued)

Table A2 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Trifolium borealis</i>	Starflower	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>Trifolium</i> spp.	Clover	<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Koske et al. (1975)
		<i>Glomus etunicatus</i>	Rangeley et al. (1982)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Rangeley et al. (1982)
<i>T. hybridum</i>	Swedish clover	Nonspecific	Strzemski (1974)
	Alsike clover	<i>Acaulospora laevis</i>	Schenck and Kellam (1978)
<i>T. pratense</i> *	Red clover	Nonspecific	Strzemski (1974)
		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Gerdemann (1974)
		<i>Gigaspora margarita</i>	Powell and Sithamparanathan (1977)
		<i>Glomus etunicatus</i>	Rangeley et al. (1982)
		<i>G. gigantea</i>	Lambert et al. (1980b)
<i>T. repens</i> *	White clover	Nonspecific	Christie et al. (1978); Scannerini and Bonfante-Fasolo (1983); Strzemski (1974); Tisdall and Oades (1979)
		<i>Gigaspora margarita</i>	Buwalda (1980); Crush and Caradus (1980); Powell and Daniel (1978); Powell and Sithamparanathan (1977)
		<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	Crush and Caradus (1980); Hayman and Mosse (1979); Powell and Daniel (1978)
		<i>Glomus mosseae</i>	Crush and Caradus (1980); Hayman and Mosse (1979)
		<i>G. tenuis</i>	Buwalda (1980); Powell and Daniel (1978)
<i>T. subterraneum</i>	Subterranean clover	Nonspecific	Chambers et al. (1980a), (1980b); Smith (1982); Smith and Bowen (1979); Smith and Smith (1981)
		<i>Glomus caledonium</i>	Beilby (1983)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Abbott and Robson (1978)
		<i>G. monosporus</i>	Abbott and Robson (1978)
		<i>G. mosseae</i> (= <i>Endogone mosseae</i>)	Bevege et al. (1975); Chambers et al. (1980a) (1980b)
		(Continued)	

Table A2 (Concluded)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Trigonella faenugraecum</i>	Fenugreek	Nonspecific	Strzemski (1974)
<i>Veconicbea pleiostemona</i>		Nonspecific	Janos (1980)
<i>Verbascum erianthum</i>	Mullein	<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Vernonia</i>	Ironweed		
<i>V. cinerea</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>V. chamaedrys</i>	Bird's-eye	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Vicia</i>	Vetch		
<i>V. faba major</i>	Broad bean	Nonspecific	Strzemski (1974)
<i>V. faba minor</i>	Horse bean	Nonspecific	
<i>V. sativa</i>	Common vetch	Nonspecific	
<i>V. villosa</i>	Hairy vetch	Nonspecific	
<i>Vigna unguiculata</i>	Cowpea	Nonspecific	Howeler et al. (1982); Yost and Fox (1979)
<i>Viola</i>	Violet		
<i>V. biflora</i>		Nonspecific	Hayman (1974)
<i>V. lutea</i>		Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>V. renifolia</i>		Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982)
<i>V. riviniana</i>		Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Viole koschnyi</i>		Nonspecific	Janos (1980)
<i>Withania</i>			
<i>W. coagulans</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>W. somnifera</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Yucca schidigera</i>	Yucca	<i>Glomus intraradices</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
<i>Ziziphus</i>			
<i>Z. jujuba</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Z. nummularia</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Z. rotundifolia</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)

Table A3

Grasses, Sedges, and Rushes Exhibiting Mycorrhizae

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Agropyron</i>			
<i>A. junceiforme</i>		<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	Nicolson and Johnston (1979)
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i>	Nicolson and Johnston (1979)
<i>A. smithii</i>		Nonspecific	Call (1981); Call and McKell (1982)
<i>A. trachycaulum</i>		Nonspecific	Zak and Parkinson (1982), (1983)
<i>Agrostis</i>	Bentgrass		
<i>A. campestris</i>		Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>A. tenuis</i>	Rhode Island bentgrass	Nonspecific	Lawley et al. (1982); Read et al. (1976)
<i>Ammophila</i>	Sand-reed		
<i>A. arenaria</i> *	European beachgrass	<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Nicolson and Johnston (1979)
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i>	Nicolson and Johnston (1979)
<i>A. breviligulata</i>	Beachgrass	<i>Acaulospora scrobiculata</i>	Koske (1981)
		<i>Gigaspora calospora</i>	
		<i>G. gigantea</i>	
		<i>Gigaspora</i> sp.	
		<i>Glomus etunicatus</i>	
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	
<i>Andropogon</i> sp.	Beardgrass	<i>Glomus</i> sp.	Clough and Sutton (1978); Sutton and Sheppard (1976)
<i>Anthoxanthum odoratum</i>	Sweet vernal grass	Nonspecific	Christie et al. (1978); Read et al. (1976)
<i>Arrhenatherum elatius</i>	Tall oatgrass	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
		(Continued)	

* All genera and species followed by an asterisk in this table were listed by Landin (1978) as "Selected Upland Plant Species for Habitat Development on Dredged Material Sites." When only the genus exhibits an asterisk, Landin has listed a different species from the one (if any) cited here.

Table A3 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Avena sativa</i>	Oats	Nonspecific	Schenck and Kellam (1978); Strzemski (1974)
<i>Bromus</i>	Brome-grass		
<i>B. catharticus</i>	Prairie grass	<i>Gigaspora margarita</i>	Powell and Sithamparanathan (1977)
<i>B. erectus</i>		Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>B. tectorus</i>		Nonspecific	Call (1981); Call and McKell (1982)
<i>Bouteloua gracilis</i>	Rangeland grass	<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	Allen (1982); Allen et al. (1981)
<i>Briza media</i>	Quaking grass	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Calamagrostis canadensis</i>	Reed grass	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1982)
		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Koske et al. (1975)
		<i>G. sp.</i>	Clough and Sutton (1978); Sutton and Sheppard (1976)
<i>Calamovilfa longiflora</i>			
<i>Carex flacca</i>	Sedge	Nonspecific	Gay et al. (1982); Read et al. (1976)
<i>Cenchrus pennisetiformis</i>	Sandbur	<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Cyperus eleusinoides</i>	Calingale	<i>G. etunicatus</i>	Bagyaraj et al. (1979b); McGraw and Schenck (1981)
<i>Dactylis glomerata</i>	Orchard-grass	<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Koske et al. (1975)
<i>Deschampsia</i>	Hairgrass		
<i>D. caespitosa</i>	Tufted hairgrass	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>D. flexuosa</i>	Common hairgrass	Nonspecific	Abbott and Robson (1978); Read et al. (1976)
<i>Digitaria decumbens</i>	Pangola digit grass	<i>Sclerocystis coremioides</i>	Nicolson and Schenck (1979)
<i>Echinochloa colonum</i>	Jungle rice	<i>G. epigaeus</i>	Bagyaraj et al. (1979b); McGraw and Schenck (1981)
<i>Eleocharis palustris</i>	Spike-rush	Nonspecific	Sondergaard and Laegaard (1977)
<i>Eleusine covacana</i>	Finger millet	<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	Bagyaraj and Manjunath (1980)
<i>Elymus</i> sp.	Rye	Nonspecific	Strzemski (1974)

(Continued)

Table A3 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Festuca</i>	Fescue-grass		
<i>F. arizonica</i>		<i>Gigaspora calospora</i>	Molina and Trappe (1978)
		<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i> var. <i>geosporus</i>	
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i> var. <i>macrocarpus</i>	
		<i>Glomus microcarpus</i>	
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	
		<i>Sclerocystis rubiformis</i>	
<i>F. arundinacea</i>	Tall fescue	Nonspecific	Lambert and Cole (1980)
		<i>Gigaspora margarita</i>	Powell and Sithamparanathan (1977)
<i>F. idahoensis</i>		<i>Acaulospora laevis</i>	Molina and Trappe (1978)
		<i>Gigaspora calospora</i>	
		<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i> var. <i>macrocarpus</i>	
		<i>G. microcarpus</i>	
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	
		<i>G. tenuis</i>	
<i>F. littoralis</i>		Nonspecific	Koske (1975)
<i>F. occidentalis</i>		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Ho and Trappe (1975)
<i>F. ovina</i>	Sheep's-fescue	Nonspecific	Gay et al. (1982); Lawley et al. (1982); Read et al. (1976); Whittingham and Read (1982)
<i>F. rubra</i>	Rough fescue	nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>F. scabrella</i>		<i>Acaulospora laevis</i>	Molina and Trappe (1978)
		<i>Gigaspora calospora</i>	Molina and Trappe (1978)

(Continued)

Table A3 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>F. scabrella</i> (cont'd)		<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	Molina and Trappe (1978)
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i> var. <i>macrocarpus</i>	
		<i>G. microcarpus</i>	
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	
		<i>G. tenuis</i>	
<i>F. turberi</i>		<i>A. laevis</i>	
		<i>Gigaspora calospora</i>	
		<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i> var. <i>macrocarpus</i>	
<i>F. viridula</i>		<i>A. laevis</i>	
		<i>A. scrobiculata</i>	
		<i>Gigaspora calospora</i>	
		<i>Glomus fasciculatus</i>	
		<i>Glomus macrocarpus</i> var. <i>geosporus</i>	
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i> var. <i>macrocarpus</i>	
		<i>G. microcarpus</i>	
		<i>G. tenuis</i>	
<i>Glyceria plicata</i>	Manna-grass	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Helictotrichon pubescens</i>		Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Hilaria rigida</i>		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Bethlenfalvay et al. (1984)
<i>Holcus lanatus</i>	Velvet-grass	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Hordeum</i>	Barley		
<i>H. distichon</i>		<i>G. caledonius</i>	Owusu-Bennoah and Mosse (1979)
		(Continued)	

Table A3 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>H. distichon</i> (cont'd)		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Black and Tinker (1979)
<i>H. vulgare</i> *	Cultivated barley	Nonspecific	Hayman (1980); Jensen and Jakobsen (1980); Ocampo and Hayman (1980); Strzemska (1974)
		<i>Gigaspora margarita</i>	Powell (1981)
		<i>Glomus caledonius</i>	Owusu-Bennoah and Mosse (1979)
		<i>G. constrictus</i>	Jensen (1982)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Jensen (1982); Powell (1981)
		<i>G. margarita</i>	Jensen (1982)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Black and Tinker (1979); Jakobsen and Anderson (1982); Powell (1981)
<i>Koeleria cristata</i>		Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Lolium perenne</i> *	Rye grass	Nonspecific	Christie et al. (1978); Lambert and Cole (1980); Ponder (1979); (1980); Read et al. (1976); Tisdall and Oades (1979)
		<i>Gigaspora margarita</i>	Buwalda (1980); Powell (1979a)
		<i>Glomus tenuis</i>	Buwalda (1980); Powell (1979a)
<i>Luzula</i>	Woodrush	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>L. campestris</i> (=L. <i>tubosa</i>)		Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>L. pilosa</i>		<i>Gigaspora margarita</i>	Lopes et al. (1980)
<i>Macropodium atropurpureum</i>	Siratro	Nonspecific	Phillips and Hayman (1970); Read et al. (1976)
<i>Nardus stricta</i>	Matgrass	<i>Glomus mosseae</i>	Hepper and Smith (1976)
<i>Oryza sativa</i>	Rice	Nonspecific	Howeler et al. (1982)
<i>Oryzopsis</i>	Mountain rice	Nonspecific	Malloch and Malloch (1981)
<i>O. asperifolia</i>			

(Continued)

(Sheet 5 of 8)

Table A3 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>O. hymenoides</i>	Silkgrass	Nonspecific	Call (1981); Call and McKell (1982)
<i>Panicum</i>	Panic-grass		
<i>P. bartolense</i>	Fall panic-grass	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>P. maximum</i>		<i>Glomus fasciculatum</i>	Krisna and Bagyaraj (1983)
<i>P. purpurascens</i> (= <i>Brachiaria purpurascens</i>)	Para grass	Nonspecific	Meador (1977)
<i>Paspalum notatum</i> *	Bahia grass	Nonspecific	Abbott and Robson (1977)
		<i>Acaulospora gerdemannii</i>	Nicolson and Schenck (1979)
		<i>Gigaspora gregaria</i>	
		<i>G. nigra</i>	
		<i>G. sinuosa</i>	
		<i>Glomus clarus</i>	
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	
		<i>G. fulvus</i>	
		<i>G. gerdemannii</i>	
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i> var. <i>geosporus</i>	
		<i>G. pellucida</i>	
		<i>G. rosea</i>	
		<i>G. tenuis</i>	
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Rao and Parvathi (1982)
<i>Pennisetum typhoides</i>	Pearl millet		
<i>Phalaris</i>	Canary-grass		
<i>P. arundinacea</i>	Reed canary-grass	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>P. tuberosa</i>		<i>Gigaspora margarita</i>	Powell and Sithamparanathan (1977)
<i>Phragmites australis</i>	Common reed	Nonspecific	Sondergaard and Laegaard (1977)

(Continued)

(Sheet 6 of 8)

Table A3 (Continued)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Poa trivialis</i>	Rough-stalked meadow grass	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Saccharum</i>	Sugarcane		
<i>S. munja</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>S. officinarum</i>	Sugarcane	Nonspecific	Phillips and Hayman (1970)
<i>S. spontaneum</i>		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Scirpus nodosus</i>	Bulrush	Nonspecific	Koske (1975)
<i>Sieglingia decumbens</i>	Heath-grass	Nonspecific	Read et al. (1976)
<i>Sorghum</i>	Sorghum	Nonspecific	Sieverding (1979)
		<i>Glomus mosseae</i>	Marx (1975)
<i>S. bicolor</i>		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Bagyaraj and Manjunath (1980)
<i>S. bicolor</i> var. <i>sudanense</i> *	Sudan grass	<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Hall and Armstrong (1979); Manjunath and Bagyaraj (1981); Manjunath et al. (1983)
<i>S. sudanense</i>	Sudan grass	Nonspecific	Ponder (1979), (1980)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Mehraveran (1977)
<i>S. vulgare</i> *	Sudan grass	Nonspecific	Ratnayake et al. (1978)
		<i>Gigaspora margarita</i>	Carling and Brown (1980)
		<i>Glomus constrictus</i>	Daniels and Menge (1981)
		<i>G. epigaeus</i>	Daniels and Menge (1981)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Crush and Caradus (1980); Daniels and Menge (1981); Schwab et al. (1983)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Daniels and Menge (1981); Rao and Parvathi (1982)
<i>Sporobolus arabicus</i>	Drop-seed	<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Khan (1974)
<i>Stenotaphrum secundatum</i>	St. Augustine grass	Nonspecific	Koske (1975)
		<i>E. calospora</i>	Koske (1975)
		<i>E. gigantea</i>	Koske (1975)

(Continued)

Table A3 (Concluded)

Plant Scientific Name	Plant Common Name	Fungus Scientific Name	References
<i>Stipa comata</i>	Feathergrass	Nonspecific	Call (1981); Call and McKell (1982)
<i>Triticum</i>	Wheat	Nonspecific	Hayman (1980); Jensen and Jakobsen (1980); Strzemiński (1974)
		<i>Glomus macrocarpus</i>	Swaminathan and Verma (1979)
<i>T. aestivum</i> *	Spring wheat	Nonspecific	Schenck and Kellam (1978)
	Jubilar wheat	<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Jalali and Domsh (1975)
		<i>G. fasciculatum</i>	Larson et al. (1983)
		<i>G. macrocarpum</i>	
		<i>G. microcarpum</i>	
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	
<i>Zea</i>			
<i>Z. diploperennis</i>		Nonspecific	Scannerini and Bonfante-Fasolo (1983)
<i>Z. mays</i> *	Corn, maize	Nonspecific	Hayman (1980); Howeler et al. (1982); Ocampo and Hayman (1980); Schawb and Reeves (1981)
		<i>Acaulospora gerdemannii</i>	Nicolson and Schenck (1979)
		<i>A. trappei</i>	Nicolson and Schenck (1979)
		<i>Endogone</i> sp.	Gerdemann (1974)
		<i>G. constrictus</i>	Daniels and Menge (1981)
		<i>G. epigaeus</i>	Daniels and Menge (1981)
		<i>G. fasciculatus</i>	Daniels and Menge (1981); Groth and Martinson (1983); Lindsey et al. (1977); Schawb and Reeves (1981)
		<i>G. macrocarpus</i>	Swaminathan and Verma (1979)
		<i>G. mosseae</i>	Covey et al. (1981); Daniels and Menge (1981); Groth and Martinson (1983); Lindsey et al. (1977); Marx (1975); Rao and Parvathi (1982); Schenck and Kellam (1978)

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