Fungal decomposers of leaf litter from an invaded and native mountain forest of NW Argentina

Romina Daiana Fernandez, Natalia Bulacio, Analía Álvarez, Hipólito Pajot & Roxana Aragón

Antonie van Leeuwenhoek Journal of Microbiology

ISSN 0003-6072

Antonie van Leeuwenhoek DOI 10.1007/s10482-017-0893-8 Volume 102 Number 3 October 2012

Antonie van Leeuwenhoek

Journal of Microbiology

Your article is protected by copyright and all rights are held exclusively by Springer International Publishing Switzerland. This eoffprint is for personal use only and shall not be self-archived in electronic repositories. If you wish to self-archive your article, please use the accepted manuscript version for posting on your own website. You may further deposit the accepted manuscript version in any repository, provided it is only made publicly available 12 months after official publication or later and provided acknowledgement is given to the original source of publication and a link is inserted to the published article on Springer's website. The link must be accompanied by the following text: "The final publication is available at link.springer.com".

ORIGINAL PAPER

Fungal decomposers of leaf litter from an invaded and native mountain forest of NW Argentina

Romina Daiana Fernandez · Natalia Bulacio · Analía Álvarez · Hipólito Pajot · Roxana Aragón

Received: 12 January 2017 / Accepted: 22 May 2017 - Springer International Publishing Switzerland 2017

Abstract The impact of plant species invasions on the abundance, composition and activity of fungal decomposers of leaf litter is poorly understood. In this study, we isolated and compared the relative abundance of ligninocellulolytic fungi of leaf litter mixtures from a native forest and a forest invaded by Ligustrum lucidum in a lower mountain forest of Tucuman, Argentina. In addition, we evaluated the relationship between the relative abundance of ligninocellulolytic fungi and properties of the soil of both forest types. Finally, we identified lignin degrading fungi and characterized their polyphenol oxidase activities. The relative abundance of ligninocellulolytic fungi was higher in leaf litter mixtures from the native forest. The abundance of cellulolytic fungi was negatively related with soil pH while the abundance of

R. D. Fernandez (\boxtimes) · R. Aragón Instituto de Ecología Regional (IER, UNT- CONICET), Casilla de Correo 34(4107), Yerba Buena, Tucumán, Argentina e-mail: romi.d.fernandez@gmail.com

N. Bulacio · A. Álvarez · H. Pajot Planta Piloto de Procesos Industriales Microbiológicos (PROIMI, CONICET), Avenida Belgrano y Pasaje Caseros(4000), San Miguel De Tucumán, Tucumán, Argentina

A. Álvarez · R. Aragón Facultad de Ciencias Naturales e IML (UNT), Miguel Lillo 205(4000), San Miguel De Tucumán, Tucumán, Argentina

ligninolytic fungi was positively related with soil humidity. We identified fifteen genera of ligninolytic fungi; four strains were isolated from both forest types, six strains only from the invaded forest and five strains were isolated only from the native forest. The results found in this study suggest that L. Lucidum invasion could alter the abundance and composition of fungal decomposers. Long-term studies that include an analysis of the nutritional quality of litter are needed, for a more complete overview of the influence of L. Lucidum invasion on fungal decomposers and on leaf litter decomposition.

Keywords Exotic plants - Fungal decomposers - Leaf litter · Lignocellulolytic activities · Ligustrum lucidum - Subtropical forest

Introduction

Most of the plant litter (around 80%) is degraded by microorganisms (Hättenschwiler et al. [2005\)](#page-12-0) and fungi play a key role (Alexopoulus et al. [1996;](#page-12-0) de Boer et al. [2005;](#page-12-0) Schneider et al. [2012](#page-13-0)). Plant litter is composed mostly of cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin that are used by decomposer fungi as a source of carbon and energy (Sánchez [2009](#page-13-0)). Litter degradation by fungi is possible due to the existence of enzymatic hydrolytic systems (mainly cellulases and hemicellulases) and oxidative extracellular ligninolytic systems

(composed of laccases, lignin peroxidases and/or manganese peroxidases) (Sánchez [2009\)](#page-13-0).

The abundance, composition and activity of fungi are influenced by the chemical composition and quantity of the litter produced by plant communities (Prescott and Grayston [2013](#page-13-0)). Particularly, the activity of fungi is influenced by the disposition of the structural components of the litter (Pérez et al. [2002](#page-13-0); Wardle et al. [2006\)](#page-13-0). Cellulose is generally present as a crystalline form and a small amount of non-organized cellulose chains form amorphous cellulose. Due to its arrangement, cellulose is more susceptible to enzymatic degradation than other leaf litter components (Pérez et al. [2002](#page-13-0)). For instance, hemicellulose (composed mainly of xylan) requires more enzymes for its complete degradation since it is a more heterogeneous polysaccharide than cellulose (Malherbe and Cloete [2002](#page-13-0)). In turn, lignin is a highly refractory and persistent aromatic polymer of complex structure, and is one of the major structural components of leaf litter (Hammel [1997\)](#page-12-0). Lignin arrangement makes the microbial degradation of other components of leaf litter more difficult; thus, decomposition of dead matter is limited by lignin (Berg [2000;](#page-12-0) Osono [2007;](#page-13-0) Berg and McClaugherty [2008](#page-12-0)).

In addition to plant litter quality, the microenvironment and soil parameters influence the structure, composition and activity of fungal decomposers (Pietikäinen et al. [2004](#page-13-0); De Angelis et al. [2013](#page-12-0)). In fact, temperature and soil humidity are the main factors determining fungal activity (Pietikäinen et al. [2004;](#page-13-0) Lauber et al. [2008\)](#page-13-0). However, it has also been recognized that the chemical characteristics of the soil, such as pH and nutritional properties are important drivers of the structure and activities of fungi (Lauber et al., [2008;](#page-13-0) Rousk et al. [2010](#page-13-0)).

Several studies have shown that biotic factors (such as quantity or quality of the substrate reaching the ground) and abiotic factors (e.g. soil properties, light availability) can be altered by the invasion of exotic plants (Ehrenfeld et al. [2001;](#page-12-0) Ashton et al. [2005](#page-12-0); Tateno et al. [2007;](#page-13-0) Aragón et al. [2014a](#page-12-0), [b;](#page-12-0) Slesak et al. [2016\)](#page-13-0). In turn, these changes may alter the composition, structure and functioning of fungal communities (Kourtev et al. [2003](#page-12-0); Osono et al. [2006;](#page-13-0) Broz et al. [2007;](#page-12-0) Stefanowicz et al. [2016\)](#page-13-0), which can consequently impact on ecosystem functioning (McGuire et al. [2010](#page-13-0)).

Exotic species are an important component of secondary forests in lower mountain forests (''Yungas") of northwestern Argentina (Grau and Aragón [2000\)](#page-12-0). Ligustrum lucidum W. T. Aiton (Oleaceae) (''Ligustrum''), specifically, is an important invasive woody species in the Yungas (Aragón and Groom [2003\)](#page-12-0) where it has expanded from 100 to 500 ha approximately in the last 20 years (Montti et al. Unpublished data). Numerous studies report the effects of L. lucidum in Yungas ecosystems. The species is a perennial tree which consumes more water than native vegetation and can therefore significantly alter water functioning of the ecosystem (Zamora Nasca et al. [2014\)](#page-13-0). *Ligustrum* forms dense, monospecific stands which modify soil temperature and the contribution of litter biomass to the soil (Aragón et al. $2014a$; Ayup et al. 2014). Its litter exhibits differences in chemical composition and stoichiometry and presents a higher decomposition rate than three of the most common native species of Yungas piedmont (Aragón et al. [2014a,](#page-12-0) [b\)](#page-12-0). In addition, Ligustrum invasion increases the activity of soil enzymes from microbial communities associated with carbon and nitrogen cycling (Aragón et al. [2014b](#page-12-0)). However, studies assessing the effect of Ligustrum invasion over fungal decomposers of leaf litter have not been reported.

The goal of this work was to isolate and compare the relative abundance of fungi with lignocellulolytic activity of leaf litter mixtures from a native secondary forests and a secondary forest invaded by L. lucidum in the Yungas of Tucuman, Argentina. Additionally, we intended to explore the relationship between relative fungi abundance and physical and chemical soil parameters (temperature, relative humidity and pH) of both forest types. Finally, we identified the lignin degrading fungi and we characterized their polyphenol oxidase activities. We hypothesized that the leaf litter mixtures of native forests are more heterogeneous in terms of species composition and they might provide of more diverse sources of carbon and energy. Therefore, we predicted that leaf litter mixtures from the native forest could have higher abundance of lignocellulolytic fungi than leaf litter from the invaded forest. In addition, the relationship of fungi abundance with physical and chemical soil parameters could be different in each forest type, as well as, the composition and activity of ligninolytic fungi.

Materials and methods

Study sites, sampling collection and soil parameters

The study was conducted in the lower mountain forests of Sierra de San Javier, Tucumán, Argentina $(26^{\circ}70^{\prime}S, 65^{\circ}35^{\prime}W)$. The study sites are within a protected area that belongs to the University of Tucumán. The native vegetation corresponds to a semi deciduous mountain forest (between 630 and 780 masl) of the Yungas ecoregion (Cabrera [1976](#page-12-0)). Annual rainfall is 1200 mm (90% in the summer) and average annual temperature is $18 \degree C$ (Bianchi [1981\)](#page-12-0). Many areas of the piedmont were deforested for agriculture (mainly citrus and sugar cane crops) and grazing during the early twentieth century (Grau et al. [1997\)](#page-12-0). However, in the last two decades many agricultural fields were abandoned and have initiated forest succession (Grau et al. [2008](#page-12-0)). Some secondary forests are native while others have been invaded by exotic species, mainly L. lucidum (Grau et al. [2008](#page-12-0)). Both forest types are different in structure and species composition. Native secondary forests present three strata: the canopy, dominated by trees such as Ocotea porphyria, Blepharocalyx salicifolius and Cupania vernalis; the subcanopy, dominated by Piper tucumanun, Eugenia uniflora and Allophylus edulis; and the understory, dominated by the shrub Psychotria carthagenensis (Malizia et al. [2010](#page-13-0)). Meanwhile, forests invaded by Ligustrum (from now on ''invaded forest'') exhibit a lower diversity of trees, shrubs and liana species (Aragón and Morales [2003](#page-12-0); Lichstein et al. [2004;](#page-13-0) Ceballos et al. [2015\)](#page-12-0) and a simplified vertical structure, with the canopy dominated by Ligustrum and the understory dominated by P. carthagenensis (Lichstein et al. [2004;](#page-13-0) Easdale et al. [2007](#page-12-0)). We used a paired design with 5 sites of each forest category (5 Native-invaded forest pairs). Tree density of all the invaded forest sites was higher than 500 ind./ha. Pairs were selected based on a high similarity in age, slope, altitude, soil type, and land-use history. The distance between the members of each pair went from 200 to 500 m. For more details about the location and characteristics of the sites see Aragón et al. $(2014a, b)$ $(2014a, b)$ $(2014a, b)$ $(2014a, b)$. At each site, three samples of mixtures of leaf litter (5 g each one) were collected in March 2015 (wet season). Mixtures of leaf litter from native forests were composed of freshly senesced leaves, mainly of O. porphyria, C. vernalis, A. edullis and P. carthagenensis, while 80% of mixtures of invaded forests were composed by leaf litter of L. lucidum. At each site a composite sample was obtained (5 g) and stored in plastic vials at 4° C until processing. Additionally, soil temperature, humidity and pH were registered. For temperature we took five measurements per site using a metallic thermometer in the morning (between 8 and 10 AM) on the same days that soil samples were collected. Prior to soil sampling, the litter and humus layer were removed. Using a hole borer, three samples were taken from the mineral horizon (0–10 cm) at each site, and were stored in polyethylene bags. In the laboratory, samples were oven-dried at 105° C for 48 h and the gravimetric soil water content was calculated as the difference between wet and dry weights and expressed as a percentage. Soil pH of each site was determined using a pH meter (Cole Parmer, USA).

Abundance of lignocellulolytic fungi from native and invaded forest

For assessing the abundance of lignocellulolytic fungi, leaf litter mixtures of each forest type were sectioned in small pieces. One gram of each mixture was placed in Erlenmeyer flasks containing 15 mL of wash solution (0.5% yeast extract, 0.1% glucose and 0.2% Tween 80) and the flasks were then incubated at 200 rpm, 25 °C for 30 min to separate the fungal cells from the leaf litter. The obtained suspensions were serially diluted and used to estimate the abundance of lignocellulolytic fungi. The abundance of cellulolytic fungi was estimated by spreading 0.1 ml of the suspension in Carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC)-agar [g 1^{-1} : 10 CMC, 20 agar, Yeast Nitrogen Base (YNB) (Sigma-Aldrich), pH 3.2–3.6]. The abundance of xylanolytic fungi was similarly estimated in Xylanagar (g 1^{-1} : 5 xylan, YNB, 20 agar, pH 3.2-3.6). Finally, the abundance of ligninolytic fungi was estimated by spreading 0.1 ml of the suspension in Guaiacol-agar (g 1^{-1} : 1/10 strength diluted acidic YM agar supplemented with 0.015 guaiacol, pH 3.5). All media were acidified with HCl 0.1 N, to restrict bacterial growth (Kurtzman et al. [2011](#page-12-0)).

Plates were incubated at 25° C and examined daily during five days. All colony forming units (CFU) of fungi growing on CMC or Xylan plates were considered as cellulolytic and xylanolytic, respectively and their abundances (CFU by g of leaf litter) were then calculated. On the other hand, only colonies surrounded by a reddish halo were considered as ligninolytic fungi (Saparrat and Hammer [2006](#page-13-0)) and were included to calculate their abundance. Colonies that represented different morphotypes of xylanolytic, cellulolytic and ligninolytic fungi were sub-cultured onto acid YM agar medium (g $1^{-1}:10$ glucose, 5 peptone, 3 yeast extract, 3 malt extract, 20 agar, pH 3.5) and maintained at 4° C in YM.

To confirm extracellular activities, cellulolytic strains were individually cultured on CMC agar plates. After 10 days of incubation, Petri plates were overlaid with 0.2% Congo red for 5 min and washed with 0.5 M NaCl. Cellulose degradation around the colonies appeared as a yellow or orange area in contrast with the red color produced by undegraded cellulose (Strauss et al. [2001\)](#page-13-0). Similarly, xylanolytic strains were individually cultured on xylan agar plates. After 10 days of incubation, plates were overlaid with iodine stain (0. 25% w/v aqueous I_2/KI) for 5 min. Xylan degradation around the colonies appeared as a yellow-opaque area in contrast with a blue/reddish purple color produced by undegraded xylan (Pointing [1999\)](#page-13-0).

Molecular identification of lignin degrading fungi

Ligninolytic fungi (25 isolates) were individually cultivated in YM agar medium broth at 30 \degree C for 72 h on an orbital shaker (250 rpm). Mycelia were then collected by centrifugation at $10000 \times g$ (10 min, $4 °C$), re-suspended in 2 M NaCl and finally washed twice with sterile distilled water (Fang et al. [1992](#page-12-0)). Washed mycelial mats were frozen in liquid nitrogen and grounded to powder by using a sterile pestle and mortar. Ground mycelia were extracted once with phenol: chloroform: isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1) and washed twice with chloroform: isoamyl alcohol (24:1). Two volumes of absolute ethanol and 0.1 volume of 3 M potassium acetate were added to the final aqueous phase in order to achieve DNA precipitation, mixed by inversion and then centrifuged $(8000 \times g, 10 \text{ min}, 4 \degree C)$. The pellet was then washed twice with 70% ethanol, dried and finally suspended in sterile water.

Fungal D1/D2 domains of the LSU rDNA gene were amplified by using NL1 (GCA TAT CAA TAA GCG GAG GAA AAG) and NL-4 (GGT CCG TGT TTC AAG ACG G) primers (White et al. [1990\)](#page-13-0). D1/ D2 domains were selected over the standard universal fungal barcode since it is easier to amplify, align and analyze, mainly because of its uniform size (See Supplementary Fig. 4 of Schoch et al. [2012](#page-13-0)). In addition, this sequence outperformed ITS region in the identification of ascomycetous yeast, basal fungal lineages and several Ascomycota and Basidiomycota taxa (Schoch et al. [2012;](#page-13-0) Kwiatkowski et al. [2012\)](#page-12-0).

Nucleotide sequencing of the genes was performed by Macrogen (Korea). Sequences were analyzed and edited when necessary, using Invitrogen Vector NTI Advance 10.3.0 software (Invitrogen, San Diego, CA, USA). Strain identification was performed by comparison with sequences from type strains available in GenBank using the provided BLAST tool. Sequences were also compared with species hypothesis in the UNITE database. Arbitrarily, a >98% identity and [99% coverage criterion was employed to identify strains at the species level.

Polyphenol oxidase activities

Polyphenol oxidases were detected by the well test (Pointing [1999\)](#page-13-0). Petri dishes containing malt extract agar (MEA) (g 1^{-1} : 20 malt extract, 1 yeast extract, 20 agar, pH 6) and lignin modifying enzymes (LME) agar (g 1^{-1} : 0.1¹ peptone, 0.01 yeast extract, 2 glucose, 20 agar, pH 6) were inoculated with five mm agar plugs from fresh fungal cultures and incubated at 25 °C for 10 days. Wells (five mm in diameter) were cut in the agar growth medium, in the actively growing edge of the fungal colony. Wells received 40 μ L of a 0.09–0.1% solution of eight test solutions. The following substrates were assayed to detect ligninolytic activities: 2,2'-Azino-bis(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulphonic acid) (ABTS), 4-hydroxy-3,5 dimethoxybenzaldehyde azine (syringaldazine, SGZ), 2,6-dimethoxyphenol (2,6-DMP), 1,1'-biphenyl-4,4'-diamine (Benzidine), 1-Hydroxynaphthalene (a-naphthol). The substrates for detecting catechol oxidase and tyrosinase activities were 1,2-dihydroxybenzen (catechol) and 4-methylphenol (p-cresol), respectively. All the substrates were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (standard reagent grade) (Pointing [1999\)](#page-13-0).

Uninoculated plates were included as abiotic controls. Abiotic controls and inoculated plates were both incubated at 30 \degree C in the darkness for 10 days, and were examined daily for fungal growth. Tests were performed in triplicate and repeated if necessary. The intensities of the color reactions were registered after 0.5, 1 and 2 h by comparing against negative controls (without substrates) and against Pycnoporus sanguineus plates, a well-known laccase producer, included as positive control (Lomascolo et al. [2011](#page-13-0)).

Data analyses

To compare the relative abundance of lignocellulolytic fungi (CFU g^{-1} leaf litter) between both forest types, we used a paired t test ($p \lt 0.05$). Data were previously transformed to log base 10 to meet t-test assumptions. The physical–chemical parameters of the soil were also compared with a paired t -test. To analyze the relationship between temperature, humidity and soil pH and the abundance of lignocellulolytic fungi, we conducted a generalized linear model (GLM) with a quasi-Poisson distribution (since data were over dispersed) and a log link function. The number of CFU g^{-1} leaf litter of cellulolytic, xylanolytic and ligninolytic fungi were used as response variables and temperature, humidity and pH were the explanatory variables. We conducted these analyses in two steps as described in Crawley [\(2007](#page-12-0)). Firstly, we excluded the variables in a backwards-stepwise fashion based on their p-value. Secondly, for each removed variable, we compared the model with the original model using ANOVAs (F-test statistic). The final model was selected based on the pseudo R^2 using the F-test. The pseudo R^2 of the final model is reported at a significance level of $p < 0.05$. All statistical analyses were performed using R (version 3.2.1, Development Core Team [2015\)](#page-13-0).

Results

Abundance of lignocellulolytic fungi from native and invaded forest and its relationship to soil parameters

The abundance (log CFU g^{-1} leaf litter) of cellulolytic fungi was significantly higher (t $(8) = -2.66$; $p = 0.03$) in leaf litter from the native (4.12 \times $10^5 \pm 1.15 \times 10^5$) than from the invaded forest

 $(2.78 \times 10^5 \pm 5.11 \times 10^4)$; as well as the abundance of ligninolytic fungi in leaf litter $(t (8) = -3.29)$; $p = 0.01$) from the native (1.65 $\times 10^4 \pm 4.11 \times 10^3$) than from the invaded forest $(1.02 \times 10^4 \pm$ 2.22×10^3). In contrast, the abundance of xylanolytic fungi was slightly higher in the invaded forest $(4.36 \times 10^5 \pm 4.98 \times 10^4)$ compared to that of the native forest $(3.87 \times 10^5 \pm 6.57 \times 10^4)$ but these differences were not statistically significant $(t (8)) =$ 1.39; $p = 0.20$) (Fig. 1). Among the physical and chemical parameters of the soil, only the pH was significantly different between forest types. In the native forest, the soil was more acidic than in the invaded forest (Table [1\)](#page-7-0). Also, soil pH showed a significant positive association with the abundance of cellulolytic fungi (pseudo $R^2 = 0.60$; p = 0.007) while soil humidity associated positively and significantly with the abundance of ligninolytic strains (pseudo $R^2 = 0.45$; p = 0.04[2\)](#page-7-0) (Fig. 2).

Fig. 1 Abundance of lignocellulolytic fungi (log CFU g^{-1} leaf litter) from native and invaded forests in selective media. IF invaded forest, NF native forest, CMC carboxymethyl cellulose (to isolate cellulolytic fungi), GUA guaiacol (to isolate ligninolytic fungi), XYL xylan (to isolate xylanolytic fungi). The boxplot shows the distribution of the values according to the medians (central line), the 25 and 75% quartiles (box) and the ranges (whiskers). The asterisks on the boxplots indicate significant differences between forest types ($p < 0.05$)

Molecular identification of lignin degrading fungi

The identification of D1/D2 fragments by comparision with the UNITE database and with the sequences of the type material in the GenBank, allowed us to identify all of the lignin degrading fungi isolated in this study to the species level (Table [2](#page-8-0)). Members of fifteen genera belonging to the orders Hypocreales, Sordariales, Capnodiales, Glomerellales, Pleosporales, Diaphortales, Xylariales, Saccharomycetales, Russulales and Polyporales were identified. The order Hypocreales exhibited the highest richness, followed by the order Pleosporales. Strains of the genera Fusarium, Colletotrichum, Trametes and Trichoderma were found in both forest types. Strains of Alternaria, Corynespora, Flavodon, Peniophora, Phaeoacremonium and Phialemonium were only isolated from the leaf litter of the invaded forest, while strains of the genera Candida, Clonostachys, Glomerella, Mycosphaerella and Pestalotiopsis were only isolated from the leaf litter of the native forest.

Table 1 Physical and chemical parameters of the soil of native and invaded forest $(n = 5$ sites per forest type)

Parameters of the soil	Invaded forest		Native forest		
	Mean	$+$ SE	Mean	\pm SE	
Soil humidity $(\%)$	44.5	8.9	52.7	3.6	
Soil temperature $(^{\circ}C)$	20.6	0.3	20.5	0.3	
Soil pH ^a	6.7	0.2	6.3	0.3	

SE standard error

^a Differences at $p < 0.05$

Fig. 2 Relationship between the abundance of lignocellulolytic fungi (CFU g^{-1} leaf litter) and soil physical–chemical parameters of both forest types. a Abundance of cellulolytic fungi and soil pH ($p = 0.007$; pseudo $R^2 = 0.60$). **b** Abundance

Polyphenol oxidase activities

LME-agar is especially suitable for the production of lignin modifying enzymes by white rot fungi (Pointing [1999\)](#page-13-0) while MEA is a more general medium for yeast and mold cultivation. Accordingly, isolates such as Candida homilentoma S3NG1 and Alternaria burnsii S3EG3 did not grow in LME-agar medium, and were only evaluated in MEA medium when they showed negative reactions (Table [3](#page-9-0)). As expected, LME agar allowed the detection of more positive results for classical laccase substrates such as syringaldazine, benzidine, 2,6-DMP and guaiacol, while MEA plates produced more positive results against catechol and p-cresol, substrates were usually associated with catecholase and tyrosinase activity (Reiss et al. [2013\)](#page-13-0).The strains of Trametes versicolor S5NG1, T. versicolor S4EG2, Colletotrichum gloeosporioides S1EG2 and Flavodon flavus S5EG3 oxidized almost every tested substrate on LME and MEA media. On the other hand, the strains of Phaeoacremonium angustius S4EG3, Trichoderma atroviride S2NG4 and Mycosphaerella iridis S2NG1 did not produce the polyphenol oxidases for the specific substrates used.

Discussion

Fungi are part of the naturally occurring microflora of leaf litter and play a key role in its decomposition (de Boer et al. [2005](#page-12-0)).The abundance, composition and

of ligninolytic fungi and soil humidity ($p = 0.042$; pseudo $R^{2} = 0.45$). Fitted lines are derived from a GLM with quasi-Poisson errors

Author's personal copy

Table 2 Molecular identification of lignin degrading fungi isolated of leaf litter mixtures from native and invaded forest

Forest type	Strain	GenBank Accession Number	Closest Match (GenBank/UNITE)	Identity $(\%)$	Putative ID
Invaded	S4EG3	KY781967	AB278178/SH214928.07FU Phaeoacremonium angustius	99.65	Phaeoacremonium angustius
	S3EG1	KY781968	HQ604854/SH188974.07FU Peniophora aurantiaca	98.06	Peniophora aurantiaca
	S5EG1	KY781970	HM060271/SH211283.07FU Phialemonium dimorphosporum	99.44	Phialemonium dimorphosporum
	S1EG1	KY781972	KM099499/SH187755.07FU Trichoderma atroviride	100.00	Trichoderma atroviride
	S ₂ EG ₃	KY781978	AY188918/SH205225.07FU Fusarium solani	99.48	Fusarium solani
	S3EG3	KY781981	KR604838/SH215493.07FU Alternaria burnsii	100.00	Alternaria burnsii
	S ₄ EG ₁	KY798204	AB278178/SH214928.07FU Phaeoacremonium angustius	99.65	Phaeoacremonium angustius
	S4EG2	KY781983	KC176344/SH193318.07FU Trametes versicolor	98.69	Trametes versicolor
	S1EG2	KY781985	EU552111/SH189873.07FU Colletotrichum gloeosporioides	98.80	Colletotrichum gloeosporioides
	S ₂ EG ₂	KY781987	gbKF777207.1 Corynespora torulosa	99.00	Corynespora torulosa
	S5EG3	KY781988	JN710543/SH185167.07FU Flavodon flavus	98.14	Flavodon flavus
Native	S5NG ₂	KY781969	HG518666/SH207299.07FU Glomerella acutata	100.00	Glomerella acutata
	S5NG3	KY781971	KM232462/SH193318.07FU Trametes versicolor	98.94	Trametes versicolor
	S4NG ₂	KY781973	EU552147/SH200154.07FU Pestalotiopsis maculiformans	100.00	Pestalotiopsis maculiformans
	S1NG ₂	KY781974	HG518666/SH207299.07FU Glomerella acutata	100.00	Glomerella acutata
	S5NG1	KY781975	KC176344/SH193318.07FU Trametes versicolor	98.66	Trametes versicolor
	S ₂ N _{G1}	KY781976	AY251089/SH186594.07FU Mycosphaerella iridis	99.66	Mycosphaerella iridis
	S3NG3	KY781977	KT462721/SH219673.07FU Fusarium proliferatum	99.3	Fusarium proliferatum
	S ₂ N _{G2}	KY781979	AY188918/SH205225.07FU Fusarium solani	99.48	Fusarium solani
	S3NG1	KY781980	gbU45716.1 Candida homilentoma	99.00	Candida homilentoma
	S ₄ N _G 1	KY781982	EU552110/SH182678.07FU Clonostachys rosea	99.64	Clonostachys rosea
	S1NG1	KY781984	EU552111/SH189873.07FU Colletotrichum gloeosporioides	98.80	Colletotrichum gloeosporioides
	S ₂ N _{G4}	KY781986	KC330218/SH190868.07FU Trichoderma harzianum	100.00	Trichoderma harzianum
	S3NG4	KY798205	KT462721/SH219673.07FU Fusarium proliferatum	99.30	Fusarium proliferatum

activity of fungi are influenced by the chemical composition and quantity of the litter produced by plant communities (Prescott and Grayston [2013](#page-13-0)). As expected, in the present study we found a higher abundance of lignocellulolytic fungi in leaf litter mixtures from the native forest compared to the abundance found in leaf litter mixtures from the invaded forest. These results suggest that the leaf litter mixtures from both forest types significantly could differ in their cellulose and lignin content. Differences in the chemical quality between these mixtures are not surprising, since a previous study found that the litter of L. lucidum exhibited lower % of C (44.12%) and N (0.82%) than the litter of two of the most abundant species in the mixtures of native forests: C. vernalis (49.65% C, 1.83% N) and O. porphyria (50.46% C, 1.28% N) (Aragón et al. [2014a\)](#page-12-0). Also, plant diversity is considered one structuring factor of fungal communities because the diversity of compounds in leaf litter could increase the diversity of carbon sources (Mcguire et al. [2012](#page-13-0)). In our study area, the native forest is composed of several species of trees (Malizia

् $\frac{1}{2}$ Ŕ J. l. $\overline{}$ $\ddot{}$ ł, $\ddot{}$ T_{α} ble

Author's personal copy

Author's personal copy

c

d

NG: no growth

NG: no growth

ND: not detected under these assay conditions. Syringaldazine was not evaluated in MEA agar, due to the production of a dark yellow reaction in abiotic controls

ND: not detected under these assay conditions. Syringaldazine was not evaluated in MEA agar, due to the production of a dark vellow reaction in abiotic controls

continued

et al. [2010](#page-13-0)) and because of this, the native leaf litter mixtures could be more diverse and could offer more carbon sources than the invaded forest mixtures that are composed mostly of Ligustrum leaf litter. In addition to diversity, the identity of the species composing the mixtures of leaf litter influences the abundance of microbial decomposers (Wardle et al. [2006\)](#page-13-0). Our results could be related to the observations of Wardle et al. ([2006\)](#page-13-0), given that the species from the native forest, O. porphyria and C. vernalis, produced litter with more cellulose and lignin content compared to that in *Ligustrum* litter (Aragón et al., Unpublished data).

In addition to the chemical quality of leaf litter, the microenvironment and soil parameters influence the composition, abundance and activity of fungi (Lauber et al. [2008](#page-13-0); Rousk et al. [2010\)](#page-13-0). Invasion by exotic plants modifies the microenvironment conditions (Ashton et al. 2005 ; Tateno et al. 2007 ; Aragón et al. [2014a](#page-12-0); Slesak et al. [2016\)](#page-13-0) and therefore may alter the abundance and activity of fungi. In this study, humidity and soil temperature were similar in native and invaded forests and both parameters were within the range considered optimal for the activity of the microbiota (Pietikäinen et al. [2004](#page-13-0)). These results contrast with those reported by Aragón et al. $(2014a)$ $(2014a)$, who found differences in soil humidity (with invaded forest exhibiting drier soils).The shorter sampling period (only one month) could potentially explain the contrasting results found in the present study. Furthermore, soil humidity and temperature were recorded during the rainy season (summer) of an atypical year in which rainfall was almost twice as normal (Estación Experimental Agroindustrial Obispo Colombres [2015\)](#page-12-0). This situation might also explain the lack of association between temperature or humidity and the abundance of cellulolytic and xylanolytic fungi and the weak association found between the abundance of ligninolytic fungi and soil humidity. Regarding soil pH, the native forest was slightly more acidic than the invaded forest and this variable was only associated with the abundance of cellulolytic fungi. These results agree with those reported by Korniłłowicz-Kowalska et al. [\(2003](#page-12-0)), who found an increased abundance of Penicillium cellulolytic strains in soils with low pH. Although the difference in pH between native and invaded forests was statistically significant, the pH values in both forests were within the range considered optimal for

the growth activity of fungi in general (Rousk et al. [2010\)](#page-13-0). The absence of a significant association between pH and abundance of xylanolytic and ligninolytic fungi could be due to the fact that the effect of pH on fungi metabolism tends to be species-specific (Bachelot et al. [2016](#page-12-0)).

The colonization and abundance of fungi also depends on the state of decomposition of leaf litter (Osono et al. [2006](#page-13-0)). At early stages of decomposition, leaf litter presents low abundance and diversity of fungi (Voříšková and Baldrian [2013\)](#page-13-0). However, at advanced stages of decomposition, the abundance and diversity of fungi increases due to the fact that other compounds are released from the cell walls and are used by species with different nutritional requirements (Voříšková and Baldrian 2013). In our study, the diversity of fungi (15 genera) was low compared to that found in other similar forests (Bills and Polishook [1994;](#page-12-0) Paulus et al. [2006](#page-13-0); Araujo Costa and Pascholati Gusmão [2015](#page-12-0)). However, it is important to highlight that we only identified ligninolytic fungi from mixtures composed of leaf litter that were in the early stages of decomposition; i.e., when the relative abundance and diversity of ligninolytic fungi is low (Osono [2007\)](#page-13-0). Four genera were common between both forest types; while strains of six genera were isolated only from the invaded forest and strains of five genera only from the native forest. Despite the limited sampling period, this result suggests that the fungal community is different in leaf litter of the native forest compared to that of the invaded forest.

Most of the identified ligninolytic fungi belong to the phylum Ascomycota. This result is consistent with studies carried out in tropical and temperate forests, where Ascomycota are dominant at the early stages of leaf litter decomposition and are even present in living leaves (Osono [2007](#page-13-0); Schneider et al. [2012;](#page-13-0) Kerekes et al. [2013;](#page-12-0) Voříšková and Baldrian [2013\)](#page-13-0). In addition, the low occurrence of Basidiomycota fungi might be due to the method of fungal isolation used, which favours fast-growing Ascomycetes species (Osono et al. [2009](#page-13-0)). Although this study was performed at a local scale and a low number of ligninolytic fungi was isolated, all the fungi orders identified in this work are consistent with the orders of fungi reported for the Argentine Yungas (Geml et al. [2014\)](#page-12-0).

Fungi play a key role in forests ecology, since they are the main decomposers of lignin, which is considered the limiting compound of litter decomposition (Berg and McClaugherty [2008\)](#page-12-0). Fungi degrade lignin through the production of extracellular enzymes such as laccases, catecholases, and tyrosinases (Osono [2007](#page-13-0); Sánchez [2009\)](#page-13-0). In this study, most of the ligninolytic fungi isolated from both forest types showed laccases activity. Particularly, strains of T. versicolor showed laccase and tyrosinase activities, and their laccases have been widely studied in different substrates (Moredo et al. [2003](#page-13-0); Cabuk et al. [2006](#page-12-0); Márquez et al. [2007](#page-13-0); Tong et al. [2007](#page-13-0)). The different expression of these extracellular enzymes between fungal isolates might be due to the substrate they colonize (Colpaert and Van Laere [1996](#page-12-0)). This could explain the negative reactions of the strains of P. angustius, T. atroviride and M. iridis for all the substrates used in this study.

Conclusions

To our knowledge, this is the first study documenting culturable decomposer fungi of leaf litter from native and invaded forests in a Yungas ecosystem. The results found in this study suggest that Ligustrum invasion alters the abundance and composition of fungi involved in the degradation of leaf litter. This could impact upon the decomposition rate of invaded forests and consequently, nutrient cycling. However, the limited sampling period of the present study should be taken into account. Long-term studies including also the analysis of the nutritional quality of litter are needed for a more complete overview of the influence of Ligustrum invasion over fungal decomposers.

Acknowledgements This work was supported by Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y Técnicas (CONICET-PIP 0372) and Agencia Nacional de Promoción Científica y Tecnológica (ANPCyT-PICT 0480). We thank Fernandez MJ for field assistance, Nanni S for the help with the English version of this manuscript and associate editor and two anonymous reviewers for comments that improved the manuscript. Finally we acknowledge the authorities of Parque Sierra de San Javier for the permissions to conduct this study.

Conflict of interest The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Ethical approval This article does not contain any studies with human participants or animals performed by any of the authors.

Informed consent Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study

References

- Alexopoulos CJ, Mims CW, Blackwell M (1996) Introductory mycology, 4th edn. Wiley, New York, USA
- Aragón R, Groom M (2003) Invasion by Ligustrum lucidum (Oleaceae) in NW Argentina: early stage characteristics in different habitat types. Rev Biol Trop 51:59–70
- Aragón R, Morales JM (2003) Species composition and invasion in NW Argentinian secondary forests: effects of land use history, environment and landscape. J Veg Sci 14:195–204
- Aragón R, Montti L, Ayup MM, Fernández R (2014a) Exotic species as modifiers of ecosystem processes: Litter decomposition in native and invaded secondary forests of NW Argentina. Acta Oecol 54:21–28
- Aragón R, Sardans J, Peñuelas J (2014b) Soil enzymes associated with carbon and nitrogen cycling in invaded and native secondary forests of northwestern Argentina. Plant Soil 384:169–183
- Araujo Costa L, Pascholati Gusmão LF (2015) Characterization saprobic fungi on leaf litter of two species of trees in the Atlantic Forest, Brazil. Braz J Microbiol 46:1027–1035
- Ashton IW, Hyatt LA, Howe KM, Gurevitch J, Lerdau MT (2005) Invasive species accelerate decomposition and litter nitrogen loss in a mixed deciduous forest. Ecol Appl 15:1263–1272
- Ayup MM, Montti L, Aragón R, Grau HR (2014) Invasion of Ligustrum lucidum (Oleaceae) in the southern Yungas: Changes in habitat properties and decline in bird diversity. Acta Oecol 54:72–81
- Bachelot B, Uriarte M, Zimmerman JK, Thompson J, Leff JW, Asiaii A, Koshner J, McGuire K (2016) Long-lasting effects of land use history on soil fungal communities in secondgrowth tropical rain forests. Ecol Appl 26:1881–1895
- Berg B (2000) Litter decomposition and organic matter turnover in northern forest soils. Forest Ecol Manag 133:13–22
- Berg B, McClaugherty CA (2008) Plant litter: decomposition, humus formation, carbon sequestration, 2nd edn. Springer, New York
- Bianchi AR (1981) Las precipitaciones en el Noroeste argentino. INTA, Salta
- Bills GF, Polishook JD (1994) Abundance and diversity of microfungi in leaf litter of a lowland rain forest in Costa Rica. Mycologia 86:187–198
- Broz AK, Manter DK, Vivanco JM (2007) Soil fungal abundance an-d diversity: another victim of the invasive plant Centaurea maculosa. The ISME J 1:763–765
- Cabrera A (1976) Regiones fitogeográficas de Argentina. In: Kugler WF (ed) Enciclopedia Argentina de Agricultura y Jardinería II, 2nd edn. Acme, Buenos Aires, pp 1–85
- Cabuk A, Unal AT, Kolankaya N (2006) Biodegradation of cyanide by a white rot fungus, Trametes versicolor. Biotechnol Lett 28:1313–1317
- Ceballos SJ, Malizia A, Chacoff NP (2015) Influencia de la invasión de Ligustrum lucidum (Oleaceae) sobre la comunidad de lianas en la sierra de San Javier (Tucumán-Argentina). Ecol Aust 25:65–74
- Colpaert JV, Van Laere A (1996) A comparison of the extracellular enzyme activities of two ectomycorrhizal and a leaf-saprotrophic basidiomycete colonizing beech leaf litter. New Phytol 133:133–141
- Crawley MJ (2007) The R book. Wiley, Chichester
- de Boer W, Folman LB, Summerbell RC, Boddy L (2005) Living in a fungal world: impact of fungi on soil bacterial niche development. FEMS Microbiol Rev 29:795–811
- DeAngelis KM, Chivian D, Fortney JL, Arkin AP, Simmons B, Hazen TC, Silver WL (2013) Changes in microbial dynamics during long-term decomposition in tropical forests. Soil Biol Biochem 66:60–68
- Easdale TA, Healey JR, Grau HR, Malizia A (2007) Tree life histories in a montane subtropical forest: species differ independently by shade-tolerance, turnover rate and substrate preference. J Ecol 95:1234–1239
- Ehrenfeld J, Kourtev P, Huang W (2001) Changes in soil functions following invasions of exotic understory plants in deciduous forests. Ecol Appl 11:1287–1300
- Estación Experimental Agroindustrial Obispo Colombres (2015) [http://www.eeaoc.org.ar/agromet/.](http://www.eeaoc.org.ar/agromet/) Accessed 10 Nov 2016
- Fang G, Hammar S, Grumet R (1992) A quick and inexpensive method for removing polysaccharides from plant genomic DNA. Biotechniques 13:52–55
- Geml J, Pastor N, Fernandez L, Pacheco S, Semenova TA, Becerra AG, Wicaksono CY, Nouhra ER (2014) Largescale fungal diversity assessment in the Andean Yungas forests reveals strong community turnover among forest types along an altitudinal gradient. Mol Ecol 23:2452–2472
- Grau HR, Aragón R (2000) Arboles invasores de la Sierra de San Javier. In: Grau HR, Aragón R (eds) Árboles exóticos de las Yungas Argentinas. LIEY- UNT, Tucumán, pp 5–20
- Grau HR, Arturi MF, Brown AD, Aceñolaza PG (1997) Floristic and structural patterns along a chronosequence of secondary forest succession in Argentinean subtropical montane forest. For Ecol Manag 95:161–171
- Grau HR, Hernández ME, Gutierrez J, Gasparri NI, Casavecchia MC, Flores E, Paolini L (2008) A peri-urban neotropical forest transition and its consequences for environmental services. Ecol Soc 13:35
- Hammel KE (1997) Fungal degradation of lignin. In: Cadisch G, Giller KE (eds) Plant litter quality and decomposition. CAB-International, Wallingford, pp 33–46
- Hättenschwiler S, Tiunov AV, Scheu S (2005) Biodiversity and litter decomposition in terrestrial ecosystems. Annu Rev Ecol Evol Syst 36:191–218
- Kerekes J, Kaspari M, Stevenson B, Nilsson RH, Hartmann M, Amend A, Bruns TD (2013) Nutrient enrichment increased species richness of leaf litter fungal assemblages in a tropical forest. Mol Ecol 22:2827–2838
- Korniłłowicz-Kowalska T, Iglik H, Wojdyło B (2003) Correlation between the abundance of cellulolitic fungi and selected soil properties. Acta Micol 38:161–172
- Kourtev PS, Ehrenfeld JG, Häggblom M (2003) Experimental analysis of the effect of exotic and native plant species on the structure and function of soil microbial communities. Soil Biol Bioch 35:895–905
- Kurtzman CP, Fell JW, Boekhout T, Robert V (eds) (2011) Methods for isolation, phenotypic characterization and maintenance of yeasts. In: The yeasts, a taxonomic study, 5th edn. Elsevier, Amsterdam, pp 87–110
- Kwiatkowski NP, Babiker WM, Merz WG, Carroll KC, Zhang SX (2012) Evaluation of nucleic acid sequencing of the D1/ D2 region of the large subunit of the 28S rDNA and the internal transcribed spacer region using SmartGene IDNS

Software for identification of filamentous fungi in a clinical laboratory. J Mol Diagn 14(4):393–401

- Lauber CL, Strickland MS, Bradford MA, Fierer N (2008) The influence of soil properties on the structure of bacterial and fungal communities across land-use types. Soil Biol Bioch 40:2407–2415
- Lichstein JW, Grau HR, Aragón R (2004) Recruitment limitation in secondary forests dominated by an exotic tree. J Veg Sci 15:721–728
- Lomascolo A, Uzan-Boukhris E, Herpoel-Gimbert I, Sigoillot JC, Lesage-Meessen L (2011) Peculiarities of Pycnoporus species for applications in biotechnology. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 92:1129–1149
- Malherbe S, Cloete TE (2002) Lignocellulose biodegradation: fundamentals and applications. Rev Environ Sci Bio/ Technol 1:105–114
- Malizia A, Grau HR, Lichstein JW (2010) Soil phosphorus and disturbance influence liana communities in a subtropical montane forest. J Veg Sci 21:551–560
- Márquez ATA, Mendoza MGD, González MSS (2007) Actividad fibrolitica de enzimas producidas por Trametes sp. EUM1, Pleurotus ostreatus IE8 y Aspergillus niger AD96.4 en fermentación sólida. Interciencia 32:780–785
- McGuire KL, Bent E, Borneman J, Majumder A, Allison SD, Treseder KK (2010) Functional diversity in resource use by fungi. Ecology 91(8):2324–2332
- McGuire KL, Fierer N, Bateman C, Treseder KK, Turne BL (2012) Fungal community composition in neotropical rain forests: the influence of tree diversity and precipitation. Microb Ecol 63:804–812
- Moredo N, Lorenzo M, Domínguez A, Moldes D, Cameselle C, Sanroman A (2003) Enhanced ligninolytic enzyme production and degrading capability of Phanerochaete chrysosporium and Trametes versicolor. World J Microb Biotechnol 19:665–669
- Osono T (2007) Ecology of ligninolytic fungi associated with leaf litter decomposition. Ecol Res 22:955–974
- Osono T, Hirose D, Fujimaki R (2006) Fungal colonization as affected by litter depth and decomposition stage of needle litter. Soil Biol Bioch 38:2743–2752
- Osono T, Ishii Y, Takeda H, Seramethakun T, Khamyong S, To-Anun C, Hirose D, Tokumasu S, Kakishima M (2009) Fungal succession and lignin decomposition on Shorea obtusa leaves in a tropical seasonal forest in northern Thailand. Fungal divers 36:101–119
- Paulus BC, Kanowski J, Gadek PA, Hyde KD (2006) Diversity and distribution of saprobic microfungi in leaf litter of an Australian tropical rainforest. Mycol Res 110:1441–1454
- Pérez J, Muñoz-Dorado J, De-la-Rubia T, Martínez J (2002) Biodegradation and biological treatments of cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin: an overview. Int Microbiol 5:53–63
- Pietikäinen J, Pettersson M, Bååth E (2004) Comparison of temperature effects on soil respiration and bacterial and fungal growth rates. FEMS Microbiol Ecol 52:49–58
- Pointing SB (1999) Qualitative methods for the determination of lignocellulolytic enzyme production by tropical fungi. Fungal Divers 2:17–33
- Prescott CE, Grayston SJ (2013) Tree species influence on microbial communities in litter and soil: current knowledge and research needs. Forest Ecol Manag 309:19–27
- Reiss R, Ihssen J, Richter M, Eichhorn E, Schilling B, Thöny-Meyer L (2013) Laccase versus laccase-like multi-copper oxidase: a comparative study of similar enzymes with diverse substrate spectra. PLoS ONE 8:e65633
- Rousk J, Baath E, Brookes PC, Lauber CL, Lozupone C, Caporaso JG, Knight R, Fierer N (2010) Soil bacterial and fungal communities across a pH gradient in an arable soil. ISME J 4:1340–1351
- Sánchez C (2009) Lignocellulosic residues: Biodegradation and bioconversion by fungi. Biotechnol Adv 27:185–194
- Saparrat MCN, Hammer E (2006) Decolorization of synthetic dyes by the deuteromycete Pestalotiopsis guepinii CLPS no. 786 strain. J Basic Microbiol 46:28–33
- Schneider T, Keiblinger KM, Schmid E, Sterflinger-Gleixner K, Ellersdorfer G, Roschitzki B, Richter A, Eberl L, Zechmeister-Boltenstern S, Riedel K (2012) Who is who in litter decomposition? Metaproteomics reveals major microbial players and their biogeochemical functions. ISME J 6:1749–1762
- Schoch CL, Seifert KA, Huhndorf A et al (2012) Nuclear ribosomal internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region as a universal DNA barcode marker for fungi. PNAS 109:6241–6246
- Slesak RA, Harrington TB, D'Amato AW (2016) Invasive scotch broom alters soil chemical properties in Douglas-fir forests of the Pacific Northwest, USA. Plant Soil 398:281–289
- Stefanowicz AM, Stanek M, Nobis M, Zubek S (2016) Speciesspecific effects of plant invasions on activity, biomass, and composition of soil microbial communities. Biol Fertil Soils 52:841–852
- Strauss MLA, Jolly NP, Lambrechts MG, Van Rensburg P (2001) Screening for the production of extracellular hydrolytic enzymes by non- Sacchraromyces wine yeasts. J Appl Microbiol 91:182–190
- Tateno R, Tokuchi N, Yamanaka N, Du S, Otsuki K, Shimamura T, Xue Z, Wang S, Hou Q (2007) Comparison of litterfall production and leaf litter decomposition between an exotic black locust plantation and an indigenous oak forest near Yan'an on the Loess Plateau, China. For Ecol Manag 241:84–90
- Tong P, Hong Y, Xiao Y, Zhang M, Tu X, Cui T (2007) High production of laccase by a new basidiomycete, Trametes sp. Biotechnol Lett 29:295–301
- Voříšková J, Baldrian P (2013) Fungal community on decomposing leaf litter undergoes rapid successional changes. ISME J 7:477–486
- Wardle DA, Yeates GW, Barker GM, Bonner KI (2006) The influence of plant litter diversity on decomposer abundance and diversity. Soil Biol Biochem 38:1052–1062
- White TJ, Bruns T, Lee S, Taylor J (1990) Amplification and direct sequencing of fungal ribosomal RNA genes for phylogenetics. In: Innis MA, Gelfand DH, Sninsky JJ, White TJ (eds) PCR protocols: a guide to methods and applications. Academic Press, New York, pp 315–322
- Zamora Nasca LB, Montti L, Grau HR, Paolini L (2014) Efectos de la invasión del ligustro, Ligustrum lucidum, en la dinámica hídrica de las Yungas del noroeste Argentino. Bosque 35:195–205