

Arbuscular Mycorrhizal Fungi Co-Colonizing on A Single Plant Root System Recruit Distinct Microbiomes

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Research

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1 **Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi co-colonizing on a single**
2 **plant root system recruit distinct microbiomes**

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22 **Abstract**

23 Background: Plant roots are usually colonized by various arbuscular mycorrhizal
24 (AM) fungal species which vary in morphological, physiological and genetic traits and
25 constitute the mycorrhizal nutrient uptake pathway (MP) in addition to roots.
26 Simultaneously, the extraradical hyphae of each AM fungus is associated with a
27 community of bacteria. However, whether the community structure and function of
28 microbiome on the extraradical hyphae would differ between the AM fungal species
29 are mostly unknown.

30 Methods: In order to understand the community structure and the predicted
31 functions of the microbiome associated with different AM fungal species, a split-root
32 compartmented rhizobox culturing system, which allowed us to inoculate two AM
33 fungal species separately in two root compartments was used. We inoculated two
34 separate AM fungal species combinations, *Funneliformis mosseae* (*F.m*) and *Gigaspora*
35 *margarita* (*G.m*), *Rhizophagus intraradices* (*R.i*) and *G. margarita*, on a single root
36 system of cotton. The hyphal exudate fed active microbiome was measured by
37 combining ¹³C-DNA stable isotope probing with Miseq sequencing.

38 Results: We found different AM fungal species, that were simultaneously
39 colonizing on a single root system, hosted distinct active microbiomes from one another.
40 Moreover, the predicted potential functions of the different microbiomes were distinct.

41 Conclusion: We conclude that the arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi component of the
42 system is responsible for the recruitment distinct microbiomes in the hyphosphere. The
43 potential significance of the predicted functions of the microbiome ecosystem services
44 is discussed.

45 **Key words:** Arbuscular mycorrhizae; ¹³C-DNA-SIP; Hyphosphere;
46 Microbiome; COG; Hyphal exudates; Mycorrhizal pathway.

47 **Background**

48 The plant- arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi symbiosis has existed for over 460
49 Mya [1]. Consequently, over 80% of terrestrial plants form a symbiosis with arbuscular
50 mycorrhizal (AM) fungi for efficient nutrient uptake, or to confer resistance to stress
51 [2]. Exploitation of these symbioses is of high environmental and economic value [3].
52 Like plant roots, AM fungi produce large networks of extraradical hyphae in the soil,
53 release carbon and recruit free-living soil microbes to colonize the hyphae [4-7]. In
54 recent years, an intimate cooperative relationship between AM fungal hyphae and
55 bacteria has been observed, supported by multiple lines of evidence such as microscopic
56 observations [8] and molecular analyses [5]. Bacteria associated with AM fungi
57 (hyphosphere) have been identified as the third component of the plant-AM fungi
58 symbiosis because of the critical role they play in mycorrhizal function [3,6,9,10].
59 Revealing the secrets of hyphosphere microbiomes is essential for better understanding
60 of the belowground ecosystem.

61 Many factors such as soil pH and its spatial structure have been identified to
62 influence the bacterial community associated with plant roots, while AM fungi was
63 identified as the major factor which determined it [11]. In natural and agricultural
64 systems, the root system of a mycorrhizal plant is usually simultaneously colonized by
65 diverse AM fungal species [12]. The co-colonizing AM fungi have different
66 morphological, physiological and genetic characteristics [13-18]. The coexisting AM
67 fungal species show different contributions to the growth and P uptake of the host plant
68 [15]. For example, *Glomus intraradices* can rapidly colonize available P patches
69 beyond the root surface and transport significant amounts of P towards the roots, while
70 *G. margarita* has been shown to provide P benefits to the plants by forming dense
71 mycelium networks close to the roots where remaining soil P was less available [15].

72 In addition, recent decoding of the whole-genome sequence of AM fungi suggest that
73 there is large variation in the genetic control of functions [16], e.g. *G. rosea* contains a
74 much greater secretome size and more secreted proteins (SSP) than *Rhizophagus* sp.
75 [16]. Collectively, the above morphological, physiological and genetic differences
76 indicate that the hyphal exudates of AM fungal species are likely to be different, which
77 in turn are likely to lead to differences in the hyphosphere microbiome community
78 structure and function. However, at present no direct evidence exists which show the
79 difference between fungal species co-colonizing on a single plant root system.
80 Therefore, to uncover such difference is fundamental for understanding the central
81 question in fungi-bacteria interaction research: how bacteria and mycorrhizal fungi
82 associate and become mutually beneficial neighbors [3].

83 Several factors may affect the results of hyphosphere microbial community
84 composition in plant-AM fungi-soil system. First, plant root exudates are an important
85 factor in the recruitment of soil microbial community. In order to get direct evidence of
86 the effect of hyphae exudates on hyphosphere microbiome characteristics, it is essential
87 to separate their influence away from that of the root exudates. Second, the vitality of
88 AM fungal hyphae is important. Previous studies have shown that soil bacteria differ
89 in their ability to colonize vital and nonvital hyphae and that this can also be influenced
90 by the arbuscular mycorrhizal fungal species involved [19]. Therefore, a method that
91 can test the vital and nonvital hyphae is necessary to identify the hyphosphere
92 microbiome. Third, the feedback effects of plant on the growth of AM fungus due to
93 changes in plant physiology induced by the fungus [20,21] is critical. In the past, split-
94 root methods were used to quantify C allocation to different AM fungal species co-
95 colonizing on a single root system of plant [22] in order to assess this factor.

96 In this study, we hypothesized that the different AM fungal species that colonized

97 on a single root system would recruit distinct microbiomes. To test our hypothesis, we
98 developed a new integrated approach to avoid the above influences. We grew cotton
99 (*Gossypium hirsutum* L.) plants in a split-root and compartmented rhizobox in which a
100 buffer zone was set to prevent root exudate diffusing into the hyphal compartment and
101 to avoid feedback effects. We inoculated two different AM fungal species combinations
102 *Funneliformis mossea*/*Gigaspora margarita* (*F.m/G.m*) or *Rhizophagus*
103 *intraradices*/*Gigaspora margarita* (*R.i/G.m*) to both root compartments. We used $^{13}\text{CO}_2$
104 to pulse label the plant-AM fungi-hyphae associated bacteria during the last week
105 before harvest and tested active hyphal associated microbiomes by ^{13}C -DNA-SIP
106 (stable isotopic probing) method and Miseq high-throughput sequencing.

107 **Results**

108 *Mycorrhizal colonization*

109 We used the DNA copy number in roots to indicate the colonization of each AM
110 fungal species. Based on the principles of qPCR, any measurement that is less than 100
111 copies can be considered background and indicative of a lack of presence of
112 mycorrhizal DNA [18]. In NM controls in both Exp 1 and Exp 2, the root AM fungal
113 DNA copy number was below this threshold, indicating that no AM fungus was
114 detected in the roots. Both species of AM fungi were able to colonize the root system
115 of the same plant effectively at the same time. In Exp 1, after inoculation with *F.*
116 *mosseae*, the root AM fungal DNA copy number significantly increased to 10^7 ; and
117 inoculation with *G. margarita* increased the AM fungal DNA copy number to 10^5 ,
118 which was significantly less than that of the concomitant inoculation with *F. mosseae*
119 ($P < 0.01$) (Fig. 2a). In Exp 2, after inoculation with *R. intraradices*, the root AM fungal
120 DNA copy number significantly increased to 10^7 ; and inoculation with *G. margarita*
121 increased the AM fungal DNA copy number to 10^5 , significantly less than that of

122 concomitant inoculation with *R. intraradices* ($P<0.01$) (Fig. 2a).

123 **Hyphal length density in HCs soil**

124 In the NM control in both Exp 1 and Exp 2, less than 0.6 m g⁻¹ soil of hyphae was
125 detected, implying there were some saprotrophic fungi in compartments. In Exp 1, the
126 hyphal length density of *F. mosseae* was more than 6 m g⁻¹ soil, while the density of *G.*
127 *margarita* was about 3 m g⁻¹ soil. *G. margarita* produced significantly ($P<0.001$) less
128 hyphal length than *F. mosseae* (Fig. 2b). Similarly, in Exp 2, the hyphal length density
129 of *R. intraradices* was 6 m g⁻¹ soil while that of *G. margarita* was only 3 m g⁻¹ soil,
130 significantly ($P<0.001$) less than that of *R. intraradices* (Fig. 2b).

131 **Biomass, P concentration and P content of shoot**

132 The cotton plants grew well after being transplanted into the split-root microcosm
133 (See Fig. S2). At harvest, the shoot biomass and P concentration and P content data of
134 all inoculation treatments were significantly ($P<0.01$) greater than those of their NM
135 control treatments, respectively (Table 1).

136 **¹³C incorporation of HCs soil and bacteria**

137 The DNA of targeted bacterial populations in the hyphosphere was successfully
138 labeled by ¹³C. In the NM control, the isotopic signature ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) of hyphosphere soil was
139 consistent with the atmospheric concentration (approximate -20‰). The isotopic
140 signatures in the HCs of inoculated treatments were greater than that of NM control
141 (Fig. 2c). In addition, inoculation with *F. mosseae* and *R. intraradices* resulted in much
142 greater ¹³C abundance than that of *G. margarita* in Exp 1 and Exp 2, respectively (Fig.
143 2c). The incorporation of ¹³C into bacterial DNA in the hyphosphere soil was
144 corroborated by parallel incubation of microcosms labeled with ¹²C. The gradients in
145 all ¹²C labeled soil after seven days clearly showed peaks of bacterial DNA in a 'light'
146 DNA fraction. In contrast, the bacterial DNA in all ¹³C labeled soil had apparently

147 shifted toward 'heavier' buoyant densities (Fig. S3).

148 **Taxonomic profiling of bacteria associated with AM fungal hyphae**

149 The DNA from the selected fractions shown in Figure S2 was sequenced using a
150 high-throughput MiSeq PE 300 platform. After quality filtering and standardizing of
151 the raw data, a dataset of 1989255 high-quality sequences with an average length of
152 439 bp and over 24433 reads per sample was generated. At 97% similarity, the number
153 of operational taxonomic units (OTUs) ranged from 505 to 836, depending on the
154 sample (Fig S4). The microbiome of ¹³C-labeled samples was considered as the active
155 one, which were influenced by the hyphae directly [23]. So, the following analyses were
156 all based on the ¹³C-labeled active samples.

157 **The effect of AM fungi hyphae on soil microbiome**

158 After aligning the OTUs with the Greengenes database, the soil microbial
159 community was classified into phylotypes consisting of 10 dominant phyla and others.
160 The dominant taxa included Proteobacteria, Actinobacteria, Firmicutes and
161 Gemmatimonadetes, Bacteroidetes, Chloroflexi, Acidobacteria, Cyanobacteria,
162 Planctomycetes and Fusobacteria, which contributed to over 95% of the whole
163 community in all conditions (Fig. S5). There was a significant difference in the
164 abundance of some taxa compared with NM control after inoculation. However, the
165 difference in taxa abundance was dependent on the AM fungal species (Fig. S5). For
166 example, compared to the NM control, (i) the hyphosphere of *F. mosseae* contained a
167 greater abundance of Actinobacteria and Gemmatimonadetes, but contained fewer
168 Proteobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Acidobacteria and Planctomycetes. (ii) the hyphosphere
169 of *R. intraradices* contained a greater abundance of Actinobacteria and Firmicutes, but
170 contained fewer Proteobacteria and Bacteroidetes. (iii) the hyphosphere of *G. margarita*
171 contained a greater abundance of Proteobacteria, Cyanobacteria and Fusobacteria, but

172 fewer Gemmatimonadetes, Chloroflexi, Acidobacteria and Planctomycetes (Fig. S5).
173 In addition, the PCA analysis also showed the community structure of the inoculated
174 hyphal compartments was different to the NM control (Fig. S6).

175 **The difference between microbiome diversity associated with the hyphae of**
176 **different AM fungi**

177 In Exp 1, there was no difference was observed in OTUs number of *F. mosseae*
178 hyphosphere microbiome than that of *G. margarita*, while in Exp 2, 100 more OTUs
179 were observed in *R. intraradices* hyphosphere microbiome than that of *G. margarita*
180 (Fig. S4). In addition, there was a significant difference in the abundance of different
181 taxa between different AM fungal species (Fig. 3 and 4). At the phylum level, the
182 abundance of Proteobacteria, Cyanobacteria and Fusobacteria in the hyphosphere of *G.*
183 *margarita* was much greater than that of *F. mosseae* and *R. intraradices*, both in Exp 1
184 and Exp 2. However, *G. margarita* exhibited a smaller abundance of Actinobacteria,
185 Gemmatimonadetes and Planctomycetes (Fig. 3). There was no significant difference
186 in the abundance of Firmicutes, Chloroflexi, Bacteroidetes, and Acidobacteria, between
187 *F. mosseae* and *G. margarita* or between *R. intraradices* and *G. margarita* in Exp 1 and
188 Exp 2, respectively (Fig. 3).

189 At the genus level, there were a total of 733 genera observed in this study. We only
190 considered the genus whose abundance was over 1% as the dominant taxa. In Exp1, 16
191 genera were identified as dominant taxa both in *F. mosseae* and *G. margarita*
192 hyphosphere microbiome. However, only 7 of them were both dominant in two
193 different AM fungal hyphosphere. In Exp2, 18 genera and 15 genera were identified as
194 dominant in *R. intraradices* and *G. margarita* hyphosphere, respectively. Only 5 genera
195 were both dominant in these two different AM fungal hyphosphere in Exp 2. Of all the
196 genera, 92 genera which contained most of the dominant genera were observed as being

197 different between the microbiomes associated with *F. mosseae* and *G. margarita*
198 extraradical hyphae in Exp 1, this represented approximately 70% of total abundance.
199 Likewise, there were 108 genera which contained most of the dominant genera were
200 observed as being different between *G. margarita* and *R. intraradices* in Exp 2,
201 representing over 80% of total abundance in the *R. intraradices* hyphosphere and over
202 50% in the *G. margarita* hyphosphere, respectively (Fig. 4). In accordance with this,
203 the PCA analysis results demonstrated that there was a significant difference between
204 *F. mosseae* and *G. margarita* or *R. intraradices* and *G. margarita* community structure
205 in Exp 1 and Exp 2, respectively (Fig. 6).

206 **The Cluster of Ortholog Genes (COG) functional pathway prediction**

207 Twenty-two COG pathways were predicted through 16S rDNA sequencing of ¹³C
208 labeled samples. These included all bacterial growth processes such as reproduction,
209 organic or inorganic nutrient metabolism, signaling and immunity (Fig. 7). Eleven COG
210 functional pathways, which contained over half of all the pathways obtained
211 significantly different abundance between *F. mosseae* and *G. margarita* in Exp1 (Fig.
212 7). In detail, the relative abundance of Amino acid transport and metabolism, Cell
213 motility, Coenzyme transport and metabolism, General function prediction only,
214 Intracellular trafficking, secretion, and vesicular transport and Transcription were
215 greater in the *G. margarita* hyphosphere microbiome. While the relative abundance of
216 Carbohydrate transport and metabolism, Defense mechanisms, Energy production and
217 conversion, Secondary metabolites biosynthesis, transport and catabolism and
218 Translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis were much more prevalent in *F.*
219 *mosseae* hyphosphere microbiome. Fifteen COG pathways showed a significant
220 difference between *R. intraradices* and *G. margarita*, while eight of them were greater
221 in the *R. intraradices* hyphosphere (Fig. 7). In detail, Cell cycle control, cell division,

222 chromosome partitioning, Cell motility, Coenzyme transport and metabolism, Inorganic
223 ion transport and metabolism, Intracellular trafficking, secretion, and vesicular
224 transport, Posttranslational modification, protein turnover, chaperones, Replication,
225 recombination and repair and Signal transduction mechanisms were much more
226 prevalent in *G. margarita* hyphosphere microbiome. While the relative abundance of
227 Carbohydrate transport and metabolism, Cytoskeleton, Defense mechanisms, Lipid
228 transport and metabolism, RNA processing and modification, Secondary metabolites
229 biosynthesis, transport and catabolism and Transcription were much greater in *R.*
230 *intraradices* hyphosphere microbiome. Most interestingly, carbohydrate transport and
231 metabolism pathways represented over 6% of all the results, and *G. margarita* exhibited
232 a smaller abundance of these pathways than *F. mosseae* and *R. intraradices* in Exp 1
233 and Exp 2, respectively (Fig. 7).

234

235 **Discussion**

236 **Validation of a novel method for separating out the impact of AM fungi on the soil** 237 **microbiome**

238 Traditionally, mycorrhizal colonization is measured by staining and microscopic
239 observation methods [24]. In contrast, in this study we used q-PCR to quantify the DNA
240 copy number to indicate mycorrhizal fungi colonizing status with species specific 18S
241 rRNA primers. There is a background threshold of 100 copies in the AM fungi DNA q-
242 PCR process that dictates the presence or absence of AM fungi [18]. Our results
243 suggested that all inoculated treatments have many orders of magnitude more DNA
244 copies than those of control treatments (Fig. 2a). In addition, no other non-targeted AM
245 fungus was found in any sample through PCR using AM fungal species specific primers.
246 Such results suggest that all inoculated AM fungi were well colonized in the split-root
247 system of cotton without contamination.

248 In this study, we compared the bacterial community that associated with the
249 hyphae (representing the hyphosphere microbiome) with the bacterial community in
250 the soil collected from HCs of non-mycorrhizal treatments (representing the bulk soil).
251 As the diameter of AM fungal hyphae is so small that is difficult to separate soil
252 particles from the hyphae, we therefore used the bacteria that were tightly colonizing
253 on the hyphal surface to indicate the status of the hyphosphere bacterial community.

254 To avoid any influence of root exudates on the measurements, we set a 1 cm wide
255 buffer zone in which we added sterilized mixture of glass beads and fine clay soil which
256 was sieved through 30 μm nylon mesh. Our results showed that $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the HCs soils
257 of the control treatments were the same as the background, suggesting no direct
258 influence from root exudate on the microbiome community in HCs. Therefore, all
259 differences between hyphosphere and bulk soil or between the different AM fungal
260 species can be attributed to the effects of hyphal exudation.

261 As the turnover rate of AM extraradical hyphae is fast [25], both vital and nonvital
262 hyphae exist simultaneously, importantly it is thought that the bacterial communities
263 associated with these two types of hyphae may differ [19]. To avoid these influences,
264 we took a seven-day-pulse labelling approach in the last week before harvesting, which
265 ensures that, all the ^{13}C labelled extraradical mycelium were vital, because the potential
266 turnover time of AM fungal hyphae is 5-6 days [25]. We assume nonvital hyphae will
267 not consume the ^{13}C labelled carbohydrates because the senescent hyphae form separat
268 to cease the protoplasm flow in hyphae. Therefore, the atom percent of ^{13}C of the
269 samples in HCs indicated the allocation of photosynthetic products to vital extraradical
270 hyphae and hyphae associated with soil particle and bacteria, and the ^{13}C -DNA-SIP
271 identified hyphosphere microbiome were active hyphae exudates consumers.

272 **The influence of AM extraradical hyphae exudates on biophysical distribution**

273 **of soil microbial community and biodiversity**

274 Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi produce a large network of extraradical hyphae in
275 soil and provide a carbon rich habitat for soil microbes [5,6], which induces
276 colonization of diverse groups of bacteria forming the hyphosphere [7,26,27]. Our
277 current study not only further supports those previous findings but provided novel
278 findings as well. First, the differences in q-PCR (Fig. 2a) and plant biomass (Table 1)
279 results between *F.mosseae/G.margarita* and NM in Exp 1 or
280 *R.intraradices/G.margarita* and NM in Exp 2 indicated that all AM fungal species
281 colonized roots of cotton and played a role in promoting plant growth. Second, we
282 successfully separated the active bacteria that consumed hyphal exudates by ¹³C-DNA-
283 SIP plus Miseq sequencing methods (Fig. S3). Compared to bulk soil, we found that
284 only part of the soil microbiome was ¹³C-labelled on the hyphae of the AM fungi which
285 we defined as the active hyphosphere microbiome (Fig. S4). Third, the co-colonizing
286 AM fungi all formed a unique bacterial community around the extraradical mycelium
287 (Fig S3 and Fig. S5). Our observations help us understand biophysical mechanisms
288 which dictate the heterogeneous distribution of the microbiome at the micro-scale [28-
289 30]. Our current finding provides new and direct evidence that shows that AM fungal
290 hyphae, most likely through their exudates, are one of the major driving forces for
291 formation of the bacteria mosaic at micrometer scale in soil. As AM fungi use up to 20%
292 of plant photosynthesis products and form several meters to tens of meters of hyphae
293 in one gram of soil [31], understanding of such mechanisms have significance even
294 within the context of the global soil microbial biodiversity pattern.

295 **Co-colonizing AM fungal species recruited different active hyphosphere**
296 **microbiome community**

297 Although previous studies have shown that a range of AM fungal species, which

298 are different in morphological structure, hyphal distribution pattern and their metabolic
299 traits, can simultaneously colonize a single root system [15,32,33]. Whether or not these
300 fungi recruit different microbiome with their own preference is still an open question.

301 We hypothesized that any difference in microbiome community structures
302 between the two HCs in Exp 1 and Exp 2 can be attributed to the differences in traits of
303 excretion of exudates between the two AM fungal species. Our ¹³C-DNA-SIP plus
304 pyrosequencing results supported the hypothesis. First, different AM fungal species
305 produced differing amounts of hyphae in HCs (Fig. 2b). Compared to *G. margarita*, the
306 HCs of both *F. mosseae* and *R. intraradices* contained a greater ¹³C abundance. Second,
307 there were more OTUs in the microbiome of *F. mosseae* and *R. intraradices*
308 hyphosphere than that of *G. margarita* in Exp 1 and Exp 2, respectively (Fig. S4). More
309 importantly, the abundance and structure of over half of the bacteria, at both phyla and
310 genera levels, showed a significant difference between *F. mosseae* and *G. margarita* in
311 Exp 1 and between *R. intraradices* and *G. margarita* in Exp 2 (Fig. 3, 4, 5 and 6). All
312 these results suggested the microbiomes that associated with the three AM fungal
313 species were distinct.

314 Previous studies have indicated that the hyphosphere microbiome are directly
315 involved in soil organic N, P, C mineralization [7,27,31,34,35]. For example,
316 *Pseudomonas* and *Bacillus* are reported to have abilities to mobilize sparingly soluble
317 P in soil (Table S5)[5,7]. In the current study, *G. margarita* harbored greater abundance
318 of *Pseudomonas*, but fewer *Bacillus* than those of *F. mosseae* or *R. intraradices*. In
319 addition, some soil bacteria, called mycorrhiza helper bacteria (MHB), can help AMF
320 colonize more into the root or branch more [9]. MHB belong to many taxa such as
321 Proteobacteria (*Agrobacterium*, *Azospirillum*, *Azotobacter*, *Burkholderia*,
322 *Bradyrhizobium*, *Enterobacter*, *Pseudomonas*, *Klebsiella* and *Rhizobium*), Firmicutes

323 (*Bacillus*, *Brevibacillus*, and *Paenibacillus*), Actinomycetes (*Rhodococcus*,
324 *Streptomyces*, and *Arthrobacter*) and even some unculturable bacterial taxa such as
325 Acidobacteria (*Acidobacterium*) [36] (Table S6). However, MHB are often AM fungal
326 specificity, which means they can stimulate mycorrhiza formation and extraradical
327 hyphae production for some AMF but inhibit these mycorrhizal traits for the others [37].
328 For example, *Streptomyces sp.* enhanced the colonization of *R. intraradices* (formerly
329 named *Glomus intraradices*) but inhibited the growth of *Hebeloma cylindrosporum*
330 [38,39]. Here, we found that the abundance of *Streptomyces* and *Bacillus* were much
331 greater in the hyphosphere of *R. intraradices* and *F. mosseae* than that of *G. margarita*,
332 while *G. margarita* which contained the largest abundance of *Pseudomonas*. These
333 observations suggest that different AM fungal species might cooperate with different
334 functional bacteria and have different impacts on the function of the hyphosphere. The
335 COG functional prediction also supported this assertion, indicating that distinct
336 microbiomes recruited by different AM fungi contained different abundance of
337 inorganic P mobilization abilities or other functions (Fig. 7). Further studies are needed
338 to investigate the functions of the hyphosphere microbiome in specific nutrition cycling.

339 **Outlook and conclusion**

340 The soil microbiome is critical to the functioning of plant-AM fungi-bacteria-soil
341 particle continuum system and therefore to growing our food sustainably and with
342 minimal environmental impact, protecting against pathogens and disease, while also
343 providing important ecological services such as nutrient turnover and transformation
344 and bioavailability. Understanding the structure of the microbiome is essential for using
345 the native microbiome efficiently [40]. In recent years, mycorrhizal genome sequencing
346 studies have found that mycorrhizal fungi have lost many saprophytic genes in the long-
347 term co-evolution process with plants [16]. Cooperating with functional microbiomes,

348 such as phosphatase releasing bacteria [6,41] is considered an important strategy for
349 AM fungi to compensate their lack of ability to utilize organic P. We find for the first
350 time that different living AM fungi species that colonized single plant root recruit active
351 microbiomes which are distinct from each other. The research not only provides direct
352 evidence for understanding the biophysical process that AM fungal hyphae exudates
353 drive the formation of soil bacteria diversity heterogeneity, but also reveals the potential
354 division of labor may exist in plant-AM fungi-bacteria system that still remains to be
355 understood fully. Greater knowledge of these key interactions in the hyphosphere has
356 potential to allow us to more effectively manage the utilization of resources in
357 agricultural systems and help us improve future agricultural sustainability.

358 **Materials and Methods**

359 **Soil**

360 A moderately acid soil (Inceptisol according to the USDA classification system)
361 from Tai'an, Shandong province, China (36°10'N, 117°09'E) was used.
362 Physicochemical properties of the soil are presented in Table S1. The collected soil was
363 air dried and sieved (2 mm). The basal nutrients were added to the soil as described in
364 Table S2. The soil was sterilized by gamma irradiation (25 kGy, 60 Co γ -rays) in the
365 Beijing Atomic Energy Research Institute to eliminate indigenous microorganisms and
366 mycorrhizal propagules before use. Previous studies have demonstrated that AM fungi
367 recruited a hyphosphere microbiome that has the potential to stimulate the solubility of
368 organic P [6,7]. In this study, to enhance the colonization of soil microbiome in
369 hyphosphere, 100 mg kg⁻¹ myo-inositol hexaphosphate calcium magnesium salt (phytin,
370 TCI, Tokyo, Japan) (equaling to 20 mg P kg⁻¹ soil) was added to the hyphal
371 compartment as an organic P resource. In order to induce the AM fungal hyphae to
372 release protons to acidify the hyphosphere soil, (NH₄)₂SO₄ was provided as the N

373 source [42]. In addition, a nitrification inhibitor 3,4-dimethylpyrazole phosphate
374 (DMPP; 'ENTEC Flüssig' produced by EuroChem Agro GmbH, Mannheim, Germany)
375 was also added, at a rate of 1% (w/w) of the N applied to prevent nitrification of
376 $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$.

377 **Microcosms**

378 In order to test whether the extraradical mycelium of each AM fungal species that
379 simultaneously colonized on the same root system would recruit their own microbiome,
380 we used a split-root and compartmented microcosms system that was able to separate
381 the growing spaces of root systems and the extraradical mycelium of two AM fungal
382 species (Fig. 1). The microcosms were constructed using PVC plates, and consisted of
383 four compartments. The two middle compartments were separated by PVC plates and
384 were used for split-root growth (root compartment, RCs). The two outer compartments
385 (hyphal compartment, HCs) were separated from the RCs by a 1 cm buffer zone. The
386 buffer zone consisted of two-layers of 30 μm nylon mesh, which allowed AM fungal
387 hyphae to pass through, but prevented root penetration. In order to easily extract the
388 hyphae, the fine soil used in HCs was sieved with a 30 μm mesh. In short, fine soil was
389 prepared by wet sieving. Approximately 1 kg of air-dried soil was placed into a 5 L
390 bucket, 3-4 L tap water was added, and the soil was brought into suspension by stirring.
391 The soil suspension was poured through a sieve with a mesh width of 30 μm . This
392 procedure was repeated three times on each 1 kg soil portion. The sieved soil suspension
393 was collected in another bucket and allowed to settle until the water above the soil layer
394 became clear and was siphoned off using a flexible tube. The remaining sludge was
395 transferred to a shallow, heat-resistant dish and was dried at 60°C until the material
396 became solid. The fine soil was then mixed with glass beads (1 mm in diameter) by 1:1
397 (w/w) ratio. The mixture was sterilized by gamma irradiation (25 kGy, 60 Co γ -rays) in

398 the Beijing Atomic Energy Research Institute. The microcosms received the following
399 amounts of soil or soil-glass bead mixture: 500 g soil in each RC and 165 g soil-glass
400 bead mixture in each buffer zone and 495 g soil-glass bead mixture in each HC. The
401 soil or soil-glass bead mixture was filled very carefully to each compartment to
402 maintain equal bulk density in each HC.

403 **Host plants**

404 Cotton (*Gossypium herbaceum* L., cv. Xinluzao 32) seeds were surface-sterilized
405 with 10% (v/v) H₂O₂ [42], and germinated on moist filter paper for 2 days at 26°C in
406 the dark. The seeds were then transferred to 40×25 cm moist filter paper for 17 days
407 (12 h light, 12 h dark, 26°C) to allow the roots to grow longer. Seedlings of similar size
408 and with nine roots (including taproot) were selected, and one plant was transplanted
409 into each microcosm.

410 **AM fungal and bacterial inoculant**

411 The inoculum of *Rhizophagus intraradices* (*R.i*) (EY108), *Funneliformis mosseae*
412 (*F.m*) (MD118) and *Gigaspora margarita* (*G.m*) (JA101A) were purchased from the
413 International Culture Collection of (Vesicular) Arbuscular Mycorrhizal Fungi (INVAM).
414 They were propagated through hosts (maize: Nongda 108 and *Plantago depressa* Wild.)
415 in zeolite and sand for five months; the spore density was about 20 spores g⁻¹ substrate.
416 In order to keep the same RC original microflora, 5 ml of AM fungal inoculum filtrate
417 was added to each RC as described in Table S3. Five ml of soil filtrate was added to the
418 hyphal compartment as the original hyphal compartment microflora. The filtrate of
419 inoculum or soil was obtained by suspending 30 g of unsterilized inoculum or soil in
420 300 ml of sterile water and filtration through six-layer quantitative filter paper
421 (properties similar to Whatman Grade 43) [5], which allowed passing of common soil
422 microbes, but effectively retained spores and hyphae of mycorrhizal fungi.

423 **Experimental design and procedure**

424 Two single factor experiments were conducted, Experiment 1 (Exp 1) and
425 Experiment 2 (Exp 2) which are described in Fig. 1. There were 6 repeats for each
426 treatment, 3 were labeled with $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ while the other 3 were given $^{12}\text{CO}_2$ treatment as
427 a control. At planting, half of the soil for each RC (250 g) was carefully added to the
428 RC, and then 30 g AM fungal inoculum of each AM fungal species containing about
429 600 spores was added to each RC. The taproot of the pre-cultured plant was cut-off at
430 the elongation zone, and the shoot was mounted on the central PVC plate. The two
431 groups of lateral roots were evenly separated into the two RCs. Finally, the remaining
432 250 g soil was added to the RCs. The control treatments (NM) in both experiments
433 received the same amount of sterilized inoculum. The HCs and buffer zone were filled
434 with a soil-glass bead mixture, and thus, the substrates in the four sections are referred
435 to as root soil, buffer soil and hyphal soil (Fig. 1). Plants in these microcosms were
436 grown in a campus greenhouse at China Agricultural University in Beijing from 13
437 May to 8 July 2015 at 24/30°C (night/day) and an average photosynthetically actively
438 radiation of $360 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. To avoid any possible influence of environmental factors
439 in the glasshouse, the position of the microcosms was re-randomized once a week. Soil
440 gravimetric moisture was kept at 18-20% (w/w, ~ 70% water holding capacity) with
441 deionized water added to weight every 2 days during the experiment.

442 **$^{13}\text{CO}_2$ pulse labeling chamber and procedure**

443 To trace the transfer of plant-derived C from mycorrhizal hyphae to the
444 hyphosphere microbes, $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ stable isotope pulse labeling was conducted in the
445 glasshouse for seven days before harvest. Seven weeks after sowing, the cotton plants
446 were subjected to $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ (99% of ^{13}C atom) pulse labeling in an airtight Plexiglas
447 growth chamber (Fig. S1). The plant shoots protruded through the holes and the joins

448 between stems and chamber were sealed with silica gel to prevent direct exposure of
449 the soil surface to the $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ labeling. During pulse labeling, a cooling system was used
450 to cool the chamber temperature to 35°C . A 100 ml aliquot of $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ was injected
451 through the septum using a gas-tight syringe every hour from 9 am to 5 pm, the period
452 in which photosynthesis was the greatest during the day [43]. During this process, CO_2
453 concentration was measured using an infrared gas analyzer. The CO_2 concentration
454 reached about $450\ \mu\text{M}$ after injecting, and about $10\ \mu\text{M}$ before injecting. The lid was
455 removed one hour after the last CO_2 injection, when the $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ concentration in the
456 chamber had decreased to atmospheric levels. The plants were labeled for seven days.
457 Simultaneously, the same procedures of $^{12}\text{CO}_2$ (99% of ^{12}C atom) labeling control were
458 also performed [5]. To remove the influence of vapor produced by plant evaporation
459 during CO_2 labeling on photosynthesis, three trays of CaCl_2 (100 g per tray) were placed
460 in the chamber. The wet CaCl_2 trays were removed and dried in a forced-air oven at
461 105°C for 2 h every day after the lid of the chamber was removed in the evening and
462 re-used repeatedly.

463 **Harvest and sample analysis**

464 The plants were harvested eight weeks after planting. To prevent contamination of
465 the hyphal samples with exotic bacteria settling on the surface soil, we removed the top
466 1 cm of soil to reduce any potential contamination. The soil in the buffer zone was
467 removed before collecting the soil from the hyphal compartment. Soil from two HCs
468 of NM treatments was mixed as one sample. A part of the soil was stored at 4°C for soil
469 tests and another part was immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C
470 until DNA extraction for microbial diversity tests could be performed. The shoots were
471 oven-dried before measuring the dry weight and processing for shoot P concentration.
472 Determination of shoot P concentration was performed according to the method of

473 Thomas et al. (1967) [44].

474 Root DNA was extracted using a Tiangen plant genome Kit (Tiangen Co Lt.,
475 Beijing, China) following the manufacturer's instructions, the AM fungal gene copies
476 were detected to assess AM fungal root colonization rate. The AMF copies were
477 quantified in triplicate by real-time q-PCR in a q-TOWER q-PCR analyzer (Jena,
478 Germany) using root DNA extracted from each treatment with AM fungi specific
479 primers (Table S4) and using the methods described in supplementary materials. The
480 hyphal length density of HC soil was determined according to the method of Jakobsen
481 et al. (1992) [45].

482 **¹³C DNA stable isotope probing (SIP) analysis**

483 Soil samples stored at 4°C were oven-dried at 70°C, ground, sieved using an 80
484 µm mesh and then the δ¹³C‰ was determined at the Stable Isotope Laboratory of the
485 College of Resources and Environmental Sciences, China Agricultural University,
486 Beijing, China (see details in supplementary materials). These soils were assumed to
487 only contain ¹³C contained in AM fungal extraradical hyphae or released by the hyphae
488 to the soil.

489 **Collection of extraradical mycelia from hyphal compartment**

490 Five hundred g of the soil, glass beads, and associated fungal material in the hyphal
491 compartments were transferred to a sieve with a 30 µm mesh. The soil was carefully
492 washed through the mesh with filtered sterile deionized water, leaving the extraradical
493 mycelium and glass beads on the sieve. To separate the extraradical mycelia from the
494 glass beads and to clean them, the mixture was transferred into a 1 L beaker and filtered
495 sterile deionized water was added, before the mixture was stirred and poured back into
496 the sieve, leaving the glass beads in the beaker. This procedure was repeated five times.
497 The extraradical mycelia were rinsed with filtered sterile deionized water before they

498 were collected from the sieve using forceps and placed into a microcentrifuge tube. All
499 mycelia samples were weighed before DNA extraction and afterwards stored at -80°C
500 until further processing.

501 For the non-mycorrhizal treatments, no extraradical hyphae were observed in the
502 hyphal compartment when samples were collected as described above. 0.5 g residual
503 soil particles on the sieve were collected and referred to as non-mycorrhizal samples.
504 These samples were also stored at -80°C before DNA extraction and tagged as NM
505 (non-mycorrhizal treatment).

506 **DNA extraction, density gradient centrifugation and q-PCR analysis**

507 DNA of AM fungal mycelia and soil sample collected from last step were extracted
508 using the FastDNA SPIN Kit (MP Biomedicals LLC, Santa Ana, CA, USA) following
509 the manufacturer's instructions. All the extracted rDNA samples (approximately 500
510 ng) were fully blended with cesium trifluoroacetate (CsTFA) to achieve an initial
511 buoyant density (BD) of 1.560 g ml^{-1} before ultracentrifugation at 45400 rpm for 36 h
512 [46]. The centrifuged gradients were fractionated from bottom to top into 16 equal
513 fractions. The buoyant density of DNA in the gradient fractions was determined using
514 a digital refractometer (Reichert AR2000). The DNA fractions were then purified with
515 isopropyl alcohol and 70% (v/v) ethanol and stored at -80°C for further analysis. DNA
516 from each gradient fraction of all treatments was quantified in triplicate by real-time q-
517 PCR in an q-TOWER q-PCR analyzer (Jena, Germany) with primers Ba519f/Ba907r
518 (Table S4) using the protocol described in the supplementary material.

519 **16S rRNA gene-based Miseq sequencing**

520 Fractions which had buoyant density of approximately 1.58 were quality checked,
521 and then the DNA samples were sent to the Majorbio Biotechnology Company
522 (Shanghai, China) for sequencing on an Illumina MiSeq (PE300) sequencing platform.

523 The V3–V4 hypervariable regions of 16S rDNA were amplified using a primer set
524 Ba338f/Ba806r (Table S4). The DNA samples from the NM control soil were sent for
525 sequencing and used as the original soil microbiome community. The DNA samples of
526 AM fungal mycelia were considered as hyphosphere microbiome. In addition, ^{12}C
527 labeled samples were sequenced and used as the whole hyphosphere microbiome, while
528 ^{13}C labeled samples were used as the active hyphosphere microbiome which influenced
529 by hyphal exudates directly.

530 **Processing of sequencing data**

531 The Quantitative Insights Into Microbial Ecology (QIIME, v1.8.0) pipeline was
532 used to process the sequencing data, as described previously [47]. The raw sequencing
533 reads were identified to operational taxonomic units (OTUs) according to the methods
534 in supplementary material. The sequences obtained in this study were deposited in the
535 GenBank database under accession number PRJNA556534.

536 **Statistical analysis**

537 Split-root experiment data from two experiments were analyzed separately. Data
538 from *F.m* and *G.m* HCs in Exp 1 or *R.i* and *G.m* HC in Exp 2 were compared to
539 determine the difference between different AM fungal species. Data from non-
540 mycorrhiza (NM) control was also compared with *F.m* and *G.m* in Exp 1 or *R.i* and *G.m*
541 in Exp 2 to determine the effect of AM fungal inoculation. Before ANOVA, AM fungi
542 DNA copy number was used to assess mycorrhizal colonization rate and log-10
543 transformed. Likewise, the data for the relative abundance of ^{13}C in HC soil, taxa groups
544 (phyla and genera) and Cluster of Ortholog Genes (COG) functional pathways were
545 arcsine- transformed. SPSS 21.0 (Statistical Product and Service Solutions, IBM, the
546 USA) was employed to conduct above analysis.

547 Shoot biomass, P concentration and content data were analyzed separately for the

548 NM or AM (*F.m/G.m* or *R.i/G.m*) as the treatment factor. *A posteriori* comparison was
549 made using Turkey tests ($P<0.05$) by SPSS v16.0. SPSS 21.0 (Statistical Product and
550 Service Solutions, IBM, the USA) was employed to conduct above analysis.

551 The rarefaction curve of OTUs for each treatment was calculated by Usearch
552 (version 7.0, <http://drive5.com/uparse/>). The sequencing results of the $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ pulse
553 labeling samples were used to stand for the active hyphosphere microbial community.

554 Bray-curtis distances of 16S rRNA genes in nonmetric Principal Component
555 Analysis (PCA) was calculated by QIIME software, then analyzed by vegan package
556 in R (v 2.4.2) to compare the β -diversity of each experiment. Significance of the data
557 was estimated using Adonis with $P<0.05$ by vegan package in R (v 2.4.2).

558 The OTUs of 16S rDNA were standardized by PICRUST (PICRUST software stores
559 COG information corresponding to Greengene id), and the COG family information
560 corresponding to each OTU through Greengene id corresponding to each OTU for
561 functional prediction obtained.

562

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568 Scottish Government.

569 **Additional file**

570 Real time q-PCR analysis protocol;

571 ^{13}C DNA stable isotope probing (SIP) analysis;

572 Processing of pyrosequencing data;

573 **Fig. S1** Root growth system and $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ isotope probing equipment;
574 **Fig. S2** Photograph before harvesting;
575 **Fig. S3** Quantitative distribution of density-resolved bacterial 16S rRNA genes
576 obtained from hyphospheres of different inoculation treatments after a 7-day labeling
577 period with $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ and $^{12}\text{CO}_2$;
578 **Fig. S4** Rarefaction curves of the sequences;
579 **Fig. S5** Taxonomic assignment of sequence data at the phylum level;
580 **Fig. S6** The Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of 16S rDNA from all 30 samples;
581 **Table S1.** The physicochemical properties of the soil used in this study;
582 **Table S2.** Basal mineral nutrients added to the soil;
583 **Table S3.** Arbuscular mycorrhizal inoculation treatments and inoculum filtrates
584 supplied to RCs;
585 **Table S4.** Details of primers used in this experiment;
586 **Table S5.** The relative abundance (%) of phosphate solubilizing bacteria (PSB)
587 referred to previous studies;
588 **Table S6.** The relative abundance (%) of mycorrhizal helper bacteria (MHB) referred
589 to previous studies;

590 **Reference**

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597 from the Rural and Environment Science and Analytical Services Division of the

598 Scottish Government.

599 **Availability of data and materials**

600 The Illumina MiSeq sequence datasets are available at the NCBI Sequence Read
601 Archive BioProject ID PRJN556534.

602 **Authors' contributions**

603 G Feng, XF Chai and JC Zhou designed the study. JC Zhou and XF Chai performed
604 the plant culture and chemical analysis. JC Zhou prepared samples for amplicon
605 sequencing and performed bioinformatics and statistical analyses. JC Zhou, L Zhang,
606 G Feng, TS George contributed to statistical interpretation of results and wrote the
607 manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

608 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

609 Not applicable.

610 **Consent for publication**

611 Not applicable.

612 **Competing interests**

613 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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764 sequencing data. *Nat Methods.* 2010;7:335-336.

765

766 **Figure and table legend**

767 **Fig. 1** The experimental design and plant growth system. The host plant was cotton
768 (*Gossypium herbaceum* L.). RC and HC denote the root compartment and hyphal
769 compartment, respectively. The dotted lines indicate a 30 µm nylon mesh and the zone
770 between two meshes was a buffer zone. Exp 1 and Exp 2 refer to two independent
771 experiments. The nonmycorrhizal (NM) control is compared to *Rhizophagus*
772 *intraradices* (*R.i*) (EY108), *Funneliformis mosseae* (*F.m*) (MD118) and *Gigaspora*
773 *margarita* (*G.m*) (JA101A), the three different AM fungal inocula. St means sterilized.
774 The information on AM fungal inoculation treatments and inoculum filtrates supplied

775 to RCs is shown in the table S3. The brown circles represent the original bacterial
776 community from soil. The red, blue and purple lines represent the hyphae of *F.m*, *G.m*
777 and *R.i*, respectively. While the red, blue and purple circles represent the original
778 bacterial community from *F.m*, *G.m* and *R.i* inoculum, respectively.

779 **Fig. 2** The log AM fungal DNA copy number in the roots of cotton plants (a);
780 hyphal length density (b) and ¹³C abundance of the HC soil (c). Exp 1 and Exp 2 refer
781 to the two independent experiments. The nonmycorrhizal (NM) control is compared to
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783 *Gigaspora margarita* (*G.m*) (JA101A), the three different AM fungal inocula. All the
784 treatments showed in this part were ¹³C labeled. **: $P < 0.01$, ***: $P < 0.001$.

785 **Fig. 3** Phylum level distribution of DNA sequences. Exp 1 and Exp 2 refer to two
786 independent experiments. The three different AM fungal inocula were *Rhizophagus*
787 *intraradices* (*R.i*) (EY108), *Funneliformis mosseae* (*F.m*) (MD118) and *Gigaspora*
788 *margarita* (*G.m*) (JA101A). All the treatments shown were ¹³C labeled. *, ** and **
789 mean this phylum was in greater abundance in this condition in same experiment in
790 $P < 0.05$, 0.01 or 0.001 level, respectively.

791 **Fig. 4** Genus level distribution of DNA sequences. The genus showed in this plot
792 were dominant, which occupied over 1%, others were summed in Others. Exp 1 and
793 Exp 2 refer to two independent experiments. The three different AM fungal inocula
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796 ¹³C labeled. *, ** and ** mean this genus was in greater abundance in this condition in
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798 occurred in both AM fungal hyphosphere of same experiment.

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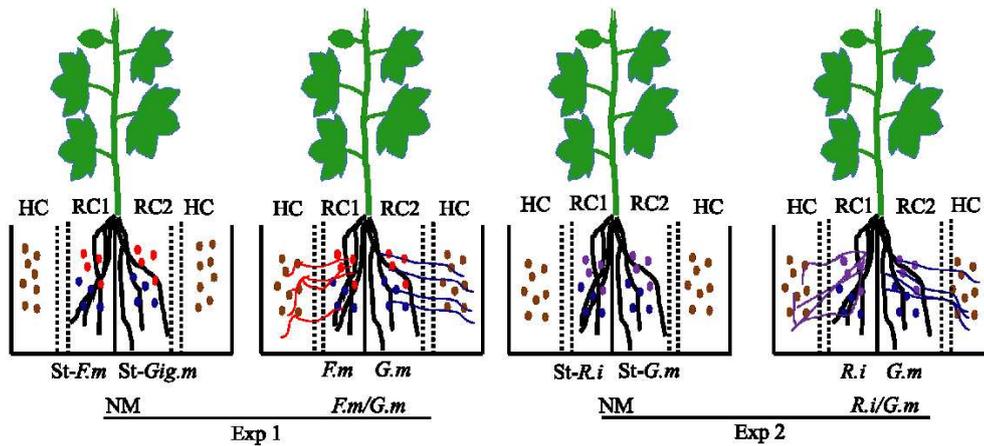
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819 **Table 1** Biomass, Phosphorus (P) concentration and P content of shoots in
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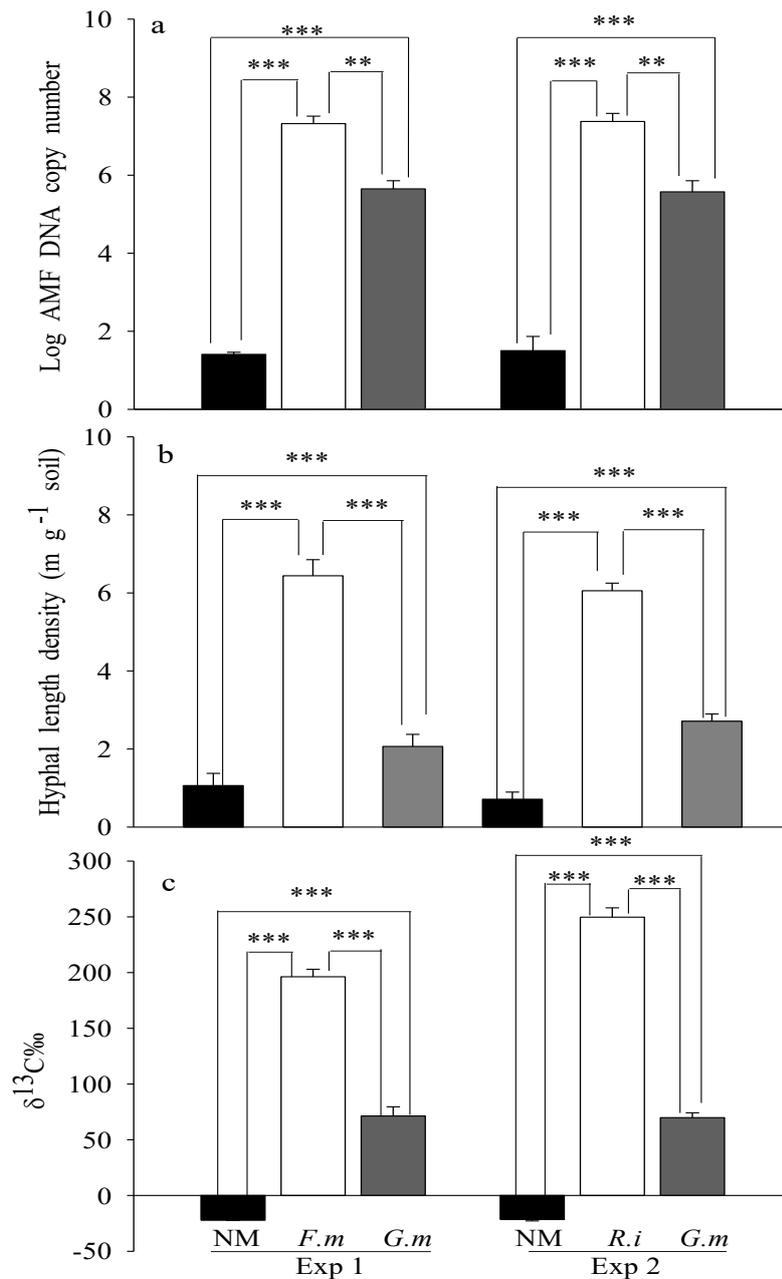
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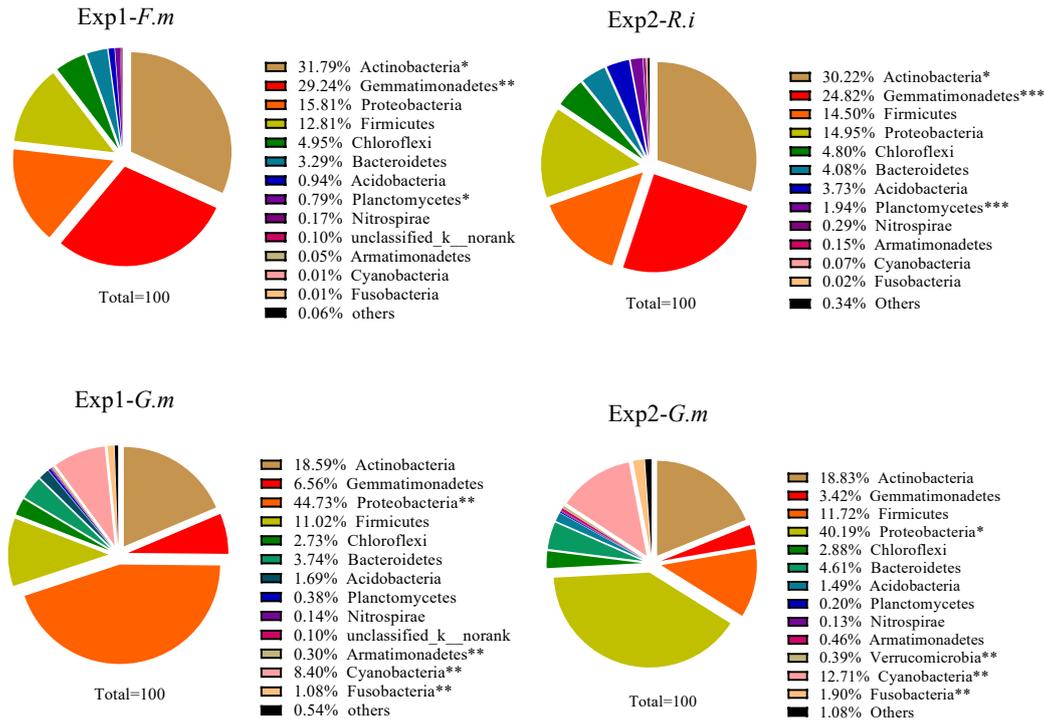
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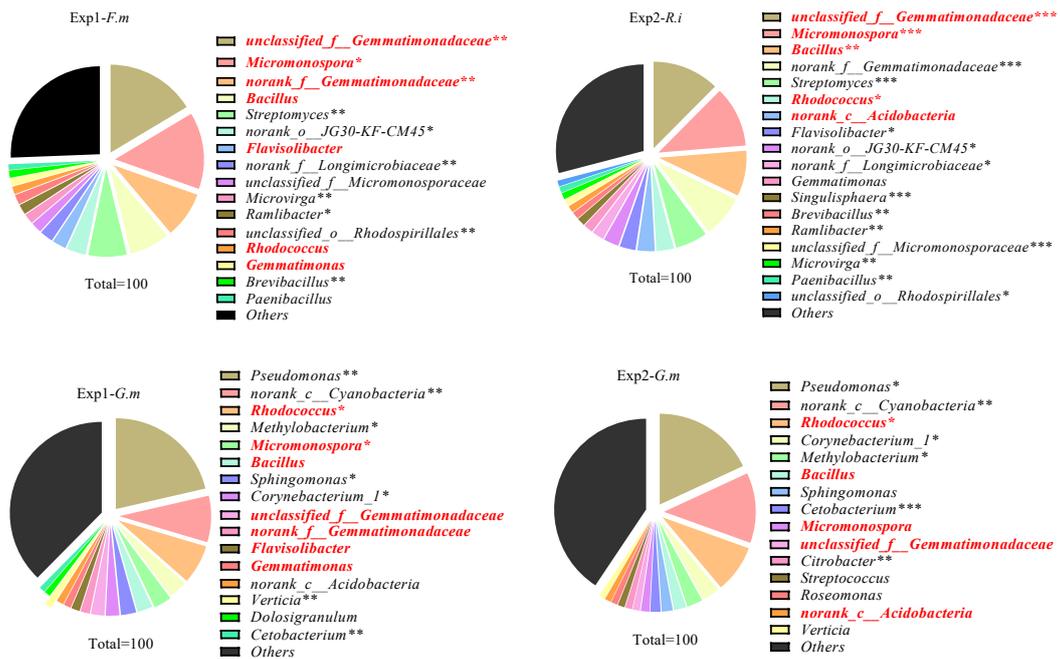
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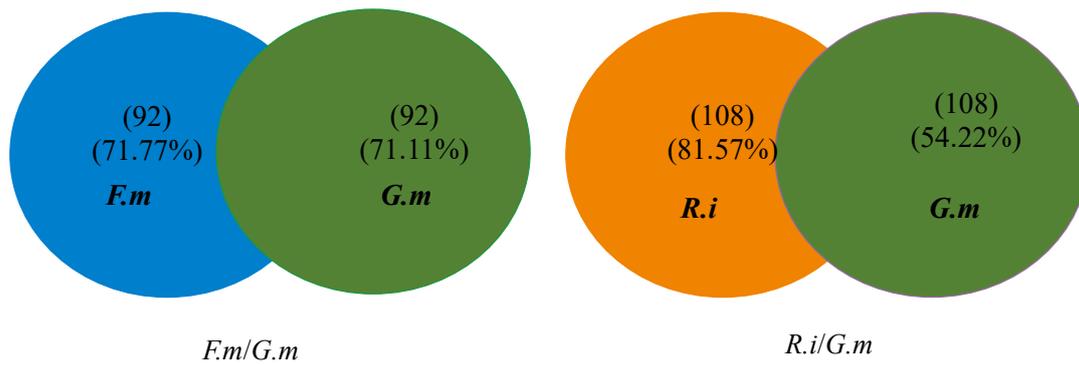


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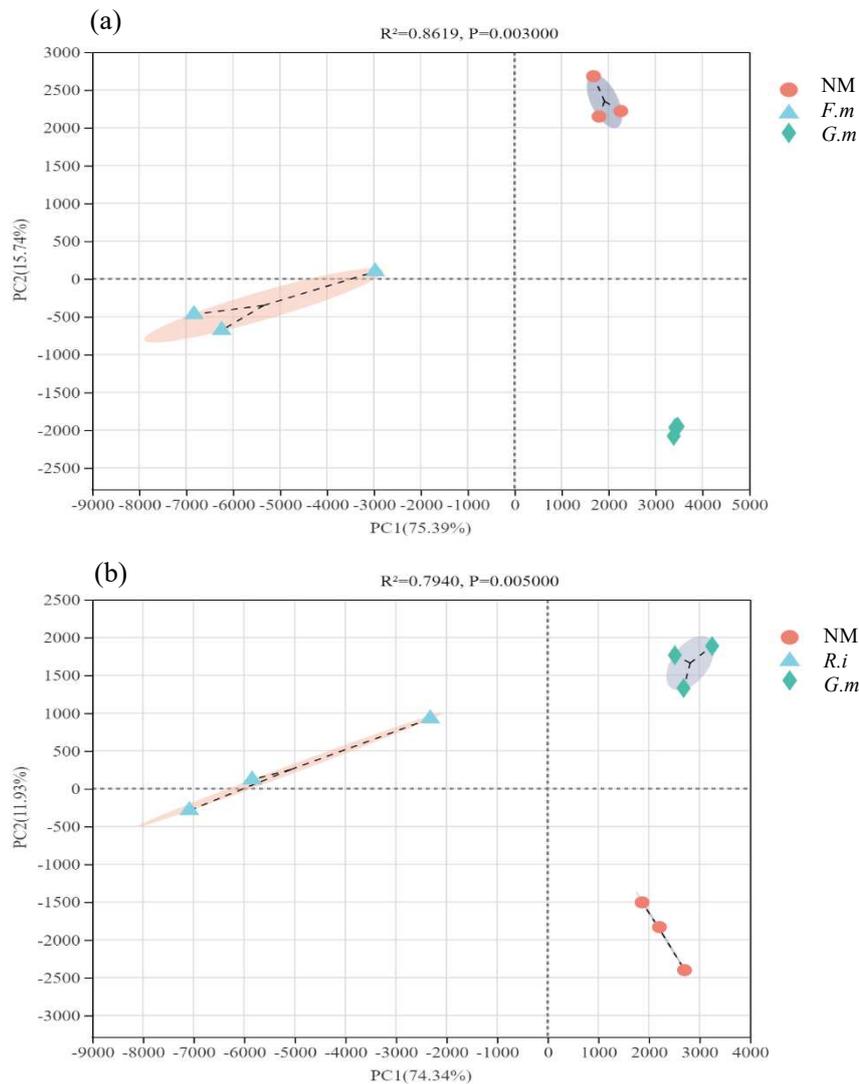
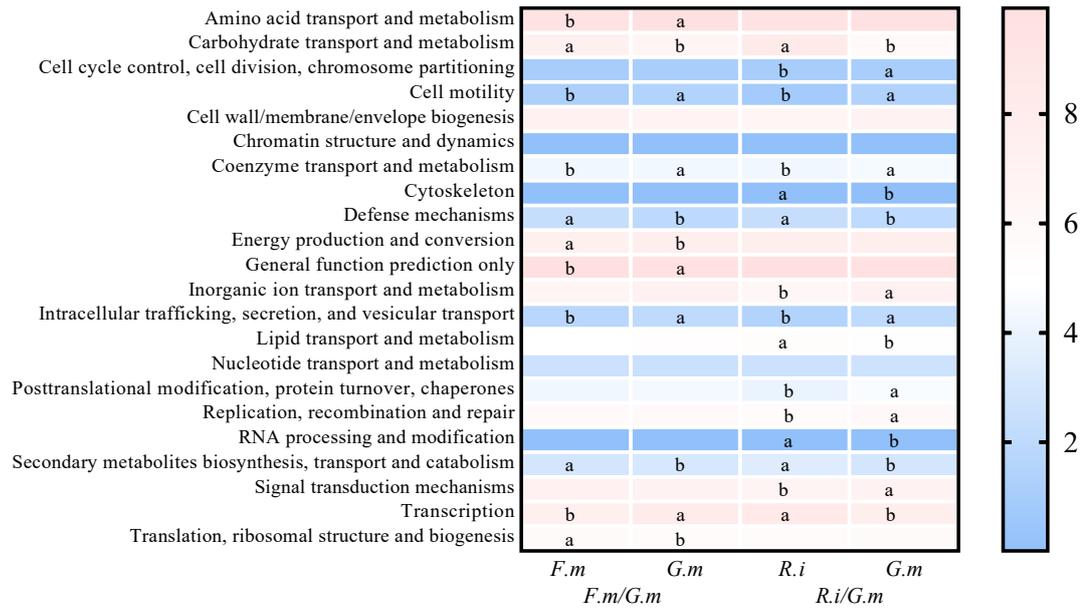


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Table 1 Biomass, Phosphorus (P) concentration and P content of shoots in

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different inoculation treatments.

	Conditions	Biomass(g)	P concentration (mg g ⁻¹)	P content (mg plant ⁻¹)
Exp 1	NM	0.82±0.06	0.91±0.04	0.74±0.05
	<i>F.m/G.m</i>	5.93±0.25 **	1.49±0.06 *	8.84±0.47 ***
Exp 2	NM	0.79±0.06	0.87±0.07	0.67±0.04
	<i>R.i/G.m</i>	5.78±0.30 **	1.92±0.09 **	11.03±0.59 ***

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Note: Exp 1 and Exp 2 refers to two independent experiments. The nonmycorrhizal

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(NM) control is compared to *Rhizophagus intraradices* (*R.i*) (EY108), *Funneliformis*

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mosseae (*F.m*) (MD118) and *Gigaspora margarita* (*G.m*) (JA101A), the three different

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AM fungal inocula. All the treatments shown in this part were ¹³C labeled. The values

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in the tables were mean value, and *: $P < 0.05$, **: $P < 0.01$, ***: $P < 0.001$.

Figures

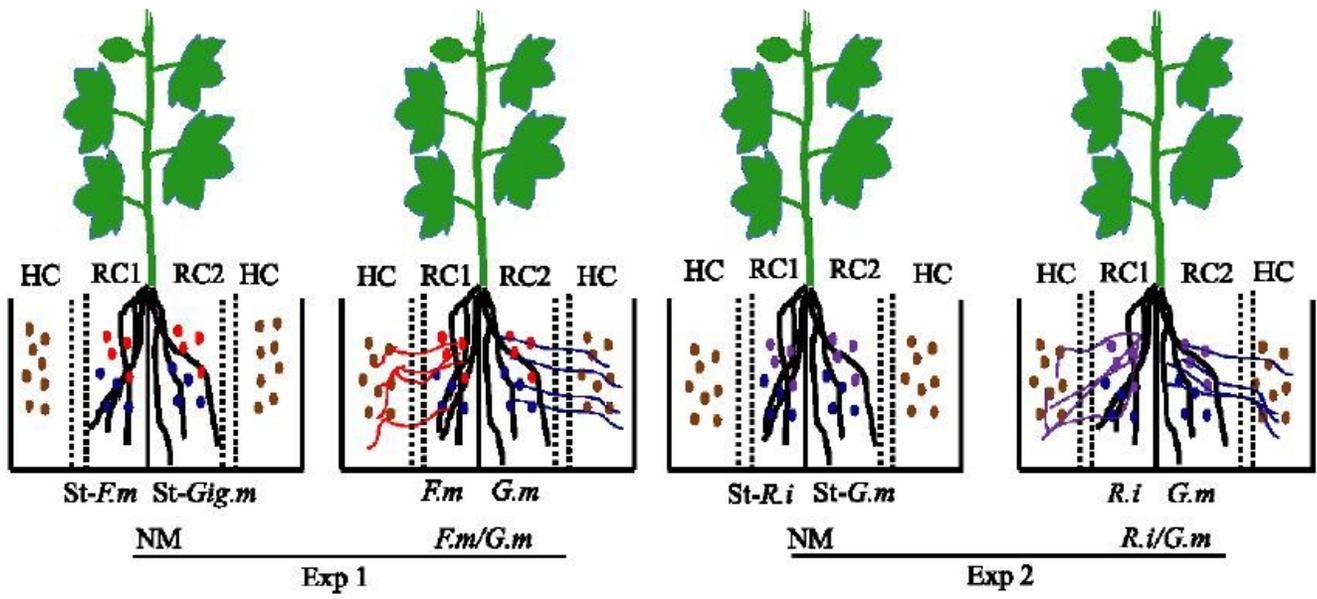


Figure 1

Figure 1

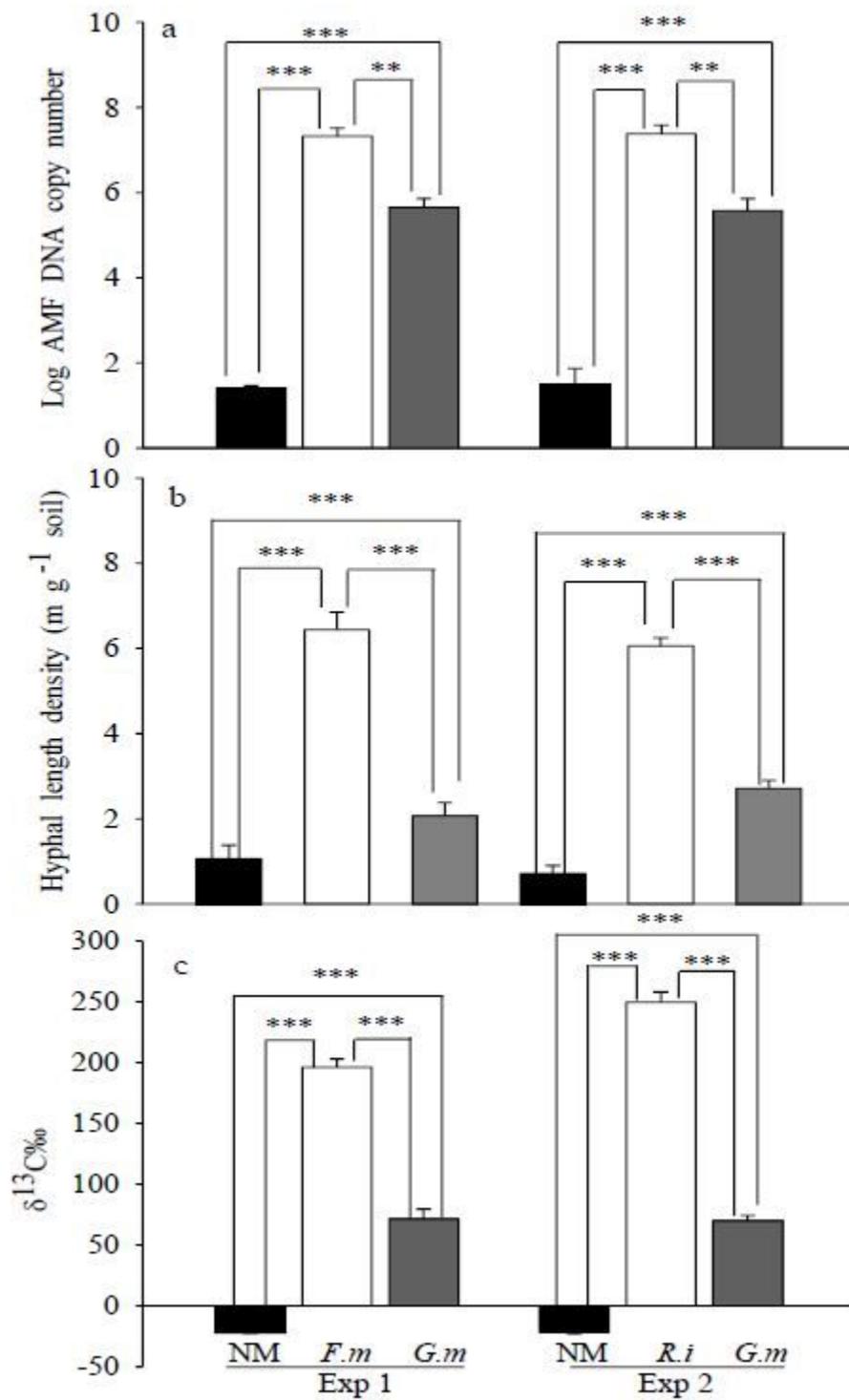


Figure 2

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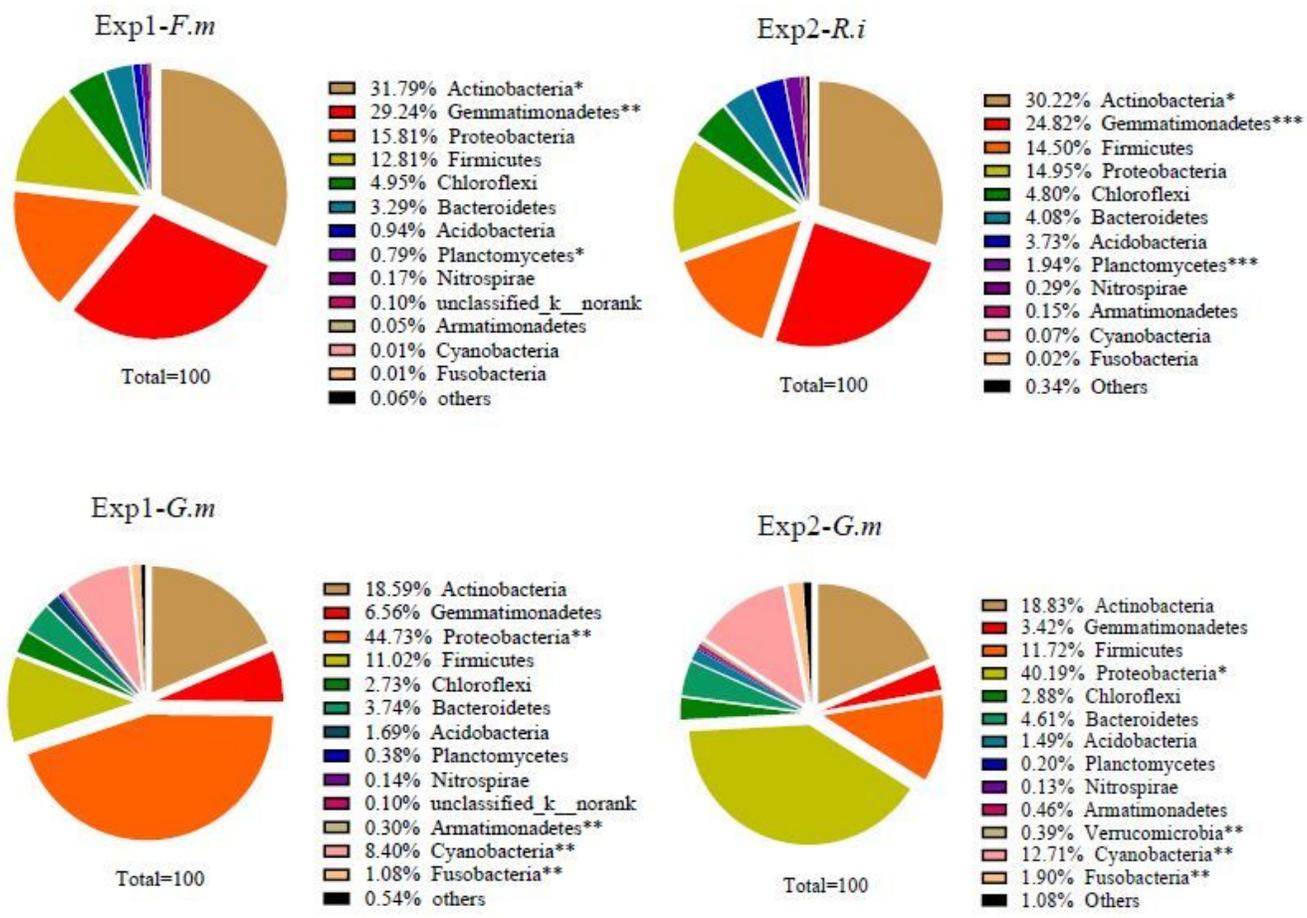


Figure 3

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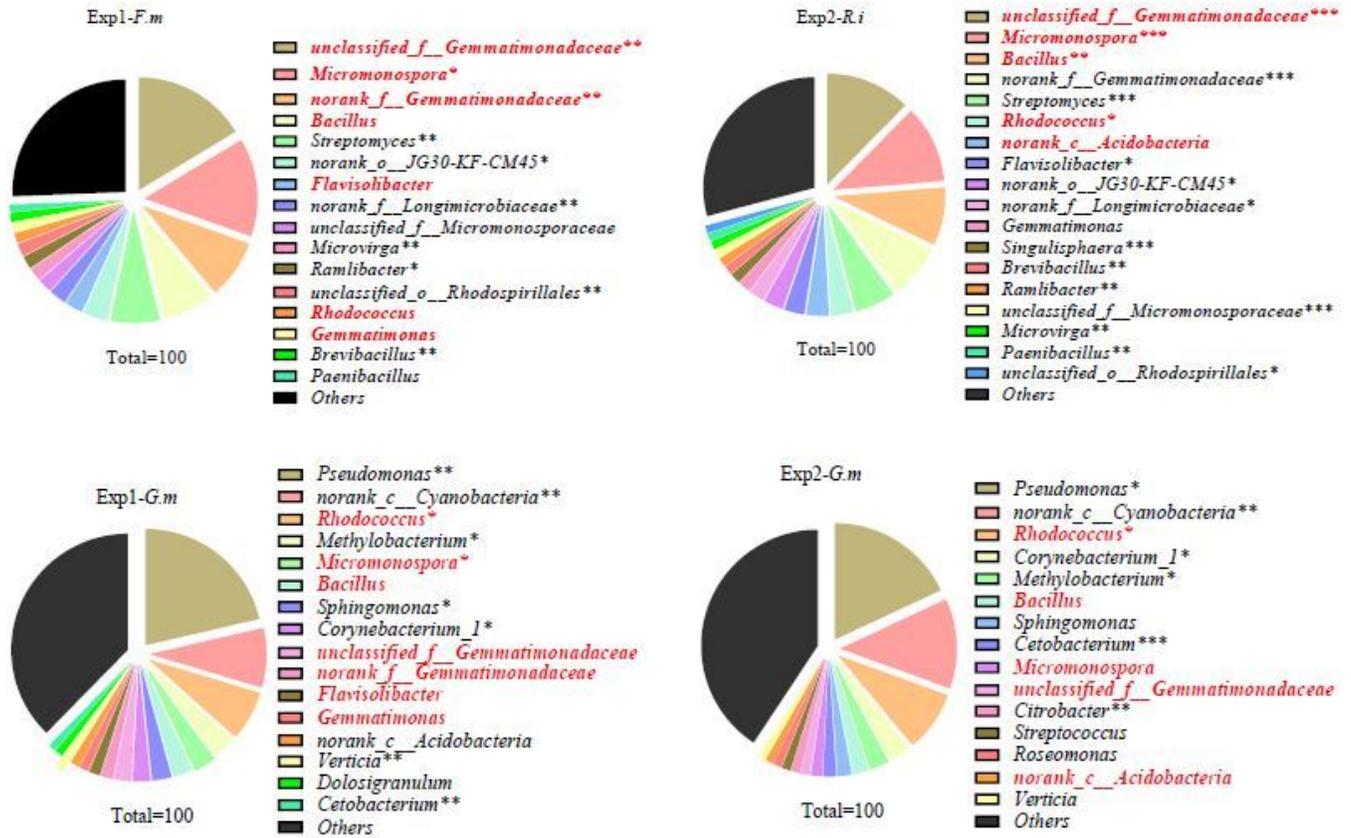


Figure 4

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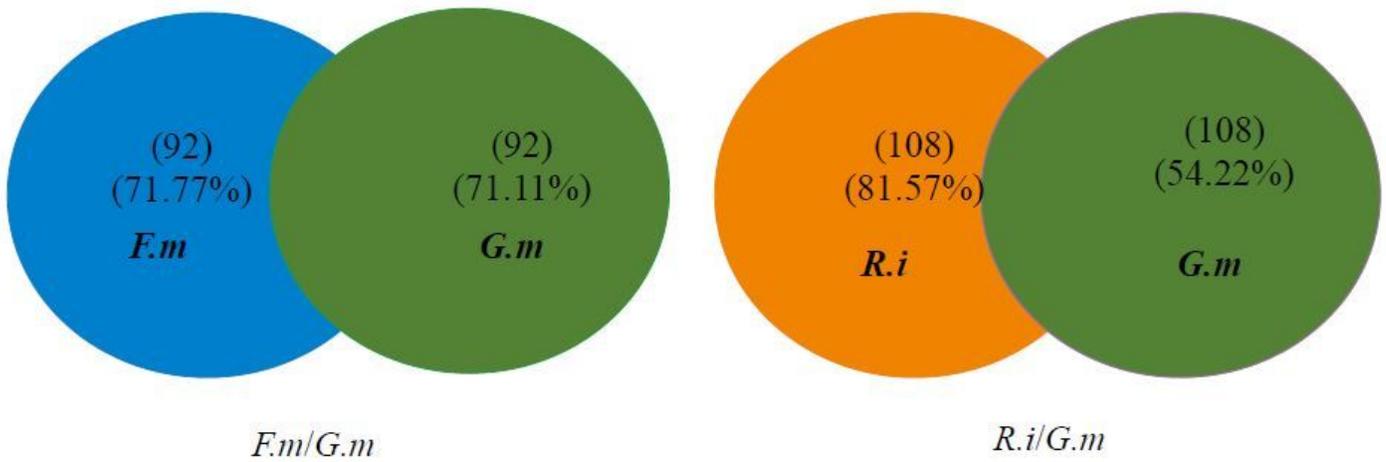


Figure 5

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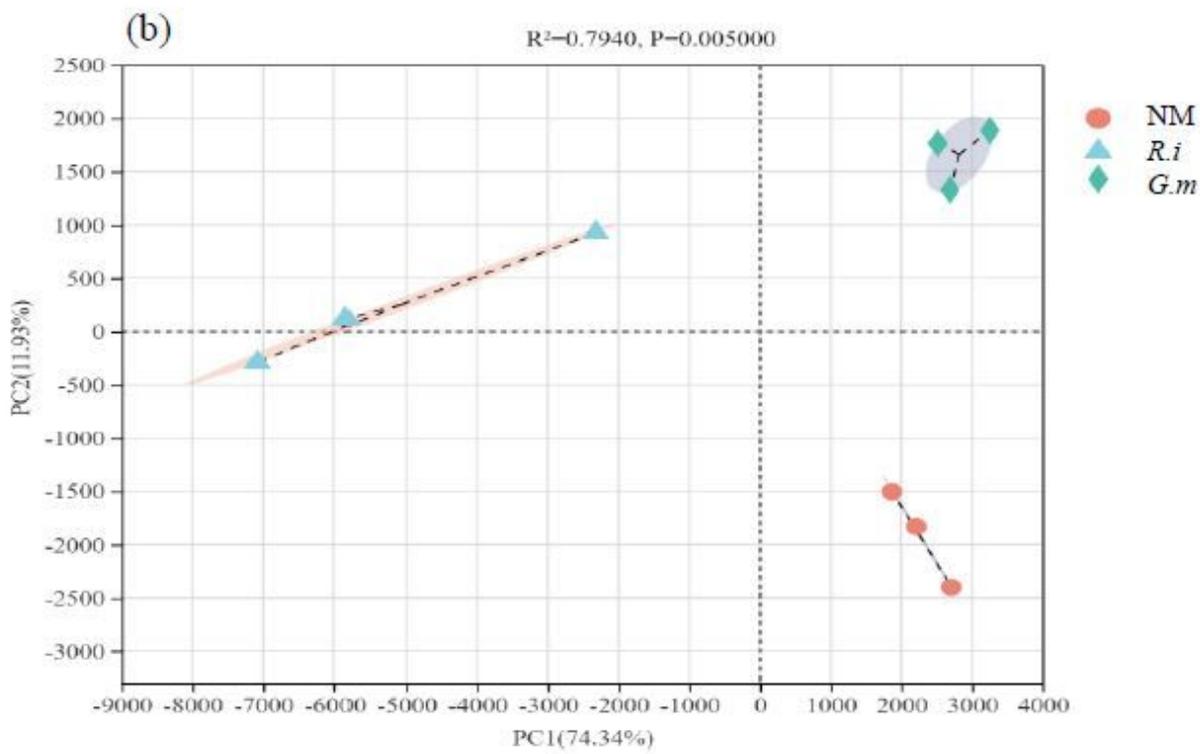
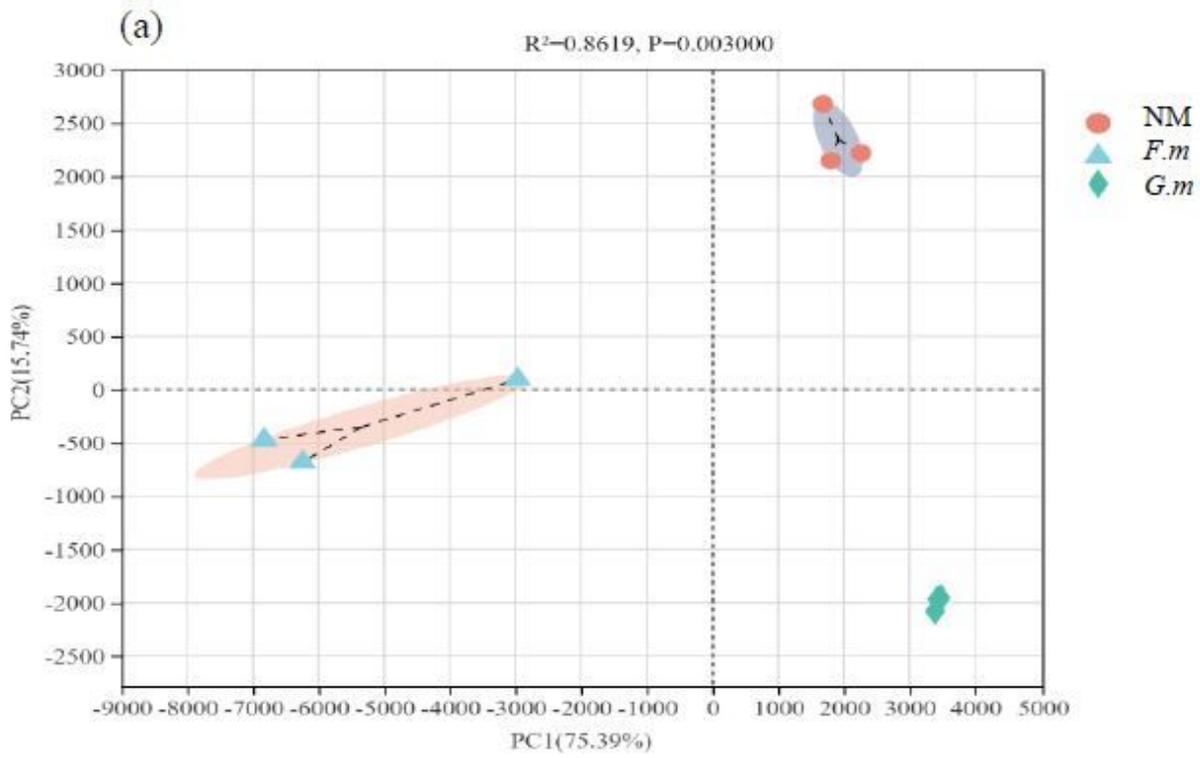


Figure 6

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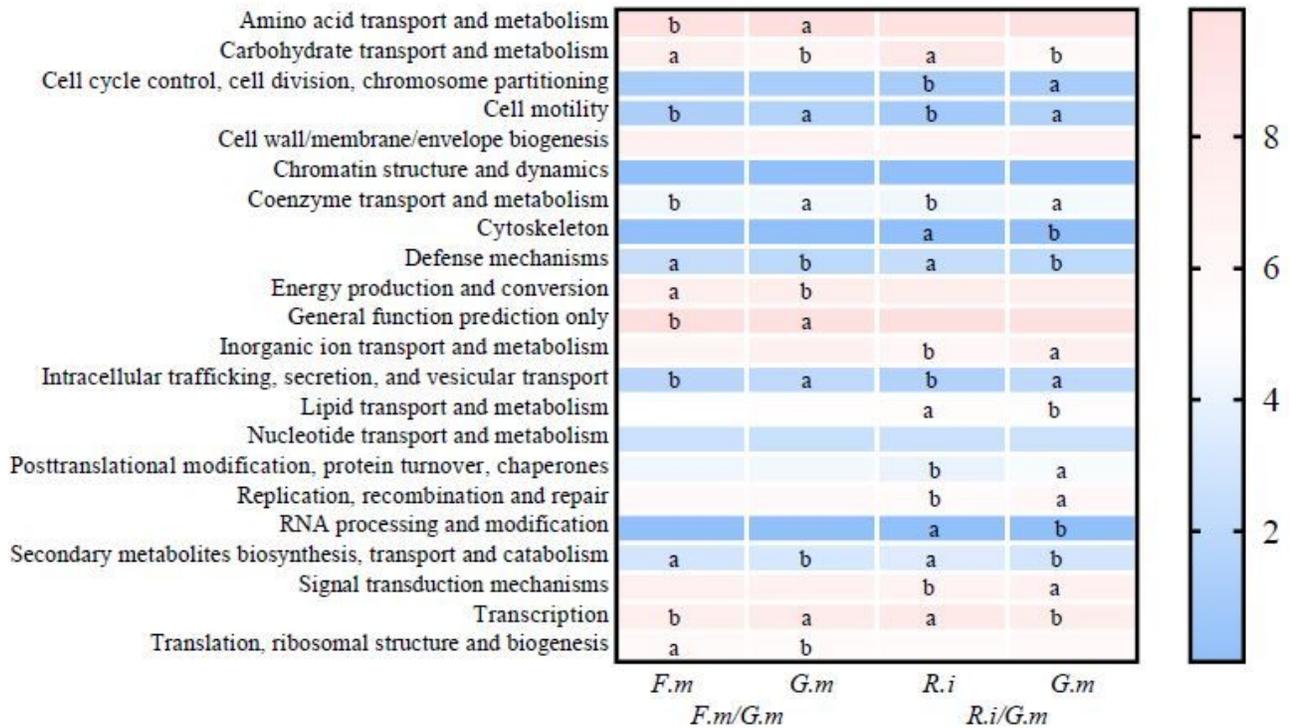


Figure 7

Figure 7

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