

# Mycorrhizal response in crop versus wild plants

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We proposed a theoretical framework predicting mutualistic outcomes for the arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) symbiosis based on host identity (crop versus wild).

To test the framework, we grew two isolates of *Rhizoglyphus irregulare* (commercial versus an isolate locally sourced from a site in Saskatchewan), with five crop plants and five wild plants that are endemic to the region and co-occur with the locally sourced fungus.

While inoculation had no effect on plant biomass, it decreased leaf P content, particularly for wild plants. All plants associating with the commercial fungus had lower leaf P. Overall, our data shows that wild plants may be more sensitive to differences in mutualistic quality among commercial biofertilizers.

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## 41 Abstract

42 We proposed a theoretical framework predicting mutualistic outcomes for the arbuscular  
43 mycorrhizal (AM) symbiosis based on host identity (crop versus wild).  
44 To test the framework, we grew two isolates of *Rhizoglyphus irregularis* (commercial versus an  
45 isolate locally sourced from a site in Saskatchewan), with five crop plants and five wild plants  
46 that are endemic to the region and co-occur with the locally sourced fungus.  
47 While inoculation had no effect on plant biomass, it decreased leaf P content, particularly for  
48 wild plants. All plants associating with the commercial fungus had lower leaf P. Overall, our data  
49 shows that wild plants may be more sensitive to differences in mutualistic quality among  
50 commercial biofertilizers.

51

## 52 Introduction

53 Arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi are obligate root symbionts that provide a wide  
54 spectrum of benefits to their hosts, such as improved nutrient relations and stress tolerance  
55 (Delavaux, Smith-Ramesh & Kuebbing, 2017). These benefits have led to their use as bio-  
56 fertilizers in agriculture and horticulture over the past 30+ years (Hamel, 1996). Consumer  
57 demand for AM fungal biofertilizers is growing; the number of companies producing inoculum  
58 have more than doubled in the past decade (Gianinazzi & Vosátka, 2004; Vosatka et al.,  
59 2012).

60 Despite early promise (Menge, 1983), inoculation by AM fungi does not always lead to  
61 improved plant performance. Even under controlled greenhouse conditions, failure to colonize is  
62 common (Rowe, Brown & Claassen, 2007; Tarbell & Koske, 2007) and in cases of successful  
63 colonization, effects range from negative (Poulsen et al., 2005; Christophersen, Smith & Smith,  
64 2009; Grace et al., 2009; Facelli et al., 2010), no detectable effect (Perner et al., 2007; Emam,  
65 2016) to significant yield increase (Buysens et al., 2016). Inoculation with AM fungi in the field  
66 is likewise inconsistent, ranging from yield increases (Baltruschat, 1987; Al-Karaki, McMichael  
67 & Zak, 2004; Ceballos et al., 2013; Hijri, 2016) to no significant effect (Hamel & Smith, 1991;  
68 Ryan & Graham, 2002).

69 What consequences could result from such differences in mutualistic outcomes? Most of our  
70 knowledge about host responses to inoculation by AM fungi is based on domesticated cultivars  
71 (Ceballos et al., 2013; Pellegrino et al., 2015; Cely et al., 2016; Hijri, 2016), meaning we have a  
72 poor understanding of how inoculants may affect local plant populations and communities if they  
73 disperse beyond the target plant community (Hart et al., 2018).

74 Although it has been argued that AM fungal inoculants pose little threat to natural plant  
75 communities because most commercial inoculants comprise cosmopolitan species with  
76 worldwide distribution (Rodriguez & Sanders, 2015), the large intraspecific variation reported in  
77 the literature among conspecifics, in life history traits, (Stahl & Christensen, 1991; Hart &  
78 Reader, 2002a; Koch et al., 2004; Munkvold et al., 2004), mutualistic quality (Koch et al., 2017)  
79 and genetics (Koch et al., 2004; Börstler et al., 2008; Croll et al., 2008), expose possible different  
80 mutualistic outcomes, even if conspecifics naturally occur.

81 Mutualistic outcomes for native plants may differ from domesticated cultivars, leading to  
82 differential responses to inoculation (Fig. 1). Because wild plants are generally more mycorrhizal  
83 dependent than cultivars (Hetrick, Wilson & Cox, 1993; Zhu et al., 2001; Wright et al., 2005;  
84 Xing et al., 2012), mutualistic outcomes may be more pronounced (positive or negative) for wild  
85 plants compared to cultivars. This effect may be exacerbated by local adaptation between wild  
86 plants and soil biota as native plants respond more positively to local, versus exotic AM fungi  
87 (Antunes et al., 2011; Rua et al., 2016). Not only are local fungi adapted to local conditions  
88 (Johnson et al., 2010; Middleton et al., 2015), but there is evidence that mutualism is more  
89 beneficial when partners share evolutionary history (Klironomos, 2003a). Taken together, such  
90 differential responses to commercial fungal inoculum may result in less beneficial mutualisms  
91 for local plants if commercial inoculants become naturalized.

92 We evaluated the mycorrhizal response of five wild plants and five crop plant species,  
93 representing multiple functional groups, when grown with a commercial AM fungal isolate and a  
94 locally sourced conspecific, to test the questions: *Does plant provenance affect mycorrhizal*  
95 *response? And does plant provenance affect fungal response?*  
96

## 97 **Materials & Methods**

### 98 **Experimental treatments**

99 We tested the effect of host plant identity (five cultivars and five local plant species) and AM  
100 fungal identity (commercial, locally sourced, non-mycorrhizal control) in a completely  
101 randomized block design (n=8, total 240 experimental units). This experiment was conducted in  
102 greenhouse at UBC Okanagan from September 2015 to February 2016.  
103

### 104 **Plant identity**

105 We tested the effect of host identity using “crop” and “wild” plants representing different  
106 functional groups (C4, forb, C3, N<sub>2</sub>-fixer) with known ability to interact with AM fungi (Table  
107 1). These plants were selected to represent both common agricultural crops in the local area, and  
108 naturally occurring wild plants. Native plant seeds were collected from wild populations near the  
109 source of the local inoculant. (Table 1). All native plant seeds as well as the flax (*Linum*  
110 *usitatissimum*), lentils (*Lens culinaris*) and wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) seeds were provided by  
111 Dr. M. Schellenberg from Semiarid Prairie Agricultural Research Centre, Agriculture and Agri-  
112 Food Canada in Swift Current, Saskatchewan. Corn (*Zea mays*) and soybean (*Glycine max*)  
113 seeds were obtained from West Coast Seeds Ltd.  
114

### 115 **Inoculant identity**

116 *Rhizophagus irregularis* Schenck & Smith (DAOM 197198) (synonym *Glomus*  
117 *intraradices*, *G. irregulare* (Stockinger, Walker & Schüßler, 2009) and recently *Rhizoglomus*  
118 *irregulare* (Sieverding et al., 2014) was provided by BioSynettera, Inc. This isolate has been  
119 cultivated in-vitro for more than 30 years (Stockinger, Walker & Schüßler, 2009) and is sold  
120 globally as a commercial inoculant. We also tested a locally sourced *Rhizophagus irregularis*

121 (GD50) (isolated in 2007 from SK (50° 34' 56.94" N/105° 29' 17.41" W)) (Agriculture and Agri-  
122 Food Canada, Swift Current Research and Development Centre). For the experiment, we used  
123 whole inoculum for both isolates (infected root fragments and spores), standardized based on  
124 propagule density per gram quantity. The propagule density for the locally sourced isolate  
125 inoculum was determined using the infection unit method by (Franson & Bethlenfalvay, 1989)  
126 (data not shown) Propagule density of the commercial isolate, as defined by the provider.

127

### 128 **Growing conditions**

129 2-l pots were filled with a sterile by autoclaving growing medium (75 % medium-fine  
130 sand/25 % Turface (Turface athletics MVP)). The medium was low in resources, as specified by  
131 the manufacturer's information, so we could control the nutrient status with fertilization, and had  
132 high drainage abilities in order for a common irrigation system to be used regardless plant  
133 identity. In each pot, we placed 26 propagules (8.7 g of inoculum containing infected root  
134 fragments and spores of the locally sourced isolate and 7 g similar inoculum of the commercial  
135 isolate). Three seeds were placed on top of the inoculum and covered with ~200 mL of growing  
136 medium, then thinned to one seedling per pot. Plants were watered with emitters supplying 2 l hr<sup>-1</sup>  
137 to each pot, ~35 ml every day (1 minute per day) through the irrigation system and after 45  
138 days the same amount of water as delivered every 2 days.

139 A microbial wash from both the inoculants was applied at the beginning of the  
140 experiment to ensure that microbial community was same in all treatments and that any effect  
141 would be due to AM fungal isolate differences. This was made by adding 100 g of each inoculant  
142 to 4 l of water and mixing. The resulting solution was filtered through a 5µm mesh to exclude  
143 mycorrhizal fungal spores and infected roots.

144 Location of plants was randomized on greenhouse benches with each bench representing  
145 a 'block'. The pots were subjected to 16 h light per day, with daily light integral (DLI) 71 µmol  
146 s<sup>-1</sup> m<sup>-2</sup> per µA measured with LI-250A light meter, Biosciences. Low P fertilizer (Miracle-gro®  
147 24-8-16) was added at half the manufacturer recommended dosage. Plants were grown for 16  
148 weeks.

149

### 150 **Plant responses**

#### 151 **Root and shoot biomass**

152 At harvest the shoot of each plant was separated from the root system. Fresh weight was  
153 measured then, seeds and leaves were dried at 60 °C for 48 h for subsequent analyses. Roots  
154 were washed carefully before weighing. A subsample of the root system was obtained for  
155 subsequent colonization measurements This subsample was included in the total root biomass  
156 value. After 48h at 60 °C, dry weight of the roots was obtained. In addition to raw values, we  
157 calculated changes in biomass as Root: Shoot ratio.

158

159

160

**161 Seed number and weight**

162 Only cultivars developed seeds during the experiment. Seeds were counted, then dried at 60  
163 °C for 48h for dry weight.

164

**165 % Leaf P**

166 Dried leaves were collected, pulverized and homogenized. % P in the leaves was calculated  
167 using a color development method, (using an acidified solution of ammonium molybdate,  
168 ascorbic acid and antimony) after acid digestion (Murphy & Riley, 1962).

169

**170 Mycorrhizal response (MR)**

171 All plant responses were evaluated as mycorrhizal responsiveness. Mycorrhizal response  
172 (MR) represents the amount of benefit a plant gains from an AM fungal associate versus a  
173 nonmycorrhizal control (Baon, Smith & Alston, 1993). For this study, we measured a) root:  
174 shoot ratio and b) % leaf P content. MR for root: shoot ratio was calculated for every plant  
175 species by the following formula:

176

$$177 MR = \ln (a/b)$$

178

179 where a = root: shoot ratio of mycorrhizal plants and b = mean root: shoot ratio of non-  
180 mycorrhizal plants (Baon et al., 1993). MR for % leaf P content was calculated using the same  
181 formula but with % leaf P in lieu of root: shoot. To test for variability in response between  
182 cultivars and native plants we used Leven's test.

183

**184 Fungal responses****185 Root colonization**

186 Roots were stained based on the protocol of (Koske & Gemma, 1989). Briefly, fresh roots  
187 were cut into 2-cm fragments and stained with Trypan blue. Ten root pieces were randomly  
188 collected and placed on a glass slide. The percentage of fungal organs (hyphae, vesicles and  
189 arbuscules) and the total root colonization were determined microscopically using the gridline  
190 intersect method of (McGonigle et al., 1990).

191

**192 External mycelium**

193 The entire soil from each pot was homogenized. From each pot, 100 g (wet) soil was used to  
194 determine external mycelia length as in (Miller, Jastrow & Reinhardt, 1995).

195

**196 Spores**

197 A second 100 g (wet) soil sample was collected and dried. That sample was used to quantify  
198 spore density based on the protocol of (Gerdemann & Nicolson, 1963). Briefly, after recording  
199 the dry weight, each sample was placed into a blender and mixed in high speed for 5 seconds.

200 The blended material was filtered through a series of sieves the final of which had an opening of

201 38  $\mu\text{m}$ . After spores were transferred to 50 ml falcon tubes, centrifuged twice (at 1200 x g and  
202 960 x g), and AM fungal spores were collected from the final supernatant in 50 ml falcon tubes.  
203 The number of spores was counted in each part of the grid.

204

## 205 **Statistical analysis**

### 206 **Does plant provenance affect mycorrhizal response?**

207 We used a mixed effects linear model (“lme4” version 1.1 – 12, Fitting Linear Mixed-Effects  
208 Models) (Bates et al., 2015) to examine the differences in mycorrhizal response of plant  
209 provenance (cultivars-native, fixed), to different inoculation treatments (commercial inoculum  
210 (com), locally sourced inoculum (local), non-mycorrhizal control) with plant identity (10 species,  
211 random) and block (random). Data were logarithmically transformed, when necessary, to allow  
212 for normal distribution of residuals of the model. We examined biomass, P in the leaves, MR  
213 total biomass, MR root: shoot ratio and MR % P in the leaves. To test for equality of variances  
214 between cultivars and native plant we used Levene’s test (“Rcmdr” version 2.4-4).

215

### 216 **Does plant provenance affect fungal response?**

#### 217 **Fungal traits**

218 Similar to above, we used a mixed effect linear model lme4” version 1.1 – 12 to test for  
219 differences between plant treatments and AM fungal treatments on the fungal responses. Factors  
220 were, AM fungal isolate (fixed), plant provenance (cultivar-native plants, fixed) with plant  
221 identity (random) and block (random). Data were logarithmically transformed, when necessary,  
222 to allow for normal distribution of residuals of the model. When normalization of the residuals of  
223 the model was not possible, we used a generalized mixed model, which does not assume  
224 normality, with fixed and random factors as described above.

225

### 226 **Allometry: proportional representation of fungal traits (Intraradical: extraradical 227 investment)**

228 To proportionally represent the fungal traits (intra: extraradical) of each isolate the data  
229 were standardized using the “vegan version 2.3-5” package (Community Ecology Package)  
230 (Oksanen et al., 2016). Normalized trait values per isolate were summed and scaled to 100 %.  
231 The ratio of intraradical to extraradical traits after normalization was calculated and we used a  
232 mixed effects linear model (lme4” version 1.1 – 12, Fitting Linear Mixed-Effects Models) (Bates  
233 et al., 2015) to examine the differences in trait investment strategies between the two isolates  
234 (commercial, locally sourced) among plant provenance (cultivars-native, fixed), plant identity  
235 (10 species, random) and block (random).

236

237 R studio (Version 1.0.136 – © 2009-2016 RStudio, Inc.) was used for all analyses.

238

## 239 **Results**

### 240 **Does plant provenance affect mycorrhizal response?**

**241 Total biomass**

242 As expected, native plants had significantly lower total biomass compared to cultivars ( $p < 0.001$ ).  
243 AM fungal identity did not affect total plant biomass compared to nonmycorrhizal controls for  
244 cultivars or native plants ( $p = 0.51$ ) (Fig. 2a). Contrary to our prediction, native plants were not  
245 more responsive to AM fungi in terms of biomass compared to cultivars overall ( $p = 0.89$ ) (Fig.  
246 3a), but while examining individual responses, wild plants had significantly higher variation in  
247 their response to AM fungi in terms of biomass (Levene's test,  $p < 0.001$ ) (Fig 4a). Individual  
248 plant responses are presented in Supplementary Table S1.

249

**250 Root: Shoot ratio**

251 There was no difference among plants in root: shoot ratio ( $p = 0.63$ ). Fungal identity had a  
252 significant effect on root: shoot ratio ( $p < 0.01$ ), that is the commercial AM isolate leading to  
253 larger root: shoot ratio compared to locally sourced AM isolate. There was a significant  
254 interaction between fungal identity and plant provenance ( $p < 0.001$ ) with locally sourced  
255 inoculum leading to increased root: shoot ratio for cultivars and decreased root: shoot ratio for  
256 native plants (Fig. 3b).

257

**258 % Leaf P**

259 Wild plants were no different from crop plants in terms of relative leaf P ( $p = 0.056$ ) but  
260 when accounting for total plant biomass wild plants had significant lower leaf P than cultivars  
261 ( $p < 0.001$ ). There was a significant interaction between fungal identity and plant provenance,  
262 with wild plants having a significant less % P than crop for the commercial AM fungus ( $p < 0.05$ )  
263 (Fig. 3c). AM fungal identity significantly affected plant % leaf P ( $p < 0.001$ ).

264 The commercial isolate reduced plant % leaf P levels ( $p < 0.001$ ) across all plants and  
265 plant provenance compared to control and locally sourced inoculum (Fig. 2b). The locally  
266 sourced isolate increased cultivar % leaf P compared to control ( $p < 0.05$ ) but did not affect % leaf  
267 P of native plants compare to control ( $p = 0.71$ ) (Fig. 2b). For more detailed results please see  
268 Supplementary Fig. S1 and Fig. S2). Individual plant responses are presented in Supplementary  
269 Table S1.

270 Wild plants had significantly higher variation in their response to AM fungi in terms of %  
271 leaf P (Levene's test  $p < 0.01$ ) (Fig 4b).

272

**273 Does plant provenance affect fungal response?****274 Root colonization**

275 Native plants had lower colonization compared to the cultivars for both isolates ( $p < 0.01$ ) (Fig.  
276 5a). No AM colonization was observed in non-mycorrhizal controls. The commercial isolate had  
277 lower root colonization compared to the locally sourced isolate ( $p < 0.001$ ) (Fig 5a).

278

**279 Arbuscules**



280 In general, native plants had fewer arbuscules for compared to cultivars ( $p < 0.01$ ) (Fig. 5b). The  
281 commercial isolate formed fewer arbuscules compared to the locally sourced isolate ( $p < 0.001$ )  
282 The number of arbuscules differed significantly among the two AM fungal isolates (Fig 5b).

283

#### 284 **Vesicles**

285 Fewer vesicles were observed for the native plants compared to the cultivars for both isolates  
286 ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Fig. 5c). The number of vesicles differed significantly among the two AM fungal  
287 isolates in all hosts ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Fig. 5c). The commercial isolate formed fewer vesicles compared  
288 to the locally sourced isolate

289

#### 290 **Spores**

291 Sporulation was not influenced by the plant provenance ( $p = 0.33$ ) (Fig. 5e). However, spore  
292 density differed significantly between fungal isolates. The commercial isolate produced more  
293 spores compared to the locally sourced isolate ( $p < 0.001$ ) (Fig. 5d).

294

#### 295 **Extraradical mycelium (ERM) length**

296 There was no difference in extraradical mycelium length between native plants and cultivars  
297 ( $p = 0.34$ ). nor the fungal isolates ( $p = 0.58$ ).

298

#### 299 **Proportional fungal trait distribution (Intraradical traits/extraradical traits)**

300 Native plants had a lower intraradical: extraradical ratio compared to cultivars ( $p < 0.01$ ) (Fig. 6).  
301 There was a significant difference at the ratio of intraradical to extraradical traits between the  
302 two AM fungi ( $p < 0.001$ ). The commercial isolate invested more extraradically compared to the  
303 locally sourced isolate.

304

### 305 **Discussion**

306 Wild plants had pronounced variation in their response to fungi compared to cultivars. Responses  
307 ranged from positive to strongly negative revealing the strong sensitivity of wild plants to fungal  
308 identity, even to isolates within the same fungal species.

309

#### 310 **Plant performance**

##### 311 **Plant Biomass**

312 While native plants have been reported to be more responsive to AM fungi (Hetrick,  
313 Wilson & Cox, 1993; Zhu et al., 2001; Wright et al., 2005; Xing et al., 2012), we did not find  
314 support for this in terms of biomass when looking at plants as either 'cultivars' or 'wild' plants..  
315 Because our wild plants were perennials, it is possible that our study did not allow enough time  
316 for full biomass differences to manifest, as the study ended when cultivars, but not natives, had  
317 senesced. Thus our inability to detect a difference among cultivars may have been due to time  
318 constraints. (Emam, 2016).

319 When we looked at responses of individual plant species, wild plants had significantly  
320 higher variation in their response to inoculation with AM fungi, from highly negative to highly  
321 positive. Variation in biomass has been documented for wild plants in the literature, particularly,  
322 for perennials versus annuals (Wilson & Hartnett, 1998), and natives versus exotics  
323 (Klironomos, 2003b).

#### 324 **Root: Shoot ratio**

325 Inoculation with the commercial isolate led to increased shoot: root for cultivars but not  
326 for native plants. It is not uncommon to observe alteration in root: shoot ratio with inoculation by  
327 AM fungi (Ravnskov and Jakobsen 1995; Koch et al. 2006; Lee and Eom 2015). The “functional  
328 equilibrium” theory (Brouwer, 1983) suggests that plants allocate biomass preferentially to  
329 maximize resource acquisition, a plant should favor above ground growth when carbon is  
330 limited. Because carbon allocation from plant to fungus can lead to carbon limitation (Fitter,  
331 1991), our results indicate that the commercial isolate may have posed more of a carbon demand  
332 than the local isolate, leading to increased shoot allocation. Such changes may lead to reduced  
333 nutrient acquisition for plants associated with the commercial fungus in some condition.

334

#### 335 **% leaf P**

336 We found support to our prediction that plant provenance would affect mycorrhizal  
337 response in terms of % leaf P. Native plants, surprisingly, experienced a decrease in percent %  
338 leaf P when inoculated with AM fungi. While there is a lot of evidence showing that wild plants  
339 are more mycorrhizal depended compared to cultivars (Hetrick, Wilson & Cox, 1993; Zhu et al.,  
340 2001; Wright et al., 2005; Xing et al., 2012), it is important to consider that, their increased  
341 sensitivity to AM fungi can lead to magnified negative effects as well (Klironomos 2003),  
342 particularly when fungi and plants are competing for limited resources.

343 In our study, the commercial isolate was less mutualistic in terms of leaf P and this was  
344 magnified in wild plants. Other studies have shown of AM fungal inoculation leading to reduced  
345 host P (Poulsen et al., 2005; Christophersen, Smith & Smith, 2009; Grace et al., 2009; Facelli et  
346 al., 2010). While such reductions may be related to greenhouse growing conditions, reduced P  
347 following inoculation may also indicate a less mutualistic AM association in some cases (Li et  
348 al., 2008; Grace et al., 2009; Smith, Grace & Smith, 2009). In our study, plants inoculated with  
349 the commercial isolate had lower P compared to non-mycorrhizal controls which could indicate  
350 either direct competition between plant and fungus for P, or P hoarding by the fungus (Kiers et  
351 al., 2011). It may also mean that the commercial isolate does not have enhanced P uptake ability  
352 over plant-direct uptake routes, perhaps through loss of traits during domestication. Further  
353 studies comparing more isolates with isotope labelling and genomic studies could elucidate the  
354 mechanism involved.

355

356

357

358

**359 Fungal performance****360 Root colonization**

361 In general, we observed low values of colonization for both isolates and all plants  
362 compared to the literature. Low colonization values have been observed in the past in cultivars  
363 (Jackson, Miller & Smith, 2002) and wild plants (Wang et al., 2004), with lower colonization for  
364 wild plants compared to cultivars (Khalil, Loynachan & Tabatabai, 1994; Jackson, Miller &  
365 Smith, 2002). Differences in intraradical investment between species ((Hart & Reader, 2002a) or  
366 even isolates (Koch et al., 2004) can reflect differences in life history strategies (LHS). Variation  
367 in LHS could explain part of the AM fungal functional diversity (Hart & Reader, 2002b; Parrent  
368 et al., 2010; Chagnon et al., 2013). But root colonization is not a good predictor of the quality of  
369 the symbiosis (Mcgonigle, 1988; Lekberg & Koide, 2005). On the contrary, specific traits and  
370 fungal allometric relationships may be more meaningful metrics (Johnson et al., 2003;  
371 Engelmoer, Behm & Kiers, 2014).

372

**373 Internal fungal structures**

374 The commercial isolate in our study had very few arbuscules at the harvest. This is  
375 unusual, as arbuscules (or coils) are considered fundamental to the mutualism under natural  
376 conditions (Smith & Read, 2008). Reduction of arbuscules has been reported for a variety of AM  
377 fungal species (including *Rhizophagus* sp.) under stressful environments (Druille et al., 2013;  
378 Alejandro-Córdova et al., 2017), and due to differences in harvest time and level of fertilization  
379 (Jackson, Miller & Smith, 2002; Shukla et al., 2012). Specifically, suppression of arbuscules can  
380 occur with increasing P or N (Jackson, Miller & Smith, 2002) and changes in arbuscule  
381 formation due to time of harvest can be regulated by the species identity (Shukla et al., 2012). In  
382 our experiment, differences are likely do to fungal strategies since there was no suppression of  
383 arbuscules in the locally sourced isolate.

384 Low levels of arbuscules in the commercial isolate may be explained by considering the  
385 conditions under which the commercial isolate was propagated. Large-scale inoculum production  
386 occurs mostly on transformed roots, which are able to directly uptake most of their resources  
387 from the nutrient medium (Fortin et al., 2002) and have very low nutrient requirements (Chabot,  
388 Becard & Piche, 1992). Such an unnatural environment may have reduced the need for  
389 arbuscules, or enhance the resource sink abilities of the isolate, but this remains to be seen.  
390 Given that there is still considerable debate over the function of arbuscules (Keymer et al., 2017;  
391 Luginbuehl et al., 2017), it is difficult to identify factors that promote or suppress their  
392 production.

393

**394 External fungal structures**

395 While there was no difference in the extent of ERM among fungal isolates, the  
396 commercial isolate invested heavily in spore production compared to the local isolate. Large  
397 differences in spore production among isolates is not unusual, as there have been many reports of  
398 inter and intraspecific variation in fungal traits, over several orders of magnitude in some cases

399 (Koch et al., 2004; Munkvold et al., 2004; Ehinger, Koch & Sanders, 2009; Campagnac &  
400 Khasa, 2014; Lee & Eom, 2015). Nevertheless, the difference in sporulation rate observed in this  
401 study, is unusually large (50x) and represents a significant carbon drain for hosts associating  
402 with this fungus.

403

#### 404 **Allometry (Intraradical: extraradical investment)**

405 The commercial isolate had a significantly different growth pattern compared to the  
406 locally sourced isolate that was consistent among hosts and plant provenance, revealing  
407 important LHS variations between the two isolates. The commercial isolate had a high soil  
408 biomass, which could enhance soil exploration potential and subsequently, host benefit  
409 (Jakobsen, Abbott & Robson, 1992). Although, considering the differences in spore number  
410 between the two isolates, deriving from the same quantity of ERM, means that the commercial  
411 isolate represented a nutrient sink rather than a source (including C and P).

412

#### 413 **Conclusions**

414 Wild plants had highly variable responses to inoculation by AM fungi compared to crop  
415 plants which had a uniform response to fungal inoculation, regardless of the identity of the  
416 fungus. This raises concerns about how inoculation practices may affect wild plant/soil  
417 communities. Our study provides evidence that the commercial isolate used in this study may be  
418 less mutualistic under some conditions. The commercial isolate invested in spore production at  
419 the expense of intraradical structures, suggesting a more “selfish” strategy. Correspondingly,  
420 plants experienced decreased P with the commercial isolate. It is important for future studies to  
421 consider fitness consequences associated with inoculation studies, as poor mutualists may not be  
422 apparent over one generation. Considering the number of propagules produced by the  
423 commercial isolate, there is a high likelihood of spread beyond the agricultural fields displacing  
424 native AM fungi. Future studies need focus on the viability and establishment of these  
425 propagules beyond agricultural systems.

426

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428 We are grateful for the advice provided by Dr. Jonathan Bennett on the statistical analysis of our  
429 data.

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- 677

**Table 1** (on next page)

Crop and wild plants used.

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**Crop plants**

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**Wild plants**

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*Zea mays* (Corn, var. Early Sunglow C4 grass)

*Schizachyrium scoparium* (Little blue stem- C4)

*Linum usitatissimum* (Flax, var. Bethune, forb)

*Dalea candida* (White prairie clover, N<sub>2</sub>-fixer)

*Triticum aestivum* (Lillian spring wheat, C3)

*Hedysarum alpinum* (Alpine Sweetvetch, N<sub>2</sub>-fixer)

*Glycine max* (Soybean, var. Kuroshinja  
Edamame, N<sub>2</sub>-fixer)

*Calamovilfa longifolia* (Prairie sandreed, C4)

*Lens culinaris* (Lentils, N<sub>2</sub>-fixer)

*Agropyron dasystachyum* (Northern wheatgrass, C3)

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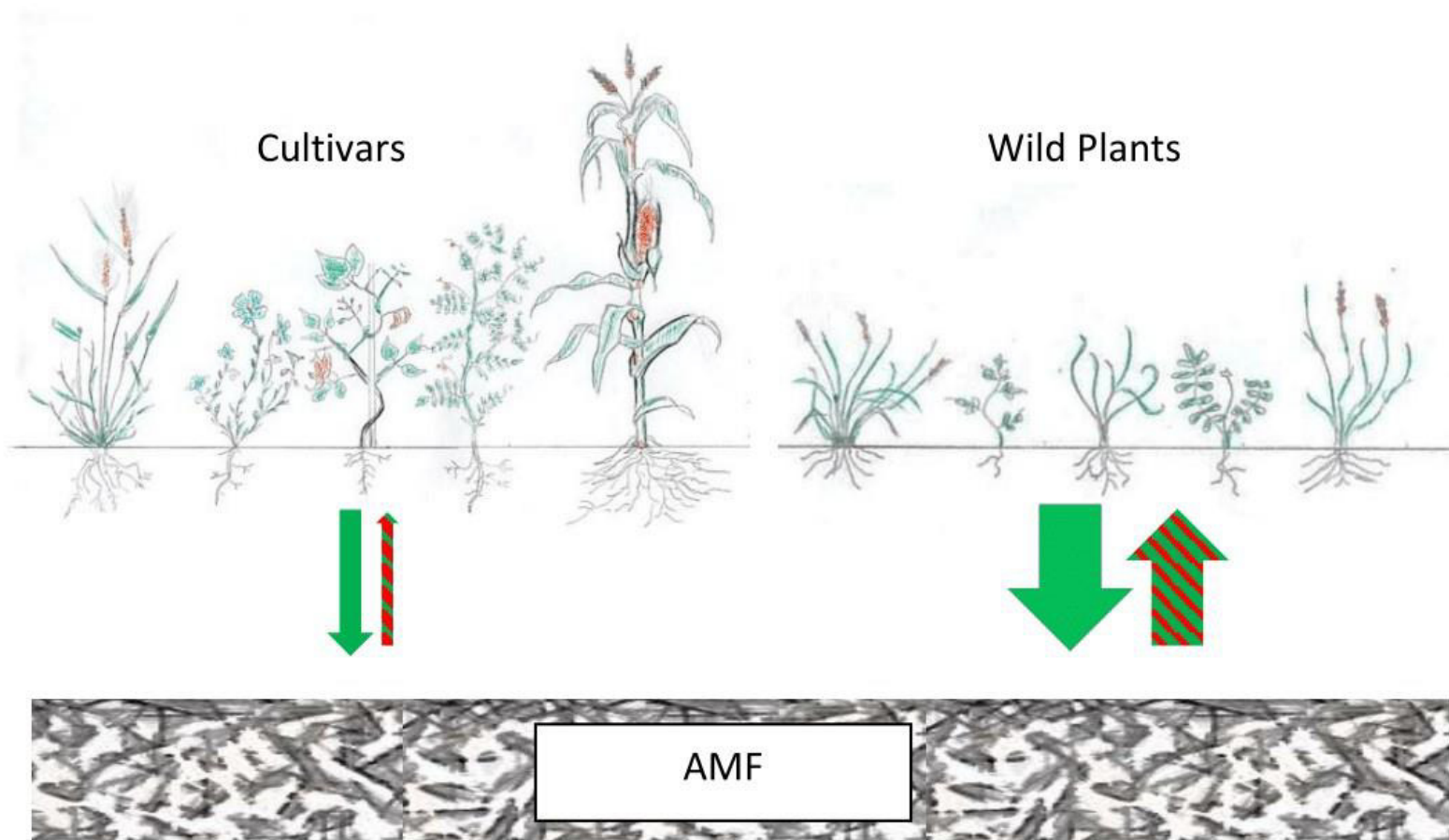
**Figure 1**(on next page)

Theoretical framework of differential response of wild and crop plants to AM fungi.

Red arrows represent negative responses, while green arrows represent positive responses.

The thickness of the arrows corresponds to the magnitude of the response. **Inoculation**

**effects on cultivars and wild plants:** We expect inoculation with AM fungi to have little or negative effect on crop hosts due to lack of coadaptation (Antunes et al., 2011; Rua et al., 2016) and reduced mycorrhizal responsiveness of domesticated plants (Hetrick, Wilson & Cox, 1993; Zhu et al., 2001; Wright et al., 2005; Xing et al., 2012). For wild plants, we expect that inoculation effects will be magnified due to strong mycorrhizal dependence of wild plants on AM fungi (Hetrick, Wilson & Cox, 1993; Zhu et al., 2001; Wright et al., 2005; Xing et al., 2012). **Effects of plant provenance on AM fungi:** We expect wild plants to have positive effect on AM fungal growth due to increased dependency while crop plants will have little to negative effect to AM fungi due to lack of coadaptation and reduced mycorrhizal responsiveness (Antunes et al., 2011; Rua et al., 2016).



**Figure 2** (on next page)

Fungal inoculation effects on crop plants and wild plants.

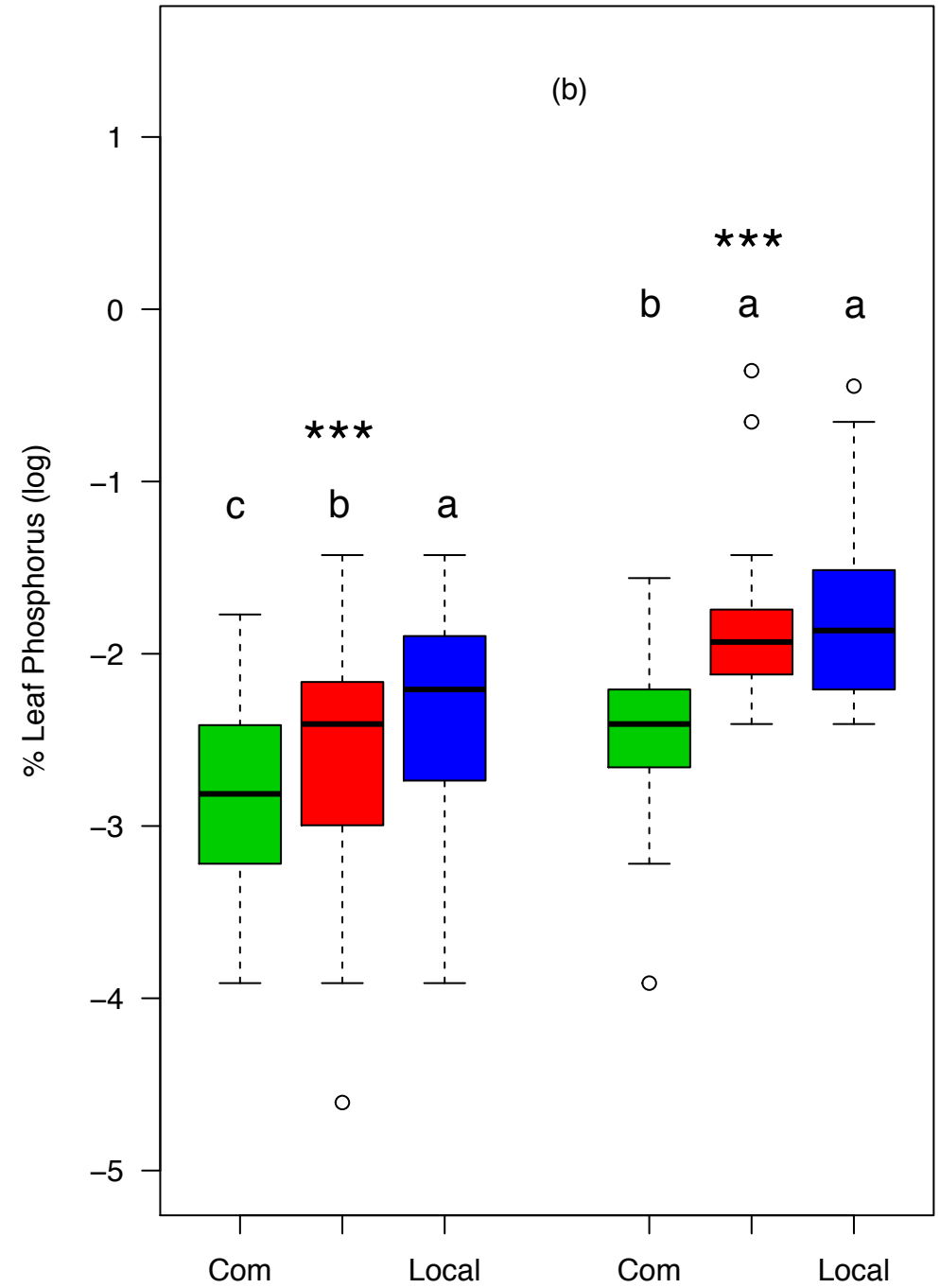
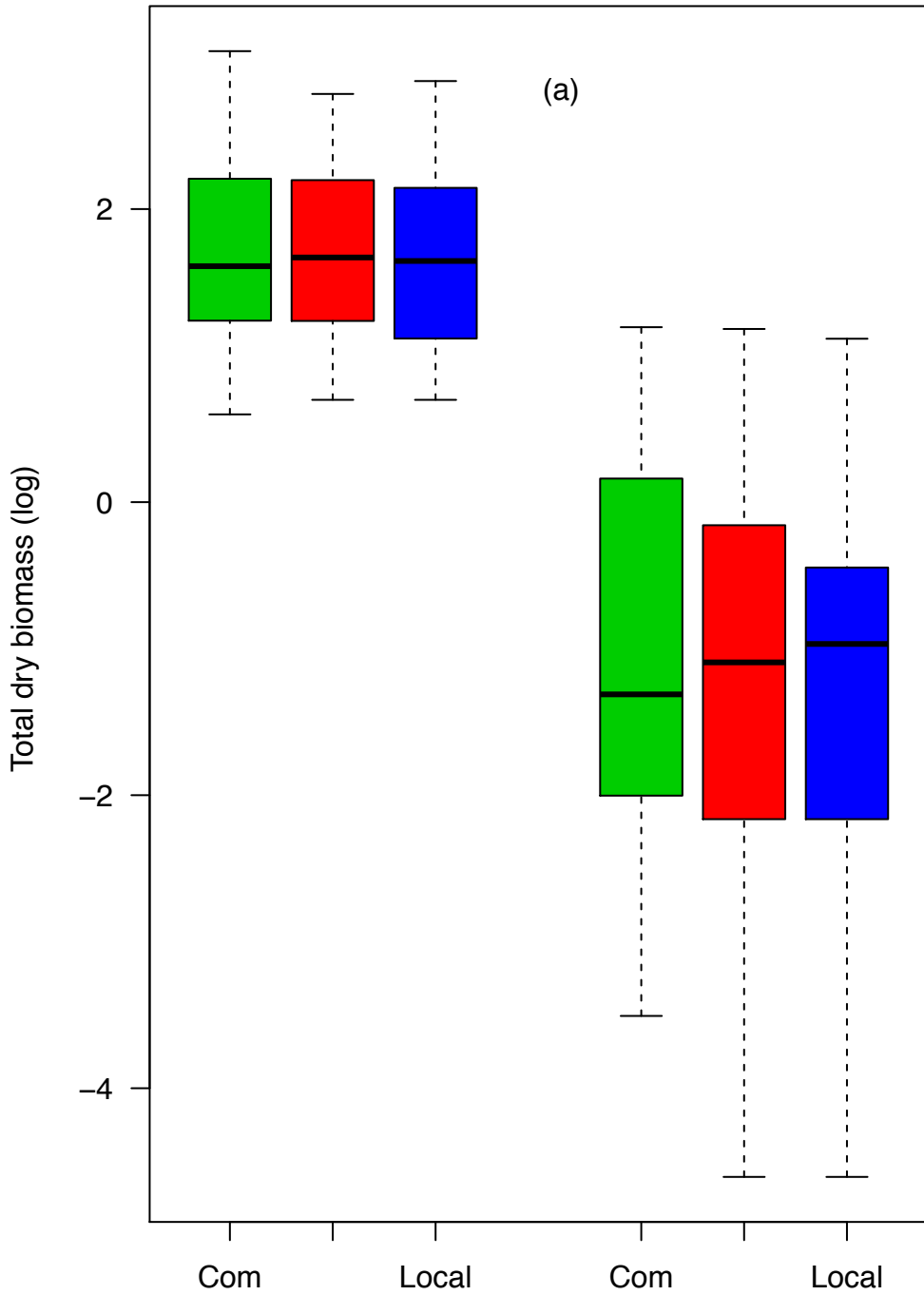
**(a)** Total plant biomass (g) **(b)** % leaf P. Com: plants interacting with the commercial isolate, Local: plants interacting with the locally sourced isolate. Control: plants without AM fungi. Box-plots show the third quartile and first quartile (box edges), median (middle line), range of the data (whiskers) and data outliers (circles). \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ .

Cultivars

Native Plants

Cultivars

Native Plants



Treatment

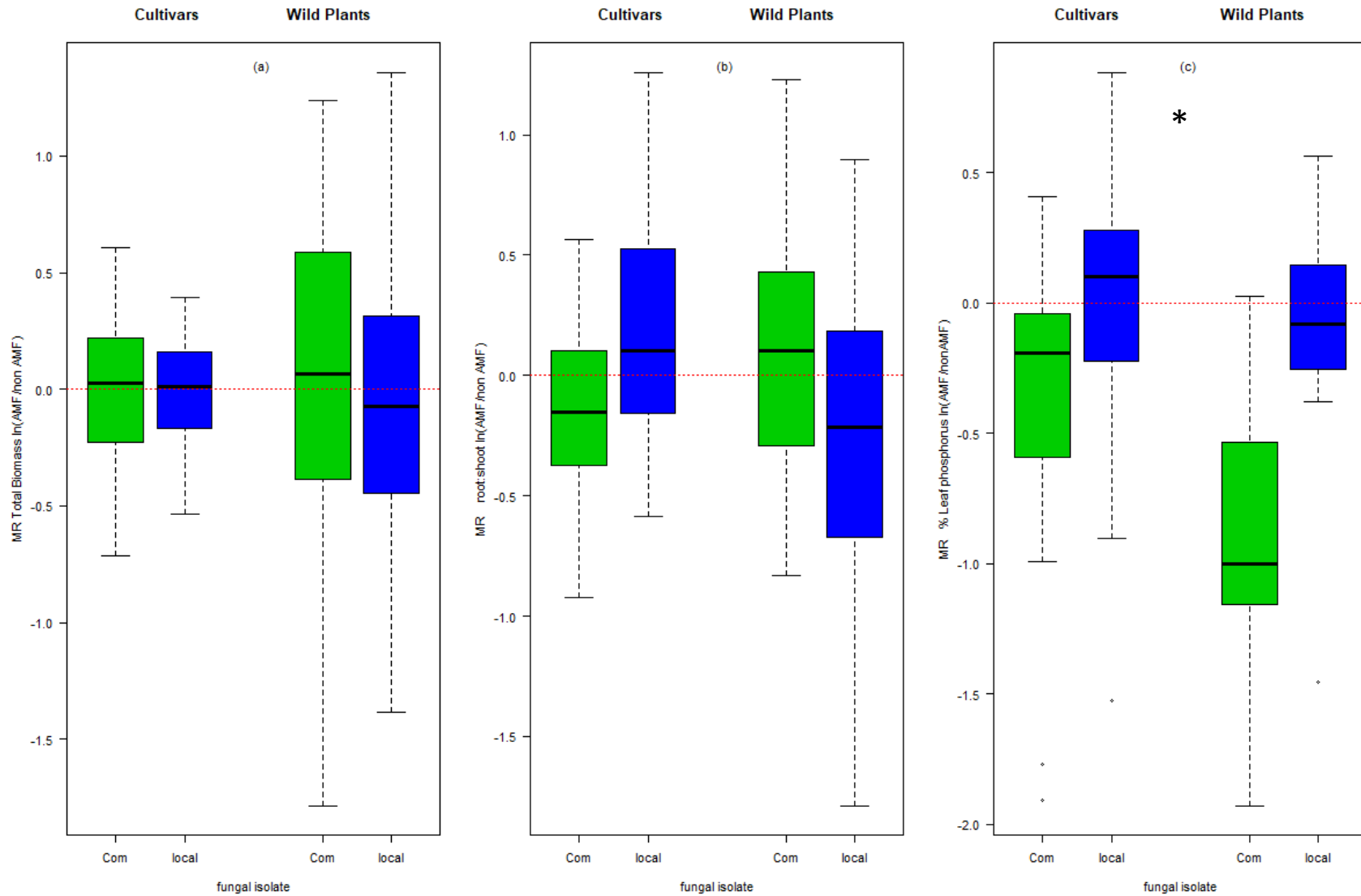
Treatment



**Figure 3**(on next page)

Mycorrhizal response in crop plants versus wild plants.

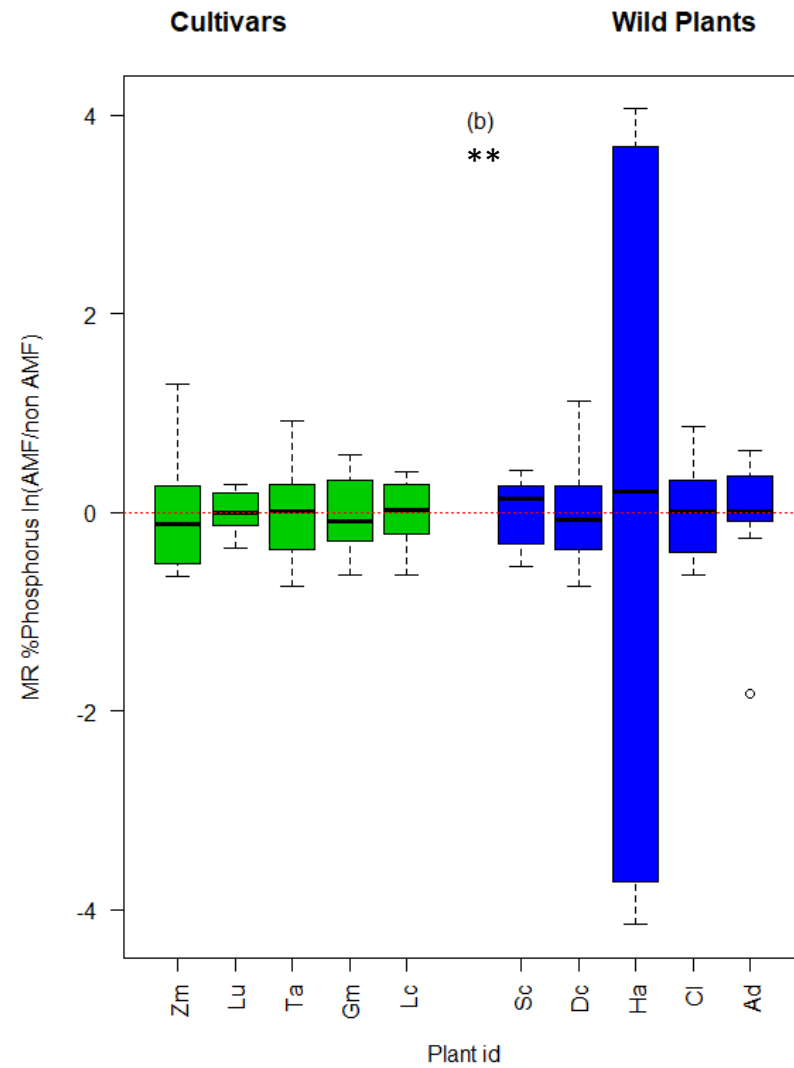
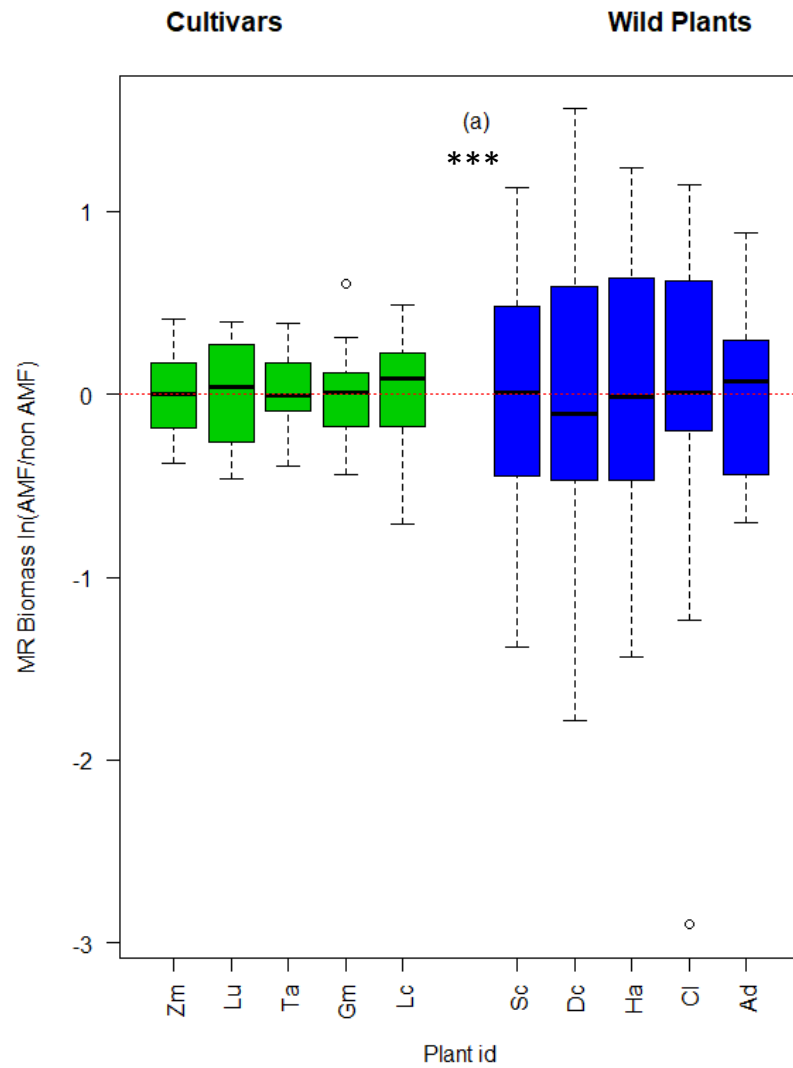
**(a)** MR of total biomass of crop plants and wild plants when interacting with the commercial isolate (com) and the locally sourced isolate (local) \. Red line indicates the mean value of non-mycorrhizal plants. **(b)** MR of root: shoot ratio of crop and wild plants when interacting with the commercial isolate and the locally sourced isolate (local). Red line indicates the mean value of the non-mycorrhizal plants. **(c)** MR of % leaf P of crop and wild plants when interacting with the commercial isolate (com) and the locally sourced isolate (local). Red line indicates the mean value of the non-mycorrhizal plants. Box-plots show the third quartile and first quartile (box edges), median (middle line), range of the data (whiskers) and data outliers (circles). \*  $p < 0.05$ . Mycorrhizal response (MR) represents the amount of benefit a plant gains from an AM fungal associate versus a nonmycorrhizal control (Baon et al. 1993).



**Figure 4**(on next page)

Mycorrhizal response variation in crop plants vs wild plants.

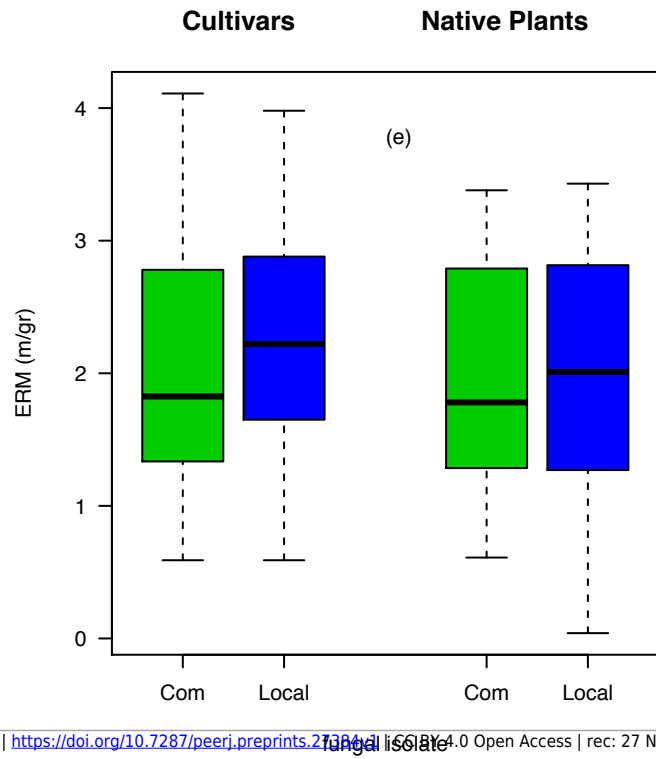
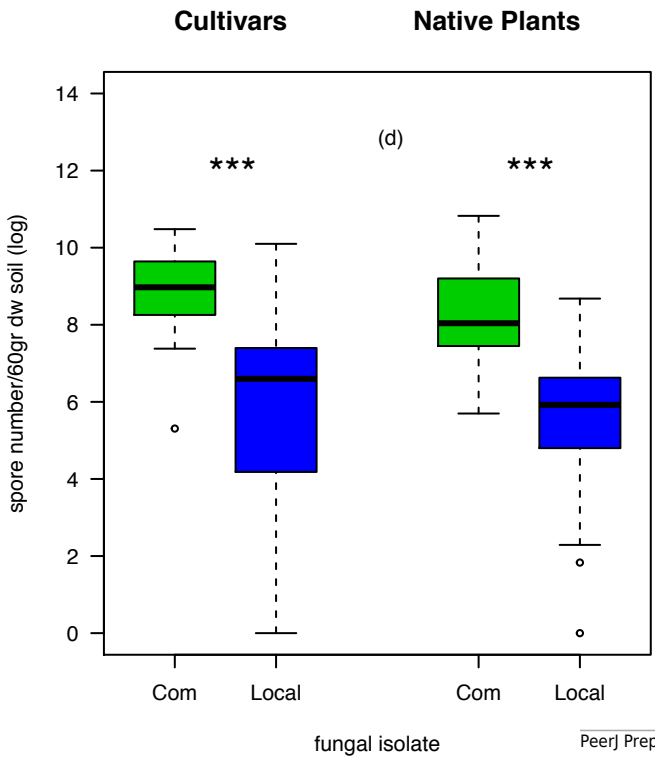
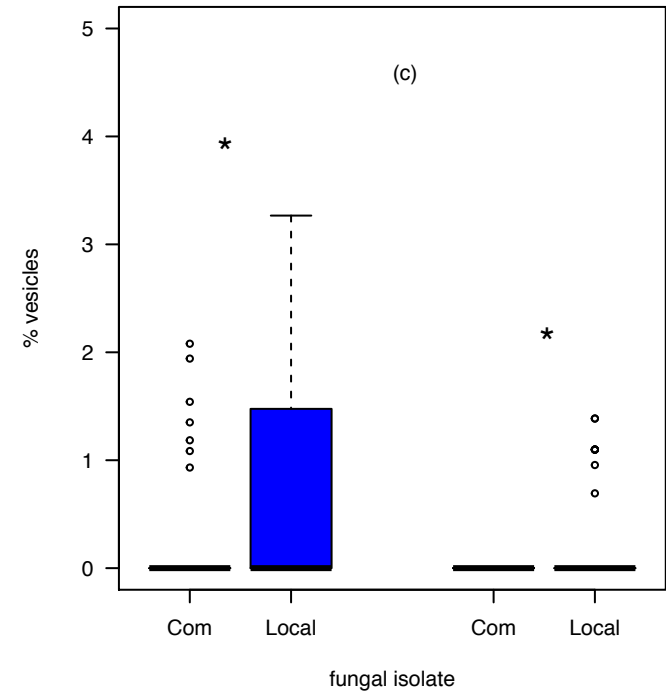
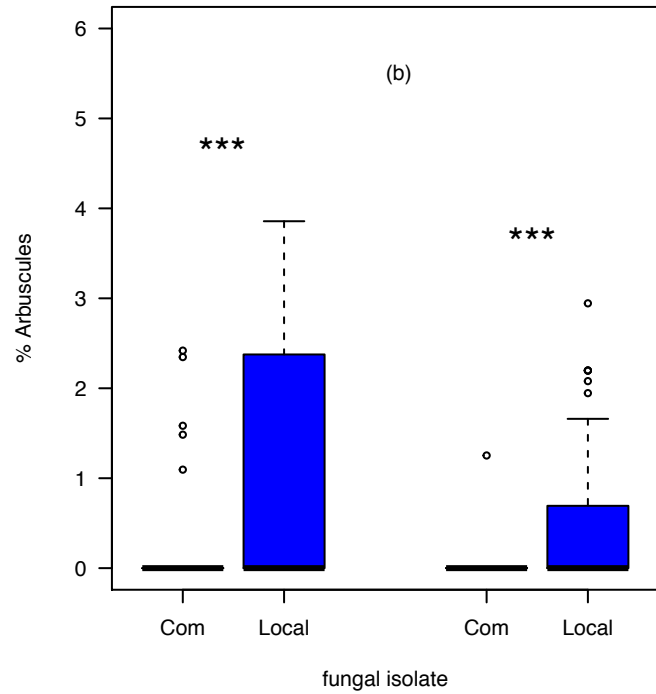
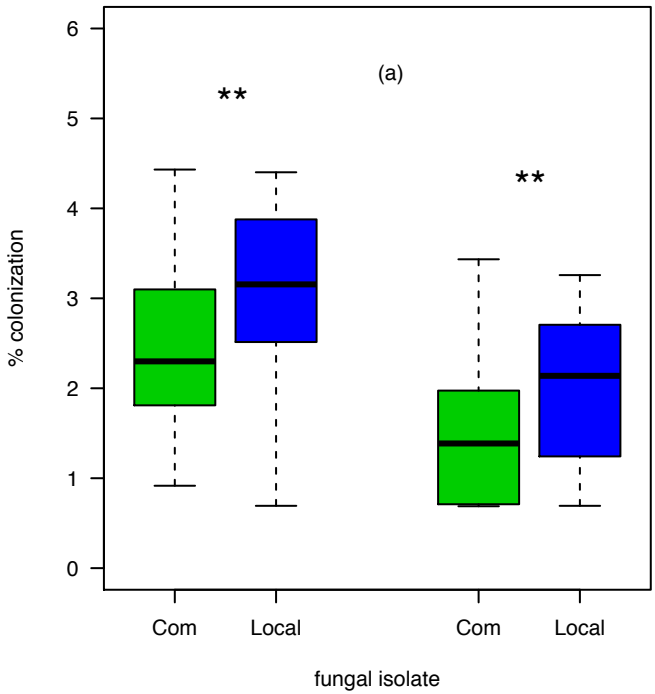
**(a)** Biomass and **(b)** % leaf P. Red line indicates the mean value of the non-mycorrhizal plants. Crop plants are represented with green [ZM (Zea mays), LI (Linum usitatissimum), TA (Triticum aestivum), GM (Glycine max), LC (Lens culinaris)] and wild plants with blue colour [(SC (Schizachyrium scoparium), DC (Dalea candida), HA (Hedysarum alpinum), CL (Calamovilfa longifolia), AD (Agropyron dasystachyum)]. Red line indicates the mean biomass of non-mycorrhizal plants. The third quartile and first quartile (box edges), median (middle line), and range of the data (whiskers) are shown. To test for equality of variance between crop and wild plant we used Levene's test. Wild plants had significantly more variation compared to cultivars in terms of biomass  $p < 0.001$  and % P,  $p < 0.01$ ). Box-plots show the third quartile and first quartile (box edges), median (middle line), range of the data (whiskers) and data outliers (circles). \*\*  $p < 0.01$ . \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ . Mycorrhizal response (MR) represents the amount of benefit a plant gains from an AM fungal associate versus a nonmycorrhizal control (Baon et al. 1993).



**Figure 5**(on next page)

Fungal response when associating crop plants or wild plants (Commercial isolate, local isolate).

**(a)** per cent colonization, **(b)** per cent arbuscules, **(c)** per cent vesicles, **(d)** spore number per 60 gr of substrate (dry) logarithmically transformed, **(e)** extraradical mycelium (ERM) per gram of substrate. Box-plots show the third quartile and first quartile (box edges), median (middle line), range of the data (whiskers) and data outliers (circles). \*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$  \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ .



**Figure 6**(on next page)

Proportional representation of fungal structures in crop and wild plants.

Arbuscules (green), extraradical mycelium (blue), intraradical mycelium (orange), spores (red) and vesicles (yellow) of the commercial (Com) and local isolates (Local) when associated with **(a)** crop and **(b)** wild plants. Positive values represent intraradical traits and negative values represent extraradical traits for purpose of visualization. \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ .

## a. Cultivars

## b. Native Plants

