

1 **Modularity reveals a tendency of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi to interact differently**  
2 **with generalist and specialist plant species in gypsum soils.**

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22 **Running title:** AMF diversity and modularity in gypsum plants

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24

25 **Abstract**

26

27       Patterns in plant-soil biota interactions could be influenced by the spatial distribution  
28 of species due to soil conditions or by functional traits of species. Gypsum environments  
29 usually constitute a mosaic of heterogeneous soils where gypsum and non-gypsum soils are  
30 imbricated at a local scale. Plant-arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) interactions occurring  
31 in gypsum environments can be an illustrative case study for the detection of patterns in biotic  
32 interactions. We hypothesized that a) soil characteristics might affect the AM fungal  
33 community, and b) there are differences between the AMF communities (modules) associated  
34 with plants exclusive to gypsum soils (gypsophytes) and plants which show facultative  
35 behaviour on gypsum and/or marly limestone soils (gypsovags). We used indicator species  
36 and network analyses to test for differences between the AM fungal communities harbored in  
37 gypsophyte and gypsovag plants. We recorded 46 OTUs belonging to nine genera of  
38 *Glomeromycota*. The indicator species analysis showed two OTUs preferentially associating  
39 with gypsum soils and three OTUs preferentially associating with marly limestone soils. The  
40 modularity revealed that soil type can be a major factor shaping AMF communities, and there  
41 were some AM fungal groups with a tendency to interact differently with plants having  
42 distinct ecological strategies (gypsophytes and gypsovags). The characterization of the  
43 ecological networks can be a valuable tool to ascertain the potential influence of above-below  
44 ground biotic interactions (plant-AMF) on plant community composition.

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## 49 **Introduction**

50           The close relationship between some plant species and particular geological substrates  
51 has long been recognized. Certain soil types can impose stressful conditions to plants due to  
52 low water and nutrient availability, or high levels of heavy metals (dolomites, serpentines,  
53 gypsum) inducing adaptive syndromes in the plants growing on them (1). Plants species  
54 specifically adapted to particular stressful substrates are called “specialist” plants. Other plant  
55 species, called “generalist” plants, usually inhabit non-stressful substrates but can also inhabit  
56 stressful substrates. Plant communities from gypsum soils are composed by plant species  
57 defined as gypsophytes or specialists, when they occur only in soils with gypsum, and  
58 gypsovags or generalists, when they can occur in both gypsum and other soil types (2).  
59 Physiological and edaphic factors are responsible for the occurrence of gypsophytes and  
60 gypsovags, but there is no generalized adaptive strategy (3). Among these factors, the ability  
61 to accumulate sulfate (1) and mineral nutrients (N, P, Ca, M, K), aminoacids, and proteins (4),  
62 and a better water balance have been proposed. However, factors controlling the distribution  
63 and occurrence of gypsophytes and gypsovags are still not fully understood (5), and specially  
64 the differences of above-below ground biotic interactions on the coexistence of gypsophytes-  
65 gypsovags have been largely unexplored.

66           Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) are responsible for establishing mycorrhizal  
67 symbioses with most vascular plants in all environments, including semi-arid ecosystems  
68 where they help plants to cope with nutrient deficiency, drought, salinity, and other stresses  
69 (6). There are case studies for the general abiotic versus biotic affectors of AMF community  
70 assembly (7, 8), Differences in soil type have been reported to be key factors determining the  
71 AMF species and community composition (9), and this is particularly relevant in stressed  
72 environments like serpentine soils (10, 11, 12), thermal soils (13), heavy metal soils and

73 saline soils (14, 15). However, some authors pointed out that AMF communities might be  
74 more determined by biotic factors such as the host plant (16, 17) or even can be more specific  
75 to plant functional groups than to individual plant species (18).

76         The evidence of the importance of AMF diversity for ecosystem functioning (19) has  
77 resulted in a growing interest to identify the species that colonize plants in natural  
78 ecosystems. Specifically, the plant-AM fungal symbioses and AM fungal diversity have been  
79 studied recently in gypsum ecosystems, where it has been found that the AM fungal  
80 community is host plant-dependent (20, 21) resulting in different AM fungal communities  
81 colonizing perennial and annual plant species (22) and presenting a higher AMF infection in  
82 gypsovags than in gypsophytes (5). Despite these previous findings, it still remains unknown  
83 whether the community compositions of the AMF colonizing the roots of gypsovags differ  
84 markedly from those of gypsophytes when both are growing in gypsum soils.

85         Recently, network analysis has been applied to characterize AMF communities and  
86 plant-AMF interactions (23, 24). Network analyses allow the detection of generalized patterns  
87 within the structure of biotic interactions at the community level. Network modularity reflects  
88 the tendency of a set of species to interact predominantly with species within the set and less  
89 frequently with species in other sets. Modularity in these networks implies that there are  
90 distinct communities of plants and AMF (modules) that interact more among themselves than  
91 with other plants or AMF.

92         In this study, we used indicator species analysis and network analyses to characterize  
93 and test for differences in AM fungal communities harbored in gypsophytes in gypsum soils  
94 and gypsovags in gypsum and non-gypsum soils. Afterwards, we explored the factors that  
95 best explain the grouping of species within a module (communities). We hypothesized that  
96 soil characteristics might affect the AM fungal community that can inhabit gypsum soils,

97 resulting in different AMF communities (modules) in gypsum and non-gypsum (marly-  
98 limestone) soils. Also, focusing only on gypsum soils, we hypothesized that there are  
99 differences between the AMF communities (modules) associated with gypsophyte and  
100 gypsovag plants. This study considers the potential influence of above-below ground biotic  
101 interactions (plant-AMF) on plant community composition.

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103

#### 104 **Materials and Methods**

105

##### 106 *Study area and plant sampling*

107 The study area was located in Sierra de Las Ventanas, Albaterra (Alicante), in  
108 southeastern Spain (38°14' N, 0°55' W, 320 m altitude). The climate is semiarid, with annual  
109 evapotranspiration (ETP) of 954 mm, annual average rainfall of 290 mm, a pronounced dry  
110 season from June to September, and a mean annual temperature of 18.4°C. It is a natural zone  
111 with gypsum outcrops and marly-limestone soils in a patchy distribution; the vegetation is  
112 scrubland (woody perennial species) dominated by gypsophytes in the gypsum areas and by  
113 typical scrub species of semiarid plant communities in the adjacent soils.

114 The soils are classified as Petrogypsid, (25), with a gypsic and petrogypsic horizon  
115 within 100 cm of the surface, developed on gypsum parental rocks, and as Typic Torriorthent,  
116 with low organic matter content (Table 1).

117 The sampled plant species were classified into two groups according to their  
118 ecological strategy. On the one hand, three of the most-widely-distributed gypsophytes (26)  
119 were considered: *Ononis tridentata* L. (OT), *Helianthemum squamatum* (L.) Dum. Cours.  
120 (HS), and *Launaea pumila* (Cav.) O. Kuntze (LP). On the other hand, three species common

121 throughout the Mediterranean semiarid areas were considered as gypsovags: *Globularia*  
122 *alypum* L. (GA), *Helichrysum stoechas* (L.) Moench (ST), and *Anthyllis terniflora* (Lag.) Pau  
123 (AT).

124 Ten plots (2x5m=10 m<sup>2</sup>) were established randomly in the experimental area (at least  
125 5 m between plots), five with gypsum outcrops and five with marly-limestone outcrops.  
126 Within each plot, three individual plants for each selected plant species were sampled. A total  
127 of 90 plants (45 gypsophytes and 45 gypsovags) were sampled in the gypsum area and a total  
128 of 45 plants (gypsovags) outside the gypsum area, resulting in 135 root samples. At the same  
129 time, one soil sample per plot (0-20 cm depth) was collected for soil characterization.

130 All samples were collected in the second half of May (late spring). Plants, including  
131 root systems, were collected, placed in polyethylene bags, and transported to the laboratory,  
132 where fine roots were separated from the soil. The roots were then briefly rinsed, quickly  
133 dried on paper, and used for molecular analysis.

134

#### 135 *Soil analysis*

136 Alkaline phosphatase activity was determined using *p*-nitrophenyl phosphate disodium  
137 (PNPP, 0.115 M) (Fluka) as substrate. The *p*-nitrophenol (PNP) formed was determined by  
138 spectrophotometry at 398 nm (27).

139 The  $\beta$ -glucosidase was determined using *p*-nitrophenyl- $\beta$ -D-glucopyranoside (PNG,  
140 0.05 M) as substrate. This assay is based on the release and detection of PNP. The amount of  
141 PNP was determined at 398 nm (28).

142 Dehydrogenase activity was determined according to Garcia et al (29) and Trevors  
143 (30).

144 The N-benzoyl-L-argininamide (BAA) hydrolyzing protease activity was determined  
145 in 0.1 M phosphate (Panreac) buffer at pH 7; 0.03 M BAA (MP Biomedicals) was used as  
146 substrate. The activity was determined as the  $\text{NH}_4^+$  released in the hydrolysis reaction (31).

147 Soil pH and electrical conductivity were measured in a 1:5 (w/v) aqueous solution. In  
148 soil aqueous extracts, water soluble carbon was determined in an automatic carbon analyzer  
149 for liquid samples (TOC-V CSN Analyzer, Shimadzu).

150 Glomalin related soil protein (GRSP) was determined in the easily extractable  
151 glomalin form, according to Wright and Anderson (32).

152 The total N and total organic carbon were measured with a FLASH EA 1112 SERIES  
153 THERMO elemental analyzer.

154 Available phosphorus was extracted with 0.5 M  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  (1:10, w/v) for 30 minutes  
155 and measured colorimetrically.

156 The carbonate content was determined by Bernard calcimetry, and the percentage of  
157 gypsum in the soil was estimated by measuring total S with an elemental analyzer (LECO).

158

#### 159 *Root DNA extraction and PCR*

160 For each root sample, 0.1 g fresh root material was frozen with liquid nitrogen, placed  
161 into a 2-ml, screw-cap propylene tube, together with two tungsten carbide balls (3 mm), and  
162 ground (3 min, 13000 r.p.m.) using a mixer mill (MM 400, Retsch, Haan, Germany). Total  
163 DNA was extracted using a DNeasy Plant Mini Kit, following the manufacturer's  
164 recommendations (Qiagen). The extracted DNA was resuspended in 20  $\mu\text{l}$  of water.

165 Extractions of DNA from 135 root samples were carried out. The three DNA  
166 extractions from each plant species within a plot were pooled into one composite sample,  
167 resulting in a total of 45 samples. This procedure was performed to assure maximum coverage

168 of the inter and intraspecific variation within each replicated plot.

169 Several dilutions of the extracted DNA (1/10, 1/50, 1/100) were prepared and 2  $\mu$ l  
170 were used as a template. Partial small subunit (SSU) ribosomal RNA gene fragments were  
171 amplified using nested PCR, with the universal eukaryotic primers NS1 and NS4 (33). PCR  
172 was carried out in a final volume of 25  $\mu$ l, using “ready to go” PCR beads (Amersham  
173 Pharmacia Biotech), 0.2  $\mu$ M dNTPs, and 0.5  $\mu$ M of each primer (PCR conditions: 94 °C for 3  
174 min, then 30 cycles at 94 °C for 30 s, 40 °C for 1 min, 72 °C for 1 min, followed by a final  
175 extension period at 72 °C for 10 min).

176 Two microliters of 1/10 dilution from the first PCR were used as template DNA in a  
177 second PCR reaction performed using the specific primers AML1 and AML2 (34). The PCR  
178 reactions were carried out in a final volume of 25  $\mu$ l, using PuReTaq Ready-To-Go PCR  
179 beads (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech), 0.2  $\mu$ M dNTPs, and 0.5  $\mu$ M of each primer (PCR  
180 conditions: 94 °C for 3 min, then 30 cycles of 1 min denaturation at 94 °C, 1 min primer  
181 annealing at 50 °C, and 1 min extension at 72 °C, followed by a final extension period of 10  
182 min at 72 °C). Positive and negative controls, using PCR positive products and sterile water,  
183 respectively, were also included in all amplifications. All the PCR reactions were run on a  
184 Perkin Elmer Cetus DNA Thermal Cycler. Reaction yields were estimated by using a 1.2%-  
185 agarose gel containing *GelRed*<sup>TM</sup> (Biotium).

186

#### 187 *Cloning and sequencing*

188 The PCR products of the expected band, approximately 795 bp, were purified using a  
189 Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen), cloned into pGEM-T Easy (Promega), and transformed into  
190 *Escherichia coli* (X11 blue). From the 45 clone libraries, a total of 1440 clones were screened  
191 by PCR. Thirty-two positive transformants were screened in each resulting SSU rRNA gene



192 library, using 0.7 units of RedTaq DNA polymerase (Sigma) and a re-amplification with the  
193 AML1 and AML2 primers - with the same conditions described above. Product quality and  
194 size were checked in agarose gels as described above. Insert-containing clones (1019) were  
195 sequenced.

196 Clones were grown in liquid culture and the plasmid extracted using the QIAprep Spin  
197 Miniprep Kit (Qiagen). The sequencing was done by the Laboratory of Sistemas Genómicos  
198 (Valencia, Spain), using the universal primers SP6 and T7. The sequence editing was done  
199 using the program Sequencer version 4.1.4 (Gene Codes Corporation). The 135 unique  
200 sequences of the clones generated in this study have been deposited at the National Center for  
201 Biotechnology Information (NCBI) GenBank (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>) under the  
202 accession numbers HF559237-HF559371.

203

#### 204 *Phylogenetical analysis*

205 Sequence similarities were determined using the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool  
206 (BLASTn) sequence similarity search tool (35), provided by NCBI. Phylogenetic analysis  
207 was carried out on the sequences obtained in this study and those corresponding to the closest  
208 matches from the GenBank and MaarjAM databases (36), as well as on sequences from  
209 cultured AMF taxa - including representatives of the major groups of *Glomeromycota* from  
210 GenBank. Sequences were aligned using the program ClustalX (37) and the alignment was  
211 adjusted manually with BioEdit software version 7.0.4.1 (38). Neighbor-joining (NJ) (39) and  
212 maximum likelihood (ML) phylogenetic analyses were performed with the programs  
213 PAUP4.08b (40) and RAxML v.7.0.4 (41), respectively. Distances for the NJ tree were  
214 computed using the default parameters. For the ML analysis, a GTR-GAMMA model of  
215 evolution was used. A total of 200 independent bootstrap analyses were performed to provide

216 nodal support. The ML bootstrap values were calculated with 1000 replicates, using the same  
217 substitution model. *Endogone pisiformis* Link and *Mortierella polycephala* Coem were used  
218 as the out-groups.

219 Different sequence types, or OTUs, were defined as groups of closely related  
220 sequences, usually with a high level of bootstrap support in the phylogenetic analyses (higher  
221 than 80%) and with pairwise similarity (higher than 97%). The pairwise analysis within  
222 clusters was carried out using BioEdit software version 7.0.4.1. (38).

223

#### 224 *Statistical analysis*

225 For each plant species in each plot, the number of sequences and the number of  
226 samples for each AM fungal OTU was used to construct the sampling effort curves (with 95  
227 % confidence intervals), using the software EstimateS 8.00 (42). The sample order was  
228 randomized by 100 replications.

229 We used indicator species analyses to generate a numerical classification of OTUs  
230 (43). This method uses a reciprocal averaging ordination to classify the OTUs, according to  
231 apparently important environmental properties (44). We performed two indicator species  
232 analyses, using soil type and plant species, respectively, as the ordination properties.

233 The indicator value (IndVal) index (45) was used to measure the association between a  
234 species and a site group. Finally, the statistical significance of this relationship was tested  
235 using a permutation test with 999 permutations. We performed these analyses using the  
236 “indspecies” package implemented in R (46).

237

#### 238 *Modularity*

239 Plant–AMF interactions were characterized as considering that there is a link between  
240 a plant and AMF taxa (i.e. interaction) if an AMF OTU was present in the roots a given plant  
241 species. This qualitative 0/1 matrix was used to calculate network modularity.

242 The nodes (i.e., plant species and AMF OTUs) of a network can be grouped into  
243 modules, in such a way that the number of links (i.e., the presence of an interaction) within  
244 the modules is maximized and the number of links between modules is minimized. We used a  
245 modularity algorithm for unipartite networks to search for independent groups of AMFs that  
246 tend to be harbored in the same plants (i.e., that share a similar interaction pattern) (see  
247 Olesen et al (47) for a more detailed explanation). In this type of network an interaction  
248 between two AMF OTUs will be present if they share at least one host (i.e., plant). A  
249 simulated annealing optimization approach was used to detect modules that maximized  
250 modularity (i.e., the proportion of links within vs. between modules) and test if the pattern  
251 observed differed significantly from random, using 100 randomizations (48, 49). Because of  
252 its heuristic nature, 10 runs of the algorithm were conducted, but the variation in modularity  
253 was negligible (the SE of the modularity across the 10 runs ranged from 0.0104 to 0.0106  
254 when all interactions were considered and from 0.0113 to 0.0115 when only plants growing in  
255 gypsum soil were considered). We report the maximum value of modularity obtained in the  
256 10 runs. The modularity was calculated and its significance tested using the software Netcarto  
257 (50, 48, 49).

258 Firstly, we tested for the contribution of soil type (i.e., gypsum and non-gypsum soil),  
259 to explain the assignment of each AMF OTU to a given module. Each OTU-plant interaction  
260 was classified based on the module to which the OTU was ascribed and the soil in which the  
261 plant was growing. We used multinomial regression models with module as the dependent  
262 variable and soil type as the independent variable. The model was compared with a null

263 model in which the independent variable was a constant. As a rule of thumb, if the proposed  
264 model's Akaike information criteria index (AIC) is more than 2 units lower than that of the  
265 null model it has some support and if the AIC value is more than 10 units lower it has  
266 substantial support (51). Secondly, we arranged the dataset in subsets, selected the  
267 interactions that occur only in the gypsum area, and recalculated the modularity. Using the  
268 same methodology described above, we built multinomial regression models to explore the  
269 relative contribution of plant ecological strategy (gypsophytes or gypsovags) to the ascription  
270 of each OTU to a given module, considering only the plant-AM fungal associations occurring  
271 within the gypsum soil.

272

273

## 274 **Results**

275

### 276 *Soil analysis*

277 The gypsum and marly limestone soils had similar fertility levels, except for the  
278 available phosphorus content, which was significantly higher in the marly limestone soil.  
279 Biological properties (enzymatic activities) did not differ significantly between the two soil  
280 types. The most marked differences were the significantly higher amounts of calcium sulfate  
281 in the gypsum soil and of calcium carbonate in the marly limestone soil (Table 1).

282

### 283 *PCR and sequence analysis*

284 The BLAST search revealed that 734 sequences (72%) had a high degree of similarity  
285 (94-100% similarity) to sequences from taxa belonging to the phylum *Glomeromycota*. The  
286 rest of the sequences were attributed to *Ascomycota* and plants.

287

288 *Phylogenetic analysis of AMF OTUs*

289         The phylogenetic analyses of 734 glomalean sequences obtained in this study from  
290 plant roots, and 50 sequences downloaded from GenBank, made possible the recognition of  
291 46 OTUs as separate clades, on the basis of bootstrap values  $\geq 80\%$ . According to Schüßler  
292 and Walker (52), the sequence groups or OTUs covered six families of the *Glomeromycota*:  
293 the *Glomeraceae*, *Claroideoglomeraceae*, *Diversisporaceae*, *Paraglomeraceae*,  
294 *Gigasporaceae*, and *Archaeosporaceae*. The pairwise sequence similarities within the clades  
295 ranged from 97.5 to 100%. The 135 clones that produced unique sequences were represented  
296 in the NJ and ML tree. Of all the AMF OTUs, 26 belonged to the genus *Glomus*, two to  
297 *Funneliformis*, six to *Claroideoglomus*, one to *Sclerocystis*, one to *Rhizophagus*, two to  
298 *Diversispora*, one to *Redeckera*, one to *Scutellospora*, one to *Archaeospora*, and five to  
299 *Paraglomus* (Fig. 1).

300

301 *AMF OTUs distribution*

302         To determine whether the number of clones sequenced and the number of samples  
303 taken were sufficient to represent the diversity of the AMF in the roots, sampling effort curves  
304 were constructed (Fig. S1 and S2). The results indicate that the number of sequences analysed  
305 and the number of samples were sufficient to provide coverage of the AM fungal diversity in  
306 roots from the six plant species studied. In fact, all the curves reached the plateau.

307         The OTUs richness found in the roots of the different plant species in each soil type is  
308 shown in Table 2.

309         The most abundant OTUs in this study were *Glomus* G24 (20.1% of the clones  
310 belonged to this OTU), *Glomus* G25 (17.7%), and *Glomus* G1 (11.7%), which occurred in all

311 the plant species, followed by *Glomus* G8 (5.7%) and *Paraglomus* P5 (5.7%), present in the  
312 roots of all the plant species growing outside the gypsum soil.

313 An Indicator Species Analysis was conducted to find specific OTUs for the host and  
314 soil types. Two OTUs tended to occur in gypsum soils, G10 and G9 (IndVal: 0.66 (p-value  
315 0.007) and 0.58 (p-value 0.013), respectively), and three in non-gypsum (marly limestone)  
316 soils, G8, C15, and P5 (IndVal: 0.64 (p-value 0.003), 0.57 (p-value 0.023), and 0.57 (p-value  
317 0.035), respectively). Regarding plant species, just the OTU G20 was significantly associated  
318 with *O. tridentata* (IndVal 0.78 (p-value 0.003)) (Table 3 A and B).

319

#### 320 *Modularity*

321 The networks showed a significant modularity, considering all interactions  
322 (Modularity=0.152, confidence interval of the null model CIN=[0.105-0.107]) or only plants  
323 growing in the gypsum area (Modularity=0.185, CIN=[0.092-0.137]) (Table 4). Four modules  
324 were detected in both networks, the one considering all the interactions and the other  
325 considering only interactions occurring in gypsum soil (Table 4). When all the interactions  
326 were considered, the ascription of OTUs to different modules was explained significantly by  
327 the soil type (AIC Null model: 632.6; using soil type as explanatory factor: 613.8). The AMF  
328 OTUs ascribed to module B (Table 4) tended to prefer the gypsum area (Multinomial  
329 regression coefficient 0.13) and the OTUs ascribed to modules C and D tended to strongly  
330 avoid the gypsum area (i.e., they preferred the non-gypsum area), compared to a reference  
331 module (A; Table 4) (multinomial regression coefficients -1.43 and -1.06).

332 Focusing on the gypsum area data set, plant ecological strategy contributed  
333 significantly to the explanation of the ascription of AMF OTUs to different modules (AIC  
334 Null model: 418.10; using plant ecological strategy as explanatory factor: 408.90). The OTUs

335 ascribed to module G (Table 4) tended to avoid gypsovags (Multinomial regression  
336 coefficient -1.22) (i.e., they prefer gypsophytes) more than the OTUs ascribed to the reference  
337 module (E; Table 4). Meanwhile, the OTUs ascribed to modules F and H (Table 4) tended to  
338 associate more with gypsovags (Multinomial regression coefficients 0.98 and 0.31,  
339 respectively).

340

341

#### 342 **Discussion**

343 This study recorded 46 OTUs, belonging to nine genera (*Archaeospora*, *Glomus*,  
344 *Diversispora*, *Claroideoglomus*, *Funneliformis*, *Sclerocystis*, *Rhizophagus*, *Redeckera*,  
345 *Scutellospora*, and *Paraglomus*). This level of richness is higher than that of a previous study  
346 in different gypsum areas (21). However, the results may not be directly comparable since  
347 different primers were used. In the previous study, the NS31/AM1-3 primers developed by  
348 Santos-González et al (53) were used; these cover a shorter SSU rRNA gene fragment than  
349 the AML1/AML2 primers of Lee et al (34). In fact, no sequences from the present trial  
350 showed neither identical nor similar (97%) homology with sequences obtained in the earlier  
351 study. This greater richness can also be attributed to the number of plant species sampled: six,  
352 three of them in two different soil types.

353 The most abundant OTUs in this study were *Glomus* G24 (20.1% of the clones  
354 belonged to this OTU), *Glomus* G25 (17.7%), and *Glomus* G1 (11.7%), which occurred in all  
355 the plant species. They clustered with root derived sequences of uncultured AMF species and  
356 they have been recorded in other semiarid ecosystems (20, 21). OTUs G24 and G25 are  
357 closely related to the *Rhizophagus intraradices* group (sequence homology 96%) which  
358 represent a ubiquitous generalist fungus, since it is one of the most common taxon that has

359 been found in a broad range of environments (54, 36); Öpik et al (54) proposed that some  
360 AMF species occur globally showing high local abundance and low specificity, and *R.*  
361 *intraradices* group clearly falls into this category as a generalist species. The presence of  
362 “potential specialist” AMF in gypsum ecosystems has been suggested (21). In the present  
363 work, the indicator species analysis showed two OTUs (G10 and G9) which tended to occur  
364 in gypsum soils, and three OTUs (G8, C15, and P5) which tended to occur in marly limestone.  
365 However, further studies are required to be able to assert that certain AMF tend to occur in  
366 these types of soil. Furthermore, OTUs G10 and G9 have been previously cited by Wubet et  
367 al (55, 56) in non-gypsum soils from tropical montane forests in Ethiopia, in spite of, these  
368 OTUs may represent peculiar ecotypes adapted to the particular environmental conditions of  
369 gypsum soils.

370 A major environmental factor producing differences in the AMF community  
371 composition in our work was related to the soil type. The modularity analysis supported this  
372 idea. There are indications that the AMF diversity and distribution in soils depend on soil  
373 properties such as water availability (57), soil texture (58), or soil chemistry (59, 14, 15). Oehl  
374 et al (9), in an extensive study, found that soil type is a key factor determining the  
375 composition of the AMF community. Recent AMF diversity studies have revealed that the  
376 AMF community composition is host plant-dependent (21, 22, 16, 17, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64,65).  
377 Interestingly, when we focused on the plant and AMF community inhabiting gypsum soils,  
378 we also found differences in the AMF harbored in gypsophyte and gypsovag plants.  
379 Similarly, Öpik et al (18) found, in a boreal ecosystem, that AMF communities are more  
380 specific to plant functional groups than to individual plant species. The modularity and  
381 multinomial regression model results support the hypothesis that soil type structures the AM  
382 fungal community composition. We found OTUs ascribed to modules preferring plants in the



383 gypsum areas (module B; Table 4) and others ascribed to modules preferring plants in the  
384 non-gypsum areas (modules C and D; Table 4). However, when we focused on the gypsum  
385 areas, particular patterns emerged. Within the gypsum areas, there were OTUs ascribed to  
386 modules with a tendency to interact with gypsophytes (module G; Table 4), other OTUs  
387 ascribed to modules with a tendency to interact with gypsovags (modules F and H; Table 4),  
388 and others that did not show a preference to interact with either of the two plant ecological  
389 strategies (module E; Table 4). Chagnon et al (23) derived a significantly modular  
390 mycorrhizal network from the data of the mycorrhizal community described by Öpik et al  
391 (18); they concluded that members of the genera *Acaulospora* and *Scutellospora* were mostly  
392 confined to a single module associated with “forest specialist plants”, whereas members of the  
393 genus *Glomus* were more generalist in their partner choice and were found mainly in the  
394 module comprising the common or “generalist” plant species.

395 Referring to our network, in the gypsum soil, where gypsophytes and gypsovags grow  
396 together, modules that interacted with gypsophytes were formed mostly by OTUs ascribed to  
397 the genus *Glomus*. However, the modules that interacted with gypsovags contained OTUs  
398 belonging to *Glomus*, *Claroideoglomus*, *Paraglomus*, *Rhizophagus*, *Sclerocystis*, *Redeckera*,  
399 and *Diversispora*. Interacting with a more phylogenetically diverse community of AMF can  
400 increase plant growth and potentially plant coexistence (19, 66, 67), mainly due to plant stress  
401 amelioration as a result of a high AMF functional complementarity in resource acquisition  
402 and delivery to the mutualistic association. Our results suggest that gypsophyte plant species,  
403 which might have specific adaptations to live in gypsum, are less dependent on the benefits of  
404 associating with a wide phylogenetic diversity of AMF. However gypsovags, which  
405 presumably do not have specific adaptations to gypsum soils, might require the benefits of  
406 associating with a wide diversity of AMF to survive. This result opens new perspectives in

407 our understanding of the influence of biotic interactions on plant community assembly rules,  
408 but future research in other ecological conditions will be required to ascertain whether this  
409 result is a general trend.

410 In conclusion, characterization of the ecological networks can be a valuable tool to  
411 ascertain the potential influence of above-below ground biotic interactions (plant-AMF) on  
412 plant community composition. Our case study revealed that soil type can be a major factor  
413 shaping AMF communities, and there were some AM fungal groups with a tendency to  
414 interact differently with plants having distinct ecological strategies (gypsophytes and  
415 gypsovags).

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**Table 1.** Biological, chemical and physical characteristics of the soil in the two areas sampled (n=5).

	Gypsum area	Marly limestone area
Alkaline Phosphatase ( $\mu\text{mol PNP g}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$ )	0.89 $\pm$ 0.12a	0.31 $\pm$ 0.06b
Dehydrogenase ( $\mu\text{g INTF g}^{-1}$ soil)	30.66 $\pm$ 2.60a	37.66 $\pm$ 4.85a
Protease ( $\mu\text{mol NH}_3 \text{g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ )	0.09 $\pm$ 0.02a	0.14 $\pm$ 0.03a
$\beta$ -glucosidase ( $\mu\text{mol PNP g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ )	0.18 $\pm$ 0.02a	0.13 $\pm$ 0.03a
Available P ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ )	1.27 $\pm$ 0.4b	4.96 $\pm$ 0.3a
EC ( $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$ )	2.400 $\pm$ 100a	2.380 $\pm$ 100a
pH	7.9 $\pm$ 0.3a	8.3 $\pm$ 0.2a
TOC ( $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ )	5.5 $\pm$ 5.0a	4.2 $\pm$ 5.0a
Total N ( $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ )	0.7 $\pm$ 0.2a	0.6 $\pm$ 0.2a
WSC( $\mu\text{gg}^{-1}$ )	68 $\pm$ 6a	67 $\pm$ 4a
GRSP( $\mu\text{gg}^{-1}$ soil)	31.66 $\pm$ 12.46b	85.96 $\pm$ 8.15a
CO <sub>3</sub> Ca ( $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ )	216 $\pm$ 53b	506 $\pm$ 72a
SO <sub>4</sub> Ca·2H <sub>2</sub> O( $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ )	434 $\pm$ 35a	21.8 $\pm$ 8b

Mean  $\pm$  SE. <sup>1</sup>Values in columns followed by the same letter do not differ significantly ( $P<0.05$ ) as determined by the Duncan test. TOC: total organic carbon. WSC: Water soluble C; GRSP: glomalin related soil protein.

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624 **Table 2.** Number of sequences of each OTU and richness per plant species and per soil type.

	Gypsum Soil						Marly-limestone Soil			Total	
	Gypsophytes			Gypsovags			<i>Anthyllis terniflora</i>	<i>Globularia alypum</i>	<i>Helichrysum stoechas</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>
	<i>Launaea pumila</i>	<i>Ononis tridentata</i>	<i>Anthyllis terniflora</i>	<i>Globularia alypum</i>	<i>Helianthemum squamatum</i>	<i>Helichrysum stoechas</i>					
P1	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	0,27
P2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	2	0,27
P3	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	2	0,27
P4	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	0,27
P5	-	2	2	6	-	-	14	10	8	42	5,72
Ar1	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	2	0,27
Scu1	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	2	0,27
Re1	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	2	0,27
Cl1	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	2	0,27
Cl2	-	2	2	-	-	-	2	-	2	8	1,09
Cl3	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	0,27
Cl4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	2	0,27
Cl5	-	-	2	2	2	-	-	2	9	17	2,32
Cl6	-	2	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	4	0,54
G1	14	6	5	13	7	2	10	3	26	86	11,72
G2	-	-	-	2	-	-	2	2	-	6	0,82
G3	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	0,27
G4	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	2	0,27
G5	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	2	0,27
G6	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	2	2	8	1,09
G7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	3	0,41
G8	-	3	-	-	-	-	12	14	13	42	5,72
G9	8	7	4	2	2	-	-	-	-	23	3,13

G10	-	-	2	18	6	7	-	-	-	33	4,5
G11	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	2	0,27
G12	2	-	-	2	-	-	3	-	2	9	1,23
G13	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	4	0,54
G14	2	-	2	-	-	3	2	-	-	9	1,23
G15	-	5	2	2	2	-	-	7	3	21	2,86
G16	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	0,27
G17	4	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	0,82
G18	2	5	-	-	-	2	-	4	5	18	2,45
G19	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	4	0,54
G20	-	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	0,82
G21	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	2	0,27
G22	-	4	2	3	-	-	2	-	2	13	1,77
G23	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	2	0,27
G24	47	6	14	16	11	24	4	2	24	148	20,16
G25	16	13	34	5	15	26	6	2	13	130	17,71
G26	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	2	0,27
D1	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	0,27
D2	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	2	2	6	0,82
Fu 1	-	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	-	4	0,54
Fu2	2	2	7	-	2	-	5	-	5	23	3,13
S1	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	2	0,27
Rh1	-	2	10	-	-	-	4	2	3	21	2,86
Total	99	67	102	87	57	68	74	54	126	734	100
Richness	10	15	20	19	13	8	16	13	18		

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**Table 3 (A).** Indicator Species Analysis

Gypsum soil Group #sps. 24			Marly limestone soil Group #sps. 22		
OTUs	Indicator Value Index	p-value	OTUs	Indicator Value Index	p-value
G10	0.658	0.007 **	G8	0.639	0.003 **
G9	0.577	0.013 *	Cl5	0.566	0.023 *
G24	0.689	0.107	P5	0.566	0.035 *
G25	0.648	0.189	G7	0.365	0.108
G17	0.316	0.520	D2	0.414	0.109
G20	0.316	0.536	Fu1	0.516	0.169
Re1	0.258	0.551	G2	0.327	0.263
G19	0.258	0.575	Fu2	0.327	0.264
G14	0.304	1.000	P2	0.258	0.301
G3	0.183	1.000	Cl4	0.258	0.340
G4	0.183	1.000	P3	0.258	0.343
G5	0.183	1.000	G1	0.617	0.348
G12	0.183	1.000	G16	0.258	0.371
G21	0.183	1.000	Rh1	0.405	0.442
G23	0.183	1.000	G6	0.298	0.564
G26	0.183	1.000	G11	0.298	0.580
Cl1	0.183	1.000	Cl2	0.298	0.611
Cl3	0.183	1.000	G15	0.390	0.716
S1	0.183	1.000	G18	0.330	1.000
D1	0.183	1.000	G22	0.276	1.000
Ar1	0.183	1.000	G13	0.211	1.000
D1	0.183	1.000	Cl6	0.211	1.000
P1	0.183	1.000			
P4	0.183	1.000			

631 \*\*p<0.01 \*p<0.5

**Table 3 (B).** Indicator Species Analysis

Gypsophytes								
<i>Anthyllis cytisoides</i> Group #sps. 13			<i>Globularia alypum</i> Group #sps. 8			<i>Helichrysum stoechas</i> Group #sps. 6		
OTUs	Indicator Value Index	p-value	OTUs	Indicator Value Index	p-value	OTUs	Indicator Value Index	p-value
Fu2	0.548	0.112	G2	0.365	0.288	Cl1	0.500	0.153
G14	0.447	0.125	D2	0.316	0.391	G7	0.447	0.164
Rh1	0.500	0.142	G4	0.316	1.000	Re1	0.447	0.173
P5	0.400	0.245	G12	0.316	1.000	G1	0.391	0.853
G22	0.283	0.447	G23	0.316	1.000	G16	0.316	1.000
G14	0.316	0.865	Cl4	0.316	1.000	Cl1	0.316	1.000
Cl3	0.316	1.000	S1	0.316	1.000			
D1	0.316	1.000	D1	0.316	1.000			
P1	0.316	1.000						
P2	0.316	1.000						
P3	0.316	1.000						
P4	0.316	1.000						
G19	0.224	1.000						
Gypsovags								
<i>Helianthemum squamatum</i> Group #sps. 6			<i>Launaea pumila</i> Group #sps. 4			<i>Ononis tridentata</i> Group #sps. 9		
OTUs	Indicator Value Index	p-value	OTUs	Indicator Value Index	p-value	OTUs	Indicator Value Index	p-value
G10	0.474	0.118	G17	0.566	0.073	G20	0.775	0.003 **
G5	0.447	0.326	G3	0.447	0.328	G15	0.507	0.106
G21	0.447	0.326	G24	0.416	0.681	G9	0.474	0.233
G26	0.447	0.326	G11	0.283	0.742	G8	0.381	0.367
Ar1	0.447	0.326				G18	0.365	0.569
G6	0.283	0.758				Cl6	0.365	0.605
						G13	0.365	0.615
						G30	0.283	0.773
						G25	0.405	0.929

632 \*\*p<0.01 \*p<

633

634 **Table 4.** Modularity values of the unipartite Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) network.

Networks Modules	Modularity
<u>All interactions</u>	
Module A: G24 G12 G19 P4 S1 P2 G25 Re1 G2 Cl1 D1 G3 G4 De1	
Module B: G10 G23 G9 G6 Ar1 Fu1 G5 G26 G21	0.152
Module C: G11 G14 Cl5 G17 P1 Cl3 G22 Fu2	[0.105-0.107]
Module D: G7 G16 G18 G13 D2 G8 G15 Cl4 Cl6 P3 G2 Cl2 P5 Rh1 G1 G20	
<u>Gypsum area</u>	
Module E: D2 G11 G9 G23 G1 G10 G21 G26 G5 Ar1 G6	
Module F: Fu2 Cl3 Rh1 P1 G22 P5 G17 G14 Cl5	0.185
Module G: Cl2 Cl6 G12 G15 G20 G8 Fu1 G18 G13	[0.092, 0.137]
Module H: G24 Re1 Cl1 S1 P4 G19 G4 G2 De1 D1 G3 G25	

635 Modularity values and confidence intervals, in brackets, are presented for each subset of data:  
 636 considering: a) all interactions and b) only plants growing in the gypsum area. The AMF  
 637 OTUs' ascription to each module is presented for each analysis. Four modules (A to D and E  
 638 to H) were detected in both datasets.

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656 **Figure 1.** Neighbour-Joining (NJ) phylogenetic tree showing AM fungal sequences isolated  
657 from roots of *Ononis tridentata*, *Helianthemum squamatum*, *Launaea pumila*, *Globularia*  
658 *alypum*, *Helichrysum stoechas* and *Anthyllis terniflora*, and reference sequences from  
659 GeneBank. All bootstrap values > 80% are shown (1000 replicates). Numbers above branches  
660 indicate the bootstrap values of the maximum likelihood analysis. Sequences obtained in the  
661 present study are shown in bold type. They are labelled with the host plant from which they  
662 were obtained and the clone identity number. *O. tridentata* (OT), *H. squamatum* (HS), *L.*  
663 *pumila* (LP), *G. alypum* (GA), *H. stoechas* (ST) and *A. terniflora* (AT). The letter G before  
664 the gypsovags species name means that they were obtained from the gypsum soil. Group  
665 identifiers (for example G1) are OTUs found in our study. See the supplemental material for a  
666 detailed description of the all clones obtained in the present study for each group. *Endogone*  
667 *pisiformis* and *Mortierella polycephala* were used as out-groups.  
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