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A molecular and phylogenetic analysis of the structure and specificity of Alnus rubra ectomycorrhizal assemblages

Peter G. KENNEDY^{*}, Lee T. HILL

Department of Biology, Lewis and Clark College, 0615 S.W. Palatine Hill Road, Portland, OR 97219, United States

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ABSTRACT

Ectomycorrhizal (EM) assemblages associated with Alnus spp. are often distinct in composition and richness from other host plants. To examine the EM assemblage associated with A. *rubra*, a common tree in western coastal North America, we sampled four A. *rubra* forests varying in age, management history, and geographic location in Oregon, USA. From the 364 EM root tip rDNA ITS sequences, we found a total of 14 EM taxa. The five most abundant taxa, *Tomentella* sp. 3, *Alnicola escharoides*, *Tomentella* sp. 1, *Lactarius cf. obscuratus*, and *Alpova diplophloeus*, represented 80 % of the samples and were present at all four sites. Assemblage structure differed significantly among young managed sites and older unmanaged sites but not by geographic location. The younger managed sites had higher tree density, *Frankia* frequency, and soil nitrogen than older unmanaged sites. Phylogenetic analyses revealed that Alnus-associated EM congeners were not closely related, indicating the distinct nature of *Alnus* EM assemblages is not due to a unique co-evolutionary history.

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Introduction

Ectomycorrhizal (EM) fungal assemblages are affected by a wide range of factors including dispersal (Peay *et al.* 2007), environmental conditions (Erland & Taylor 2002) and species interactions (Koide *et al.* 2005). Due to the obligate nature of the EM symbiosis, the environmental conditions influencing EM assemblages include both abiotic (e.g. temperature, pH) and biotic components (e.g. host plant composition). A number of EM species have been shown to associate with a limited range of host plants, while many others appear to have little host specificity (Molina *et al.* 1992). Although absolute host specificity is relatively uncommon among EM fungi (Horton & Bruns 1998; Kennedy *et al.* 2003), differences in host preference can significantly influence EM assemblage structure, particularly in comparisons among more distantly related hosts (Ishida *et al.* 2007; Tedersoo *et al.* 2008; Smith *et al.* 2009).

Much of the early work about host effects on EM assemblages focused on the genus Alnus (Neal et al. 1968; Molina 1979; Molina 1981). Plants in this genus are involved in tri- or tetra-partite symbioses with nitrogen-fixing Frankia bacteria, EM fungi, and arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (Chatarpaul et al. 1989; Molina et al. 1994). Along with Frankia bacteria, EM fungi co-dominate the roots of older Alnus individuals and play a significant role in nutrient acquisition and growth (Mejstrik & Benecke 1969; Molina et al. 1994; Yamanaka et al. 2003). Relative to other well-studied plant genera, Alnus hosts a low number of EM species, with only 50 species reported across the entire genus (Molina et al. 1994). The pattern of lower EM richness on Alnus has been seen in both observational and experimental studies. Molina (1979) found that only 4 of 28 EM species formed ectomycorrhizas with Alnus rubra using pureculture syntheses. Similar patterns were observed in other experiments (Molina 1981; Molina & Trappe 1982) and Alnus

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^{*} Corresponding author. Tel.: +1 503 768 7509; fax: +1 503 768 7568. E-mail address: pkennedy@lclark.edu (P.G. Kennedy).

forests generally have lower sporocarp production and a greater proportion of host-specific species than adjacent forests (J.M. Trappe, pers. com.). Molecular-based studies have confirmed that Alnus EM assemblages are less diverse than those found on other hosts, although many of the same genera (e.g. *Tomentella*, *Cortinarius*, *Lactarius*) can dominate Alnus and other EM host forests (Pritsch et al. 1997; Beccera et al. 2005; Tedersoo et al. 2009).

While the distinct nature of Alnus EM assemblages is widely recognized, the mechanism(s) determining their lower richness and higher proportion of host-specific species are less clearly understood. The EM assemblages associated with the closely related host genus, Betula, are more diverse and less host-specific (Jones et al. 1997; DeBellis et al. 2006), indicating the unique composition of Alnus EM assemblages is not characteristic of this host plant family. Molina et al. (1994) suggested that Alnus-associated EM fungi may share a close co-evolutionary history with this host genus. If this is true, then one could expect Alnus-associated EM species to form closely related monophyletic clades within their respective genera due to a unique evolutionary relationship with Alnus. Alternatively, if the congeners of Alnus-associated EM species are not closely related, it would suggest that other factors play a more important role in determining the composition of Alnus EM assemblages. Support for the greater importance of non-evolutionary factors was recently demonstrated by Moreau et al. (2006), who found that Alnus-associated Alnicola species did not form a monophyletic clade within the genus. Whether this pattern is representative of other Alnus-associated EM genera, however, is not clear.

Along the Pacific coast of the United States and Canada, A. rubra (Red Alder) is the most abundant deciduous tree species in many forests (Hibbs et al. 1994). It is commonly found in geologically young, disturbed, and riparian areas and plays an important role in successional dynamics in this region (Shainsky & Radosevich 1992; Hibbs et al. 1994). A number of sporocarp and root tip morphotype studies have been conducted on the EM fungi associated with A. rubra (Neal et al. 1968; Molina 1979; Molina 1981; Miller et al. 1991). From these studies, it appears that A. rubra EM colonization is high and that assemblages are dominated by two Alnus-specific EM species, Alpova diplophloeus and Lactarius obscuratus. Only 11 EM species are known or suspected to associate with A. rubra across its geographic range, which is much lower than that of co-occurring EM hosts (e.g. Pseudotsuga menziesii may associate with up to 2000 EM species (Trappe & Fogel 1977)). Host specificity of A. rubra EM assemblages was experimentally demonstrated by Miller et al. (1992), who found little overlap in the morphotypes of EM fungi colonizing A. rubra and P. menziesii seedlings grown in the same soils collected from different forest successional stages.

Despite a considerable history of research about the EM fungi associated with *A. rubra*, no studies have examined EM assemblages in *A. rubra* forests using molecular methods, which typically capture greater species diversity than sporocarp or root tip morphotype-based methods (Peay et al. 2008). In addition, sequence-based molecular methods are a prerequisite for examining phylogenetic relationships among *Alnus*-associated EM species. To assess the composition and richness of *A. rubra* EM assemblages, we sampled four *A. rubra*

forests varying in age, management history, and geographic location and compared EM assemblages using sequencebased analyses of the rDNA ITS region. Specifically, we addressed three questions: (1) what is the composition and structure of EM assemblages in A. *rubra* forests?; (2) is the structure of A. *rubra* EM assemblages affected by either site host age and management history or geographic location?; and (3) within genera, how are the EM fungi associated with Alnus species related to one another?

Methods

Site characteristics

Four sites in western Oregon, U.S.A. were chosen for sampling. Two of the sites are part of a long-term research project examining the effects of different forest management practices on A. rubra growth (see the Hardwood Silvicultural Cooperative (HSC) website for details, http://www.cof.orst. edu/coops/hsc). The HSC sites in this study, Toledo (HSC 2208) and Thompson Cat (HSC 5203), were established in 1992. Prior to the HSC project, the sites were second-growth coniferous forests that were clear-cut the year before A. rubra monocultures were planted. Thompson Cat was burned as part of the site planting preparation, Toledo was not. A. rubra seedlings were planted from nursery stock (Brooks Tree Farm, Brooks, OR) during the beginning of their second year of growth. Seedling EM and Frankia nodule status at the time of planting was not assessed, but nursery fumigation practices indicate colonization was unlikely (Brooks Nursery, pers. com.). Seedlings in the areas sampled at each site were planted at a density of 2 967 ha^{-1} , which is comparable to that seen in naturally regenerating A. rubra stands (A. Bluhm, pers. com.). Aside from site preparation and tree density, no other forest management treatments were applied. The two HSC sites were located on the west sides of Oregon's coast range and Cascade mountains, respectively. The third site, Fox Creek, was located in the Tillamook State Forest on the western side of the coast range mountains. This site was a naturally regenerating mature A. rubra stand approximately 70 yr in age (Tillamook Ranger District, pers. com.). The fourth site, Mt. Hood, was located in Mt. Hood National forest in the western Cascade mountains. Like Fox Creek, this site was a naturally regenerating approximately 60 yr old stand (Clackamas Ranger District, pers. com.). Understory vegetation at all sites was similar and dominated by the non-EM host plants Polystichum munitum and Rubus ursinus. The only other EM host was Corylus cornuta, which was present in very low abundance at the Fox Creek site. Additional site details are listed in Table 1.

Sampling design

At each site, we located a 900 m² area for EM root tip sampling. Twenty $\sim 15 \text{ cm}^3$ soil cores were taken from within 2 m of a randomly located A. *rubra* individual. An effort was made to take cores in areas where *Frankia* colonized roots were present to confirm host root identity. This was accomplished by removing the litter layer and first lightly raking in the vicinity

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Table 1 – Geographic, forest, soil, and climate information for the four study sites											
Site	Location (lat, long)	Geographic region	Altitude (m)	Mean precipitation (mm/yr)	Mean temperature (°C)						
Mt. Hood	N45'09.091" W122'08.496"	Cascade	556	1973	9						
Fox Creek	N45'34.007" W123'34.119"	Coast range	154	2 1 3 8	10.1						
Thompson Cat	N45'29.514" W122'12.177"	Cascade	391	1983	9.7						
Toledo	N44'37.700" W123'54.659"	Coast range	38	2312	10.7						
Site	Soil series	Forest age (yr)	Tree density (ha)	Nodule Frequency ^a	Total soil N (%)						
Mt. Hood	Not available	~60	400	5/10	0.69 (0.24) ab						
Fox Creek	Alic-Hapludands complex	16	360	3/10	0.45 (0.16) b						
Thompson Cat	Aschoff cobbly loam	16	2967	9/10	0.86 (0.26) a						
Toledo	Toloyana-Reedsport complex	~70	2967	7/10	0.95 (0.27) a						
^a Nodule frequency is calculated as the number of cores in which nodules were present out of 10.											

of each randomly located tree. Frankia nodules are conspicuously colored and visible to the naked eye, so once a host root with a nodule was confirmed, the core was taken directly around it. Cores were transported back to the laboratory on ice and maintained as such until processing. Within 10 d of sampling, cores were individually washed over a 0.355 mm sieve and all EM root tips were removed. EM root tips were distinguished from non-EM root tips based on standard morphological characters (e.g. swelling, colour, branching morphology, etc.) using a $40 \times$ dissecting microscope. No morphotyping was done to separate EM tips prior to sampling for molecular analyses. For each core, 10 EM tips were randomly selected from the pool of all EM tips removed, placed into CTAB buffer (2 % CTAB, 0.1 M Tris pH 8.0, 1 M NaCl, 0.02 M EDTA), and stored at -20 °C. Three cores were not included in further analyses due to a lack of EM root tips, a core processing error, and unsuccessful PCR amplification. Sporocarps of all putative EM species were collected from sites during root tip sampling, brought back to the laboratory for identification, and dried for long-term storage.

Soils at each site were also assessed for Frankia nodule frequency and total soil nitrogen. To quantify Frankia frequency, 10 randomly located $25 \times 25 \times 10$ cm soil cores were collected from the same area sampled for EM root tips. In the laboratory, each sample was washed over a 2 mm sieve, searched for nodules, and scored as nodules present or absent. An additional 10 randomly located soil cores from each site were taken from the top 10 cm of mineral soil to assess total soil nitrogen. Cores were dry-sieved through a 2 mm sieve, dried at 80 °C for 48 hr, and sent to the Central Analytical Laboratory at Oregon State University for analysis with a Leco CN-2000 Macro Analyzer.

Molecular protocols

Total genomic DNA for EM root tips and sporocarps was extracted using the REDExtract-N-Amp Plant PCR kit (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO). Individual root tips or sections of sporocarp tissue were added to 20 μ l of extraction solution and cycled at 65 °C for 10 min, followed by 95 °C for 10 min. After incubation, 40 μ l of neutralization solution was added and DNA extracts were stored at -20 °C. PCR was done in 25 μ l reactions using standard cycling parameters for the fungal specific primer combination ITS1f and ITS4 (Gardes &

Bruns 1993). For mixed samples, which represented a very small proportion of the total tips analyzed, we used the ITS1f and ITS4b primer combination to eliminate possible contamination from ascomycetous root endophytes (Gardes & Bruns 1993). Initial PCR success varied among cores (ranging from 1 to 10), but all cores had at least 5 successfully amplified EM root tips after the two rounds of PCR. Preliminary analyses showed that sequencing all 10 EM tips per core did not significantly change the within-core species richness because cores generally tended to have only one or two species present, which were captured in 5 EM tips. As such, the PCR products from only 5 EM tips per core were cleaned using 2 µl of ExoSAP IT (USB Corp., Cleveland, OH) with 10 µl of DNA and cycled at 37 °C for 45 min, followed by 80 °C for 15 min. DNA sequencing was performed on a 3730xl DNA Analyzer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) at the Genomic Analysis and Technology Core Facility at the University of Arizona, USA. Sequence chromatograms were visually confirmed and contiguous sequences were assembled using Sequencher 4.8 (Gene Codes Corp., Ann Arbor, MI).

Identification of EM taxa

Taxa were identified using a combination of morphological and molecular techniques. Sporocarps were identified to the lowest taxonomic level possible using standard morphological keys. Sequences from root tips and sporocarps were grouped across all samples at \geq 97 % similarity, a threshold shown to distinguish the majority of EM species (Peay *et al.* 2008). Consensus sequences of each taxon were then compared with the NCBI and UNITE databases. Names for taxa without fully identified fruitbodies were designated based upon the taxonomic level supported from the database queries. Only samples from unambiguous EM lineages were included in the final analyses. A randomly selected sequence from each EM taxon was submitted to GenBank under the accession numbers: GQ398240–GQ398253.

Identification of host

For EM taxa that occurred in low abundance (in a single core or at a single site), we confirmed host root identity by amplifying a portion of host DNA using the *Alnus*-specific primers ITS1-plant and ITS-Alnus2 (Navarro *et al.* 2003). Samples without a positive amplicon corresponding to the same size as that from a surface sterilized Alnus leaf DNA sample were excluded from all further analyses.

Phylogenetic analyses

To examine the relationships among Alnus and non-Alnusassociated EM taxa, we conducted a series of phylogenetic analyses. We focused on three genera, *Tomentella*, *Lactarius*, and *Cortinarius*, due to their abundance in our study system, availability of sequences with detailed host information, and access to pre-constructed alignments. Sequences were collected from other coastal western North American forests where A. *rubra* co-occurs (Kennedy *et al.* 2003; Cline *et al.* 2005; Horton *et al.* 2005; Peay *et al.* 2007), other studies of Alnus EM assemblages (Beccera *et al.* 2005; Tedersoo *et al.* 2009) as well as genus-specific studies (*Tomentella*, Koljalg *et al.* 2000; *Cortinarius*, Liu *et al.* 1997; Seidl 2000; Peintner *et al.* 2001; Peintner *et al.* 2003) and the UNITE database (Koljalg *et al.* 2005).

For the Cortinarius phylogenetic analysis, we focused on the subgenus Telemonia based on the BLAST affinities of the two A. rubra-associated Cortinarius taxa. Additional Alnus-associated Cortinarius sequences were generated from sporocarp collections at the University of Washington herbarium. For the Lactarius phylogenetic analysis, neighbor joining and maximum parsimony analyses were first conducted to place our A. rubra-associated Lactarius taxon within the larger Lactarius phylogenetic analysis of Geml et al. (2009). Once the location of the A. rubra-associated Lactarius taxon was established (both analyses were concordant) only other Lactarius taxa from the clade into which it fell were included in the final analysis. For the Tomentella phylogenetic analysis, all of the EM taxa from Koljalg et al. (2000) with host information were included as well as a broad range of additional host identified Tomentella taxa from the UNITE database.

Alignments were done in CLUSTALW using the profile alignment option to match pre-constructed alignments of each genus (Tomentella, S. Bergemann, unpublished data; Cortinarius, Peintner et al. 2003; Lactarius, Geml et al. 2009). Maximum likelihood and Bayesian analyses were conducted using PhyML 3.0 (Guindon & Gascuel 2003) and Mr. Bayes v3.1.2 (Ronquist & Huelsenbeck 2003), respectively. Modeltest (Posada & Crandell 1998) using the Akaike Information Criterion determined that GTR + I + G model of sequence evolution fit the data best for all three genera. ML analyses were conducted on the Montepellier bioinformatics platform (http:// www.atgc-montpellier.fr/phyml/) using the following settings: substitution model GTR, proportion of invariable sites fixed, gamma parameter estimated, number of substitution categories = 4, starting tree BIONJ, type of tree improvement NNI, optimized topology and branch lengths, and SH-like aLRT scores calculates. The Bayesian analyses included 10 million generations of two simultaneous runs. The average standard deviation of split frequencies at the end of the runs was 0.019 for Tomentella and <0.01 for both Cortinarius and Lactarius. Each run included four Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) chains and trees were constructed following a visual determined burn-in of 10 %.

Statistical analyses

EstimateS was used to estimate EM taxa richness and calculate accumulation curves at each site (Colwell 2005). Estimates were based on 500 randomizations of sample order without replacement. The non-parametric Chao2 estimator was used based on the recommendations of Brose et al. (2003) because the observed number of species is often the least accurate estimator of true species richness (Colwell & Coddington 1994). PRIMER 5 was used to compare EM assemblages among sites (Clarke & Warwick 2001). A presence/absence taxa matrix was first created using each core at all sites and then calculated the Bray-Curtis similarity among cores. A one-way analysis of similarity (ANOSIM) was used to test for significant differences in assemblage structure among sites followed by pair-wise comparisons based on age/management history or geographic location. To account for multiple tests, the significance level was adjusted to $p \le 0.017$ using a Bonferroni correction. Total soil nitrogen levels were compared among sites using a one-way ANOVA. Prior to running the ANOVA, the variances among sites were confirmed to be homogenous based on visual inspection of residual plots. A post-hoc Tukey test was used for specific comparisons of site means. The latter analyses were conducted in JMP 5.01 (SAS Institute Inc, Cary, NC) and considered significant at $p \le 0.05$.

Results

Of the 385 root tips sequenced, 377 were successfully identified and 364 belonged to EM taxa. A total of 14 taxa were encountered across all sites (Table 2). Five taxa, *Tomentella* sp. 3, *Alnicola escharoides, Lactarius cf. obscuratus, Tomentella* sp. 1, and *Alpova diplophloeus*, accounted for 80 % of the EM tips sampled. The five dominant taxa were present at all four sites, while 5 EM taxa were unique to single sites (Table 2). Although taxa richness varied among sites (range 6–13), the Chao2 and rarefaction curves reached similar plateaus at each site, indicating that the sampling effort was sufficient to capture local site richness (Fig 1).

Comparing across the four sites, there was a significant difference in assemblage structure (r = 0.10, p = 0.001). This difference was significant when sites were grouped by site age/management history (i.e. younger managed *vs.* older unmanaged) (r = 0.05, p = 0.015), but not when sites were grouped by geographic location (r = 0.02, p = 0.148). The younger managed sites had considerably higher tree density as well as higher *Frankia* frequency than the older unmanaged sites (Table 1). In addition, total % soil nitrogen also varied across sites, being significantly higher at the two younger managed sites than at Fox creek (an older managed site), with Mt. Hood (an older managed site) being intermediate (Table 1).

Phylogenetic analyses showed that Alnus-associated taxa within the three genera examined were not monophyletic. Bayesian and maximum likelihood trees had similar topologies (Figs 2–4) and most clades were supported by high posterior probabilities and bootstrap values in all three analyses. For the *Tomentella* analysis, there were a total of seven independent clades which contained Alnus-associated taxa

	Toledo	Tips (cores)	11 (3)	0) 0	9 (4)	0) 0	0 (0)	9 (3)	10 (3)	30 (8)	10 (4)	9 (4)	1 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0) 0
Table 2 – Alnus rubra ectomycorrhizal (EM) taxa UNITE and GenBank similarity and abundance across four study sites	Thompson Cat	Tips (cores)	8 (5)	0 (0)	15 (6)	7 (3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	8 (4)	12 (6)	0 (0)	45 (15)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	Fox Creek	Tips (cores)	30 (9)	0 (0)	5 (1)	4 (2)	3 (2)	0 (0)	23 (6)	9 (4)	1 (1)	22 (8)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1(1)	0 (0)
	Mt. Hood	Tips (cores)	17 (9)	2 (1)	4 (2)	8 (4)	3 (2)	0 (0)	17 (6)	4 (2)	3 (1)	10 (4)	6 (4)	3 (2)	2 (1)	3 (1)
	BLASTn	# of bases	654/654	426/430	748/748	552/577	561/562	577/663	697/702	640/644	627/635	633/637	621/629	637/639	652/656	659/687
		% Match	100	66	100	95	66	87	66	66	98	66	98	66	66	95
		GenBank #	AY900081	FM993252	DQ989496	FJ717500	FM993205	EF634111	FM993233	DQ195590	FM993226	FM993262	FM993148	FM993236	FJ188355	AY372288
		Closest match	Naucoria escharoides	Uncultured EM	Alpova diplophloeus	Cortinarius boulderensis	Uncultured EM	Uncultured EM	Uncultured EM	Thelephorales	Uncultured EM	Uncultured EM	Uncultured EM	Uncultured EM	Uncultured EM	Xerocomus dryophila
	UNITE	# of bases	629/682	396/432	343/380	556/583	550/572	245/258	743/745	631/635	610/635	547/553	537/584	608/632	650/654	608/654
		% Match	92	91	90	95	96	94	66	66	95	98	91	96	66	92
		UNITE #	UDB003193	UDB000022	UDB001487	UDB001453	UDB002795	UDB002391	UDB002512	UDB002972	UDB002972	UDB000225	UDB000255	UDB002428	UDB000029	AY372288
		Closest match	Hebeloma erumpens	Hebeloma velutipes	Melanogaster variegatus	Cortinarius rubrovioleipes	Cortinarius bibulus	Inocybe lanuguinosa	Lactarius obscuratus	Tomentella sublilacina	Tomentella sublilacina	Tomentella ellisii	Tomentella botryoides	Tomentella stuposa	Pseudotomentella tristis	Xerocomus porosporus
	GenBank #		GQ398240	GQ398241	GQ398242	GQ398243	GQ398244	GQ398245	GQ398246	GQ398247	GQ398248	GQ398249	GQ398250	GQ398251	GQ398252	GQ398253
	EM taxa		Alnicola escharoides	Alnicola sp. 1	Alpova diplophloeus	Cortinarius sp. 1	Cortinarius sp. 2	Inocybe sp. 1	Lactarius cf. obscuratus	Tomentella sp. 1	Tomentella sp. 2	Tomentella sp. 3	Tomentella sp. 4	Tomentella sp. 5	Pseudotomentella sp. 1	Xerocomus sp. 1



number of taxa. Error bars represent one standard deviation. Site abbreviations are: FC = Fox Creek, MH = Mount Hood, TC = Thompson Cat, TO = Toledo.

(Fig 2). Tomentella sp. 1 clustered with a large clade of other Alnus-associated taxa, but the other four A. rubra-associated Tomentella taxa grouped more closely with taxa from other hosts. For the Cortinarius analysis, there were three independent clades which contained Alnus-associated taxa, with both of the A. rubra-associated Cortinarius taxa falling into the same clade (Fig 3). Similarly, the Lactarius analysis had three independent clades of Alnus-associated taxa. The A. rubra-associated Lactarius cf. obscuratus clustered closely with two European Alnus-associated taxa, L. cyathuliformis and an unindentified Lactarius EM sample (Fig 4).

Discussion

The richness and composition of the A. rubra EM assemblage corresponds well with that seen in other Alnus EM studies (Pritsch et al. 1997; Beccera et al. 2005; Tedersoo et al. 2009). In general, Alnus EM assemblages appear to have consistently lower taxa richness and unique composition compared to EM assemblages present on other host plants. In A. rubra forests, the EM assemblage is species poor compared to co-occuring EM hosts (Horton et al. 2005) and there is a suite of hostspecific species (Alpova diplophloeus, Lactarius cf. obscuratus,

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1

.

Author's personal copy

Α 20

15

10

◆ FC
■ M H
▲ TC
◆ TO



Fig 2 – Phylogenetic reconstruction of 50 Alnus and non-Alnus-associated Tomentella taxa based on rDNA ITS sequences. Nodes are labeled with posterior probabilities from Bayesian analysis and, in parentheses, bootstrap support values from maximum likelihood analysis. Dashes indicate that branch was not present in the maximum likelihood analysis. Taxa are coded by species epiphet, unique identifier (GenBank number, UNITE number, or collection number), and the type of host plant from which the sequence was obtained. Nodes with Alnus-associated Tomentella taxa are designated in gray boxes, with the A. *rubra*-associated Tomentella taxa in bold. Arrows indicate the number of clades in which Alnus-associated taxa are present. Thelephora pseudoterrestris was designated as the outgroup following Koljalg et al. (2000).

Alnicola escharoides) that are a major part of the A. rubra EM assemblages. There were both similarities and differences between the EM assemblage identified here and that based on morphotype-based analyses (Miller et al. 1991; Miller et al. 1992). Both methods showed similar levels of taxa richness, but the dominance and diversity of Tomentella taxa was not previously recognized with morphotyping. A similar pattern of high Tomentella abundance and diversity was observed in a recent molecular analysis of Alnus EM assemblages in Europe (Tedersoo et al. 2009). Alnicola spp., which were suspected A. rubra EM associates by Miller et al. (1991), were confirmed to be a significant component of A. rubra assemblages, particularly in older forests. Miller et al. (1991) identified three additional A. rubra-associated EM taxa (Laccaria laccata, Paxillus involutus, and Hebeloma crustiliforme) that were not encountered in the present study. Given the saturated taxon accumulation curves at all four sites, it appears that those taxa are not regularly associated with A. rubra, although Alnus-associated Paxillus and Hebeloma species have been found in other studies (Molina 1979; Tedersoo et al. 2009).

EM assemblage richness was not equally distributed among sites, but there was no clear pattern associated with site host age/management history or geographic location. In contrast, there was a significant shift in assemblage structure (i.e. composition, richness, and abundance) across the four sites associated with site host age/management history. A number of environmental variables also correlated with the observed assemblage changes, including tree density, Frankia frequency, and % total soil nitrogen (Table 1). Given the confounded nature of our sampling (i.e. age and management history are not independent) and the correlational nature of the study, we cannot determine which of these factors are most important. It is clear, however, that differing environmental conditions do impact the structure of A. rubra EM assemblages. Strong environment-associated assemblage effects have been previously observed in other Alnus EM studies. Beccera et al. (2005) found significant correlations between total soil nitrogen, phosphorus, and pH and the distribution of 5 of the 9 EM taxa associated with A. acuminata. Interestingly, the Lactarius and Tomentella taxa in the present study showed opposite relationships with respect to total soil nitrogen and abundance compared to their congeners in Beccera et al. (2005), suggesting genus-level comparisons among Alnus EM taxa should be made with caution. Tedersoo et al. (2009) determined that soil pH and total organic matter best explained variation in the structure of A. glutinosa and

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Fig 3 – Phylogenetic reconstruction of 27 Alnus and non-Alnus-associated Cortinarius subgenus Telemonia taxa based on rDNA ITS sequences. Nodes are labeled with posterior probabilities from Bayesian analysis and, in parentheses, bootstrap support values from maximum parsimony analysis. Taxa are coded by species epiphet, unique identifier (GenBank number, UNITE number, or collection number), and the type of host plant from which the sequence was obtained. Nodes with Alnus-associated Cortinarius taxa are designated in gray boxes, with the A. *rubra*-associated Cortinarius taxa in bold. Arrows indicate the number of clades in which Alnus-associated taxa are present. Cortinarius myxacium, which belongs to a different Cortinarius subgenus, was designated as the outgroup.

A. incana EM assemblages, further supporting the importance of soil parameters in determining local assemblage structure.

The phylogenetic analyses conducted on Tomentella, Cortinarius, and Lactarius all clearly demonstrated that Alnus-associated congeners are not each other's closest relatives. While these analyses are limited by (1) a lack of complete sampling of EM taxa from each group and (2) reliance on a single gene region, the consistency of these results strongly suggests that Alnus-associated EM species do not share a unique evolutionary history with this host genus. Additional support for this pattern has also been shown by Moreau et al. (2006), who found that Alnus-associated Alnicola species were present in multiple independent clades of ITS/LSU-based phylogenetic analyses. These combined findings have significant implications for understanding the distinct nature of Alnus EM assemblages. Rather than being the product of unique co-evolutionary relationships, it appears that other factors are more important in controlling the composition and structure of Alnus EM assemblages.

We believe the dominant factor is likely to be the presence of *Frankia* bacteria because they alter the soil and host environment in two significant ways. First, the abundance of nitrogen added to Alnus forests by Frankia (Bormann et al. 1994) is likely to favour EM fungi that can tolerate higher soil nitrogen conditions. A number of previous studies have shown that EM species have varying tolerances for different nitrogen levels (Lilleskov et al. 2002a; Cajsa et al. 2008) and that EM assemblages often show shifts in composition in nitrogen amended sites (Peter et al. 2001; Lilleskov et al. 2002b; Avis et al. 2003) and along natural soil nitrogen gradients (Toljander et al. 2006; Kranabetter et al. 2009). These findings from other forests suggest that higher soil nitrogen levels may provide an important environmental filter on Alnus EM assemblage composition. The abundance of nitrogen directly provided to Alnus individuals by Frankia may also influence host preference for EM fungi with varying nutrient uptake abilities. Alnus individuals colonized by Frankia (100 % in A. rubra forests) may prefer to associate with EM taxa with greater uptake of nutrients other than nitrogen because that requirement is already met by the other symbiont. There has been little experimental evidence examining the nutrient uptake abilities of Alnus-associated EM fungi



Fig 4 – Phylogenetic reconstruction of 19 Alnus and non-Alnus-associated Lactarius taxa based on rDNA ITS sequences. Nodes are labeled with posterior probabilities from Bayesian analysis and, in parentheses, bootstrap support values from maximum parsimony analysis. Taxa are coded by species epiphet, unique identifier (GenBank number or UNITE number) and the type of host plant from which the sequence was obtained. Nodes with Alnus-associated Lactarius taxa are designated in gray boxes, with the A. *rubra*-associated Lactarius taxon in bold. Arrows indicate the number of clades in which Alnus-associated taxa are present. Russula amoenolens was designated as the outgroup.

due to the challenges associated with culturing many of the dominant taxa, but recently developed culture-independent enzymatic assays (Courty *et al.* 2005) hold great promise in addressing this hypothesis.

Our results support the consensus that Alnus EM assemblages are distinct from those found on other EM hosts, but suggest that factors other than evolutionary history are responsible for their unique composition. Future manipulative studies involving both Frankia and multiple EM fungi would help in resolving the specific role that Frankia play in EM-host interactions. Thus far, experiments have only examined the response of Alpova spp. to Frankia (Koo 1989; Yamanaka et al. 2003), and additional studies targeted at the whole assemblage level are needed. Similarly, studies focused on mixed forests would help determine the specificity of Alnus EM assemblages in natural settings. Interestingly, Tedersoo et al. (2009) found that Alnus EM host specificity differed between fungal phyla, with only ascomycetes co-occuring on other hosts. The phylogenetic analyses presented here, however, suggest that multiple Alnus-associated EM basidiomycete taxa also have the potential to associate with other hosts. Given the high frequency in which Alnus co-occurs with other EM host plants in western North America, additional studies in this region will be helpful in elucidating the processes involved in Alnus EM assemblage dynamics.

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