

REVIEW

The roles and performance of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in intercropping systems

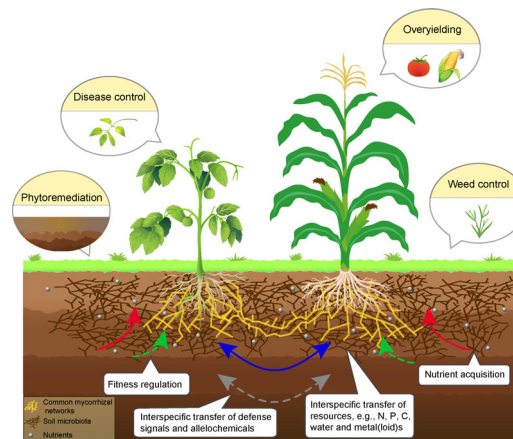
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HIGHLIGHTS

- Metabolic and non-metabolic benefits of AM fungi under intercropping were reviewed.
- Changes of AM fungi themselves respond to intercropping practices were summarized.
- Mechanistic understanding the synergy between intercropping and AM fungi is needed.
- It's valuable to harness AM fungal benefits for maximizing intercropping production.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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ABSTRACT

Intercropping, which gains productivity and ecological benefits through plant facilitative interactions, is a practice often associated with sustainable agriculture. In such systems, arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi and the hyphal networks play key roles in plant facilitation by promoting connectivity, mediating interplant transfer of metabolic resources, and managing weeds, pathogens, and contaminants. This review states that the symmetrically or unsymmetrically delivered resources via AM fungi are imperative to maintain facilitative interactions between intercroppings. In addition, the responses of AM fungi to intercropping are also discussed, including changes in abundance, diversity, community composition and colonization level. Although general proliferations in AM fungi via intercropping have been shown, the plant hosts and neighbors may exert different influences on AM fungi. Therefore, further research is needed in quantifying the mediating role of AM fungi on outputs of intercropping systems, clarifying the driving forces, and exploring the causation between these processes and the changes in AM fungi themselves. To conclude, the integration with AM fungi extends the understanding of key soil biological processes driving plant facilitation and will guide efforts to optimizing intercropping systems.

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1 Introduction

Agricultural productivity and food security need to be achieved in a more sustainable way in response to growing world population and climate change (Bruinsma, 2003; Wheeler and

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von Braun et al., 2013). Intercropping is the simultaneous cultivation of more than one crop cultivar (Vandermeer, 1989), mostly implemented in resource-limited and small-scale agriculture in tropical, subtropical and temperate areas in Africa, South Asia, and Central America (Brooker et al., 2015). Through processes such as niche complementarity and interspecific facilitation, intercropping systems have potential benefits in space and resource use, overall yield (Hauggaard-Nielsen and Jensen, 2005; Li et al., 2014), weed and disease control (Boudreau, 2013; Gurr et al., 2003), phytoremediation (Zeng et al., 2019), and soil quality improvement (Arantes et al., 2020), thereby holding great advantages for improving stability and sustainability of agroecosystems.

Intercropping can be considered as a practical application of ecological principles of natural ecosystem, taking the advantages of biodiversity to realize system productivity (Malezieux et al., 2009). For example, nitrogen (N)-fixing or phosphorus (P)-releasing species are commonly applied to intercropping systems to enhance soil fertility and growth of companion plants (Gunes et al., 2007; Li et al., 2007; Thilakarathna et al., 2016; Duchene et al., 2017). However, a more complex system means more difficulties for management and greater challenges to the techniques and concepts derived from monocropping systems (Malezieux et al., 2009). Thus, the agronomic and ecological advantages of intercropping should be further consolidated in order to providing effective support to smallholdings and being embraced by industrial farms, and a deeper understanding of the mechanisms driving these processes is definitely needed.

Soil microbial communities often positively respond to increased plant diversity (Montesinos-Navarro et al., 2012; He et al., 2013; Tang et al., 2014; Gong et al., 2019), in turn, which play crucial roles in soil nutrient cycling and regulation of plant-plant interactions. Among soil microbes, arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi are obligate biotrophs belonging to the phylum Glomeromycota, forming symbiotic associations with the majority of vascular plants, including most agricultural crops (Smith and Read, 2008; Brundrett and Tedersoo, 2018). In return for plant carbon (C), delivering nutrients (e.g., P and N) is the most important benefit of AM symbiosis for plant hosts (Smith and Read, 2008). There are also multiple ecological services provided by AM fungi, e.g., abiotic/biotic stress tolerance and soil structure improvement (Gianinazzi et al., 2010; Smith et al., 2010; Leifheit et al., 2014). While legume-based intercropping is widely used as an effective strategy for utilizing biologically fixed-N, AM fungi are essentially needed to alleviate the nutrient shortages and support the extra P need for N fixation (Barea et al., 2005).

In addition, the fungal mycelia simultaneously colonize and interconnect roots of the same or different plant species, forming so-called common mycorrhizal networks (CMNs). The CMNs allow direct and efficient pathways of resource transfers between intercrops, and closely bound to the outcomes of plant facilitative or competitive interactions (Montesinos-Navarro et al., 2016; Qiao et al., 2016; Dieng et al., 2017). Furthermore, AM fungi can provide a bunch of

services for plant adaptation under stressful environments (Gorzela et al., 2015), facilitating the ecological functions and wider applications of intercropping (Ehrmann and Ritz, 2014). In turn, such roles of AM fungi under intercropping systems should be reflected in their quantity and diversity features. A diversified AM fungal community enables efficient exploitation of soil resources and functional compatibility between host plants, hence regulating plant facilitation and coexistence in field ecosystems (van der Heijden et al., 1998; Wagg et al., 2011; Montesinos-Navarro et al., 2012, 2019).

In the review provided by Bainard et al. (2011), the tree-based intercropping systems generally supported an abundant and diversified AM fungal community compared with conventional agricultural systems. However, an update of recent findings regarding how AM fungi respond to interactions between different intercrops, especially for crop species, is needed. In the current review, we set out to synthesize the roles and responses of AM fungi in a wider scope of planting systems, e.g., field crops, forages, trees, or a mixture thereof, where intercropping strategy has been applied. Such integration of intercropping and AM fungi is expected to enhance understanding of key soil biological processes driving plant-plant interactions, and bring novel insights into future developments of intercropping systems.

2 The contributions of AM fungi in intercropping systems

The CMNs allow intra- and inter-specific transfers of resources, either metabolic (including contaminants), e.g., N, P, C, water and metal(loid)s (Martins and Cruz, 1998; Yao et al., 2003; Egerton-Warburton et al., 2007; Meding and Zasoski, 2008; Ren et al., 2013), or non-metabolic, e.g., allelochemicals and defense signals (Barto et al., 2012). Therefore, we start by discussing the three major roles AM fungi play in intercropping systems: 1) mediation of plant interspecific transfer of C, N, P, and water resources and facilitative interactions; 2) control of parasitic weeds and plant pathogens; and 3) remediation of heavy metal(loid)-contaminated soil (Fig. 1).

2.1 The mediation of resource transfer and facilitation between intercrops via CMNs

The facilitative effect of AM fungi on N-fixation by legumes and subsequent N transfer to companion crops have been demonstrated by a number of studies using ^{15}N labeling. Ingrassia et al. (2019) showed that AM fungi accounted for 20% of increases in the N fixed by faba bean (*Vicia faba*) and also in the N transferred to the intercropped wheat (*Triticum turgidum*). Wahbi et al. (2016) reported the similar effect, but variation was shown due to different inoculation rates of AM fungi. Li et al. (2009) traced the bidirectional N transfer between mung bean (*Vigna radiata*) and rice (*Oryza sativa*),

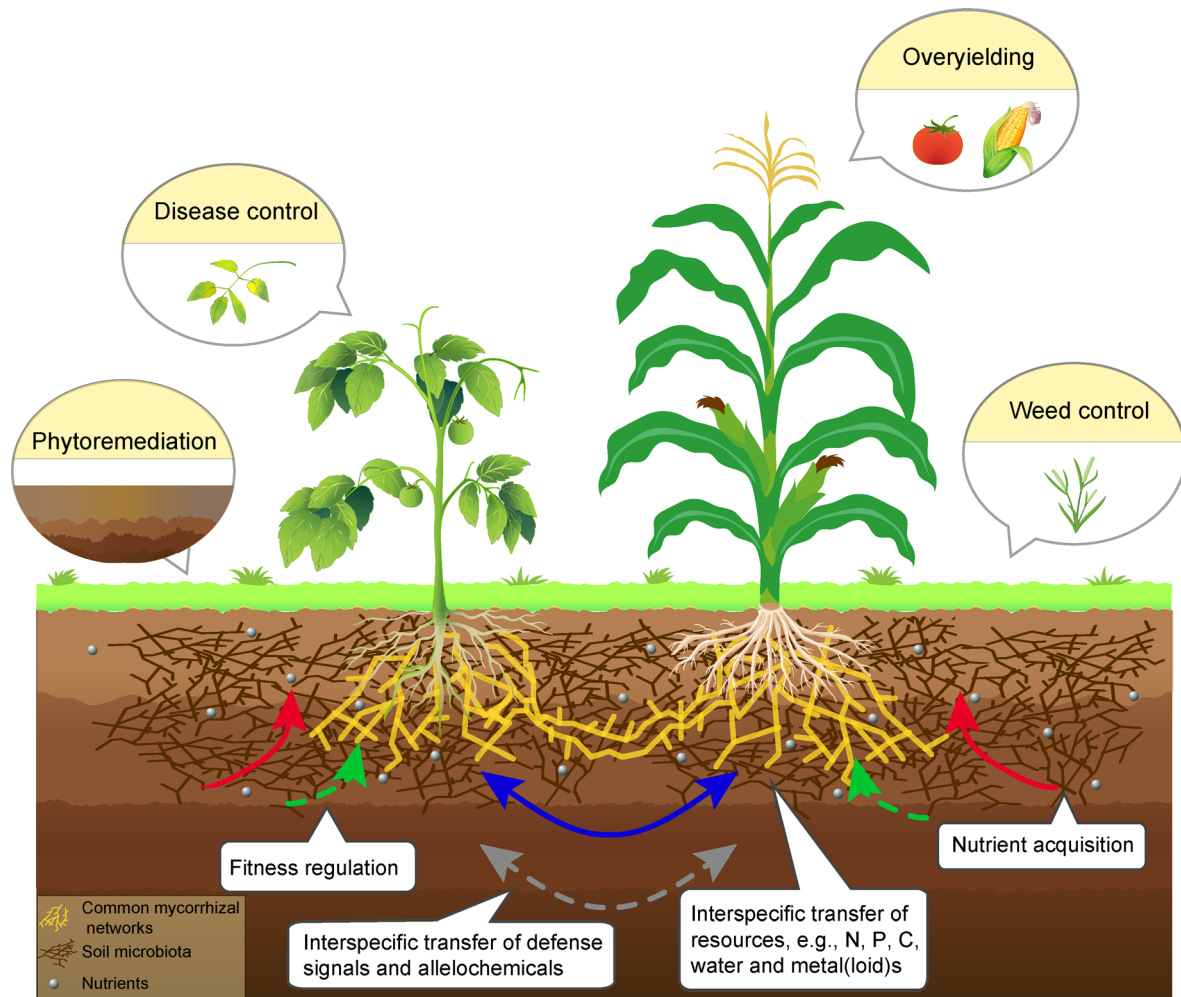


Fig. 1 The potential benefits of arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi in intercropping systems, e.g., overyielding, weed and disease control, and phytoremediation. Arrows and boxes show proposed mediation of AM fungi for uptake and/or interspecific transfer of metabolic resources, infochemicals and defense signals belowground.

the presence of AM fungi increased ^{15}N transfer from mung bean to rice from 5.4% to 15.7%, while only 2.7% of N was transferred from rice to mung bean. Zhang et al. (2020a) reported a more effective N transfer via CMNs than the indirect pathway via root exudation in an alfalfa (*Medicago sativa*) and maize (*Zea mays*) intercropping system without N fertilization. The dual inoculation of an AM fungal strain and a rhizobium strain led to significant increases of N uptake in co-cultivated soybean (*Glycine max*) and maize and the mycelium-derived N transfer from soybean to maize than any of single inoculation, suggesting the synergistic effect between AM fungi and rhizobia (Meng et al., 2015).

Compared to N, less attention has been paid to plant interspecific P transfer via AM fungi. The CMNs allow bi-directional P transfer among different plant species (Martins and Read, 1996), and which plant is more benefited may depend on plant specific needs and mycorrhizal dependence. Ryegrass (*Lolium perenne*) showed a higher shoot P content than neighboring clover (*Trifolium pratense*), and a lower rate of P was transferred from ryegrass to clover than from clover

to ryegrass via CMNs (Yao et al., 2003). The interplant P transfer via CMNs accounted for more P acquisition in the obligately mycotrophic grass, i.e., indiagrass (*Sorghastrum nutans*, >50%) than the facultative grass, i.e., white sagebrush (*Artemisia ludoviciana*, 20%) (Wilson et al., 2006).

There are also evidences for the involvement of AM fungi in C and water allocation between intercropping plant species. With ^{14}C labeling in rice leaves, both enhanced ^{14}C activity in watermelon (*Citrullus lanatus*) leaves and increased P uptake and translocation in rice were shown, thus AM fungus mediated the C and P trade between intercrops (Ren et al., 2013). In a growth chamber $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ -labeling experiment, inoculation with AM fungi increased ^{13}C content in maize shoots and decreased ^{13}C content in soybean roots, indicating that maize invested less C than soybean into the CMNs (Wang et al., 2016). Walnut (*Juglans nigra*) tree showed higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ($^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ ratio) in leaves but lower $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in root adjacent mycelium compared to the neighboring maize, suggesting the potential C transfer from walnut to maize via the CMNs (van Tuinen et al., 2020). Based on these

evidences, it is still not possible to conclude there is fungus-to-plant C transfer (Robinson and Fitter, 1999). Deep-rooted pigeon pea (*Cajanus cajan*) showed a 'bioirrigation' effect to shallow-rooted finger millet (*Eleusine coracana*) under drought and the enhanced facilitation by CMN was observed, however, pigeon pea showed competitive effect over finger millet at ambient water availability and the CMN also enhanced the competition (Singh et al., 2020).

Through mediating the N, P, C and water economy, symmetric benefits for both intercropped partners delivered by CMNs have been shown (Meng et al., 2015; Kumar et al., 2016). More frequently, AM fungi provide varying degree of benefits to different plant species. In legume-cereal intercropping systems, the preference by CMNs is important in maintaining the profits of legumes and enabling plant facilitation (Li et al., 2009; Xiao et al., 2010; Qiao et al., 2015; Bahadur et al., 2019). However, the opposite direction of CMNs derived benefits has also been reported. Wheat was more favored by CMNs with enhanced nutrient uptake rather than the neighboring annual medic (*Medicago scutellate*) and faba bean (Caruso et al., 2018; Ingrassia et al., 2019). Maize showed the preference by CMNs over the intercropped soybean (Hamel and Smith, 1991; Wang et al., 2019). When legumes are not included, pepper (*Capsicum annuum*) was the more beneficiary species of CMNs for enhanced P acquisition and fruit yield when intercropped with maize (Hu et al., 2019).

The effects of AM fungi on plant interspecific competition are related to specific plant mycorrhizal traits (Moora, 2014). The increased competitive ability of N-fixing forbs, the suppression in fibrous C₃ grasses, and unclear effects in C₄ grasses, non-fixing forbs and woody species have been shown (Lin et al., 2015). Soil properties such as pH and nutrient levels and aboveground factors such as planting density and shading also exert influences on the magnitudes and directions of AM fungal mediation (Chiffot et al., 2009; Menezes et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2016; Ren et al., 2017; Shukla et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020a). For intercropping patterns involving non-mycotrophic species, e.g., barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) and sugar beet (*Beta vulgaris*) (Hajiboland et al., 2020), and sesame (*Sesamum indicum*) and broccoli (*Brassica oleracea*) (Tong et al., 2015), AM fungal mycelium from the co-cultivated mycotrophic species induced changes in the defense parameters of non-host species, but evidence of reduced plant growth and fitness was not shown.

2.2 The potential of AM fungi in controlling weeds and diseases in intercropping systems

The AM fungi supported by intercropping trees enhanced the competitive strength of sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor*) against parasitic striga (*Striga hermonthica*) (Birhane et al., 2018). In the extreme case, a significant and negative correlation was observed between AM fungal spore density and colonization, and striga counts at the early stage of sorghum growth. In a facility shed, the suppression of pepper *Phytophthora* blight

by soil indigenous AM fungi was enhanced by intercropping with maize, which promoted the propagation of AM fungi and thereby colonization on pepper roots (Liu et al., 2021). Similarly, AM fungal inoculation induced a compensation for the negative effect of *Fusarium* wilt on the biomass of tomato (*Lycopersicon lycopersicum*) intercropped with leek (*Allium porrum*), which showed even a 20% higher mycorrhizal colonization rate than monocropped tomato, and thereby higher outcome of the bioprotective effects resulting from AM fungi (Hage-Ahmed et al., 2013).

In addition to nutritional compensation, CMNs also serve as potential 'superhighways' for transferring systemic allelochemicals and defense signals across plant species (Barto et al., 2012; Schuman and Baldwin, 2018). Experimental evidences indicated that AM fungal hyphae increased soil accumulation of allelochemicals, e.g., imazamox and thiophenes from signet marigold (*Tagetes tenuifolia*) (Barto et al., 2011) and juglone from walnut (Achatz and Rillig, 2014), thus triggering growth inhibition in the receiver plants, lettuce (*Lactuca sativa*) and tomato, respectively. Furthermore, belowground transportations of defense signals through CMNs between trifoliolate orange (*Poncirus trifoliata*) seedlings (Zhang et al., 2018b), tomato (Song et al., 2010, 2015), and faba bean (Babikova et al., 2013) were also shown. However, it remains unclear whether communication between plants via CMNs can be maintained when scale up to diverse AM fungal communities and among multiple plant species under field conditions.

2.3 The function of AM fungi for soil remediation in intercropping systems

Another applicable area of intercropping is phytoremediation, e.g., using metal(loid)-accumulating companion plants to ensure crop safety in contaminated soils, where AM fungi may play a crucial part either by mediating metal(loid) transfer between plants, or alleviating toxicities in plants. For example, AM fungal inoculation enhanced cadmium (Cd) acquisition by Alfred stonecrop (*Sedum alfredii*) over the neighboring upland kangkong (*Ipomoea aquatica*), increased soil P availability through activating phosphatase activity, and reduced soil available Cd concentrations via elevating soil pH (Hu et al., 2013a, 2013b). In a recent study reported by Yang et al. (2021), AM fungal inoculation also reduced Cd concentration in upland rice through regulating Cd transporter genes in rice, increasing the root surface area and Cd acquisition of the intercropped black nightshade (*Solanum nigrum*), and modulating root exudation and rhizosphere pH to decrease Cd availability for rice and increase that for nightshade. In a heavy metal-polluted soil, AM fungal inoculation alleviated the toxicity level and increased the yield of garlic chives (*Allium tuberosum*) intercropped with sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*) via enhancing soil phosphatase activity and plant P acquisition, along with increased availabilities of heavy metals in soil and acquisitions by sunflower (Zhang et al., 2019). Through mediating plant P nutrient, AM fungi were also involved in the

adaptations of the mix-cropped ryegrass and clover, and alfalfa (*Medicago sativa*) and pepperweed (*Lepidium apetalum*), to arsenic (As) contamination (Dong et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2018a).

3 The responses of AM fungi to intercropping

The colonization level and abundance of AM fungi are important indicators reflecting plant growth performance and soil nutrient activation. With the diversified C resources and spatial patterns of soil properties under agroforestry management (Thevathasan and Gordon, 2004), increases of root colonization and soil sporulation of AM fungi were shown in intercropping systems of sorghum and ana tree (*Faidherbia albida*), and soybean and peacock flower (*Albizia gummifera*) or broad-leaved croton (*Croton macrostachyus*) (Birhane et al., 2018; Hailemariam et al., 2013). Mycorrhizal colonization of both seedling and mature tree roots of grandis gum (*Eucalyptus grandis*) was stimulated through intercropping with Buddha belly tree (*Acacia mangium*) (Bini et al., 2018; Pereira et al., 2018). Referring to mixtures of field crop, there were increases of mycorrhizal colonization for wheat and maize intercropped with faba bean (Wahbi et al., 2016) and soybean (Meng et al., 2015), respectively. With different combinations of pigeon pea, cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata*), and maize, there was no difference in mycorrhizal colonization level among crops in the growing season, whereas increased mycorrhizal colonization of maize in the following year was shown (Njira et al., 2017). However, factors such as soil nutrient conditions, aboveground management, and plant characteristics all can affect AM fungi in intercropping systems. The survey of 23 tree, crop and vegetable species of Ethiopia agroforestry systems showed that colonization and spore density of AM fungi favored moderate to low P and N levels (Dobo et al., 2018). The seeding density of neighboring palisade grass (*Urochloa brizantha*) negatively affected maize root colonization and soil population of AM fungi (de Freitas et al., 2018). Mycorrhizal colonization of tomato either increased, not changed, or decreased when intercropped with leek, cucumber/basil, and fennel, respectively (Hage-Ahmed et al., 2013), indicating a neighbor effect on plant-fungal interactions.

With interactions between intercrops, changes in the diversity and community composition of AM fungi have been demonstrated. Bainard et al. (2012) showed that intercropping with trees increased AM fungal diversity in a maize-planted soil, while tree species exerted different neighboring effects on the community composition. There were decreases of soil spore density and shifts in root and rhizosphere AM fungal community composition of oriental arborvitae (*Platycladus orientalis*) via neighboring with the leguminous tree, i.e., black locust (*Robinia pseudoacacia*); while neighboring oriental arborvitae only had influence on the rhizosphere AM fungal community composition of black locust (Chen et al., 2018). Gao et al. (2020) reported corresponding responses of soil

AM fungal abundance to intercropping derived asymmetric effects on tomato and potato onion (*Allium cepa* var. *aggregatum*) growth, while the community composition of AM fungi only shifted in the rhizosphere of potato onion. According to Zhang et al. (2020b), intercropping increased soil AM fungal diversity in the rhizosphere of soybean, whereas no such effect was shown in the neighboring maize. Also, there were opposite trends of change in the relative abundance of dominant genus (*Glomus*) between soybean and maize with increasing level of N application. However, a number of other studies suggested no guarantee for higher AM fungal diversity or shifted community composition through intercropping (Rajeshkumar et al., 2015; Menezes et al., 2016; Furze et al., 2017).

4 Conclusion and prospects

The roles of AM fungi for plant interspecific resource transfer and facilitative interactions in intercropping systems have been thoroughly summarized in the current review. Despite of accumulating evidences of AM fungi-mediated N, P, C, and water allocations between intercrops, there are still doubts about the significance of such mycelia-derived resource flows and whether resources are directly transferred through CMNs or indirectly through soil, and further developments of tracing and modeling methods are still needed (Simard and Durall, 2004). There are either symmetric or unsymmetric benefits provided by AM fungi, enhancing facilitative or sometimes competitive interactions between intercropped species. The underlying mechanisms driving plant interspecific facilitation and AM fungal mediation in intercropping systems need to be better understood. On the other hand, the identified plant and environmental factors worth further consolidation, which are crucial in defining the application scopes of intercropping and AM fungi.

Besides metabolic regulation, the contributions of AM fungi for the ecological/environmental applications of intercropping, e.g., weed and pathogen control and soil remediation, were discussed in this review. There are also possible roles of AM fungi in coping with insects via transferring herbivore-induced signals between plants (Babikova et al., 2013) and dissipating organic pollutants via a synergistic effect by intercropping, AM fungi, and soil bacteria (Shan et al., 2018). Intercropping approaches need to show enough advantages to offset the costs of sophisticated managements and technical developments, and these non-metabolic prospects can provide significant argument to intercropping. While a better understanding of the mechanisms driving plant-plant communications and exchanges via CMNs is needed. Further focuses should also be given to the cooperation among intercropping, AM fungi, and organic amendments, which hold great potential in solving soil depletion, contamination, and continuous cropping obstacles (Hu et al., 2014; Kumar et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2020).

The general proliferations in AM fungal abundance and

diversity have been suggested by studies of intercropping systems, while AM fungi may show different responses to intercropped species depending on the strengths of neighboring effects and relative changes in soil environment (Chen et al., 2018; Gao et al., 2020). However, current information about intercropping-induced changes in AM fungal community is very limited and it is difficult to link such changes with interactions between plant species. Also, further investigations on the relationship between the changes within AM fungi and their nutritional and ecological functions in intercropping systems are needed.

Consequently, a mutually beneficial relationship between intercropping and AM fungi is suggested, AM fungi are necessarily involved in interspecific facilitation and ecological services of intercropping systems, and intercropping leads to improvements of mycorrhizal colonization and development of AM fungal community. Understanding the inextricable links between intercropping and AM fungi will guide the optimization in productivity and broader-scale applications of intercropping.

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Conflict of interest

All authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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