

1 **TITLE PAGE:**

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23 **Dark septate endophytic fungi associated with pioneer grass inhabiting volcanic deposits**
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30

31 **Abstract**

32 Growth of the pioneer grass *Miscanthus condensatus*, one of the first vegetation to be
33 established on volcanic deposits, is promoted by root-associated fungi, particularly dark septate
34 endophytes (DSE). Fungal taxa within DSE colonize the root of *Miscanthus condensatus* in
35 oligotrophic *Andosol*, and their function in plant growth promotion remains largely unknown.
36 We, therefore, comprehensively assessed the composition of the DSE community associated
37 with *Miscanthus condensatus* root in volcanic ecosystems using the approaches of both
38 metabarcoding (next-generation sequencing) and isolation (culturing). Also, their promotion
39 effects of DSE on plant growth (rice as a proxy) were evaluated by inoculation of core isolates
40 to rice roots. Here, we found: i) 70% of culturable fungi that colonized *Miscanthus condensatus*
41 phylogenetically belonged to DSE, ii) 7 orders were identified by both sequencing and culturing
42 methods, and iii) inoculation of DSE isolates (*Phialocephala fortinii*, *P. helvetica*, and
43 *Phialocephala sp.*) validated their effects on rice growth, particularly under an extremely low
44 pH condition (compared to control without inoculation, rice biomass enhanced by 7.6 times
45 after inoculation of *P. fortinii*). This study helps improve our understanding of the community
46 of *Miscanthus condensatus*-associated DSE fungi and their functions in promoting plant growth.

47

48 **Key words:** *volcanic deposits, pioneer grass, Miscanthus condensatus, culture-non-culture*
49 *approaches, dark septate endophytic fungi, inoculation, plant growth promotion*

50

51 **Introduction**

52 Numerous studies demonstrated that symbiotic fungi play a significant role in the
53 establishment of pioneer vegetation in harsh environments or agricultural soils with extremely
54 low pH. The association of these fungal micro-organisms that promote plant colonization is
55 significant in extreme conditions. As these fungal symbionts help plant survival mainly by:
56 improving host nutrient uptake (Usuki and Narisawa, 2007; Yadav *et al.*, 2009), defending
57 against pathogens (Busby *et al.*, 2016), promoting tolerance to abiotic stress (Rodriguez *et al.*,
58 2008; Gill *et al.*, 2016), and modifying trophic interactions (Clay, 1996; Omacini *et al.*, 2001;
59 Bultman *et al.*, 2003).

60 One of the most common groups of monocotyledonous root endophytes is dark septate
61 endophytes (DSE), which usually colonize in tissues intracellularly and intercellularly of more
62 than 600 living herbaceous and woody plant species (Jumpponen and Trappe, 1998). DSE,
63 which is characterized by their morphology of melanized, septate hyphae and structure like
64 microsclerotia, also confer the ability to improve plant performance through enhanced nutrient
65 uptake, and increased ability to withstand adverse environmental conditions (Khastini and
66 Jannah, 2021). Increasing evidence shows that DSE gradually become the most prevalent root
67 colonizers under extreme environmental conditions of different ecosystem (Haruma *et al.*,
68 2021; Yu *et al.*, 2021). For example, Huusko *et al.* (2017) reported DSE-dominated
69 colonization in *Deschampsia flexuosa* roots along a postglacial land uplift gradient. Gonzalez
70 Mateu *et al.* (2020) reported that DSE inoculation *Phragmites australis* had higher aboveground

71 biomass under mesohaline conditions. DSE, e.g., *Phialocephala fortinii*, promote host plant
72 growth and adaptation to the hostile environment by: i) increasing resistance to heavy metal
73 contamination and heat/drought stress via producing melanized cell walls (Li *et al.*, 2018;
74 Haruma *et al.*, 2021) and, ii) facilitating uptake of nutrients such as nitrogen and phosphorous
75 (Jumpponen *et al.*, 1998; Surono and Narisawa, 2017).

76 Wild plant species may live in symbiosis with mycoflora that may have been lost during
77 breeding of the cultivars used in agriculture (Yuan *et al.*, 2010). Whilst, some of symbiotic
78 fungi, that can assist plants to adapt to a given stress in a natural habitat, might increase
79 tolerance of crop species to that stress in an agriculture system. Thus, from an agricultural point
80 of view, the plant symbiotic fungi could be seen as an extended source for crop adaptation and
81 growth in agronomy. In attempts to domesticate “wild” symbiotic fungi (associated with
82 genetically wild type plant), some of these DSE species in natural system have been
83 successfully transferred to agricultural species from their original host, providing benefits to
84 the inoculated crops (Toju *et al.*, 2018).

85 Rice (*Oryza sativa*) is the principal food grain crop (one of the four major food crops) for
86 more than 3 billion people, and its consumption exceeds 100 kg per capita annually in many
87 Asian countries (Yuan *et al.*, 2010). During the last several decades, there have been major
88 climatic events, including global warming, soil acidification, etc, that influenced agricultural
89 productivity of rice around the world. Soil pH is a highly sensitive factor to determine plant
90 survival, distribution, and interactions with microorganisms, which are vital for the availability
91 of essential nutrients and plant growth (Luo *et al.*, 2013). About 13% of the world’s rice is
92 produced in acid soil. Compared with other crops, rice has relatively stronger Al toxic resistance
93 (Famoso *et al.*, 2010), and is also the most complex cereal crop with Al resistance genes (Ma
94 *et al.*, 2002). Nevertheless, as for other crops, heavy metal toxicity in acid soil limits rice growth

95 and nutrients uptake, and subsequently reduces grain yield (Chen *et al.*, 2020). The optimal pH
96 range for rice growth is 5.0-8.5, which shows the likely reduction of yield in the soil with the
97 extended pH range (Ma *et al.*, 2002). To improve these soil acidity, liming is often used but is
98 practically difficult and unsustainable.

99 Microorganisms inoculation is a sustainable approach to potentially promote plant
100 resistance to acidic stress. For instance, plant-associated fungi, such as arbuscular mycorrhizal
101 fungi (AM fungi), reportedly play a key role in the protection of plants in acidic soils (Toju *et*
102 *al.*, 2018). Yet, high concentrations of H⁺ and Al³⁺ can inhibit hyphal growth and spore
103 germination in AM fungi, thereby decreasing the possibility of colonizing plant roots (Clark,
104 1997; Van Aarle *et al.*, 2002; Postma *et al.*, 2007). Comparably, DSE show marked potential
105 to help host plants resist acidity because of their higher H⁺ tolerance than other colonizing fungi
106 (Postma *et al.*, 2007). Still, there is a lack of reports of DSE improving host crop (e.g., rice)
107 growth under acidic conditions, especially an extremely acidic condition (pH 3.0).

108 Re-vegetation in volcanic soil, characterized by a dominance of biological processes, is
109 difficult due to: i) strong acidity of volcanic deposits, ii) high concentration of toxic elements,
110 and iii) deficiencies in essential nutrients. *Miscanthus sinensis*, an unique pioneer grass plant
111 during recovery after volcanic eruption, is the first to be established on volcanic deposits, and
112 frequently found as primary vegetation in lahar deposited by volcanic eruptions (Watanabe *et*
113 *al.*, 2006; Hirata *et al.*, 2007; An *et al.*, 2008; Ezaki *et al.*, 2008). This is because *M. sinensis*
114 can tolerate a wide range of environmental stresses due to the trait of C4 photosynthesis, leading
115 to high productivity and low-nutrient requirement (Stewart *et al.*, 2009). Apart from *Miscanthus*
116 traits that adapt to the volcanic soil, the root-associated fungal communities are widely reported
117 to benefit the growth and promote the adaptation of host plants to stress, such as aridity (Wu
118 and Xia, 2006), salinity (Porcel *et al.*, 2012), and oligotrophic conditions (Jeewani *et al.*, 2021).

119 A better understanding of plant-microbe interactions, therefore, can help improve our
120 understanding of vegetation recovery and plant growth promotion including agricultural
121 application scene. The isolation and culture of fungal species, therefore, are indispensable as
122 they complement taxonomic databases and validate taxa revealed by sequencing. Bai *et al.*
123 (2015) established *Arabidopsis* root-derived bacterial culture collections representing the
124 majority of species that were reproducibly detectable by culture-independent community
125 sequencing. Laval *et al.* (2021) investigated fungal and bacterial communities in soils receiving
126 wheat and oilseed rape residues, and confirmed the feasibility of combined culture-unculture
127 approaches that revealed consistent community profiles. The role of keystone taxa revealed by
128 the sequencing data-based co-occurrence network can be further validated by culturing and
129 followed inoculation. For example, isolation was used to test whether the interaction between
130 micro-organisms predicted by metagenomic sequencing actually occurs (Laval *et al.*, 2021). By
131 isolation and inoculation, (Zheng *et al.*, 2021) identified the strong decomposition ability of
132 keystone taxa such as the genera *Chryseobacterium* (bacteria), *Fusarium*, *Aspergillus*, and
133 *Penicillium* (fungi), which are consistent with the keystone taxa revealed by the co-occurrence
134 network. The combination of sequencing and culturing methods, therefore, is powerful for the
135 identification of putative taxa (either individually or creation of synthetic communities). Yet,
136 studies on DSE in volcanic ecosystems by culture-unculture approaches are lacking, and
137 inoculation to validate the function in rice growth still awaits further investigation.

138 For this purpose, both culture-dependent and culture-independent approaches were
139 adopted, to comprehensively reveal the fungal communities of *Miscanthus*-associated,
140 particularly DSE, from volcanic ecosystems. Their functions in promoting plant growth (via
141 isolation-inoculation) in different pH soils were further evaluated. This study, therefore, aimed
142 to: i) reveal the fungal taxa associated with the roots of *M. condensatus* during vegetation

143 recovery by a combination of sequencing and culturing approaches, and ii) inoculate the major
144 food crop i.e., rice with these indigenous isolates (overlapped with sequencing-revealed taxa)
145 to evaluate their effects on rice growth, in particularly under low pH condition. We
146 hypothesized that prevalent colonization by DSE fungi occurs in the pioneer grass *M.*
147 *condensatus* inhabiting volcanic deposits near the crater of Miyake-jima, due to DSE's traits of
148 preferential colonization under oligotrophic and acidic conditions.

149

150 **Materials and Methods**

151 **Study site description and root sampling**

152 Miyake-jima (55.5 km² in area; highest point, 775 m), a basaltic volcanic island (34°05' N,
153 139°31'E; Fig. 1), belongs to the Fuji volcanic southern zone in the East Japan volcanic belt.
154 As a model active basaltic volcanic island with an eruption in 2000, it ejected large amounts of
155 volcanic ash and gases such as sulfur dioxide and hydrogen sulfide (60% of vegetation on the
156 island was affected) (Yamanishi *et al.*, 2003; Guo *et al.*, 2014). As a result of SO₂ gas exposure,
157 volcanic ash deposits were acidified due to SO₄²⁻ absorption. They were characterized by strong
158 acidity, with high levels of exchangeable Ca²⁺ and Al³⁺ (Fujimura *et al.*, 2016). Mount Oyama
159 is an active volcano, located in the center of the island. A large amount of volcanic SO₂ gas
160 (~54 kt d⁻¹) was ejected immediately from a newly created summit caldera after the latest
161 eruption in 2000 (Fujimura *et al.*, 2016). The SO₂ gas exposure declined slowly after the
162 eruption, and as a result of this exposure, the volcanic ash deposits were acidified due to SO₄²⁻
163 absorption. They were characterized by strong acidity [pH (H₂O), 3.1-4.0], with high levels of
164 exchangeable Ca²⁺ (33.5-115 cmol kg⁻¹) and Al³⁺ (0.8-10.2 cmol kg⁻¹) (Fujimura *et al.*, 2016).
165 At 18 years after the eruption, the patchy vegetation of a pioneer grass, *Miscanthus condensatus*,
166 was established at site OY near the Miyake-jima summit crater (34°04' N, 139°31' E; 553m

167 a.s.l; Fig. 1). The rhizosphere soils of *Miscanthus condensatus* were collected at site OY in
168 November 2017, and March and September 2018. From each period, three healthy specimens
169 of *M. condensatus* were collected, kept in sterile plastic bags, and immediately stored on ice.
170 Samples were divided into two portions, and: 1) kept at 4°C and processed within 48 h after
171 collection for isolation, and 2) kept at -20 °C until DNA extraction and molecular analysis.

172

173 **Root surface sterilization and culturable endophytic fungal isolation**

174 In order to remove adhering soil and free-living microbes, root surface sterilization was
175 performed by modifying the method of Sahu, *et al.* (2022). Root samples were gently rinsed
176 with tap water. Individual roots were severed aseptically in 1-cm-long sections with a sterile
177 scalpel and put into 50-mL conical centrifuge tubes. Then, they were superficially sterilized
178 with 0.005% Tween 20 and then rinsed with sterilized distilled water before the aseptic stepwise
179 sterilization process was carried out. Root sections were treated with 70% ethanol for 1 min,
180 with a further step in the above process, 1% sodium hypochlorite was added and sterilized for
181 5 min. Finally, sections were rinsed with sterilized distilled water three times (Sahu, *et al.*,
182 2022).

183 After surface sterilization, the final wash was spread plated onto 1/2 Corn Meal agar
184 medium (Cornmeal, Difco 25 g L⁻¹, Bacto agar, Difco 15 g L⁻¹) to confirm the disinfection and
185 incubated for 2 weeks at 23°C to examine for the presence of a growth colony. Root sections
186 were dried with sterile filter paper overnight and then placed onto cornmeal agar medium
187 containing 0.1 mg kg⁻¹ streptomycin and incubated at 23°C for 2 weeks. When endophytic
188 fungal growth was observed, the mycelia were immediately transferred to a new plate. An
189 isolate was transferred only when the probability of a good pure culture was considered high.
190 Thus, when the strains originated very close to each other and in later stages, when they

191 overgrew earlier strains, they were left untransferred and not calculated into the total number
192 of the isolates. After incubation, pure cultures were obtained by transferring single hyphae to
193 cornmeal malt yeast agar medium (CMMY; Malt extract 10 g L⁻¹, Yeast extract 2 g L⁻¹,
194 Cornmeal 8.5 g L⁻¹, Bacto agar 7.5 g L⁻¹).

195

196 **Identification of fungal isolates and phylogenetic analysis**

197 Genomic DNA from each fungal isolate was extracted from mycelium using Prepman
198 Ultra Sample Preparation Reagent Protocol (Applied Biosystems, California, USA). The
199 universal primer pairs of ITS1 (5'-TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGG-3') hybridize at the end of
200 18S rDNA, and the primer ITS4 (5'-TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3') that hybridizes at the
201 beginning of 28S rDNA was used to amplify fungal isolates (Mahmoud and Narisawa, 2013).
202 PCR amplification was carried out in a 50- μ L reaction mixture containing 1 μ L fungal genomic
203 DNA, 2.5 μ L of each primer, 5 μ L of 10 \times Ex Taq buffer, 4 μ L of dNTP, 0.25 μ L of Ex *Taq*
204 DNA polymerase, and 34.75 μ L of sterilized MilliQ water under thermal conditions of 4 min
205 at 94°C, 35 cycles of 94°C for 35 s, 52°C for 55 s, and 72°C for 2 min, and a final extension of
206 72°C for 10 min using a Takara PCR Thermal Cycler Dice (Takara Bio INC., model TP 600,
207 Japan). The PCR products were purified and sequenced using an Applied Biosystems 3130xl
208 DNA sequencer. All sequences obtained were compared with similar DNA sequences retrieved
209 from the Genbank database using the NCBI BLASTN program.

210

211 **Illumina MiSeq sequencing for culture-independent identification**

212 Roots of samples which collected in November were added to 10-mL aliquots of sterile
213 distilled water and macerated with a pestle and mortar for DNA extraction with DNeasy Plant

214 Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) following the manufacturer's protocol. DNA was purified
215 using Ultra Clean DNA Purification Kit (MOBIO, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Then, DNA was eluted
216 in 50 μ L of Tris and EDTA buffer. A NanoDrop spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies,
217 Wilmington, DE, USA) was used to quantify the DNA concentration. Finally, DNA samples
218 were stored at -80°C before molecular analysis. The second nuclear ribosomal internal
219 transcribed spacer (ITS2) region of the rRNA operon was targeted using the fungal-specific
220 primer pairs ITS3 (5'-GCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGC-3') and ITS4 (5'-
221 TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3') (Chen et al., 2021). PCR amplification was carried out in
222 triplicate with 50- μ L reactions containing 25 μ L of Premix Taq (TaKaRa, Shiga, Japan), 23 μ L
223 of sterilized MilliQ water, 0.5 μ L of both forward and reverse primers (125 pmol), and 1 μ L of
224 template DNA. The PCR program had the following thermocycling conditions: 35 cycles of
225 denaturation at 94°C for 30 s, annealing at 54°C for 30 s, 72°C for 45 s, and a final extension of
226 72°C for 10 min. PCR products were pooled and their relative quantity was estimated by
227 running 5 μ L of amplicon DNA on 1.5% agarose gel, and products were purified with QIA
228 Quick PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen, Shenzhen, China). The purified mixture was diluted and
229 denatured to obtain an 8 pmol amplicon library and mixed with an equal volume of 8 pmol
230 PhiX (Illumina) following the manufacturer's recommendations in the Illumina MiSeq reagent
231 kit preparation guide (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). Finally, 600 μ L of the amplicon
232 mixtures were loaded with read 1, read 2, and the index sequencing primers. The paired-end
233 sequencing (each 250 bp) was completed on a MiSeq platform (Illumina). The sequencing data
234 were processed using the UPARSE pipeline
235 (http://drive5.com/usearch/manual/uparse_pipeline.html). The raw sequences were subjected
236 to quality control. The singleton and chimeric sequences were removed after dereplication, and

237 the remaining sequences were categorized into operational taxonomic units (OTU) with 97%
238 similarity and then assigned taxonomy using the UNITE database (<https://unite.ut.ee/>).

239

240 **Inoculation**

241 The experiment was conducted as a complete randomized factorial design with two factors.
242 The first factor had four levels: non-inoculation control or inoculation with three dominant
243 isolates (*Phialocephala fortinii*, *P. helvetica*, and *Phialocephala sp.*); and the second factor had
244 three levels: pH 3, pH 4, and pH 5. Each treatment consisted of four replicates with two plants
245 per pot, and thus totaling 48 experimental pots in the study. Fungal inoculates were prepared
246 by aseptically growing three dominant DSE isolates on Petri dishes with oatmeal agar medium
247 (10 g L⁻¹ oatmeal and 15 g L⁻¹ Bacto agar enriched with nutrients: 1 g L⁻¹ MgSO₄·7H₂O, 1.5 g
248 L⁻¹ KH₂PO₄, and 1 g L⁻¹ NaNO₃). Due to the host non-specific character of DSE, rice was
249 chosen as a host plant in this study mostly for its important role in consumed cereal in the world
250 and it is from the same family as *Miscanthus*. Rice seeds were surface-sterilized by immersion
251 in 70% ethanol for 2 min, and a solution of 1% sodium hypochlorite for 5 min with agitation.
252 The sterilized seeds were gently rinsed several times with sterilized distilled water, then dried
253 overnight, and plated onto 1% water agar medium in Petri dishes for germination at 30°C.
254 Following pre-germination, 2-day-old seedlings (two seedlings per plate) were transplanted as
255 growing fungal colonies on the medium at pH 3, pH 4, or pH 5. For DSE inoculation, two 5-
256 mm plugs excised from the edge of an actively growing colony on culture medium were
257 inoculated at a 1-cm range close to the rice seedlings. Seedlings transplanted onto non-
258 inoculated medium were used as controls. The whole set was placed into sterile plastic culture
259 bottles and incubated for 3 weeks at room temperature with an 18 h:6 h (L:D) regimen and

260 intensity of $180 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$. Assessed plants were harvested and oven-dried at 40°C for 72 h.
261 The shoot and root dry weights of treated plants were measured and compared with the control.

262 **DSE root colonization observations**

263 Root colonization by DSE fungal isolates was observed to confirm whether the selected
264 DSE colonized the inner roots endophytically. Roots were harvested from plants after 3 weeks
265 of cultivation. Root systems were washed thoroughly under running tap water to remove
266 adhering agar, then rinsed with distilled water, and used for root staining. The root samples
267 were cleared with 10% (v/v) potassium hydroxide in a water bath at 80°C for 20 min.
268 Subsequently, roots were acidified with 1% hydrochloric acid at room temperature for 5 min,
269 then stained with 50% acetic acid solution containing 0.005% cotton blue at room temperature
270 overnight. Root fragments were placed on a slide glass and covered with a cover glass. Fungal
271 colonization was observed using a light microscope equipped with an Olympus DP25 digital
272 camera.

273 **Statistical analyses**

274 All statistical analyses were performed in the R environment (version: V4.1.2).
275 Homoscedasticity was checked using Levene's test and normality using Shapiro-Wilk's test.
276 The differences of mean dry biomass between the analyzed traits of the seedlings in different
277 treatments in this study were calculated and analyzed statistically with two-way analysis of
278 variance (ANOVA) and Tukey's honestly significant difference test at $P\text{-values} < 0.05$.

279

280

281 **Results and Discussions**

282 **The core fungal taxa identified by both culture-dependent and culture-independent** 283 **methods**

284 This study compared the culture-dependent isolates with the fungal taxa revealed by
285 culture-independent methods. Based on 97% sequence similarity, all reads were clustered into
286 224 OTUs, and the valid sequences were classified into five phyla, including two major
287 dominant phyla of Ascomycota (71.5%) and Basidiomycota (17.1%), followed by
288 Mortierellomycota, Mucoromycota, and Calcarisporiellomycota, while the cultivable
289 endophytic fungi were classified into two different phyla of Ascomycota (97.5%) and
290 Basidiomycota (2.50%). Fifteen and four classes were detected by culture-independent and
291 culture-dependent approaches, respectively. Specifically, classes Sordariomycetes and
292 Leotiomyces (both belonging to phylum Ascomycota) were the major classes in terms of the
293 number of OTUs. These data were in agreement with a previous study showing that
294 Leotiomyces and Sordariomycetes were the major classes of endophytic fungi associated with
295 plants (regardless of plant species, associated host tissue) in acidic, oligotrophic ecosystems
296 and nutrient-limiting boreal and arctic areas (Arnold *et al.*, 2007; Yuan *et al.*, 2010; Ghimire *et*
297 *al.*, 2011; Luo *et al.*, 2014; Knapp *et al.*, 2019).

298 While looking at the lower level, 27 orders were found by Illumina-based sequencing
299 analysis, and 10 of them had an average abundance over 1%. Among these orders detected by
300 sequencing, seven orders were identified via culture-dependent methods as well (Fig. 2).
301 Significantly higher proportions of Hypocreales (35.6%), Helotiales (21.2%), and Eurotiales
302 (13.2%) were observed by Illumina-based analysis (Fig. 2). Through culture-dependent
303 methods, an abundance of Helotiales (70.0%) occupied the whole community, followed by
304 Eurotiales (15.0%) and Hypocreales (8.75%). In general, the abundant orders of fungal isolates

305 also showed abundance in the OTU table generated by high-throughput sequencing. The
306 overlapping of taxa (Hypocreales and Helotiales) identified by both approaches suggests their
307 significance and dominance in *Miscanthus condensatus*-associated fungal communities.
308 Similarly, the key fungal and bacterial community in soils amended with wheat and oilseed
309 residues were identified via culture and non-culture approaches (Laval *et al.*, 2021). Several
310 other studies also confirmed the feasibility to reveal major microbial taxa and showed the
311 marked potential of adopting the combination of both culture and non-culture approaches to
312 identify putative taxa (Laval *et al.*, 2021; Bai *et al.*, 2015; Zheng *et al.*, 2021). Undoubtedly a
313 combination of culture-dependent and culture-independent methods might provide a powerful
314 strategy to identify and obtain novel endophytes.

315 The overlapping order Helotiales identified by both culture-dependent methods was
316 abundant in the *Miscanthus condensatus*-associated fungal community (Fig. 2). The isolates
317 including *P. fortinii*, *P. helvetica*, and *Phialocephala* sp. belonged to Helotiales species, which
318 are highly conserved and found to be co-occurring species in the root symbiont communities
319 based on Sanger sequencing (Walker *et al.*, 2011; Bruzone *et al.*, 2015). This study also found
320 these fungi, *i.e.*, *Phialocephala* sp., *P. helvetica*, and *P. fortinii*, in all samples irrespective of
321 the sampling period (Table 1). Previous studies isolated *P. fortinii* from the root of *Pinus*
322 *resinosa* (Wang and Wilcox, 1985), *Vaccinium vitis-idaea*, *Betula platyphylla* var. *japonica*,
323 *Luetkea pectinate* (Addy *et al.*, 2000), *Piceas abies*, *Betula pendula* (Menkis *et al.*, 2004),
324 *Rhododendron* sp. (Grünig *et al.*, 2008), *Chamaecyparis obtusa*, and *Rubus* sp. (Surono and
325 Narisawa, 2017). Yet, the phylogeny and ecological effects of *P. fortinii* on plant quality still
326 remain largely unknown (Tedersoo *et al.*, 2009). For example, *P. fortinii* itself is genotypically
327 diverse and composed of at least 21 morphologically indistinguishable but genetically isolated
328 cryptic species (CSP) (Grünig *et al.*, 2008). Up to seven isolates belonging to *P. fortinii* have

329 been formally described as CSP (Grünig *et al.*, 2008). *Phialocephala helvetica* (sub-species of
330 *P. fortinii*) associated with the root of *Picea abies* (Stroheker *et al.*, 2021) and *Pinus sylvestris*
331 (Landolt *et al.*, 2020), is regarded as one of the most common CSP. Yet, their functions in
332 promoting plant growth remain largely unknown.

333

334 **Colonization of DSE fungal isolates in plant root**

335 Isolating and characterizing microorganisms could provide insights into their phylogenetic
336 identification, physiological properties, and metabolic potentials, which will help understand
337 the formation, persistence, adaptation mechanisms, and ecological functions of microbial
338 communities (Li *et al.*, 2019). Therefore, these three most promising isolates of *Phialocephala*
339 *sp.*, *P. fortinii*, and *P. helvetica*, as typical DSE, were further examined regarding their effects
340 on growth-promoting activity for plants. Based on the inoculation test, all rice seedlings
341 exhibited healthy growth throughout the experimental period by fungal isolate \times agar pH
342 interaction (Fig. 3).

343 After harvesting, the roots were stained with 0.05% cotton blue to determine the
344 endophytism of DSE isolates. Microscopic observation revealed that all DSE isolates
345 successfully colonized hair roots of rice seedlings. The hair roots were coated with loose wefts
346 of fungal hyphae. This feature was identical to that previously described for typical DSE, *i.e.*,
347 they are characterized by microsclerotia, thick, and darkly pigmented septate hyphae in the hair
348 roots. Non-inoculated plants as a control showed no DSE colonization. The root colonization
349 pattern was similar in *P. fortinii* and *P. helvetica*, but the degree of fungal colonization of
350 *Phialocephala sp.* was the lowest compared with those two isolates. The images show the dense
351 networks of hyphae of DSE inter- and intra-cellularly colonizing rice roots (Fig. 4). Very few

352 studies, however, investigated the role and ecological significance of isolated DSE underlying
353 plant growth.

354

355 **The role of isolated DSE in rice growth promotion**

356 As rice is one of the four major food crops for most Asian people, to domesticate these
357 isolated “wild” DSE can benefit agriculture production. Thus we transferred these DSE isolates
358 from their original hosts of *Miscanthus condensatus* to agricultural species (rice). DSE is widely
359 reported to be characterized with non-host specific, but different host (cross family) may have
360 different responses (in terms of morphology) to inoculated isolate. For example, *P. fortinii* is
361 frequently reported in roots and formed typical ectomycorrhizae with members of the Pinaceae
362 plants (Jumpponen *et al.*, 1998). In contrast, for other family plants, *P. fortinii* is often found to
363 be an endophytic fungi. In addition, *C. chaetospora* was reported able to develop and form spiral
364 structures resembling ericoid mycorrhizas within the roots of ericaceous plants (Usuki and
365 Narisawa, 2005). Whilst *C. chaetospora* colonizing in other host family are characterized by
366 formation of microsclerotia-aggregations of irregularly lobed hyphae and dark septate hyphae
367 growing inter- and intracellularly. Considering both plants, used in this study as a host (e.g.,
368 miscanthus and rice), belong to the same family of grass with similar host responses to DSE
369 (showing non-host specific trait), we aimed to test effects of these isolated DSE in crop (rice as
370 a proxy) growth promotion. Here, we found that shoot biomass of rice inoculated with DSE
371 isolates increased up to 7.6 times, compared with non-inoculated controls (Fig. 5). The greatest
372 shoot dry weight was recorded in plants treated with *P. fortinii*, followed by *P. helvetica* and
373 *Phialocephala* sp. Similarly, *P. fortinii* isolates were used to inoculate asparagus plants and
374 promote plant growth, e.g., shoot biomass increased by up to 53.5% (Surono and Narisawa,

375 2017). The beneficial effects of *P. fortinii* on enhancing plant yield have been reported
376 (Jumpponen *et al.*, 1998; Jumpponen and Trappe, 1998).

377 This improvement in plant growth may be related to the ability of these isolates to use
378 organic nitrogen sources under nitrogen-deficient conditions. Low nitrogen uptake by plants is
379 associated with soil acidity. The presence of *P. fortinii* associated with plant tissues
380 demonstrated its ability to produce a variety of extracellular enzymes that break down complex
381 forms of organic matter containing nitrogen and phosphorus (Jumpponen *et al.*, 1998). For
382 example, *Cladophialophora chaetospira* activates soil nitrogen and promotes aboveground
383 transfer in Chinese cabbage (Usuki and Narisawa, 2007). Therefore, the most abundant DSE
384 identified by both culture and non-culture approaches, acting as an important mycorrhizal
385 symbiont via melanized septate hyphae formation that removed resource limitation, might
386 promote plant growth. A labeled nitrogen study is required to validate this mechanism.

387 Rice growth was markedly different depending on the combination of DSE isolates and
388 pH. Differences in dry weight of DSE inoculated rice compared with non-inoculated rice grown
389 at pH 3.0 (as high as 7.6 fold) were significantly greater than for those DSE inoculated rice
390 grown at pH 4.0 and 5.0 (as high as 1.6 fold and 1.2 fold, respectively). In particular, the root
391 dry weight of *P. fortinii*-treated seedlings was the highest at pH 3.0 with respect to that of the
392 control. Also, we observed that inoculated species of *Phialocephala* effectively promoted plant
393 growth, particularly under acidic conditions. The enhanced shoot biomass via DSE isolate
394 inoculation was most marked in acidic environments, *e.g.*, with 7.6, 1.6, and 1.2 times greater
395 shoot biomass at pH 3, pH 4 and pH 5, respectively. Less promotion of plant growth by
396 inoculation with *Phialocephala* at pH 5 compared with 4 and 3 agar indicated that these DSE
397 isolates likely promote plant tolerance to soil acidity.

398 Many researchers have reported relatively narrow ranges of pH for the presence or activity
399 of mycorrhizal fungi in soils (Clark, 1997; Postma *et al.*, 2007). This is consistent with the
400 observation that most colonized isolates associated with plants were found in acidic agar.
401 Similarly, the colonization of investigated plants with DSE significantly decreased with
402 increasing soil pH (Postma *et al.*, 2007). The mechanisms underlying the promotion of plant
403 growth by DSE fungal have been addressed. DSE fungal might help adaptability of crop to acid
404 stress, *i.e.*, low soil pH, and subsequent support of plant growth. The relatively high abundance
405 of DSE supports host survival in stress habitats mainly via high chitin contents and forming
406 melanized septate hyphae and microsclerotia in plant roots (Likar and Regvar, 2013). Also, it
407 might increase the concentration of Mg, known to ameliorate Al toxicity, in the roots of
408 *M.sinensis* to decrease Al activity (Haruma *et al.*, 2021).

409 Here, we validated the effects of these DSE isolates on rice growth, particularly under an
410 extremely low pH condition, e.g., compared to control without inoculation, rice biomass
411 enhanced by 7.6 times after inoculation of *P. fortinii*. DSE show great potential to help host
412 crop resist acidity and thus enable crop cultivation, especially in acidic soil (Postma *et al.*, 2007).
413 Acidic soils occupy up to 50% of the arable worldwide, and around 13% of paddy is acid soil.
414 While soil acidification can be a problem for crop yield, these DSE isolates might be used as a
415 management strategy to reduce acidic harm to crops. This, yet, awaits field investigation.

416 Taken together, this study helps improve our understanding of the community of
417 *Miscanthus condensatus*-associated DSE fungi and their functions. Our findings suggest that
418 DSE have the ability to support rice growth under an extremely acidic conditions, and the
419 formation of melanized septate hyphae and microsclerotia-associated rice tissues might
420 promote increases in rice growth and root biomass via removing stress and resource limitations,

421 and thus they show marked potential in not only re-vegetation of pioneer plants in post-volcanic
422 ecosystems but also promotion of rice growth.

423

424 **Conclusion**

425 The present study provided detailed insights into the diversity and function of the
426 endophytic fungal community in *Miscanthus condensates*, using both culture-dependent and -
427 independent approaches. Here, we showed that the fungal community was dominated by
428 isolates of *Phialocephala*, which were abundant and widely distributed in the volcanic deposits.
429 Additionally, we validated the functions of these DSE in rice growth, particularly under acidic
430 conditions, by adopting the approach of isolation-inoculation. Considering that these fungal
431 isolates promote plant adaptation to acidic soil, the identified DSE, e.g., *Phialocephala fortinii*,
432 *P. helvetica*, and *Phialocephala* sp., might be potential candidates as plant growth-promoting
433 fungi for either restoring vegetation or promoting rice growth under extreme conditions.

434

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669 **Tables**

670

671 **Table 1.** Summary of the endophytic fungal isolates among three months of sampling in *Miscanthus condensatus*
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Phylum	Class	Blast top-hit	Sequence similarity (%)	Accession number in NCBI	Total number		
					Nov	Mar	Sep
<i>Ascomycota</i>	<i>Sordariomycetes</i>	<i>Acremonium sp.</i>	98	KT192555.1	4	2	0
		<i>Sarocladium sp.</i>	99	MG649463.1	3	2	0
		<i>Xylariaceae sp.</i>	97	AB741591.1	1	1	0
	<i>Leotiomycetes</i>	<i>Arthrinium phacospermum</i>	99	MH857420.1	0	2	2
		<i>Phialocephala fortinii</i>	97	KJ817297.1	24	17	16
		<i>Phialocephala helvetica</i>	97	MT107593.1	21	36	37
		<i>Phialocephala sp.</i>	99	KT323172.1	11	14	16
		<i>Pezicula ericae</i>	99	NR155653.1	0	5	2
	<i>Eurotiomycetes</i>	<i>Talaromyces verruculosus</i>	97	MG748649.1	9	2	2
		<i>Penicillium funiculosum</i>	97	JQ724527.1	3	0	0
<i>Basidiomycota</i>	<i>Dothideomycetes</i>	<i>Pyrenochaetopsis setosissima</i>	97	LT623227.1	2	2	1
	<i>Agaricomycetes</i>	<i>Tulasnella calospora</i>	98	JQ713577.1	1	0	0
<i>Dikarya</i>	<i>Polyporus</i>	<i>Hypochnicium cremicolor</i>	97	KP814161.1	1	0	0
		<i>Phaeophlebiopsis peniophoroides</i>	98	KP135417.1	0	0	3
		<i>Phlebiopsis gigantea</i>	98	MH114867.1	0	0	3
<i>Mucoromycota</i>	<i>Mortierellomycotina</i>	<i>Polyporus arcularius</i>	99	KP283489.1	0	1	0
		<i>Mortierellales sp.</i>	97	JQ272348.1	0	2	1
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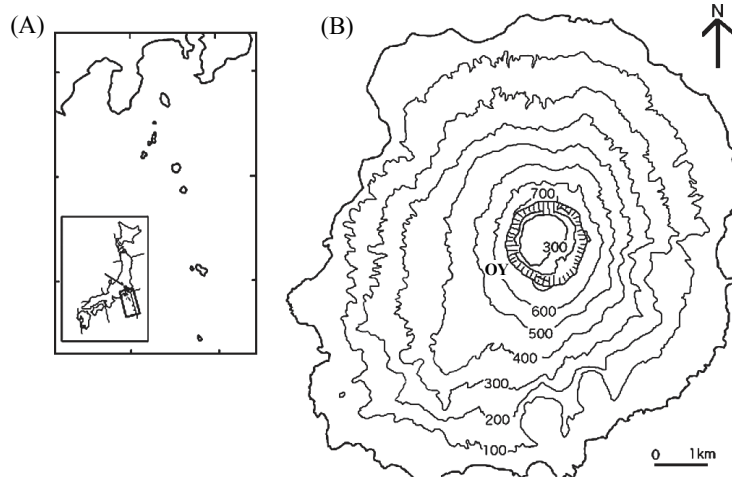
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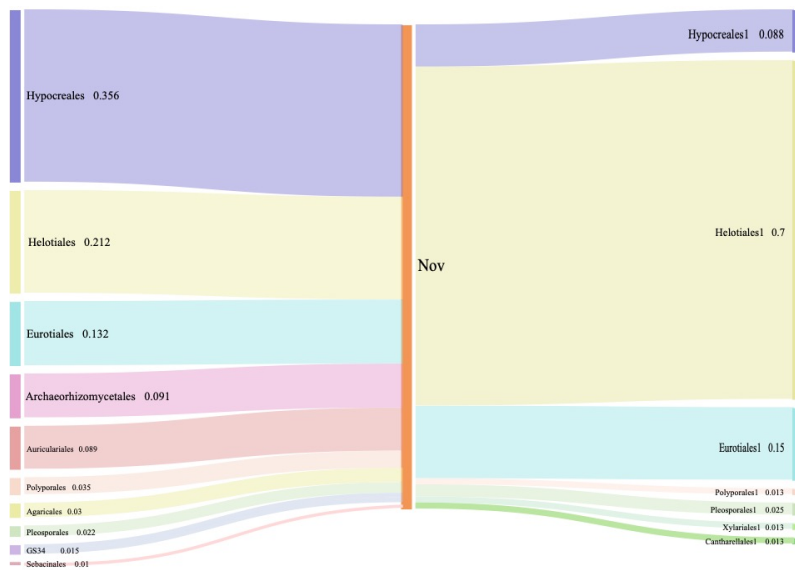
695 **Figure legends**

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707 **Fig. 1.** (A) DEM Map showing the location of Miyake-jima in the western rim of the Pacific Ocean. (B) DEM Map showing
708 study site OY near the summit crater in Miyake-jima

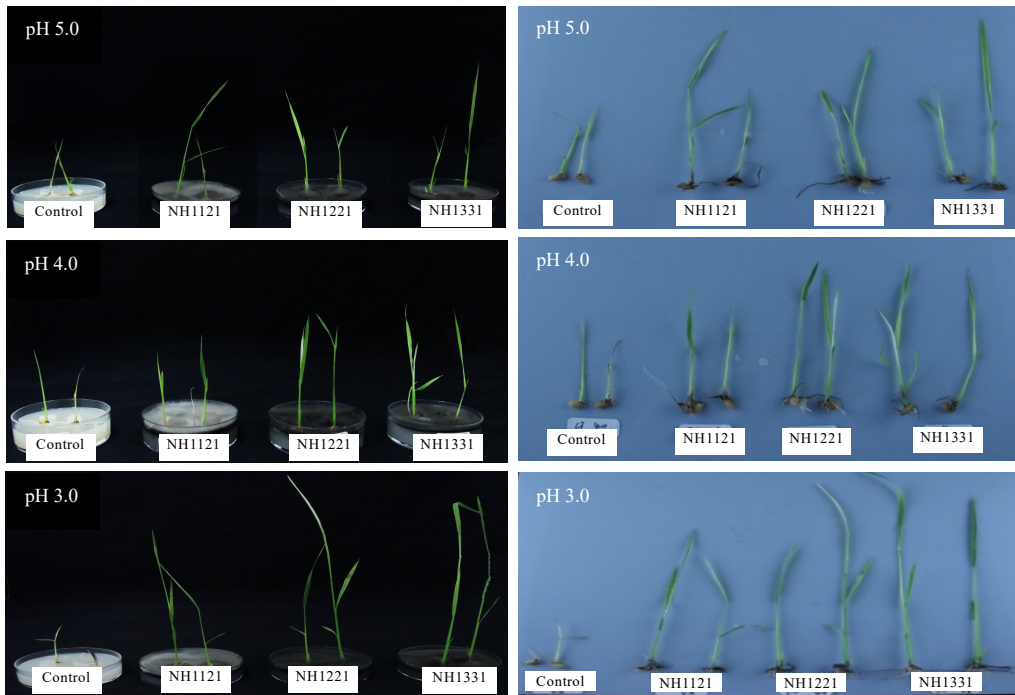
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721 **Fig. 2.** Composition and relative abundance of endophytic fungi at order level by culture-independent (left) and culture-
722 dependent methods (right)

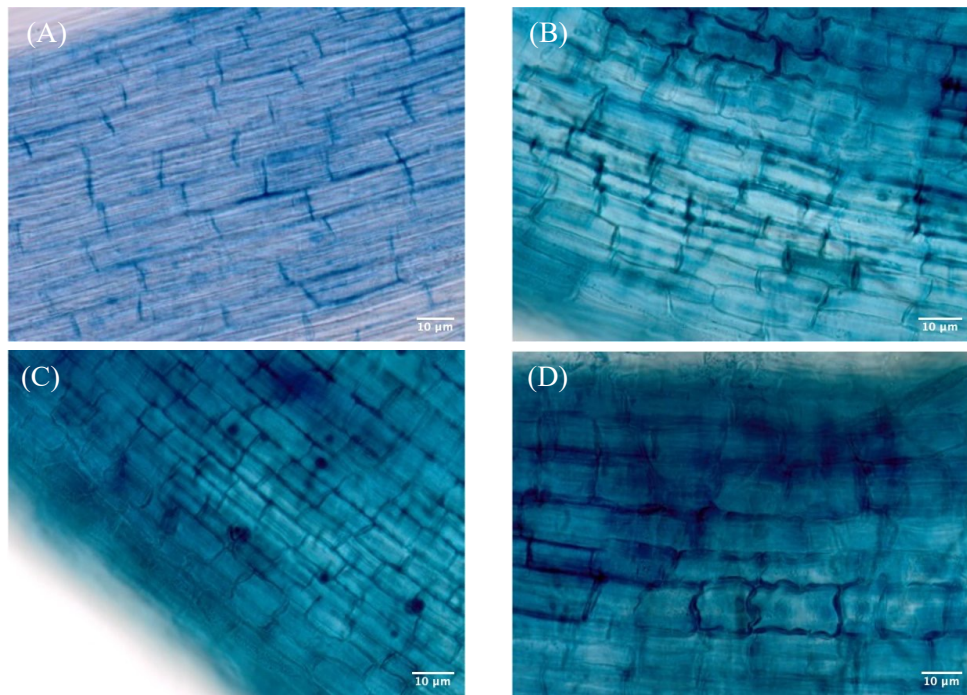
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740 **Fig. 3.** Growth and development of rice plants inoculated with DSE fungal isolates under different pH conditions.

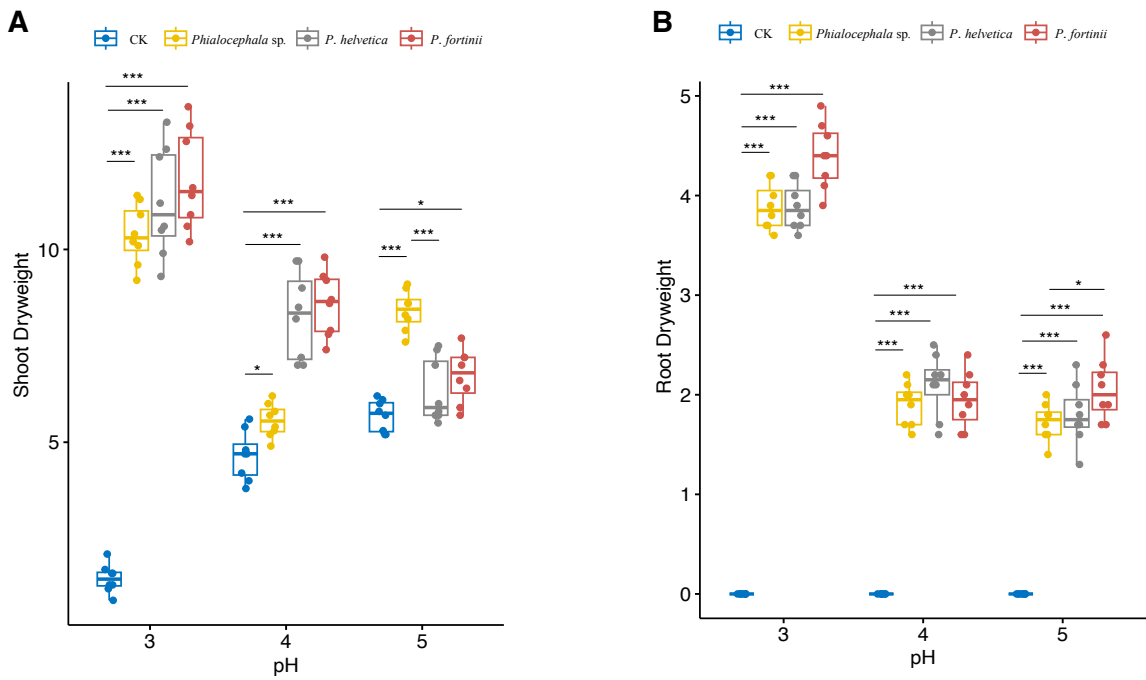
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754 **Fig. 4.** (A) Non-treated DSE as control roots. (B) *Phialocephala* sp. (NH1121)-treated roots. (C) *Phialocephala helvetica*
755 (NH1221)-treated roots. (D) *Phialocephala fortinii* (NH1331)-treated roots.

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772 **Fig. 5.** Shoot and root dry weights of rice seedlings inoculated with NH1121 (*Phialocephala* sp.), NH1221 (*Phialocephala*
773 *helvetica*), and NH1331 (*Phialocephala fortinii*) after three weeks of growth on oatmeal agar either at pH 3, pH 4, or pH 5
774 (acidic conditions). There are biological replicates (n=8). Median values are lines across the box with lower and upper boxes
775 indicating the 25th to 75th percentiles, respectively. Whiskers represent the maximum and minimum values. Significance was
776 determined by ANOVA. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$.
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