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Article:

Field, KJ, Bidartondo, MI, Rimington, WR et al. (2019) Functional complementarity of ancient plant–fungal mutualisms: contrasting nitrogen, phosphorus and carbon exchanges between Mucoromycotina and Glomeromycotina fungal symbionts of liverworts. *New Phytologist*, 223 (2). pp. 908-921. ISSN: 0028-646X

<https://doi.org/10.1111/nph.15819>

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35

36 **Statement of authorship:**

37 KJF, JRL, DDC, DJB, MIB, JGD and SP conceived and designed the research. KJF
38 conducted the isotope tracer work and GAH conducted P analyses. MIB and WRR
39 conducted the molecular analyses. SP and JGD conducted the cytological analyses. SP,
40 KJF, MIB and JRL led the writing; all authors provided comments on the manuscript.

41

42 **Data accessibility statement:**

43 Should this manuscript be accepted, all data will be archived in the appropriate public
44 repository and the data DOI will be included at the end of the article.

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50

51 **Key words:**

52 *Symbiosis, arbuscular mycorrhiza, fine root endophyte, carbon-for-nutrient exchange,*
53 *nitrogen, orthophosphate, CO₂, liverworts*

54

55

56 **Main text: 6,440. Number of references: 58. Number of figures: 5. Number of**
57 **tables: 2.**

58

59 **Summary**

- 60 • Liverworts, which are amongst the earliest-divergent plant lineages and important
61 ecosystem pioneers, often form nutritional mutualisms with arbuscular mycorrhiza-
62 forming Glomeromycotina and fine root endophyte Mucoromycotina fungi, both of which
63 co-evolved with early land plants. Some liverworts, in common with many later-divergent
64 plants, harbour both fungal groups, suggesting these fungi may complementarily improve
65 plant access to different soil nutrients.
- 66
- 67 • We tested this hypothesis by growing liverworts in single and dual fungal partnerships
68 under a modern atmosphere and under 1500 ppm [CO₂], as experienced by early land
69 plants. Access to soil nutrients via fungal partners was investigated with ¹⁵N-labelled
70 algal necromass and ³³P orthophosphate. Photosynthate allocation to fungi was traced
71 using ¹⁴CO₂.
- 72
- 73 • Only Mucoromycotina fungal partners provided liverworts with substantial access to algal
74 ¹⁵N, irrespective of atmospheric CO₂ concentration. Both symbionts increased ³³P
75 uptake, but Glomeromycotina were often more effective. Dual partnerships showed
76 complementarity of nutrient pool use and greatest photosynthate allocation to symbiotic
77 fungi.
- 78
- 79 • We show there are important functional differences between the plant-fungal symbioses
80 tested, providing new insights into the functional biology of Glomeromycotina and
81 Mucoromycotina fungal groups that form symbioses with plants. This may explain the
82 persistence of both fungal lineages in symbioses across the evolution of land plants.

83

84 **Introduction**

85 Mycorrhizal associations (and mycorrhizal-like associations in plants that lack
86 roots, henceforth also referred to as mycorrhizas) are near-ubiquitous mutualisms
87 between soil fungi and most land plant phyla (Wang & Qiu, 2006; Wang *et al.*, 2010) with
88 key roles in plant nutrition and health (Smith & Read, 2008). The earliest-divergent extant
89 branches of the land plant phylogeny supporting fungal symbionts, i.e. liverworts
90 (Haplomitriopsida and thalloids), hornworts and lycophytes (Bidartondo *et al.*, 2011;
91 Desirò *et al.*, 2013; Rimington *et al.*, 2015; Field *et al.*, 2015a), have recently been shown
92 to form symbioses with members of two ancient fungal lineages, arbuscular mycorrhizal
93 (AM) fungi falling within the Glomeromycotina, and the much less studied, and poorly
94 understood, symbiotic fungi of the Mucoromycotina.

95 These findings, together with fossil evidence of Mucoromycotina-like and
96 Glomeromycotina-like fungal associations in some of the first vascular plants of the early
97 Devonian (Strullu-Derrien *et al.*, 2014), have led to the novel hypothesis that engagement
98 with both fungal partners might have been a common strategy during early land plant
99 evolution (Field *et al.*, 2015a). Furthermore, new molecular evidence reveals the same
100 Mucoromycotina fungal symbionts are shared by liverworts, early-divergent vascular
101 plants and angiosperms (Hoysted *et al.*, 2019). This is consistent with the recent finding
102 that the globally widespread fine root endophytes (FRE), originally classified as *Glomus*
103 *tenue* (more recently *Planticonsortium tenue* (Walker *et al.*, 2018)), are not members of
104 the Glomeromycotina as hitherto assumed, but instead fall within the Mucoromycotina
105 (Orchard *et al.*, 2017a; 2017b). In angiosperms Mucoromycotina-FRE, when present,
106 seem to always co-occur with Glomeromycotina in the same host (Orchard *et al.*, 2017a;
107 2017b; Hoysted *et al.*, 2019), while exclusive Mucoromycotina-FRE symbioses have been
108 reported so far in only one lycophyte (Rimington *et al.*, 2015; 2016; Pressel *et al.*, 2016)
109 and in the earliest-divergent Haplomitriopsida liverworts *Haplomitrium* and *Treubia*. The

110 majority of early-divergent mycorrhizal plant clades, lycophytes, hornworts and (thalloid)
111 liverworts (e.g. the complex thalloid *Neohodgsonia mirabilis*) engage in partnerships with
112 both fungi, sometimes simultaneously in so-called 'dual' symbiosis (Desirò *et al.*, 2013;
113 Field *et al.*, 2015a; 2016; Rimington *et al.*, 2015; 2016; Pressel *et al.*, 2016), paralleling
114 the situation recently established for flowering plants. Only a few complex thalloid
115 liverworts, such as species in the genus *Marchantia* appear to associate exclusively with
116 Glomeromycotina fungi (Field *et al.*, 2015a; Rimington *et al.*, 2018). Taken together, these
117 discoveries suggest that the ability of plants to form symbioses with both Mucoromycotina
118 and Glomeromycotina has persisted from the ancient past (Strullu-Derrien *et al.*, 2014;
119 Field *et al.*, 2015a; 2015b; Field & Pressel, 2018) to the present day, being now common
120 in both natural and agricultural ecosystems (Orchard *et al.*, 2017a; 2017b). The apparent
121 persistence of symbiosis with both fungal groups through the 500 my-long evolutionary
122 history of land plants (Morris *et al.*, 2018) and the widespread occurrence of them
123 simultaneously in diverse plant lineages today suggests the ability to form associations
124 with both Glomeromycotina and Mucoromycotina fungi likely provides functional
125 advantages over associations with only one or other of these fungal groups. However, to
126 date there is limited evidence to test this hypothesis.

127 Studies on liverwort-Glomeromycotina (Humphreys *et al.*, 2010), liverwort-
128 Mucoromycotina (Field *et al.*, 2015a; 2015b) and dual symbioses with both fungal
129 groups (Field *et al.*, 2016) have confirmed that all three partnerships are mycorrhiza-like
130 mutualisms with the fungi receiving plant photosynthate in exchange for mineral
131 nutrients they have acquired from soil. Significant functional differences between these
132 three types of symbiotic partnership were revealed in response to experimental
133 simulations of the large changes in atmospheric CO₂ concentrations experienced during
134 the long co-evolutionary history of plants and mycorrhizal fungi. Liverworts associating
135 only with Glomeromycotina fungi gained considerably more ³³P orthophosphate tracer

136 via their fungal partners per unit of photosynthate C received at CO₂ concentrations
137 simulating the atmosphere of the early-mid Paleozoic under which land plants first
138 evolved (1,500 ppm a[CO₂]; Berner 2006; Lenton *et al.*, 2018) than under modern-day
139 a[CO₂] of 440 ppm (Field *et al.*, 2016). In contrast, Mucoromycotina fungal symbionts,
140 maintained or increased ³³P transfer to their hosts under the modern a[CO₂] compared
141 to the simulated Paleozoic a[CO₂]. These liverwort P gains under modern a[CO₂] were
142 further enhanced by the co-occurrence of Glomeromycotina fungi in dual symbiosis but
143 at a greater carbon cost (Field *et al.*, 2016).

144 Whilst the importance of Glomeromycotina AM symbioses in plant P nutrition is
145 well established (Smith *et al.*, 2015), their role in host plant N nutrition is much less clear
146 (Hodge & Fitter, 2010; Bücking & Kafle, 2015; Hodge & Storer, 2015; Thirkell *et al.*,
147 2016). This ambiguity has increased with the recent evidence of widespread dual
148 symbioses between FRE and Glomeromycotina fungi (Rimington *et al.*, 2015, Orchard *et*
149 *al.*, 2017a). Nutritional effects previously ascribed to Glomeromycotina fungi may have
150 been due to undetected Mucoromycotina as most primers used to characterize DNA
151 from arbuscular mycorrhizal symbionts do not amplify Mucoromycotina DNA (Bidartondo
152 *et al.*, 2011). This major uncertainty increases the urgency of the need to resolve
153 whether Mucoromycotina and Glomeromycotina fungi are functionally distinct with
154 respect to their provisioning of host plants of both P and N, both of which are major
155 macronutrients that are often plant growth limiting.

156 Mucoromycotina symbionts may be facultative saprotrophs, i.e. able to access
157 and assimilate nutrients from organic matter for use in metabolism in a similar way to
158 free-living saprotrophs (Lindhal & Tunlid, 2015), as it has sometimes been possible to
159 achieve *in vitro* isolation and axenic culturing of these fungi (Field *et al.*, 2015b). In
160 contrast, Glomeromycotina fungi are strict obligate biotrophs, entirely reliant on
161 symbiosis with a living plant for organic carbon and thus considered unable to assimilate

162 nutrients by saprotrophic extracellular digestion of organic matter (Smith & Read, 2008);
163 it is possible therefore that the Mucoromycotina may be better able to access organic N
164 than the Glomeromycotina. If this were the case, then we might expect there to be
165 differences in the ability of liverworts associated with the two groups of fungi, either
166 singly or in dual symbiosis, to utilise soil nutrients with dual symbioses providing
167 complementarity through increasing access both to inorganic P and to organic N
168 compared to associations with only one type of fungus.

169 We set out to test this hypothesis by growing wild-collected liverworts, that
170 naturally support single (*Haplomitrium gibbsiae* -Mucoromycotina; *Marchantia paleacea* -
171 Glomeromycotina) or dual fungal (*Neohodgsonia mirabilis* – Mucoromycotina and
172 Glomeromycotina) partnerships, in experimental microcosms on non-sterile soil
173 containing native mycorrhizosphere microbial communities. Access to soil nutrients via
174 the fungal partners was investigated with phosphorus provided as ³³P orthophosphate
175 and ¹⁵N in labelled necromass of the unicellular green alga *Chlorella*
176 (*Trebouxiophyceae*). We selected *Chlorella* as a substrate that is likely to have co-
177 existed with land plants from when they first transitioned from aquatic to terrestrial
178 habitats (Edwards *et al.*, 2015). Both N and P sources were added to rhizoid-excluding
179 soil compartments that could be accessed by fungal hyphae growing from their plant
180 partners.

181 We conducted these experiments under both a modern 440 ppm a[CO₂], and the
182 1500 ppm a[CO₂] experienced by early land plants from the Ordovician/early Devonian
183 periods as indicated by geochemical carbon cycle models (Berner, 2006; Lenton *et al.*,
184 2018). This allowed us to test the second hypothesis that mycorrhizal functioning in
185 terms of fungal nutrient uptake from soil, and liverwort photosynthate allocation to
186 external mycelium of fungal symbionts, is influenced by the changes in a[CO₂] that have

187 occurred through Palaeozoic (Berner, 2006), as we have shown previously in relation to
188 P assimilation (Field *et al.*, 2012; 2015b).

189

190 **Materials and Methods**

191 *Plant material and growth conditions*

192 *Haplomitrium gibbsiae* (Steph.) R.M. Schust. (known to exclusively associate with
193 Mucoromycotina fungal symbionts (Bidartondo *et al.*, 2011) and *Neohodgsonia mirabilis*
194 Perss. (known to associate with both Mucoromycotina and Glomeromycotina symbionts
195 (Field *et al.*, 2016) were collected from the South Island of New Zealand in December
196 2013 (for location details please see SI), vouchers for which are deposited in the Natural
197 History Museum, London. *Marchantia paleacea* Bertol. plants (that exclusively associate
198 with Glomeromycotina fungal symbionts, Humphreys *et al.*, 2010) were originally
199 collected from cool temperate cloud forests in Veracruz, Mexico and symbiotic gemmae
200 propagated from thalli maintained in controlled environment growth chambers (Conviron
201 BDR16, Conviron, Canada) using the following chamber settings: half light-saturating
202 conditions for bryophytes of 50 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ irradiance (Nobel, 1999; Fletcher *et al.*,
203 2006), 70% relative humidity, 12 h, 15 °C day, 12 °C night.

204 Shortly after collection, the liverworts were planted directly into microcosms (120
205 mm diameter, 100 mm depth pots) containing 95% pot volume acid-washed silica sand
206 and 5% pot volume Irish moss-peat to aid water retention of the substrate. Native soil
207 surrounding liverwort rhizoids was left in place to prevent damage and to act as a natural
208 inoculum, including mycorrhizal fungi, associated microorganisms and saprotrophs.

209 Based on the methods of Field *et al.* (2012), we constructed cylindrical plastic
210 cores (85 mm length, 15 mm diameter) with two 20 mm x 50 mm windows that, together
211 with the base, were covered with nylon mesh of 10 μm pore size to prevent ingrowth of
212 liverwort rhizoids while allowing penetration by fungal hyphae (Fig. 1a). Three cores

213 were inserted into each of the microcosms, two of these having a perforated, fine-bore
214 capillary tube (100 mm length, 1.02 mm internal diameter; Portex, UK) placed vertically
215 in the centre and secured to the basal mesh fast-setting cement. Both cores were filled
216 with a mixture of acid-washed silica sand (89% core volume), finely ground tertiary
217 basalt mineral grains (1% core volume) to encourage growth of fungal hyphae into the
218 core (Quirk *et al.*, 2012) and native soil gathered from around rhizoids (*Marchantia* and
219 *Neohodgsonia*) and underground axes (*Haplomitrium*) of wild plants (10% core volume)
220 to act as a natural microbial inoculum containing fungi, hyphal-associated and
221 saprotrophic microorganisms. The third mesh-covered windowed core was inserted and
222 filled with glass wool to allow below-ground gas sampling during ¹⁴C labelling.

223 A total of 40 microcosms were prepared for each of the liverwort species tested,
224 20 to be maintained under ambient atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (440 ppm) and 20
225 under an elevated CO₂ atmosphere of 1,500 ppm. Microcosms were regularly weeded
226 to remove any seedlings or mosses, and maintained for 12 weeks to allow plant
227 acclimation to cabinets and fungal mycelial networks to develop within the pots.
228 Microcosms were rotated regularly within cabinets to avoid positional effects, and the
229 chamber settings and contents swapped over every two weeks to avoid cabinet effects.
230 Across the three plant species, microcosms were arranged to share a common drip tray
231 in each cabinet, thereby providing a common pool of saprotrophic and hyphal-
232 associated microorganisms to all the plant species.

233 After the acclimation period, microcosms were moved to individual drip-trays
234 immediately prior to isotope labelling to avoid label-cross contamination. Upon
235 commencement of isotope labelling, one core in each microcosm was left static (“static
236 core”), ensuring hyphal connections between liverworts, fungi and core contents
237 remained intact. A second core in each pot was rotated (“rotated core”), thereby
238 severing the fungal hyphal connections between the liverwort and the core contents (Fig.

239 1b, c). This acts as a control wherein fungal symbionts were prevented from forming
240 continuous hyphal connections between the liverwort host and the contents of the core.
241

242 *Radio- and stable isotope tracer additions to cores in microcosms (Fig. 1)*

243 In half of the microcosms for each CO₂ treatment ($n = 10$ in each CO₂ condition), an
244 internal plastic core was inserted into one of the soil-filled cores with the space between
245 the outer and inner cores filled with the sand/basalt/soil substrate. The inner core was
246 filled with a ¹⁵N-labelled algal necromass-sand mixture (1.25% algae; 0.05 g algae and
247 2800 µg ¹⁵N per pot). To prepare the necromass-sand mixture, cultures of *Chlorella*
248 *vulgaris* var. *viridis* Chodat (CCAP 211/12) were obtained from CCAP (Argyll, UK) and
249 cultured in 3N-BBM +V medium (see SI), where NaNO₃ was supplied as Na¹⁵NO₃ (≥ 98
250 atom % ¹⁵N; Sigma Aldrich, UK). After growth in the labelled medium, the liquid cultures
251 were filtered, rinsed with water, re-suspended and mixed well with 200 g acid-washed
252 sand before drying in an oven (80 °C) for three hours. This generated algae-covered dry
253 sand particles, 4 g of which were then introduced into the inner core (see Fig. 1b) using
254 a small funnel. The solid-walled plastic inner core remained *in situ* until immediately
255 before ³³P labelling, ensuring the algal necromass was only in contact with the rest of
256 the core contents, and therefore accessible to the symbiotic fungi, for the same time
257 period as the fungi had access to the ³³P tracer (see Fig. 1a).

258

259 *Molecular identification of fungal associates*

260 DNA analyses were conducted on five samples (thalli of *Marchantia* and *Neohodgsonia*,
261 underground axes of *Haplomitrium*) to confirm that the three liverworts maintained their
262 previously identified fungal associates (Bidartondo *et al.*, 2011; Field *et al.*, 2016;
263 Humphreys *et al.*, 2010) throughout the experimental periods. Wild *Haplomitrium* and
264 *Neohodgsonia* plants (please refer to SI for details of collections and sampling) were

265 prepared for DNA analyses within one day of collection to establish their native fungal
266 partners. Similarly, we took samples of laboratory-grown *Marchantia* plants that have
267 previously been confirmed to be colonised by Glomeromycotina fungi (Humphreys *et al.*,
268 2010), immediately before the experiments started. Additional representative samples
269 of five individual plants across each of the three liverwort species used in our
270 experiments were also taken immediately following our isotope labelling experiments.
271 Sequencing of the fungal symbionts was performed using universal fungal primers and
272 molecular cloning (Rimington *et al.*, 2018). Firstly, a full genomic DNA extraction was
273 performed on a section of liverwort thallus using chloroform extraction (Gardes & Bruns,
274 1993) and the GeneClean II kit (QBioGene). The fungal DNA in the extract was then
275 amplified using the Sigma JumpStart kit and the universal fungal primers NS1 (White *et*
276 *al.*, 1990) and EF3 (Smit *et al.*, 1999). PCR products from all samples were cloned
277 using the TOPO TA cloning kit (Invitrogen) and reamplification of fungal DNA was
278 performed on four colonies per sample using the same primers and the Sigma
279 JumpStart kit. The fungal DNA from reamplification was sequenced using the primers
280 NS1, NS3 and NS5 (White *et al.*, 1990) and BigDye v. 3.1 (Applied Biosystems).
281 Sequences were assembled into contigs using Geneious v. 7 (Kearse *et al.*, 2012) and
282 identified to the level of fungal subphylum using BLAST searches of GenBank (Altschul
283 *et al.*, 1997). Further detail of the fungal sequencing method can be found in Rimington
284 *et al.* (2018). This method found Mucoromycotina colonisation in *Haplomitrium*,
285 Glomeromycotina in *Marchantia*, and both fungal lineages in *Neohodgsonia* – in line with
286 previous molecular and microscopy investigations (Field *et al.*, 2015, 2016). New
287 sequences for *Haplomitrium gibbsiae* (accession number MF621059) and
288 *Neohodgsonia mirabilis* (MF621060 and MF621061) have been uploaded to GenBank
289 while Glomeromycotina sequences from *Marchantia paleacea* were identical to those

290 previously found in these plants by Humphreys *et al.* (2010) (accession number
291 FR690120).

292

293 *Microscopy and cytology to confirm mycorrhizal status of the plants*

294 Wild-collected plants were processed for scanning electron microscopy (SEM) as
295 described previously (Duckett *et al.*, 2006). Briefly, underground axes of *Haplomitrium*
296 *gibbsiae* and thalli of *Marchantia paleacea* and *Neohodgsonia mirabilis* (10 samples of
297 each plant species) were fixed in 3% glutaraldehyde, dehydrated through an ethanol
298 series, critical-point dried using CO₂ as a transfusion fluid, sputter coated with 390 nm
299 palladium-gold and viewed under a FEI Quanta scanning electron microscope at 10 Kv.

300

301 *Quantification of carbon-for-nutrient exchange between liverworts and fungi*

302 After 12 weeks of growth, we introduced 100 µl, carrier-free ³³P-labelled H₂PO₄
303 orthophosphate solution (³³P specific activity 148 GBq mmol⁻¹, total 223 ng ³³P; Perkin
304 Elmer, Beaconsfield, UK) into one soil core in each microcosm (Fig. 1b, c). At the same
305 time as introducing the ³³P tracer, the plastic inner core separating the ¹⁵N-labelled algal
306 necromass in pots with this treatment was removed to allow the symbiotic fungi to grow
307 into this part of the soil-filled core. Half of the isotope-labelled cores and half of the non-
308 labelled cores were then rotated to sever the symbiotic fungal hyphal connections
309 between host liverwort and the soil in the cores to serve as a control for the effects of
310 microbial nutrient cycling and saprotrophic fungal action (Fig. 1c). For each liverwort
311 species there were 5 replicates pots for each treatment combination at ambient (440
312 ppm a[CO₂]) and simulated Paleozoic (1,500 ppm a[CO₂]): **1.** Fungal access to ³³P and
313 ¹⁵N-labelled algae; **2.** Fungal access to ³³P and no algae; **3.** No fungal access to ³³P or
314 ¹⁵N-labelled algae; **4.** No fungal access to ³³P and no algae.

315 Sub-samples of cores from 18 pots where algal necromass was included
316 (Treatments 1 and 3) and 18 pots where algae were not included (Treatments 2 and 4)
317 were digested using concentrated sulphuric acid to determine total phosphorus pools
318 and potential for pool dilution effects. Total phosphorus was determined using a
319 colorimetric method adapted from Leake, (1988) (see SI for details). There were no
320 significant differences in total P content between cores where algae were included
321 compared to cores where algal necromass was not included (Fig. S1), therefore P pool
322 dilution effects were not included in the calculations for ^{33}P tracer uptake.

323 Twenty-one days after introducing the ^{33}P and exposing the algal necromass
324 patches to mycorrhizal fungal colonization, the tops of all the sand and soil filled cores in
325 all microcosms were sealed with anhydrous lanolin and plastic caps. Glass wool-filled
326 cores were sealed with a rubber septum (SubaSeal, Sigma) to allow regular below-
327 ground gas samples to be taken. We then placed each pot into a three-litre gas-tight
328 chamber and added 2 ml 10% lactic acid to 15 μl of $\text{Na}^{14}\text{CO}_3$ (specific activity 2.04 GBq
329 mmol^{-1}) in a cuvette within the chamber. This resulted in 1.1 MBq $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ being released
330 within the chambers (Fig. 1d). To monitor below-ground respiration of $^{14}\text{CO}_2$, 1 ml of soil
331 air was sampled via the glass wool-filled core after 1 hour and then every two hours
332 thereafter for ca. 17 hours. Gas samples were injected into gas-evacuated scintillation
333 vials containing 10 ml Carbosorb (Perkin Elmer, Beaconsfield, UK) and then mixed with
334 10 ml Permafluor (Perkin Elmer, Beaconsfield, UK) before radioactivity was measured
335 via scintillation counting (Packard Tri-Carb 3100TR, Isotech, Chesterfield, UK). At the
336 point at which the ^{14}C flux detected in below-ground gas samples stopped increasing, 2
337 ml 2M KOH was introduced into vials within the labelling chambers to trap any remaining
338 $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ over a subsequent period of 6 hours. An aliquot (1 ml) of the KOH was then
339 transferred to 10 ml Ultima Gold (Perkin Elmer, Beaconsfield, UK) and the radioactivity

340 determined using liquid scintillation (Packard Tri-Carb 3100TR, Isotech, Chesterfield,
341 UK).

342

343 *Plant harvest and tissue analyses*

344 *Fungus-to-plant ¹⁵N and ³³P transfer*

345 All plant tissues and soils were separated, freeze-dried and weighed. Plant tissues were
346 homogenised in a Yellowline A10 Analytical Grinder (IKA, Germany). The ¹⁵N
347 abundance (ng) in plant tissues was determined using isotope ratio mass spectrometry.
348 Between 2 and 5 mg of homogenised, freeze-dried plant tissue was weighed out into 6 x
349 4 mm ultra-clean tin capsules (Sercon, Ltd., UK) and analysed using a continuous flow
350 IRMS (PDZ 2020, Sercon Ltd., UK). Air was used as the reference standard and the
351 detector was regularly calibrated to commercially available reference gases. To
352 calculate ¹⁵N content of samples, previously published equations were used (see SI)
353 (Cameron *et al.*, 2006).

354 To determine the ³³P content of liverworts and the effect of the algal additions on
355 ³³P uptake via the fungal partners, between 10-30 mg of liverwort biomass was charred
356 in 1 ml conc. H₂SO₄ for two hours. Charred samples were then heated to 365 °C in a
357 block heater (Grant Instruments, BT5D-26L, Cambridge UK) for 15 minutes before
358 cooling and clearing with H₂O₂ to give complete digestion. Clear digests were diluted up
359 to 10 ml total volume using distilled H₂O. A 2 ml aliquot of this solution was then added
360 to 10 ml of Emulsify Safe (Perkin Elmer, Beaconsfield, UK) to measure the radioactivity
361 via liquid scintillation counting (Packard Tri-Carb 3100TR, Isotech, Chesterfield, UK).
362 Total ³³P transferred from fungi within the cores to the liverworts was determined using
363 previously published equations (see SI) (Cameron *et al.*, 2006). To determine total
364 symbiotic fungal-acquired ³³P in plant tissue where algal necromass was not added the
365 ³³P values in plant tissues in algae-free microcosms where fungal access to the isotope

366 was restricted by core rotation (Treatment 4) were subtracted from the ^{33}P values in
367 plant tissues where fungal hyphal connections between liverworts and core contents
368 remained intact (Treatment 2). This controls for diffusion of isotopes and microbial
369 nutrient cycling in pots, ensuring only ^{33}P gained by the plant via intact fungal hyphal
370 connections is accounted for. The equivalent analysis when algae was present were
371 obtained by subtracting the ^{33}P values calculated from plant tissues in algae-containing
372 microcosms where fungal access to the isotope was restricted by core rotation
373 (Treatment 3) from the values from plant tissues where fungal hyphal connections
374 between liverworts and core contents remained intact (Treatment 1).

375

376 *Plant-to-fungus carbon transfer into mesh cores*

377 The activity of the ^{14}C fixed by the liverworts and transferred via the external fungal
378 hyphae into the mesh core substrate and remaining in this substrate was determined
379 through sample oxidation (Packard 307 Sample Oxidiser, Isotech, UK) and liquid
380 scintillation counting of $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ trapped in 10 ml Carbosorb and 10 ml Permafluor as
381 described previously. Total carbon was then calculated as a function of the volume and
382 CO_2 content of the labelling chamber and the proportion of the supplied $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ label that
383 was fixed by the liverworts during the labelling period using previously published
384 equations (Cameron *et al.*, 2008). To determine total plant-fixed carbon due to
385 symbiotic fungi within soil cores in each pot, the values calculated from cores where
386 symbiotic fungal hyphae were severed from connections to plants by core rotation were
387 subtracted from the values in cores where fungal hyphal connections between liverworts
388 and core contents remained intact.

389

390 *Statistics*

391 All data were checked for homogeneity of variance and normality prior to analysis of
392 variance. Analysis was conducted with three-way ANOVA, General Linear Model (GLM),
393 where core rotation, a[CO₂], and symbiont identity were the variables for plant ¹⁵N
394 uptake; presence of algae, a[CO₂], and symbiont identity were variables for plant ³³P
395 uptake; and presence of algae, a[CO₂], and fungal symbiont identity were the variables
396 for fungal C allocation. Where required, data were log10 transformed to meet the
397 assumptions for ANOVA. Where there were significant interaction terms within the 3-way
398 ANOVA's, additional 2-way ANOVAs were conducted to understand the nature of these
399 interactions. All statistics were calculated using Minitab v.17 (Minitab, PA, USA).

400

401 **Results**

402 *Confirmation of fungal partner identity using molecular and cytological methods (Fig. 2)*

403 Microscopy analyses confirmed the DNA-based results and showed colonisation
404 patterns of the underground axes of *H. gibbsiae* by Mucoromycotina fungi consistent
405 with previous observations (Carafa *et al.*, 2003), including intracellular fungal coils with
406 terminal lumps (Fig. 2b, c). Fungal colonisation of *M. paleacea* was typical of plant-
407 Glomeromycotina associations, comprising relatively coarse intracellular hyphae,
408 arbuscules and vesicles (Fig. 2e, f). Dual fungal colonisations in *N. mirabilis* had
409 features of both fungal symbionts, particularly in the presence of coarse (>3 µm in
410 diameter) and finer (ca. 1.5 µm in diameter) intracellular hyphae forming arbuscules and
411 coils (Fig. 2h, i).

412

413 *Biomass (Fig S2)*

414 Most of the plant biomass was developed before the experiments commenced, and it
415 was not feasible to measure initial biomass in each microcosm at the commencement of
416 the experiments. Unsurprisingly therefore, we did not detect significant effects of access

417 to algal necromass on final biomass ($F_{1,48} = 1.18, P = 0.283$; three-way ANOVA; Table
418 S1), for any of the liverwort-fungal partnerships studied; Fig. S2, Table S1). The
419 liverwort associated only with Mucoromycotina (*Neohodgsonia*) had significantly greater
420 biomass than the Glomeromycotina-and dual symbiont liverworts ($F_{2,48} = 8.20, P=0.01$,
421 three-way ANOVA; Table S1). *Neohodgsonia* also showed a significant interaction
422 effect with lower final biomass for the elevated compared to ambient CO₂, treatments
423 ($F_{2,48} = 4.41, P = 0.018$, three-way ANOVA; Table S1) but there was no overall effect of
424 a[CO₂] across all the plant species ($F_{1,48} = 2.83, P = 0.099$, three-way ANOVA; Table
425 S1).

426

427 *Nitrogen uptake in plants via symbiotic fungi (Fig. 3)*

428 Significant fungus uptake and transfer to plants from algal necromass determined by
429 total ¹⁵N in the liverworts, was limited to plants whose fungal partners had access to the
430 algae within static cores (Fig. 3 and Table 1; effect of static versus rotated cores: $F_{1,48} =$
431 $23.10, P<0.001$, three-way ANOVA). This resulted in significantly higher ¹⁵N
432 concentrations in liverwort thalli grown with static cores (Table 1: $F_{1,48} = 49.26, P<0.001$,
433 three-way ANOVA). The uptake of ¹⁵N differed significantly by symbiont type (Table 1:
434 $F_{1,48} = 4.79, P=0.018$). Single and dual partnerships with Mucoromycotina fungi (i.e.
435 *Neohodgsonia* and *Haplomitrium*) had mean ¹⁵N contents more than 2.4 times those of
436 the Glomeromycotina-only colonised *M. paleacea* at 440 ppm a[CO₂] (Fig. 3a), rising to
437 >90-fold times more at 1,500 ppm a[CO₂], however there were no significant effects of
438 a[CO₂], and no significant two or three-way interaction effects of core rotation, a[CO₂] or
439 symbiont type (Table 1). The concentration of ¹⁵N in the liverwort thalli (Fig. 3c,d), was
440 35-90-fold higher in plants associated with Mucoromycotina fungi compared to those
441 associated only with Glomeromycotina fungi, this effect of symbionts being significant
442 ($F_{2,48} = 4.37, P = 0.027$; three-way ANOVA; Table 1).

443

444 *Phosphorus uptake by plants via symbiotic fungi (Fig. 4)*

445 Total ^{33}P uptake by the liverworts grown at 1500 ppm a[CO₂] was nearly twice as high in
446 the Glomeromycotina-only *M. paleacea* than in the liverworts in single or dual
447 association with Mucoromycotina, (Fig. 4a- note the log scale), but for the liverworts
448 grown at 440 ppm a[CO₂] there was no significant difference between the symbionts
449 (Fig. 4b; Table S2). This resulted in a significant interaction between symbionts and
450 CO₂ treatment on total ^{33}P uptake by the liverworts ($F_{2,48} = 5.39$, $P = 0.008$, three-way
451 ANOVA; Table 2), but there were no other significant main or interactive effects of
452 symbiont identity, a[CO₂] and availability of algae (Table 2).

453 The ^{33}P concentrations in liverwort biomass was significantly affected by symbiont
454 identity (Table 2, $F_{2,48} = 8.99$, $P = 0.001$), being highest in the Glomeromycotina-only *M.*
455 *paleacea*. In addition, there was a significant symbiont x a[CO₂] interaction (Table 2, $F_{2,48} =$
456 5.24 , $P = 0.009$), as well as a symbiont x a[CO₂] x algae interaction (Table 2, $F_{2,48} =$
457 4.60 , $P = 0.015$) but no other significant effects. The significant interactions arose from
458 the dual-symbiotic liverwort showing no effects of algal additions (Fig. 4c,d), whereas the
459 Glomeromycotina-only and Mucoromycotina-only associated liverworts showed
460 responses to algae that differed in magnitude or direction depending on the a[CO₂], but
461 there was no overall effect of algal additions on ^{33}P concentrations (Table 2).

462 Algal additions to cores also did not have a significant effect on total (non-
463 radioactive) P content or P concentrations of cores (Fig. S1). Phosphorus pool dilution
464 effects in treatments where the ^{15}N labelled algal necromass was included would appear
465 to be negligible, and therefore unlikely to affect plant ^{33}P tracer uptake.

466

467 *Liverwort carbon allocation to external mycelium of symbiotic fungi (Fig. 5)*

468 The proportion of the liverwort photosynthate that was detected by ^{14}C tracing into the
469 unrotated mesh cores was significantly affected by the type of symbiosis (Table 2), and
470 was <2% of the total C fixed (Fig. 5a,b- note that the data are on a log scale in Fig. 5b).
471 External mycelium of dual partnerships in the mesh cores received a greater proportion
472 of photosynthate than mycelia of liverworts associating with Glomeromycotina only or
473 Mucoromycotina only (Table 2; $F_{2, 48} = 4.96$, $P = 0.011$, three-way ANOVA), but there
474 was no significant effect of $a[\text{CO}_2]$, algae, or interactions between the symbionts or other
475 variables.

476 The total ^{14}C traced into static cores via fungal partners was highly significantly
477 affected by the symbiosis (Fig. 5 c,d), with the liverworts with dual partnerships receiving
478 on average more than 5 times that of the single-fungal type liverworts (Table 2; $F_{2, 48} =$
479 49.84 , $P < 0.001$; three-way ANOVA). In addition, there was a significant effect of
480 $a[\text{CO}_2]$, with an average 4-fold increase in carbon allocation to the fungi across
481 symbioses and algal treatments at 1,500 ppm compared to 440 ppm $a[\text{CO}_2]$ (Compare
482 Fig. 5c and d; Table 2: effect of CO_2 $F_{1, 48} = 6.87$, $P = 0.012$, three-way ANOVA). The
483 addition of algae significantly increased total photosynthate allocated into the mesh-
484 walled cores (Table 2: effect of algae $F_{1, 48} = 10.57$, $P = 0.002$, three-way ANOVA), and
485 there were no significant interactions between the symbiont types and the effects of
486 algae, or between algae and $a[\text{CO}_2]$ treatments, and no three-way interactions.

487

488 **Discussion**

489 Our results show that there are important differences in functionality between plant-
490 fungal symbioses involving Mucoromycotina, Glomeromycotina, and dual symbioses
491 with both groups of fungi in the effectiveness of N transfer from organic matter and
492 inorganic P to host plants in non-sterile soil. The data from our microcosm experiments
493 suggest that variation in atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration and the form in which

494 nutrients are available affects the nutrient exchange dynamics between the liverwort
495 hosts tested and their fungal symbiont(s) and that these responses are distinct
496 according to the type of fungal partner present.

497

498 *Mucoromycotina* fungi enhance transfer of N from algal necromass to liverwort partners.

499 Although limited in the number of plant species tested and quantification of fungal

500 biomass not performed, our experiments demonstrated that *Mucoromycotina* fungal

501 partners, both when occurring singly and in dual partnerships with *Glomeromycotina*

502 assimilated and transferred significant amounts of ^{15}N supplied as algal necromass in

503 non-sterile soil to their liverwort hosts. In contrast, we detected negligible fungal ^{15}N

504 transfer to the plant in the *Marchantia*-*Glomeromycotina* symbiosis. The detection of

505 small amounts of ^{15}N in liverworts where the hyphae of symbiotic fungi growing into the

506 mesh cores were severed by rotation are likely to be due to mass flow and diffusion of

507 ^{15}N -containing molecules resulting from mineralization by soil microorganisms (Thirkell

508 *et al.*, 2016). Our data support the hypothesis that *Mucoromycotina* fungi are more

509 successful in competing with soil microbes for organic N resources than

510 *Glomeromycotina* fungi. The higher rates of N uptake via the *Mucoromycotina* fungi

511 compared to only *Glomeromycotina* might be due to these fungi (a) competing better

512 with soil saprotrophs for organic N from the algal necromass, (b) competing better for N

513 mineralized by the saprotrophs, or (c) supporting a mycorrhizosphere-microbial

514 community that better accelerates depolymerisation and / or mineralization of N. It is

515 well-established that the role of mycorrhizal fungi in nutrient uptake arises from their

516 interactions with other soil microorganisms, as most of the N in soil is naturally present

517 in organic forms originating from plant and microbial litter that require microbial

518 depolymerisation and potentially mineralization before it can be utilized (Vitousek &

519 Howarth, 1991). For example, AM fungi develop specific “mycorrhizosphere” microbial

520 populations that may be involved in increasing mobilization and mineralization of
521 nutrients, as plant-growth promoting and P-solubilizing bacteria *Pseudomonas* and
522 *Burkholderia* can be supported by organic C supplied by AM fungal mycelium (Zhang *et*
523 *al.*, 2014, 2016). Consequently, the overall functioning of mycorrhizas in N uptake by
524 plants is the result of complex interactions between the symbiotic fungi and other soil
525 organisms in mutualistic and competitive/antagonistic activities in the processes of
526 depolymerisation, mineralization and immobilization. Given this complexity for
527 interpreting the role of mycorrhizal fungi in nutrient uptake, further studies are now
528 required to resolve the mechanistic basis of the overall functioning of the mycorrhizal
529 partnerships in interacting with soil microorganisms. It remains unclear whether the
530 Mucoromycotina fungi are facultative saprotrophs and able to depolymerise the main
531 constituents of algal necromass N such as proteins, lipids and nucleic acids, and
532 structural carbohydrates such as cellulose cell walls.

533 Nonetheless, our findings provide new insights into the functional biology and
534 ecology of these two fungal groups in symbiosis with extant members of early-divergent
535 land plant groups in non-sterile soil. This is particularly pertinent to pioneer plants like
536 liverworts, given the low N status of disturbed, primary successional habitats (Ollivier *et*
537 *al.*, 2011) in which soil crusts containing fast-turning over green algae and cyanobacteria
538 are likely to provide important N rich microsites, a situation not dissimilar to that
539 assumed to have been experienced by early land plants colonising poorly-developed
540 soils as part of cryptogamic ground covers (Edwards *et al.*, 2015). Where organic N is
541 available in such systems, there is likely strong competition between plants and soil
542 microbes (Hodge *et al.*, 2000; Kuzyakov & Xu, 2013).

543 In the Glomeromycotina association of *Marchantia*, the limited fungal transfer of
544 ¹⁵N to the host liverwort and corresponding plant-to-fungus C allocation patterns
545 observed here are consistent with previous studies that have found especially under

546 elevated a[CO₂] and higher C fixation by plants, AM fungi become major sinks of plant
547 photosynthate (Hodge, 1996; Johnson *et al.*, 2002; Herman *et al.*, 2012). Increased C
548 efflux from mycorrhizal fungal mycelium into soil may help the priming of microbial
549 decomposers – a common soil-biotic response to increased organic matter availability
550 (de Graaff *et al.*, 2010; Drigo *et al.*, 2010; Verbruggen *et al.*, 2013). Thus, AM fungi may
551 also rely on members of the saprotrophic microbial community to decompose complex
552 organic sources and release N in inorganic form (Govindarajulu *et al.*, 2005; Leigh *et al.*,
553 2011) for hyphal capture. While several studies (Leigh *et al.*, 2009; Hodge & Fitter,
554 2010) have demonstrated that AM fungi transfer ¹⁵N from ¹⁵N-labelled organic patches
555 to their host angiosperm plants, and a plant ammonium transporter that is mycorrhiza-
556 specific and preferentially activated in cells containing arbuscules has been discovered
557 (Guether *et al.*, 2009a; 2009b), others have reported no or negligible transport of ¹⁵N
558 from fungus to host (Hodge & Fitter, 2010). Hodge and Fitter (2010) showed that whilst
559 AM fungal hyphae proliferated on and acquired N from a ¹⁵N-labelled organic patch the
560 fungus retained most of the ¹⁵N rather than transferring it to the host plant. Our results
561 point toward similar N dynamics in the *Marchantia*-Glomeromycotina symbiosis as for
562 angiosperm-Glomeromycotina AM, given the major increase in plant C allocation to the
563 fungus with access to an organic patch at elevated a[CO₂] (Fig. 5c) for little to no ¹⁵N
564 return (Fig. 3c). Thus, it is plausible that under elevated a[CO₂] the Glomeromycotina
565 symbiont contributes to soil N immobilization, limiting ¹⁵N transfer to the liverwort host
566 rather than contributing to liverwort host N nutrition. It should also be noted that in
567 previous studies using non-sterile soil or root pieces from soil as fungal inocula that both
568 Glomeromycotina and FRE may have colonized test plant roots, so that nutritional
569 effects that have been attributed in the past exclusively to effects of Glomeromycotina
570 AM fungi, may sometimes have unknowingly involved both groups.

571

572 Whether the Mucoromycotina fungal symbionts use the organic nutrient patch as
573 a source of C or remains entirely dependent on the host liverwort as its main source of
574 metabolic C is yet to be elucidated. In this regard, it is interesting to note that the
575 general idea that putatively facultative saprotrophic ectomycorrhizal fungi behave like
576 free-living saprotrophs in gaining C compounds from organic matter decomposition
577 (Buée *et al.*, 2005; Courty *et al.*, 2007) has recently been challenged. Lindahl and
578 Tunlid (2015) proposed that ectomycorrhizal fungi perform co-metabolic oxidation of
579 organic matter with the main benefit being not the acquisition of metabolic C but the
580 mobilization of N locked up in non-hydrolysable, recalcitrant organic matter complexes
581 (Lindahl *et al.*, 2007). Thus, most ectomycorrhizal fungi remain dependent on their host
582 plants as their principal source of metabolic C, behaving as decomposers rather than
583 facultative saprotrophs (Lindahl & Tunlid, 2015). Our results, showing stable or
584 increased host C allocation to Mucoromycotina symbionts with access to an organic
585 nutrient patch (Fig. 5), point to similar C dynamics in the liverwort-Mucoromycotina
586 partnership.

587

588 *Fundamental functional differences among symbioses*

589 Overall, our results indicate functional differences among the three types of plant-
590 fungal symbioses investigated (Table 3):

591 1) Associations involving Mucoromycotina-only partners provide substantial
592 access to N supplied as algal necromass, and increase P returns to the liverwort host in
593 exchange for relatively little plant-fixed C, especially under modern a[CO₂]. However,
594 the amount of ³³P gained by a plant host per unit of C invested in the fungal partner was
595 reduced in patches containing algal necromass at 440 ppm but not at 1500 ppm a[CO₂],
596 possibly as a result of less effective P uptake or retaining more P in its own biomass and
597 passing a smaller proportion on to the host plant compared to Glomeromycotina fungi.

598 2) In Glomeromycotina-only associations, the fungal symbionts of *M. paleacea* do
599 not appear to facilitate significant plant N acquisition from an organic N source. This
600 symbiosis is very effective in ³³P transfer to the host plant and this is largely independent
601 of whether fresh algal necromass is added to soil – consistent with the obligately
602 biotrophic nature of these fungi and their highly evolved role in supplying P from soil to
603 plants.

604 3) Dual symbioses involving simultaneous Mucoromycotina and
605 Glomeromycotina fungal partners combine the nutritional benefits afforded to the host
606 plants by each of the single-fungus partnerships i.e. ¹⁵N transfer from available organic
607 nutrient sources by the Mucoromycotina symbiosis together with the more constant ³³P
608 returns from the Glomeromycotina symbiosis, whether or not organic nutrient sources
609 are available. However, these nutritional benefits come at a considerably higher carbon
610 ‘cost’ to the host than single-fungus symbioses (Table 3). The relative host carbon
611 allocation to, and nutrient gains from each fungal partner within dual colonisations
612 remain to be established.

613 Our findings support our hypothesis that the ability to engage with both
614 Mucoromycotina and Glomeromycotina fungal partners, whether singly or in
615 simultaneous dual symbiosis, offers additional plasticity in terms of nutrient uptake to
616 liverworts and other early-divergent land plant clades known to engage in dual
617 symbioses (Field *et al.*, 2015a; Desirò *et al.*, 2013; Rimington *et al.*, 2015). Our results
618 indicate that the outcome from these multiple symbiotic options is influenced by a
619 complex interplay of biotic and abiotic factors, including a[CO₂] and hence plant
620 photosynthetic capacity, fungal symbiont type, localized resource-patches (such as
621 provided by our ¹⁵N algal necromass), as well as interactions with other soil microbiota
622 (which we have not specifically investigated). The apparent superior ability of
623 Mucoromycotina fungi over the Glomeromycotina fungi tested in supplying liverwort

624 partners with organically-derived N may provide a competitive advantage in habitats
625 where N is limiting and/or where the distribution of organic nutrients is patchy, whether
626 spatially or temporally. The apparent complementarity of the fungal partners with
627 respect to provisioning of host plants with N and P may help to explain the apparent
628 presence and persistence of both fungal lineages in partnerships with plants from the
629 early stages of terrestrial ecosystems (Strullu-Derrien *et al.*, 2014) through to
630 contemporary agro-ecosystems (Orchard *et al.*, 2017a; 2017b).

631 Latest evidence indicates that fine root endophyte fungi (FRE), which are
632 widespread ecologically and across vascular plants, are members of the
633 Mucoromycotina and closely related to liverwort and lycophyte Mucoromycotina
634 symbionts (Bidartondo *et al.*, 2011; Rimington *et al.*, 2015; 2016; Field *et al.*, 2015b;
635 Orchard *et al.*, 2017a). Furthermore, the same Mucoromycotina fungi can enter into
636 symbiosis with liverworts, early vascular plants and angiosperms (Hoysted *et al.*, 2019).
637 This finding greatly expands the potential significance of Mucoromycotina fungi in
638 modern ecosystems (Field *et al.*, 2015a; Hoysted *et al.*, 2018; Field and Pressel, 2018).
639 Thus, it is now critical to explore the functioning of Mucoromycotina fungal symbionts in
640 later-divergent groups of land plants such as lycophytes, ferns and angiosperms. Such
641 investigations together with a better appreciation of the roles of Glomeromycotina fungi
642 in plant host N nutrition, are key to understanding the consequences of diverse
643 nutritional mutualisms among plants and fungi for biogeochemistry and ecosystems in
644 the past, present and future.

645

646 **Acknowledgements**

647 KJF is supported by a BBSRC Translational Research Fellowship (BB/M026825) and a
648 Philip Leverhulme Prize (PLP-2017-079). WRR is supported by a NERC DTP
649 studentship. KJF, SP, MIB, JGD, DDC, DJB and JRL gratefully acknowledge funding

650 from the NERC (NE/N009665/1, NE/N009665/1 and NE/I024089/1). We thank the New
651 Zealand Department of Conservation for bryophyte collecting permits and Dr Heather
652 Walker for technical assistance with sample ¹⁵N analyses. We are grateful for the
653 constructive comments provided by the referees and editor on an earlier version of this
654 manuscript.

655

656 **Competing Interests**

657 The authors declare no competing interests.

658

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852

853 **Supporting Information**

854 **Figure S1.** Mean total phosphorus content and concentration in core substrate where
855 algal necromass was absent (- algae) and where algal necromass was included (+
856 algae).

857

858 **Figure S2.** Total mean biomass of liverworts in plants grown under ambient atmospheric
859 [CO₂] (440 ppm) and elevated atmospheric [CO₂] (1,500 ppm) with (and without fungal
860 access to algal necromassa.

861

862 **Notes S1** - Supplementary materials and methods (analysis of total P, biomass, fungus-
863 to-plant ¹⁵N and ³³P transfer and plant-to-fungus C transfer).

864

865 **Notes S2** – Supplementary results (total phosphorus content of mesh-walled cores,
866 plant biomass).

867

868 **Table S1.** Three-way ANOVA (GLM) showing effects of fungal symbiont, inclusion of algae, and
869 a[CO₂] on liverwort biomass at end of experiment.

870

871 **Table S2.** Two-way ANOVA (GLM) showing effects of fungal symbiont and access to algae
872 within static core (S) treatments. Data are log₁₀ transformed to conform to ANOVA
873 assumptions.

874

875

876 **Figure Legends**

877 **Fig. 1. Diagrams of experimental microcosms** showing (a) contents of cores
878 containing ¹⁵N-labelled algal necromass (right) and cores without algal addition (left).
879 Location of algal necromass indicated by green shading running length of the soil
880 column within the core; (b) experimental microcosm where liverworts have access to
881 ¹⁵N-labelled algal necromass and ³³P-orthophosphate via intact fungal hyphal
882 connections between host liverwort and core contents (static core treatment); (c)
883 experimental microcosm where liverworts do not have access to ¹⁵N-labelled nutrient
884 patch and ³³P-orthophosphate via severed fungal hyphal connections between core
885 contents and host plant achieved by rotating the core (blue arrow; rotated core
886 treatment) prior to isotope introduction (red arrow), and (d) ¹⁴C labelling experimental
887 set-up showing fixation of ¹⁴CO₂ by liverworts and transfer of labelled carbon
888 compounds to fungi within static cores.

889

890 **Fig. 2. Liverworts and fungal symbionts studied in the present investigation; wild**
891 **whole plants (a, d, g) and scanning electron micrographs of respective fungal**
892 **endophytes (b, c, e, f, h, i).** (a-c) The earliest-divergent Haplomitriopsida liverwort
893 *Haplomitrium gibbsiae* (a) associates exclusively with Mucoromycotina-FRE fungi.
894 Mucoromycotina colonise *Haplomitrium* underground axes where their fine hyphae (0.5-
895 1.5 µm) form coils with swellings (arrowed in b and enlarged in c). (d-f) *Marchantia*
896 *paleacea* harbouring in its thallus only Glomeromycotina fungal symbionts with cytology
897 consisting of coarse hyphae (> 3 µm), arbuscules (e) and large vesicles (arrowed in f),

898 as typical of AM symbioses. (g-i) *Neohodgsonia mirabilis* in dual symbiosis with
899 Glomeromycotina and Mucoromycotina fungi showing in its thallus structures typical of
900 both fungi: arbuscules on trunk hyphae (Glomeromycotina, h) and fine hyphae with
901 arbuscule-like structures (Mucoromycotina, i). Scale bars: (e) 200 μm ; (b) 100 μm ; (f, h,
902 i) 50 μm ; (c) 20 μm .

903

904 **Fig. 3. Fungus-to-plant nitrogen transfer between liverworts and fungi at**
905 **simulated Palaeozoic and modern ambient atmospheric [CO₂].** Mean total fungal-
906 acquired ¹⁵N (a, b) and concentration of fungal-acquired ¹⁵N detected in plants (c, d) at
907 simulated Palaeozoic a[CO₂] of 1,500 ppm (a, c) and modern ambient a[CO₂] of 440
908 ppm (b, d) where ¹⁵N labelled algal necromass was (“Static”; black bars) or was not
909 (“Rotated”; white bars) accessible to fungal symbionts. Error bars indicate \pm S.E., $n = 5$
910 (see Table 1 for statistics).

911

912 **Fig. 4. Fungus-to-plant phosphorus transfer between liverworts and fungi at**
913 **simulated Palaeozoic and modern ambient atmospheric [CO₂].** Mean total fungal-
914 acquired ³³P (a, b) and concentration of fungal-acquired ³³P in plants (c, d) at simulated
915 Palaeozoic a[CO₂] of 1,500 ppm (a, c) and modern ambient a[CO₂] of 440 ppm (b, d). “+
916 algae” values represent fungal-acquired ³³P where algal necromass was present, “-
917 algae” representing fungal-acquired ³³P where algal necromass was not present. Error
918 bars indicate \pm S.E., $n = 5$ (see Table 2 for statistics).

919

920 **Fig. 5. Plant-to-fungus carbon transfer between liverworts and fungi at simulated**
921 **Palaeozoic and modern ambient atmospheric [CO₂].** Percentage allocation (a, b) and
922 total (c, d) liverwort-fixed carbon transferred to fungal partners within soil cores with
923 (black bars) and without (white bars) presence of organic nutrient patch at (a, c) 1,500

924 ppm [CO₂] and (b, d) 440 ppm [CO₂]. Note difference in scale of Y axis in figures (c) and
925 (d). Error bars indicate \pm S.E., $n = 5$ (see Table 2 for statistics).
926

927 **Tables**

928 **Table 1.** Summary of three-way ANOVA (GLM) results testing the effects of core
 929 rotation on ¹⁵N content and [¹⁵N] of liverworts (Fig. 3). Data were log10 transformed to
 930 meet assumptions of ANOVA. Hyphal connections between liverworts and ¹⁵N-labelled
 931 algal necromass are preserved in static core treatments whereas rotated core treatment
 932 causes hyphal connections between liverwort to be severed. Experiments carried out
 933 under 440 ppm a[CO₂] and 1,500 ppm a[CO₂]. Significant results ($P < 0.05$) are indicated
 934 in **bold**, n.s. = $P > 0.05$.

935

Variable	Symbiosis (S) d.f. 2, 48		CO ₂ (C) d.f. 1, 48		Core rotation (R) d.f. 1, 48		S x C d.f. 2, 48		S x R d.f. 2, 48		C x R d.f. 1, 48		S x C x R d.f. 2, 48	
	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P
Plant ¹⁵ N (ng) (See Fig. 3a,b)	4.79	0.018	0.30	n.s.	23.10	<0.001	2.45	n.s.	1.33	n.s.	1.31	n.s.	0.75	n.s.
Plant [¹⁵ N] (ng g ⁻¹) (See Fig. 3 c,d)	4.37	0.027	0.52	n.s.	49.26	<0.001	11.34	n.s.	2.44	n.s.	0.93	n.s.	2.04	n.s.

936

937 **Table 2.** Summary of three-way ANOVA (GLM) results testing the effects of algae
 938 inclusion and fungal symbiont(s) on exchange of fungal-acquired phosphorus (Fig. 4) for
 939 plant carbon (Fig. 5) in experiments conducted under 440 ppm a[CO₂] and 1,500 ppm
 940 a[CO₂]. Data were log10 transformed to meet assumptions of ANOVA. Significant
 941 results ($P < 0.05$) are indicated in **bold**, n.s. = $P > 0.05$.

Variable	Symbiosis (S) d.f. 2, 48		CO ₂ (C) d.f. 1, 48		Algae (A) d.f. 1, 48		S x C d.f. 2, 48		S x A d.f. 2, 48		C x A d.f. 1, 48		S x C x A d.f. 2, 48	
	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P
Plant ³³ P (ng)	0.96	n.s.	1.50	n.s.	0.50	n.s.	5.39	0.008	0.54	n.s.	1.84	n.s.	1.13	n.s.
Plant [³³ P] (ng g ⁻¹)	8.99	0.001	4.42	n.s.	2.23	n.s.	5.24	0.009	1.97	n.s.	0.10	n.s.	4.60	0.015
% C allocation to cores	4.96	0.011	0.08	n.s.	0.04	n.s.	2.87	n.s.	1.39	n.s.	0.98	n.s.	1.53	n.s.
Plant allocation of C to fungi within cores (ng)	49.84	<0.001	6.87	0.012	10.57	0.002	0.59	n.s.	1.49	n.s.	0.15	n.s.	1.77	n.s.

942

943

944 **Table 3.** Summary of key findings of the costs and benefits of single and dual symbiosis
 945 with Mucoromycotina and Glomeromycotina fungi in liverworts.

946

Functions	Mycorrhiza type		
	Mucoromycotina fungi	Glomeromycotina fungi	Both Mucoromycotina and Glomeromycotina
Relative carbon costs of external mycelium to host plant	Low	Low	High
¹⁵ N from algal necromass supplied to host plant	High	Low	High
³³ P orthophosphate supplied to host plant	Low-High Reduced by algal necromass at ambient CO ₂ but not at elevated CO ₂ .	High Unaffected by algal necromass	Moderate-High Unaffected by algal necromass

947

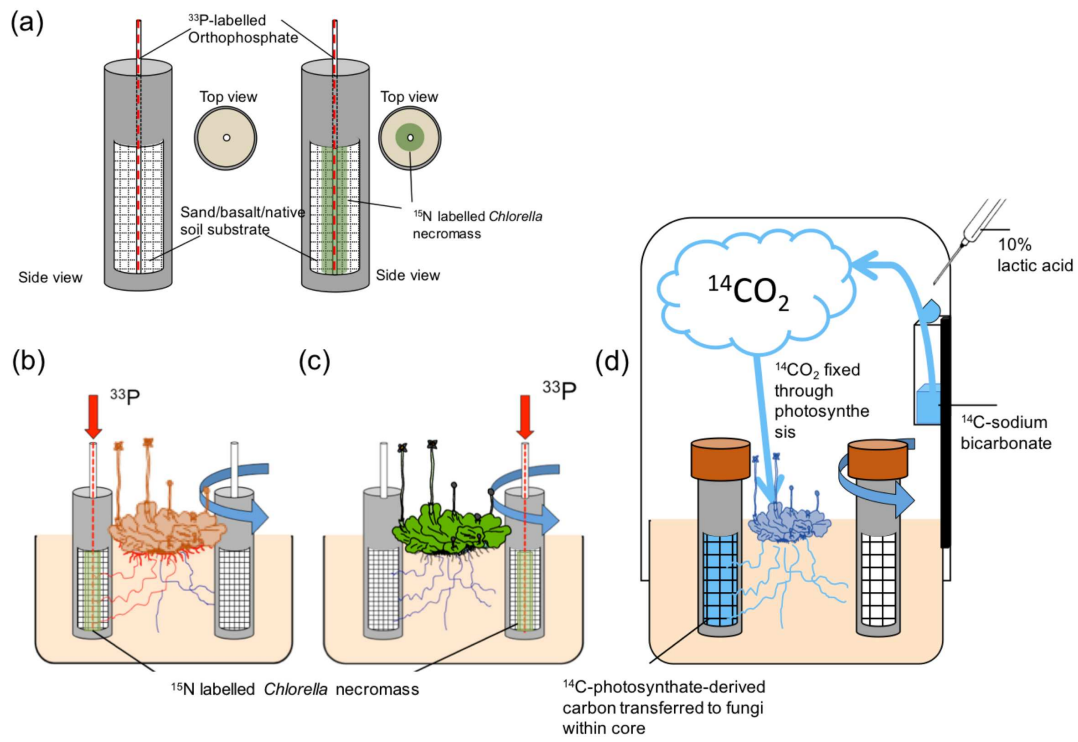


Figure 1.

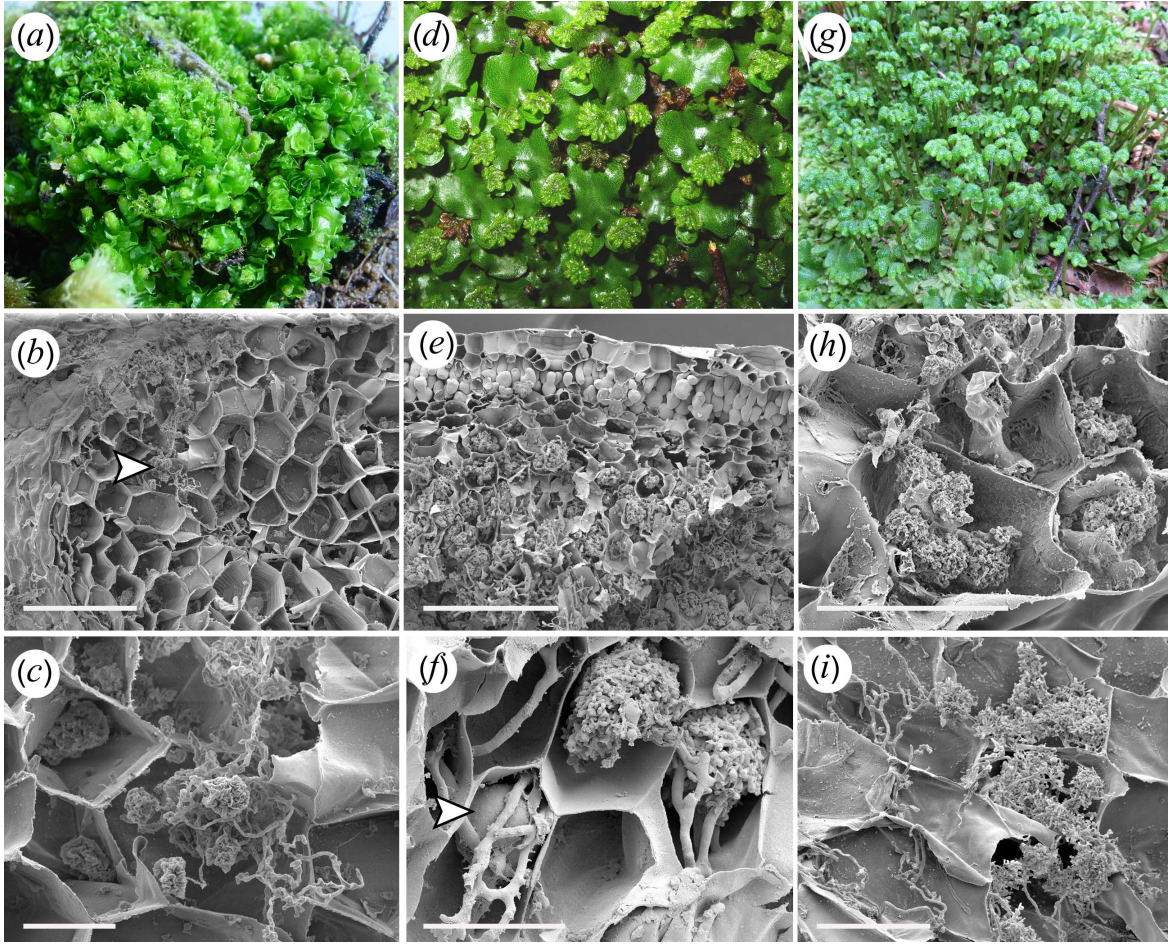


Figure 2.

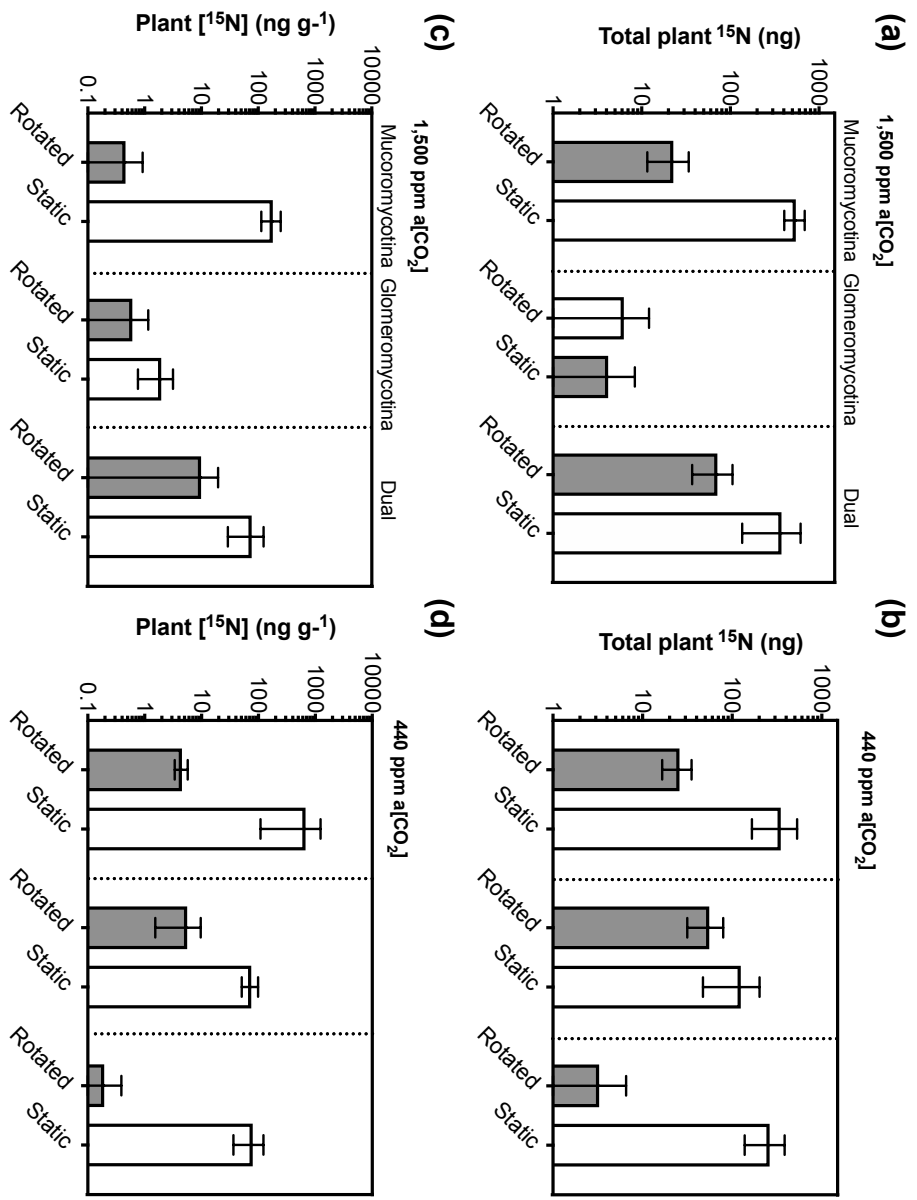


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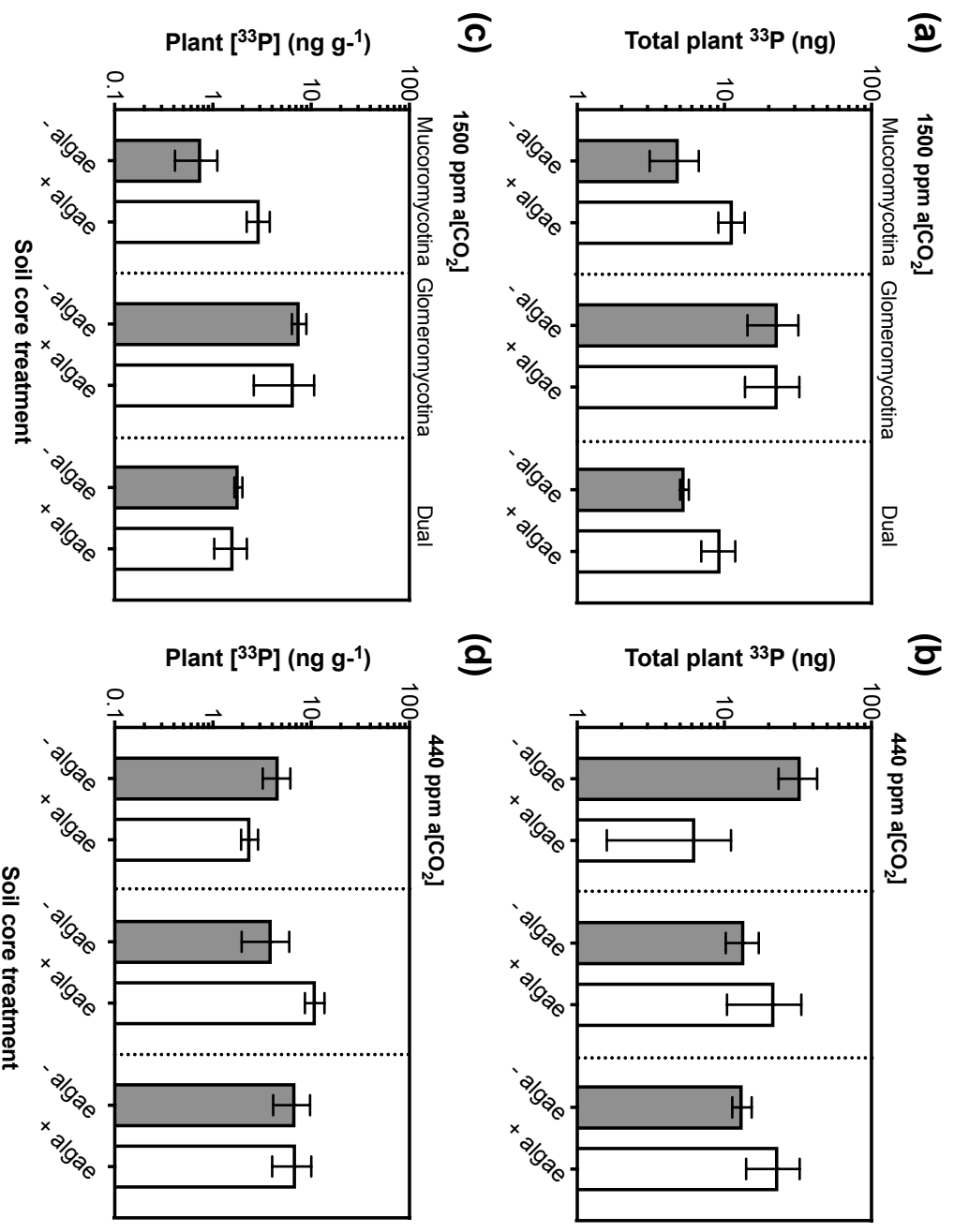


Figure 4.

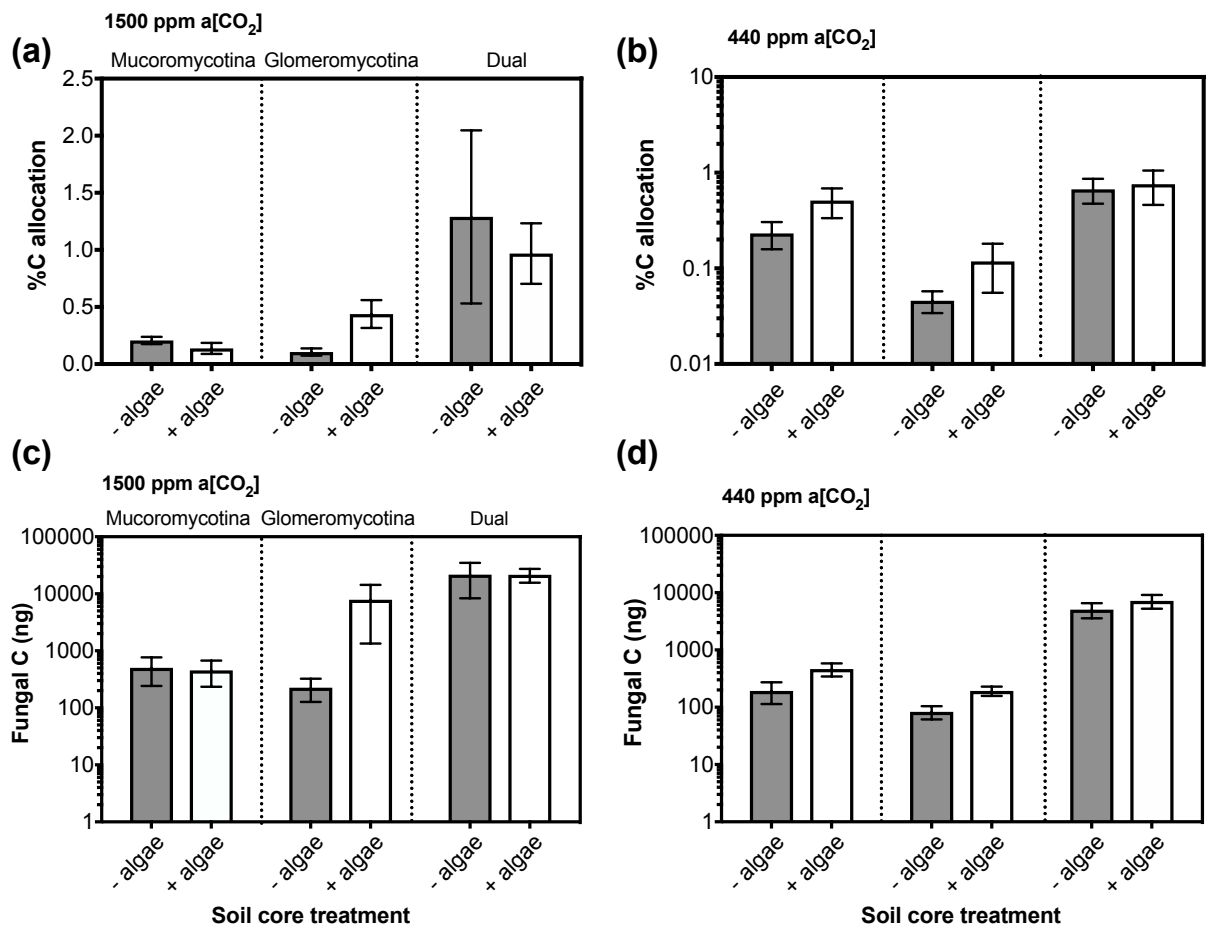


Figure 5.