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Differences in arbuscular mycorrhizal colonization and P acquisition between genotypes of the tropical Brachiaria grasses: is there a relation with BNI activity

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Biology and Fertility of Soils

Differences in arbuscular mycorrhizal colonization and P acquisition between genotypes of the tropical Brachiaria grasses: Is there a relation with BNI activity? --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	<p>In a field experiment in Palmira, Colombia, we studied mycorrhizal root colonization, phosphomonoesterase activities and P and N foliar content before and after N fertilization among different Brachiaria genotypes with demonstrated BNI capacity. Furthermore, we tested the potential nitrification rate (PNR) in soil in order to confirm the inhibition of nitrification of the selected genotypes and relate the BNI performance with P acquisition. We hypothesized that: (i) genotypes will differ in key variables related to P acquisition, and that there will be a positive correlation between (ii) AMF root colonization, P uptake and BNI activity, and (iii) between the activity of acid and alkaline phosphomonoesterase and BNI performance. Higher N immobilization one week after application of synthetic fertilizer (ammonium sulphate) and low PNR of Brachiaria humidicola CIAT 679 and CIAT 16888 confirmed that these genotypes have high BNI activity. Despite the relatively high soil P status, high affinity of Brachiaria grasses for AMF was observed at the study site: more than 60% of root length was colonized by AMF in high-BNI genotypes, versus 45% in low-BNI Brachiaria cv. Mulato. The N content of high-BNI genotypes was positively correlated with mycorrhizal root colonization suggesting uptake of NH₄⁺ by AMF and its transfer to high-BNI genotypes</p>	

	<p>and/or regulation of AMF colonization by P demand. Furthermore, increased activity of acid phosphomonoesterase (6.98 and 7.68 $\mu\text{moles g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ in high-BNI versus 5.20 in low-BNI genotypes) and the depletion of the most labile available P fractions in the rhizosphere of high-BNI genotypes (by 21-32%) suggest enhanced P uptake and P use efficiency. To the best of our knowledge this is the first study that explored relations between BNI and biotic factors affecting P acquisition. Our results highlight the importance of AMF in Brachiaria grasses even under high P availability, and warrant further studies including a larger number of different BNI genotypes that can elucidate biotic plant-soil interactions affecting nutrient use efficiencies in improved pastures under low and high P status.</p>
<p>Suggested Reviewers:</p>	<p>Astrid Oberson ETH Zürich astrid.oberson@usys.ethz.ch Long experiences working with phosphorus cycles in tropical soils</p> <p>Laura Giagnoni University of Florence laura.giagnoni@unifi.it Experience in soil phosphatase activity and root-soil interactions.</p> <p>Engracia Madejon Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Cientificas emadejon@irnase.csic.es Expert in soil biology and microbiology</p>

Differences in arbuscular mycorrhizal colonization and P acquisition between genotypes of the tropical Brachiaria grasses: Is there a relation with BNI activity?

L. 22, "and N foliar";
Modified

L. 28, "activity of acid and alkaline phosphomonoesterase and";
Modified

L. 49-50, "oxidation of NH₄⁺ to NO₃⁻ is...the N cycle causing";
Modified

Please indent L. 71,77, 245, 296;
Indented

Please add "exchangeable" before "NH₄⁺" in the text;
Added where appropriate

L. 236-237, "phosphomonoesterase activities.";
Modified

Please complete the list of authors at L. 507, 513, 521, 539, 549, 554, 557, 565, 571, 574, 584, 590, 605;
Completed

Please add the final page at L 511
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L. 513, after Miller please complete the list of editors and write at L.513-515, "(Eds)...Madison, WI, pp";
Changed

L. 534-535, "(Eds)...Biochemistry. Academic Press, London, pp";
Completed

Footnotes of Table 1, "organic C...total N";
Modified

Heading of Table 3, "genotypes, acid and alkaline phosphomonoesterase activities and";
Modified

Legend of figure 3, "d) phosphomonoesterase activities."
Modified

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1 **Differences in arbuscular mycorrhizal colonization and P acquisition**
2 **between genotypes of the tropical *Brachiaria* grasses: Is there a relation**
3 **with BNI activity?**

4
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20 **Abstract**

21 In a field experiment in Palmira, Colombia, we studied mycorrhizal root colonization,
22 phosphomonoesterase activities and P and N foliar content before and after N fertilization
23 among different *Brachiaria* genotypes with demonstrated BNI capacity. Furthermore, we
24 tested the potential nitrification rate (PNR) in soil in order to confirm the inhibition of
25 nitrification of the selected genotypes and relate the BNI performance with P acquisition. We
26 hypothesized that: (i) genotypes will differ in key variables related to P acquisition, and that

27 there will be a positive correlation between (ii) AMF root colonization, P uptake and BNI
28 activity, and (iii) between the activity of acid and alkaline phosphomonoesterase and BNI
29 performance. Higher N immobilization one week after application of synthetic fertilizer
30 (ammonium sulphate) and low PNR of *Brachiaria humidicola* CIAT 679 and CIAT 16888
31 confirmed that these genotypes have high BNI activity. Despite the relatively high soil P
32 status, high affinity of *Brachiaria* grasses for AMF was observed at the study site: more than
33 60% of root length was colonized by AMF in high-BNI genotypes, versus 45% in low-BNI
34 *Brachiaria* cv. Mulato. The N content of high-BNI genotypes was positively correlated with
35 mycorrhizal root colonization suggesting uptake of NH_4^+ by AMF and its transfer to high-BNI
36 genotypes and/or regulation of AMF colonization by P demand. Furthermore, increased
37 activity of acid phosphomonoesterase (6.98 and 7.68 $\mu\text{moles g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ in high-BNI versus 5.20
38 in low-BNI genotypes) and the depletion of the most labile available P fractions in the
39 rhizosphere of high-BNI genotypes (by 21-32%) suggest enhanced P uptake and P use
40 efficiency. To the best of our knowledge this is the first study that explored relations between
41 BNI and biotic factors affecting P acquisition. Our results highlight the importance of AMF in
42 *Brachiaria* grasses even under high P availability, and warrant further studies including a
43 larger number of different BNI genotypes that can elucidate biotic plant-soil interactions
44 affecting nutrient use efficiencies in improved pastures under low and high P status.

45
46 **Key words:** arbuscular mycorrhizae; tropical grassland; biological nitrification inhibition;
47 phosphomonoesterase; *Brachiaria*

48 **Introduction**

49 Nitrification, the oxidation of NH_4^+ to NO_3^- , is the key step in the nitrogen (N) cycle causing
50 significant losses of N from agricultural lands. Such losses occur in the form of NO_3^- leaching

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51 to subsurface layers, as gaseous N₂O and N₂ resulting from denitrification or as N₂O formed
52 during nitrification under aerobic conditions. The application of synthetic nitrification
53 inhibitors has received wide attention owing to their potential to decrease greenhouse gas
54 emissions by inhibiting ammonium monooxygenase (AMO), an enzyme that catalyzes the
55 oxidation of ammonia to hydroxylamine (Subbarao et al. 2006). Such a reduction of
56 nitrification can reduce soil acidification and the production of NO₃⁻ which is prone to losses.
57 Low-nitrate environments have been observed naturally and are believed to be a result of the
58 exudation of nitrification-inhibiting compounds by some plant species (Coskun et al. 2017a,b)
59 after root contact with NH₄⁺ (Subbarao et al. 2007). This mechanism, known as biological
60 nitrification inhibition (BNI), has been documented in tropical forage grasses (*Brachiaria*
61 *humidicola* (Rendle) Schweick.) (Subbarao et al. 2009; Nuñez et al. 2018) and is considered
62 to be an adaptive strategy of plants to reduce N limitations. As a co-benefit BNI suppresses
63 N₂O emissions from soils with application of synthetic fertilizers (Subbarao et al. 2009) and
64 bovine urine patches (Byrnes et al. 2017).

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The inhibition of nitrification alters the ratio of NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻ in the soil with direct or
indirect impacts on different rhizosphere micro-organisms, thereby affecting the dynamics of
other nutrients in the soil as well as nutrient uptake by plants (Britto and Kronzucker 2002;
Boudsocq et al. 2012). While the assimilation of NH₄⁺ by plants and soil microbes is
energetically beneficial when compared to NO₃⁻, given the low mobility of NH₄⁺ ion, one may
expect a negative impact on plant N uptake depending on soil conditions and rooting patterns.
Plant nutrient uptake can be enhanced by the symbiosis with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi
(AMF), which are obligate symbionts that depend on C supply from the roots of the host plant
in exchange for mineral nutrients, especially P, but also zinc (Zn), copper (Cu) and N (Clark
and Zeto 2000). Given the higher competitive capacity of AMF for NH₄⁺ (and other nutrients

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2 75 with low mobility) when compared to plant roots (Pérez-Tienda et al. 2012), AMF may
3 76 benefit from BNI especially in low nutrients environments.

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5 77 Increased availability of N often results in enhanced uptake of P by the induction of
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7 78 several P-acquiring mechanisms, such as the release of enzymes or the enhancement of
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9 79 symbiosis with other soil biota. Although it is generally accepted that high levels of available
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11 80 soil P can have a negative impact on mycorrhizal symbiosis (Johnson 2010), Nouri et al.
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13 81 (2014) observed that AMF symbiosis was promoted under N-limitation regardless of P
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15 82 supply, suggesting that plants promote root colonization as long as at least one of the nutrients
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17 83 (N and/or P) is limiting. Similar results were obtained by Blanke et al. (2005), who found
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19 84 increased root colonization under N deficiency in P-rich soil. Thus, AMF may increase both
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21 85 N- and P-use efficiency in low-nitrification environments: increasing the uptake of less
22
23 86 mobile NH_4^+ , while enhancing the P use efficiency.

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28 87 Altogether, AMF and plants with BNI ability seem to have a mutual interest in the
29
30 88 retention of N in the NH_4^+ form, which is energetically beneficial for both symbionts.
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32 89 Nevertheless, possible effects of altered $\text{NH}_4^+:\text{NO}_3^-$ ratio as a result of nitrification inhibition
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34 90 have not been addressed and the effects of BNI capacity on soil-plant interactions that may
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36 91 strengthen or modify nutrient coupling in agricultural soils have been unexplored: (i) the
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38 92 reduced mobility of NH_4^+ can stimulate the interaction between plant roots and AMF
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40 93 irrespective of P availability or, (ii) the increased availability of N (or longer lasting
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42 94 availability of N resulting from reduced N losses) may lead to enhanced plant-fungi
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44 95 interaction in order to increase plant P uptake.

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49 96 The main objective of the present study is to evaluate the differences among three
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51 97 *Brachiaria* genotypes in a long-term experiment (14 years-old), on BNI, in AMF root
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53 98 colonization and spore abundance, acid and alkaline phosphomonoesterase activity, foliar and
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55 99 soil nutrient content and microbial biomass before and after N fertilization. We hypothesized
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100 that *Brachiaria* genotypes will differ in their rhizosphere soil properties indicative of N and P
101 acquisition strategies manifested as differences in AMF root colonization and the activity of
102 acid and alkaline phosphomonoesterase. Furthermore, we tested the relation between changes
103 in P acquisition strategies (enzyme activity and AMF colonization) and BNI performance,
104 hypothesizing that higher P requirements will be found in high-BNI genotypes.

105 **Materials and Methods**

106 **Experimental site**

107 The study was conducted at the International Center for Tropical Agriculture (CIAT)
108 headquarters at Palmira (3°30'7"N 76°21'22"W), Colombia, within a long-term field
109 experiment comparing several forage grasses for their BNI ability over time (Subbarao et al.
110 2009). The altitude of the study area is around 1000 m.a.s.l, with mean annual precipitation of
111 894 mm and mean annual temperature of 24°C. The precipitation, minimum, maximum and
112 mean temperatures during the experimental period (February and March 2017) are shown in
113 Fig. 1. The soil was characterized as a Vertisol (Typic Pellustert) with a silty clay texture and
114 a pH of 7.4 (Subbarao et al. 2009).

115 **Treatments and sampling design**

116 The experiment was established in 2004 in a completely randomized block design with three
117 replicates per genotype, each with the plot area of 10 m². Three *Brachiaria* genotypes were
118 selected based on their contrasting BNI activity described in previous studies (Subbarao et al.
119 2009; Byrnes et al. 2017) conducted on the same experimental field. Only three *Brachiaria*
120 genotypes could be selected due to lack of long-term established field trials with a wider
121 range of genotypes. *Bracharia* hybrid cv 'Mulato' produces less BNI compounds while
122 *Brachiaria humidicola* CIAT 679 cv Tully (Bh 679) and *Brachiaria humidicola* CIAT 16888
123 (Bh 16888) showed high BNI activity that translated into low rate of nitrification in soil

124 (Subbarao et al. 2009; Byrnes et al. 2017). Every year since the establishment of the trial, all
125 genotypes were cut 20 cm above the soil surface twice a year: first harvest between February
126 and March and the second in August. After the harvest, the plots were fertilized with the
127 equivalent to 48 kg N ha⁻¹ as NH₄⁺ and 24, 8, 0.2 and 0.2 kg ha⁻¹ of K, P, Zn and B,
128 respectively. In the period 2010/17, the average value of dry weight of forage biomass
129 harvested every six months was 9.99, 9.90 and 8.77 Mg ha⁻¹ for Mulato, Bh 679 and Bh
130 16888, respectively. The amount of used fertilizer was calculated for maintenance of the trial.
131 Nevertheless, the plants regularly showed symptoms of mainly N deficiency prior to each
132 harvest and fertilization.

133 Within each experimental plot, a subplot of 1 m² was delimited for the present study.
134 The first set of samples was taken on 17 February 2017, six months after the last fertilization
135 when plants displayed N limitation manifested by reduced growth and yellow coloration of
136 the aerial biomass. Subplots were fertilized on 8 March 2017 with ammonium sulphate (100
137 kg N ha⁻¹) in order to promote the BNI ability of plants (BNI compounds release is triggered
138 when root is in contact with NH₄⁺ (Subbarao et al. 2007)) while no other nutrients were
139 supplemented. The second and third samplings were performed one week (15 March) and
140 three weeks (30 March) after N fertilization, respectively.

141 During each sampling, ten soil cores (five cm in diameter, 10 cm in depth) were taken
142 from each fertilized 1 m² subplot and soil samples along with plants and roots were
143 immediately transported to the CIAT laboratory at the same location where they were pooled
144 into one composite sample per subplot. Rhizosphere soil was separated from the bulk soil by
145 gentle shaking off the soil not adhering to the root system. Fine fresh roots were hand-picked
146 from the soil, washed and stored in ethanol (70%) until analysis of mycorrhizal root
147 colonization. Rhizosphere soil was separated from the rest of the roots and sieved (2 mm), a
148 subsample was air-dried for the analysis of soil chemical properties at CIAT laboratory. The

149 rest of the soil was stored at 4°C until the determination of microbial biomass and enzyme
150 activity in the Laboratory of Soil Science in Technical University of Madrid, Madrid, Spain.
151 Plant aboveground biomass was cut at 10 cm above the surface level before the first sampling,
152 oven-dried, weighed and stored for foliar analysis. During the two consecutive samplings, ten
153 newly emerging shoots were randomly selected from each subplot, oven-dried and stored for
154 foliar analysis. Foliar analysis was performed in the Laboratory of Soil Science in Technical
155 University of Madrid, Madrid, Spain.

156 **Soil microbial biomass and phosphomonoesterase activity**

157 The fumigation-extraction method was used for determining microbial biomass C (MBC) and
158 microbial biomass N (MBN) (Vance et al. 1987). Briefly, 15 g of moist soil was fumigated
159 with ethanol-free chloroform and organic C was extracted with 0.5 M K₂SO₄ (1:4) and
160 determined colorimetrically by measuring Cr³⁺ produced by reduction of Cr⁶⁺ (578nm) after
161 microwave digestion (Speedwave four, Berghof, Eningen, Germany) at 135°C for 30 minutes.
162 The content of N was quantified by Kjeldahl digestion of the extracts followed by steam
163 distillation (Bremner and Mulvaney 1982). Microbial biomass C and N were calculated as the
164 difference between the C and N content in fumigated and non-fumigated samples, divided by
165 0.38 (Joergensen 1996) and 0.54 (Brookes et al. 1985), respectively. The values of the
166 control, unfumigated, samples of MBC and MBN were used as extractable organic C (EOC)
167 and extractable N (EN), respectively.

168 For determination of MBP, the content of P was extracted from fumigated samples and
169 unfumigated controls with NaHCO₃ (1:4 w/v) and determined colorimetrically as described
170 by Joergensen (1995).

171 The potential activity of acid and alkaline phosphomonoesterase was determined
172 according to Tabatabai and Bremner (1969) by incubating fresh soil sample (0.5 g) with p-
173 nitrophenyl phosphate and MUB buffer (pH 6.5 and 11, respectively).

174 Potential nitrification rate (PNR) was estimated by aerobic soil incubation with the
175 methods described by Byrnes et al. (2017) and Karwat et al. (2017). The PNR assay has been
176 demonstrated to be a useful method to test the BNI activity in soils under different *Brachiaria*
177 genotypes (Nuñez et al. 2018). Briefly, three grams of homogenized air-dried soil (two days
178 drying at room temperature) were weighted into 10-ml amber flask with one hole in the cap.
179 Soil was amended with 0.8 ml of 27 mM ammonium sulphate to adjust the moisture content
180 to 60% of water holding capacity. Ammonium and NO₃⁻ contents were extracted with 1M
181 KCl (1:10 w/v) and determined after 4 and 12 days of incubation using the method described
182 below for NO₃⁻ determination. The PNR was expressed as NO₃⁻ production per kilogram of
183 soil per day and was calculated using [1] equation.

$$\text{PNR (mg NO}_3^- \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}) = [(\text{NO}_3^-_{t12}) - (\text{NO}_3^-_{t4})] / \text{days of incubation} \quad [1]$$

187 Where NO₃⁻_{t12} is the nitrate N content in the soil after 12 days of incubation and NO₃⁻_{t4} the
188 nitrate N content after 4 days of aerobic incubation.

189 **Mycorrhizal parameters**

190 Fine roots (at least hundred 1 cm root segments) that were stored in ethanol were washed and
191 cleared with 10% KOH for 30 minutes at 85°C and stained using ink-vinegar method
192 (Vierheilig et al. 1998) by heating the cleared roots for five minutes at 80°C in ink-vinegar
193 solution (5%). Stained roots were observed under microscope and percentage of AMF root
194 colonization was calculated based on the 100 views (McGonigle et al. 1990) and the results
195 reported as a percentage of AMF colonized root length. AMF spores were extracted from the
196 soil using wet-sieving and decanting method followed by sucrose gradient centrifugation
197 (Sieverding et al. 1991) and counted under stereomicroscope.

198 **Soil chemical properties**

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2 199 The content of soil organic C was calculated following the procedure of Hoogsteen et al.
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4 200 (2015) after quantifying the soil organic matter by loss on ignition at 540°C . Soil pH and
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7 201 electrical conductivity were determined in soil suspension (1:2.5 w/v) after one hour shaking.
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9 202 Available P was extracted from air-dried soil with Mehlich III (1:10 w/v) (Mehlich 1984) and
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12 203 determined by ICP-OES (THERMO ICAP 6500 DUO).

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14 204 Mineral N (N_{\min}) was extracted with 1M KCl (1:10 w/v) from the fresh-sieved soil right
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17 205 after sampling. The content of NH_4^+ was determined using sodium salicylate method (Forster
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19 206 1995) and NO_3^- was quantified colorimetrically after alkalization with sodium salicylate as
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22 207 described by Karwat et al. (2017). The content of N_{\min} corresponds to the sum of NH_4^+ -N and
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24 208 NO_3^- -N.

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27 209 **Soil P fractionation**

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30 210 Soil P was fractionated sequentially following a reduced methodology proposed by Hedley et
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32 211 al. (1982) using the following extractants with 0.5g of air-dried soil (<2mm): H_2O with anion
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35 212 exchange resin, 0.5M $NaHCO_3$ and 0.1M $NaOH$ (Tiessen and Moir 1993). The inorganic P in
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37 213 the extracts was determined using the colorimetric molybdate-ascorbic acid method proposed
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40 214 by Murphy and Riley (1962) as described in Tiessen and Moir (1993). Total P in the $NaOH$
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42 215 and $NaHCO_3$ extracts was determined after the digestion of an extract aliquot with 0.6 g of
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45 216 potassium persulfate (Bowman 1989). In the $NaOH$ and $NaHCO_3$ extracts, organic P was
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47 217 calculated as the difference between total P and inorganic P.
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50 218 **Foliar analysis**

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53 219 Foliar nutrients content was determined by acid digestion of 0.4 g of dried biomass with
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55 220 hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) and nitric acid (HNO_3) in microwave (Speedwave four, Berghof,
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58 221 Eningen, Germany) by heating to 145°C (10 min ramp) for five minutes followed by heating
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222 to 190°C (five min ramp) for 10 min. Nutrient contents were then analyzed using ICP-OES
223 (THERMO ICAP 6500 DUO). Nitrogen content was quantified using Kjeldahl apparatus.

224 **Statistical analysis**

225 Data were analyzed statically using SPSS 22.0 program (IBM SPSS, Inc., Chicago, USA)
226 using Linear Mixed Model using plant genotype and sampling days as fixed factors, while
227 each field plot was considered as a random factor in which time was nested as a repeated
228 measurement. Several models with different covariance structure were carried out and the
229 most appropriate fit was selected according to the lowest Akaike's information criterion.
230 When a significant effect was detected ($p < 0.05$), the LSD post-hoc tests ($p < 0.05$) were used
231 to test the differences between the different plant genotypes and sampling days. For
232 identification of the main drivers of the foliar N, P and N:P contents, separate stepwise
233 regressions were applied for each plant genotype separately. The stepping criteria employed
234 for the entry and removal were based on the significance level of the F-value and set at 0.05.
235 In addition, multiple stepwise regressions were used to analyze the effect of the measured soil
236 parameters on the AMF root colonization, spore abundance and both phosphomonoesterase
237 activities.

238 **Results**

239 **Soil chemical properties**

240 After thirteen years of the field experiment, different *Brachiaria* genotypes have had
241 significant effects on soil properties. The soil under *Brachiaria* hybrid cv. Mulato had higher
242 soil pH (by 0.7 units) when compared with both *Brachiaria humidicola* genotypes (Table 1).
243 On the other hand, the rhizosphere soil of Mulato contained the lowest amount of organic C
244 and TN.

245 The prevailing mineral N form under all three genotypes was NH_4^+ , while NO_3^-
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2 246 contents remained low throughout the study period (Fig. 2) with no significant difference
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4 247 among genotypes before the application of N fertilizer. Nevertheless, a significant ($p < 0.05$)
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7 248 difference was observed at one week after application of ammonium-based fertilizer (March
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9 249 15th), when soil NH_4^+ content under Bh 679 increased to 83.8 mg $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N kg}^{-1}$ and under
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12 250 Mulato to 65.3 mg $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N kg}^{-1}$, but remained low (29.9 mg $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N kg}^{-1}$) under Bh 16888
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14 251 genotype. Three weeks after fertilization (March 30th), soil NH_4^+ content under all genotypes
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17 252 was comparable. The NO_3^- content remained relatively low even after fertilization, but was
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19 253 slightly higher in Bh 16888 when compared to Bh 679 or Mulato ($p < 0.05$). Potential
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22 254 nitrification rate observed during aerobic incubation with $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ was the highest in the
23
24 255 low-BNI Mulato.

256 **Soil microbial biomass**

257 Microbial biomass C was affected by genotype (Table 2) and it was significantly higher in Bh
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30 257 16888 when compared to Mulato or Bh 679. Although there was no significant effect of
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32 258 sampling date, the interaction revealed distinct pattern between all three genotypes: while
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35 259 under Mulato and Bh 679 the MBC content dropped one week after fertilization and raised
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37 260 again two weeks later, the MBC in fields under Bh 16888 increased slightly after fertilization
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40 261 reaching to values that were twice as high as the other genotypes (Table 2). The MBN under
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42 262 Mulato was steadily increasing during the study period raising from 73.6 mg kg^{-1} prior to
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44 263 fertilization to 134.3 mg kg^{-1} at three weeks after fertilization. On the other hand, both high-
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47 264 BNI genotypes followed similar trend increasing the values one week after fertilization but
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50 265 dropping the values significantly three weeks after NH_4^+ application (Table 2). Similarly to
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52 266 MBN, the content of MBP was only affected by the interaction between genotype and
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54 267 sampling date (Table 2). While the MBP was slightly decreasing in time under Mulato, in
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57 268 case of Bh 679 and Bh 16888 it reached the highest values at three weeks after N application.
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270 While the MBC:MBN ratio was affected by genotype (the highest in Bh 16888) and
271 by sampling date (the lowest at one week and the highest at three weeks after fertilization,
272 respectively), the ratios of MBC:MBP and MBN:MBP were only affected by the interaction
273 (Table 2). In both cases, the initial ratios observed were the highest in Bh 679 and the lowest
274 in Mulato. During the study period, the ratios under Mulato were increasing continuously
275 while under Bh 679 they were decreasing. Thus, at three weeks after fertilization, both
276 MBC:MBP and MBN:MBP were the highest in Mulato fields and were the lowest in Bh 679
277 (Table 2).

278 **Phosphorus fractionation**

279 Despite the relatively high available P content in soil, a significant effect of genotype was
280 observed in the most available Pi fraction (Resin-Pi), which was decreased under-high BNI
281 genotypes and this difference was most evident after N fertilization (Fig. 4). Despite the
282 apparent decreasing trend in the less available Pi fractions (Bic Pi and NaOH-Pi) in Bh 679
283 and Bh 16888, this effect was not significant. Although there was no effect of genotype or
284 sampling date observed in the H₂O-extractable P, the two following most-labile fractions were
285 significantly higher in high-BNI *Brachiaria* grasses as well as the sum of total Po.

286 **Foliar nutrient content**

287 The foliar N content was significantly increased by N fertilization (Fig. 5), with the highest
288 increase observed with Bh 679 where fertilization augmented the foliar N content from initial
289 0.86% to 3.36% at one week after fertilization. The foliar N content in Mulato and Bh 16888
290 increased much less after fertilization and reached values of 2.51 and 1.85, respectively.
291 Unlike foliar N content, foliar P content was not affected by genotype and was significantly
292 increased one week after fertilization, with significant positive correlation ($r=0.715$; $p<0.001$)
293 between foliar N and P contents. The N:P ratio was the highest in Bh 679 but it was the

294 lowest in Bh 16888 and it significantly increased after the application of N fertilizer being the
295 highest at one week after fertilization and the lowest before N fertilizer application (Fig. 5).

296 Stepwise variable elimination analysis revealed significant role of mycorrhizal
297 parameters in foliar N content of both high-BNI genotypes, explaining 81% and 57% of the
298 variability in Bh 679 and Bh 16888, respectively (Table 3). Similarly, the P uptake of Bh 679
299 also seemed to be related to spore abundance in soil which explained 59% of the variability.
300 On the other hand, the foliar P content of Mulato was only negatively related to alkaline
301 phosphomonoesterase activity which explained 54% of the variability.

302 **Mycorrhizal parameters and phosphomonoesterase activity**

303 The percentage of root colonization with AMF was influenced by the genotype, with higher
304 colonization observed in both high-BNI treatments when compared to the low-BNI treatment
305 Mulato (Fig. 3). Furthermore, this difference was strengthened after fertilization, when both
306 high-BNI genotypes increased root colonization of AMF to values around 80% while the
307 colonization of Mulato roots remained without significant change. The AMF spore abundance
308 was the highest in the soil under Bh 679 and Bh 16888 and it increased with time in all three
309 genotypes.

310 AMF root colonization was positively correlated with spore abundance ($r=0.464$,
311 $p<0.05$) and with acid phosphomonoesterase activity ($r=0.397$, $p<0.05$) and negatively
312 correlated with PNR ($r= -0.652$, $p<0.001$) (Fig. 3). Nevertheless, in the stepwise variable
313 elimination analysis root colonization was better explained (67%, $p<0.001$) by soil pH, Bic-
314 Po and exchangeable NH_4^+ content. Both exchangeable NH_4^+ and Bic-Po explained also 60%
315 of the variability of spore abundance in the soil (Table 4). Acid phosphomonoesterase activity
316 was positively correlated to related to soil organic C content and to negatively correlated to
317 MBP and PNN (Table 4).

318 **Discussion**

319 **Potential nitrification rate and soil nitrogen dynamics**

320 In agreement with previous studies (Subbarao et al. 2009; Byrnes et al. 2017; Karwat et al.
321 2017; Nuñez et al. 2018) the potential net nitrification rate was strongly suppressed by both
322 Bh genotypes resulting in negative values, indicating slight immobilization of NO_3^- or losses
323 due to denitrification. Considering the preference of soil microorganisms for NH_4^+ over NO_3^-
324 and high availability of exchangeable NH_4^+ in the N fertilized soil, immobilization of NO_3^- is
325 less likely but could possibly occur in microsites where NH_4^+ was exhausted. Nevertheless,
326 soil under both Bh 679 and Bh 16888 contained significantly higher total organic C content as
327 well as EOC, suggesting that immobilization of N due to increased availability of C-rich
328 substrate for heterotrophs could be an additional mechanism of these tropical grasses to lower
329 N losses and to improve N-use efficiency by increasing organic matter input to the soil and
330 root exudation. In field, rapid immobilization of ^{15}N in applied fertilizer in *Brachiaria*
331 pastures has been observed and the potential role of higher organic C content in *Brachiaria*
332 fields in the stimulation of denitrification activity has recently been suggested (Karwat et al.
333 2017). Despite the rapidly increasing body of literature focusing on BNI impact on nitrifiers,
334 other groups affecting the N balance and N losses in the soil, such as denitrifiers or
335 immobilizing heterotrophs, have received less attention.

336 One week after the field fertilization with ammonium sulphate, higher exchangeable
337 NH_4^+ content in high-BNI plots was expected along with low amount of NO_3^- , which was,
338 however, not detected. The content of exchangeable NH_4^+ and NO_3^- in plots under Bh 679
339 was more similar to contents under Mulato, the low-BNI genotype. Such a discrepancy
340 between NO_3^- production under laboratory conditions and field observations could be the
341 result of the direct effect of plant roots, which can have significant impact on dynamic N
342 transformations in the rhizosphere through preferential uptake of N from NO_3^- or NH_4^+ forms

343 or root exudates of variable nature. The exchangeable NH_4^+ content in the rhizosphere soil of
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2 344 Bh 16888 before fertilization was slightly but significantly higher when compared to Bh 679.
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4 345 As the release of BNI compounds is triggered by root contact with NH_4^+ , more exudation of
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7 346 such compounds from roots of Bh 16888 could be expected, which is in line with previous
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9 347 studies (Subbarao et al. 2009). Furthermore, the rhizosphere of Bh 16888 contained
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11 348 considerably larger pool of both EOC and MBC, which are considered labile C pools. Rapid
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13 349 microbial turnover and active microbial biomass in the rhizosphere could serve as a temporal
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15 350 sink of N. Indeed, the microbial immobilization of applied N seemed to be higher in Bh
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17 351 16888 when compared to other *Brachiaria* genotypes as reflected in higher MBN at one week
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19 352 after fertilization. Thus, maintaining higher microbial biomass in the rhizosphere of Bh 16888
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21 353 may be an additional strategy to enhance nutrient uptake due to the maintenance of a
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23 354 microbial ‘safety-net’ for capturing and temporal storage of N in the root zone.
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29 355 The foliar N content of all three *Brachiaria* grasses increased rapidly after the
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31 356 fertilization suggesting a strong limitation of plant growth due to low N availability before
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33 357 fertilization. Furthermore, the N content in the aboveground biomass strongly correlated
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35 358 ($r=0.766$; $p<0.001$) with the exchangeable NH_4^+ content of soil, indicating preferential uptake
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37 359 of NH_4^+ over NO_3^- by *Brachiaria* grasses. The highest relative increase of foliar N content
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39 360 was observed in Bh 679 at one week after fertilization when N content in the leaves of Bh
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41 361 16888 was detected to be the lowest of all three genotypes, which could be at least partly
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43 362 explained by temporal N immobilization in the rhizosphere of Bh 16888. Clearly, differences
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45 363 in other traits (besides BNI capacity) and their direct or indirect impacts on nutrient
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47 364 transformations deserve more attention as certain discrepancies between genotypes were
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49 365 detected.
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366 **AMF colonization as an indication of higher P and/or N requirements**

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2 367 Although the AMF root colonization may fluctuate in time due seasonal changes (increasing
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4 368 precipitation after N fertilization), the root colonization of low-BNI Mulato did not change in
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7 369 time while the colonization of both high-BNI genotypes increased between the first and the
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10 370 second sampling (Fig. 3). Thus, the differences between genotypes could be observed based
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12 371 on the different responses to N application under the same environmental conditions. Thus, at
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14 372 least under the circumstances (after N fertilization accompanied by increased rainfall) and
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17 373 within the time frame of our short-duration experiment, higher AMF colonization of both
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19 374 high-BNI genotypes confirms our hypothesis of higher AMF symbiosis of high-BNI
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22 375 genotypes.

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24 376 AMF root colonization has been widely used as an indicator of enhanced P
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26 377 requirements of plants. The outcome of the symbiosis between higher plants and AMF
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29 378 depends on large amount of both biotic and abiotic variables (Yang et al. 2016) with N:P
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32 379 stoichiometry being the key factor determining the benefit of exchange between both
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34 380 symbionts (Johnson et al. 2015). While BNI is considered to be a plants strategy to increase N
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36 381 availability, enhanced demand for other nutrients could be expected in high-BNI plants. Both
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39 382 high-BNI genotypes of *B. humidicola* presented higher AMF root colonization when
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41 383 compared to low-BNI Mulato. Nevertheless, the evaluation of biomass production of all
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44 384 genotypes should be included in the future studies to determine whether enhanced P
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46 385 requirements originate from improved N use efficiency or from higher biomass production,
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49 386 which was not determined in the present study due to the limitation of the short duration of
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51 387 the experiment. Nevertheless, no significant differences in annual biomass production among
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54 388 different genotypes have been observed in the long-term evaluation of the same field trial
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56 389 (data reported in the Material and Methods section).

390 The increased P requirements of high-BNI genotypes manifested in higher AMF
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2 391 colonization, was also reflected in relative depletion of labile P pools in the rhizosphere of
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4 392 high-BNI genotypes when compared to low-BNI Mulato. Although the amounts of the most
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7 393 labile inorganic P pool (Pi-resin) and total Pi pool were comparable in all three genotypes in
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9 394 the first sampling, significant differences between (low-BNI) Mulato and high-BNI genotypes
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12 395 were detected in the subsequent samplings, which could indicate higher P uptake by high-BNI
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14 396 plants.

16 397 Significant correlation ($r=0.553$, $p<0.001$) was also found between foliar N content and
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19 398 AMF spore abundance in the soil. Although the extension of AMF in the soil and its capacity
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22 399 to reach to zones that are more remote from the plant roots depends rather on the extent of
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24 400 mycelium growth, the spore abundance could serve as a proxy of fungal biomass to some
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26 401 extent. On the other hand, intensive sporulation could be a sign of stressful conditions. In
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29 402 many tropical grasslands, the nutrients are scarce and in the majority of cases these are
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31 403 applied in the form of cattle urine/dung depositions in high concentrations in small patches.
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34 404 We observed the increase of spore abundance under all three genotypes in time, which could
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36 405 be related to temporal competition for nutrients between plant roots and AMF. Enhanced
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39 406 sporulation could also be an adaptive strategy of AMF as higher number of AMF propagules
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41 407 in soils may offer the fungi faster reaction to the subsequent N additions. The uptake of NH_4^+
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43 408 (with low mobility) in the soil could therefore be mediated by the mycorrhizal symbiosis, as
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45
46 409 already suggested (Corrêa et al. 2015). Indeed, mycorrhizal parameters explained 81% and
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48
49 410 57% of foliar N content variability in Bh 679 and Bh 16888, respectively. Higher importance
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51 411 of mycorrhizal symbiosis in N rather than P uptake has been suggested (Atul-Nayyar et al.
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53 412 2009) and N deficiency has been found to promote symbiosis even in P-rich soils (Blanke et
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55
56 413 al. 2005). Nevertheless, in the Mulato genotype no such effect was detected and mycorrhizal
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58 414 symbiosis seems to have had a lower effect on nutrient uptake by low-BNI Mulato.
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415 On the other hand, higher abundance of AMF in the rhizosphere of high-BNI genotypes
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2 416 could also affect the abundance and activity of other soil biota, including NH_4^+ -oxidizers
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4 417 (Amora-Lazcano et al. 1998; Cavagnaro et al. 2007; Veresoglou et al. 2011). It has been
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7 418 speculated that AMF preference for NH_4^+ could lead to a reduction of the abundance of less-
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9 419 competitive NH_4^+ -oxidizers (Bollmann et al. 2002). Thus, lower NO_3^- production rates
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11 420 observed previously (Subbarao et al. 2009; Byrnes et al. 2017) as well as in the present study
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13 421 could be caused by BNI capacity and/or by the abundance of AMF being an important NH_4^+
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16 422 sink.

19 423 In agreement with our hypothesis, higher AMF root colonization was found in high-BNI
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21 424 genotypes when compared to low-BNI Mulato, where soil PNR was much higher.
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23 425 Furthermore, the positive correlation between the foliar N content and mycorrhizal root
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25 426 colonization of high-BNI genotypes indicates increased availability of N as a result of BNI
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27 427 and uptake of NH_4^+ by AMF followed by transfer of N to the host plant and/or enhanced P
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29 428 demand as a result of enhanced N uptake and the role of AMF in P nutrition even in soils
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32 429 relatively high in P.
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37 430 **Soil phosphomonoesterase as an indication of P requirements**

39 431 Soil phosphomonoesterases originate from a wide range of sources ranging from root exudation or
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41 432 are produced by soil biota in order to hydrolyse ester-phosphate bonds for releasing phosphate
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43 433 available to plants and soil microorganisms (Quiquampoix and Mousain 2005). Thus, the
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45 434 phosphomonoesterase activities in soil could be used as an indicator of P requirement of
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47 435 plants or associated soil biota.
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51 436 On the other hand, alkaline phosphomonoesterase has not been observed to be released
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53 437 by plant roots (Joner and Jakobsen 1995) and is therefore considered to be produced by soil
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55 438 bacteria and other soil microorganisms. Unlike in high-BNI Bh genotypes, the P foliar content
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57 439 of low-BNI Mulato could only be statistically explained by alkaline phosphomonoesterase
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440 (54%, $p < 0.05$). Nevertheless, the correlation between foliar P content and the activity of
441 alkaline phosphomonoesterase was negative, suggesting that P stress did not reflect in
442 enhanced P uptake by plant roots. Under some circumstances microbial communities could
443 compete with the plant for P in the rhizosphere as a strong negative correlation ($r = -0.686$,
444 $p < 0.05$) was found between alkaline phosphomonoesterase activity and bicarbonate-
445 extractable inorganic P, which is the second most available inorganic P fraction.

446 Although generally considered being dependent on soil pH (Acosta-Martínez and
447 Tabatabai 2000), we found strong effects of soil organic C content, MBP and PNN, which
448 together explained 79% of acid phosphomonoesterase variability in the stepwise regression
449 analysis. The dependence of acid phosphomonoesterase on organic C content has been
450 observed previously (Margalef et al., 2017) as well as its relation with the type of root exudate
451 stimulating microbial activity (Renella et al. 2007; Nannipieri et al. 2008). The higher activity
452 of acid phosphomonoesterase confirms our hypothesis related to enhanced P requirement of
453 high-BNI genotypes as a consequence of improved N uptake.

454 Due to the lack of established BNI trials with a wider range of *Brachiaria* genotypes,
455 only three genotypes could be included in the present study. Nevertheless, the obtained results
456 indicate high dependency of *Brachiaria* on AMF which could play a crucial role in N and P
457 management with implications for nutrient losses reduction, regardless of the soil P content.
458 Furthermore, the differences between the two selected high-BNI genotypes indicate that the
459 variability in other traits (besides BNI ability) among *Brachiaria* genotypes deserves further
460 attention in the future BNI studies.

461 **Conclusions**

462 This study aimed to reveal, for the first time, possible relationships between BNI by tropical
463 *Brachiaria* pasture grasses and arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in the rhizosphere as well as to

464 understand the relative underlying mechanisms. We observed high mycorrhization of high-
1
2 465 BNI *Brachiaria* grasses in P-rich soil, which was further stimulated by the application of
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5 466 ammonium-based fertilizer. Such an increase of root colonization (only in high-BNI
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7 467 genotypes, no difference observed with low-BNI Mulato) seemed to be related to enhanced
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10 468 uptake of both N and P from the rhizosphere. Furthermore, the mycorrhizal symbiosis in
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12 469 *Brachiaria humidicola*, known for its strong suppressive effect on nitrification in soil, seemed
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14 470 to be driven by N limitations rather than P limitations, at least in the soil type under study.
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17 471 Since NH_4^+ is the primary N source of *Brachiaria* grasses, the possible role of AMF in the
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19 472 uptake of rather immobile NH_4^+ deserves more attention. In addition, the rhizosphere of
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22 473 highly mycorrhizal high-BNI genotypes had higher acid phosphomonoesterase activity and
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24 474 reduced the most available P fractions, which could be interpreted as increased uptake
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27 475 requirements of plant-microbe associations when compared to low-BNI Mulato. The potential
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29 476 impacts on nutrient use efficiencies in agroecosystems deserve more attention in the future
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32 477 studies. Selection of a wider range of soil types including more P limited soils and inclusion
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34 478 of more genotypes is needed to gain a better insight into the relationship between BNI and
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36 479 AMF symbiosis. Furthermore, this study reveals patterns which need further and more robust
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39 480 confirmation by testing a wider range of low- and high-BNI germplasm accessions and
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41 481 hybrids in order to identify other possible traits (besides BNI ability) which influence
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44 482 *Brachiaria*-AMF interactions.

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7 491 fractionation analysis.
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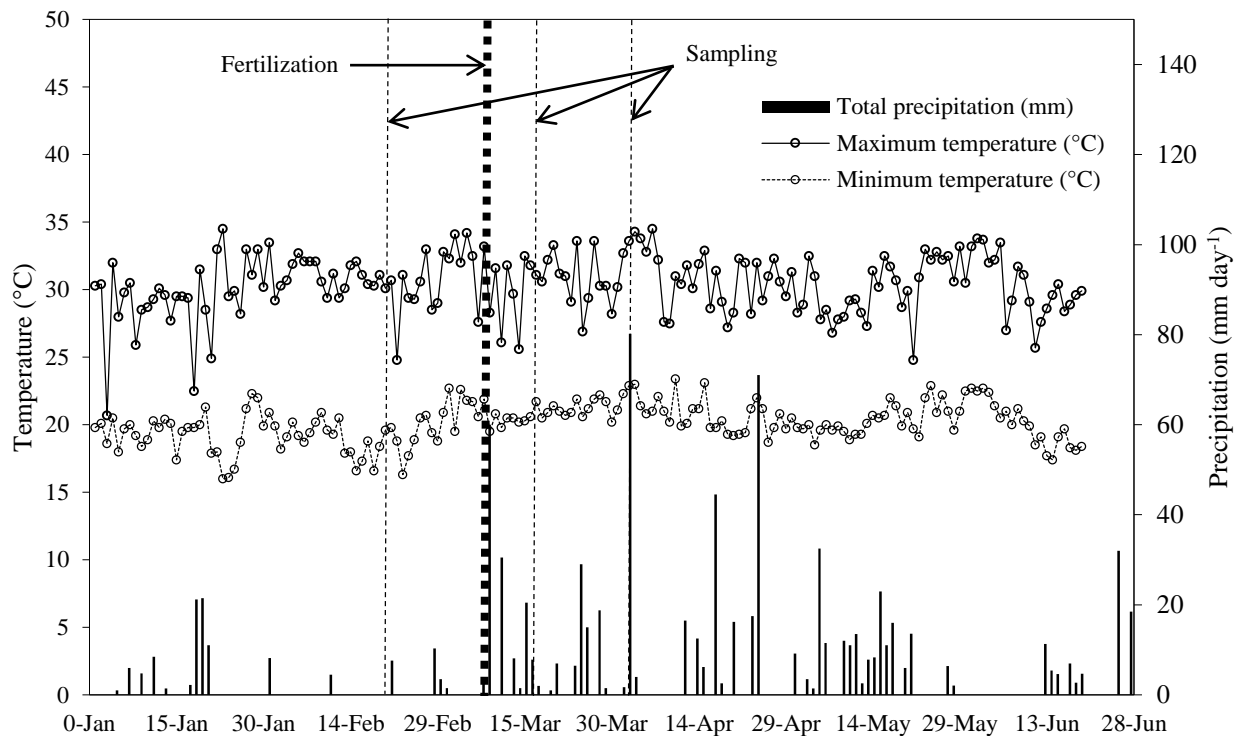


Fig. 1 Maximum and minimum temperatures and precipitation between January 2017 and June 2017 at the experimental site of CIAT-Palmira, Colombia.

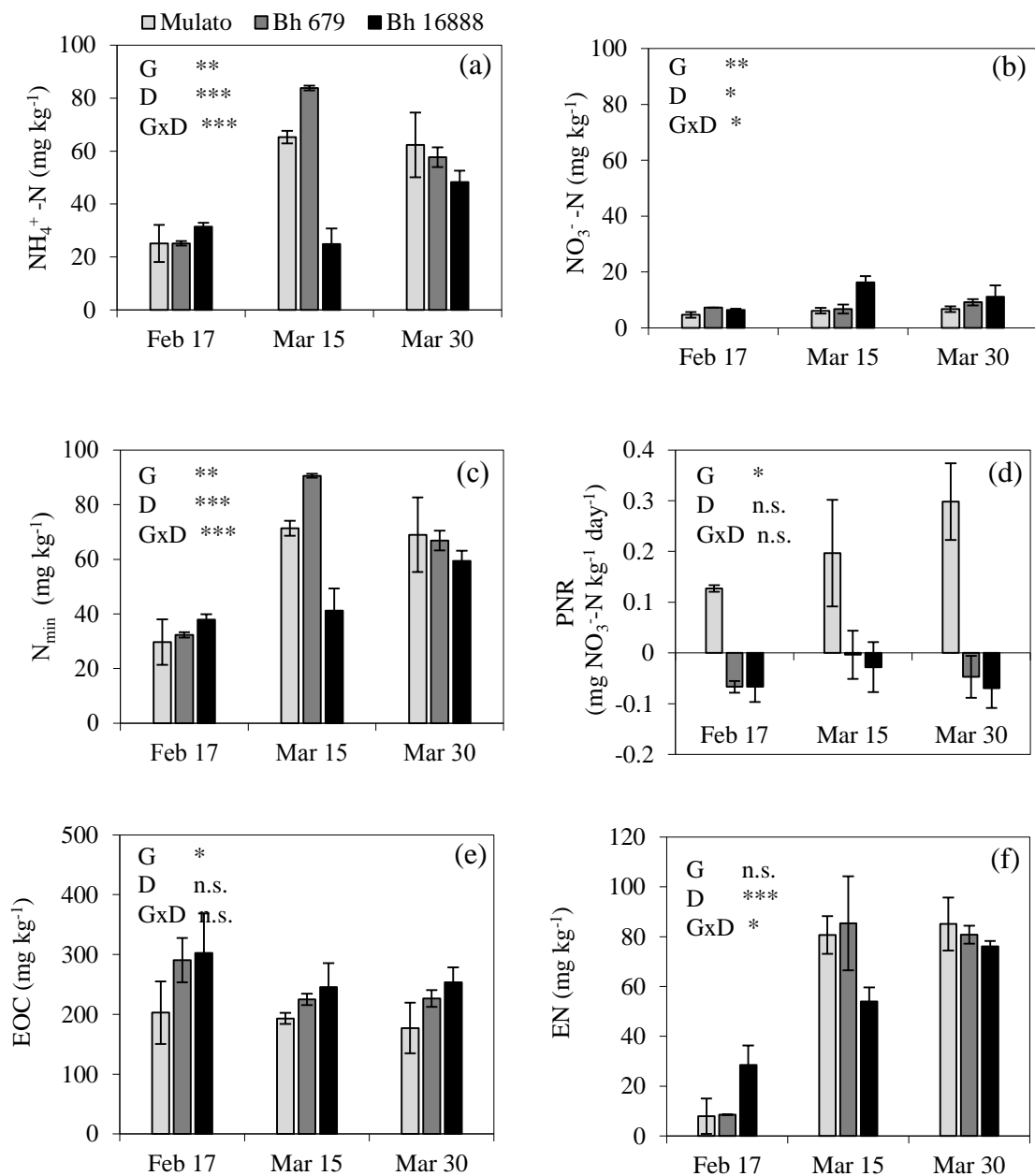


Fig. 2 Effects of genotype (G) and sampling date (D) on ammonium (a), nitrate (b), total inorganic N content (c), potential nitrification rate (d), extractable organic C (d) and extractable N (f). Mulato represents the low-BNI genotype while Bh 679 and Bh 16888 are considered to be medium-high BNI genotypes. Bars indicate standard error of the mean (n=3). * indicates statistically significant effect at $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

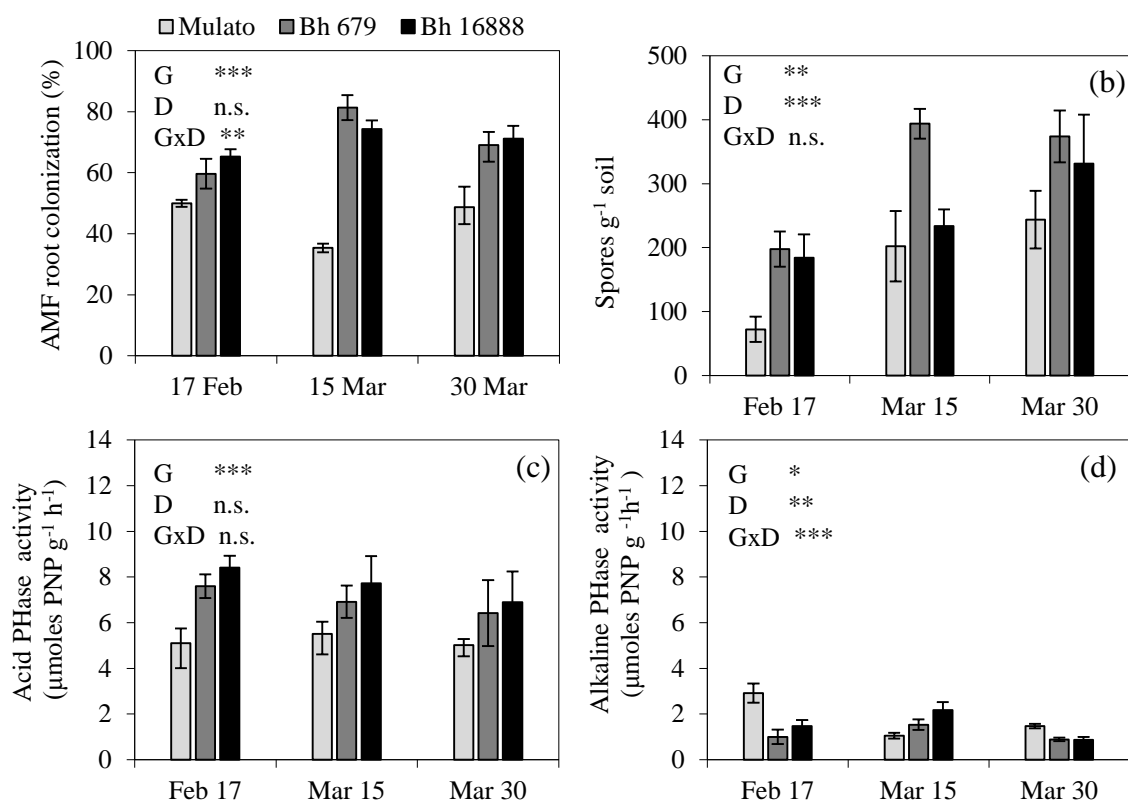


Fig. 3 Effects of genotype (G) and sampling date (D) on root mycorrhizal colonization (a), AMF spore abundance (b), acid (c) and alkaline (d) phosphomonoesterase activities. PHase, phosphomonoesterase. Mulato represents the low-BNI genotype while Bh 679 and Bh 16888 are considered to be the medium-high BNI genotypes. Bars indicate standard error of the mean (n=3). * indicates statistically significant effect at p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001.

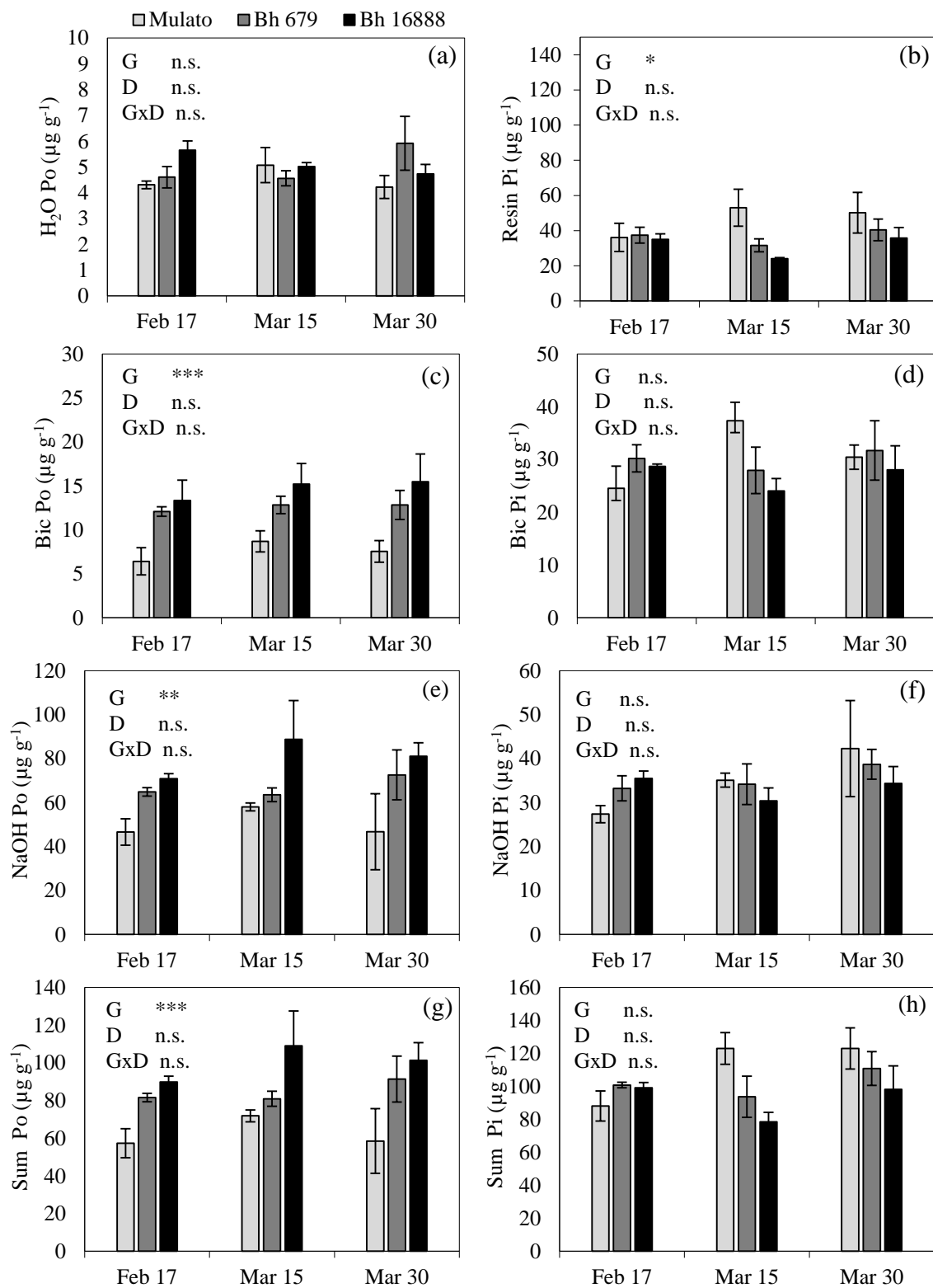


Fig. 4 Effects of genotype (G) and sampling date (D) on water-extractable organic P (a), resin-extractable inorganic P (b), Na₂CO₃-extractable organic (c) and inorganic (d) P, NaOH-extractable organic (e) and inorganic (f) P and the total sum of organic (g) and inorganic (h) P fractions. Mulato represents the low-BNI genotype while Bh 679 and Bh 16888 are considered to be the medium-high BNI genotypes. Bars indicate standard error of the mean (n=3). * indicates statistically significant effect at p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001.

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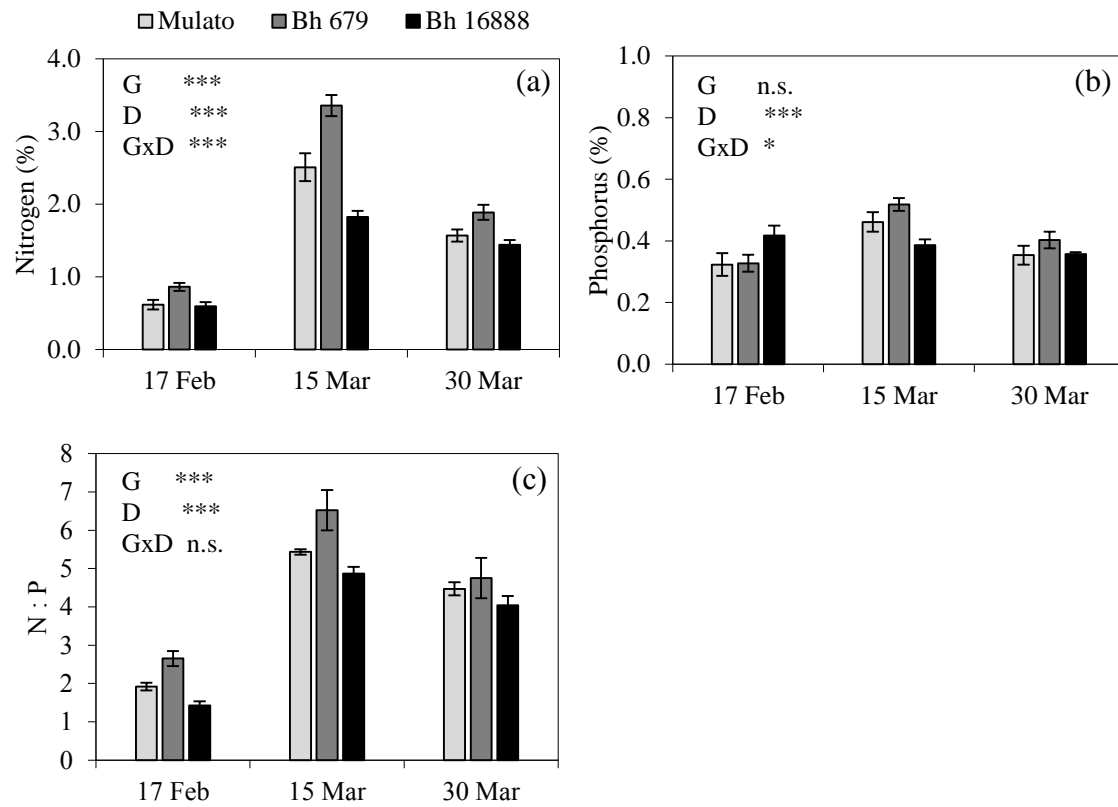


Fig. 5 Effects of genotype (G) and sampling date (D) on foliar N (a) and P (b) content and N:P ratio (c). Mulato represents the low-BNI genotype while Bh 679 and Bh 16888 are considered to be the medium-high BNI genotypes. indicate standard error of the mean (n=3). * indicates statistically significant effect at p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001.

Table 1

Rhizosphere soil (0-10 cm) chemical properties as influenced by the growth of three different *Brachiaria* grasses that were established in 2004 at Palmira, Colombia (CIAT Headquarters). Mulato represents the low-BNI genotype while Bh 679 and Bh 16888 are considered to be the medium-high BNI genotypes.

	pH _(H2O)	EC ($\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$)	C _{org} (%)	TN (%)	P _{av} (mg kg^{-1})
Mulato	6.26 \pm 0.24a	263 \pm 49a	2.39 \pm 0.26b	0.17 \pm 0.01b	57.60 \pm 5.70a
Bh 679	5.54 \pm 0.10b	249 \pm 12a	3.49 \pm 0.22a	0.19 \pm 0.01a	44.60 \pm 2.73b
Bh 16888	5.66 \pm 0.10b	304 \pm 19a	3.75 \pm 0.26a	0.22 \pm 0.01a	39.78 \pm 2.73b

C_{org}, soil organic C; TN, total N; P_{av}, Mehlich III extractable P

Means \pm SE. Different letters indicate significant difference ($p < 0.05$).

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Table 2

The effects of plant genotype (G) and sampling date (D) on soil microbial biomass C (MBC), microbial biomass N (MBN), microbial biomass P (MBP) and their ratios. Mulato represents the low-BNI genotype while Bh 679 and Bh 16888 are considered to be the medium-high BNI genotypes.

	MBC	MBN	MBP	MBC:MBN	MBC:MBP	MBN:MBP
	(mg kg ⁻¹)					
<i>17th February</i>						
Mulato	375.12	73.59	135.18	5.22	3.20	0.66
679	493.58	85.35	41.57	5.78	15.60	2.77
16888	551.04	98.75	103.23	6.33	5.96	1.13
<i>15th March</i>						
Mulato	303.72	107.85	109.81	2.75	2.70	0.98
679	347.23	105.49	62.67	2.38	5.02	2.04
16888	678.65	112.33	74.30	6.24	10.98	1.82
<i>30th March</i>						
Mulato	585.81	134.32	96.20	4.34	7.14	1.55
679	396.80	44.07	141.05	10.00	2.91	0.33
16888	588.63	65.60	159.90	11.76	4.01	0.41
G	***	n.s.	n.s.	*	n.s.	n.s.
D	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	**	n.s.	n.s.
GxD	*	*	**	n.s.	*	*

* indicates difference at p<0.05, ** at p<0.01, *** at p<0.001; n.s. not significant

Table 3

Multiple regression analysis for identification of the relationships between foliar P and N contents of three *Brachiaria* genotypes, acid and alkaline phosphomonoesterase activities and mycorrhizae parameters. The values are constants or coefficients in the fitted equation $Y=a+bx_1+cx_2+dx_3...$ where Y is the foliar nutrient content and $x_1, x_2, x_3 ...$ are the independent variables. Mulato represents the low-BNI genotype while Bh 679 and Bh 16888 are considered to be the medium-high BNI genotypes.

	Constant	Root Colonization	Spore density	Acid phosphomonoesterase	Alkaline	R ²	p-value (model)
<i>Foliar P content</i>							
Mulato	4936.35	-	-	-	-630.70	0.54	*
Bh 679	20003.20	-	6.71	-	-	0.59	*
Bh 16888	-	-	-	-	-	-	n.s.
<i>Foliar N content</i>							
Mulato	-	-	-	-	-	-	n.s.
Bh 679	-32030.73	491.74	55.79	-	-	0.81	**
Bh 16888	-36409.99	704.09	-	-	-	0.57	*
<i>Foliar N:P ratio</i>							
Mulato	6.72	-	-	-	-1.54	0.82	***
Bh 679	0.51	-	0.01	-	-	0.55	*
Bh 16888	-9.47	0.18	-	-	-	0.54	*

p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table 4

Multiple regression analysis for the identification of the main soil parameters controlling AMF root colonization, spore abundance and acid and alkaline phosphatase activity. The values are constants or coefficients in the fitted equation $Y=a+bx_1+cx_2+dx_3...$ where Y is the dependent variable and $x_1, x_2, x_3 ...$ are the independent variables

	Constant	SOC	pH	Bic-Pi	Bic-Po	MBP	NH ₄ ⁺	PNN	R ²	p-value (model)
Root Colonization	243.71		-25.85	-1.50			0.21		0.67	***
Spore abundance	-74.08				14.69		3.22		0.60	***
Acid PHase	2.67	0.65				-0.01		-3.51	0.79	***
Alkaline PHase									-	n.s.

Discarded parameters (p<0.05) were MBC, MBN, EOC, EN, NO₃⁻, Nt, H₂O-Po, Resin-Pi, NaOH-Po and NaOH-Pi.

SOC Soil organic matter (Loss of ignition at 540°C); *Bic-Pi* bicarbonate-extractable inorganic P; *Bic-Po* bicarbonate extractable organic P; *MBP* microbial biomass P; *PNN* potential nitrification rate; *PHase* phosphomonoesterase activity. p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001, n.s. not significant.

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