

# Agronomy for Sustainable Development

## First evidence for a major cover crop effect on arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and organic maize growth.

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<b>Author Comments:</b>	Dear Editor, I am sending the revised version of the MS "First evidence for a major cover crop effect

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1 **First evidence for a major cover crop effect on arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and organic maize**  
2 **growth**

3  
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12  
13 **Abstract**

14 Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi are increasingly used in organic cropping systems to increase yields.  
15 Although cover crops are largely used in organic farming, there is little knowledge on the impact of cover  
16 crops on native mycorrhizal fungi. Here we studied the effect of cover crop diversity on mycorrhizal  
17 colonization in subsequent organic maize cultivars differing in the level of genetic diversity. Experiments  
18 were conducted from 2010 to 2012 in a Mediterranean environment. First Indian mustard (*Brassica juncea*  
19 L. Czern.), hairy vetch (*Vicia villosa* Roth), a mix of seven cover crop species (Mix) and natural vegetation  
20 (Control) were cultivated as winter cover crops. Then an organically and a conventionally bred maize  
21 hybrid, and three organically bred composite cross populations were cultivated. Mycorrhizal propagule  
22 dynamics were measured. Results at juvenile stage show a higher mycorrhizal colonization in maize plants  
23 grown after hairy vetch, of 35.0%, and Mix cover crops, of 29.4%, compared to Indian mustard, of 20.9%,  
24 and Control, of 21.3%. The potential of soil mycorrhization decreased of 56.5% following Indian mustard,  
25 higher than that of other cover crops, of 34.1-47.3%. This finding could be explained by the release of  
26 isothiocyanates in soils. Moreover, maize shoot biomass, nitrogen and phosphorus content across all maize  
27 genotypes at juvenile stage increased with mycorrhizal colonization. These findings provide the first  
28 evidence of the greater role played by cover crop identity in the enhancement of early mycorrhizal  
29 colonization of the subsequent crop and of soil mycorrhizal activity.

30

31 **Keywords** Cover crops – Organic agriculture – Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi – Maize genotypes – Crop  
32 diversity – Mycorrhizal inoculum potential

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34

## 35 **1 Introduction**

36 Beneficial soil biota provide essential ecological services and represent key elements of soil fertility and  
37 productivity in organic farming systems (Pimentel et al. 1997). Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF)  
38 belong to one of the most important groups of beneficial soil biota, establishing mutualistic symbioses with  
39 the roots of most land plants, including the large majority of agricultural crops (Smith and Read 2008).  
40 AMF deliver many essential agroecosystem services, such as nutrient uptake, soil aggregation and carbon  
41 sequestration (Gianinazzi et al. 2010), by means of an extensive extraradical hyphal network spreading  
42 from colonized roots into the soil (Avio et al. 2006; Fortuna et al. 2012) and have been regarded as  
43 ‘agroecosystem engineers’ (Rinaudo et al. 2010). In addition, AMF increase plant resistance to biotic and  
44 abiotic stresses (Smith and Read 2008) and affect the synthesis of beneficial plant secondary metabolites,  
45 contributing to the production of safe and high quality food (Giovannetti et al. 2012).

46 AMF exploitation as biofertilisers has been implemented by the deliberate release of exotic strains  
47 into agroecosystems (Gianinazzi et al. 2010). Less attention has been focused on the possibility of raising  
48 inoculum potential of AMF indigenous strains by appropriate agricultural management practices. Such a  
49 strategy would be fundamental in low-input and organic farming, which rely more on agroecological  
50 approaches than on the use of external inputs. Enhancement of indigenous strains would promote early  
51 colonization of field crops, increasing the expression of agroecosystem services (Bittman et al. 2006).

52 Cover crops are widely recognized as an important management practice for sustainable agriculture  
53 because of their contributions to soil conservation and quality, and to crop performance (Kabir and Koide  
54 2002; Weil and Kremen 2007). They have been reported to help maintain or increase mycorrhizal potential  
55 of soils, e. g. providing nourishment during winter periods to AMF, which are obligate mutualists (Kabir  
56 and Koide 2002). When the agricultural fields lie fallow through the winter season, AMF populations are  
57 deprived of carbohydrates, and consequently are considerably reduced by the start of the next cropping  
58 season. Thus, mycotrophic cover crops may be fundamental in maintaining a high inoculum potential in the  
59 absence of the cash crop during seasonal fallow periods.

60 Nonetheless, some cover crops - mainly members of the Brassicaceae family - are not mycorrhizal,  
61 and may reduce AMF colonization in the subsequent crop. Some studies have indicated reduced  
62 mycorrhizal colonization of the subsequent crop after the growth of a *Brassica* species (Gavito and Miller  
63 1998; Koide and Peoples 2012) while others did not report any change (Pellerin et al. 2007; White and  
64 Weil 2010). Thus, to delineate how cover crops influence field AMF populations it would be necessary to  
65 have comparative field experiments that encompass both AMF host and non host cover crops.

66 In short season crops, such as maize, AMF benefit may depend on early and large root  
67 colonization, which in turn is strictly correlated with soil inoculum potential (Bittman et al. 2006).  
68 Mycorrhizal dependency and responsiveness also depend on plant genotypes, which vary among different

69 crops (Tawarayama 2003; An et al. 2010). Plant breeding to create novel genotypes more efficient in nutrient  
70 and water resource use represents a key target for sustainable agriculture. Crop breeding is generally  
71 carried out in research stations where nutrients are not a limiting factor, possibly leading to the production  
72 of hybrids less responsive to AMF. By contrast, breeding programs in organic agriculture should focus on  
73 crop genotypes that make sustainable use of the available soil bioresources (Wolfe et al. 2008). Thus, a  
74 profitable use of AMF in an organic and low-input farming context, will require the selection of a suitable  
75 combination of plant host, fungal partner and agricultural management practices (Sawers et al. 2008).

76 Here, we tested the hypothesis that increasing the genetic (breeding) and species (cover crop)  
77 diversity will provide a more favorable environment for AMF activity in an organic system (Fig. 1). The  
78 specific aims of this study were: i) to assess the effects of three winter cover crop treatments, differing in  
79 species diversity, and fallow on AMF colonization of five subsequent maize crop genotypes at the juvenile  
80 stage and at harvest; ii) to monitor the effects of three winter cover crop treatments and fallow on soil  
81 mycorrhizal potential; iii) to examine the growth responses of maize plants at juvenile stage and their  
82 relationship with early mycorrhizal colonization; iv) to assess AMF susceptibility of two maize hybrids  
83 (organically and conventionally bred) compared with three composite cross populations (organically bred)  
84 of higher genetic diversity, at the juvenile stage and at harvest.

85

## 86 **2 Materials and methods**

### 87 2.1 Experimental site

88 The experimental fields were located at the Interdepartmental Centre for Agri-environmental Research  
89 “Enrico Avanzi” (CIRAA) of the University of Pisa, located at S. Piero a Grado, Pisa (latitude 43°40' N,  
90 longitude 10°18' E) in Italy. The fields are part of a long-term experimental system, MASCOT  
91 (Mediterranean Arable Systems Comparison Trial) established in autumn 2001, comparing organic and  
92 conventional management systems for a 5-year stockless arable crop rotation (Mazzoncini et al. 2010).  
93 Physical and chemical characteristics of soil are: clay, 19.4%; silt, 29.2%; sand, 51.4%; pH (water) 8.3,  
94 total organic carbon, 9.3 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, total N, 1.1 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, and available P (Olsen analysis), 6.7 g kg<sup>-1</sup>. The crop  
95 rotation includes maize (*Zea mays* L.), common wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.), sunflower (*Helianthus*  
96 *annuus* L.), pigeon bean (*Vicia faba* L. var. *minor*) and durum wheat (*Triticum durum* Desf.). The  
97 experiment embeds additional organically-managed fields (‘organic playgrounds’) where specific plot  
98 experiments are allocated (Bàrberi and Mazzoncini 2006).

99

### 100 2.2 Experimental design

101 The experiment was laid out in one organic playground as a split plot design with three blocks, and in each  
102 year it was performed in a different field. Main plots included four soil cover treatments, namely *Brassica*

103 *juncea* (L.) Czern. cv. ISCI 20 (Indian mustard), *Vicia villosa* Roth cv. Latigo (hairy vetch), a mix of seven  
 104 species (hereafter called ‘Mix’) and a no-till fallow with natural vegetation (hereafter called ‘Control’). The  
 105 Mix treatment, supplied as a commercial mixture by Arcoiris s.r.l. (Modena, Italy), included: *Fagopyrum*  
 106 *esculentum* Moench (buckwheat), *Lupinus albus* L. (white lupin), *Phacelia tanacetifolia* Benth. (lacy  
 107 phacelia), *Pisum sativum* L. (common pea), *Trifolium alexandrinum* L. (berseem clover), *Trifolium*  
 108 *incarnatum* L. (crimson clover) and *V. villosa*. Subplots included five maize genotypes, two hybrids  
 109 (Pioneer<sup>®</sup> PR64Y03 and MvTC TO341, developed under conventional and organic management  
 110 respectively) and three composite cross populations, namely Complete Composite, Composite 1 Gyula and  
 111 PC Composite. Composite cross populations are populations of segregating individuals formed by inter-  
 112 crossing seed stocks with divergent evolutionary origins, followed by bulking and propagation of the F1  
 113 progenies in successive cropping seasons (Phillips and Wolfe 2005). Compared to hybrids, they are thus  
 114 characterised by higher genetic diversity. Composite cross populations and the organic hybrid seeds were  
 115 provided by the Centre for Agricultural Research, Agricultural Institute, Hungarian Academy of Sciences,  
 116 Martonvásár. The whole trial was then composed of 60 subplots each measuring 3 × 10 m.

117

### 118 2.3 Cover crop management

119 Cover crops were sown on 18 October 2010 at a seeding rate of 9 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> (*B. juncea*), 100 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> (*V.*  
 120 *villosa*) and 50 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> (Mix). In 2011, cover crops were sown on 19 October at higher rates, since cover  
 121 crop biomass in the previous year was lower than expected and to ensure adequate plant stand: 12 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>  
 122 (*B. juncea*), 120 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> (*V. villosa*), and 65 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> (Mix). Weeds were not controlled in any of the  
 123 treatments. Cover crops and weeds were sampled on 21 April 2011 and 23 April 2012 from four randomly  
 124 selected 0.25 m<sup>2</sup> quadrates plot<sup>-1</sup>. Cover crop and weeds were separated and oven dried at 80°C until  
 125 constant weight. Total shoot dry biomass (cover crop and weeds) ranged from 165 g m<sup>-2</sup> in Control to 200  
 126 in *B. juncea*, 400 in *V. villosa* and 440 in Mix in 2011, and from 750 g m<sup>-2</sup> in *B. juncea* to 800 in *V. villosa*,  
 127 900 in Mix and 920 in Control in 2012, weeds representing about 20-60% and 40-70% of the total biomass  
 128 in 2011 and 2012, respectively. In particular, in *B. juncea* weeds represented 64% and 47% of the total  
 129 biomass. The dominant weeds were represented by the AMF hosts *Lolium* spp., *Cynodon dactylon* (L.)  
 130 Pers. and *Avena* spp., which occurred as natural vegetation in Control treatment. No differences in weeds  
 131 distribution were observed among treatments. Each year, cover crops were mown at the end of April and  
 132 immediately incorporated into the soil by disc harrowing at a depth of 15 cm.

133

### 134 2.4 Maize sowing and management

135 Maize genotypes were sown on 26 April 2011 and 5 June 2012 at a spacing of 50 × 28 cm. Delayed sowing  
 136 in 2012 was due to prolonged heavy rain and cold. Nutex Letame (Sipcam Italia S.p.A., Pero, Italy), a

137 pelleted mixture of selected manures (NPK=3:3:3), was applied only in 2011 at 1000 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> rate as a  
138 starter fertiliser. Maize was grown as a rainfed crop, but in 2012 overhead irrigation was applied since an  
139 extremely dry and hot period occurred after the juvenile stage.

140

#### 141 2.5 Plant sampling

142 Maize plants were sampled for AMF root colonization at the 4<sup>th</sup> leaf (juvenile) phenological stage, and at  
143 final harvest stage. At juvenile stage (16 May 2011 and 2 July 2012) the sampling was done by uprooting 4  
144 plants from each subplot, to recover the whole root system. The plants were placed in polythene bags and  
145 transported to the laboratory for analyses. Roots were processed for AMF assessment and shoots were oven  
146 dried at 60°C for 5 days, then weighed and preserved in sealed bags for N and P analyses. At harvest stage,  
147 4 soil cores measuring about 8 cm in diameter and 15 cm in depth were obtained from the base of the  
148 sampled maize plants. The soil was washed through a 500 µm sieve to recover the roots.

149

#### 150 2.6 Mycorrhizal root colonization of maize

151 At juvenile stage, maize roots were cleaned with tap water, cleared with 10% KOH in water bath at 80°C  
152 for 15 min, neutralized in 2% aqueous HCl and stained with 0.05% trypan blue in lactic acid. Root  
153 colonization was assessed under a dissecting microscope (Wild, Leica, Milano, Italy) at 25× or 40×  
154 magnification by the gridline intersect method (Giovannetti and Mosse 1980).

155

#### 156 2.7 Mycorrhizal inoculum potential of the experimental field soil

157 Mycorrhizal inoculum potential (MIP) bioassay before sowing was carried out to verify the homogeneity of  
158 AMF propagules' distribution in the field soil. As *B. juncea* treatment reduced early AMF colonization in  
159 the subsequent maize crop, in the second year we decided to assess MIP on soil samples at different times,  
160 in order to investigate field AMF propagule density dynamics. Samples were taken: before cover crop  
161 sowing; at the end of cover crop cycle, a few days before soil incorporation; after soil incorporation of  
162 cover crops and tillage; at maize harvest. Soil samples (3 soil cores per subplot, taken 2.5 m apart at a depth  
163 of 5 to 15 cm) were dried, sieved using a 4 mm sieve and put in 50 ml tubes. Three replicated tubes were  
164 prepared for each MIP determination, for a total of 180 tubes. *Cichorium intybus* L. cv. Zuccherina di  
165 Trieste was sown in tubes put in transparent sun bags and maintained in a growth chamber at 27 °C and  
166 16/8 h light/dark daily cycle until harvest. One week after germination plants were thinned to four per tube.  
167 Each tube was watered as needed. Plants were harvested 30 days after sowing and shoots excised and  
168 discarded. After removing the soil from tubes, roots were separated and cleaned with tap water. Roots were  
169 then cleared, stained and examined for AMF colonization assessment as described above.

170

## 171 2.8 Plant P and N uptake

172 P concentrations were measured after sulphuric/perchloric acid digestion using the photometric method,  
173 whilst N concentrations were assessed using the Kjeldahl method. The total P and N contents were  
174 calculated by multiplying P and N concentration values by dry weights.

## 175 176 2.9 Data analyses

177 Analyses of maize shoot dry matter, N and P content at juvenile stage were performed separately for each  
178 year using a split-plot experimental design, since there was a significant interaction between genotype and  
179 year. A mixed model with year as a random factor, cover crop and maize genotype as fixed factors was  
180 adopted for soil MIP at the start of the experiment, maize AMF colonization at juvenile stage and harvest.  
181 Pearson correlation coefficient was determined for maize shoot dry matter at juvenile stage *vs* AMF  
182 colonization. The results of MIP bioassays for the second year were analysed by two way ANOVA, using  
183 cover crop and time as factors, separately for each subsequent pair of sampling points. Percentage data  
184 were arcsine transformed to fulfil the assumptions of ANOVA. Data reported in tables and figures were  
185 then back transformed. Wherever feasible, a post hoc test was performed using Tukey's HSD test, while  
186 orthogonal contrasts were used to test differences within hybrids and between hybrids and composite crop  
187 population. All statistical analyses were performed with SPSS 19.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

## 188 189 **3 Results and Discussion**

### 190 3.1 Maize mycorrhizal colonization at juvenile stage

191 MIP bioassay data showed no significant differences in AMF soil propagule density of the relevant  
192 subplots at the start of the experiment (32.5-37.3% in the first year and 38.1-43.4% in the second year),  
193 allowing us to consider mycorrhizal colonization data as only dependent on cover crop treatments and not  
194 biased by a possible heterogeneous distribution of AMF propagules in the field. Mycorrhizal colonization  
195 of maize at juvenile stage was significantly affected by cover crop treatments ( $F_{3,12} = 5.41$ ,  $p = 0.014$ ),  
196 while it was not affected by year and genotype ( $F_{1,2} = 0.81$ ,  $p = 0.462$ , and  $F_{4,62} = 1.04$ ,  $p = 0.394$ ). Maize  
197 plants grown after *V. villosa* had the highest percentage of AMF colonised root length ( $35.0\% \pm 2.03\%$ ),  
198 while plants grown after *B. juncea* and Control treatments had the lowest colonization levels (Fig. 2),  
199 suggesting that *V. villosa*, as an AMF host plant, was able to sustain AMF natural communities better than  
200 the non-host species *B. juncea* and fallow. The increased level of species diversity in Mix cover crop  
201 treatment decreased AMF root colonization of maize, compared with *V. villosa*, indicating that cover crop  
202 species functional identity (Costanzo and Bärberi 2013) may play a more influential role than diversity in  
203 determining the mycorrhizal status of the subsequent crop. In this experiment, we found a reduced level of  
204 maize AMF colonization after *B. juncea* cover crop, in agreement with observations on oilseed rape



205 (*Brassica napus* L.) preceding maize (Koide and Peoples 2012). Our findings could be ascribed to a  
 206 reduction, during the winter period, of AMF propagules, which, as obligate symbionts, depend on carbon  
 207 sources supplied by host plants for their survival and on the maintenance of an extensive extraradical  
 208 hyphal network able to boost mycorrhizal colonization of nearby plants (Giovannetti et al. 2004).  
 209 Alternatively, the disruption and soil incorporation, as green manure, of *B. juncea* tissues, which contain  
 210 glucosinolates producing biotoxic compounds, e. g. isothiocyanates after hydrolysis by myrosinase  
 211 enzyme, may have had inhibitory effects on field AMF populations (Pellerin et al. 2007). Though,  
 212 mycorrhizal colonization of maize grown after *B. juncea* did not differ from that obtained after fallow, as  
 213 previously reported by other authors (Pellerin et al. 2007; White and Weil 2010). In our experimental  
 214 system, the occurrence of host plant species growing as dominant weeds (*Lolium* spp., *Cynodon dactylon*  
 215 (L.) Pers. and *Avena* spp.) may have buffered the negative effects of the non-host cover crop, maintaining  
 216 soil mycorrhizal potential at the same level of the fallow treatment.

217 Maize genotypes did not significantly influence AMF colonization at juvenile stage in both years:  
 218 all maize genotypes (both hybrids and composite cross populations) had a similar percentage of colonised  
 219 root length (25.1 to 28.8%), suggesting that at juvenile stage soil mycorrhizal potential may play a more  
 220 important role than genotype. Our results refer to the colonization of roots growing in the top soil layer (0-  
 221 15 cm), since root colonization and propagules numbers decrease with depth (>20 cm) (Oehl et al. 2005).

222  
 223 3.2 Dynamics of soil mycorrhizal inoculum potential  
 224 Monitoring of AMF propagules over the growing season of cover crops and maize, as assessed by MIP,  
 225 showed an interesting dynamics, with large variations depending on cropping system stages and related  
 226 agronomic disturbance. MIP values at the end of cover crop cycle, before soil incorporation, were  
 227 significantly higher than MIP values at cover crop sowing ( $F_{1,104} = 20.9$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ) (Fig. 4) independently  
 228 from the cover crop treatments ( $F_{3,6} = 0.25$ ;  $p = 0.856$  for cover crop treatment and  $F_{3,104} = 0.76$ ;  $p = 0.517$   
 229 for interaction time  $\times$  cover crop). Our data are consistent with previous data on soil inoculum potential  
 230 obtained with hairy vetch as a winter cover crop (Galvez et al. 1995). However, results obtained with *B.*  
 231 *juncea* treatment suggested that it did not affect the activity of AMF populations, possibly supporting our  
 232 hypothesis on the role of AMF host weeds in buffering possible negative effects of non-host species.

233 A strong decrease of MIP values was detected after incorporation of cover crops into the soil (Fig.  
 234 4). Indeed, statistical analyses showed an effect of time ( $F_{1,104} = 239.9$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). The significant  
 235 interaction between cover crops and time ( $F_{3,104} = 3.1$ ,  $p = 0.029$ ) showed that MIP values after cover crop  
 236 soil incorporation decreased differently depending on the type of cover crop, as confirmed by the Tukey's  
 237 post hoc analysis following one way ANOVA performed on MIP data at this sampling time, which  
 238 separated *B. juncea* from *V. villosa* and Mix. Several studies have reported the detrimental effects of tillage

239 on field AMF populations (Kabir 2005), although this aspect has not been extensively studied in cropping  
 240 systems incorporating cover crops to increase soil fertility. Interestingly, there was a greater negative effect  
 241 on MIP values of *B. juncea* cover crop, supporting our previous remarks on possible negative effects of  
 242 isothiocyanates released by *B. juncea* tissues after soil incorporation.

243 At maize harvest, MIP values were higher than values after cover crop soil incorporation ( $F_{1,104} =$   
 244  $583.2$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ), due to a generalized increase, which varied depending on the cover crop treatment ( $F_{3,6} =$   
 245  $6.14$ ;  $p = 0.03$  for cover crop treatment;  $F_{3,104} = 3.15$ ;  $p = 0.028$  for time  $\times$  cover crop interaction) (Fig. 4).  
 246 Such a finding could be ascribed either to the growth of the host crop maize or to the favorable growing  
 247 season (spring-summer, compared with fall-winter) promoting soil microbial biomass, AMF spore  
 248 germination and spread of mycorrhizal networks in the soil (Gavito et al. 2002; Giovannetti et al. 2004).

249  
 250 3.3 Maize growth, N and P uptake at juvenile stage

251 Maize shoot dry matter at juvenile stage was significantly influenced by preceding cover crop ( $F_{3,6} = 20.21$ ,  
 252  $p = 0.002$ ) and maize genotype ( $F_{4,32} = 5.30$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ) in the year 2011 (Table 1), whereas in 2012 it was  
 253 only affected by genotype ( $F_{4,30} = 2.84$ ,  $p = 0.041$ ). In 2011 both shoot N and P contents were significantly  
 254 affected by cover crop treatments ( $p = 0.001$  and  $0.005$  respectively) and genotypes ( $p = 0.014$  and  $0.017$   
 255 respectively), while the interaction between the two was not significant (Table 1). Although cover crop  
 256 effect was only statistically significant in 2011, its effect on maize shoot biomass, N and P uptake followed  
 257 the same pattern in 2012: *V. villosa* > Mix > Control = *B. juncea* (Table 1), suggesting that *V. villosa* is a  
 258 good winter cover crop for the subsequent summer crop, when used as green manure, representing a source  
 259 of easily mineralisable N (Campiglia et al. 2010). In addition, *V. villosa*, as a  $N_2$ -fixing legume, can  
 260 accumulate a large amount of N during the growing period, and make it available to the subsequent crop.  
 261 The Mix treatment, containing species other than legumes, represents a less effective source of N than *V.*  
 262 *villosa*. Therefore a better AMF colonization may have contributed to the uptake of the additional N  
 263 available in soil (Hodge and Fitter 2010).

264 For each experimental year, we found a linear correlation between AMF root colonization and  
 265 maize shoot dry matter production at juvenile stage ( $r^2 = 0.47$ ,  $P < 0.001$ , and  $r^2 = 0.29$ ,  $P < 0.001$ , in 2011 and  
 266 2012, respectively) (Fig. 3). Maize, being a relatively short-season crop, is known to benefit from an early  
 267 and extensive mycorrhizal colonization both for juvenile growth and for grain yield at harvest (Bittman et  
 268 al. 2006), as confirmed in our experiment where grain yield was higher in those cover crop treatments (*V.*  
 269 *villosa* and Mix) which provide a higher early colonization level (N. Nol, personal communication).

270  
 271 3.4 Maize mycorrhizal colonization at harvest

272 At maize harvest, no significant differences in AMF root colonization among cover crop treatments were  
273 detected, consistently with earlier studies reporting that the reduced AMF colonization of maize after  
274 oilseed rape at the juvenile stage disappeared at silking (Gavito and Miller 1998). By contrast, percentage  
275 of mycorrhizal colonization was significantly affected by genotypes ( $F_{4,64}=2.67$ ,  $p = 0.040$ ), while no effect  
276 of cover crop $\times$ genotype interaction was found. Both maize hybrids showed a significantly lower AMF  
277 colonization (29.2-30.0%), than composite cross populations (32.8-33.1%) in both years, as revealed by  
278 orthogonal contrasts ( $p=0.002$ ). However, the levels of colonization were high in both genotypes,  
279 confirming that modern hybrids do not necessarily show low levels of colonization (An et al. 2010).

280

#### 281 **4 Conclusions**

282 Our experimental findings show that cover crops management affects soil mycorrhizal potential  
283 and early mycorrhizal colonization and growth of the subsequent maize crop. They also point out that  
284 choice of the right (i.e. most AMF supportive or less detrimental for AMF) cover crop species is more  
285 important than cover crop diversity (i.e. species mixture) in organic systems. Level of maize genetic  
286 diversity did not seem to influence AMF symbiosis to a great extent. In addition, the monitoring of AMF  
287 propagule dynamics over time evidenced that soil mycorrhizal potential values were negatively affected by  
288 soil incorporation of cover crops. Further investigations will elucidate whether the strong negative impact  
289 of *B. juncea* cover crop on AMF, reduced here by higher weed abundance under organic management, may  
290 be additionally alleviated by avoiding tillage and soil incorporation of Indian mustard biomass which could  
291 reduce the possible negative effects of isothiocyanates.

292

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300

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- 372

373

374 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

375

376 **Fig. 1.** Maps and pictures showing the location of the experimental field where a split plot experiment  
 377 was laid out using four different cover crops [*Vicia villosa*, *Brassica juncea*, a mix of seven species  
 378 (Mix) and a no-till fallow (Control)], cultivated before five different maize genotypes [two hybrids  
 379 (Pioneer® PR64Y03 and MvTC TO341 developed under conventional and organic managements  
 380 respectively) and three Composite Cross Populations (Complete Composite, Composite 1 Gyula and PC  
 381 Composite)]. Arbuscular mycorrhizal structures (arbuscules and vesicles) were detected in the roots of the  
 382 different maize genotypes and in the roots of *Cichorium intybus* L. plants, which were used for the  
 383 mycorrhizal inoculum potential bioassay.

384

385 **Fig. 2** Maize AMF root colonization at juvenile stage, as influenced by the cover crop treatments:  
 386 *Brassica juncea*, no-till fallow (Control), a mix of seven species (Mix), and *Vicia villosa* during two years  
 387 experimental years. Note the higher levels of mycorrhizal colonization after the host species *V. villosa*  
 388 and the Mix treatment, compared with the non-host species *B. juncea* and Control. The same lower case  
 389 letters indicate no significant differences at  $p \leq 0.05$  (Tukey's HSD test).

390

391 **Fig. 3** Relationship between percentage of AMF root colonization of maize and shoot dry matter at  
 392 juvenile stage (mg plant<sup>-1</sup>) in 2011 ( $r^2=0.47$ ;  $y=5.2x+62.3$ ) and 2012 ( $r^2=0.29$ ;  $y=13.7x+75.5$ ), showing  
 393 the impact of early mycorrhizal establishment on maize growth. As a relatively short-season crop, maize  
 394 may greatly benefit from an early and extensive AMF colonization. Each point represents data from  
 395 individual subplots.

396

397 **Fig. 4** AMF propagule dynamics as affected by cropping system stages, assessed by mycorrhizal  
 398 inoculum potential bioassay of the field soil. Sampling time (in days) were: 0 days: before sowing of  
 399 cover crop, 190 days: at the end of cover crop cycle before soil incorporation, 230 days: after cover  
 400 biomass soil incorporation and 350 days: at maize harvest. Note the strong decrease in AMF propagule  
 401 density after cover crop incorporation, which is higher in the non-host species treatment (*B. juncea*).  
 402 Vertical bars represent  $\pm$  SE. When occurring within sampling times, different letters represent  
 403 statistically significant differences at  $p < 0.05$  (Tukey's HSD test).

404

**Table 1.** Shoot dry matter, N and P content (mg plant<sup>-1</sup>) of maize plants at juvenile stage, as influenced by cover crop and maize genotype treatments in 2011 and 2012.

	2011			2012		
	Shoot DM	N content	P content	Shoot DM	N content	P content
<u>Cover crop</u>						
<i>V. villosa</i>	317.0 c	13.1 c	0.95 c	546.8 a	17.9 a	1.81 a
Mix	231.9 b	8.1 b	0.73 b	401.2 a	11.0 a	1.86 a
Control	142.9 a	4.0 a	0.47 a	347.0 a	9.6 a	1.75 a
<i>B. juncea</i>	163.6 a	4.7 a	0.51 a	367.5 a	10.3 a	1.53 a
<u>Maize genotype</u>						
PR64Y03	258.1 b	9.0 b	0.76 b	415.0 ab	12.1 a	1.80 a
MvTC TO341	159.9 a	5.8 a	0.50 a	507.7 b	14.3 a	1.94 a
Complete composite	216.2 ab	7.4 ab	0.67 ab	364.3 a	10.7 a	1.60 a
Composite 1 Gyula	182.2 ab	6.5 ab	0.61 ab	414.8 ab	12.7 a	1.75 a
PC Composite	252.8 b	8.6 ab	0.77 b	365.0 a	10.8 a	1.58 a
<u>P values of main factors and interaction</u>						
Cover crop	0.002	0.001	0.005	0.534	0.384	0.984
Maize genotype	0.002	0.014	0.017	0.041	0.189	0.614
Cover x Genotype	0.847	0.477	0.618	0.169	0.263	0.486
<u>P values of linear orthogonal contrasts for maize genotype factor</u>						
Hybrids vs CCP	0.637	0.885	0.361	0.034	0.134	0.236
PR64Y03 vs MvTC TO341	0.001	0.003	0.005	0.039	0.143	0.499

Values followed by the same letter in a column within each treatment are not significantly different at  $P < 0.05$  (Tukey's HSD test)





Figure 3  
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# Shoot dry weight (mg)

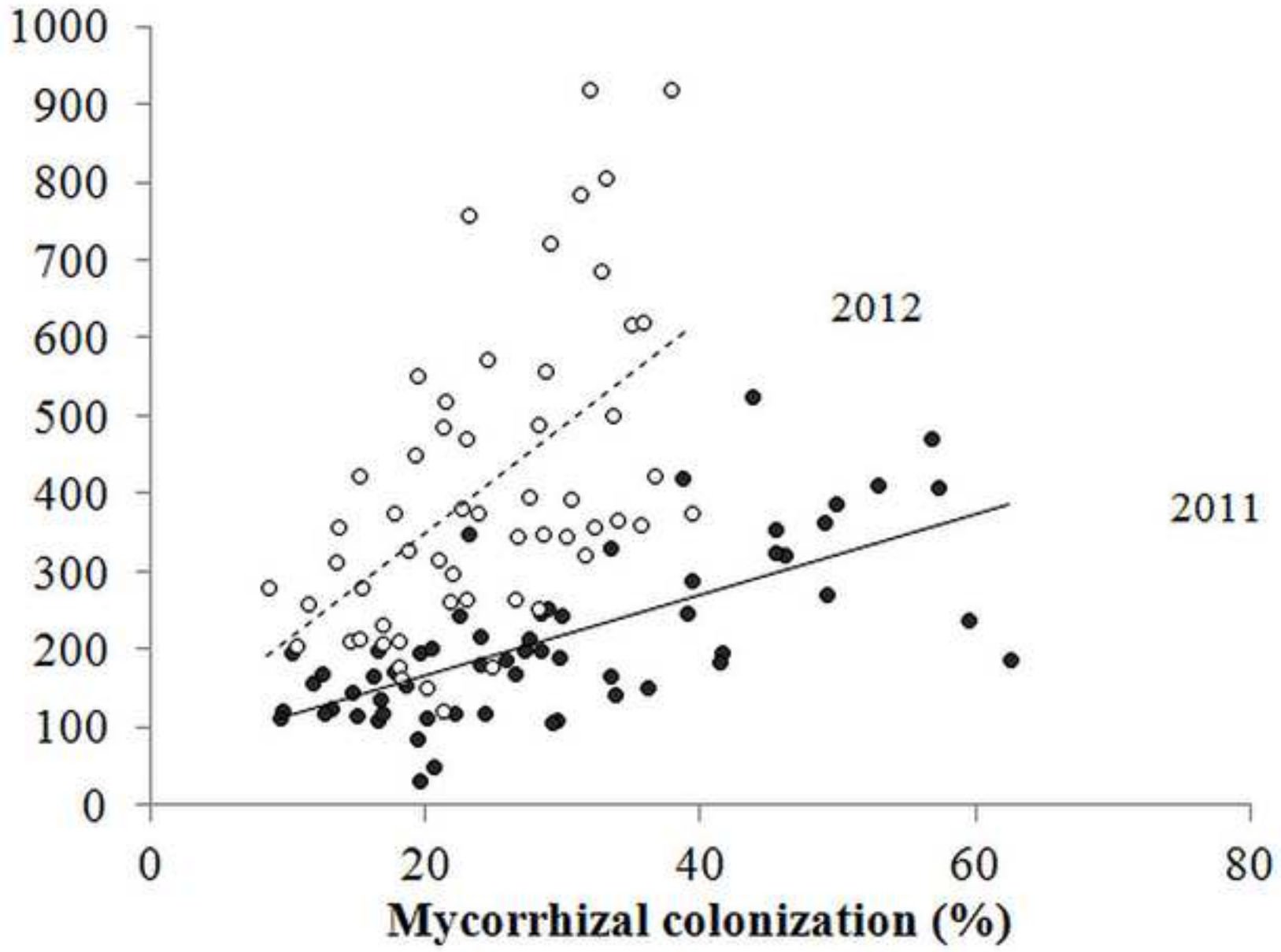


Figure 4  
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### Mycorrhizal inoculum potential (%)

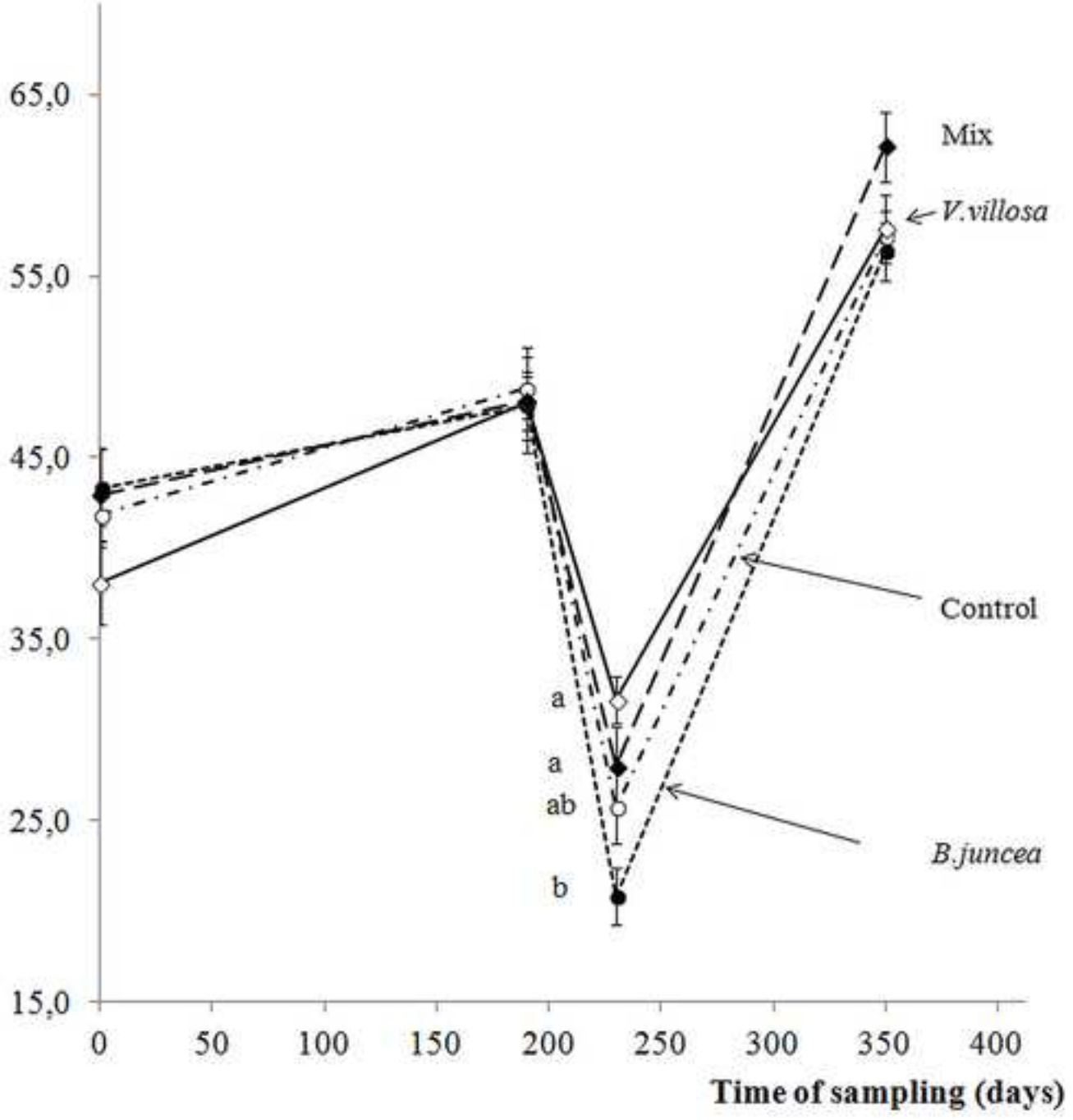


Figure 1  
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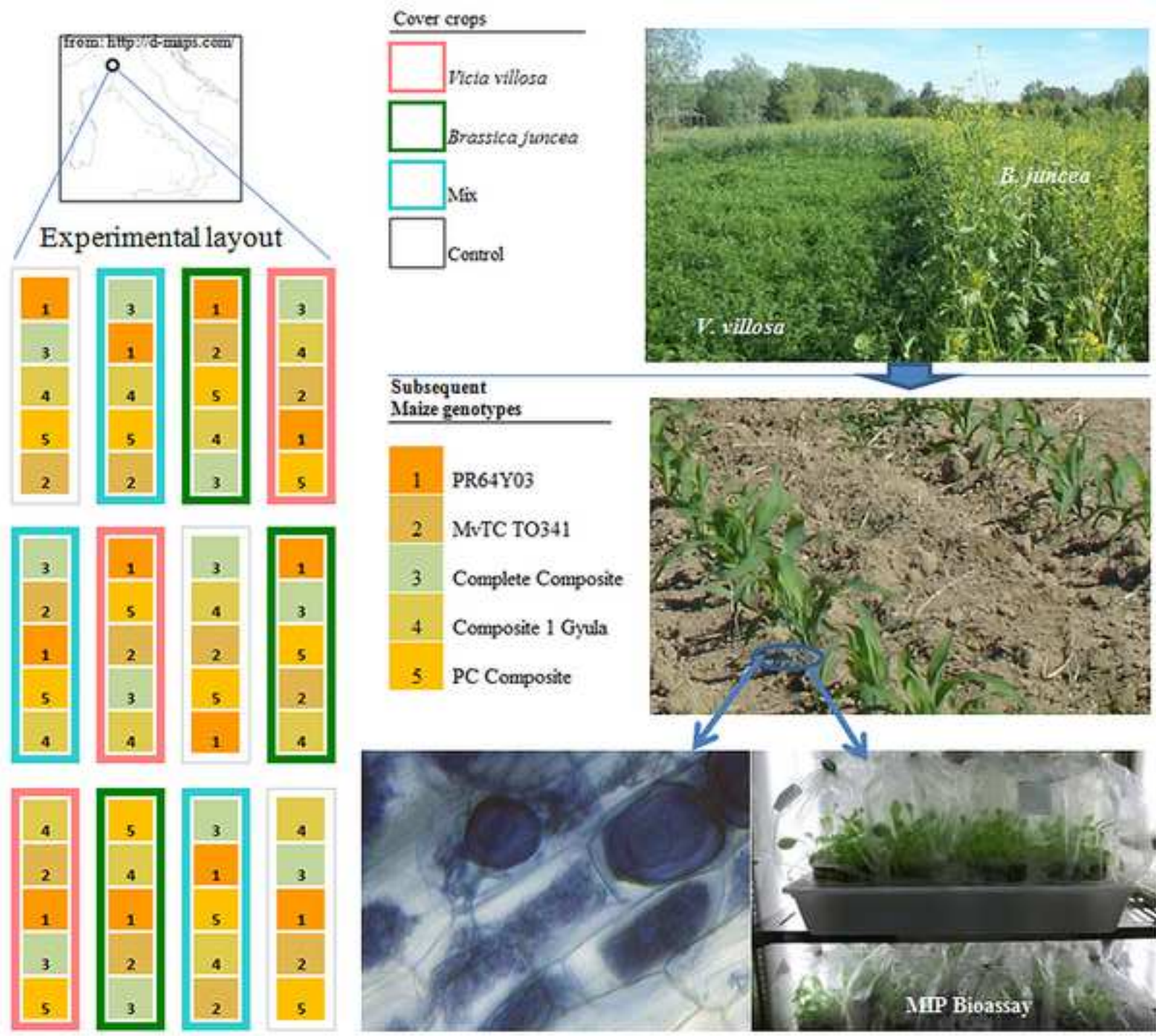


Figure 2  
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## Mycorrhizal colonization (%)

