

# 1 Network hubs in root-associated fungal 2 metacommunities

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4 Hirokazu Toju<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Akifumi S. Tanabe<sup>3</sup>, Hirotoishi Sato<sup>4</sup>

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6 \*Correspondence: [toju.hirokazu.4c@kyoto-u.ac.jp](mailto:toju.hirokazu.4c@kyoto-u.ac.jp)

7 <sup>1</sup>Center for Ecological Research, Kyoto University, Otsu, Shiga 520-2113, Japan

8 <sup>2</sup>Precursory Research for Embryonic Science and Technology (PRESTO), Japan Science and  
9 Technology Agency, Kawaguchi, Saitama 332-0012, Japan

10 <sup>3</sup>Faculty of Science and Technology, Ryukoku University, 1-5 Yokotani, Seta Oe-cho, Otsu,  
11 Shiga 520-2194, Japan

12 <sup>4</sup>Graduate School of Human and Environmental Studies, Kyoto University, Sakyo, Kyoto  
13 606-8501, Japan

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18

## 19 **Abstract**

20 **Background:** Although a number of recent studies have uncovered remarkable diversity of  
21 microbes associated with plants, understanding and managing dynamics of plant microbiomes  
22 remain major scientific challenges. In this respect, network analytical methods have provided  
23 a basis for exploring “hub” microbial species, which potentially organize community-scale  
24 processes of plant–microbe interactions.

25 **Methods:** By compiling Illumina sequencing data of root-associated fungi in eight forest  
26 ecosystems across the Japanese Archipelago, we explored hubs within “metacommunity-scale”  
27 networks of plant–fungus associations. In total, the metadata included 8,080 fungal  
28 operational taxonomic units (OTUs) detected from 227 local populations of 150 plant  
29 species/taxa.

30 **Results:** Few fungal OTUs were common across all the eight forests. However, in each  
31 metacommunity-scale network representing northern four localities or southern four localities,  
32 diverse mycorrhizal, endophytic, and pathogenic fungi were classified as “metacommunity  
33 hubs”, which were detected from diverse host plant taxa throughout a climatic region.  
34 Specifically, *Mortierella* (Mortierellales), *Cladophialophora* (Chaetothyriales), *Ilyonectria*  
35 (Hypocreales), *Pezicula* (Helotiales), and *Cadophora* (incertae sedis) had broad geographic  
36 and host ranges across the northern (cool-temperate) region, while *Saitozyma/Cryptococcus*  
37 (Tremellales/Trichosporonales) and *Mortierella* as well as some arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi  
38 were placed at the central positions of the metacommunity-scale network representing  
39 warm-temperate and subtropical forests in southern Japan.

40 **Conclusions:** The network theoretical framework presented in this study will help us explore  
41 prospective fungi and bacteria, which have high potentials for agricultural application to  
42 diverse plant species within each climatic region. As some of those fungal taxa with broad  
43 geographic and host ranges have been known to increase the growth and pathogen resistance  
44 of host plants, further studies elucidating their functional roles are awaited.

45 **Keywords:** agriculture; biodiversity; ecosystem restoration; host specificity or preference;  
46 latitudinal gradients; metacommunities; microbial inoculation; network hubs; plant–fungus

47 interactions; mycorrhizal and endophytic symbiosis.

48

## 49 **Background**

50 Below-ground fungi in the endosphere and rhizosphere are key drivers of terrestrial  
51 ecosystem processes [1-4]. Mycorrhizal fungi, for example, are important partners of most  
52 land plant species, enhancing nutritional conditions and pathogen resistance of host plants  
53 [5-7]. In reward for the essential physiological services, they receive ca. 20% of net  
54 photosynthetic products from plants [8, 9]. Recent studies have also indicated that diverse  
55 taxonomic groups of endophytic fungi (e.g., endophytic fungi in the ascomycete orders  
56 Helotiales and Chaetothyriales) commonly interact with plant roots, providing soil  
57 nitrogen/phosphorous to their hosts [10-14], converting organic nitrogen into inorganic forms  
58 in the rhizosphere [15], and increasing plants' resistance to environmental stresses [16-18].  
59 Because of their fundamental roles, below-ground fungi have been considered as prospective  
60 sources of ecosystem-level functioning in forest management, agriculture, and ecosystem  
61 restoration [17-20]. However, due to the exceptional diversity of below-ground fungi [21-23]  
62 and the extraordinary complexity of below-ground plant–fungus interactions [24-26], we are  
63 still at an early stage of managing and manipulating plant-associated microbiomes [27-29].

64 In disentangling complex webs of below-ground plant–fungus associations, network  
65 analyses, which have been originally applied to human relations and the World-Wide Web  
66 [30, 31], provide crucial insights. By using network analytical tools, we can infer how plant  
67 species in a forest, grassland, or farmland are associated with diverse taxonomic and  
68 functional groups of fungi [24, 32-34]. Such information of network structure (topology) can  
69 be used to identify “hub” species, which are placed at the center of a network depicting  
70 multispecies host–symbiont associations [35] (cf. [34, 36, 37]). Those hubs with broad  
71 host/symbiont ranges are expected to play key roles by mediating otherwise discrete  
72 ecological processes within a community [19, 24]. For example, although arbuscular  
73 mycorrhizal and ectomycorrhizal symbioses have been considered to involve distinct sets of  
74 plant and fungal lineages [38] (but see [39, 40]), hub endophytic fungi with broad host ranges  
75 may mediate indirect interactions between arbuscular mycorrhizal and ectomycorrhizal plant  
76 species through below-ground mycelial connections. As information of plant-associated  
77 fungal communities is now easily available with high-throughput DNA sequencing

78 technologies [1, 21, 22], finding hub microbial species out of hundreds or thousands of  
79 species within a network has become an important basis for understanding and predicting  
80 ecosystem-scale phenomena.

81         Nonetheless, given that fungi can disperse long distances with spores, conidia, and  
82 propagules [41-44], information of local-scale networks alone does not provide thorough  
83 insights into below-ground plant–fungus interactions in the wild. In other words, no forests,  
84 grasslands, and farmlands are free from perturbations caused by fungi immigrating from other  
85 localities [45-49]. Therefore, to consider how local ecosystem processes are interlinked by  
86 dispersal of fungi, we need to take into account “metacommunity-scale” networks of plant–  
87 fungus associations [35]. Within a dataset of multiple local communities (e.g., [25]), fungal  
88 species that occur in multiple localities may interlink local networks of plant–fungus  
89 associations. Among them, some species that not only have broad geographic ranges but also  
90 are associated with diverse host plant species would be placed at the core positions of a  
91 metacommunity-scale network [35]. Such “metacommunity hub” fungi would be major  
92 drivers of the synchronization and restructuring of local ecosystem processes (*sensu* [50]),  
93 and hence their functional roles need to be investigated with priority [35]. Moreover, in the  
94 screening of mycorrhizal and endophytic fungi that can be used in agriculture and ecosystem  
95 restoration programs [17, 20, 51], analytical pipelines for identifying metacommunity hubs  
96 will help us explore species that are potentially applied (inoculated) to diverse plant species  
97 over broad geographic ranges of farmlands, forests, or grasslands. Nonetheless, despite the  
98 potential importance of metacommunity hubs in both basic and applied microbiology, few  
99 studies have examined metacommunity-level networks of plant–symbiont associations.

100         By compiling Illumina sequencing datasets of root-associated fungi [52], we herein  
101 inferred a metacommunity-level network of below-ground plant–fungus associations and  
102 thereby explored metacommunity hubs. Our metadata consisted of plant–fungus association  
103 data in eight forest localities across the entire range of the Japanese Archipelago, including  
104 150 plant species/taxa and 8,080 fungal operational taxonomic units (OTUs) in temperate and  
105 subtropical regions. Based on the information of local- and metacommunity-level networks,  
106 each of the fungal OTUs was evaluated in light of its topological positions. We then

107 examined whether fungal OTUs placed at the core of local-level plant–fungus networks could  
108 play key topological roles within the metacommunity-level network. Overall, this study  
109 uncover how diverse taxonomic groups of mycorrhizal and endophytic fungi can form  
110 metacommunity-scale networks of below-ground plant–fungus associations, providing a basis  
111 for analyzing complex spatial processes of species-rich host–microbe systems.

112

## 113 **Methods**

### 114 **Terminology**

115 While a single type of plant–fungus interactions is targeted in each of most mycological  
116 studies (e.g., arbuscular mycorrhizal symbiosis or ectomycorrhizal symbiosis), we herein  
117 analyze the metadata including multiple categories of below-ground plant–fungus  
118 associations [52]. Because arbuscular mycorrhizal, ectomycorrhizal, and endophytic fungi, for  
119 example, vary in their microscopic structure within plant tissue [38], it is impossible to  
120 develop a general criterion of mutualistic/antagonistic interactions for all those fungal  
121 functional groups. Therefore, we used the phrase “associations” instead of “interactions”  
122 throughout the manuscript when we discuss patterns detected based on the Illumina  
123 sequencing metadata of root-associated fungi. Consequently, our results represented not only  
124 mutualistic or antagonistic interactions but also neutral or commensalistic interactions [24, 53,  
125 54]. Our aim in this study is to gain an overview of the metacommunity-scale plant–fungus  
126 associations, while the nature of respective plant–fungus associations should be evaluated in  
127 future inoculation experiments.

128

### 129 **Data**

130 We compiled the Illumina (MiSeq) sequencing data collected in a previous study [52], in  
131 which community-scale statistical properties of below-ground plant–fungus associations were  
132 compared among eight forest localities (four cool-temperate, one warm-temperate, and three  
133 subtropical forests) across the entire range of the Japanese Archipelago (45.042–24.407 °N;

134 Fig. 1). In each forest, 2-cm segment of terminal roots were sampled from 3-cm below the  
135 soil surface at 1-m horizontal intervals [52]. Those root samples were collected irrespective of  
136 their morphology and mycorrhizal type: hence, the samples as a whole represented  
137 below-ground relative abundance of plant species in each forest community. Based on the  
138 sequences of the genes encoding the large subunit of ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase  
139 (*rbcL*) and the internal transcribed spacer 1 (ITS1) of the ribosomal RNA region, host plant  
140 species were identified, although there were plant root samples that could not be identified to  
141 species with the *rbcL* and ITS1 regions [52]. The sequencing data are available through DDBJ  
142 Sequence Read Archives (accession: DRA006339).

143 The Illumina sequencing reads of the fungal ITS1 region were processed using the  
144 program Claidnet [55, 56] as detailed in the data-source study [52]: the Unix scripts used are  
145 available as Additional file 1. The primers used were designed to target not only Ascomycota  
146 and Basidiomycota but also diverse non-Dikarya (e.g., Glomeromycota) taxa [57]. In most  
147 studies analyzing community structure of Ascomycota and Basidiomycota fungi, OTUs of the  
148 ITS region are defined with a cut-off sequence similarity of 97% [22, 58, 59] (see also [60]).  
149 Meanwhile, Glomeromycota fungi generally have much higher intraspecific ITS-sequence  
150 variation than other taxonomic groups of fungi [61]. Consequently, we used 97% and 94%  
151 cut-off sequence similarities for defining non-Glomeromycota and Glomeromycota fungal  
152 OTUs, respectively [52]. The OTUs were then subjected to reference database search with the  
153 query-centric auto-*k*-nearest-neighbor algorithm [55, 56] and subsequent taxonomic  
154 assignment with the lowest common ancestor algorithm [62]. Based on the inferred taxonomy,  
155 the functional group of each fungal OTU was inferred using the program FUNGuild 1.0 [63].

156 After a series of bioinformatics and rarefaction procedures, 1,000 fungal ITS reads were  
157 obtained from each of the 240 samples collected in each forest locality (i.e., 1,000 reads × 240  
158 samples × 8 sites). A sample (row) × fungal OTU (column) data matrix, in which a cell entry  
159 depicted the number of sequencing reads of an OTU in a sample, was obtained for each local  
160 forest (“sample-level” matrix) (Additional file 2: Data S2). Each local sample-level matrix  
161 was then converted into a “species-level” matrix, in which a cell entry represented the number  
162 of root samples from which associations of a plant species/taxa (row) and a fungal OTU

163 (columns) was observed: 17–55 plant species/taxa and 1,149–1,797 fungal OTUs were  
164 detected from the local species-level matrices (Additional file 3: Data S3). In total, the  
165 matrices included 150 plant species/taxa and 8,080 fungal OTUs (Additional file 4: Data S4).

166

## 167 **Local networks**

168 Among the eight forest localities, variation in the order-level taxonomic compositions were  
169 examined with the permutational analysis of variance (PERMANOVA; [64]) and the  
170 permutational analysis for the multivariate homogeneity of dispersions (PERMDISP; [65])  
171 with the “adonis” and “betadisper” functions of the vegan 2.4-3 package [66] of R 3.4.1 [67],  
172 respectively. The  $\beta$ -diversity values used in the PERMANOVA and PERMDISP analyses  
173 were calculated with the “Bray-Curtis” metric based on the sample-level matrices (Additional  
174 file 2: Data S2). Note that the “Raup-Crick”  $\beta$ -diversity metric [68], which controls  
175  $\alpha$ -diversity in community data but requires computationally intensive randomization, was not  
176 applicable to our large metadata. Geographic variation in the compositions of fungal  
177 functional groups was also evaluated by PERMANOVA and PERMDISP analyses. The R  
178 scripts for the PERMANOVA and PERMDISP analyses are available as Additional file 5.

179 For each of the eight local forests, the network structure of below-ground plant–fungus  
180 associations was visualized based on the species-level matrix (Additional file 3: Data S3)  
181 using the program Gephi 0.9.1 [69] with the “ForceAtlas2” layout algorithm [70]. Within the  
182 networks, the order-level taxonomy of fungal OTUs was highlighted.

183 To evaluate host ranges of each fungal OTU in each local forest, we first calculated the  $d'$   
184 metric of interaction specificity [71]. However, estimates of the  $d'$  metric varied considerably  
185 among fungal OTUs observed from small numbers of root samples (Additional file 6; Figure  
186 S1) presumably due to overestimation or underestimation of host preferences for those rare  
187 OTUs. Therefore, we scored each fungal OTU based on their topological positions within  
188 each local network by calculating network centrality indices (degree, closeness, betweenness,  
189 and eigenvector centralities metrics of network centrality; [31]). Among the centrality metrics,  
190 betweenness centrality, which measures the extent to which a given nodes (species) is located



191 within the shortest paths connecting pairs of other nodes in a network [72], is often used to  
192 explore organisms with broad host or partner ranges [35]. Thus, in each local network, fungal  
193 OTUs were ranked based on their betweenness centrality scores (local betweenness).

194

### 195 **Metacommunity-scale network**

196 By compiling the species-level matrices of the eight local forests, the topology of the  
197 metacommunity-scale network of plant–fungus associations was inferred. In general, species  
198 interaction (association) networks of local communities can be interconnected by species that  
199 appear in two or more local networks, thereby merged into a metacommunity-scale network  
200 [35]. In our data across the eight local forests, 2,109 OTUs out of the 8,080 fungal OTUs  
201 appeared in two or more localities. Therefore, we could infer the topology of a  
202 metacommunity-scale network, in which the eight local networks were combined by the  
203 2,109 fungal OTUs. In the metacommunity-scale network, plant species/taxa observed in  
204 different localities were treated as different network nodes because our purpose in this study  
205 was to explore fungi that potentially play key roles in synchronizing local ecosystem  
206 processes [35]. In total, 227 plant nodes representing local populations of 150 plant  
207 species/taxa were included in the metacommunity-scale network.

208 We then screened for fungal OTUs with broad geographic and host ranges based on the  
209 betweenness centrality scores of respective fungal OTUs within the metacommunity network  
210 (metacommunity betweenness,  $B_{\text{meta}}$ ). In general, species with highest metacommunity  
211 betweenness scores not only occur in local communities over broad biotic/abiotic  
212 environmental conditions but also are associated with broad ranges of host/partner species  
213 [35]. Possible relationship between local- and metacommunity-scale topological roles was  
214 then examined by plotting local and metacommunity betweenness scores ( $B_{\text{local}}$  and  $B_{\text{meta}}$ ) of  
215 each fungal OTUs on a two-dimensional surface. To make the betweenness scores vary from  
216 0 to 1, betweenness centrality of a fungal OTU  $i$  was standardized in each of the local- and  
217 metacommunity-scale networks as follows:

$$218 \quad B'_{\text{local},i} = \frac{B_{\text{local},i} - \min(B_{\text{local}})}{\max(B_{\text{local}}) - \min(B_{\text{local}})} \quad \text{and} \quad B'_{\text{meta},i} = \frac{B_{\text{meta},i} - \min(B_{\text{meta}})}{\max(B_{\text{meta}}) - \min(B_{\text{meta}})},$$

219 where  $B_{\text{local},i}$  and  $B_{\text{meta},i}$  were raw estimates of local- and metacommunity-scale  
220 betweenness of a fungal OTU  $i$ , and  $\min()$  and  $\max()$  indicated minimum and maximum  
221 values, respectively. For local betweenness of each OTU, a mean value across local networks  
222 was subsequently calculated ( $\bar{B}'_{\text{local},i}$ ): the local communities from which a target OTU was  
223 absent was omitted in the calculation of mean local betweenness. On the two-dimensional  
224 surface, the OTUs were then classified into four categories: metacommunity hubs having high  
225 betweenness in both local- and metacommunity-scale networks ( $\bar{B}'_{\text{local},i} \geq 0.5$ ;  $B'_{\text{meta},i} \geq$   
226  $0.5$ ), metacommunity connectors that had broad geographic ranges but displayed low local  
227 betweenness ( $\bar{B}'_{\text{local},i} < 0.5$ ;  $B'_{\text{meta},i} \geq 0.5$ ), local hubs that had high betweenness in local  
228 networks but not in the metacommunity-scale network ( $\bar{B}'_{\text{local},i} \geq 0.5$ ;  $B'_{\text{meta},i} < 0.5$ ), and  
229 peripherals with low betweenness at both local and metacommunity levels ( $\bar{B}'_{\text{local},i} < 0.5$ ;  
230  $B'_{\text{meta},i} < 0.5$ ) [35]. Approximately, 1–2% of fungal OTUs show betweenness scores higher  
231 than 0.5 in each local or metacommunity network, while the threshold value can be changed  
232 depending on the purpose of each study [35].

233 In addition to metacommunity hubs within the metacommunity-scale network  
234 representing all the eight localities, those within the metacommunity-scale network  
235 representing northern (sites 1–4) or southern (sites 5–8) four localities were also explored.  
236 This additional analysis allowed us to screen for fungal OTUs that potentially adapted to  
237 broad ranges of biotic and abiotic environments within northern (cool-temperate) or southern  
238 (warm-temperate or subtropical) part of Japan.

239

## 240 **Results**

### 241 **Local networks**

242 Among the eight forest localities, order-level taxonomic compositions of fungi varied  
243 significantly (PERMANOVA;  $F_{\text{model}} = 35.7$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), while the differentiation of

244 community structure was attributed at least partly to geographic variation in among-sample  
245 dispersion (PERMDISP;  $F = 13.2$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (Fig. 2a). Compositions of fungal functional  
246 groups were also differentiated among the eight localities (PERMANOVA;  $F_{\text{model}} = 34.9$ ,  $P <$   
247  $0.001$ ), while within-site dispersion was significantly varied geographically (PERMDISP;  $F =$   
248  $9.2$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (Fig. 2b). The proportion of ectomycorrhizal fungal orders, such as Russulales,  
249 Thelephorales, and Sebaciniales, was higher in temperate forests than in subtropical forests,  
250 while that of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi increased in subtropical localities (Fig. 2). The  
251 proportion of the ascomycete order Helotiales, which has been known to include not only  
252 ectomycorrhizal but also endophytic, saprotrophic, and ericoid mycorrhizal fungi [73], was  
253 higher in northern localities. In contrast, Diaporthales, which has been considered as  
254 predominantly plant pathogenic taxon [74] (but see [75]), was common in subtropical forests  
255 but not in others.

256 In each of the eight local networks depicting plant–fungus associations, some fungal  
257 OTUs were located at the central positions of the network, while others are distributed at  
258 peripheral positions (Additional file 7; Figure S2). Specifically, fungal OTUs belonging to the  
259 ascomycete orders Chaetothyriales (e.g., *Cladophialophora* and *Exophiala*) and Helotiales  
260 (e.g., *Rhizoderma*, *Pezicula*, *Rhizoscyphus*, and *Leptodontidium*) as well as some *Mortierella*  
261 OTUs had high betweenness centrality scores in each of the cool-temperate forests (Fig. 3a-b).  
262 In contrast, arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (Glomeromycota) were common among OTUs with  
263 highest betweenness scores in subtropical forests (Fig. 3a-c). Some fungi in the ascomycete  
264 order Hypocreales (e.g., *Trichoderma*, *Ilyonectria*, *Simplicillium*, and *Calonectria*) also had  
265 high betweenness scores in some temperate and subtropical forests (Fig. 3b).

266

### 267 **Metacommunity-scale network**

268 In the metacommunity-scale network representing the connections among the eight local  
269 networks, not only arbuscular mycorrhizal but also saprotrophic/endophytic fungi were placed  
270 at the central topological positions (Fig. 4; Additional file 8; Figure S3). Among  
271 non-Glomeromycota OTUs, *Mortierella* (Mortierellales), *Cryptococcus* (Trichosporonales;

272 the Blast top-hit fungus in the NCBI database was recently moved to *Saitozyma*  
273 (Tremellales); [76]), *Malassezia* (Malasseziales), *Oidiodendron* (incertae sedis), *Trichoderma*  
274 (Hypocreales), and a fungus distantly allied to *Melanconiella* (Diaporthales) displayed highest  
275 metacommunity betweenness (Table 1). Among the OTUs with high metacommunity  
276 betweenness, only a *Mortierella* OTU was designated as a metacommunity hub (i.e.,  $\bar{B}'_{\text{local},i}$   
277  $\geq 0.5$ ;  $B'_{\text{meta},i} \geq 0.5$ ) and others had low betweenness scores at the local community level  
278 ( $\bar{B}'_{\text{local},i} < 0.5$ ; Fig. 5a).

279 In the metacommunity-scale network representing the four cool-temperate forests (sites  
280 1–4), many saprotrophic/endophytic fungal OTUs were associated with diverse plant  
281 species/taxa, located at the central topological positions within the network topology  
282 (Additional file 9; Figure S4; Fig. 5b). The list of these fungi with high metacommunity  
283 betweenness involved OTUs in the genera *Mortierella*, *Cladophialophora* (Chaetothyriales),  
284 *Pezicula* (Helotiales), and *Oidiodendron* as well as OTUs allied to *Ilyonectria protearum*  
285 (Nectriales) and *Cadophora orchidicola* (Helotiales) (Table 1). Most of those fungal OTUs  
286 also had high metacommunity betweenness, designated as metacommunity hubs (Fig. 5b).

287 In the metacommunity-scale network consisting of the warm-temperate and subtropical  
288 forests (sites 5–8), arbuscular mycorrhizal and saprotrophic/endophytic fungi were placed at  
289 the hub positions (Additional file 10; Figure S5; Fig. 5c). The list of non-Glomeromycota  
290 OTUs with highest metacommunity betweenness included *Saitozyma* (*Cryptococcus*),  
291 *Mortierella*, *Trichoderma*, and *Tomentella* as well as OTUs allied to *Cladophialophora*,  
292 *Scleropezicula* (Helotiales), *Melanconiella* (Diaporthales), and *Rhexodenticula* (incertae  
293 sedis) (Table 1). Among the taxa, *Saitozyma* and *Mortierella* included OTUs classified as  
294 metacommunity hubs (Fig. 5c; Table 1). In an additional analysis of a metacommunity-scale  
295 network including only the three subtropical forests (sites 6-8), similar sets of fungal taxa  
296 were highlighted (Additional file 11; Table S1). The detailed information of the network  
297 index scores examined in this study is provided in Data S3 (Additional file 4: Data S4).

298

## 299 Discussion

300 Based on the metadata of root-associated fungi across the Japanese Archipelago, we herein  
301 inferred the structure of a network representing metacommunity-scale associations of 150  
302 plant species/taxa and 8,080 fungal OTUs. Our analysis targeted diverse functional groups of  
303 fungi such as arbuscular mycorrhizal, ectomycorrhizal, ericoid-mycorrhizal,  
304 saprotrophic/endophytic, and pathogenic fungi, which have been analyzed separately in most  
305 previous studies on plant–fungus networks. The comprehensive analysis of below-ground  
306 plant–fungus associations allowed us to explore metacommunity hub fungi, which not only  
307 occurred over broad geographic ranges but also had broad host ranges in respective local  
308 communities. Consequently, this study highlights several taxonomic groups of fungi  
309 potentially playing key roles in synchronizing metacommunity-scale processes of temperate  
310 and/or subtropical forests.

311 In the metacommunity-scale network representing all the eight local forests (Fig. 4),  
312 fungi in several saprotrophic or endophytic taxa showed higher betweenness centrality scores  
313 than other fungi (Table 1). *Mortierella* is generally considered as a saprotrophic lineage [77]  
314 but it also includes fungi contributing to the growth and pathogen resistance of plants [78-80].  
315 A phosphate solubilizing strain of *Mortierella*, for example, increases shoot and root growth  
316 of host plants under salt stress, especially when co-inoculated with an arbuscular mycorrhizal  
317 fungus [78]. In addition, polyunsaturated fatty acids produced by some *Mortierella* species  
318 are known to increase resistance of plants against phytopathogens [79, 80]. Fungi in the genus  
319 *Trichoderma* are commonly detected and isolated from the rhizosphere [77, 81]. Many of  
320 them inhibit the growth of other fungi, often used in the biological control of phytopathogens  
321 [82-84]. Some of them are also reported to suppress root-knot nematodes [85] or to promote  
322 root growth [86]. The analysis also highlighted basidiomycete yeasts in the genus *Saitozyma*  
323 or *Cryptococcus* (teleomorph = *Filobasidiella*), which are often isolated from soil [22, 87] as  
324 well as both above-ground and below-ground parts of plants [88-91].

325 Along with those possibly saprotrophic or endophytic taxa, ericoid mycorrhizal and  
326 phytopathogenic taxa of fungi displayed relatively high betweenness scores within the  
327 metacommunity-scale network representing all the eight local forests (Table 1). Specifically,  
328 *Oidiodendron* (teleomorph = *Myxotrichum*) is a taxon represented by possibly ericoid

329 mycorrhizal species (*O. maius* and *O. griseum*) [92, 93], although fungi in the genus are found  
330 also from roots of non-ericaceous plants and soil [94]. On the other hand, fungi in the family  
331 Nectriaceae are known to cause black foot disease [95], often having serious damage on  
332 economically important woody plants [96, 97]. Although we collected seemingly benign roots  
333 in the study forests, some samples may be damaged by those pathogens. Alternatively, some  
334 lineages of Nectriaceae fungi may be associated with plant hosts non-symptomatically,  
335 having adverse effects context-dependently.

336       Although these fungi were candidates of metacommunity hubs, which are characterized  
337 by broad geographic ranges and host plant ranges, none except but a *Mortierella* OTU had  
338 high betweenness scores at both local and metacommunity levels (Fig. 5a). This result  
339 suggests that even if some fungi have broad geographic ranges across the Japanese  
340 Archipelago, few played important topological roles in each of the local networks  
341 representing plant–fungus associations. In other words, fungi that can adapt to biotic and  
342 abiotic environments in forest ecosystems throughout cool-temperate, warm-temperate, and  
343 subtropical regions are rare.

344       Therefore, we also explored fungi with broad geographic and host ranges within the  
345 metacommunities representing northern (cool-temperate) and southern (warm-temperate and  
346 subtropical) regions of Japan. In the metacommunity consisting of the four cool-temperate  
347 forests (Additional file 9; Figure S4), fungal OTUs in the genera *Mortierella*,  
348 *Cladophialophora*, and *Pezicula* as well as those allied to *Ilyonectria* and *Cadophora* had  
349 highest betweenness at both local and metacommunity levels, classified as metacommunity  
350 hubs (Fig. 5b; Table 1). Among them, *Cladophialophora* is of particular interest because it  
351 has been known as a lineage of “dark septate endophytes” [98-100] (*sensu* [14, 15, 101]). A  
352 species within the genus, *C. chaetospora* (= *Heteroconium chaetospora*), to which  
353 high-betweenness OTUs in our data were closely allied, has been known not only to provide  
354 nitrogen to host plants but also to suppress pathogens [12, 16, 102]. Likewise, the Helotiales  
355 genus *Pezicula* (anamorph = *Cryptosporiopsis*) includes endophytic fungi [103-105], some of  
356 which produce secondary metabolites suppressing other microbes in the rhizosphere [106,  
357 107]. Our finding that some of *Cladophialophora* and *Pezicula* fungi could be associated with

358 various taxonomic groups of plants over broad geographic ranges highlights potentially  
359 important physiological and ecological roles of those endophytes at the community and  
360 metacommunity levels.

361 In the southern metacommunity networks consisting of warm-temperate and subtropical  
362 forests (Additional file 10; Figure S5), some arbuscular mycorrhizal OTUs and *Saitozyma*  
363 (*Cryptococcus*) and *Mortierella* OTUs had high betweenness scores at both local and  
364 metacommunity levels, designated as metacommunity hubs (Fig. 5c; Table 1). Given the  
365 above-mentioned prevalence of fungal OTUs allied to *Cladophialophora chaetospora* in the  
366 cool-temperate metacommunity, the contrasting list of metacommunity hubs in the southern  
367 (warm-temperate–subtropical) metacommunity implies that different taxonomic and  
368 functional groups of fungi play major metacommunity-scale roles in different climatic regions.  
369 This working hypothesis is partially supported by previous studies indicating endemism and  
370 vicariance in the biogeography of fungi and bacteria [108, 109], promoting conceptual  
371 advances beyond the classic belief that every microbe is everywhere but the environment  
372 selects microbes colonizing respective local communities [110].

373 The roles of those metacommunity hubs detected in this study are of particular interest  
374 from the aspect of theoretical ecology. Hub species connected to many other species in an  
375 ecosystem often integrate “energy channels” [111] within species interaction networks,  
376 having great impacts on biodiversity and productivity of the ecosystems [35]. The concept of  
377 “keystone” or “foundation” species [112, 113] can be extended to the metacommunity level,  
378 thereby promoting studies exploring species that restructure and synchronize ecological (and  
379 evolutionary) dynamics over broad geographic ranges [35]. Given that below-ground plant–  
380 fungus symbioses are key components of the terrestrial biosphere [1, 2], identifying fungal  
381 species that potentially have great impacts on the metacommunity-scale processes of such  
382 below-ground interactions will provide crucial insights into the conservation and restoration  
383 of forests and grasslands. We here showed that the list of metacommunity hubs could involve  
384 various lineages of endophytic fungi, whose ecosystem-scale functions have been  
385 underappreciated compared to those of mycorrhizal fungi. As those endophytic fungi are  
386 potentially used as inoculants when we reintroduce plant seedlings in ecosystem restoration

387 programs [20, 51], exploring fungi with highest potentials in each climatic/biogeographic  
388 region will be a promising direction of research in conservation biology.

389 The finding that compositions of metacommunity hubs could vary depending on climatic  
390 regions also gives key implications for the application of endophytes in agriculture. Although  
391 a number of studies have tried to use endophytic fungi and/or bacteria as microbial inoculants  
392 in agriculture [17, 18, 114], such microbes introduced to agroecosystems are often  
393 outcompeted and replaced by indigenous (resident) microbes [115, 116]. Moreover, even if an  
394 endophytic species or strain increases plant growth in pot experiments under controlled  
395 environmental conditions, its effects in the field often vary considerably depending on biotic  
396 and abiotic contexts of local agroecosystems [17] (see also [117]). Therefore, in the screening  
397 of endophytes that can be used in broad ranges of biotic and abiotic environmental conditions,  
398 the metacommunity-scale network analysis outlined in this study will help us find promising  
399 candidates out of thousands or tens of thousands microbial species in the wild. Consequently,  
400 to find promising microbes whose inocula can persist in agroecosystems for long time periods,  
401 exploration of metacommunity hubs needs to be performed in respective climatic or  
402 biogeographic regions.

403 For more advanced applications in conservation biology and agriculture, continual  
404 improvements of methods for analyzing metacommunity-scale networks are necessary. First,  
405 while the fungal OTUs in our network analysis was defined based on the cut-off sequence  
406 similarities used in other studies targeting “species-level” diversity of fungi [59, 61],  
407 physiological functions can vary greatly within fungal species or species groups [14, 118].  
408 Given that bioinformatic tools that potentially help us detect single-nucleotide-level variation  
409 are becoming available [119], the resolution of network analyses may be greatly improved in  
410 the near future. Second, although some computer programs allow us to infer functions of  
411 respective microbial OTUs within network data [63, 120], the database information of  
412 microbial functions remains scarce. To increase the coverage and accuracy of automatic  
413 annotations of microbial functions, studies describing the physiology, ecology, and genomes  
414 of microbes should be accelerated. With improved reference databases, more insights into the  
415 metacommunity-scale organization of plant–fungus associations will be obtained by



416 reanalyzing the network data by compiling enhanced information of fungal functional groups.  
417 Third, as the diversity and compositions of plant–fungus associations included in a network  
418 can depend on how we process raw samples, special care is required in the selection of  
419 methods for washing and preparing root (or soil) samples. By sterilizing root samples with  
420 NaClO [121], for example, we may be able to exclude fungi or bacteria that are merely  
421 adhering to root surfaces. Meanwhile, some of those fungi and bacteria on root surfaces may  
422 play pivotal physiological roles in the growth and survival of plants [122]. Accordingly, it  
423 would be productive to compare network topologies of plant–microbe associations among  
424 different source materials by partitioning endosphere, rhizoplane, and rhizosphere microbial  
425 samples with a series of sample cleaning processes using ultrasonic devices [123]. Fourth,  
426 although this study targeted fungi associated with roots, our methods can be easily extended  
427 to network analyses involving other groups of microbes. By simultaneously analyzing the  
428 prokaryote 16S rRNA region [123-125] with the fungal ITS region, we can examine how  
429 bacteria, archaea, and fungi are involved in below-ground webs of symbioses. Fifth, not only  
430 plant–microbe associations but also microbe–microbe interactions can be estimated with  
431 network analytical frameworks. Various statistical pipelines have been proposed to infer how  
432 microbes interact with each other in facilitative or competitive ways within host  
433 macroorganisms [37, 126, 127]. Overall, those directions of analytical extensions will  
434 enhance our understanding of plant microbiome dynamics in nature.

435

## 436 **Conclusions**

437 By compiling datasets of below-ground plant–fungus associations in temperate and  
438 subtropical forest ecosystems, we explored metacommunity-hub fungi, which were  
439 characterized by broad geographic and host ranges. Such metacommunity-scale analyses are  
440 expected to provide bird’s-eye views of complex plant–microbe associations, highlighting  
441 plant-growth-promoting microbes that can be applied to diverse plant taxa in various  
442 environments. Given that endophytic fungi promoting the growth and pathogen resistance of  
443 host plants can be isolated from forest soil (e.g., *Cladophialophora chaetospora* [99]), the list

444 of metacommunity-hub endophytic fungi featured in this study itself may include prospective  
445 species to be used in agriculture. By extending the targets of such network analyses to diverse  
446 types of plant-associated microbes (e.g., phyllosphere fungi and bacteria [75, 124, 128]) in  
447 various climatic/biogeographic regions, a solid basis for managing plant microbiomes will be  
448 developed.

449

#### 450 **Abbreviations**

451 DDBJ: DNA Data Bank of Japan; ITS: internal transcribed spacer; OTU: Operational  
452 taxonomic unit; PERMANOVA: permutational analysis of variance; PERMDISP:  
453 permutational analysis for the multivariate homogeneity of dispersions; rRNA: ribosomal  
454 ribonucleic acid.

455

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466

#### 467 **Availability of data and materials**

468 The Illumina sequencing data were deposited to DNA Data Bank of Japan (DDBJ Sequence  
469 Read Archive: DRA006339). The raw data of fungal community structure and the fungal  
470 community matrices analyzed are available with the source study [52] and Additional files  
471 2-4, respectively. The Unix scripts for the bioinformatic pipeline and the R scripts for the

472 PERMANOVA and PERMDISP analyses are available as Additional files 1 and 4,  
473 respectively.

474

#### 475 **Authors' contributions**

476 HT designed the work. HT, AST, and HS conducted fieldwork. HT performed the molecular  
477 experiments. HT wrote the manuscript with AST and HS.

478

#### 479 **Competing interests**

480 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

481

#### 482 **Consent for publication**

483 Not applicable

484

#### 485 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

486 Not applicable

487

#### 488 **Additional files**

489 **Additional file 1: Data S1.** Unix scripts for the bioinformatic pipeline.

490 **Additional file 2: Data S2.** Sample-level matrices of the eight forests examined.

491 **Additional file 3: Data S3.** Species-level matrices of plant–fungus associations.

492 **Additional file 4: Data S4.** Information of 8080 fungal OTUs analyzed.

493 **Additional file 5: Data S5.** R scripts for the PERMANOVA and PERMDISP analyses.

494 **Additional file 6: Figure S1.** Number of sequencing reads, interaction specificity, and local  
495 betweenness.

496 **Additional file 7: Figure S2.** Structure of plant–fungus networks in each local forest.

497 **Additional file 8 Figure S3.** Locality information within the full metacommunity-scale  
498 network.

499 **Additional file 9: Figure S4.** Metacommunity-scale network of cool-temperate forests.

500 **Additional file 10: Figure S5.** Metacommunity-scale network of warm-temperate and  
501 subtropical forests.

502 **Additional file 11: Table S1.** Top-10 list of non-Glomeromycota OTUs with highest  
503 betweenness within the subtropical metacommunity network.

504

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**Table 1** Top-10 list of non-Glomeromycota OTUs with highest betweenness within the metacommunity networks. In each of the three metacommunity-scale networks examined (full, cool-temperate, and warm-temperate/subtropical), fungal OTUs were ranked based on their betweenness centrality scores. As taxonomic information of Glomeromycota OTUs with high betweenness scores was redundant (e.g., *Glomus* spp. or Glomeraceae spp.), the top-10 list of non-Glomeromycota OTUs is shown. Taxonomy information of each OTU was inferred based on the query-centric auto-*k*-nearest-neighbor algorithm of reference database search [55, 56] and subsequent taxonomic assignment with the lowest common ancestor algorithm [62]. The results of the NCBI nucleotide Blast are also shown. For simplicity, the functional groups of fungi inferred with the program FUNGuild [63] were organized into several categories. See Data S4 (Additional file 4) for details of the categories and for full results including Glomeromycota and other fungal OTUs.

OTU	Phylum	Class	Order	Family	Genus	Category	NCBI Blast top hit	Accession	Cover	Identity
Full (8sites)										
F_0042*	-	-	Mortierellales	Mortierellaceae	<i>Mortierella</i>	Saprotroph/Endophyte	<i>Mortierella humilis</i>	KP714537	100%	100%
F_0381	Basidiomycota	Tremellomycetes	Trichosporonales	Trichosporonaceae	<i>Cryptococcus</i>	Others_Unknown	<i>Saitozyma podzolica</i> †	KY320605	92%	99%
F_0079	Ascomycota	Sordariomycetes	Hypocreales	Nectriaceae	-	Saprotroph/Endophyte	<i>Ilyonectria protearum</i>	NR_152890	99%	100%
F_0489	-	-	Mortierellales	Mortierellaceae	<i>Mortierella</i>	Saprotroph/Endophyte	<i>Mortierella</i> sp.	KM113754	100%	100%
F_0010	Ascomycota	Leotiomycetes	-	Myxotrichaceae	<i>Oidiodendron</i>	Ericoid_Mycorrhizal	<i>Oidiodendron maius</i>	LC206669	100%	100%
F_0368	Basidiomycota	Malasseziomycetes	Malasseziales	Malasseziaceae	<i>Malassezia</i>	Others_Unknown	<i>Malassezia restricta</i>	KT809059	100%	100%
F_0623	-	-	Mortierellales	Mortierellaceae	<i>Mortierella</i>	Saprotroph/Endophyte	<i>Mortierella gamsii</i>	KY305027	100%	100%
F_1188	Basidiomycota	Tremellomycetes	Trichosporonales	Trichosporonaceae	<i>Cryptococcus</i>	Others_Unknown	<i>Saitozyma podzolica</i> †	KY320605	92%	99%
F_0007	Ascomycota	Sordariomycetes	Diaporthales	Melanconidaceae	<i>Melanconiella</i>	Saprotroph/Endophyte	<i>Melanconiella elegans</i>	KJ173701	100%	85%
F_0485	Ascomycota	Sordariomycetes	Hypocreales	Hypocreaceae	<i>Trichoderma</i>	Saprotroph/Endophyte	<i>Trichoderma</i> sp.	HG008760	100%	100%

Northern 4 sites (cool-temperate)

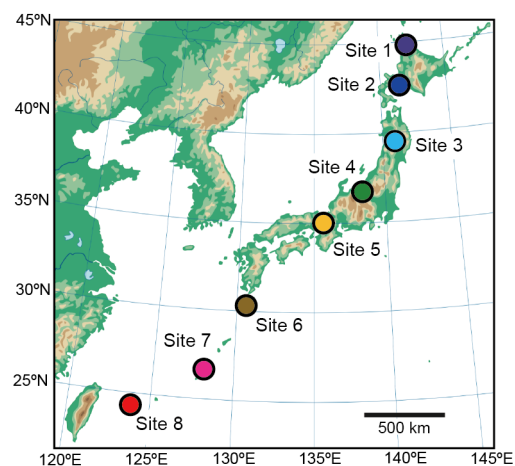
F_0042*	-	-	Mortierellales	Mortierellaceae	<i>Mortierella</i>	Saprotroph/Endophyte	<i>Mortierella humilis</i>	KP714537	100%	100%
F_0034*	Ascomycota	Eurotiomycetes	Chaetothyriales	Herpotrichiellaceae	<i>Cladophialophora</i>	Saprotroph/Endophyte	<i>Cladophialophora chaetospora</i>	KF359558	100%	99%
F_0079*	Ascomycota	Sordariomycetes	Hypocreales	Nectriaceae	-	Saprotroph/Endophyte	<i>Ilyonectria protearum</i>	NR_152890	99%	100%
F_0015*	Ascomycota	-	-	-	-	Others_Unknown	<i>Cadophora orchidicola</i>	KX611558	100%	99%
F_0202*	Ascomycota	Eurotiomycetes	Chaetothyriales	Herpotrichiellaceae	<i>Cladophialophora</i>	Saprotroph/Endophyte	<i>Cladophialophora chaetospora</i>	HQ871875	100%	99%
F_0195*	Ascomycota	Eurotiomycetes	Chaetothyriales	Herpotrichiellaceae	<i>Cladophialophora</i>	Saprotroph/Endophyte	<i>Cladophialophora chaetospora</i>	EU035405	100%	100%
F_0181*	Ascomycota	Leotiomycetes	Helotiales	Dermateaceae	<i>Pezizula</i>	Endophyte	<i>Pezizula melanigena</i>	LC206665	100%	99%
F_0010	Ascomycota	Leotiomycetes	-	Myxotrichaceae	<i>Oidiodendron</i>	Ericoid_Mycorrhizal	<i>Oidiodendron maius</i>	LC206669	100%	100%
F_0103*	Ascomycota	Eurotiomycetes	Chaetothyriales	Herpotrichiellaceae	<i>Cladophialophora</i>	Saprotroph/Endophyte	<i>Cladophialophora chaetospora</i>	EU035403	100%	97%
F_0489*	-	-	Mortierellales	Mortierellaceae	<i>Mortierella</i>	Saprotroph/Endophyte	<i>Mortierella</i> sp.	KM113754	100%	100%

Southern 4 sites (warm-temperate and subtropical)

F_0381*	Basidiomycota	Tremellomycetes	Trichosporonales	Trichosporonaceae	<i>Cryptococcus</i>	Others_Unknown	<i>Saitozyma podzolica</i> †	KY320605	92%	99%
F_0042*	-	-	Mortierellales	Mortierellaceae	<i>Mortierella</i>	Saprotroph/Endophyte	<i>Mortierella humilis</i>	KP714537	100%	100%
F_0610*	Ascomycota	Sordariomycetes	Hypocreales	Hypocreaceae	<i>Trichoderma</i>	Saprotroph/Endophyte	<i>Trichoderma spirale</i>	KU948158	100%	100%
F_1188*	Basidiomycota	Tremellomycetes	Trichosporonales	Trichosporonaceae	<i>Cryptococcus</i>	Others_Unknown	<i>Saitozyma podzolica</i> †	KY320605	92%	99%
F_0029	Ascomycota	Eurotiomycetes	Chaetothyriales	Herpotrichiellaceae	-	Others_Unknown	<i>Cladophialophora</i> sp.	LC189029	100%	99%
F_0017	Ascomycota	-	-	-	-	Others_Unknown	<i>Scleropezizula</i> sp.	KT809119	100%	98%
F_0007	Ascomycota	Sordariomycetes	Diaporthales	Melanconidaceae	<i>Melanconiella</i>	Saprotroph/Endophyte	<i>Melanconiella elegans</i>	KJ173701	100%	85%
F_0485	Ascomycota	Sordariomycetes	Hypocreales	Hypocreaceae	<i>Trichoderma</i>	Saprotroph/Endophyte	<i>Trichoderma</i> sp.	HG008760	100%	100%
F_0112	Basidiomycota	Agaricomycetes	Thelephorales	Thelephoraceae	<i>Tomentella</i>	Ectomycorrhizal	<i>Tomentella stuposa</i>	KR019860	100%	98%
F_0073	Ascomycota	Sordariomycetes	-	-	-	Others_Unknown	<i>Rhexodenticula acaciae</i>	KY173442	94%	95%

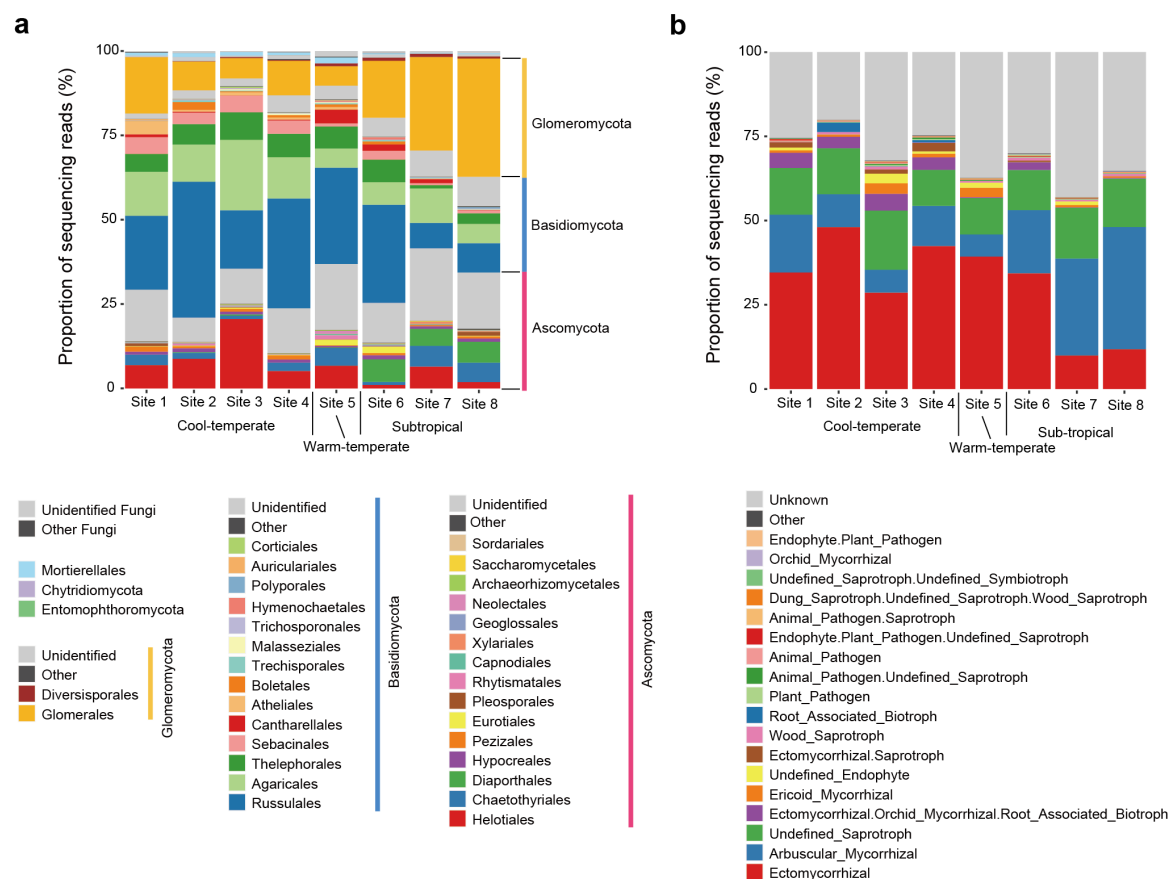
\*Fungal OTUs classified as metacommunity hubs (mean local betweenness > 0.5; metacommunity betweenness > 0.5)

†Synonym, *Cryptococcus podzolica*



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**Fig. 1** Study sites examined in this study. Across the entire range of the Japanese Archipelago, root samples were collected in four cool-temperate forests (sites 1–4), one warm-temperate forest (site 5), and three subtropical forests (sites 6–8).

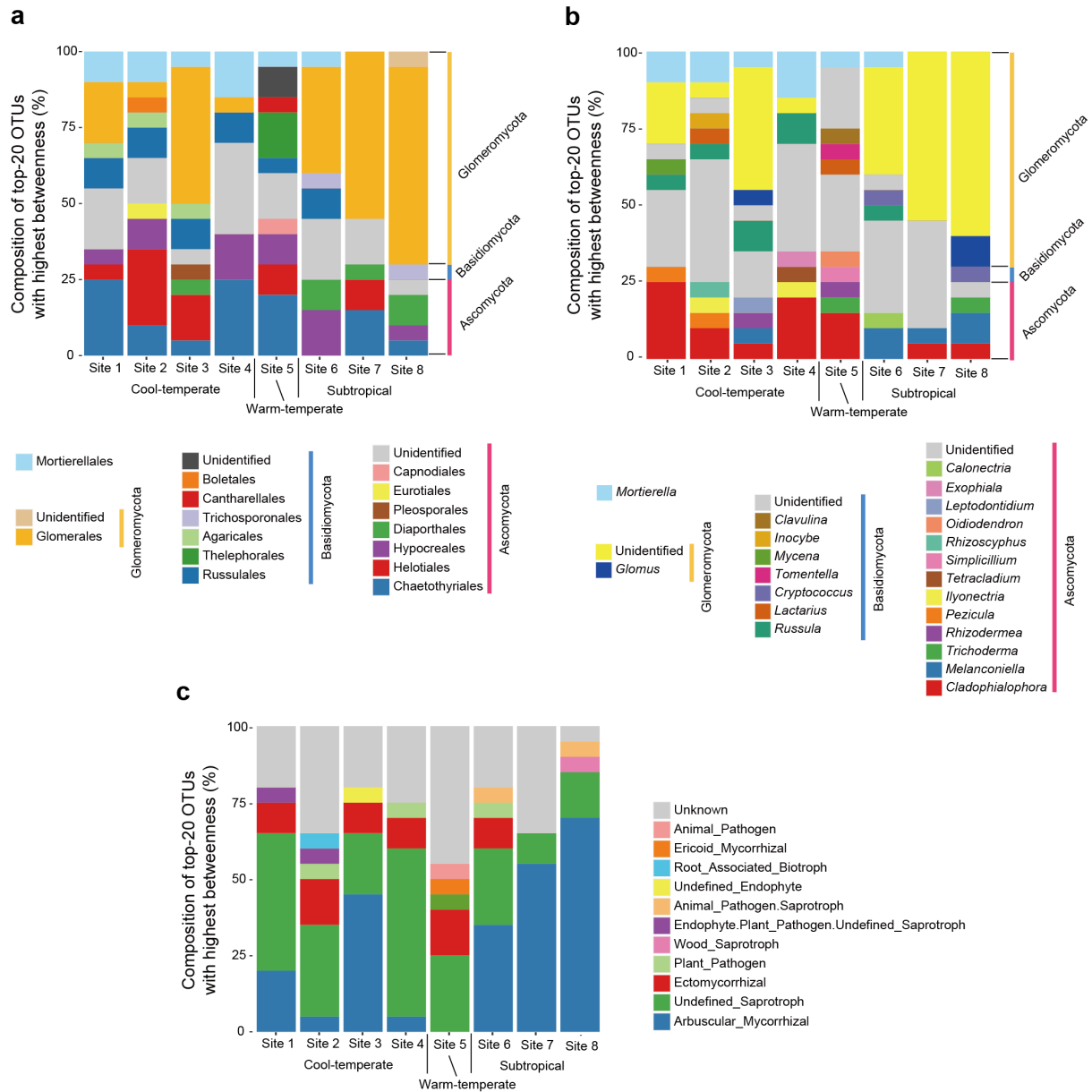


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9 **Fig. 2** Compositions of fungal taxa and functional groups in each forest. **a** Order-level  
 10 taxonomic composition of fungal OTUs in each locality. The number of fungal OTUs  
 11 detected is shown in a parenthesis for each forest. **b** Functional-group composition. The  
 12 fungal functional groups were inferred by the program FUNGuild [63].

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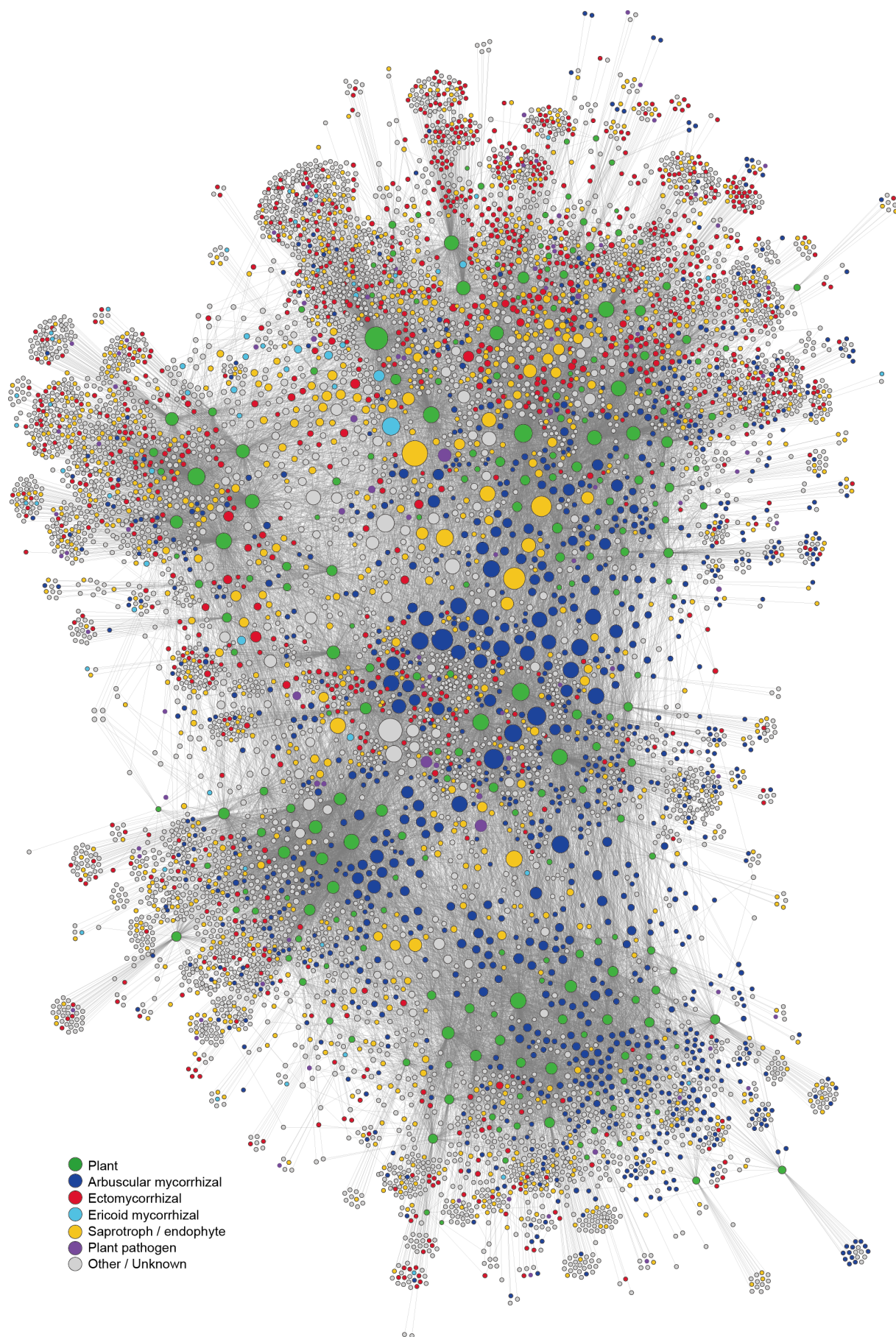


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16 **Fig. 3** Fungal OTUs with highest local betweenness. **a** Order-level taxonomic composition of  
 17 top-20 OTUs with highest local betweenness in each forest. See Data S4 (Additional file 4)  
 18 for betweenness scores of all fungal OTUs in respective local forests. **b** Genus-level  
 19 taxonomic composition of top-20 OTUs with highest local betweenness. **c** Functional-group  
 20 composition of top-20 OTUs with highest local betweenness.

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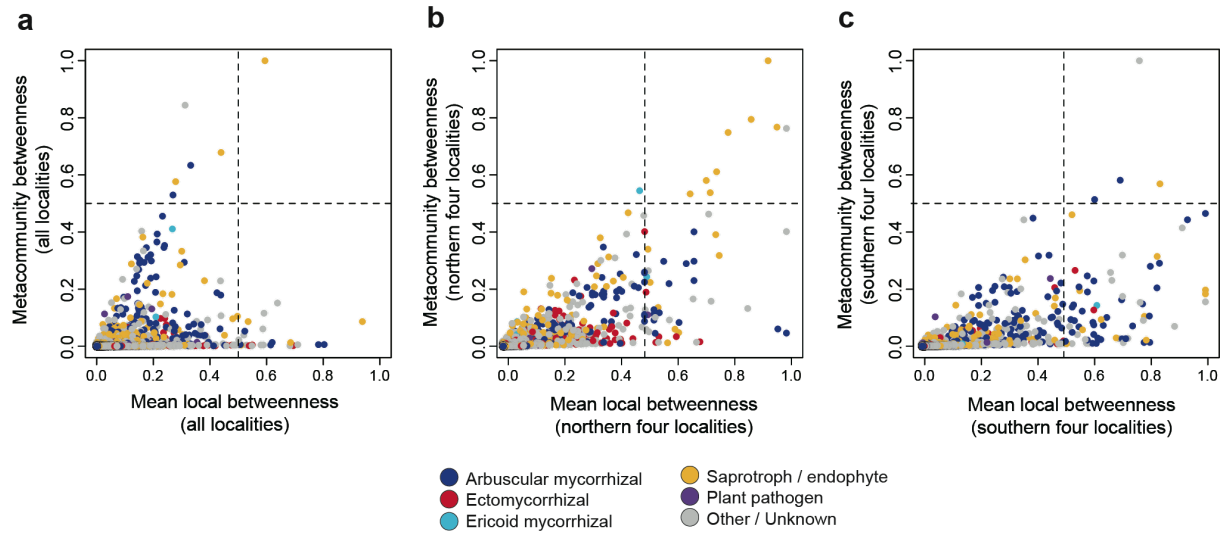


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24 **Fig. 4** Metacommunity-scale network including all the eight local forests. The size of circles  
25 roughly represents relative scores of betweenness centrality. The functional groups of fungi  
26 inferred with the program FUNGuild [63] were organized into six categories: i.e., arbuscular  
27 mycorrhizal (blue), ectomycorrhizal (red), ericoid mycorrhizal (skyblue),  
28 saprotrophic/endophytic (yellow), plant pathogenic (purple), and other/unknown fungi (grey)  
29 (Additional file 4; Data S4). For plant species/taxa (green), the geographic information of  
30 source populations is indicated in Additional file 8 (Figure S3).

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34 **Fig. 5** Relationship between local- and metacommunity-level betweenness. **a** Full  
35 metacommunity. On the horizontal axis, the mean values of betweenness centrality scores  
36 across all the eight local forests are shown for respective fungal OTUs. On the vertical axis,  
37 the betweenness scores within the metacommunity-scale network consisting of the eight  
38 localities (Fig. 4) are shown for respective OTUs. **b** Metacommunity of cool-temperate  
39 forests. For the sub-dataset consisting of the four cool-temperate forests (Additional file 9:  
40 Figure S4), mean local betweenness and metacommunity betweenness are shown on the  
41 horizontal and vertical axes, respectively. **c** Metacommunity of warm-temperate and  
42 subtropical forests. For the sub-dataset consisting of the warm-temperate forest and the three  
43 subtropical forests (Additional file 10: Figure S5), mean local betweenness and  
44 metacommunity betweenness are shown on the horizontal and vertical axes, respectively.

45