

1 A differential capacity of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungal colonization under well-watered conditions and
2 its relationship with drought stress mitigation in unimproved vs improved soybean genotypes

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16

17 **Abstract**

18 Modern breeding programs may cause a reduction in plant responsiveness to arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM)
19 fungi. In this study, we tested the hypothesis that a higher arbuscule formation and mycorrhizal
20 dependency (MD) response in unimproved soybean genotypes than improved is related to drought stress
21 tolerance caused by enhanced growth parameters and oxidative stress regulation. Firstly, 4 unimproved
22 and 4 improved soybean genotypes were compared under well-watered conditions. After 20 days, all
23 unimproved soybean genotypes showed a higher increase in arbuscule formation, as well as a positive and
24 higher MD index in foliar mineral nutrient and growth parameters than 4 improved. Secondly, tolerance
25 to drought stress was evaluated in two improved soybean genotypes and two unimproved, selected for the
26 most contrasting response to arbuscule formation, under well-watered conditions. After 20 days of 30%
27 of field capacity, arbuscule formation was higher in unimproved than improved genotypes. Mycorrhizal
28 dependency evaluated as leaf area, shoot and root dry mass were highest in AM unimproved genotypes.
29 Moreover, malondialdehyde was lower and proline was higher in unimproved than improved genotypes.
30 The potential capacity of arbuscule formation is discussed as a selection criterion to identify improved
31 soybean genotypes with increased efficiency under well-watered conditions and an enhanced capacity to
32 relieve drought stress.

33 *Keywords:* Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF); drought tolerance; oxidative stress; improved and
34 unimproved soybean; mycorrhizal dependency.

35

36 * Authors contributed equally in this paper.

37

38 **Introduction**

39 Many investigations have demonstrated that arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi enhance not
40 only growth and mineral element uptake, but also resistance to drought stress (Ruiz-Lozano et al. 1995;
41 Augé 2001; Rapparini and Peñuelas 2014; Saia et al. 2014; Grumberg et al. 2015). However, modern
42 breeding programs might have caused a reduction in plant responsiveness to AM fungi (Peréz-Jaramillo
43 et al. 2016). The effect of domestication and plant breeding was addressed by pioneering studies
44 evaluating the ability of ancestors, landraces and modern wheat genotypes to sustain AM symbiosis
45 (Kapulnik and Kushnir 1991). Differences in mycorrhizal dependency (MD), defined by Plenchette et al.
46 (1983) as the degree of plant growth change associated with AM colonization, were higher in modern *T.*
47 *aestivum* cultivars and ancestors released before 1950 than in those released later (Hetrick et al. 1992;
48 1995). Zhu et al. (2001) also found a reduction in mycorrhizal responsiveness in Australian modern wheat
49 cultivars as compared to old cultivars. Tawaraya (2003) reported that cultivated plant species showed a
50 lower MD than wild ones. In these studies, the highly fertile conditions used during the plant breeding
51 process were proposed as a possible explanation for the reduced mycorrhizal dependence of modern
52 genotypes. By contrast, Bryla and Koide (1990) and Allen (1991) reported that wild type plants were
53 found to be less dependent on mycorrhiza. Furthermore, in maize plants, An et al. (2010) found that
54 modern hybrids showed significantly greater values than inbred lines and older landraces. In a
55 metagenomic analysis, Lehmann et al. (2012) did not find evidence that new crop plant genotypes had
56 lost their ability to respond to mycorrhiza due to agricultural and breeding practices. They observed that
57 although new cultivars were less intensely colonized, they were more mycorrhiza-responsive (and
58 possibly dependent) than ancestral genotypes.

59 Particularly in soybean, Heckman and Angle (1987) reported variability in root colonization by
60 indigenous soil populations of AM fungi. Khalil et al. (1994; 1999) found that both AM fungal
61 colonization and MD increased in unimproved soybean genotypes, showing greater benefits from
62 mycorrhizal symbiosis than improved cultivars. Accordingly, Khalil et al. (1994) suggested that
63 unimproved soybeans, such as *Glycine soja*, may be an important source of breeding material for
64 optimizing AM associations. Recently, our group showed differences in AM colonization between
65 improved and unimproved soybean genotypes (Salloum et al. 2016), with AM unimproved soybean
66 genotypes showing a higher arbuscule formation and a faster MD response evaluated as growth
67 parameters and oxidative stress regulation under well-watered conditions. However, differences between
68 AM colonization and tolerance to drought stress between improved and unimproved soybean genotypes
69 have still not been assessed.

70 Soybean growth, development and yield are greatly affected by several abiotic stressors, such as
71 drought (Mohammadi et al. 2012). In Argentina, soybean production has been extended to less fertile and
72 arid areas than traditionally used (Pérez Brandán et al. 2012); therefore, the objectives of this study were:
73 firstly, to validate previous results (Salloum et al. 2016) by contributing with information about AM-
74 improved vs AM-unimproved soybean genotypes under well-watered conditions and secondly, to assess
75 AM colonization and tolerance to drought stress of improved vs unimproved soybean genotypes by
76 measuring growth and biochemical parameters related to oxidative stress: chlorophyll; malondialdehyde;
77 total antioxidant capacity measured as the ferric-reducing antioxidant power, assay (FRAP) content; and
78 osmotic potential regulation, measured as proline foliar content (Gill and Tuteja 2010). We postulate that
79 a higher arbuscule formation and MD response in unimproved soybean genotypes than in improved ones
80 is related to drought stress tolerance, via enhanced oxidative stress and osmotic potential regulation. Since
81 drought stress is one of the most important stressors in the world, we highlight the importance of selecting
82 soybean genotypes with enhanced capacity for AMF colonization.

84 **Materials and methods**

85 Plant and fungal material

86 This study assessed four improved soybean (*Glycine max*) genotypes and four unimproved
87 soybean (*Glycine soja*), genotypes. The improved genotypes included *DM 50048* (I-1) and *NA 5009* (I-2),
88 characterized in Salloum et al. (2016), and *INTACTA* (I-3) and *SYNGENTA 4X9* (I-4). The unimproved
89 genotypes included *PI57440* (UI-3) and *PI90768* (UI-4), characterized in Salloum et al. (2016), as well as
90 *PI89772* (UI-1) and *PI 548510* (UI-2). All genotypes belong to Farming Experimental Station of the
91 National Agricultural Technology Institute (EEA-INTA)-Marcos Juárez germplasm collection in
92 Cordoba, Argentina. The mixed AMF inoculum was isolated from soybean roots collected from a
93 soybean monoculture system developed in EEA INTA Manfredi-Argentina. The inoculum was isolated
94 and multiplied in pots containing sterile sand/soil mix (1:1 v/v), using soybean and *Medicago sativa* as
95 plant-trap, under greenhouse conditions at 26 °C, and watered daily with distilled water, for two years.
96 The mixed AMF inoculum has been morpho-taxonomically described in Salloum et al. (2016). The
97 mixed AMF inoculum was dominated by *Funneliformis mosseae*, with 427 spores per 100 g of dry soil,
98 followed by *Paraglomus occultum* with 147 spores, *Diversispora spurca* with 112 spores, *Glomus* sp.
99 with 22 spores, and *Acaulospora scrobiculata* and *Gigaspora* sp., with only 7 and 3 spores, respectively.

100 Plant-fungus bioassays

101 Seeds of soybean genotypes were sterilized using 18% hypochlorite for 30 seconds. Then,
102 pregerminated seeds were introduced in 1-kg pots containing a sterile sand/soil mix (1:1) substrate and
103 watered daily with distilled water. The soil used in the experiment contained 4.8 ppm N-NO₃, 2.5 ppm S-
104 SO₄; 5.9 ppm P, 3.09% organic matter, 1.79% organic carbon, 0.162% total nitrogen, 11.1 C/N ratio, and
105 pH of 6.7 (as determined in Soil laboratory in the University of Agronomy-Córdoba-Argentina). The
106 mycorrhizal inoculum consisted of 20 g of soybean root fragments, spores and mycelia. Treated plants
107 (hereafter referred to as AM plants) were inoculated in the center of the pot; non-AM plant treatments
108 received the same amount of autoclaved inoculum. Before autoclaving, the inoculum was filtered with

109 deionized water through a 37- μm sieve (Schleicher & Schuell, Germany). The filtrate was added to the
110 non-AM planting pots to provide them with the microbial populations accompanying the AM fungi,
111 following Porcel and Ruiz Lozano (2004). The AMF structures in the roots were stained according to
112 Phillips and Hayman (1970) and we identify as hyphae each of the branching filaments that make up the
113 mycelium of fungus; coiled hyphae as intracellular curls of hyphae (coils) and arbuscules as intricately
114 branched haustoria formed within a root cortex cells (Smith and Read 2008). Mycorrhizal colonization
115 was measured following McGonigle et al. (1990).

116

117 Experimental system under well-watered conditions

118 The experiment was conducted in greenhouse under controlled light conditions with a
119 photoperiod of 8 h of darkness and 16 h of light and temperature 26 °C. An 8 x 2 x 1 factorial randomized
120 block design included the eight study cultivars; two inoculation treatments: a non-arbuscular mycorrhizal
121 treatment and a treatment with mixed AM fungi inocula (non-AM and AM, respectively), and one
122 moisture regime: well-watered conditions for 20 days. Thus, there were 16 treatment combinations
123 replicated 10 times in three trials. The soil in the pots was watered with distilled water twice a week to
124 maintain soil water content at field capacity. Plant biomass and mineral nutrient content were evaluated
125 after the 20-day watering period. Mineral nutrient content in extract from leaves was determined by
126 chromatography with conductivity detection, according to Cataldi et al. (2003).

127

128 Experimental system under drought stress conditions

129 The experiment was conducted in a growth cabinet set at 26 °C, 8 h of darkness and 16 h of light.
130 The average photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) in the cabinet was approximately 350- 400 μmol
131 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. The drought stress test was performed using a 4 x 2 x 2 factorial randomized block design that
132 included four cultivars (I-1, I-2, UI-3 and UI-4); two inoculation treatments: a non-arbuscular mycorrhizal
133 treatment and a treatment with mixed AM fungi inocula (non-AM and AM, respectively); two moisture
134 regimes: well-watered and drought-stressed conditions. Thus, there were 16 treatment combinations
135 replicated 10 times in three trials. The two improved (I-1 and 2) and two unimproved (UI-3 and 4)
136 soybean genotypes; were selected because they exhibited contrasting response to AM colonization,
137 particularly arbuscule formation under well-watered conditions in this study and in Salloum et al. (2016).

138 Water soil field capacity (FC) was determined according to the following formula: Water soil FC
139 (%)= 100 X (MSW – DSW) / DSW, where DSW stood for dry soil weight, MSW for moisture soil
140 weight at FC. The soil of all pots was dried in an oven at 105 °C for 48 hours, determining the DSW of
141 each pot. Then, in order to determine MSW, they were watered at saturation and the weight of each pot
142 was taken when the drainage stopped. According to the formula, the soil water content at FC was 25%.
143 The soil of all pots was irrigated with distilled water twice a week to maintain soil water content at FC
144 during the first 20 days of plant growth. Then the soil in half of the pots was allowed to dry to 30% FC
145 (where the water content in the soil was 7.5%), while the other half was maintained at FC. The soil
146 moisture was maintained daily by weighing the pots and replenishing the amount of water lost.

147

148 Determination of plant growth and oxidative stress parameters

149 Plant biomass was measured as root and shoot fragments, after drying to a constant weight of 70
150 °C. Leaf area was estimated from the first trifoliolate leaves by tracing the leaflet outlines on paper, cutting
151 out the paper and weighing the cutouts; those weights were compared with the weight of a known area of
152 paper (1 cm²). Biochemical characters of oxidative stress were evaluated using 100 mg frozen tissue of
153 the second trifoliolate soybean leaves. Oxidative damage was measured as lipid peroxidation, estimated as
154 the content of 2-thiobarbituric acid-reactive substances and expressed as equivalents of malondialdehyde,
155 according to Hodges et al. (1999). Total chlorophyll was estimated by extracting the leaf material in 80%
156 ethanol after incubation at 80 °C for 15 min. Absorbance was recorded at 665, 645 and 470 nm and total
157 chlorophyll was calculated according to Arnon (1949). Total antioxidant capacity was evaluated as FRAP
158 (Benzie and Strain 1996). This method measures the ability of antioxidants to reduce ferric iron. It is
159 based on the reduction of the complex of ferric iron and 2,3,5-triphenyl-1,3,4-triaza-2-azoniacyclopenta-
160 1,4-diene chloride (TPTZ) to the ferrous form at low pH. This reduction is monitored by measuring the
161 change in absorption at 593 nm. Proline concentration was determined by the modified method of Bates
162 et al. (1973).

163

164 **Statistical analysis**

165 Plant biomass (leaf area, shoot and root dry mass) and oxidative stress parameters
166 (malondialdehyde; FRAP, chlorophyll and proline) were expressed as MD index, following Janos (2007),
167 which was calculated as [(AM-non-AM)/AM] x 100, using individual values of AM plants, and mean
168 values of non-AM plants. Each treatment included 10 replicates and three repetitions. Data obtained from
169 three repetitions were pooled. The results were analyzed by analysis of variance (ANOVA). Probabilities
170 of significance were used to test for significance among treatments and interactions, and differences
171 among means were compared using Fischer's F test ($p \leq 0.05$). Data analyses were performed with the
172 statistical package INFOSTAT (Di Rienzo et al. 2013). No data transformation was required because MD
173 percentage in morphological traits and biochemical parameters was normally distributed.

174

175 **Results**

176 **Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungus colonization under well-watered conditions: differences between** 177 **improved and unimproved soybean genotypes**

178 After 20 days of treatment under well-watered conditions, the highest percentages in total
179 mycorrhization, particularly arbuscule formation, were observed in unimproved soybean genotypes
180 (Table 1). Thus, UI-1, UI-2 and UI-4 had the highest content of arbuscules followed by UI-3 and I-2, with
181 the same the same percentage of arbuscules (Table 1). Moreover, all unimproved soybean genotypes
182 showed a similar percentage of total mycorrhizal colonization and arbuscule formation, whereas
183 improved ones showed more variability. Thus, AM colonization of I-1, particularly arbuscule percentage,
184 was the lowest among improved genotypes. Hypha and vesicle percentage varied among treatments and
185 in general, improved genotypes showed a higher percentage in vesicles than unimproved ones.
186 Mycorrhizal colonization was not observed in roots of non-AMF seedlings exposed to well-watered
187 conditions. All AM soybean lateral roots were larger and denser than non-AM soybean roots. In addition,

188 no differences in root morphology were observed between improved and unimproved soybean genotypes
189 (see Fig. S1 in supplementary material).
190

191 **Growth biomass and foliar mineral nutrient content under well-watered conditions: differences**
192 **between mycorrhizal improved and unimproved soybean genotypes**

193 After 20 days of exposure to well-watered conditions, biomass growth of both unimproved and
194 improved soybean genotypes was increased by AM inoculation, as indicated by a positive MD index in
195 leaf area, and in shoot and root dry mass (Fig. 1). However, MD index was higher in AM unimproved
196 soybean genotypes than in improved ones. In addition, foliar P0_4 , NO_3 and SO_4 content showed a positive
197 MD index in both unimproved and improved soybean genotypes (Fig. 2), with MD index being higher in
198 all unimproved soybean genotypes than in improved ones. Moreover, while none of the unimproved
199 soybean genotypes showed variability in MD level related to growth biomass and foliar mineral nutrient
200 content, improved ones were variable, with I-1 showing the lowest MD response (Fig. 1 and 2).

201 **Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungus colonization under drought stress: differences between improved**
202 **and unimproved soybean genotypes**

203 In general, after 20 days of drought stress a significant decrease in total percentage of AM
204 colonization was recorded with respect to AM soybean control plants. Under both control and drought-
205 stressed treatments, no differences were observed in the percentage of hyphae and coiled hyphae
206 structures between unimproved and improved soybean genotypes. However, total percentage of AM
207 colonization, particularly arbuscule formation, was higher in both unimproved genotypes under control
208 and drought-stressed conditions than in improved ones (Table 2). Particularly, variability in arbuscule
209 formation among improved genotypes was observed under drought-stress, with I-1 showing a lower
210 percentage than I-2 soybean genotype. Moreover, under drought- stress, AM soybean lateral roots were
211 larger and denser than non-AM soybean roots (see Fig. S2 in supplementary material). In addition, this
212 effect was more evident in root morphology of unimproved soybean genotypes. No mycorrhizal
213 colonization was observed in roots of non-AMF seedlings, regardless of irrigation conditions.

214 **Growth biomass, oxidative stress and proline regulation under drought stress: differences between**
215 **mycorrhizal improved and unimproved soybean genotypes**

216 Under control conditions (40 days after sowing), MD evaluated as shoot dry mass and leaf area,
217 was positive in both unimproved and I-2, while I-1 showed a variable response in leaf area. Moreover,
218 under drought-stress, I-1 was strongly affected, as indicated by a negative shoot dry mass, whereas both
219 unimproved genotypes as well as I-2 soybean genotype showed a higher and positive MD index (Fig. 3).
220 Forty days after sowing, chlorophyll content showed a positive MD index in control plants, which was
221 related to AM treatments, being highest in I-1. By contrast, after 20 days of drought-stress, chlorophyll
222 content decreased in all treatments (Fig. 4). Particularly, this behavior was marked in I-1 soybean
223 genotype, which showed a negative MD index.

224 Oxidative damage level, evaluated as malondialdehyde content, showed a reduction in AM
225 treatments, under control and drought-stressed conditions, as indicated by a negative MD index. Under
226 control conditions, the highest negative MD index was observed in I-1. By contrast, under drought-stress,
227 I-1 showed a significant change in MD index, with an increase in oxidative damage level as suggested by
228 a less negative MD index (Fig. 5). After 20 days of drought-stress and compared to control soybean
229 plants, no changes in MD index were evident either in unimproved genotype or in I-2 soybean plants.
230 Mycorrhizal dependency evaluated as FRAP content was positive under control conditions, with I-1
231 showing the highest value. Under drought-stress, both unimproved genotypes and I-2 and, to a lesser
232 extent, I-1, showed a negative MD index (Fig. 6). Under well-watered conditions, both unimproved
233 genotypes followed by I-2 showed a positive MD index, measured as proline content, whereas I-1
234 exhibited a negative response. Proline content was positive after drought-stress, with significant and
235 higher MD index in both unimproved genotypes followed by I-2 and a lesser extent by I-1, as compared
236 with MD in control soybean plants, (Fig. 7).

237

238 **Discussion**

239 Domestication is a complex evolutionary process involving morphological and physiological
240 changes that lead to the differentiation of domesticated taxa from their wild ancestors (Hancock 2005).
241 Domestication of plant species has been related to a decrease in the genetic diversity of modern crop
242 cultivars, which may have affected the ability of plants to establish beneficial associations with
243 rhizosphere microbes (Pérez-Jaramillo et al. 2016). Some investigations in soybean (Khalil et al. 1994;
244 1999) found that increase in both AM fungal colonization and MD were higher in unimproved soybean
245 genotypes than in modern cultivars, with variability between improved soybean ones (Salloum et al.
246 2016) under well-watered conditions. Our study makes a novel contribution by analyzing AM improved
247 vs unimproved soybean genotypes in their tolerance to drought-stress.

248 In this study, under well-watered conditions, different unimproved soybean genotypes showed a
249 higher total AM colonization than improved ones, supporting previous observations of Salloum et al.
250 (2016). These results are also in agreement with findings of Khalil et al. (1994), who reported percentages
251 of unimproved and improved soybean roots colonized by AMF ranging from 62% to 87%, with the
252 highest colonization being detected in *Glycine soja* (average 84%). Interestingly, in our study, all
253 unimproved soybean genotypes exhibited a higher arbuscule formation than improved ones. A similar
254 result was reported by Salloum et al. (2016). In Breadfruit (*Artocarpus* sp.), Xing et al. (2012) showed
255 that both vesicular and arbuscular colonization rates decreased significantly in more recently derived
256 breadfruit cultivars. The differential capacity of arbuscular formation between unimproved and improved
257 soybean genotypes was coincident with a differential MD index. Thus, the positive MD index expressed
258 as biomass growth and mineral nutrient content was higher in unimproved than in improved soybean
259 genotypes. Similarly, Khalil et al. (1994) reported that MD, measured as biomass parameters in soybean
260 genotypes, ranged from 40 to 94%, with *Glycine soja* having the highest MD. Moreover, our results
261 related to mineral nutrient content are in agreement with those of Khalil et al. (1999), who observed that

262 AM-*Glycine soja* had 7.8 times greater total shoot P than non-AM-*Glycine soja*, whereas comparable
263 values were 2.4 for *Mandarin* and 1.5 for *Swift*, the improved soybean ones. They also observed that
264 *Glycine soja* roots showed higher phosphatase activity with mycorrhizal colonization than the other two
265 cultivars. Moreover, Zhu et al. (2001) reported a lower mycorrhizal responsiveness, measured as shoot P
266 concentration, in modern wheat cultivars than in old cultivars. On the other hand, differences in root
267 architecture between modern cultivars and their wild relatives have been described for a number of crops.
268 For instance, a shallower root system was developed in cultivated lettuce, *Lactuca sativa*, than in wild
269 *Lactuca serriola* (Jackson 1995). In our study under both well-watered and drought-stressed conditions,
270 AM lateral roots were larger and denser than non-AM soybean roots, suggesting an enhanced capacity for
271 mineral nutrient uptake in AM soybean plants. However, no changes in AM mycorrhizal root morphology
272 were evident between AM improved and unimproved soybean genotypes, under well-watered, suggesting
273 that breeding selection did not affect root morphology in mycorrhizal soybean plants under these
274 conditions. In contrast, differences in root morphology were observed between AM improved and
275 unimproved soybean genotypes under drought-stressed conditions, at least at an early stage of
276 colonization. Further studies, including more soybean genotypes and quantitative analyses of roots,
277 should be conducted to test genetic variation in AM and non-AM unimproved vs improved soybean
278 genotypes.

279 Drought-stress reduced AMF percentage colonization in all AM soybean treatments. These
280 results support previous findings showing that mycorrhizal colonization would be reduced under a low
281 soil moisture level (Shukla et al. 2013; Wu et al. 2017). This effect of drought-stress on AMF
282 colonization has been related to a decrease of the overall metabolic rate caused by water deficiency
283 (Dell'Amico et al. 2002) or inhibition of spore germination and the spread of hyphae in soils (Wu et al.
284 2017). Although the depressive effect of drought-stress on mycorrhizal colonization was similar in both
285 improved and unimproved soybean genotypes, the levels of total mycorrhizal percentage and arbuscule
286 formation were highest in both unimproved genotypes. To our knowledge, our study is the first report of
287 variability in arbuscule formation between unimproved and improved soybean genotypes under drought-
288 stressed conditions, suggesting that breeding selection was able to modify arbuscule formation capacity in
289 soybean plants, not only under well-watered conditions but also under drought-stress. Arbuscules appear
290 as the most important structure of AM fungi, because they may facilitate bidirectional exchange of
291 nutrients between plants and the fungus (Smith and Smith 2011). Recently, Park et al. (2015)
292 demonstrated that arbuscule branching is related to different levels of arbuscular colonization and
293 productive symbiosis.

294 Many investigations showed that AM fungi are important in sustainable agriculture because they
295 improve plant water relations and thus increase the drought resistance of host plants (Gianinazi et al.
296 2010; Aroca et al. 2012). In our study, under drought-stress, MD index, evaluated as biomass growth and
297 chlorophyll content, was positive and higher in both unimproved genotypes, followed by I-2 and a lesser
298 extent I-1. A similar behaviour was observed when absolute data of growth parameters and chlorophyll
299 content were compared between AM and non AM-unimproved and improved soybean genotypes, under
300 drought-stress (Supplementary Table S1 and S2), suggesting that breeding selection reduced drought-
301 stress tolerance of AM soybean plants.

302 Regarding oxidative stress regulation, mycorrhizal protection against drought-induced oxidative
303 stress has been considered a crucial mechanism by which AM symbiosis increases salinity and drought
304 resistance of host plants (Ruiz-Lozano 2003; Borde et al. 2011; Rapparini and Peñuelas 2014; Nath et al.
305 2016). In this study, our results showed variability in oxidative stress response between AM unimproved
306 and improved soybean genotypes, subjected to drought-stress.

307 Thus, MD index measured as malondialdehyde level, a marker of oxidative damage in AMF-
308 plants (Porcel and Ruiz Lozano 2004; Zhu et al. 2011; Zhang et al. 2010; Grumberg et al. 2015), was
309 more negative in unimproved soybean plants, suggesting better antioxidant capacity in those genotypes
310 than in improved ones. However, in our study, after drought-stress, MD index as FRAP was negative and
311 it was lower in both unimproved genotypes and I-2, and a lesser extent I-1. Total antioxidant capacity as
312 FRAP assay, is determined by a large variety of antioxidant molecules, including polyphenols,
313 tocopherols, glutathione and ascorbic and its increase, has been related to enhanced antioxidant defense in
314 AMF plants (Jugran et al. 2015). But also, Marulanda et al. (2007), reported low accumulations of both
315 glutathione and ascorbate in mycorrhizal plants of lavender under drought conditions, suggesting that
316 these antioxidant compounds can be viewed as markers of drought-stress, correlated with a high level of
317 tolerance to plant drought. Furthermore, enhanced accumulation of proline has been linked to AM-
318 induced drought tolerance, with proline acting as osmoprotectant or an effective scavenger of reactive
319 oxygen species (Porcel and Ruiz Lozano 2004; Rapparini and Peñuelas 2014). In our study under
320 drought-stress, we observed a higher MD measured as proline content in unimproved soybean genotypes
321 than in improved ones, suggesting a better osmotic potential regulation in unimproved than improved
322 soybean ones, although we can't rule out, proline and their antioxidants effects. In that sense, in grape
323 leaves of *Vitis vinifera* L. exposed to oxidative stress by H₂O₂, the presence of proline modified key
324 antioxidant enzymes activities. Also, proline pre-treatment resulted in a decrease in cellular H₂O₂ content,
325 malondialdehyde and electrolyte leakage, while cellular concentration of proline increased (Ozden et al.
326 2009). Overall, both MD index and absolute data (see Supplementary Table S1 and S2) of chlorophyll,
327 malondialdehyde, FRAP and proline content showed variability between AM unimproved and improved
328 soybean genotypes subjected to drought-stress, suggesting that domestication in AM soybean plants
329 promoted variability in oxidative stress tolerance under drought-stress conditions.

330 In summary, unimproved soybean genotypes exhibited a higher capacity for arbuscular
331 formation than improved ones; and it was consistent with an increase in drought-stress tolerance, as
332 suggested by a higher biomass with a lower oxidative damage. By contrast, both improved soybean
333 genotypes showed variability in MD index. Thus, and in agreement with Salloum et al. (2016), I-1
334 genotype showed an increase in MD index with time under well-watered conditions. However it
335 exhibited a lower MD under drought-stress, than I-2, supporting the idea that the selection of soybean
336 genotypes based on their MD could be misleading, as suggested by Singh et al. (2012) in improved wheat
337 genotypes. In that sense, we are currently conducting studies that include a higher number of improved
338 genotypes to test genetic variation in soybean genotypes, and particularly, we will analyze, the capacity
339 for arbuscule formation, as a selection criterion for improved soybean genotypes with enhanced drought-
340 stress tolerance.

341

342 **Acknowledgements**

343 This work was funded by National Promotion Agency Science and Technology (ANPCyT)
344 through the Fund for Scientific Research and Technology (FONCyT): Projects of Scientific and
345 Technological Research (PICT) 2012-0339 and by the National Institute of Agricultural Technology
346 (INTA) through Projects N°1133032 and N°1127033. The National Council of Scientific and Technical
347 Research (CONICET) awarded the scholarship to M.S. Salloum and Scientific Research and Technology
348 (FONCyT) awarded the scholarship to F. Menduni. We are very grateful to Dr J. Gilli for providing the
349 soybean seeds. The authors are thankful to J. Ruarte for technical assistance and J. Brasca for manuscript
350 language editing.

351

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486

487 **Figure captions**

488 **Fig.1:** Effects of inoculation with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi on root dry mass, shoot dry mass
489 and leaf area evaluated as mycorrhizal dependency (MD) in unimproved (UI-1 to UI-4) and improved (I-1
490 to I-4) soybean genotypes after 20 days of treatment, under well water conditions. Values are means \pm SD
491 ($n = 10$ plants). The same letter within each column indicates no significant difference among treatments
492 according to least significant difference tests at $p < 0.05$

493 **Fig.2:** Effects of inoculation with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi on nutrient content in leaves of
494 soybean genotypes evaluated as mycorrhizal dependency (MD): A) NO₃ content ;B) P₀₄ content, C) SO₄
495 content, after 20 days of treatment under well water conditions. UI: unimproved soybean genotypes (UI-1
496 to UI-4); I: improved soybean genotypes (I-1 to I-4). Values are means \pm SD ($n = 10$ plants). The same

497 letter within each column indicates no significant difference among treatments according to least
498 significant difference tests at $p<0.05$.

499 **Fig.3:** Effects of inoculation with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi on A) Shoot dry mass and B)
500 Leaf area, evaluated as mycorrhizal dependency (MD) in improved (I-1 and I-2) and unimproved (UI-3
501 and UI-4) soybean genotypes under well water and drought (30% field capacity) conditions. Values are
502 means \pm SD ($n = 10$ plants). The same letter within each column indicates no significant difference among
503 treatments according to least significant difference tests at $p<0.05$.

504 **Fig.4:** Effects of inoculation with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi on chlorophyll content evaluated
505 as mycorrhizal dependency (MD) in improved (I-1 and I-2) and unimproved (UI-3 and UI-4) soybean
506 genotypes under well water and drought (30% field capacity) conditions. Values are means \pm SD ($n = 10$
507 plants). The same letter within each column indicates no significant difference among treatments
508 according to least significant difference tests at $p<0.05$.

509 **Fig.5:** Effects of inoculation with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi on malondialdehyde (MDA)
510 content evaluated as mycorrhizal dependency (MD) in improved (I-1 and I-2) and unimproved (UI-3 and
511 UI-4) soybean genotypes under well water and drought (30% field capacity) conditions. Values are means
512 \pm SD ($n = 10$ plants). The same letter within each column indicates no significant difference among
513 treatments according to least significant difference tests at $p<0.05$.

514 **Fig.6:** Effects of inoculation with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi on antioxidant activity of ferric
515 reducing ability of plasma (FRAP) content evaluated as mycorrhizal dependency (MD) in improved (I-1
516 and I-2) and unimproved (UI-3 and UI-4) soybean genotypes under well water and drought (30% field
517 capacity) conditions. Values are means \pm SD ($n = 10$ plants). The same letter within each column indicates
518 no significant difference among treatments according to least significant difference tests at $p<0.05$.

519 **Fig.7:** Effects of inoculation with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi on proline content evaluated as
520 mycorrhizal dependency (MD) in improved (I-1 and I-2) and unimproved (UI-3 and UI-4) soybean
521 genotypes under well water and drought (30% field capacity) conditions. Values are means \pm SD ($n = 10$
522 plants). The same letter within each column indicates no significant difference among treatments
523 according to least significant difference tests at $p<0.05$.