

Spores of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi inhabiting inside mossballs of *Rigodium implexum*

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Abstract

The spores of four species of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (Phylum: Glomeromycota): *Acaulospora laevis*, *Acaulospora sieverdingii*, *Ambispora gerdemannii*, and *Dominikia aurea*, were found inhabiting inside mossballs formed by *Rigodium implexum* at two forest sites in southern Chile. These species were identified through morphological keys. *R. implexum* mossballs are usually 10-20 cm in diameter, unattached, and globose, and are found in large masses on the forest floor of Valdivian temperate rainforests. This phenomenon is reported for the first time, and possible co-dispersion mechanisms require further research. A methodology to extract Glomeromycota spores from this type of plant material is also presented.

Keywords: arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi; dispersion; moss; mossballs; mycorrhiza; spore traits; Valdivian forests.

31 Description

32 Spores of four species (*Acaulospora laevis*, *Acaulospora sieverdingii*, *Ambispora gerdemannii*,
33 *Dominikia aurea*) of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) (Phylum: Glomeromycota) were found
34 inhabiting inside mossballs formed by *Rigodium implexum* (**Figure 1**), which grow in the forest floor of
35 the Valdivian rainforests of Chile (Villagrán Moraga, 2000; Frahm, 2001). We extracted AMF spores
36 from three sample types across southern Chile: mossballs in San Martín Research Forest (SMRF) and
37 Lanco Lake, and bulk soil surrounding mossballs at SMRF. Two of the four reported species were
38 found at mossballs in SMRF: *Ac. laevis* and *D. aurea*, while all four species were found in the
39 surrounding bulk soil. Three of the four species were found at Ranco Lake's mossballs: *Ac. laevis*, *Ac.*
40 *sieverdingii*, and *Am. gerdemannii*. As expected, AMF spores in bulk soil were more easily extracted,
41 detected, and abundant (at least one order of magnitude). In contrast, within *R. implexum* mossballs,
42 they were more scarce and difficult to extract. All four AMF species have been previously reported for
43 Chile (Marín et al., 2017, 2025); *Ac. laevis* is particularly common and abundant across the country (59
44 occurrences according to the Global Biodiversity Information Facility – GBIF: Marín et al., 2025). Two
45 of the four AMF species (*Ac. laevis* and *D. aurea*) were found in all three samples, despite the two sites
46 (SMRF and Ranco Lake) being 98 km apart. This is not surprising as Glomeromycota is characterized,
47 in general, by low levels of endemism: globally, a third of AMF taxa are present in all five continents
48 (Davison et al., 2015), while in Chile, a third of AMF species are shared between pristine forest
49 ecosystems and agroecosystems (Marín et al., 2017). In a recent survey of AMF morphological
50 biodiversity across 34 vineyards distributed along a 1,000 km climatic gradient across Chile, from
51 Coquimbo (29° 54' S) to La Araucanía (38° 44' S) administrative regions, a total of 15 AMF species
52 and more than 94,000 spores were identified (Aguilera et al., 2024). From those 15 AMF species, *Ac.*
53 *laevis* was present and dominant across the whole gradient, with *Am. gerdemannii* was also present
54 across the gradient (albeit less abundantly), while *D. aurea* was found in a few vineyards. From the
55 four AMF species, *Ac. laevis* was described first (Gerdemann and Trappe, 1974), while *Ac. sieverdingii*
56 was described last (Oehl et al., 2011). *Ac. sieverdingii* was initially described from lowland temperate
57 Europe and tropical West Africa (Oehl et al., 2011), something not rare in Glomeromycota, as for
58 example, *Ambispora reticulata* (not reported in this study) was initially described from mountainous
59 areas in Switzerland and Chile (Oehl et al., 2012). The AMF species *D. aurea* was previously known as
60 '*Glomus aureum*' (Oehl et al., 2003a; Błaszczowski et al., 2021, 2025).

61 Although in southern Chile, forest floors covered with *R. implexum* mossballs were first
62 mentioned by Herzog (1939) and reported in detail by Frahm (2001), little research has been conducted
63 on this system. These mossballs are usually 10-20 cm in diameter, unattached, and globose, found in
64 large masses on the forest floor, accumulating in shallow forest depressions or on flat land, where they
65 are sometimes scattered by wind (Frahm, 2001). Each mossball constitutes a single densely branched
66 plant, whose stiff, scale-leaved branches maintain the globular shape whether wet or dry (Frahm,
67 2001). *R. implexum* is distributed at low elevations (<400 m) of the Valdivian temperate rainforest
68 (mainly in Chile), and mostly in protected areas (Villagrán Moraga, 2000; Frahm, 2001). There are
69 many unknown aspects of the biology of these mossballs, for example, regarding the mechanisms of
70 their propagation (i.e., by fragmentation, wind movement, and/or birds), nutrient acquisition strategies
71 (i.e., by atmospheric inputs and/or periodic floods), and their habitat dynamics (i.e., moisture regime,
72 micro-ecology) (Frahm, 2001).

73 Regarding the AMF spores found inside *R. implexum* mossballs, many questions remain: are
74 these AMF species similar or different from the ones actually associating symbiotically with *R.*
75 *implexum*? Globally (Meng et al., 2023) and regionally (Godoy and Marín, 2019; Catania et al., 2025),
76 many moss species are known to associate with AMF, but more research is needed in this field. How do
77 the AMF spores actually get inside these mossballs? For how long and how far away could they travel
78 on them? Are there co-dispersion processes going on? All of these are unanswered questions that
79 should be addressed in future research. Current research on how AMF colonize and inhabit leaf litter
80 (Bunn et al., 2019; de Lima et al., 2025) and how they are dispersed by wind via spore traits
81 (Chaudhary et al., 2020; Pehim Limbu et al., 2025) could help solve these questions.

82

83 **Methods**

84 In August 2025, plant material of *Rigodium implexum* was collected from two sites in south-central
85 Chile: Ranco Lake coast, Los Ríos Region, Chile (coordinates: -40.167987, -72.27136; 72 m.a.s.l.) and
86 the San Martín Research Forest, which belongs to the Austral University of Chile, Los Ríos Region,
87 Chile (coordinates: -39.648386, -73.195237; 98 m.a.s.l.). In the field, we collected superficial
88 mossballs that were not in direct contact with the soil or other plants. The exterior of the mossball was
89 dried up and cleaned with a paper towel to exclude environmental arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF)
90 spores.

91 On each site, three replicates were collected (each consisting of approximately 500 g of fresh
92 plant material), placed in paper bags, and transported to the laboratory, where they were dried at room
93 temperature for 24 hours. In the lab, the plant material was manually sectioned with scissors. From
94 each replicate, a total of 20 g of dried material was weighed and placed in a 200 ml glass beaker. 100
95 ml of tap water was added to the sample using a magnetic stirrer for 5 minutes to homogenize the
96 sample and release the AMF spores from the plant material. Next, the solution was slowly poured
97 through a series of sieves arranged in descending order of mesh size (1000, 500, 250, 106, 53, and 38
98 μm). The material retained on the 1000- and 500- μm sieves was discarded. The material retained on the
99 250, 106, 53, and 38 μm sieves was carefully rinsed with running water using a wash bottle to loosen
100 any adhering spores and concentrate the material in one section of the 38 μm sieve. This was then
101 transferred to Falcon tubes until a total volume of 25 ml was reached, and the tubes were placed in a
102 test tube rack. Then, using a syringe with an extension tube inserted to the bottom of each Falcon tube
103 containing the aqueous sample, a 70% sucrose solution was added until a final total volume of 50 ml
104 was reached. The samples were brought to a constant weight and centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 10
105 minutes.

106 Subsequently, the supernatant from each sample was filtered through a 38 μm sieve, and the
107 retained material was gently washed with running water to remove any remaining sucrose and avoid
108 stressing and destroying spores. The contents of the sieve were poured into a flat-bottomed funnel lined
109 with Whatman 2 filter paper, and filtration was facilitated using a vacuum pump. The material retained
110 on the filter paper was then carefully transferred with spatula-tipped forceps to a labeled Petri dish for
111 subsequent observation and selection of AMF spores under a stereomicroscope. The selected spores
112 were transferred to glass slides using a dissecting needle for fixation in polyvinyl alcohol-glycerol
113 lactic acid (PVLG) medium mixed 1:1 (v/v) with Melzer's reagent (Sieverding et al., 1991; Oehl et al.,
114 2003b) for taxonomic identification. Spores were classified according to the Glomeromycota system of
115 Redecker et al. (2013) and taxonomical identification reports (Błaszowski, 2012; Oehl et al., 2011a,
116 2011b). Identification was performed using classical morphological criteria and specialized taxonomic
117 keys for Glomeromycota, based on Sieverding et al. (1991), Oehl et al. (2003b, 2011a, 2011b), and
118 Błaszowski (2012). The traits considered for taxonomic identification included: spore size and color,
119 wall structure, layers, ornamentation, and type of subtending hypha.

120

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126

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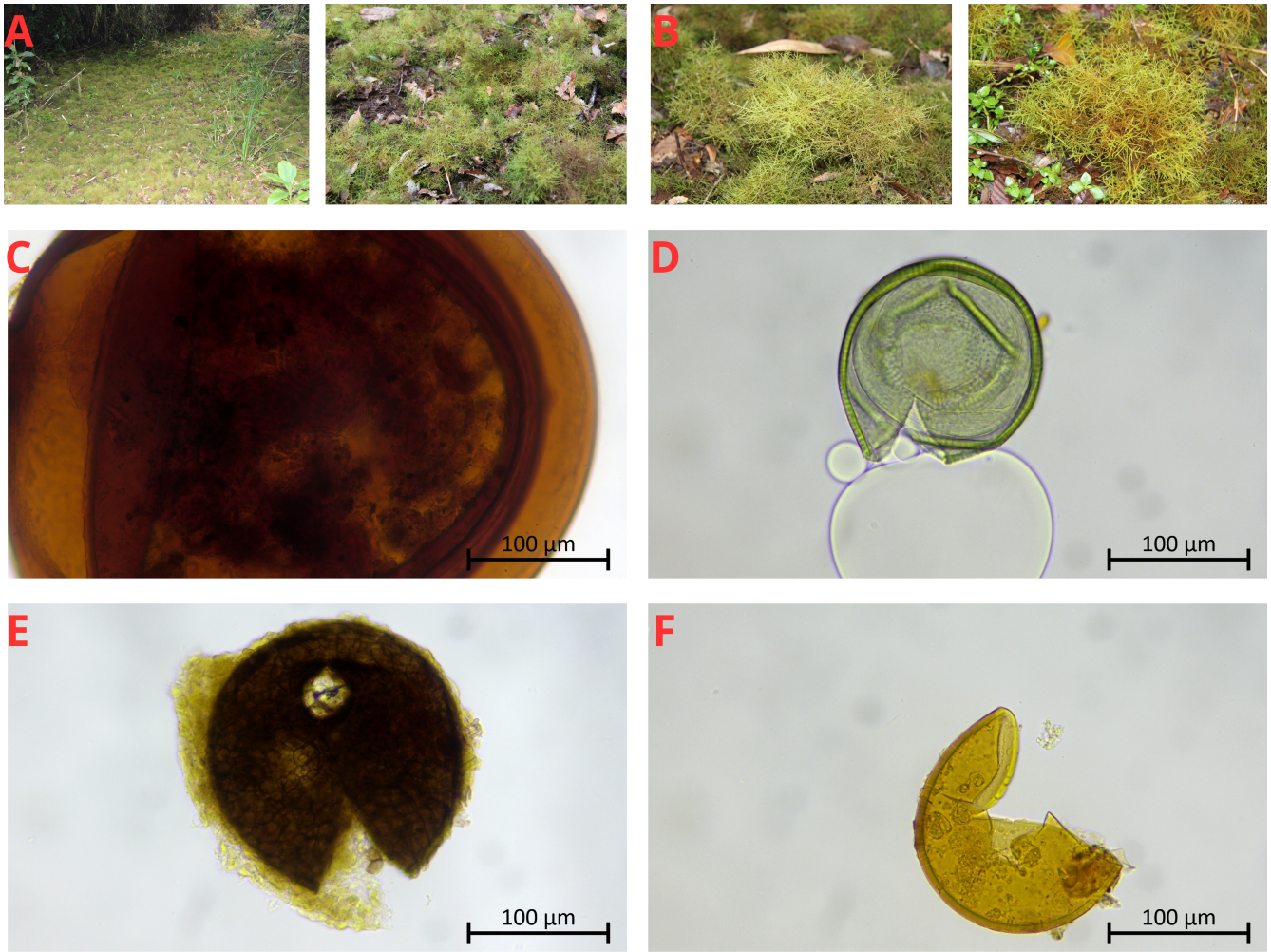
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202 **Figure 1.** Glomeromycota spores inhabiting inside (photos shown in C to F) *Rigodium implexum*
 203 mossballs. A. Forest floor covered by *R. implexum* at San Martín Research Forest (SMRF), Los Ríos
 204 Region, Chile. B. Close up of mossballs formed by *R. implexum*. C. *Acaulospora laevis* (SMRF). D.
 205 *Acaulospora sieverdingii* (SMRF). E. *Ambispora gerdemannii* (SMRF). F. *Dominikia aurea* (Ranco
 206 Lake, Los Ríos Region, Chile).