



Can cardiolipins be used as a biomarker for arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi?

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Abstract

Specific biomarker molecules are increasingly being used for detection and quantification in plant and soil samples of arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi, an important and widespread microbial guild heavily implicated in transfers of nutrients and carbon between plants and soils and in the maintenance of soil physico-chemical properties. Yet, concerns have previously been raised as to the validity of a range of previously used approaches (e.g., microscopy, AM-specific fatty acids, sterols, glomalin-like molecules, ribosomal DNA sequences), justifying further research into novel biomarkers for AM fungal abundance and/or functioning. Here, we focused on complex polar lipids contained in pure biomass of *Rhizophagus irregularis* and in nonmycorrhizal and mycorrhizal roots of chicory (*Cichorium intybus*), leek (*Allium porrum*), and big bluestem (*Andropogon gerardii*). The lipids were analyzed by shotgun lipidomics using a high-resolution hybrid mass spectrometer. Size range between 1350 and 1550 Da was chosen for the detection of potential biomarkers among cardiolipins (1,3-bis(*sn*-3'-phosphatidyl)-*sn*-glycerols), a specific class of phospholipids. The analysis revealed a variety of molecular species, including cardiolipins containing one or two polyunsaturated fatty acids with 20 carbon atoms each, i.e., arachidonic and/or eicosapentaenoic acids, some of them apparently specific for the mycorrhizal samples. Although further verification using a greater variety of AM fungal species and samples from various soils/ecosystems/environmental conditions is needed, current results suggest the possibility to identify novel biochemical signatures specific for AM fungi within mycorrhizal roots. Whether they could be used for quantification of both root and soil colonization by the AM fungi merits further scrutiny.

Keywords Biomarker · Cardiolipins · Extraradical mycelium · Root colonization · Quantification · Shotgun lipidomics

Introduction

Arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi are widespread symbionts of plants, recruiting from Glomeromycotina and Mucoromycotina clades, and colonizing roots/rhizoids/thalli of a majority of plant species on Earth (Field and Pressel 2018; Rimington et al. 2019). These fungi are heavily implicated in bidirectional transfers of mineral nutrients and carbon between plants and soil, in soil aggregate stabilization, as well as in the maintenance/promotion of soil and ecosystem diversity and stability upon fluctuating/changing environmental conditions (van der Heijden et al. 2008; Bardgett

and van der Putten 2014; Powell and Rillig 2018). The fungi colonize and functionally interconnect roots with the surrounding soil (Kuyper and Jansa 2023). Given the importance of AM symbioses in soil and ecosystem processes, quantification of AM fungal development both in the roots and in the soil has been under scrutiny for a long time (Vierheilig et al. 2005; Thonar et al. 2012; Janoušková et al. 2015; Arruda et al. 2022).

There are many methods to determine the biomass of AM fungi inside and to a lesser extent, also outside roots. These methods are either microscopic (Hanssen et al. 1974; Sylvia 1992; Vierheilig et al. 2005) or reliant on quantification of biochemical (Schmitz et al. 1991; Balser et al. 2005; Olsson and Lekberg 2022) or molecular signatures (Redecker 2000; Schwarzott and Schüßler 2001). Those biochemical signature compounds that have been tested in the past are, for example, chitin, ergosterol, or specific fatty acids. Unfortunately, chitin persists even after the fungus dies, its analysis is technically demanding, and it also is present in

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other (non-AM) fungi, insects, and arthropods (Sylvia 1992; Olsson 1999). The AM fungi (at least the Glomeromycotina clade) contain little or no detectable ergosterol (Frey et al. 1992, 1994; Fontaine et al. 2001; Olsson et al. 2003), which otherwise is frequently used for quantification of (non-AM) fungal biomass in various samples (van Groenigen et al. 2010; Heidarianpour et al. 2020). Therefore, in most cases, phospholipids or neutral lipids, specifically, the fatty acids contained in them, have been used as proxies for quantification of AM fungal biomass. Palmitavaccenic acid (16:1 Δ 11 or 16:1 ω 5) is the most used biomarker (or signature) compound found specifically in AM fungi from the Glomeromycotina clade and not in most plant roots. Hundreds of articles have been published to date using this biochemical signature; see Olsson and Lekberg (2022) for details. Those previous papers establish the use of 16:1 ω 5 fatty acid to quantify the biomass of various AM fungi in various sample types, sometimes combined with compound-specific stable isotopic analyses to measure the transfer of carbon from plant to AM fungus (e.g., Konvalinková et al. 2017). In the published papers, great discussion has arisen about the appropriateness of using the 16:1 ω 5 fatty acid as a biochemical signature specifically for the AM fungi, and which chemical forms (neutral- or phospho-lipids) would be most appropriate to use and why (Lekberg et al. 2022).

Besides the AM fungi, where the 16:1 ω 5 fatty acid is often present in large amounts (Voříšková et al. 2017), the same fatty acid also is found in some bacteria (Walker 1969; Nichols et al. 1986; Frostegård et al. 2011; Joung et al. 2015; Chen et al. 2020; Islam et al. 2020), although that often is considered to cause no major interference with quantification of AM fungal biomass (Joergensen (2022). Despite previous claims that plants do not produce phospholipids with 16:1 ω 5 fatty acid bound in them (Brands et al. 2020), some species within the Proteaceae family are obviously metabolically capable of synthesizing this fatty acid (Vickery 1971). A public database tool (<https://plantfadb.org/tree>; Ohlrogge et al. 2018) based on seed oil fatty acid profiles (Matthäus 2012) lists 93 occurrences of the 16:1 ω 5 fatty acid in 60 among approximately 8000 species of plants, which are included in the database, although most of the analyses were done with seeds or leaves, not roots. Therefore, plant interferences with the estimation of AM fungal biomass cannot be completely excluded.

Another technical issue in fatty acids profiling/identification is the similarity of mass spectra (MS) of positional and geometric (*cis-trans*) isomers (Christie 2023). This is because positional and geometric isomers are formed by distinct organisms, employing different metabolic pathways. For example, only the palmitavaccenic acid in *cis* configuration is present in significant amounts in AM fungal biomass, whereas palmitoleic acid (16:1 ω 7) is abundant in bacteria (Cronan and Thomas 2009; Brands et al. 2020; Olsson and

Lekberg 2022). Therefore, separation of the different fatty acids using chromatography columns with high resolution and unequivocal identification of the position(s) of double bonds in the molecule by using chemical derivatization (e.g., 3-pyridylcarbinols, 4,4-dimethyloxazolines, pyrrolidides, or dimethyl disulfide) is necessary. Whereas separation of different fatty acids by gas chromatography (GC) often precedes MS analyses, precise structural analyses of double bond positions rarely have been done in AM research (but see Brands et al. 2020 and Rezanka et al. 2022 for notable exceptions).

Because of various concerns, some of which are indicated above, several recent articles (Holátko et al. 2021; Lekberg et al. 2022) scrutinizing the use of 16:1 ω 5 and other compounds as biomarkers for AM fungi proposed searching for and using alternative compounds with greater complexity than fatty acids that are specific for AM fungi. One such possibility would be phosphatidylcholine (PC) with polyunsaturated fatty acids such as 20:3, 20:4, or 20:5 (20:5/20:5-PC, 20:5/20:4-PC or 20:5/20:3-PC (Wewer et al. 2014)). Unfortunately, there are still concerns about the variation in the amount of such compounds per unit of biomass between different species/families of AM fungi—similar to other biomarkers (Voříšková et al. 2017). In the research described here, we delved into screening for complex phospholipids as potentially novel biomarkers for AM fungi, capitalizing on knowledge and experience acquired previously (Rezanka 1993; Rezanka et al. 2016, 2020). The use of high-resolution electrospray ionization mass spectrometry (HR-ESI-MS), an instrument increasingly available in various labs around the globe, enabled the detection and identification of different compounds in picomolar concentrations by using fast-throughput shotgun lipidomics without the need to separate complex lipid mixtures by chromatography prior to the MS analyses.

Materials and methods

Biological materials

Pure biomass of *Rhizophagus irregularis* LPA9, devoid of plant roots and free of microbes, was produced in vitro, along with the root organ culture of chicory (*Cichorium intybus*) as described previously (Rezanka et al. 2022). The cultivation system is shown in supplementary Fig. S1. Non-mycorrhizal roots of chicory were produced using the same system and for the same length of time as the mycorrhizal in vitro cultures. Additionally, mycorrhizal and nonmycorrhizal roots of leek (*Allium porrum*) and big bluestem (*Andropogon gerardii*) were produced in pots filled with a potting substrate comprising previously sterilized soil, sand, and granular zeolite as described previously (Püschel

et al. 2016) and inoculated or not with an in vitro-produced inoculum of *Rhizophagus irregularis* LPA9. The pot cultures (four individual pots per plant and mycorrhizal treatment combination) were harvested after 4 months of growth in the glasshouse, whereas the in vitro cultures (five in vitro containers for each mycorrhizal treatment) were harvested after 7 months of growth in a darkroom at 24 °C. Upon harvest, the roots and the pure AM fungal biomass were briefly washed with deionized water, pooled per sample type and mycorrhizal treatment, frozen at −80 °C, and subsequently lyophilized, yielding at least 350 mg dry mass for each of the seven samples. The samples were then milled using a ball mill MM200 (Retsch, Haan, Germany). Aliquots of the samples were used for the determination of the extent of root colonization by the AM fungus, employing Trypan blue staining (Koske and Gemma 1989) followed by microscopy (McGonigle et al. 1990), for the determination of the 16:1ω5 fatty acid concentration in the total lipid extracts (Welch et al. 2012), and for molecular quantification of the AM fungus targeting the mitochondrial large ribosomal subunit of *Rhizophagus* sp. (Couillerot et al. 2013)—see supplementary Table S1 for details.

Lipid extraction and analyses

The extraction procedure was based on the method published previously (Bligh and Dyer 1959) with a few modifications introduced later (Rezanka 1993). Briefly, lyophilized and pulverized materials were suspended in a dichloromethane:methanol mixture (2:1, v:v) for 30 min with stirring, after which dichloromethane and water were added, and the dichloromethane (i.e., lower) phase was evaporated to dryness under reduced pressure. Total lipids were dissolved in the mobile phase (acetonitrile:2-propanol (99:1, v:v)) for further analysis by shotgun lipidomics, employing HR-ESI-MS, with no further fractionation or derivatization. Additional technical details are provided in the supplementary material.

Limits of detection and quantitation

The limit of detection (LOD) and the limit of quantitation (LOQ) of the shotgun method were determined based on the analysis of a commercially available standard, i.e., cardiolipin (CL) containing oleic (18:1) and stearic (18:0) fatty acids (18:1/18:0/18:1/18:0-CL) with final concentrations of 10 fM, 100 fM, 1 pM, 10 pM, 100 pM, and 1 nM. The LOD and LOQ were determined as the concentrations with signal-to-noise ratios of 3 and 10, respectively. The reproducibility of the peak area was determined from six consecutive measurements of 18:1/18:0/18:1/18:0-CL for low (100 fM) and high (1 nM) concentrations. The LOD of 18:1/18:0/18:1/18:0-CL was 147 fM, well matching with the

previously published value of LOD = 105.2 fM for (14:0)₄-CL by Lee et al. (2019). LOD and LOQ of a newly identified CL from the AM fungus were determined by serial dilution of the lipid extracts containing the compound and monitoring a characteristic ion signal height vs. noise ratio.

Statistical analyses

Relative abundances of the different molecular species of CLs determined in the total lipid profiles (see Table 1 for an overview) were compared between 3 mycorrhizal and 3 non-mycorrhizal root samples (one pair for each plant species) included in this study by Kruskal–Wallis nonparametric test, using Statgraphics Plus for Windows v. 3.1.

Results

The MS analyses were performed in the mass interval of 1350–1550 Da. This region was chosen because CLs appeared in this range, unlike other neutral, phospho- and glyco-lipids which all had a molecular weight well below 1200 Da and thus did not interfere with the analyses. For example, a triacylglycerol containing one eicosapentaenoic (20:5) and two arachidonic (20:4) acids has a molecular weight of 948 Da, 20:5/20:4-phosphatidylcholine has 827 Da, 20:5/20:4-phosphatidylglycerol has 816 Da, 20:5/20:4-monogalactosyldiacylglycerol has 824 Da, and 20:5/20:4-digalactosyldiacylglycerol has 986 Da. Most CLs, particularly the molecular species from *m/z* 1370 to *m/z* 1458, corresponding to 66:3-CL to 72:3-CL (with the number before the colon indicating the sum of carbon atoms in the fatty acids, whereas the number after the colon indicates the sum of double bonds in the fatty acids) had a similar abundance in all samples or, occasionally, the relative abundance in nonmycorrhizal samples was greater than in the mycorrhizal samples (Fig. 1a, Table 1). In contrast, the CLs with 74 and 76 carbon atoms often were relatively much more abundant in mycorrhizal than nonmycorrhizal samples (Fig. 1a, Table 1). Particularly, the nonmycorrhizal root samples did not contain any CLs with at least one polyunsaturated fatty acid (PUFA) such as the 20:4 and/or 20:5 acids present in the molecule. On the contrary, both the AM fungus alone and the mycorrhizal roots contained CLs with such acids. Therefore, we selected 76:12-CL, containing four different fatty acids including two PUFAs in the molecule (Fig. 1b and the supplementary Fig. S2) as the most promising biomarker among the different CLs for AM fungal biomass. This compound also had the highest relative abundance among CLs with 74 and 76 carbon atoms in the fatty acids (Table 1), although its absolute concentrations in the samples were rather low (see supplementary Table S1 for details). The amount of biomass needed for reliable

Table 1 Relative abundance of different molecular species (mol spec) of cardiolipins in seven biological samples included in this study, representing roots of plants (*Allium*, *Andropogon* or *Cichorium*) without mycorrhizal fungus (NM) or colonized by the mycorrhizal fungus *Rhizophagus irregularis* (M), and the pure biomass of *Rhizophagus irregularis* (genotype LPA9) produced in a monoxenic in vitro system

mol spec	<i>Rhizophagus</i> pure biomass	<i>Allium</i> (NM)	<i>Allium</i> + <i>Rhizophagus</i> (M)	<i>Andropogon</i> (NM)	<i>Andropogon</i> + <i>Rhizophagus</i> (M)	<i>Cichorium</i> (NM)	<i>Cichorium</i> + <i>Rhizophagus</i> (M)	Difference
66:3 ^a	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	
66:2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	
68:6	0.5	0.8	0.4	1.0	0.7	0.5	0.4	
68:5	0.8	1.0	0.6	0.9	0.6	0.8	0.5	NM > M
68:4	0.6	1.1	0.7	0.8	0.5	0.7	0.6	
68:3	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	
68:2	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	
68:1	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.1	
70:10	0.9	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.1	0.7	0.9	
70:9	1.3	0.5	0.1	0.7	0.2	0.1	0.8	
70:8	1.4	1.8	1.3	1.3	0.5	0.6	1.4	
70:7	1.8	1.1	0.7	1.1	0.5	0.5	0.9	
70:6	0.5	1.1	0.6	1.2	0.9	0.5	1.1	
70:5	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.9	0.4	0.8	0.6	NM > M
70:4	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.8	0.7	
70:3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.4	
70:2	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.3	
72:12	2.2	5.8	1.9	5.8	2.6	2.4	4.9	
72:11	8.5	8.3	12.3	9.2	10.6	9.3	7.5	
72:10	10.5	10.5	14.7	10.1	12.2	14.5	15.3	
72:9	14.6	9.8	11.8	18.8	15.1	15.4	9.8	
72:8	12.1	17.6	12.6	11.4	8.3	16.7	13.3	
72:7	10.2	19.6	11.3	13.2	8.9	11.0	11.8	
72:6	13.9	9.5	11.4	12.3	16.6	14.2	7.7	
72:5	6.3	7.1	8.4	7.4	8.2	9.0	10.6	
72:4	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	
72:3	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.3	M > NM
74:13	0.9	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.3	M > NM
74:12	1.1	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.5	M > NM
74:11	0.9	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.8	M > NM
74:10	0.6	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.6	M > NM
74:9	0.4	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.9	0.0	0.9	M > NM
74:8	0.5	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.7	M > NM
74:7	0.3	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.6	M > NM
74:6	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
74:5	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	
74:4	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	M > NM
76:15	0.8	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.6	M > NM
76:14	1.1	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.6	M > NM
76:13	0.9	0.0	0.9	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.9	M > NM
76:12	1.2	0.0	1.1	0.0	1.1	0.0	1.1	M > NM
76:11	1.1	0.0	0.9	0.0	0.9	0.0	0.7	M > NM
76:10	0.9	0.0	0.6	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.5	M > NM
76:9	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
76:8	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	M > NM

The difference between NM root samples ($n=3$) and M root samples ($n=3$) was tested for each molecular species by a Kruskal-Wallis nonparametric test (only results with $p < 0.05$ are shown). Potential biomarkers for the mycorrhizal samples are shown in bold

^aThe number before the colon is the sum of carbon atoms in the four acyls (i.e., fatty acids), the number after the colon is the number of double bonds in the acyls

quantification of this compound was estimated between 18 µg for the pure *Rhizophagus* biomass and 49–66 µg of the mycorrhizal roots (supplementary Table S1 and Fig. S3).

Discussion

Cardiolipins occur widely in bacterial and mitochondrial membranes, which means the CLs also are supposed to be present in all eukaryotic cells wherever mitochondria occur; the occurrence of CLs in archaea is, however, still subject to debate (Schlame et al. 2000; Horvath and Daum 2013; Paradies et al. 2019; Sohlenkamp 2021). Thus, it is not quite surprising that CLs previously have been reported from a variety of plant (Zhou et al. 2016) and fungal species including the AM fungi (Beilby and Kidby 1980; Schlame et al. 1993; Gu et al. 2004; Fakas et al. 2006; Kotani et al. 2016) besides animals, from which tissues they first were isolated almost a century ago (Schlame et al. 2000). In this regard, it appears unusual that a recent detailed lipidomics analysis of *Mortierella alpina* contained no mention of any molecular species of CLs (Lu et al. 2019). Those results are particularly interesting in the context of our research because some members of the Mucoromycotina clade (where *Mortierella* belongs), the *Planticonsortium* spp., clearly form AM symbioses with some plants (Hoysted et al. 2018; Field et al. 2019), although they are phylogenetically distant from the Glomeromycotina (Walker et al. 2018).

Cardiolipins are among the bulkiest phospholipid molecules and the composition of their fatty acids (four fatty acids per molecule) may differ among organisms. Previous screening of various plant species reported CLs containing mostly unsaturated fatty acids with 18 carbon atoms, the linoleic (18:2) and linolenic acid (18:3), resulting in summary formulas between 72:12 and 72:8 (Zhou et al. 2016). This agrees with our observation of small CLs prevailing in the nonmycorrhizal root samples (Table 1).

A total of nine major CLs were identified in the fungus *Neurospora crassa* containing the following fatty acids: 18:3, 18:2, oleic (18:1), and palmitic (16:0) acid. The most abundant were two molecular species, namely 18:1/18:2/18:2/18:2-CL and 16:0/18:2/18:2/18:2-CL (Schlame et al. 1993). CLs containing 16:0, 18:0, 18:1, 18:2 and γ -linolenic (γ -18:3) acids were identified in the oleaginous fungus *Cunninghamella echinulata* (Fakas et al. 2006); unfortunately, the molecular species were not analyzed. Another fungus (*Aspergillus oryzae*) contained a number of molecular CL species, namely 72:5-CL, 72:6-CL, and 72:7-CL, having a combination of only 18:1 and 18:2 fatty acids (Kotani et al. 2016). The most studied fungi are yeasts, including the species *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (wild-type), which have the majority of their CLs with a combination of palmitoleic (16:1) and 18:1 acids,

e.g., 16:1/16:1/16:1/16:1-CL, 16:1/16:1/16:1/18:1-CL, and 16:1/16:1/18:1/18:1-CL. (Schlame et al. 1993; Gu et al. 2004). Unfortunately, the publication by Wewer et al. (2014), although reporting dozens of molecular species of lipids from *Rhizophagus irregularis* during colonization by AM fungi of the roots of *Lotus japonicus*, did not mention any CLs.

Unlike most of the CLs contained in plants and saprotrophic fungi (see above), the AM fungus studied here contained a remarkable share of CLs containing PUFAs with lengths above 18 carbon atoms. The PUFAs with 20 or more carbon atoms, such as 20:4 and 20:5, are classic essential fatty acids in animals. Such compounds have not yet been broadly characterized with analytical certainty in significant amounts in spermatophytes (Groenewald and van der Westhuizen 1997; Ezeagu et al. 1998; Özcan 2007; Vickery et al. 1984), with some notable exceptions such as the lipid profiles of Araucariaceae seeds (Wolff et al. 2000). On the contrary, plants from the basal phylogenetic clades (e.g., algae including microalgae, bryophytes, and pteridophytes) have the ability to synthesize both 20:4 and 20:5 acids (Kumari and Pabbi 2023; Lu et al. 2023).

Because we observed a strong contrast in CLs containing 74 or 76 carbon atoms, i.e., CLs containing either one or two PUFAs, between mycorrhizal and nonmycorrhizal samples, it seems that such compounds, and particularly the 76:12-CL could well serve as a novel biomarker for *Rhizophagus irregularis* and perhaps AM fungi generally. The specificity and correlation with other biomass proxies still needs to be confirmed for field soil samples and for other AM fungal genotypes/species/genera. Nevertheless, identification of this novel biomarker potentially has far reaching consequences because a shortage of suitable biomarkers for the obligatorily biotrophic AM fungi persists, and there are ongoing discussions concerning if and how the contents of specific signature compounds, such as specific fatty acids, microscopic quantification of both root and soil colonization by the AM fungi, or quantification of marker genes, can be converted to biomass and/or metabolic activity of the AM fungi (Thonar et al. 2012; Voříšková et al. 2017; Lekberg et al. 2022). The use of CLs might have an added value in that such compounds are nearly exclusively found in mitochondria (Paradies et al. 2019), so they might serve as indicators of metabolic activity rather than biomass, following the same arguments as in a previous study where taxon-specific motifs in mitochondrial rRNA genes have been used to measure differences in metabolic activity of closely related AM fungal species (Kiers et al. 2011). Correlation of CL profiles of root and soil samples with symbiotic functions such as transfers of carbon and phosphorus (e.g., assessed by isotopic labelling and tracing) between the symbiotic partners and/or expression of specific genes involved in these processes ought to be studied as well. Furthermore,

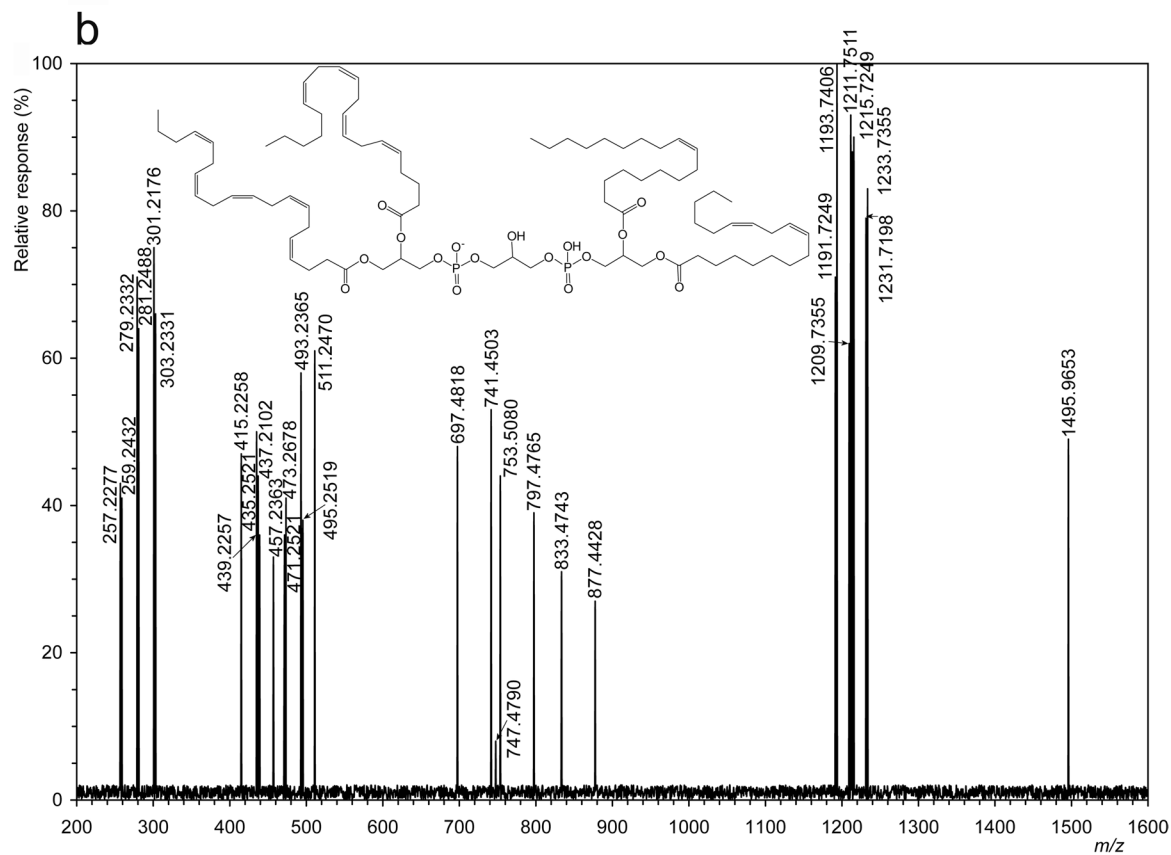
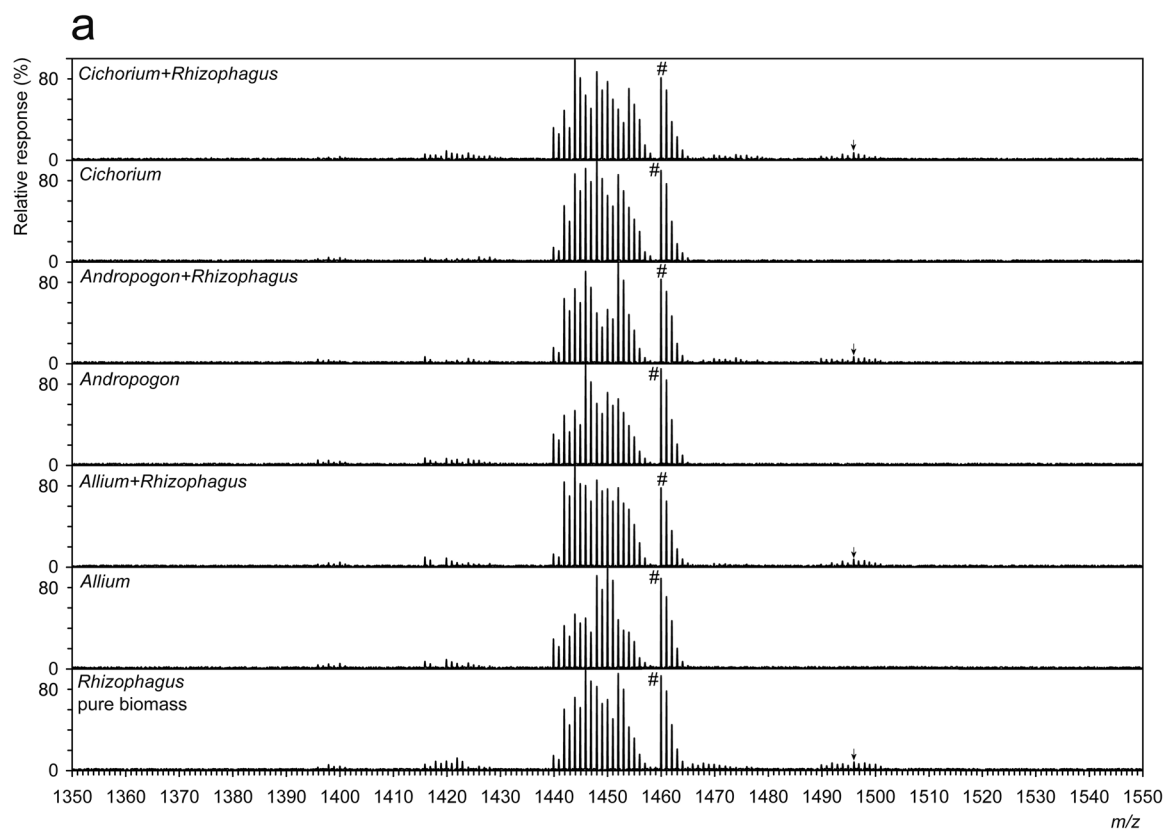


Fig. 1 a Mass spectra (negative ion mode) of total lipids from seven samples (*Cichorium* + *Rhizophagus*, *Cichorium*, *Andropogon* + *Rhizophagus*, *Andropogon*, *Allium* + *Rhizophagus*, *Allium*, and *Rhizophagus* pure biomass) acquired by high resolution electrospray ionization mass spectrometry (mass interval of 1350–1550 Da). The ion at mass-to-charge ratio (m/z) 1496.9653 in the mass spectra marked with an arrow is the biomarker (76:12-cardiolipin), the ion at m/z 1460.0594 marked with # is an internal standard (cardiolipin containing two oleic and two stearic acids). Numbers correspond to the accurate m/z values. **b** Mass spectrum from the secondary (tandem) mass spectrometer of the 76:12-cardiolipin from the pure *Rhizophagus irregularis* biomass (i.e., the compound shown by an arrow in the above mass spectra), which was exposed to fragmentation after analysis in the primary mass spectrometer, including the proposed structure of this compound, containing one of each arachidonic, eicosapentaenoic, oleic, and linoleic fatty acids

CLs should be monitored throughout a time series of root and soil colonization development and the contribution of hyphae and spores/intraradical vesicles should be quantified. A particularly relevant analysis would also be to determine CLs in *Planticonsortium* spp., another AM fungus only distantly related to Glomeromycotina (see above). It also would be advantageous to know the exact order of individual acyls in the 76:12-CL (which currently is not known). This would require several additional analytical steps such as separation of individual compounds, controlled cleavage with phospholipase D, and dedicated tandem MS analyses. Although that may not be necessary for routine monitoring of the CLs as AM fungal biomarkers, detailed structural analyses of the AM-specific CLs may allow further insights into the biosynthesis of such compounds and metabolic pathways involved; similarly, detailed analysis of the AM-specific fatty acid 16:1 ω 5 helped to uncover the metabolic co-operation in fatty acid transfer between the plant host and the AM fungus (Brands et al 2020).

A final consideration is that the technical feasibility to analyze CLs in plant and soil samples should be weighed carefully against the potential benefits. Although sample preparation is easy and fast, compared to phospholipid fatty acids, for instance, because it includes no fractionation or derivatization steps, high-resolution shotgun lipidomics requires special equipment, one or two orders of magnitude more expensive than an ordinary GC instrument used for fatty acid profiling. Although such high-end instrumentation like the Orbitrap MS is becoming accessible to scientists in large research centers around the globe, running costs (including operation specialists' wages) may incur significant expense. On the other hand, the shotgun analyses are fast, taking only a few minutes each, compared to dozens of minutes per single fatty acid profile by GC, for example. The advantage of shotgun lipidomics is the sensitivity and reproducibility—although the CLs were not very abundant in our samples (see supplementary Table S1 for details), it actually was sufficient to enable us to use just a few milligrams

of fungal/root biomass to obtain reliable results. Moreover, if the CLs amounts could indeed be related to AM fungal activity/function, such a biomarker would be of enormous value for both researchers and practitioners aiming at tracing/quantification of mycorrhizal development and benefits.

Supplementary Information The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00572-023-01129-1>.

Author contribution TR conceived the study and conducted the biochemical analyses. Together with JJ, he also wrote the first draft of the manuscript. HH and JJ provided biological materials and contributed to writing. LK contributed to data analysis and writing. All authors approved the final version of the manuscript before submission.

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Data availability All data generated during this study are included in this published article or its electronic supplements.

Declarations

Competing interests The authors declare that all relevant sources of funding have been acknowledged and that they are not aware of any circumstances that could be construed as constituting a financial or nonfinancial conflict of interest. Generative artificial intelligence tools have not been used during preparation of this manuscript.

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