

1 **Differences in the root-associated endophytic fungal**
2 **community composition and structure of three medicinal**
3 **licorices in Xinjiang, China**

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10 **Abstract:** Endophytic fungi have played a very important role in influencing the
11 quality and quantity of bioactive compounds of medicinal plants through specific
12 fungus-host interactions. In medicinal licorices root, a total of 2,118,633 effective
13 sequences and 1,063 effective operational taxonomic units (OTUs) with 97% identity
14 were obtained by high-throughput sequencing. A total of 8 phyla and 140 genera were
15 annotated, among them, the phylum Ascomycota and Basidiomycota, and the genera
16 *Fusarium*, *Paraphoma* and *Helminthosporium* were significantly dominant.
17 Moreover, Wilcoxon rank sum test showed that the Shannon index was significantly
18 different distribution between *Glycyrrhiza uralensis* and *Glycyrrhiza inflata*,
19 especially 0-20cm at the root depth, the Chao1 index in *Glycyrrhiza inflata* was

significantly affected by root depth, and there were significant differences in beta diversity between *Glycyrrhiza uralensis* and *Glycyrrhiza inflata*. Moreover, we explored the content of bioactive compounds (glycyrrhizic acid, liquiritin and total flavonoids) in roots of medicinal licorices based on high-performance liquid chromatography. Our results showed that the liquiritin content was not affected by the root depth (0-20cm, 20-40cm and 40-60cm), but was significantly affected by the main effect species (*Glycyrrhiza uralensis*, *Glycyrrhiza inflata*, *Glycyrrhiza glabra*) ($P < 0.05$), and the content of liquiritin was accountable for the differences in the diversity of endophytic fungal community. Furthermore, distance-based redundancy analysis (db-RDA) showed that soil physicochemical properties (available potassium and ammonium nitrogen), and the root factor (liquiritin and water content) were the main contributing factors to the variations in the overall structure of endophytic fungal community in this study.

Keywords: bioactive compounds; endophytic fungal community; *Glycyrrhiza*; Soil physicochemical

1. Introduction

Glycyrrhiza species are perennial herbs with widely grows in arid and semi-arid regions [1]. There are three different original plants of *Glycyrrhiza* stipulated in Chinese Pharmacopeia, namely dried root and rhizome of *Glycyrrhiza uralensis*, *Glycyrrhiza inflata* and *Glycyrrhiza glabra* its dried roots and rhizomes is one of the most commonly used herbs medicines in both Eastern and Western countries [2]. A

41 wide variety of bioactive compounds can be extracted from root [3], mainly include
42 triterpene saponins, polysaccharides and flavonoids [4]. Glycyrrhizic acid, the richest
43 content of triterpene saponins [5], is the important pharmacological bioactive
44 compounds with anti-inflammatory [6], antiviral and immune regulation [7, 8] and
45 other biological effects. Liquiritin is a major component of flavonoids that mainly
46 exerts anti-inflammatory [9], antioxidant and antibacterial [10, 11]. Because of its
47 medicinal and economic value, medicinal licorices plant has become the research
48 direction of medicinal licorices to improve the content of licorice herbal medicine and
49 understand its ecological characteristics.

50 The traditional view widely believes that the quality and quantity of the bioactive
51 compounds extracted from medicinal plants are largely affected by the genetic
52 background of the related plant, the ecological environment in which the plant lives,
53 and soil nutrients [12, 13]. However, in recent years, some studies [14, 15] have
54 shown that endophytic fungi have played a very important role in influencing the
55 quality and quantity of bioactive compounds of medicinal plants through specific
56 fungus-host interactions.

57 Endophytes, especially endophytic fungi, are one of the most important
58 components in plant micro-ecosystems [16]. Endophytic fungi can form symbiotic
59 relationships with host plants, on the one hand, which can present and grow in
60 different healthy tissues of living plants, including stems [17], leaves [18] and roots
61 [19]. Endophytic fungi, on the other hand, can extract carbohydrates and other
62 nutrients from the host plant for their own growth [20]. In return, host plants may

63 receive benefits from endophytic fungi associations. First, endophytic fungi can
64 promote the growth of host plants by increasing hormones, including Gibberellin,
65 Indoleacetic acid, Absciscic acid, Zeatin [21]. Second, endophytic fungi can enhance
66 the resistance of host plants to environmental stress by producing biologically
67 bioactive compounds [22, 23], such as, endophytic fungi of wheat can promote plant
68 growth and abiotic stress resistance [24]. Last but not least, endophytic fungi can
69 promote the accumulation of secondary metabolites of the host plant [25], such as
70 paclitaxel and deoxypodophyllotoxin, thereby affecting the quantity and quality of
71 bioactive compounds of medicinal plants.

72 Endophytic fungi have great biodiversity and are widely distributed in various
73 terrestrial and aquatic plants species [26], and numerous studies have shown that
74 endophytic fungi can be isolated from various plants species, ranging from important
75 cash crop species [27] such as soybean, to medicinal plant species [28, 29], such as
76 *Dendrobium Officinale* and *Sclerotium Tortuosum*. However, it should be noted that,
77 with the rapid development of high-throughput sequencing technology and
78 bioinformatics, a large number of undiscovered fungi have been discovered [30].
79 Previous studies based on high-throughput sequencing technology have speculated
80 that there are as many as 5.1 million fungal species, most of which are involved in
81 plant-endophytic interactions [31]. At present, only a small part of endophytic fungi
82 are isolated and identified, and most of the endophytic fungi in medicinal plant cannot
83 be purely cultured on the existing medium [32]. Therefore, it is necessary to detect the
84 endophytic fungi community in medicinal plants by adopting non-culture methods.

85 Modern molecular technology, especially Illumina high-throughput sequencing
86 technology, is an emerging technology in recent years, which can comprehensively
87 and accurately detect the diversity of endophyte communities in medicinal plants [33,
88 34]. The high-throughput sequencing technique of next-generation sequencing is a
89 more robust and accurate microbial community characterization technique compared
90 to 18S rDNA-based non-culture methods and conventional culturing methods.

91 Numerous studies [35] have shown that the host genetic background (genotype
92 or species) determine the composition of endophytic fungi. Meanwhile, soil fertility
93 and ecological environment directly affect the content of bioactive compounds of
94 medicinal plants, which will indirectly affect the composition and community
95 structure of endophytic fungi [16]. However, for now, there is little information about
96 the composition of endophytic fungi in the root of medicinal licorices at different
97 genetic backgrounds (species), and soil environmental factors affecting the
98 community structure of endophytic fungi in the root of medicinal licorice are still
99 unclear. Therefore, in this study, we investigated the distribution and composition of
100 endophytes fungal species of three medicinal licorices at three root depths through
101 high-throughput sequencing and explored their relationship with host plants' bioactive
102 compounds and soil physicochemical properties. The results will enhance researchers'
103 understanding about the environmental and host factors that influence endophytic
104 fungi and the friendly relationship between endophytic fungi and medicinal plants,
105 thus providing reference information for licorice growing for commercial medicinal
106 purposes.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Sample collection

The roots and rhizosphere soils samples (soil depths were 0-20cm, 20-40cm and 40-60cm, respectively) of three medicinal licorices (*Glycyrrhiza uralensis*, *Glycyrrhiza inflata* and *Glycyrrhiza glabra*) were collected from August to September in 2019 from specimens growing at 3 distinct sites in 3 eco-regions in Xinjiang province, China; the geographical location of sampling points and soil physical and chemical properties are shown in Table 1. In addition, to ensure that the experiment was representative, we randomly selected three medicinal licorices plants in good growth condition from each geographical location according to the five-point sampling method, and all samples were cut with sterile scissors. The roots of each plant were divided into three sections: upper (0-20cm), middle (20-40cm), and lower (40-60cm), and the roots of each section are equally divided into two parts: one part was placed into a ziplocked bag for the determination of the bioactive compounds in the root, while the other part was placed into a sterile bag and quickly transported on a piece of ice to the laboratory in preparation for the microbe determination. All the samples were labeled by combination with letters and numbers, with the first letter representing the species (W, G and D: *Glycyrrhiza uralensis*, *Glycyrrhiza glabra* and *Glycyrrhiza inflata*, respectively), the second letter representing the root depth (1, 2 and 3: 0-20cm, 20-40cm, 40-60cm), and the third number representing the replicate number. For example, W.1.3 represents the third repetition of *Glycyrrhiza uralensis* at

128 0-20cm.

129 **2.2 Surface sterilization**

130 At the same time, to eliminate the interference of other microorganisms, the
131 surface of roots was sterilized in the laboratory by first rinsing soil from the roots
132 under running water followed by washing with sterile distilled water. The roots were
133 then soaked in 75% alcohol for 30 s for surface disinfection, and then washed five
134 times with sterile distilled water before soaking in 5% sodium hypochlorite for 5 min.
135 Finally the roots were washed five times with sterile distilled water and air-dried
136 under sterile conditions [36]. To confirm that the surface sterilization process was
137 successful, the last rinse solution was inoculated onto a potato dextrose agar (PDA)
138 plate and cultured at 28°C for 72 h. No fungi growth confirmed that the surface
139 sterilization was successful [37]. All root samples were labeled and immediately
140 placed on ice and then stored at liquid nitrogen prior to total DNA extraction.

141 **2.3 Soil physicochemical**

142 Soil samples from the rhizosphere were air-dried and sieved through a 2-mm
143 mesh for soil physicochemical properties analysis. The following soil
144 physicochemical characteristics were analyzed according to the methods described by
145 the Bao et al [38]: The content of organic matter (SOM) was determined by external
146 heating with potassium dichromate. Soil pH (1:2.5= soil: distilled water) was
147 determined using a pH meter. Soil Water content (SWC) was determined by weighing.
148 The total nitrogen (STN) content was determined using the perchloric acid-sulfuric

149 acid digestion method. The total phosphorus (STP) content was determined by acid
150 digestion (molybdenum-antimony colorimetry). The total potassium (STK) content
151 was determined by acid digestion (atomic absorption spectrometry). The total salt
152 (TS) content was determined by atomic absorption spectrometry. Nitrate nitrogen
153 (SNN) and ammonium nitrogen (SAN) contents were analyzed using 0.01 M calcium
154 chloride extraction. The available phosphorus (SAP) content was determined by
155 sodium bicarbonate extraction (molybdenum-antimony colorimetry). The available
156 potassium (SAK) content was determined by ammonium acetate extract method
157 (atomic absorption spectrometry).

158 **2.4 Determination of bioactive compounds in the root of medicinal licorices**

159 The root samples were dried at 60°C for 72 h to constant weight (it has been
160 confirmed that glycyrrhizic acid (GIA) and liquiritin (LI) do not decompose at this
161 temperature [39]). The dried root samples were ground to a powder with a pestle and
162 mortar and passed through a 60 mesh sieve. An aliquot (0.2 g) of powdered root
163 sample was extracted with 71% chromatographic methanol in an ultrasonic bath (250
164 W, 40 kHz) at room temperature. The extract was then centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for
165 10 minutes and the supernatant was filtered (0.22-μm pore size) (Agilent, USA). The
166 GIA and LI contents in the dried root samples (0.2 g) of the medicinal licorices were
167 determined by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC, Agilent-1260
168 Infinity, USA) using an Agilent ZORBAX SB-C18 column (150 mm × 4.6 mm, 5 μm)
169 with mobile phase (chromatographic methanol: ultra-pure water: 36% glacial acetic

170 acid = 71:28:1) and mobile phase (acetonitrile:0.5% glacial acetic acid = 1:4)
171 respectively, and a gradient elution flow rate of 1.0 mL•min⁻¹. GIA and LI were
172 detected at 254 nm and 276 nm, respectively. The injection volume was 5 µL and the
173 column temperature was 30°C. The GIA and LI reference materials (CAS#1405-86-3
174 and CAS#551-15-5, respectively) were purchased from Solarbio and used for
175 calibration purposes. The total flavonoid content (GTF) in medicinal licorices was
176 determined by ultraviolet spectrophotometry at 334 nm with the liquiritin standard
177 (CAS#551-15-5) as the control.

178 **2.5 DNA extraction and library construction**

179 After immersion in liquid nitrogen, genomic DNA was extracted from the
180 samples using the DNA Quick Plant System kit (Tiangen, China) according to the
181 manufacturer's instructions. The purity and concentration of DNA were detected
182 evaluated using a NanoDrop2000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). According to the
183 concentration, each DNA sample was diluted a final concentration to 1 ng/µL with
184 sterile distilled water for use as a DNA template.

185 The ITS (Internal Transcribed Spacer) rDNA genes of the ITS1 region were
186 amplified using specific primers (ITS5-1737F 5'-
187 GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGG-3' and ITS2-2043R 5'-
188 GCTGCGTTCTTCATCGATGC-3') with barcodes [40]. PCR analyses were carried
189 out with Phusion ® High-Fidelity PCR Master Mix and GC Buffer (New England
190 Biolabs) to ensure amplification efficiency and accuracy. PCR runs started at 95 °C

191 for 3 min, followed by 30 cycles of 95 °C for 30 s, 55 °C for 30 s, 72 °C for 30 s and a
192 final extension step at 72 °C for 5 min.

193 The PCR product was mixed with the same volume of 1× TAE and then was
194 detected by 2% agarose gel electrophoresis. The PCR product was purified from the
195 target strip using a GeneJET Gel Extraction Kit (Thermo Scientific). The libraries
196 were constructed using a TruSeq ® DNA PCR-Free Sample Preparation Kit (Illumina,
197 USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions, and index codes were added. The
198 library quality was assessed on the Qubit ® 2.0 Fluorometer (Thermo Scientific) and
199 Agilent Bioanalyzer 2100 system. Finally, amplicon sequencing was performed using
200 the Illumina HiSeq2500 platforms at the Beijing Compass Biotechnology Co., Ltd.
201 (Beijing, China).

202 **2.6 Bioinformatics analysis and statistical analysis**

203 Single-end reads was assigned to samples using Cutadapt [41] software based on
204 their unique barcode and truncated by cutting off the barcode and primer sequence. To
205 avoid the influence of non-microbiota sequences (such as, chloroplast and
206 mitochondrial sequences), the raw sequences were further filtered by Cutadapt
207 software to remove non-microbiota taxa before subsequent analysis. Then raw tags
208 were subjected to a strict quality controlled process using Cutadapt software to obtain
209 high-quality clean reads. Clean reads were obtained by comparison with the reference
210 database (Unite database) [42] using UCHIME algorithm to detect and remove
211 chimeric sequences.

212 UPARSE software [43] (UPARSE v7.0.1001) was used to cluster the effective
213 tags of all samples into the same operational taxonomic units (OTUs) with $\geq 97\%$
214 identity, and taking the sequence with the highest frequency as the representative
215 sequence of each OTU. The taxonomic information for each representative sequence
216 was annotated using the Unite database, and multiple sequence alignment was
217 performed using MUSCLE (Version 3.8.31) software to study the phylogenetic
218 relationship of the representative sequences of OTUs among the 27 root samples.
219 OTU abundance information was normalized using a standard sequence number
220 corresponding to the sample with the least sequences (54,262 reads for sample D.2.1).
221 Subsequent analysis of alpha diversity and beta diversity were performed based on
222 this output normalized data. The raw sequence reads have been deposited in the NCBI
223 Sequence Read Archive (SRA) with BioProject accession number PRJNA664554.

224 Using the FunGuild database based on the species information obtained from
225 amplicon analysis, the ecological functions of existing species in the environment can
226 be inquired.

227 Alpha Diversity analysis was used to study the complexity of species diversity in
228 a sample through six indices (observed-species, Shannon, Simpson, Chao1, ACE, and
229 Good-coverage) [44]. All indices in the samples were calculated with QIIME (Version
230 1.7.0) and displayed with R software (Version 2.15.3).

231 Beta diversity analysis was used to evaluate differences in sample species
232 complexity, which based on weighted Unifrac was calculated by QIIME software. The
233 Un-weighted Pair-group Method with Arithmetic Mean (UPGMA) clustering analysis

234 was conducted by QIIME software (Version 1.7.0). In addition, R software (Version
235 2.15.3) was also used to rarefaction curve generation, Wilcoxon rank sum test,
236 Metastat statistical test, Spearman correlation analysis of heat maps and Distance-
237 based Redundancy Analysis (db-RDA). Pearson correlation analysis was run among
238 the bioactive compounds and the soil physicochemical properties. Two-way ANOVA
239 was performed with SPSS 19.0 (IBM Inc., Armonk, USA), and displayed with
240 GraphPad Prism 5.

241 **3. Results**

242 **3.1. Sequencing Results**

243 In the root of the three medicinal licorices (*Glycyrrhiza uralensis*, *Glycyrrhiza*
244 *glabra*, and *Glycyrrhiza inflata*), a total of 2,118,633 effective sequences were
245 obtained after filtering out low-quality and short sequence reads. The sequencing
246 results for each sample are listed in Table S1. The effective sequences were clustered
247 into OTUs with 97% identity, and a total of 1,063 OTUs were obtained, among them,
248 91.53% of the effective sequences were assigned to the Kingdom level, 59.27% to the
249 phylum level, 54.37% to the class level, 53.72% to the order level, 46.19% to the
250 family level, 38.01% to the genus level, and 23.52% to the species level by the
251 Illumina HiSeq (Figure 1a). The rarefaction curves showed that the number of OTU in
252 each sample increased gradually with quantity of sequence, thus confirming that the
253 amount of sequencing data was adequate (Figure 1b).

3.2 Alpha diversity

The alpha diversity index of each group was shown in Table 2. Some indexes (Shannon and Chao1) respectively reflected the diversity and richness of microbial communities in samples, the greater the index, the higher the species diversity, the richer the distribution. The Shannon index of the W1 (4.910) sample was the highest. In contrast, that of the D1 (3.393) sample was the lowest. Moreover, we found that D1 had the lowest Chao1 (238.678) and ACE (253.105), while the D3 sample had the highest Chao1 (356.317) and ACE (355.694), respectively. Meanwhile, the results based on Wilcoxon rank sum test showed that the Shannon index was significantly different distribution between *Glycyrrhiza uralensis* and *Glycyrrhiza inflata*, especially 0-20cm at the root depth (Figure 2a). Specifically, the Shannon index in W1 sample was significantly higher than D1 sample ($p < 0.05$). Furthermore, the Chao1 index in *Glycyrrhiza inflata* increased gradually with the downward movement of root depths, and based on Wilcoxon rank sum test showed that the Chao1 index in *Glycyrrhiza inflata* was significantly affected by root depth (Figure 2b). Specifically, the Chao1 index in D3 sample was significantly higher than D1 sample ($p < 0.01$); D2 sample was significantly higher than D1 sample ($p < 0.05$).

3.3 Beta diversity

Beta diversity analysis was used to evaluate differences in microbial community composition among the samples. The Unweighted Pair-Group Method with Arithmetic (UPGMA) cluster analysis was performed to study similarity in the

composition of endophytic fungal community among different samples, and the clustering results were integrated with species relative abundance at phyla taxon level in each group. As shown in Figure 3a, the results of UPGMA cluster tree based on Weighted Unifrac distances showed that samples from G3, G2, G1 and W1 were clustered together, and samples from W3, D2, W2 and D1 were clustered together (Figure 3a). Meanwhile, for the difference analysis between the beta diversity, a Wilcoxon rank sum test based on Weighted Unifrac distances was constructed (Figure 3b), and the results showed that there were significant differences in beta diversity between *Glycyrrhiza uralensis* and *Glycyrrhiza inflata*, which was consistent with UPGMA cluster tree. Specifically, there were significant differences in beta diversity between D1 and D2 samples ($P < 0.05$), D3 and W3 samples ($P < 0.05$), and D1 and W1 samples ($P < 0.01$) (Figure 3b), which indicated there were significant differences in endophytic fungal community composition in roots of medicinal licorices between different species and different root depth.

3.4 Composition of fungal community in the root of medicinal liquorices

According to the OTUs sequence and Unite database, 8 phyla, 23 classes, 53 orders, 102 families, 140 genera and 141 species were annotated. The endophytic fungal phyla with the greatest abundance from nine groups were enumerated in Figure 4a. Ascomycota dominated the observed sequences at the phylum level, representing 91.821%, 60.558%, 39.956%, 79.651%, 62.305%, 54.241%, 82.176%, 81.928% and 80.290% of the total number of species in D1, D2, D3, G1, G2, G3, W1, W2 and W3,

296 respectively. In addition, Basidiomycota occupied a large part of the relative
297 abundance in D2 (21.348%), D3 (28.440%), G2 (10.631%), G3 (12.523%), W2
298 (6.749%) and W3 (5.110%), respectively. Meanwhile, our results showed that the
299 relative abundance of Ascomycota gradually decreased with the downward movement
300 of root depths. For the difference analysis at the Phylum classification level, a
301 MetaStat statistical test based on species abundance was constructed, and the results
302 showed that the relative abundance of Ascomycota in *Glycyrrhiza inflata* significant
303 difference distribution at different root depth (Figure 4b). Specifically speaking, the
304 relative abundance of Ascomycota at D1 sample (91.821%) was significantly higher
305 than D3 sample (39.956%) (Figure 4b).

306 In terms of genus, we listed the top 10 dominant fungal genera in each group in
307 Figure 4c: *Fusarium* was found to be the predominant genus in D1 (27.907%), G1
308 (23.944%), G2 (31.071%), G3 (25.381%), W1 (19.253%) and W3 (18.215%).
309 Meanwhile, the abundance of *Paraphoma* was high in the D1, D3 and W3 samples,
310 accounting for 27.738%, 23.937% and 13.980%, respectively. *Helminthosporium*
311 occupied a large part of the relative abundance in D1 (26.567%), G1 (25.124%), W1
312 (8.224%) and W2 (17.408%), respectively. *Sarocladium* occupied a large part of the
313 relative abundance in D2 (3.326%), G1 (16.547%), G2 (17.243%), G3 (21.897%) and
314 W1 (4.218%), respectively, the abundance of *Cladosporium* was high in D2 (6.446%),
315 D3 (2.721%) and W3 (15.174%). *Cadophora* (13.200%) and *Psathyrella* (10.917%)
316 were found to be the most dominant in D2 sample. *Tomentella* (14.472%) was found
317 to be the most dominant in D3 sample. *Conocybe* (12.068%) was found to be the most

318 dominant in G3 sample (Figure 4c).

319 At the same time, details of the composition of the top 10 dominant fungi at
320 other classification levels (Class, Order, Family and Species) were listed in Table S2.
321 Specifically speaking, Sordariomycetes, Dothideomycetes and Agaricomycetes were
322 dominate at the class taxonomic level; the dominant species at the order taxonomic
323 level are Hypocreales, Pleosporales, Thelephorales; the dominant species at the family
324 taxonomic level are Nectriaceae, Phaeosphaeriaceae, Massarinaceae; the dominant
325 species at the species taxonomic level are *Fusarium-solani*, *Paraphoma-radicina*,
326 *Sarocladium-kiliense*.

327 Based on the ITS amplicons analysis, we obtained the classification and
328 abundance information of endophytic fungal community in root of medicinal
329 licorices; we also pay attention to what role these species play in the ecosystem. The
330 top 25 main ecological function of fungal species based on FunGuild analysis was
331 shown in figure 5. Plant_Pathogen-Soil_Saprotroph-Wood_Saprotroph (32.072%)
332 was found to be the most dominant in G2 sample; Fungal_Parasite-Plant_Pathogen
333 (26.567%) was found to be the most dominant in D1 sample; the abundance of
334 Undefined_Saprotroph was high in the G1, G2 and G3 samples, accounting for
335 21.271%, 28.330% and 35.555%, respectively. Ectomycorrhizal (21.187%) and
336 Endophyte (13.208%) were found to be the most dominant in D2 sample. However, a
337 much higher proportion of unassigned ecological function existed in all groups.

3.5 The relationship between endophytic fungal communities and the bioactive compounds and soil physicochemical properties

The results of two-way ANOVA showed that the content of the bioactive compounds (glycyrrhizic acid (GIA), liquiritin (LI) and total flavonoid (GTF)) were not significantly affected by the interaction effect between root depth (0-20cm, 20-40cm, 40-60cm) and plant species (*Glycyrrhiza uralensis*, *Glycyrrhiza inflata*, and *Glycyrrhiza glabra*) ($P > 0.05$) (Table3). However, the content of LI was significantly affected by the main effect plant species ($P < 0.05$) (Table 3 and Figure 6). As shown in the Figure 6, the contents of LI in root of *Glycyrrhiza uralensis* were significantly higher than those in *Glycyrrhiza inflata* ($P < 0.05$), and the contents of LI in root of *Glycyrrhiza uralensis* were significantly higher than those in *Glycyrrhiza glabra* ($P < 0.05$) (Figure 6a).

In addition, Pearson correlation analysis showed that the content of bioactive compounds was significantly correlated with soil physicochemical properties (Table S3). GIA content in root had a very significant positive correlation with available potassium (SAK) and soil water content (SWC) ($r > 0$; $P < 0.05$), but LI content in root had a very significant negative correlation with SAK and total salt (TS) content ($r < 0$; $P < 0.05$).

Furthermore, spearman correlation analysis showed that the content of LI was significantly positive correlated with alpha diversity index ($r > 0$, $P < 0.05$) (Figure 7). As shown in Figure 7, the content of LI had a very significant positive correlation with Shannon index, Simpson index and Chao1 index ($P < 0.05$), which indicated that

the content of LI was accountable for the differences in the diversity of endophytic fungal community in this study.

Meanwhile, spearman correlation analysis showed that there was a significant relationship between dominant fungi phylum and bioactive compounds and soil physicochemical properties (Table 4). Specifically, Ascomycota showed a very significant negative correlation with RWC ($r < 0$, $P < 0.01$); Basidiomycota showed a very significant positive correlation with RWC ($r > 0$; $P < 0.01$); Olpidiomyota showed a significant positive correlation with GIA ($r > 0$; $P < 0.05$); Mortierellomycota showed a significant positive correlation with STK, SWC and SAK ($r > 0$; $P < 0.05$); Mucoromycota showed a very significant positive correlation with SOM ($r > 0$; $P < 0.01$), but a significant negative correlation with STP ($r < 0$, $P < 0.01$); Rozellomycota showed a significant positive correlation with SOM, STK and RWC ($r > 0$; $P < 0.05$).

At the same time, as shown in Figure 8, there was a significant relationship between the dominant fungi genus and bioactive compounds and soil physicochemical properties. Specifically, *Fusarium* showed a significant positive correlation with LI content ($P < 0.05$); *Paraphoma* showed a significant positive correlation with SAN ($P < 0.05$), but a significant negative correlation with SAK, TS and SWC ($P < 0.05$); *Helminthosporium* showed a significant positive correlation with PH ($P < 0.05$); *Sarocladium* showed a significant negative correlation with SOM, STN and SNN ($P < 0.05$); *Conocybe* showed a significant positive correlation with SWC, but a significant negative correlation with SAN ($P < 0.05$).

Distance-based redundancy analysis (db-RDA) based on the Bray–Curtis distance showed that the bioactive compounds and soil physicochemical had significant effects on the differences of endophytic fungal community (Figure 9). The differential distribution of endophytic fungal community was mainly restricted in the first and second ordination axes, and the first ordination axis, the second ordination axis were explained 16.23%, 13.89% of the total variability, respectively (Figure 9). Specifically, among the soil environment factors, SAK content was identified as the factor that most significantly affects the differences of endophytic fungal community ($r^2 = 0.329$, $P < 0.01$), followed by SAN ($P < 0.05$). Among the root factors, the RWC was explained the difference of endophytic fungal communities in roots to the greatest extent ($r^2 = 0.247$, $P < 0.05$), followed by LI content ($P < 0.05$) (Figure 9, Table 5). According to results of the db-RDA analysis, the SAN, SAK, RWC, and LI content were the major factors contributing to the variations in the overall structure of endophytic fungal community in this study.

4. Discussion

In this study, we investigated the composition and diversity of endophytic fungal communities in different root depth (0-20cm, 20-40cm and 40-60cm) of three medicinal licorices (*Glycyrrhiza uralensis*, *Glycyrrhiza glabra*, and *Glycyrrhiza inflata*) using high-throughput sequencing technology, which provides a large amount of data with more accuracy than that obtained in previous studies using traditional

402 technology [45-47]. We obtained the composition of endophytic fungal communities
403 at different taxonomic levels (phylum, class, order, family, genus and species) by
404 high-throughput sequencing (Figure 4a, Figure 4c and Table S2). The results showed
405 that there was a specific microbiome in 27 samples of tree medicinal licorices, and the
406 relative abundance of endophytic fungi was correlated with the host plant species and
407 root depth. For example, Ascomycota was the dominant phylum in all samples,
408 followed by Basidiomycota, which result consistent with previous studies [48, 49].
409 The phylum Ascomycota, as the largest phylum of fungi, has diverse populations and
410 plays an important role in genetics [50], ecology [51] and phylogeny [52]. Such as,
411 the Ascomycota produce large numbers of spores through both asexual and sexual
412 reproduction. Asci can act as small water cannon, spraying spores into the air.
413 Dispersal process of ascospores, spores is important for dissemination of many fungal
414 plant diseases and for the dispersal of many saprophytic fungi [53].

415 Moreover, our results showed that the relative abundance of Ascomycota
416 gradually decreased with the downward movement of root depths (Figure 4b), which
417 was consistent with the results of Ko, Daegeun et al [54]. On this basis, we found that
418 the relative abundance of Ascomycota in *Glycyrrhiza inflata* had a significant
419 difference at different root depth, but *Glycyrrhiza uralensis* and *Glycyrrhiza glabra*
420 were not significant difference, indicating that some endophytes may preferentially
421 proliferate in a certain ecological region and play different ecological roles from other
422 endophytes. Overall, in addition to soil depth, the relative abundance of endophytes
423 was also related to the genotype of the host plant species. This was consistent with the

results of host genotype and soil conditions on ectomycorrhizal community of poplar clones by Karliński, Leszek et al. [55].

Alpha Diversity and Beta Diversity analysis of endophytic fungal community showed significant differences in root depths (0-20cm, 20-40cm and 40-60cm) between *Glycyrrhiza uralensis* and *Glycyrrhiza inflata* (Figure 2 and Figure 3), which indicated that both genotype and ecological region of host plants contributed to the differences of endophytic fungal community. Meanwhile, numerous studies [56] have shown that the adaptation of endophytic fungal community largely depends on the adaptation of host plants to the ecological environment, which indicated that host plants largely determine the colonization and distribution of endophytic fungal community. The relationship between fungus and host plant were also often considered as a flexible interaction, with orientations determined by subtle differences in the expression of fungal genes in response to the host, or conversely, by the host's recognition and response to the fungus. Thus, slight genetic differences in the two genomes control the symbiosis [57].

Furthermore, our results showed that the root depth had a significant effect on the richness and composition of endophytic fungal community (Figure 2b, Figure 3a and Figure 3b), which indicated that different ecological types of endophytic fungi may represent certain ecological regions (different root depth), these should become an important consideration factor that endophytic fungi inoculation. We speculated that this is related to root respiration and soil C content. On the one hand, root respiration, accounts for 60% of total soil respiration, can regulates the metabolism of

446 roots and related microorganisms, and is an important part of terrestrial carbon budget
447 [58]; on the other hand, the content of C in unstable soil varies greatly between
448 different soil depths [59]. Moreover, Noah Fierer et al. [60] demonstrated that the
449 vertical distribution of the specific microbial species was largely related to the
450 decrease in carbon availability with soil depth.

451 However, one weakness in this study was that the samples of three *glycyrrhiza*
452 species were collected from areas which differed in geographical environment. Since
453 it is rare to find three *glycyrrhiza* species in the same habitat, to a certain extent, the
454 soil physicochemical properties can represent the environmental factors in which
455 three *glycyrrhiza* species were growing. Therefore, in this study, in addition to root
456 factor, also included the effects of the soil factors.

457 Numerous studies [61, 62] showed the accumulation of bioactive compounds in
458 medicinal licorice roots is affected by various factors. In this study, the content of LI
459 were more affected by main effect plant species than main effect root depth (Table 3),
460 among them, the content of LI in root of *Glycyrrhiza uralensis* were significantly
461 higher than those in *Glycyrrhiza inflata* and *Glycyrrhiza glabra* (Figure 6a), which is
462 consistent with the results of Zhang et al. [63]. We speculate that this is related to the
463 expressions of some functional genes that are closely associated with the content of
464 bioactive compounds including glycyrrhizic acid and liquiritin in root of licorice
465 species. Some studies [64-66] have shown that key functional genes, such as chalcone
466 synthase gene, 3-Hydroxy-3-methylglutary CoA reductase (HMGR) and squalene
467 synthase (SQS), are involved in transcriptional level regulation process in glycyrrhizic

468 acid and liquiritin biosynthesis. Although further studies are required to characterize
469 the expression of functional genes of bioactive compounds, this study provides a
470 theoretical basis for the development of strategies to expand the *Glycyrrhiza uralensis*
471 cultivation. On the other hand, the content of bioactive compounds is the result of the
472 interaction between plants and their growing environment, therefore, the
473 accumulation of bioactive compounds in root is influenced by the ecological
474 environment of its. In this study, GIA, GTF and LI content had a positive correlation
475 with soil total nitrogen (STN) ($r > 0$), indicating that soil nutrients can promote the
476 accumulation of bioactive compounds, but not all soil nutrients, such as soil total
477 potassium (STK), have such a function. Although potassium can be involved in many
478 enzyme activation systems in plants and improve plant stress resistance [67], the
479 content of GIA, GTF and LI were negatively correlated with STK ($r < 0$) in this study,
480 which is consistent with the results of Liu et al [68]. In addition, soil available
481 potassium (SAK) had a significant positive correlation with GIA, but had a significant
482 negative correlation with LI (Table S3), indicating that the utilization mechanism of
483 soil nutrients by bioactive compounds is completely different. Although the
484 mechanism by which available potassium regulate bioactive compounds is still
485 unclear, this discovery may form the basis of further in-depth research. In general,
486 these soil factors exhibit habitat specific characteristics are related to the regulation of
487 bioactive compounds in root of licorice.

488 In recent years, a growing number of studies [69-71] have demonstrated that the
489 dynamics of the microflora is driven to a large extent by environmental factors

including soil characteristics (pH, nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium) and climate condition (rainfall and temperature). Consistent with these reports, our results showed that LI, RWC, SAN and SAK content were the major factors contributing to the variations in the overall structure of endophytic fungal community (Figure 9 and Table 5). In addition, we found that the content of LI in root had a very significant positive correlation with diversity of endophytic fungal community (Shannon and Simpson index) ($P < 0.05$) (Figure 7). Liquiritin (LI), the main bioactive compounds of flavonoids, is one of the material basis for clinical efficacy and an important index of the quality of medicinal licorices. Flavonoids can be specifically induced by symbiotic fungus to respond to purified signaling molecules from these organisms when the fungus colonizes. Chen et al. [72] demonstrated that with inoculation of fungi *Glomus mosseae*, *Glycyrrhiza uralensis* plants significantly increased stem and root biomass and liquiritin content in the main root.

Meanwhile, our results showed that soil physicochemical and bioactive compounds had a significant effect on composition of endophytic fungal communities (such as phylum and genus) (Figure 8 and Table 4), which showed that there is an interaction among endophytic fungal community, root and soil factor. This suggests that we may be able to alter the fungal composition by altering soil factors [73], thereby promoting the accumulation of bioactive compounds in plants [74]. In the case of medicinal licorices, Wei Xie et al. [75] shown that P addition and arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) inoculation could improve plant growth and facilitated glycyrrhizic acid and liquiritin accumulation in *Glycyrrhiza uralensis*. Meanwhile, Y. Orujei et al.

512 [76] also shown that two species of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) were
513 successful inoculation, the increase in the growth rate and the accumulation of
514 bioactive compounds in licorice roots (*Glycyrrhiza glabra*) were observed compared
515 to control. In general, this study provided useful an information for the development
516 of strategies to improve the production and quality of medicinal licorices, although
517 further studies are required to characterize the functions of these endophytic fungi.

518 **5. Conclusions**

519 In this study, numerous endophytic fungal communities were detected in roots of
520 medicinal licorices based on high-throughput sequencing. Furthermore, we identified
521 significant differences in the relative abundance of Ascomycota among root depth.
522 Furthermore, the alpha diversity analysis and beta diversity analysis showed that the
523 endophytic fungal community structure and composition differed among the species
524 and root depth in medicinal licorices. Moreover, the SAN, SAK, RWC, and LI content
525 were the major factors contributing to the variations in the overall structure of
526 endophytic fungal community in this study. This study clarified the ecological role of
527 non-biological factor (soil and root) in the endophytic fungal community of medicinal
528 licorices, which may provide theoretical basis for the synthesis of bioactive
529 compounds and rational utilization of medicinal plants in production practice.

530 **Data Accessibility Statement**

531 All data generated or analysed during this study are included in this published
532 article. The raw sequence reads of amplicon sequencing have been deposited in the
533 NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) with BioProject accession number
534 PRJNA664554 ([https://dataview.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/object/PRJNA664554?](https://dataview.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/object/PRJNA664554?reviewer=mk27e1r5vjo257l0n599u2e0en)
535 [reviewer=mk27e1r5vjo257l0n599u2e0en](https://dataview.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/object/PRJNA664554?reviewer=mk27e1r5vjo257l0n599u2e0en)).

536 **Author Contributions**

537 **Hanli Dang:** Conceptualization; Formal Analysis; Investigation; Writing –
538 original draft; **Tao Zhang:** Investigation; Methodology; Software; **Zhongke Wang:**
539 Investigation; Methodology; Software; **Guifang Li:** Investigation; Methodology;
540 **Wenqin Zhao:** Investigation; Methodology; **Xinhua Lv:** Investigation;
541 Methodology; **Li Zhuang:** Investigation; Supervision; Writing – review & editing.

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548 **Conflicts of Interest**

549 *None declared*

550 **Ethics statement**

551 *None required*

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784 **Figure Legends**

785 **Figure 1** . Distribution of the number of tags on each classification level (Kingdom,
786 Phylum, Class, Order, Family, Genus and Species) (a); Rarefaction curves of fungal
787 community composition (b)

788 Description: Sample Name: D, G and W: *Glycyrrhiza inflata*, *Glycyrrhiza glabra* and
789 *Glycyrrhiza uralensis*; 1, 2 and 3: root depth 0-20cm, 20-40cm, and 40-60cm,
790 respectively; the third number representing the replicate number. The rarefaction
791 curves different colors represent different samples.

792 **Figure 2** . The significance test of the differences of Alpha Diversity

793 Description: Ordinates are Shannon index (a) and Chao1 index (b), respectively.
794 Abscissa is the group name: D, G and W: *Glycyrrhiza inflata*, *Glycyrrhiza glabra* and
795 *Glycyrrhiza uralensis*; 1, 2 and 3: root depth 0-20cm, 20-40cm, and 40-60cm,
796 respectively. The mark * is significance test $p < 0.05$.

797 **Figure 3**. Unweighted Pair-Group Method with Arithmetic (UPGMA) clustering tree
798 base on the weighted unifracs distance (a); and the significance test of the differences
799 of Beta Diversity (b).

800 Description: a: The left is the UPGMA cluster tree structure, and the right is the
801 distribution of relative abundance of each sample at the phylum level; b: Ordinate is
802 the Beta diversity; Abscissa is the group name: D, G and W: *Glycyrrhiza inflata*,
803 *Glycyrrhiza glabra* and *Glycyrrhiza uralensis*; 1, 2 and 3: root depth 0-20cm, 20-

804 40cm, and 40-60cm, respectively. The mark * is significance test $p < 0.05$.

805 **Figure 4** . Histograms of relative abundance of the top 10 endophytic fungi at the
806 phyla (a) and genera (c) level of taxonomy; difference analysis at the Phylum
807 classification level (b).

808 Description: Ordinate is the relative abundance; others refers to are sequences with
809 less or not be annotated. Abscissa is the group name: D, G and W: *Glycyrrhiza inflata*,
810 *Glycyrrhiza glabra* and *Glycyrrhiza uralensis*; 1, 2 and 3: root depth 0-20cm, 20-
811 40cm, and 40-60cm, respectively. ** means $P < 0.01$.

812 **Figure 5** . Histograms of relative abundance of the top 25 main ecological function

813 Description: Ordinate is the relative abundance; others refers to are sequences with
814 less or not be annotated. Abscissa is the group name: D, G and W: *Glycyrrhiza inflata*,
815 *Glycyrrhiza glabra* and *Glycyrrhiza uralensis*; 1, 2 and 3: root depth 0-20cm, 20-
816 40cm, and 40-60cm, respectively.

817 **Figure 6** . Effect of main effect plant species on the bioactive compounds of licorice
818 roots

819 Description: Ordinate is the content of LI (a), GIA (b) and GTF (c); abscissa is the
820 group name: D, G and W: *Glycyrrhiza inflata*, *Glycyrrhiza glabra* and *Glycyrrhiza*
821 *uralensis*, and the mark * is significance test ($p < 0.05$).

822 **Figure 7** . Heatmaps of Spearman correlation analysis

823 Description: Ordinate is the information of environmental factors, and abscissa is the

824 information of alpha diversity indexes. The correlation coefficient r of Spearman is
825 between -1 and 1, $r < 0$ is negative correlation, $r > 0$ is positive correlation, and the
826 mark * is significance test ($p < 0.05$).

827 **Figure 8 .** Heatmaps of Spearman correlation analysis

828 Description: Ordinate is the information of environmental factors, and abscissa is the
829 information of species at the genera level of taxonomy. The correlation coefficient r of
830 Spearman is between -1 and 1, $r < 0$ is negative correlation, $r > 0$ is positive
831 correlation, and the mark * is significance test ($p < 0.05$).

832 **Figure 9 .** Distance-based redundancy analysis (db-RDA) for all groups

833 Description: Environmental factors are generally represented by arrows. The length of
834 the arrow line represents the degree of correlation between a certain environmental
835 factor and community and species distribution, and the longer the arrow, the greater
836 the correlation. When the angle between the environmental factors is acute, it means
837 that there is a positive correlation between the two environmental factors, while when
838 the angle is obtuse, there is a negative correlation.

839 **Supplementary Materials**

840 Table S1 Sequencing results of each sample. Table S2 Composition of dominant
841 fungi at each classification level. Table S3 Pearson correlation coefficient of the
842 content of bioactive compounds with soil physicochemical properties.