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Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in Australian stormwater biofilters

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2Arbuscular Mycorrhizal Fungi in Australian Stormwater Biofilters

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## 19 Highlights

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21 • Mycorrhizae were found on plant roots of four species growing in stormwater  
22 biofilters in three Australian cities

24 • Mean annual rainfall and biofilter age had no significant effects on mycorrhizal  
25 colonization

27 • Presence of mycorrhizae on some biofilter plant roots suggests filter media  
28 conditions can support this plant-fungal relationship

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30 • **Abstract**

31• Stormwater biofilters are important tools for managing runoff in urban watersheds.

32To the authors' knowledge, there have been no accounts examining the presence of  
33mycorrhizal fungi in biofilters. This plant-fungi relationship is an important interaction in  
34most terrestrial ecosystems, playing a role in nutrient dynamics, water cycling, and soil  
35organic matter decomposition. The presence of mycorrhiza in biofilters could have  
36implications for nutrient and metal uptake in plants, and thus enhance removal of target  
37pollutants. Additionally, the establishment, growth, and survivability of plants could be  
38enhanced when roots are colonized by mycorrhizae. The aim of this study was to  
39determine the extent of colonization by arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in biofilters of  
40varying ages in three Australian cities: Melbourne, Perth, and Sydney. The 32 biofilters  
41surveyed supported 56 plant species, with dominant species belonging to the Cyperaceae,  
42Iridaceae, Juncaceae, Onagraceae, Poaceae, and Xanthorrhoeaceae families. Mycorrhizal  
43associations were identified from 4 of the 11 most dominant plant species from 9 different  
44biofilters, but relatively low percentages of mycorrhizal colonization (3–25% colonization)  
45were observed in biofilter plant roots. Mycorrhizal colonization was not related to biofilter  
46age. These results demonstrate that mycorrhizal fungi colonize plant roots growing in  
47biofilters. These findings provide useful evidence of the presence of mycorrhizal fungi in  
48stormwater biofilters that support subsequent investigation into their roles in these systems.

49• **Keywords:** stormwater biofilters, rain gardens, arbuscular mycorrhiza, water

50sensitive urban design, green infrastructure, urban ecology

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521. **Introduction**

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- Stormwater biofilters are ecologically engineered treatment systems composed of engineered filter media planted with species adapted to live in both wet and dry conditions. Managing urban stormwater runoff using biofiltration can provide multiple types of ecosystem services (e.g., carbon sequestration, water quality improvement, urban heat mitigation, provision of biodiversity, etc.) (Grant et al., 2012; Hatt et al., 2009; Lundy and Wade, 2011; Wong and Brown, 2009). Despite extensive research demonstrating their effectiveness with respect to hydraulic and pollutant removal (Bratieres et al., 2008; Davis, 2007; Davis et al., 2006, 2001; Hsieh and Davis, 2005) and the importance of plant species selection (Barrett et al., 2013; Bratieres et al., 2008; Payne et al., 2014; Read et al., 2008), particularly for nutrient removal, the provision of biodiversity and existence of specific plant-soil biological relationships (e.g., mycorrhizal colonization of biofilter plant roots) by green infrastructure systems (a.k.a., Water Sensitive Urban Design, Sustainable

75 Urban Drainage Systems, Low Impact Development,  
76 etc.) are rarely studied.

77 • Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) symbiotically grow with host  
78 plants by providing water and nutrients to plant roots in exchange for energy. AMF  
79 have hyphae that access crevices too small for plant roots, delivering nutrients to  
80 the plant root cortex via specialized organs called arbuscules (Brundrett, 2009).  
81 AMF are associated with more than two thirds of terrestrial plant families (Wang  
82 and Qiu, 2006) and provide plants with increased access to soil water (Duan et al.,  
83 1996) and growth-limiting nutrients (Smith and Read, 2008), resistance to soil  
84 pathogens (Newsham et al., 1995), and tolerance to heavy metals (Hildebrandt et  
85 al., 2007). Mycorrhizal colonization of plants in stormwater biofilters could  
86 therefore increase removal of nutrients and metals and plant survivability during  
87 prolonged dry periods. Since water retention capacity of typical filter media is low  
88 (Payne et al., 2015) in biofilters, AMF could provide access to interstitial water in  
89 the filter media that plant roots could not reach. This could be particularly  
90 important in areas with prolonged dry periods, such as Perth, WA, or in systems  
91 designed to exfiltrate to the underlying layers (i.e., no submerged zone or liner in  
92 place to retain moisture).

93 • John et al. (2014) evaluated the presence of mycorrhizae in green  
94 roof plants and provided guidance for selecting species with stronger mycorrhizal  
95 associations. Others have investigated the use of AMF inocula to improve heavy  
96 metal uptake in polluted soils; some studies indicate AMF-colonized plants had

97 increased heavy metal uptake (Liao et al., 2003; Whitfield et al., 2003) while others  
98 indicate decreased heavy metal uptake or no effect of AMF (Weissenhorn et al.,  
99 1995; Wu et al., 2007), suggesting the relationship between AMF and heavy metal  
100 uptake cannot be generalized (Weissenhorn et al., 1995). AMF have been detected  
101 in stormwater biofilter experimental columns, colonizing roots of *Melaleuca*  
102 *ericifolia* (Bratieres et al., 2008), but no information is available on studies  
103 presenting field observations of mycorrhizae in stormwater biofilters.

104 • Soils and/or growth media are typically  
105 inoculated with mycorrhizae for the purposes of  
106 improving crop yields (Jeffries and Rhodes, 1987;  
107 Menge, 1983; Sharifi et al., 2007), establishment and  
108 productivity of plants used in horticulture (Azcón-  
109 Aguilar and Barea, 1997; Maronek et al., 1981), and  
110 restoration of terrestrial ecosystems (Danielson,  
111 1985; Miller and Jastrow, 1992; Turnau and  
112 Haselwandter, 2002; Zhang et al. 2012). Stormwater  
113 biofilters, consisting of engineered soil planted with  
114 shrubs and grasses, are essentially terrestrial  
115 ecosystems with disturbed soils; Miller and Jastrow  
116 (1992) discuss the use of mycorrhizae inocula to  
117 restore soil health and promote plant growth  
118 following disturbance. Consequently, the benefits of

119 mycorrhizae to establish plants in newly constructed  
120 biofilters could be significant (John et al., 2016).  
121 Plant cover in recently constructed systems depends  
122 largely on design parameters and varies from plants  
123 sparsely to completely covering the ground surface.  
124 However, it is unknown whether mycorrhizal  
125 colonization of biofilter plant roots occurs at all or  
126 persists over time.

- 127 • This study aims to observe the presence of  
128 mycorrhizae in stormwater biofilters in Australia to  
129 determine whether mycorrhizal colonization of  
130 biofilter plant roots is affected by regional climate  
131 and biofilter age. Biofiltration has been a popular  
132 strategy to promote urban water sustainability in  
133 Australia for the past decade. Many systems have  
134 been installed in Australian cities, particularly in  
135 Melbourne, Victoria during and following The  
136 Millennium Drought under the 10,000 Rain Gardens  
137 project (Melbourne Water, 2013). For this reason,  
138 Australian cities provide a large number of biofilters  
139 of differing ages in relatively close proximity.  
140 Differences in rainfall between cities also provide



141 opportunities to compare plants growing in biofilters  
142 located in different climatic conditions. Evidence of  
143 mycorrhizal colonization of biofilter plant roots could  
144 inform optimization studies whereby plant species  
145 that are found to be mycorrhizal in existing biofilters  
146 could be used to test the effects of their presence on  
147 biofilter performance and drought tolerance of plants.

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## 1492. **Methods**

### 150 **2.1. Biofilter Selection**

151 • In each city, biofilters were chosen from a list of  
152 biofilters compiled from published accounts and  
153 personal communications with municipal officials.  
154 Biofilters were selected to represent a range of ages  
155 (2–14 yr), but maintain consistent design  
156 specifications.

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#### 158 **2.1.1. Rainfall Data**

159 • Mean annual rainfall (MAR) for each site was  
160 determined using the average annual precipitation  
161 measured at the closest rain gauge operated by the  
162 Australian Government’s Bureau of Meteorology for  
163 the period of time between the year of construction of

164 the biofilter to the sampling date. When data were not  
165 available for that time period, rainfall data from the  
166 next closest rain gauge, which was never more than  
167 10 km from the biofilter, was used.

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## 169 **2.1.2. Biofilter Location Descriptions**

### 170 **2.1.2.1. Melbourne**

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172 • On average, the twelve sampled biofilter sites in  
173 Melbourne, Victoria received MAR of 767 mm  
174 (Bureau of Meteorology, 2015) during the time  
175 between biofilter construction and sampling.  
176 Seasonally, rainfall was greater in winter months and  
177 lower in summer months; average monthly rainfall  
178 ranged from about 47 mm in January to 65 mm in  
179 October (Bureau of Meteorology, 2015). The selected  
180 study sites ranged in age (period of time between  
181 construction and date of sampling in October 2014)  
182 from 1.5 to 12 years. Median biofilter age and area  
183 were 3.4 years and 24 m<sup>2</sup>, respectively.

184 •

### 185 **2.1.2.2. Perth**

186 •

187 • On average, the eleven sampled biofilter sites in  
188 Perth, Western Australia received MAR of 738 mm  
189 (Bureau of Meteorology, 2015) during the time  
190 between biofilter construction and sampling. Typical  
191 of Mediterranean climates, rainfall was very low in  
192 summer months, with most rainfall occurring during  
193 winter months; average monthly rainfall ranged from  
194 about 10 mm in January to 160 mm in June (Bureau  
195 of Meteorology, 2015). The selected sites ranged in  
196 age (period of time between construction and date of  
197 sampling in November 2014) from 1.5 to 9 years.  
198 Median biofilter age and area were 5.5 years and 200  
199 m<sup>2</sup>, respectively.

200 •  
201 **2.1.2.3. Sydney**

202 •

203 • On average, the nine sampled biofilter sites in  
204 Sydney, New South Wales received MAR of 1316  
205 mm (Bureau of Meteorology, 2015) during the time  
206 between biofilter construction and sampling.  
207 Although more rainfall occurred in winter months  
208 than in summer, rainfall was relatively abundant  
209 throughout the year, with average monthly rainfall

210 ranging from 70-80 mm in September-December to  
211 130 mm in June (Bureau of Meteorology, 2015).  
212 These sites ranged in age (period of time between  
213 construction and date of sampling in November  
214 2014) from 1.8 to 14 years. Median biofilter age and  
215 area were 5.3 years and 42 m<sup>2</sup>, respectively.

216 •

## 217 **2.2. Plant Survey and Mycorrhizal Colonization of Plant Roots**

218 •

219 • We surveyed plant communities in each biofilter to  
220 determine dominant plant species by identifying  
221 plants to genera and species (where possible) in the  
222 field and visually estimating cover for the entire site.  
223 We collected photo vouchers for species we could not  
224 positively identify in the field. We used compared  
225 these photo vouchers to images on an online  
226 Australian plant guide (ANPSA, 2015) to identify  
227 plants to genera and species (where possible). For  
228 sites larger than 250 m<sup>2</sup>, we randomly placed one  
229 0.25-m<sup>2</sup> quadrat for every ~125 m<sup>2</sup> of biofilter, with  
230 the mean cover in the quadrats used to estimate plant  
231 cover.

232           •       Plant roots were collected from the dominant plant species at each  
233 site. For each dominant plant species at any site, one sample was composited from  
234 filter media cores (cores) collected adjacent to 3–4 different individual plants of the  
235 same species. Cores were collected by driving a 2.5-cm diameter chromium-  
236 molybdenum steel soil probe to rooting depth (10 – 30 cm below soil surface) at the  
237 base of individual plants that were isolated (i.e., not surrounded by other plant  
238 species). Holes made by probes were filled in with fine sand and existing  
239 surrounding material. Root samples were stored at 4°C for less than 24 hours  
240 before filter media was hand-washed from roots through a 600-µm sieve.

241                       •       Subsamples (0.1–0.2 g dry weight) of washed  
242 roots were placed in a 10% (w/v) KOH solution in  
243 20-mL scintillation vials and cleared in a water bath  
244 at 80°C for 1–12 hrs, until visibly transparent  
245 (Vierheilig et al., 1998). Cleared roots were stained  
246 using the ink and vinegar method based on Vierheilig  
247 et al. (1998); the 5% ink-vinegar solution consisted of  
248 5% Sheaffer® Skrip® Jet Black pen ink and 95%  
249 distilled white vinegar (5% acetic acid) by volume.  
250 Roots were de-stained in distilled water containing a  
251 few drops of vinegar for 1 hr before being transferred  
252 to a 50% (v/v) lactic acid-glycerol solution for  
253 storage.

254 • Root samples were analyzed for mycorrhizal  
255 colonization using the gridline-intersect method  
256 (Giovannetti and Mosse, 1980). AMF features  
257 (arbuscules, vesicles, and hyphae) were observed first  
258 under a dissecting microscope at 40x magnification  
259 and then confirmed using a compound microscope at  
260 100x magnification. While hyphae and vesicles  
261 indicate presence of AMF colonization, these  
262 structures may be present in non-mycorrhizal  
263 endophytic fungi (McGonigle et al., 1990; Brundrett,  
264 2009). Although requiring all three structures to  
265 confirm mycorrhizal colonization likely limits the  
266 amount of samples that were described as  
267 mycorrhizal under this definition, requiring  
268 arbuscules ensures functional mycorrhizae (at time of  
269 sampling) were present and non-mycorrhizal,  
270 endophytic fungi were not mistakenly counted  
271 (McGonigle et al., 1990). Consequently, the presence  
272 of hyphae, vesicles, and arbuscules in root samples  
273 were required to confirm AMF colonization.  
274 Identifying fungal species was beyond the scope of  
275 this study.



277 **2.3. Data Analyses**

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279 • Statistical analyses were performed on samples  
280 where mycorrhizae were present. Due to the variable  
281 nature of mycorrhizal colonization of plant roots, we  
282 expected many of our samples would not be  
283 colonized by mycorrhizae. Dominant plants were  
284 selected for examination of mycorrhizae; we did not  
285 preferentially select plants we expected to be  
286 colonized by mycorrhizae. We analyzed these data  
287 for the effects of plant species, location, mean annual  
288 rainfall, and biofilter age for only those samples with  
289 observed mycorrhizal colonization. After confirming  
290 that the assumptions of normality and  
291 homoscedasticity were met, two one-way ANOVAs  
292 were used to test the effects of plant species or  
293 location of biofilter (by city) on percent mycorrhizal  
294 colonization of plant roots ( $\alpha=0.05$ ). One-way  
295 ANOVAs were used because sample size was too  
296 small (i.e., too few replications of plant species  
297 colonized by mycorrhizae were present in more than  
298 one city) to test for interaction in a two-way ANOVA.  
299 Pearson's correlations were used to assess the  
300 relationship between percent mycorrhizal

301 colonization and mean annual rainfall and biofilter  
302 age ( $\alpha=0.05$ ). Statistical analyses were performed  
303 using R Statistical Software (R Core Team, 2015).

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### 3053. Results

306 •

307 • Most biofilter plant species belonged to four families:  
308 Cyperaceae, Juncaceae, Poaceae, and Myrtaceae  
309 (Table 1). There were a total of 56 species in 19  
310 families across the surveyed biofilters, with 12  
311 species and 11 families present in biofilters in more  
312 than one city (Table 1). There were 30, 24, and 19  
313 plant species in Melbourne, Perth, and Sydney  
314 biofilters, respectively. Dominant plant species  
315 belonged to seven families: Cyperaceae, Iridaceae,  
316 Juncaceae, Onagraceae, Poaceae, Scrophulariaceae,  
317 and Xanthorrhoeaceae.

318 • Table 1. Plant species list for all sampled biofilters.  
319 Melbourne, Perth, and Sydney biofilters contained a  
320 total of 30, 24, and 19 species, respectively. Presence  
321 of plant species in city is designated by “x”.

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	•	Species	•
		Name	

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324 • Eleven of the 56 species found in the plant survey were dominant and thus  
 325 sampled for mycorrhizal colonization (Table 2). A total of 54 root samples were collected,  
 326 representing the 1–4 dominant plant species present at each site. Of those 11 dominant  
 327 plant species, four showed evidence of mycorrhizae at nine different sites, with four each  
 328 in Perth and Sydney and only one in Melbourne (Table 2). There was no significant  
 329 relationship between city and mycorrhizal colonization ( $p = 0.97$ ). Mycorrhizae colonized  
 330 roots from three genera– *Ficinia*, *Carex*, and *Juncus*. Of those nine root samples colonized  
 331 by mycorrhiza, vesicles, hyphae, and arbuscules were visible (Figure 1) and extent of  
 332 mycorrhization ranged from 3–25% of the root length colonized (Table 2). There was no  
 333 significant relationship between plant species and mycorrhizal colonization ( $p = 0.37$ ).

334 •

335 • Table 2. Mycorrhizal colonization of the dominant  
 336 plant species at all sites. 0 indicates species was  
 337 present but no colonization was detected. Boldface  
 338 type denotes biofilter sites with mycorrhizal  
 339 colonization. Plant species name label are \*CA=  
 340 *Carex appressa*; FN= *Ficinia nodosa*; GT= *Gahnia*  
 341 *trifida*; GL= *Gaura lindeimeri*; IS= *Iris* sp.; JF=  
 342 *Juncus flavidus*; JK= *Juncus krausii*; LH= *Lomandra*  
 343 *hystrix*; LL= *Lomandra longifolia*; MP= *Myoporum*  
 344 *parvifolium*; PL= *Poa labillardieri*

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• Plant Species and  
 Mycorrhizal  
 Colonization (%)



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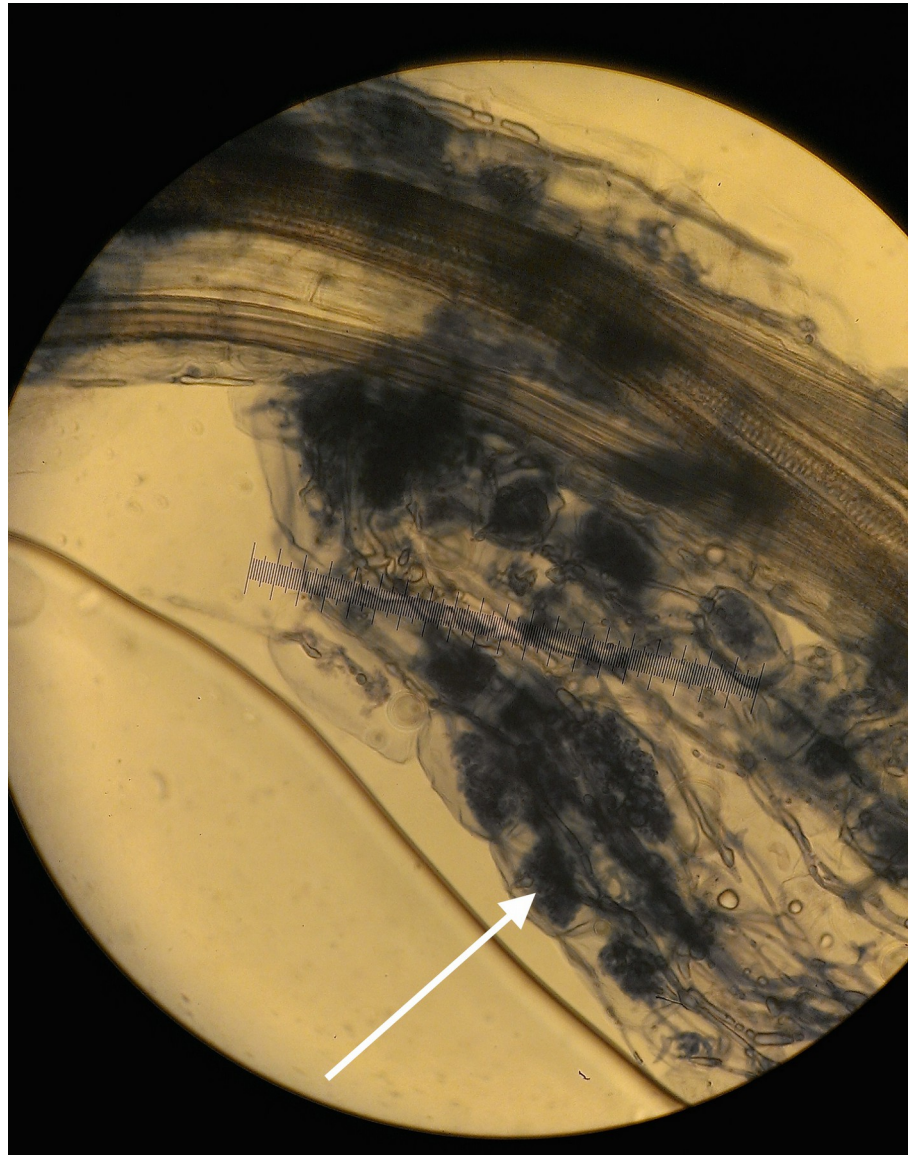
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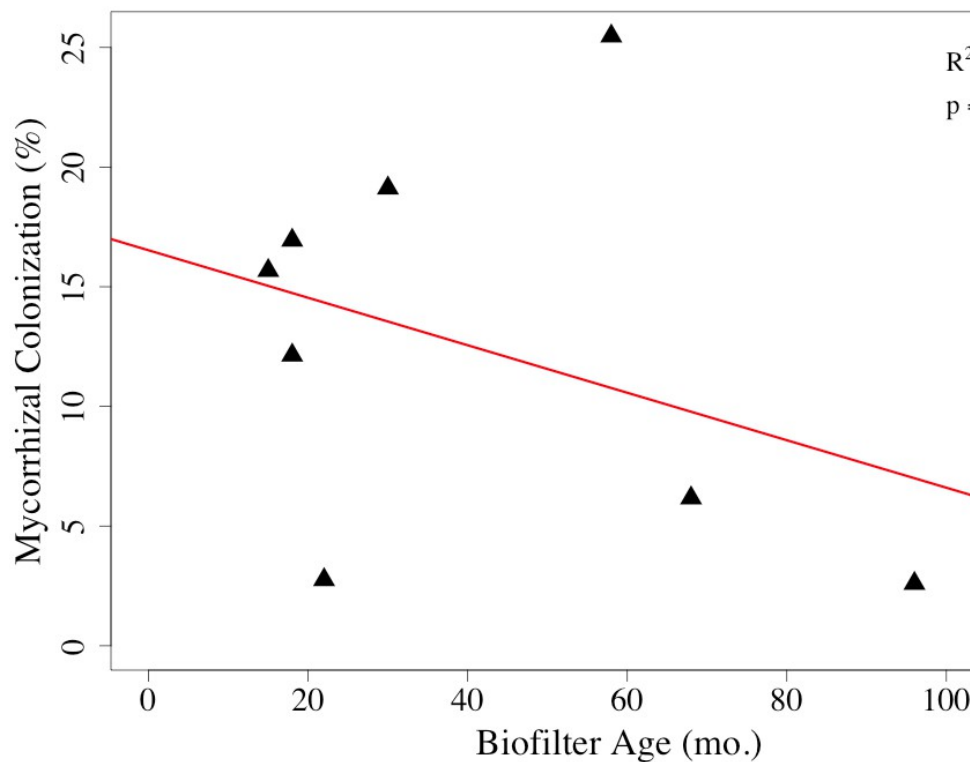
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- Figure 1. Photograph of *Juncus flavidus* root colonized by arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi at 100x magnification. Arrow points to stained arbuscule in root cell.

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355 • The average age of all sampled biofilters was 5 years at time of data  
356collection. Those biofilters containing plants with mycorrhizae averaged 4 years and  
357ranged from 1–9 years at the time of data collection (Table 2). The relationship between  
358biofilter age and mycorrhizal colonization was not significant ( $r = -0.44$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ).  
359However, non-significance could be due to poor power from relatively few samples, since  
360the regression line suggests plant roots growing in older biofilters may have lower  
361colonization by mycorrhizae (Figure 2). Additionally, we found no significant relationship  
362between mean annual rainfall (MAR) at biofilter locations and mycorrhizal colonization ( $r$   
363=  $0.33$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Average MAR for biofilters with plants that had mycorrhizal  
364colonization was 1,042 mm in Melbourne, 787 mm in Perth, and 1,302 mm in Sydney  
365(Table 2).

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- Figure 2. Mycorrhizal colonization of plant roots in biofilters of various ages.

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#### 3704. Discussion

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- Engineered soil used in biofilters would likely not contain natural communities of soil microorganisms, so it is not surprising that most of the sampled plant roots in this study were non-mycorrhizal (NM). Interestingly, only one of the plant species exhibiting mycorrhization in this study, *Ficinia nodosa*, was

378 previously documented as being mycorrhizal (Logan  
379 et al., 1989). To the authors' knowledge, the other  
380 three plant species found to have AMF colonization  
381 in this study (*Carex appressa*, *Juncus flavidus*, and *J.*  
382 *kraussii*) have not been previously designated as  
383 mycorrhizal. Many species that have been previously  
384 described as NM are not necessarily unsusceptible to  
385 colonization, but can be found growing in disturbed  
386 soils where mycorrhizal colonization is rare (Tester et  
387 al., 1987).

388 • Although Perth biofilters received runoff from areas with overall less  
389 rainfall than Melbourne and Sydney biofilters, there was no effect of mean annual rainfall  
390 on mycorrhizal colonization. Compared to Perth, both Melbourne and Sydney precipitation  
391 is more evenly distributed throughout the year. More plants in Perth biofilters were  
392 observed with mycorrhizal colonization than in Melbourne biofilters (Table 2), but the  
393 extent of colonization appears not to have been affected by MAR. Plant species adapted to  
394 wetlands are typical in biofilters and composed many of the species observed here. These  
395 species can develop mycorrhizal associations in dry conditions, typical of Perth biofilters,  
396 to a greater extent than in wet conditions (Rickerl et al., 1994). Sydney biofilters receive  
397 roughly twice the precipitation (and likely runoff) of Perth biofilters with rainfall  
398 distributed more evenly throughout the year. No patterns with rainfall were detected in our  
399 data, possibly due to low sample size (n = 9).

400 • Only one plant's roots in the sampled Melbourne biofilters, *Juncus flavidus*,  
401 were colonized by AMF. This species' roots were also colonized by AMF to a lesser extent  
402 in one of the sampled Sydney biofilters (Table 2). Generally, species in the Juncaceae  
403 family are NM, but some exceptions do exist (Brundrett, 2009). Another *Juncus* species, *J.*  
404 *kraussii* (syn. *J. maritimus*), present in most Perth biofilters, contained roots colonized by  
405 AMF despite being previously designated as NM (Harley and Harley, 1987; Maremmani et  
406 al., 2003). Habitat factors, such as saline and dry soil conditions, can affect AMF  
407 colonization on roots of species typically described as non-mycorrhizal, particularly in  
408 families containing species growing in harsh environments and with diverse growth forms,  
409 such as Cyperaceae and Juncaceae (Brundrett, 2009). In this study, all species found to  
410 contain AMF on roots were in these two families.

411 • *Carex* species are generally described as NM,  
412 but more species in this genus of sedges are currently  
413 being described as facultative mycorrhizal (Miller et  
414 al., 1999). In this study, one of the seven *Carex* sp.  
415 root samples was colonized by AMF. *Ficinia nodosa*  
416 was found to be mycorrhizal in four of the twenty *F.*  
417 *nodosa* root samples. *Juncus* spp. root samples were  
418 mycorrhizal in four of the seventeen *Juncus* spp. root  
419 samples. Overall, only 17% of root samples  
420 contained mycorrhizae. In contrast, mycorrhizal  
421 colonization occurred in roughly half of green roof

422 plant roots studied by John et al. (2014), which  
423 included forbs, grasses, and succulents. Like  
424 stormwater biofilters, green roofs are ecologically  
425 engineered ecosystems containing engineered soil-  
426 like media and planted with drought-tolerant plant  
427 species. Stormwater biofilters would likely contain  
428 more pathways for immigration of AMF spores than  
429 green roofs due to their position on the landscape  
430 (i.e., lower elevation and receiving runoff from  
431 overland flow, following MacIvor and Lundholm,  
432 2010). In addition, spores of AMF can spread  
433 effectively via faunal vectors (John et al., 2014;  
434 Kotter and Farentinos, 1984; McGee and Baczocha,  
435 1994; McIlveen and Cole Jr., 1976; Ponder, 1980),  
436 favoring spore distribution to lower elevations in an  
437 urban landscape rather than rooftops. Despite this, we  
438 found plant roots growing in stormwater biofilters  
439 were less often colonized than those previously  
440 reported in green roofs.

441 • Australian guidelines for biofilter media suggest using low nutrient content  
442 media (FAWB, 2008), so newly constructed biofilters are often oligotrophic. Older  
443 biofilters tend to accumulate organic matter and phosphorus in the top 10 cm (Payne et al.,

4442015), where most roots are located. Sáinz et al. (1998) found adding nutrient-rich compost  
445to agricultural soils inhibited mycorrhizal colonization of plants' roots. Thus, we expect  
446plants would most likely benefit more from mycorrhizal colonization when biofilters are  
447young and nutrient-poor and benefit less when they are older and contain more nutrients.  
448This study detected no significant relationship between biofilter age and mycorrhizal  
449colonization, with the extent of mycorrhizal colonization being low in plants growing in  
450both young and old biofilters. However, we expect newly planted specimens could contain  
451residual mycorrhizae from inoculant added in nurseries; consequently, younger biofilters  
452may host plants with higher mycorrhizal colonization. In older biofilters, after mycorrhizal  
453inoculation has had time to occur naturally, low prevalence of mycorrhizal colonization  
454might be due to higher nutrient and organic matter accumulation in the filter media.

455                                 •            If mycorrhizal associations are found to  
456   confer the same types of benefits (e.g., increased  
457   plant nutrient uptake and water uptake efficiency) in  
458   biofilter plants as have been reported in other  
459   terrestrial habitats and potentially in green roofs  
460   (John et al., 2016), then inoculation of biofilters  
461   following construction might enhance ecosystem  
462   service provision by biofilters. In order to determine  
463   whether inoculation of biofilter plants with  
464   mycorrhizae will increase colonization of biofilter  
465   plant roots, mesocosm experiments should be



466 conducted in typical biofilter conditions on  
467 appropriate plant species. If colonization is  
468 successful, effects on nutrient and metal uptake, plant  
469 drought tolerance and survivability, and carbon  
470 storage in filter media should be examined.  
471 Additionally, field experiments could be undertaken  
472 to determine the effectiveness of inoculating  
473 biofilters with mycorrhizae *in situ* and evaluating the  
474 resulting colonization and plant health over time.  
475 While this study did not show any correlation  
476 between mycorrhizal colonization of biofilter plant  
477 roots and biofilter age, rainfall, or plant species, the  
478 observations of mycorrhizae colonizing some biofilter  
479 plant roots suggests this relationship should be  
480 further explored to understand the roles of  
481 mycorrhizae in biofilters.

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