

A review of the interaction of medicinal plants and arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in the rhizosphere

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Abstract

Medicinal plants are well known to have the advantages of high concentration of medicinal ingredients having clinical importance, curative value, small toxic and side effects. Important compounds viz., paclitaxel, camptothecin, and vincristine have been developed from medicinal plants as first-line of clinical drugs, leading to their consistently increasing demand globally. However, the destruction of natural environment due to excessive mining threatened such resources jeopardizing the successful growing of medicinal plants. A group of beneficial arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi is known to exist in the rhizosphere of medicinal plants, which can establish a reciprocal symbiosis with their roots, namely arbuscular mycorrhizas. These AM fungi are pivotal in the habitat adaptation of medicinal plants. Studies have demonstrated that AM fungi aided in growth promotion and nutrient absorption of medicinal plants, thereby, accelerating the accumulation of medicinal ingredients and aiding resistance against abiotic stresses such as drought, low temperature, and salinity. An AM-like fungus *Piriformospora indica* is known to be cultured *in vitro* without roots, later showed analogous effects of AM fungi on medicinal plants. These fungi provide new mechanistic pathways towards the artificial cultivation of medicinal plants loaded with ingredients in huge demand in international market. This review provides an overview of the diversity of AM fungi inhabiting the rhizosphere of medicinal plants, and analyzes the functioning of AM fungi and *P. indica*, coupled with future lines of research.

Keywords: endophytic fungi; medicinal components; medicinal plants; mycorrhiza; *Piriformospora indica*; symbiosis

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Introduction

Medicinal plants refer to all or part of plants that can be directly used as medicine or extraction of a drug (Zhao *et al.*, 2019). In particular, authentic medicinal herbs originating from specific production areas have received widespread attention due to their high content of medicinal compounds, clinical significance, unique therapeutic impact, and minimal toxic side effects (Zhan *et al.*, 2020). As a result, their demand is rising day-by-day. For example, paclitaxel, camptothecin, and vincristine have been developed as first-line clinical drugs (Yang, 2018). The differentiating reasons between native and non-native medicinal plants include germplasm resources, growth environment and climatic conditions (Zhan *et al.*, 2020). China is the leading country with the largest number of medicinal plants and blessed with longest history of growing medicinal plants in the world. However, due to destruction of natural environment, and long-term over-exploitation, the resources of many medicinal plants are facing an inevitable loss of resources (Zhao *et al.*, 2019; Ullah *et al.*, 2020). With rapid development of the global herbal market, Indian herbal medicine, Western herbal medicine, and Chinese herbal medicine are on the verge of extinction due to deterioration in natural habitat of medicinal plants (Ullah *et al.*, 2020). It is important to improve the survival rate of medicinal plants and protect their native soil environment.

Arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi in the soil form symbioses with most of the terrestrial plants, viz., arbuscular mycorrhizas (Khan *et al.*, 2020; Meng *et al.*, 2020). The extraradical hyphae of arbuscular mycorrhizas outside the root surface can extend into the areas, otherwise inaccessible to the roots to absorb water and nutrients and delivery them into the host to accelerate the acquisition of such important inputs by the host and enhancing the stress tolerance (Khan *et al.*, 2020; Wu *et al.*, 2020; Cheng *et al.*, 2021; Zou *et al.*, 2021a, 2021b). Most of medicinal plants including *Angelica dahurica*, *Atractylodes lancea*, barberry, ginseng, peony, *Pinellia pinellia*, *Polygonum cuspidatum*, *Panax notoginseng*, *Tulipa gesneriana* and *Yucca filamentosa* form arbuscular mycorrhizas, which thus, affect the plant growth performance, active ingredient accumulation, and stress tolerance (Figure 1) (Ma *et al.*, 2005; Gao *et al.*, 2007; Ren *et al.*, 2007; Cai *et al.*, 2009; Cheng *et al.*, 2009; Tebuqin *et al.*, 2015). Studies indicated that AM fungi affected secondary metabolic processes of plants, including flavonoids and terpenoids (Pongrac *et al.*, 2008; Smith *et al.*, 2010; Yadav *et al.*, 2013; Zeng *et al.*, 2014). Most of terpenoids and alkaloids are the primary active ingredients of medicinal plants and display anti-inflammatory, antibacterial, cardiotoxic and anticancer effects (Zhang *et al.*, 2015). AM fungal species *Glomus mosseae* promoted the synthesis and accumulation of flavonoids with host plant as *Astragalus membranaceus*, and also promoted the accumulation of berberine, fibrin, and jatrorrhizine in *Phellodendron amurense* (Fan *et al.*, 2006). AM fungi up-regulated the expression of key biosynthesis genes in *Artemisia annua* and *Stevia rebaudiana* to promote the accumulation of artemisinin and stevioside (Mandal *et al.*, 2015a, 2015b). However, artificially cultivated medicinal plants often reported to have a lesser abundance of AM fungi in the rhizosphere and account for a significant decrease in plant survival. Thus, high mycorrhizal dependence of medicinal plants determines the great potential of diversified roles of AM fungi in the cultivation of medicinal plants (Labidi *et al.*, 2015). The present review briefly summarizes the diversity of AM fungi in the rhizosphere of medicinal plants, analyzes the effects of AM fungi and AM-like fungus (*Piriformospora indica*) on growth, nutrient uptake, stress tolerance, and medicinal components, in addition to some thoughts on the mycorrhizal interactions.

An abundant resources of AM fungi are largely reported in the rhizosphere of medicinal plants, with a wide range of hosts (Table 1). AM fungal community and their diversity are of huge significance to understand the soil microbial environment and related underground ecosystems. The mycelial network formed by AM fungi aid in promoting the nutrient exchange and signal transfer between plants (Osborne *et al.*, 2017).

Here, we used the Web of Science, CNKI and other databases to search the relevant papers by keywords such as mycorrhiza/mycorrhizal, medicinal plants, *Piriformospora indica*, endophytic fungi, medicinal components, stress, etc. Subsequently, these literatures were further screened to remove the literatures not related to AM fungi and medicinal plants. Finally, 114 papers were chosen for subsequent analysis.

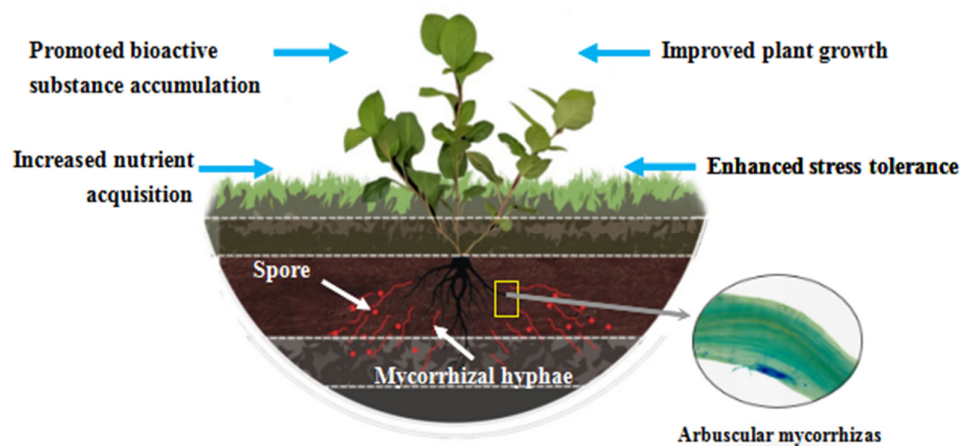


Figure 1. A diagram regarding the roles of AM fungi on medicinal plants

A large number of AM fungal spores inhabit the rhizosphere of medicinal plants. These spores germinate under suitable environmental conditions and then colonize roots by signal substances released by the host, forming arbuscules in the root cortex cells as well as a large number of intraradical mycelium. Such AM symbionts strongly contribute to improved plant growth, increased nutrient acquisition, promoted medicinal components accumulation, enhanced stress resistance, etc.

Table 1. Diversity of AM fungi in medicinal plants

Host plants	AM fungi species	References
<i>Aconitum carmichaeli</i>	<i>Glomus caledonium</i> , <i>G. geospora</i> , <i>G. oculum</i> , <i>G. pallidum</i> , and <i>Gigaspora gigantean</i>	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2011
<i>Aloe vera</i>	<i>Acaulospora leavis</i> , <i>G. clavosporum</i> , <i>G. etunicatum</i> , <i>G. caledonium</i> , <i>G. luteum</i> , and <i>Scutellospora gregaria</i>	Koul <i>et al.</i> , 2012
<i>Artemisia nilagirica</i>	<i>G. diaphanum</i> , <i>G. etunicatum</i> , <i>G. intraradices</i> , <i>G. spurcum</i> , and <i>Sc. gregaria</i>	Koul <i>et al.</i> , 2012
<i>Atractylodes macrocephala</i>	<i>G. constrictum</i> , <i>G. geospora</i> , <i>G. mosseae</i> , and <i>G. pallidum</i>	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2011
<i>Coleus aromaticus</i>	<i>Acaulospora appendiculata</i> , <i>Ac. leavis</i> , <i>G. aggregatum</i> , <i>G. costrictum</i> , <i>G. fasciculatum</i> , <i>G. mosseae</i> , <i>G. macrocarpum</i> , <i>Entrophosphora</i> spp., and <i>Scutellospora</i> spp	Mahobiya <i>et al.</i> , 2018
<i>Coptis chinensis</i>	<i>G. caledonium</i> , <i>G. geospora</i> , <i>G. mosseae</i> , <i>G. diaphanum</i> , <i>G. oculum</i> , and <i>Acaulosporamella</i>	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2011
<i>Curcuma decipiens</i>	<i>Ambispora leptoticha</i> , <i>G. caledonium</i> , <i>G. constrictum</i> , <i>G. fasciculatum</i> , <i>G. geosporum</i> , and <i>G. multicaule</i>	Radhika <i>et al.</i> , 2010
<i>Hemidesmus indicus</i>	<i>Am. leptoticha</i> , <i>G. fasciculatum</i> , <i>G. geosporum</i> , <i>G. maculosum</i> , and <i>G. multicaule</i>	Radhika <i>et al.</i> , 2010
<i>Lonicera japonica</i>	<i>G. constrictum</i> , <i>G. geosporum</i> , <i>G. mosseae</i> , and <i>G. versiforme</i>	Gai <i>et al.</i> , 2000
<i>Paris polyphylla</i> var. <i>yunnanensis</i>	<i>Acaulospora appendicola</i> , <i>Ac. brieticulata</i> , <i>Ac. excavata</i> , <i>Ac. foveata</i> , <i>Ac. lacunosa</i> , <i>Ac. leavis</i> , <i>Ac. koskei</i> , <i>Ac. myriocarpa</i> , <i>Ac. polonica</i> , <i>Ac. rehmi</i> , <i>Ac. scrobiculata</i> , <i>G. albidum</i> , <i>G. ambisporum</i> , <i>G. deserticola</i> , <i>G. luteum</i> , <i>G. fragarioides</i> , <i>G. microaggregatum</i> , <i>G. multiforum</i> , <i>G. luteum</i> , <i>G. fragarioides</i> , <i>G. microaggregatum</i> , <i>G. multiforum</i> , <i>Gigaspora albida</i> , <i>Gi. margarita</i> , <i>Gi. ramisporophora</i> , <i>Scutellospora calospora</i> , <i>Sc. Gilmorei</i> , and <i>Sc. pellucida</i>	Zhou <i>et al.</i> , 2009
<i>Plantago asiatica</i>	<i>G. intraradices</i>	Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2006
<i>Radix Scrophulariae</i>	<i>G. constrictum</i> , <i>G. diaphanum</i> , <i>G. geospora</i> , <i>G. mosseae</i> , <i>G. oculum</i> , <i>G. reticulatum</i> , and <i>Gigaspora gigantean</i>	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2011
<i>Rauwolfia serpentina</i>	<i>Ac. appendiculata</i> , <i>Ac. leavis</i> , <i>G. aggregatum</i> , <i>G. costrictum</i> , <i>G. fasciculatum</i> , <i>G. mosseae</i> , <i>G. macrocarpum</i> , <i>G. geosporum</i> , <i>Gigaspora</i> spp., <i>Scutellospora</i> spp., and <i>Sclerocystis</i> spp.	Mahobiya <i>et al.</i> , 2018
<i>Scutellaria baicalensis</i>	<i>G. geosporum</i> and <i>G. versiforme</i>	Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2006
<i>Solanum nigrum</i>	<i>Gigaspora margarita</i>	Gai <i>et al.</i> , 2000
<i>Solanum nigrum</i>	<i>Glomus caledonium</i>	Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2006
<i>Tagetes erecta</i>	<i>G. fistulosum</i> , <i>G. luteum</i> , <i>G. etunicatum</i> , and <i>S. coralloidea</i>	Koul <i>et al.</i> , 2012
<i>Withania somnifera</i>	<i>G. clariodeum</i> , <i>G. etunicatum</i> , <i>G. fistulosum</i> , and <i>G. intraradices</i>	Koul <i>et al.</i> , 2012

Rhizosphere diversity of AM fungi

Rich resources of AM fungi (Table 1) have been isolated and identified in medicinal plants, especially in China. Ma *et al.* (2005) studied the colonization status of AM fungi on 38 medicinal plants belonging to 21 families in Chongqing (China) and reported that 30 species of these medicinal plants formed the structures of AM. As many 66 species of AM fungi have been reported in rhizosphere of 20 medicinal plants in Zhangzhou (China), with *Glomus* as the dominant genus (Jiang, 2012a). Zhao *et al.* (2010) isolated 23 species of AM fungi belonging to 3 family members from 10 medicinal plants in Anguo (China) with *G. geosporum* and *G. mosseae* as dominant species. Ten and twenty-six species of AM fungi were isolated, respectively, from rhizosphere of ginseng in Jilin (China) (Xing *et al.*, 2000) and *Begonia fimbriata* (Su *et al.*, 2018), featuring predominant genus of AMs such as *Acaulospora*, *Glomus*, *Scutellospora*, and *Gigaspora* in *B. fimbriata*. In the region of southern region of Fujian (China), 91 species of AM fungi belonging to five genera (*Acaulospora*, *Archaeospora*, *Gigaspora*, *Glomus*, and *Scutellospora*) were isolated from the rhizosphere of medicinal plants, with *Glomus* as predominant genus (Jiang, 2012b).

In addition to China, the diversity of AM fungi within rhizosphere of medicinal plants has also been widely identified in India, Bangladesh, Poland, etc (Koul *et al.*, 2012; Mahobiya *et al.*, 2018; Radhika *et al.*, 2010). Radhika *et al.* (2010) studied the AM fungal diversity of 36 medicinal plants in Mount Ghat (India), showing 30 of them could form AM structures, and 42 species of AM fungi belonging to 5 genera were isolated and identified. Koul *et al.* (2012) from India found 42 species of AM fungi from the rhizosphere of medicinal plants. Of these, 6 species of AM fungi were identified in *Aloe vera*, 5 species of AM fungi in *Artemisia annua*, and marigold. Parmita *et al.* (2008) observed the occurrence of AM structures in 35 medicinal plants from the Rajsha University in Bangladesh from a total of 40 medicinal plants. Zubek *et al.* (2009) isolated 30 species of AM fungi in rhizosphere of 31 medicinal plants in Azieron University, Poland. Such vast and rich resources of AM fungi are the solid basis for their future application in medicinal plants.

Physiological roles of AM fungi

Promotion in growth and nutrient uptake

The formation of AM symbionts (Figure 1) was observed to improve the nutrient uptake, resistance to biotic and abiotic stresses, and phytohormone balance, collectively responsible for elevated growth and development (Zhu *et al.*, 2011; Abdel-Fattah *et al.*, 2014; Fan *et al.*, 2017). Jia *et al.* (2020) observed that AM fungi were able to colonize *Salvia multiorthiza*, which stimulated the accumulation of biomass. Huang *et al.* (2011) reported that AM species viz., *G. mosseae* and *G. versiforme* significantly increased the uptake of N, P, and K by *Artemisia annua*, besides increasing the chlorophyll content, transpiration rate, and shoot biomass of the plant. Our data also showed an improvement of plant growth in *Reynoutria japonica* at five weeks after inoculation with an AM fungus *Funneliformis mosseae* under sand-culture (Figure 2a) and soil-culture (Figure 2b) conditions.

Enhancement in abiotic stress tolerance

Drought tolerance

Drought is a major factor threatening the production of medicinal plants, and water deficit further impairs the physiological and biochemical functions of plants, resulting in reduced accumulation of active ingredients in medicinal plants (Liu *et al.*, 2018). Studies demonstrated that inoculation with AM fungi up-regulated the relative expression of *PtFe-SOD*, *PtMn-SOD*, *PtPOD*, and *PtCAT1* genes in trifoliolate orange plants under drought stress, indicating the distinctive role of mycorrhizal fungi in increase developing of antioxidant protected system under soil moisture stress condition (He *et al.*, 2017; Wei *et al.*, 2018; Zhang *et al.*, 2019a; He *et al.*, 2020). It has been shown that mycorrhizas altered the fatty acid composition and content of roots and its saturation to improve the plant ability to withstand against drought resistance, as a result of

AM-induced the expression of genes regulating fatty acid dehydrogenases in roots (Wu *et al.*, 2019). Mycorrhizal fungi increase the photosynthetic and transpiration rates (Khalvati *et al.*, 2005; Zhang *et al.*, 2013; Bitterlich *et al.*, 2018; Mathur *et al.*, 2019; Langeroodi *et al.*, 2020), optimize root architecture and root-hair length (Zhang *et al.*, 2019b), improve rhizosphere microenvironment (Cheng *et al.*, 2021a), and polyamine metabolism of plants in response to drought stress (Wu *et al.*, 2013; Hashem *et al.*, 2019; Cheng *et al.*, 2021b; Zou *et al.*, 2021).

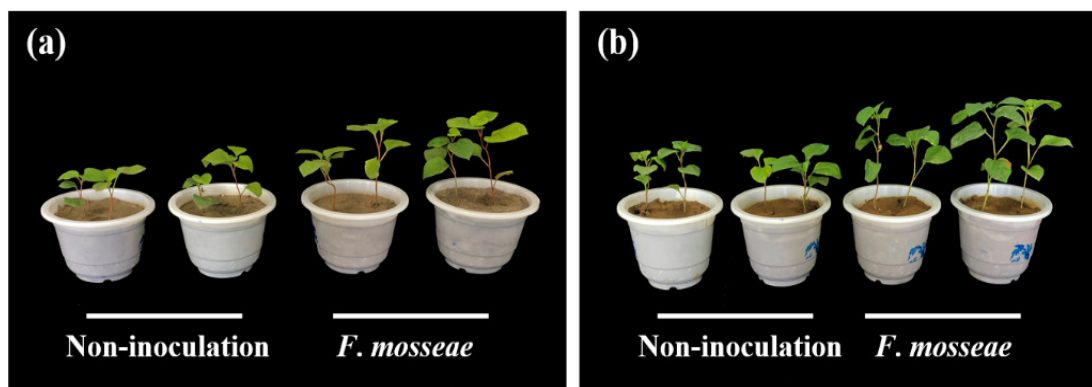


Figure 2. Plant growth responses of *Polygonum cuspidatum* Sieb. et Zucc under sand-culture (a) and soil-culture (b) conditions after inoculation with an AM fungus *Funneliformis mosseae* for five weeks (unpublished data)

Liu *et al.* (2015) observed that the AM fungi colonization improved the plant growth and increased the nutrient uptake in *Lonicera japonica*, and the effect was more significant under drought stress than under ample water. Mycorrhizal fungi significantly promoted the content of N, P, and K, in addition to water uptake in *Eriobotrya japonica* under drought stress (Zhang *et al.*, 2012). The results of Zhao *et al.* (2007) showed that AM fungal inoculation significantly increased chlorophyll proline contents, superoxide dismutase activity, reduced malondialdehyde content and cell membrane permeability, but improved the seedling survival under drought condition, due to improved drought resistance of *Forsythia suspensa*. Kumar *et al.* (2016) reported that AM fungal inoculation resulted in higher leaf relative water content and water-use-efficiency of *Abelmoschus esculentus* under drought stress. Xie *et al.* (2017) reported that glycyrrhizic acid and glycyrrhizin content of roots increased significantly following the AM fungal inoculation in *Glycyrrhiza uralensis* under soil water deficit stress conditions. These studies suggested the multiple benefits of AM fungi on medicinal plants under drought stress conditions.

Other abiotic stress

The role of AM fungi in medicinal plants is also reported against other abiotic stresses, such as low temperature stress and salt stress. Xu *et al.* (2014) inoculated *G. mosseae* into *Carthamus tinctorius* under NaCl stress and observed an increase in shoot biomass and chlorophyll content, along with the enhancement in osmotic regulation and nutrient absorption through reduction in membrane lipid peroxidation and Na⁺ concentration. Karasawa *et al.* (2012) observed that AM fungi increased the Zn, Cu, and P contents in *Plantago plantain* under low temperature stress. In *Trigonella foenumgraceum*, inoculation with *G. intraradices* increased the plant Fe³⁺ and Mn²⁺ levels under NaCl stress conditions, and thus mycorrhizated plants expressed the better ionic balance in plants, resulting in enhanced stress tolerance (Evelin *et al.*, 2011). Under salt stress, Prasad *et al.* (2011) also reported an increase in K⁺ and decrease in Na⁺ and Cl⁻ following inoculation with *G. intraradices*. These results demonstrated the ability of AM fungi to enhance the resistance of medicinal plants against various abiotic stresses. Therefore, AM fungi are an important environmentally friendly attribute for medicinal plants under adversity. However, most of these works are related to the physiological responses of

plants, and more work has to be carried out with regard to molecular responses to understand the relationship between AMs and medicinal plants.

Increased synthesis of active ingredients

An increasing number of studies showed that AM fungi influenced plant secondary metabolism and the accumulation of metabolic products, thus, significantly increasing the active ingredients in a variety of medicinal plants (Zeng *et al.*, 2013; Kapoor *et al.*, 2016; Welling *et al.*, 2016). The effect of AM and AM-like fungal inoculation on change in medicinal components of medicinal plants (Table 2). Wei *et al.* (1991, 1989) inoculated *G. epigaeum* and *G. mosseae* in three plants (*Datura stramonium*, *Perilla frutescens*, and *Schizonepeta tenuifolia*), which showed a substantial increase of essential oils in *S. tenuifolia* and hyoscyamine concentration in *D. stramonium* under soil P-deficit conditions. Other studies also showed a significant increase in tanshinone content of *Salvia miltiorrhiza* upon AM fungal inoculation (Yang *et al.*, 2012) and in berberine, yaconine, and tetrandrine contents of *Phellodendron amurense* (Fan *et al.*, 2006). In basil, AM fungal inoculation resulted in an increase in monosaccharide enol and phenylpropanoid content, however aromatic alcohols decreased, thus changing the essential oil composition of leaves (Prasad *et al.*, 2011). The content of active ingredients of volatile oils was significantly increased in *Atractylodes lancea* seedlings following inoculation with AM species such as *G. etunicatum*, *G. mosseae*, and *G. tortuosum* (Liang *et al.*, 2018). Inoculation with *G. mosseae* showed a significant increase in terpene content of *Atractylodes macrocephala* (Lu *et al.*, 2011) and flavonoids in *Astragalus propinquus* (He *et al.*, 2009) and *Poncirus trifoliata* (Chen *et al.*, 2017), in addition to increased uptake of nutrients (P, K, Mg, Cu, Zn, and Mn) in *P. trifoliata* (Chen *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, AM fungi promoted the synthesis of terpenoids in plants, due to increase in pyrophosphates (isopentene pyrophosphate and dimethylallyl pyrophosphate) (Wang *et al.*, 2020). Similarly, AM fungi stimulated the signaling molecules such as hydrogen peroxide, nitric oxide and salicylic acid in medicinal plants, regulating rate-limiting enzyme activities related to flavonoids, (phenylalanine ammonia lyase and cinnamic acid-4-hydroxylase), inhibit further the formation of caffeic acid (Wang *et al.*, 2020).

Table 2. Effects of AM fungi and AM-like fungi (*Piriformospora indica*) on medicinal ingredients of medicinal plants

Medicinal plants	AM fungi used	Effects on medicinal ingredients	References
<i>Aloe vera</i>	<i>Piriformospora indica</i>	Aloe gel↑	Sharma <i>et al.</i> , 2014
<i>Angelica dahurica</i>	<i>Glomus claroideum</i> and <i>G. intraradices</i>	Growth↑	Zhao <i>et al.</i> , 2011
<i>Aristolochia elegans</i> Mart.	<i>P. indica</i>	Aristolochic acids↑	Bagde <i>et al.</i> , 2014
<i>Artemisia annua</i>	<i>Glomus mosseae</i>	<i>Artemisia carvifolia</i> ↑	Huang <i>et al.</i> , 2011
<i>A. nilagrica</i>	<i>P. indica</i>	Artemisinin↑	Sharma <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>A. membranaceus</i>	<i>G. mosseae</i>	Flavonoid↑	He <i>et al.</i> , 2009
<i>Atractylodes macrocephala</i>	<i>G. mosseae</i>	Terpenes↑	Lu <i>et al.</i> , 2011
<i>Centella asiatica</i>	<i>P. indica</i>	Asiaticoside↑	Satheesan <i>et al.</i> , 2012
<i>Chrysanthemum morifolium</i>	<i>G. aggregatum</i>	Chlorogenic acid↑; caffeoylquinic acid↑	Pan <i>et al.</i> , 2013
	<i>G. intraradices</i>	No significant effect on chlorogenic acid and caffeoylquinic acid	
	<i>G. mosseae</i>	Luteoloside↓	
<i>Dendrobium officinale</i>	<i>P. indica</i>	Polysaccharide↑	Xu <i>et al.</i> , 2021
<i>Geranium</i> spp.	<i>G. intraradices</i>	Essential oil↑	Prasad <i>et al.</i> , 2012
<i>Glycyrrhiza uralensis</i>	<i>Rhizophagus irregularis</i>	Glycyrrhizic acid↑	Xie <i>et al.</i> , 2017
<i>Inula ensifolia</i>	<i>R. clarum</i>	Thymol↑	Zubek <i>et al.</i> , 2010
	<i>R. intraradices</i>	Thymol↓	
<i>Ocimum basilicum</i>	<i>Gigaspora rosea</i> and <i>Gi. margarita</i>	α-Terpeneol and eugenol↑	Copetta <i>et al.</i> , 2006
<i>Paris polyphylla</i> var. <i>yunnanensis</i>	Mixed AM fungi	Polyphyllin↑	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2021
<i>Phellodendron amurense</i>	<i>G. diaphanum</i> and <i>G. mosseae</i>	Jatrorrhizine↑	Fan <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	<i>G. etunicatum</i> and <i>G. versiforme</i>	Palmatine↑	
	<i>G. diaphanum</i> and <i>G. mosseae</i>	Berberine↑	

↑ and ↓ mean significant increase and decrease of the variable after inoculation with AM fungi, respectively.

AM-accelerated accumulation of active components in medicinal plants is related to the increase of gene expression levels of synthetic-related enzymes of medicinal components (Xie *et al.*, 2020). Li *et al.* analyzed the change of polyphyllin in *Paris polyphylla var. yunnanensis* in the field after inoculated with mixed AM fungi and found the increased of polyphyllin I, II, and VII, along with the up-regulated expression of *squalene epoxidase* gene (*PpSE*) (Li *et al.*, 2021). AM fungal inoculation could simultaneously up-regulate the expression of *1-deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate (DXS)* and *1-deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate reductase (DXR)* genes in leaves of *Artemisia annua* and *Stevia rebaudiana*, thus promoting the accumulation of artemisinin (sesquiterpene) and stevioside (diterpene) (Mandal *et al.*, 2015a, 2015b)., Nevertheless, *3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA reductase (HMGR)* gene expression was not induced by AM fungi in *Artemisia annua* and *Glycyrrhiza uralensis* (Mandal *et al.*, 2015b; Xie *et al.*, 2018).

Interaction of AM-like fungus (*P. indica*) with medicinal plants

P. indica was reported by Verma *et al.* (1998) in the Thar Desert of northwest India. The fungus is an endophytic fungus, similar to AM fungus, but the difference is that it can be cultured through an artificial medium (Yang *et al.*, 2021). Due to its *in vitro* culturable properties and AM-like functions, *P. indica* has been extensively studied in medicinal plants (Lou *et al.*, 2007).

Growth promotion

P. indica can colonize coupled with increased plant growth of a wide range of plants, including medicinal plants such as *Aloe vera* and *Centella asiatica* (Deshmukh *et al.*, 2006). The root and stem biomass, apart from as well as chlorophyll concentration of *A. vera* was significantly increased upon inoculation with *P. indica* (Sharma *et al.*, 2014). *P. indica* also promoted the growth of other medicinal plant such as *Adhatoda vasicanes*, *Coleus forskohlii*, *Spilanthes calva*, and *Withania somnifera* (Varma *et al.*, 1999; Das *et al.*, 2012). Xu *et al.* (2021) inoculated *Dendrobium officinale* with *P. indica* through seed isolation culture and original bulb growth stages, which showed an early onset of germination and enhanced all plant growth promoting attributes including root growth properties length of *D. officinale* original bulbs. In addition, *P. indica* also increased the growth of *C. asiatica* (Satheesan *et al.*, 2012; Bagde *et al.*, 2014). The culture filtrate of *P. indica* has been reported to play a significant role in promoting the growth of *Artemisia annua* (Sharma *et al.*, 2013). These results suggested that *P. indica* is highly responsive through a wide range of hosts, with strong stimulatory benefits in medicinal plants.

Changes of secondary metabolites

The secondary metabolites are considered the source of plant defense. The symbiosis between *P. indica* and medicinal plants is reported to stimulate the accumulation of secondary metabolites in host plants, such as ursolic acid, oleanolic acid, and stevioside (Kilam *et al.*, 2015, 2017; Vassilev *et al.*, 2017). *P. indica* inoculation significantly increased the gel and total phenol content in *Aloe vera* (Sharma *et al.*, 2014) and polysaccharides in *D. officinale* (Xu *et al.*, 2021). Studies in *C. asiatica* by Satheesan *et al.* (2012) showed significant elevation in asiaticoside content upon inoculation with *P. indica*. Interestingly the culture filtrate of *P. indica* increased aristolochic acid content (Zhao *et al.*, 2011) as well as artemisinin content of *A. annua* (Sharma *et al.*, 2013). In addition, *P. indica* affected the synthesis and accumulation of hormones in medicinal plants, including cytokinins (Schäfer *et al.*, 2009), abscisic acid, gibberellins and brassinosterols (Shahabivand *et al.*, 2017). These results amply suggested that inoculation with *P. indica* accelerated the synthesis of various secondary metabolites in medicinal plants (Table 2), but the underlying mechanisms involved are still a lot to be investigated.

Enhancement of resistance in response to heavy metal stress

The AM fungi, *P. indica* isolated from the rhizosphere of medicinal plants in the desert region (Varm *et al.*, 1999), suggesting that the fungus is capable of averting various environmental stresses to plants.

Shahabivand *et al.* (2017) observed that under Cd stress, *P. indica* increased leaf photosynthetic rate of sunflower, and enhanced the photosynthetic capacity of the plant, thus, affecting the important plant physiological processes such as plant development, nutrient balance, and antioxidant accumulation (Abadi *et al.*, 2016; Swetha *et al.*, 2017) While, under Cr stress, *P. indica* increased leaf, stem, and root dry weight of tobacco, besides accelerating the ascorbic acid and glutathione contents along with increased superoxide dismutase and catalase activities (Cheng, 2019).

In addition, *P. indica* enhanced drought tolerance of Chinese cabbage by reducing malondialdehyde contents, improving antioxidant enzyme activities, promoting the expression of drought-related genes, and regulating photosynthesis and thylakoid CAS protein (Sun *et al.*, 2010). In addition, inoculation with *P. indica* increased antioxidant enzyme activities, reduced proline contents, and up-regulated drought-related gene expression levels (Xu *et al.*, 2017). Water absorption and photosynthetic pigments were distinctly increased by *P. indica* in wheat exposed to salt stress (Zarea *et al.*, 2012). These studies are focused on field crops, and the role of *P. indica* in medicinal plants under stress conditions has not been explored.

Conclusions

The worldwide demand for medicinal plants is on gradual upsurge. There is consistent interest in improving the growth of medicinal plants, promoting the accumulation of active ingredients, and enhancing the resistance of medicinal plants exposed to a variety of stress. The rhizosphere of medicinal plants inhabits a strong AM fungi-diversity that could be exploited for promoting growth, increased medicinal ingredients, and enhanced stress tolerance (Figure 1). Varied responses in medicinal plants results also indicated a strong need to provide high priority research to AM fungi in medicinal plants. There is still a need to focus on the following points regarding the interaction of AM fungi and medicinal plants:

(1) Many medicinal plants have specialized habitat requirements dictating the extent of their distribution, which determines the territorial nature of mycorrhizal fungi. Therefore, exploring the diversity of AM fungal populations with reference to medicinal plants would be highly imperative.

(2) There is a need to strengthen the screening of AM fungi strains, especially for the comparison of indigenous and exogenous AM fungi, in order to obtain the efficient AM fungal strain catering to physiological roles of medicinal plants. In addition, for many endangered medicinal plants, there is a critical need to enhance the investigation of AM fungi diversity in order to preserve these plants and promote their survival.

(3) An important function of AM fungi is to facilitate the synthesis of secondary metabolites as a source of disease tolerance. However, the underlying mechanisms of AM fungi action are still quite enigmatic to present day researchers. Whether, the mycorrhizal fungus acts through its own synthesis (acquired systemic resistance) or by stimulating the accumulation of active ingredients (induced systemic resistance) in medicinal plants need to be addressed urgently. Li *et al.* (2021) demonstrated that AM fungi promoted the expression of *PpSE* in *P. polyphylla* var. *yunnanensis*, thus, accelerating the accumulation of polyphyllin, suggesting that AM fungi participate in such biochemical processes at the molecular level. Therefore, more attention should be paid to decode such physiological biochemical functions at the molecular level.

(4) Many of the studies in medicinal plants have been conducted under potted conditions, with very few field studies. As a result, more field work, especially with *P. indica* should be carried out in the future to generate field evidence to realize the magnified response of AM fungi. These efforts would put the growing of medicinal plants on a scientific footing.

Authors' Contributions

Conceptualization: RLS and QSW; Data curation: RLS and QSW; Funding acquisition: EFAA; Project administration: QSW; Supervision: QSW; Writing - original draft: RTS, ZZZ, and NZ; Writing - review and editing: AKS, KK, EFAA, AH and QSW. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Conflict of Interests

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest related to this article.

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