

Dynamic succession of soil microbial community during continuous cropping of *Astragalus membranaceus* Bge. var. *mongholicus* (Bge.)

Chuangshu Sun^{Equal first author, 1}, Bingzhen Li^{Equal first author, 1}, Youla Su¹, Xin Jia¹, Guilin Chen^{Corresp. 1}

¹ School of Life Science, Inner Mongolia University, Hohhot, China

Corresponding Author: Guilin Chen
Email address: guilinchen61@163.com

Background. Continuous cropping disturbs the balance between the microbes beneficial to a plant and the pathogenic microorganisms in the rhizosphere soil, which has both a direct and indirect adverse effect on soil and plant health. It is highly significant to understand the mechanism of the obstacle found in continuous cropping and to search for a reasonable rotation model to solve the problem of continuous cropping. *Astragalus membranaceus* Bge. var. *mongholicus* (Bge.) (*A. mongholicus*) is a critical traditional Chinese herb, which is negatively affected by continuous cropping. Previous studies on the root rot pathogens of *A. mongholicus* have been conducted, while reports on the effects of *A. mongholicus* on the health of soil affected by continuous cropping are lacking.

Methods. In this study, we observed the microbial community structure and the diversity of the rhizosphere soil under continuous cropping for 1, 3, and 6 years using the pyrosequencing approach, and compared this to bulk soil, using *A. Mongholicus* as the experimental material. The 16S rDNA and ITS amplicon sequencing techniques were used to detect the composition and diversity of bacteria and fungi in the rhizosphere soil and the bulk soil of *A. Mongholicus*. The diversity of the bacterial community and the structures of the rhizosphere and bulk soils were compared. The dynamics of the soil enzyme activity were also analyzed. **Results.** The results of this study illustrated that the continuous cropping of *A. mongholicus* caused a decline in the root dry weight, the ratio of root-top, and also influenced the growth of the root system of *A. mongholicus*. Continuous cropping and the sampling time shifts the diversity and structure of the microbial community in the rhizosphere soil of *A. mongholicus*, showing that the diversity of the microbial community in the *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere soil was decreased with an increase in the replanting years, while the structure of the microbial community deteriorated. The relative abundance of pathogenic fungi, *Fusarium*, *Erysiphe*, *Rhizobiales*, and *Burkholderiales* as well as bacteria related to nodulation were enriched in the *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere soil at different sampling stages. The beneficial bacteria decreased with the increasing years

of continuous cropping during growth, which resulted in the microecological imbalance in the *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere, caused serious replanting diseases of continuous cropping. A decline in soil urease and invertase activities was observed after 6 years of continuous cropping. Our experimental results suggest that continuous cropping has a significant impact on soil bacterial and fungal community development, and that an increase in replanting years resulted in more negative impact on rhizosphere soil health and *A. mongholicus* growth.

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2 **Dynamic succession of soil microbial community during** 3 **continuous cropping of *Astragalus membranaceus* Bge. var.** 4 ***mongholicus* (Bge.)**

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6 Chuangshu Sun*, Bingzhen Li*, Youla Su, Xin Jia, Guilin Chen

7 Key Laboratory of Herbage & Endemic Crop Biotechnology, Ministry of Education

8 School of Life Science, The Good Agriculture Practice Engineering Technology Research Center
9 of Chinese and Mongolian Medicine, Inner Mongolia University, Hohhot 010070, P.R. China

10 *These authors contributed equally to this work.

11

12 Corresponding Author:

13 Guilin Chen

14 Inner Mongolia University, No. 24 Zhaojun Road, Hohhot, Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region,
15 010070, P.R.China16 Email address: guilinch61@163.com

17

18 **Abstract**

19 **Background.** Continuous cropping disturbs the balance between the microbes beneficial to a plant and
20 the pathogenic microorganisms in the rhizosphere soil, which has both a direct and indirect adverse effect
21 on soil and plant health. It is highly significant to understand the mechanism of the obstacle found in
22 continuous cropping and to search for a reasonable rotation model to solve the problem of continuous
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24 traditional Chinese herb, which is negatively affected by continuous cropping. Previous studies on the
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28 rhizosphere soil under continuous cropping for 1, 3, and 6 years using the pyrosequencing approach, and
29 compared this to bulk soil, using *A. Mongholicus* as the experimental material. The 16S rDNA and ITS
30 amplicon sequencing techniques were used to detect the composition and diversity of bacteria and fungi
31 in the rhizosphere soil and the bulk soil of *A. Mongholicus*. The diversity of the bacterial community and
32 the structures of the rhizosphere and bulk soils were compared. The dynamics of the soil enzyme activity
33 were also analyzed.

34 **Results.** The results of this study illustrated that the continuous cropping of *A. mongholicus* caused a
35 decline in the root dry weight, the ratio of root-top, and also influenced the growth of the root system of
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37 microbial community in the rhizosphere soil of *A. mongholicus*, showing that the diversity of the
38 microbial community in the *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere soil was decreased with an increase in the
39 replanting years, while the structure of the microbial community deteriorated. The relative abundance of
40 pathogenic fungi, *Fusarium*, *Erysiphe*, *Rhizobiales*, and *Burkholderiales* as well as bacteria related to

41 nodulation were enriched in the *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere soil at different sampling stages. The
42 beneficial bacteria decreased with the increasing years of continuous cropping during growth, which
43 resulted in the microecological imbalance in the *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere, caused serious replanting
44 diseases of continuous cropping. A decline in soil urease and invertase activities was observed after 6
45 years of continuous cropping. Our experimental results suggest that continuous cropping has a significant
46 impact on soil bacterial and fungal community development, and that an increase in replanting years
47 resulted in more negative impact on rhizosphere soil health and *A. mongholicus* growth.
48

49 Introduction

50 The rhizosphere is a micro-environment of plant root systems and soil interface. It is where
51 the soil-root-microorganisms interact closely and influence each other (*Micallef et al., 2009*). It
52 is home to an overwhelming number of microorganisms and invertebrates and is considered one
53 of the most dynamic interfaces on earth (*Philippot et al., 2013*). The community structures and
54 changes in the microorganisms of the rhizosphere reflect the productivity and stability of the soil
55 (*Waldrop et al., 2000; Nannipieri et al., 2003*). The rhizosphere's microorganisms provide
56 organic nutrients for plants by converting organic compounds into inorganic substances (*Mendes
57 et al., 2011*). Furthermore, the secretion of vitamins, growth hormones, and other substances
58 regulate the bacterial activity of the plant pathogens, thereby directly affecting the growth and
59 health of the plants (*Kardol et al., 2007*). Plants can secrete 40% of their photosynthate into the
60 rhizosphere soil (*Costa et al., 2006*), providing maximal carbon sources for heterotrophic soil
61 organisms and serving as a vital factor in determining the structure of the rhizosphere microbial
62 communities (*Bakker et al., 2014*). The root exudates and residue decomposition of plants
63 directly affects the population structure and numbers of microorganisms in the rhizosphere
64 (*Berendsen et al., 2012*). Subtle changes in the plant genotypes can also lead to distinct
65 differences in rhizosphere microbiota (*Lundberg et al., 2012; Bulgarelli et al., 2012*). A specific
66 microbial community enriches each plant's rhizosphere soil and many plant pathogenic
67 microorganisms, bacteria, and fungi exert synergistic effects on plants, displaying a high
68 specificity for the host (*Yao et al., 2000*). Like the rhizosphere soil microorganisms, the soil's
69 enzyme activity is a biological indicator of soil health. Soil enzymes are mainly derived from
70 microorganisms, plant roots, and soil animals. They can participate in nutrient cycling, organic
71 matter transformation, and humus and colloid formation (*Zhang et al., 2013*). The activity of the
72 soil enzymes reflects the predispositions and intensities of various biochemical processes in the
73 soil (*Guan et al., 1980*).

74 Several biotic and abiotic factors affect the soil rhizosphere microorganisms and enzyme
75 activities including the plant species, the physical and chemical properties of the soil (*Berg et al.,
76 2009; Santos-Gonzalez et al., 2011*), the stage of plant development (*Yuan et al., 2015*), and crop
77 cultivation (*Lupwayia et al., 2007; Lienhard et al., 2013*). Reportedly, the continuous cropping
78 of a plant can change the physical and chemical characteristics of the soil, leading to changes in
79 the diverse microbial community in the rhizosphere (*Yao et al., 2006; Yoneyama et al., 2010*).
80 Tillage also has a negative effect on soil productivity and plant growth, resulting in soil-borne
81 diseases, which pose a severe threat to agricultural and economic development. Franke-Whittle
82 (*Franke-Whittle et al., 2015*) found that some known pathogens such as *Acremonium*,

83 *Cylindrocarpon*, and *Fusarium*, as well as some newly discovered pathogenic bacteria, namely
84 *Chitinophaga*, *Hyphomicrobium*, *Nitrosospora*, might be related to the occurrence of apple
85 replant disease, based on the sequencing analysis of the 16S rRNA V1–V3 and ITS1 regions.
86 Moreover, beneficial bacteria (*Gp16* and *Solirubrobacter*) and fungi (*Penicillium* and
87 *Paecilomyces*) were reduced in replanted soil, indicating that during continuous cropping, there
88 is an increase of pathogenic bacteria and a reduction of beneficial bacteria. Chen (*Chen et al.*,
89 2014) also found that *Alteromonadales*, *Burkholderiales*, *Flavobacteriales*, *Pseudomonadales*,
90 *Rhizobiales*, and *Rhodospirillales*, bacteria which are beneficial for the plants were reduced,
91 resulting in decreased peanut production. Under continuous cropping, some microorganisms,
92 such as *Acidobacteriales*, *Chromatiales*, and *Gemmatimonadales* increase with the growth period
93 of the peanut (*Chen et al.*, 2012). Another study on continuous cropping of cotton showed that
94 alterations in root exudates affected the microbial composition around plants through the
95 interaction between plant and microorganism. In contrast, *F. oxysporum f. sp. Vasinfectum*, and
96 *V. dahlia* were enriched and there was a lessening of pathogenic antagonistic
97 *Xanthomonadaceae*, *Comamonadaceae*, *Oxalobacteraceae*, and *Opitutaceae*. This This would
98 explain the negative effects of the continuous cropping of cotton (*Li et al.*, 2015). Therefore,
99 under continuous cropping, some pathogenic and beneficial microorganisms significantly affect
100 the soil microbial community succession process in the rhizosphere.

101 *Astragalus membranaceus* Bge. var. *mongholicus* (Bge.) Hsiao is an economically
102 important, medicinal plant commonly used in traditional Chinese medicine (TCM). It contains
103 amino acids, trace elements, polysaccharides, and other components (*Wu et al.*, 2005; *Liu et al.*,
104 2012) with a high nutritional value and healthy function, according to the 2015 edition of
105 Chinese Pharmacopoeia. It is also reported to improve resistance against disease in humans. *A.*
106 *mongholicus* is primarily distributed in the north and northwest of China (*Jia et al.*, 2016) with
107 some wild resources found in Mongolia and Korea. Owing to market demand and limitations of
108 cultivated land area, *A. mongholicus* is often replanted for several years in the same area, causing
109 reduced yield, quality, and an increased incidence of root rot (*Chen et al.*, 2014). The present
110 study aims to determine the phylogenetic affiliations of the most common and predominant
111 populations of soil bacteria and fungi at different sampling stages under a continuous cropping
112 regime. Moreover, it also identifies the diversity and succession patterns of soil microorganisms
113 and enzyme activity as the years of continuous cropping increase.

114

115 **Materials & Methods**

116 **Experimental Design**

117 This study was conducted at the Inner Mongolia University (40°48' N, 111°40' E, elevation
118 1040 m), Hohhot City, Inner Mongolia Province, Northwest China. *Astragalus membranaceus*
119 Bge. var. *mongholicus* (Bge.) Hsiao seedlings were bought from Jinlv Yuan Green Engineering
120 Co., Ltd, Xilin Gol League. To reduce the interference from external factors on the soil microbial
121 community, pot culture experiments were conducted. Soil for the pot culture experiments that
122 corresponded with the different time periods of continuous cropping were collected from the
123 farm of Wuchuan City, Inner Mongolia. The farm was managed by the regular method and soil
124 was kept outside under natural conditions. Naked oats were planted in June and collected in
125 September each year. *A. mongholicus* were planted in May 2010 and 2013 and entered the winter
126 dormancy period after September every year, awakening from dormancy in May of the following

127 year. Ammonium nitrate-based fertilization, weed control, and pest control were performed
128 according to local recommendations. The farm was weeded artificially three times in July and
129 August of each year. The soil pH was maintained at 8.39 and the soil profile was 28.5% clay,
130 41.0% loam, and 30.5% sand with 19.30 g·kg⁻¹ organic matter, 1.08 g·kg⁻¹ total nitrogen, 0.77
131 g·kg⁻¹ total phosphorus, 110 mg·kg⁻¹ hydrolyzed nitrogen, 35.8 mg·kg⁻¹ of the available
132 phosphorus, and 118 mg·kg⁻¹ of the available potassium, and an electrical conductivity (EC) of
133 0.112 ms·cm⁻¹. The physical and chemical properties of the soil samples were analyzed at the
134 Ecological Laboratory of Inner Mongolia University.

135 The pot culture experiments included four treatments: CC1, transplants of *A. mongholicus*
136 seedlings into soil that had oats growing for one year previously (the soil had grown *A.*
137 *Mongholicus* for one year); CC3, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was
138 continuously cropped for two years (the soil had grown in *A. mongholicus* for three years); CC6,
139 transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was continuously cropped for five years
140 (the soil had grown in *A. mongholicus* for six years); CK, no *A. mongholicus* transplants were
141 placed into uncultivated field soil, which was obtained adjacent to the other soil samples and
142 used as a control (the soil has not grown *A. mongholicus*). Simultaneously, a five-point sampling
143 method was used to collect the different years of continuous cropping soil. The soil (100 kg fresh
144 weight) was mixed and sieved to remove stones, roots, and other debris. On 10 May 2015,
145 uniformly normal, healthy *A. mongholicus* seedlings that had been rinsed three times with sterile
146 water, were transplanted into clean, sterile plastic pots (17 cm diameter × 25 cm height) filled
147 with 2.5 kg soil. During the experimental period, the average temperature was maintained at 12–
148 18 °C at night and 22–30 °C during the day with natural light, and 60–70% relative water in the
149 soil. The plants were irrigated with sterile water, and no fertilizer was applied during the longest
150 four months of the growing seasons and fallow periods.

151 **Sample collection**

152 The samples were collected at three different *A. mongholicus* growth stages in the four
153 treatments: (i) before transplanting (May), (ii) at the vigorous growth period (July), and (iii) at
154 harvest time (September). *A. mongholicus* plants, sampled in September, were carefully uprooted
155 from the soil and shaken slightly to remove the loosely attached soil. The rhizosphere soil tightly
156 attached to the roots was brushed off and collected (Wu *et al.*, 2015). The soils from each pot
157 were then pooled in a Ziploc bag and placed into a cooler on ice. These soil samples were then
158 used for molecular analysis after sieving through a 2-mm sieve, and stored at -80 °C until
159 required for DNA extraction.

160 **Soil enzyme assays**

161 The activities of the soil enzymes invertase and urease were determined according to the method
162 described by Guan *et al.* (Guan *et al.*, 1980). The invertase activity was measured
163 colorimetrically using 3,5 - dinitrosalicylic acid and expressed in glucose mg·g⁻¹ soil at 37 °C
164 over 24 h. The urease activity was determined colorimetrically using indophenol blue and
165 expressed in NH₃-N mg·g⁻¹ soil at 37 °C over 24 h. The cellulose activities were estimated by the
166 method of Schinner and Wvon (Schinner & Wvon, 1990) using a spectrophotometer (Shimadzu

167 UV-2450). The cellulase activity was measured using carboxy methyl and expressed in glucose
168 equivalents (GE) mg·g⁻¹ soil at 50 °C over 24 h.

169 **DNA extraction, PCR amplification, and Illumina sequencing of bacterial and fungal** 170 **communities**

171 Four replicate samples were randomly selected for one treatment and used for DNA extraction.
172 Total DNA from the rhizosphere soil samples of *A. mongholicus* was extracted using a Soil DNA
173 Kit, according to the manufacturer's instructions (OMEGA, USA). The extracted soil DNA was
174 solubilized in 100 µL TE buffer and subjected to 1% agarose gel electrophoresis to check for
175 purity, followed by NanoDrop quantification. According to the concentration, DNA was diluted
176 to 1 ng·µL⁻¹ using sterile water. The 16S rRNA with V4 region genes of bacteria and archaea
177 were amplified from the genomic DNA using 515F (5'-GTGCCGCMGCCGCGGTAA-3') and
178 806R (5'-GGACTACHVGG GTWTCTAAAT-3') primers (*Dethlefsen et al., 2008*). The fungal
179 Internal Transcribed Spacer (ITS) sequences of the hypervariable region were amplified using
180 ITS5-1737F (5'-GGAAG TAAAACAAGG-3') and ITS2-2043R (5'-
181 GCTGCGTTCTTCATCGATGC-3') primers (*Buee et al., 2009*). DNA was amplified according
182 to the protocol described previously (*Magoc et al., 2011*). 30 µL PCR reactions contained 15 µL
183 of Phusion® High-Fidelity PCR Master Mix (New England Biolabs, Singapore), 0.2 µM final
184 concentration of each primer, and 10 ng template DNA. After initial denaturation at 95 °C for 1
185 min, each thermal cycle consisted of denaturation at 98 °C for 10 s, annealing at 50 °C for 30 s,
186 and elongation at 72 °C for 30 s. At the end of 30 cycles, the final extension step was carried out
187 at 72 °C for 5 min. An equivalent volume of 1X loading buffer (contained SYB green) was
188 added to PCR products and the products were detected by 2% agarose gel electrophoresis. The
189 samples with 400–450 bp (bacteria) and 300-500 bp (fungal) amplified products were selected
190 for subsequent experiments. The PCR products were mixed in equivalent ratios and purified
191 using the GeneJET Gel Extraction Kit (Thermo Scientific, USA). Sequencing libraries were
192 generated using NEB Next® Ultra™ DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (NEB, USA) following
193 the manufacturer's recommendations, and index codes were added. The quality of the library
194 was assessed on a Qubit 2.0 Fluorometer (Thermo Scientific) and an Agilent Bioanalyzer 2100
195 system. Finally, the library was sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq platform, and about 250 bp
196 paired-end reads were generated for subsequent analysis. The amplicon pyrosequencing was
197 performed on the Illumina MiSeq platforms at Novogene Bioinformatics Technology Co., Ltd
198 (Beijing, China).

199 **Data analysis**

200 After removing the adaptor contamination, primer sequences, and low-quality reads, the raw
201 sequences were assembled for each sample according to the unique barcode using QIIME
202 (Quantitative Insights into Microbial Ecology). The paired-end reads from the original DNA
203 fragments were merged using FLASH (*Magoc et al., 2011*) and assigned to each sample
204 according to the unique barcodes. The sequences were analyzed using the QIIME software
205 package and in-house Perl scripts were used to for assessing the α- (within samples) and β-

206 (among samples) diversities. Sequences with $\geq 97\%$ similarity were assigned to the same
207 operational taxonomic unit (OTUs) (Edgar *et al.*, 2011).
208 All data was subject to analysis of variance (ANOVA) using the general linear model-univariate
209 (mixed model) procedure by IBM SPSS Statistics 19.0. The treatments were compared for any
210 significant differences using the LSD multiple range tests at the significance level of $P=0.05$.

211

212 **Results**

213 **Biomass of *A. mongholicus***

214 The root dry weight of *A. mongholicus* was decreased with the years of continuous cropping; the
215 weights in CC1 were higher with 35.8% and 51.1% than those in CC3 and CC6, respectively
216 (Fig.1). After 3 years of continuous cropping, the growth of *A. mongholicus* root showed a
217 reducing trend, and was better developed in the soil that had not been treated with replanting.
218 The ratios of the root-top in CC1 and CC3 were also higher with 20% and 16%, respectively,
219 than that of CC6.

220 **Statistical analyses of the sequence data in *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere soils**

221 Twelve 16S rRNA gene libraries were constructed over four continuous cropping treatments
222 with three sampling stages for each treatment. For each treatment, four subsamples from each
223 replicate were analyzed. After filtering based on the basal quality control processing, a total of
224 3,560,456 bacterial effective tags used for further analyses were obtained from pyrosequencing
225 after filtering low-quality, short-length sequences and the chimeras. The number of effective
226 tags per treatment did not differ greatly between the four soil treatments (Table 1) and were
227 grouped into 239,377 OTUs at 97% sequence similarity level, ranging from 4,293 to 6,158
228 OTUs for the four treatments. Additionally, a total of 2,894,024 effective fungal tags were
229 obtained, and 28,237 OTUs were identified that varied from 279 to 887 in each treatment
230 (Table 1). The average read length of bacterial and fungal sequences was 254 and 253 bp,
231 respectively. In total, 475 bacterial genera and 405 fungal genera were detected in all soils.

232 As shown in Table 2, the coverage of all samples, irrespective of bacteria or fungi, were
233 $>92.9\%$, indicating that the sequencing depth met the needs of our experiments (Table 2). The
234 count of the bacterial OTUs were attributed to species (Fig. 2). The largest number of bacterial
235 OTUs (6158) was obtained for the CC6 sampling in May, which was higher than CC3,
236 significantly higher than CC1 as well as the bulk soil CK sampling in May. The bacterial OTUs
237 were significantly less for the CC1 sample compared to the CC6 sample in September. The
238 OTUs of CC6 sustained a decline from May to September. During *A. mongholicus* growth, the
239 fungal OTUs in CK (656 in September) were increased from May and differed significantly from
240 the CC1, CC3, and CC6 treatments. Finally, the observed bacterial and fungal species in the
241 continuous cropping soil (i.e CC3 and CC6) were lower than CK and CC1 at the time of
242 harvesting.

243 **Bacterial and fungal community composition of *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere soils**

244 The bacterial pyrosequencing showed that a total of 239,377 OTUs were identified in 12 soil
245 samples, and these sequences were affiliated with 57 bacterial phyla, 153 classes, 239 orders,
246 316 families, and 475 genera. The *Proteobacteria*, *Actinobacteria*, and *Acidobacteria* phyla were
247 highly abundant with relatively low abundances of *Bacteroidetes* and *Firmicutes* found in all
248 soils, which is consistent with the previous reports that plants appear to favor the colonization of

249 their rhizosphere by *Proteobacteria*. The bacterial phyla, *Bacteroidetes*, *Actinomycetes*, and
250 *Firmicutes* were also commonly observed in both niches (Philippot et al., 2013; Bulgarelli et al.,
251 2013; Moore et al., 2015). The OTUs classified from all soil samples were primarily affiliated
252 with 10 bacterial phyla and 10 fungal phyla (Fig. 3). *Proteobacteria* (31.8% of all sequence
253 reads), *Actinobacteria* (26.9%), *Acidobacteria* (12.8%), *Chloroflexi* (5.91%),
254 *Gemmatimonadetes* (4.19%), *Bacteroidetes* (3.46%), *Planctomycetes* (3.34%), *Firmicutes*
255 (3.10%), *Crenarchaeota* (2.37%), and *Cyanobacteria* (1.42%) were the dominant bacterial phyla
256 and had average relative abundances >1%. The relative abundances of *Firmicutes* phyla
257 decreased with the continuous cropping years of *A. mongholicus* in July. The relative abundances
258 of *Acidobacteria*, *Chloroflexi*, *Gemmatimonadetes*, and *Planctomycetes* phyla were decreased
259 with the long-term (ie CC3 and CC6) continuous cropping of *A. mongholicus* in September (Fig.
260 3A). A comparison of the relative abundances of the top 20 classified bacterial orders showed
261 significant variations among the two-continuous cropping *A. mongholicus* soils and the CK soil
262 (Fig. 3C). *Actinomycetales*, *iii1-15*, *Rhizobiales*, *Sphingomonadales*, *Burkholderiales*,
263 *Nitrososphaerales*, *Solirubrobacterales*, and 19 other bacterial orders were dominant at the three
264 sampling time points and in the soils (average relative abundances >1%). With long-term
265 continuous cropping, the relative abundances of *Rhizobiales* (6.7% in September) were
266 increased. The relative abundances of *Sphingomonadales* (4.5% in September) were increased
267 followed by a decrease, and the maximum relative abundance was reached in the CC3 soil
268 (5.2%). However, the relative abundances of *Solirubrobacterales* (3.3–3.5%) and
269 *Burkholderiales* (3.8–4.8%) were increased continuously from CC1–CC6. In addition, some
270 specific bacterial families were dominant in different sampling periods and the continuous
271 cropping soils.

272 Among the fungi in all the soil samples, a total of 26,237 OTUs were affiliated with 12
273 fungal phyla, 30 classes, 90 orders, 191 families, and 405 genera. Several reports investigating
274 the fungal communities of soil using deep amplicon sequencing in peanut, pea, and vanilla crops
275 showed *Ascomycetes* as the predominant fungal phylum, followed by *Basidiomycetes*
276 (Jumpponen et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2012; Li et al., 2014). *Ascomycetes* constituted the largest
277 group of pathogens (Lu et al., 2003) and the antimicrobial activities of *Basidiomycetes* strains
278 had frequently been reported (Srivastava et al., 2011). Our results show that the dominant fungal
279 phyla (relative abundance >1%) across all samples included *Ascomycota* (91.2% of all sequence
280 reads), *Basidiomycota* (2.95%), and *Zygomycota* (1.67%) accounting for 95.8% of the fungal
281 sequences. In addition, *Chytridiomycota* (0.80%) and *Glomeromycota* (0.02%) were present in
282 all samples in low relative abundance (relative abundance ranged between 0.01% and 0.10%).
283 The relative abundance of *Chytridiomycota* phyla increased with the continuous cropping years
284 of *A. mongholicus* in May. The relative abundances of *Cercozoa* phyla were decreased with the
285 continuous cropping years of *A. mongholicus* in July. The *Neocallimastigomycota* and
286 *Ciliophora* phyla were only identified in the CK soil (Fig. 3B). On the order level, *Hypocreales*,
287 *Pleosporales*, *Capnodiales*, *Sordariales*, *Pezizales*, *Cantharellales*, *Ustilaginales*, *Mortierellales*,
288 *Microascales*, *Xylariales*, *Agaricales* and three other orders were predominant at the three

289 sampling time points and in all soils (average relative abundance >1%). With long-term
290 continuous cropping, the relative abundance of *Hypocreales* in the CK soil was significantly
291 higher than the replanted soils in May (5.6%) and September (16.9%). The relative abundance of
292 *Pleosporales* was decreased, while that of *Pezizales* was increased in July (Fig. 3D). Significant
293 differences were observed in the relative abundance of fungal orders, such as *Erysiphales*
294 (0.005–21.0%), *Mortierellales* (0.2–4.8%), and *Cantharellales* (0.06–3.8%) among the samples.
295 These samples were significantly enriched in *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere soils in July and
296 September. *Pleosporales* (6.6–91.1%) in the rhizosphere soil was significantly greater than the
297 bulk soil. The relative abundance of *Pleosporales* (21.4–90.8%), *Thelebolales* (0.6–0.8%), and
298 *Onygenales* (0.6–0.8%) were higher in CC6, while *Byssochlamys* was the most abundant in CC6.
299 Specific fungal families appear similarly to the bacteria and are prevalent in different sampling
300 periods and continuous cropping soils.

301 **Bacterial and fungal alpha-diversity**

302 High parametric and non-parametric diversity indices were recorded for all soils in the study
303 (Table 2). Shannon diversity indices, Chao1, and ACE richness indices showed that the CC6 soil
304 exhibited the highest bacterial community diversity in May and July and the lowest diversity in
305 September. Simpson indices of the bacterial community in all soils did not vary significantly.
306 The Shannon diversity indices of CK, CC1, and CC3 soils remained identical in September as in
307 May, while the Chao1 and ACE richness indices were increased during growth, and were greater
308 than the CC6 soil. The higher variabilities were seen among the CK, CC1, and CC3 soils in 16S;
309 fingerprinting contributed to this diversity.

310 Diversity and richness indices of the CK soil fungal community were higher than the soils
311 transplanted with *A. mongholicus* seedlings in July and September. The richness of the CC1 soil
312 was significantly more than CC3 and CC6. Thus, the richness of bacterial and fungal
313 communities were reduced in continuous cropping soil during growth.

314 **Bacterial and fungal community structure**

315 The result of PCA indicated that the bacterial community exhibited significant differences in
316 May, July, and September (Fig. 4). There were large discrepancies between the May and July
317 samples and the September samples. July and September were relatively similar, with a
318 significantly lower principle component 1 value in the continuous cropped soil, and a higher
319 principle component 2 value in the CK soil. The result of PCA also demonstrated variations
320 among these differently treated soil samples with the bacterial communities in the CK soil
321 sample separated from the other three samples. The successive cropping of *A. mongholicus* is the
322 key factor influencing the microbial structure and diversity in the rhizosphere.

323 The fungal community in the soil samples from July was significantly different from those
324 in both May and September, like the bacterial community variations among the three sampling
325 time points. However, the fungal community showed different β -diversity in the CK, CC1, CC3,
326 and CC6 soils at each sampling time. In July and September, the *A. mongholicus* replanted soil
327 exhibited rather similar community members, which were remarkably different from the CK soil

328 by principal component 2. In addition, the fungal communities in CK and CC3 soils showed
329 similar community members that varied from the CC1 and CC6 soils in May.

330 A hierarchical clustering heat map analysis was conducted at the genus level based on the
331 top 35 most abundant bacterial and fungal communities across twelve soil samples. The analysis
332 showed that the CC1, CC3, and CC6 soils sampled in July and September were clustered
333 together, independently (Fig. 6). They were separated, however, from the CK soils and the
334 results agreed with those of the PCA. In addition, *Mycobacterium*, *Lupinus*, *Hyphimicrobium*,
335 and *Steroidobacter* genera in the CC1, CC3, and CC6 soils sampled in September were found
336 with high Z-scores of the relative percentage. *Pseudoxanthomonas*, *Novosphingobium*,
337 *Thermomonas*, *Kaistobacter*, and *Arenimonas* genera in the CC1, CC3, and CC6 soils sampled in
338 July were found to exhibit a high Z-score. On the other hand, these genera of *Proteobacter*
339 showed a low Z-score in the CK soil. Some differences between the bacterial genera belonging
340 to *Planctomycetes*, *Proteobacteria*, and *Verrucomicrobia* phylum were observed in the CK
341 (May) and CC3 (May) soil, despite being grouped together.

342 Differences between the fungal community structures were shown as a heat map (Fig. 7)
343 and PCA (Fig. 5). The top 35 most abundant fungal genera of the CC1, CC3, and CC6 soils
344 sampled in September were clustered together independently and separated from the soils
345 sampled in July and May. While fungal genera of the continuously cropping soils were obviously
346 separated from the CK soil irrespective of the stage. The highly abundant fungal genera were
347 distributed in both treatments.

348 **Enzyme activities of replanted *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere soils**

349 Soil urease, cellulase, and invertase activities were assessed to measure the potential turnover
350 rates of nitrogen or carbon in the replanted *A. mongholicus* soils. These enzyme activities were
351 also assumed to be related to the total number of the soil microbes. Soil urease activity decreased
352 with the continuous cropping of *A. mongholicus* (Table 3). Cellulase activity showed a trend
353 converse to the urease activity in which CC6 soil displayed the highest activity. Soil invertase
354 activity in the CC1 soil was significantly higher than the CC6 soil.

355 **Discussion**

356 Soil is one of the most difficult environments to investigate due to its complexity, leading to
357 additional methodological challenges from soil sampling to sequencing analysis (*Lombard et al.*,
358 *2011*; *Lupatini et al.*, *2013*). In this study, we assessed the dynamics of the relative abundance
359 and community structure of selected soil microbial communities as a function of continuous
360 cropping and the sampling stage, using *A. mongholicus* seedlings. The effects of continuous
361 cropping and the sampling stage on plant-associated microbial communities were measured by
362 pyrosequencing techniques of extracted DNA (i.e. 16S rRNA genes for bacteria and ITS genes
363 for fungi).

364 **Continuous cropping influenced soil microbial community structure**

365 The rhizosphere, as nutrient rich niches, are well suited for copiotroph (r-strategists) such as
366 several types of *Proteobacteria*. *Proteobacteria* have been classified as “copiotrophs” and grow
367 rapidly in a nutrient-rich environment, which encompasses an elevated level of morphological,

368 physiological, and metabolic diversity and play significant roles in global nutrient cycling (*Li et*
369 *al., 2018; Kersters et al., 2006*). The relative abundance of *Alpha*, *Beta*, and *Gamma*
370 *Proteobacteria* have been reported to be significantly higher in legume-based treatments (*Trivedi*
371 *et al., 2015*). *A. mongholicus* is a leguminous plant, and hence, the higher relative abundance of
372 *Proteobacteria* in the rhizosphere soil than in the bulk soil at the September time point is not
373 surprising. Continuous cropping results in the depletion of soil nutrients. *Actinobacteria* and
374 *Acidobacteria* are classified as “oligotrophs” (k-strategists) that degrade relatively recalcitrant
375 forms of C, grow slowly, and are dominant in nutrient-poor environments (*Fierer et al., 2007;*
376 *Trivedi et al., 2013*). These bacteria were at lower relative abundances in the *A. mongholicus*
377 rhizosphere soil at the September time point, and decreased with the continuous cropping years.
378 The phylum *Acidobacteria* has been reported as predominant in soil (*Gottel et al., 2011; Xiong et*
379 *al., 2015*), which is in agreement with our findings.

380 The variation in the bacterial community of the continuously cropped soil was complex. At
381 the order level, *Rhizobiales*, *Sphingomonadales*, *Burkholderiales*, *Rhodocyclales*, and
382 *Xanthomonadales* were predominant in the *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere and bulk soil. Among
383 these, *Rhizobiales*, *Burkholderiales*, *Xanthomonadales*, and *Myxococcales* showed a
384 successively increasing presence with continuous cropping in September and May. These
385 bacteria are also reported to be associated with peanut (*Arachis hypogaea L.*) continuous
386 cropping (*Chen et al., 2014*). *Rhizobiales* and *Burkholderiales* were the most dominant root
387 nodule-forming bacteria associated to legumes (*Postma et al., 2016*). The root nodule bacteria fix
388 the atmospheric dinitrogen making it available for the plant in exchange for organic carbon
389 compounds (*Moulin et al., 2001*). This mutualistic interaction might be critical for both plants
390 and bacteria. Some bacteria pathogens of *Burkholderiales* may be associated with the increasing
391 tendency of the continuous cropping obstacle. *Actinomycetales*, *Sphingomonadales*,
392 *Rhodobacterales*, and *Solirubrobacterales* have greater relative abundances in continuous
393 cropping after 6 years compared with 1 year, while lower than 3 years. Among these,
394 *Solirubrobacterales* has been reported to be positively correlated with apple plant growth
395 (*Franke-Whittle et al., 2015*) and negatively correlated with peach shoot weight (*Yang et al.,*
396 *2012*), thereby demonstrating that *Solirubrobacterales* can variably affect plant growth,
397 however, the mechanism of this effect is uncertain. The *iii1-15* is a dominant order of
398 *Acidobacteria* widely distributed in each treatment and each sampling time point. The bacteria in
399 the phylum *Acidobacteria* were reported at higher frequencies in the rhizosphere of healthy
400 plants than the diseased plants (*Yin et al., 2013*). This might explain the relative abundance of
401 *iii1-15* with continuous cropping.

402 Further analysis of the genera showed significant differences among treatments with the
403 relative abundances of *Pseudomonas*, *Lysobacter*, and *Phenylobacterium* in the continuously
404 cropped 6 year soil being higher than other treatments. Moreover, comparable results were also
405 found in apple nurseries, suggesting that the higher percentage of *Pseudomonas* was related to
406 the replant disease (*Sun et al., 2014*). The increase of *Lysobacter* was possibly induced by the
407 high percentages of pathogenic fungi. *Pseudomonas* has been proposed to play a role in

408 replanting disease etiology of peach and apple trees (*Rumberger et al., 2007*) through the
409 production of hydrogen cyanide (HCN). It is also considered to be a major group of rhizobacteria
410 that may harbor the potential to regulate the physiology of plant pathogens (*Pliego et al., 2011*)
411 and cause negative effects due to continuous cropping. *Lysobacter* has been proposed as a rich
412 source of novel antibiotics with which some species may potentially regulate plant diseases (*Xie*
413 *et al., 2012*).

414 Fungal coverage values of 99% were obtained for all soils by pyrosequencing, which
415 indicates that the diversity in the soils was adequately investigated. We found that the largest
416 relative abundance of fungi in the rhizosphere soil was *Ascomycota*, followed by *Basidiomycota*,
417 *Zygomycota*, *Chytridiomycota*, and *Glomeromycota*, which suggested a ubiquity of these species
418 and a key role in agroecosystems. Moreover, the relative abundance of *Ascomycetes* in
419 rhizosphere soil was significantly higher than that in the bulk soil and showed increased relative
420 abundances in the 6-year continuous cropping soil. After 6 years of continuous cropping, the
421 relative abundance of *Pezizomycetes* and *Eurotiomycetes* displayed pathogenic fungi in the
422 subordinate categories. These findings support that soil fungal communities are closely linked
423 with the continuous cropping of the *A. Mongholicus* years. Further analysis of the genera showed
424 that *Erysiphe*, *Phaeomycoentrospora*, *Fusarium*, *Geomyces*, *Rhizophlyctis*, and *Volvariella*
425 constituted the predominant genera; among these *Erysiphe* and *Fusarium* were significantly
426 different in various processing. The appearance of these species could be responsible for the
427 continuous cropping. For example, *Erysiphe* was found to be a pathogen in the *Arabidopsis*
428 powdery mildew (*Koh et al., 2005*). In this study, enriched *Erysiphe* was detected in the
429 rhizosphere soil in July. Concurrently, we observed white patches on the leaves in the *A.*
430 *mongholicus* soil that were suspected to be mildew, suggesting a link between *Erysiphe* and the
431 growth of *A. mongholicus*. *Fusarium* is typically considered to be a member of the root rot of
432 several types of plants as it is the most frequently occurring genus among root-colonizing fungi
433 (*Tewoldemedhin et al., 2011*). *Fusarium* was abundant in the continuously cropped 6 years soil
434 sampled in May, and there was a decreasing trend noted in the relative abundance of *Fusarium*
435 during the growth period. However, the relative abundance was as high as others in July and
436 September, albeit without a significant difference with other continuous cropping systems. This
437 phenomenon could have transferred to, caused the death of, or infected the plants, the root rot of
438 *A. mongholicus* was severe in July and September, suggesting that the *Fusarium* species
439 inhabiting the rhizosphere can have a relevant negative role on plant growth. In addition, the
440 unidentified groups may play a key role in the continuous cropping soils. Further investigations
441 are required to identify their functions associated with *A. mongholicus* cropping.

442 Heat map analyses and PCA demonstrated dynamic changes in the bacterial and fungal
443 populations of the soil owing to the continuous cropping of *A. mongholicus* and the sampling
444 stage. These results demonstrated that the soil microbial communities were affected by the
445 continuous cropping of *A. mongholicus*. The soil microbial biomass and structure were also
446 significantly influenced by continuous cropping in the cases of cucumber, maize, rice, and peas
447 (*Yao et al., 2006; Nayyar et al., 2009; Kiharaa et al., 2012*). These findings indicated that

448 successive changes in the soil microbial community structure with the continuous cropping
449 system caused an aversion to the growth of *A. mongholicus*. This reveals that some of the
450 microbes and pathogens participating in the nutrient cycle of the soil increased while the
451 beneficial microbes decreased, which consequently caused serious continuous cropping problems
452 in the replant system. These results further confirmed that replanting can promote disease
453 through changes in the root-associated microbial communities.

454 **Sampling stage influenced soil microbial community structure**

455 The microbial community of the soil is known to be influenced by a wide range of factors such
456 as soil characteristics, environmental conditions, time, and crop management strategies, such as
457 rotations and the removal of crop residue (Govaerts *et al.*, 2007; Mclaughlin *et al.*, 1995).
458 Differences in the microbial community in bulk soil between the pre-planting and young-plant
459 stages have been shown previously (Larkin *et al.*, 2003). Therefore, in this study, we assessed the
460 soil bacterial and fungal dynamic succession at different sampling stages of different *A.*
461 *mongholicus* continuous cropping systems, including pre-planting (May), the rapid growth phase
462 (July), and the harvest stage (September), to provide general data about the relationships between
463 the soil microbial community and the continuously cropped *A. mongholicus*. The diversity and
464 richness of bacteria in the rhizosphere soil cropped continuously for 6 years to *A. mongholicus* at
465 the pre-planting stage were higher than at the rapid growth, and harvest stages, which was
466 contrary to the richness of the bacterial population in the *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere soil
467 replanted at 1 and 3 years. The diversity and richness of fungi in the rhizosphere soil were
468 decreased during the *A. mongholicus* growth. The soil from the 6 years of continuous cropping
469 was distinct from other soils. These results showed that the diversity of the bacterial and fungal
470 communities were reduced during growth, especially in the 6 year continuously cropped *A.*
471 *mongholicus* rhizosphere soil. Conversely, the key factor in explaining the variation of the
472 microbial community structure in the soil was the stage of plant growth (Wang *et al.*, 2016). The
473 average relative abundance of *Proteobacteria* and *Acidobacteriales* in the harvest stages was
474 higher than at the pre-planting stage, whereas, *Actinobacteria* and *Basidiomycota* were reduced
475 during growth. The relative abundance of *Cyanobacteria* increased significantly at the harvest
476 stages of *A. mongholicus* which may be related to its nitrogen fixation and environmental
477 resistance. In addition, at the pre-planting stage *Pseudomonadales*, *Bacillales*, *Rhodobacterales*,
478 *Ustilaginales*, and *Thelebolales* orders were specifically enriched in the replanted *A.*
479 *mongholicus* rhizosphere soil (both of CC1, CC3, CC6) than the growth phase, while
480 *Xanthomonadales*, *Myxococcales*, *Acidimicrobiales* were specifically enriched at the rapid
481 growth phase, and *Rhodocyclales* and *Agaricales* were enriched at the harvest stages. Based on
482 the analyses, these populations may be related to the growth and development of *A. mongholicus*.
483 Hierarchical clustering analysis showed that bacterial and fungal genera clustered together at the
484 rapid growth phase and harvest stages. Compared with the continuous cropping years, the
485 microbial community structure varied greatly at different sampling periods, which might be
486 explained by the root exudate content in the *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere that changes with the
487 growth period. For instance, flavonoids can attract specific microorganisms (Bennett *et al.*, 2007)

488 and are a major component of *A. mongholicus* (Li et al., 2014). The effect of the sampling season
489 on the *Cyclopia spp* rhizosphere bacterial communities may be attributed to the soil temperature
490 and moisture, as well as the alteration of root exudates between seasonal growth and the
491 developmental phases (Postma et al., 2016). Interestingly, the eukaryotic microorganisms did not
492 show any obvious correlation with peanut development in an earlier study (Chen et al., 2012).
493 Thus, the mechanisms underlying the interaction between microbial communities and the growth
494 or development of *A. mongholicus* need to be investigated further.

495 **Continuous cropping influenced the soil enzyme activities**

496 Replanted soil significantly inhibited root development and exhibited different soil enzyme
497 activity. The soil enzyme activities are considered to be vital indicators of soil quality and
498 ecological stability, and thus, crucial indicators of the soil biochemistry (Gianfreda et al., 2005).
499 Knowing the characteristics of soil enzyme activities in *A. mongholicus* continuous cropping
500 systems could be beneficial in providing a better understanding of soil productivity in replanted
501 *A. mongholicus*. Urease catalyzes the hydrolysis of urea to produce ammonia and carbamate, and
502 thus, is recognized as a critical indicator of soil health. In this study, the rhizosphere soil of *A.*
503 *mongholicus* showed significantly decreased activities after 6 years of continuous cropping.
504 These results were consistent with the previous study that continuous monocropping of peanut
505 and black pepper led to a decrease in soil urease and invertase activities (Xiong et al., 2015).
506 These results indicate that the root exudates in new planting soil might support a new and
507 different functional microbial community that might be responsible for the apparent increase in
508 mineralization, resulting in an enhanced supply of available nutrients as compared to continuous
509 cropping soils. Additionally, after many years of continuous cropping, the root system absorbed
510 the available nutrients resulting lower activities of the rhizosphere soil urease than in the bulk
511 soil. Sun et al. reported that urease was highly correlated to the apple tree growth (Sun et al.,
512 2014). The lack of a significant increase in urease activity at the replant site might explain the
513 decreased growth, and *Rhizobiales* and *Burkholderiales* showed an increasing abundance under
514 continuous cropping. However, soil invertase and cellulase promoted the conversion of
515 carbohydrates and participated in organic matter cycling in the soil (Han et al., 2012; Paz-
516 Ferreira et al., 2014). The invertase affects the hydrolysis of sucrose into glucose and fructose,
517 and cellulase is involved in breaking down cellulose. The rhizosphere soil invertase activities
518 significantly decreased with replanted *A. mongholicus*, which was contradictory to the actions of
519 cellulase, both were higher than the bulk soil. This could be related to the residual small root
520 tissues of previous *A. mongholicus*. The results revealed a significant decline in enzymatic
521 activities under the long-term continuous cropping system, which might limit *A. mongholicus*
522 growth.

523 **Conclusions**

524 In this study, the succession dynamics of the microbial communities within the soil with the
525 continuous cropping of the economic medicinal plant *A. mongholicus* has been comprehensively
526 analyzed. A major effect of sampling stages, as well as continuous cropping years, was noted on
527 the microbial communities associated with *A. mongholicus*. The variations can be summarized as

528 five major highlights: (1) In September, continuous cropping for 6 years of the *A. mongholicus*
529 rhizosphere soil (CC6) presented a lower diversity and relative abundance than the *A.*
530 *mongholicus* rhizosphere soil without continuous cropping (CC1), (2) from May to September,
531 the relative abundance of *Fusarium* displayed a steady decline in CC6, while it was significantly
532 greater than CC1 and CC3 in May, (3) *Erysiphe* was enriched in July and this could be related to
533 the diseases of *A. mongholicus*. In the 6 years of continuous cropping, the relative abundance of
534 *Rhizobiales*, *Sphingomonadales*, *Burkholderiales*, *Rhodocyclales*, *Xanthomonadales* was higher
535 than in CC1 and CC3 soils. (4) The relative abundances of *Actinomycetales*,
536 *Sphingomonadales*, *Rhodobacterales*, and *Solirubrobacterales* were lower in the 6 than 3 years
537 of continuous cropping in September, (5) Significant decline in urease and invertase activities
538 were observed after 6 years of continuous cropping. In conclusion, the findings of this study,
539 investigating both bacterial and fungal communities in parallel, demonstrate the advantages of
540 deep-throughput sequencing in elucidating the biotic components of disease complexes which
541 affect continuous cropping *A. mongholicus*.

542

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549

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Table 1 (on next page)

A number of effective tags and OTUs of *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere soil bacteria and fungi.

CC1, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was planted with naked oats for 1 year; CC3, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was continuous cropped for 2 years to *A. mongholicus*; CC6, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into the soil that was continuously cropped for 5 years to *A. mongholicus*; and CK, the adjacent uncultivated field soil sample used as a control. Values are the means \pm SE (n = 3).

1 Table 1. A number of effective tags and OTUs of *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere soil bacteria and
 2 fungi.

Soil	May		July		September	
	Effective Tags	OTUs	Effective Tags	OTUs	Effective Tags	OTUs
Bacteria						
CK	78008±22702 ab	4744±479 cd	55014±8437 b	4293±250 d	87361±23039 ab	5396±595 abcd
CC1	75368±16511 ab	5109±463 bcd	57609±8067 b	4471±332 cd	97286±22126 ab	6004±508 ab
CC3	94721±18141 ab	5518±398 abc	54015±4092 b	4385±158 cd	75370±47383 ab	4685±1176 cd
CC6	107505±3686 a	6158±193 a	58402±7298 b	4695±145 cd	49456±22887 b	4387±512 cd
Fungi						
CK	57812±5012 ab	535±51 b	53994±10347 ab	882±59 a	41683±16645 ab	656±185 ab
CC1	36163±12296 b	722±153 ab	50305±9715 ab	695±77 ab	48189±5312 ab	317±72 c
CC3	70841±25345 a	546±51 b	43551±11742 ab	624±196 ab	49566±7689 ab	288±58 c
CC6	53386±22888 ab	887±267 a	52109±10979 ab	629±108 ab	52597±6052 ab	279±29 c

3
 4 CC1, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was planted with naked oats for 1
 5 year; CC3, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was continuous cropped for 2
 6 years to *A. mongholicus*; CC6, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into the soil that was
 7 continuously cropped for 5 years to *A. mongholicus*; and CK, the adjacent uncultivated field soil
 8 sample used as a control. Samples followed with M, J or S represent soil sampled in May, July or
 9 September.

10

Table 2 (on next page)

Bacterial and fungal α -diversity indexes of *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere soil. The numbers are averages of four replicates from each treatment and sampling time point.

CC1, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was planted with naked oats for 1 year; CC3, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was continuous cropped for 2 years to *A. mongholicus*; CC6, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into the soil that was continuously cropped for 5 years to *A. mongholicus*; and CK, the adjacent uncultivated field soil sample used as a control. Values are the means \pm SE (n = 3).

1 Table 2. Bacterial and fungal α -diversity indexes of *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere soil. The numbers are averages of four replicates from
 2 each treatment and sampling time point.

3

Soil	May					July					September				
	Shannon	Simpson	Chao1	ACE	Coverage (%)	Shannon	Simpson	Chao1	ACE	Coverage (%)	Shannon	Simpson	Chao1	ACE	Coverage (%)
Bacteria															
CK	9.74±0.08 c	0.996 a	4169 a	4421±291 bc	94.5±0.005 a	9.98±0.04 abc	0.997 a	4307 a	4481±80 bc	94.4±0.002 a	10.06±0.06 abc	0.997 a	4567 a	4794±409 abc	94.0±0.006 ab
CC1	10.07±0.08 abc	0.998 a	4564 a	4783±248 abc	94.0±0.004 ab	9.99±0.11 abc	0.998 a	4278 a	4512±565 bc	94.4±0.009 a	10.15±0.21 ab	0.997 a	5098 a	5306±540 ab	93.2±0.008 ab
CC3	9.76±0.10 c	0.995 a	4642 a	4825±208 abc	93.8±0.003 ab	10.00±0.06 abc	0.998 a	4277 a	4390±301 c	94.6±0.005 a	9.77±0.27 c	0.994 a	5243 a	4920±675 abc	93.7±0.009 ab
CC6	10.31±0.09 a	0.998 a	5375 a	5548±230 a	92.9±0.003 b	10.15±0.06 ab	0.998 a	4490 a	4715±342 abc	94.2±0.006 ab	9.88±0.28 bc	0.995 a	4588 a	4746±124 abc	94.0±0.002 ab
Fungi															
CK	3.75±0.16 bc	0.821 a	521 cde	538±85 cde	99.6±0.001 abc	5.61±0.05 a	0.922 a	884 ab	927±22 ab	99.2±0.001 c	4.41±0.53 abc	0.836 a	619 abcd	633±163 bcd	99.5±0.002 abc
CC1	5.29±0.68 ab	0.901 a	750 abc	771±188 abc	99.4±0.002 abc	4.25±1.03 abc	0.793 a	715 abc	739±123 abc	99.3±0.001 c	1.28±0.34 d	0.284 b	356 de	385±57 de	99.6±0.001 ab
CC3	3.50±0.21 c	0.792 a	506 cde	538±40 cde	99.5±0.001 abc	3.44±1.68 c	0.630 a	624 abcd	645±241 bcd	99.4±0.002 abc	1.48±0.88 d	0.365 b	275 e	284±37 e	99.7±0.001 a
CC6	5.79±0.30 a	0.950 a	933 a	958±309 abc	99.2±0.003 c	3.62±1.47 c	0.687 a	592 bcd	630±96 bcd	99.4±0.001 abc	1.00±0.18 d	0.222 b	264 e	289±46 e	99.7±0.001 ab

4

5 CC1, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was planted with naked oats for 1 year; CC3, transplants of *A. mongholicus*
 6 seedlings into soil that was continuous cropped for 2 years to *A. mongholicus*; CC6, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into the
 7 soil that was continuously cropped for 5 years to *A. mongholicus*; and CK, the adjacent uncultivated field soil sample used as a
 8 control. Samples followed with M, J or S represent soil sampled in May, July or September.

9

Table 3(on next page)

Soil enzyme activities of different years from continuously cropped *A. mongholicus* soil.

Different letters in columns indicate the significant differences ($P < 0.05$). Values are means \pm standard deviation ($n=3$). CC1, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was planted with naked oats for 1 year; CC3, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was continuous cropped for 2 years to *A. mongholicus*; CC6, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into the soil that was continuously cropped for 5 years to *A. mongholicus*; and CK, the adjacent uncultivated field soil sample used as a control. Values are the means \pm SE ($n = 3$).

Table 3. Soil enzyme activities of different years from continuously cropped *A. mongholicus* soil.

Soil	Urease activity (NH ₃ -N mg·g ⁻¹ soil)	Cellulase activity (GE mg·g ⁻¹ soil)	Invertase activity (glucose mg·g ⁻¹ soil)
CK	0.605 ± 0.023 a	0.175 ± 0.003 b	2.08 ± 0.154 c
CC1	0.577 ± 0.017 a	0.177 ± 0.009 b	3.59 ± 0.303 a
CC3	0.509 ± 0.015 b	0.187 ± 0.017 b	3.27 ± 0.297 ab
CC6	0.499 ± 0.010 b	0.282 ± 0.012 a	2.78 ± 0.271 b

Different letters in columns indicate the significant differences ($P < 0.05$). Values are means ± standard deviation ($n=3$). CC1, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was planted with naked oats for 1 year; CC3, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was continuous cropped for 2 years to *A. mongholicus*; CC6, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into the soil that was continuously cropped for 5 years to *A. mongholicus*; and CK, the adjacent uncultivated field soil sample used as a control.

Figure 1(on next page)

A. mongholicus root biomass (A) and ratios of rot/top (B) with different continuous cropping years.

Different letters in columns indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$). CC1, transplant of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was planted with naked oats for 1 year; CC3, transplant of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was continuously cropped for 2 years; CC6, transplant of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was continuous cropped for 5 years.

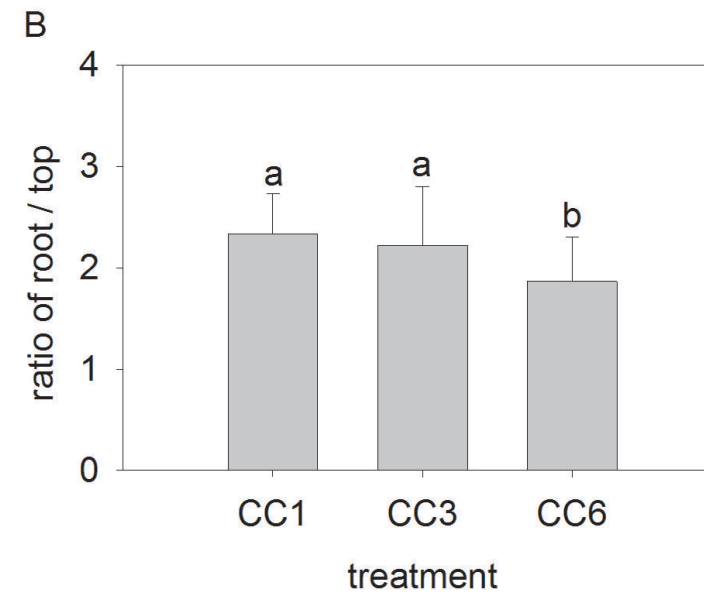
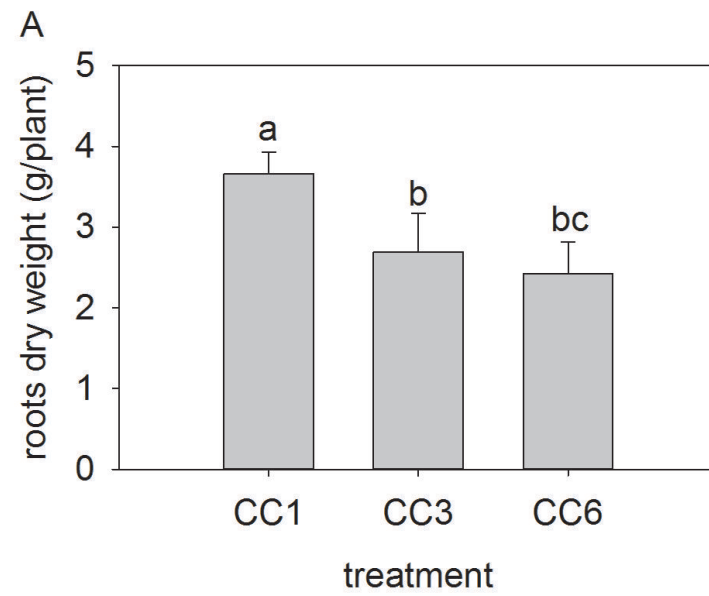


Figure 2(on next page)

Sequencing depth of *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere soil bacteria (A) and fungi (B).

CC1, transplant of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was planted with naked oats for 1 year; CC3, transplant of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was continuously cropped for 2 years; CC6, transplant of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was continuous cropped for 5 years. Samples followed with M, J or S represent soil sampled in May, July or September.

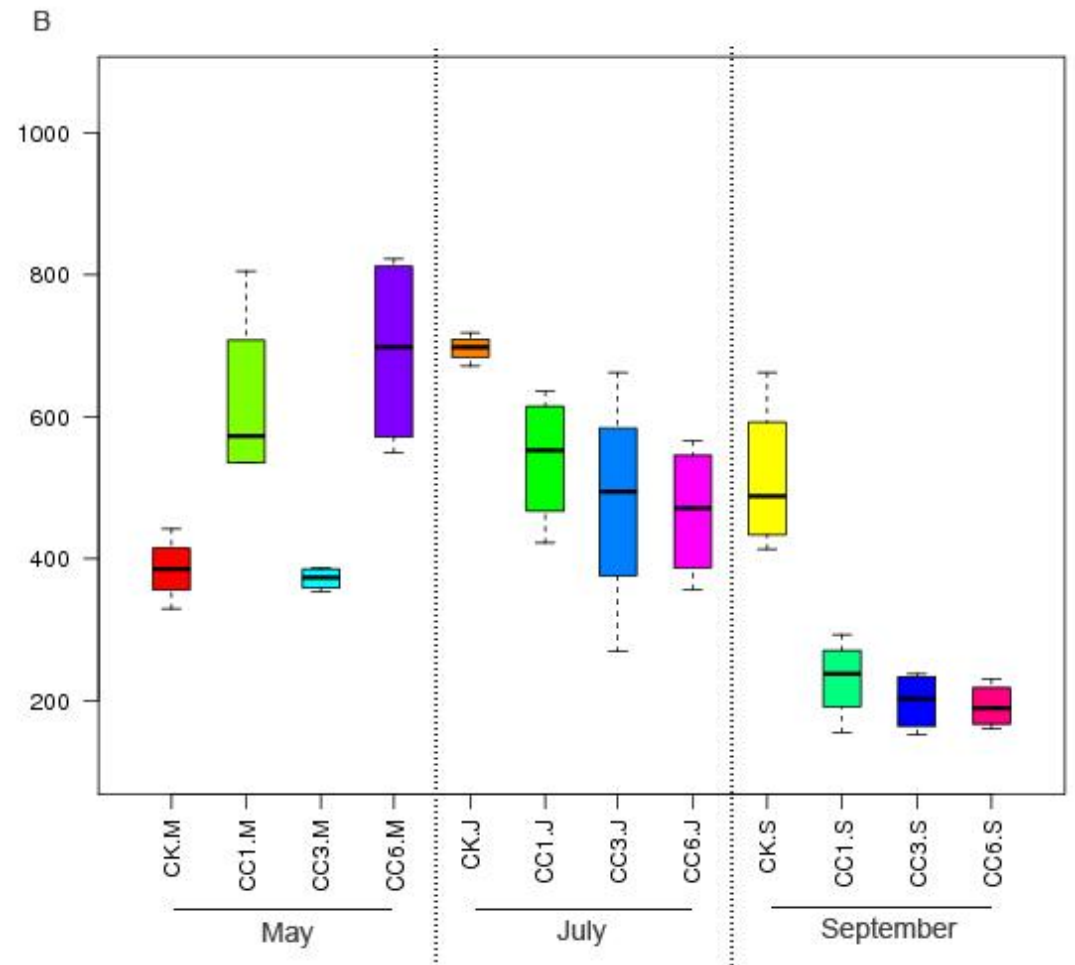
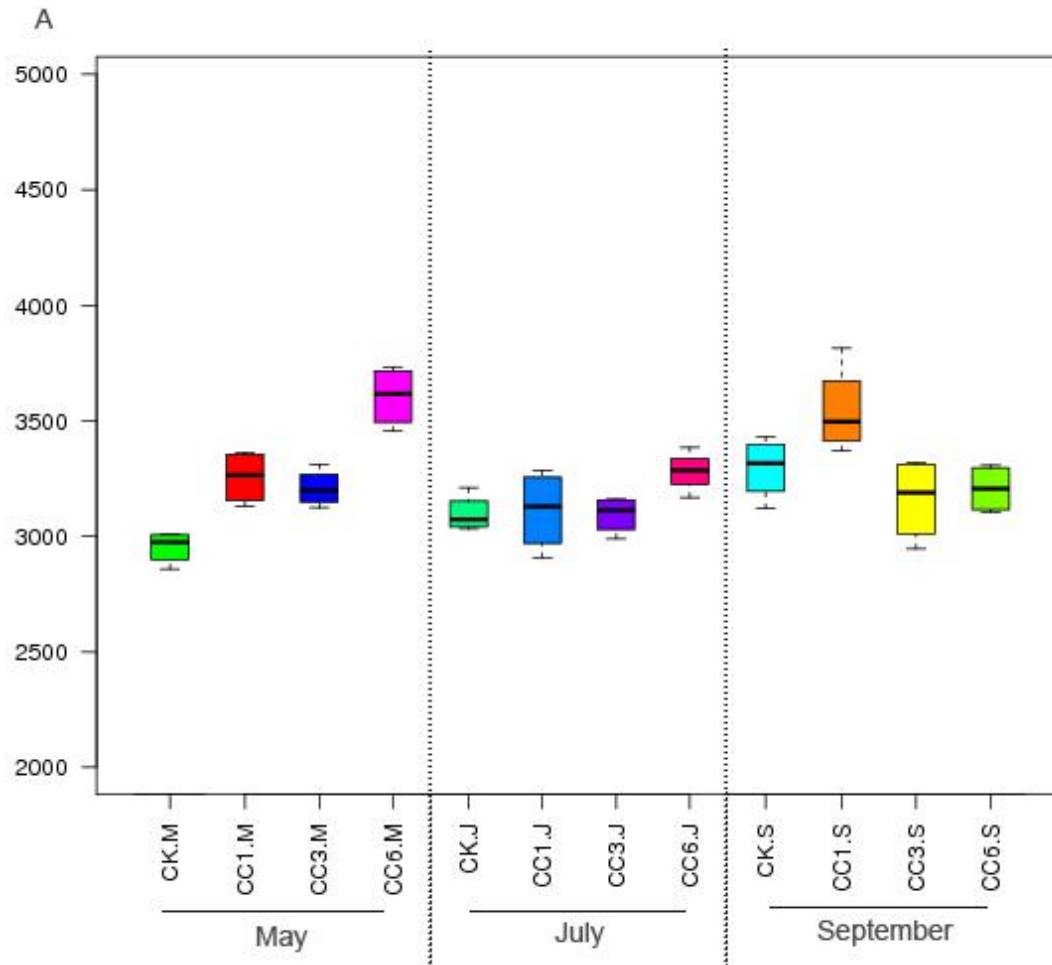


Figure 3(on next page)

Relative abundance of the dominant bacterial phyla (A), fungal phyla (B), bacterial order (C), and fungal orders (D) in *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere soils.

CC1, transplant of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was planted with naked oats for 1 year; CC3, transplant of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was continuously cropped for 2 years; CC6, transplant of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was continuous cropped for 5 years. Samples followed with M, J or S represent soil sampled in May, July or September.

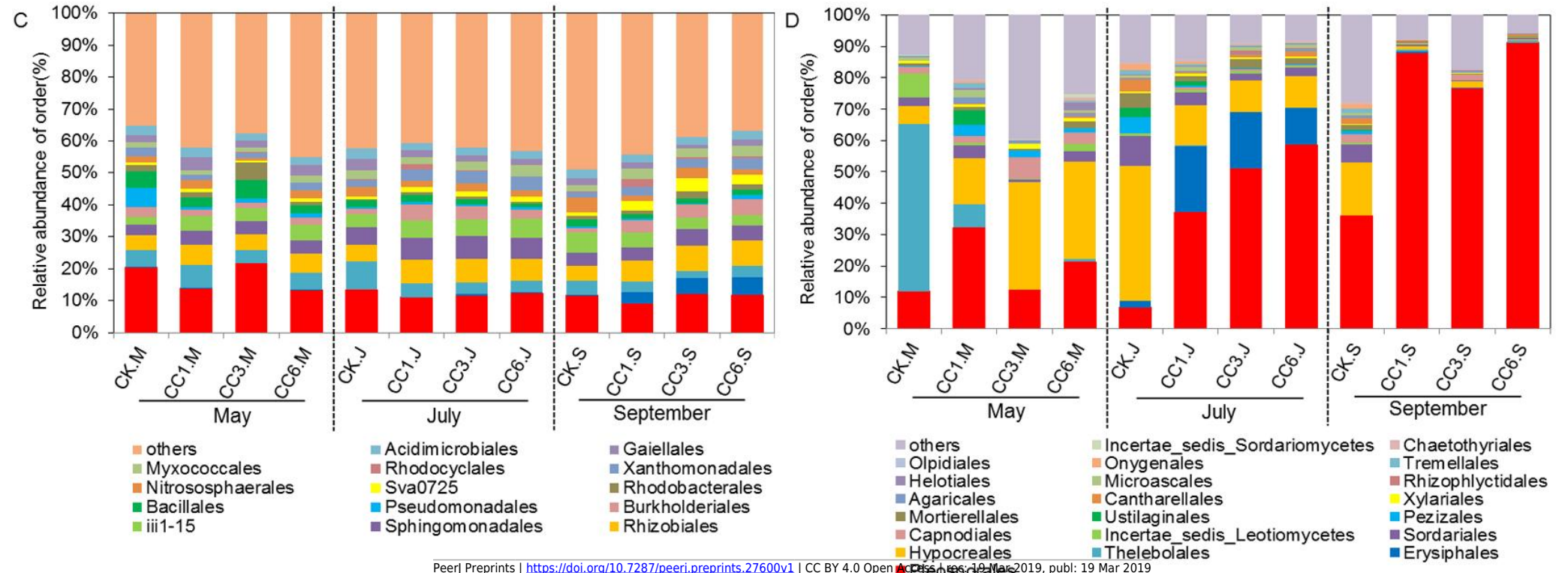
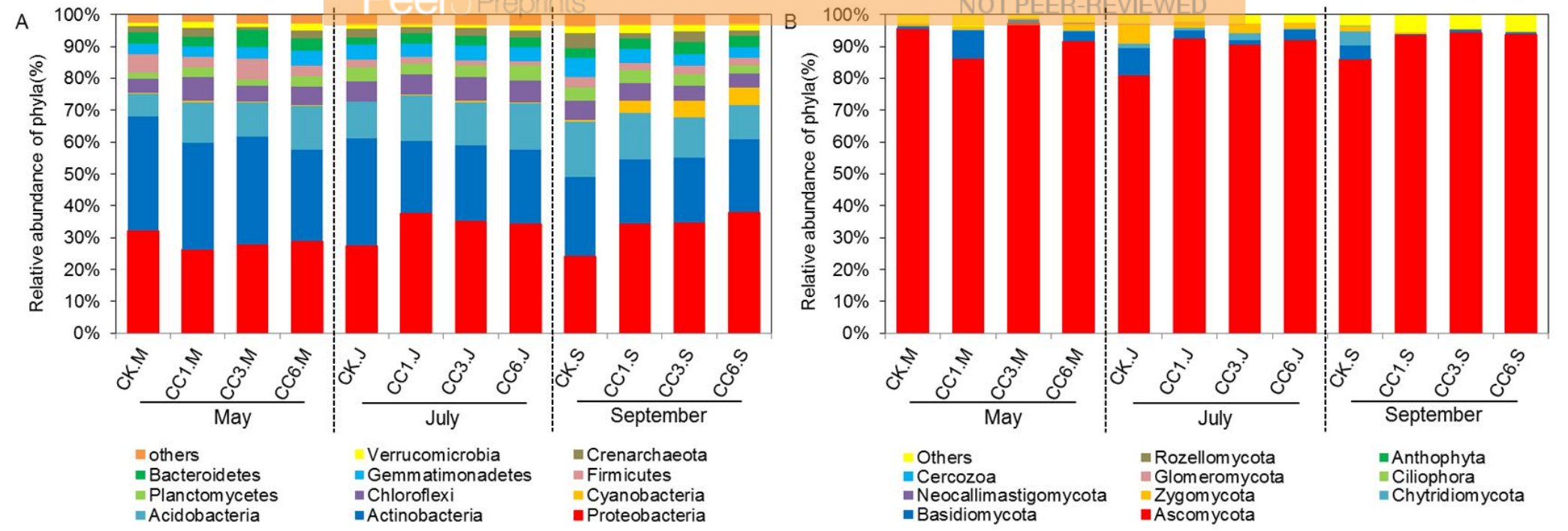


Figure 4(on next page)

PCA of the *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere soil bacteria.

CC1, transplant of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was planted with naked oats for 1 year; CC3, transplant of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was continuously cropped for 2 years; CC6, transplant of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was continuous cropped for 5 years. Samples followed with M, J or S represent soil sampled in May, July or September.

PCA plot

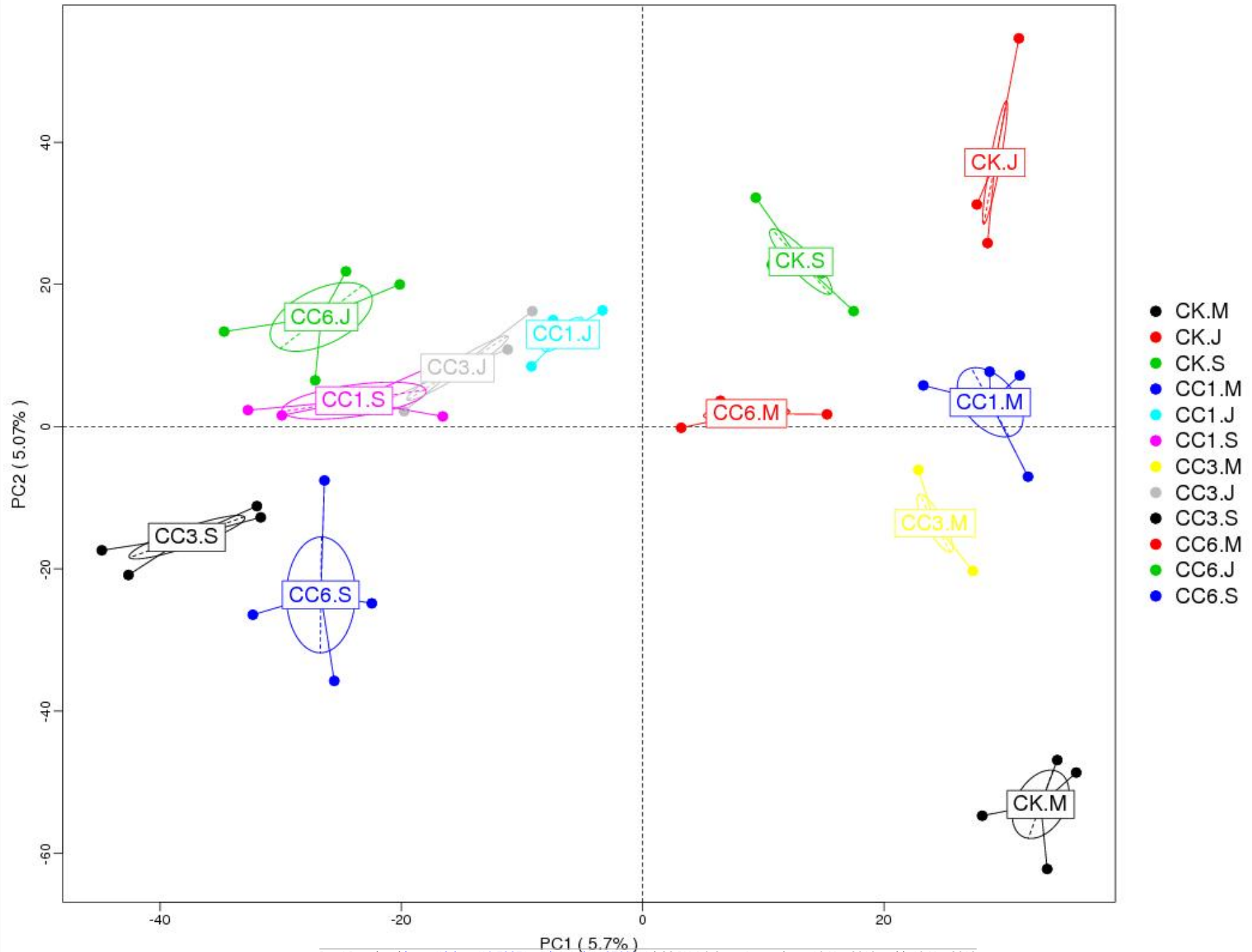


Figure 5(on next page)

PCA of the *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere soil fungi.

CC1, transplant of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was planted with naked oats for 1 year; CC3, transplant of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was continuously cropped for 2 years; CC6, transplant of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was continuous cropped for 5 years. Samples followed with M, J or S represent soil sampled in May, July or September.

PCA plot

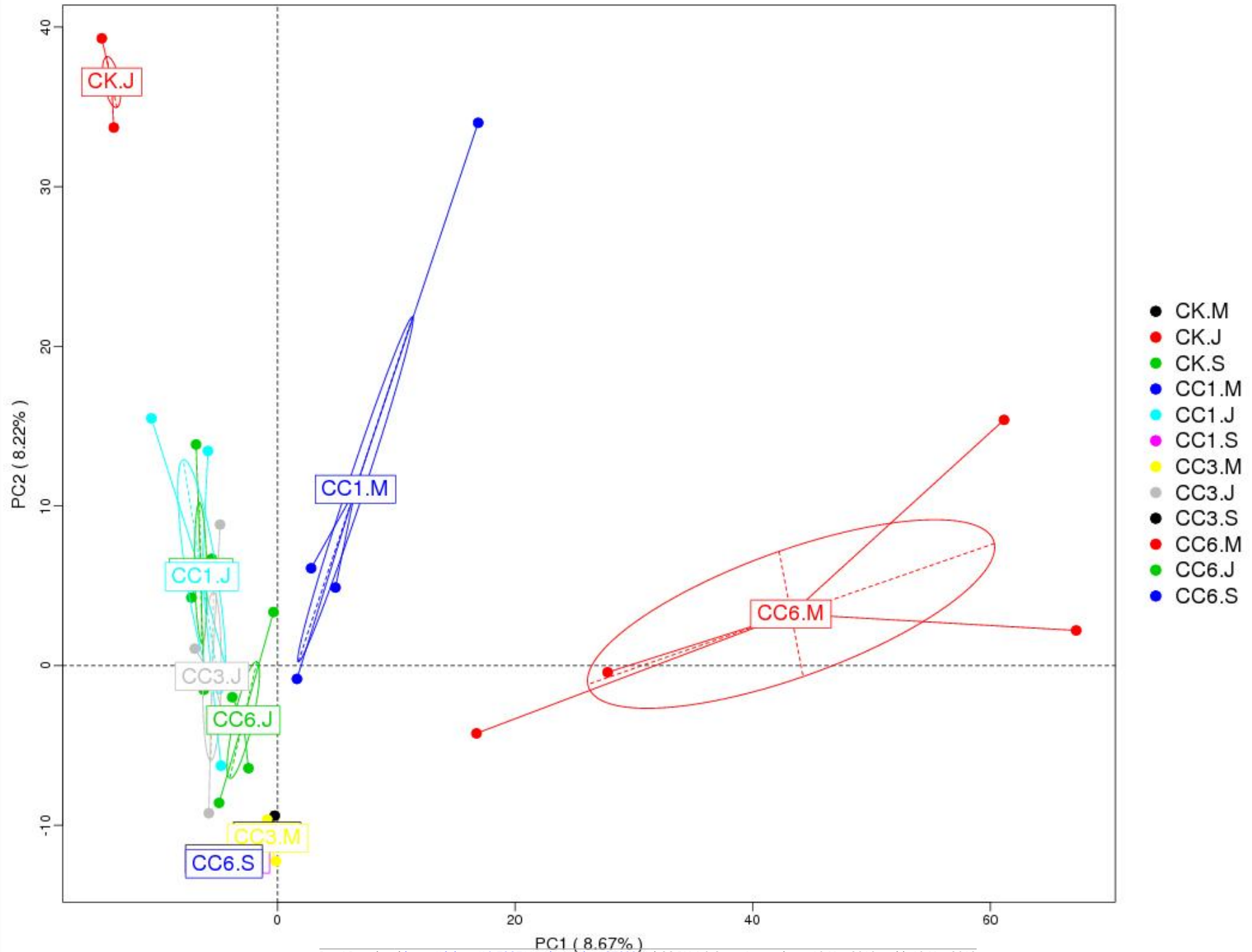


Figure 6(on next page)

Hierarchical clustering heat map of the distribution of the dominant bacterial genera in the *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere soil.

CC1, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was planted with naked oats for 1 year; CC3, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was continuous cropped for 2 years to *A. mongholicus*; CC6, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into the soil that was continuously cropped for 5 years to *A. mongholicus*; and CK, the adjacent uncultivated field soil sample used as a control. Samples followed with M, J or S represent soil sampled in May, July or September.

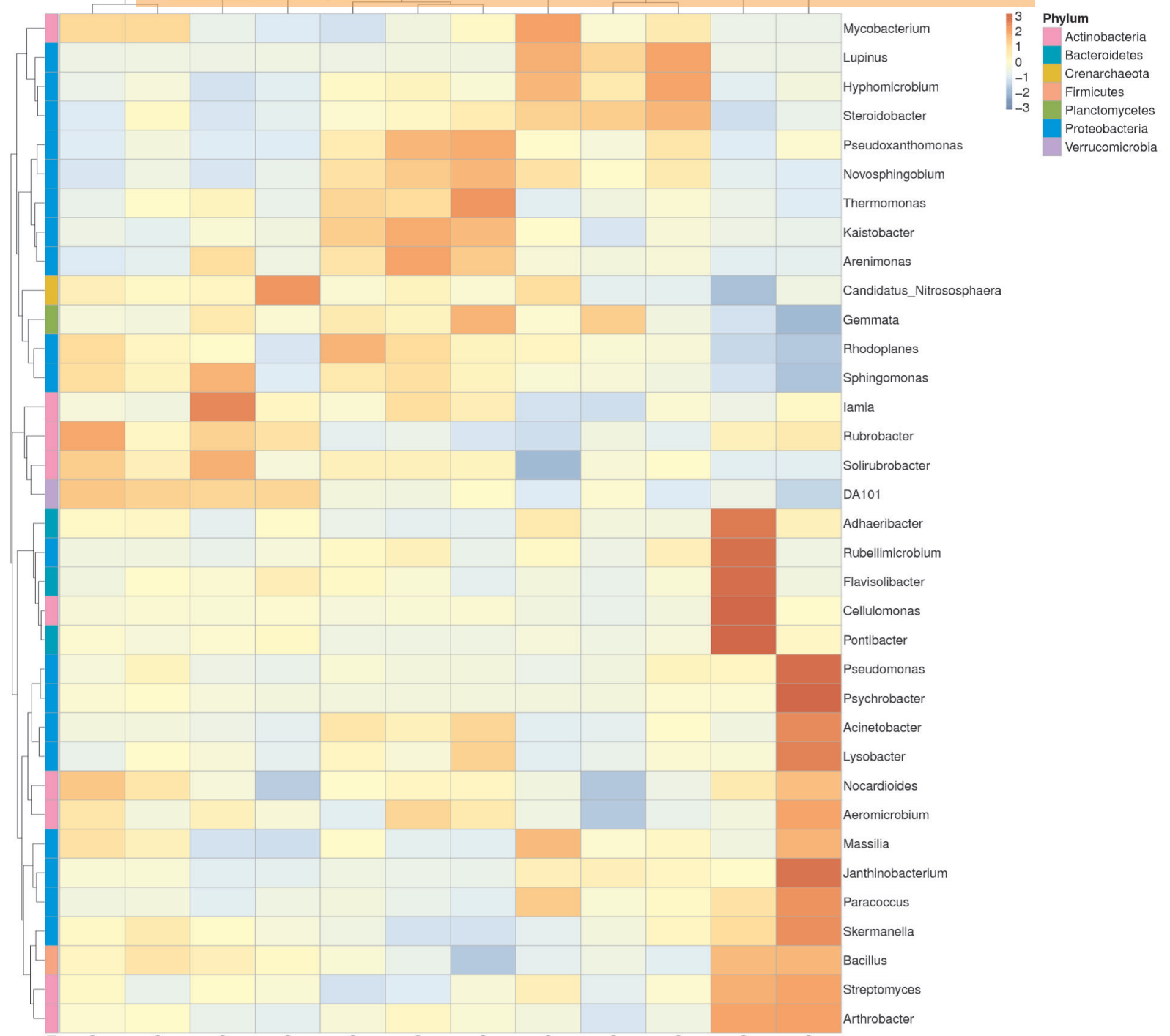


Figure 7 (on next page)

Hierarchical clustering heat map of the distribution of the dominant fungal genera in the *A. mongholicus* rhizosphere soil.

CC1, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was planted with naked oats for 1 year; CC3, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into soil that was continuous cropped for 2 years to *A. mongholicus*; CC6, transplants of *A. mongholicus* seedlings into the soil that was continuously cropped for 5 years to *A. mongholicus*; and CK, the adjacent uncultivated field soil sample used as a control. Samples followed with M, J or S represent soil sampled in May, July or September.

