

1 **Metagenome reveal the relationship between rhizosphere**
2 **microorganisms and changes in soil environment of**
3 ***Cunninghamia lanceolata* root rot**

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15 **Abstract**

16 *Cunninghamia lanceolata* (*C. lanceolata*) is a crucial species in China, valued for its
17 significance in timber production, afforestation, and commercial purposes due to its economic
18 and ecological importance. However, since the 1980s, young *C. lanceolata* plantations in
19 various regions of Sichuan, China, have been plagued by root rot. While previous studies have
20 primarily focused on isolating and identifying pathogens responsible for root rot in *C.*
21 *lanceolata*, little attention has been paid to the rhizosphere microbial community. This study
22 represents the first attempt to investigate the impact of seasonal variation on the rhizosphere
23 microbial community of *C. lanceolata* affected by root rot, utilizing high-throughput
24 sequencing technology. The findings revealed that seasonal changes significantly influenced
25 the physicochemical properties and microbial composition in the rhizosphere soil of *C.*
26 *lanceolata* affected by root rot. Root rot notably led to a decrease in soil pH, an increase in total
27 organic carbon (TOC) and total nitrogen (TN) contents, a reduction in the abundance of
28 *Rhizophagus*, an increase in the abundance of certain bacteria in the *Acidobacteriota* phylum,
29 and an enhancement of soil carbon and nitrogen metabolism throughout the year. These effects
30 were particularly pronounced during the summer, coinciding with the peak severity of root rot.
31 This study offers a valuable microbial resource for future investigations, aiming to enhance soil
32 quality and facilitate ecological management strategies for root rot in *C. lanceolata*.

33

34 **Keywords** Root rot of *C. lanceolata*, Seasonal changes, Rhizosphere microbes, Environmental
35 factors, Metagenomic sequencing

36

37 1. Introduction

38 *Cunninghamia lanceolata* (*C. lanceolata*) stands as a pivotal indigenous tree species in southern
39 China (Guangyi et al., 2017). Its significance in forestry is underscored by the vast stock volume,
40 which has reached 620.3645 million m³ in China, constituting a third of the nation's main tree
41 species plantation. Moreover, *C. lanceolata*'s carbon storage, totaling 63.69 Tg, represents 1.71%
42 of the country's forest carbon reservoir (Wang et al., 2001). Given its substantial contribution
43 to plantation management and development, addressing challenges such as root rot is
44 imperative.

45 Root rot poses a significant threat to *C. lanceolata*, particularly in young plantations,
46 jeopardizing the ecological balance necessary for its growth. This disease, caused by microbial
47 infection of plant roots, manifests as a gradual weakening of water and nutrient absorption
48 functions, ultimately leading to plant demise. Symptoms include the yellowing and wilting of
49 plant leaves (Ma et al., 2020; Pang et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2018). However, research on root
50 rot disease in *C. lanceolata* has been limited due to geographical constraints.

51 The plant rhizosphere serves as the primary defense mechanism for plant roots against soil-
52 borne pathogens, hosting a diverse array of microorganisms (Cook et al., 1995; Mendes et al.,
53 2013). These microorganisms play pivotal roles in enhancing plant resilience to stressors or
54 pathogens and promoting overall plant health and growth by facilitating nutrient acquisition
55 and producing plant hormones (Mishra et al., 2022). Additionally, members of the rhizosphere
56 microbiome can combat soil-borne pathogens through various mechanisms, including antibiotic
57 production, competition for nutrients, and parasitism (Druzhinina et al., 2011; Duffy et al., 2003;
58 Haas and Défago, 2005; Lugtenberg and Kamilova, 2009). Moreover, they regulate plant
59 immune responses by inducing systemic resistance (Conrath, 2006; Pieterse, 2012; Yang et al.,
60 2009).

61 However, alterations in the rhizosphere environment, including changes in abiotic factors such
62 as soil pH, moisture content, and root exudates, can disrupt the balance of the rhizosphere
63 microbiome, leading to pathogen proliferation and disease onset (Lauber et al., 2009; Lebeis et
64 al., 2012; Philippot et al., 2013). Seasonal variations also exert significant direct and indirect

65 effects on rhizosphere microbial communities. Studies have demonstrated that root rot severity
66 can intensify over time, with the second year often marked by critical transformations in
67 rhizosphere microbial communities (Bi et al., 2023; Yang et al., 2023a). Furthermore, the
68 presence of pathogens has been linked to seasonal fluctuations in bamboo root microbiomes,
69 resulting in reduced bacterial richness (Li et al., 2023) c

70 Our investigation at the Hongya County Forest Farm in Sichuan Province revealed varying
71 degrees of *C. lanceolata* root rot severity across different seasons, suggesting a correlation
72 between environmental changes and rhizosphere microbial composition. To test this hypothesis,
73 we employed high-throughput sequencing to assess the structure and function of rhizosphere
74 microbial communities in *C. lanceolata* root rot during all four seasons. Additionally, we
75 measured changes in rhizosphere soil physicochemical properties to elucidate their influence
76 on *C. lanceolata* root rot and identify healthy rhizosphere microorganisms to enhance *C.*
77 *lanceolata*'s resistance to pathogens. This study aims to provide a theoretical foundation for
78 the biological control of *C. lanceolata* root rot.

79 **2. Material and methods**

80 **2.1 Soil sample collection**

81 Samples were collected from the State-owned Forest Farm in Hongya County, Meishan City,
82 Sichuan Province (102°49'-103°32' E, 29°24'-30°00' N). Rhizosphere soils from both healthy
83 (CK) and root rot diseased (RR) *C. lanceolata* were collected in mid-April (SP) for spring, mid-
84 July (SU) for summer, mid-October (F) for fall, and mid-January (W) for winter. Sampling was
85 conducted in the morning to minimize the effects of rainfall and sunlight. Four biological
86 replicates were collected for each group (SPCK, SPRR, SUCK, SURR, FCK, FRR, WCK, and
87 WRR). Soil samples were collected without roots and gently shaken. Root-adhered soils were
88 stored in sterile bags and snap-frozen at -80°C for subsequent DNA extraction. Shaken soil
89 samples were air-dried for the determination of soil physicochemical properties.

91 **2.2 Metagenome DNA extraction and shotgun sequencing**

92 Total microbial genomic DNA was extracted using the OMEGA Mag-Bind Soil DNA Kit
93 (M5635-02, Omega Bio-Tek, Norcross, GA, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions.

94 DNA quality and quantity were assessed using a Qubit 4.0 fluorometer (Invitrogen, USA) and
95 Qubit™ 1X dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Invitrogen, USA), respectively. Shotgun sequencing was
96 performed on the Illumina NovaSeq platform, where total metagenomic DNA was randomly
97 fragmented into short fragments, and insert fragment libraries of approximately 400bp were
98 constructed for paired-end sequencing.

99

100 **2.3 Data processing and bioinformatics analysis**

101 Raw sequencing reads were processed to obtain quality-filtered reads for further analysis. First,
102 sequencing adapters were removed from sequencing reads using Cutadapt (v1.2.1) (Martin,
103 2011). Secondly, low quality reads were trimmed using a sliding-window algorithm in FASTP
104 (Chen et al., 2018). Then, the reads were aligned to the genome of the *C. lanceolata* using
105 BMTagger (Rotmistrovsky and Agarwala, 2011) to remove host contamination. The obtained
106 reads after quality control were classified using Kraken2 (Wood et al., 2019) for the
107 metagenomic sequencing reads from each sample from the RefSeq-derived database, which
108 includes genomes from archaea, bacteria, viruses, and fungi.

109 The meta-large parameter of Megahit (v1.1.2) (Dinghua et al., 2015) was used to assemble each
110 sample. The generated contigs (longer than 300bp) were then clustered together and clustered
111 in "easiy-linclud" mode using mmseqs2 (Steinegger and Söding, 2017), with the sequence
112 identification threshold set to 0.95 and shorter contigs covered to 90%. Non-redundant contigs
113 were aligned to the NCBI-nt database in "taxonomic" mode via mmseqs2 (Steinegger and
114 Söding, 2017) to obtain the lowest common ancestor classification, and contigs assigned to
115 Viridiplantae or Metazoa were removed in subsequent analyses. Genes in the group were
116 predicted using MetaGeneMark (Zhu et al., 2010). The cluster module of the software
117 MMseqs2 was used to obtain the non-redundant protein sequence set according to the similarity
118 of 95% and the coverage of alignment region of 90% (the proportion of short sequences). To
119 assess the abundances of these genes, the high-quality reads from each sample were mapped
120 onto the predicted gene sequences using salmon (Rob et al., 2015) in the quasi-mapping-based
121 mode with "-meta -minScoreFraction=0.55 ", and the CPM (copy per kilobase per million
122 mapped reads) was used to normalize abundance values in metagenomes. The functionality of

123 the non-redundant genes were obtained by annotated using mmseqs2 (Steinegger and Söding,
124 2017) with the “search” mode against the protein databases of KEGG databases,
125 The Kruskal-Wallis test method was used to compare the difference between the two groups,
126 and the Benjamini-Hochberg method was used to control the False discovery rate (FDR). At
127 the same time, the fold difference relationship of each taxon between each sample (group) was
128 obtained, which was expressed as Log₁₀ (Fold_change_value). By default, taxa with adj.P <
129 0.05 were selected by default as species with significant abundance differences. Based on the
130 taxonomic and functional profiles of non-redundant genes, LEfSe (Linear discriminant analysis
131 effect size) was performed to detect differentially abundant taxa and functions across groups
132 using the default parameters (Segata et al., 2011). Beta diversity analysis was performed using
133 Bray-Curtis distance metrics (Bray and Curtis, 1957), and visual analysis was performed using
134 principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) (Ramette, 2007) to investigate the composition and
135 functional changes of microbial communities in the samples.

136

137 **2.4 Determination of soil physicochemical properties**

138 Soil pH, total organic carbon (TOC), total nitrogen (TN) and total phosphorus (TP) contents
139 were measured according to Chinese forestry standards(Li et al., 2020). The contents of
140 ammonium nitrogen (AMN) and nitrate nitrogen (NN) in soil were determined by indigo
141 colorimetry and ultraviolet spectrophotometer. 10 ± 0.05g of fresh soil was extracted with 50
142 mL 2 mol/L potassium chloride, and the content of NN was determined by ultraviolet
143 spectrophotometry correction factor method (the determination wavelength is: 220 nm and 275
144 nm), and AMN content was determined by an indigophenol blue-colorimetric method
145 (wavelength: 625 nm).

146

147 **2.5 Statistical analysis**

148 Statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, version 26.0
149 (IBMCorp., Armonk, N.Y., USA). One-way ANOVA was used for group comparisons, with
150 data presented as mean ± SD. Correlation analysis between soil physicochemical properties and
151 microbial community was conducted using the genescloud tools platform

152 (<https://www.genescloud.cn>).

153

154 **3. Results**

155 **3.1 Library sequencing data and gene prediction**

156 Sequencing yielded an average of 92,171,463 raw reads, with 89,939,222 clean reads obtained
157 after quality control, representing 97.58% of raw reads. The average base number per sample
158 was 13,917,890,998 bp before quality control, and 13,572,686,193 bp after. Following BBCMS
159 correction, read sequences were assembled into contigs, averaging 448,359 (Table S1).

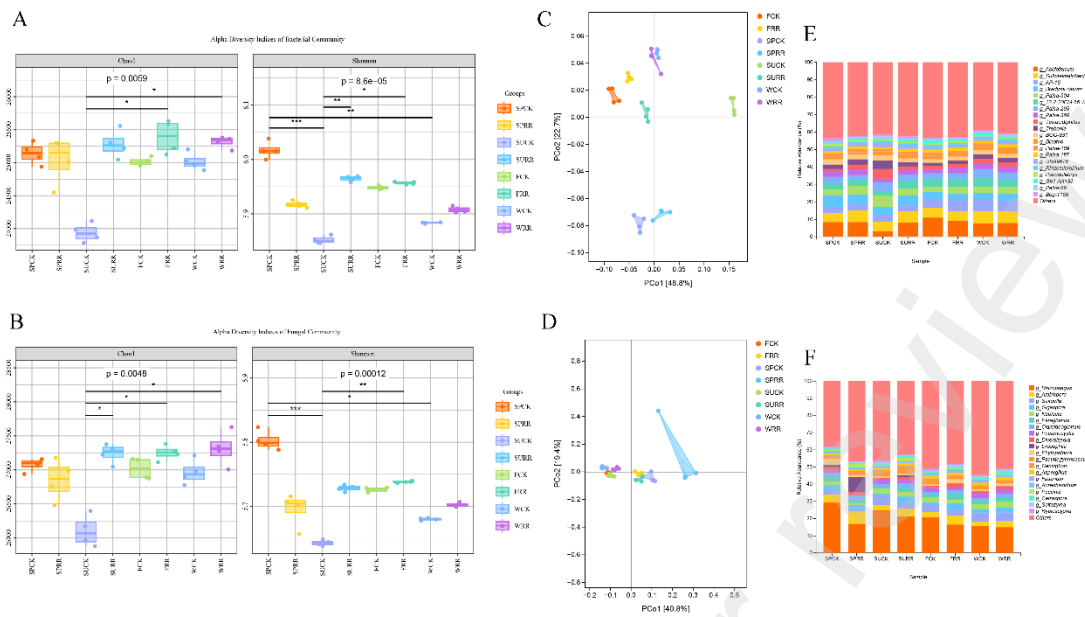
160

161 **3.2 Microbial diversity and community structure in the rhizosphere**

162 According to Chao1 and Shannon index, the diversity of bacterial and fungal communities in
163 rhizosphere soil was affected by seasons and diseases. We found that the richness of bacterial
164 and fungal communities in healthy rhizosphere soil was lower in summer than in other seasons,
165 and the Shannon index showed that SPCK was higher than SPRR, and CK in other seasons.
166 This indicated that rhizosphere soil contained rich and diverse microflora in spring (Fig 1A, B).
167 PCoA of beta diversity analysis was used to explore the differences and similarities among
168 samples. The results showed that bacterial communities of healthy rhizosphere and diseased
169 roots were far apart in different seasons (Fig 1C), indicating that root rot had a great influence
170 on rhizosphere bacterial community composition in different seasons, while the healthy
171 rhizosphere and root rot rhizosphere fungal communities were only far apart in fall. In spring,
172 summer, and winter, the fungal communities of healthy rhizosphere and root rot were close to
173 each other, indicating that the season had little effect on the fungal community (Fig 1D).

174 To characterize the distribution of bacteria and fungi in rhizosphere microbes, we performed an
175 analysis of microbial composition. For bacterial composition, *Acidoferrum* and
176 *Sulfotelmato bacter* were the dominant genera. *Acidoferrum* in FCK (10.84%) and
177 *Sulfotelmato bacter* in WCK (7.07%) were the most abundant species. Notably, in SUCK,
178 *Terracidiphilus* had a higher abundance than any other group, about twice as much (5.54%)
179 (Fig 1E). As for the composition of fungi, *Rhizophagus* and *Ambispora* were the dominant
180 genera. Among them, SPCK had the highest abundance of *Rhizophagus* (29.47%) and SPRR

181 had the highest abundance of *Ambispora* (7.36%) (Fig 1F).



182
 183 Fig 1. Diversity and composition of bacterial and fungal communities in the rhizosphere of root rot
 184 and healthy *C. lanceolata* during different seasons. (A). Chao1 and Shannon indices of rhizosphere bacterial
 185 community. (B). Chao1 and Shannon indices of fungal communities in the rhizosphere. (C). PCoA analysis
 186 of rhizosphere bacterial communities. (D) PCoA analysis of rhizosphere fungal communities. (E) Relative
 187 abundance of rhizosphere bacterial genera (Top20). (F) Relative abundance of rhizosphere fungal genera
 188 (Top20).

189
 190 **3.3 Differences in rhizosphere microbes**

191 The Kruskal-Wallis test method was used to compare each group to obtain the statistical
 192 analysis results of difference significance, and Top10 was used for mapping. The results
 193 showed that the top 10 differential genera in the samples were *Acidoferrum*, *Sulfotelmato bacter*,
 194 *Bradyrhizobium*, and *Terracidiphilus* as top differential bacterial genera, with *Acidoferrum*
 195 notably higher in fall and *Terracidiphilus* lower in spring (Fig 2A). The top 10 differential
 196 fungal genera have *Rhizophagus*, *Ambispora*, *Claroideoglomus*, and *Paraglomus* these
 197 arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF), *Rhizophagus* in the healthy rhizosphere in summer has
 198 high abundance, is significantly higher than the healthy rhizosphere in fall; The abundance of
 199 *Ambispora* was significantly lower in the healthy rhizosphere in winter than that in summer.
 200 *Paraglomus* had similar differences to *Ambispora*, with a lower abundance of health in winter

201 and also significantly lower than in the summer rhizosphere (Fig 2B).

202 A LEfSe analysis was used to compare the different species in each group and identify the

203 signature species. Rhizosphere biomarkers were also significantly affected by seasonal

204 variation, as observed in microbial diversity and composition. Figure S1 shows that rhizosphere

205 bacteria are abundant throughout the year, and there are many bacterial markers of rhizosphere

206 soil for root rot. However, fungal biomarkers were scarce and were not detected in rhizosphere

207 soils with root rot in summer and autumn (Fig S2).

208 Throughout the year, rhizosphere bacterial markers of root rot were much higher than those of

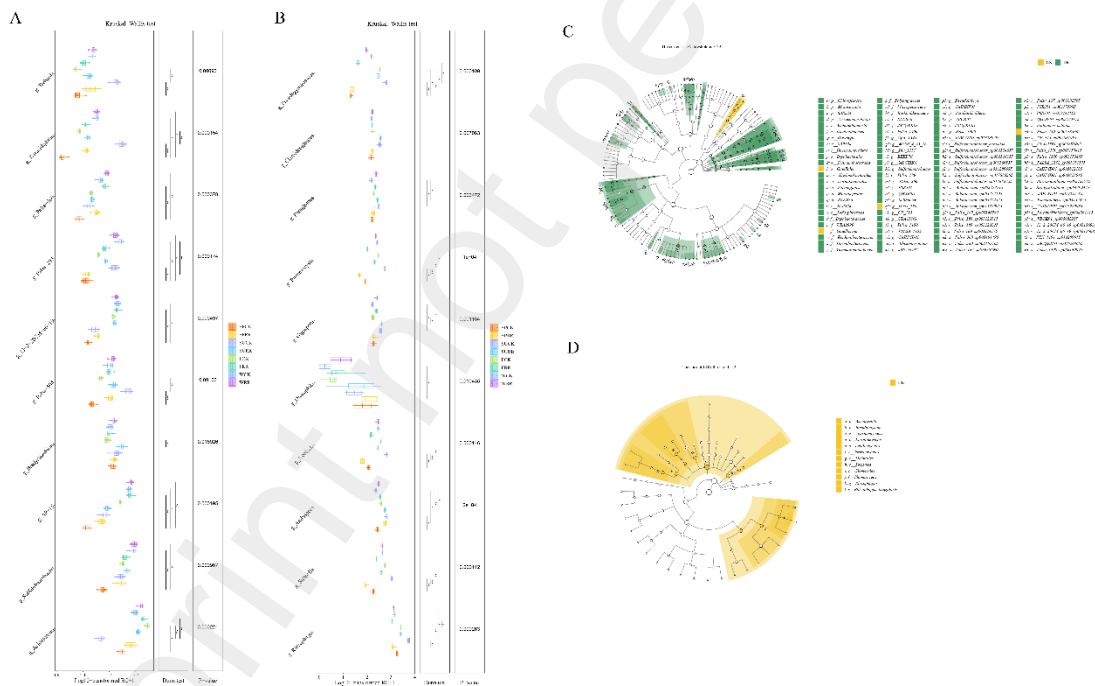
209 healthy rhizosphere, whereas rhizosphere fungal markers of root rot were not detected.

210 Rhizosphere bacterial markers of root rot included *Planctomycetota*, *Burkholderiaceae*,

211 *Polyangiales*, *Bryobacterales*, *Pedosphaerales*, *Ktedonobacteraceae* and others (Fig 2C).

212 Markers of healthy rhizosphere fungi included *Agaricomycetes*, *Pezizomycetes*, *Helotiales* and

213 *Rhizophagus* (Fig 2D).



214 Fig 2. Analysis of species differences. (A) Top 10 bacterial genera with differences. (B) Top 10 fungal genera

215 with differences. (C) Branching plots generated by LEfSe analysis show bacterial taxa with the highest

216 differential abundance enriched in the rhizosphere (LDA value ≥ 2) (D) Branching plots generated by LEfSe

217 analysis show fungal taxa with the highest differential abundance enriched in the rhizosphere (LDA value \geq

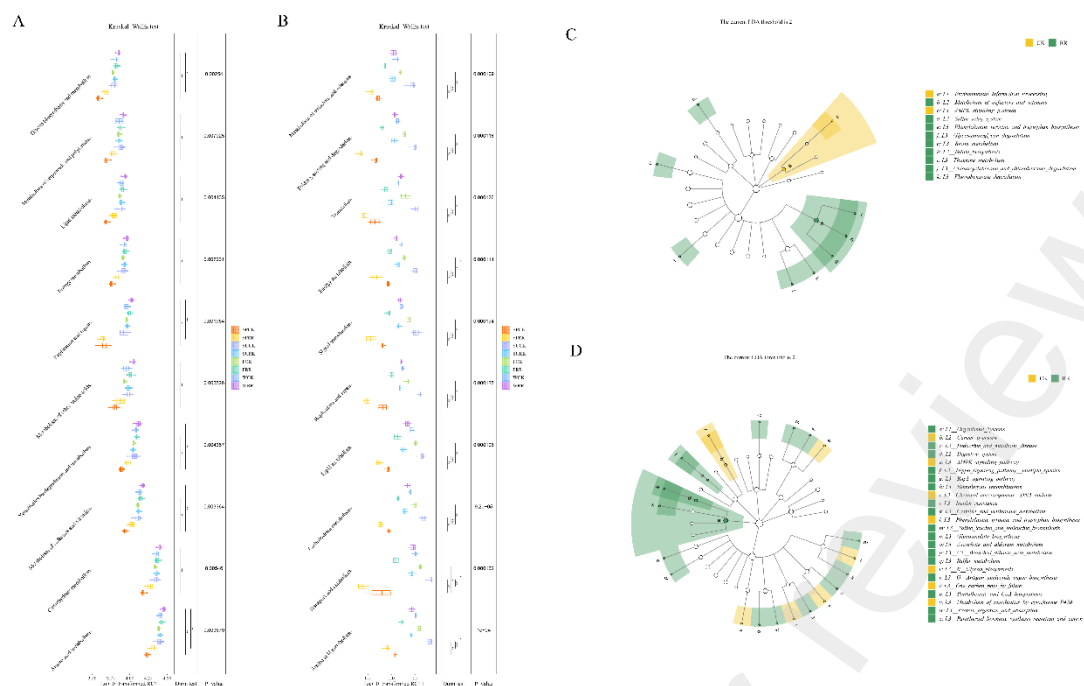
218 2).

219

220

221 **3.4 Metagenomic analysis of rhizosphere microbial functions**

222 Based on KEGG, the functions of bacteria and fungi in the rhizosphere soil of *C. lanceolata*
223 were defined. Lipid metabolism, Amino acid metabolism, Carbohydrate metabolism,
224 Metabolism of terpenoid and polyketide compounds of bacteria in the healthy rhizosphere soil
225 in winter was significantly higher than that in the healthy rhizosphere in spring (Fig 3A). The
226 functional changes in Carbohydrate metabolism, Lipid metabolism, Amino acid metabolism,
227 Energy metabolism, and Signal transduction of fungi in rhizosphere soil in the four seasons
228 were almost the same, and the levels of these metabolism in healthy rhizosphere soil in summer
229 were significantly higher than those in healthy rhizosphere soil in spring (Fig 3B). LEfSe
230 analysis showed that root rot caused changes in Biotin metabolism, Thiamine metabolism,
231 Glycosaminoglycan degradation, and Folate biosynthesis in rhizosphere soil bacteria (Fig 3C).
232 The Hippo signaling pathway, Rap1 signaling pathway, Sulfur metabolism and Glucosinolate
233 biosynthesis in rhizosphere soil fungi were also significantly changed (Fig 3D). In addition, we
234 found that the function of rhizosphere microbes was also affected by season. In spring, root rot
235 mainly affected rhizosphere functions such as Transport and catabolism, Carbohydrate
236 metabolism, Biosynthesis of some secondary metabolites, Amino acid metabolism, Plant
237 hormone signal transduction, and Plant pathogen interaction. In summer, root rot mainly
238 affected Cell growth and death, Signal transduction, RNA degradation, Cysteine and
239 methionine metabolism, and Porphyrin metabolism in the rhizosphere. In fall, root rot affected
240 Membrane transport, Polysaccharide biosynthesis, Energy metabolism, and Plant pathogen
241 interaction in rhizosphere. Finally, root rot affected Geraniol degradation, Ribosome
242 biosynthesis, and Galactose metabolism in the rhizosphere during winter (Fig S3 and S4).



243
 244 Fig 3. Analysis of KEGG functional differences. (A) prediction based on bacterial KEGG relative abundance
 245 (Top 10). (B) prediction based on fungal KEGG relative abundance (Top 10). (C) Branching plots generated
 246 by LEfSe analysis show KEGG functional groups enriched with the highest differential abundance for
 247 rhizosphere bacteria under LDA score (LDA value ≥ 2) (D) Branching plots generated by LEfSe analysis
 248 show KEGG functional groups enriched with the highest differential abundance for rhizosphere fungi under
 249 LDA score (LDA value ≥ 2).

250
 251 **3.5 Root rot affects soil physicochemical properties**

252 Table 1 shows that season and root rot significantly affected soil physicochemical properties.
 253 Rhizosphere soil of *C. lanceolata* was acidic throughout the year, and root rot would further
 254 reduce soil pH. Root rot increased soil TOC and TN values, which were significantly higher
 255 than those in the healthy rhizosphere soil. The contents of TOC, TN and TP were higher in
 256 summer and fall. Root rot significantly increased the contents of AMN and NN in winter, but
 257 decreased in summer. The content of NN in summer was significantly different from that in the
 258 healthy rhizosphere soil.

262 Table 1. Soil physicochemical properties

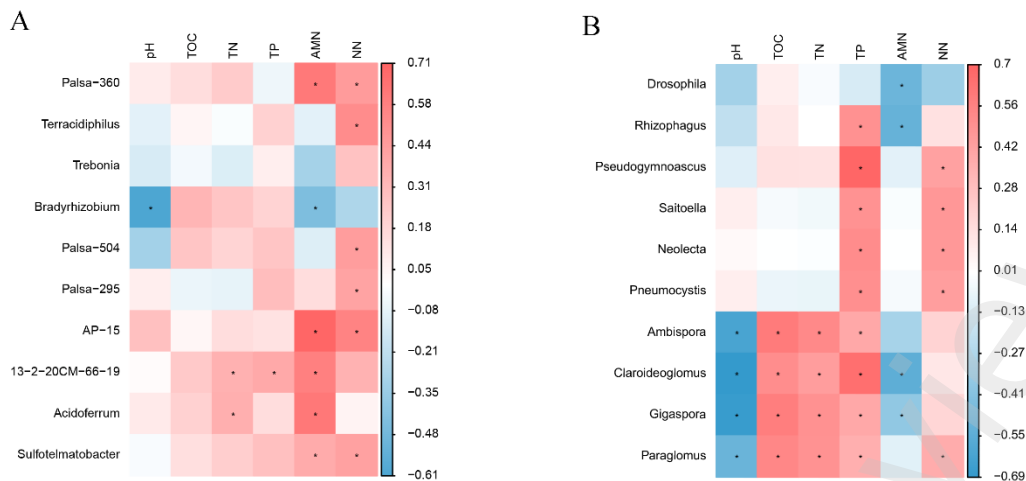
Sample	pH	TOC (g/kg)	TN(g/kg)	TP(g/kg)	AMN(mg/kg)	NN(mg/kg)
SPCK	4.0825±0.0877 ^b	33.5900±0.6364 ^d	2.7550±0.0968 ^c	0.2725±0.0320 ^c	4.2550±0.7683 ^c	15.1950±1.6032 ^c
SPRR	3.8675±0.0842 ^c	37.6900±0.3685 ^c	3.2425±0.0650 ^c	0.2875±0.0222 ^{dc}	5.2300±0.7671 ^{bc}	18.3975±0.5944 ^b
SUCK	3.8850±0.0823 ^c	37.3000±1.0451 ^c	3.0425±0.0655 ^d	0.3400±0.0216 ^c	4.1275±0.4282 ^c	22.9200±1.3456 ^a
SURR	3.3175±0.1056 ^d	44.6325±1.6702 ^a	3.8350±0.1085 ^a	0.4125±0.0171 ^a	4.1125±0.2266 ^c	18.1325±0.7568 ^b
FCK	4.2300±0.0600 ^a	36.7950±1.8716 ^c	3.2700±0.0852 ^c	0.3700±0.0141 ^b	7.0500±1.0075 ^a	22.1425±1.3861 ^a
FRR	3.9175±0.0499 ^c	42.0125±1.5714 ^b	3.5900±0.1068 ^b	0.3125±0.0126 ^{cd}	7.9525±0.9726 ^a	22.8900±1.2087 ^a
WCK	4.2425±0.0150 ^a	31.4050±1.4062 ^c	2.6175±0.1804 ^c	0.3325±0.0171 ^c	5.6600±0.7332 ^b	18.4250±0.4017 ^b
WRR	4.0650±0.0557 ^b	36.3625±0.5932 ^c	3.2075±0.0670 ^c	0.2825±0.0171 ^{dc}	6.9800±0.4474 ^a	22.2975±2.7972 ^a

263 ± before is mean (n = 4), ± after is standard deviation. Lowercase letters following numbers indicate
 264 significant differences.

265

266 3.6 Correlation between microbial communities and soil physicochemical properties

267 To observe the interactions between environmental factors and microbial communities, the top
 268 10 species with genus level differences were selected for correlation analysis with
 269 environmental factors. As shown in Figure 4A, AMN was significantly correlated with most
 270 bacteria in the rhizosphere, and was significantly negatively correlated with *Bradyrhizobium*,
 271 while significantly positively correlated with *Acidoferrum* and *Sulfotelmato bacter*.
 272 *Bradyrhizobium* was negatively correlated with pH. There was no significant correlation
 273 between TOC and the top 10 bacterial genera. TN was significantly positively correlated with
 274 *Acidoferrum*, and NN was significantly positively correlated with most bacteria. In addition,
 275 pH was negatively correlated with the genera *Paraglomus*, *Gigaspora*, *Claroideoglomus* and
 276 *Ambispora*. TOC and TN were significantly positively correlated with the four fungal genera.
 277 TP and NN showed significant positive correlations with most fungi, while AMN showed
 278 significant negative correlations with *Drosophila*, *Rhizophagus*, *Claroideoglomus* and
 279 *Gigaspora* (Fig 4B).



280

281 Fig 4. Correlation between environmental factors and microbial communities. (A) Correlation heatmap
 282 between environmental factors and top 10 differential bacterial genera. (B) Correlation heatmap between
 283 environmental factors and top 10 differential fungal genera. Red squares indicate positive correlations. Blue
 284 squares indicate negative correlations. "*" indicates a significant correlation at the 0.05 level.

285

286 4. Discussion

287 The interaction between host, pathogen and environment is known as the disease triangle of
 288 plants. The main factors related to plant pathogens include climate, landform, soil, plant
 289 community, etc. These factors can directly or indirectly affect plant pathogens (Makiola et al.,
 290 2021; Scholthof, 2007). A large number of studies have shown that seasonal variation has a
 291 strong regulatory effect on soil physicochemical properties and microorganisms (Li et al., 2020;
 292 Li et al., 2019; Onwuka, 2018; Upton et al., 2019). However, no studies have evaluated the
 293 seasonal changes in soil physicochemical properties and microbial communities in the
 294 rhizosphere of root rot of *C. lanceolata*. We found that rhizosphere soil pH was significantly
 295 lower and TOC and TN contents were significantly higher in diseased plants than in healthy
 296 rhizosphere soils. Previous study showed that soil pH decreased and TOC increased in
 297 *Psammosilene tunicoides* with root rot, and it was speculated that root rot may be related to
 298 reduced plant disease resistance due to lower pH in the soil, while excess TOC may lead to root
 299 rot (Yang et al., 2023b). Interestingly, Liu et al. (Liu et al., 2023) found that higher pH could
 300 improve the N uptake of *Aconitum carmichaeli* and the abundance of potentially beneficial

301 microorganisms in the soil, reducing the incidence of disease. However, in-depth investigations
302 of the relationship between N nutrients and host nutrition and disease severity have shown that
303 TN is associated with plant disease severity (Huber and Watson, 1974). Smiley et al. (Smiley
304 et al., 2016) reported that wheat infected with *Fusarium pseudograminearum* had lower levels
305 of root rot under low N conditions. These differences may be due to the differences in
306 environmental factors induced by root rot in different plant species. In this study, season was
307 an important factor affecting the physicochemical properties of the soil with root rot of *C.*
308 *lanceolata*, the pH value was lowest in summer and highest in winter, and the contents of C, N
309 and P were highest in summer, a result consistent with previous studies (Zhang et al., 2020).
310 The early summer is rainy, the environment in the soil is acidic, and the ventilation is poor,
311 which makes the roots suffocate, and therefore increases the incidence of root rot.

312 It has been reported that root rot changes the composition of plant rhizosphere microbial
313 communities (Guo et al., 2022; Liao et al., 2022; Tang et al., 2023a; Tang et al., 2023b; Wang
314 et al., 2024; Yang et al., 2023b). Here, we found that there was significant differences in
315 rhizosphere microbiota between root rot and healthy *C. lanceolata*, with root rot reducing the
316 abundance of *Rhizophagus* and increasing the abundance of *Acidoferrum* and
317 *Sulfotelmato bacter*. As an AM fungus, *Rhizophagus* can promote the resistance of host plants
318 to adverse environments (Oliveira et al., 2022; Romero-Munar et al., 2023). *Acidoferrum*
319 belongs to *Acidobacteriota*, and the fungi in *Acidobacteriota* usually have carbon and nitrogen
320 metabolism genes, so they play a full role in the cycling of organic matter and nitrogen in soil
321 (Kalam et al., 2020), *Sulfotelmato bacter* is a candidate genus *Acidobacteriota* proposed by
322 Hausmann et al. (Hausmann et al., 2018), which has a putative isosulfur metabolism.
323 *Acidoferrum* and *Sulfotelmato bacter* were more abundant in the root rot samples, suggesting
324 that plants may increase their carbon and nitrogen metabolism to maintain normal physiological
325 activities under the condition of root rot. *Acidoferrum* showed a significant positive correlation
326 with soil TN and AMN contents, and *Sulfotelmato bacter* was significantly positively with soil
327 AMN and NN contents, confirming this statement. In the present study, five AM fungi,
328 *Rhizophagus*, *Paraglomus*, *Gigaspora*, *Claroideoglomus* and *Ambispora* were significantly and

329 positively correlated with phosphorus content, this is in contrast to previous studies that
330 reported that P is a key limiting factor for plants to establish a symbiotic relationship with
331 mycorrhizal fungi (Breuillin et al., 2010; Nouri et al., 2014). Previous studies on the negative
332 effects of P on mycorrhizal fungi were conducted at high P content; however, due to the low
333 TP content in this study, it was not sufficient to inhibit mycorrhizal fungi. In addition, the
334 differences in rhizosphere microbes vary with season (Upton et al., 2019). In summer,
335 *Acidoferrum* was significantly increased in root rot samples compared to healthy samples. The
336 abundance of *Rhizophagus* and *Claroideoglossum* was higher in summer, and *Rhizophagus* did
337 not differ significantly between healthy and diseased samples in winter. However, in spring and
338 winter, disease increases the relative abundance of *Ambispora*, which is also one of the AMF.
339 When attacked by pathogens or insects, plants are able to recruit some AM fungi and enhance
340 microbial activity, thereby inhibiting rhizosphere pathogens (Mendes et al., 2013). The different
341 changes of *Ambispora* and *Rhizophagus* may be due to the inconsistent roles of different types
342 of AMF when plants are under biotic stress.

343 Furthermore, KEGG enrichment analysis showed that root rot affected rhizosphere microbial
344 community function and significantly increased the level of Biotin metabolism in rhizosphere.
345 Biotin (vitamin H or biotin) belongs to a class of sulfur-containing fatty acid derivatives with a
346 seven-carbon atom skeleton. In organisms, biotin mostly exists in the form of protein
347 modification and participates in a series of important metabolic processes including sugars,
348 proteins and fatty acids. From the perspective of energy consumption, biotin is also a kind of
349 small biomolecules with high energy consumption, so its synthesis pathway is usually carefully
350 regulated (Zhang et al., 2021). In recent years, biotin has been identified as a limiting/trophic
351 virulence factor (Feng et al., 2015; Feng et al., 2014), therefore, the biotin metabolism of
352 pathogenic bacteria is particularly important for their pathogenic processes. It is worth
353 mentioning that root rot enhanced plant-pathogen interactions in spring and fall. In the co-
354 evolution of host-microbe interactions, pathogens acquired the ability to deliver effector
355 proteins to plant cells to suppress the primary immune response (PTI), allowing pathogen
356 growth. In response to the delivery of pathogen effector proteins, plant-acquired surveillance

357 proteins (R proteins) are used to directly or indirectly monitor the presence of pathogen effector
358 proteins (Chisholm et al., 2006). During these two seasons, *C. lanceolata* was able to increase
359 its resistance to pathogens through the regulation of rhizosphere microorganisms, resulting in a
360 low level of root rot.

361 In summary, we analyzed the changes of rhizosphere microbial community and soil
362 physicochemical properties under the four seasons of *C. lanceolata* root rot. Root rot decreased
363 the relative abundance of beneficial microorganisms such as *Rhizophagus*, increased the
364 relative abundance of some bacterial genera in *Acidobacteriota*, and made the soil environment
365 acidic. The increases of TOC and TN contents enhanced carbon and nitrogen metabolism and
366 increased the level of disease, especially in summer. These findings provide new ideas for the
367 effective use of plant microecological control measures to control root rot of *C. lanceolata*.

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369

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377 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

378 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

379 **Data statement**

380 All raw sequences were deposited in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive under accession

381 number PRJNA1104786.

382 **Author contributions**

383 **Xiaokang Dai:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Funding acquisition, Writing -

384 Original Draft. **Yuqing Dong:** Data curation, Formal analysis, Writing- Original draft.

385 **Zebang Chen:** Resources, Visualization. **Shuying Li:** Supervision, Funding acquisition.

386 **Josep Penuelas:** Funding acquisition, Writing - Review & Editing. **Tianhui Zhu:** Data

387 curation, Writing - Review & Editing.

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