

1 **Metabolomics and microbiome reveal impacts of rhizosphere metabolites on alfalfa**
2 **continuous cropping**

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12 **Abstract**

13 Alfalfa long-term continuous cropping (CC) can pose a serious threat to alfalfa production. However, the
14 mechanism of alfalfa CC obstacle is unclear as of today. In this study, we determined physico-chemical property,
15 microbial population structure, and metabolite differences of alfalfa rhizosphere soils with CC for 1, 7, and
16 14-years based on analysis of metabolomics and microbiomics. Shifts of functional microorganisms in
17 rhizosphere soil were analyzed, key metabolites and their effects on alfalfa seeds, seedlings and root rot
18 pathogens were assessed. Based on analysis, p-coumaric acid and ferulic acid on alfalfa seed and seedling
19 growth and root rot pathogens were basically consistent with the influence of CC obstacles in the field. With
20 the increase of CC years, the microbial community in soils changed from fungal to bacterial, and beneficial
21 microorganisms decreased with the increase of CC years, which echoed the performance of alfalfa CC
22 obstacles. The autotoxicity of p-coumaric acid was the strongest. This study fully proved that the continuous
23 accumulation of autotoxic substances in alfalfa rhizosphere was the key factor causing alfalfa CC obstacles.

24

25 **Keywords:** Alfalfa continuous cropping obstacle/ Root rot/ Metabolomics/ Microbiomics/ Autotoxic
26 substances

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29 **Introduction**

30 Alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.), also called lucerne or purple medic, is a perennial, clover-like, leguminous plant
31 of the pea family (Fabaceae). It is widely grown primarily for hay, pasturage and silage in the United States,
32 Europe and Asia (Graham & Vance, 2003) and is the main animal feed. The Ministry of Agriculture of the
33 People's Republic of China reported that cultivated area of alfalfa in China was 4.7 million ha with a
34 production of 32.17 million tons from the end of 2015 to 2017. Among them, the commercial alfalfa planting
35 area was 0.43 million ha, and the high-quality alfalfa planting area was 0.21 million ha with a production of
36 1.8 million tons. It was anticipated that the planting area of high-quality alfalfa in China will increase by 0.2
37 million ha by 2020 with a production of 3.6 million tons. However, with the continuous expansion of alfalfa
38 planting area, alfalfa production capacity decreased year by year in fields continuously planted for more than 4

39 years. Reduced production capacity was reflected in that root activity declined gradually, seed germination rate
40 decreased seriously, root rot incidence increased year by year, and it was difficult to survive resowing or
41 replanting (Rong et al, 2016) This phenomenon is a typical continuous cropping (CC) obstacle of alfalfa.

42 There are two main explanations on the formation of CC obstacles of alfalfa in the literature. The first
43 viewpoint is that alfalfa is a crop with deep root system and high water and fertilizer consumption. After
44 continuous growth for many years, it will lead to soil water and fertilizer deficit, which causes a large area
45 decline of alfalfa growth (Wu et al, 2015; Molero et al, 2019). Li et al. (2010) and Xia et al. (2015) also
46 believed that CC of alfalfa led to deterioration of soil physical and chemical properties that are difficult to
47 restore. However, other scholars hold different points of view. Li et al. (2010) found that planting alfalfa in the
48 same land for more than 10 years could lead to serious land degradation and significant decline of alfalfa yield
49 in the Loess Plateau. Viliana & Ognyan (2015) stated that certain numbers of roots would disappear after each
50 harvest in the CC process of alfalfa, which could provide organic materials for the soil and increase soil
51 organic matter contents. Jiang et al. (2007) reported that soil quality deteriorated but alfalfa yield increased in
52 the first nine years, while soil quality tended to recover but alfalfa yield decreased in the following years. Our
53 field studies also indicated that CC obstacle still occurred even if fertilizers and water were sufficient (Li, Y.
54 G., unpublished). These studies demonstrated that soil moisture and fertility were not the primary factors
55 causing the problems in alfalfa production, such as slow seed germination, delayed returning green, poor
56 growth, yield and quality decline, and severe root rot in CC for more than 4 years.

57 Another explanation is that the continuous accumulation of autotoxic allelochemicals causes CC obstacle of
58 alfalfa. Allelopathy is defined as the direct/indirect harmful/beneficial effect via the production of chemical
59 compounds that escape into the environment (Rice, 1984). Allelopathy is a biological phenomenon by which
60 an organism produces one or more biochemical substances that influence the germination, growth, survival,
61 and reproduction of other organisms in the same community (Zuo et al, 2015). It was reported that alfalfa
62 produced a number of useful phytochemicals, including soyasapogenol glycoside B (Wyman-Simpson et al,
63 1991), medicarpin and isoflavonoid (Miller, 1988), chlorogenic acid, ferulic acid, p-hydroxybenzoic acid,
64 caffeic acid, coumarin, ferulic acid (Rong et al, 2016; Abdul-Rahman & Habib, 1989), amic acid,
65 hydroxybenzoic acid, coumarin and tricinin (Zheng et al, 2018). These phenolic acids had inhibitory effects on

66 plant seedlings, plant photosynthesis and respiration (John & Sarada, 2012; Li et al, 2012; Zhang et al, 2016;
67 Biumal et al, 2019). Chung et al. (2000) reported that chlorogenic acid was involved in alfalfa autotoxicity.
68 Rong et al. (2016) found that contents of coumarin, ferulic acid, chlorogenic acid and caffeic acid varied in 18
69 alfalfa varieties, with coumarin and chlorogenic acid being significantly higher than ferulic acid and caffeic
70 acid. In other studies, phenolic acid such as p-coumaric acid inhibited photosynthesis and enzymatic activities
71 of PG1, CG6PDH, AID and OPPP, which was detrimental to plant and root growth and altered morphological
72 and physical structures of alfalfa roots (Zheng et al, 2018; Rong, 2017). These studies suggested that
73 continuous accumulation of autotoxic substances in alfalfa rhizosphere might be the primary factor causing
74 alfalfa CC obstacle; however, direct evidence supporting the theory is lacking.

75 Methods available for studying CC obstacle, include multi-omics, such as high throughput isolation
76 (culturomics), analyzing structural and functional changes of plant rhizosphere microorganisms
77 (microbiomics), targeting the taxonomic composition (metabarcoding), addressing the metabolic potential
78 (metabarcoding of functional genes, metagenomics), and analyzing components of plant rhizosphere exudates
79 (metabolomics). Through metabolomics, we can quickly understand the metabolic changes of organisms under
80 the stimulation of different biological factors and environmental factors, search for biomarkers with the
81 purpose of identifying metabolites related to various diseases and environmental exposure (Nicholson &
82 Lindon, 2008, Liu et al, 2018). Through microbiomics, we can have a comprehensive understanding that plant
83 surfaces and interior parts are populated by myriads of bacteria, fungi and microbes from other kingdoms
84 which can have considerable effects on plant growth, disease resistance, abiotic stress tolerance and nutrient
85 uptake (Xie et al, 2019). In CC systems, the same crop root secretions may not only affect plant growth, but
86 also lead to simpler microbial community structure, which may negatively affect agroecosystems especially in
87 terms of the aggravation of pathogens and soil-borne fungi. Plant-microbial interactions can have positive or
88 negative effects on plant growth through a variety of mechanisms. Root exudates are one of the most important
89 chemical signals in determining whether the interactions are benign or harmful (Bais et al, 2006). Identification
90 of major differences in root exudates may be helpful in understanding changes of rhizosphere microbial
91 community structure (Brown et al, 2020). The combination of metabolomics and microbiomics can be a
92 powerful tool to analyze the mechanism of CC obstacles. Lin et al. (Lin et al, 2015) reported that the

93 accumulation of allelochemicals in rhizosphere soil increased harmful microorganisms and decreased
94 beneficial microorganisms, resulting in imbalance of microbial community structure and degradation of soil
95 ecological function. Zhao et al. (2018) indicated that continuous coffee cultivation reduced potentially
96 beneficial microbes in soil. Li et al. (2014b) showed that peanut root exudates promoted the growth of root rot
97 pathogens *Fusarium oxysporum* and *Phoma* sp. and inhibited the growth of beneficial bacteria, such as
98 *Mortierella elonate* and *Trichoderma* sp. However, the advanced metabolomics and microbiomics technologies
99 have not been used in research of CC obstacles of alfalfa to elucidate mechanisms involved in the complex
100 disease system.

101 The objectives of this research were: 1) to determine the role of continuously accumulation of autotoxic
102 substances in CC obstacle of alfalfa; 2) to identify key metabolites causing CC obstacle and determine their
103 effects on alfalfa seed germination and seedling growth; and 3) to evaluate the effects of key metabolites on
104 root rot pathogens and diseases and rhizosphere microecology.

105

106 **Results**

107 **Soil nutrients and enzyme activities**

108 Most of the nutrient contents tested in the 7 and 14-year rhizosphere soils were lower than the 1-year
109 rhizosphere soil, including N, P, K, B, Fe, Mn, and Mg, but Cu and Zn did not decrease with the increase of
110 CC years (Table 1). There were significant differences in soil enzyme activities in the rhizosphere soils of
111 different cropping years ($P < 0.05$, Fig. 1). Polyphenol oxidase, neutral phosphatase and sucrase activities
112 decreased with the increase of CC years, while urease increased in 7-year and decreased in 14-year rhizosphere
113 soils.

114

115 **Soil extracts from alfalfa rhizosphere soil on alfalfa growth**

116 When alfalfa seeds were treated with alfalfa rhizosphere soil extracts, the germination rate in treatment with
117 rhizosphere soil extract of alfalfa planted for 1 year was equivalent to the nontreated control, which was
118 significantly higher than those planted for 7 and 14 years ($P < 0.05$, Fig. 2 A and C). Height of alfalfa seedlings
119 in the 1-year treatment, but not the 7 and 14-year treatments, was significantly greater than the control (Fig. 2

120 *B* and *D*). However, root length of the 1, 7 and 14-year treatments was not significantly different from the
121 control.

122

123 **Metabolomics analysis of alfalfa rhizosphere soils**

124 The peak with detection rate below 50% of RSD >30% was removed from the QC samples (Dunn et al, 2011).
125 Principle Component Analysis (PCA) and least squares-discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) were performed. A
126 total of 161 different metabolic compounds were identified from rhizosphere soils of the 1, 7, and 14-year
127 treatments (Fig. 3), which were classified according to their chemical property as sugar compounds (26), sugar
128 acids (3), sugar alcohols (6), short-chain organic acids (16), long-chain organic acids (31), nucleotides (12),
129 amino acids (14), esters (6), alcohols (16), and others (31). There were significant differences in the peak
130 values of 58 metabolites from the rhizosphere soils. Combining VIP > 1 and independent sample T test ($P <$
131 0.05), there were 52 differential metabolites down-regulated and 6 differential metabolites up-regulated (Table
132 S1). Among them, vanillic acid, p-hydroxybenzoic acid, ferulic acid, and p-coumaric acid increased
133 significantly with the increase of CC years, and accumulation of p-hydroxybenzoic acid and p-coumaric acid
134 was more significant with the increase of alfalfa CC years (Table 2).

135 The effects of four phenolic acids on alfalfa plant were evaluated at concentrations of 10, 25, 50 and 100
136 $\mu\text{g/mL}$. Inhibitory effect on seed germination and plant growth was as follows: p-coumaric acid > ferulic
137 acid > vanillic acid and p-hydroxybenzoic acid, with higher concentrations having greater inhibition than a
138 lower concentration (Fig. 4). P-coumaric acid reduced root length significantly at all concentrations, compared
139 to the control, and the other three compounds reduced root length significantly at higher concentrations (Fig. 4
140 *E-H*). Higher concentrations of ferulic acid and p-hydroxybenzoic acid reduced plant height significantly
141 compared to the control, but vanillic acid did not reduce plant height at all concentrations (Fig. 4*E*).

142

143 **Key metabolites from alfalfa rhizosphere soils on alfalfa root rot pathogens**

144 Three fungal pathogens *Fusarium trinctum*, *F. acuminatum* and *F. oxysporum* that cause alfalfa root rot were
145 used to assess the relationship between metabolites of alfalfa rhizosphere and root rot of alfalfa. Extracts of
146 rhizosphere soil in 14-year alfalfa CC significantly enhanced mycelial growth of *F. trinctum*, *F. acuminatum*

147 and *F. oxysporum* when used at 1%, 5% and 10% compared to 1-year and the water control (Fig. 5). Extracts
148 of rhizosphere soil in 7-year alfalfa CC also enhanced mycelial growth of the pathogens significantly when
149 used at higher concentrations. The effects of four phenolic acids on mycelial growth of the fungal pathogens
150 were evaluated. They enhanced mycelial growth with effects in the following order: p-coumaric acid > ferulic
151 acid > vanillic acid > p-hydroxybenzoic acid (Fig. 6). Higher concentrations of the phenolic acids had greater
152 effects in enhancing mycelial growth of the fungal pathogens. When tested at 10, 25, 50 and 100 µg/mL, the
153 four phenolic acids at higher concentrations also significantly enhanced conidial germination and production of
154 *F. acuminatum* and *F. oxysporum* (Fig. 7). Among the phenolic acids, p-coumaric acid had the greatest
155 promoting effect on conidial germination and production. When inoculated with *F. trinctum*, *F. acuminatum*
156 and *F. oxysporum* in greenhouse studies, severity of alfalfa root rot treated by p-coumaric acid increased
157 significantly with 50 µg/mL having greater effect than 10 µg/mL (Fig. 8). Growth and development of
158 seedlings were also suppressed by p-coumaric acid.

159

160 **Alfalfa CC on alfalfa rhizosphere microecology**

161 Microbial community sequences of the rhizosphere soil samples were analyzed on Illumina Miseq PE300
162 platform and divided by OTUs. Principle Component Analysis (PCoA) based on detected OTUs showed that
163 there were significant differences in community composition of the rhizosphere soils, and Anova analysis
164 showed that there were significant differences among groups ($P < 0.05$, Fig. 9 *D1* and *E1*). The diversity of
165 bacterial community was high and the number of OTUs decreased with the CC increase (Fig. 9 *D2*). The
166 diversity of bacterial community of 14-year CC was the lowest, while the diversity of fungal community of
167 1-year cropping was the lowest (Fig. 9 *E2*). Small changes in root exudates can lead to changes in soil
168 microbial structure (Ling et al, 2011). This change could lead to soil microecological damage as well as disease
169 and pest problems (Liu et al, 2020). These results seem to indicate that CC can change the microbial
170 composition of soil from bacterial-dominated to fungal-dominated (Lin et al, 2015).

171 Most OTUs of bacteria were *Actinobacteria* (35.55%, 37.54%, and 40.28% for 1-year, 7-year and 14 year
172 CC respectively), *Acidobacteria* (24.07%, 18.49%, and 19.53% for 1-year, 7-year and 14-year) and
173 *Proteobacteria*, and a small proportion belonged to *Gemmatimonadetes*, *Verrucinobacter*, *Nitrospiraceae*, and

174 *Bacteroidetes* (Fig. 10D). *Bacillus* is considered an important soil conditioner and can be used as a biological
175 control agent (Li et al., 2018). In our present study, the abundance of *Bacillus* decreased in years and then
176 increased in 14 years. Most OTUs of fungi belonged to *Ascomycota* (56.14%, 65.57%, and 73.72% for 1, 7,
177 and 14-year CC, respectively), *Basidiomycota*, *Mortierellomycota*, *Glomeromycota*, and *Chytridiomycota* (Fig.
178 10E).

179

180 **P-coumaric acid on rhizosphere microbial communities**

181 In order to verify the correlation between microbial population changes and metabolites secreted in the
182 rhizosphere, alfalfa rhizosphere soil was treated with p-coumaric acid, the most influential metabolite secreted
183 by alfalfa. The results showed that significant changes occurred in the bacterial and fungal communities
184 (Fig.11 *DI* and *EI*). The number of OTU in bacterial and fungal communities decreased when treated with 10
185 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ p-coumaric acid but increased when treated with 50 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ p-coumaric acid. The number of OTU in
186 soil bacterial community treated with p-coumaric acid was less than that of the control (Fig.11 *D2* and *E2*).
187 The biodiversity of bacterial community was the highest when treated with 10 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ of p-coumaric acid, the
188 lowest with 50 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, and the diversity of soil fungal community increased gradually with the increase of
189 p-coumaric acid concentration, which was consistent with the previous results of continuous cropping.
190 However, the number of microorganisms in alfalfa rhizosphere soil in the pots treated with p-coumaric acid
191 was lower than that in the field.

192 Analysis of microbial species and functions indicated that the *Gemmatimonadetes* decreased with increasing
193 concentration of p-coumaric acid (Fig.12D). The relative abundance of bacterial species decreased to different
194 degrees, with 8 main bacterial species in the top 20 species showing a decreasing trend, 6 bacterial groups
195 showing the trend of decreasing when treated with 10 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ p-coumaric acid and increasing with 50 $\mu\text{g/mL}$,
196 and 5 groups of bacteria showing the trend of increasing with 10 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ and decreasing with 50 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (Fig.
197 12F). *Sphingomonas* increased with the addition of p-coumaric acid, which was consistent with the
198 experimental results described above. *Sphingomonas* and *Gemmatimonas* were related to nitrogen metabolism
199 and transformation, as well as the change of $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ and N_2O contents (Nathanae et al, 2009; Shen et al,2014,
200 Li et al, 2017). *Candidatus Solibacter* is able to decompose organic matter, and the results showed it decreased

201 with the increase of p-coumaric acid concentration (Zak et al, 1996). *Bryobacter* promoted soil carbon cycle
202 (Li et al, 2012), which showed a trend of increasing at first and then decreasing, and was lower in the
203 p-coumaric acid treatment (50 µg/mL) than the control soil (Fig.12E).

204 **Discussion**

205 The soil enzyme is a key criterion for evaluating different residue covering approaches, as it is an important
206 indicator of soil quality and function. Sucrase can reflect the conversion ability of organic carbon (Cantarella et
207 al, 2018). As the CC years increase, the conversion of organic carbon gradually decreases, which is consistent
208 with studies of Liu et al. (2017). Soil urease reflects the transformation ability of soil organic nitrogen to
209 available nitrogen and the supply ability of soil inorganic nitrogen (Tawaraya et al, 2014). Phosphatase can
210 catalyze the hydrolysis of soil monophosphate to form inorganic phosphorus, which can be absorbed by plants,
211 and soil phosphatase activity can be used to characterize the state of soil phosphate (Hu et al, 2015). Our
212 present study indicated that the activity of soil phosphatase transformation decreased with the increase of CC
213 years. In the meantime, the content of phosphorus in soil decreased with the increase of CC years. Soil catalase
214 activity indicates its ability to remove the toxicity of hydrogen peroxide, which could reflect soil quality and
215 the total metabolic activity of soil microorganisms (Zhang et al, 2012). Overall, soil quality became worse with
216 the increase of CC years of alfalfa.

217 Development of alfalfa seedlings needs the support of external nutrition. In the study plant height and root
218 length from seeds treated with rhizosphere soil extracts decreased with the increase of CC years, which might
219 be because soil nutrient condition gradually became worse. However, theoretically nutrition for seed
220 germination is provided by the nutrition stored by the seed itself and there is little need for extra nutrition. The
221 richness of soil nutrients only affects the growth of seedlings after germination but does not affect seed
222 germination rate (Meng et al, 2006). Our present study provides two evidences that do not support the
223 view that the main factors of alfalfa CC obstacle were the lack of soil nutrients. One was that seed germination
224 does not need external nutrients, and at least the germination rate of alfalfa seeds treated by soil extracts from
225 the 1, 7, and 14-year CC should be similar to that of the water treatment control. However, it is interesting that
226 seed germination rate decreased significantly with the increase of CC years. Another evidence was that
227 nutrients in the soil extracts from the three alfalfa cropping years were richer than the water control. In theory

228 the soil extracts of the three cropping years should have significant effects on the growth of alfalfa seedlings
229 compared to the control. However, our results showed that the effects of soil extracts from CC for 7 and 14
230 years on seedling growth were similar to that of the control. These results indicated that lack of nutrients in
231 alfalfa rhizosphere soil was not the key factor resulting in alfalfa CC obstacles.

232 As our results, the accumulation of phenolic acids in the soil after CC significantly affects the rhizosphere
233 ecosystem, for instance, by inducing changes in microbial populations, soil enzyme activity and nutrient
234 cycling (Halvorson et al, 2009; Chen et al, 2020). Many perennial and annual crop species are threatened by
235 CC problems associated with reduced plant growth and vigor as well as reduced crop yields and quality (Chen
236 et al, 2012; Li et al, 2018; Li & Liu, 2018). In fact, previous studies have shown that phenolic acids are a major
237 secondary metabolite of CC disorder (Muscolo & Sidari, 2006). In studies on cucumber, strawberry, tobacco
238 and Rehmannia, soils continuously planted were found to contain self-toxic substances, phenolic acid, which
239 repressed growth of the same plant (Li et al, 2012; Wu et al, 2009; Chen et al, 2011; Li et al, 2015b). With the
240 extension of CC years, the concentration of phenolic acid in the soil increased gradually (Huang et al, 2013).
241 Qu and Wang (Qu & Wang, 2008) reported that two phenolic acids from soybean root exudates,
242 2,4-di-tert-butylphenol and vanillic acid, had significant negative effect on microbial communities and soybean
243 monoculture. Li et al. (2012) also found that the extracts from rhizosphere soil of Ginseng CC had significant
244 inhibition allelopathy on the growth of radicle. These are consistent with our findings about the inhibitory
245 effects of the phenolic acids on alfalfa. With the increase of alfalfa CC years, the contents of four phenolic
246 acids (vanillic acid, p-hydroxybenzoic acid, ferulic acid and p-coumaric acid) increased significantly (Table 2).
247 Therefore, we thought that the occurrence of alfalfa CC obstacle may be related to the phenolic acids.

248 Crop roots respond to pathogen infections by changing the amount and composition of root exudates
249 (Lanoue et al, 2010). Studies showed that cucumber CC usually led to the accumulation of soil-borne
250 pathogens such as *Fusarium* spp. (Zhou & Wu, 2012). In alfalfa CC, we also found that root rot caused by
251 diverse pathogens increased with the increase of alfalfa CC years. Wu et al. (2015) reported that a mixture of
252 phenolic acids promoted the growth of *F. oxysporum* hyphae, spore formation and production. Zhou et al.
253 (2012) indicated that the amount of p-coumaric acid from cucumber could increase the number and population
254 density of *F. oxysporum* in soil and disease incidence in the field. A number of studies also demonstrated that

255 CC significantly increased levels of fungal pathogens causing root diseases of *Rehmannia glutinosa*, soybean
256 and cucumber (Wu et al, 2015; Guo et al, 2011; Zhou & Wu, 2012a). These studies are in agreement with our
257 research that alfalfa root rot was getting more severe with the increase of CC years. Our present study further
258 confirmed that metabolites secreted by alfalfa rhizosphere, such as p-coumaric acid, had strong effects on
259 alfalfa root rot and may be the key factor of alfalfa CC obstacle.

260 Soil bacteria are responsible for decomposing organic matter into inorganic matter and thus maintaining soil
261 fertility, so we did a differential analysis of soil bacterial flora for different years of CC (Fig. 10F). The results
262 show that *Gaiella*, *Pseudonocarida*, *Mycobacterium* and *Bradyrhizobium* in the soil samples increased
263 gradually with the increase of CC years, and *Solirubrobacter* decreased with the increase of CC years. The
264 relative abundance of *Sphingomonas* was less than 1% in 1-year and more than 1.4% in 14-year treatments,
265 showing an increase with CC. Other studies have shown that *Sphingomonas* was a nutrient-poor
266 nanobacterium, which could adapt to heterotrophic growth under conditions of nutrient depletion (Williams et
267 al, 2009; Kämpfer et al, 2002; Pooja et al, 2010). In this paper, the increase of *Sphingomonas* indicates that
268 after 14 years of continuous cultivation, the rhizosphere soil presented a state of nutrient depletion. This is
269 consistent with the results of Chen et al. (2020). The relative abundance of bacteria RB41 was higher than
270 7.2% in 14 years of CC, which was higher than in 1 and 7-years. The acid bacteria may play an important role
271 in remaining the metabolism of soil under long-term low nutrient stress, and could degrade the polymer of
272 plant residues (Aislabie et al, 2006; Fan et al, 2018). *Bradyrhizobium* is a diazotrophic bacterium in soil, which
273 plays an important role in nodule formation, ammonia production and nitrogen fixation symbiosis in legume
274 roots (Masuda et al, 2016; Shiro et al, 2016; Saeki et al, 2017; Siqueira et al, 2017). The difference of relative
275 abundance of *Bradyrhizobium* in three different CC years was significant, which was higher in 14-year CC
276 than in 1-year. Two fungi *Gibberella* and *Metarhizium* were 11.5% in soil after one year of CC and 1-2% after
277 14 years of CC. In the CC process, the bacterial community in soil decreased significantly.

278 It appeared that the change of alfalfa rhizosphere microbial communities treated with p-coumaric acid was
279 basically consistent with that of alfalfa CC obstacle. There were some differences between results in the potted
280 alfalfa study and the actual field conditions, which was probably due to other secondary autotoxic substances.
281 Overall, alfalfa CC had an impact on soil microbial communities, and the accumulation of autotoxins in

282 rhizosphere soils increased harmful microorganisms and decreased beneficial microorganisms (such as
283 *Gemmatimonadetes* and *Sphingomonas et al*), resulting in imbalance of microbial community and degradation
284 of soil ecological function.

285 And the results of the four phenolic acid treated seeds and pathogens were similar to those treated by soil
286 extracts. The occurrence of CC obstacle was directly related to the four phenolic acids secreted by alfalfa
287 rhizosphere. Among them, the effects of ferulic acid and p-coumaric acid on alfalfa seed germination and
288 mycelium growth were significant. The effects of p-coumaric acid on alfalfa seedling development were
289 obvious, and the effects of ferulic acid on spore production and germination of pathogenic fungi causing alfalfa
290 root rot were significant. Bi et al. (2010) reported that nine phenolic acids, such as p-hydroxybenzoic acid,
291 coumaric acid, and ferulic acid, were detected in commercially grown Ginseng rhizosphere soils, which could
292 inhibit the growth of radicles and buds. Zhou & Wu (2012a) found p-coumaric acid, an autotoxin of cucumber,
293 increased *F. oxysporum* f. sp. *cucumerinum* population densities in soil and the severity of Fusarium wilt under
294 field conditions. Wu et al. (2015) indicated that phenolic acid mixtures promoted hyphal growth, spore
295 formation and production of *F. oxysporum* that causes wilt disease of *Rehmannia glutinosa*. Tao et al. (2018)
296 reported that both p-hydroxybenzoic acid and ferulic acid could inhibit alfalfa seed germination and seedling
297 development. Therefore, we think that the four phenolic acids secreted in the rhizosphere of alfalfa were the
298 main factors causing severe alfalfa root rot in the alfalfa CC obstacle.

299 In this study, we found that the main factors causing CC obstacle were not the lack of nutrients or water in
300 alfalfa rhizosphere soil. Based on metabolomics and microbiology analysis, the effects of certain key
301 metabolites, including p-coumaric acid, ferulic acid and other phenolic acids, on alfalfa seed and seedling
302 growth and root rot pathogens were basically consistent with the influence of CC obstacles in the field. In
303 addition, with the increase of CC years, the microbial community in soil changed from fungal to bacterial, and
304 beneficial microorganisms decreased with the increase of CC years. The effects of the key metabolites from
305 alfalfa rhizosphere on alfalfa seed germination, seedling growth and root rot were further verified, which
306 resulted in similar alfalfa performance as in CC obstacles. Among these key metabolites, the autotoxicity of
307 p-coumaric acid was the strongest. This study fully proved that the continuous accumulation of autotoxic
308 substances in the rhizosphere was the key factor of alfalfa CC obstacle.

309

310 **Materials and Methods**

311 **Soil Sampling**

312 The study was conducted on an experimental farm located in Dörbets, Daqing, Heilongjiang, Northeast China
313 (124.25' E, 46.30' E) with a continental monsoon climate. The soil type was sandy loam and average depth of
314 topsoil was about 30 cm. No location had history of hardpan. Soil samples were collected in October 2019
315 using the five-spot-sampling method from the rhizosphere of alfalfa plants grown in the fields with a history of
316 alfalfa CC for 1, 7 and 14 years. The soil samples, thoroughly homogenized through a 20-mesh sieve to
317 remove root debris, were placed in sterile bags and then transferred to liquid nitrogen and stored in ice boxes.
318 The samples were transported to the laboratory and stored at -80°C for
319 metabonomic and microbiological analysis. In the meantime, a portion of the soil samples was dried for
320 analysis of soil properties. Each treatment had three replicate samples.

321

322 **Assessment of soil properties**

323 Physic-chemical properties of the rhizosphere soils, including available P (AP), available N (N), Fe, Mn, Cu,
324 Zn and EC values, were analyzed at the Soil and Fertilizer Testing Center of Heilongjiang Academy of
325 Agricultural Sciences (Harbin, China). Enzyme activities were assessed using a soil enzyme activity test Kit
326 (Suzhou Grace Biotechnology Co., Ltd., Suzhou, China). Specific measurement and analysis followed the
327 manufacturer's instructions using Multiskan sky (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Assessment
328 of the enzyme activities was as the following: soil urease (S-UE) was measured at 578 nm; neutral phosphatase
329 (S-NP, G0306W) catalyzes p-nitrophenyl phosphate (pNPP) to produce a yellow product PNP, which has a
330 maximum absorption peak at 405 nm, and the enzyme activity was measured by the rate of increase of PNP;
331 solid polyphenol oxidase (S-PPO, G0311W) catalyzes gallic acid to produce gallium, which has a
332 characteristic light absorption at 430 nm, reflecting polyphenol oxidase activity; solid sucrase (S-SC, G0302W)
333 catalyzes the degradation of sucrose into reducing sugar and reacts with 3, 5-dinitrosalicylic acid to form
334 colored metal amides with characteristic light absorption at 540 nm; soil catalase (S-CAT, G0303W) catalyzes
335 hydrogen peroxide to produce water and oxygen and the remaining hydrogen peroxide reacts with a

336 chromogenic probe to produce a colored substance with a maximum absorption at about 510 nm. Each
337 treatment had three replicates and the experiment was conducted twice.

338

339 **Effects of soil extracts on alfalfa seedling and pathogen growth**

340 To assess the effects of the autotoxic substances on alfalfa seed and fungal pathogens causing alfalfa root rot,
341 soil extracts from the rhizosphere soil samples were prepared. Ten grams of soil were mixed with 250 mL
342 distilled water and shaken for 24 h (Yang et al, 2009). The supernatant was filtered, distilled and concentrated
343 to 1 mL/g of soil using a rotary evaporator (Strike 300, Guangzhou Wengdi Instruction Co., Ltd, China). The
344 concentrated supernatants were filtered through a bacterial filter and stored at 4°C.

345 Alfalfa seeds were immersed in 1.5% sodium hypochlorite for 10 min, rinsed 5 times with distilled water, air
346 dried, and soaked in the soil extracts (1 mL/g) for 30 min. Treated seeds were placed on sterile filter paper in a
347 petri dish (50 seeds/dish). Two mL of soil extract was added to each dish and the dishes were incubated in a
348 growth chamber at 25°C with 12-h photoperiod. Alfalfa seeds treated with equal amount of distilled water were
349 used as the control. Each treatment had three replicates and the experiment was conducted twice. Seed
350 germination rate, root length and plant height of alfalfa were measured 7 days after incubation.

351 To assess the effects of soil extracts on pathogens causing alfalfa root rot, three fungal pathogens were used
352 including *Fusarium trinctum* (MH894213), *F. acuminatum* (MK764994) and *F. oxysporum* (MK764964). The
353 fungi were grown on potato dextrose agar (PDA) plates at 25°C for 5 days, and a mycelium plug (0.7 cm in
354 diameter) was transferred onto PDA plates amended with the soil extract (final concentration V/V: 1%, 5% and
355 10%). PDA plates amended with equal amount of distilled water were used as controls. The plates were
356 incubated at 26°C for 5 days and colony diameters were measured. Each treatment had three replicates and the
357 experiment was conducted twice.

358

359 **Metabolomics analysis of alfalfa rhizosphere soil**

360 The rhizosphere soil samples were extracted with methanol-water (v/v 3:1), ethyl acetate,
361 L-2-chlorophenylalanine, and air dried. The air-dried soil extracts were dissolved in 20 µL methoxyamine salt
362 and 30 µL BSTFA (containing 1% TMCS). Metabolites of the rhizosphere soils were assessed using 7890A gas

363 chromatography-time-of-flight mass spectrometry (GC-TOF-MS) with DB-5MS capillary column (Agilent,
364 USA) at Beijing Allwegene Co., Ltd. (Beijing, China). The Chroma TOF software (V 4.3x, LECO) was used to
365 analyze the mass spectrum data, including peak extraction, baseline correction, deconvolution, peak integration
366 and peak alignment (Kind *et al.*, 2009). The LECO-Fiehn RTX5 database, including mass spectrometry, match
367 and retention time index match, was used in the qualitative analysis of the substances.

368

369 **Validation of key metabolites**

370 To determine the role of key metabolites in alfalfa CC, the effects of key metabolites from the rhizosphere soils
371 on seed germination, seedling growth, and growth of root rot pathogens *F. trinctum*, *F. acuminatum* and *F.*
372 *oxysporum* were determined. The following experiments were conducted:

373

374 ***Effect of key metabolites on alfalfa seed and seedling.*** Alfalfa seeds disinfected as described above were
375 immersed in different concentrations (10, 25, 50, 100 µg/mL) of key metabolites for 30 min. The seeds were
376 placed in a sterile culture dish, covered with two layers of sterile filter paper, dripped with the corresponding
377 concentration of key metabolites (1 mL/two days), and placed in a humidity chamber (>95% RH, 24°C and
378 16/8 h light/dark). Each treatment had three replicates and the experiment was conducted twice. Seed
379 germination rate, root length and plant height were measured 7 days after incubation.

380

381 ***Effect of key matabolites on pathogenic fungi causing alfalfa root rot.*** A mycelium plug (0.7 cm in diameter)
382 of *F. trinctum*, *F. acuminatum* and *F. oxysporum* grown on PDA for 5 days was transferred onto PDA plates
383 amended with different key metabolites at 10, 25, 50, and 100 µg/mL. The plates were incubated at 26°C in
384 dark and colony diameters were measured 5 days after incubation. Plates amended with equal amount of sterile
385 distilled water (SDW) were used as controls. Each treatment had three replicates and the experiment was
386 conducted twice.

387 To evaluate effects of metabolites on spore germination, *F. trinctum*, *F. acuminatum* and *F. oxysporum* were
388 grown on PDA at 25°C until colony diameters were 5 cm or larger. Conidia on the plates were washed with
389 SDW, and the concentration was adjusted to 10⁶ spores/mL by counting using a hemocytometer. Different key

390 metabolites were added into the conidial suspensions at concentrations of 10, 25, 50 and 100 µg/mL. Conidial
391 suspensions amended with an equal volume of SDW served as a control. Spore suspensions were incubated at
392 25°C until spore germination rates were greater than 10%, and germinated spores were counted by counting
393 100 spores for each treatment in a replicate. To evaluate effects of metabolites on spore production, the three
394 fungal cultures were grown as above. Different key metabolites at concentrations of 0, 10, 25, 50, or 100
395 µg/mL were added to each plate (20 mL/plate). Mycelia on the surface of the PDA plates were scraped off, and
396 liquid on the plates was poured out after 20 min. The plates were then incubated at 26°C for 72 h, and 20 mL
397 of SDW was added to a petri dish to wash the spores off the mycelium (Li et al, 2010). Spore suspension in a
398 dish was collected in a tube (50 mL) and spore concentration was determined using a hemocytometer. Each
399 treatment had three replicates and the experiment was conducted twice.

400

401 **Microbiological analysis of alfalfa rhizosphere soil**

402 Total DNA was extracted from the rhizosphere soils using PowerSoil DNA Isolation Kit (MoBio Laboratories,
403 Carlsbad, CA, USA). DNA concentration was quantified using a NanoDropTM 2000 spectrophotometer
404 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Research on 16S rRNA/ITS sequencing and sequencing of
405 the complete metagenomic sequence. The primer sets ITS1 (CTTGGTCATTTAGAGGAAGTAA) / ITS2
406 (TGCGTTCCTCATCGATGC) and 338F (ACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAG) / 806R
407 (GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT) were used to amplify target regions of fungal and bacterial genes,
408 respectively.

409 The quality-checked DNA samples were then sequenced on Illumina Miseq PE300 platform. To guarantee
410 the quality of data for downstream analysis, Trimmomatic was used to remove raw reads with tail end quality
411 score < 20. Data pre-processing was conducted to obtain a good sequence. Through the sorting operation, the
412 sequences were divided into different groups according to their similarity, and a group was an OTU. All
413 sequences were divided into OTU according to different similarity level, and OTUs under 97% similarity level
414 could be analyzed statistically (Edgar, 2013). The data were extracted based on the OTU clustering results, and
415 the Alpha (Amato et al, 2013) and Beta (Jiang et al, 2013) analyses were carried out using Qiime (Version
416 1.8, <http://qiime.org/>), uclust (Version 1.2.22, http://www.drive5.com/uclust/downloads1_2_22q.html) and

417 usearch (Version 10.0.240, <http://www.drive5.com/usearch/>)

418

419 **Validation of effects of p-coumaric acid in greenhouse**

420 Alfalfa seeds were surface disinfested as described above and planted in a seedling tray in a greenhouse at
421 $25\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$. Seven-day-old seedlings were transplanted in pots (5 plants/per pot). Plants in 5 pots were treated
422 with p-coumaric acid 3 days after transplanting at 10, 25, 50, or 100 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, respectively (1 mL/per plant).
423 Treatment with p-coumaric acid was applied once every three days, and plants in 5 pots treated with SDW
424 were used as controls. Alfalfa rhizosphere soils were collected as described above after treatment with
425 p-coumaric acid for 5 times (i.e., 15 days after transplanting). Soil samples were stored at -80°C for
426 microbiological analysis. Soil DNA extraction and microbiological analysis were as described above.

427

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434

435 **Author contributions**

436 RT performed all experiments. WY and JX provided help of the experiments. YG designed the study and
437 modify the majority of the manuscript. PS provided comments on the manuscript. All authors read and
438 approved the final manuscript.

439

440 **Conflict of interest**

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

442

443

444 **Reference**

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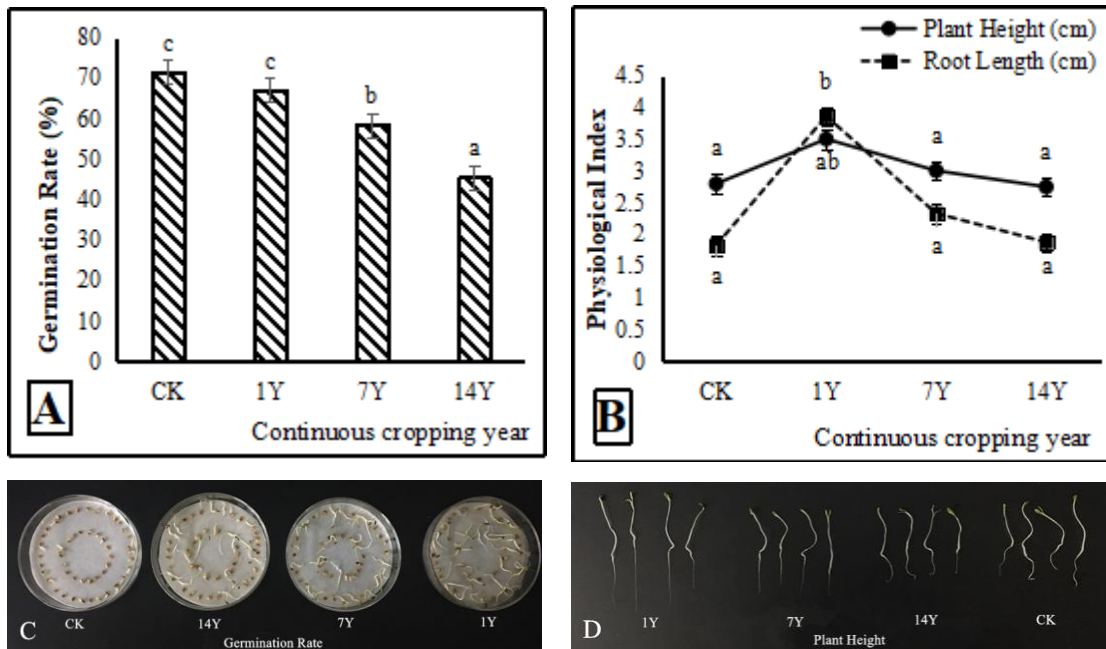
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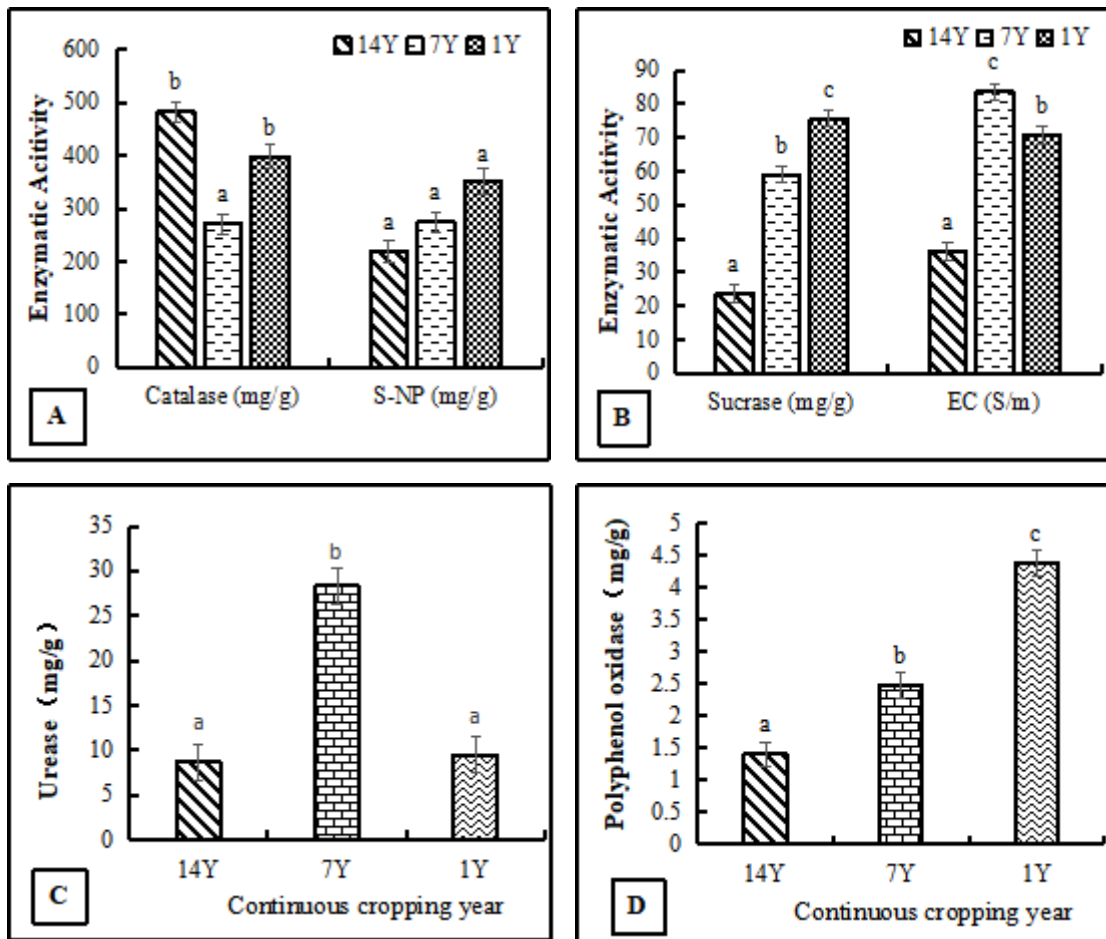
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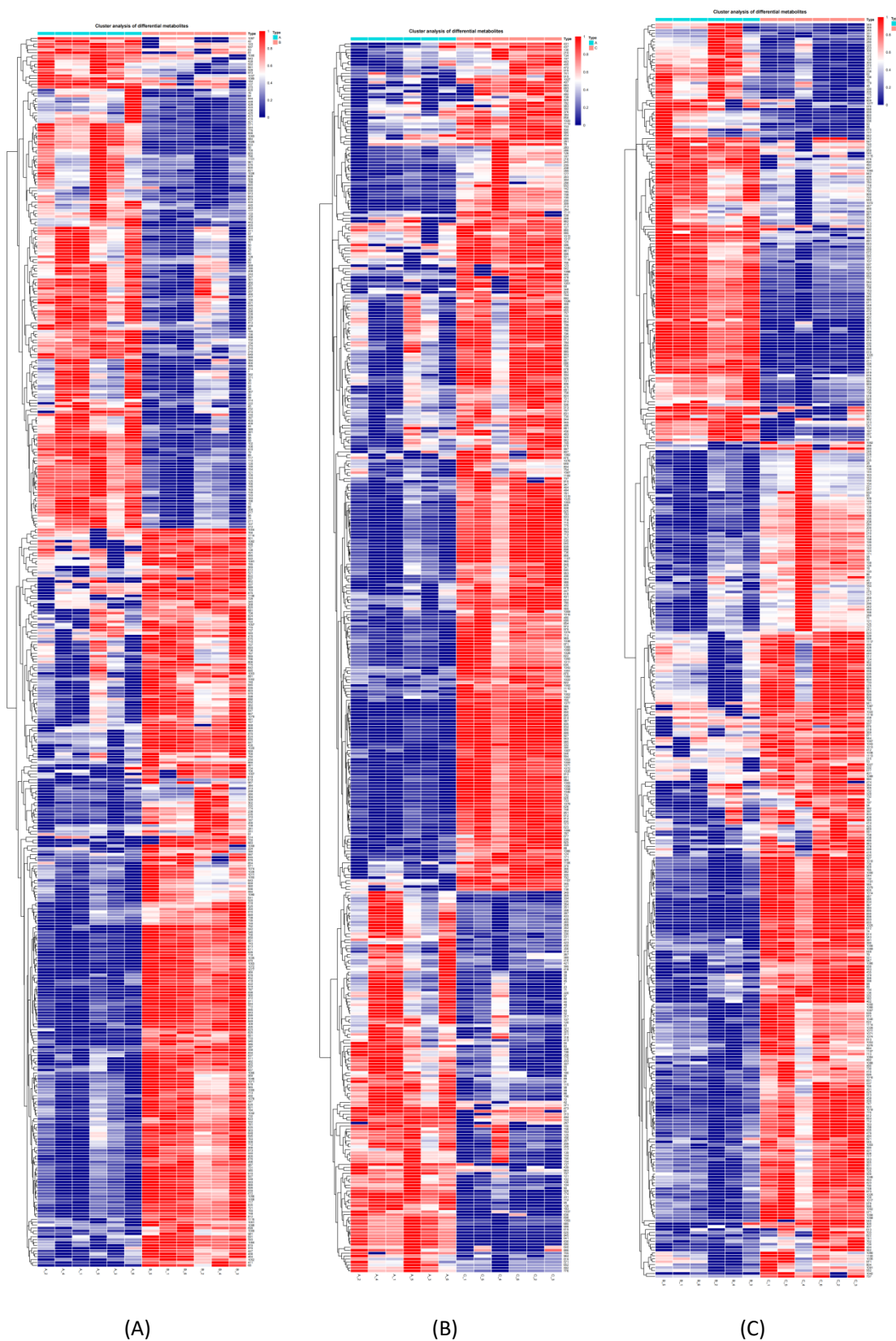
619 Fig.1. Effects of rhizosphere soil extracts from fields with different years of alfalfa continuous cropping
620 on alfalfa seed germination (A, C) and seedling growth (B, D). Error bars indicate standard errors of the
621 means of three repetitions. Different letters above the bars indicate significant difference according to
622 Duncan's multiple range test ($P = 0.05$).

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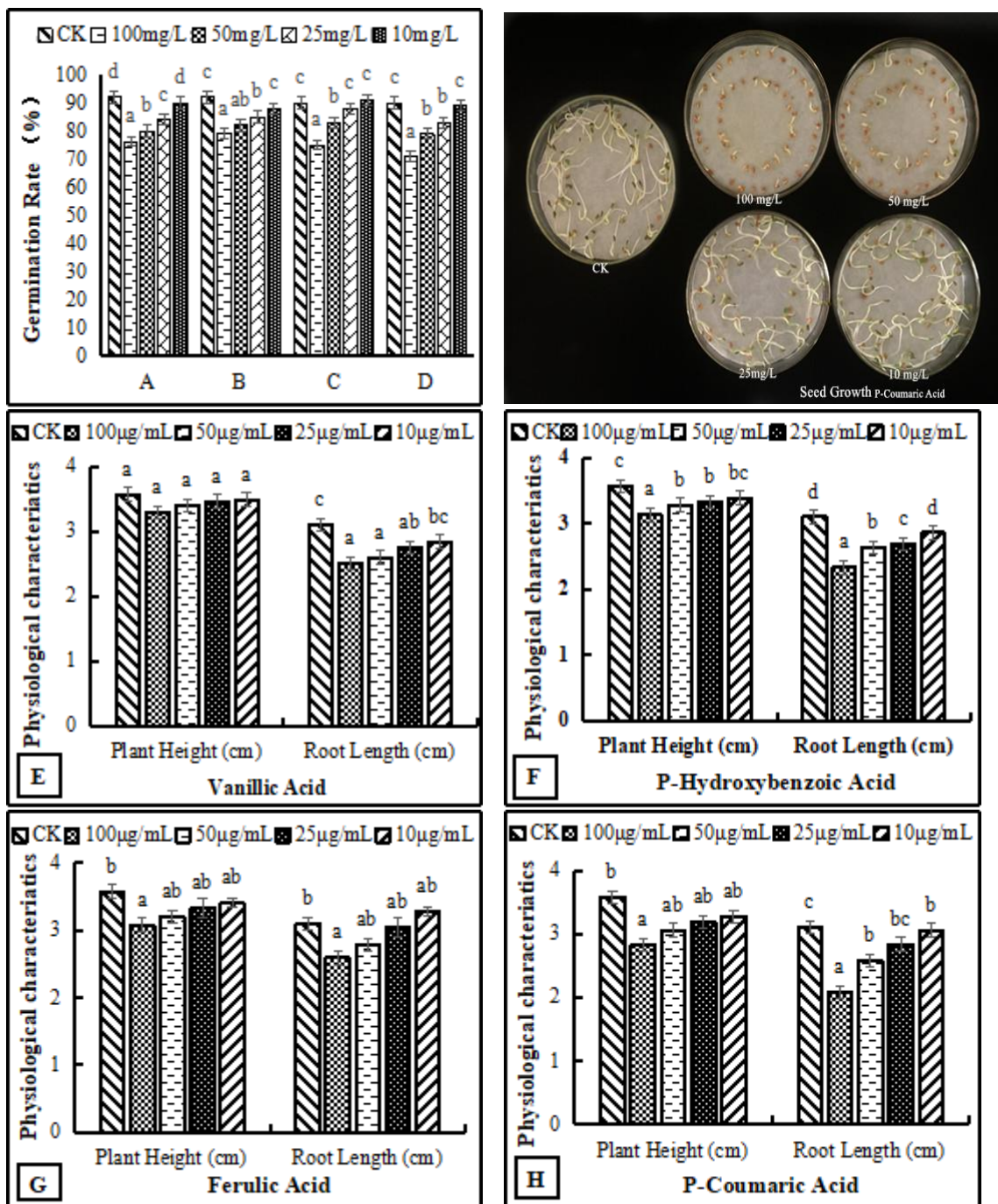
625 Fig. 2. Changes of enzyme activity, electrical conduction and organic matter content in rhizosphere soils
 626 from fields with continuous cropping of alfalfa for 1, 7, and 14 years. A) Catalase and S-NP activity; B)
 627 Sucrase activity and electrical conduction; C) Urease activity; D) Polyphenol oxidase activity. Error bars
 628 indicate standard errors of the means of three repetitions. Different letters above the bars indicate
 629 significant difference according to Duncan's multiple range test ($P = 0.05$).



630 Fig 3. Heatmap analysis of two-year comparison of changes of alfalfa root exudates from fields with

631 different years of continuous cropping. A) 1-year vs. 7-year; B) 7-year vs. 14-year; C) 1-year vs. 14-year.
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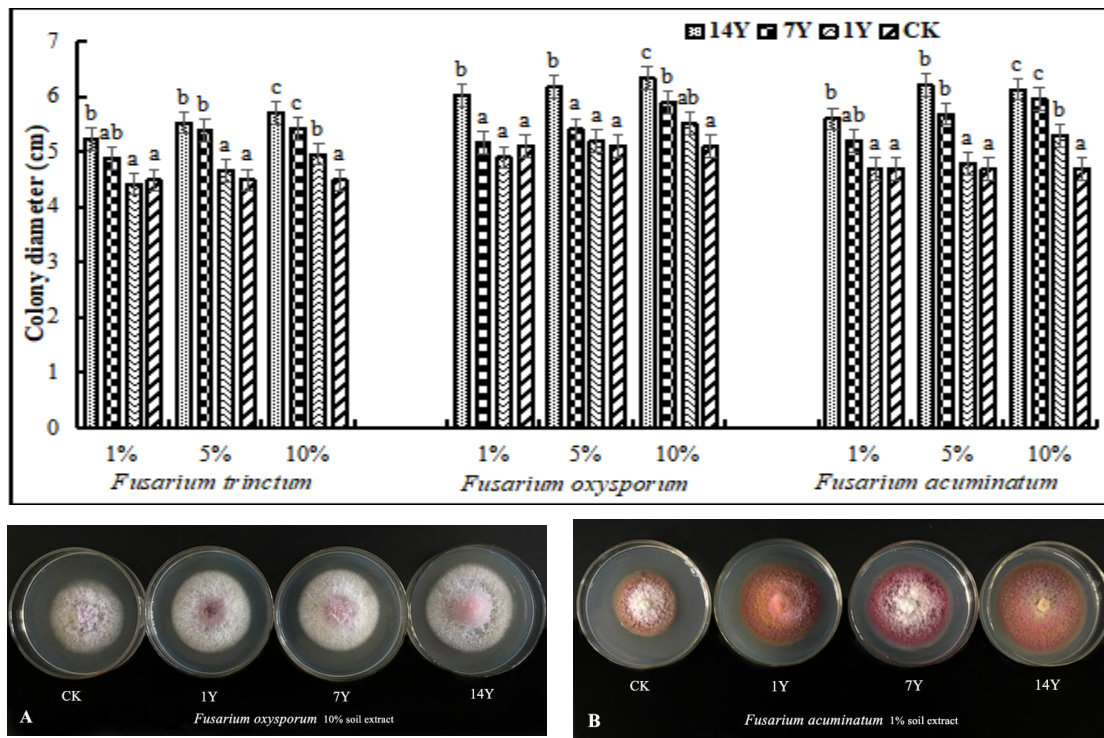


634

635 Fig. 4. Effect of different concentrations of phenolic acids on alfalfa germination rate, root length and
636 plant height (E, F, G, H). A) Vanillic Acid; B) P-Hydroxybenzoic Acid; C) Ferulic Acid; D) P-Coumaric
637 Acid. Error bars indicate standard errors of the means of three repetitions. Different letters above the bars
638 indicate significant difference according to Duncan's multiple range test ($P = 0.05$).

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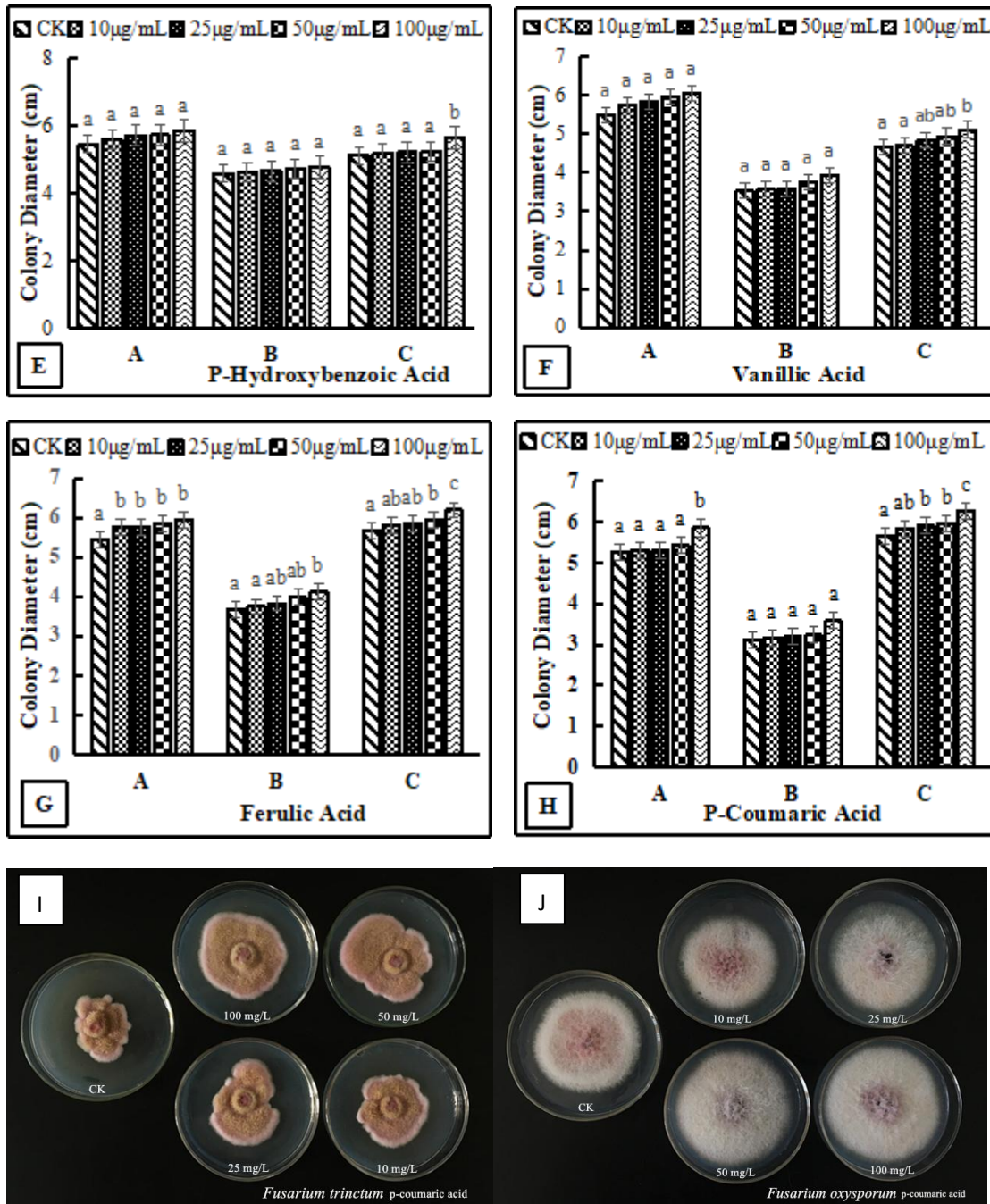


641

642 Fig. 5. Effect of rhizosphere soil extracts (final concentration V/V: 1%, 5% and 10%) from fields with
 643 alfalfa continuous cropping for 1, 7, and 14 years on mycelial growth of *Fusarium oxysporum*, *F. trinctum*
 644 and *F. acuminatum* that cause alfalfa root rot. A) Effect of 10% soil extract on mycelial growth of *F.*
 645 *oxysporum*; B) Effect of 1% soil extract on mycelial growth of *F. acuminatum*. Error bars indicate
 646 standard errors of the means of three repetitions. Different letters above the bars indicate significant
 647 difference according to Duncan's multiple range test ($P = 0.05$).

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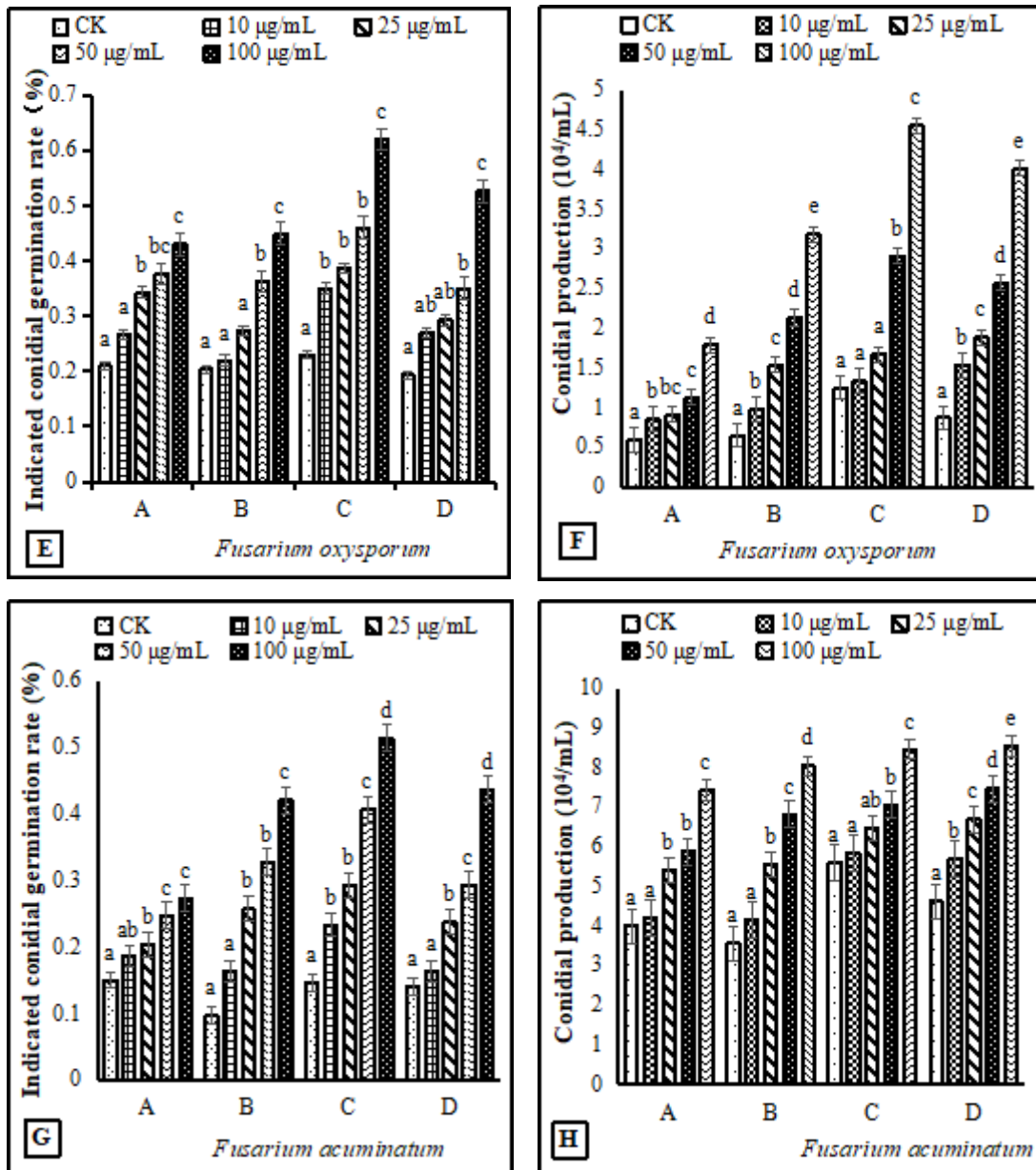


650

651 Fig. 6. Effects of different concentrations of phenolic acids on mycelial growth of fungal pathogens that
 652 cause alfalfa root rot. A, B and C indicate *Fusarium oxysporum*, *F. trinctum* and *F. acuminatum*,
 653 respectively (E, F, G, H). Error bars indicate standard errors of the means of three repetitions. Different
 654 letters above the bars indicate significant difference according to Duncan's multiple range test ($P = 0.05$).
 655 I) Effect of p-coumaric acid on mycelial growth of *F. trinctum*; J) Effect of p-coumaric acid on mycelial
 656 growth of *F. oxysporum*.

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660 Fig. 7. Effects of phenolic acids on conidial germination and production of *Fusarium oxysporum* (E, F)
 661 and *F. acuminatum* (G, H) that cause alfalfa root rot. A, B, C and D indicate p-hydroxybenzoic acid,
 662 vanillic acid, ferulic acid and p-coumaric acid, respectively. Different letters above the bars indicate
 663 significant difference according to Duncan's multiple range test ($P = 0.05$).
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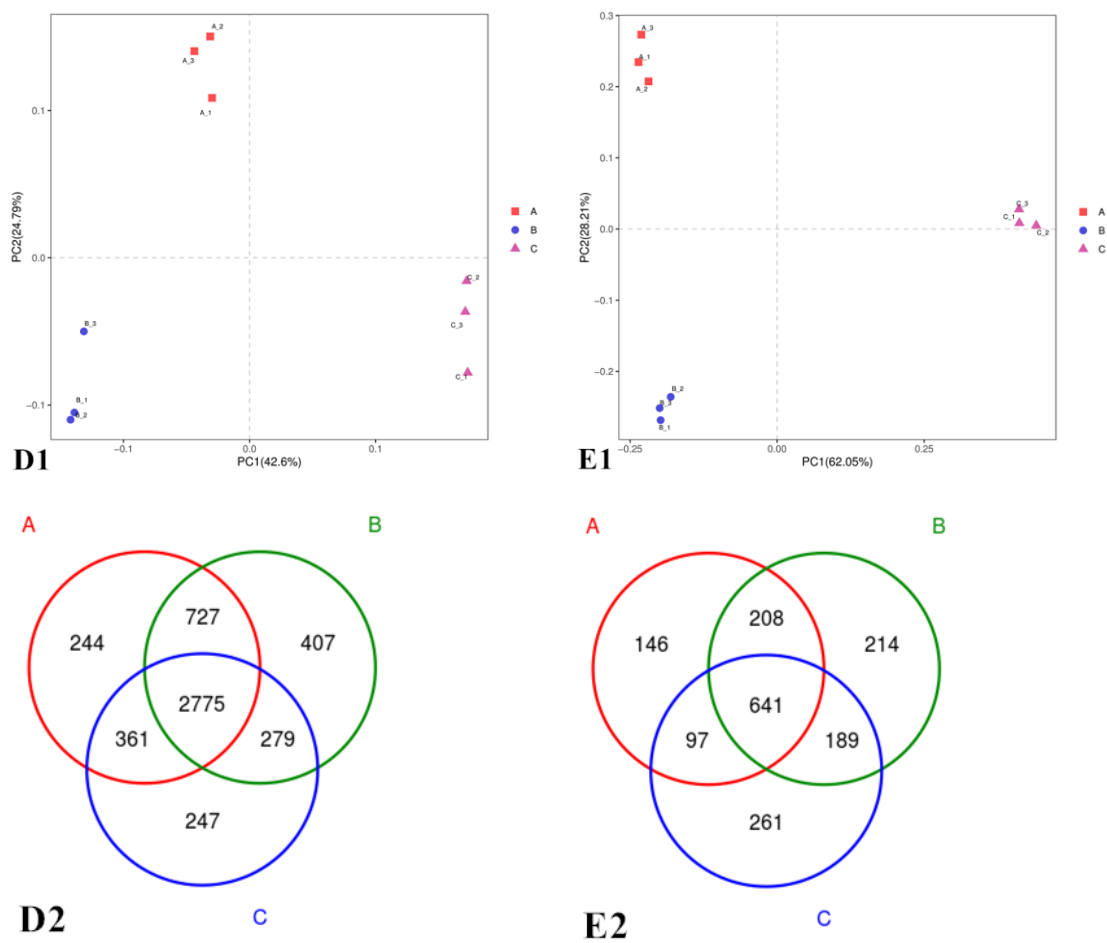
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668 Fig. 8. Effect of p-coumaric acid on alfalfa seedling and root rot. A) Inoculated with water as control; B)
669 Inoculated with mixed spore suspensions of *Fusarium trinctum*, *F. acuminatum* and *F. oxysporum*; C)
670 Inoculated with mixed spore suspensions of the three *Fusarium* spp. and 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ p-coumaric acid; D
671 Inoculated with mixed spore suspensions of the three *Fusarium* spp. and 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ p-coumaric acid.

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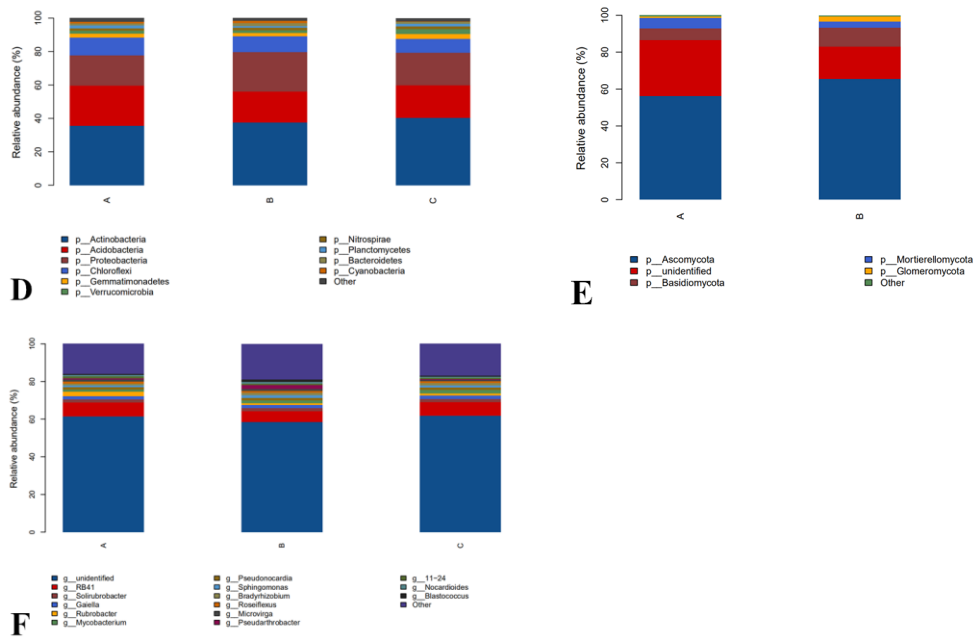


674

675 Fig. 9. Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) showing the similarity of rhizosphere microbial community
 676 in fields with continuous cropping of alfalfa for 1 year (A), 7 years (B), and 14 years (C). D1) bacteria,
 677 and E1) fungi. D2) Venn diagram of bacteria, and E2) Venn diagram of fungi.

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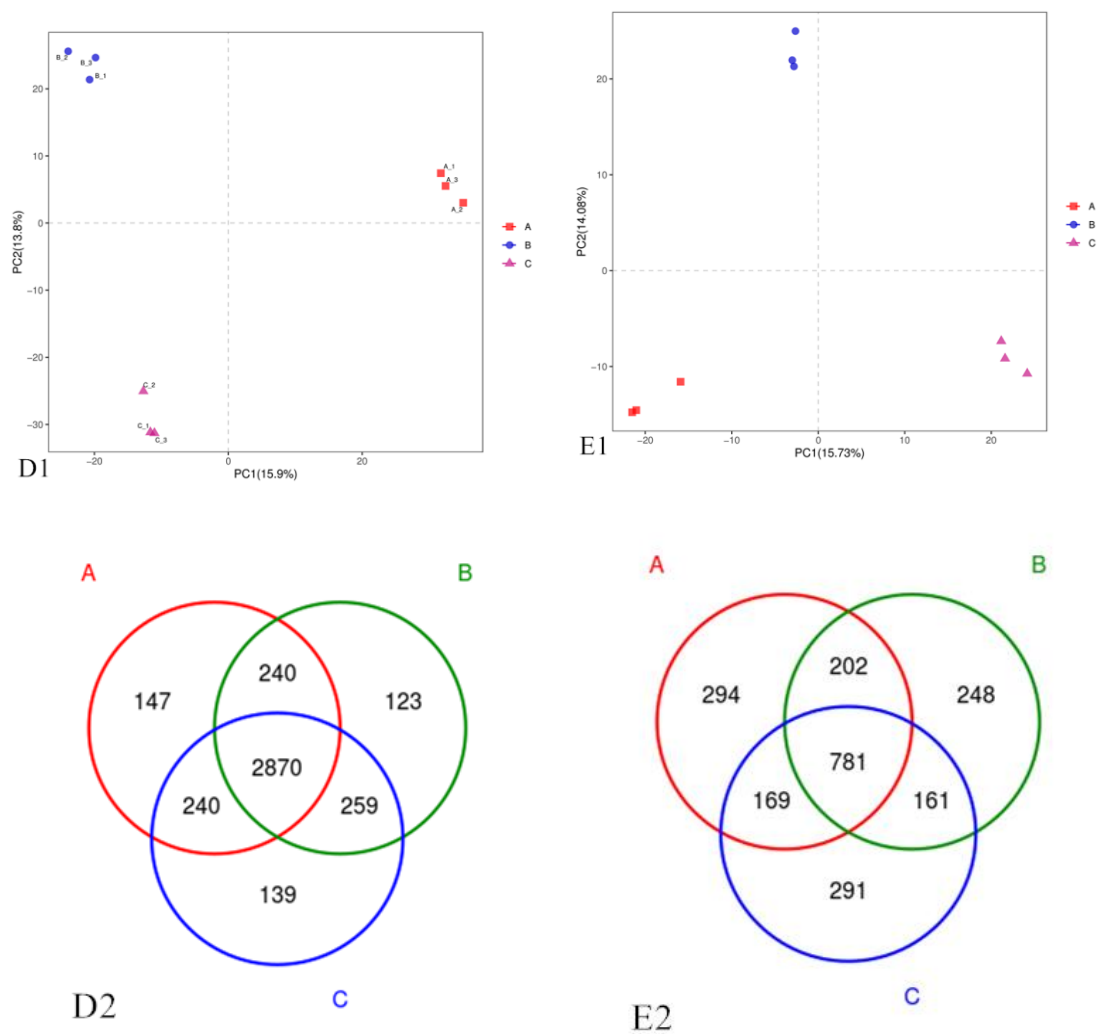
679



680 Fig. 10. The relative abundance (%) of major bacteria (D) and fungi (E) phylum, and bacterial genus (F),
 681 in the microbial community of alfalfa rhizosphere soils from fields with continuous cropping of alfalfa for
 682 1, 7, and 14 years.

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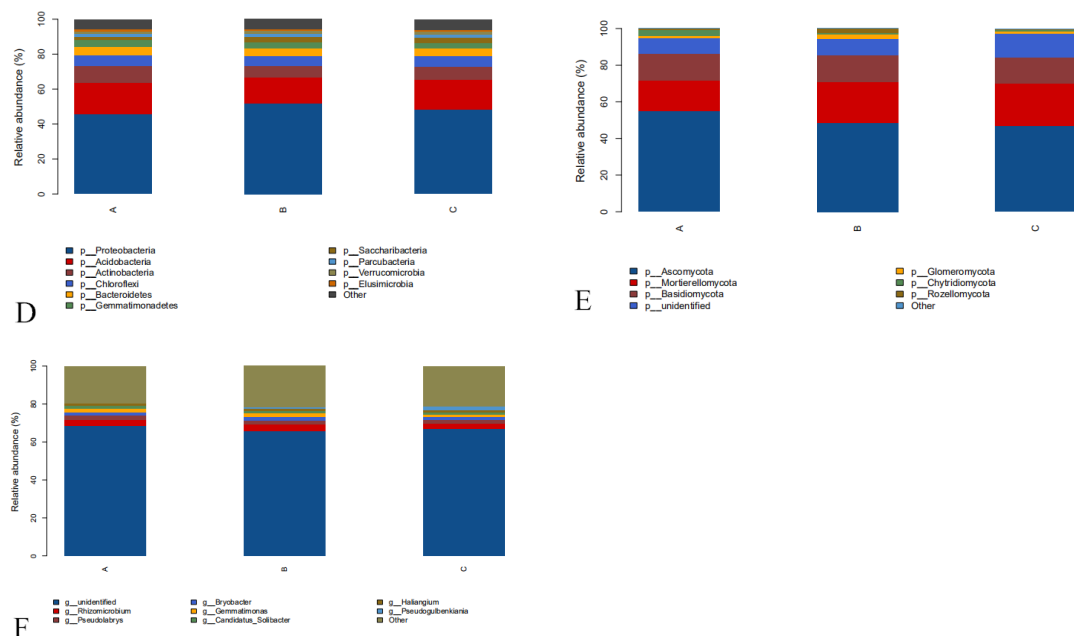


685

686 Fig. 11. Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) showing the similarity of rhizosphere microbial community
 687 in fields with A (nontreated), B (treatment with 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ p-coumaric acid), C (treatment with 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$
 688 p-coumaric acid). D1) bacteria, and E1) fungi. D2) Venn diagram of bacteria, and E2) Venn diagram of
 689 fungi.

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691



692

693 Fig. 12. The relative abundance (%) of major bacteria (D) and fungi (E) phylum, and bacterial genus (F),
 694 in the microbial community of alfalfa rhizosphere soils from fields with A) nontreated, B) treatment with
 695 10 µg/mL p-coumaric acid, and C) treatment with 50 µg/mL p-coumaric acid.

Table 1. Nutrient content of rhizosphere soils from fields with alfalfa continuous cropping

CC year ^a	Alkali-hydrolyzed N (mg/kg)	Available P (mg/kg)	Available K (mg/kg)	Available B (mg/kg)	Available Fe (mg/kg)	Available Mn (mg/kg)	Available Cu (mg/kg)	Available Zn (mg/kg)	Available Mg (mg/kg)
14	75.5	2.2	102	0.46	11.2	3.86	1	1.5	139
7	101	3.1	97.1	0.56	8.2	2.9	0.71	0.88	122
1	147.6	3.1	159	0.9	34.2	7.56	0.58	0.85	191

^a Indicates alfalfa continuous cropping (CC) for 1, 7, and 14 years.

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Table 2. Relative content of phenolic acids from rhizosphere soils in fields with alfalfa continuous cropping

CC year ^a	Vanillic acid ^b	p-Hydroxybenzoic acid ^b	Ferulic acid ^b	p-Coumaric acid ^b
1	0.050 ± 0.008 a	0.127 ± 0.014 a	0.031 ± 0.004 a	0.056 ± 0.011 a
7	0.068 ± 0.007 b	0.171 ± 0.013 b	0.026 ± 0.004 a	0.079 ± 0.009 b
14	0.070 ± 0.006 b	0.212 ± 0.017 c	0.046 ± 0.012 b	0.097 ± 0.011 c

^a Indicates alfalfa continuous cropping (CC) for 1, 7, and 14 years.

^b Different letters in the column indicate significant difference according to Duncan's multiple range test ($P = 0.05$).

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