

1 **Characterization and Variation of the Rhizosphere Fungal**  
2 **Community Structure of Cultivated Tetraploid Cotton**

3 Qinghua Qiao<sup>1#</sup>, Jingxia Zhang<sup>2#</sup>, Changle Ma<sup>1#</sup>, Furong Wang<sup>1,2</sup>, Yu Chen<sup>2</sup>, ChuanyunZhang<sup>2</sup>,  
4 Hui Zhang<sup>1\*</sup>, Jun Zhang<sup>1,2\*</sup>

5 1. Key Laboratory of Plant Stress Research, College of Life Sciences, Shandong Normal  
6 University, Jinan, 250014, China

7 2. Key Laboratory of Cotton Breeding and Cultivation in Huang-Huai-Hai Plain, Ministry of  
8 Agriculture, Cotton Research Center of Shandong Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Jinan,  
9 250100, China

10 **\* Authors to whom correspondence should be addressed:**

11 (Hui Zhang) Email: [laohanzhang@hotmail.com](mailto:laohanzhang@hotmail.com); Tel.: +86-531-86180764; Fax:  
12 +86-531-86180764;

13 (Jun Zhang) Email: [srczj@saas.ac.cn](mailto:srczj@saas.ac.cn), [zi0928@126.com](mailto:zi0928@126.com); Tel.:+86-531-83178286; Fax:  
14 +86-531-88960327

15 # These authors contributed equally to this work.

16

17 **Abstract**

18 Rhizosphere fungal communities exert important influential forces on plant growth and health.  
19 However, information on the dynamics of the rhizosphere fungal community structure of the  
20 worldwide economic crop, cotton (*Gossypium* spp.), is limited. Next-generation sequencing of  
21 nuclear ribosomal internal transcribed spacer-1 (ITS1) was used to characterize the rhizosphere  
22 fungal communities of worldwide cultivated tetraploid cotton using *G. hirsutum* cv. TM-1 (upland  
23 cotton) and *G. barbadense* cv. Hai 7124 (island cotton). Plants were grown in field soil (FS) that  
24 had been continuously cropped with cotton and nutrient-rich soil (NS) that had not been cropped.  
25 Fungal species richness, diversity, and community composition were analyzed and compared  
26 among soil resources, cotton genotypes, and developmental stages. We found that the fungal  
27 community structure between the rhizosphere and bulk soil of cotton were different and the  
28 rhizosphere fungal communities were significantly varied between FS and NS. These results  
29 suggest that cotton rhizosphere fungal community structure variation was primarily determined by  
30 the interaction of cotton roots with different soil resources. We also found that the community  
31 composition of cotton rhizosphere fungi varied significantly during different developmental stages,  
32 suggesting that developmental stages were also important factors in the dynamics of rhizosphere  
33 fungal communities for the varying dominant fungal genera of the rhizosphere. In addition, we  
34 also observed that fungal pathogens were clearly increased at certain developmental stages,  
35 suggesting a higher infection rate and a high incidence of corresponding soil-borne disease in each  
36 stage. This research illustrates the characteristics of cotton rhizosphere fungal communities and  
37 provides important information for understanding the potential influences of rhizosphere fungal  
38 communities on cotton growth and health.

39 **Key words:** cotton rhizosphere; fungal community; diversity; soil resource; developmental stage

## 40 **Introduction**

41 Soil microorganisms are a critical component of agroecosystems and play key roles in agricultural  
42 ecosystems. The importance of mutual influence between microbial communities and agronomic  
43 practices is increasingly being recognized. The rhizosphere is the adjacent soil environment that  
44 the plant helps to create and where beneficial and pathogenic microorganisms exert major  
45 influential forces on plant growth and health [1]. Rhizosphere microorganisms were thought to be  
46 of great importance to plant health due to their involvement in such key processes as the formation  
47 of root architecture [2]; formation of soil characteristics [3]; decomposition of organic matter [4,  
48 5]; decomposition and removal of toxins [6, 7]; defense against plant pathogenic microorganisms  
49 [2]; and cycling of carbon [8], nitrogen, phosphorus, and sulfur [9-12].

50 Soil fungi are a critical component of agroecosystems, and the rhizosphere fungal  
51 communities play important roles in plant growth and health. In turn, plants largely control  
52 rhizosphere fungi through the production of carbon- and energy-rich compounds and bioactive  
53 phytochemicals [13]. Some of the beneficial fungi are directly involved in the cycling of nutrients  
54 and function as an essential link to soil nutrient availability [14-17]. Some fungi are known for  
55 having biocontrol activity against pathogenic microorganisms [17, 18]. These fungi positively  
56 influence plant productivity by enhancing plant growth. However, certain rhizosphere fungal  
57 species or genera can also negatively influence plant productivity by causing disease, and  
58 pathogenic fungi are some of the most serious plant pathogens, for example, stalk rot disease of  
59 maize caused by *Fusarium* species [19], *Verticillium* wilt caused by *Verticillium nonalfalfae* on  
60 tree-of-heaven [20], and dry root rot caused by *Macrophomina phaseolina*, which affects many  
61 crops [21].

62 It is known that microbial diversity in soil is one of the major components determining soil  
63 health [22] and is believed to be one of the main drivers in disease suppression [22-25]. The  
64 composition of rhizosphere microbial communities is affected by soil, plant developmental stage,  
65 and many other factors [26-30]. Continuous cropping in agricultural production can cause crop  
66 yield reduction through soil quality degradation and aggravated plant diseases [31-33]. The  
67 fundamental reason for continuous cropping obstacles is related to disorders or deterioration of  
68 rhizosphere microorganisms (including rhizosphere fungi) [34, 35].

69 Cotton (*Gossypium* spp.) is the most important cash crop in the world and provides the most  
70 natural textile fibers of the world. Cotton production is threatened by soil-borne plant pathogens  
71 such as *Rhizoctonia* spp. [36], *Fusarium moniliforme* [37], *Alternaria alternata* [38], and  
72 *Verticillium dahliae* [39]. Understanding the dynamics of the rhizosphere fungal community  
73 structure of the worldwide cultivated tetraploid cotton with cotton cultivars in different  
74 developmental stages will not only provide basic information on the dynamics of cotton  
75 rhizosphere fungal community structure but also help lay a foundation for understanding the  
76 mutual influence between rhizosphere fungal communities and the plant health of cotton. Knox *et*  
77 *al.* showed that rhizosphere microbial diversity in cotton is significantly influenced by cultivar  
78 type in the field [40]. However, systematic studies on the rhizosphere fungal community structure  
79 of cultivated tetraploid cotton are still lacking.

80 This study characterized the rhizosphere fungal community dynamics across cotton  
81 developmental stage growth using two cotton cultivars in continuously mono-cropped cotton field  
82 soils (FS) and nutrient-rich soil (NS) that had not been cropped. Our work lays the foundation for  
83 more research on cotton rhizosphere fungal communities and may provide insight into further  
84 dissection of the structure of rhizosphere fungal communities, which might exert major influential  
85 forces on plant growth and health in the agricultural production of cotton.

## 86 **Materials and methods**

### 87 *Plants and soil*

88 Two cultivars of cultivated allotetraploid *Gossypium* species, *G. hirsutum* cv. TM-1 (upland  
89 cotton) and *G. barbadense* cv. Hai 7124 (island cotton with higher disease resistance than upland  
90 cotton) were planted in two types of soils FS and NS.

91 The FS was obtained from 15 to 30 cm below the soil surface in a field that has been  
92 continuously planted with cotton for several decades at the Experiment Station of Cotton Research  
93 Center of Shandong Academy of Agricultural Sciences (Linqing County, Shandong Province,  
94 36°81'N, and 115.71°13'E), and the NS, which was not influenced by cotton and any other plants,  
95 was purchased from Feng Yuan Science and Technology Ltd. (Jinan, China). All visible biota  
96 (e.g., weeds, twigs, worms, and insects) were removed, and the soil was then crushed and sifted

97 through a sterile 2 mm sieve. Because the sieved soil drained poorly and was difficult to sample,  
98 we mixed sterile sand into the treatment soils at a soil:sand ratio of 2:1 following Lundberg *et al.*  
99 [41].

100 All plants were grown under the same environmental conditions. Samples were collected at  
101 the seedling, budding, and flowering stages. Detailed information about the material and methods  
102 were described in our previous report [42].

### 103 *Greenhouse plant management*

104 Cotton seeds were delinted by sulfuric acid and then surface sterilized with 75% ethanol for 15  
105 min, followed by 30% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for 30 min and five rinses with sterile distilled water. The seeds were  
106 germinated by incubating at 28 °C in the dark for 2–3 days in petri dishes in which sterile paper  
107 was overlaid on 1% water agar. After germination, seedlings were transplanted into the treated soil  
108 and raised in a tissue culture room at 28 °C. Plants were moved to a bioclean greenhouse as soon  
109 as seedlings developed a second true leaf. The pots were watered every 3 days with sterile water.  
110 Control pots contained soil without a cotton plant.

### 111 *Sampling of cotton rhizosphere and bulk soil*

112 Soil samples were harvested from 4 to 6 July 2015. Well-grown plant individuals in each  
113 developmental stage were selected for rhizosphere soil collection. We inverted each pot to remove  
114 the soil and plant and then gently shook the plant to remove the soil that did not adhere to the root  
115 surface. Rhizosphere soil consisted of ~1 mm of soil that tightly adhered to the root surface and  
116 was not easily shaken from the root. To separate the rhizosphere soil, roots were placed in a sterile  
117 flask with 50 ml of sterile phosphate buffered saline solution and stirred vigorously with sterile  
118 forceps. Samples at the interface or from an unnatural environment were avoided. After cleaning,  
119 the roots were removed, and the remaining soil solution was centrifuged for 15 min at 10,000 rpm.  
120 The supernatant was discarded to leave the soil fraction. These soil fractions were frozen using  
121 liquid nitrogen and stored at –80 °C. We also collected samples from unplanted pots from ~10 cm  
122 below the soil surface as bulk soil. There were three biological replicates for each soil treatment  
123 (rhizosphere samples of the two cultivars and bulk soil samples in FS and NS were collected at  
124 three developmental stages) for a total of 54 replicates.

### 125 *DNA extraction and detection*

126 The DNA from each soil sample was extracted using the Omega D5625-02 Soil DNA Kit (Omega  
127 Biotek Inc., Norcross, GA, USA). DNA concentration and integrity were detected by a microplate  
128 reader (Qubit 3.0 Fluorometer; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) and agarose gel  
129 electrophoresis (PowerPac Basic164-5050 and Sub-Cell 96, Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA,  
130 USA). DNA information for each sample is listed in the Supplementary materials

### 131 *Preparation of libraries and sequencing*

132 All suitable DNA samples were submitted to BGI Tech Solutions Co., Ltd. (Shenzhen, China) to  
133 construct a sequencing library. DNA from 54 soil samples was amplified and sequenced using the  
134 Illumina MiSeq platform (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). Further details on the subsequent  
135 bioinformatics analysis of the sequencing data are listed in the Supplementary materials and  
136 methods.

### 137 *Data analysis*

138 OTU Venn diagram: The presence or absence of operational taxonomic units (OTUs) was  
139 determined for each soil sample, and the common and specific OTU IDs were summarized. A  
140 Venn diagram was constructed using the package VennDiagram in R (v 3.0.3).

141 Species Annotation: The tag number of each phylum in different soil samples was summarized in  
142 a histogram, and all data were used to construct a histogram using R.

143  $\alpha$ -diversity analysis: The species accumulation curves of observed species (Sobs), Chao,  
144 Abundance Based Coverage Estimator (ACE), Shannon, and Simpson indices were calculated  
145 using the software Mothur (v 1.31.2). The calculation formula of each index can be found at  
146 <http://www.mothur.org/wiki/Calculators>.

147  $\beta$ -diversity analysis:  $\beta$ -diversity was analyzed using the software QIIME (v 1.80). Normalization  
148 was performed to control for sequencing depth differences in different samples. Sequences were  
149 extracted randomly according to the minimum sequence number of all samples to generate a new  
150 'OTU table biom' file. Then, the  $\beta$ -diversity distance was calculated based on the 'OTU table  
151 biom' file. The  $\beta$ -diversity heat map was drawn by the 'aheatmap' function in the 'NMF' package  
152 of R.

153 Contribution of each factor: The Bray–Curtis dissimilarity analysis and the information entropy  
154 method were used to measure the contribution of the different factors to variability between

155 samples. We then conducted an analysis of variance by the function `aov` in the R package.  
156 Interaction between each of the two factors was considered. For each factor, the contribution rate  
157 to fungal community variance was calculated as the mean square of the factor divided by the sum  
158 of the mean square of all factors.

## 159 **Results**

160 Fungal communities were characterized by next-generation sequencing of nuclear ribosomal  
161 internal transcribed spacer-1. A total of 5,032,042 high-quality reads were obtained with a median  
162 read count of 93,186 per sample (range: 51,752–244,354) (Supplementary Table S1). The  
163 high-quality reads were clustered into 1,298 microbial OTUs at 97% similarity after the removal  
164 of OTUs that were unassigned or not assigned to the target species.

### 165 *Fungal communities in bulk soils of FS and NS*

166 Ascomycota, Basidiomycota, and Zygomycota were the most common fungal phyla in both  
167 continuously cropped field soil (FS) and nutrient-rich soil (NS) treatments, accounting for  
168 59.01–95.81% of all fungal communities (Supplementary Table S2; Supplementary Fig. 1).  
169 Excluding unclassified orders (19.39–60.96% of total fungal communities), in both soils,  
170 Eurotiales and Hypocreales were dominant in Ascomycota, and Mortierellales was dominant in  
171 Zygomycota. The dominant orders of Basidiomycota in FS were Cystofilobasidiales and  
172 Sporidiobolales, whereas Thelephorales and Agaricales were dominant in NS.

173 The differences in fungal communities between the FS and NS soils at the genus level were  
174 significant. The relative abundance of some fungal genera, such as *Penicillium*, *Gliomastix*, and  
175 *Engyodontium*, was significantly lower in FS than in NS ( $P < 0.05$ ), whereas the relative  
176 abundance of some fungal genera, such as *Pseudozyma*, *Panaeolus*, and *Lecanicillium* in FS was  
177 slightly, but not significantly, higher than in NS (Supplementary Table S2).

### 178 *Fungal communities of cotton rhizosphere in FS and NS*

179 Ascomycota, Basidiomycota, and Zygomycota were the dominant phyla in the rhizosphere fungal  
180 communities, accounting for approximately 33.45–88.51% of the total fungal communities in NS  
181 (11.48–66.15% were unclassified) and 85.18–93.88% of the total fungal communities in FS  
182 (6.03–14.65% were unclassified) (Fig. 1; Supplementary Table S3; Supplementary Figs. 2, 3).

183 Ascomycota was negatively selected in the rhizosphere in NS but was enriched in the rhizosphere  
184 in FS (Fig. 1; Supplementary Table S2–4). The dominant orders of Ascomycota and Zygomycota  
185 in the rhizosphere were the same as those in bulk soil (Supplementary Table S3). However, the  
186 dominant orders of Basidiomycota in bulk soil from the FS rhizosphere samples were Agaricales  
187 and Auriculariales, whereas Sporidiobolales and Agaricales dominated in bulk soil from the NS  
188 rhizosphere samples (Supplementary Table S3).

189 **Fig 1. Relative abundance of the fungal community in all treatments.** Two types of soils:  
190 nutrient-rich soil (N) and continuous cropping field soil (F). Three cotton plant developmental  
191 stages: seedling stage (s), budding stage (b), and flowering stage (f). Two cultivated species:  
192 upland cotton (*G. hirsutum* L. cv TM-1) (T) and sea island cotton (*G. barbadense* L. cv Hai7124)  
193 (X) and control pots (C) that lacked cotton plants. Each sample was labeled by a three-letter code,  
194 such as NsT, which indicates seedlings of sea island cotton grown in nutrient-rich soil.

195 The number of OTUs in the FS rhizosphere ( $205.33 \pm 22.47$ ) was higher than in FS bulk soil  
196 ( $140.67 \pm 28.61$ ), whereas in the NS rhizosphere ( $146.44 \pm 40.22$ ), the OTUs were lower than in  
197 NS bulk soil ( $181.11 \pm 20.37$ ) (Supplementary Table S5). The  $\alpha$ -diversity of fungi was  
198 significantly higher in the FS rhizosphere than in FS bulk soil ( $P < 0.05$ ); however, it was  
199 significantly lower in the NS rhizosphere than in the corresponding bulk soil ( $P < 0.05$ ). Bulk soil  
200  $\alpha$ -diversity of fungi was higher in NS than in FS ( $P < 0.05$ ), but rhizosphere fungal  $\alpha$ -diversity  
201 was lower in NS than in FS ( $P < 0.05$ ; Fig. 2; Supplementary Table S5).

202 **Fig 2. The  $\alpha$ -diversity of rhizosphere fungi.** From left to right and from top to bottom, box plots  
203 are Sob, Chao, ACE, Shannon, and Simpson indices.

204 Fungal genera compositions that were enriched or negatively selected in the rhizosphere  
205 differed between different soils (Supplementary Table S6; Supplementary Table S7). For example,  
206 in NS, the relative abundance of *Mortierella*, *Gliomastix*, and *Engyodontium* was significantly  
207 higher in bulk soil compared with rhizosphere soil, where it was much lower or almost  
208 undetectable ( $P < 0.05$ ; Supplementary Table S8). In contrast, the relative abundance of  
209 *Rhodospiridium* and *Trichoderma* in NS rhizosphere soil was higher than in the respective bulk  
210 soil, where it was lower or almost undetectable ( $P < 0.05$ ; Supplementary Table S8). In FS, the  
211 relative abundance of *Mortierella*, *Guehomyces*, and *Fusarium* was higher in bulk soil than in



212 rhizosphere soil, where it was lower or undetectable ( $P > 0.05$ ; Supplementary Table S9). The  
213 relative abundance of *Penicillium*, *Alternaria*, and *Preussia* was higher in FS rhizosphere soil than  
214 in bulk soil, where these genera were almost undetectable ( $P < 0.05$ ; Supplementary Table S9).  
215 The abundance of other rhizosphere fungal genera was highly variable and differed between soils.  
216 Comparisons of fungal genera whose relative abundance changed inversely in different soils  
217 between the rhizosphere and corresponding bulk soil are listed in Table 1.

218 **Table 1 Fungal genera that were affected inversely by cotton root in two soil resources.**

Genus	Relative abundance in field soil (mean)			Relative abundance in nutrient soil (mean)		
	Control	Rhizosphere		Control	Rhizosphere	
<i>Paraconiothyrium</i>	0.21	0.00	-	0.00	0.10	+
<i>Rhodosporidium</i>	1.598	0.01	-	0.00	3.45	+
<i>Mrakia</i>	0.50	0.00	-	0.00	0.12	+
<i>Arnium</i>	0.28	0.00	-	0.00	0.08	+
<i>Pseudeurotium</i>	0.77	0.00	-	0.00	0.02	+
<i>Kurtzmanomyces</i>	0.17	0.00	-	0.00	0.02	+
<i>Tomentella</i>	0.05	0.10	+	0.45	0.22	-
<i>Wardomyces</i>	0.00	0.13	+	0.58	0.00	-
<i>Chrysosporium</i>	0.01	0.16	+	0.94	0.00	-
<i>Retroconis</i>	0.00	0.21	+	1.71	0.00	-
<i>Nectria</i>	0.00	0.22	+	1.07	0.00	-
<i>Engyodontium</i>	0.08	0.50	+	3.31	0.07	-
<i>Gliomastix</i>	0.00	0.41	+	2.85	0.00	-
<i>Alternaria</i>	0.17	0.66	+	0.88	0.46	-
<i>Preussia</i>	0.00	0.89	+	2.09	0.03	-
<i>Penicillium</i>	0.71	14.06	+	10.51	4.11	-

219 “+” denotes fungi with higher relative abundance in rhizosphere soil than in bulk soil, “-”

220 denotes fungi with lower relative abundance in rhizosphere soil than in bulk soil;  $P < 0.05$

221 *Variation in rhizosphere fungal communities at different plant developmental stages*

222 In FS, the number of stage-specific OTUs was highest in the seedling stage and decreased  
 223 gradually through development: upland cotton (T): 90 (seedling stage), 76 (budding stage), and 83  
 224 (flowering stage); island cotton (X): 121 (seedling stage), 53 (budding stage), and 48 (flowering  
 225 stage). In NS, the number of stage-specific OTUs was highest in the budding stage (T: 71, 139, 85;  
 226 X: 112, 138, 82). In addition, the number of overlapping OTUs in the seedling and budding stages  
 227 was higher than that in the budding and flowering stages in both FS and NS soil treatments. The  
 228 number of overlapping OTUs in all three developmental stages was higher in FS than in NS  
 229 (Supplementary Fig. 4).

230 Analysis of  $\alpha$ -diversity indicated that in FS, the Sobs, Chao, and ACE indices were higher in  
 231 the cotton rhizosphere fungal communities during all three developmental stages compared with  
 232 bulk soil. The Sobs index decreased gradually from the seedling to the flowering stage in bulk soil,  
 233 but no significant difference was found in the rhizosphere sample between different

234 developmental stages (except for the difference between the seedling stage and budding stage in  
235 the rhizosphere of island cotton) ( $P < 0.05$ ; Fig. 2; Supplementary Table S5). In NS, the  
236 rhizosphere harbored a fungal community of higher  $\alpha$ -diversity than bulk soil. We compared the  
237  $\alpha$ -diversity of different samples from NS to that of FS. The Sobs, Chao, and ACE indices  
238 indicated that the  $\alpha$ -diversity of bulk soils from FS was generally lower than those from NS, but  
239 not significantly. In contrast, rhizosphere soils from FS were significantly higher than those from  
240 NS ( $P < 0.05$ ; Fig. 2; Supplementary Table S5).

241 Each developmental stage had dominant fungal genera found with high relative abundance.  
242 We determined the genera that had high relative abundance (relative abundance  $>0.5$ ) in the  
243 different developmental stages. In the rhizosphere soils, *Penicillium*, *Fusarium*, and *Mortierella* in  
244 FS and *Penicillium*, *Fusarium*, and *Talaromyces* in NS presented a higher relative abundance in  
245 all three developmental stages. In addition, each developmental stage harbored the specific  
246 dominant rhizosphere fungal genera (Supplementary Table S10). The number of dominant genera  
247 was highest in the budding stage.

248 We also analyzed how the fungal community was affected by the presence of cotton. A large  
249 change was defined as a difference in relative abundance between rhizosphere and bulk soil that  
250 was  $>1$  or  $<-1$ . The difference between rhizosphere and bulk soil fungal genera relative abundance  
251 differed at different developmental stages. We defined a genus for which relative abundance was  
252 greater in rhizosphere soil compared with bulk soil as an enriched fungal genus (EFG) and a genus  
253 for which abundance was lower in rhizosphere soil compared with bulk soil as a depleted fungal  
254 genus (DFG). EFGs were most abundant in the budding stage, whereas DFGs were most abundant  
255 in the seedling stage. The number of DFGs in NS was higher than in FS, in accordance with our  
256 finding that the  $\alpha$ -diversity of fungal communities was higher in NS than in FS, and many fungi  
257 were depleted under the influence of cotton root (Supplementary Table S10).

258 We analyzed the  $\beta$ -diversity of the samples based on Bray–Curtis dissimilarity analysis.  
259 Cluster analysis indicated that samples from the same soil resources were clustered into one group  
260 (Fig. 3A). The  $\beta$ -diversity of different soils (mean Bray–Curtis: 0.97) was significantly higher  
261 than the  $\beta$ -diversity of different developmental stages (mean Bray–Curtis N: 0.66, F: 0.60) ( $P <$   
262 0.01; Supplementary Table S11; Fig. 3B). Statistical analyses were conducted to assess the

263 contribution of each factor to the structure of the fungal community in the cotton rhizosphere and  
264 found that species-level soil factors contributed approximately 42.27% to the fungal community  
265 structure in the cotton rhizosphere, which was higher than other factors ( $P < 0.05$ ; Supplementary  
266 Table S11).

267 **Fig 3.  $\beta$ -diversity analysis of different treatments.** A: Cluster analysis of different treatments. B:  
268 Bray–Curtis distance analysis of different treatments.

269 *Potential pathogenic and phosphate-solubilizing fungi in the cotton rhizosphere*

270 Pathogenic fungi were mainly distributed in the genera *Alternaria*, *Fusarium*, *Gibberella* [43],  
271 *Rhizoctonia*, *Thanatephorus* [44], and *Verticillium*. We analyzed the dynamics of those genera in  
272 different soils and found that the relative abundance of each genus in the rhizosphere was higher  
273 in bulk soil in pots containing FS but lower in pots containing NS (Supplementary Table S12). In  
274 addition, the relative abundance of these genera differed during different plant developmental  
275 stages. In FS, the greatest difference in the relative abundance between bulk soil and rhizosphere  
276 was present in *Alternaria* and *Rhizoctonia* at the seedling stage, and *Fusarium*, *Thanatephorus*,  
277 *Verticillium*, and *Gibberella* at the budding stage (Fig. 4; Supplementary Table S12). The  
278 rhizosphere relative abundance of *Fusarium* was lower than bulk soil at the seedling stage, and  
279 *Rhizoctonia* was lower than bulk soil at the budding stage. We conclude that in continuously  
280 cotton-cropped soil, those genera were suppressed by the cotton root at different stages. In NS, the  
281 relative abundance of most of these genera was lower in rhizosphere soil than in bulk soil, with the  
282 exception of the seedling stage for *Alternaria* and *Fusarium*, the budding stage for *Fusarium* and  
283 *Rhizoctonia* and the flowering stage for *Gibberella* (Fig. 4; Supplementary Table S12). Cotton  
284 growth in soil that had not been cropped might have a high infection rate at each stage by those  
285 genera. The difference in these genera between the two genotypes was not significant  
286 (Supplementary Table S12). The relative abundance of disease-associated fungal genera, with the  
287 exception of *Fusarium* (FS: 2.02–43.19; NS: 3.17–7.40), was higher in NS than in FS ( $P < 0.05$ ),  
288 such as *Verticillium* (FS: 0.14–1.19; NS: 3.89–5.29) and *Alternaria* (FS: 0.04–0.85; NS: 2.01–3.27;  
289 Supplementary Table S2).

290 **Fig 4. Variations of potential pathogenic and phosphate-solubilizing fungal genera.** The

291 X-axis shows different values of relative abundance between rhizosphere soils and bulk soils.

292 *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium*, the potential phosphate-solubilizing fungal genera, were  
293 detected in our research. In NS, the relative abundance of both fungal genera was lower in the  
294 rhizosphere than in bulk soil ( $P < 0.05$ ). In FS, the relative abundance of the two fungal genera  
295 was higher in the rhizosphere than in bulk soil, but this difference was not statistically significant  
296 ( $P > 0.05$ ). In addition, the relative abundance of the two genera in rhizosphere soil was higher in  
297 FS than in NS (*Aspergillus*:  $P < 0.01$ ; *Penicillium*:  $P > 0.05$ ; Supplementary Table S12).

## 298 **Discussion**

299 *The difference in fungal community structure between the rhizosphere and bulk soil of cotton*

300 Plant roots have a remarkable effect on the physical and chemical characteristics of soil, such as  
301 its structure and water retention [45-47]. The physical and chemical characteristics of the  
302 root-associated soil are important because they determine both the physiological aspects of root  
303 function, such as water and nutrient uptake, and the microbial activity that is most relevant to root  
304 growth [48-50]. Plant roots also release root exudates, volatile substances, border cells, and  
305 polymers into the soil environment and regulate the community structure of the rhizosphere  
306 microbiome through complex interactions with soil microorganisms [51-57], promoting the  
307 colonization of beneficial microorganisms and inhibiting the colonization of harmful  
308 microorganisms [58]. Many studies have confirmed the existence of differences in the microbial  
309 communities of rhizosphere soil and the surrounding bulk soil of *Arabidopsis*, rice and *Populus*  
310 [30, 41, 59].

311 In the present study, the dominant fungal phyla in the rhizosphere of the two cultivars of  
312 cultivated allotetraploid *Gossypium* species were Ascomycota, Basidiomycota, and Zygomycota,  
313 which is the same as that in bulk soils. The relative abundance of each phylum in rhizosphere soil  
314 differed from that of bulk soil to different degrees. Fungal communities influenced by cotton roots  
315 were mainly distributed in Basidiomycota. The dominant orders of Ascomycota and Zygomycota  
316 were the same in rhizosphere and bulk soils, but Basidiomycota was different. The dominant  
317 orders of Basidiomycota were Agaricales and Auriculariales in FS and Agaricales and  
318 Trechisporales in NS, which differed from that of bulk soil. Thus, we speculate that the

319 soil-derived fungal community composition determines the rhizosphere fungal community of  
320 cotton, whereas cotton root affects the soil fungal community composition to a large extent. The  
321  $\beta$ -diversity analysis and contribution analysis of each factor based on Bray–Curtis dissimilarity  
322 confirm the conclusion that the soil resource in this study is the main factor that determines the  
323 rhizosphere fungal community.

#### 324 *Rhizosphere fungal communities varied in FS and NS*

325 The characteristic of the soil itself is an important factor affecting the community structure of  
326 plant rhizosphere microorganisms. Moreover, the microorganism composition of soil is the main  
327 cause of variation in the community structure of the rhizosphere microbiome [60, 61]. In this  
328 study, significant differences were presented in rhizosphere fungal communities between different  
329 sources of soil. The difference was presented in two aspects: 1) The influences of cotton root on  
330 different fungal species were different. For example, in NS, the relative abundance of  
331 *Engyodontium*, *Mortierella*, and *Penicillium* was lower in pots containing cotton plants, whereas  
332 the relative abundance of *Clitopilus*, *Fusarium*, and *Rhodosporidium* was higher in pots containing  
333 cotton plants; 2) The influence of cotton root on some fungal communities differed substantially  
334 between NS and FS soil. For example, the relative abundance of *Mrakia*, *Rhodosporidium*, and  
335 *Talaromyces* in rhizosphere soil compared to bulk soil was higher in NS but lower in FS. This  
336 difference might be attributed to the different characteristics of the two soil resources. Thus, we  
337 conclude that the cotton rhizosphere fungal community structure variation was mainly determined  
338 by the interaction of cotton root with different sources of soil.

339 Rhizosphere microbial diversity can improve a plant's resistance to soil-borne disease [17].  
340 Previous studies have shown that continuous cropping can decrease the structural and functional  
341 diversity of the soil microbiome [62, 63]. In the present study, pots that did not contain plants had  
342 lower fungal  $\alpha$ -diversity in FS than in NS, corroborating that long-term continuous cropping of  
343 cotton decreases fungal  $\alpha$ -diversity, which in turn may be one of the important factors inducing  
344 continuous cotton-cropping obstacles. However, after planting with cotton, the fungal  $\alpha$ -diversity  
345 of rhizosphere soils from FS was increased compared with bulk soil and higher than that of NS.  
346 We speculate that fungal communities in continuously cotton-cropped field soils might contain an  
347 abundance of fungi that are closely linked to cotton growth, nutrient absorption, and stress

348 tolerance, and the functional limitation of such fungal communities is the main reason for  
349 continuous cotton-cropping obstacles.

350 *Developmental stages contributed to the variation of the fungal community in the cotton*  
351 *rhizosphere*

352 Baudoin *et al.* proposed that the quantity and quality of root exudate input into the rhizosphere  
353 differ at different plant developmental stages, leading to differences in the composition of  
354 rhizosphere microbial communities between plant developmental stages [64]. Other studies have  
355 also demonstrated that rhizosphere microbes are significantly affected by the developmental  
356 stages of plants [65-69]. Our results indicate that the community composition of cotton  
357 rhizosphere fungi varied significantly during different developmental stages. The species richness  
358 of rhizosphere fungal communities was highest in the seedling stage in FS and in the budding  
359 stage in NS. In addition to the common dominant fungal genera of all three developmental stages,  
360 the rhizosphere fungal communities had a stage-specific dominant genus. The number of  
361 dominant genera and EFGs were the highest in the budding stage, which may be related to the  
362 plant requiring specific materials or releasing certain hormones into the soil during this stage.

363 *Alterations of potential pathogenic and phosphate-solubilizing fungal genera in the rhizosphere of*  
364 *cotton*

365 Incidence rates of soil-borne disease are affected by many factors, such as the soil environment  
366 [70, 71], soil fungal community structure and function [17, 72, 73], relative abundance of  
367 pathogenic fungi, resistance of cotton cultivars, and developmental stage of cotton. Our results  
368 show that the relative abundance of disease-associated fungal genera in the bulk soil of FS and NS  
369 differed significantly. The relative abundance of potential pathogenic fungal genera (besides  
370 *Fusarium*) was lower in bulk soil of FS compared with that of NS. However, the relative  
371 abundance of these potentially pathogenic fungal genera in the rhizosphere was higher in FS and  
372 lower in NS compared with the corresponding bulk soil treatments.

373 The effect of cotton root on potentially pathogenic soil fungal genera also differed in  
374 different plant developmental stages. In FS, the relative abundance of *Alternaria* and *Rhizoctonia*  
375 at the seedling stage and *Fusarium*, *Gibberella*, *Thanatephorus*, and *Verticillium* at the budding  
376 stage in the cotton rhizosphere had the highest enrichment compared with bulk soil. In NS, the

377 potentially pathogenic fungal genera were suppressed in rhizosphere soil, with the exception of the  
378 seedling stage for *Alternaria* and *Fusarium*, the budding stage for *Fusarium* and *Rhizoctonia* and  
379 the flowering stage for *Gibberella*. We speculate that potentially pathogenic fungal genera  
380 enriched in a developmental stage have a high infection rate of cotton root and thus cause a high  
381 incidence of soil-borne disease. The incidence rate was higher in FS than in NS and highest in the  
382 budding stage.

383 Diseases associated with fungal genera also differed by cotton genotype. Upland cotton  
384 (TM-1) was more susceptible to disease than island cotton (Hai7124), but this difference was not  
385 significant.

386 Fungi play an important role in the absorption and transformation of nutrients, especially  
387 phosphate-solubilizing fungi [14-16, 74]. Fungal species of *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium*, such as  
388 *Aspergillus tubingensis*, *Aspergillus niger* [75], *Aspergillus awamori*, *Penicillium citrinum* [15],  
389 *Penicillium albidum* [76], and *Penicillium oxalicum* [77], play an important role in phosphate  
390 solubility. We analyzed the dynamics of the two potential phosphate-solubilizing fungal genera. In  
391 cotton rhizosphere soils, the relative abundance of the two genera was higher in FS than in NS.  
392 This may be attributed to differences in physical and chemical properties and utilization of  
393 nutrient substances.

394 Our study provides insights into the structural variation of rhizosphere fungal communities  
395 under the influence of soil resources, developmental stage, and genotype, which might play key  
396 roles in cotton growth and health. The soil resources, cotton developmental stage, and cotton  
397 genotype all impacted cotton rhizosphere fungal community composition. The composition of the  
398 cotton rhizosphere fungal community was primarily determined by soil resources and regulated to  
399 a certain degree by plant developmental stage. A limited effect was found for the cotton genotype.



401           **REFERENCES**

- 402       1.    Perez-Jaramillo JE, Mendes R, Raaijmakers JM. Impact of plant domestication on rhizosphere  
403       microbiome assembly and functions. *Plant Mol Biol.* 2016;90(6):635-44.
- 404       2.    Wu Q-S, Zou Y-N, Huang Y-M. The arbuscular mycorrhizal fungus *Diversispora spurca*  
405       ameliorates effects of waterlogging on growth, root system architecture and antioxidant enzyme  
406       activities of citrus seedlings. *Fungal Ecology.* 2013;6(1):37-43.
- 407       3.    Gannes Vd, Eudoxie G, Bekele I, Hickey WJ. Relations of microbiome characteristics to edaphic  
408       properties of tropical soils from Trinidad. *Front Microbiol.* 2015;6:1045.
- 409       4.    Xu Z, Yu G, Zhang X, Ge J, He N, Wang Q, et al. The variations in soil microbial communities,  
410       enzyme activities and their relationships with soil organic matter decomposition along the northern  
411       slope of changbai mountain. *Appl Soil Ecol.* 2015;86:19-29.
- 412       5.    Eva O, Barbara G, Wolfgang W, Andrea W, Christian S, Yvonne S, et al. Microbial  
413       decomposition of <sup>13</sup>C- labeled phytosiderophores in the rhizosphere of wheat: Mineralization  
414       dynamics and key microbial groups involved. *Soil Biol Biochem.* 2016;98:196-207.
- 415       6.    Itoh K. Study of the ecology of pesticide-degrading microorganisms in soil and an assessment of  
416       pesticide effects on the ecosystem. *J Pestic Sci.* 2014;39(3):174-6.
- 417       7.    Kotoky R, Rajkumari J, Pandey P. The rhizosphere microbiome: Significance in rhizoremediation  
418       of polyaromatic hydrocarbon contaminated soil. *Journal of Environmental Management.*  
419       2018;217:858-70.
- 420       8.    Trivedi P, Delgado-Baquerizo M, Trivedi C, Hu H, Anderson IC, Jeffries TC, et al. Microbial  
421       regulation of the soil carbon cycle: evidence from gene-enzyme relationships. *ISME J.*  
422       2016;10(11):2593-604.
- 423       9.    Thion CE, Poirel JD, Cornulier T, De Vries FT, Bardgett RD, Prosser JI. Plant nitrogen-use  
424       strategy as a driver of rhizosphere archaeal and bacterial ammonia oxidiser abundance. *FEMS*  
425       *Microbiol Ecol.* 2016;92(7).
- 426       10.   Cotta SR, Dias ACF, Seldin L, Andreote FD, Elsas JDv. The diversity and abundance of phytase  
427       genes ( $\beta$ -propeller phytases) in bacterial communities of the maize rhizosphere. *Lett Appl Microbiol.*  
428       2016;62(3):264-8.
- 429       11.   Kertesz MA, Mirleau P. The role of soil microbes in plant sulphur nutrition. *J Exp Bot.*  
430       2004;55(404):1939.
- 431       12.   Igiehon NO, Babalola OO. Rhizosphere Microbiome Modulators: Contributions of Nitrogen  
432       Fixing Bacteria towards Sustainable Agriculture. *International Journal of Environmental Research &*  
433       *Public Health.* 2018;15(4).
- 434       13.   Ellouze W, Esmaili Taheri A, Bainard LD, Yang C, Bazghaleh N, Navarro-Borrell A, et al. Soil  
435       Fungal Resources in Annual Cropping Systems and Their Potential for Management. *BioMed Res Int.*  
436       2014;2014:15.
- 437       14.   Wakelin SA, Warren RA, Harvey PR, Ryder MH. Phosphate solubilization by *Penicillium* spp.  
438       closely associated with wheat roots. *Biol Fert Soils.* 2004;40(1):36-43.
- 439       15.   Mittal V, Singh O, Nayyar H, Kaur J, Tewari R. Stimulatory effect of phosphate-solubilizing  
440       fungal strains (*Aspergillus awamori* and *Penicillium citrinum*) on the yield of chickpea (*Cicer*  
441       *arietinum* L. cv. GPF2). *Soil Biol Biochem.* 2008;40(3):718-27.
- 442       16.   Xiao C, Chi R, He H, Qiu G, Wang D, Zhang W. Isolation of phosphate-solubilizing fungi from

- 443 phosphate mines and their effect on wheat seedling growth. *Appl Biochem Biotechnol.*  
444 2009;159(2):330-42.
- 445 17. Kowalchuk GA, Veen JAHv. The significance of microbial diversity in agricultural soil for  
446 suppressiveness of plant diseases and nutrient retention. *Physiol Behav.* 2004;100(5):519-24.
- 447 18. Chapelle E, Mendes R, Bakker PA, Raaijmakers JM. Fungal invasion of the rhizosphere  
448 microbiome. *ISME J.* 2016;10(1):265-8.
- 449 19. Zhang Y, He J, Jia L-J, Yuan T-L, Zhang D, Guo Y, et al. Cellular tracking and gene profiling of  
450 fusarium graminearum during maize stalk rot disease development elucidates its strategies in  
451 confronting phosphorus limitation in the host apoplast. *PLOS Pathog.* 2016;12(3):e1005485.
- 452 20. Rebbeck J, Malone MA, Short D, Kasson MT, O'Neal ES, Davis DD. First report of verticillium  
453 wilt caused by *Verticillium nonalfalfaeon* tree-of-heaven (*Ailanthus altissima*) in Ohio. *Plant Dis.*  
454 2013;97(7):999-1000.
- 455 21. Tetali S, Karpagavalli S, Pavani SL. Management of dry root rot of blackgram caused by  
456 *Macrophomina phaseolina* (Tassi) Goid. using bio agent. *Plant Arch.* 2015;15(2):647-50.
- 457 22. Garbeva P, Veen JAV, Elsas JDV. MICROBIAL DIVERSITY IN SOIL: Selection of Microbial  
458 Populations by Plant and Soil Type and Implications for Disease Suppressiveness. *Annual Review of*  
459 *Phytopathology.* 2004;42(42):243-70.
- 460 23. Chapelle E, Mendes R, Bakker PAH, Raaijmakers JM. Fungal invasion of the rhizosphere  
461 microbiome. *Isme Journal.* 2016;10(1):265-8.
- 462 24. Kowalchuk GA, Veen JAV. The significance of microbial diversity in agricultural soil for  
463 suppressiveness of plant diseases and nutrient retention. *Physiology & Behavior.* 2004;100(5):519-24.
- 464 25. Zhang Q, Gao X, Ren Y, Ding X, Qiu J, Li N, et al. Improvement of Verticillium Wilt Resistance  
465 by Applying Arbuscular Mycorrhizal Fungi to a Cotton Variety with High Symbiotic Efficiency under  
466 Field Conditions. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences.* 2018;19(1):241.
- 467 26. Tkacz A, Cheema J, Chandra G, Grant A, Poole PS. Stability and succession of the rhizosphere  
468 microbiota depends upon plant type and soil composition. *ISME J.* 2015;9(11):2349-59.
- 469 27. Kazeeroni EA, Al-Sadi AM. 454-pyrosequencing reveals variable fungal diversity across farming  
470 systems. *Front Plant Sci.* 2016;7:314.
- 471 28. Zarraindia I, Owens SM, Weisenhorn P, West K, Hampton-Marcell J, Lax S, et al. The soil  
472 microbiome influences grapevine-associated microbiota. *mBio.* 2015;6(2):e02527-14.
- 473 29. Bulgarelli D, Garrido-Oter R, Münch Philipp C, Weiman A, Dröge J, Pan Y, et al. Structure and  
474 function of the bacterial root microbiota in wild and domesticated barley. *Cell host & microbe.*  
475 2015;17(3):392-403.
- 476 30. Shakya M, Gottel N, Castro H, Yang ZK, Gunter L, Labbe J, et al. A multifactor analysis of  
477 fungal and bacterial community structure in the root microbiome of mature *Populus deltoides* trees.  
478 *PloS one.* 2013;8(10):e76382.
- 479 31. Zhang W, Long X, Huo X, Chen Y, Lou K. 16S rRNA-Based PCR-DGGE Analysis of  
480 Actinomycete Communities in Fields with Continuous Cotton Cropping in Xinjiang, China. *Microbial*  
481 *Ecol.* 2013;66(2):385-93.
- 482 32. Vargas Gil S, Meriles J, Conforto C, Figoni G, Basanta M, Lovera E, et al. Field assessment of  
483 soil biological and chemical quality in response to crop management practices. *World J Microbiol*  
484 *Biotech.* 2009;25(3):439-48.
- 485 33. Peralta AL, Sun Y, Mcdaniel MD, Lennon JT. Crop rotational diversity increases disease  
486 suppressive capacity of soil microbiomes. *Ecosphere.* 2018;9(5):e02235.

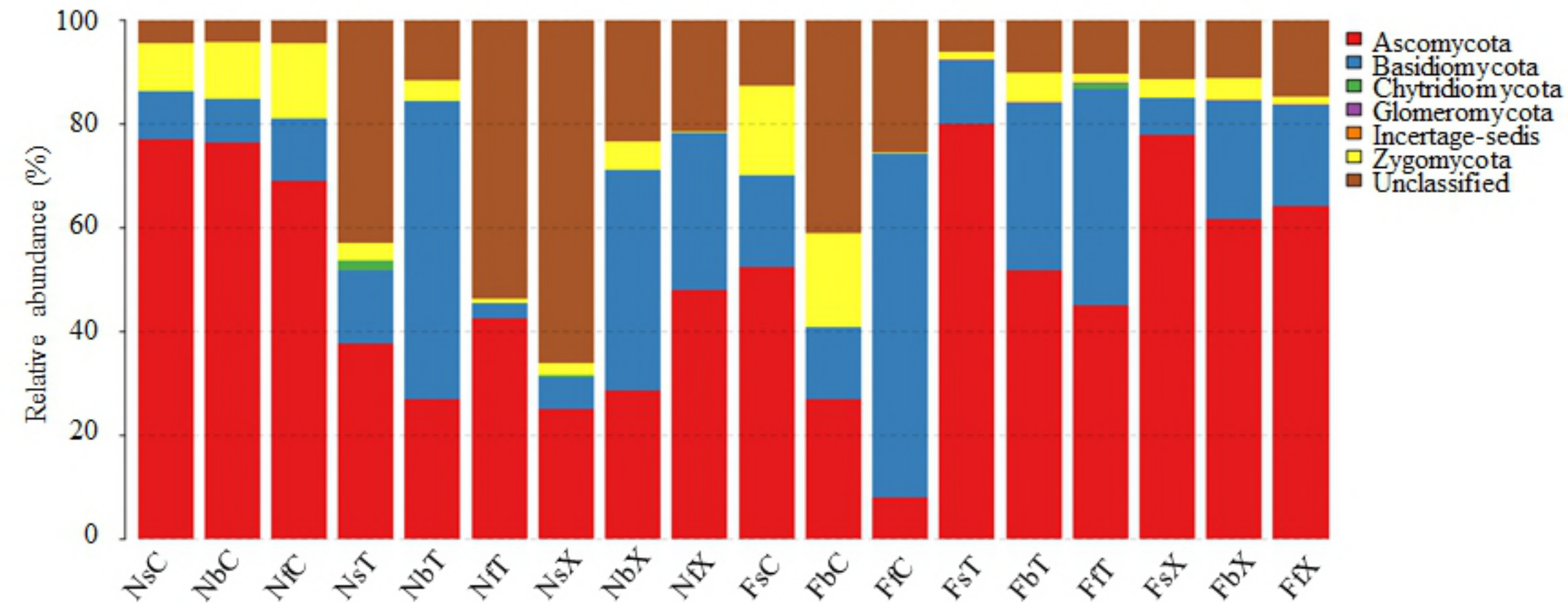
- 487 34. Bai L, Cui J, Jie W, Cai B. Analysis of the community compositions of rhizosphere fungi in  
488 soybeans continuous cropping fields. *Microbiol Res.* 2015;180(Supplement C):49-56.
- 489 35. Fu Q, Liu C, Ding N, Lin Y, Guo B, Luo J, et al. Soil microbial communities and enzyme  
490 activities in a reclaimed coastal soil chronosequence under rice–barley cropping. *J Soil Sediment.*  
491 2012;12(7):1134-44.
- 492 36. Bacharis C, Gouziotis A, Kalogeropoulou P, Koutita O, Tzavella-Klonari K, Karaoglanidis GS.  
493 Characterization of *Rhizoctonia* spp. isolates associated with damping-off disease in cotton and tobacco  
494 seedlings in Greece. *Plant Dis.* 2010;94(11):1314-22.
- 495 37. Sanogo S, Zhang J. Resistance sources, resistance screening techniques and disease management  
496 for Fusarium wilt in cotton. *Euphytica.* 2015;207(2):255-71.
- 497 38. Laidou IA, Koulakiotu EK, Thanassouloupoulos CC. First report of stem canker caused by  
498 *Alternaria alternata* on cotton. *Plant Dis.* 2007;84(1):103-.
- 499 39. Zhang W, Zhang H, Qi F, Jian G. Generation of transcriptome profiling and gene functional  
500 analysis in *Gossypium hirsutum* upon *Verticillium dahliae* infection. *Biochem Bioph Res Co.*  
501 2016;473(4):879-85.
- 502 40. Knox O, Vadakattu G, Lardner R. Field evaluation of the effects of cotton variety and GM status  
503 on rhizosphere microbial diversity and function in Australian soils. *Soil Res.* 2014;52(2):203.
- 504 41. Lundberg DS, Lebeis SL, Paredes SH, Yourstone S, Gehring J, Malfatti S, et al. Defining the core  
505 *Arabidopsis thaliana* root microbiome. *Nature.* 2012;488(7409):86-90.
- 506 42. Qiao Q, Wang F, Zhang J, Chen Y, Zhang C, Liu G, et al. The variation in the rhizosphere  
507 microbiome of cotton with soil type, genotype and developmental stage. *Sci Rep.* 2017;7(1):3940.
- 508 43. Desjardins AE. Gibberella from A (venaceae) to Z (eae). *Annu Rev Phytopathol.* 2003;41:177-98.
- 509 44. Flentje N, Dodman R, Kerr A. The Mechanism of Host Penetration by *Thanatephorus Cucumeris*.  
510 *Aus J Biol Sci.* 1963;16(4):784-99.
- 511 45. Whalley WR, Riseley B, Leeds-Harrison PB, Bird NRA, Leech PK, Adderley WP. Structural  
512 differences between bulk and rhizosphere soil. *Eur J Soil Sci.* 2005;56(3):353-60.
- 513 46. Gould IJ, Quinton JN, Weigelt A, Deyn GBD, Bardgett RD. Plant diversity and root traits benefit  
514 physical properties key to soil function in grasslands. *Ecol Lett.* 2016;19(9):1140-39.
- 515 47. Odell RE, Dumlao MR, Samar D, Silk WK. Stage-dependent border cell and carbon flow from  
516 roots to rhizosphere. *American journal of botany.* 2008;95(4):441-6.
- 517 48. Bjørnlund L, Mørk S, Vestergård M, Rønn R. Trophic interactions between rhizosphere bacteria  
518 and bacterial feeders influenced by phosphate and aphids in barley. *Biol Fert Soils* 2006;43(1):1-11.
- 519 49. Stumpf L, Pualetto EA, Pinto LFS. Soil aggregation and root growth of perennial grasses in a  
520 constructed clay minesoil. *Soil Till Res.* 2016;161:71-8.
- 521 50. Zhu S, Vivanco JM, Manter DK. Nitrogen fertilizer rate affects root exudation, the rhizosphere  
522 microbiome and nitrogen-use-efficiency of maize. *Appl Soil Ecol.* 2016;107:324-33.
- 523 51. Watson BS, Bedair MF, Urbanczyk-Wochniak E, Huhman DV, Yang DS, Allen SN, et al.  
524 Integrated metabolomics and transcriptomics reveal enhanced specialized metabolism in *Medicago*  
525 *truncatula* root border cells. *Plant Physiol.* 2015;167(4):1699-716.
- 526 52. Haichar FeZ, Santaella C, Heulin T, Achouak W. Root exudates mediated interactions  
527 belowground. *Soil Biol Biochem.* 2014;77:69-80.
- 528 53. Huang XF, Chaparro JM, Reardon KF, Zhang R, Shen Q, Vivanco JM. Rhizosphere interactions:  
529 root exudates, microbes, and microbial communities I. *Botany.* 2014;92(4):267-75.
- 530 54. Plancot B, Santaella C, Jaber R, Kiefer-Meyer MC, Follet-Gueye M-L, Leprince J, et al.

- 531 Deciphering the responses of root border-like cells of Arabidopsis and flax to pathogen-derived  
532 elicitors. *Plant Physiol.* 2013;163(4):1584.
- 533 55. Curlango-Rivera G, Huskey DA, Mostafa A, Kessler JO, Xiong Z, Hawes MC. Intraspecies  
534 variation in cotton border cell production: rhizosphere microbiome implications. *Am J Bot.*  
535 2013;100(9):1706-12.
- 536 56. Kawasaki A, Donn S, Ryan PR, Mathesius U, Devilla R, Jones A, et al. Microbiome and exudates  
537 of the root and rhizosphere of brachypodium distachyon, a model for wheat. *PloS one.*  
538 2016;11(10):e0164533.
- 539 57. Chen Z, Tian Y, Zhang Y, Song BR, Li H, Chen Z. Effects of root organic exudates on  
540 rhizosphere microbes and nutrient removal in the constructed wetlands. *Ecol Eng.* 2016;92:243-50.
- 541 58. Bulgarelli D, Schlaeppi K, Spaepen S, Themaat EVLv, Schulze-Lefert P. Structure and functions  
542 of the bacterial microbiota of plants. *Annu Rev Plant Biol.* 2013;64(1):807-38.
- 543 59. Edwardsa J, Johnsona C, Santos-Medellina C, Luriea E, Podishettyb NK, Bhatnagarc S, et al.  
544 Structure, variation, and assembly of the root-associated microbiomes of rice. *PROC Nat Acad Sci.*  
545 2015;112(8):E911-E20.
- 546 60. Xu L, Ravnskov S, Larsen J, Nilsson RH, Nicolaisen M. Soil fungal community structure along a  
547 soil health gradient in pea fields examined using deep amplicon sequencing. *Soil Biol Biochem.*  
548 2012;46:26-32.
- 549 61. Bakker MG, Chaparro JM, Manter DK, Vivanco JM. Impacts of bulk soil microbial community  
550 structure on rhizosphere microbiomes of *Zea mays*. *Plant Soil.* 2015;392(1-2):115-26.
- 551 62. Ling N, Kaiying D, Song Y, Wu Y, Zhao J, Raza W, et al. Variation of rhizosphere bacterial  
552 community in watermelon continuous mono-cropping soil by long-term application of a novel  
553 bioorganic fertilizer. *Microbiol Res.* 2014;169(7-8):570.
- 554 63. Gleń-Karolczyk K, Boligłowa E, Antonkiewicz J. Organic fertilization shapes the biodiversity of  
555 fungal communities associated with potato dry rot. *Applied Soil Ecology.* 2018.
- 556 64. Baudoin E, Benizri E, Guckert A. Impact of growth stage on the bacterial community structure  
557 along maize roots, as determined by metabolic and genetic fingerprinting. *Appl Soil Ecol.*  
558 2002;19(2):135-45.
- 559 65. Okubo T, Tokida T, Ikeda S, Bao Z, Tago K, Hayatsu M, et al. Effects of elevated carbon dioxide,  
560 elevated temperature, and rice growth stage on the community structure of rice root-associated bacteria.  
561 *Microbes Environ.* 2014;29(2):184-90.
- 562 66. Inceoğlu Ö, Salles JF, Overbeek Lv, Elsas JDv. Effects of plant genotype and growth stage on the  
563 betaproteobacterial communities associated with different potato cultivars in two fields. *Appl Environ*  
564 *Microbiol.* 2010;76(11):3675-584.
- 565 67. Li X, Rui J, Mao Y, Yannarell A, Mackie R. Dynamics of the bacterial community structure in  
566 the rhizosphere of a maize cultivar. *Soil Biol Biochem.* 2014;68:392-401.
- 567 68. Breidenbach B, Pump J, Dumont MG. Microbial community structure in the rhizosphere of rice  
568 plants. *Front Microbiol.* 2016;6:1537.
- 569 69. Schlemper TR, Mfa L, Lucheta AR, Shimels M, Bouwmeester HJ, van Veen JA, et al.  
570 Rhizobacterial community structure differences among sorghum cultivars in different growth stages  
571 and soils. *FEMS microbiology ecology.* 2017;93(8):1-11.
- 572 70. Zhang T, Wang N-F, Liu H-Y, Zhang Y-Q, Yu L-Y. Soil pH is a key determinant of soil fungal  
573 community composition in the Ny-Alesund region, Svalbard (High Arctic). *Front Microbiol.*  
574 2016;7:244.

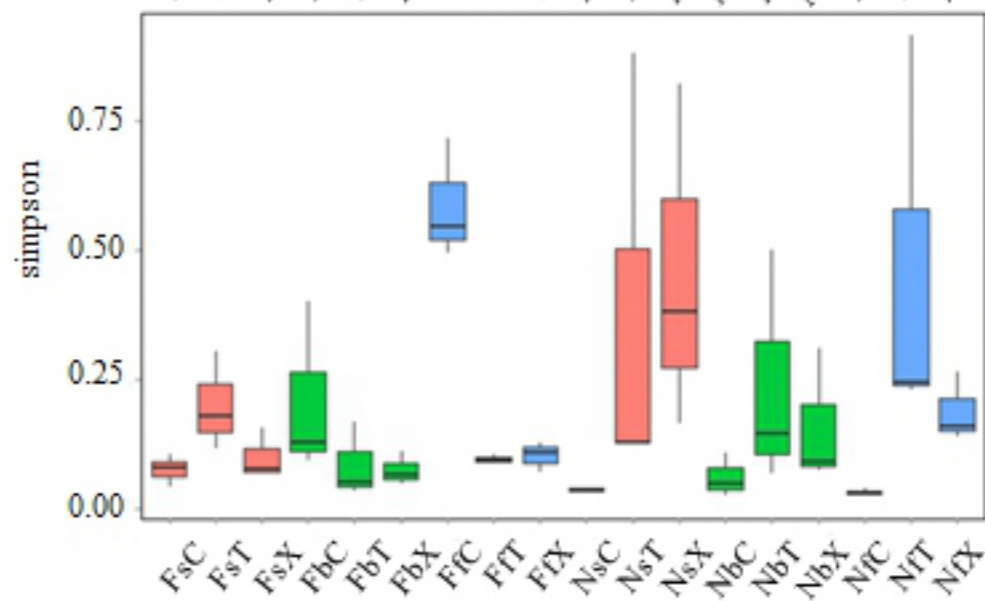
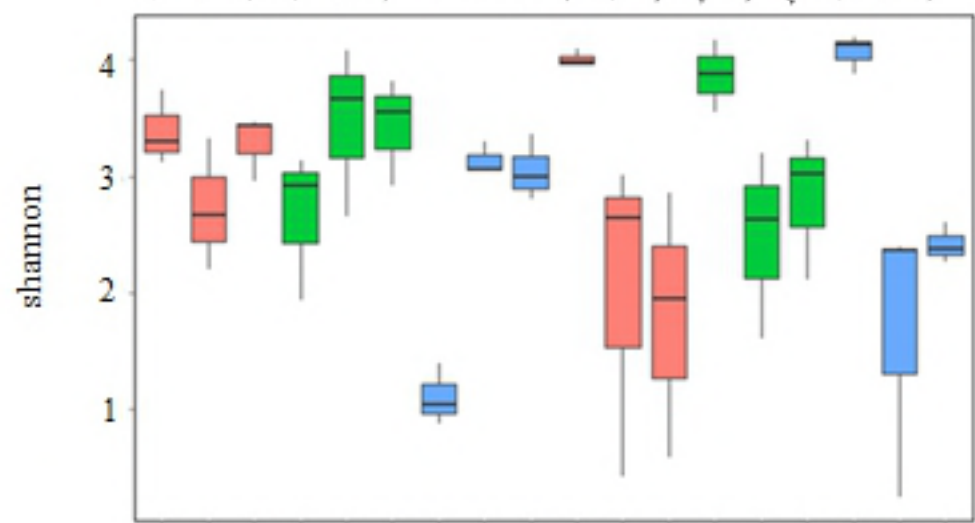
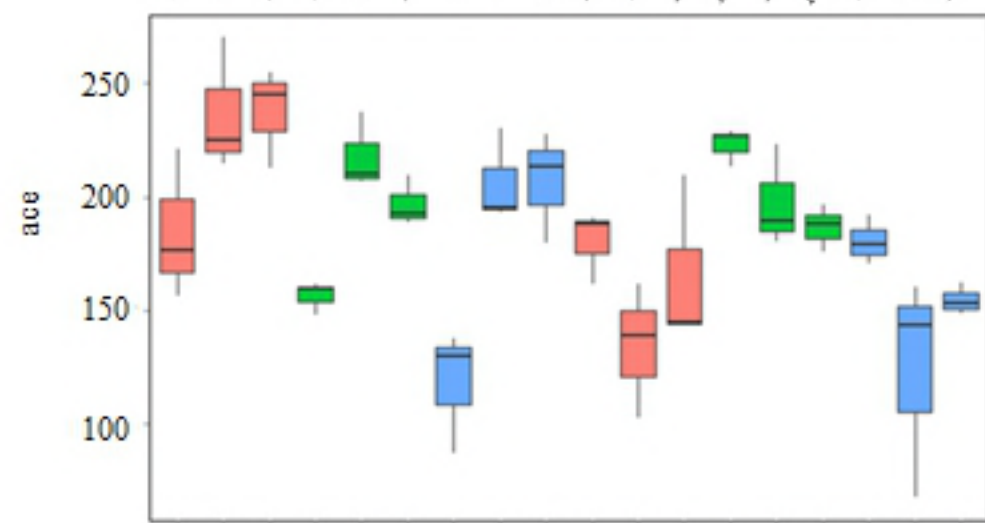
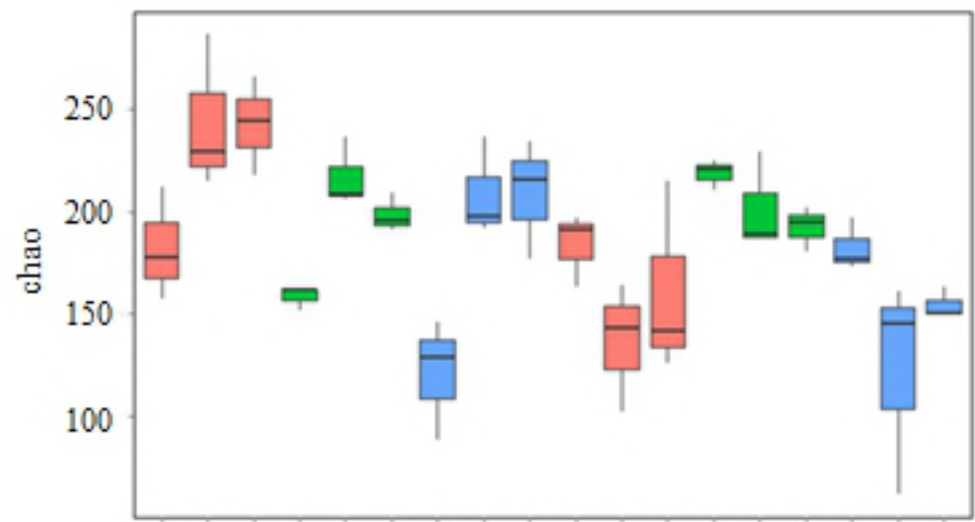
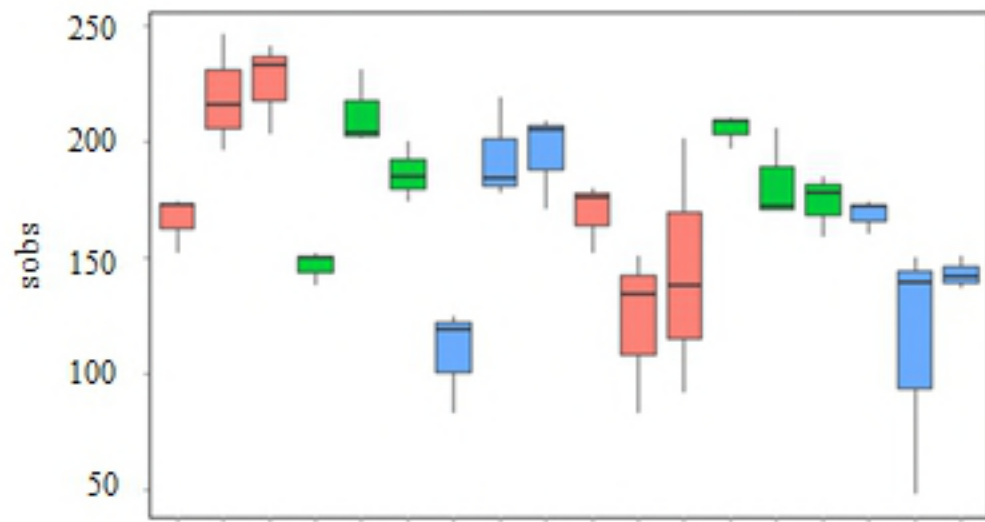
- 575 71. Rahman M, Punja ZK. Factors Influencing Development of Root Rot on Ginseng Caused by  
576 *Cylindrocarpon destructans*. *Phytopathology*. 2005;95(12):1381-90.
- 577 72. Silva-Hughes AF, Wedge DE, Cantrell CL, Carvalho CR, Pan Z, Moraes RM, et al. Diversity and  
578 antifungal activity of the endophytic fungi associated with the native medicinal cactus *Opuntia*  
579 *humifusa* (Cactaceae) from the United States. *Microbiol Res*. 2015;175:67-77.
- 580 73. Silva GH, de Oliveira CM, Teles HL, Pauletti PM, Castro-Gamboa I, Silva DHS, et al.  
581 Sesquiterpenes from *Xylaria* sp., an endophytic fungus associated with *Piper aduncum* (Piperaceae).  
582 *Phytochem Lett*. 2010;3(3):164-7.
- 583 74. Zhang Y, Chen FS, Wu XQ, Luan FG, Zhang LP, Fang XM, et al. Isolation and characterization  
584 of two phosphate-solubilizing fungi from rhizosphere soil of moso bamboo and their functional  
585 capacities when exposed to different phosphorus sources and pH environments. *PloS one*.  
586 2018;13(7):e0199625.
- 587 75. Reddy MS, Kumar S, Babita K. Biosolubilization of poorly soluble rock phosphates by  
588 *Aspergillus tubingensis* and *Aspergillus niger*. *Bioresource Technology*. 2002;84(2):187-9.
- 589 76. Morales A, Marysol A, Valenzuela E, Rubio R, Borie F. Effect of inoculation with *Penicillium*  
590 *albidum*, a phosphate-solubilizing fungus, on the growth of *Trifolium pratense* cropped in a volcanic  
591 soil. *J Basic Microb*. 2007;47(3):275-80.
- 592 77. Gong M, Du P, Liu X, Zhu C. Transformation of Inorganic P Fractions of Soil and Plant Growth  
593 Promotion by Phosphate-solubilizing Ability of *Penicillium oxalicum* I1. *J Microbiol*.  
594 2014;52(12):1012-9.
- 595

596 **Supporting information:**  
597 **Supplementary Fig S1. Relative abundance of fungal phyla in bulk soil of both soils.**  
598 **Supplementary Fig S2. Relative abundance of fungal phyla in the rhizosphere of cotton**  
599 **planted in field soil that has been continuously cotton-cropped.**  
600 **Supplementary Fig S3. Relative abundance of fungal phyla in the rhizosphere of cotton**  
601 **planted in nutrient-rich soil.**  
602 **Supplementary Fig S4. Total number of OTUs of specific and common fungi in different**  
603 **treatments.**  
604 **Supplementary materials and methods S1**  
605 **Supplementary Table S1. Statistics and analyses of sequencing data.**  
606 **Supplementary Table S2. Relative abundance of fungi in bulk soil.**  
607 **Supplementary Table S3. Relative abundance of fungi in rhizosphere soil.**  
608 **Supplementary Table S4. Relative abundance increases multiples in rhizosphere fungal**  
609 **phyla compared with bulk soils.**  
610 **Supplementary Table S5. OTU numbers and  $\alpha$ -diversity of each sample.**  
611 **Supplementary Table S6. Fungal genera that were increased or decreased in relative**  
612 **abundance in the rhizosphere compared with bulk soil in field soil.**  
613 **Supplementary Table S7. Fungal genera that were increased or decreased in relative**  
614 **abundance in the rhizosphere compared with bulk soil in nutrient-rich soil.**  
615 **Supplementary Table S8. Relative abundance of fungal genera that were affected by the**  
616 **presence of cotton root in nutrient-rich soil.**  
617 **Supplementary Table S9. Relative abundance of genera that were affected by the presence of**  
618 **cotton root in field soil.**  
619 **Supplementary Table S10. Analysis of fungal genera found during different plant**  
620 **developmental stages.**  
621 **Supplementary Table S11. Beta-diversity between samples.**  
622 **Supplementary Table S12. Analysis of potential pathogenic and phosphate-solubilizing**  
623 **fungal genera.**



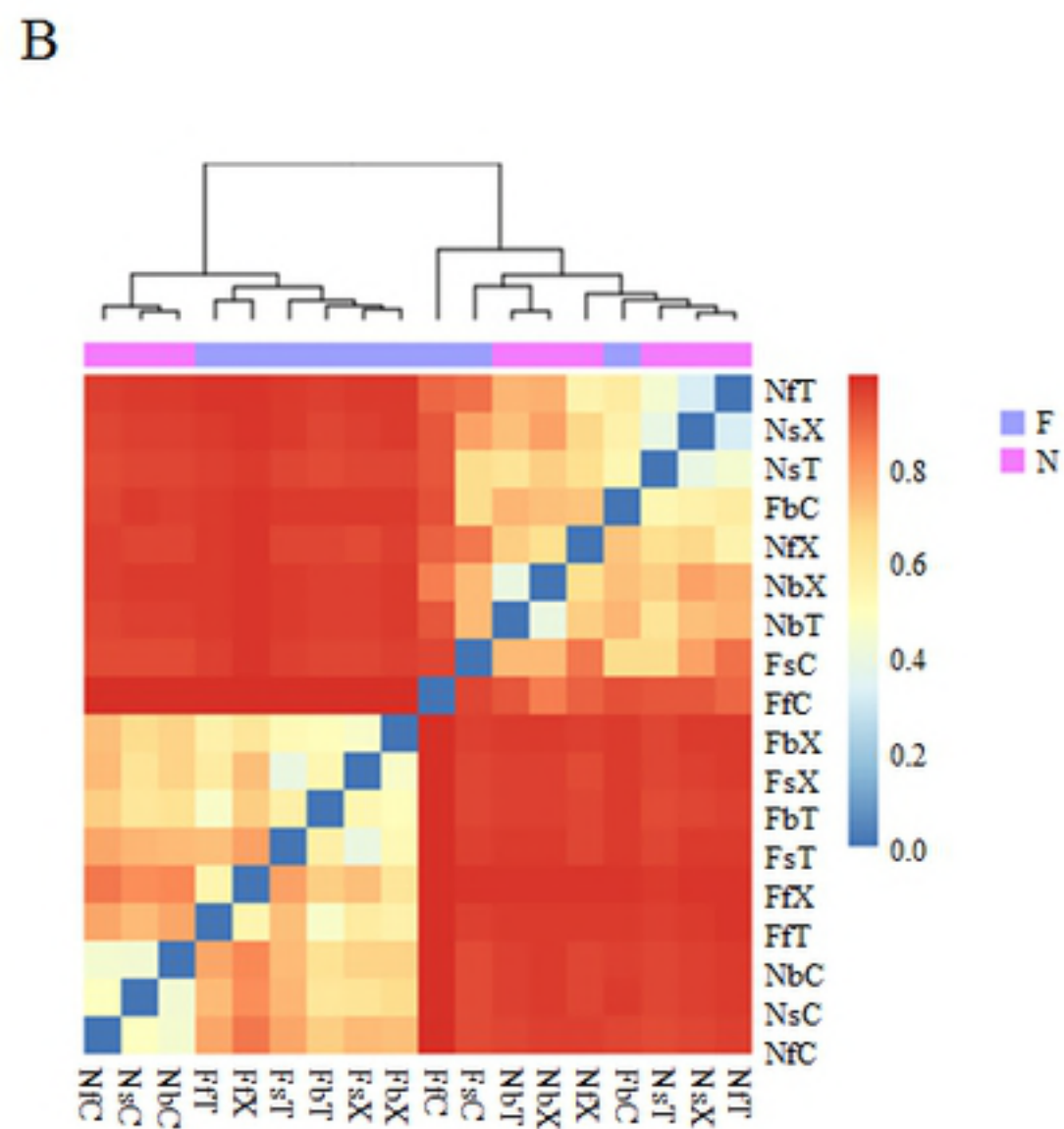
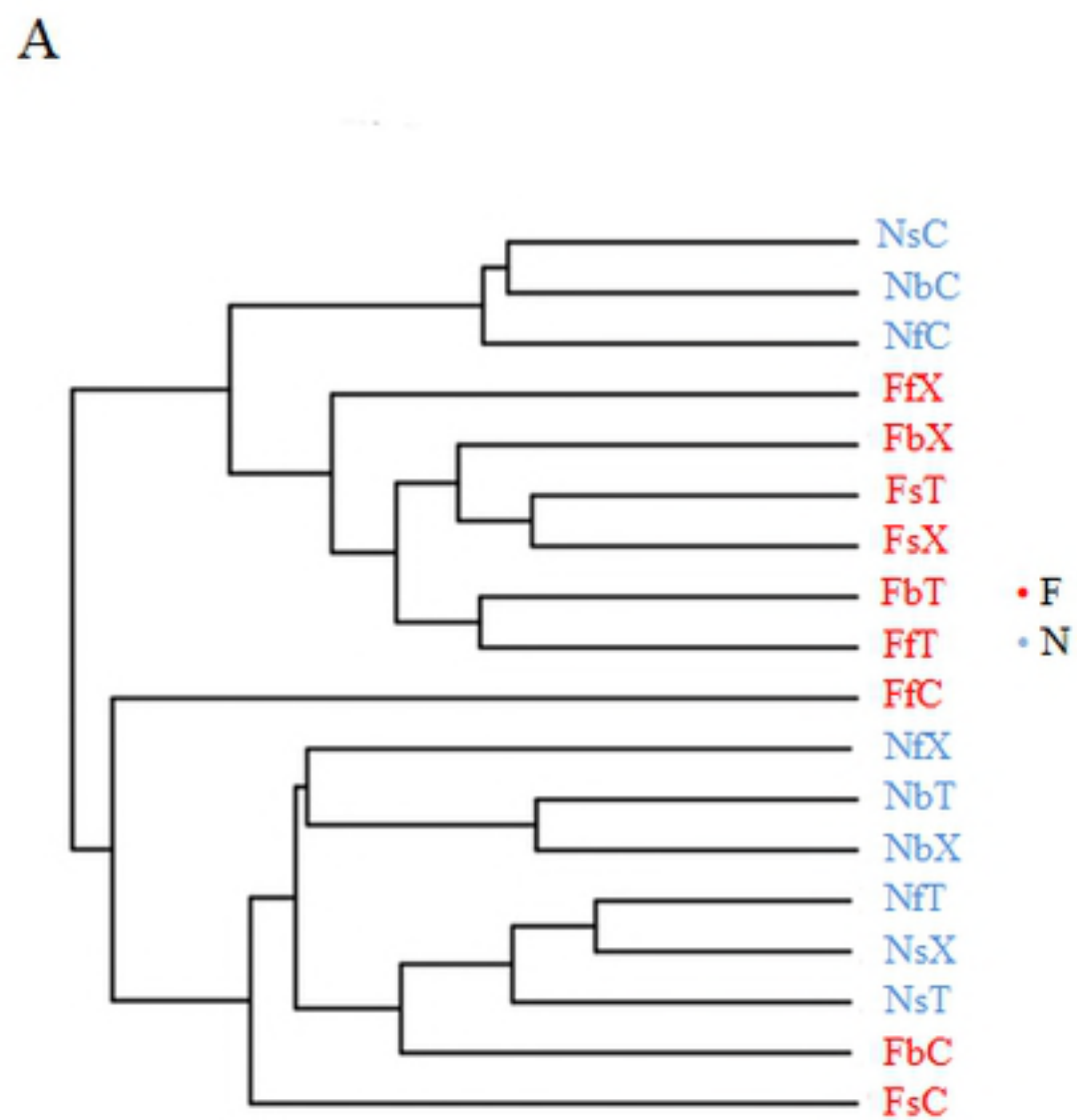


Figure

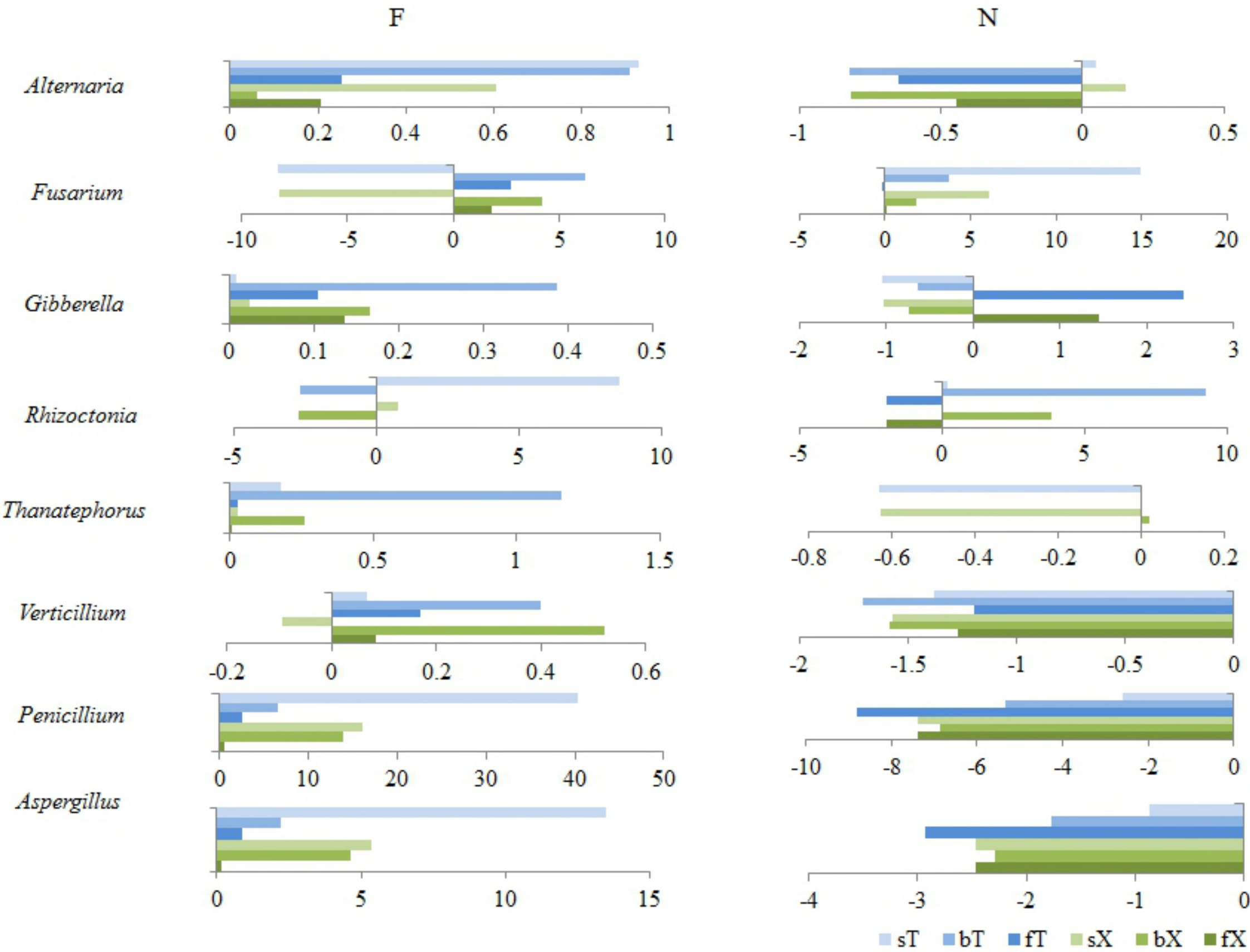


Figure





Figure



Figure