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2

3 **Revealing interactions between root phenolic metabolomes and rhizosphere**
4 **bacterial communities in *Populus euphratica* plantations**

5

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23 **Abstract** How the root metabolic profiles and rhizosphere bacterial communities of
24 dioecious plants respond to soil properties and sex identity is largely unknown. In this
25 study, we analyzed root phenolic metabolomes and rhizosphere bacterial microbiomes
26 of *Populus euphratica* females and males in two *P. euphratica* plantations with different
27 soil properties to reveal the relative importance of soil and sex effects, and to decipher
28 associations of certain phenolic compounds with specific bacterial taxa. We found that
29 the relative abundances of bacterial OTUs and phenolic metabolites were closely linked
30 to soil properties and sex identity. Soil is the main filter influencing the root phenolic
31 metabolic profiles and rhizosphere bacterial communities of *P. euphratica*, while sexes
32 and their interactions with soil properties are secondary factors. Differences in the
33 diversity and evenness of phenolic metabolites were affected by plant sex, but not by
34 soil properties. Conversely, the diversity and evenness of bacterial communities were
35 affected by soil properties independent of plant sex. A multiple regression model
36 indicated the presence of associations between root phenolic metabolites and specific
37 soil bacteria taxa. Furthermore, all bacterial phyla and families correlated with at least
38 one phenolic metabolite. Especially, both *Nitrosomonadaceae* and *Cytophagaceae*
39 positively correlated with salicylic acid. Thus, our study provides new insights into the
40 ecological mechanism that maintains rhizosphere bacterial communities in *P.*
41 *euphratica* plantations in the desert area.

42
43 **Keywords:** Dioecious plants; Bacterial community assembly; Microbial diversity; Soil
44 properties; Phenolic metabolome; *Populus euphratica* plantation

45 **Introduction**

46

47 During the process of co-evolution, microbiomes and their hosts form dynamically
48 balanced ecosystems. Plants provide suitable habitats and nutrients for microbes.
49 Reciprocally, microbes can significantly improve plant growth, nutrient absorption,
50 photosynthesis, and stress and disease resistance (Compant et al. 2019; Yu et al. 2019;
51 de la Fuente et al. 2020). Studies on rhizosphere microbiomes have focused on the
52 effects of plant gene expression on the microbes present in the soil matrix in different
53 environments (Lareen et al. 2016; Veach et al. 2019), but the relative contributions of
54 the environment and plant genes need to be further explored. An accurate assessment
55 of the relative role of these factors within the framework of root-soil-microbe
56 interactions would be critical when predicting the microbiome regulation of plants'
57 nutrition and health.

58

59 Changes in physicochemical properties of soil, such as pH, nutrients and moisture, can
60 affect not only the colonization of microbes but also the overall community
61 composition of microbes and even the preferences of specific functional microbial
62 groups in the rhizosphere (Bais et al. 2006; Hinsinger et al. 2009; Guo et al. 2019). On
63 the other hand, plants can shape the surrounding microbial community through root
64 exudation or rhizodeposition, which can enrich specific microbial populations and
65 promote their activity (Paterson et al. 2007; de Graaff et al. 2010; Zhalnina et al. 2018).

66 Over time, this process can lead to plants selecting specific beneficial rhizosphere

67 microbes (Yu et al. 2019). Root phenolic compounds, as secondary metabolites in roots,
68 are often regarded as an important chemical defense system for plants to prevent
69 pathogen infections and soil fauna from feeding on them (Barbehenn and Constabel
70 2011; Boeckler et al. 2011). In addition, phenolic compounds can increase the relative
71 abundance of certain microbes, thus providing growth benefits and immune resistance
72 for plants (Shi et al. 2011; Voges et al. 2019).

73

74 Generally, phenolic metabolites affect bacteria more than fungi (Gu et al. 2020).
75 *Arabidopsis thaliana* genotypes were found to increase the density of *Pseudomonas*
76 spp. by manipulating the expression of salicylic acid signals and they may regulate the
77 colonization of specific bacterial taxa, such as *Streptomytidae* (Lebeis et al. 2015).
78 Badri et al. (2013) discovered that phenolic compounds in root exudates were
79 significantly positively correlated with the number of bacterial OTUs. The phenolic
80 profiles vary greatly among different plants. For instance, Veach et al. (2019) suggested
81 that the phenolic profile in *Populus* roots was diverse and abundant, and the production
82 of salicylic acid derivatives varied among *Populus* clones under specific soil conditions,
83 leading to differences in the composition of bacterial communities. Consequently,
84 variation in plants' phenolic profiles may potentially induce changes in bacterial
85 microbiomes, thus affecting plant-soil interactions.

86

87 Natural selection may drive sexual differentiation among dioecious plants, leading to
88 sex-specific growth strategies (Obeso 2002). Female and male plants exhibit sexual

89 dimorphism not only in reproductive organs but also in vegetative traits, such as leaf
90 morphology, secondary chemistry and phenology (Randriamanana et al. 2014; Nissinen
91 et al. 2018; Rozas et al. 2019). Due to different reproductive costs, sexual differences
92 in chemical defenses often occur in dioecious plants (Cornelissen and Stiling 2005;
93 Avila-Sakar et al. 2012). Females typically invest more in chemical defense than males,
94 because they produce fruit and seeds. Total phenolic content in female leaves is higher
95 than that in male leaves, and the leaf phenolic profile of females is different from that
96 of males, which results in stronger herbivore and disease resistance in females (ZC Xia,
97 unpublished data).

98

99 To our best knowledge, no previous studies have explored sexual differences in root
100 phenolic profiles and their associations with root-related microbes in nature. Generally,
101 males and females show plasticity in the secondary metabolism and root microbiome,
102 which could be adjusted according to external environmental variation (Wei and
103 Ashman 2018; Unc et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2019). For instance, additions of different
104 ratios of nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) were found to lead to sex-specific differences
105 in the secondary metabolism of *P. tremula* leaves (Randriamanana et al. 2014), and
106 drought and P deficiency contributed to the differentiation of microbial communities in
107 *P. cathayana* females and males, thus forming sex-specific resistance in microbial
108 communities (Xia et al. 2020b). Yet, it is poorly known, whether and how the root
109 metabolome modulates the rhizosphere microbiome in a sex-specific way and,
110 consequently, how dioecious plants fine-tune these complex belowground interactions.

111

112 *Populus euphratica* is a unique and precious forest resource in the desert area. Most
113 studies on it have focused on the physiological characteristics and molecular
114 mechanisms of drought and salt resistance (Li et al. 2011; Zhao et al. 2016; Yu et al.
115 2020), while sex specificity of its traits is largely unknown. Overall, sex specificity has
116 been found in morphology, physiology, phenology, resistance to environmental stresses
117 and even in the rhizosphere microbiome in many *Populus* species (Chen et al. 2016;
118 Sobuj et al. 2018; Wu et al. 2019; Xia et al. 2020a, b). Our present paper reports here
119 the first study on sexual dimorphism in *P. euphratica*. Two *P. euphratica* plantations
120 with different soil properties were selected to investigate the root phenolic metabolomes
121 and rhizosphere bacterial communities of female and male plants. We aimed to test the
122 following three hypotheses: (1) differences in soil properties can affect phenolic
123 metabolic profiles and corresponding rhizosphere bacterial communities; (2) there are
124 sexual differences in phenolic metabolomes and rhizosphere bacterial communities; (3)
125 certain phenolic compounds may drive changes in specific bacteria taxa.

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132

133 **Materials and Methods**

134

135 *Field experiment*

136

137 The experiment was conducted at the northwestern margin of the Tarim Basin in the
138 Xinjiang province, China. The experimental sites have calcic xerosol soil. The climate
139 is a typical temperate desert climate with a mean annual air temperature of 10.8 °C and
140 precipitation of 50 mm.

141

142 The experiment was established on two *P. euphratica* plantation sites with two genders.
143 There were four treatment combinations, with four replicates per treatment. The
144 plantations are located in “Dongmen (DM)” (81°17'E, 40°32'N) and “Jiutuan (JT)”
145 (81°17'E, 40°56'N). The selected field sites differ in soil properties. *P. euphratica*
146 individuals were planted as vegetation restoration trees in 2003. Each replicated plot
147 had an area of 100 m² and row spacing of 1.2 m × 4.2 m. During the flowering period,
148 we marked the sex of each tree based on the morphology of flowers. Five *P. euphratica*
149 females or males were selected within each plot in DM and JT (Fig. S1). We sampled
150 fine roots (average diameter < 2 mm) from each site during July 2019. After root
151 excavation, we separated rhizosphere soil (soil adhering to fine roots) from bulk soil
152 (non-adhering soil). The five samples (root or rhizosphere soil) of each sex from each
153 plot resulted in a mixed sample that was considered as a replicate. Bulk soil samples
154 were sieved to pass a 2 mm mesh for measuring the physiochemical properties of soil.

155 The physiochemical analyses were conducted as described in Appendix.

156

157 Root samples for the phenolic metabolic analysis were immediately frozen on dry ice,
158 after which they were transferred to a -80 °C freezer. Each sample was ground to a fine
159 powder in liquid nitrogen and freeze-dried. Rhizosphere soil samples were frozen at -
160 80 °C until processed for DNA extractions.

161

162 *Phenolic metabolome analysis of roots*

163

164 In brief, the metabolome of sixteen samples (four biological replicates per treatment)
165 were analyzed by LC-MS (Ultimate 3000LC, Q Exactive, Thermo) with Hyper gold
166 C18 column (2.1 × 100 mm × 1.9 μm) kept at 40 °C. For the metabolomics analysis, 50
167 mg of freeze-dried sample was extracted with 800 μl of 80% methanol and 5 μl of
168 internal standard (2.8 mg ml⁻¹, DL-*o*-chlorophenylalanine), and then vortexed for 30 s.
169 Each sample was ground to fine powder using a grinding mill (ShangHai, JingXin)
170 operated at 30 Hz for 120 s. Then, the samples were ultrasonicated for 15 min with 40
171 KHz with ultrasonic cleaner and kept for 1 hour at -20 °C. The samples were centrifuged
172 at 12000 ×g and 4 °C for 10 min. Supernatants were transferred to 1.5 ml Eppendorf
173 tubes, and kept for 1 hour at -20 °C, and transferred to a vial for LC-MS analysis. The
174 elution was carried out with a binary solvent system consisting of 5% acetonitrile and
175 0.1% formic acid in H₂O (solvent A), and 0.1% formic acid in acetonitrile (solvent B)
176 at a constant flow rate of 0.3 ml min⁻¹. Simultaneous separations were completed using

177 a gradient elution of 0.0 min/100% A, 1.5 min/80% A, 9.5 min/100% B, 14.5 min/100%
178 B, 14.6 min/100% A, and 18 min/100% A. The typical conditions (ESI+ and ESI-) were
179 as follows: heater temperature of 300 °C; sheath gas flow rate of 45 arbitrary units; aux
180 gas flow rate of 15 arbitrary units; sweep gas flow rate of 1 arbitrary unit; spray voltage
181 of 3.0 KV; capillary temperature of 350 °C; S-Lens RF level of 30%. The Compound
182 Discoverer software version 3.0. (Thermo) was used to extract and process the LC/MS
183 detection data and organize them into a two-dimensional data matrix. According to the
184 mass value obtained from the test results, the phenolic compounds were identified by
185 full spectrum identification based on the network database Metlin
186 (<https://metlin.scripps.edu>).

187

188 *Bacterial microbiome analysis*

189

190 Soil DNA extraction was performed from 0.5 g frozen soil samples with GenElute™
191 Soil DNA Isolation Kit (Sigma-Aldrich), as described by Schöler et al. (2017). DNA
192 integrity and purity were detected by 1% agarose-gel electrophoresis, and DNA
193 concentration and purity were detected by NanoDropOne (Thermo Fisher, US).
194 Negative controls were carried out to confirm the absence of contamination in the used
195 kits and solutions (Vestergaard et al. 2017). For PCR amplification and product
196 electrophoresis detection, genomic DNA was used as a template. Based on the selection
197 of the sequencing region, primers with a barcode and PremixTaq (TaKaRa) were used
198 in PCR amplifications. In detail, the V4-V5 region of the bacterial 16s rDNA was

199 amplified by PCR with primers 515F (5'- GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA-3') and
200 907R (5'- CCGTCAATTCMTTTRAGTTT-3') (Caporaso et al. 2012; Li et al. 2014).
201 After comparing the concentrations of PCR products with Genetools Analysis Software
202 (version 4.03.05.0, Syngene), the required volume of each sample was calculated
203 according to the principle of equal mass, and the PCR products were mixed. The PCR
204 mixture was recovered using the E.Z.N.A.®Gel Extraction Kit (Omega), and the target
205 DNA fragments were eluted with TE buffer. The subsequent database construction was
206 carried out according to the standard process of NEBNext®Ultra TMDNA Library Prep
207 Kit for Illumina®, and sequencing was conducted on the high-throughput sequencing
208 platform Hiseq. The original image data file obtained by sequencing was transformed
209 into raw sequences (Raw Reads) by base calling analysis. The results were stored in the
210 fastq file format, which contained the sequences (reads) and corresponding sequencing
211 quality information.

212

213 Before further analyses, the original PE reads obtained by sequencing were cut and
214 filtered to remove the low-quality reads to obtain the clean reads. Using the UPARSE
215 software (version 7.1, <http://drive5.com/uparse/>), OTU clustering was carried out on
216 the sequences according to 97% similarity, and single sequences and chimeras were
217 removed in the clustering process. The number of reads per sample was rarefied to
218 30000. RDP classifier (<http://rdp.cme.msu.edu/>) was employed to annotate the species
219 classification of each sequence, and representative sequences were assigned by
220 comparing to Silva database (ssu123), with the comparison threshold being 70%, in

221 order to obtain the classification information of bacterial communities. Bacteria were
222 classified by phylum and family.

223

224 The analysis of the composition of bacterial communities was performed to calculate
225 the relative abundance of each taxon by counting the sequence information at the
226 phylum and family level. At the same time, the taxa with relative abundances more than
227 0.01% were selected and the top 15 categories were classified to draw the relative
228 abundance distribution map.

229

230 *Data analysis*

231

232 Differences in the physiochemical properties of soil between two *P. euphratica*
233 plantations were identified by independent samples t-test. A permutational multivariate
234 analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) was applied to the physiochemical properties of
235 soil to show differences among soil samples. To visualize the separation between root
236 phenolic metabolomes in different treatments, an ordination using non-metric
237 multidimensional scaling (NMDS) based on a Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix was
238 used. Then, we ran a two-way PERMANOVA with 'sex' and 'soil properties' as fixed
239 factors. For this model, we tested variation in root phenolic metabolomes as explained
240 by sex, soil properties and interactions. The R language Pheatmap package was used to
241 cluster samples (the ratio of the phenolic concentration of each group was clustered)
242 using Euclidean Distances. A two-way ANOVA model performed with soil properties

243 and sex were used for the analysis of root phenolic alpha-diversity and evenness
244 (Huberty et al. 2020).

245

246 Bray-Curtis dissimilarities were calculated and implemented in NMDS to visualize
247 bacterial community differences between sexes and soil properties. A PERMANOVA
248 model was also implemented to discern the amount of variation attributed to soil
249 properties, sex and interactions. For microbial taxon abundances, raw counts of
250 bacterial phyla and families were normalized. Two-way ANOVAs were used to analyze
251 how soil properties, sex and their interactions influence taxon abundances. The R
252 language Pheatmap package was used to cluster samples (the ratio of bacterial family
253 of each group was clustered) using Euclidean Distances. A two-way ANOVA was
254 performed to reveal microbial alpha-diversity and evenness by using soil properties and
255 sex as explanatory variables.

256

257 A multiple regression model with a stepwise selection and Akaike's Information
258 Criterion (AIC) minimization approach was performed to determine, whether the
259 phenolic metabolome profiles of roots correlate with soil bacterial OTUs. We screened
260 crucial root phenolic variables to improve the prediction of specific bacterial taxa.

261

262

263

264 **Results**

265

266 *Physicochemical properties of soil in situ*

267

268 There were significant differences in total phenolic and nutrient contents, except for
269 soil pH, K and available P, between DM and JT (Table 1). The DM soil showed a
270 relatively high fertility, while JT was extremely low in soil fertility. The results of
271 PERMANOVA clearly distinguished the soil properties of *P. euphratica* plantations
272 DM and JT ($F=485, p=0.03$).

273

274 *Phenolic metabolome of roots*

275

276 We conducted a non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) for DFR, DMR, JFR
277 and JMR (Fig. 1a). In this analysis, two axes were obtained separately with a stress
278 value 0.014. The separation of the metabolic profiles between DFR and DMR, JFR and
279 JMR, DFR and JFR, and DMR and JMR was clear, indicating significant differences in
280 phenolic metabolic profiles (Fig. 1a). Two-way PERMANOVA revealed that the soil
281 effect explained 69.1% of the variation in the root metabolome ($F = 50.78, P= 0.001$),
282 and sex and its overlap with soil also had significant effects (Fig. 1b).

283

284 A total of 68 phenolic metabolites were detected. Then, four sets of comparisons were
285 made to distinguish between soil effects (DFR/JFR and DMR/JMR) and sex effects
286 (DFR/DMR and JFR/JMR), as marked in red or blue color corresponding to up-

287 regulation or down-regulation, respectively, in Fig. 2a. Four phenolic metabolites were
288 down-regulated by “soil effect” but up-regulated by “sex effect”, the latter showing a
289 positive effect on soil-inhibited metabolites. Conversely, 24 phenolic metabolites were
290 up-regulated by “soil effect” but down-regulated by “sex effect”, the latter showing a
291 negative effect on soil-induced metabolites (Fig. 2b).

292

293 *Composition of bacterial communities*

294

295 Bacterial β -diversity patterns were visualized with NMDS plots with the stress value
296 0.02 (Fig. 3a). The horizontal axis clearly distinguished the bacterial community
297 patterns of DM and JT. In addition, the vertical axis differentiated the bacterial
298 community patterns of females and males in JT. Although the difference between the
299 bacterial community composition of females and males in DM was not evident, it could
300 still be seen that sex ($F=3.63$, $p=0.01$) and sex \times soil interactions ($F=4.27$, $p=0.02$) play
301 a moderate, yet significant, role in explaining the bacterial β -diversity. The soil effect
302 explained the bacterial community composition to a good strength as well.

303

304 The sequences were analyzed by the RDP Classifier algorithm against the SILVA 16S
305 rRNA database using a confidence threshold 80%. The taxonomic composition of the
306 bacterial communities at the phylum and family level (relative abundance $> 0.01\%$) are
307 shown in Fig 4a-d. Based on the classifiable sequences, the bacterial reads were mostly
308 assigned to 14 phyla and 13 families. The abundance of the 14 phyla were in the

309 following order: *Proteobacteria*, *Bacteroidetes*, *Euryarchaeota*, *Actinobacteria*,
310 *Planctomycetes*, *Gemmatimonadetes*, *Chloroflexi*, *Acidobacteria*, *Thaumarchaeota*,
311 *Parcubacteria*, *Verrucomicrobia*, *Nanohaloarchaeota*, *Firmicutes* and *JL-ETNP-Z39*.
312 Almost all bacterial phyla differed between soil types, except *Actinobacteria*,
313 *Parcubacteria* and *Firmicutes*, while only *Proteobacteria* and *Firmicutes* differed
314 between sexes (Fig. 4a, c). The DM soil had significantly lower abundances of
315 *Bacteroidetes* and *Euryarchaeota*, but higher abundances of *Planctomycetes*,
316 *Gemmatimonadetes*, *Chloroflexi* and *Acidobacteria* (Fig. 4a). The 13 families were in
317 the following order: *Halobacteriaceae*, *Halomonadaceae*, *Planctomycetaceae*,
318 *OMI_clade*, *Nitrosomonadaceae*, *Rhodospirillaceae*, *Alteromonadaceae*,
319 *Anaerolineaceae*, *Cytophagaceae*, *Xanthomonadaceae*, *Cellvibrionaceae*,
320 *Rhodobacteraceae* and *Gemmatimonadaceae*. All 13 dominant bacterial families
321 differed in abundance between soil types, while *Halomonadaceae*, *OMI_clade*,
322 *Cellvibrionaceae* and *Rhodobacteraceae* differed between sexes (Fig. 4b, d). The JT
323 soil had significantly greater abundances of *Halobacteriaceae* and *Halomonadaceae*,
324 but lower abundances of *Planctomycetaceae* and *Nitrosomonadaceae* (Fig. 4b). On the
325 other hand, the female rhizosphere had a lower abundance of *Rhodobacteraceae*
326 *Halomonadaceae*, *Cellvibrionaceae* and *OMI_clade* than the male rhizosphere (Fig.
327 4d). A total of 7 known bacterial families were up-regulated by “soil effect” but down-
328 regulated by “sex effect”. Only one family, *Halobacteriaceae*, was down-regulated by
329 “soil effect” but up-regulated by “sex effect” (Fig. S2).

330

331 *Phenolic alpha diversity of roots and microbial alpha diversity*

332

333 Phenolic Shannon diversity and evenness were significantly influenced by sex, but not
334 by soil or soil × sex interactions (Table 2). Phenolic diversity and evenness were greater
335 in females than in males (Fig. 5a-b). Bacterial Shannon diversity and evenness differed
336 between DM and JT, but were not affected by sex or soil × sex interactions. Bacterial
337 diversity and evenness were greater in DM than in JT.

338

339 *Relations between root phenolic metabolites and specific bacterial taxa*

340

341 Abundances of all bacterial phyla correlated with at least one phenolic metabolite
342 (Table 3). Abundances of *Actinobacteria*, *Acidobacteria*, *Parcubacteria* and *Firmicutes*
343 correlated with homodihydrocapsaicin-I (Table 3). Abundances of *Bacteroidetes*,
344 *Planctomycetes*, *Chloroflexi* and *JL-ETNP-Z39* correlated with (-)-fustin. These phyla
345 increased in abundance with increasing (-)-fustin concentrations, except abundances of
346 *Bacteroidetes* that exhibited a negative correlation with (-)-fustin (Table 3). In addition,
347 abundances of *Actinobacteria*, *Planctomycetes* and *Acidobacteria* correlated positively
348 with penbutolol, abundances of *Euryarchaeota* and *Nanohaloarchaeota* with 4-
349 coumaric acid, and abundances of *Acidobacteria* and *Verrucomicrobia* with catechin,
350 while abundances of *Planctomycetes* and *Parcubacteria* correlated negatively with
351 caffeic acid (Table 3). In addition, abundances of all bacterial families correlated with
352 at least one phenolic metabolite (Table S1). Abundances of several bacterial families

353 correlated positively with abyssinone I (*Anaerolineaceae*, *Xanthomonadaceae* and
354 *Gemmatimonadaceae*; Table S1). In addition, abundances of these families as well as
355 *Planctomycetaceae* correlated positively with homodihydrocapsaicin-I (Table S1).
356 Abundances of both *Nitrosomonadaceae* and *Cytophagaceae* correlated positively with
357 salicylic acid (Table S1). Moreover, abundances of *Halobacteriaceae*, *OM1_clade* and
358 *Anaerolineaceae* correlated with 4-coumaric acid (Table S1).

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374 **Discussion**

375

376 In our study, we provide evidence that soil properties representing the soil nutrient
377 status mainly affect root-associated bacterial microbiomes, followed by plant sex and,
378 to some extent, the chemotype. There were sex-specific differences in the phenolic
379 metabolomes of plant roots and bacterial communities, and we observed preferences
380 for specific bacterial taxa along the phenolic metabolite gradients in the rhizosphere.

381

382 *Effects of soil properties on root phenolic metabolic profiles and rhizosphere bacterial*
383 *microbiomes*

384

385 Compared with the sex effect, changes in soil properties visible in the soil nutrient status
386 largely explained variation in root phenolic metabolism profiles and rhizosphere
387 bacterial communities. The production and accumulation of phenolic compounds
388 always shows plasticity under different environmental conditions (Cheynier et al. 2013;
389 Sampaio et al. 2016). The phenolic profiles of six wild growing *Marrubium vulgare* L.
390 (Lamiaceae) populations have demonstrated remarkably significant quantitative
391 variation in responses to variation in soil properties (Boulila et al. 2015). In addition,
392 eight *Salix* species/hybrids collected from two sites with different soil conditions
393 showed differences in the leaf phenolic composition (Gąsecka et al. 2017). Differences
394 in soil resources would result in unequal allocation between growth and reproduction,
395 and production of defense compounds, thus regulating the carbon flux between primary
396 and secondary metabolism to obtain better adaptation to environmental stress. We

397 discovered that the rhizosphere bacterial communities of *P. euphratica* were affected
398 by soil properties. Liu et al. (2020) have found that soil properties have a greater effect
399 on bacterial communities than plant species identity. Yet, our two study sites were ten
400 kilometers apart, and had similar soil phylogenetic distances and planting history. There
401 were minor differences in the microbe pools caused by different soil origins, but the
402 difference was mostly due to the nutrient status. There is no doubt that the nutrient
403 status of DM was better than that of JT. This may be mainly due to the artificial
404 irrigation of DM during the early growing seasons, which left a longer lasting effect on
405 the soil nutrient status. JT tended to have just a small amount of natural rainfall.
406 Evidently, the difference in the soil nutrient status caused by soil water greatly
407 influenced the bacterial communities of *P. euphratica*.

408

409 *Sex-specific effects on root phenolic metabolomes and bacterial communities*

410

411 Male and female plants show dimorphism after a period of sexual differentiation
412 (Barrett and Hough 2013). Bioactivities of certain metabolites are involved in
413 morphogenesis and sex determination (Di Carlo et al. 1999), and metabolites vary
414 between the sexes (Cornelissen and Stiling 2005). Previous studies have shown that
415 females have greater investment costs on chemical defense than males (Juvany and
416 Munné-Bosch 2015; Hultine et al. 2016). However, our study found that chemical
417 defense was not only reflected in quantity, but also in the higher diversity and evenness
418 of chemical compounds in females. We propose that future studies are needed to

419 evaluate the chemical defense of males and females from a multi-dimensional
420 perspective.

421

422 It is evident that sexual differentiation is also regulated by genes (Li et al. 2020), but
423 studies on sex-specific differences in the microbiomes of dioecious plants have been
424 mostly neglected. Yet, Wei et al. (2018) have detected strong sexual dimorphism in
425 flower and leaf microbiomes in sexually polymorphic *Fragaria*. In addition, microbial
426 communities in the rhizosphere of *P. cathayana* change along with variation in soil
427 salinity, and potential differences in the microbial communities exist between males
428 and females (Wu et al. 2019). However, sex has only a minor impact on the bacterial
429 diversity of the dioecious desert plant *Acanthosicyos horridus* (Unc et al. 2019). Our
430 results on the dioecious *P. euphratica* supported the view of sex-specific variation in
431 bacterial microbiomes. Abundances of *Rhodobacteraceae*, *Halomonadaceae*,
432 *Cellvibrionaceae* and *OMI_clade* were significantly higher in the male rhizosphere
433 compared with the female rhizosphere. Members of *Rhodobacteraceae* and
434 *Halomonadaceae* show a denitrification effect, which can enhance adaptation to
435 extreme soil environments (Garcia et al. 2004; Wang et al. 2017).

436

437 Another interesting contrast was that sex-specific differences in bacterial taxa varied
438 along with soil properties. Compared with JT, females enriched abundances of
439 rhizosphere *OMI_clade* and *Nitrosomonadaceae* in DM, while males increased
440 abundances of several other bacterial taxa, such as *Planctomycetaceae*,

441 *Xanthomonadaceae*, *Cytophagaceae* and *Gemmatimonadaceae*. Indeed, females are
442 more likely to form a fertility island effect in areas with high nutrient status, because
443 some long lived dioecious plants produce nectar drops from their cones to attract
444 pollinating insects, which could affect the soil biota underneath (Hultine et al. 2016).
445 On the other hand, a male-biased sex ratio is often observed in dioecious plant
446 populations, which may be related to environmental stress, as more male than female
447 plants occur on sites with poor fertility (Ortiz et al. 2002; Song et al. 2018). Xia et al.
448 (2020b) have found that the rhizosphere microbiome of *P. cathayana* males is more
449 plastic, which makes it easier to accumulate plant growth -promoting bacteria in
450 adverse conditions. Plant growth is considered to be closely associated with coexisting
451 microbes (Bulgarelli et al. 2015; Sarr et al. 2020). These results indicate that there are
452 differences between sexes in plant protection strategies mediated by microbes. In future
453 studies, we should pay more attention to the relations between the regulation of the
454 rhizosphere microbiome and adaptive plasticity of male and female plants.

455

456 *Associations between phenolic compounds and specific bacterial taxa*

457

458 Although the soil effect is the main driver of the rhizosphere microbiome (Guo et al.
459 2019; Veach et al. 2019), the root phenolic metabolome regulates bacterial colonization
460 and assembly to a certain level. Furthermore, we found that the majority of bacterial
461 taxa correlated with at least one phenolic metabolite. Previously, Lebeis et al. (2015)
462 have showed that *Arabidopsis thaliana* mutants lacking SA signals present significant

463 changes in the endophytic bacterial communities of roots, including significant
464 decreases in abundances of *Firmicidetes* and *Proteobacteria*. In our study, we found that
465 the content of homodihydrocapsaicin-I was positively correlated with the abundance of
466 *Firmicidetes*. In the case of pathogen infections, plants can gain resistance to
467 phytopathogens by regulating the SA signaling pathway (Loake and Grant 2007).
468 Similarly to other studies, we found that abundances of specific *Nitrosomonadaceae*
469 and *Cytophagaceae* respond positively to SA production.

470

471 Complex microbial communities in natural settings may respond differentially to
472 diverse phenolic metabolites. Some phenolic compounds may act as metal chelators in
473 the rhizosphere, affect microbial metabolism and influence relevant enzyme activities
474 (Bais et al. 2006). Voges et al. (2019) have demonstrated that coumarin, as an iron-
475 mobilizing compound, functions in the structuring of the rhizobiome and its release
476 could inhibit the growth of *Pseudomonas*. We observed negative correlations between
477 phenolic compounds and abundances of specific bacterial taxa (between caffeic acid
478 and abundances of *Planctomycetes* or *Parcubacteria*; between (-)-fustin and
479 abundances of *Bacteroidetes*). Some other phenolic compounds can also be used as
480 antimicrobial allelochemicals (Lanoue et al. 2010), thus directly suppressing
481 microorganisms *via* antibiosis (Zwetsloot et al. 2020). Zhou et al. (2018) have found
482 that p-coumaric acid inhibits the relative abundances of *Lysobacter*, *Haliangium* and
483 *Gymnoascus* spp., which could have pathogen-antagonistic and/or plant-growth -
484 promoting effects. In conclusion, further evidence is needed to verify the associations

485 between specific phenolic compounds and rhizosphere bacterial taxa through controlled
486 experiments.

487

488 **Conclusions**

489

490 Plant-soil-microbe interactions and the role of phenolic production are largely unknown
491 in relation to rhizosphere microbiomes. This study confirms the relative importance of
492 the external environment and plant itself for the assembly of soil microbiomes and
493 evaluates the contribution of sex and chemotype. Our results indicate that rhizosphere
494 bacterial community composition is mainly determined by soil properties followed by
495 the plant sex effect. Specifically, phenolic metabolic profiles and specific phenolic
496 metabolites affect the assembly of bacterial communities and specific bacterial taxa.
497 The use of *P. euphratica* as a soil restoration tree species in desert areas not only needs
498 to consider the influence of soil properties on bacterial communities, but also needs to
499 consider the sex identity of *P. euphratica*. Our results provide key information for
500 future studies on plant metabolomes and soil microbiomes, and on biotic interactions.

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511

512 **Author contributions** Zhichao Xia had the main responsibility for data collection,
513 analysis and writing, Yue He, Lei Yu and Zhijun Li performed the experiment, Helena
514 Korpelainen contributed to the interpretation of data and manuscript preparation, and
515 Chunyang Li (the corresponding author) had the overall responsibility for experimental
516 design and project management.

517

518 **Conflict of interest** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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703 **Figure legends**

704 **Figure 1** The ordination using non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) of root
705 phenolic metabolome in *P. euphratica* females or males grown in different types of soil
706 according to a LC/MS analysis (a). Variation in root phenolic metabolome profiles
707 explained by soil and sex, obtained as R^2 from PERMANOVA models (b). *, **, ***
708 indicate significant effects in the PERMANOVA tests at $P < 0.05$, $P < 0.01$, $P < 0.001$
709 respectively. (a) DFR, female root in DM; DMR, male root in DM; JFR, female root in
710 JT; JMR, male root in JT.

711 **Figure 2** Hierarchical clustering of 68 root phenolic metabolites in the intersection of
712 four comparative groups. The ratio of phenolic content of each group was clustered by
713 Euclidean distance, and the color of each grid represents the relative abundance of
714 phenolic substances on the corresponding scale.

715 **Figure 3** Non-metric dimensional scaling ordination for bacteria in *P. euphratica*
716 females or males grown in different types of soil (a). Variation in bacterial communities
717 explained by soil and sex (b). Other treatment codes and statistical analyses as in Fig.
718 1.

719 **Figure 4** The relative abundance of dominant bacterial phyla and families between soil
720 types (a, b) and between sexes (c, d). Asterisks denote significant differences in
721 abundances between soil types and sexes, as generated by two-way ANOVA models.

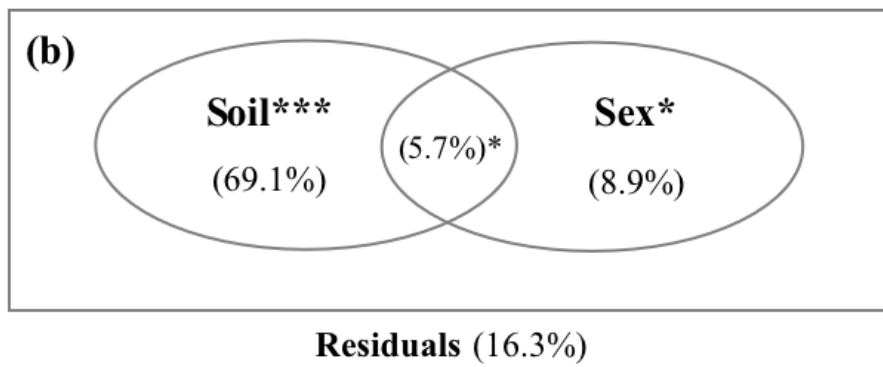
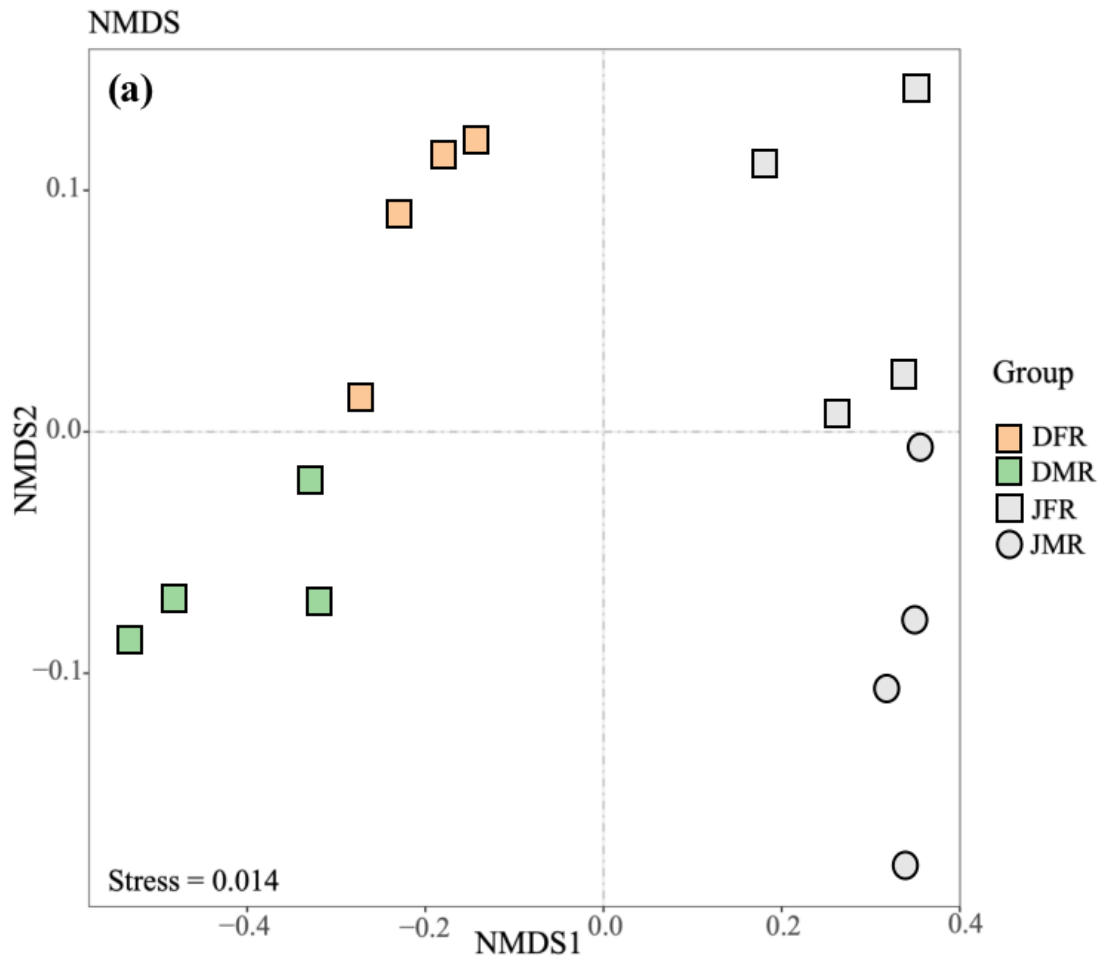
722 **Figure 5** Phenolic diversity (Shannon's Diversity: 1-D) and Shannon's Evenness
723 between sexes (a, b), and bacterial diversity (Shannon's Diversity: 1-D) and Shannon's
724 Evenness between soil types (c, d).

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728 **Figure 1**



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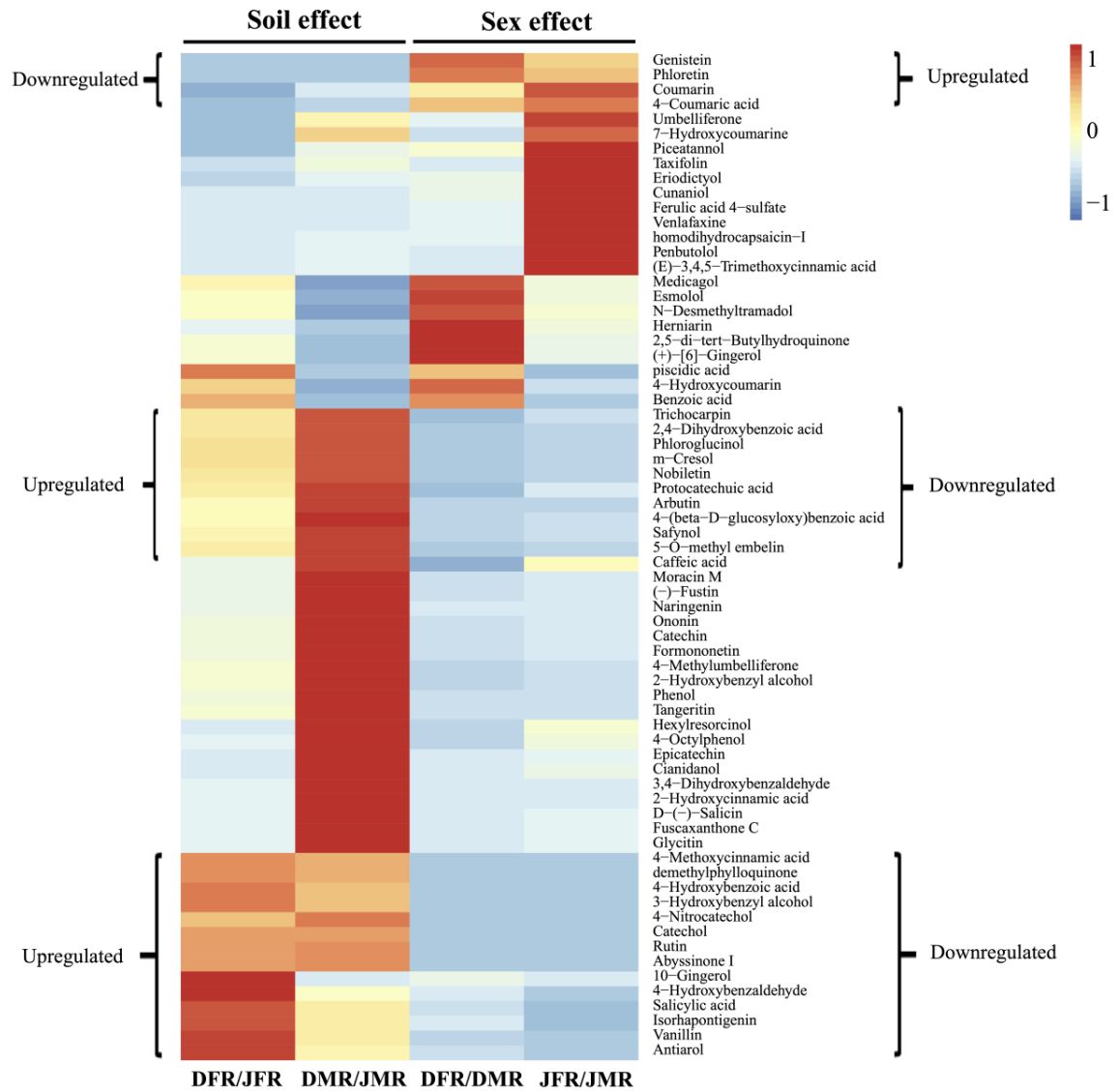
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734 **Figure 2**



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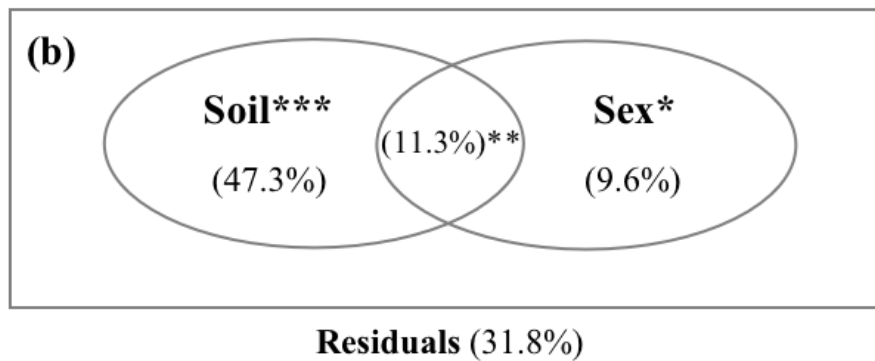
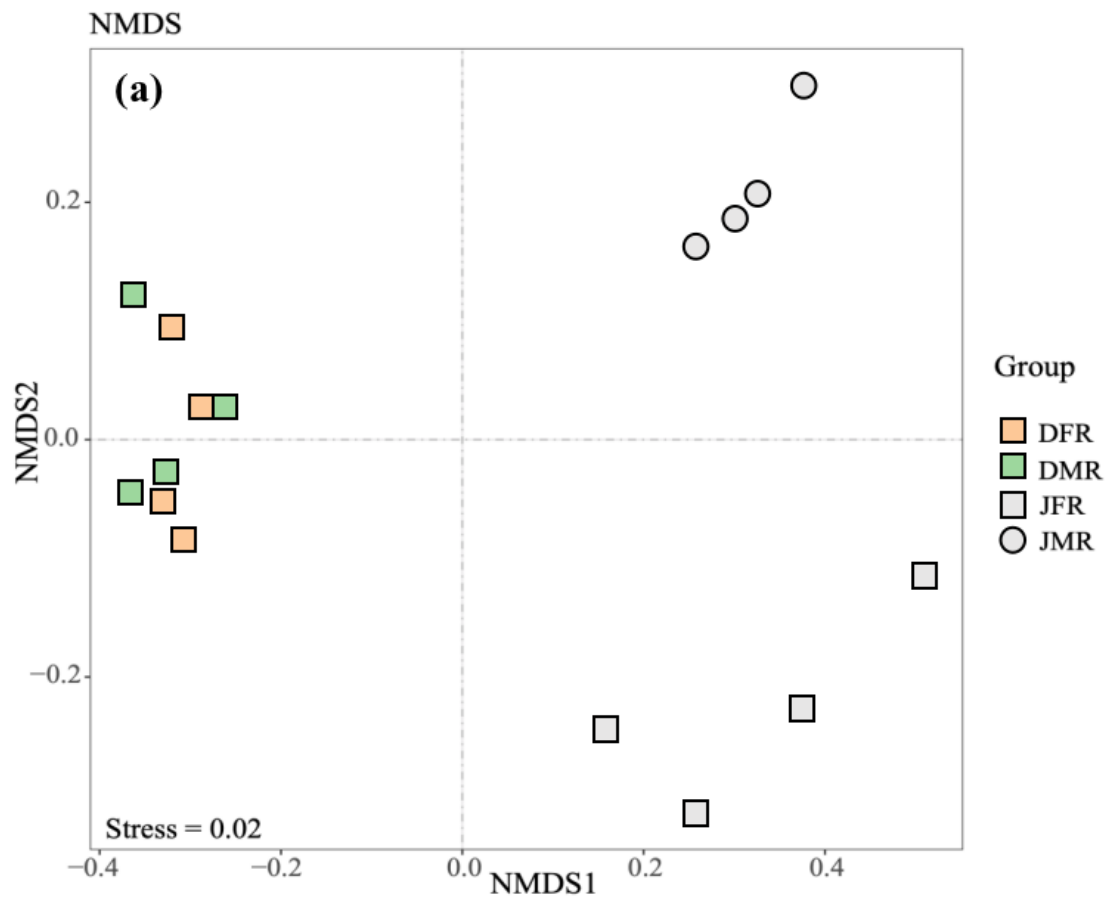
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743 **Figure 3**



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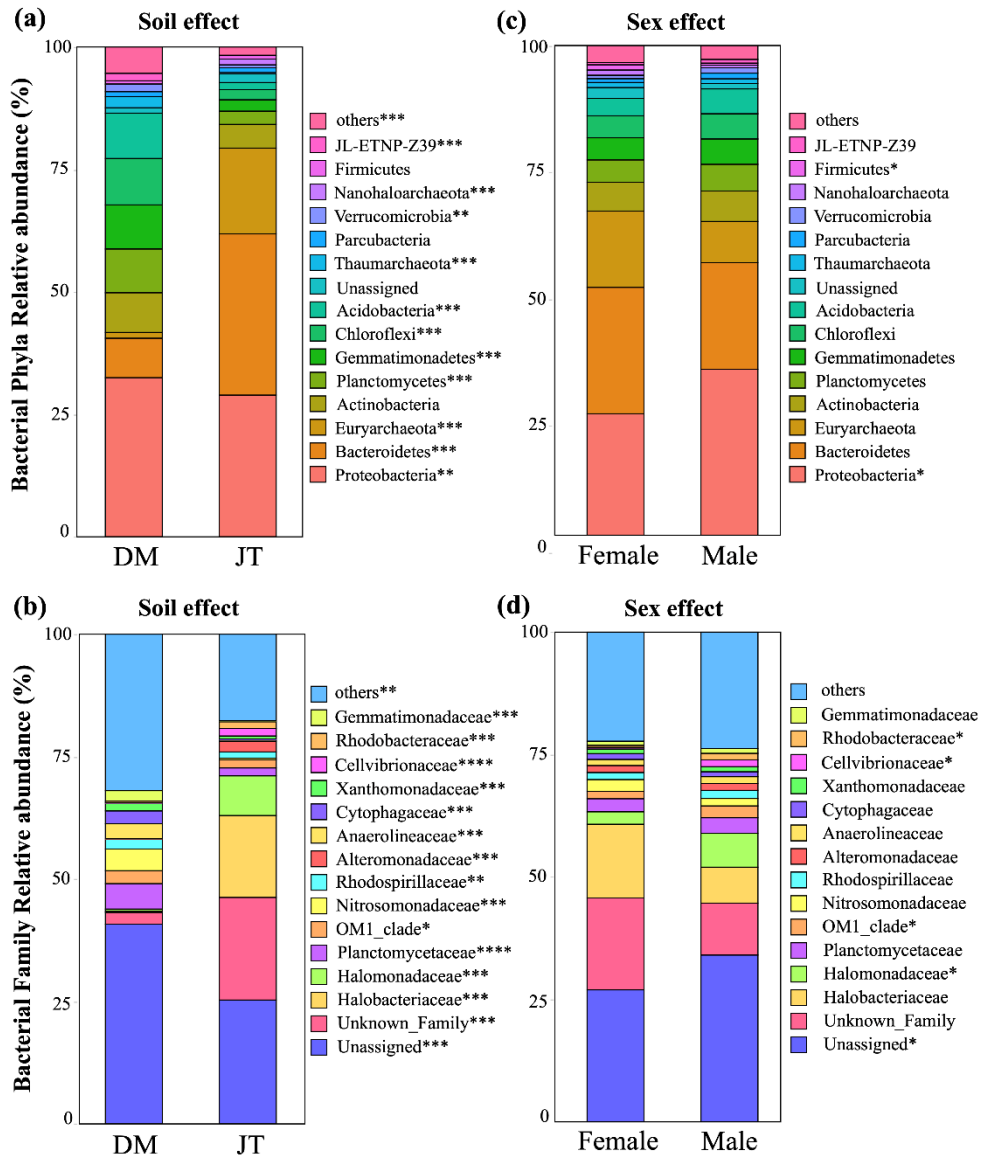
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751 **Figure 4**



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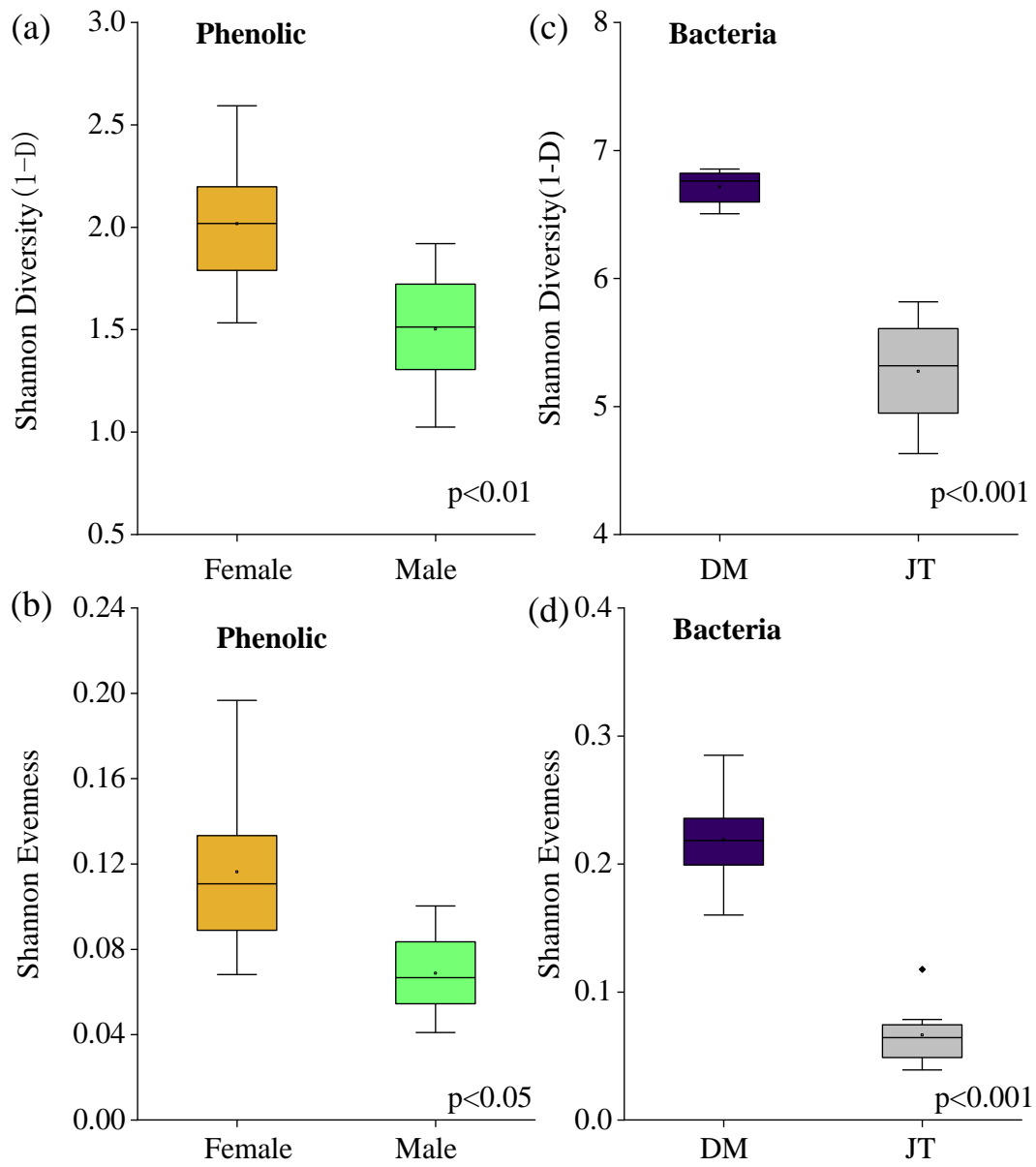
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760 **Figure 5**



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769 **Table 1** Soil properties of the two *P. euphratica* plantations.

Soil properties	DM	JT
pH	8.44 ± 0.01	8.68 ± 0.09
Total N (g kg ⁻¹)	1.11 ± 0.04***	0.48 ± 0.02
Organic matter content (g kg ⁻¹)	120.28 ± 0.41***	72.00 ± 1.00
NO ₃ ⁻ - N (mg kg ⁻¹)	3.67 ± 0.21***	2.07 ± 0.12
NH ₄ ⁻ - N (mg kg ⁻¹)	2.16 ± 0.13***	0.38 ± 0.01
K (g kg ⁻¹)	0.41 ± 0.11	0.19 ± 0.03
Total P (g kg ⁻¹)	0.81 ± 0.02***	0.59 ± 0.01
Available P (mg kg ⁻¹)	1.24 ± 0.14	1.19 ± 0.07
Na ⁺ (g kg ⁻¹)	1.87 ± 0.05**	1.30 ± 0.10
Ca ²⁺ (g kg ⁻¹)	15.81 ± 0.39**	12.52 ± 0.45
Mg ²⁺ (g kg ⁻¹)	0.88 ± 0.04***	0.38 ± 0.03
Total phenolic (mg g ⁻¹)	14.89 ± 0.20*	12.82 ± 0.69

770 * Indicates significantly different values at $P < 0.05$ from t-test.

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782 **Table 2** A two-way ANOVA model summary for responses of Shannon-Wiener's

783 Diversity and Evenness for the root phenolic composition and bacterial communities,

784 and explanatory variables of soil effect, sex effect and their interaction. Statistically
 785 significant explanatory variables are bolded.

Response variable	Explanatory variable	df	F-value	<i>p</i> -value
Phenolic diversity	Soil effect	1	1.25	>0.05
	Sex effect	1	9.65	<0.01
	Interactions	1	0.01	>0.05
Phenolic evenness	Soil effect	1	0.67	>0.05
	Sex effect	1	7.74	<0.05
	Interactions	1	0.02	>0.05
Bacteria diversity	Soil effect	1	86.53	<0.001
	Sex effect	1	0.32	>0.05
	Interactions	1	2.40	>0.05
Bacteria evenness	Soil effect	1	105.70	<0.001
	Sex effect	1	1.82	>0.05
	Interactions	1	1.93	>0.05

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Table 3 Multiple stepwise regression model results for dominant bacterial phyla that are significantly correlated with a phenolic metabolite.

Microbial phylum	Explanatory variable	T	p-value	Full model statistics		
				F-statistic	Adj.R ²	p-value
<i>Proteobacteria</i>	Intercept	20.78	<0.01	6.99	0.44	<0.01
	cunaniol	-2.88	0.01			
	(E)-3,4,5-trimethoxycinnamic acid	-2.66	0.02			
<i>Bacteroidetes</i>	Intercept	2.69	0.02	42.80	0.92	<0.01
	(-)-fustin	-3.46	<0.01			
	genistein	6.04	<0.01			
	umbelliferone	3.60	<0.01			
	piceatannol	2.85	0.02			
<i>Euryarchaeota</i>	Intercept	8.32	<0.01	335.32	0.99	<0.01
	4-coumaric acid	26.82	<0.01			
	ferulic acid 4-sulfate	20.53	<0.01			
	4-hydroxycoumarin	-12.18	<0.01			
	10-gingerol	7.82	<0.01			
	demethylphylloquinone	-11.35	<0.01			
	eriodictyol	-9.98	<0.01			
	tangeritin	-8.27	<0.01			
	cianidanol	6.24	<0.01			
	antiarol	2.88	0.03			
	abyssinone I	5.50	<0.01			
<i>Actinobacteria</i>	Intercept	5.80	<0.01	33.16	0.93	<0.01
	cianidanol	3.04	0.01			
	homodihydrocapsaicin-I	6.92	<0.01			
	penbutolol	-5.79	<0.01			
	abyssinone I	5.50	<0.01			

<i>Planctomycetes</i>	m-cresol	4.51	<0.01	43.44	0.92	<0.01
	4-(beta-D-glucosyloxy)benzoic acid	-2.42	0.04			
	Intercept	6.42	<0.01			
	m-cresol	7.07	<0.01			
	(-)-fustin	5.02	<0.01			
<i>Gemmatimonadetes</i>	penbutolol	3.31	<0.01	84.67	0.97	<0.01
	caffeic acid	-2.24	0.04			
	Intercept	-0.84	0.42			
	vanillin	2.50	0.03			
	4-methoxycinnamic acid	8.08	<0.01			
	5-O-methyl embelin	-5.47	<0.01			
	4-nitrocatechol	3.47	<0.01			
<i>Chloroflexi</i>	benzoic acid	3.45	<0.01	32.71	0.81	<0.01
	Intercept	4.08	<0.01			
	(-)-fustin	3.75	<0.01			
<i>Acidobacteria</i>	2-hydroxybenzyl alcohol	3.29	<0.01	1499491.97	1.00	<0.01
	Intercept	116.15	<0.01			
	antiarol	332.13	<0.01			
	catechin	1096.77	<0.01			
	coumarin	-363.35	<0.01			
	penbutolol	196.79	<0.01			
	3-hydroxybenzyl alcohol	-140.84	<0.01			
	ferulic acid 4-sulfate	-19.09	<0.01			
	homodihydrocapsaicin-I	-163.07	<0.01			
	vanillin	114.43	<0.01			
	isorhapontigenin	-42.06	<0.01			
	medicagol	-18.31	<0.01			
	4-hydroxycoumarin	7.24	<0.01			
	taxifolin	-4.38	0.02			
	<i>Thaumarchaeota</i>	Intercept	2.74			

	safynol	49.33	<0.01			
	catechol	56.02	<0.01			
	2-hydroxycinnamic acid	-45.62	<0.01			
	3,4-dihydroxybenzaldehyde	20.01	<0.01			
	10-gingerol	17.50	<0.01			
	phloroglucinol	18.29	<0.01			
	eriodictyol	-7.76	<0.01			
	4-hydroxybenzaldehyde	-4.63	<0.01			
<i>Parcubacteria</i>	Intercept	8.01	<0.01	175.98	0.99	<0.01
	benzoic acid	22.46	<0.01			
	homodihydrocapsaicin-I	-17.92	<0.01			
	caffeic acid	-18.19	<0.01			
	genistein	-12.54	<0.01			
	catechol	4.13	<0.01			
	herniarin	9.83	<0.01			
	abyssinone I	-4.89	<0.01			
	D-(-)-Salicin	3.10	0.02			
<i>Verrucomicrobia</i>	Intercept	3.52	<0.01	28.23	0.88	<0.01
	tangeritin	3.77	<0.01			
	herniarin	4.74	<0.01			
	catechol	3.35	<0.01			
	catechin	2.69	0.02			
<i>Nanohaloarchaeota</i>	Intercept	-2.54	0.03	74.43	0.91	<0.01
	4-coumaric acid	5.44	<0.01			
	cunaniol	4.38	<0.01			
<i>Firmicutes</i>	Intercept	6.80	<0.01	62.34	0.80	<0.01
	homodihydrocapsaicin-I	7.90	<0.01			
<i>JL-ETNP-Z39</i>	Intercept	-3.36	<0.01	437.57	0.99	<0.01
	4-nitrocatechol	22.45	<0.01			
	2,4-dihydroxybenzoic acid	10.83	<0.01			

	2-hydroxybenzyl alcohol	-8.01	<0.01			
	(-)-fustin	5.50	<0.01			
others	Intercept	4.87	<0.01	20.75	0.73	<0.01
	nobiletin	3.06	<0.01			
	4-coumaric acid	-2.62	0.02			
Unassigned	Intercept	10.22	<0.01	74.65	0.91	<0.01
	cunaniol	11.97	<0.01			
	homodihydrocapsaicin-I	-4.01	<0.01			

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