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1 **Plant-Soil Feedback: Bridging Natural and Agricultural Sciences**

2
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32

33 **Keywords**

34 Biodiversity conservation, Climate change, Crop rotation, Plant root traits, Productivity,
35 Sustainability

36

37 **Highlights**

- 38 • Plant-soil feedback research evolved disparately depending on the focal system
- 39 • Our framework integrates plant-soil feedback in agricultural and natural systems
- 40 • Learning from natural systems can guide towards more sustainable agriculture
- 41 • Learning from agricultural systems can assist restoration of natural systems

42

43 **Trends**

- 44 • Plant-soil feedback has been extensively studied in both agricultural and natural systems,
45 with increased activity in recent years, but a framework for integrating the concepts and
46 principles developed in these systems is lacking.
- 47 • Interactions between soil biota and plant leaf and root traits has become an important tool
48 in understanding PSF in wild plants, but this understanding has not yet been utilized in
49 agricultural crop rotations.

- 50 • Soil inoculations with microbial strains are increasingly being used for steering the soil
51 microbiome in agriculture but might also offer a promising method of restoration of
52 degraded systems, and for controlling the spread of invasive species.
- 53 • Increasing evidence shows that plant-soil feedback can play important roles in mediating
54 ecosystem responses to forecasted climate change and extreme weather events.

55

56 **Abstract**

57 In agricultural and natural systems researchers have demonstrated large effects of plant-soil
58 feedback (PSF) on plant growth. However, the concepts and approaches used in these two types
59 of systems have developed, for the most part, independently. Here, we present a conceptual
60 framework that integrates knowledge and approaches from these two contrasting systems. We
61 use this integrated framework to demonstrate (1) how knowledge from complex natural
62 systems can be used to increase agricultural resource-use efficiency and productivity and (2)
63 how research in agricultural systems can be used to test hypotheses and approaches developed
64 in natural systems. Using this framework, we discuss avenues for new research towards an
65 ecologically sustainable and climate-smart future.

66

67 **Plant-Soil Feedback in Natural and Agricultural Systems**

68 A new vision for the sustainable management of agricultural and natural systems is needed to
69 address population demands for food production and ecosystem service and declining
70 ecosystem health [1,2]. Combining insights from research in agricultural and natural systems
71 has potential to considerably improve our understanding of both systems [3–5]. Research on
72 plant-soil-feedback (PSF), has gained attention in agriculture and in natural systems in the past

73 ten years and the opportunity is ripe to integrate knowledge across these systems for improved
74 food provision and ecosystem outcomes [6,7].

75 Wild and cultivated plant species both influence root-associated organisms, such as soil-
76 borne pathogens, beneficial symbionts, and saprotrophs that break down plant litter. These
77 organisms can, in turn, affect plant performance either negatively or positively. The sum of
78 these negative and positive interactions determines the sign and strength of PSF. While PSF
79 has been widely studied across agricultural and natural settings, research has evolved in
80 markedly different directions depending on the focal system (Box 1, see also Online
81 Supplementary Material Table S1). Few attempts have been made to formally integrate recent
82 developments in PSF research in agricultural and natural systems. Here, we present a
83 conceptual framework to fill this gap, with the aim of better predicting PSF and solve important
84 challenges facing agriculture and biodiversity (Figure 1). We propose that conceptual and
85 theoretical advances from research in diverse and complex natural systems can be used for the
86 development of more sustainable agricultural practices. We also propose that lessons from
87 simplified agricultural systems can be used to guide our understanding of PSF mechanisms in
88 natural ecosystems. We also highlight how our framework can help move toward an
89 ecologically sustainable and ‘climate-smart’ future, and propose new avenues for future
90 research and discovery.

91

92 **Bridging the Gap**

93 Agricultural and natural systems vary substantially in terms of aboveground diversity, plant
94 functional traits and soil biota (Figure 1). Plant domestication in agriculture selects the most
95 productive species with resource-acquisitive traits. However, in natural systems plant species
96 encompass the whole trait economics spectrum, including resource-conservative species [8].
97 That said, in both systems plant functional traits influence the effects of plants on soil

98 organisms [3,9], and the functional traits of soil organisms (within and across taxonomic
99 groups), and their abundance, influence the direction and strength of feedback in plants [10,11].
100 Consistencies between the effects of plant and soil organism traits provide the basis for our
101 framework towards bridging PSF knowledge from agricultural and natural systems.

102 The conceptual approach to researching plant-soil interactions recently shifted from plant
103 strategy frameworks [12] to more quantitative approaches using specific plant functional traits
104 and soil food web characteristics directly linked to ecosystem functions [3,9,13–17]. These
105 targeted approaches are useful in PSF research, particularly when applied to plant root and
106 litter traits. For example, it was recently found that, across a large number of grassland species,
107 plants with high specific root length and low levels of mycorrhizal colonization have more
108 negative PSF than species with opposing traits [18]. Litter traits (e.g., C:N ratio) also influence
109 rates of decomposition and nutrient release with feedback effects on plant growth [19,20]. Crop
110 species that have been selected for growth rather than defense, or have lost associations with
111 belowground mutualists because of the use of synthetic fertilizers, may in turn possess leaf and
112 root traits that make them more prone to the build-up of negative PSF than their wild relatives
113 (Figure 1). Identification and quantification of functional links between plant traits and PSF,
114 and moving beyond metrics of evolutionary history and soil nutrient status [21,22], offer a
115 promising means for evaluating the magnitude and direction of PSF (Figure 1).

116 It is well known that the build-up of species-specific soil pathogens and root herbivores
117 reduces crop production in agricultural systems (Figure 1) [11], yet at the same time can
118 promote plant succession and the maintenance of plant diversity in natural systems [10,23].
119 Plants also associate with a range of mutualists, including fungal endophytes, mycorrhizal
120 fungi and growth-promoting bacteria, which are all important drivers of PSF. For example, we
121 know from natural systems that arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) can increase plant
122 diversity when promoting subordinate species but decrease diversity when promoting

123 dominant species [24]. In agricultural systems, tillage and fertilization decreases fungal
124 biomass and disrupt AMF networks resulting in nitrogen leaching from soil with negative
125 feedback to plant productivity [25]. Clearly, a better understanding of the functional role of
126 soil organisms in driving the direction and magnitude of PSF is needed to better use PSF as a
127 management tool in both agricultural and natural systems.

128

129 **Plant-Soil Feedback in Agricultural Systems: Improving Sustainability and** 130 **Productivity**

131 Insights from natural systems, which contain the full complexity of diverse plant and soil
132 communities, can help to tackle the grand challenges facing sustainable agriculture, such as
133 disease control, nutrient retention (Figure 2), and resistance to extreme climatic events (Box
134 2). Ecologists are accustomed to look across a range of communities, trophic levels and species,
135 in interaction with their environment, over a range of different temporal and spatial scales.
136 Coverage of this depth and breadth offers an opportunity to test the generality and context-
137 dependent nature of PSF, which can in turn be applied to managing agricultural systems (see
138 Online Supplementary Material Table S1).

139

140 **Optimizing Cropping Systems**

141 Recent studies on wild plants have shown that interspecific PSF varies considerably among
142 plant species in both sign and magnitude [26,27]. The range of species covered by this work
143 offers a lens in which to test the generality of ecological theory, and develop more systematic
144 approaches to rotation planning to maximize positive PSF effects (Figure 1). Accumulating
145 datasets of interspecific PSF can be used to predict how sets of plant traits for specific
146 genotypes and soils can condition the soil community to induce positive interspecific PSF
147 (Figure 1). This could be tested with crop species and used to design efficient crop rotation and

148 intercropping systems (Figure 2), by promoting positive interspecific PSF temporally (i.e.,
149 positive soil legacy for successive crop) and spatially (i.e., increasing productivity through
150 belowground facilitation). One of the emerging patterns shown in natural systems is that
151 grasses induce positive effects on broad-leaved plants through PSF [28,29]. This provides a
152 basis for targeted testing of the benefits of rotating grain crops with broad-leaved crops in
153 agriculture, the duration of such legacy effects, and for building a more in depth understanding
154 of the soil organisms involved.

155 A primary means by which crops affect soil communities is via organic inputs. While
156 inputs of organic material can influence disease suppression and nutrient cycling in agro-
157 ecosystems [17,30], the mechanisms are not always well understood. In natural systems, recent
158 studies show that the type of litter input can strongly affect the capacity of soil communities to
159 decompose organic compounds [20,31] and results in decomposer communities becoming
160 specialized to specific litter types [32]. The concept that emerges is that the type, rate and
161 timing of different organic inputs into the soil are important drivers of decomposer
162 communities. Managing litter inputs in agricultural systems therefore offers an opportunity to
163 steer the composition of the soil community in specific directions over multiple cropping years
164 [33]. Moreover, using a trait-based approach, it has been shown that decomposition rates
165 depend strongly on physiological and enzymatic traits of different microbial taxa [34]. As such,
166 manipulating microbial community traits can be a tool to boost decomposition processes in
167 agricultural systems, although further research is needed to test this idea.

168

169 **Disease Resistance and Pest Control**

170 Minimizing losses of crops to pests and diseases is a key challenge in agriculture. Application
171 of pesticides is commonplace, but is not always effective, and is a major public health concern.
172 In natural ecosystems, wild plants are dependent on the activity and function of their

173 rhizosphere communities for defenses against soil pests and diseases [11,35]. Over
174 evolutionary time, plants developed intimate relationships with beneficial soil microorganisms,
175 taking advantage of their ability to inhibit plant pathogens [36,37]. Agricultural practices using
176 pesticides and synthetic fertilizers alter the balance between beneficial and pathogenic
177 rhizosphere organisms with consequences for plant defense [38]. From studies in natural
178 ecosystems, we can learn how plant trait-based approaches might be used to improve crop
179 resistance to soil pests and diseases [39,16]. For example, traits which influence the phenolic
180 profile of roots are important predictors of defense against root herbivores [39,40]. Hence,
181 targeting specific chemical root traits through conventional breeding or genomic engineering
182 might maintain yield under pathogen pressure in agricultural systems [41]. Exciting
183 opportunities for new crop defense solutions also exist through re-introduction of wild plant
184 traits into domesticated crops, and for exploring the coevolution of defense mechanisms with
185 microbial communities in wild relatives in their native habitat [35,42].

186 Many of the changes in plant traits during domestication have led to impaired
187 sustainability of agricultural systems [43,44]. Research in natural systems has shown that plant
188 traits and beneficial microbial isolates (i.e., AMF and nitrogen-fixing bacteria) from wild plants
189 have a greater ability to control soil pathogens than those in domesticated plants [45]. This
190 suggests that inoculation with wild relative soil can also assist in controlling crop pathogens.
191 However, inoculated microbial strains are sometimes difficult to establish, either due to
192 competitive interactions with the resident microbial community or because they require more
193 time to establish than allowed by short term crop cultivation [46]. One way to overcome this
194 problem is to give beneficial microbes from natural ecosystems a ‘head start’ in agricultural
195 soils using inoculated seeds [47]. Similar to natural systems [20,32], incorporating specific
196 crop residues into the soil may also reestablish the natural balance between plant beneficial and
197 pathogenic microbes in domesticated plants [33]. From natural ecosystems, we know that AMF

198 can protect plants against environmental stresses and improve plant defense [48–51];
199 knowledge that could be used in optimizing AMF inoculations in agriculture.

200

201 **Resource-Use Efficiency**

202 From natural ecosystems, we know that plant effects on the cycling of nutrients is a major
203 driver of PSF [52]. These nutrient-driven PSFs depend on plant resource-use traits, and the
204 input of organic plant compounds (root exudates, litter) into the soil [53]. To increase resource-
205 use efficiency in agriculture (i.e., the amount of biomass or grain yield produced per unit of
206 nutrient), we can make use of PSF effects via nutrient cycling as observed in natural systems.

207 First, resource-use efficiency may be targeted by closing the nutrient cycle. High nutrient
208 inputs from external sources and considerable losses of nutrients through leaching and gaseous
209 N emissions have disrupted nutrient cycling in many agro-ecosystems [4]. In natural
210 ecosystems, the nutrient cycle is more closed, with plant residues being decomposed and these
211 nutrients being taken up again by plants or otherwise immobilized [20,54]. Closing the nutrient
212 cycle in agro-ecosystems requires leaving crop residues on the field and making better use of
213 soil decomposer communities involved in litter-mediated PSF (Figure 2) [3]. Increasing
214 resource-use efficiency in agriculture can furthermore benefit from utilizing plants with N-
215 uptake traits that complement each other – insights that have largely been developed in natural
216 systems [55,56]. In agricultural systems, recent work shows that increased production can be
217 realized by using cover crop mixtures in rotation with the main crop (Figure 2, [57]). Legumes
218 have been used as monoculture intercrops for hundreds of years to improve soil fertility but
219 recent PSF knowledge can be used to refine such agricultural practice to better increase
220 productivity and sustainability. For example, interactions between legumes and nitrogen-fixing
221 bacteria can be enhanced in plant species mixtures, thereby increasing plant productivity and

222 tissue quality at the community-level [58] while simultaneously promoting soil carbon storage
223 (see Box 2).

224 Second, plant breeders are starting to use breeding strategies where mutualistic soil
225 organisms are one of the direct targets of the selection process [59] (Figure 2). For example,
226 new techniques have been developed for modifying the plant genome in alliance with root-
227 associated microorganisms through a novel technology that enables the transmission of
228 endophytic microorganisms to the next generation of crop [60]. Optimizing plant associations
229 with mutualistic soil organisms can in turn help increase nutrient uptake [52,61] and maintain
230 sufficient uptake also under less optimal conditions (e.g., positive effects of mutualists under
231 dry conditions; Box 2) [58]. It is important to note that litter-mediated PSF as discussed above
232 and microbial-mediated PSF involving AMF interact and can have synergic impacts – litter
233 decomposability might have stronger positive effects on PSF strength when AMF are abundant
234 [62]. Taken together, actively utilizing nutrient-mediated PSF in agricultural management
235 could enhance nutrient-use efficiency, reducing the loss of nutrients from the system and the
236 need of copious synthetic fertilization.

237

238 **Plant-Soil Feedback in Natural Systems: Managing Biodiversity and** 239 **Ecosystem Functioning**

240 Insights from agricultural systems, that are relatively less complex than natural systems and
241 more easily manipulated, can provide testing grounds for the effects of soil community
242 manipulations on plant growth, which can help to build our toolbox and understanding and
243 managing PSF in natural systems (see Online Supplementary Material Table S1). Findings
244 from agricultural systems on how PSF influences species facilitation and complementarity also
245 help in predicting vegetation responses to shifts in resource availability and perturbations of
246 the soil habitat, and in turn how restoration of degraded systems can be undertaken.

247

248 **Deciphering Complex Plant-Soil Interactions**

249 In agricultural systems, the concept and application of ‘domesticating microbial communities’
250 is gaining traction [63]. Many of the biological agents used in agriculture have been identified
251 using screening approaches or resulted from fortuitous observations [63,64]. PSF experiments
252 are particularly well suited to identifying these potential agents because PSF experiments often
253 include information about soil organisms and plant responses to those organisms [65,66].
254 Similar to agricultural systems, PSF studies in natural systems have just begun exploring more
255 systematic approaches for identifying potential growth-promoting and growth-suppressing soil
256 organisms that might be used in ecosystem restoration. In many cases PSF will be driven by
257 complex soil communities, which will be more difficult to describe. However, from a plant-
258 management perspective, it is only important that culturable pathogens or symbionts with
259 observable effects on target plant species are identified [63]. Whether individual species of soil
260 organisms or whole communities drive PSF, the adoption of genetic sequencing by soil
261 scientists in the next several years can be expected to increase the identification of PSF
262 mechanisms.

263 Recently, we have seen additional approaches emerge, focused on the signaling that
264 occurs between plant and soil organisms [67]. These new approaches have revealed complex
265 interactions among plant genotypes, soil types, management approaches and soil organisms,
266 with endophytes and mycorrhizal fungi both causing a range of positive to negative effects on
267 different plant species as a function of species identity, plant health and resource availability
268 [36]. Despite growing interest and promising results in agricultural systems, there are several
269 knowledge gaps for using targeted plant-soil biota manipulation in maintaining or restoring the
270 diversity and stability of natural ecosystems. It is likely that a complex network of soil
271 organisms, not just a single organism, determines PSF [68] and that PSF is contingent on

272 management and other site-specific traits (Figure 1). New studies to build a common
273 understanding of the interaction between management, plant traits, and the key players in soil
274 community are needed.

275

276 **Ecosystem Restoration after Disturbance**

277 Agricultural studies are now focusing on specific management or engineering of soil
278 communities to obtain desired soil community composition and function [4]. Remarkably,
279 while there is an overwhelming amount of information on PSF effects and the specificity of
280 these effects in agricultural systems [7,27,28], so far this knowledge has rarely been used to
281 manage natural soils, i.e. to restore degraded ecosystems (see [69]). Here, we argue that
282 ecologists working within natural systems should apply this knowledge for practical soil
283 management and engineering of soil communities and learn from the lessons of agricultural
284 research in engineering soil microbes for a specific desired aboveground community
285 composition.

286 Many natural ecosystems are degraded or disturbed due to human activities and
287 restoration of these systems is an important goal. Here, the focus is often on reestablishment
288 of particular key plant species [70] and reduction of unwanted plant species such as exotics,
289 invasives or ruderals (Figure 2). The potential benefits of using soil inoculations in
290 management of natural ecosystems, is nicely highlighted by a recent large field experiment on
291 former arable land in the Netherlands. Inoculation with a small amount of soil collected from
292 underneath natural plant communities was able to alter the composition of the soil community
293 to more closely resemble the natural state, which in turn led to the establishment of vegetation
294 with more target species and fewer ruderals [71]. Importantly, inoculation with soil collected
295 from different donor ecosystems led to different soil communities and vegetation in the
296 recipient plots several years after application [71]. The longer-term consequences are still a

297 matter of speculation, but this example shows that inoculation with soil communities can be
298 used to steer natural ecosystems.

299 Similar to weed control in agricultural systems, the restoration of natural systems often
300 aims to suppress invasive species and support target species. Suppression of plant growth can
301 be obtained via negative PSF (e.g., through soil pathogens), while supporting the growth of
302 target species can be obtained via positive feedback (e.g., through beneficial organisms such
303 as mycorrhizal fungi) (Figure 3; [23,60]), both of which could be manipulated through
304 inoculation of soil organisms. The USDA ARS EBIPM Area Wide Program is currently testing
305 the ability of the fungal strain *Pyrenophora semeniperda* to decrease cheatgrass (*Bromus*
306 *tectorum*) growth without affecting winter wheat [72,73]. Similarly, *Methylobacterium* spp.
307 was recently tested for its ability to increase native but not weed growth in coastal sage-scrub
308 communities in California [74]. Closer integration of PSF work in natural systems offers an
309 opportunity for exploring the robustness of these biocontrol programs, and opens the
310 opportunity for more widely using soil organisms in ecosystem restoration of natural
311 communities.

312

313 Multifunctionality of Plant-Soil Feedback

314 In recent years, it has been increasingly advocated that understanding the ecosystem
315 consequences of environmental change requires the integrative study of multiple ecosystem
316 functions (i.e., multifunctionality, [75]). In agricultural systems, this approach has successfully
317 been applied to estimate the sustainability of management practices [76]. For example, recent
318 work in agricultural model systems suggests that increasing soil biodiversity has a positive
319 effect on decomposition of plant material, soil nutrient cycling, plant diversity and productivity
320 [4,77]. There is active exploration of how agricultural management might be able to target and
321 directly engineer a desired soil community that increases ecosystem multifunctionality, by

322 stimulating soil biodiversity and specific beneficial organisms (e.g., after isolation of particular
323 microorganism species) [4]. So far, the application of using PSF for promoting ecosystem
324 multifunctionality in natural systems have received little attention but the approaches
325 developed in agricultural systems seems encouraging in addressing this challenge.

326 Natural ecosystems provide multiple functions such as carbon storage and water
327 purification, which alongside other ecosystem services have been valued at 125 trillion
328 USD/year in 2011 [78]. Ongoing global changes are however jeopardizing ecosystem
329 multifunctionality, often through changes in plant composition and diversity [79]. While
330 emphasis has already been put on the role of plant diversity and functional traits in driving
331 multiple ecosystem functions [3,9], soil organisms also determine plant diversity and are direct
332 drivers of multifunctionality [68,80]. Experimental microcosm work supports this idea,
333 showing that the diversity of soil decomposers can control effects of plant diversity on plant
334 productivity and nitrogen uptake [81]. Further, soil food web composition has been linked to
335 multiple ecosystem functions across different European land use systems [15], with for
336 example earthworms favoring carbon immobilization and AMF and bacteria enhancing
337 nutrient cycling. PSF has also clearly been linked to climate mitigation and adaptation (Box 2).
338 Despite these advances however, a formal framework for linking PSF to multifunctionality in
339 natural ecosystems systems is lacking. Filling this missing link, and identifying synergies
340 involved across functions, is important for the management of ecosystem functioning and
341 associated services provided to humanity.

342

343 **Concluding remarks and future challenges**

344 Developing sustainable agriculture to meet demands for crop production and biodiversity
345 conservation in face of global climatic changes is an important challenge of the 21st century.
346 While many questions remain (*see* ‘Outstanding Questions’), major advances in agricultural

347 and natural systems have improved our understanding of linkages and feedback between plants
348 and soil organisms, which in turn have brought us closer to meeting this challenge.

349 Our review demonstrates how the recent developments in PSF research across
350 agricultural and natural systems can assist in developing more targeted approaches in managing
351 plant-soil organism interactions (Figures 2 and 3, and summarized in Online Supplementary
352 Material Table S1). Targeting positive PSF effects is key to improving the sustainability of
353 food production whilst maintaining productivity. This can be achieved by adding organic
354 inputs to close the nutrient cycle, and to steer the decomposer community with the aim of
355 increasing soil nutrient availability. As we show in this review, promoting biodiversity and
356 enhancing ecosystem functions (i.e., carbon storage, decomposition, nutrient availability,
357 invasive control) in natural systems can also be attained through manipulation of soil biota
358 guided by the knowledge from agricultural systems about soil organism identity and function.
359 Engineering plant-soil biota interactions, through soil inoculation, genome editing, and/or plant
360 trait selection offers a promising avenue to rapidly manipulate the direction and strength of
361 PSF and tackle the grand challenges in both natural and agricultural systems in the future.
362 However, as with any form of engineering our natural environment, obvious care has to be
363 taken of potential unwanted side effects of introducing new organisms and organism traits into
364 an open system [82,83]. Assessing the risks of changing nutrient cycles and trophic interactions
365 will be required before initiating ecosystem engineering and this risk assessment will likely
366 benefit from bridging knowledge from both systems.

367 By looking ‘over the fence’ we see large potential for joining concepts and methodology
368 across these disparate fields for future research (Box 3). Building a common understanding of
369 the organism traits that mediate how PSF drives resource-use efficiency and resistance to soil
370 diseases and climatic extremes (Box 2) is an important next step. Furthermore, developments
371 in trait-based ecology for soil organisms are promising to better understand the functional role

372 of species and groups of soil organisms. Only if we know the functional attributes of the plant
373 and soil organisms involved, can we make adequate predictions of how ecosystems will
374 respond to human interventions, environmental change, and extreme climatic events. Joining
375 forces across disciplines offers a unique opportunity to expedite the trajectory towards a
376 sustainable and climate-smart future of plant-soil life on Earth.

377

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382

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592

593 Outstanding Questions

- 594 • What disciplinary and institutional bridges need to be built to ensure that knowledge on
595 plant-soil feedback from natural ecosystems can be translated into sustainable
596 agricultural practices?
- 597 • Can plant-soil feedback be used to enhance nutrient use efficiency and reduce synthetic
598 fertilizer use across a range of rotational cropping system types? What role do plant root
599 and leaf litter traits play mediating these effects, and can traits for optimal rotations be
600 selected for in new crop varieties?
- 601 • Agriculture has embraced microbial management techniques to promote beneficial soil
602 biota and suppress soil pathogens, but the results to date have been idiosyncratic. How
603 can PSF research be used to understand, identify and develop more robust microbial-
604 based management approaches for managing productivity losses in crops?
- 605 • Can soil inoculations be used to assist restoration of disturbed or degraded ecosystems,
606 and in combatting the spread of invasive plant species across a range of different
607 ecosystems and contexts? Which species of soil organisms play key stone roles in driving
608 plant community dynamics in natural systems?
- 609 • What are the risks associated with ecologically engineering of agricultural and natural
610 systems? Can introducing soil organisms or plant traits initially absent from the system
611 cause adverse effects on non-target plants or soil organisms and negatively impact
612 ecosystem functioning?
- 613 • How constant are plant-soil feedbacks over time, within and between growth seasons,
614 and how are plant-soil interactions influenced by legacies that are already present in the
615 soil?

- 616 • How can we more widely use plant-soil feedback to improve the resistance and resilience
617 of natural and agricultural systems to climate change?

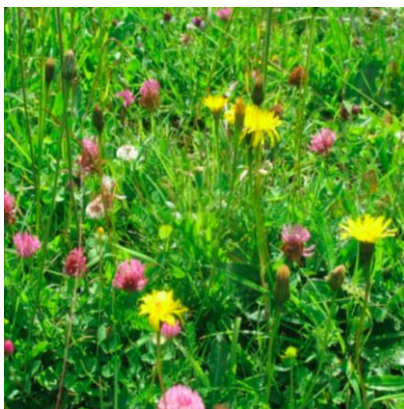
618 Box 1. Trends in Plant-Soil Feedback Research in Agricultural and Natural
619 Systems



Agricultural Systems – Repeatedly growing the same crop can deplete soil nutrients and can lead to the build-up of plant-species specific soil pathogens and root herbivores [84]. This phenomenon of negative plant-soil feedback (PSF), also known as ‘soil sickness’ or ‘soil fatigue’ [11,85], has led to the practice of crop rotation [86]. In agricultural

626 systems PSF has traditionally been mostly studied from a temporal point-of-view, by focusing
627 on decline of crop productivity over time (i.e., intraspecific feedback) and on soil legacies and
628 the ability of a crop or a cover crop to succeed another crop (i.e., interspecific feedback) [7].
629 But, less emphasis has been given to interspecific feedbacks in a spatial context as would occur
630 in multi-cropping [87]. Recently, increasing progress has been made in developing screening
631 methods for soil pathogens and in identifying the active taxa and their host-specificity [88], yet
632 little is known about complex community interactions and trophic relationships among soil
633 organisms. These gaps in knowledge have impaired our understanding of how to make use of
634 PSF in improving agricultural sustainability, i.e., increasing resource-use efficiency, reducing
635 fertilizer application, and combatting pests and diseases.

636



Natural Systems – PSF research in natural systems has a shorter history than in agricultural systems, but has seen a steep increase in activity over the past two decades [7,89]. In natural systems, PSF research has focused more on the community context at larger spatial and temporal scales, testing its role as driver of population dynamics [90],

643 community assembly and succession [91], plant-competitive interactions and the maintenance
644 of plant diversity [92,93]. PSF has also been suggested as a driver of the plant diversity-
645 productivity relationship [94]. Recently, PSF research in natural systems has also incorporated
646 litter feedback, i.e., how variation in litter input and decomposition among plant species feeds
647 back to growth of conspecific and heterospecific plants [19]. Finally, progress has been made
648 in our understanding of how plant traits can explain the variation in strength and direction of
649 PSF and in the use of novel technology such as remote sensing to quantify these in the field
650 [18,95]. Extending trait-based approaches to soil organisms has been suggested as a promising
651 avenue [96] but so far has seen little follow-up. Despite these developments, our predictive
652 ability of PSF in natural systems is low and we lack a thorough understanding of how to use
653 PSF knowledge in ecosystem restoration and conservation.

654 Box 2. Plant-Soil Feedback as a Tool to Mitigate Climate Change Impacts in
655 Agricultural Systems



Keeping Carbon in the Soil – Soils store large quantities of the Earth's carbon (C) and climate change could transform soils from C sinks to sources [97], thus creating a positive feedback to atmospheric CO₂ concentrations and further climatic changes. Importantly, PSF could reduce C losses from the soil and release of CO₂ into the atmosphere. Indeed,

662 from natural systems we know that increasing plant diversity or the abundance of legumes can
663 increase productivity but also C inputs into the microbial community, which results in
664 increased soil C storage [98]. This suggests that developing species-diverse crop, intercrop or
665 cover crop cultures (Figure 2 and 3) would increase plant productivity while minimizing
666 adverse impacts on the soil C budget. Photo: CIAT, International Center for Tropical
667 Agriculture

668



Reducing Nitrous Oxide Emissions – Nitrous oxide (N₂O) is an important greenhouse gas, and is tightly linked to the availability of soil mineral nitrogen (N). In agricultural systems, N₂O emissions are problematic because of inputs of large amounts of N fertilizers. It has been shown that in grasslands soil fungi can function as N sinks due to their

675 extensive hyphal network that allows high N absorption [25]. As such, fungi can reduce N₂O
676 emissions by immobilizing N in the soil. Moreover, most fungi lack the gene that encodes for
677 the enzyme nitrous oxide reductase, promoting N₂ production rather than N₂O [25]. In
678 agriculture, promoting fungal-dominated communities can be an important management

679 practice to reduce N₂O emissions. This could be achieved by including plants with conservative
680 resource-use traits in intercropping cultures (Figure 2) [9]. Another option would be to use
681 novel crop phenotypes inoculated with fungal endophytes [59]. Photo: Surinder Saggar.

682

683 *Resisting to Extreme Climatic Events* – Soil fungi are particularly resistant to climate



perturbations and can mediate plant community responses to drought, warming and elevated CO₂ [49]. From natural systems we know that subordinate plant species with conservative resource-use traits can promote ecosystem resistance to climate change through positive, fungal-mediated PSF [99]. More specifically, it has been shown that

690 subordinate species can enhance mycorrhizal root colonization under drought to better resist
691 water stress and continue taking up soil N whose mobility is reduced under drought [47]. This
692 suggests that using species with resource-conservative traits in crop rotations and species-
693 diverse intercropping and breeding crops to promote mycorrhizal associations (Figure 2) have
694 the potential to better adapt agricultural systems to climatic extremes. Photo: Pierre Mariotte

695 Box 3. Avenues for Future Research

696 *Perspectives in agricultural systems*

697 • While there has been mounting research in natural systems on how particular plant traits
698 might influence the direction and magnitude of PSF, these approaches have not yet been
699 adopted in agricultural research. New experiments are needed to optimize trait combinations
700 for crop rotations [5]. Trait-based crop rotations could improve soil resource-use efficiency
701 and, by that, promote sustainable agriculture by reducing the excessive use of fertilizers and
702 pesticides.

703 • Increasing breeding efforts for optimal rotations are needed. Exciting and unexplored
704 avenues exist in assessing the differential feedback responses from crop wild relatives in their
705 native environment, and using this knowledge as a basis for selection of traits involved in
706 nutrient acquisition and disease resistance in domesticated varieties.

707 • Spatial crop diversification (e.g., intercropping) is quickly becoming recognized as an
708 important strategy to sustainably intensify agriculture, and integrating the principles of PSF
709 could further improve intercropping schemes. For example, optimizing plant facilitation by
710 using knowledge on interspecific PSF holds promise for improving a range of agricultural
711 services, such as sustainable resource-use and dietary diversity.

712

713 *Perspectives in natural systems*

714 • Soil inoculations may assist in restoring degraded ecosystems and control invasive plant
715 species, but the underlying mechanisms are still largely unknown. From research in agricultural
716 systems we know that inoculation with beneficial microbial agents is often not successful
717 because of the large number of competing microorganisms in the rhizosphere that suppress the
718 inoculation agents. Much remains to be understood in how to manipulate complex soil
719 communities in natural systems and under which conditions inoculations would be successful.

720 • To date trait-based approaches in PSF research have largely focused on differences between
721 species that associate either with bacterial- or fungal-dominated soil communities (e.g., input
722 of fast vs. slow decomposing litter). Less is known about how morphological, chemical, and
723 physiological root traits affect soil organisms, and even less so, how traits of soil organisms
724 relate to plant fitness. A better understanding of which plant and soil organism traits drive PSF
725 has potential to greatly contribute to the management of natural ecosystems, although this has
726 not yet been recognized.

727 • PSF research in natural systems has largely focused on individual plant growth or population
728 responses; only few studies have considered the ecosystem consequences. Little is known
729 about how PSF influences the multiple functions of natural ecosystems (e.g., nutrient retention,
730 decomposition, carbon storage) and the associated services these functions provide, including
731 water purification and soil erosion control.

732

733 **Figure 1. Bridging Plant-Soil Feedback in Natural and Agricultural Systems.** Conceptual
734 framework bridging knowledge on plant-soil feedback (PSF) research derived from natural and
735 agricultural systems, illustrating the plant and soil components underlying the disparate
736 patterns of PSF. Arrows in the root-soil subsystem represent effects of plants on soil organisms,
737 and vice versa, with red arrows for negative PSF and blue arrows for positive PSF. Intraspecific
738 feedback affects individuals of the same species, while interspecific feedback affects
739 individuals of other species. Natural systems show high plant diversity and trait variation
740 compared to often mono-specific agricultural systems. Wild plants from natural systems show
741 a variety of growth and nutrient acquisition strategies [9], whereas domesticated species from
742 agricultural systems have generally been selected and bred for very fast growth and rapid
743 nutrient acquisition often at the cost of defense against pathogens and herbivores [43]. These
744 trait spectra are largely based on aboveground investigations, whereas much less is known on
745 the belowground trait spectra. In natural systems, the soil food web is taxonomically and
746 functionally diverse and encompasses complex trophic relationships, while soil food webs in
747 frequently disturbed agricultural systems are less diverse and often dominated by root
748 herbivores, pathogens, and fast-growing bacteria and their consumers [25]. Moreover, natural
749 systems are characterized by relatively closed nutrient cycles where plant litter is decomposed
750 and mineralized into plant-available nutrients [20,53]. This contrasts with nutrient cycles in
751 traditional agricultural systems, which are often open and leaky: nutrient losses through crop
752 harvesting, leaching, or gaseous emissions are compensated by inputs of organic or synthetic
753 fertilizers. Triangles represent soil pathogens while circles represent soil mutualists; different
754 colors represent soil taxonomic diversity. Interactions between soil organisms are represented
755 by black lines and highlight the level of soil food web complexity.

756

757 **Figure 2. Improving Agricultural Sustainability.** Insights from plant-soil feedback (PSF)
758 research in natural systems (see italicized green text), characterized by complex and diverse
759 plant and soil communities, can help achieve the grand challenges sustainable agriculture is
760 facing. Arrows in the root-soil subsystem represent effects of plants on soil organisms, and
761 vice versa, with red arrows for negative PSF and blue arrows for positive PSF. Triangles
762 represent soil pathogens while circles represent soil mutualists; different colors represent soil
763 taxonomic diversity. (1) *Optimizing cropping systems*: Positive interspecific feedback, i.e.,
764 facilitating effects of one plant species on neighboring species mediated by changes in the soil,
765 are well known from natural systems. In agricultural systems, optimizing the sequence of crop
766 species that maximize positive interspecific PSF could improve the efficiency of crop rotation
767 schemes. (2) *Disease resistance and pest control*: Root defense traits are essential drivers of
768 plant resistance to root pathogens and soil disease in natural systems and breeding or
769 genetically modifying crop species to favor root traits similar to wild species can improve plant
770 resistance in agricultural systems. Inoculation with beneficial soil organisms, such as
771 mycorrhizal fungi or growth-promoting, disease-suppressing bacteria, obtained from natural
772 systems but screened for their ability to also perform well in agricultural systems, can also
773 stimulate crop production and minimize yield loss due to soil diseases (3) *Resource-use*
774 *efficiency*: Learning from natural systems, breeding crops to promote associations with soil
775 mutualists (i.e., positive PSF) and enhancing complementarity of plant traits in intercrops or
776 cover crops can improve plant nutrient uptake and soil nutrient retention in agricultural
777 systems. Further, positive litter feedback by leaving crop residues on the soil surface or
778 incorporating them into the soil can increase soil nutrient availability for the next generation
779 of crops and reduce the need for synthetic fertilizers. Photo: Shiva Bakhshandeh.
780

781 **Figure 3. Enhancing Diversity and Ecosystem Functions in Natural Systems.** Insights from
782 plant-soil feedback (PSF) research in agricultural systems (see italicized orange text) can assist
783 the restoration and conservation of natural ecosystems. Arrows in the root-soil subsystem
784 represent effects of plants on soil organisms, and vice versa, with red arrows for negative PSF
785 and blue arrows for positive PSF. Triangles represent soil pathogens while circles represent
786 soil mutualists; different colors represent soil taxonomic species diversity. (1) *Deciphering*
787 *complex plant-soil interactions*: Knowledge of positive and negative interactions between soil
788 organisms in ‘simplified’ agricultural systems can be used in engineering the soil communities
789 of natural systems to promote species diversity and ecosystem stability, for example by
790 inoculating soil organisms that promote subordinate plant species or suppress the dominant
791 species. (2) *Restoration after disturbance*: Recent advances in our understanding of specific
792 interactions between crop species and soil mutualists and pathogens can be used in the targeted
793 restoration of natural ecosystems. For example, positive interspecific PSF (i.e., through
794 mutualists) driven by the addition of selected plant species or by soil inoculation can promote
795 foundation or rare species while negative PSF (i.e., through pathogens) can be used to reduce
796 the abundance of invasive or ruderal species. (3) *Multifunctionality*: Experimental
797 manipulations of soil community composition in agricultural systems showed that increasing
798 soil biodiversity or the abundance of certain groups of species can enhance multiple ecosystem
799 functions. Similarly, increasing soil diversity or inoculating particular soil organisms (orange
800 triangles and circles) could further promote the complex network of positive feedback between
801 plant and soil organisms and improve multiple functions of natural ecosystems. Photo: Pierre
802 Mariotte.
803

804 **Glossary**

805 **Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF):** soil fungi living in a (mostly) mutualistic relation
806 with most plant species and, in many cases, providing benefits to plants and ecosystems.

807 **AMF networks:** underground network of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungal hyphae that connects
808 individual plants and transfers water, carbon and nutrients.

809 **Ecosystem services:** benefits that humans derive directly or indirectly from ecosystems.

810 **Ecosystem stability:** the resistance and resilience of ecosystems to disturbance or stress, such
811 as through environmental change.

812 **Endophytes:** organisms, often fungi or bacteria, that live within a plant and gain carbon from
813 the host plant. Endophytes can have positive or negative effects on plant fitness.

814 **Foundation species:** species with a key role in structuring a community by creating or
815 maintaining habitat that supports other species.

816 **Functional traits:** quantifiable morphological, physiological, biochemical, or phenological
817 characteristics of individual organisms that are relevant to relationships with other species and
818 how they interact with the environment.

819 **Intercropping:** agricultural practice growing two or more crops simultaneously in the same
820 field.

821 **Phenolic profile:** the profile of phenols, a class of chemical compounds, produced by plants
822 and microorganisms that varies between and within species.

823 **Plant economics spectrum:** gradient of plant functional traits, based on the resource
824 acquisition strategy of the plant, ranging from traits associated with slow growth and
825 conservation of resources to fast growth and rapid turnover of resources.

826 **Rhizosphere communities:** microorganisms and micro- and mesofauna living in the narrow
827 region of soil in direct contact with the plant root.

828 **Saprotrophic organisms:** organisms deriving their energy from nonliving organic material.

829 **Soil food web:** community of all organisms living in the soil often forming a complex network
830 of trophic interactions.

831 **Sustainable agriculture:** agricultural management with the aim of meeting today's food
832 challenges in an environmentally responsible manner and without compromising the long-term
833 productivity of the system.

834 **Trophic level:** position occupied by a living organism in a food chain. In the soil food web,
835 trophic levels include root herbivores, decomposers, consumers, and predators.