

Review

Plant–Soil Feedback: Bridging Natural and Agricultural Sciences

Pierre Mariotte,^{1,2} Zia Mehrabi,³ T. Martijn Bezemer,^{4,5} Gerlinde B. De Deyn,⁶ Andrew Kulmatiski,⁷ Barbara Drigo,⁸ G.F. (Ciska) Veen,⁴ Marcel G.A. van der Heijden,^{9,10,11} and Paul Kardol^{12,*}

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

Plant–Soil Feedback in Natural and Agricultural Systems

A new vision for the sustainable management of agricultural and natural systems is needed to address population demands for food production and **ecosystem services** (see [Glossary](#)) and declining ecosystem health [1,2]. Combining insights from research in agricultural and natural systems has potential to considerably improve our understanding of both systems [3–5]. Research on PSF has gained attention in agriculture and in natural systems in the past 10 years and the opportunity is ripe to integrate knowledge across these systems for improved food provision and ecosystem outcomes [6,7].

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

Bridging the Gap

Agricultural and natural systems vary substantially in terms of aboveground diversity, plant **functional traits**, and soil biota ([Figure 1](#)). Plant domestication in agriculture selects the most

Highlights

PSF has been extensively studied in both agricultural and natural systems, with increased activity in recent years, but a framework for integrating the concepts and principles developed in these systems is lacking.

Interactions between soil biota and plant leaf and root traits have become an important tool in understanding PSF in wild plants, but this understanding has not yet been utilized in agricultural crop rotations.

Soil inoculations with microbial strains are increasingly being used for steering the soil microbiome in agriculture but might also offer a promising method of restoration of degraded systems, and for controlling the spread of invasive species.

Increasing evidence shows that PSF can play important roles in mediating ecosystem responses to forecasted climate change and extreme weather events.

¹Ecole Polytechnique Fédérale de Lausanne (EPFL), School of Architecture, Civil and Environmental Engineering (ENAC), Laboratory of Ecological Systems (ECOS), Station 2, 1015 Lausanne, Switzerland

²Swiss Federal Institute for Forest, Snow and Landscape Research (WSL), Site Lausanne, Case postale 96, 1015 Lausanne, Switzerland

³University of British Columbia, Institute for Resources, Environment and Sustainability, Vancouver, BC V6T 1Z, Canada

⁴Netherlands Institute of Ecology (NIOO-KNAW), Department of Terrestrial Ecology, Droevendaalsesteeg 10, 6708 PB Wageningen, The Netherlands



Box 1. Trends in Plant–Soil Feedback Research in Agricultural and Natural 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 [85]. This phenomenon of negative PSF, also known as ‘soil sickness’ or ‘soil fatigue’ [11,86], has led to the practice of crop rotation [87]. In agricultural systems PSF has traditionally been mostly studied from a temporal point of view, by focusing on decline of crop productivity over time (i.e., intraspecific feedback) and on soil legacies and the ability of a crop or a cover crop to succeed another crop (i.e., interspecific feedback) [7]. However, less emphasis has been given to interspecific feedbacks in a spatial context as would occur in multicropping [88]. Recently, increasing progress has been made in developing screening methods for soil pathogens and in identifying the active taxa and their host specificity [89], yet little is known about complex community interactions and trophic relationships

among soil organisms. These gaps in knowledge have impaired our understanding of how to make use of PSF in improving agricultural sustainability, that is, increasing resource-use efficiency, reducing fertilizer application, and combatting pests and diseases.



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 [7,90]. 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 [91], community assembly and succession [92], plant-competitive interactions, and the maintenance of plant diversity [93,94]. PSF has also been suggested as a driver of the plant diversity–productivity relationship [95]. Recently, PSF research in natural systems has also incorporated litter feedback, that is, how variation in litter input and decomposition among plant species feeds back to growth of conspecific and heterospecific plants [19]. Finally, progress has been made in our understanding of how plant traits can explain the variation in strength and direction of PSF and in the use of novel technology such as remote

sensing to quantify these in the field [18,96]. Extending trait-based approaches to soil organisms has been suggested as a promising avenue [97] but so far has seen little follow-up. Despite these developments, our predictive ability of PSF in natural systems is low and we lack a thorough understanding of how to use PSF knowledge in ecosystem restoration and conservation.

⁵Leiden University, Institute of Biology, Section Plant Ecology & Phytochemistry, PO Box 9505, 2300 RA Leiden, The Netherlands

⁶Soil Biology and Biological Soil Quality, Wageningen University and Research, PO Box 47, 6700 AA, Wageningen, The Netherlands

⁷Utah State University, Department of Wildland Resources, Logan, UT 84322, USA

⁸University of South Australia, Future Industries Institute (FI), GPO Box 2471, Adelaide, 5001 SA, Australia

⁹Plant–Soil Interactions, Agroscope, 8046 Zurich, Switzerland

¹⁰Department of Evolutionary Biology and Environmental Studies, University of Zurich, 8057 Zurich, Switzerland

¹¹Plant–Microbe Interactions, Institute of Environmental Biology, Faculty of Science, Utrecht University, 3584 CH Utrecht, The Netherlands

¹²Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Department of Forest Ecology and Management, 90183, Umeå, Sweden

*Correspondence: paul.kardol@slu.se (P. Kardol).

productive species with resource-acquisitive traits. However, in natural systems plant species encompass the whole trait economics spectrum (see **plant economics spectrum**), including resource-conservative species [8]. That said, in both systems plant functional traits influence the effects of plants on soil organisms [3,9], and the functional traits of soil organisms (within and across taxonomic groups), and their abundance, influence the direction and strength of feedback in plants [10,11]. Consistencies between the effects of plant and soil organism traits provide the basis for our framework toward bridging PSF knowledge from agricultural and natural systems.

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

plant traits and PSF, and moving beyond metrics of evolutionary history and soil nutrient status [21,22], offer a promising means for evaluating the magnitude and direction of PSF (Figure 1).

It is well known that the build-up of species-specific soil pathogens and root herbivores reduces crop production in agricultural systems (Figure 1) [11], yet at the same time can promote plant succession and the maintenance of plant diversity in natural systems [10,23]. Plants also associate with a range of mutualists, including fungal **endophytes**, mycorrhizal fungi, and growth-promoting bacteria, which are all important drivers of PSF. For example, we know from natural systems that **arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF)** can increase plant diversity when promoting subordinate species but decrease diversity when promoting dominant species [24]. In agricultural systems, tillage and fertilization decrease fungal biomass and disrupt **AMF networks**, resulting in nitrogen leaching from soil with negative feedback to plant productivity [25]. Clearly, a better understanding of the functional role of soil organisms in driving the direction and magnitude of PSF is needed to better use PSF as a management tool in both agricultural and natural systems.

Plant–Soil Feedback in Agricultural Systems: Improving Sustainability and Productivity

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

Optimizing Cropping Systems

Recent studies on wild plants have shown that interspecific PSF varies considerably among plant species in both sign and magnitude [26,27]. The range of species covered by this work offers a lens in which to test the generality of the ecological theory, and develop more systematic approaches to rotation planning to maximize positive PSF effects (Figure 1). Accumulating data sets of interspecific PSF can be used to predict how sets of plant traits for specific genotypes and soils can condition the soil community to induce positive interspecific PSF (Figure 1). This could be tested with crop species and used to design efficient crop rotation and **intercropping** systems (Figure 2), by promoting positive interspecific PSF temporally (i.e., positive soil legacy for successive crops) and spatially (i.e., increasing productivity through belowground facilitation). One of the emerging patterns shown in natural systems is that grasses induce positive effects on broad-leaved plants through PSF [28,29]. This provides a basis for targeted testing of the benefits of rotating grain crops with broad-leaved crops in agriculture, for the duration of such legacy effects, and for building a more in-depth understanding of the soil organisms involved.

A primary means by which crops affect soil communities is via organic inputs. While inputs of organic material can influence disease suppression and nutrient cycling in agro-ecosystems [17,30], the mechanisms are not always well understood. In natural systems, recent studies show that the type of litter input can strongly affect the capacity of soil communities to decompose organic compounds [20,31] and results in decomposer communities becoming specialized to specific litter types [32]. The concept that emerges is that the type, rate, and

Glossary

Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi

(AMF): soil fungi living in a (mostly) mutualistic relationship with most plant species and, in many cases, providing benefits to plants and ecosystems.

AMF networks: underground network of AMF hyphae that connects individual plants and transfers water, carbon, and nutrients.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Rhizosphere communities: microorganisms and microfauna and mesofauna living in the narrow region of soil in direct contact with the plant root.

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

Soil food web: community of all organisms living in the soil often

timing of different organic inputs into the soil are important drivers of decomposer communities. Managing litter inputs in agricultural systems therefore offers an opportunity to steer the composition of the soil community in specific directions over multiple cropping years [33]. Moreover, using a trait-based approach, it has been shown that decomposition rates depend strongly on physiological and enzymatic traits of different microbial taxa [34]. As such, manipulating microbial community traits can be a tool to boost decomposition processes in agricultural systems, although further research is needed to test this idea.

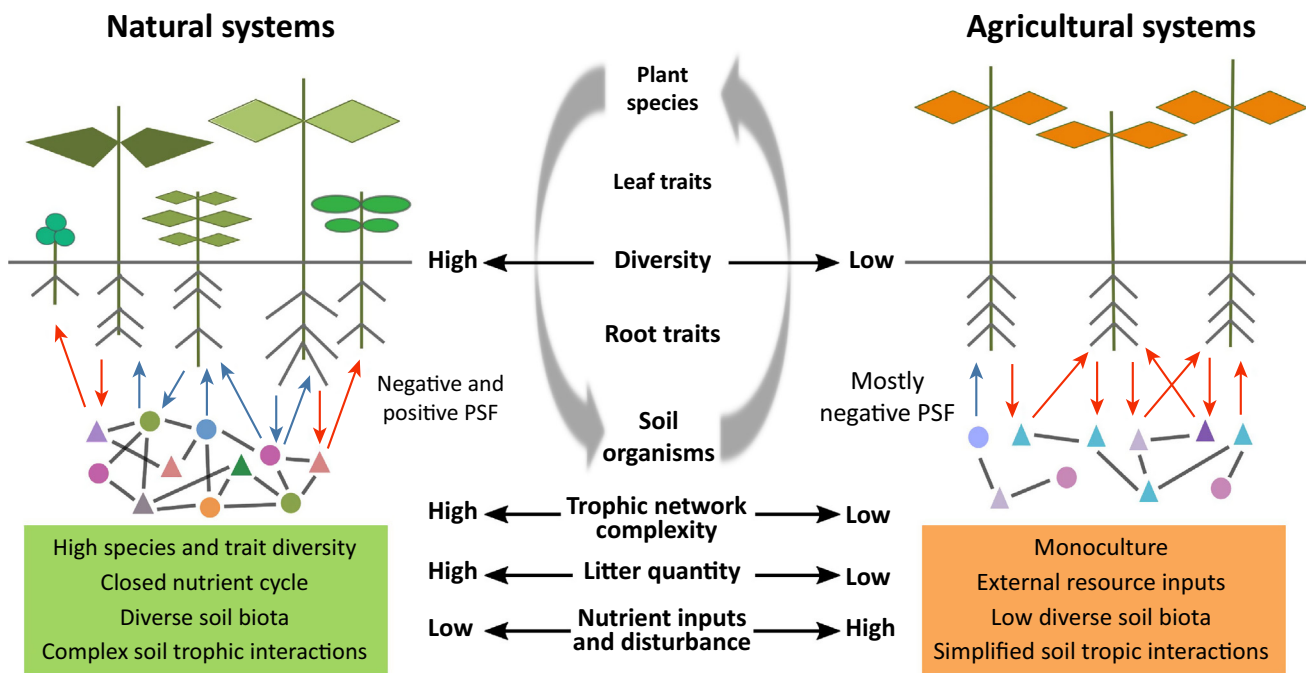
Disease Resistance and Pest Control

Minimizing losses of crops to pests and diseases is a key challenge in agriculture. Application of pesticides is commonplace, but is not always effective, and is a major public health concern. In natural ecosystems, wild plants are dependent on the activity and function of their **rhizosphere communities** for defenses against soil pests and diseases [11,35]. Over evolutionary time, plants developed intimate relationships with beneficial soil microorganisms, taking advantage of their ability to inhibit plant pathogens [36,37]. Agricultural practices using pesticides and

forming a complex network of trophic interactions.

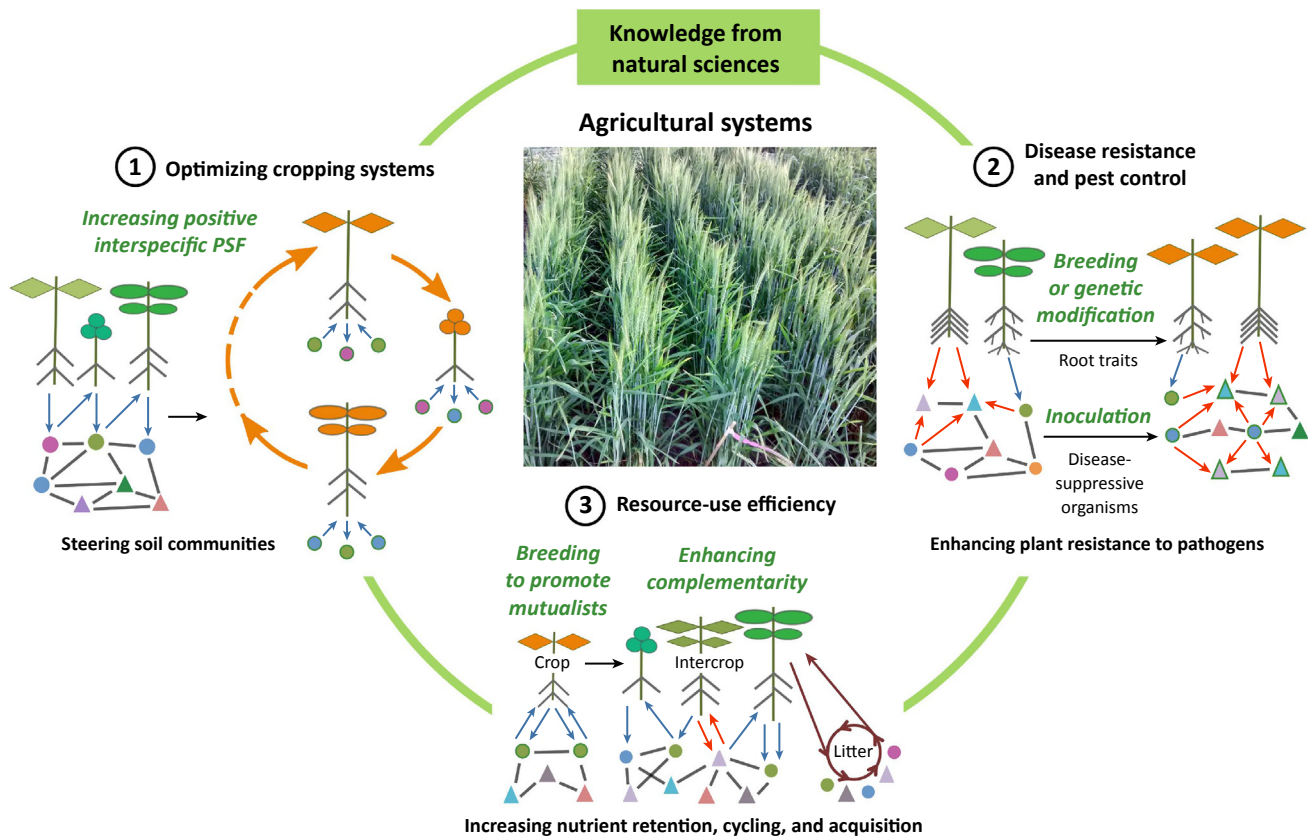
Sustainable agriculture: agricultural management with the aim of meeting today's food challenges in an environmentally responsible manner and without compromising the long-term productivity of the system.

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



Trends in Ecology & Evolution

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



Trends in Ecology & Evolution

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

synthetic fertilizers alter the balance between beneficial and pathogenic rhizosphere organisms with consequences for plant defense [38]. From studies in natural ecosystems, we can learn how plant trait-based approaches might be used to improve crop resistance to soil pests and diseases [16,39]. For example, traits that influence the **phenolic profile** of roots are important predictors of defense against root herbivores [39,40]. Hence, targeting specific chemical root traits through conventional breeding or genomic engineering might maintain yield under pathogen pressure in agricultural systems [41]. Exciting opportunities for new crop defense solutions also exist through re-introduction of wild plant traits into domesticated crops, and for exploring the coevolution of defense mechanisms with microbial communities in wild relatives in their native habitat [35,42].

Box 2. Plant–Soil Feedback as a Tool to Mitigate Climate Change Impacts in 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 [98], 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, from natural systems we know that increasing plant diversity or the abundance of legumes can increase productivity but also C inputs into the microbial community, which results in increased soil C storage [99]. This suggests that developing species-diverse crop, intercrop, or cover crop cultures (see Figures 2 and 3 in main text) would increase plant productivity while minimizing adverse impacts on the soil C budget. Photo: CIAT, International Center for Tropical Agriculture.



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 extensive hyphal network that allows high N absorption [25]. As such, fungi can reduce N₂O emissions by immobilizing N in the soil. Moreover, most fungi lack the gene that encodes for the enzyme nitrous oxide reductase, promoting N₂ production rather than N₂O [25]. In agriculture, promoting fungal-dominated communities can be an important management practice to reduce N₂O emissions. This could be achieved by including plants with conservative resource-use traits in intercropping cultures (see Figure 2 in main text) [9]. Another option would be to use novel crop phenotypes inoculated with fungal endophytes [59]. Photo: Surinder Sagar.



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 [100]. More specifically, it has been shown that subordinate species can enhance mycorrhizal root colonization under drought to better resist water stress and continue taking up soil N whose mobility is reduced under drought [47]. This suggests that using species with resource-conservative traits in crop rotations and species-diverse intercropping and breeding crops to promote mycorrhizal associations (see Figure 2 in main text) have the potential to better adapt agricultural systems to climatic extremes. Photo: Pierre Mariotte.

Many of the changes in plant traits during domestication have led to impaired sustainability of agricultural systems [43,44]. Research in natural systems has shown that plant traits and beneficial microbial isolates (i.e., AMF and nitrogen-fixing bacteria) from wild plants have a greater ability to control soil pathogens than those in domesticated plants [45]. This suggests that inoculation with wild relative soil can also assist in controlling crop pathogens. However, inoculated microbial strains are sometimes difficult to establish, either due to competitive interactions with the resident microbial community or because they require more time to establish than allowed by short-term crop cultivation [46]. One way to overcome this problem is to give beneficial microbes from natural ecosystems a 'head start' in agricultural soils using inoculated seeds [47]. Similar to natural systems [20,32], incorporating specific crop residues into the soil may also reestablish the natural balance between plant beneficial and pathogenic microbes in domesticated plants [33]. From natural ecosystems, we know that AMF can protect plants against environmental stresses and improve plant defense [48–51], knowledge that could be used in optimizing AMF inoculations in agriculture.

Resource-Use Efficiency

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

First, resource-use efficiency may be targeted by closing the nutrient cycle. High nutrient inputs from external sources and considerable losses of nutrients through leaching and gaseous N emissions have disrupted nutrient cycling in many agro-ecosystems [4]. In natural ecosystems, the nutrient cycle is more closed, with plant residues being decomposed and these nutrients being taken up again by plants or otherwise immobilized [20,54]. Closing the nutrient cycle in agro-ecosystems requires leaving crop residues on the field and making better use of soil decomposer communities involved in litter-mediated PSF (Figure 2) [3]. Increasing resource-use efficiency in agriculture can furthermore benefit from utilizing plants with N-uptake traits that complement each other – insights that have largely been developed in natural systems [55,56]. In agricultural systems, recent work shows that increased production can be realized by using cover crop mixtures in rotation with the main crop (Figure 2, [57]). Legumes have been used as monoculture intercrops for hundreds of years to improve soil fertility but recent PSF knowledge can be used to refine such agricultural practice to better increase productivity and sustainability. For example, interactions between legumes and nitrogen-fixing bacteria can be enhanced in plant species mixtures, thereby increasing plant productivity and tissue quality at the community level [58] while simultaneously promoting soil carbon storage (Box 2).

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

Plant–Soil Feedback in Natural Systems: Managing Biodiversity and Ecosystem Functioning

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

Deciphering Complex Plant–Soil Interactions

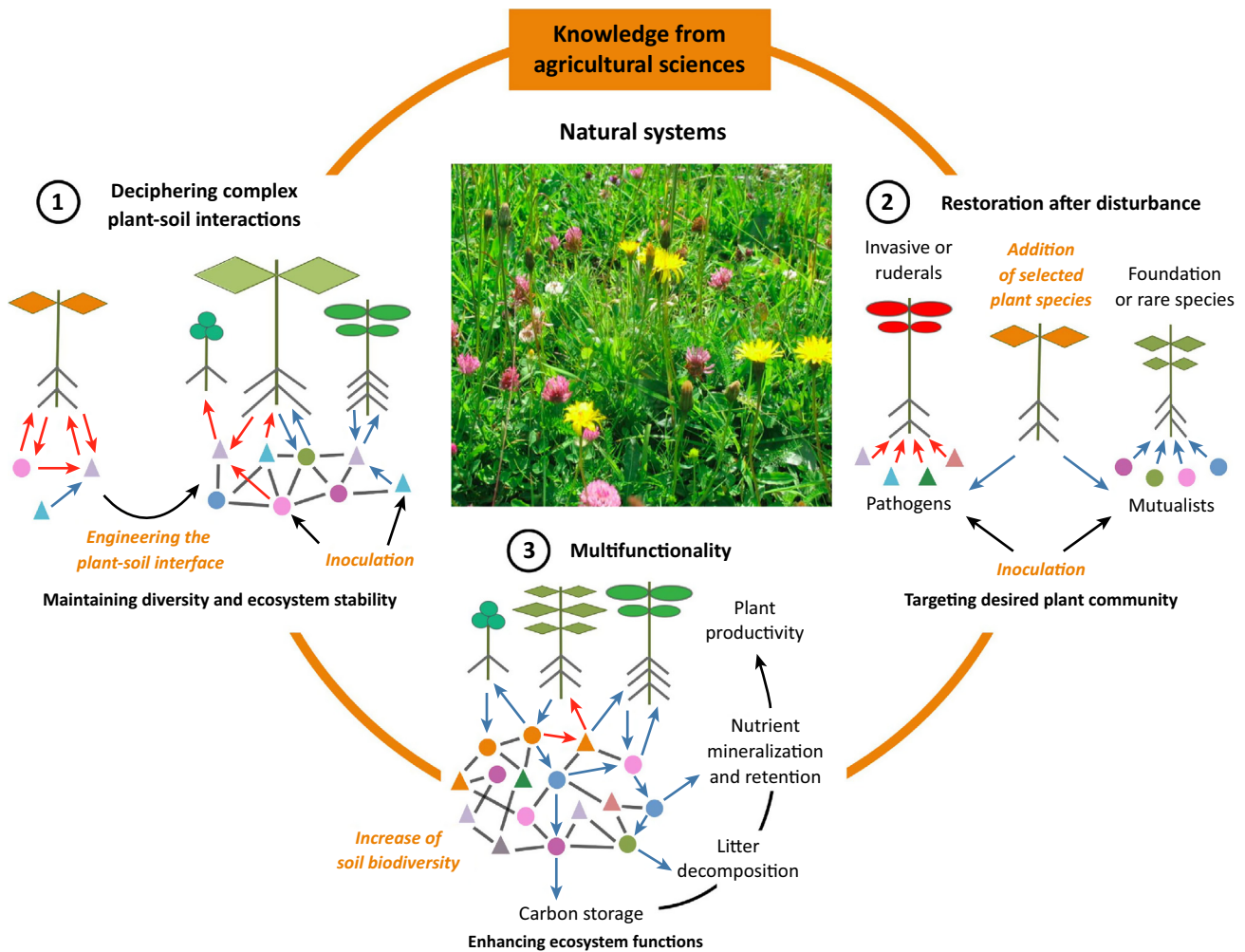
In agricultural systems, the concept and application of ‘domesticating microbial communities’ is gaining traction [63]. Many of the biological agents used in agriculture have been identified using screening approaches or resulted from fortuitous observations [63,64]. PSF experiments are particularly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

Recently, we have seen additional approaches emerge, focused on the signaling that occurs between plant and soil organisms [67]. These new approaches have revealed complex interactions among plant genotypes, soil types, management approaches, and soil organisms, with endophytes and mycorrhizal fungi both causing a range of positive to negative effects on different plant species as a function of species identity, plant health, and resource availability [36]. Despite growing interest and promising results in agricultural systems, there are several knowledge gaps for using targeted plant–soil biota manipulation in maintaining or restoring the diversity and stability of natural ecosystems. It is likely that a complex network of soil organisms, not just a single organism, determines PSF [68] and that PSF is contingent on management and other site-specific traits (Figure 1). New studies to build a common understanding of the interaction between management, plant traits, and the key players in soil community are needed.

Ecosystem Restoration after Disturbance

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

Many natural ecosystems are degraded or disturbed due to human activities and restoration of these systems is an important goal. Here, the focus is often on reestablishment of particular key plant species [70] and reduction of unwanted plant species such as exotics, invasives, or ruderals (Figure 3). The potential benefits of using soil inoculations in management of natural ecosystems is nicely highlighted by a recent large-field experiment on a former arable land in The Netherlands. Inoculation with a small amount of soil collected from underneath natural plant communities was able to alter the composition of the soil community to more closely resemble the natural state, which in turn led to the establishment of vegetation with more target species and fewer ruderals [71]. Importantly, inoculation with soil collected from different donor ecosystems led to different soil communities and vegetation in the recipient plots several years after application [71]. The longer-term consequences are still a matter of speculation, but



Trends in Ecology & Evolution

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

this example shows that inoculation with soil communities can be used to steer natural ecosystems.

Similar to weed control in agricultural systems, the restoration of natural systems often aims to suppress invasive species and support target species. Suppression of plant growth can be obtained via negative PSF (e.g., through soil pathogens), while supporting the growth of

target species can be obtained via positive feedback (e.g., through beneficial organisms such as mycorrhizal fungi; Figure 3; [23,60]), both of which could be manipulated through inoculation of soil organisms. The USDA ARS EBIPM Area-wide Program is currently testing the ability of the fungal strain *Pyrenophora semeniperda* to decrease cheatgrass (*Bromus tectorum*) growth without affecting winter wheat [72,73]. Similarly, *Methylobacterium* spp. was recently tested for its ability to increase native but not weed growth in coastal sage-scrub communities in California [74]. Closer integration of PSF work in natural systems offers an opportunity for exploring the robustness of these biocontrol programs, and opens the opportunity for more widely using soil organisms in ecosystem restoration of natural communities.

Multifunctionality of Plant–Soil Feedback

In recent years, it has been increasingly advocated that understanding the ecosystem consequences of environmental change requires the integrative study of multiple ecosystem functions (i.e., multifunctionality, [75]). In agricultural systems, this approach has successfully been applied to estimate the sustainability of management practices [76]. For example, recent work in agricultural model systems suggests that increasing soil biodiversity has a positive effect on decomposition of plant material, soil nutrient cycling, plant diversity, and productivity [4,77]. There is active exploration of how agricultural management might be able to target and directly engineer a desired soil community that increases ecosystem multifunctionality, by stimulating soil biodiversity and specific beneficial organisms (e.g., after isolation of particular microorganism species) [4]. So far, the application of using PSF for promoting ecosystem multifunctionality in natural systems has received little attention but the approaches developed in agricultural systems seem encouraging in addressing this challenge.

Natural ecosystems provide multiple functions such as carbon storage and water purification, which alongside other ecosystem services have been valued at US\$125 trillion/year in 2011 [78]. Ongoing global changes are, however, jeopardizing ecosystem multifunctionality, often through changes in plant composition and diversity [79]. While emphasis has already been put on the role of plant diversity and functional traits in driving multiple ecosystem functions [3,9], soil organisms also determine plant diversity and are direct drivers of multifunctionality [80,81]. Experimental microcosm work supports this idea, showing that the diversity of soil decomposers can control effects of plant diversity on plant productivity and nitrogen uptake [82]. Further, soil food web composition has been linked to multiple ecosystem functions across different European land use systems [15], with for example, earthworms favoring carbon immobilization and AMF and bacteria enhancing nutrient cycling. PSF has also clearly been linked to climate mitigation and adaptation (Box 2). Despite these advances, however, a formal framework for linking PSF to multifunctionality in natural ecosystems systems is lacking. Filling this missing link, and identifying synergies involved across functions, is important for the management of ecosystem functioning and associated services provided to humanity.

Concluding Remarks and Future Challenges

Developing sustainable agriculture to meet demands for crop production and biodiversity conservation in face of global climatic changes is an important challenge of the 21st century. While many questions remain (see Outstanding Questions), major advances in agricultural and natural systems have improved our understanding of linkages and feedback between plants and soil organisms, which in turn have brought us closer to meeting this challenge.

Outstanding Questions

What disciplinary and institutional bridges need to be built to ensure that knowledge on PSF from natural ecosystems can be translated into sustainable agricultural practices?

Can PSF be used to enhance nutrient use efficiency and reduce synthetic fertilizer use across a range of rotational cropping system types? What role do plant root and leaf litter traits play in mediating these effects, and can traits for optimal rotations be selected for new crop varieties?

Agriculture has embraced microbial management techniques to promote beneficial soil biota and suppress soil pathogens, but the results to date have been idiosyncratic. How can PSF research be used to understand, identify, and develop more robust microbial-based management approaches for managing productivity losses in crops?

Can soil inoculations be used to assist restoration of disturbed or degraded ecosystems, and in combatting the spread of invasive plant species across a range of different ecosystems and contexts? Which species of soil organisms play keystone roles in driving plant community dynamics in natural systems?

What are the risks associated with ecologically engineering of agricultural and natural systems? Can introducing soil organisms or plant traits initially absent from the system cause adverse effects on nontarget plants or soil organisms and negatively impact ecosystem functioning?

How constant are PSFs over time, within and between growth seasons, and how are plant–soil interactions influenced by legacies that are already present in the soil?

How can we more widely use PSF to improve the resistance and resilience of natural and agricultural systems to climate change?

Our review demonstrates how the recent developments in PSF research across agricultural and natural systems can assist in developing more targeted approaches in managing plant–soil organism interactions (Figures 2 and 3, and summarized in Table S1). Targeting positive PSF effects is key to improving the sustainability of food production whilst maintaining productivity. This can be achieved by adding organic inputs to close the nutrient cycle, and to steer the decomposer community with the aim of increasing soil nutrient availability. As we show in this review, promoting biodiversity and enhancing ecosystem functions (i.e., carbon storage, decomposition, nutrient availability, invasive control) in natural systems can also be attained through manipulation of soil biota guided by the knowledge from agricultural systems about soil organism identity and function. Engineering plant–soil biota interactions, through soil inoculation, genome editing, and/or plant trait selection offers a promising avenue to rapidly manipulate the direction and strength of PSF and tackle the grand challenges in both natural and agricultural systems in the future. However, as with any form of engineering our natural environment, obvious care has to be taken of potential unwanted side effects of introducing new organisms and organism traits into an open system [83,84]. Assessing the risks of changing nutrient cycles and trophic interactions will be required before initiating ecosystem engineering and this risk assessment will likely benefit from bridging knowledge from both systems.

By looking ‘over the fence’ we see large potential for joining concepts and methodology across these disparate fields for future research (Box 3). Building a common understanding of the organism traits that mediate how PSF drives resource-use efficiency and resistance to soil

Box 3. Avenues for Future Research

Perspectives in agricultural systems

- While there has been mounting research in natural systems on how particular plant traits might influence the direction and magnitude of PSF, these approaches have not yet been adopted in agricultural research. New experiments are needed to optimize trait combinations for crop rotations [5]. Trait-based crop rotations could improve soil resource-use efficiency and, by that, promote sustainable agriculture by reducing the excessive use of fertilizers and pesticides.
- Increasing breeding efforts for optimal rotations are needed. Exciting and unexplored avenues exist in assessing the differential feedback responses from crop wild relatives in their native environment, and using this knowledge as a basis for selection of traits involved in nutrient acquisition and disease resistance in domesticated varieties.
- Spatial crop diversification (e.g., intercropping) is quickly becoming recognized as an important strategy to sustainably intensify agriculture, and integrating the principles of PSF could further improve intercropping schemes. For example, optimizing plant facilitation by using knowledge on interspecific PSF holds promise for improving a range of agricultural services, such as sustainable resource-use and dietary diversity.

Perspectives in natural systems

- Soil inoculations may assist in restoring degraded ecosystems and control invasive plant species, but the underlying mechanisms are still largely unknown. From research in agricultural systems we know that inoculation with beneficial microbial agents is often not successful because of the large number of competing microorganisms in the rhizosphere that suppress the inoculation agents. Much remains to be understood in how to manipulate complex soil communities in natural systems and under which conditions inoculations would be successful.
- To date, trait-based approaches in PSF research have largely focused on differences between species that associate either with bacterial- or fungal-dominated soil communities (e.g., input of fast vs. slow decomposing litter). Less is known about how morphological, chemical, and physiological root traits affect soil organisms, and even less so, how traits of soil organisms relate to plant fitness. A better understanding of which plant and soil organism traits drive PSF has potential to greatly contribute to the management of natural ecosystems, although this has not yet been recognized.
- PSF research in natural systems has largely focused on individual plant growth or population responses; only few studies have considered the ecosystem consequences. Little is known about how PSF influences the multiple functions of natural ecosystems (e.g., nutrient retention, decomposition, carbon storage) and the associated services these functions provide, including water purification and soil erosion control.

diseases and climatic extremes (Box 2) is an important next step. Furthermore, developments in trait-based ecology for soil organisms are promising to better understand the functional role of species and groups of soil organisms. Only if we know the functional attributes of the plant and soil organisms involved, can we make adequate predictions of how ecosystems will respond to human interventions, environmental change, and extreme climatic events. Joining forces across disciplines offers a unique opportunity to expedite the trajectory toward a sustainable and climate-smart future of plant–soil life on Earth.

Acknowledgments

This manuscript is the result of an organized session at the EcoSummit conference in Montpellier, France (from 29 August 2016 to 1 September 2016). This session was kindly sponsored by the Special Interest Group ‘Plant, Soils, Ecosystems’ from the British Ecological Society.

Supplemental Information

Supplemental information associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2017.11.005>.

References

- German, R.N. *et al.* (2017) Relationships among multiple aspects of agriculture’s environmental impact and productivity: a meta-analysis to guide sustainable agriculture. *Biol. Rev.* 92, 716–738
- Joppa, L.N. *et al.* (2016) Filling in biodiversity threat gaps. *Science* 352, 416–418
- Wood, S.A. *et al.* (2015) Functional traits in agriculture: agrobiodiversity and ecosystem services. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* 30, 531–539
- Bender, S.F. *et al.* (2016) An underground revolution: biodiversity and soil ecological engineering for agricultural sustainability. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* 31, 440–452
- Barot, S. *et al.* (2017) Designing mixtures of varieties for multi-functional agriculture with the help of ecology. A review. *Agron. Sustain. Dev.* 37, 13
- Vukicevich, E. *et al.* (2016) Cover crops to increase soil microbial diversity and mitigate decline in perennial agriculture. A review. *Agron. Sustain. Dev.* 36, 36–48
- van der Putten, W.H. *et al.* (2013) Plant–soil feedbacks: the past, the present and future challenges. *J. Ecol.* 101, 265–276
- Milla, R. *et al.* (2017) Looking at past domestication to secure ecosystem services of future croplands. *J. Ecol.* 105, 885–889
- Faucon, M.-P. *et al.* (2017) Plant functional traits: soil and ecosystem services. *Trends Plant Sci.* 22, 385–394
- De Deyn, G.B. *et al.* (2003) Soil invertebrate fauna enhances grassland succession and diversity. *Nature* 422, 711–713
- Huang, L.-F. *et al.* (2013) Plant–soil feedbacks and soil sickness: from mechanisms to application in agriculture. *J. Chem. Ecol.* 39, 232–242
- Grime, J.P. (1979) *Plant Strategies and Vegetation Processes*, John Wiley & Sons
- De Deyn, G.B. (2017) Plant life history and above–belowground interactions: missing links. *Oikos* 126, 497–507
- Bardgett, R.D. (2017) Plant trait-based approaches for interrogating belowground function. *Biol. Environ. Proc. R. Ir. Acad.* 117B, 1–13
- de Vries, F.T. *et al.* (2013) Soil food web properties explain ecosystem services across European land use systems. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 110, 14296–14301
- Raaijmakers, J.M. and Mazzola, M. (2016) Soil immune responses. *Science* 352, 1392–1393
- Chaparro, J.M. *et al.* (2012) Manipulating the soil microbiome to increase soil health and plant fertility. *Biol. Fertil. Soils* 48, 489–499
- Cortois, R. *et al.* (2016) Plant–soil feedbacks: role of plant functional group and plant traits. *J. Ecol.* 104, 1608–1617
- Freschet, G.T. *et al.* (2013) Linking litter decomposition of above- and below-ground organs to plant–soil feedbacks worldwide. *J. Ecol.* 101, 943–952
- Hobbie, S.E. (2015) Plant species effects on nutrient cycling: revisiting litter feedbacks. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* 30, 357–363
- Baxendale, C. *et al.* (2014) Are plant–soil feedback responses explained by plant traits? *New Phytol.* 204, 408–423
- Fitzpatrick, C.R. *et al.* (2017) Phylogenetic relatedness, phenotypic similarity and plant–soil feedbacks. *J. Ecol.* 105, 786–800
- Kardol, P. *et al.* (2006) Temporal variation in plant–soil feedback controls succession. *Ecol. Lett.* 9, 1080–1088
- Urceley, C. and Diaz, S. (2003) The mycorrhizal dependence of subordinates determines the effect of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi on plant diversity. *Ecol. Lett.* 6, 388–391
- Vries, D. *et al.* (2012) Plant–microbial linkages and ecosystem nitrogen retention: lessons for sustainable agriculture. *Front. Ecol. Environ.* 10, 425–432
- Mehrabi, Z. and Tuck, S.L. (2015) Relatedness is a poor predictor of negative plant–soil feedbacks. *New Phytol.* 205, 1071–1075
- van de Voorde, T.F.J. *et al.* (2011) Intra- and interspecific plant–soil interactions, soil legacies and priority effects during old-field succession. *J. Ecol.* 99, 945–953
- Kos, M. *et al.* (2015) Species-specific plant–soil feedback effects on above-ground plant–insect interactions. *J. Ecol.* 103, 904–914
- Bezemer, T.M. *et al.* (2006) Plant species and functional group effects on abiotic and microbial soil properties and plant–soil feedback responses in two grasslands. *J. Ecol.* 94, 893–904
- van Bruggen, A.H. *et al.* (2016) Plant disease management in organic farming systems. *Pest Manag. Sci.* 72, 30–44
- Handa, I.T. *et al.* (2014) Consequences of biodiversity loss for litter decomposition across biomes. *Nature* 509, 218–221
- Veen, G.F. *et al.* (2015) Litter quality and environmental controls of home-field advantage effects on litter decomposition. *Oikos* 124, 187–195
- Hartmann, M. *et al.* (2015) Distinct soil microbial diversity under long-term organic and conventional farming. *ISME J.* 9, 1177–1194
- Allison, S.D. (2012) A trait-based approach for modelling microbial litter decomposition. *Ecol. Lett.* 15, 1058–1070

35. Pérez-Jaramillo, J.E. *et al.* (2016) Impact of plant domestication on rhizosphere microbiome assembly and functions. *Plant Mol. Biol.* 90, 635–644
36. van der Heijden, M.G.A. *et al.* (2008) The unseen majority: soil microbes as drivers of plant diversity and productivity in terrestrial ecosystems. *Ecol. Lett.* 11, 296–310
37. Busby, P.E. *et al.* (2016) Fungal endophytes: modifiers of plant disease. *Plant Mol. Biol.* 90, 645–655
38. Berendsen, R.L. *et al.* (2012) The rhizosphere microbiome and plant health. *Trends Plant Sci.* 17, 478–486
39. Moore, B.D. and Johnson, S.N. (2017) Get tough, get toxic, or get a bodyguard: identifying candidate traits conferring below-ground resistance to herbivores in grasses. *Front. Plant Sci.* 7, 1925
40. Robert, C.A.M. *et al.* (2012) Herbivore-induced plant volatiles mediate host selection by a root herbivore. *New Phytol.* 194, 1061–1069
41. Creissen, H.E. *et al.* (2016) Impact of disease on diversity and productivity of plant populations. *Funct. Ecol.* 30, 649–657
42. Zuppinger-Dingley, D. *et al.* (2011) In their native range, invasive plants are held in check by negative soil-feedbacks. *Ecosphere* 2, 1–12
43. Matson, P.A. *et al.* (1997) Agricultural intensification and ecosystem properties. *Science* 277, 504–509
44. García-Palacios, P. *et al.* (2013) Side-effects of plant domestication: ecosystem impacts of changes in litter quality. *New Phytol.* 198, 504–513
45. Zachow, C. *et al.* (2014) Differences between the rhizosphere microbiome of *Beta vulgaris* ssp. *Maritima* – ancestor of all beet crops – and modern sugar beets. *Front. Microbiol.* 5, 415
46. de Boer, W. (2017) Upscaling of fungal–bacterial interactions: from the lab to the field. *Curr. Opin. Microbiol.* 37, 35–41
47. Mahmood, A. *et al.* (2016) Seed biopriming with plant growth promoting rhizobacteria: a review. *FEMS Microbiol. Ecol.* 92, fw112
48. Mariotte, P. *et al.* (2017) Stoichiometric N:P flexibility and mycorrhizal symbiosis favour plant resistance against drought. *J. Ecol.* 105, 958–967
49. van der Heijden, M.G.A. *et al.* (2015) Mycorrhizal ecology and evolution: the past, the present, and the future. *New Phytol.* 205, 1406–1423
50. Mohan, J.E. *et al.* (2014) Mycorrhizal fungi mediation of terrestrial ecosystem responses to global change: mini-review. *Fungal Ecol.* 10, 3–19
51. Delavaux, C.S. *et al.* (2017) Beyond nutrients: a meta-analysis of the diverse effects of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi on plants and soils. *Ecology* 98, 2111–2119
52. Chapman, S.K. *et al.* (2006) Plants actively control nitrogen cycling: uncorking the microbial bottleneck. *New Phytol.* 169, 27–34
53. Keiser, A.D. *et al.* (2014) Disentangling the mechanisms underlying functional differences among decomposer communities. *J. Ecol.* 102, 603–609
54. Niu, S. *et al.* (2016) Global patterns and substrate-based mechanisms of the terrestrial nitrogen cycle. *Ecol. Lett.* 19, 697–709
55. de Kroon, H. *et al.* (2012) Root responses to nutrients and soil biota: drivers of species coexistence and ecosystem productivity. *J. Ecol.* 100, 6–15
56. Tilman, D. *et al.* (2014) Biodiversity and ecosystem functioning. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Syst.* 45, 471–493
57. Wittwer, R.A. *et al.* (2017) Cover crops support ecological intensification of arable cropping systems. *Sci. Rep.* 7, srep41911
58. De Deyn, G.B. *et al.* (2012) Increased plant carbon translocation linked to overyielding in grassland species mixtures. *PLoS One* 7, e45926
59. Gopal, M. and Gupta, A. (2016) Microbiome selection could spur next-generation plant breeding strategies. *Front. Microbiol.* 7, 1971
60. Wei, Z. and Jousset, A. (2017) Plant breeding goes microbial. *Trends Plant Sci.* 22, 555–558
61. Bakhshandeh, S. *et al.* (2017) Effect of crop rotation on mycorrhizal colonization and wheat yield under different fertilizer treatments. *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.* 247, 130–136
62. Ke, P.-J. *et al.* (2015) The soil microbial community predicts the importance of plant traits in plant–soil feedback. *New Phytol.* 206, 329–341
63. Pieterse, C.M.J. *et al.* (2014) Induced systemic resistance by beneficial microbes. *Annu. Rev. Phytopathol.* 52, 347–375
64. Sugiyama, A. *et al.* (2010) Pyrosequencing assessment of soil microbial communities in organic and conventional potato farms. *Plant Dis.* 94, 1329–1335
65. Compant, S. *et al.* (2005) Use of plant growth-promoting bacteria for biocontrol of plant diseases: principles, mechanisms of action, and future prospects. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 71, 4951–4959
66. Reinhart, K.O. *et al.* (2010) Virulence of soil-borne pathogens and invasion by *Prunus serotina*. *New Phytol.* 186, 484–495
67. Vogelsang, K.M. *et al.* (2006) Mycorrhizal fungal identity and richness determine the diversity and productivity of a tallgrass prairie system. *New Phytol.* 172, 554–562
68. De-la-Peña, C. and Loyola-Vargas, V.M. (2014) Biotic interactions in the rhizosphere: a diverse cooperative enterprise for plant productivity. *Plant Physiol.* 166, 701–719
69. Kulmatiski, A. and Beard, K.H. (2006) Activated carbon as a restoration tool: potential for control of invasive plants in abandoned agricultural fields. *Restor. Ecol.* 14, 251–257
70. Fry, E.L. *et al.* (2017) Plant, soil and microbial controls on grassland diversity restoration: a long-term, multi-site mesocosm experiment. *J. Appl. Ecol.* 54, 1320–1330
71. Wubs, E.R.J. *et al.* (2016) Soil inoculation steers restoration of terrestrial ecosystems. *Nat. Plants* 2, 16107
72. Meyer, S.E. *et al.* (2008) A seed bank pathogen causes seed-borne disease: *Pyrenophora semeniperda* on undispersed grass seeds in western North America. *Can. J. Plant Pathol.* 30, 525–533
73. Dooley, S.R. and Beckstead, J. (2010) Characterizing the interaction between a fungal seed pathogen and a deleterious rhizobacterium for biological control of cheatgrass. *Biol. Control* 53, 197–203
74. Irvine, L.C. *et al.* (2013) Relationships between methylobacteria and glyphosate with native and invasive plant species: implications for restoration. *Restor. Ecol.* 21, 105–113
75. Lefcheck, J.S. *et al.* (2015) Biodiversity enhances ecosystem multifunctionality across trophic levels and habitats. *Nat. Commun.* 6, 6936
76. Garbach, K. *et al.* (2017) Examining multi-functionality for crop yield and ecosystem services in five systems of agroecological intensification. *Int. J. Agric. Sustain.* 15, 11–28
77. Bender, S.F. and van der Heijden, M.G.A. (2015) Soil biota enhance agricultural sustainability by improving crop yield, nutrient uptake and reducing nitrogen leaching losses. *J. Appl. Ecol.* 52, 228–239
78. Costanza, R. *et al.* (2014) Changes in the global value of ecosystem services. *Glob. Environ. Change* 26, 152–158
79. Allan, E. *et al.* (2015) Land use intensification alters ecosystem multifunctionality via loss of biodiversity and changes to functional composition. *Ecol. Lett.* 18, 834–843
80. Delgado-Baquerizo, M. *et al.* (2016) Microbial diversity drives multifunctionality in terrestrial ecosystems. *Nat. Commun.* 7, 10541
81. Wagg, C. *et al.* (2014) Soil biodiversity and soil community composition determine ecosystem multifunctionality. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 111, 5266–5270
82. Eisenhauer, N. *et al.* (2012) Decomposer diversity and identity influence plant diversity effects on ecosystem functioning. *Ecology* 93, 2227–2240

83. Machado, A.A.S. *et al.* (2017) Potential environmental impacts of an "Underground revolution": a response to Bender *et al.* *Trends Ecol. Evol.* 32, 8–10
84. Hart, M.M. *et al.* (2017) Fungal inoculants in the field: is the reward greater than the risk? *Funct. Ecol.* Published online September 29, 2017. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1365-2435.12976>
85. McDonald, B.A. and Stukenbrock, E.H. (2016) Rapid emergence of pathogens in agro-ecosystems: global threats to agricultural sustainability and food security. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond. B Biol. Sci.* 371, 20160026
86. Chen, T. *et al.* (2015) Soil sickness: current status and future perspectives. *Allelopath. J.* 36, 167–195
87. Dias, T. *et al.* (2015) Accounting for soil biotic effects on soil health and crop productivity in the design of crop rotations. *J. Sci. Food Agric.* 95, 447–454
88. Wang, G.Z. *et al.* (2017) Plant-soil feedback contributes to intercropping overyielding by reducing the negative effect of take-all on wheat and compensating the growth of faba bean. *Plant Soil* 415, 1–12
89. Soltani, A.-A. *et al.* (2010) Plant growth promoting characteristics in some *Flavobacterium* spp. isolated from soils of Iran. *J. Agric. Sci.* 2, 106–115
90. Kulmatiski, A. *et al.* (2008) Plant–soil feedbacks: a meta-analytical review. *Ecol. Lett.* 11, 980–992
91. Bennett, J.A. *et al.* (2017) Plant-soil feedbacks and mycorrhizal type influence temperate forest population dynamics. *Science* 355, 181–184
92. Kardol, P. *et al.* (2013) Biotic plant-soil feedbacks across temporal scales. *J. Ecol.* 101, 309–315
93. Maron, J.L. *et al.* (2016) Negative plant-soil feedbacks increase with plant abundance, and are unchanged by competition. *Ecology* 97, 2055–2063
94. Teste, F.P. *et al.* (2017) Plant-soil feedback and the maintenance of diversity in Mediterranean-climate shrublands. *Science* 355, 173–176
95. Maron, J.L. *et al.* (2011) Soil fungal pathogens and the relationship between plant diversity and productivity. *Ecol. Lett.* 14, 36–41
96. van der Meij, B. *et al.* (2017) Remote sensing of plant trait responses to field-based plant-soil feedback using UAV-based optical sensors. *Biogeosciences* 14, 733–749
97. Kardol, P. *et al.* (2013) Resource availability mediates the importance of priority effects in plant community assembly and ecosystem function. *Oikos* 122, 84–94
98. Bardgett, R.D. (2011) Plant-soil interactions in a changing world. *F1000 Biol. Rep.* 3, 16
99. Canarini, A. *et al.* (2017) Mineral-associated soil carbon is resistant to drought but sensitive to legumes and microbial biomass in an Australian grassland. *Ecosystems* Published online April 25, 2017. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10021-017-0152-x>
100. Mariotte, P. *et al.* (2015) Subordinate plants mitigate drought effects on soil ecosystem processes by stimulating fungi. *Funct. Ecol.* 29, 1578–1586