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Plant-soil feedbacks and temporal dynamics of plant diversity-productivity relationships

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Abstract

Plant-soil feedbacks and diversity-productivity relationships are important research fields to study drivers and consequences of changes in plant biodiversity. While studies suggest that positive plant diversity-productivity relationships can be explained by variation in plant-soil feedbacks in diverse plant communities, key questions on their temporal relationships remain unaddressed. Here, we discuss three processes that change plant-soil feedbacks over time in diverse plant communities, and their effects on temporal dynamics of diversity-productivity relationships: 1) spatial redistribution and changes in dominance of plant species, 2) phenotypic shifts in plant traits, and 3) dilution of soil pathogens and increase in soil mutualists. Disentangling these processes in plant diversity experiments will yield new insights into how plant diversity-productivity relationships change over time.

Keywords: *biodiversity-ecosystem functioning; plant-soil interactions; spatial turnover; trait evolution; dilution effects*

1 Plant-soil feedback and biodiversity-ecosystem functioning research

In the 1990s, two independent fields of plant ecology research began to provide new 2 insights into causes and consequence of plant diversity in terrestrial grassland 3 ecosystems. The first, plant-soil feedback (PSF) research (Box I), aims to investigate 4 how interactions of plants with biotic and abiotic soil conditions affect their own growth 5 and performance, as well as that of conspecific and heterospecific plant "successors" in 6 7 the community [1,2]. In the last two decades, PSF research has shown that negative conspecific PSFs can play an important role in maintaining plant diversity, and that 8 9 shifts in the strength of PSF over time can be associated with shifts in plant community composition [1–5]. The second, (plant) biodiversity-ecosystem functioning (BEF) 10 research, primarily aims to establish a causal link between plant diversity loss and 11 ecosystem functioning, often measured as primary production (i.e. the diversity-12 productivity relationship; [6]). Experimental BEF research (Box II) has shown that 13 primary production is on average higher in plant communities with a greater number of 14 plant species, although the relationship usually saturates beyond a certain threshold 15 [6,7]. An important observation is that these positive plant diversity-productivity 16 relationships usually become stronger over time, at least in grassland ecosystems [8,9]. 17 Yet, the underlying ecological and evolutionary mechanisms that strengthen (or 18 19 weaken) temporal plant diversity-productivity relationships remain poorly understood [6,10]. In this review, we discuss how emerging insights from PSF research can be 20 integrated into BEF research for a better understanding of temporal dynamics of plant 21 diversity-productivity relationships. 22

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25 Box I: Plant-soil feedback

Plant-soil feedback is the effect of one plant species, via its influence on the soil, on the 26 performance of the same species or a different species [1]. The first plant influences or 27 "conditions" the soil by changing the soil microbial community and/or the soil abiotic 28 conditions, such as the presence of allelochemicals, nutrient availability, moisture, and 29 30 structure, in a specific manner. If the second plant grows worse in the conditioned soil, relative to its growth in another soil, e.g., soil conditioned by a different species, the 31 plant exhibits a "negative feedback" while for the reverse situation this is called "positive 32 feedback". When the responding plant grows differently on soil conditioned by the same 33 species, the feedback is called a "conspecific feedback", and there is a "heterospecific 34 feedback", when the conditioning and responding (feedback phase) plants belong to 35 different species. The sensitivity of a plant to changes in the soil caused by other 36 conspecific or heterospecific plants can vary greatly among species, but overall, the 37 majority of grassland species exhibit a negative conspecific feedback [11]. Some key 38 trait differences between the two types of feedback species (i.e., positive and negative) 39 are illustrated in figure I. Plant-soil feedback effects are particularly important for 40 establishing seedlings in the field [12]. Moreover, in the field, soil legacies of previous 41 plants can be detected even in the succeeding growing season [13]. 42

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44 Box II: Plant BEF experiments

Plant BEF experiments principally aim to understand the effects of plant diversity loss
on ecosystem functions, such as primary production, nutrient cycling, energy fluxes to
higher trophic levels [6]. The earliest plant BEF experiments were assembly
experiments and involved sowing different randomly assigned numbers and

49 combinations of plant species into plots. These experiments created plots with a gradient of plant diversity ranging from monocultures (with only 1 species) to 50 polycultures (mixtures), containing two to usually around 20 species (occasionally 51 more). Species compositions are randomly selected from a larger pool of co-occurring 52 species, in order to prevent any confounding between composition and species 53 richness. Almost all such BEF experiments are weeded to remove incoming plant 54 species and to maintain the diversity gradient established at the start of the experiment, 55 however, sown plant species can go locally extinct in longer-running BEF experiments 56 57 and species abundances can greatly shift over time [14]. A few BEF experiments used a removal approach, where plant species are manually removed from communities to 58 simulate extinctions [15,16]. The early BEF experiments were all done in grasslands, 59 60 but an increasing number of experiments have also been established in forests [17]. Recently, there has been an increased interest in transferring the results of BEF 61 experiments to real world situations, to study realistic patterns of diversity change. In 62 real-world BEF studies, abiotic conditions may also affect ecosystem functioning and 63 species assemblages are non-random and correlated with diversity. Such studies 64 therefore aim to determine the importance of diversity changes alongside these other 65 factors [18]. 66

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Temporal changes in plant diversity-productivity relationships

Several field experiments have shown that plant diversity-productivity relationships become more positive over time [8,9,19,20]. Two phenomena have been suggested to contribute to this pattern [6,21]: First, the productivity of many diverse plant communities increases over time [9,22] and second, some monocultures become less productive over time [8,19]. While evidence for the underlying mechanisms driving these two

phenomena is still scarce, BEF researchers have suggested that an increase in niche 74 differentiation (e.g., via resource partitioning) in diverse plant communities may drive an 75 increase in mixture performance over time [6,9]; although what exactly drives such 76 observed increase in temporal niche differentiation among plants remains poorly 77 understood. Alternatively, reduced performance of monocultures over time could be due 78 to an increase in pathogenic soil microorganisms or nematodes that infect or feed on 79 80 plant roots [23,24]. Many of these plant enemies, such as pathogenic fungi, are specialized on particular host plants and become increasingly abundant in their host 81 82 plant monocultures [25,26]. Accumulation of these antagonists over time in monocultures, could therefore cause a progressive decline in monoculture biomass 83 relative to biomass of diverse plant communities [23,27]. 84

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BEF researchers have repeatedly called for investigations into the processes that 86 operate in diverse plant communities to enhance their performance relative to 87 monocultures [28,29]. For instance, biotic feedbacks between plants and other trophic 88 89 levels (e.g., soil microorganisms or aboveground herbivores) could be important drivers of biomass production in species-rich plant communities [29]. We know little, however, 90 about how exclusive these processes are to species-rich plant communities, how they 91 92 change over time, and how such temporal changes may strengthen (or weaken) the productivity of diverse plant communities [10,22,23,29]. Among several biotic feedbacks 93 that can be identified in species-rich plant communities [29], we here focus on temporal 94 95 shifts in plant-soil feedbacks in species-rich plant communities (Box I).

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98 Temporal changes in plant-soil feedbacks in diverse plant communities

As revealed by PSF experiments, many grassland plant species experience some 99 100 degree of negative conspecific feedback [11,30] (Box I, Figure I). The progressive decline in productivity in certain plant monocultures could very well relate to increasing 101 negative conspecific feedbacks over time driven by the accumulation of (host-specific) 102 103 pathogens in the soil (Figure 1). The PSF concepts are more challenging to apply to 104 diverse plant communities as both conspecific and heterospecific PSFs simultaneously occur in diverse plant communities [30,31]. Heterospecific feedbacks are particularly 105 106 difficult to predict as the response of an individual plant species to the soil in which another species has previously grown is likely to depend on the identity of both the first 107 and the second ('successor') species (Box I) [32]. However, studies have shown that 108 grasses and forbs generally grow better in soils previously conditioned by species from 109 a different functional group [13,30,33]. Moreover, closely related plant species (i.e. 110 111 species having a low phylogenetic distance) exert greater negative heterospecific feedback than distantly related plants mainly because the likelihood for soil pathogens 112 to infect other plants is higher when the plants are phylogenetically related to the host 113 plant [5,34,35]. The factors that can predict the magnitude and direction of conspecific 114 and heterospecific feedbacks in diverse plant communities are therefore essential 115 ingredients for incorporating PSF knowledge into BEF research. 116

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Building upon advances in how plant-soil feedbacks may operate in diverse plant communities [31,36], and how plant-soil feedbacks can be predicted in the field [13,37], we highlight three processes that occur in species-rich plant communities and can help understand the temporal dynamics of diversity- productivity relationships (Figure 2): 1) Spatial plant redistribution and local changes in plant abundance, 2) Phenotypic shifts in plant traits, and 3) Changes in the soil biotic community, in particular, a dilution of pathogenic soil biota and an increase in plant-mutualistic soil biota. We highlight that when these three temporal processes contribute to reducing negative feedbacks in diverse plant communities, the productivity would increase over time. We discuss these processes in the context of BEF experiments and how they help us understand temporal patterns of productivity in real -world BEF studies (Box II).

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130 Spatial redistribution and shifts in abundance

Several grassland plants overcome conspecific negative feedbacks by shifting their 131 132 local spatial distribution, and so they occupy different soil patches over time [38,39]. Such a response usually reduces the accumulation of specialized soil-borne pathogens 133 on a given host plant at a given location [40,41]. In monoculture plots, the spatial 134 redistribution of plant individuals is obviously less effective in terms of pathogen 135 evasion, unless there are many open patches previously unoccupied by a given plant 136 137 species. Spatial redistribution is expected to be more common for species with strongly negative conspecific feedbacks (Box I, Figure I) than for species with neutral or positive 138 feedbacks (Figure 1) [42]. This prediction could be tested with data from biodiversity 139 140 experiments where the spatial distribution (or turnover) of species is recorded over time, e.g., in permanent quadrats in each plot. 141

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In a diverse plant-community, individuals of plant species experiencing negative
conspecific feedbacks can escape their pathogens by dispersing to new patches
previously occupied by a plant of a different species. The key assumption here is that

the soil pathogens (associated with the previously present plant) do not exert a strong 146 negative effect on the new colonizing plant [11,37,43,44]. The spatial range of soil 147 pathogen effects is also assumed to be small; although empirical evidence of this 148 remains scarce, experiments have shown that spatial heterogeneity of soil biota 149 regulates PSF [45-47]. Within a high diversity plot, however, the extent of heterospecific 150 feedbacks that arise by spatial shuffling will likely vary depending on the functional 151 152 difference (traits and/or groups) and phylogenetic distance of the neighbours to the newly colonizing species. These variable heterospecific feedbacks subsequently 153 154 increase the temporal and spatial variation in the abundance of species, and such variation should be the highest in plots which are functionally and phylogenetically 155 diverse. 156

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The temporal diversity-productivity relationship is often argued to depend on 158 159 environmental fluctuations over time [48,49]. Although these fluctuations are assumed to be largely driven by exogenous environmental conditions [48], the biotic interactions 160 between neighbouring plant species, such as via soil organisms, could influence 161 temporal variation in plant abundance. Estimating the shifts in PSF during the spatial 162 redistribution of plant individuals in diverse plant communities can help provide insight 163 164 into how intrinsic biotic factors influence temporal (a)synchrony in species-specific biomass or abundance. For instance, soils from patches where spatial plant 165 redistribution is higher can have different PSF on component plants than soils where 166 spatial redistribution is lower. These patch-specific differences in PSF can be linked to 167 variation in temporal (a)synchrony of plants in species-rich communities. Further, 168 whether shifts in PSF, via spatial redistribution, increase complementarity among 169 species (e.g., in resource use) and thereby plant biomass production in species-rich 170

communities over time merits both theoretical (e.g., simulation studies) and 171 experimental scrutiny. A recent greenhouse study that estimated the strength of PSF 172 using soils from a three-decade-old plant monitoring field study, reported that plant 173 species experiencing greater negative conspecific feedbacks were also temporally more 174 variable in their field abundances [44]. It will be further important to examine the 175 relationship among the extent of spatial redistribution, the magnitude of temporal 176 (a)synchrony in plant biomass/abundance and the strength of PSF for plant species of 177 diverse communities through simulation and empirical studies, and whether changes in 178 179 this relationship can help explain temporal dynamics of diversity-productivity relationship. 180

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182 Phenotypic shifts in plant traits

Traits of plants from species-rich communities are often more variable than those from 183 the same plant species growing in their respective monocultures [50]. This is particularly 184 true for traits related to (interspecific) competition, such as specific leaf area and plant 185 186 height, which are crucial for resource acquisition [50]. We can expect that selection for competition-related traits in mixed plant communities can enhance trait divergence 187 thereby enhancing the complementary use of limited resources [50,51]. We propose 188 189 that shifts in competition-related traits in a plant also affect the strength of plant-soil feedbacks as plant traits are often associated to how they affect soil biotic and abiotic 190 environments [52]. That is, if a species with negative feedback exhibits greater 191 192 divergence in its competition-related traits from its neighbouring species, we could also expect divergence in how the two species will influence their local soil environment and 193 thereby their effects on both conspecific and heterospecific plants. For instance, root 194

traits affecting plant competition for soil resources, such as specific root length [53,54]
can alter the strength of PSF [55]. Temporal divergence in competition-related traits in
diverse plant communities could help explain temporal strengthening of diversityproductivity relationships if such trait-divergence results in a reduction of the strength of
negative PSF over time.

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Shifts in competition-related plant traits in diverse plant communities have mainly been 201 demonstrated for aboveground plant traits [50] (Figure 2). Even though selective 202 pressure for divergence in aboveground competition-related traits is weakly linked to 203 soil microorganisms in diverse plant communities, it can be related with variation in 204 205 plant defence traits in monocultures [56]. Indeed, selection for traits related to defence 206 against pathogens can be expected to be higher in monocultures due to the absence of interspecific competition and a greater probability of host-specific pathogen 207 accumulation [50,56]. Given the role of root traits in acquiring limited resources [57], 208 divergent selection in root traits over time in diverse plant communities can occur, and 209 thereby contribute to niche differentiation for resource acquisition. However, whether 210 211 temporal shifts in the strength of plant-soil feedback due to spatial redistribution (and changes in plant abundance) could affect the selective environment for above- and 212 belowground plant traits remain virtually unexplored. This line of inquiry is important 213 though, as the biotic neighbourhood is a crucial determinant of phenotypic plasticity in 214 plants [58]. 215

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Trait evolution in diverse plant communities is not only limited to competition- and defence-related traits but also to life-history traits. A recent study showed that the

longevity of a plant species growing in a diverse plant community increased, while its 219 reproduction was delayed [59]. Examining the effects of trait evolution on PSF in long-220 running plant diversity experiments can unravel how evolutionary processes can explain 221 temporal diversity-productivity relationships. Currently, there is a growing interest in 222 applying the principles of eco-evolutionary feedbacks to both BEF and PSF research 223 [60,61]. In line with these trends, our current understanding of character displacement in 224 competition-related traits in long-running biodiversity experiments can be extended to 225 other traits and could provide an important basis for investigating how divergent 226 227 selection for niche differentiation both drives, and is driven by PSF. Conversely, if trait evolution in plants promotes positive PSF for certain plant species, productivity in 228 diverse plant communities can still increase due to the presence of high biomass plant 229 230 species [62] (also referred as positive selection effect [63]). We suggest that a better understanding of PSF in relation to both competition- and defence-related plant traits 231 above- and belowground in diverse plant communities is a key step to obtain a 232 mechanistic understanding of temporal diversity-productivity relationships [64,65]. 233

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235 Dilution of soil pathogens and increase in soil mutualists

Epidemiological studies have long shown that diversity slows the spread of diseases
due to greater dilution of pathogens [66,67]. A dilution of pathogens essentially means
that their net effect on potential hosts decreases. This occurs through several
mechanisms, including effects of other species on trophic regulation of the pathogens
by their predators, reduced transmission, or a decrease in host quality [68,69].
Therefore, pathogen dilution would result in a reduction of negative plant-soil feedbacks.
The dilution of soil fungal pathogens was recently demonstrated in a plant-diversity

experiment, where more than 50% of pathogenic fungal operational taxonomic units 243 (OTUs) found in monocultures were absent from diverse plant communities, composed 244 of the same plant species [25]. The exact mechanism by which pathogen dilution occurs 245 in diverse plant communities, and particularly in long-running diversity experiments, is 246 still poorly understood. The general notion is that pathogen specialization on a given 247 host plant is constrained in a multi-plant environment [23,70]. Trophic control of fungal 248 or other plant pathogens in the soil is another mechanism underlying pathogen dilution, 249 as diverse plant communities can sustain a greater density and diversity of microbial 250 251 predators than plant monocultures [36,71,72].

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253 Soil-microbial diversity and biomass increase in plots with a high diversity of plants in 254 field experiments [73,74]. If a temporal increase in microbial diversity and biomass in diverse plant communities is due to a relative increase in mutualistic microorganisms 255 (e.g. saprotrophic fungi, mycorrhizal fungi) over pathogenic microorganisms [27], this 256 would further reduce the strength of negative feedback experienced by plants [75]. 257 Interestingly, it also raises the question of whether the relative decline in plant 258 pathogens in diverse plant communities will eventually decrease the need for the 259 continuous spatial redistribution of plant individuals of negative feedback species. We 260 might therefore expect a temporal saturation in spatial redistribution (or turnover) over 261 time in diverse plots (where the diversity gradient is maintained) whereas in diversity 262 experiments in natural grasslands where colonization of non-sown plants is allowed, 263 saturation might be less likely as newly colonizing plant species would continue to 264 perturb the pathogen dynamics [76,77]. 265

266

Plant-soil feedbacks can also vary due to plant mutualists in the soil that benefit plants 267 by acquiring nutrients or suppressing pathogens [78,79] (Figure 1). For instance, a 268 greater diversity of mutualistic soil microorganisms decreases the strength of negative 269 plant soil-feedbacks [75,80]. Following a disturbance (which occurs at the establishment 270 of the experiment), both the diversity and the density of plant-beneficial microorganisms 271 and soil invertebrates increase over time, but this increase is typically stronger in 272 273 diverse communities than in monocultures [27]. The association of a plant with mutualists such as arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in diverse plant communities can also 274 275 drive phenotypic divergence in plant competition-related traits [56,81]. If such soilmicrobe-driven plant-trait variation reduces negative plant-soil feedback, productivity is 276 likely to increase in diverse plant communities over time. 277

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Some monocultures or low-diverse plant communities can be productive over longer 279 time periods. Plants in these plots accumulate mutualists, because of their positive PSF 280 (Box I, Figure I). Such positive mutualist effects can also negatively influence species 281 diversity in species-rich communities as greater mutualist accumulation can promote the 282 dominance of few selective plants [82]. We still poorly understand how mutualist 283 accumulation in high and low diverse plant communities affects respective temporal 284 285 (a)synchrony in plant specific biomasses. For instance, how does mutualist accumulation in positive-feedback species (Figure 1) vary between low- and high 286 diverse plant communities, and how would this affect the temporal dynamics of 287 diversity-productivity relationships (see Outstanding Questions). Temporal variation in 288 trophic regulation of soil pathogen and mutualist may further affect pathogen dilution 289 and/or mutualist accumulation [83]. Indeed, the temporal shifts in PSF eventually will 290 depend on how the relationship between the plant and its pathogens, and mutualists 291

changes over time, as the direction and strength of feedback is often the net sum ofnegative and positive effects from soil biota [1].

294

295 Applications in real-world ecosystems

A key guestion that needs further attention, in order to integrate PSF and BEF research, 296 is how the three temporal processes we discussed operate in real-world ecosystems 297 (Box II) [84]. The heterogeneous colonization patterns of plants in real-world 298 299 ecosystems makes them temporally more dynamic (i.e., there is greater spatio-temporal turnover of plant species including changes in species richness) in these systems than 300 in many long-running BEF experiments [85]. Real-world ecosystem studies have shown 301 302 that greater plant diversity also leads to increased plant-biomass production among other ecosystem functions [18,85]. In real-world ecosystems, plant identity will likely 303 play an important role in determining how the three processes develop and contribute to 304 temporal strengthening (or weakening) of BEF relationships. For instance, colonization 305 by exotic plants and their population explosion can suppress native species with 306 307 negative feedbacks [5,86,87]. This will simultaneously affect the number of species in diverse plant communities (due to the local competitive exclusion of native plants) and 308 subsequently the three temporal processes that change PSF. Soil collected from 309 310 diversity experiments of various establishment ages can be used to test this hypothesis by introducing exotic plants and thereby examining how feedbacks of native plant 311 species shift in the presence of exotic plants. 312

313

314 Outlook

Both PSF and BEF research have yielded mechanistic insights into the causes and 315 consequences of plant diversity in terrestrial ecosystems [1,6]. We suggest that to 316 understand temporal variation in the effects of plant diversity on plant productivity, we 317 require insights into the processes that cause spatial and temporal shifts in PSF in 318 diverse plant communities. While our conceptual framework is mainly based on 319 grassland plants, we assume that processes like spatial plant redistribution, their trait 320 321 evolution, and pathogen dilution or mutualist accumulation in soils may also operate in other ecosystems, such as in forests. It will be interesting to examine how the relative 322 323 importance of these three processes may differ between grasslands and forests to influence temporal diversity-productivity relationships via temporal changes in plant-soil 324 feedbacks, given that the temporal strengthening of diversity-productivity relationship 325 has also been shown in forest ecosystems [22]. 326

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328 The three processes discussed here (Figure 2) are certainly not exhaustive, as many other processes can also contribute to temporal variation in diversity effects on plant 329 productivity. In fact, it is likely that many other biotic (and abiotic) factors, such as 330 aboveground grazing of plants by herbivores will perturb these three temporal 331 processes, and thereby increase or decrease the strength of PSF. For instance, there is 332 333 increasing evidence that aboveground herbivory by insects and mammals affects the functioning of soil microbial communities [88,89], and therefore potentially the 334 magnitude and direction of PSF. For instance, functional shifts in soil microbial 335 336 communities could potentially affect the temporal build-up of the dilution effect in diverse plant communities. Aboveground herbivores can further reduce the plant's investment in 337 competition-related traits over defence- and/or tolerance-related traits [90,91], and 338 thereby affect trait evolution and PSF relationships [92]. Herbivory can also shift the 339

competitive (a)symmetry among neighbouring plants, and this, in turn, can have
 consequences for the temporal shifts in PSF [93–95], such as through changes in PSF
 via the traits of competitively superior plants.

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Stochastic disturbances such as climate change-induced droughts or floods also alter 344 the temporal dynamics of (plant) diversity effects. We still know little about how such 345 stochastic disturbances alter the processes through which temporal PSF influence the 346 performance of plants in diverse plant communities. These disturbances can alter the 347 proposed three processes by either reducing plant diversity or by affecting other biotic 348 components, such as soil microorganisms through abiotic stress. While there is some 349 350 evidence that diverse plant communities exhibit greater resistance to particular 351 stochastic disturbances [96–98], there is an urgent need for research that can disentangle how such disturbances alter the role of PSFs in influencing the temporal 352 dynamics of plant productivity in diverse plant communities. 353

354

355 Concluding remarks

We conclude that temporal variation in plant diversity and productivity relationships is 356 likely related to spatial redistribution of plants (and changes in their abundance), 357 phenotypic shifts in competitive plant traits and soil pathogen dilution (supplemented by 358 soil mutualist accumulation). These processes reduce the strength of negative PSF in 359 360 diverse plant communities, and thereby strengthens the diversity-productivity relationship over time and causes PSF, particularly for negative feedback species, to 361 vary from year to year which might promote temporal niche partitioning in diverse plant 362 communities [99,100]. We further advocate for combining ecological (e.g., spatial 363

364	processes) and evolutionary (e.g., trait evolution) approaches to help integrating PSF
365	and BEF research, which is a promising avenue for generating new mechanistic insights
366	into the causes and consequences of plant diversity (see Outstanding Questions).
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Figure I (Box I): Common differences between plant species that experience positive and negative plant-soil feedback. When we refer to a species as a positive or a negative feedback species, we refer to its conspecific plant-soil feedback.



Figure 1: Temporal accumulation of (A) soil pathogens and (B) soil mutualists may vary between positive feedback and negative feedback species, which is often driven by plant density or biomass. A negative feedback species is already experiencing negative pathogen effects at low densities (D_{N1} in panel A), whereas a positive feedback species benefits from mutualist effects at low densities (D_{P2} in panel B). In contrast, a negative feedback species needs to reach a higher density to benefit from mutualists (D_{N2} in panel B), whereas positive feedback species suffer from pathogens at high densities (D_{P1} in panel A). The time to reach D_{N1} or D_{P1} is less than the time to reach D_{N2} or D_{P2} . Note that pathogen and mutualist accumulation curves will saturate at some point in time (not shown in the figure) depending on density-dependence in pathogens and mutualists, and also on the density or biomass of host plants.



Figure 2: Plant-soil feedbacks will change over time in diverse plant communities. After several years, plant-soil feedbacks in diverse plant communities change mainly via three non-mutually exclusive temporal processes: spatial re-distribution and changes in abundance (mainly of negative feedback) of plant species, phenotypic shifts in plant traits (e.g., resource acquisition traits like surface leaf area or specific root length in a plant species), and dilution of pathogens (e.g., pathogenic fungi) and increase in mutualists (e.g., arbuscular mycorrhiza). Feedback characteristics of a plant are shown by +, 0 and – signs. Spatial redistribution is shown via spatial rearrangement of plant species. Changes in abundance is shown by the size of the plants. Phenotypic shifts in plant traits are shown via changes in the size of plant organs (e.g., leaf size). Dilution effects of pathogens and increase in mutualist biota are shown *via* a greater variety of soil biota.