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1	Legacy effects of drought on plant-soil feedbacks and plant-plant interactions					
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32 Summary

Interactions between aboveground and belowground biota have the potential to modify
 ecosystem responses to climate change, yet little is known about how drought influences
 plant-soil feedbacks with respect to microbial mediation of plant community dynamics.

We tested the hypothesis that drought modifies plant-soil feedback with consequences for
 plant competition. We measured net pairwise plant-soil feedbacks for two grassland plant
 species grown in monoculture and competition in soils that had or had not been subjected
 to a previous drought, these were then exposed to a subsequent drought. To investigate the
 mechanisms involved, we assessed treatment responses of soil microbial communities and
 nutrient availability.

We found that previous drought had a legacy effect on bacterial and fungal communities
 composition that decreased plant growth in conspecific soils and had knock-on effects for
 plant competitive interactions. Moreover, plant and microbial responses to subsequent
 drought depended on a legacy effect of the previous drought on plant-soil interactions.

We show that drought has lasting effects on belowground communities with consequences
 for plant-soil feedbacks and plant-plant interactions. This suggests that drought, which is
 predicted to increase in frequency with climate change, may change soil functioning and
 plant community composition via modification of plant-soil feedbacks.

50

51 **<u>Running head</u>**: Drought changes plant-soil feedbacks

52

53 Key words: Above-belowground interactions, biotic legacy, drought, plant-plant interaction,

54 plant-soil feedback, resource competition, soil microbial communities.

56 Introduction

57

58 Ecologists have long sought to understanding how plant communities assemble and respond 59 to environmental change. The importance of plant-plant interactions for community dynamics 60 is well documented (Connell, 1983; Schoener, 1983; Hunter & Aarssen, 1988; Callaway, 61 1995), but evidence is growing that plant-soil feedbacks also influence various plant 62 community attributes, including plant species coexistence, invasion, and rarity (van der 63 Putten et al., 2013). Plant-soil feedback describes the relative growth of a plant in its own 64 conspecific soil, compared to heterospecific soil conditioned by other plant species (Bever et 65 al., 1997; Ehrenfeld et al., 2005), and is thought to arise through biotic changes in specific 66 plant associated microbial communities, but also through abiotic changes such as soil 67 chemical modification (e.g. nutrient depletion). As such, plant responses to plant-soil 68 feedback can be negative, mostly via the promotion of pathogens or reductions in nutrient 69 availability, or positive through promoting symbionts and/or soil nutrient availability (Bever 70 et al., 1997; Klironomos 2002; Bever, 2003; van der Putten et al., 2013). There is also 71 evidence that plant-soil feedbacks can mediate plant-plant interactions (van der Putten *et al.*, 72 2013; Baxendale *et al.*, 2014); for instance when two species compete in soil conditioned by 73 one species, the feedback effect of that one plant species can influence the performance of 74 itself (intraspecific feedback) or the competing species (interspecific feedback) (Jing et al., 75 2015). By influencing plant-plant interactions in such as way, plant-soil feedbacks can have 76 consequences for the outcome of plant competition (van der Putten & Peters, 1997).

77

78 There is currently much debate about the potential consequences of on-going climate change 79 for both the structure and functioning of terrestrial ecosystems (Zhao & Running, 2010; 80 Reichstein et al., 2013). Much recent research has focused on extreme climatic events, such 81 as drought, which is predicted to increase in frequency and intensity, and can have significant 82 impacts on belowground processes with potential consequences for plant community 83 dynamics (Davidson et al., 2008; Kardol et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2011; Classen et al., 2015). 84 For instance, periods of drought have been shown to change the composition and activity of 85 soil microbial communities (Fierer et al., 2003; Hawkes et al., 2011; Sheik et al., 2011; 86 Barnard et al., 2013) and influence related processes of nutrient cycling and primary 87 production (Sardans & Peñuelas, 2005). Moreover, studies show that drought can have long 88 lasting legacy effects on ecosystem processes and plant growth. For instance, negative 89 impacts of drought on primary productivity and soil respiration were detected two years after

90 the event (Arnone III et al., 2008), and adaptation of soil microbial communities to recurrent 91 droughts has been shown to improve plant fitness and the ability of plants to withstand 92 subsequent drought (Marulanda et al., 2009; Lau & Lennon, 2012; Meisner et al., 2013). 93 There is also evidence that plants regulate carbon allocation belowground in response to 94 drought (Hasibeder *et al.*, 2015) and that the carbon released is differently allocated into the 95 soil microbial community (Fuchslueger *et al.*, 2014), which could in turn select for microbial 96 populations (Jones et al., 2004; Berg & Smalla, 2009) that enable plant to cope with water 97 stress (Preece & Peñuelas, 2016). This suggests that plants growing in conspecific soil with a 98 history of drought might be better adapted to a subsequent drought than plants growing in 99 heterospecific soil, thereby influencing the response of plant-soil feedback to subsequent 100 droughts. This also suggests that the drought-induced changes in plant-soil feedback of one 101 plant species could affect the interspecific feedback of a second plant species, as well as 102 directly influencing plant-plant interaction, for example through competition for growth-103 limiting nutrients. However, to our knowledge, the relative role of intraspecific and 104 interspecific plant-soil feedback in plant competition and plant responses to drought has not 105 been tested. Further, despite the potential for drought to have legacy effects on plant-soil 106 feedbacks, our understanding of the mechanism involved is incomplete, which weakens our 107 ability to quantify and predict the contribution of plant-soil feedback to ecosystem responses 108 to extreme climate events (van der Putten et al., 2016).

109

110 The aim of this study was to investigate how drought modifies plant-soil feedback, plant-111 plant interactions, and their responses to a subsequent drought. Specifically, we tested three 112 hypotheses: first, we hypothesized that drought influences the strength and direction of plant-113 soil feedback due to its impact on the composition of the soil microbial community; second, 114 we hypothesized that drought-driven changes in plant-soil feedback have consequences for 115 plant competitive interactions (through intraspecific and interspecific feedbacks); and third, 116 we hypothesized that the response of plants to subsequent drought events depends on the 117 legacy effect of previous drought on plant-soil interactions. We tested these hypotheses using 118 a two-phase, pairwise plant-soil feedback experiment with two co-existing, widely distributed 119 temperate grassland plant species: Dactylis glomerata and Leontodon hispidus. The first 120 phase of the experiment was designed as a classic plant-soil feedback experiment, which 121 involved conditioning of soil by plant communities dominated by either D. glomerata or L. 122 *hispidus* with or without drought, and then a second generation of each plant species was 123 grown in monoculture (hypothesis 1) or in competition (hypothesis 2) in conditioned soils.

124 During the second phase of experiment, the second plant generation was exposed to a new

- 125 drought. The resistance and recovery of plant and microbial communities to this drought
- 126 were measured to assess whether a soil biotic legacy of a previous drought influences plant-
- 127 soil feedback and plant competition during a subsequent drought.
- 128

129 Materials and methods

130

131 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

132

133 Soil and plants

134 Two common grassland plant species were used in this experiment, namely Dactylis 135 glomerata L. and Leontodon hispidus L. These two species were selected because they 136 naturally co-exist and are widely distributed across European grasslands, but have contrasting 137 life history characteristics: L. hispidus is a slow-growing forb with a tap root system that 138 helps to sustain water supply in dry habitats, and which performs well in nutrient poor 139 situations; whereas D. glomerata is an exploitative, fast-growing grass with a high maximal 140 relative growth rate due to its ability to efficiently capture resource (Poorter & Remkes, 1990; 141 Ryser & Lambers, 1995). Seeds of D. glomerata and L. hispidus were obtained from a seed 142 company (Emorsgate Seeds, Norfolk, UK) and the 20 first cm of a local soil for the 143 experiment was collected from a permanent grassland at Hazelrigg Field Station, Lancaster 144 University, UK (54°1'N, 2°46'W, 94 m a.s.l), where the conditioning phase of the 145 experiment was done in field-based mesocosms (Fig. 1). The soil was a silt loam (Brickfield 146 2 association; Avis & Harrop, 1983) of pH 6.2, and had a C and N content of 3.13 and 0.25 g 147 kg⁻¹ respectively. Soil was homogenised manually and large stones and roots were removed 148 prior to planting.

149

150 PHASE 1: Plant-soil feedback phase

The plant-soil feedback experiment consisted of an initial conditioning stage to obtain soils with plant species-specific soil communities that had been subject to drought or not, which were then used in a feedback stage to compare the growth of plant species in differently conditioned soils (Fig. 1).

155

156 *Conditioning stage.* The soil was conditioned in field mesocosms by mixed plant
 157 communities dominated by either *D. glomerata* or *L. hispidus.* Briefly, each mesocosm of 42-

158 L (38 x 38 cm, 40 cm depth) was filled with soil in May 2012 and planted with 36 seedlings. 159 These pots were part of a larger experiment designed to test how differences in plant 160 community evenness and dominant species identity affect belowground response to drought 161 (De Vries et al., unpublished). The first plant community was dominated by D. glomerata (30 162 seedlings) in association with two seedlings each of L. hispidus, Anthoxanthum odoratum L. 163 and Rumex acetosa L. The second plant community was built with the same four species, but 164 dominated by L. hispidus (30 seedlings). Plant communities were left for two growing 165 seasons, and during the second, half of the mesocosms were subjected to a simulated drought, 166 whereas the other half remained under ambient climatic conditions. The drought, designed to 167 simulate 100-year drought event, was simulated by covering mesocosms with transparent rain 168 shelters from May to July 2013, following a similar design to Bloor and Bardgett (2012). 169 Local weather data (1967-2008) were used to fit a Gumbel I distribution to the annual 170 extremes of drought duration for the local growing period. The 100-year drought 171 corresponded to 34 consecutive days with less than 1 mm of rainfall. Two months after 172 ending the drought, soil was sampled from droughted and non-droughted mesocosms for use 173 in the feedback phase of the experiment. For this, soils were collected from four treatments, 174 replicated four times, representing soils conditioned by two plant communities dominated by 175 D. glomerata or L. hispidus, each with a droughted and non-droughted treatment (Fig. 1). 176 Treatment effects on soil microbial community composition and a suite of soil physico-177 chemical properties were analysed as detailed below (Sampling S0).

178

179 *Feedback stage.* The soils were brought to the glasshouse at Firs Experimental Grounds, The 180 University of Manchester, to carry out a pot experiment designed to test whether: (a) drought 181 altered plant-soil feedback responses of the two plant species D. glomerata and L. hispidus 182 (hypothesis 1) and their competitive interactions (hypothesis 2). Seeds of D. glomerata and L. 183 hispidus were germinated in trays on 1:1 sand and compost mixture (John Innes no 3 mature 184 plant compost, Reading, UK) in the glasshouse. Seedlings of similar size (~ 15d after 185 germination) were transplanted into pots (8.7 cm diameter x 9 cm depth) filled with field 186 moist soil (equivalent to 180g of dry soil) sieved at 4mm. In each pot, two seedlings were 187 planted in monoculture or in competition, meaning that some seedlings grew in conspecific 188 soil (i.e., in their own soil) and others in heterospecific soil (i.e., in soil conditioned by the 189 other species). This design resulted in 12 treatments (D. glomerata and L. hispidus grown in 190 monoculture, and in mixture - named 'Mix' - in the four soil types), each replicated in the 191 four blocks of the field experiment. Plants were grown for 14 weeks and temperature varied

between 14.8 and 22.8 °C with an average of 18.5 °C. Moisture contents were monitored gravimetrically throughout the incubation and were maintained at 60% water holding capacity (WHC) by adding tap water. Microcosms were destructively sampled nine weeks after the beginning of feedback period (Sampling S1).

196

197 PHASE 2: Effects of subsequent drought on plant-soil feedback and plant-plant 198 interaction

199 The goal here was to assess how a biotic legacy of a previous drought influences the 200 ecosystem response to subsequent drought and rewetting event (hypothesis 3). For this 201 purpose, all microcosms of phase 1 of the plant-soil feedback experiment were duplicated. 202 From the seventh week, duplicated microcosms were subjected to a drought for 2 weeks by stopping watering until the soil water content reached on average 0.09 g g⁻¹ DW and up to 203 204 85% of plant leaves were senescent. After two weeks of drought, microcosms were rewetted 205 by adding 85 g of water to bring soil moisture back to about 60% WHC while simulating a 206 rainfall event of identical intensity (equal to 14 mm), and the recovery was followed for 5 207 weeks (Fig. 1). Droughted microcosms were destructively sampled at the end of the drought 208 period (Sampling S1) and 5 weeks after rewetting (Sampling S2). Microcosms of phase 1 209 (kept at constant moisture) were sampled at the same days and were used as control for phase 210 2 of the experiment. In total, this resulted in 192 soil microcosms comprising twelve 211 treatments (cf. feedback stage above), each replicated in four blocks of the field experiment, 212 incubated with or without subsequent drought, and destructively sampled at two dates. At 213 each of the two sampling dates, plants were removed from soil and roots were washed prior 214 to subsequent biomass quantification.

215

216 PLANT AND SOIL ANALYSES

217

218 Total leaf and root biomass was measured across all treatments as the dry weight after oven-219 drying for 48h at 70 °C. In addition, to estimate plant resistance to subsequent drought (phase 220 2), the biomass of detached leaves at the end of the drying period (Sampling S1) was weighed 221 in order to calculate leaf biomass before the drying period. For all sampling times (S0, S1, 222 S2) and treatments, total genomic DNA was extracted from 0.35 g equivalent dry soil using 223 PowerSoil kit (MoBio, Carlsbad, CA). The composition of bacterial and fungal communities 224 was assessed by T-RFLP analysis, as detailed by Griffiths et al. (2011) and Plassart et al. 225 (2012). For bacteria, 16S DNA were PCR-amplified using the couple of primers 63F/530R.

For fungi, the internal transcribe spacer (ITS) region of DNA was amplified using the primers ITS1/ITS4. Relative abundances of the different microbial units were calculated as the ratio between the fluorescence of each terminal restriction fragment (T-RF) and the total integrated fluorescence of all T-RFs, and bacterial and fungal diversity was estimated using Shannon and evenness indices (Hill *et al.*, 2003).

231 At the end of the conditioning stage (sampling S0) a suite of soil properties were 232 measured. Total C and N was measured using a CN analyser (Elementar Vario El Cube, 233 Germany) after grinding in a ball-mill and using acetanilide for internal calibration, pH was 234 measured using a 1:5 soil-water ratio, and maximum soil water holding capacity was 235 measured as detailed by Haney and Haney (2010). For the three sampling times, we 236 measured water extractable carbon and nitrogen in soil (10 g soil + 70 ml MilliQ water, 237 shaken for 20 min). In these extracts, total dissolved organic carbon (TOC) was measured 238 with a TOC analyser (Shimadzu, Japan) and dissolved inorganic N (NH_4^+ and NO_3^-) was 239 assessed with an Auto Analyser (Seal Analytical, Mequon, USA). Additionally, soil 240 respiration was assessed two hours after rewetting the microcosms: fluxes of CO₂ were 241 measured by placing the microcosms in a dark chamber and measuring the accumulation of 242 CO₂ for two minutes with an IRGA (EGM-4 PP-System).

243

244 <u>STATISTICAL ANALYSES</u>

245

246 **Phase 1: Plant-soil feedback**

247

248 All statistical analyses were performed with R software version 3.1.3 (R Core Team, 2015) 249 and all mixed effect linear models were performed using lme in the nlme package (Pinheiro 250 et al., 2015) with block as a random effect. For phase 1 of the experiment, effects of 251 conditioning treatments on soil properties and microbial diversity (conditioning stage, 252 Sampling S0) were analysed using lme with plant species and drought and their interaction as 253 fixed effects. We assessed T-RFLP data using ordination by nonmetric multidimensional 254 scaling (NMDS) and Adonis tests to determine the dissimilarity of the bacterial and fungal 255 communities at sampling S0. For the feedback stage of phase 1, which was designed to test 256 whether previous drought influenced plant-soil feedback (Hypothesis 1), we calculated 257 feedback responses using total plant biomass (Sampling S1). For plants in monoculture, we 258 calculated the average weight of the two plants in a pot in order to use an equal number of 259 plants for the statistical analyses for monoculture and competition treatments. We calculated

the plant-soil feedback in pairwise comparisons for the two sub-groups non-drought and drought conditioning as in Brinkman *et al.* (2010):

262

 $263 \qquad PSF_k = (O_k - F_k)/F_k$

264

where *O* is the total plant biomass in its own soil and *F* the biomass in the foreign soil for the *k* replicates. Lme models were constructed with plant species identity (*D. glomerata* or *L. hispidus*), drought (without or with drought), plant community (monoculture or competition) and their interactions as fixed factors. To test if drought-driven changes in plant-soil feedback have a knock-on effect on plant competitive interactions (hypothesis 2), the competitiveness of the two plants species in mixed communities was calculated as:

271

272 Competitiveness $_{k} = (C_{k} - M_{k})/M_{k}$

273

where *C* is the total plant biomass of a species in competition and *M* the biomass in monoculture for the *k* replicates. Competitiveness was analysed with lme with previous drought, previous plant conditioning, and growing plant species (*D. glomerata* or *L. hispidus*) as fixed factors. When interactions were significant Tukey's post hoc tests were performed.

278

279 To test whether the influence of previous drought on plant-soil feedback and plant 280 competitiveness was related to an altered soil microbial community composition or soil 281 nutrient availability (hypotheses 1 and 2), we assessed the influence of the 12 treatments on 282 concentrations of dissolved organic C and inorganic N during phase 1 (Sampling S1). We 283 constructed lme models with previous drought, previous plant and growing plant species (D. 284 glomerata in monoculture, L. hispidus in monoculture, the two plants in competition), and their interactions as fixed factors. Next we examined the effects of treatments on the 285 286 microbial community composition with two successive tests. First, an Adonis test was 287 performed on T-RFLP data to evaluate if soil conditioning by plant and drought, and plant 288 species identity influenced soil bacterial and fungal community composition. Then, we 289 selected the T-RFLP fragments (T-RF) that significantly varied with these factors (ANOVA 290 P < 0.05). The relative abundance of each of these T-RFs within communities in different 291 treatments were used for generation of cluster plots created by the heatmap2 function of the 292 gplots package in R; the double dendrogram allows to cluster the microbial communities

according to the similarity of their composition (horn similarity index) and to compare the distribution of the abundance of T-RFs within the different treatments.

- 295
- 296 Phase 2: Response to subsequent drought
- 297

298 We assessed if biotic legacy effects of previous drought modified plant responses to a 299 subsequent drought (hypotheses 3). First, we calculated plant-soil feedback and 300 competitiveness as above for control and droughted microcosms at the end of the experiment 301 (Sampling S2). Then, to test whether an adaptation of microbial community to previous 302 drought prevents changes in drivers of plant-soil feedbacks and plant-plant interaction, the 303 response to a subsequent drought of plant growth, microbial community composition, soil 304 respiration and soil nutrient availability were assessed. At sampling S1, the soil compaction 305 at the end of drying period restricted the harvest of the entire root system; therefore the plant 306 growth response was assessed with leaves biomass only. Plant resistance to drought was 307 assessed as the leaf biomass lost during the drought; plant recovery as the increase in leaf 308 biomass between samplings S1 and S2. Two microbial responses to the subsequent drought 309 were measured: soil respiration two hours after rewetting and the intensity of changes in 310 microbial community composition at the end of the drought (Sampling S1). For this, the 311 similarity of microbial community composition between control and droughted microcosms 312 (horn index in "vegan" R package; Oksanen et al., 2015) was calculated for bacterial and 313 fungal T-RFs (Sampling S1). The smaller the horn similarity index, the more drought 314 changed microbial community composition compared to control. Plant-soil feedback, 315 competitiveness, plant resistance and recovery, horn index, soil respiration, and the 316 concentration of DOC, ammonium and nitrate (Sampling 1) were all analysed with lme with 317 previous drought, previous plant, growing plant species (D. glomerata in monoculture, L. 318 hispidus in monoculture, the two plants in mixture) and 'subsequent drought effect' as fixed 319 factors.

320

321 **Results**

- 323 PHASE 1: Plant-soil feedback phase
- 324
- 325 Conditioning stage.

326 Conditioning of soils with plant communities dominated by the two different plant species 327 had limited effects on soil microbial community composition and physico-chemical 328 properties (Supporting Information Table S1), apart from soil extractable nitrate, which was 329 greater when D. glomerata was the dominant plant species, irrespective of the drought 330 treatment. However, the drought treatment, which was imposed after two years of soil 331 conditioning (Sampling S0), significantly changed bacterial and fungal community 332 composition (Adonis tests P=0.012 and P=0.016, respectively), albeit in different ways: 333 drought increased fungal diversity (increased evenness; $P_{anova}=0.02$), but decreased bacterial 334 diversity (decreased evenness; $P_{anova}=0.01$). The drought treatment had no detectable impact 335 on soil physico-chemical properties, except soil water retention capacity, which was higher in 336 drought treatment (Supporting Information Fig. S1).

337

338 Feedback stage.

339 When grown in monoculture and in non-droughted soils, the plant-soil feedback responses of 340 the two plant species differed: the growth of D. glomerata did not differ when it was grown 341 in conspecific (i.e. home) or heterospecific (i.e. away) soil, whereas L. hispidus grew better in 342 conspecific soil, indicating a positive plant-soil feedback for this species (Fig. 2a and Table 343 1a). However, when grown in soil that had been subjected to drought the direction of plant-344 soil feedback changed (Table 1a, P=0.04): both plant species performed worse in conspecific 345 than heterospecific soil, indicating that a previous drought caused both species to display 346 negative feedback. When grown in competition, both species displayed negative plant-soil 347 feedback in both droughted and non-droughted soils (Table 1a, P=0.47).

348

349 Drought had a legacy effect on plant competitive interactions, although effects differed for 350 the two plant species and depended on soil conditioning (Fig. 2b and Table 1a). There was a 351 significant legacy effect of drought on D. glomerata and L. hispidus competitiveness when 352 soils were conditioned by L. hispidus (Soil L; Tukey tests P=0.06 and P<0.001, 353 respectively), while there was no effect when soils were conditioned by D. glomerata (Soil 354 D; Tukey tests P=1.00 and P=0.35). Competitiveness of D. glomerata was slightly negative 355 (-0.2 ± 0.1) when grown in non-droughted soil that had been conditioned by L. hispidus, 356 while competitiveness of L. hispidus was neutral in this soil (-0.04 \pm 0.19). However, 357 competitiveness of L. hispidus was positive (0.64 ± 0.09) when grown in conspecific soil that 358 had been subjected to drought, meaning that this species grew better in competition than in 359 monoculture under such conditions (Tukey test P < 0.001). In contrast, the competitiveness of 360 *D. glomerata* decreased in heterospecific soil that had been subject to drought (-0.47 \pm 0.1, 361 *P*=0.06) because of a lower growth in competition than in monoculture. Thus, in soil 362 conditioned by *L. hispidus*, previous drought increased the competitive ability of *L. hispidus*, 363 while it decreased that of *D. glomerata*.

364

365 During the feedback experiment (Sampling S1), bacterial community composition was 366 significantly influenced by the previous drought (Supporting Information Table S2), but not 367 by plant species identity. A total of 34 of the 150 bacterial T-RFs decreased in abundance in 368 soils that had been subjected to drought (Fig. 3a), which was in line with the decrease in 369 bacterial diversity (Shannon Index) detected at sampling S0, *i.e.* after the drought and before 370 the growth of plants of second generation. Despite weak effects of plant species on fungal 371 communities in the conditioning phase at sampling S0 (Supporting Information Fig. S1), we 372 detected significant effects of previous plant species on fungal community composition 373 during the feedback phase (Fig. 3b and Supporting Information Table S2). The previous 374 drought also had a significant legacy effect on fungal community composition during the 375 feedback phase in soils conditioned by L. hispidus (Supporting Information Table S2, P= 376 0.029). Indeed, the abundance of 11 of the 183 fungal T-RFs was very high only in soil 377 conditioned with L. hispidus and subjected to previous drought, while the abundance of 12 378 others was very high only in non-droughted soils conditioned with L. hispidus (Fig. 3b). 379 Thus, L. hispidus was associated with different fungal populations during previous droughted 380 and non-droughted soils, and during the feedback phase the previous drought effect was still 381 the most important driver of fungal community composition while the later-growing plants 382 had no effect.

383

384 Previous drought had no detectable influence on soil chemical properties during the feedback 385 period (Supporting Information Table S3). In contrast, soil chemical properties were strongly 386 influenced by the identity of growing plant species, although the effect depended on the 387 conditioning species. First, soil concentrations of ammonium and nitrate were higher when D. 388 *glomerata* grew in monoculture in conspecific soil than in all other treatments (Sampling S1). 389 Second, between sampling S1 and S2, the growth of D. glomerata in monoculture and in 390 heterospecific soil increased soil concentrations of nitrate, while the growth of both plants in 391 mixture decreased soil nitrate (Supporting Information Fig. S2). Thus, D. glomerata 392 increased, and L. hispidus decreased, soil nitrate concentrations.

395

394 PHASE 2: Response to subsequent drought

- 396 The effectiveness of the second, glasshouse-based drought was similar across all treatments, 397 with soil moisture contents being similar across treatments at the end of drying period (0.09 \pm 0.02 g g⁻¹ DW) and after the rewetting period (0.39 \pm 0.03 g g⁻¹ DW) (Supporting 398 399 Information Fig. S3). This second drought decreased leaf biomass across all treatments 400 (P < 0.001), and the response was proportional to leaf biomass before the drying period 401 (Supporting Information Fig. S4). Detected increases in leaf biomass over the five-week 402 recovery period following drought were also proportional to leaf biomass at the end of drying 403 period. As a consequence, the competitiveness values after the drought recovery (Sampling 404 S2) were similar to those observed during the feedback experiment (Table 1a,b) as well as the 405 plant-soil feedbacks of L. hispidus (Table 1b; P < 0.001). Therefore, our results showed a 406 persistent legacy effect of previous drought on plant-soil feedback, especially for L. hispidus, 407 and plant competitive interactions during a subsequent drought.
- 408

409 At the end of the second drought (Phase 2, Sampling S1), bacterial and fungal community 410 composition differed significantly between control and droughted microcosms (Adonis 411 P=0.034 and P=0.001, respectively; Supporting Information Table S2). The intensity of 412 changes in bacterial and fungal communities was assessed by calculating the similarity of 413 their composition (with horn index) for each treatment between control and second-droughted 414 microcosms at sampling S1 (Fig. 4a,b). No significant previous drought effect was observed 415 on horn similarity index (Fig. 4 a,b), therefore the intensity of the change in bacterial and 416 fungal community composition in response to the second drought was similar in previously 417 droughted and non-droughted soils, i.e. irrespective to previous drought history. In contrast, 418 the previous drought did have a strong legacy effect on soil functioning: CO₂ respiration (Fig. 419 4c) and DOC concentrations (Fig. 4d) after rewetting, and ammonium concentrations at the 420 end of new drought (Fig. 4e) were significantly lower when soils had been subject to 421 previous drought (Fig. 4 and Supporting Information Table S4), except for CO₂ respiration 422 from soils conditioned with L. hispidus when plants grew in competition.

423

The plant species present previously or during the second drought influenced effects of the second drought on soil properties, although effects varied for different soil properties (Fig. 4). For instance, for plants in monoculture, bacterial community composition changed more when plants grew in conspecific than in heterospecific soils (Fig. 4a, P=0.01), and this was 428 associated with lower soil respiration (Fig. 4c; P = 0.008) and DOC concentration (Fig. 4d, 429 P=0.047). The flush of CO₂ (Fig. 4c), DOC (Fig. 4d) and ammonium (Fig. 4e) was also 430 greater when L. hispidus was grown in monoculture than with D. glomerata (P=0.023, 431 P=0.0006, and P=0.045, respectively). Fungal community composition changed less in 432 response to drought in soils conditioned with L. hispidus compared to soils conditioned with 433 D. glomerata (Fig. 4b, P=0.011). And for plants growing in competition, bacterial 434 community composition changed more in response to drought in soil conditioned with D. 435 glomerata than with L. hispidus (Fig. 4a; P=0.047). Altogether, these results showed that the 436 soil response to second drought depended on plant-soil feedback and plant competition 437 effects.

438

439 Discussion

440

441 The first aim of this study was to evaluate whether a previous drought affects plant-soil 442 feedback. This was tested using an experiment that involved an initial stage of soil 443 conditioning by plant communities dominated by two plants species, which were then 444 subjected to drought, followed by a feedback stage whereby the two plant species were 445 grown in monoculture in these soils. Plant-soil feedback depends on the balance between 446 positive and negative feedbacks occurring in conspecific and heterospecific soils (van de 447 Voorde *et al.*, 2011). Positive feedback is facilitated by high nutrient availability (nutrient-448 mediated feedback) and abundance of mutualistic microorganisms (microbial-mediated 449 feedback), while negative feedback is driven by nutrient limitation or an accumulation of 450 pathogens. We found that under non-droughted conditions, D. glomerata grew equally well 451 in conspecific and heterospecific soil, suggesting a balance of positive and negative feedback. 452 In contrast, maximal growth of L. hispidus occurred in non-droughted conspecific soil, 453 despite this soil having a lower nutrient availability than soil conditioned with D. glomerata. 454 This positive feedback was found to be associated with a specific fungal community (Fig. 455 3b), which likely optimised plant nutrient acquisition, possibly via the formation of 456 mycorrhizal associations (Jackson et al., 2008; Smith & Smith, 2011). This mechanism is 457 supported by the knowledge that L. hispidus is strongly dependent to mycorrhiza fungi 458 (Tawaraya, 2003), and suggests that plant-soil feedback of L. hispidus is microbial-mediated 459 with positive feedback from mutualistic microorganisms.

460

461 We found that drought altered the direction of plant-soil feedback: both plant species

462 displayed negative feedback in soil that had been subject to drought. We do not know the 463 precise mechanism explaining the reduced performance of both plant species in conspecific 464 soil with a history of drought, but it is likely due to drought-induced changes in microbial 465 community composition, rather than changes in nutrient availability. This view is supported 466 by our finding that drought had no detectable legacy effect on soil nutrient availability, but it 467 significantly altered the composition of the microbial community: drought reduced bacterial 468 diversity and the abundance of several T-RFs, as also shown by others (Bérard *et al.*, 2011; 469 Barnard et al., 2013), and changed the composition of the fungal community in soil 470 conditioned by L. hispidus, causing a change in dominance of some fungal taxa. This finding 471 is consistent with the knowledge that certain plant species select for different fungal 472 communities during drought (Compant et al., 2010), and demonstrates that drought effects on 473 soil fungal communities vary across plant species, most likely due to differences in 474 rhizodeposition (Preece & Peñuelas, 2016). In addition, our results support the view that 475 long-term plant growth legacies overwhelm short-term plant growth effects on soil microbial 476 community composition (Kulmatiski & Beard, 2011). An alternative explanation for the 477 change in soil microbial community composition is related to drought-induced changes in 478 soil structure: drought is known to promote soil aggregate breakdown and alter soil 479 wettability (Denef et al., 2001), which might create heterogeneous penetration of water 480 through soil and create new ecological niches for microorganisms (Ruamps et al., 2011). 481 Together, these findings indicate that the reduced growth of both plant species in conspecific 482 soil subject to drought might be due to a combined effect of decreased abundance of 483 beneficial soil microbes (Cavagnaro, 2016), and increased abundance of less beneficial 484 microbes, i.e. pathogenic microbes, following drought. Further, these results support our 485 hypothesis that drought impacts the direction and the strength of plant-soil feedback due to a 486 legacy effect on soil microbial communities.

487

488 We also tested whether soil conditioning and drought-driven changes in plant-soil feedback 489 influenced plant-plant interactions. To address this, we compared growth of the two plant 490 species in monoculture and in mixture in the soils with different histories of conditioning and 491 drought. As hypothesised, we found that previous drought influenced plant competitive 492 interactions, but only in soil conditioned by L. hispidus: previous drought increased the 493 competitive ability of L. hispidus in conspecific soil, while it decreased competitiveness of D. 494 glomerata in this soil compared to non-droughted soils. This is consistent with studies 495 showing that plant-soil feedback influences plant competition (van der Putten & Peters, 1997;

Kardol *et al.*, 2007; Baxendale *et al.*, 2014; Jing *et al.*, 2015), but also demonstrates that
drought strongly modifies the outcome of plant-soil feedbacks for plant competitive
interactions, and responses are species specific.

499

500 We propose that the opposite response of the two plant species to drought is related to their 501 different resource acquisition strategies and nutrient supply to the plants. We found that 502 under non-droughted conditions, L. hispidus and D. glomerata grew equally well in 503 monoculture and mixture, suggesting that competition for nutrients was low and, potentially, 504 that both species could benefit from nutrients provided by their own microbial community. In 505 contrast, in droughted soil, improved growth of L. hispidus and reduced growth of D. 506 glomerata occurred in mixtures compared to monoculture, despite no detectable effect of 507 mixtures on soil microbial community composition. This suggests that drought changed the 508 outcome of plant-soil feedbacks for plant competitive interactions because of drought-509 induced changes in nutrient competition and nutrient supply by microbial-mediated 510 mechanisms. Indeed, the two plant species differ in their nutrient use strategies: D. glomerata 511 increased soil nitrate concentrations (Supporting Information Fig. S2), which was likely due 512 to a positive influence of this species on rates of nitrification (Bremer et al. 2009; Legay et 513 al., 2016), whereas L. hispidus is known to have a high demand in nitrate, as shown by 514 Onipchenko et al. (2001). As such, nitrate provided by the soil microbial community 515 associated with D. glomerata could provide a more accessible nitrogen source for L. hispidus, 516 but only when its own microbial community became less efficient in nitrate supply. This 517 could be the case when L. hispidus grew in conspecific droughted soil, as indicated by its low 518 growth in monoculture.

519

520 The above results suggest that drought weakened the strength of plant-microbe interactions 521 for nutrient acquisition of L. hispidus; the microbial community associated with L. hispidus in 522 droughted soils being less efficient to supply nitrogen to L. hispidus than the one associated 523 with L. hispidus in non-droughted soils. However, we acknowledge that we are uncertain 524 about the effects of drought on soil nitrogen dynamics given that we did not measure nitrifier 525 abundance or rates of nitrogen mineralisation/immobilisation to confirm that the soil 526 microbial community associated with L. hispidus in droughted soil is making less nitrogen 527 available. Nevertheless, our results do indicate that drought has the potential to create shifts 528 in soil nitrogen availability resulting from a change in soil microbial community composition, 529 with consequences for the plant-plant competition. This supports the notion that microbial

530 control of plant productivity (Hendriks *et al.*, 2013) could evolve with drought. In contrast, 531 the growth of D. glomerata in mixture decreased in heterospecific droughted soil, but not in 532 monoculture nor in mixture in its conspecific soil. Therefore, D. glomerata had a lower 533 growth only when L. hispidus was present with its conspecific droughted microbial 534 community: this indicates a negative interspecific feedback of L. hispidus on D. glomerata. 535 These results support the view that, interspecific plant-soil feedback can influence plant-plant 536 competition (van de Voorde et al., 2011; Jing et al., 2015), which can evolve with drought 537 due to a change in nutrient availability related to biotic change (Meisner et al., 2013). 538 Further, these results support our second hypothesis that drought influences plant competitive 539 interactions depending on plant-soil feedbacks, likely because of a desynchronization of the 540 plant-microbial partnership related to nutrient acquisition. So species-specific responses 541 suggest that drought could be a particular threat to plant species with a high dependence of 542 mycorrhizal fungi.

543

544 The final aim of this study was to investigate the influence of drought-induced changes in 545 plant-soil feedback on plant responses to a subsequent drought. For this purpose, a second 546 drought was applied to microcosms. We found that plant resistance to, and recovery from, a 547 subsequent drought was proportional to plant biomass (shoot and root) before the event, 548 resulting in persistent differences in plant-soil feedback and plant competitiveness. Our 549 findings are broadly consistent with other studies that have detected a strong legacy effect of 550 the initial drought on plant responses to a subsequent drought (Marulanda et al., 2009; Lau & 551 Lennon, 2012; Meisner *et al.*, 2013). One possible reason for this response is that a larger 552 root biomass before a drought allows faster and more efficient water and nutrient uptake 553 during drying and also on rewetting. Therefore, the advantage conferred to plants by the 554 initial drought could have had implications for the plants ability to withstand to the 555 subsequent drought. We also observed a drought legacy effect on the drought response of 556 several soil parameters, which supports our hypothesis that previous drought can influence 557 plant response to drought because of drought legacy effects on nutrient and microbial-558 mediated drivers of plant-soil feedback and plant-plant interactions.

559

560 We found that the commonly observed flush of carbon and nitrogen following the second 561 drought (Birch, 1958) was less in soils that had previously been subjected to drought than in 562 soils that hadn't. The hypothesized mechanisms explaining the Birch effect generally 563 involves physical and biotic effects: rewetting can cause aggregate slaking, which releases

564 previously protected soil carbon (Denef et al., 2001) and microbial carbon following cell 565 death, or microbial mechanisms of tolerance (accumulation of osmolytes during drought; 566 Schimel et al., 2007). With consecutive droughts, it is also possible that the physical 567 disruption releases less C from a reduced quantity of easily disruptable aggregates; however, 568 opposite responses have also been shown (Miller *et al.*, 2005). The second explanation might 569 be due to the adaptation to drought of microbial communities involved in the carbon and 570 nitrogen cycles. We expected that previous drought would prevent large changes in microbial 571 community composition during a subsequent drought due to the selection of microbial taxa 572 able to tolerate the perturbation (Wallenstein & Hall, 2012; Bouskill et al., 2013; Hawkes & 573 Keitt, 2015). In contrast, we found that changes in microbial community composition in 574 response to the second drought were of the same magnitude irrespective of their drought 575 history, as also observed by Fuchslueger et al. (2016). However, it is possible that only a 576 small proportion of active microorganisms can adapt to drought, and that the resuscitation of 577 rare taxa after a drought event has a disproportionate influence on soil functioning (Aanderud 578 et al., 2015). Other adaptive mechanisms for coping with repeated drought could involve 579 'anticipatory regulation', an evolutionary processes known to occur within species of 580 microorganisms in adapting to fluctuating environmental conditions (Mitchell et al., 2009) 581 Therefore, biotic legacy of drought could alter expected microbial function responses to 582 drought (Hawkes & Keitt, 2015) with consequence for carbon and nitrogen turnover in the 583 context of recurrent drought (Fuchslueger et al., 2016).

584

585 Despite weak effects of plant species on soil microbial communities in the field conditioning 586 and subsequent laboratory conditioning phase, we did detect significant plant species effects 587 (past and present) on soil microbial community composition and functioning following the 588 subsequent drought. This finding indicates that plants influence the response of soil microbial 589 communities to drought, likely through root exudation (Fuchslueger et al., 2014), which is 590 consistent with previous studies showing species-specific drought-induced changes in 591 rhizodeposition and soil microbial communities (Preece & Peñuelas, 2016). Our results also 592 suggest that the drought-induced changes in rhizodeposition are dependent on plant-soil 593 feedback. Collectively, our study supports our hypothesis that drought impacts on soil 594 microbial communities have consequences for soil functioning during a subsequent drought, 595 and that these effects depend on plant-soil feedbacks and impact plant responses to drought.

596

597 In conclusion, our results indicate that drought can alter the direction of plant-soil feedback

598	due to long-lasting effects on soil microbial communities and that this has consequences for					
599	plant-plant interactions and plant responses to subsequent drought. Moreover, we provide					
600	evidence that legacy effects of drought on soil microbial communities alter their functional					
601	capabilities when faced with subsequent drought, which supports the notion that biotic legacy					
602	of drought cause divergence from expected functional responses to drought (Hawkes & Keitt,					
603	2015). These findings are of importance given predicted increase in frequency and intensity					
604	of drought events, and the demonstrated potential for drought history to shape microbial-					
605	mediated plant-soil feedbacks with consequences for plant community dynamics and					
606	ecosystem functioning, and future plant and microbial responses to drought.					
607						
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613	Author contributions					
614	R.D.B initiated and gained funding for the study, which was planned and designed by A.K.,					
615	F.T.D. and R.D.B. A.K. and F.T.D. performed experiments, and A.K. analysed the resulting					
616	data. A.K., F.T.D., R.I.G. and R.D.B. wrote the manuscript.					
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863

Fig. 1: Experimental framework to study the influence of drought on plant-soil interactions

866 Fig. 2: Boxplot diagrams depicting the influence of previous drought on the plant 867 performance during the feedback experiment (phase 1). (a) Plant-soil feedback of D. 868 glomerata (D.g) and L. hispidus (L.h) growing in monoculture and in competition (n=4) and 869 (b) Competitiveness of D. glomerata (D.g) and L. hispidus (L.h) growing in soil previously 870 planted with D. glomerata (Soil D) and L. hispidus (Soil L) (n=4) calculated with plant 871 biomass. The box in each boxplot shows the lower quartile, the median and upper quartile 872 values, and the whiskers show the range of the variation; horizontal black lines indicate the 873 zero; points indicate extreme values.

874

875 Fig. 3: Cluster of bacterial (a) and fungal (b) community based on terminal restriction 876 fragments (T-RFs) relative abundance during the feedback experiment (phase1, 877 **sampling S1**). Heatmaps were based on the hierarchical clustering solution (horn similarity) 878 distance metric. Rows represent the mean (n=4) of the twelve treatments: D. glomerata (D,g)879 and L. hispidus (L.h) grown in monoculture, and in mixture (Mix) in the four soil types that 880 are soils conditioned by *D. glomerata* (light green square) or *L. hispidus* (dark green square), 881 each with a droughted (dashed) and non-droughted (without dashed) treatment. Columns 882 represent the selected T-RFs that significantly varied with at least one treatment (ANOVA P 883 < 0.05; drought conditioning, plant conditioning, growing plants species or their interactions). 884 The colors in the heatmaps represent the relative abundance of each T-RFs, as indicated in 885 the upper left corner of each panel.

886

887 Fig. 4: Influence of subsequent drought on soil properties (phase 2, sampling S1). The 888 influence of subsequent drought was determined at the end of drying period for soil bacterial 889 and fungal community in measuring the similarity of the community composition between 890 control and droughted microcosms, for dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and ammonium 891 available in soils and soil respiration was measured two hours after the rewetting of dried 892 soils. The plots represent the measures in soils without previous drought against the one in 893 soils with previous drought for soils previously conditioned with D. glomerata (Soil D, grey) 894 and L. hispidus (Soil L, black) and planted with D. glomerata in monoculture, L. hispidus in 895 monoculture and the both in mixture. Data are means \pm sd (n=4).

897 **Table 1: Analysis of variance of mixed linear models for plant performance** (i.e. plant-898 soil feedback and competitiveness) (a) during the feedback experiment (phase 1, sampling 899 S1), and (b) after the subsequent drought (phase 2, sampling S2). Asterisks indicate a 900 statistically significant effect tested with mixed linear model: *, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01; ***, P901 <0.001.

903 New Phytologist Supporting Information

Article title: Legacy effect of drought on plant-soil feedbacks and plant-plant interactions
Authors: Aurore Kaisermann, Franciska T. de Vries, Robert I. Griffiths, Richard D. Bardgett
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- 908 The following Supporting Information is available for this article:
- 909 **Table S1** Soil properties at the end of condition period (Phase 1, Sampling S0) Range of
- 910 values and statistical analysis
- 911 **Fig. S1** Soil properties at the end of condition period (Phase 1, Sampling S0) Soil water
- 912 content, nitrate and microbial community composition
- 913 **Table S2** Tables of Adonis tests on the bacterial and fungal community composition
- 914 **Table S3** Effect of previous drought, previous plant and growing plant species on soil
- 915 properties during the feedback experiment (Phase 1) Table of ANOVA
- 916 **Fig. S2** Effect of previous drought, previous plant and growing plant species on soil
- 917 properties during the feedback experiment (Phase 1) Ammonium and nitrate contents
- 918 **Fig. S3** Effect of subsequent drought on leaf biomass (Phase2)
- 919 **Table S4** Effect of subsequent drought on soil properties
- 920 **Fig. S4** Soil moisture in microcosms







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Soil respiration (mg C – CO_2 . g dry soil⁻¹)



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(a)	Plant-soil Feedback			Competitiveness	
	F-value	p-value		F-value	p-value
Previous drought (A)	0.91	0.35	Previous drought (A)	11.06	0.003 **
Growing species (B)	8.43	0.01 ***	Growing species (B)	436.60	<.0001 **
Community (C)	32.93	<.0001 ***	Previous plant (C)	3.88	0.06
A:B	1.28	0.27	A:B	36.62	<.0001 ***
A:C	10.48	0.00 ***	A:C	0.73	0.40
B:C	0.06	0.80	B:C	50.92	<.0001 ***
A:B:C	0.20	0.66	A:B:C	16.93	0.00 ***
Tukey test	z-value	P-value	Tukey test	z-value	P-value
In monoculure, non drought vs. previous drought	-2.66	0.04 *	D. glomerata in soil D, non drought vs. previous drought	0.27	1.00
In competititon, non drought vs. previous drought	1.45	0.47	D. glomerata in soil L, non drought vs. previous drought	-2.99	0.06 ·
			<i>L. hipidus</i> in soil D, non drought <i>vs.</i> previous drought	2.20	0.35
			<i>L. hispidu</i> s in soil L, non drought <i>vs.</i> previous drought	7.17	< 0.001 ***

(b)	Plant-soil Feedback			Competitiveness	
	F-value	p-value		F-value	p-value
Previous drought (A)	2.59	0.11	Previous drought (A)	2.97	0.09
Growing species (B)	26.46	<.0001 ***	Growing species (B)	260.76	<.0001 **
Community (C)	79.25	<.0001 ***	Previous plant (C)	2.19	0.15
Subsequent drought (D)	1.35	0.25	Subsequent drought (D)	1.21	0.28
A:B	10.74	0.002 **	A:B	21.66	<.0001 ***
A:C	6.90	0.01 *	A:C	1.96	0.17
B:C	0.12	0.73	B:C	31.55	<.0001 ***
A:D	0.12	0.73	A:D	0.02	0.89
B:D	0.76	0.39	B:D	3.07	0.09
C:D	0.66	0.42	C:D	0.10	0.75
A:B:C	4.73	0.04 *	A:B:C	5.87	0.02 *
A:B:D	2.62	0.11	A:B:D	0.25	0.62
A:C:D	3.91	0.05	A:C:D	0.51	0.48
B:C:D	0.00	0.96	B:C:D	0.39	0.54
A:B:C:D	2.26	0.14	A:B:C:D	0.22	0.64
Tukey test	z-value	P-value	Tukey test	z-value	P-value
D. glomerata in monoculture non drought vs. previous drought	0.51	1.00	D. glomerata in soil D, non drought vs. previous drought	-0.73	1.00
D. glomerata in competition non drought vs. previous drought	0.99	0.98	D. glomerata in soil L, non drought vs. previous drought	-1.88	0.56
<i>L. hipidus</i> in monoculture non drought <i>vs.</i> previous drought	-4.74	< 0.001 ***	<i>L. hipidus</i> in soil D, non drought <i>vs.</i> previous drought	1.46	0.83
<i>L. hispidu</i> s in competition, non drought <i>vs.</i> previous drought	0.04	1.00	<i>L. hispidu</i> s in soil L, non drought <i>vs.</i> previous drought	5.48	<0.001 ***