

1 Utilizing Principles of Biodiversity Science to Guide Soil

2 Microbial Communities for Sustainable Agriculture

3 Seraina L. Cappelli¹, Luiz A. Domeignoz-Horta², Viviana Loaiza² & Anna-Liisa Laine^{*1,2}

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5 ¹Research Programme in Organismal and Evolutionary Biology, University of Helsinki, Finland

6 ²Department of Evolutionary Biology & Environmental Sciences, University of Zürich, Switzerland

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8 *Corresponding author

9 anna-liisa.laine@uzh.ch

10 **Synopsis**

11 Extensive biodiversity and ecosystem functioning (BEF) research has demonstrated that plant
12 diversity positively affects many ecosystem functions (e.g. Balvanera et al. 2006). However, the
13 number of potential underlying mechanisms is large, and often unknown. Limited recent evidence
14 suggests that a positive BEF relationship may be mediated by processes taking place below-ground,
15 as the composition of plant communities is tightly linked with the composition of soil microbial
16 communities (e.g. Zhalnina et al. 2018, Barry et al. 2006). Soil microbial diversity in turn has been
17 linked positively to ecosystem functioning (e.g. Domeignoz-Horta et al. 2020, 2021).

18 Agroecosystems are ubiquitous, typically species-poor and notoriously sensitive to
19 biotic and abiotic stressors. The potential benefits from diversification are therefore large. Species
20 composition in agricultural settings is under strict human control, and could thus be managed to
21 maximize desired ecosystem functions and services if we understand the underlying processes of BEF
22 relationships in agroecosystems. To date, ecological BEF research has developed in parallel with
23 microbiological research focusing on soil microbial processes (e.g. plant-soil feedback research) and
24 the development of sustainable agricultural practices. Currently, there are pushes to combine theory
25 regarding soil microbial processes with BEF research (e.g. Thakur et al. 2021), attempts to integrate
26 knowledge about soil microbial processes into agricultural practices (e.g. Mariotte 2018) and the
27 importance of the knowledge gained from BEF research for agricultural practices has been recognized
28 (e.g. Manning et al. 2019). However, we lack a holistic understanding how all three fields are
29 interlinked. Here, we summarize the current knowledge in all of the three fields, with a focus on the
30 intersection between each of them. We specifically highlight the role of above- and below-ground
31 diversity within the carbon cycle, which has the potential of becoming an important component in
32 mitigating climate change. Further, we identify agricultural management practices based on
33 diversification and summarize available evidence for ecosystem services promoted by these practices.
34 Finally, we highlight knowledge gaps that need to be addressed in order to generate empirical

35 ecological data to design sustainable cropping systems. This is crucial to meet the dietary needs of a
36 growing world population in times of accelerating global changes.

37 **Abstract**

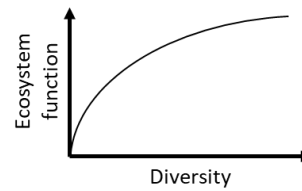
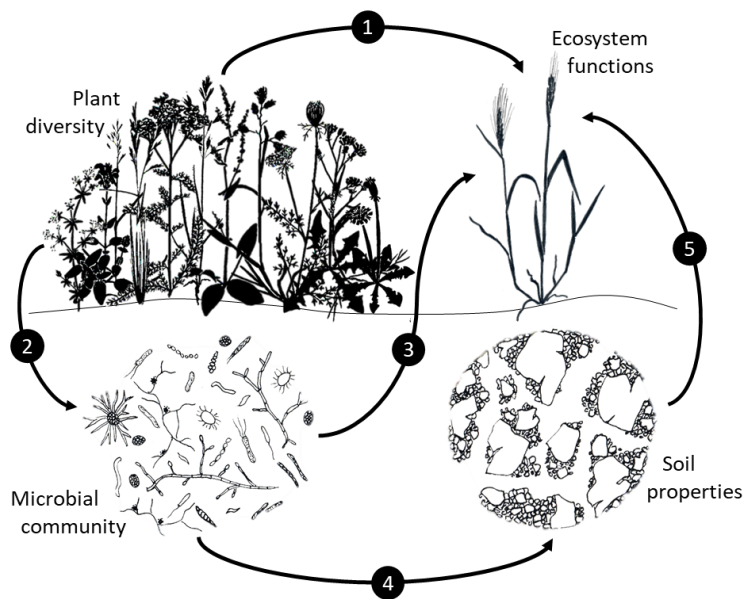
38 While the positive relationship between plant biodiversity and ecosystem functioning (BEF) is well-
39 established, the extent to which this is mediated via below-ground microbial processes is poorly
40 understood. Limited evidence suggests plant community structure to influence soil microbial
41 diversity, which in turn promotes functions desired for sustainable agriculture. Here, we outline the
42 direct and soil microbe-mediated mechanisms expected to promote positive BEF and we identify how
43 this knowledge can be utilized to maximize ecosystem functioning in agroecosystems, which are
44 typically species-poor, and sensitive to biotic and abiotic stressors.

45 **Keywords:**

46 Agriculture, biodiversity, sustainability, carbon cycling, cropping systems, agroecology

47 **Main**

48 Biodiversity stabilizes ecosystem productivity, and productivity-dependent ecosystem services¹.
49 Increasing evidence confirms that biodiversity stabilizes ecosystem functioning by increasing
50 resistance to climate events², and by diluting disease risks³. In contrast, agricultural systems are
51 depleted of biodiversity, and are notoriously sensitive to pathogens and pests⁴, as well as
52 environmental stress such as drought⁵⁻⁷. To guarantee food security to a growing global population
53 and food habit changes⁸, increases in yields must not further erode the natural capital upon which
54 agriculture relies. Hence, ecological intensification that supports and regulates ecosystem services is
55 increasingly seen as one way of achieving food security in an environmentally sustainable and
56 climate-smart way^{9,10}. This would allow transitioning away from increasing use of synthetic inputs
57 that has characterized global agricultural intensification, causing degradation of agroecosystems and
58 its functions both within agricultural environments¹¹ as well as beyond its boundaries^{12,13}. Currently
59 the mechanisms underpinning the biodiversity-ecosystem functioning relationships are under active
60 discussion. While most research has focused on above-ground mechanisms, current limited evidence
61 suggests that plant diversity interacts with below-ground microbial communities that in turn sustain
62 and promote ecosystem functioning both below- and above-ground¹⁴⁻¹⁷. Toward this end, here, we
63 present a framework for understanding how plant diversity could be utilized to guide
64 environmentally-friendly agriculture both directly via mechanisms operating above-ground, as well
65 as those mediated by responses in below-ground microbial communities (Figure 1).



- 1 Plant diversity is crucial for a stable provisioning of various ecosystem functions.
- 2 Different microbial communities are associated with different plant species. The diversity and composition of the plant community should thus shape the diversity and composition of the soil microbial communities.
- 3 Soil microbial diversity can directly promote ecosystem functions such as decomposition, nutrient cycling or mitigation of greenhouse gas emissions.
- 4-5 The effects of soil microbial diversity on ecosystem function can be indirect via changes in soil properties such as soil aggregation.

66

67 **Figure 1. The pathways by which plant biodiversity links to ecosystem, functioning via both above-**
 68 **and below-ground.** Plant biodiversity is known to contribute to and stabilize the provisioning of
 69 ecosystem functions, such as biomass production, decomposition, soil carbon storage, dilution of fungal
 70 pathogens and insect herbivores or pollinator abundance^{18,19}. Very commonly, BEF relationships saturate
 71 at high diversity and many of these ecosystem functions are crucial for agricultural production. It is
 72 becoming increasingly clear that plant community diversity and composition determines the composition
 73 of the soil microbial community. Plant traits such as productivity, physiology, root architecture, and the
 74 composition of root exudates are predictors of how plant species affect the soil microbial community^{20–}
 75 ²². The diversity and composition of the plant community is expected to affect how soil microbial
 76 communities are structured. Plant diversity is associated with increased microbial biomass²³ and
 77 respiration, and plant community functional composition is a strong predictor of mycorrhizal community
 78 composition²⁴. Soil microbial communities in turn can directly promote ecosystem functions such as
 79 decomposition²⁵, nutrient cycling²⁶ or mitigate green-house gas emissions from the soil^{27–29}. The influence
 80 of the soil microbial community on ecosystem functioning might occur through direct interactions with
 81 the plant community or via alterations in the soil properties, such as soil aggregation, which can impact,
 82 for example, water and oxygen percolation in soil with consequences for plant growth. Soil microbial
 83 diversity has been found to positively affect soil aggregation³⁰, community growth efficiency³¹ and
 84 formation of new soil organic matter³² that is more persistent to decomposition³³.

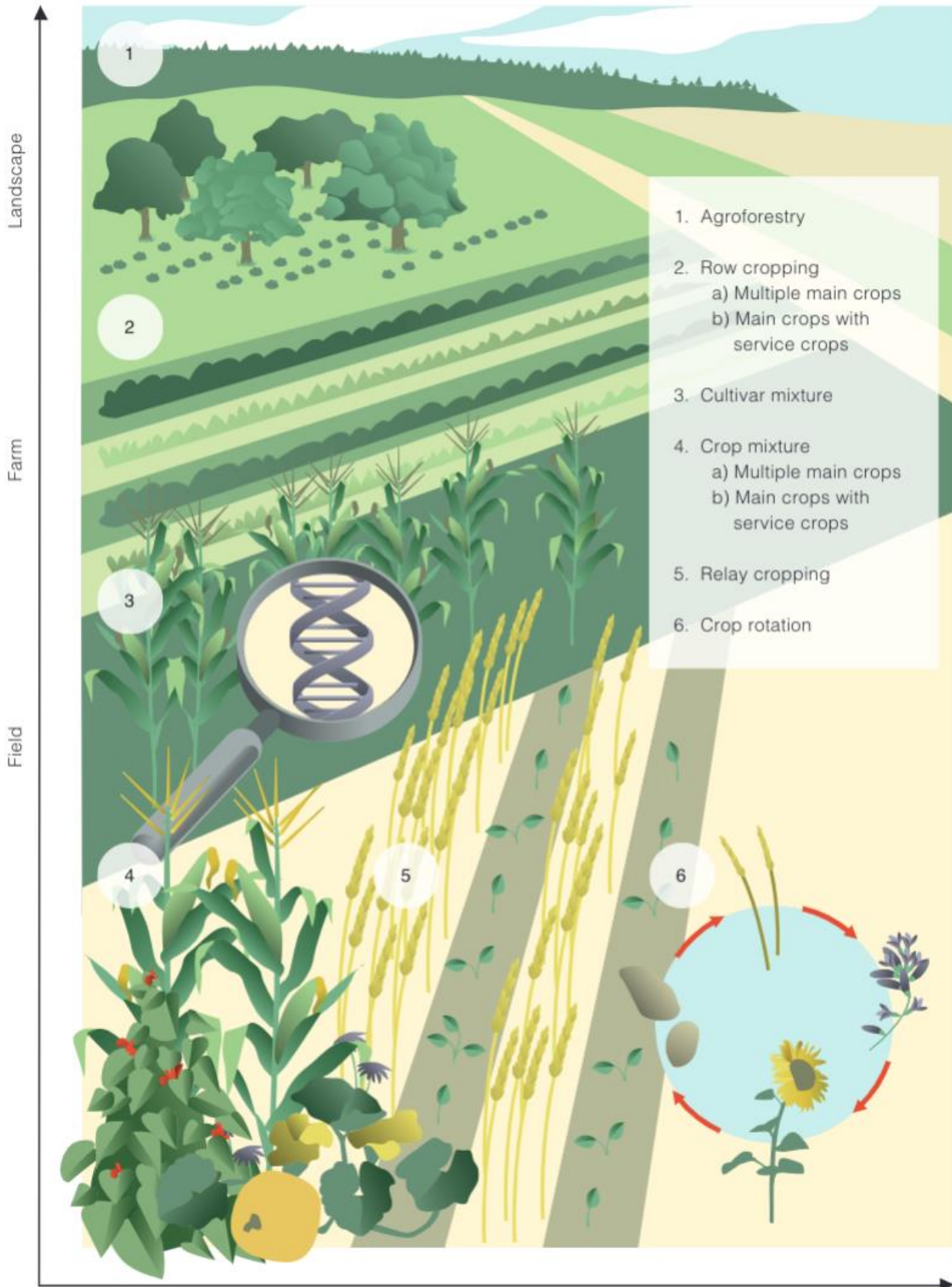
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86 A variety of mechanisms have been suggested to lead to positive diversity-ecosystem
 87 functioning relationships^{34,35}. Primary productivity is the most intensively studied dimension of
 88 ecosystem functioning, and biodiversity experiments have shown that with increasing plant diversity
 89 productivity also increases^{36–39}. While diverse communities produce consistently high amounts of
 90 biomass, species-poor communities show much more variability. There are certain species that
 91 produce comparable amounts of biomass when grown alone or in diverse communities¹⁹. Including

92 few such productive species in diverse mixtures may promote the productivity through selection
93 effects. In addition, complementary interactions between species can enhance the productivity of
94 most of the species within the community^{40,41}. There is a wide variety of complementary interactions,
95 but they can be broadly classified into resource partitioning (e.g. through different root morphology
96 and depth), biotic feedbacks (e.g. the hosting of pollinators or N-fixation by legumes) and abiotic
97 facilitation (e.g. through the microclimate)³⁵. Similar mechanisms are likely to influence other
98 ecosystem functions as well⁴²⁻⁴⁴. Biodiversity may also promote ecosystem stability and productivity
99 by increasing resistance and resilience to biotic and abiotic stressors (the insurance hypothesis)⁴⁵. An
100 analysis of 46 experiments that manipulated grassland plant diversity found that biodiversity
101 increased ecosystem resistance for a broad range of climate events⁴⁶. Increasing biodiversity is often
102 associated with a reduction in the risk of an individual's disease risk, a phenomenon known as the
103 dilution effect⁴⁷⁻⁵⁰. The dilution effect is most commonly observed for biodiversity gradients
104 generated by disturbances resulting in biodiversity loss³. Growing evidence suggests that changes in
105 the structure of host communities and in the composition of functional traits following biodiversity
106 loss rather than species richness *per se*, can explain when a dilution effect should be observed^{3,51-57}.

107 The relevance of biodiversity in provisioning ecosystem functions grows when larger spatial and
108 temporal scales are considered^{41,58-61}. As environmental conditions vary with time, stress intensity
109 changes as well. High levels of stress have been shown to have a greater negative effect on low-
110 diversity than high-diversity communities⁶². The relevance of the above-mentioned insurance
111 dimension of diversity also increases when considering the ability of ecosystems to maintain their
112 functions over years or decades^{2,45}. Moreover, complementary interactions between species become
113 increasingly important at longer time scales^{41,59}. More studies and long-term experimental sites are
114 needed not only to further evaluate how complementarity and selection effects change over time but
115 also how other ecosystem functions other than productivity may be impacted by diversity through
116 time.

SPACE



TIME

118 **Figure 2. Agricultural diversification in space and time.** Modern agriculture often relies on large fields
119 of uniform crops and thus has large potential for diversification. Diversification can occur at varying
120 spatial and temporal scales: At a large spatial scale, 1. agroforestry systems incorporating trees and shrubs
121 on and between the agricultural fields and 2. the spatial arrangement of fields or rows of a) different main
122 crops or b) main crops and service crops can create diverse landscapes. Within fields, the mixture of 3)
123 different cultivars of the same crop or 4) multiple different species – be it a) multiple main crops or b)
124 main crops with service crops – can contribute to local diversification. When different crops grow on the
125 same field, but temporally separated, diversification occurs in time: 5) in relay cropping systems a
126 subsequent crop is planted before the prior crop is harvested. Thus, there is a time period when both crops
127 grow together, but not throughout their entire life cycles, so diversification occurs both in space and time.
128 6) In crop rotation, different crops are sown after the harvest of the prior crop and diversification occurs
129 solely in time.

130 **Can sustainability of agroecosystems be improved by increasing plant diversity?**

131 Many of the ecosystem functions which diverse ecosystems provide, such as pollination, nutrient
132 retention, weed control or disease suppression are important for agricultural crop production^{63,64}.
133 Modern agriculture has been developed to maximize yield per hectare, and current crops produce
134 high yields in monocultures when supplemented with nutrients and controlled by pesticides. In such
135 a scenario, the addition of species will likely provide limited benefits in terms of productivity⁶³.
136 Indeed, in many agricultural systems diversification does not increase yield of the main crop⁶⁵.
137 However, diversity has the potential to improve other ecosystem functions in agricultural
138 monocultures, potentially by reducing the need for external inputs such as pesticides, irrigation or
139 fertilization⁶³. To date, it is well-established that increasing the diversity of crops - even from a
140 monoculture to a mixture of two cultivars - reduces disease levels significantly⁶⁶⁻⁶⁸. A recent synthesis
141 demonstrated that indices of functional diversity, particularly the distribution of trait abundances,
142 were strong predictors of agricultural ecosystem multifunctionality that included weed suppression,
143 nitrogen (N) retention, inorganic N supply, increase in above-ground biomass, and sometimes even
144 yield⁶⁹. In Figure 2 we outline current management options that increase plant diversity in space and
145 time in agricultural cropping systems.

146 While there is more or less evidence that any of these diversification measures are beneficial for the
147 provisioning of one or the other ecosystem function, we lack a general framework to maximize

148 multiple ecosystem functions without compromising crop yields. There is evidence that biodiversity
149 is especially important when multiple ecosystem functions should be provided simultaneously^{70,71}.
150 Often the provisioning of a given ecosystem function depends at least to some degree on the capacity
151 of each species in the community to provide this function and on the relative abundance of these
152 species⁷². Since different species are good at supporting different functions^{42,69,73} and abundance of
153 each species is limited by the presence of multiple other species, “Jack-of-all-trades” effects are
154 likely: diverse communities are good at providing multiple functions at intermediate levels, while low
155 diversity communities are better at maximizing single or few functions⁷². However, complementarity
156 mechanisms between species, such as for example facilitation can help to provide ecosystem
157 functions above simple additive effects in polycultures³⁵. This implies that in agricultural systems,
158 where crop production usually is the main ecosystem function to be maximized, the identity and
159 abundance of the additional species added (thereafter service species) in diversification schemes is
160 essential to enhance functions other than crop production, without simultaneously compromising crop
161 yield. This requires a fundamental ecological understanding, a clear definition of target ecosystem
162 functions for a given agroecosystem and the choice of service species accordingly. A good
163 diversification scheme thus includes a combination of species to enhance target functions and species,
164 which support the crop species to continuously provide relatively high levels of yield
165 (complementarity effects). For example, (local) diversification has been shown to enhance pest
166 control, but this often leads to a trade-off with crop yield. This trade-off can be alleviated by including
167 legume species in the polyculture and pest control can be enhanced while less compromising crop
168 yields. Also, other trade-offs between different ecosystem functions are possible, but can be alleviated
169 by strategic choice of species and management practices⁷⁴. Similar principles likely apply also for the
170 use of different varieties in monoculture crops⁷⁵.

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173 **Plant diversity effects on below-ground microbial communities**

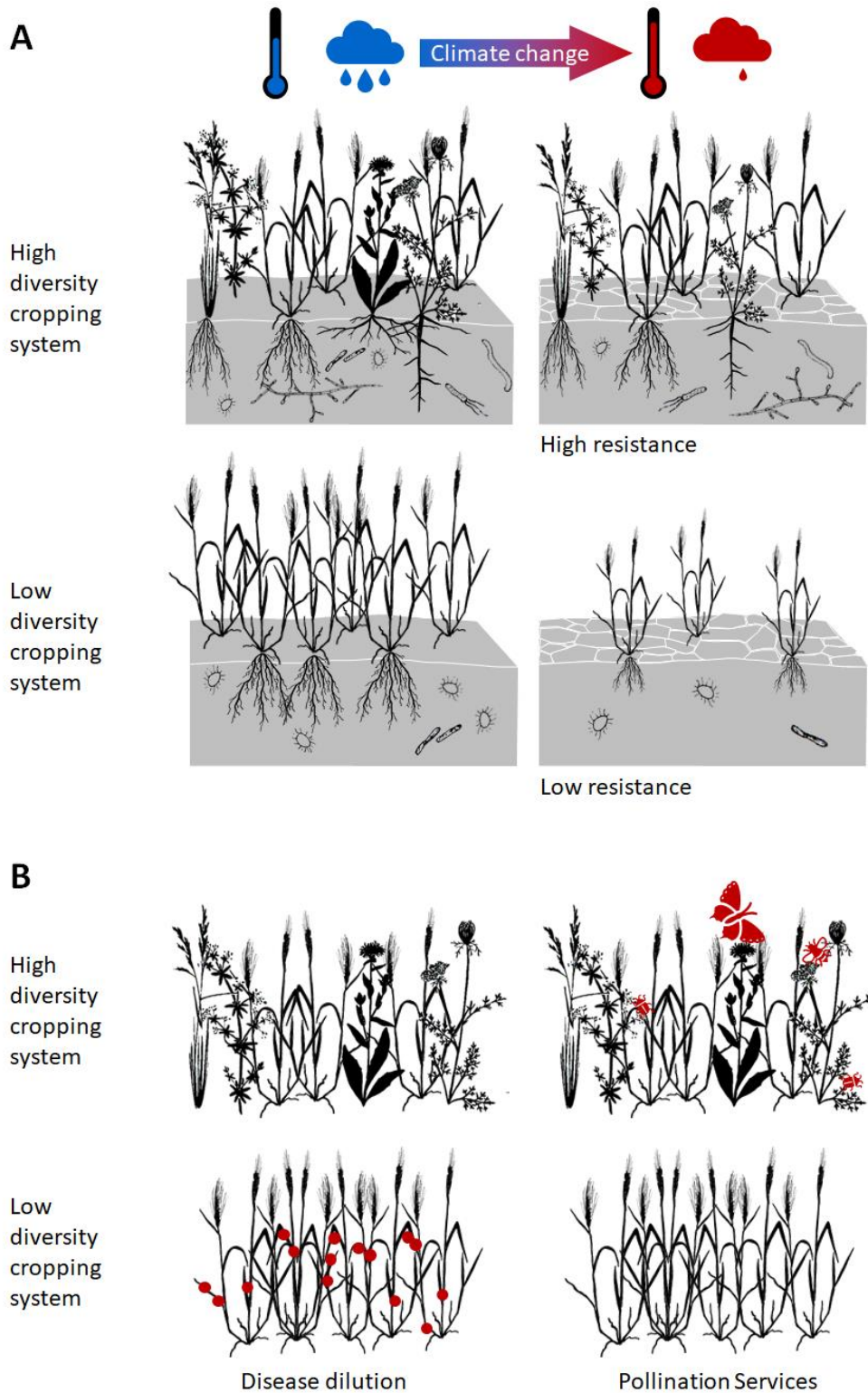
174 Processes leading to positive BEF relationships can happen above ground, for example habitat
175 provisioning for natural enemies and pollinators or alterations in the microclimate, but there is also a
176 multitude of mechanisms that occur below ground, for example processes involved in resource
177 partitioning and decomposition or dilution of (below-ground) pathogens. Soil microbial communities
178 are involved in many of these below-ground processes. Plant-soil feedbacks likely play a crucial role
179 in shaping BEF relationships as recently discussed by Thakur et al. (2021)⁷⁶ and understanding them
180 is crucial for sustainable agricultural practices⁷⁷.

181 Understanding the potential of plant diversity to promote below-ground microbial diversity and
182 ecosystem functions is highly relevant in food production systems where configuration of plant
183 diversity is under strict human control. Currently, there is a pressing need to identify how plant
184 diversity could be utilized to steer soil microbiomes to improve the growth, yield and resistance of
185 crops, as well as ecosystem functioning⁷⁸⁻⁸⁰ (Figure 3). Beneficial soil microbes - namely fungi and
186 bacteria - can improve plant nutrient acquisition, defense, and stress tolerance⁸¹⁻⁸³, as well as
187 community level nutrient capture⁷⁹ and productivity⁸⁴. The targeted use of beneficial soil microbes in
188 agricultural systems would not incur the environmental and socioeconomic costs associated with
189 agrichemical inputs used with the same aims⁸⁵. However, agricultural soils typically host low
190 densities of microbial symbionts due to the disruptive impacts of tillage, chemical inputs, crop
191 rotation patterns⁸⁶⁻⁸⁹, as well as potentially due to the lack of plant diversity^{90,91}. While it is generally
192 accepted that below-ground diversity, particularly of fungal symbionts, has the potential to regulate
193 plant assemblages and their diversity^{84,92}, far less is known about how plant diversity in turn regulates
194 below-ground microbial diversity⁷⁹.

195 A few pioneering studies have demonstrated the extent to which plant species differ in how they
196 influence their soil microbiome²⁰. Numerous host plant traits have been found to associate with root
197 microbial diversity. Among these, root exudates that differ among plant species play a dominant role

198 in shaping the rhizosphere and eventually the soil microbiome^{21,22}. Plant functional type (e.g. for
199 nodule forming bacteria for legumes) can also explain variation in the soil microbiome, even to the
200 extent that it overrides the effects of plant species⁹³. In addition, plant productivity, physiology, and
201 root architecture are among traits that are found to associate with diversity of root microbial
202 communities, generating variation in microbial communities associated with different plant species²⁰.
203 Plant species may also differ considerably in their affinity to form associations with beneficial
204 microbes. Importantly, modern crops are found to be less responsive to symbionts and exerting less
205 robust partner choice than their ancestors and wild relatives⁹⁴.

206 The variation detected among plant species in their associated below-ground microbial communities
207 suggests that above-ground diversity at the community level has the potential to drive below-ground
208 microbial diversity⁷⁹. Indeed, the limited evidence to date has demonstrated that the effects of plant
209 diversity on the diversity of soil micro-organisms were most pronounced in the most diverse plant
210 communities, although differences could only be detected after a time lag. Plant species functional
211 grouping at the community level has also been found to be a strong predictor of arbuscular
212 mycorrhizal (AM) community composition²⁴. The effects of plant diversity are not only evident at
213 the contemporary community level; AM fungal community assembly on focal plant species was
214 influenced by a legacy effect of neighboring plant species from the past⁹⁵. This is promising for
215 management schemes that implement diversity through rotations (see Figure 2, point 6).



216

217 **Figure 3. Cropping system diversity and its ecosystem functions.** Diverse cropping systems are more
 218 resistant to climate perturbations of temperature and precipitation, being able to maintain higher crop
 219 yields even under these disturbances compared to low diverse systems. Plant-microbial interactions
 220 explain in part the capacity of plants to cope with the adverse abiotic conditions (A). High levels of
 221 biodiversity decrease disease risk also known as the dilution effect and ensure pollination services
 222 compared to low diverse systems (B).

223 There is a growing consensus that the key to understand the effects of plants on the below-ground
224 communities and their functions lies where the world of plants and soil microbes meet: the
225 rhizosphere^{79,96,97}. Considered one of the most dynamic interfaces of Earth, rhizosphere is the thin
226 zone of soil that encircles and is impacted by plant roots. Rhizodeposits - the rhizosphere products
227 imparted to the surrounding soil - contain a multitude of compounds including sugars, amino acids,
228 organic acids, as well as mucilage (i. e. polymerized sugar) and root dead cells that may strongly
229 impact the activity and composition of the microbial community in the rhizosphere⁷⁹. The
230 rhizodeposits signature is species-specific⁹⁸, and chemical temporal succession in the rhizosphere of
231 oat plants (*Avena barbata*) was shown to interact with microbial substrate preference and ultimately
232 drive microbial community assembly⁹⁹. Cropping schemes are predominantly developed under highly
233 fertile conditions and via suppression of soil pathogens, thus minimizing the potential contribution of
234 interactions in the rhizosphere to plant health and growth. When aiming to develop a more sustainable
235 agriculture that relies less on external inputs of pesticides and fertilizers, it is crucial to capitalize on
236 multitrophic rhizosphere-mediated interactions. The challenge ahead lies on re-establishing these
237 interactions that are weakened or lost due to consequences of breeding⁹⁴ and intensive agricultural
238 practices¹⁰⁰.

239 **The effects of soil microbial diversity on ecosystem functioning**

240 In addition to the effects on microbial diversity, plant diversity is associated with increased microbial
241 activity enhancing biomass, respiration²³ and carbon storage in soils^{17,101,102}. Biodiversity of soil
242 microbes may interact directly with plants or via their effects on soil properties (Fig. 1). Previously,
243 it was argued that a positive relationship would be observed between soil microbial diversity and soil
244 functions if those were controlled by a phylogenetically restricted group of microorganisms¹⁰³.
245 However, more recent studies are challenging this idea as some general processes of carbon cycling
246 have been shown to be dependent on microbial community composition^{14,25,31,104}. Diversity of soil

247 microorganisms may impact both nutrient cycling crucial for plants as well as soil physical
248 structure¹⁰⁵ that is typically measured as soil aggregation. Soil aggregation reduces erosion and is
249 considered an important component of soil fertility and water retention capacity. Thus, growing
250 evidence suggests that soil microbial diversity is associated with crucial functional aspects of soils
251 for sustainable agriculture, including suppression of pathogenic microbes¹⁰⁶, decomposition of plant
252 matter²⁵, nutrient cycling¹⁰⁷, mitigation of greenhouse gases²⁷⁻²⁹ and carbon sequestration (Box 1).

Box 1: What is the role of soil microbial communities for the global carbon cycle in agroecosystems?

Soils are the largest and most dynamic terrestrial carbon (C) pool, storing 2000 Pg of C – more than the atmosphere and biosphere combined^{108,109}. While the net C input into soils is due to net primary productivity dominated by higher plants, soil microorganisms greatly contribute to the net C exchange between soil and atmosphere through the processes of decomposition and heterotrophic respiration. Natural CO₂ fluxes from soils are almost seven times higher than emissions due to the combustion of fossil fuels. This suggests that any small changes on these natural fluxes could have major implications for CO₂ concentration in the atmosphere and for the climate. Increases in soil organic matter decomposition and CO₂ emissions can be driven by agricultural practices. For example, deep ploughing enhances decomposition by increasing the oxygen level of soils and making previously inaccessible carbon accessible for microorganisms. Globally, soils could have lost between 40 and 90 Pg of C already due to agriculture¹¹⁰. As 40% of earth surface is utilized for agriculture¹¹¹, strategies to reduce CO₂ levels in the atmosphere must include management practices aiming to sequester some of this C back into soils.

Empirical evidence is slowly accumulating to demonstrate that high plant diversity results in higher levels of C stocks in soils in both long-term experimental sites^{17,36} and observations in natural ecosystems^{101,112}. While soils with high diversity of plants show high C stocks, it is the

microorganisms living in soil that play a central role for this C sequestration¹⁰². Previous theories focused on the recalcitrance of less-reactive compounds and physical protection as controls of soil carbon stocks, while more recently the focus has shifted to highlight the importance of microbial-derived soil organic matter (SOM)^{32,102,113–115}. When microbes metabolize soil C inputs (i.e., leaf litter, root exudates, organic amendments, or pre-existing C compounds), a proportion of C is allocated to growth, and the resulting biomass can contribute to further building the SOC pool once exuded by microbes or upon cell death (Figure 4). In a recent study, Domeignoz-Horta et al. (2020)³¹ showed that a higher fraction of carbon is allocated to growth in relation to respiration when microbial diversity is high. Thus, if above ground plant diversity or other management practices can be applied to enhance belowground microbial diversity, it is likely that more C will be sequestered due to higher microbial community growth efficiency (Figure 4). With respect to microbial control of SOM formation, emerging theories focus on molecular functional diversity of SOM, spatial heterogeneity and temporal variability¹¹⁶. Lehmann et al. (2020)¹¹⁶ recently proposed that greater diversity of C compounds could increase the metabolic costs necessary for its decomposition, resulting in remaining C in soil that could be potentially degraded but is not due to low energetic gains. A recent study corroborates this new theory demonstrating that bacterial community composition explained the signature of newly-formed SOM during microbial growth and that more diverse communities generated more persistent SOM³³. This same study highlights the importance of fungal x bacterial interactions for the decomposition and generation of new stable SOM. These findings provide insight on how to manage soils for maximum biological diversity as a means of building persistent SOM stocks in agriculture.

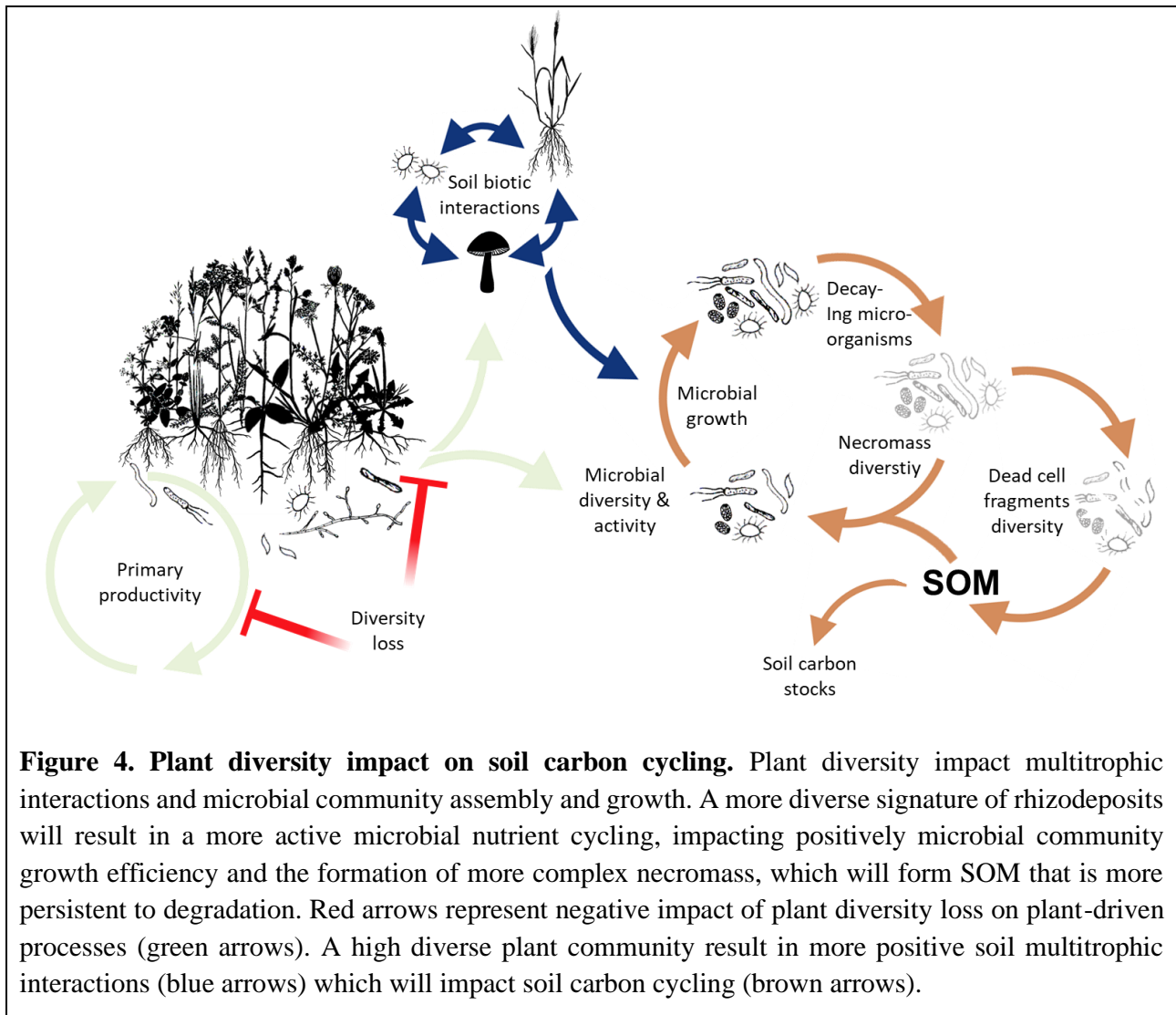


Figure 4. Plant diversity impact on soil carbon cycling. Plant diversity impact multitrophic interactions and microbial community assembly and growth. A more diverse signature of rhizodeposits will result in a more active microbial nutrient cycling, impacting positively microbial community growth efficiency and the formation of more complex necromass, which will form SOM that is more persistent to degradation. Red arrows represent negative impact of plant diversity loss on plant-driven processes (green arrows). A high diverse plant community result in more positive soil multitrophic interactions (blue arrows) which will impact soil carbon cycling (brown arrows).

253 **How to implement diversity into agroecosystems?**

254 Biodiversity-ecosystem functioning relationships often display a positive asymptotic relationship.
 255 This means that the biggest benefits of additional species occur in species-poor communities^{19,73}.
 256 Large agricultural fields consisting of monoculture have thus large potential for improved ecosystem
 257 functioning through diversification⁶³. Diversification in agriculture can be achieved through various
 258 measures at different spatial and temporal scales (Figure 2). Here, our intent is to highlight the
 259 potential of plant diversity for a more sustainable agriculture via both above- and below-ground
 260 mechanisms. However, we acknowledge that benefits of diversification will depend on how it is

261 combined with other management practices, including conservation tillage, re-use of crop residues,
262 and integrated pest management¹¹⁷.

263 Agroforestry (Figure 2, point 1), where trees or shrubs are incorporated into crop production, can
264 provide erosion control, enhance soil fertility and promote biodiversity of other organismal groups in
265 agriculture¹¹⁸. Row cropping of different main crops (Figure 2 point 2a) can increase yield, reduce
266 the need for fertilizer¹¹⁹ and promote diversity of mycorrhizal fungi¹²⁰. Sometimes species other than
267 main crops are needed for the provision of ecosystem services aside from crop production (Figure 2,
268 point 2b), for example the use of flower strips to promote pollination or pest control¹²¹. Within a field,
269 mixtures of different varieties of a crop species (Figure 2, point 3) have been shown to increase crop
270 yield and stress resistance¹²², reduce disease pressure⁶⁶ and improve human nutrition¹²³.
271 Combinations of functionally distinct varieties have proven especially good at providing stable high
272 yield^{75,122}. Similarly, mixtures of different crop species (Figure 2, point 4) can increase yield¹²⁴,
273 reduce pest pressure¹²⁵, fertilizer need and nutrient leaching¹²⁶. Sometimes, species other than the
274 main crop, so-called service crops, can help to promote ecosystem functions. For example, undersown
275 Italian ryegrass (*Lolium multiflorum*) has been shown to prevent nutrient leaching in cereal fields¹²⁷.
276 It is likely that the mixture of crops with complementary traits provide most benefits⁶⁹.

277 Diversification in time includes relay cropping (Figure 2, point 5) and crop rotation (Figure 2, point
278 6), which can include the use of cover crops between main crops. Relay cropping can help to gain
279 benefits of row cropping or mixed cropping, while reducing negative effects such as competition
280 between the crops, by growing multiple crops together for only a part of the growing period^{119,128}.

281 Crop rotation can prevent large pest populations from establishing over time, optimize resource use
282 and avoid self-toxicity¹²⁹. Ground-covering crops between intervals of successive cash main crops
283 sustain soil quality and productivity by reducing erosion and nutrient loss and by enhancing soil C
284 and N contents, and microbial biomass^{87,130}. Crop rotations are thus a cornerstone of sustainable
285 agroecosystems^{90,131} with a long-standing history, but developments such as the availability of

286 chemical inputs and specialized machinery together with economic market trends have led to shorter
287 and simpler rotation cycles with often negative consequences for crop yield¹²⁹.

288 Different diversification measures can also be successfully combined. For example, push-pull
289 methods to reduce natural enemy damage combine diversification at two spatial scales: they mix crop
290 species with service species that repel insect pest and have strips of another species, which lures the
291 pests away from the crops surrounding the crop field¹³². Another example is the use of diverse cover
292 crop mixtures within crop rotations to provide more ecosystem functions than the use of simpler cover
293 crop mixtures⁶⁹. It seems that there are many cases where diversification at different spatial and
294 temporal scales jointly yield the best outcomes⁶⁴.

295 **Future directions**

296 It is becoming increasingly clear that promoting plant diversity in agricultural systems has the
297 potential to drive soil microbial diversity, and jointly the above- and below-ground diversity are
298 expected to enhance ecosystems functions desired of sustainable cropping systems and their stable
299 provisioning over time– e.g. productivity, disease resistance and nutrient cycling. However, there are
300 still two major knowledge gaps that we discuss below.

301 *Context dependencies of the soil microbial diversity – soil ecosystem functioning relationships*

302 Growing evidence shows that soil microbial diversity promotes single soil ecosystem functions, and
303 overall multifunctionality¹³³. It is also known that plant species differ in how they influence the soil
304 microbiome depending on their functional traits²⁰, plant functional type⁹³ and their root exudates^{21,22}.

305 It should thus be possible to use plants to modulate the soil microbiome and with this promote
306 ecosystem functioning. However, it is difficult to predict the outcome of these plant-soil feedbacks,
307 which may be highly context dependent⁷⁹. For example, bacterial diversity promoted carbon use
308 efficiency only in wet soils³¹, and diverse AMF communities can switch from beneficial to
309 antagonistic under drought conditions for their crop host¹³⁴. Consequently, further research is needed

310 to (1) delineate the mechanisms responsible for the relationship between diversity and specific soil
311 functions, and to (2) determine the context-dependencies of such relationship for the multiple soil
312 functions. Global change, especially climate change might disrupt the associations between soil
313 microbes and the plants¹³⁵. Understanding the mechanisms behind diversity effects is crucial in order
314 to predict how global changes influence plant-soil feedbacks and to design agroecosystems which are
315 robust to global change.

316 *Application of ecological knowledge to agricultural practices*

317 Despite the reliance of agriculture on ecosystem functions and the large potential for enhanced
318 functioning in agroecosystems, thus far knowledge regarding biodiversity-ecosystem functioning
319 relationships has had little impact on agricultural practices. The reason for this is likely a mismatch
320 between the focus of ecological research and farmers' interests⁸⁵. In order to be implemented,
321 diversification schemes must prove direct economic benefit for crop farming in terms of enhanced
322 yield or reduced need for chemical inputs, without causing implementation costs that exceed the
323 benefits⁸⁵. There is a clear need to bridge that gap between ecological and agricultural research.

324 A factor that might reduce the benefits provided by diversification is that many agricultural species
325 have to some degree lost the ability to cooperate with microbial symbionts, likely because the services
326 provided by these services have been replaced by external inputs. Thus, it remains unclear to what
327 extent agricultural species are responsive to these microbial associations and can benefit from
328 diversification⁹⁴. Plant breeding research should focus on traits that promote beneficial plant-microbe
329 interactions, as well as plant-plant interactions that are critical for biodiversity-ecosystem functioning
330 relationships.

331 Further, farming practices such as fertilization or tillage on their own affect the diversity and
332 composition of soil microbial communities¹³⁶ and might decouple plant-plant and plant-microbial
333 interactions. For example, overfertilization can inhibit mycorrhizal colonization and the formation of
334 nodules in legumes¹³⁷ and promote greenhouse gas emissions¹³⁸. Such agricultural practices thus add

335 a layer of complexity to the soil-mediated diversity effects on ecosystem functioning that need to be
336 considered when studying and designing diverse agroecosystems.

337 Finally, we see a great need for integrating the knowledge of different disciplines in order to
338 understand how changes in the plant community composition in agroecosystems cascade through soil
339 microbial food webs and ultimately affect the provision of ecosystem functions.

340 **Conclusions**

341 The motivation behind this Perspective was to bring together insights from biodiversity-ecosystem
342 functioning research spanning both plant and microbial ecology to gain understanding of how plant
343 diversity could be used to guide ecosystem functioning not only above- but also below-ground in
344 agricultural settings. The effects of plant diversity on ecosystem functioning above-ground have been
345 previously reviewed³⁴, and current theory and empirical support provide a framework for developing
346 sustainable agricultural strategies. However, there are major gaps in current knowledge in how below-
347 ground effects contribute to – and could be managed – to promote sustainable agriculture. These need
348 to be addressed to reliably predict conditions under which we can reach the desired outcomes.
349 Uncertainties include the efficacy related to the different management practices described in Figure
350 2 with respect to below-ground processes, and as well as the context dependency – including abiotic,
351 biotic and cultural – that needs to be accounted for to develop general strategies to guide sustainable
352 agriculture. Nevertheless, limited data emerging from different fields highlight that plant diversity
353 could be purposefully used to guide soil biodiversity, and it would be short-sighted not to take
354 advantage of this potentially highly effective yet environmentally friendly and cost-effective
355 management strategy at a time when the need for sustainable agriculture is in greater demand than
356 ever before.

357

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