

1      **Rhizosphere bacterial community composition depends on plant diversity legacy in**  
2      **soil and plant species identity**

3      Marc W. Schmid<sup>\*,1,2</sup>, Terhi Hahl<sup>\*,1</sup>, Sofia J. van Moorsel<sup>\*,1†</sup> Cameron Wagg<sup>1</sup>, Gerlinde B.  
4      De Deyn<sup>3</sup> and Bernhard Schmid<sup>1</sup>

5      \*Equal contribution

6      <sup>1</sup>Department of Evolutionary Biology and Environmental Studies and URPP Global  
7      Change and Biodiversity, University of Zurich, Winterthurerstrasse 190, CH-8057 Zürich

8      <sup>2</sup>MWSchmid GmbH, Möhrlistrasse 25, CH-8006 Zürich

9      <sup>3</sup>Department of Soil Quality, Wageningen University, Droevedaalsesteeg 4, NL-6708PB  
10     Wageningen

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12     **Corresponding author:** B. Schmid: [berhard.schmid@uzh.ch](mailto:berhard.schmid@uzh.ch)

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† Present address of S.J.V.M.: McGill University, Department of Biology, 1205 Dr. Penfield Ave,  
Montreal, H3A 1B1, QC, Canada

21      **Abstract**

22              Soil microbes are known to be involved in a number of essential ecosystem  
23              processes such as nutrient cycling, plant productivity and the maintenance of plant  
24              species diversity. However, how plant species diversity and identity affect soil microbial  
25              diversity and community composition is largely unknown. We tested whether, over the  
26              course of 11 years, distinct soil bacterial communities developed under plant  
27              monocultures and mixtures, and if over this timeframe plants with a monoculture or  
28              mixture history changed in the microbial communities they associated with. For eight  
29              species, we grew offspring of plants that had been grown for 11 years in the same  
30              monocultures or mixtures (monoculture- or mixture-type plants) in pots inoculated with  
31              microbes extracted from the monoculture and mixture soils. After five months of growth  
32              in the glasshouse, we collected rhizosphere soil from each plant and used 16S-rRNA gene  
33              sequencing to determine the community composition and diversity of the bacterial  
34              communities. Microbial community structure in the plant rhizosphere was primarily  
35              determined by soil legacy (monoculture vs. mixture soil) and by plant species identity,  
36              but not by plant legacy (monoculture- vs. mixture-type plants). In seven out of the eight  
37              plant species bacterial abundance was larger when inoculated with microbes from  
38              mixture soil. We conclude that plant diversity can strongly affect belowground  
39              community composition and diversity, feeding back to the assemblage of rhizosphere  
40              microbial communities in newly establishing plants. Thereby our work demonstrates that  
41              concerns for plant biodiversity loss are also concerns for soil biodiversity loss.

42

43 **1 | INTRODUCTION**

44 Soil microbes play an essential role in a number of ecosystem processes including  
45 decomposition, nutrient cycling, plant productivity and the maintenance of plant species  
46 diversity (Ahemad & Kibret, 2014; Bever, Mangan, & Alexander, 2015; Wagg, Bender,  
47 Widmer, & van der Heijden, 2014). Loss of soil biodiversity reduces ecosystem  
48 functioning as trophic networks collapse (Gosling, Hodge, Goodlass, & Bending, 2006;  
49 Wagg et al., 2014) and plants are increasingly exposed to specialized soil-borne  
50 pathogens from which they are normally protected by the large biodiversity of other soil  
51 organisms (Ahemad & Kibret, 2014; Eisenhauer, Reich, & Scheu, 2012; van der Putten et  
52 al., 2013). The role of potential feedbacks of plant diversity on soil diversity and  
53 rhizosphere community assemblages, however, is largely unexplored (Dassen et al.,  
54 2017).

55 Soil microbes form tight associations with plants (Bulgarelli, Schlaepi, Spaepen,  
56 van Themaat, & Schulze-Lefert, 2013) and key mutualistic to antagonistic interactions  
57 between plants and soil biota take place in the rhizosphere, defined by a narrow zone of  
58 soil surrounding plant roots (Whipps, 2001). The composition of microbial communities  
59 in the rhizosphere is mostly determined by local biotic and abiotic conditions (van der  
60 Putten et al., 2013), of which the composition of the local plant community may  
61 contribute to shaping these conditions (Bardgett & Wardle, 2003). Plants can initiate  
62 large compositional changes in rhizosphere microbiomes (Dakora & Phillips, 2002; Latz,  
63 Eisenhauer, Rall, Scheu, & Jousset, 2016) and the conditions in the rhizosphere can vary  
64 strongly between plant species (Berg & Smalla, 2009; Eisenhauer et al., 2017; Latz et al.,  
65 2016). Considering the unique influence of different plant species on shaping the soil

66 microbiome the loss of plant species likely results in a loss soil microbial biodiversity  
67 (Broughton & Gross, 2000; Garbeva, Postma, van Veen, & van Elsas, 2006; Hooper et  
68 al., 2000; Schlatter, Bakker, Bradeen, & Kinkel, 2015). However, it is unclear to which  
69 extent plant species richness, or plant species identity, affect soil microbial diversity and  
70 composition. A recent study suggests that the role of differences between plant functional  
71 types may be larger than that of plant species richness *per se* on the composition of the  
72 soil microbiome (Dassen et al., 2017). In addition, higher plant diversity often increases  
73 plant aboveground biomass (Balvanera et al., 2006; Reich et al., 2012) that can sustain a  
74 larger amount of soil bacteria and fungi (De Deyn, Quirk, & Bardgett, 2011).

75 Consequences of reduced plant biodiversity for soil biodiversity can be studied in  
76 long-term biodiversity experiments (Eisenhauer et al., 2011; Roscher et al., 2013; Tilman,  
77 Reich, & Knops, 2006; Zuppinger-Dingley, Flynn, De Deyn, Petermann, & Schmid,  
78 2016). These experiments can also be used as selection experiments (Cardinale et al.,  
79 2012; Eisenhauer et al., 2016). Over time, different selection pressures in experimental  
80 monocultures vs. mixtures can result in pools of plant genotypes adapted to monocultures  
81 vs. mixtures (van Moorsel et al., 2018; Zuppinger-Dingley et al., 2014; Zuppinger-  
82 Dingley, Flynn, Brandl, & Schmid, 2015; Zuppinger-Dingley et al., 2016). Here we refer  
83 to the monoculture- and mixture-selected plant genotypes as monoculture- and mixture-  
84 type plants, respectively. The formation of such plant sub-types may occur via a sorting-  
85 out from standing genetic variation (Fakheran et al., 2010). Monoculture- and mixture-  
86 type plants have been shown to be distinguishable from each other after 8–11 years of  
87 selection based on plant performance and functional trait variation (van Moorsel, Schmid,  
88 Hahl, Zuppinger-Dingley, & Schmid, 2018; Zuppinger-Dingley et al., 2014). In addition,

89 Zuppinger-Dingley et al. (2016) found that after eight years of co-development of plant  
90 and soil communities, feedbacks of microbes from monoculture soil were positive for  
91 monoculture-type plants, but negative for mixture-type plants of the same species. The  
92 authors suggested that an accumulation of specialized pathogens in monocultures, and  
93 their dilution in mixtures, could create differential selection pressures on plants  
94 (Zuppinger-Dingley et al., 2016). These studies, however, were unable to investigate the  
95 community composition of soil microbes and how they may respond to plant diversity.

96 Here we ask whether differences in plant species diversity and differences in plant  
97 history can alter soil microbial communities colonizing the rhizosphere of different plant  
98 species, resulting in a legacy effect on the plant species rhizosphere microbiome  
99 associations. We tested whether, over the course of 11 years, i) distinct soil microbial  
100 communities developed under plant monocultures (monoculture soil) and mixtures  
101 (mixture soil) and ii) plant history (monoculture- vs. mixture-type plants) alters the  
102 assembly of rhizosphere communities in a large field biodiversity experiment in Jena,  
103 Germany (the Jena Experiment, Roscher et al., 2004). We grew monoculture- or mixture-  
104 type plants of eight species belonging to four different functional groups as single  
105 individuals in pots inoculated with microbes extracted from the monoculture and mixture  
106 soils. We assessed the influence of soil legacy (monoculture vs. mixture soil), plant  
107 species identity and plant legacy (monoculture- vs. mixture-type plants) on the  
108 composition of the soil microbiome in the rhizosphere of the potted test plants. We  
109 hypothesize (i) that microbiomes obtained from mixture soil are more diverse and differ  
110 in composition from microbiomes obtained from monoculture soil. Furthermore, we  
111 expect (ii) that plant species differ in their microbiomes. Finally, we hypothesize (iii) that

112 monoculture- and mixture-type plants obtain different microbiomes when inoculated with  
113 microbes from the same soil if plant-soil microbiome associations have been co-selected  
114 through their shared history under field conditions. We used 16S-rRNA gene sequencing  
115 to determine the community structure and diversity of the bacterial communities. Because  
116 16S amplicon read frequencies cannot be used to compare abundances between species  
117 (Edgar 2017), we did not analyze variation in abundance-weighted diversity metrics such  
118 as evenness, dominance or Shannon diversity (Magurran 2004). Instead, to characterize  
119 the overall impact of soil legacy, plant species identity and plant legacy on the  
120 community structure of rhizosphere bacteria, we analyzed the variation in the total  
121 number of detected operational taxonomic units (OTUs) and the variation in abundances  
122 within bacterial OTUs across treatments.

## 123 **2 | METHODS**

### 124 **2.1 | Plant species**

125 We used eight common European grassland plant species previously classified into  
126 different functional groups (Roscher et al., 2004): one grass (*Festuca rubra* L.), three  
127 small herbs (*Plantago lanceolata* L., *Prunella vulgaris* L., and *Veronica chamaedrys* L.),  
128 two tall herbs (*Galium mollugo* L. and *Geranium pratense* L.) and two legumes (*Lathyrus*  
129 *pratensis* L. and *Onobrychis viciifolia* Skop.). The studied species had undergone 11  
130 years of selection in either plant monocultures (monoculture-type plants) or species  
131 mixtures (mixture-type plants) from 2002–2014 (see Fig. 1).

### 132 **2.2 | Producing plants and soils with monoculture vs. mixture legacy**

133 Plant communities of 48 plots (12 monocultures, 12 two-species mixtures, 12 four-  
134 species mixtures and 12 eight-species mixtures) of a field biodiversity experiment in

135 Jena, Germany (the Jena Experiment, see Roscher et al., 2004), were collected as cuttings  
136 in spring 2010, after eight years of growth in their respective plant communities. These  
137 cuttings were transplanted in identical plant composition to an experimental garden in  
138 Zurich, Switzerland, for the first controlled sexual reproduction among “co-selected”  
139 plants (for details see Zuppinger-Dingley et al., 2014). In addition, the top 30 cm of soil  
140 of the 48 plots was pooled, mixed and returned to the excavated locations in the Jena  
141 Experiment. In spring 2011, the seedlings produced from the seeds of the first controlled  
142 sexual reproduction were transplanted back to this mixed soil in the same plots of the  
143 Jena Experiment from where the parents had originally been collected and in the same  
144 community composition as the parents had been established. These plant communities  
145 were maintained for three years until 2014 to allow them to become associated again with  
146 their own microbial communities and continue the selection treatments in their respective  
147 communities (Fig. 1, upper part).

148 In March 2014, plant communities including rhizosphere soil of the re-established  
149 plots in the Jena Experiment were transplanted to plots in the experimental garden in  
150 Zurich for the second controlled sexual reproduction. The plots had been filled with 30  
151 cm of soil (1:1 mixture of garden compost and agricultural soil, pH 7.4, Gartenhumus,  
152 RICOTER Erdaufbereitung AG, Aarberg, Switzerland) and fenced with netting to  
153 minimize cross-pollination with plants outside the plots. Seeds of monoculture-type  
154 plants were collected from monoculture plots and seeds of mixture-type plants from four-  
155 or eight-species mixture plots of 1 x 1 m in the experimental garden. After collection, the  
156 seeds of the eight plant species were stored at +4° C for at least two months. This plant  
157 material was then used in the pot experiment in the glasshouse described below.

158      **2.3 | Soil inoculum preparation**

159      In March 2014, rhizosphere soil samples attached to the roots of the plants that we  
160      transported to Zurich for the second sexual reproduction were collected and stored at 4°  
161      C. The monoculture soils came from the eight plant monoculture plots and the mixture  
162      soils came from seven different eight-species plant mixture plots (one for each species  
163      except for *G. mollugo* and *O. viciifolia* whose rhizosphere soil samples came from the  
164      same mixture plot) in the Jena Experiment. Microbial communities of the sampled  
165      rhizosphere soil were isolated and propagated and subsequently used in the pot  
166      experiment in the glasshouse. To isolate the microbial communities, we produced a  
167      microbial wash by passing 500 ml of deionized water and 25 g of rhizosphere soil  
168      through a series of sieves with the smallest mesh size of 25 µm (Koide & Li, 1989, Wagg  
169      et al., 2014). To propagate the isolated microbes, we established trap cultures in two  
170      replicates for the eight plant species but using seeds without the above-mentioned  
171      legacies (seeds from Rieger-Hofmann GmbH, Blaufelden-Raboldshausen, Germany).  
172      The trap cultures consisted of 2 L pots filled with an autoclaved (120° C for 99 min)  
173      sand-soil mixture (4:1) and planted with several trap plant individuals (surface-sterilized  
174      seeds pre-germinated on 1 % water-agar) per species and pot (Fig. 1). At the same time as  
175      the planting each trap culture received 250 ml of microbial wash. After five months of  
176      growth in the glasshouse we pooled the soils of the replicated trap cultures per plant  
177      species and soil legacy (monoculture or mixture soil). Trap plant roots were cut into 3–5  
178      cm fragments and used together with the soil as inoculum in the pot experiment as  
179      described below.

180 **2.4 | Setup of the pot experiment in the glasshouse**

181 We filled 1-L pots with 5.6 dl of gamma-radiated (27–53 kGy) 1:1 (w/w) sand/soil  
182 mixture (RICOTER Erdaufbereitung AG) and added 0.8 dl inoculum from three sources  
183 (see Fig. 1). The soil-legacy treatments were thus a) control (no live inoculum), b)  
184 microbes isolated from soil under plant monocultures (monoculture soil) and c) microbes  
185 isolated from soil under plant mixtures (mixture soil). Inoculum was prepared in the  
186 following way: first, monoculture-soil treatments (b) received 0.8 dl of live inoculum  
187 from trap cultures of monoculture soil and mixture-soil treatments (c) received 0.8 dl of  
188 live inoculum from trap cultures of mixture soil. Second, monoculture-soil treatments (b)  
189 received 0.8 dl of autoclaved (99 min at 120° C) inoculum from trap cultures of mixture  
190 soil, mixture-soil treatments received 0.8 dl of autoclaved (99 min at 120° C) inoculum  
191 from cultures of monoculture soil and control soil treatments (a) received both of these  
192 autoclaved inocula. Third, we added 0.8 dl of autoclaved field soil (99 min at 120° C; this  
193 was for comparison with a forth treatment, which differed from the control by receiving  
194 live field soil but which is not included in the analyses presented here, see Hahl, (2017)  
195 and 1 dl of the gamma-radiated sand-soil mixture to avoid cross-contamination of the live  
196 soil inocula between pots.

197 Seeds were surface-sterilized and germinated for two to four weeks (depending on  
198 pre-tested germination times of each species) prior to the pot experiment on 1 % water-  
199 agar. One pre-germinated monoculture- or mixture-type plant seedling of one of the eight  
200 test species was planted in each pot. The experiment included in total three soil-legacy  
201 treatments (monoculture and mixture soil and control), eight plant species and two plant-  
202 legacy treatments (monoculture- and mixture-type plants). The design of the experiment

203 was a full 3 x 8 x 2 factorial. Each treatment combination was replicated seven times  
204 resulting in 336 pots which we randomly arranged within seven experimental blocks in the  
205 glasshouse. After 19–23 weeks of plant growth, we collected rhizosphere soil samples  
206 from each pot containing a live plant and stored the samples at –80° C.

207 **2.5 | Library preparation and sequencing**

208 DNA was isolated from 500 mg of rhizosphere soil using the FastDNA SPIN Kit  
209 for Soil (MP Biomedicals, Illkirch-Graffenstaden, France) following the manufacturer's  
210 instructions. Samples from a subset of 150 plants were chosen for the molecular analyses  
211 (Table S1). We carried out targeted PCR in duplicates to amplify the variable region V4  
212 of the prokaryotic ribosomal RNA gene using primers 515f  
213 (GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA) combined with 5' Illumina adapter, forward primer  
214 pad, and forward primer linker and barcoded 806r (GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT)  
215 combined with Illumina 3' adapter, Golay barcode, reverse primer pad, and reverse  
216 primer linker (Table S2, Bates et al., 2011). The PCR conditions for the amplification of  
217 the V4 region consisted of an initial denaturation at 94° C for 3 min, 30 cycles of  
218 denaturation at 94° C for 30 s, an annealing at 50° C for 30 s, and an elongation at 72° C  
219 for 1 min followed by a final elongation at 72° C for 10 min. The PCR products were  
220 purified using Agencourt AMPure XP magnetic beads (Beckman Coulter, Brea, USA).  
221 The amplicon concentrations were measured with the Fragment Analyzer and the  
222 Standard Sensitivity NGS Fragment Analysis kit (Advanced Analytical Technologies,  
223 Inc., Heidelberg, Germany). 60 ng of each sample were pooled and paired-end sequenced  
224 (2 x 300 bp) on the Illumina MiSeq 300 system (Beijing Genomics Institute, Beijing,  
225 China). Short-reads were deposited at SRA (accession number SRP105254).

226 **2.6 | Identification and annotation of OTUs**

227 Operational taxonomic units (OTUs) were generated with UPARSE (version  
228 8.1.1861, Edgar, 2013) following the example and the tutorial given for paired-end  
229 Illumina data (drive5.com/uparse/). Reads were first quality-checked with FastQC  
230 (bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc). Following removal of primer sequences  
231 (Table S2) and low-quality bases with Trimmomatic (version 0.33 with the parameters  
232 ILLUMINACLIP:primerSeqs:2:30:10:8:1 SLIDINGWINDOW:5:15 MINLEN:100,  
233 (Bolger, Lohse, & Usadel, 2014)), paired-end reads were merged and filtered using  
234 usearch (with the parameters -fastq\_maxdiffs 25 -fastq\_maxdiffpct 10 for merging and -  
235 fastq\_trunclen 250 -fastq\_maxee 0.25 for filtering, Edgar, 2013). Duplicated sequences  
236 were then removed with fqtrim (version 0.9.4, Pertea, 2009). The remaining sequences  
237 were clustered with usearch (with the parameter -minsize 2, Edgar, 2013, 2017) to obtain  
238 10'205 OTU sequences (Supplemental File S1). OTU sequences were annotated with the  
239 taxonomy data from SILVA (Quast et al., 2013) using SINA with a minimal similarity of  
240 90 % and the 10 nearest neighbors (www.arb-silva.de/aligner, Yilmaz et al., 2014, Table  
241 S3). OTU abundances were finally obtained by counting the number of sequences  
242 (merged and filtered) matching to the OTU sequences (usearch with the parameters -  
243 usearch\_global -strand plus -id 0.97, Edgar, 2013, Table S4). Three samples (Sample77,  
244 Sample265, and Sample364) were removed from all further analysis because they had  
245 very low counts (6, 12, and 1 counts in total). OTUs annotated as chloroplast were  
246 removed to avoid a potential bias caused by plant DNA. To avoid sequencing artifacts,  
247 OTU sequences with less than 50 counts in total or with counts in less than five samples  
248 were removed from all further analyses (4'339 OTUs remained after this filter).

249 **2.7 | Data normalization and identification of differentially abundant OTUs**

250 Variation in OTU relative abundance was analyzed with a generalized linear model  
251 in R with the package DESeq2 (version 1.14.1, Love, Huber, & Anders, 2014) according  
252 to the factorial design with the three explanatory factors soil legacy (control, monoculture  
253 soil and mixture soil), plant species identity (*F. rubra*, *G. mollugo*, *G. pratense*, *L.  
254 pratensis*, *O. viciifolia*, *P. lanceolata*, *P. vulgaris*, and *V. chamaedrys*) and plant legacy  
255 (monoculture- and mixture-type plants). All individual factor combinations were coded as  
256 a unique level of a combined single factor (Table S1). Specific conditions were then  
257 compared with linear contrasts (Neter & Wassermann 1974). The four main contrasts  
258 compared (1) the two different plant legacies, (2) the control soil and the microbial soils,  
259 (3) the two different soil legacies of the microbial soils, and (4) each plant species to all  
260 other plant species. To test for interactions, each contrast was tested across the entire data  
261 set and within the individual soil-legacy treatments or different plant species. Contrasts  
262 (2), (3), and (4) were not tested separately within the two plant-legacy treatments because  
263 these only had weak effects on the composition of the microbiomes. Within each  
264 comparison, *P*-values were adjusted for multiple testing (Benjamini-Hochberg), and  
265 OTUs with an adjusted *P*-value (false discovery rate, FDR) below 0.01 and a minimal  
266 log2 fold-change (i.e., the difference between the log2 transformed, normalized OTU  
267 counts) of 1 were considered to be differentially abundant (Table S5). Normalized OTU  
268 counts were calculated accordingly with DESeq2 and log2(x+1)-transformed to obtain  
269 the normalized OTU abundances. Sequencing data were not rarefied (McMurdie &  
270 Holmes, 2014).

271 **2.8 | Enrichment and depletion of microbial phyla**

272 To test for enrichment/depletion of microbial phyla occurrences in a given set of  
273 OTUs (e.g., OTUs with significant difference in abundance between monoculture and  
274 mixture soils), we constructed for each phylum a contingency table with the  
275 within/outside phyla counts for the given set of OTUs and all OTUs passing the filter. We  
276 then tested for significance with Fisher's exact test. *P*-values were adjusted for multiple  
277 testing (Benjamini-Hochberg), and phyla with an adjusted *P*-value (false discovery rate,  
278 FDR) below 0.05 were considered to be significantly enriched/depleted (Table S7).

279 **3 | RESULTS**

280 Amplification of 16S rRNA gene fragments yielded an initial set of 10'205  
281 operational taxonomic units (OTUs, Supplemental File S1, Tables S3 and S4). After  
282 removing OTUs with similarity to chloroplast sequences (87 OTUs) and low-abundance  
283 OTUs (5'780 OTUs), 4'339 OTUs remained. Of these, 3'975 and 41 were classified as  
284 bacteria and archaea, respectively (194 remained unclassified). Within the bacterial  
285 domain, the ten most abundant phyla accounted for 86.7 % of all OTUs (Table S6); they  
286 were *Proteobacteria* (35.4 %), *Bacteroidetes* (10.5 %), *Planctomycetes* (8.9 %),  
287 *Chloroflexi* (7.1 %), *Actinobacteria* (4.7 %), *Verrucomicrobia* (4.7 %), *Acidobacteria*  
288 (4.5 %), *Gemmatimonadetes* (4.3 %), *Parcubacteria* (3.3 %) and *Firmicutes* (3.2 %).

289 To evaluate the overall differences between the microbiomes of the different soil  
290 legacies, plant species and plant legacies, we conducted a redundancy analysis (RDA,  
291 Oksanen et al., 2017) using the normalized OTU abundances as response variables and  
292 the treatment factors with all interactions as explanatory terms (Fig. 2). The two first

293 RDA axes explained 17.4 % of the overall variance and separated the control soil from  
294 the monoculture and mixture soils. An exception was “Sample492”, which grouped  
295 among the samples from the control soil, even though it came from a microbial soil (see  
296 Fig. 2). This sample was therefore removed as outlier from all subsequent analyses.  
297 Nonetheless, the result clearly indicated that soils with live inocula had rhizosphere  
298 communities that were clearly distinct from the rhizosphere communities that developed  
299 in control soil.

300 To characterize the overall impact of the treatment factors on microbial diversity,  
301 we analyzed the variation in OTU richness among the different treatments (Fig. 3, Table  
302 1). Microbial richness was always higher in the microbial soils than in the control soil,  
303 but differences in richness between monoculture and mixture soils were not significant.  
304 However, the interactions of these two contrasts with plant species identity were both  
305 significant. This indicates that the overall microbial community diversity was primarily  
306 determined by the combination of soil-legacy treatments and plant species identity.

307 To identify the OTUs that contributed to the differences in the microbial  
308 communities, we tested each OTU for differential abundance between the different soil  
309 legacies, plant species identities and plant legacies. We therefore combined the three  
310 experimental treatments into a single factor and compared specific conditions with linear  
311 contrasts (see Methods for details). Out of the 4'339 OTUs tested, 2'091 showed one or  
312 several significant comparisons (Table 2). Comparisons between the different soil-legacy  
313 treatments were often significant (e.g., 972 OTUs were different between the control soil  
314 and the microbial soils). Likewise, contrasts comparing each plant species to all other  
315 plant species were frequently significant (e.g., 498 OTUs were different between *F. rubra*

316 and all other plant species). In agreement with the significant interaction between soil-  
317 legacy treatments and plant species identities in the analysis of microbial richness, the  
318 number and identity of the OTUs identified as significantly differentially abundant  
319 between soil-legacy treatments or among plant species identities varied if they were  
320 tested within a given plant species or soil-legacy treatment, respectively (Fig. 4, Fig. S1  
321 and S2). The contrasts comparing the two plant legacies across the entire data set, within  
322 microbial soil legacies (monoculture or mixture soil) and within plant species were  
323 almost never significant (less than 13 OTUs in every case). Taken together, these results  
324 confirmed that the composition of the rhizosphere microbiomes was determined by the  
325 microbial community developed over time in the field biodiversity experiment and its  
326 interaction with the particular plant species that provided the “root interface” in the pot  
327 experiment in the glasshouse. Overall, when looking at the microbial community  
328 composition of the normalized abundances of the 2'091 bacterial OTUs which were  
329 significant in any of the comparisons, the rhizosphere microbiomes cluster according to  
330 plant species and often also according to soil legacy, whereas plant legacies did not form  
331 any apparent clusters (Fig. 5).

332 Differences between the microbiomes from monoculture vs. mixture soils were  
333 highly specific to each particular plant species (see Fig. 4). In total, 844 OTUs were  
334 significantly differentially abundant between the two microbial soils if tested separately  
335 for each plant species. The majority of them (566 OTUs) were unique to a given plant  
336 species. Only 137 significant OTUs were identified if tested across all plant species (out  
337 of which 23 were not among the 844 with significant differences in the plant species-  
338 specific comparisons). In contrast, 73.9 % of all OTUs identified as differentially

339 abundant between the control soil and the two microbial soil-legacy treatments were also  
340 significant if tested across all plant species (972 out of 1'316 OTUs). On average per  
341 plant species, 91 OTUs were more abundant in microbiomes from mixture than from  
342 monoculture soil and 64 OTUs were more abundant in microbiomes from monoculture  
343 than from mixture soil. Except for *G. pratense*, microbiomes from mixture soil always  
344 had a higher number of OTUs with increased abundance than microbiomes from  
345 monoculture soil. This was also true if tested across all plant species, where 105 and 32  
346 OTUs exhibited increased abundance in microbiomes from mixture and monoculture soil,  
347 respectively (see Table 2). Taken together, the microbiomes from soil with a legacy of  
348 plant species mixtures were generally more diverse and contained individual OTUs with  
349 higher abundance than the microbiomes from soil with a legacy of monocultures.

350 We assessed the taxonomy of the OTUs that were significantly differentially  
351 abundant between microbiomes from monoculture and mixture soils (Fig. 4B, Table S7).  
352 OTUs with increased abundance in microbiomes from monoculture soils were enriched  
353 for *Bacteroidetes* (75 observed, 46 expected) and depleted for *Firmicutes* (1 observed, 13  
354 expected) and unknown phyla (14 observed, 36 expected). OTUs with increased  
355 abundance in microbiomes from mixture soils were enriched for *Bacteroidetes* (87  
356 observed, 60 expected) and depleted for *Firmicutes* (5 observed, 17 expected) and  
357 unknown phyla (11 observed, 47 expected); in addition, they were also depleted for  
358 *Actinobacteria* (11 observed, 26 expected).

359 **4 | DISCUSSION**

360 Here we tested the hypothesis (*i*) that microbiomes obtained from soil from plant  
361 mixtures are more diverse and differ in composition from microbiomes obtained from

362 soil from plant monocultures. Secondly, we hypothesized (*ii*) that plant species differ in  
363 their microbiomes, and finally, (*iii*) that monoculture-type plants and mixture-type plants  
364 differ in their rhizosphere microbiomes when inoculated with microbes from the same  
365 soil. Overall, we found distinct differences between control and microbial soil treatments  
366 in both microbial composition and richness thus confirming the anticipated establishment  
367 of our microbial treatments. Moreover, we were able to show that microbiomes  
368 originating from soils from plant monocultures and mixtures did differ, thereby  
369 supporting our first hypothesis (*i*), however, this was only apparent in some host plant  
370 species. This demonstrates (*ii*) that soil microbiome composition is strongly driven by the  
371 host plant species identity directly or in interaction with the soil legacy. However, we  
372 found almost no significant differences between microbiomes of monoculture- vs.  
373 mixture-type plants, even when testing for interactions with host plant species identity or  
374 with soil-legacy treatment and plant species. This provides little support for our  
375 hypothesis (*iii*) that plants and their soil microbiome have been co-selected. However, it  
376 is also possible that co-selection of microbes occurred at a taxonomic level for which the  
377 resolution of 16S rRNA sequencing is too low (e.g., if plants selected different strains of  
378 the same microbial species).

379 Taken together our findings demonstrate the composition of the soil microbiome is  
380 shaped by the environment from which they originated in which plant diversity legacy  
381 effects play a significant role, and by the identity of the host plant species with which  
382 they associate during plant growth.

383

384 *Effects of microbiome legacy*

385 It is important to note that the mixture and monoculture soil inocula included  
386 microbial filtrates from eight different plant monoculture plots and seven different eight-  
387 species plant mixture plots (one for each species except for *G. mollugo* and *O. viciifolia*  
388 whose rhizosphere soil samples came from the same mixture plot) in the Jena  
389 Experiment. To a certain extent, the average monoculture soil thus represents a mixture  
390 influenced by eight plant species. Likewise, the average mixture soil represents a mixture  
391 influenced by seven different plant communities (36 plant species in total). The overall  
392 comparison between monoculture and mixture soil across all plant species thus resembles  
393 a comparison of soil influenced by eight plant species compared to 36 plant species  
394 (without considering the potential effects of plant diversity on each individual soil sample  
395 from the Jena Experiment). The effect of soil legacy on the microbial diversity may  
396 therefore be better understood when comparisons are made within each plant species.

397

398 *Factors affecting microbiome diversity*

399 Indeed, differences in bacterial OTU richness between microbiomes from  
400 monoculture and mixture soil varied among the eight plant species (see Fig. 3B and Table  
401 1). Considering that plant species identity was confounded with species composition of  
402 plant mixtures in the Jena Experiment, it is possible that in part these differences were  
403 due to key plant species being present or absent in these plant mixtures in the Jena  
404 Experiment. However, a more diverse plant community always has a higher chance to  
405 contain some particular species. In this sense, the presence of a key species may also be  
406 considered as a biodiversity effect, sometimes referred to as “selection probability effect”  
407 (Niklaus, Baruffol, He, Ma, & Schmid, 2017). Only three of the eight studied plant

408 species showed clearly increased bacterial richness in microbiomes from mixture than  
409 from monoculture soil when the total numbers of detected OTUs were analysed.

410 However, bacterial richness is unlikely a robust measure to compare different  
411 conditions because it does not take into account the sequencing depth and more  
412 importantly, the differences between bacterial abundances. Compared to species  
413 abundances of larger organisms (e.g. flowering plants), abundances of bacterial species  
414 are estimated less reliably because sequencing of 16S rRNA provides only an indirect  
415 abundance estimate, which can be influenced by numerous technical factors. Also,  
416 bacterial abundance can vary much more than abundances of larger organisms. For  
417 example, using the normalized read counts as a proxy for abundance, the “abundance” of  
418 all OTUs in the data presented ranged from 0 to 17'420. Likewise, the differences in  
419 abundance between conditions reached up to a log2-fold change of 9.72 (a factor of 843  
420 on linear scale). Finally, read counts may originate from leftover DNA in the soil instead  
421 of living bacteria. Thus, choosing a particular threshold to define presence/absence of a  
422 bacterial species may result in different interpretations. Furthermore, different thresholds  
423 may be appropriate to indicate presence/abundance in different OTUs (Edgar 2017). To  
424 overcome these limitations of bacterial species richness based on presence/absence data,  
425 we focused on the results of the analysis of differential abundances of given bacterial  
426 OTUS.

427

428 *Factors affecting microbiome abundance*

429 When we compared OTU abundances between the microbiomes from mixture and  
430 from monoculture soils, the number of OTUs with increased abundance in mixture soil

431 was higher in all plant species with the exception of *G. pratense* (see Fig. 4 and Table 2).  
432 These results are in line with previous studies reporting a positive correlation between  
433 plant diversity and soil bacterial abundances (Eisenhauer et al., 2017; Stephan, Meyer, &  
434 Schmid, 2000), or generally soil microbial abundances (Eisenhauer et al., 2013; Thakur et  
435 al., 2015). Studies examining the correlation of plant species diversity and soil bacterial  
436 richness showed positive correlations (Garbeva et al., 2006; Stephan et al., 2000),  
437 negative correlations (Schlatter et al., 2015) or no correlation (Dassen et al., 2017).  
438 Because the habitats and resources in the rhizosphere tend to vary between different plant  
439 species (Berg & Smalla, 2009; Eisenhauer et al., 2017; Hooper et al., 2000), increasing  
440 plant species diversity could provide larger variety of resources and habitats for microbes  
441 and thereby explain the higher bacterial abundances of several taxa and higher total  
442 richness of microbiomes from mixture than from monoculture soil observed here.  
443 Additionally, the clear differences in bacterial composition between the microbiomes  
444 from the two soil legacies and the weak influence of plant legacies in the eight plant  
445 species (see Fig. 5) indicate that the differences in bacterial abundance and richness did  
446 not develop much during the five months of the pot experiment in the glasshouse, but  
447 were primarily determined by the 11 (=8+3) years of co-development between plants and  
448 soil microbial communities in the field plots of the Jena Experiment.  
449 Only in the tall herb *G. pratense* bacterial abundance and richness was larger in  
450 microbiomes from monoculture than from mixture soil. One explanation could be the  
451 selection history of *G. pratense*. Whereas all the other species grew in mixed-species  
452 field plots with herbs and grasses, legumes or both, *G. pratense* was growing in a mono-  
453 functional group mixture (eight species of tall herbs) in the Jena Experiment. This may

454 have resulted in a more monoculture-like selective environment for the associated  
455 microbes. For the other plant species growing in species mixtures with more than one  
456 functional group, bacterial abundance and richness were consequently larger for  
457 microbiomes from mixture than from monoculture soil. Plant functional groups have  
458 been shown to influence bacterial abundance (Stephan *et al.*, 2000; Bartelt-Ryser *et al.*,  
459 2005; Latz *et al.*, 2012, 2016; Lange *et al.*, 2014) and richness (Stephan *et al.*, 2000;  
460 Dassen *et al.*, 2017) in soil. In the last study, Dassen *et al.* (2017), suggested that plant  
461 functional groups are more important determinants of bacterial richness than plant  
462 species. Taken together, our results suggest that bacterial abundance and richness in the  
463 rhizosphere generally increase with increasing plant species diversity to the extent that  
464 this feeds back to newly establishing plants, but that they are also positively influenced  
465 by plant functional diversity.

466 **5 | CONCLUSIONS**

467 Our results suggest that plant diversity generally increased the diversity of soil  
468 bacteria in the rhizospheres of eight plant species. The exception of *G. pratense* suggests  
469 that this effect can also depend on the identity of the host plant species. These findings  
470 support our hypothesis that when plants and soil microbial communities are allowed to  
471 develop together for prolonged time periods in plant monocultures and mixtures in the  
472 field, the diversity and composition of bacterial communities subsequently associated  
473 with plant roots can diverge. High biodiversity both above- and belowground may  
474 provide an important insurance for plant biomass production in the long term.  
475 Furthermore, these results emphasize that concerns about plant biodiversity loss that may

476 also have cascading effects on to soil biodiversity loss and functioning of terrestrial  
477 ecosystem processes.

478

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#### 489 **DATA ACCESSIBILITY**

490 Short-reads were deposited at SRA (accession number SRP105254). Supplementary  
491 tables and files are accessible on <https://dx.doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1044377>.

#### 492 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION**

493 T.H., C.W. and B.M. designed the study. T.H. and S.J.V.M. carried out the experiment.  
494 T.H. performed the DNA extraction and sequencing preparation. M.W.S. processed the  
495 sequencing data and performed data analysis. The paper was written by S.J.V.M, M.W.S.  
496 and T.H. with all authors contributing to the final version.

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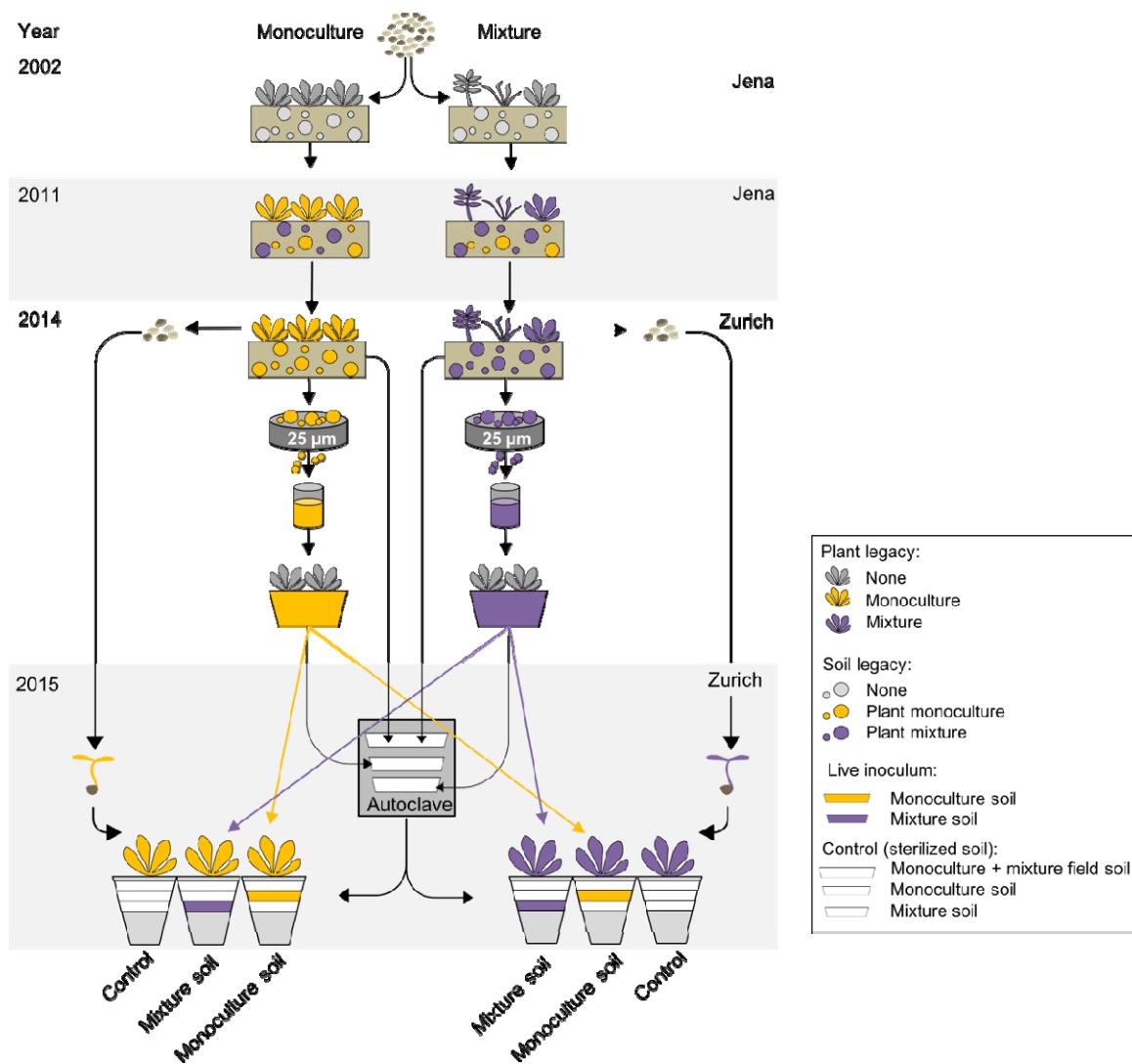
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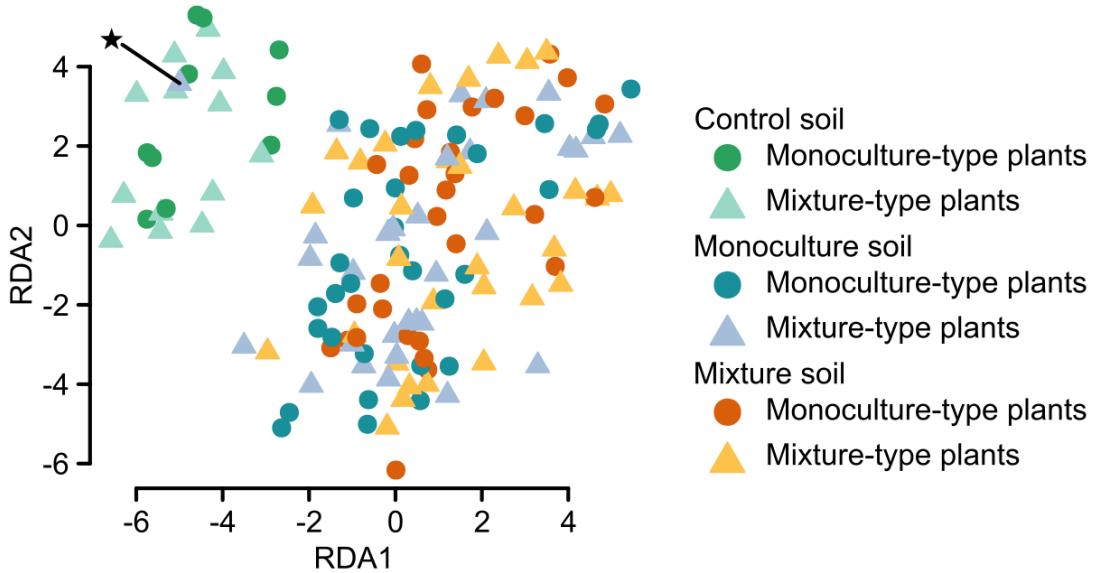
## Figures



651

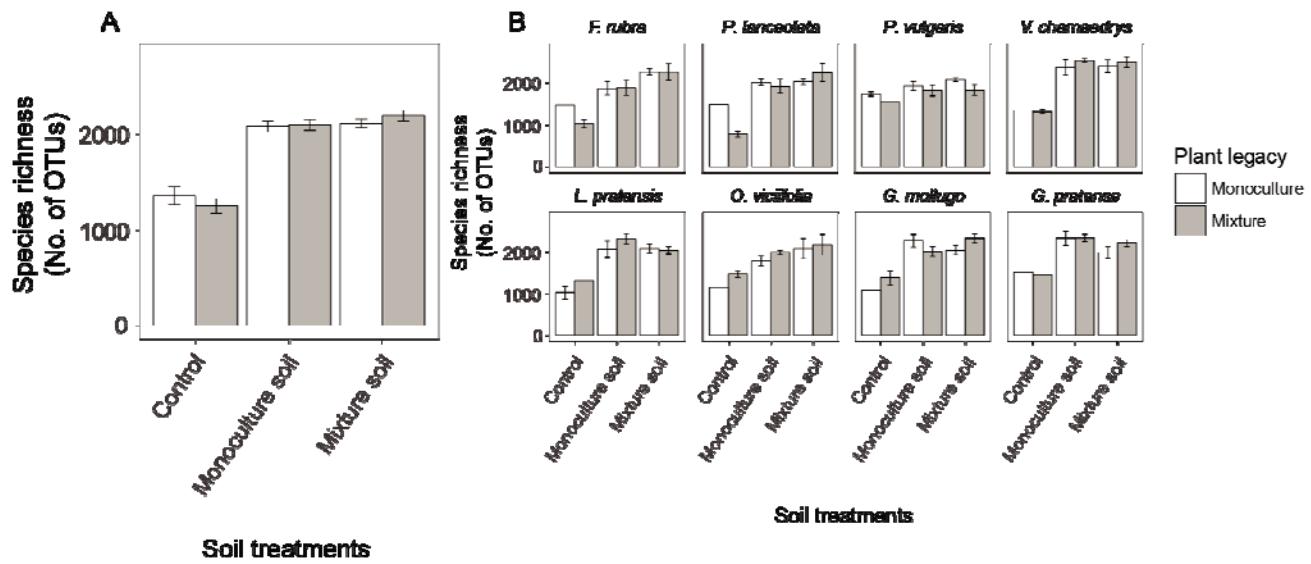
652 **Figure 1.** Experimental design. Plant monocultures and mixtures were sown in the Jena  
653 Experiment in 2002 and maintained until 2010. In 2010 the soil of the plots was pooled  
654 and placed back to the same locations. In spring 2011, plant seedlings were planted in the  
655 mixed soil in identical species composition as their parents. The soil communities were  
656 allowed to re-assemble with their original plant communities for three more years from  
657 2011–2014. In spring 2014, rhizosphere soils from eight plant species were collected and  
658 the plants were used for a second controlled seed production. Soil microorganisms  
659 smaller than 25  $\mu\text{m}$  in diameter (i.e. excluding mycorrhizal spores) were then isolated.  
660 The isolated micro-organisms were allowed to accumulate in trap-cultures for five  
661 months with neutral trap plants for each of the eight plant species. To create soil  
662 treatments for the subsequent pot experiment in the glasshouse, we filled pots with sterile  
663 soil (in grey) and added live inoculum of either microbes isolated from plants grown in  
664 monoculture (monoculture soil, indicated in yellow) or microbes isolated from plants

665 grown in mixture (mixture soil, indicated in purple). To standardize the nutrient  
666 composition between pots, we added an 0.8 dl autoclaved counterpart of the remaining  
667 inocula to each pot (indicated in white, for details see Methods and Hahl, 2017). The  
668 control soil treatment received the same amount of each inoculum, but all inocula were  
669 autoclaved. Finally, we added 1 dl of the gamma-radiated sand-soil mixture to avoid  
670 cross-contamination of the live soil inocula between pots (indicated in grey). Then a  
671 single monoculture- or mixture-type plant (drawn in yellow or purple, respectively),  
672 germinated from the seeds of second controlled seed production, was planted to each pot.  
673

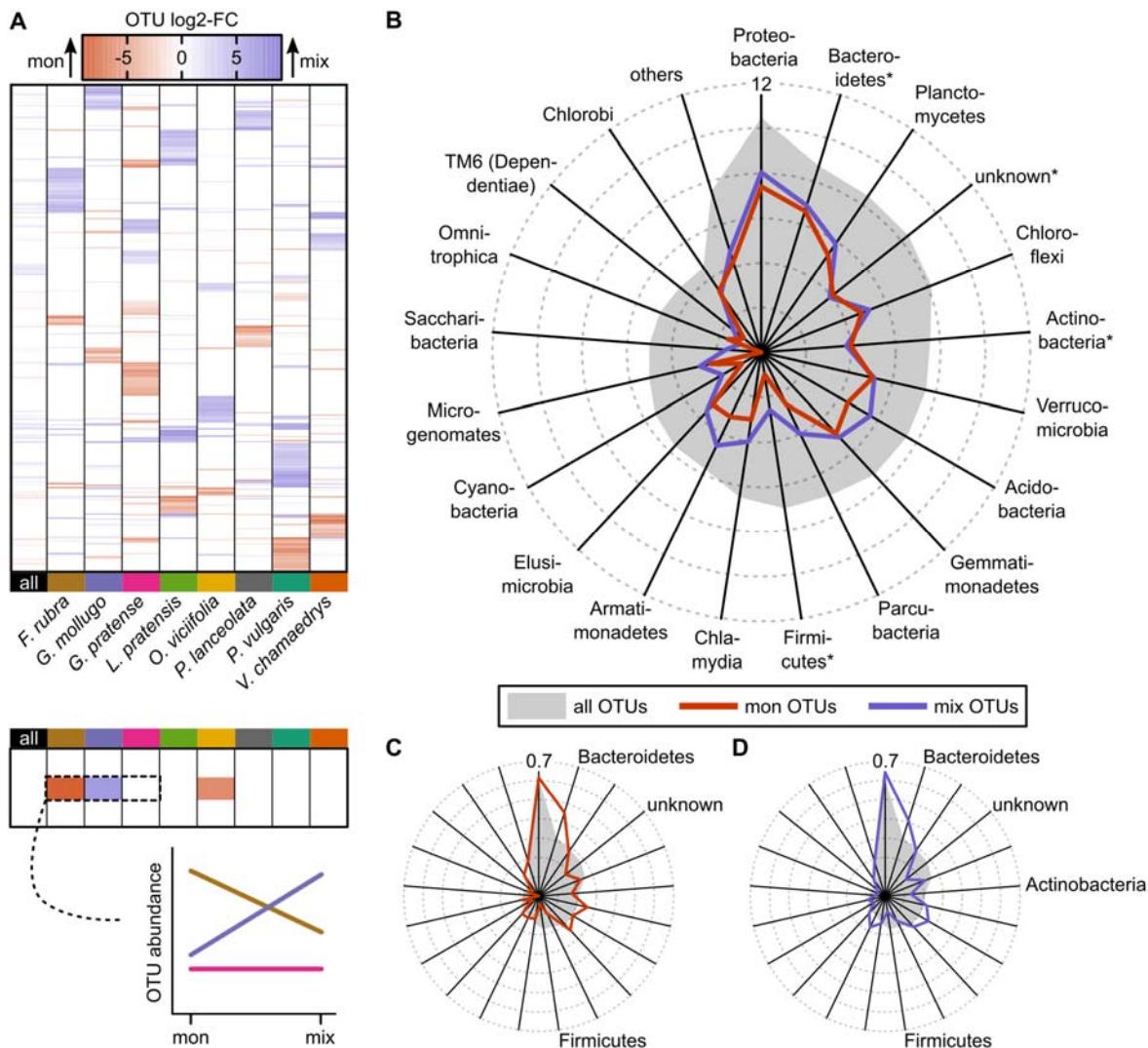


674

675 **Figure 2.** Redundancy analysis using the normalized operational taxonomic unit (OTU)  
676 abundances of all samples sequenced. The two first RDA axes explained 17.4 % of the  
677 overall variance and separated the control soil from the microbial soils. The constrained  
678 components accounted for 60 % of the total variance. The asterisk marks “Sample492”  
679 (*L. pratensis*, mixture history, monoculture soil), which clustered among the samples  
680 from the control soil. This sample was excluded as outlier from the analysis of  
681 differential OTU abundance.  
682

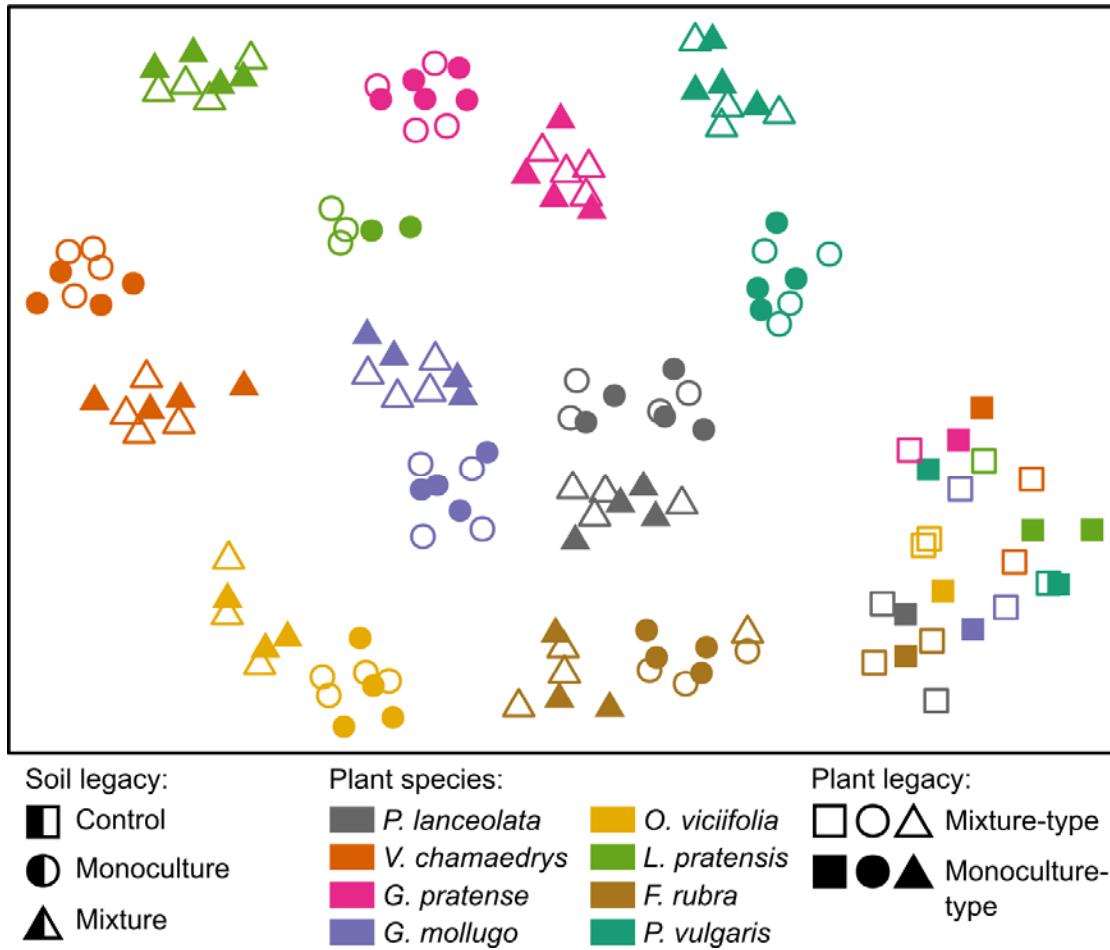


683 **Figure 3.** Microbial richness (number of OTUs) in the rhizosphere of monoculture-  
684 (white bars) and mixture-type plants (grey bars) across all plant species (A) and for each  
685 plant species separately (B). Bars represent means  $\pm$  standard error.  
686



687 **Figure 4.** OTUs with significant differences in abundance ( $\log_2\text{-FC} = \log_2$  fold-changes)  
688 between the two soil-legacy treatments monoculture (mon) and mixture soil (mix) across  
689 all eight plant species or for each plant species separately (contrast 3. in Table 2). A) Top:  
690 Heat map with differences in abundance of the significant OTUs. Each row corresponds  
691 to one OTU, each column to the contrast tested across all plant species ("all") or  
692 separately for each plant species. Red or blue corresponds to an increased abundance of  
693 an OTU in microbiomes from monoculture or mixture soils, respectively. White indicates  
694 an insignificant difference (FDR > 0.01). Bottom: The drawing illustrates how  
695 interactions between the plant species and the soil-legacy contrast can be inferred from  
696 the heat map. B) OTU frequency ( $\log_2$ -transformed) of the phyla with at least 20 OTUs  
697 in the entire data set. The remaining phyla were summarized as "others". The gray  
698 polygon represents the background-distribution (all 4'339 OTUs passing the filters  
699 described in Methods). Red and blue lines correspond to the frequencies of OTUs  
700 identified as significantly more abundant in microbiomes from monoculture (mon OTUs)  
701 and mixture soils (mix OTUs), respectively, within any of the plant species. Phyla with  
702 significant enrichment/depletion in either of these sets are marked with asterisks (two-

703       sided Fisher's exact test, adjusted for multiple testing, FDR < 0.05). C/D) Similar to B),  
704       but with OTU frequencies normalized to the total number of OTUs and arc-sin  
705       transformed. Only phyla with significant enrichment/depletion are labelled.  
706



707      **Figure 5.** t-SNE map of all samples sequenced and analyzed (excluding the outlier  
708      “Sample492”). Control soils (squares) cluster separately. Within plant species (different  
709      colors), microbiomes from monoculture soils (circles) and mixture soils (triangles) also  
710      cluster separately, however, monoculture- and mixture-type plants within species and soil  
711      treatments are associated with similar microbiomes. The map was generated using  
712      normalized abundances of OTUs identified as significantly differentially abundant within  
713      any of the contrasts tested in this study (2'091 OTUs, Table 2). Note that t-SNE  
714      projection axes are arbitrary and dimensions are therefore not shown.  
715

716      **Table 1.** Analysis of variance of microbial richness (number of OTUs). Contrasts among  
717      soil-legacy treatments and their interactions are indented and printed in italics. Significant  
718      *P*-values are highlighted in bold.

Source of variation	Df	%-SS	Species richness <i>P</i>
Soil-legacy treatment (St)	2	30.9	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
<i>Control vs. microbial soil (C)</i>	<i>1</i>	30.6	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
<i>Monoculture vs. Mixture soil (M)</i>	<i>1</i>	0.3	0.161
Species (Sp)	7	5.6	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Plant-legacy treatment (Ph)	1	0.0	0.594
St × Sp	14	5.6	<b>0.003</b>
<i>C × Sp</i>	<i>7</i>	3.2	<b>0.007</b>
<i>M × Sp</i>	<i>7</i>	2.4	<b>0.039</b>
Sp × Ph	7	1.1	0.454
St × Ph	2	0.2	0.499
<i>C × Ph</i>	<i>1</i>	0.1	0.367
<i>M × Ph</i>	<i>1</i>	0.1	0.448
St × Sp × Ph	14	2.4	0.381
<i>C × Sp × Ph</i>	<i>7</i>	1.2	0.370
<i>M × Sp × Ph</i>	<i>7</i>	1.2	0.388
Residuals	98	15.1	

719      Notes: Df, degrees of freedom; %-SS, proportion of total sum of squares; *P*, error  
720      probability

721  
722**Table 2.** The number of OTUs exhibiting significant differential abundance in any of the contrasts tested in this study (FDR <= 0.01 and abs(logFC) >= 1; see Methods).

	All	<i>F. rubra</i>	<i>G. mollugo</i>	<i>G. pratense</i>	<i>L. pratense</i>	<i>O. viciifolia</i>	<i>P. lanceolata</i>	<i>P. vulgaris</i>	<i>V. chamaedrys</i>	Total (n)
1. PH: mixture- vs monoculture-type plants	1 (0/1)	5 (4/1)	6 (5/1)	0	3 (1/2)	1 (1/0)	6 (6/0)	11 (4/7)	1 (0/1)	32
a) Within control soil	12 (6/6)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	120
b) Within monoculture soil	0	0	2 (2/0)	0	2 (1/1)	0	0	5 (0/5)	0	9
c) Within mixture soil	0	0	0	0	0	0	1 (1/0)	2 (1/1)	0	3
2. SO: control vs. microbial soils	972 (156/816)	321 (76/245)	267 (92/175)	136 (29/107)	171 (46/125)	339 (37/302)	295 (70/225)	296 (77/219)	366 (53/313)	1025
3. SO: mixture vs. monoculture soil	137 (105/32)	136 (108/28)	135 (85/50)	212 (68/144)	154 (112/42)	103 (77/26)	126 (69/57)	241 (144/97)	133 (68/65)	844
4. Plant species: one vs. all others	-	498 (192/306)	129 (84/45)	236 (167/69)	221 (162/59)	264 (148/116)	290 (133/157)	299 (118/181)	500 (422/78)	1288
a) Within control soil	-	96 (61/35)	40 (35/5)	54 (50/4)	56 (54/2)	35 (24/11)	69 (42/27)	63 (49/14)	77 (69/8)	388
b) Within monoculture soil	-	463 (182/281)	218 (146/72)	423 (290/133)	157 (101/56)	325 (194/131)	302 (178/124)	346 (173/173)	593 (497/96)	1465
c) Within mixture soil	-	346 (178/168)	223 (130/93)	286 (142/144)	393 (285/108)	281 (208/73)	337 (163/174)	402 (198/204)	454 (393/61)	1426

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725

*Note:* Numbers in parentheses refer to the number of OTUs having higher abundance in the first and the second group of the contrast, respectively. Contrasts included either all species or each species individually (columns). The contrast comparing the different plant legacies (PH) was tested across the entire data set and within the specific soil-legacy treatments. Considering that plant legacy had a

726 weak effect on the composition of the microbiomes, the other contrasts comparing the different soil-legacy treatments (SO) were only  
727 tested across the entire data set and within the individual plant species but not within the specific plant-legacy treatments. Likewise,  
728 the contrast comparing one specific plant species with all others (SP) was only tested across the entire data set and within the specific  
729 soil-legacy treatments. Because there were only three samples from the control soil per species (i.e. one with monoculture- and two  
730 with mixture-type plants or *vice versa*), the contrast 1.a) was only tested across all species

