

1 **Biotic and abiotic plant-soil feedback depends on nitrogen-acquisition**  
2 **strategy and shifts during long-term ecosystem development**

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19 **Abstract**

20 1. Feedback between plants and soil is an important driver of plant community structure, but it  
21 remains unclear whether plant-soil feedback (PSF): (i) reflects changes in biotic or abiotic  
22 properties, (ii) depends on environmental context in terms of soil nutrient availability, and (iii)  
23 varies among plant functional groups. Because soil nutrient availability strongly affects plant  
24 distribution and performance, soil chemical properties and plant nutrient-acquisition strategies  
25 might serve as important drivers of PSF.

26 2. We used soils from young and old stages of a long-term soil chronosequence to represent  
27 sites where productivity is limited by nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) availability, respectively.  
28 We grew three N-fixing and three non-N-fixing plant species in soils conditioned by co-occurring  
29 conspecific or heterospecific species from each of these two stages. In addition, three soil  
30 treatments were used to distinguish biotic and abiotic effects on plant performance, allowing  
31 measurements of overall, biotic and abiotic PSF.

32 3. In young, N-poor soils, non-N-fixing plants grew better in soils from N-fixing plants than in  
33 their own soils (i.e. negative PSF). However, this difference was not only associated with  
34 improved abiotic conditions in soils from N-fixing plants, but also with changes in soil biota.

35 4. By contrast, no significant PSF was observed for N-fixing plants grown in young soils.  
36 Moreover, we did not observe any significant PSF for either N-fixing or non-N-fixing plants  
37 growing in old, P-impoverished soils.

38 5. *Synthesis.* The direction and strength of PSF varied among N-acquisition strategies and soils  
39 differing in nutrient availability, with stronger PSF in younger, N-poor soils compared to older,  
40 P-impoverished soils. Our results highlight the importance of considering soil nutrient  
41 availability, plant-mediated abiotic and biotic soil properties, and plant nutrient-acquisition  
42 strategies when studying PSF, thereby advancing our mechanistic understanding of PSF during  
43 long-term ecosystem development.

44 **KEYWORDS**

45 chronosequence, Fabaceae, long-term ecosystem development, nutrient-acquisition strategies,  
46 plant-soil feedback, plant-soil (below-ground) interactions, plant functional traits, ecosystem  
47 retrogression

48 **1 | INTRODUCTION**

49 Plants modify both abiotic and biotic soil properties that consequently influence the performance of  
50 other conspecific or heterospecific plants, a mechanism known as ‘plant-soil feedback’ (PSF) (Bever,  
51 Westover, & Antonovics, 1997; Ehrenfeld, Ravit, & Elgersma, 2005; van der Putten et al., 2013).  
52 Negative PSF is typically associated with the accumulation of host-specific soil-borne pathogens  
53 (Bever, 2003; Klironomos, 2002; Mangan et al., 2010), and can promote species coexistence and  
54 diversity within plant communities (e.g., Bever, 2003; Bever et al., 1997; Bonanomi, Giannino, &  
55 Mazzoleni, 2005). However, negative PSF driven by pathogens might be more strongly expressed in  
56 short-term studies where soil biota are conditioned experimentally; conversely, longer-term effects  
57 of abiotic soil conditioning via leaf and root litter and root activity have received less attention  
58 (Bardgett & Wardle, 2010; Berendse, 1998). In addition, environmental conditions such as soil  
59 nutrient availability strongly affect plant performance and influence abiotic and biotic feedback  
60 processes within plant communities. However, few studies have considered the environmental  
61 context-dependency of PSF over long ecological time-scales (de Kroon et al., 2012; Kardol, de Deyn,  
62 Laliberté, Mariotte, & Hawkes, 2013; Revillini, Gehring, & Johnson, 2016; Reynolds, Packer, Bever, &  
63 Clay, 2003). Determining the relative importance of the longer-term abiotic and shorter-term biotic  
64 PSF processes and their dependence on environmental context could help us better understand  
65 plant species distributions across ecosystems and plant community responses to global change  
66 (Bardgett & Wardle, 2010; Lekberg et al., 2018; Smith-Ramesh & Reynolds, 2017; van der Putten,  
67 Bradford, Brinkman, van de Voorde, & Veen, 2016).

68 Environmental conditions are expected to influence the strength and direction of biotic and  
69 abiotic PSF (e.g., de Kroon et al., 2012; Kardol et al., 2013; Manning, Morrison, Bonkowski, &

70 Bardgett, 2008; Revillini et al., 2016; Reynolds et al., 2003). In particular, major changes in soil  
71 nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) availability during long-term ecosystem development strongly affect  
72 plant performance (Coomes, Bentley, Tanentzap, & Burrows, 2013; Laliberté et al., 2012; Vitousek,  
73 2004), and could promote certain abiotic and/or biotic feedback associated with a particular plant  
74 nutrient-acquisition strategy (Baxendale, Orwin, Poly, Pommier, & Bardgett, 2014; Lekberg et al.,  
75 2018; Revillini et al., 2016). For example, low soil N availability in the early stages of ecosystem  
76 development limits plant productivity (Laliberté et al., 2012; Vitousek & Farrington, 1997; Walker &  
77 del Moral, 2003), but favours N-fixing plants that form mutualistic associations with N-fixing  
78 microorganisms to acquire atmospheric N (Vitousek, Menge, Reed, & Cleveland, 2013; Walker,  
79 1993). Consequently, N-fixing plants are expected to generate positive effects on plant growth via  
80 abiotic PSF in young soils, by increasing soil N availability (Bellingham, Walker, & Wardle, 2001;  
81 Vitousek & Walker, 1989).

82         As soil P availability decreases with soil development due to prolonged erosion and  
83 occlusion (Turner & Laliberté, 2015; Vitousek, 2004; Walker & Syers, 1976), N-fixing plants are  
84 expected to become less favoured due to the high P costs associated with symbiotic N fixation  
85 (Hartwig, 1998; Raven, 2012). Conversely, a greater diversity of plant species possessing a variety of  
86 P-acquisition strategies is increasingly favoured as soil P availability declines (Lambers, Raven,  
87 Shaver, & Smith, 2008; Zemunik, Turner, Lambers, & Laliberté, 2015), some of which depend on  
88 specific groups of soil biota (e.g., mycorrhizal fungi; Smith, Anderson, & Smith, 2015). As such, biotic  
89 PSF mechanisms might become more prominent on weathered, severely P-impooverished soils for  
90 two reasons. First, an increasingly efficient P-acquisition strategy based on ephemeral roots with  
91 biochemical adaptations (e.g., high specific root length, root hairs, carboxylate release) could trade  
92 off against pathogen defence (Albornoz, Burgess, Lambers, Etchells, & Laliberté, 2016; Lambers et  
93 al., 2018; Newsham, Fitter, & Watkinson, 1995), potentially leading to strong pathogen-mediated  
94 negative density dependence (Laliberté, Lambers, Burgess, & Wright, 2015). On the other hand,  
95 interactions with mutualistic soil microbes, such as arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) and ectomycorrhizal

96 (ECM) root associations or plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria, may offer protection or enhance  
97 defence against pathogens (Albornoz et al., 2016; Azcón-Aguilar & Barea, 1997; Bennett et al., 2017;  
98 Laliberté et al., 2015; Lambers et al., 2018; Smith & Read, 2008). However, it remains unclear how  
99 the net effect of pathogens and mutualists affect N-fixing and non-N-fixing plants in a manner that  
100 influences PSF interactions in weathered, severely P-impooverished soils.

101 Well-defined, long-term soil chronosequences forming natural nutrient-availability gradients  
102 provide useful model systems to explore how abiotic and biotic PSF mechanisms of plant  
103 communities respond to shifts in environmental context over a longer time-scale (Kardol et al., 2013;  
104 Laliberté et al., 2013; Lekberg et al., 2018; Walker, Wardle, Bardgett, & Clarkson, 2010). In this study,  
105 the environmental context of interest is soil nutrient availability, particularly of N and P. The  
106 declining soil fertility and contrasting shifts in soil nutrient limitation of plant growth - from N to P  
107 limitation with soil age (Laliberté et al., 2012; Vitousek & Farrington, 1997; Walker & Syers, 1976) -  
108 along long-term soil chronosequences influence the relative abundance of N-fixing and non-N-fixing  
109 plant species (Chapin, Walker, Fastie, & Sharman, 1994; Vitousek & Walker, 1989; Walker, 1993;  
110 Zemunik, Turner, Lambers, & Laliberté, 2016). However, whether these shifts in vegetation are  
111 associated with changes in underlying abiotic and biotic PSF mechanisms remains to be determined.

112 To examine how abiotic and biotic PSF interactions among naturally co-occurring plant  
113 functional groups change with shifts in soil nutrient availability during long-term ecosystem  
114 development, we grew N-fixing and co-occurring non-N-fixing plant species in a glasshouse in  
115 sterilised and unsterilised soils. These soils were field-conditioned by the respective mature plants  
116 found on two contrasting dune systems representing >120,000 years of ecosystem development  
117 along the Jurien Bay coastal dune chronosequence (Laliberté et al., 2012; Laliberté, Zemunik, &  
118 Turner, 2014; Turner & Laliberté, 2015). This chronosequence forms a strong natural gradient in soil  
119 nutrient availability, particularly with regard to P and N (Laliberté et al., 2012; Turner & Laliberté,  
120 2015). We hypothesised that:

121 (H1) Abiotic PSF is more important in young, N-poor soils than in old, severely P-impo-  
122 because N-fixing plants increase soil N availability (via N fixation) in young soils, while biotic PSF  
123 is predominant in old soils. Biotic PSF is likely important in old soils due to many plants  
124 possessing root traits that enhance P acquisition at the expense of defence against soil-borne  
125 pathogens, and root traits enabling mutualistic associations with soil microbes that assist with  
126 nutrient acquisition and/or pathogen defence (Laliberté et al., 2015; Lambers et al., 2018).

127 (H2) The magnitude and direction of PSF in young soils differ between N-fixing and non-N-fixing  
128 plants. Specifically, we expected that non-N-fixing plants would grow better in soils conditioned  
129 by N-fixing plants (through having higher N availability) than in soils conditioned by non-N-fixing  
130 plants, while growth of N-fixing plants would be less in soils from non-N-fixing plants and would  
131 be unresponsive to soils from heterospecific N-fixing plants relative to conspecifics.

132 (H3) Shifts in PSF for both N-fixing and non-N-fixing plants depend on soil age. In particular, we  
133 expected that any positive PSF detected in young, N-poor soils would become increasingly  
134 negative in old, severely P-impo-  
135 old soils from both N-fixing and non-N-fixing plants.

136 Addressing these hypotheses in combination will help determine how the relative importance of  
137 biotic and abiotic PSF among N-fixing and non-N-fixing plant functional groups depends on shifts in  
138 soil nutrient availability. This will advance our understanding of the roles of PSF in the interactions  
139 among plant functional groups during long-term ecosystem development.

## 140 **2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 141 **2.1 | Experimental design**

142 A glasshouse experiment was set up using field-collected soils, with the following treatment  
143 combinations: two dune systems (young, old) × six soil origins (collected from beneath three N-fixing  
144 and three non-N-fixing species, representing two plant functional groups; Table 1) × three soil

145 treatments ['overall' soil (unsterilised soil collected beneath plants belonging to each of the studied  
146 plant species), 'abiotic' soil (soil collected beneath each studied plant species and sterilised), and  
147 'biotic' soil (sterilised bulk soil inoculated with soil collected beneath each studied plant species)] ×  
148 six plant species (three N-fixing and three non-N-fixing species; Table 1). Soils were collected across  
149 three plots (10 m × 10 m) within each dune system, and the experimental design was treated as a  
150 randomised block design with the individual plots treated as 'blocks'. Each treatment combination  
151 was replicated six times, resulting in a total of 1,296 individual pots, each containing a single plant.

## 152 **2.2 | Study area**

153 Collection of 'field-conditioned' soils was done in two contrasting dune systems representing  
154 >120,000 years of soil and ecosystem development along the Jurien Bay dune chronosequence  
155 (30°01' to 30°24' S; 114°58' to 115°11' E; Hayes, Turner, Lambers, & Laliberté, 2014; Laliberté et al.,  
156 2012; Turner & Laliberté, 2015), which is located in the southwest Australian biodiversity hotspot  
157 (Hopper & Gioia, 2004). The Quindalup Young dune system [<100 years old; corresponding to stage  
158 1 in Hayes et al. (2014)] has highly calcareous soils displaying limited or no soil development and  
159 showing high P availability (Turner & Laliberté, 2015), but low N availability that limits plant  
160 productivity (Hayes et al., 2014; Laliberté et al., 2012). By contrast, the older Spearwood dune  
161 system [>120,000 years old; corresponding to stage 4 in Hayes et al. (2014)] shows weathered,  
162 nutrient-depleted soils, in which low P availability limits plant productivity (Hayes et al., 2014;  
163 Laliberté et al., 2012). Soils from both selected dune systems are derived from the same parent  
164 material (calcareous sand of a marine origin; Turner & Laliberté, 2015) and share the same regional  
165 flora (Laliberté et al., 2014). Other soil properties, vegetation and climate of the dune systems and  
166 corresponding study plots have been described in detail elsewhere (Laliberté et al., 2012; Turner,  
167 Hayes, & Laliberté, 2018; Turner & Laliberté, 2015; Zemunik et al., 2015, 2016).

168 **2.3 | Plant species selection**

169 Three common plant species from the N-fixing and non-N-fixing plant functional groups of each  
170 dune system were identified using vegetation survey data described by Zemunik et al. (2015, 2016;  
171 Table 1). For each of the two dune systems, the three species from each of these two N-acquisition  
172 strategies were also selected based on the following two criteria: (i) the species grows as a tree or  
173 large shrub at maturity, and (ii) its seeds lack complex endogenous dormancy mechanisms. In  
174 addition, the non-N-fixing species were selected to represent the range of belowground nutrient-  
175 acquisition strategies found on the respective dune system (Zemunik et al., 2015; Table 1).

176 **2.4 | Soil collection, sterilisation and potting**

177 Soils were collected beneath each of the selected plant species from three plots (10 m × 10 m) for  
178 each of the two dune systems (Table 1). Soils from the top 20 cm layer were collected beneath a  
179 total of 60 large individuals of each plant species (<1 m from base of stem) across three plots, using  
180 75-mm diameter sand augers. Bulk soil (0 - 20 cm depth) from each plot was also collected at every  
181 metre mark, where plants and/or plant canopies were absent, along three randomly selected 10-m  
182 line transects. Soil samples were collected over four days in June 2014, when the study area  
183 experiences relatively high rainfall and the soil microbial community is expected to be most active in  
184 the surface soil layers in the seasonally dry Mediterranean climate that characterises the area (Teste  
185 et al., 2016).

186 Field-collected soils for each soil origin (i.e. from beneath each plant species) and bulk soil  
187 from each respective plot were separately homogenised with a cement mixer before packaging in  
188 separate polyethylene bags. For logistical reasons, it was necessary to homogenise bulk soil or soil by  
189 species origin within each individual plot; however, this method of soil mixing maintains each plot  
190 within each dune system as an independent spatial replicate. Soils required for the overall (i.e. field-  
191 untreated/unsterilised) soil treatment and for the preparation (i.e. inoculation) of the biotic soil  
192 treatment were untreated and stored in a cool (~17 °C), dark room prior to potting. Bulk soils  
193 (required for the preparation of biotic soil treatment) and soils of different species origins required



194 for the abiotic soil treatment were sterilised with gamma ( $\gamma$ )-irradiation (50 kGy; Steritech NSW,  
195 Australia). Gamma-irradiation is a method of sterilisation that effectively sterilises soils, while  
196 exerting minimal impact on other soil properties (Berns et al., 2008). Each species 'soil origin'  $\times$   
197 'biotic soil treatment' combination was prepared by inoculating  $\gamma$ -sterilised bulk soil with 7% (v/v)  
198 untreated soil collected beneath the respective plant species from the same plot (i.e. 'block'). The  
199 use of  $\gamma$ -sterilised bulk soils enabled testing of biotic plant-soil conditioning effects by minimising the  
200 variability of chemical properties among soils collected beneath co-occurring plant species (van de  
201 Voorde, van der Putten, & Bezemer, 2012). Each soil treatment-combination was potted into 1.2 L  
202 free-draining pots, filled with 1.1 L of soil per pot.

203           Subsamples of field-collected soils of different species origins and the corresponding  $\gamma$ -  
204 irradiated soils from each plot were analysed for relevant soil chemical properties (see Table S1 in  
205 Supporting Information). All soil-collection and potting equipment was cleaned and then sterilised  
206 with 70% (v/v) ethanol between soil treatment-combination types to avoid cross-contamination.

## 207 **2.5 | Glasshouse experiment setup and harvest**

208 Seeds were bought from Nindethana Seed Service (Albany, Australia) and were collected from  
209 provenances as close as possible to the study area (Table S2). Seeds of species possessing physical or  
210 physiological dormancy were pre-treated according to Sweedman & Merritt (2006). Following pre-  
211 treatment, seeds were surface-sterilised with a 2% (w/v) sodium hypochlorite solution for 30 min  
212 before rinsing three times with sterile deionised water and incubated ( $\sim 17 - 25$  °C) under sterile  
213 conditions using 0.5% (w/v) water-agar (Sigma-Aldrich, Castle Hill, Australia) in Petri dishes. Due to  
214 seed-viability issues, instead of seeds, *Olearia axillaris* softwood stem cuttings ( $\sim 5$  cm long and as  
215 uniform as possible; Table S2) were used, and propagated on triple-pasteurised, nutrient-poor soil  
216 for a period of six weeks by Australian Native Nurseries (Oakford, Australia) prior to transplanting.

217           For each species except *Olearia axillaris*, three young seedlings were transplanted into each  
218 designated treatment pot within two days following observation of radicle emergence. Initial fresh  
219 biomass of each *Olearia axillaris* cutting was weighed, surface-sterilised with 2% (w/v) sodium

220 hypochlorite solution for 5 min, and then rinsed three times with sterile deionised water; following  
221 this, two cuttings were transplanted into each designated treatment pot. Plants of each species were  
222 thinned to a single, similar-sized seedling or cutting per pot one week after transplanting.

223           Plants were grown in a glasshouse and drip-irrigated to maintain approximately 70% field  
224 soil moisture capacity. Each plant species was grown for six months before whole plants were  
225 harvested. Plant samples were dried at 60 °C for 72 h before total plant dry biomass was measured.  
226 Plant growth of *Olearia axillaris* cuttings was determined by the difference between initial and final  
227 plant biomass of the cuttings.

## 228 **2.6 | Soil chemical analyses**

229 Three to four subsamples of untreated and  $\gamma$ -sterilised soils of each plant species origin were  
230 established from soils collected across three plots within either the young or the old dune system.  
231 Untreated and  $\gamma$ -sterilised soils were passed through a 2-mm sieve before soil chemical properties  
232 were analysed. Measurements of total P, nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) and ammonium ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) concentrations were  
233 taken on untreated field soil subsamples only, while measurements of soil pH, total carbon, total N,  
234 readily exchangeable phosphate (resin P), exchangeable cation-exchange capacity, exchangeable  
235 potassium and exchangeable sodium concentrations were taken on both untreated and  $\gamma$ -sterilised  
236 soil subsamples. The soil chemical measurements that we performed for the  $\gamma$ -sterilised soil  
237 subsamples are those that are known to be potentially most strongly modified by the sterilisation  
238 treatment (Berns et al., 2008; McNamara, Black, Beresford, & Parekh, 2003). Soil  $[\text{NO}_3^-]$  and  $[\text{NH}_4^+]$   
239 were determined using a KCl extraction method (Gianello & Bremner, 1986; Øien & Selmer-Olsen,  
240 1980) on a Technicon AutoAnalyzer (Technicon Instruments, NY, USA). Methods for measuring other  
241 soil chemical parameters have been described elsewhere (Laliberté et al., 2012; Turner & Laliberté,  
242 2015).

## 243 2.7 | Statistical analyses

244 Log-response ratios (LRR) were used to calculate overall, biotic or abiotic effect sizes of plant-soil  
245 feedback (Brinkman, van der Putten, Bakker, & Verhoeven, 2010). Within each dune system of  
246 contrasting soil age (young, old) and soil treatment type (overall, biotic, abiotic), the feedback  
247 response of each plant grown in soils conditioned by co-occurring heterospecific plants in general  
248 (i.e. all heterospecific species), N-fixing, or non-N-fixing plant species was calculated as  $\log_{10}$   
249  $(B_C/B_{AH})$ ,  $\log_{10}(B_C/B_{AHNF})$ , or  $\log_{10}(B_C/B_{AHX})$ , respectively; where  $B_C$  is the plant biomass of an  
250 individual replicate grown in soil of conspecific origin,  $B_{AH}$  is the average plant biomass in soils of all  
251 co-occurring heterospecific species origins from the same given plot,  $B_{AHNF}$  is the average plant  
252 biomass in soils of all co-occurring N-fixing heterospecific species origins from the same given plot,  
253 and  $B_{AHX}$  is the average plant biomass in soils of all co-occurring non-N-fixing heterospecific species  
254 origins from the same given plot. All feedback values in this study were calculated as a relative  
255 response of growth in soils conditioned by conspecifics versus that in a given soil conditioned by  
256 heterospecific plants. As such, to maintain brevity, PSF will hereafter also be expressed as feedback  
257 in a given soil conditioned by heterospecific plants.

258 The common logarithm [ $\log_{10}(x)$ ] was used to calculate LRR in this study for ease of  
259 interpretation: a single unit increase indicates that plant growth in conspecific soil origin is ten times  
260 greater than the average plant growth in soils from co-occurring heterospecific N-fixing or non-N-  
261 fixing or all (i.e. N-fixing and non-N-fixing) species origins, while a zero LRR value indicates no  
262 feedback effect. In addition, we selected LRR to calculate feedback effect sizes for the following  
263 reasons: (1) it allows simple relative comparisons of plant performance among plant functional  
264 groups containing multiple plant species with different growth rates/forms, and between dune  
265 systems of contrasting soil ages (Brinkman et al., 2010); (2) the average effect of soil conditioning by  
266 a plant functional group, rather than species-level pair-wise feedback interactions (e.g., 'interaction  
267 coefficient' calculation method; Bever et al., 1997; Kulmatiski & Kardol, 2008), is the primary factor  
268 of interest in this study; and, (3) the logarithmic transformation of biomass-ratio values enables the

269 calculation of feedback values that are proportional to the original effect sizes which, in turn, allows  
270 accurate comparisons among feedback effects that work in different directions (Brinkman et al.,  
271 2010).

272 Linear mixed-effects (LME) models (Zuur, Ieno, Walker, Saveliev, & Smith, 2009) were used  
273 to compare the differences in PSF responses among plant functional groups (N-fixing, non-N-fixing),  
274 plant functional group soil origins (from heterospecific N-fixing, non-N-fixing, or all plant functional  
275 groups), dune systems of contrasting soil ages (young, old), and the interaction among these three  
276 factors within each soil treatment (overall, biotic, abiotic). Differences among feedback responses of  
277 plant functional groups, plant functional group soil origins, and soil ages were of primary interest,  
278 with blocking (by plot) and species soil origin (i.e. soil collected from beneath a specific plant species)  
279 treated as random factors in the models. The significance of the direction (positive or negative) of  
280 each feedback value was determined by fitting the respective model without intercept terms. The  
281 following combination of results from the analyses of overall, biotic and abiotic feedback would  
282 support our specific hypotheses:

283 (H1) Our first hypothesis that abiotic PSF is more important in young soils than in old soils where  
284 biotic PSF is predominant, would be supported by non-zero abiotic PSF in the young soils and  
285 non-zero biotic PSF in the old soils, which operate in the same direction as the corresponding  
286 non-zero overall PSF. In addition, biotic PSF in the young soils and abiotic PSF in the old soils  
287 would be expected to be either dissimilar in direction to the corresponding overall PSF or  
288 neutral (i.e. no PSF).

289 (H2) Our second hypothesis that differences in the direction of overall (and abiotic) feedback  
290 between plant functional groups in young soils depend on plant functional type (N-fixing and  
291 non-N-fixing), would be supported by negative PSF of non-N-fixing plants and neutral PSF of N-  
292 fixing plants grown in young soils conditioned by heterospecific N-fixing plants (compared with  
293 soils from conspecifics). It would also be supported by neutral PSF of non-N-fixing plants and

294 positive PSF of N-fixing plants grown in young soils conditioned by heterospecific non-N-fixing  
295 plants.  
296 (H3) Our third hypothesis that shifts in the direction and magnitude of PSF depend on soil age, would  
297 be supported by changes in the direction of any non-negative overall PSF detected in young, N-  
298 poor soils to negative overall (and biotic) PSF of similar magnitude in old, P-impooverished soils,  
299 for both N-fixing and non-N-fixing plant functional groups.

300 All soil chemical properties were compared using LME models among untreated soils that  
301 were field-conditioned by N-fixing and non-N-fixing plant functional groups, dune systems of  
302 contrasting soil ages, the corresponding  $\gamma$ -irradiated treatments (if applicable), and the interaction  
303 among these factors, with blocking and plant species soil origin treated as random factors.

304 For all LME models, standardised residuals were visually inspected to verify model  
305 assumptions. Akaike Information Criterion and likelihood-ratio tests were used to identify  
306 appropriate models (Zuur et al., 2009), and *post hoc* Tukey tests were subsequently performed when  
307 a main or interaction term was significant (Hothorn, Bretz, & Westfall, 2008). Statistical analyses  
308 were performed in 'R' (R Core Team, 2015) using 'nlme' (Pinheiro, Bates, DebRoy, Sarkar, & R Core  
309 Team, 2014) and 'multcomp' (Hothorn et al., 2008) packages.

## 310 **3 | RESULTS**

### 311 **3.1 | H1: Relative importance of biotic and abiotic plant-soil feedback**

312 In the young, N-poor dune system, non-N-fixing plants grew better in soils from all co-occurring  
313 heterospecific plants compared with those in soils from conspecifics (i.e. negative PSF; Figure 1;  
314 Tables S3, S4 and S5). The negative overall PSF detected in non-N-fixing plants from the young dune  
315 system was primarily driven by their positive response to a combination of biotic and abiotic soil  
316 conditioning by co-occurring N-fixing plants (Figure 1; Tables S3, S4 and S5). Conversely, all plants  
317 from the old, severely P-impooverished dune system, together with N-fixing plants from the young  
318 dune system, generally showed similar growth in soils conditioned by all co-occurring heterospecific

319 plants compared with those in soils from conspecifics (i.e. neutral PSF; Figure 1; Tables S3, S4 and  
320 S5).

321 For both the overall (Figure 1a; Table S3) and abiotic (Figure 1c; Table S5) soil treatments in  
322 the young dune system, the mean feedback values of non-N-fixing plants in soils conditioned by N-  
323 fixing plants were significantly less than that for non-N-fixing plants in soils conditioned by  
324 heterospecific non-N-fixing plants. However, within the biotic soil treatment in the young dune  
325 system, the mean feedback value of non-N-fixing plants in soils conditioned by N-fixing plants was  
326 similar to that for non-N-fixing plants in soils conditioned by heterospecific non-N-fixing plants  
327 (Figure 1b; Table S4).

328 The significantly greater growth of non-N-fixing plants from the young, N-poor dune system  
329 in sterilised soils collected beneath co-occurring heterospecific N-fixing plants compared with that in  
330 sterilised soils collected beneath conspecifics (i.e. negative abiotic PSF) might be associated with  
331 greater  $[\text{NH}_4^+]$  measured in young soils beneath N-fixing plants (Figure 2; Table S1). This is because  
332 no other measured soil chemical properties differed significantly between soils collected beneath  
333 non-N-fixing and N-fixing plants in the young dune system (Table S1).

### 334 **3.2 | H2: Plant-soil feedback among nitrogen-fixing plants and non-nitrogen-fixing plants**

335 In young, N-poor soils conditioned by either all co-occurring heterospecific plants or by  
336 heterospecific N-fixing plants, growth responses among non-N-fixing plants and N-fixing plants were  
337 different (Figure 1; Tables S3, S4 and S5). That is, within each soil treatment (i.e. overall, biotic and  
338 abiotic), non-N-fixing plants produced less biomass in young soils conditioned by conspecifics  
339 compared with those in soils from either all co-occurring heterospecific plants or co-occurring N-  
340 fixing plants (i.e. negative PSF; Figure 1; Tables S3, S4 and S5). In contrast, the growth of N-fixing  
341 plants was similar in young soils from conspecifics and in soils from all co-occurring heterospecific  
342 plants (i.e. neutral PSF; Figure 1; Tables S3, S4 and S5). However, mean feedback values of N-fixing  
343 and non-N-fixing plants grown in young soils conditioned by all co-occurring heterospecific plants or

344 by co-occurring N-fixing plants were similar within each soil treatment (Figure 1; Tables S3, S4 and  
345 S5).

### 346 **3.3 | H3: Changes in plant-soil feedback as dependent on soil age**

347 The strength and direction of PSF experienced by non-N-fixing plants, but not N-fixing plants,  
348 depended on soil age (Figure 1; Tables S3, S4 and S5). That is, across all soil treatments (i.e. overall,  
349 biotic and abiotic), non-N-fixing plants produced less biomass in young, N-poor soils conditioned by  
350 conspecifics compared with those in soils from either all co-occurring heterospecific plants or co-  
351 occurring N-fixing plants (i.e. negative PSF; Figure 1; Tables S3, S4 and S5). By contrast, non-N-fixing  
352 plants showed similar growth responses in old, severely P-impooverished soils conditioned by  
353 conspecifics and in soils from all co-occurring heterospecific plants (i.e. neutral PSF; Figure 1; Tables  
354 S3, S4 and S5). However, N-fixing plants did not show any significant PSF response for either of the  
355 dune systems (Figure 1; Tables S3, S4 and S5). The mean feedback values of non-N-fixing plants from  
356 the young and old dune systems in soils conditioned by all co-occurring heterospecific plants or by  
357 co-occurring N-fixing plants were similar within each soil treatment type (Figure 1; Tables S3, S4 and  
358 S5).

## 359 **4 | DISCUSSION**

360 Our results show that PSF during long-term ecosystem development depends on soil nutrient  
361 availability and plant N-acquisition strategy. In young soils, where productivity is limited by N  
362 availability (Hayes et al., 2014; Laliberté et al., 2012; Walker & del Moral, 2003), non-N-fixing plants  
363 responded positively, and produced more biomass in soils from N-fixing plants than in their own soil.  
364 This effect of soils from N-fixing plants on non-N-fixing plants in the young dune system was not only  
365 associated with the positive effect of abiotic soil conditioning (e.g., greater  $[\text{NH}_4^+]$ ), but also with the  
366 positive effect of soil biota. This latter result does not support our first hypothesis that abiotic PSF is  
367 predominant in young soils. Conversely, N-fixing plants from the young dune system generally  
368 showed neutral PSF, which was different from that of co-occurring non-N-fixing plants, thus

369 supporting our second hypothesis that PSF depends on the type of plant functional group. Our third  
370 hypothesis was not fully supported by the absence of significant negative (biotic) PSF of similar  
371 magnitude in the old, severely P-impoverished soils. However, the shift in the direction of PSF  
372 experienced by non-N-fixing plants, from negative in young soils to neutral in the old soils, suggests  
373 that shifts in PSF depend on environmental context in terms of soil nutrient availability (Kardol et al.,  
374 2013; Lekberg et al., 2018; Manning et al., 2008). Collectively, our findings illustrate the importance  
375 of soil nutrient availability and the type of plant N-acquisition strategy in influencing the origin,  
376 strength and direction of PSF during long-term ecosystem development.

#### 377 **4.1 | Nitrogen-fixing plants facilitate non-nitrogen-fixing plants via biotic and abiotic plant-soil** 378 **feedback**

379 Soils from N-fixing plants had positive effects on the performance of co-occurring non-N-fixing plants  
380 via both biotic and abiotic PSF on the youngest chronosequence stage in which soil N availability  
381 strongly limits plant productivity (Hayes et al., 2014; Laliberté et al., 2012). The facilitative effects of  
382 N-fixing plants on non-N-fixing plants during early primary succession have been widely observed,  
383 and is generally attributed to their capacity to acquire atmospheric N through symbiotic N fixation  
384 and increasing soil N availability (Bellingham et al., 2001; Walker & del Moral, 2003). Indeed, we  
385 found greater  $[\text{NH}_4^+]$  in soils conditioned by N-fixing plants than by co-occurring non-N-fixing plants  
386 from the young dune system. However, we found that soil biota was an additional important factor,  
387 because biotic soil conditioning by N-fixing plants in the young dune system also had a positive effect  
388 on co-occurring non-N-fixing plants. The positive biotic effect experienced by non-N-fixing plants in  
389 soils from N-fixing plants might be explained by an accumulation of beneficial mycorrhizal fungi  
390 (Albornoz et al., 2016; Azcón-Aguilar & Barea, 1997; Smith & Read, 2008), plant growth-promoting  
391 rhizobacteria (Berendsen, Pieterse, & Bakker, 2012; García-Fraile et al., 2012; Lugtenberg &  
392 Kamilova, 2009; Yong, Letham, Wong, & Farquhar, 2014), or decomposers (e.g., de Deyn & van der  
393 Putten, 2005; Knops, Bradley, & Wedin, 2002). These microorganisms could promote plant growth,  
394 acquisition of limiting nutrients (e.g., iron, zinc, N; Laliberté et al., 2012), or pathogen defence in



395 young soils. Therefore, we showed that a combination of biotic and abiotic factors was involved in  
396 generating the positive effects of N-fixing plants on non-N-fixing plants in young soils, which  
397 illustrates the importance of simultaneously considering both abiotic and biotic PSF (Bardgett &  
398 Wardle, 2010; Bezemer et al., 2006; van der Putten et al., 2013).

#### 399 **4.2 | Differences in plant-soil feedback between plant nitrogen-acquisition strategies**

400 Our second hypothesis that the direction of PSF depends on plant functional group was supported  
401 by the difference in the neutral PSF measured in N-fixing plants from the young, N-poor dune system  
402 versus the negative PSF in co-occurring non-N-fixing plants. The absence of abiotic PSF among  
403 common N-fixing species from the young dune system in soils from co-occurring heterospecific N-  
404 fixing plants suggests that abiotic soil conditioning by these N-fixing species is similar. In addition,  
405 despite the generally greater soil  $[\text{NH}_4^+]$  in young soils conditioned by N-fixing plants than in soils  
406 from co-occurring non-N-fixing plants, N-fixing plants from the young dune system showed no  
407 abiotic PSF when grown in sterilised soils from co-occurring non-N-fixing plant species. The absence  
408 of the predicted positive abiotic PSF of N-fixing plants from the young dune system in soils from co-  
409 occurring non-N-fixing plants might be explained by the tendency of N-fixing legumes to possess  
410 greater N demands relative to co-occurring non-N-fixing plants (McKey, 1994). As such, to detect a  
411 significantly greater investment in growth by N-fixing plants in young soils that will achieve the  
412 predicted positive PSF, a substantially greater amount of plant-available soil [N] than that measured  
413 in young soils beneath N-fixing plants may be required. Further, the absence of biotic PSF  
414 experienced by N-fixing plant species in young soils from heterospecific N-fixing plants is in line with  
415 previous studies (e.g., Birnbaum, Bissett, Thrall, & Leishman, 2014, 2016; Birnbaum & Leishman,  
416 2013). Together, our results showing differences in biotic and abiotic PSF responses between N-  
417 fixing plants and co-occurring non-N-fixing plants from the young dune system demonstrate the  
418 dependency of PSF on the type of plant functional group or trait (Baxendale et al., 2014; Cortois,  
419 Schröder-Georgi, Weigelt, van der Putten, & de Deyn, 2016; Teste et al., 2017).

### 420 **4.3 | Plant-soil feedback in old, severely phosphorus-impooverished soils**

421 The shift in the direction of PSF experienced by non-N-fixing plants from negative to neutral with  
422 increased soil age partly supports our third hypothesis that PSF depends on soil nutrient availability.  
423 The absence of feedback in old soils conditioned by N-fixing plants might be linked to increased P  
424 constraints on symbiotic N fixation (Hartwig, 1998; Raven, 2012) and legume productivity (Laliberté  
425 et al., 2012) in these weathered, severely P-impooverished soils. The similar soil N inputs from the  
426 leaf and root litter of N-fixing and non-N-fixing plants in the old soils (e.g., due to limited N fixation  
427 by N-fixing plants) might reduce the ability of N-fixing plants to influence the performance of co-  
428 occurring non-N-fixing plants via abiotic soil conditioning. In turn, similar soil N inputs by N-fixing and  
429 non-fixing plants in the old soils might also favour soil microbial communities that exert similar  
430 effects on the studied N-fixing and non-N-fixing species. Thus, the shift in the direction of feedback  
431 experienced by non-N-fixing plants between young and old soils shows that PSF might depend on  
432 the environmental context in terms of soil nutrient availability.

433 We did not find support for the hypothesised convergent shifts in PSF towards negative  
434 biotic, pathogen-mediated PSF of similar magnitude in the old, severely P-impooverished dune  
435 system. The absence of negative biotic PSF in non-N-fixing plants from the old, severely P-  
436 impooverished dune system might be due to the strong impact of soil biota on plant growth in these  
437 soils (Figures S1, S2 and S3). For example, the negative effect of soil biota on the growth of two (out  
438 of three) non-N-fixing species examined in the old dune system (Figure S1) might be explained by  
439 many plant species in these P-impooverished soils having root traits that enhance P acquisition (e.g.,  
440 high specific root length, high root hair density) which trade off against pathogen defence (Laliberté  
441 et al., 2015; Lambers et al., 2018; Newsham et al., 1995). This might increase plant susceptibility to a  
442 broad range of non-host-specific soil-borne pathogens which could outweigh the potential negative  
443 effects of host-specific pathogens.

444 On the other hand, the absence of negative biotic PSF in N-fixing plant species in old,  
445 severely P-impooverished soils might be related to their similar positive responses to soil biota (Figure

446 S1). These legume species likely possess the ability to form effective symbiotic relationships with a  
447 range of N-fixing rhizobia that are ubiquitous in unsterilised soils (Birnbaum, Bissett, Teste, &  
448 Laliberté, 2018; Birnbaum et al., 2016; Checcucci, DiCenzo, Bazzicalupo, & Mengoni, 2017). Thus,  
449 symbiotic associations between N-fixing rhizobia and legumes might compensate for the potential  
450 negative effects of soil-borne pathogens if they enable greater investment of N in plant growth or  
451 pathogen defence (Menge & Chazdon, 2016; Menge, Levin, & Hedin, 2008; Vitousek & Field, 1999).

452         Understanding the full implications of our results, with regard to the shifts in PSF along the  
453 chronosequence and plant species coexistence mechanisms on species-rich, severely P-  
454 impoverished older soils, would warrant further research for three reasons. First, only common  
455 species from two plant functional groups (N-fixing and non-N-fixing) were examined in the present  
456 study, which would only have accounted for a subset of the range of PSF present among the diverse  
457 spectrum of plant functional groups in species-rich plant communities on these old, severely P-  
458 impoverished soils (e.g., Lambers et al., 2014; Zemunik et al., 2015). In particular, plant functional  
459 groups associated with key belowground nutrient-acquisition traits of AM, ECM, and non-  
460 mycorrhizal cluster roots require further attention (Lekberg et al., 2018; Revillini et al., 2016; Teste  
461 et al., 2017; Zemunik et al., 2015). Second, the underlying mechanisms of how various groups of soil  
462 microorganisms (e.g., N-fixing rhizobia, plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria, and soil-borne  
463 pathogens) influence PSF in this study remain something of a 'black box'. Third, our chronosequence  
464 approach does not allow strong inference of the causal mechanisms between the observed shifts in  
465 PSF and soil N and P availability (Walker et al., 2010). This is because differences in other abiotic  
466 and/or biotic factors along the chronosequence not considered in our study might also influence  
467 PSF. However, this chronosequence and its soils have been extensively studied (e.g., Abrahão, Ryan,  
468 Laliberté, Oliveira, & Lambers, 2018; Albornoz et al., 2016; Hayes et al., 2014; Laliberté et al., 2012,  
469 2014; Teste, Veneklaas, Dixon, & Lambers, 2014; Turner & Laliberté, 2015; Zemunik et al., 2015,  
470 2016), enabling us to adopt a sampling design that maximises variation in soil age (i.e. soil chemistry;  
471 in particular, soil fertility, N and P availability) while minimising variation in other factors (e.g.,

472 climate, topography). Therefore, to further advance our understanding of PSF during long-term  
473 ecosystem development, future studies should focus on PSF experiments involving soil nutrient  
474 manipulation, or test PSF responses along other long-term soil chronosequences. Further, future  
475 studies should also examine a greater number of plant functional groups in terms of nutrient-  
476 acquisition strategies and the soil microorganisms that influence PSF.

## 477 **5 | CONCLUSIONS**

478 Our results show that the shifts in the direction of abiotic and biotic PSF are context-dependent with  
479 respect to the type of plant N-acquisition strategy and soil nutrient availability. Our results also  
480 highlight the importance of considering both longer-term abiotic and shorter-term biotic PSF. In  
481 particular, the negative PSF experienced by non-N-fixing plants in the young, N-poor dune system  
482 was not only attributable to positive effects of abiotic soil conditioning by N-fixing plants, but also  
483 involved biotic soil conditioning. Overall, our study highlights the importance of considering  
484 environmental context and changes in both abiotic and biotic soil properties mediated by plants  
485 when studying PSF, which advances our mechanistic understanding of PSF in long-term ecological  
486 processes (Kardol et al., 2013; Lekberg et al., 2018; Smith-Ramesh & Reynolds, 2017; van der Putten  
487 et al., 2013). It also allows us to better appreciate how shifts in soil nutrient availability under future  
488 global change scenarios (e.g., increasing N deposition; Vitousek et al., 2013) may alter the direction  
489 of PSF and the consequences of this for the functioning of terrestrial ecosystems.

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501 G.K.P., P.K., D.A.W. and E.L. designed research; G.K.P., B.L.T. and E.L. performed research; G.K.P. and  
502 E.L. analysed data; G.K.P., H.L., P.K., B.L.T., D.A.W. and E.L. wrote the paper. All authors contributed  
503 critically to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

#### 504 **DATA ACCESSIBILITY**

505 Data available from the Dryad Digital Repository <https://dx.doi.org/10.5061/dryad.4tc6292> (Png et  
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719 **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

720 Additional supporting information can be found in the online version of this article:

721 **TABLE S1** Chemical properties of soil (0 - 20 cm depth) conditioned by common nitrogen (N)-fixing  
722 and non-N-fixing plants from two dune systems of contrasting soil ages along the Jurien Bay dune  
723 chronosequence

724 **TABLE S2** Provenances of seeds and softwood cuttings of plants used in this study

725 **TABLE S3** Results of three-factor linear mixed-effects model fitted with and without intercept terms  
726 to test for the effects among the factors of nitrogen (N)-fixing plant functional group type, plant  
727 functional group soil origin, soil age and their interactions on overall plant-soil feedback effects

728 **TABLE S4** Results of three-factor linear mixed-effects model fitted with and without intercept  
729 terms to test for the effects among the factors of nitrogen (N)-fixing plant functional group type,  
730 plant functional group soil origin, soil age and their interactions on biotic plant-soil feedback effects

731 **TABLE S5** Results of three-factor linear mixed-effects model fitted with and without intercept terms  
732 to test for the effects among the factors of nitrogen (N)-fixing plant functional group type, plant  
733 functional group soil origin, soil age and their interactions on abiotic plant-soil feedback effects

734 **TABLE S6** Results of linear mixed-effects models of individual nitrogen (N)-fixing and non-N-fixing  
735 plant species from the young and old dune systems to test for differences between the general  
736 effects of biotic and abiotic soil treatments on plant growth

737 **TABLE S7** Results of linear mixed-effects models of individual nitrogen (N)-fixing and non-N-fixing  
738 plant species from the young dune system to test for the effects of soil treatment, species soil origin  
739 and their interactions on plant growth

740 **TABLE S8** Results of linear mixed-effects models of individual nitrogen (N)-fixing and non-N-fixing  
741 plant species from the old dune system to test for the effects of soil treatment, species soil origin  
742 and their interactions on plant growth

743 **FIGURE S1** General effect of the soil inoculation treatment on the growth of individual nitrogen (N)-  
744 fixing and co-occurring non-N-fixing plant species compared with that in gamma-sterilised soils  
745 (abiotic soil treatment) from the young and old dune systems.

746 **FIGURE S2** Total growth of individual nitrogen (N)-fixing and non-N-fixing plants grown in overall  
747 (field-untreated), biotic (inoculated) and abiotic (gamma-sterilised) soils conditioned by co-occurring  
748 N-fixing or non-N-fixing plants from the young dune system.

749 **FIGURE S3** Total growth of individual nitrogen (N)-fixing and non-N-fixing plants grown in overall  
750 (field-untreated), biotic (inoculated) and abiotic (gamma-sterilised) soils conditioned by co-occurring  
751 N-fixing or non-N-fixing plants from the old dune system.

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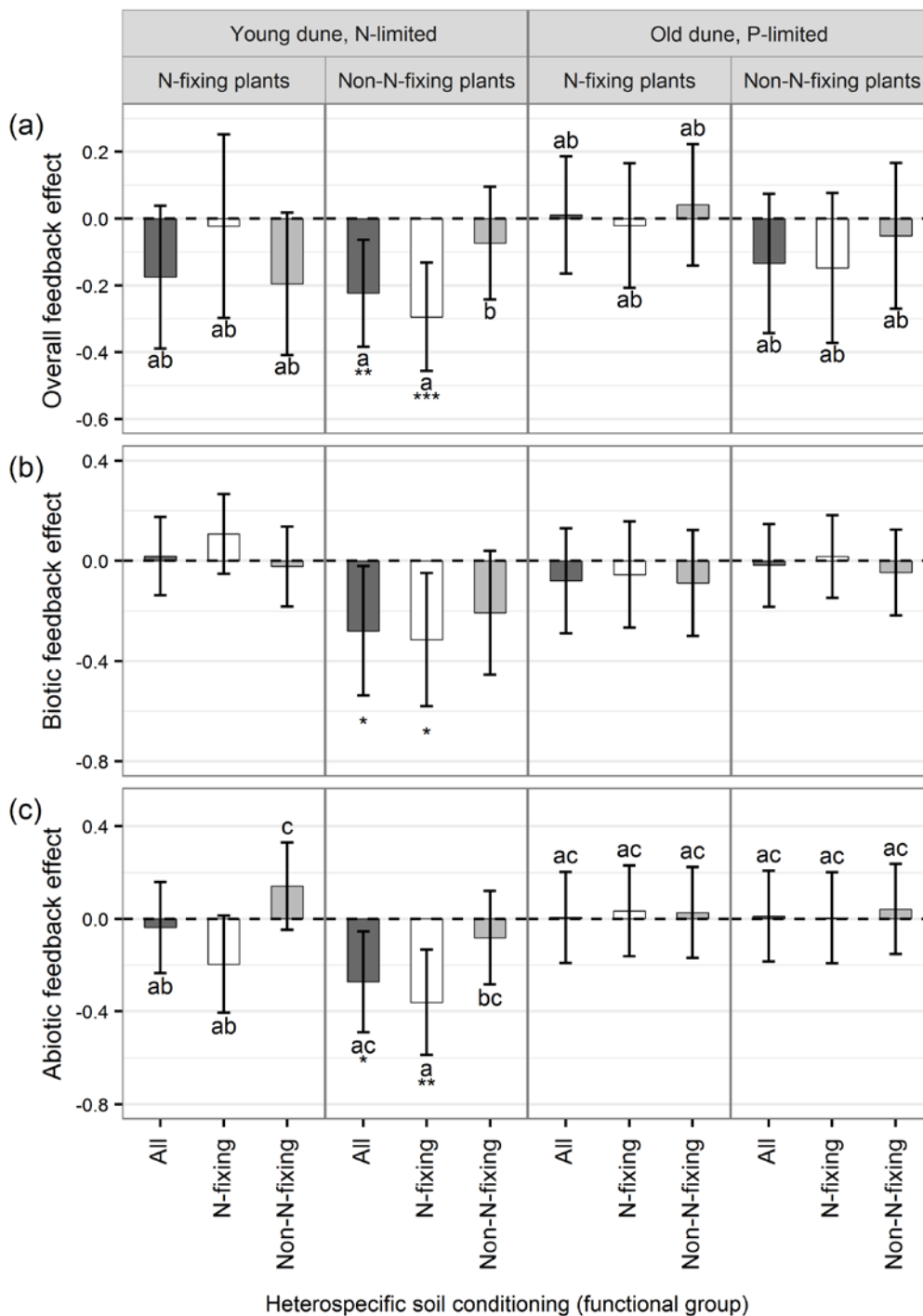
756 **TABLE**

757 **TABLE 1** Common nitrogen (N)-fixing and non-N-fixing tree or shrub species selected from two dune systems  
 758 of contrasting soil ages along the >2 million-year Jurien Bay dune chronosequence based on survey data of  
 759 Zemunik et al. (2015, 2016). Likely soil nutrients limiting plant productivity are based on Laliberté et al. (2012).  
 760 Nutrient-acquisition strategies of non-N-fixing species and, if applicable, degree of mycorrhizal root  
 761 colonisation are based on Zemunik et al. (2015). AM, arbuscular mycorrhizal; ECM, ectomycorrhizal; NM, non-  
 762 mycorrhizal

Dune system (soil age)	Likely soil nutrient limiting plant productivity	Selected tree/shrub species		
		N-fixing species	Non-N-fixing species	Nutrient-acquisition strategy of non-N-fixing species
Quindalup Young (Holocene, <0.1 ka)	Nitrogen	<i>Acacia rostellifera</i>	<i>Olearia axillaris</i>	AM (moderate)
		<i>Acacia cyclops</i>	<i>Scaevola crassifolia</i>	AM (low-moderate); ECM (moderate)
		<i>Acacia truncata</i>	<i>Spyridium globulosum</i>	AM (moderate); ECM (moderate)
Spearwood West (Middle Pleistocene, >120 ka)	Phosphorus	<i>Acacia rostellifera</i>	<i>Banksia leptophylla</i>	NM (cluster roots)
		<i>Acacia spathulifolia</i>	<i>Calothamnus quadrifidus</i>	ECM (moderate)
		<i>Gompholobium tomentosum</i>	<i>Melaleuca systena</i>	AM (low); ECM (low)

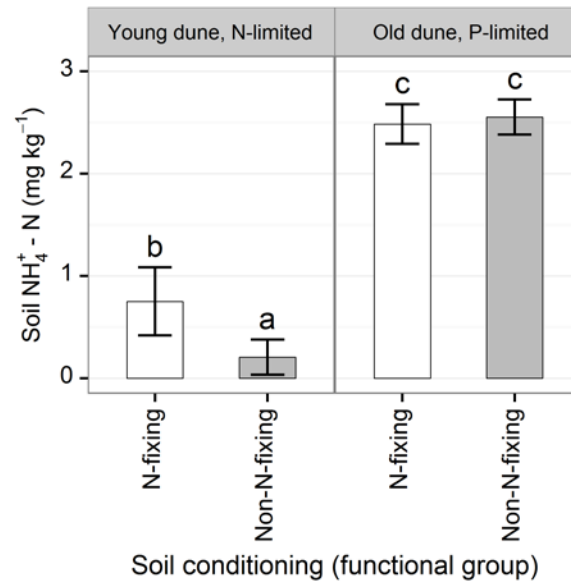
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766 **FIGURE 1** Plant-soil feedback of nitrogen (N)-fixing and non-N-fixing plant functional groups grown in (a)  
 767 overall (field-untreated), (b) biotic (inoculated), and (c) abiotic (gamma-sterilised) soils conditioned by co-  
 768 occurring heterospecific plants in general (all heterospecific species), N-fixing and non-N-fixing plants from two  
 769 dune systems of contrasting soil ages along the Jurien Bay dune chronosequence (Table 1). Each type of  
 770 feedback was calculated as  $\log_{10}(\text{biomass of a plant species grown in conspecific conditioned soil}/\text{average}$   
 771  $\text{biomass of plant species grown in soils conditioned by all or N-fixing or non-N-fixing heterospecific species})$ .  
 772 Bars are means and error bars represent 95% confidence intervals from a linear mixed-effects model for each  
 773 panel (Tables S3, S4 and S5). \*, \*\*, \*\*\* indicate significant feedback at  $P \leq 0.05$ , 0.01, or 0.001 (Tables S3, S4  
 774 and S5). Different letters among soil conditioning treatments indicate significant differences among means  
 775 within each panel (*post hoc* Tukey tests,  $P \leq 0.05$ ); letters are not included when means did not differ.



776

777 **FIGURE 2** Ammonium ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) content of soils collected to 20 cm depth beneath three nitrogen (N)-fixing and  
 778 three co-occurring non-N-fixing plant species from each of two dune systems of contrasting soil ages along the  
 779 Jurien Bay dune chronosequence (Table 1). Bars are means and error bars represent 95% confidence intervals  
 780 from a linear mixed-effects model (Table S1). Different letters among soil conditioning treatments indicate  
 781 significant differences among means (*post hoc* Tukey test,  $P \leq 0.05$ ).