The relative importance of plant-soil feedbacks for plant-species performance increases with decreasing intensity of herbivory

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Authors contribution:

J.H. conceived the idea, designed the study and performed the experiment; J.H. collected data, with N.K.S., S.S. and M.M.G. provided additional data; J.H., D.P. and J.J. analyzed the data; J.H. led the writing of the manuscript. All authors contributed critically to the draft.

1 Abstract

Under natural conditions, aboveground herbivory and plant-soil feedbacks (PSFs) are
omnipresent interactions strongly affecting individual plant performance. While recent
research revealed that aboveground insect herbivory generally impacts the outcome of PSFs,
no study tested to what extent the intensity of herbivory affects the outcome. This, however,
is essential to estimate the contribution of PSFs to plant performance under natural conditions
in the field.

8 Here, we tested PSF effects both with and without exposure to aboveground herbivory for 9 four common grass species in nine grasslands that formed a gradient of aboveground 10 invertebrate herbivory. Without aboveground herbivores, PSFs for each of the four grass 11 species were similar in each of the nine grasslands – both in direction and magnitude. In the 12 presence of herbivores, however, the PSFs differed from those measured under herbivory 13 exclusion, and depended on the intensity of herbivory. At low levels of herbivory, PSFs were 14 similar in the presence and absence of herbivores but differed at high herbivory levels. While 15 PSFs without herbivores remained similar along the gradient of herbivory intensity, 16 increasing herbivory intensity mostly resulted in neutral PSFs in the presence of herbivores. 17 This suggests that the relative importance of PSFs for plant-species performance in grassland 18 communities decreases with increasing intensity of herbivory. Hence, PSFs might be more 19 important for plant performance in ecosystems with low herbivore pressure than in 20 ecosystems with large impacts of insect herbivores. 21 22

Key-words: plant-soil feedback, herbivorous insects, field conditions, selective herbivory,
nutritional quality

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27 Introduction

Under natural field conditions the performance (i.e. biomass production) of a plant is influenced by many abiotic and biotic environmental factors that act simultaneously aboveand belowground (e.g., Bazzaz 1996, Wardle et al. 2004). Biotic environmental factors such as belowground microbiota and mesofauna as well as aboveground insect herbivory have profound effects on plant performance (Heinze and Joshi 2018).

33 Via litter production, exudation and uptake processes plants induce changes in abiotic and 34 biotic soil properties that, in turn, influence subsequent seedling establishment and plant 35 growth. These plant-soil feedbacks (PSFs; Bever et al. 1997) are typically examined by 36 evaluating the growth of a plant species in response to its own, 'home' (i.e. conspecific) soil 37 compared to growth with other, 'away' (i.e. heterospecific) soil (e.g., Kulmatiski et al. 2008, 38 van der Putten et al. 2013). Besides abiotic soil effects, soil biota are important drivers of 39 PSFs (e.g., DeLong et al. 2019). Since microbial soil biota can function as pathogens or 40 parasites (e.g., pathogenic fungi, bacteria or nematodes) or as mutualists [e.g., arbuscular 41 mycorrhizal fungi (AMF), plant-growth promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR)] (see e.g., van der 42 Heijden et al. 2008, van der Putten et al. 2013, Bever et al. 2015), PSFs can be negative, 43 neutral or positive. Positive PSFs, for example, increase plant-biomass production and thus 44 enhance competitiveness of plant species, whereas negative PSFs weaken their competitive 45 ability. Therefore, PSFs are suggested to influence plant competition and community 46 composition (e.g., Klironomos 2002, Kulmatiski et al. 2008, van der Putten et al. 2013) and have been the subject of intense research (see e.g., Brinkman et al. 2010, Smith-Ramesh and 47 48 Reynolds 2017). Besides influencing plant biomass, studies on PSFs revealed that soil biota 49 also can influence the nutritional quality of plants (Kos et al. 2015) as well as the composition 50 of secondary metabolites that are involved in herbivory defense (Kostenko et al. 2012, 51 Bezemer et al. 2013). Hence, it is likely that plants growing in home versus away soils,

mediated by soil biota, differ in nutritional quality and palatability, which in turn influencesaboveground herbivory.

54 Aboveground insect herbivory can affect plant performance directly (e.g., Hulme 1996), but 55 can also influence the composition of plant communities by altering competitive asymmetry 56 between plant species via selective herbivory (Borgström et al. 2016). Therefore, insect 57 herbivory is considered a prominent factor influencing plant species performance and 58 community diversity (Crawley 1989, Branson and Sword 2009). Due to their metabolic 59 requirements, herbivorous insects are known to prefer plants with low carbon (C) to nitrogen 60 (N) ratios [i.e. high N content] and high phosphorus content (Schädler et al. 2003, Berner et 61 al. 2005, Huberty and Denno 2006, Behmer, 2009). Therefore, changes in plant nutritional 62 quality due to soil conditioning in home and away soils (Kos et al. 2015) may alter 63 aboveground herbivore preferences (e.g., Mattson 1980, Massey et al. 2007) and finally the 64 amount of biomass reduction. 65 As calculations of PSFs are mostly based on biomass ratios ('home' vs. 'away'; see Brinkman 66 et al. 2010) it is likely that any disproportional reduction of plant biomass in home relative to 67 away soils by herbivores, due to soil-mediated differences in plant nutritional quality, will 68 influence the results (i.e. outcome) of PSFs. A previous study found that herbivory influences

69 the outcome of PSFs (Heinze and Joshi 2018), but it is currently unknown how the outcome

70 and thus importance of PSFs for plant performance is affected by the strength of this biomass

reduction, i.e. by the intensity of herbivory. Thus, 1) if home or away soils increase plant

72 nutritional quality, the resulting increase in aboveground herbivory could mask PSF effects on

plant growth and 2) the strength of this masking effect will depend on the intensity of

74 herbivory.

Both PSFs and herbivory affect the performance of plants and can act as mechanisms
enabling coexistence in plant communities (e.g., i.e. Janzen-Connell-effects; see Petermann et
al. 2008; selective herbivory; see Borgström et al. 2016). Understanding the relative impact of

PSF-herbivory interactions on plant performance is key to understanding the contexts in
which these interactions contribute to coexistence. However, to the best of our knowledge,
whether and how the intensity of herbivory influences the outcome of PSFs in the field has
never been tested.

82 Most previous studies on PSF-herbivory interactions were performed under controlled 83 greenhouse conditions (e.g., Morriën et al. 2011; Kostenko et al. 2012; Bezemer et al., 2013; 84 but see Heinze and Joshi, 2018). There is, however, high agreement that PSFs should be 85 tested together with herbivory under field conditions in order to gain a comprehensive 86 understanding on the importance of PSFs for plant performance (see van der Putten et al. 87 2016), especially because PSFs differ between greenhouse and field conditions (Heinze et al. 88 2016). Therefore, for the first time we tested PSF (i.e. home vs. away) effects with a 89 standardized comparative PSF pot-experiment in nine grasslands that differed in intensity of 90 aboveground herbivory. We focussed on effects of soil biota (i.e. biotic PSFs) to avoid 91 confounding effects with abiotic soil properties that can also influence nutrient content of 92 plants (e.g., Mattson 1980). In each of the nine grasslands, we manipulated the 93 presence/absence of aboveground herbivorous insects with an herbivore-exclusion treatment. 94 The intensity of herbivory (i.e. the density/abundance of insects) corresponded to the natural 95 condition (i.e., was not experimentally manipulated) to avoid restricting the herbivory effects 96 to one or only a few types of herbivores. To assess the impact of home and away soils on the 97 nutritional quality of plants, we analysed C and N concentrations in roots and shoots of the 98 experimental plants. We hypothesized that: 1) Home and away soils differentially influence 99 plant nutritional quality; 2) As herbivorous insects chose plants selectively consume plants 100 according to their nutritional quality, these home and away soil effects will consequently 101 affect aboveground herbivory by insects; and 3) The outcome of PSFs is influenced by the 102 intensity of herbivory, due to herbivore-induced changes in home vs. away biomass ratios.

104 Material and Methods

105 *Study region*

106 The comparative PSF experiment was performed in the Biodiversity Exploratories Project

107 (Fischer et al. 2010) in nine grasslands within the Hainich-Dün region (Thuringia, Central

108 Germany). The studied grasslands are located on calcareous mineral soils with high clay

109 content (Fischer et al. 2010).

110

111 Plant-soil feedback experiment

112 We selected four common grass species that are widespread within Central Europe (Klötzli et

al. 2010): Arrhenatherum elatius (L.) J. Presl. et C. Presl., Anthoxanthum odoratum L.,

114 Dactylis glomerata L. and Holcus lanatus L.. All four species are perennial tussock grasses

that are frequently found in grasslands within the Biodiversity Exploratories (Heinze et al.

116 2015a,b). Seeds of all four grass species were collected in 2016 in a meadow at a field site of

117 the University of Potsdam (N52° 24' 29.76", E13° 1' 13.74", Brandenburg, Germany). In May

118 2017 seeds of all four species were surface-sterilized for 3 min in 7% sodium hypochlorite

solution and subsequently rinsed with sterile water to prevent microbial contaminations.

120 Afterwards, seedlings were germinated on autoclaved sand (5 times within 24 h; 20 min,

121 121°C) in sterile plastic chambers (32 cm × 50 cm × 14 cm; Meyer; Germany) in a

122 greenhouse at the University of Potsdam.

We used the "self vs. other" approach (Kulmatiski 2016) to investigate PSF effects for the four grass species. Although this approach does not provide insight into soil mediated interactions between species pairs it focuses on conspecific PSF effects and minimizes the sample size (Kulmatiski 2016). We used species-specific field conditioned rhizosphere soils of all species for our PSF experiment in accordance with the "natural-experiment" approach (Kulmatiski and Kardol 2008). All four species are perennials that form persistent tussocks and therefore generated PSFs over longer time periods. Immediately before the start of the

130 experiment species-specific rhizosphere soils were sampled in the same meadow (size 131 approximately 1 ha) that served as origin for the seeds. For each species we selected 20 132 patches (30 cm x 30 cm), spaced at least 2 m apart from each other, in which the vegetation 133 was solely covered (i.e., 100 %) by the respective species (see Heinze et al. 2016 for 134 description on vegetation structure). Within each patch, we collected 1 L of species-specific 135 soil (top 20 cm) from the rhizosphere and directly adjacent to the rhizosphere following 136 Brandt et al. (2014). As we were interested in general PSF effects rather than within-site 137 variation in PSFs we mixed the 20 replicate soil samples per species to one bulk soil for each 138 species and split in two halves with one half serving as 'home' soil (i.e. conspecific soil), 139 whereas the other half was used to create 'away' soils (i.e. soils of the remaining 140 heterospecific species) for the other species. Although this mixing procedure decreases 141 variance in plant responses among individual soil samples (Reinhart and Rinella 2016) this 142 procedure was appropriate for our specific research question as we were interested in general 143 (rather than within-site variation of) PSF effects and how they are influences by the intensity 144 of herbivory. Furthermore, this mixing procedure is reported to produce similar PSFs 145 compared to independent soil samples (see e.g., Kulmatiski 2016, Cahill et al. 2017, Gundale 146 et al. 2019). In total there were eight soils: four home soils (one for every species) and four 147 away soils that each consisted of equal proportions of soils from the three heterospecific 148 species. To reduce potential differences in soil nutrient availability among the eight soils, the 149 soils were inoculated (10%) into an autoclaved soil:sand mixture. The soil:sand mixture 150 consisted of a 1:1 mixture of sieved (mesh size: 5 mm) field soil collected from the same 151 meadow at the field site of the University of Potsdam and purchased sand (grain size: 2 mm; 152 Brun & Böhm; Potsdam, Germany). 153 Pots (Deepots D25L: volume 0.41 L; height 25 cm; diameter 5 cm; Stuewe & Sons; USA)

154 were prepared with an autoclaved fleece strip (3 cm x 25 cm) covering 10 cm of the pots'

155 inside and hanging out 15 cm to enable watering from below. The pots were subsequently

filled with the inoculated soils. To prevent cross-contamination between the pots, each pot was placed in a separate plastic cup (volume 0.3 L; height 15.2 cm; diameter 5.9 cm) and received an additional layer (1 cm) of sterilized sand on top.

In early June 2017, two-week old similar-sized seedlings of all four species were planted in the prepared pots, one seedling per pot. Each species was grown in pots inoculated with 'home' soil or with 'away' soil. Immediately after planting, the pots were moved from the greenhouse to a protected outdoor site near the field study site of the University of Potsdam. There, seedlings were allowed to acclimatize for one week. Seedlings that died during this week were replaced.

165

166 *Herbivore-exclusion treatment*

167 To compare the outcome of PSFs for the four grass species in the presence vs. absence of 168 aboveground insect herbivores we performed a herbivory-exclusion treatment in accordance 169 with Heinze and Joshi (2018). This herbivore-exclusion treatment was established in nine 170 grasslands in the Hainich-Dün region (see below). In each grassland we established two plots 171 (120 cm x 160 cm) that were spaced 80 cm apart. The plots were equipped with cages (length 172 160 cm \times width: 120 cm \times height 100 cm) that were either completely covered with fly mesh 173 (mesh size: 1.3 mm; Meyer; Germany) or only shaded (i.e. no fly mesh at the lower 50 cm). 174 The fully covered cages excluded herbivorous insects (see MacDonald and Kotanen 2010), 175 whereas the shaded cages allowed aboveground herbivorous insects to reach the experimental 176 plants while providing the same levels of shade and precipitation as the cage treatment (see 177 Heinze and Joshi, 2018). In both plots we removed the sward to slightly (ca.5 cm) sink the 178 prepared pots (in boxes; see below) into the soil and for the fully covered plots to exclude 179 non-developed aboveground herbivorous insects whose eggs might be attached to plants or 180 buried in the soil. In the fully covered plots the fly screen was buried into the soil. One side 181 was prepared as a door to water the plants. The fully covered plots that excluded aboveground herbivorous insects (> 1.3mm) are referred to as '- herbivory', whereas the shaded plots are
referred to as '+ herbivory' treatment throughout the manuscript. The plots within each
grassland were fenced off (3 m x 3 m) to prevent herbivory by vertebrates as well as
disturbances by land-use activities (e.g., mowing).

186

187 Intensity of aboveground insect herbivory

188 To test our hypothesis that the intensity of aboveground insect herbivory gradually affects the 189 outcome of PSF effects under natural conditions, we selected nine grasslands along a gradient 190 of land-use intensity. For this gradient it has been shown that land-use intensification 191 influences the abundance and diversity of multiple taxa (Manning et al., 2015), especially 192 herbivorous insects (Simons et al., 2014a,b; Chisté et al., 2016). These land-use effects were 193 found to ultimately affect the severity of aboveground insect herbivory (Börschig et al. 2014; 194 Egerov et al. 2017), which decreases with increasing land-use intensity (Gossner et al. 2014). 195 We used information about past land-use practices (2006–2015), abundance of herbivorous 196 insects (2011–2013) and herbivory on plants measured in the grasslands in 2013 to select nine 197 grasslands along the land-use gradient that are supposed to form a gradient of aboveground 198 insect herbivory (see Online Resource 1: Table S1). The nine grasslands differed in average 199 amount of fertilizer application as well as mowing and grazing intensity, factors that were 200 previously shown to affect abundance and diversity of insect herbivores as well as 201 invertebrate herbivory (Gossner et al. 2014; Simons et al., 2014a,b, Chisté et al., 2016; see 202 Online Resource 1: Table S1). 203 Between and within years land-use practices and their frequency that influences abundance of 204 herbivorous insects, and thus intensity of herbivory, can be highly dynamic and dependent on 205 climate conditions (Blüthgen et al., 2012). Therefore, we also used information regarding

206 planned land use management in 2017 (personal communications from farmers) for the

selection of grasslands. We also recorded land-use practices (e.g., mowing events) before andduring the experiment (Online Resource 1: Table S2).

To test whether land-use intensity affects the intensity of aboveground herbivory in our 209 210 experiment, we calculated an index of land-use intensity (LUI) according to Blüthgen et al. 211 (2012). This index integrates three components of land use: mean amount of fertilizer (kg N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹), mean frequency of mowing (number cuttings year⁻¹) and mean intensity of 212 grazing (live-stock units days of grazing ha⁻¹ year⁻¹) per grassland, that are standardized by 213 214 the mean of each component per region. The index is square-root transformed, to achieve 215 more evenly distributed values. High values indicate intense land use and vice versa (see also 216 Online Resource 1: Table S1).

217

218 *PSF experiment and herbivore-exclusion treatment along the gradient of herbivory*

219 In mid-June 2017, the planted pots (PSF experiment) were transported to the Hainich-Dün 220 region and positioned in the prepared – and + herbivory plots (herbivore-exclusion treatment) 221 at the nine grasslands (Fig. 1). In each of the nine grasslands, each treatment [herbivory-222 exclusion and soil treatment (home vs. away)] was replicated nine times for every species, 223 resulting in 1296 pots (9 grasslands x 4 species x 2 soils x 2 herbivory treatments x 9 224 replicates). In the experiment each of the nine grasslands was equipped with exactly the same 225 experimental setup. The planted pots were placed in individual plastic cups (see above) to 226 enable watering from below and were arranged in a randomized block design [i.e. one block 227 contained a single replicate per species and soil treatment (home vs. away)]. 228 As we were interested in the effects of aboveground invertebrates (excluding slugs) and as we 229 wanted to exclude direct competition between experimental and neighbouring plants in our 230 experiment, pots and plastic cups were placed in boxes (78 cm \times 50 cm \times 30 cm). To protect 231 the pots from slug herbivory, these boxes were filled with water (height: 5 cm). In addition to 232 this water barrier, the edges of these boxes are effective barriers against slugs (personal

observation J. Heinze). In every grassland, each + herbivory and – herbivory plot contained
three boxes, which again contained three blocks of pots each (see Fig. 1). At the beginning of
the experiment all plants were watered and all plastic cups underneath every pot were filled
with 200 ml water. Every third week the water level in the plastic cups was checked and water
was added if necessary.

238

239 Measurements

240 We were interested in damage caused by herbivorous insects on the four grass species during 241 the experimental time. We therefore measured herbivory on experimental plants, as these 242 plants were not exposed to destructive land-use practices (like mowing) or slug herbivory. In 243 early September 2017, after 11 weeks of variable invertebrate herbivory intensity exposure, 244 we recorded herbivory on experimental plants. To check whether aboveground herbivory 245 differed between the nine grasslands and the different home vs. away soils, we assessed the 246 damage by aboveground chewing insect herbivores without any further discrimination of 247 feeding guilds. We visually estimated biomass removal (in percent; severity) at ten randomly 248 chosen leaves per individual plant (see e.g., Johnson et al. 2016). Furthermore, in accordance 249 with Russel et al. (2010) for each single experimental plant we also determined the proportion 250 of damaged leaves by counting the number of damaged as well as total leaves (incidence). We 251 used severity and incidence to assess the shoot biomass removal by aboveground insect 252 herbivores for whole experimental plants according to Smith et al. (2005). 253 After herbivory measurements were complete, the pots were brought back to the University of 254 Potsdam where the shoots were harvested and the roots were washed. Shoot and root biomass 255 was dried (shoot 48h, 80°C; root 72h, 70°C) and weighed.

256 To check whether inoculated soils differed in nutrient concentration, we analysed abiotic soil

257 conditions of the eight different inoculated soils (four home soils and four away soils) prior to

the experiment according with Heinze et al. (2017). To test whether the different home and

259 away soils affected the nutritional quality in plant shoots and roots, we analysed C and N (see 260 Berner and Law 2016 for C and Cornelissen et al. 2003 for N). As the same soils were used in 261 all of the nine grasslands, we analysed C and N in plant shoots and roots for subsamples of 262 three grasslands. One replicate per species, soil and herbivory treatment was sampled within 263 these three chosen grasslands (see Online Resource 1: Table S1), resulting in 48 samples (4 264 species x 2 soils x 2 herbivory-exclusion treatments x 3 grasslands). Complete shoots and 265 roots were dried at 80°C (48 h), separately ground (Retsch MM200; Germany) and 266 subsequently analysed for C and N concentrations using an elemental analyser (HEKAtech 267 GmbH; Wegberg; Germany; Euro EA 3000). 268

269 *Statistical analysis*

All analyses were performed in R version 3.1.2 (R Development Core Team 2014). To

account for the split-plot design and the nesting of factors, we analysed the data on shoot-,

272 root- and total biomass, herbivory, PSFs, and C:N ratios of plants with linear mixed effects

273 models using the "nlme" package (Pinheiro et al. 2017). Data on soil nutrients were analysed

with linear models, as we tested initial conditions of soils prior to the experiment. Residuals

275 were checked for homogeneity of variance and tested for normality.

276 We used ANOVAs and Tukey HSD tests to check whether the eight inoculated soils [i.e. the

sterilized soil:sand mixture (90%) that was inoculated (10%) with the different home and

away soils of all four species] differed in abiotic characteristics.

279 To test the first hypothesis that home and away soils differentially affect plant nutritional

280 quality, we performed ANOVAs for N and C concentration as well as C:N ratios in shoots

- and roots. The ANOVAs included species (A. elatius, A. odoratum, D. glomerata, H.
- 282 *lanatus*), soil treatment (home and away), and herbivory-exclusion treatment (+ herbivory and
- 283 herbivory) as well as their interactions as predictor variables. We used "grassland" (three;

see "Measurements") as random factor. Afterwards, differences in N, C and C:N between

285 home and away soils were tested with two sample t-tests for every species.

286

295

287 To test the second hypothesis, that home and away soils affect aboveground herbivory, and to 288 verify whether intensity of aboveground herbivory differed between the nine grasslands along 289 the land-use intensity gradient we analysed the herbivory (i.e. estimated shoot biomass 290 removal) of experimental plants that were exposed to herbivory (experimental plants in the -291 herbivory plots showed no damage by herbivores). 292 The ANOVA tested effects and interactions between the predictor variables 'species (S)', 293 'soil treatment (T)', 'herbivory-exclusion treatment (H)' and 'land-use intensity (LUI)' as 294 fixed factors on herbivory, as response variable. We used 'boxes' (three) nested in 'grassland'

296 model, to test whether herbivory was related to shoot biomass. We used linear regressions to

(nine) as random factors. Additionally, we integrated shoot biomass as co-variable into the

check whether herbivory was related to land-use intensity, for 1) all experimental plants and

298 2) separately for all species.

We used average percentage of estimated shoot biomass removal per grassland as a
continuous variable in the following analyses to test for the effects of herbivory intensity on
PSFs and biomass production (see below). Average percentage of estimated shoot biomass
removal is therefore referred to as 'intensity of herbivory' throughout the manuscript.

PSFs were calculated using log biomass ratio of 'home vs. away' contrasts, that has the advantage of directly comparing positive and negative feedback effects (see Brinkman et al. 2010): PSF $_A = \log (home_A / away_A)$; where 'home_A' is the biomass of species A with its own soil biota and 'away_A' is the biomass of species A with soil biota of the three remaining heterospecific species. PSFs were calculated pairwise per block (i.e. replicate) for shoot, root and total biomass for the + and – herbivory treatments in every grassland.

310

311	To test the third hypothesis, that the intensity of aboveground herbivory influences the
312	outcome of PSFs, we performed ANOVAs using linear mixed effects models. The model
313	included the predictors 'species (S)', 'herbivory-exclusion treatment (H)' and 'intensity of
314	herbivory (I)' (average percentage of estimated shoot biomass removal per grassland) as fixed
315	factors, as well as their interactions and tested their effects on PSFs. We used 'boxes' (three
316	per herbivory plot), 'herbivory plot' (two per grassland) and 'grassland' (nine) as random
317	factors that were nested as follows: boxes nested in herbivory plots and herbivory plot nested
318	in grassland. Whether PSFs for the four species differed within the herbivory treatments along
319	the gradient of herbivory intensity (S x I interaction) was checked by separate ANOVAs for +
320	herbivory and – herbivory. The relationship between intensity of herbivory and PSFs in the
321	two herbivore-exclusion levels were analysed for each species using linear regressions, and
322	differences in slopes were tested with ANOVAs (H x I interaction).
323	The main focus of this study was to investigate effects of herbivory intensity on the outcome
324	of PSFs. However, as PSFs are based on biomass ratios it is likely that data on biomass
325	(shoot) in home vs. away soils in response to herbivory intensity contain valuable
326	information. These results are presented in the supporting information, along with the
327	respective ANOVAs (see Online Resource 1: Table S3; Fig. S1).

328

329 **Results**

- 330 Home and away soil effects on plant nutritional quality and herbivory
- 331 At the beginning of the experiment the eight inoculated soils neither differed in plant-
- 332 available nor total nutrient concentrations (Table S4). However, plant shoot N concentration
- 333 but not C concentration was affected by the different home and away soils for all four species,
- 334 resulting in different C:N ratios (S x T: shoot N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.06$, P < 0.001; shoot C:N: $F_{3,30} = 10.0$
- 335 15.15, P < 0.001; Online Resource 1: Table S5a). A. elatius, D. glomerata and H. lanatus

336 showed higher shoot N concentration in away soils, whereas for A. odoratum N concentration 337 was highest in shoots when grown on home soils (Fig. 2 a-h). N, C and C:N ratios in roots 338 were not affected by the different soils (Online Resource 1: Table S5b). 339 All four grass species showed differences in aboveground herbivore damage when grown in 340 home vs. away soils (S x T: $F_{3,603} = 13.96$, P < 0.001; Online Resource 1: Table S6). A. 341 elatius, D. glomerata and H. lanatus showed highest shoot biomass removal in away soils, 342 where their shoots had the highest N concentration (Fig. 2 i, k, l), whereas for A. odoratum 343 damage by aboveground herbivores was highest in home soils where its shoots had the 344 highest N concentration (Fig. 2 j). 345 346 Aboveground herbivory on experimental plants along the gradient of land-use intensity

The estimated shoot biomass removal was highest in less intensively managed grasslands and decreased with increasing land-use intensity ($F_{1,7}$ = 12.71; P = 0.009; Tables S6; Fig. 3). This pattern of herbivore damage in response to land-use intensity was similar for all four species (S x LUI: $F_{3,603}$ = 1.74; P > 0.05; Online Resource 1: Table S6; Fig. S2). When grown without herbivores, shoot biomass was similar in all grasslands along the land-use gradient, but decreased with decreasing land-use intensity in the presence of herbivores (see Online Resource 1: Fig. S3).

354

355 Impact of intensity of aboveground herbivory on PSFs

For all four grass species, the presence of aboveground herbivory influenced the outcome of PSFs for total plants (shoots and roots), but these effects differed among the four species and along the gradient in intensity of herbivory (S x H x I: PSF total: $F_{3,566} = 4.53$, P = 0.004; see Online Resource 1: Table S7). Without aboveground herbivores, the four species exhibited different individual PSFs (Fig. 4a-d). *A. elatius* and *H. lanatus* exhibits negative PSFs in home soils (i.e., showed higher biomass production in away soils), *A. odoratum* in contrast 362 responded positively to home soils (i.e. showed positive PSFs), and D. glomerata showed 363 neutral PSFs (Fig. 4a-d). Importantly, for all species these PSFs remained similar in 364 magnitude and direction along the gradient of aboveground herbivory intensity (S x I: $F_{3,278}$ = 365 0.9, P > 0.5; Online Resource 1: Table S7a; Fig. 4a-d). In contrast, when plants were exposed 366 to aboveground herbivory, the direction and magnitude of PSFs for all four species were 367 significantly altered by herbivory intensity (S x I: $F_{3,288} = 8.57$, P < 0.001; Online Resource 1: 368 Table S7; Fig. 4a-d). The mostly negative and neutral PSFs of A. elatius, H. lanatus and D. 369 glomerata became more positive with increasing intensity of herbivory, whereas for A. 370 odoratum positive PSFs decreased. Increasing intensity of herbivory increased the difference 371 between PSFs measured with and without herbivores, whereas in the presence of herbivores 372 increasing intensity resulted in mostly neutral PSF effects (Fig. 4a-d).

373

374 Discussion

375 The results of our study confirm all three hypotheses and reveal four important findings. 376 First, shoot N concentration of the four grass species was influenced by whether the plants 377 were growing in home or away soils. Second, herbivory by aboveground invertebrate 378 herbivores differed between home and away soils, with all species exhibiting most damage in 379 soils in which their shoots contained highest N concentrations. Third, home and away soils 380 also affected biomass production (i.e. PSFs) of all four species, with highest biomass 381 production in soil in which the species also exhibited highest shoot-N-concentration. Forth 382 and most important, in the presence of herbivores these PSFs changed in magnitude and in 383 direction with increasing intensity of aboveground herbivory, while without herbivores these 384 PSFs remained similar along the gradient of herbivory. These results suggest that that the 385 relative importance of PSFs for individual plant biomass production and thus for the 386 performance in plant communities increases with decreasing intensity of herbivory.

387

388 *Effect of home and away soils on plant quality*

In our PSF experiment, all eight home and away soils did not differ in total or plant-available nutrients at initial conditions, an advantage of the inoculation method (Brinkman et al. 2010). Hence, the observed differences in plant nutritional quality (i.e. N and C concentrations) and biomass production of the grass species in the different soils (i.e. home and away) appear to be caused by soil biota.

394 In this study we examined whether the N and C concentrations in plants, chemical plant traits 395 that were broadly overlooked in the past and rarely tested in the context of PSF (see 396 Baxendale et al. 2014, Cortois et al. 2016) were affected when grown in the different soils. 397 We observed that the grass species exhibited highest shoot N concentration in soils where 398 also their biomass production benefitted from soil biota (positive away soil effects for A. 399 *elatius* and *H. lanatus* and positive home soil effects for *A. odoratum*). This result is in 400 accordance with findings of Stajković-Srbinović et al. (2016), who showed that inoculation 401 with plant PGPRs enhances both plant biomass and N content in shoots of grass species (see also Baltensperger et al. 1978 and White et al. 2015). In our experiment N concentration was 402 403 enhanced in shoots in soils where the species benefited from soil biota but not in roots, a 404 pattern also found in previous inoculation studies with grasses (e.g., Baltensperger et al. 1978, 405 Djonova et al. 2016). Overall, shoots show high turnover rates during growth and thus are 406 sinks for N (Mattson 1980; Xu et al. 2012). This might explain why increased N 407 concentration was confined to shoots.

408

409 Plant quality and aboveground insect herbivory

410 In general, due to their high protein content and poor N use efficiency, herbivorous insects

411 need to ingest relatively large amounts of N (Mattson 1980; Bernay and Chapman 1994).

412 Insect herbivores therefore generally prefer to feed on plants with high N content (Berner et

413 al. 2005, Behmer 2009). In our experiment, all four grass species showed highest shoot

414 damage (i.e. estimated shoot biomass removal) caused by aboveground herbivorous insects in 415 soils in which they had highest shoot-N-concentrations. This result is consistent with studies 416 showing that the quantity of herbivore damage is positively related with plant N content 417 (Cebrian and Lartigue 2004, Berner et al. 2005). A reverse pattern was observed for C:N 418 ratios. In line with Schädler et al. (2003) we found all species to have lowest levels of shoot 419 damage in soils where plants had highest C:N ratios. This suggests that beside shoot-N-420 concentration the palatability is influenced by other physical and/or chemical plant properties 421 (Massey et al. 2007). Soil conditioning can influence other primary and secondary 422 compounds such as amino acids, glycosides, and pyrrolizidine alkaloids (e.g., Kostenko et al. 423 2012, Kos et al. 2015, Zhu et al. 2018) and therefore might affect the palatability of a plant. 424 Furthermore, there are also indications that biotic or abiotic soil characteristics can affect the 425 leaf toughness of plants (Orwin et al. 2010). However, to what extent physical anti-herbivore 426 plant properties are influenced by soil conditioning remains unknown. Although we did not 427 determine specific N-containing secondary metabolites, amino acids or silica content in our 428 study, we nevertheless provide empirical evidence that soil-mediated differences in total N 429 concentration in shoots can strongly affect herbivory by aboveground arthropods. Such 430 specific home and away soil effects on aboveground plant damage and their intensity 431 subsequently affected the outcome of PSFs in our experiment (see below).

432

433 Intensity of herbivory and its effects on the outcome and importance of PSFs

Increasing intensity of herbivory increased the difference between PSFs measured with and without aboveground insect herbivores. These results confirm previous studies on PSF and herbivory that aboveground herbivores can have negative direct effects on plant growth in the feedback phase (Bezemer et al. 2013). Hence, herbivory has the potential to affect the outcome of PSFs (Heinze and Joshi 2018), most likely due to soil-mediated differences in plant quality. However, more importantly with our present study we were able to show, for

440 the first time, that the intensity of herbivory gradually affected the outcome of PSFs. The 441 change in direction and magnitude of PSFs in response to increasing herbivory intensity 442 mostly resulted in neutral PSFs for the grass species, suggesting that aboveground herbivores 443 reduce the soil-mediated benefits for biomass production depending on herbivore intensity. 444 This is supported by analyses of shoot biomass along the gradient of herbivory intensity: 445 herbivores solely reduced shoot biomass on one specific soil type, namely soil in which the 446 species showed highest shoot N concentration (in away soil for A. elatius, D. glomerata and 447 H. lanatus and in home soil for A. odoratum see Online Resource 1: Fig. S1). 448 Grasses are known to have a large and often finely branched root systems with a large surface 449 area and therefore may be more susceptible to root pathogens (Newsham et al. 1995). That A. 450 odoratum in comparison to the other species exhibited positive PSFs might be due to its high 451 concentrations of coumarin they exudate via roots in comparison to other species (Tava 452 2001). Coumarin was recently found to have a negative effect on soil pathogens but a positive 453 impact on beneficial rhizobacteria (Stringlin et al. 2018) that are important for nutrient uptake 454 and thus plant N concentrations (e.g., Adesemoye et al. 2010). This might also explain the 455 neutral and negative PSFs of the other species, as the away soils they grew in most likely 456 contained coumarin exudates from A. odoratum. However, we did not determine soil 457 microbial communities in our experiment. Therefore future studies should use sequence 458 techniques to better understand the role of soil biota in PSF-herbivore interactions. 459 Nevertheless, the findings of our study provide new insights and allow assessments of the 460 importance of PSFs for plant performance in relation to the intensity of herbivory, which has 461 only been considered within a theoretical framework so far (see Smith-Ramesh and Reynolds 462 2017). Based on results of this study we propose that 1) PSFs might be more important for 463 plant performance in ecosystems where the influence of aboveground herbivores is low and 2) 464 as the magnitude and direction of PSFs are altered by herbivory, mostly resulting in neutral

465 PSFs, the importance of PSFs will be changed or overridden by aboveground herbivores in 466 ecosystems where herbivorous insects have a large impact on plant communities (see Fig. 5). In our experiment, species were best supplied with N in soils from which they received the 467 468 highest biomass gain, indicating that biotic PSFs influence plant performance and quality 469 (Fig. 5a). As larger plants with more biomass are considered to be better competitors in plant-470 plant interactions (e.g., Aarsen 2015; Heinze et al. 2015a), aboveground herbivores, via 471 specific selection of well-supplied plants (i.e., high N concentration), might prevent the 472 development of dominance structures within plant communities (Fig. 5b). Potential soil-473 mediated competitive advantages might therefore be attenuated by selective herbivory, thus 474 promoting coexistence in plant communities (see Fig. 5). 475 We suggest that negative density-dependent soil effects (i.e. Janzen-Connell effects) such as 476 negative PSFs for more competitive plant species (A. elatius, D. glomerata and H. lanatus; 477 see Pierce et al. 2017) can act as a stabilizing mechanism (see Chesson 2000) enabling species 478 coexistence in ecosystems with low abundances of herbivorous insects. However, in 479 ecosystems with high abundance of herbivorous insects plant species coexistence might be 480 elevated due to additional equalizing mechanisms, such as selective herbivory that neutralizes 481 soil-mediated competitive advantages, thus influencing the competitive asymmetry between 482 competing plants (Borgström et al. 2016). 483 In our study, we focused on effects of intensity of aboveground insect herbivory on the 484 outcome of PSFs. Soils in our experiment were conditioned with one specific herbivore 485 community (i.e., intensity of herbivory). As the intensity of herbivory is suggested to 486 influence PSFs (Smith-Ramesh and Reynolds 2017) further studies should perform soil 487 conditioning under different intensities of herbivory and investigate these conditioning effects 488 in a feedback phase. Furthermore, we solely excluded insect herbivores > 1.3 mm in our 489 experiment. However, slugs or smaller insect herbivores such as aphids can also have large 490 effects on plant performance (Crawley 1989, Rodriguez and Brown 1998). Therefore, further

studies should examine PSF-herbivory interactions by using stepwise exclusion of herbivores
and test these interactions across different habitat types as well as with other functional
groups to elucidate the relative contribution of herbivores on biomass production and thus
their impact on the outcome PSFs.

495

496 *Conclusions*

497 This study is the first to provide empirical evidence that the outcome of PSFs depends on the 498 intensity of aboveground insect herbivory even in our short-term experiment. Soil-mediated 499 differences in plant quality affected herbivory. The intensity of herbivory in turn influenced 500 the shoot biomass in home and away soils for all species and therefore the overall outcome of 501 PSFs. We propose that PSF effects might be more important for plant performance in 502 ecosystems with low insect herbivore pressure compared to ecosystems with high insect 503 herbivory pressure, where soil-mediated advantages for plants might be attenuated via 504 selective herbivory. In addition to the stabilizing effect of negative PSFs, soil-mediated 505 selective herbivory might act as an equalizing mechanism between competing species and 506 might thus promote coexistence in plant communities (Fig. 5). Since under natural conditions 507 both PSFs and herbivory interact and affect plant biomass production over longer time 508 periods PSF-herbivory interactions might be stronger and may change over time. Future 509 studies should therefore test potential changes in these interactions in long-term experiments 510 and assess their impact for competitive outcomes. However, from the present results we 511 suggest that in general the relative importance of PSFs for plant species performance in 512 grassland communities increases with decreasing intensity of herbivory.

513

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528

529 **Conflict of Interest**

530 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

531

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751 FIGURE LEGENDS

752 Fig. 1 Conceptual figure of the experimental design. To test plant-soil feedback (PSF) effects, 753 four grass species were grown in pots in their 'home' and 'away' soils. To investigate the 754 effect of herbivory on PSFs, nine replicates of each 'home' vs. 'away' contrast were exposed 755 to a herbivory treatment in which aboveground insects could either reach the plants (+ 756 herbivory plot) or not (- herbivory plot). Within each of the + and - herbivory plots, the nine 757 replicates were arranged in a randomized complete block design and distributed over three 758 boxes (i.e. one box contained 3 replicates/blocks). The boxes were necessary to prevent 759 herbivory by slugs and competition with surrounding plants, and to enable the watering from 760 below. To test whether the intensity of herbivory affect the outcome of PSF effects this set-up 761 (i.e. PSF experiment x herbivory treatment) was installed at nine grasslands that formed a 762 gradient in aboveground herbivory intensity. In total, the experiment contained 1296 plants 763 (4 species x 2 soils x 9 replicates x 2 herbivory treatments x 9 grasslands). For further details 764 see "Material and Methods". Color version of this figure is available online

765

Fig. 2 a-d) Shoot nitrogen (N) concentration, e-h) shoot carbon (C) to nitrogen ratio (C:N) as well as i-l) estimated shoot biomass removal by aboveground insect herbivores of *A. elatius* (left), *A. odoratum* (middle left), *D. glomerata* (middle right) and *H. lanatus* (right) grown in "home" (left bars) and "away" (right bars) soils. Data represent mean \pm SE; with n = 6 for a – h and n = 81 for i – l. Asterisks between bars represent significance: (*) P < 0.1; * P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01; *** P < 0.001

772

Fig. 3 Relationship between land-use intensity and estimated shoot biomass removal of all experimental plants exposed to herbivory. Data represent mean \pm SE (n = 72)

Fig. 4 Relationship between intensity of herbivory (i.e. average shoot biomass removal by 776 777 aboveground herbivores per grasslands) and plant-soil feedback [PSF; log total biomass ratio 778 ("home"/"away")] in the presence (full circles) and absence (open circles) of aboveground 779 herbivorous insects; for a) Arrhenatherum elatius, b) Anthoxanthum odoratum, c) Dactylis 780 glomerata and d) Holcus lanatus. Statistics shown are interactions of herbivory-exclusion (H) 781 and intensity of herbivory (I) derived from ANOVAs, and for lines derived from linear regressions. Asterisks represent significance: (*) P < 0.1; * P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01; *** P < 0.01; 782 783 0.001. Data represent mean \pm SE (n = 9)

784

785 Fig. 5 Diagram showing how PSF may differently affect plant performance and plant-plant 786 competition in ecosystems with a) low vs. b) high herbivore pressure. In general, soils can 787 have negative or positive effects on nutrient uptake [e.g., nitrogen (N)] resulting in smaller 788 plants with lower nutrient quality in shoots (left plant) or larger and better-supplied plants 789 (right plant). These soil-mediated differences in plant quality and performance might affect 790 competition between competing plants. In ecosystems with low herbivore pressure (a) this 791 soil-mediated advantage in plant growth might be maintained due to marginal damage by 792 insect herbivores resulting in enhanced competition effects for the larger plant. However, in 793 ecosystems with large herbivore pressure (b) effects of insect herbivores might be larger for 794 better-supplied plants. This selective herbivory might dampen the soil-mediated gain of plant 795 growth (grey shadowed) and therefore attenuate competition between plants. Overall, effects 796 from soils influence plant performance and competition, but depending on the intensity and 797 selectivity of herbivory these effects might be influenced by herbivory. The width of arrows 798 and the size of letters indicated the strength or impact of the processes (nutrient uptake, 799 competition, herbivory). Color version of this figure is available online













Intensity of herbivory [Estimated shoot biomass removal (%)]





b) High herbivore pressure

