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1 Responses of earthworm communities to crop residue management after
2 inoculation of the earthworm *Lumbricus terrestris* (Linnaeus, 1758)

3

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13 **Abstract**

14 Earthworms are important for soil functioning in arable cropping systems and earthworm species
15 differ in their response to soil tillage and crop residue management. *Lumbricus terrestris*
16 (Linnaeus, 1758) are rare in intensively tilled arable fields. In two parallel field trials with either
17 non-inversion (NIT) or conventional tillage (CT), we investigated the feasibility of inoculating *L.*
18 *terrestris* under different crop residue management (amounts and placement). Simultaneously,
19 we monitored the response of the existing earthworm communities to *L. terrestris* inoculation
20 and to crop residue treatments in terms of earthworm density, species diversity and composition,
21 ecological groups and functional diversity. *L. terrestris* densities were not affected by residue
22 management. We were not able to infer effects of the inoculation on the existing earthworm
23 communities since *L. terrestris* also colonized non-inoculated plots. In NIT and two years after
24 trial establishment, the overall native earthworm density was 1.4 and 1.6 times higher, and the
25 epigeic density 2.5 times higher, in treatments with highest residue application (S_{100}) compared
26 to 25% (S_{25}) or no (S_0) crop residues, respectively. Residue management did not affect
27 earthworm species composition, nor the functional trait diversity and composition, except for an
28 increase of the community weighted means of bifide typhlosolis in S_0 compared to S_{100} . In CT,
29 however, crop residues did have a strong effect on species composition, ecological groups and
30 functional traits. Without crop residues (S_0), epigeic density was respectively 20 and 30% lower
31 than with crop residues placed on the soil surface (S_{100}) or incorporated (I_{100}). Community
32 composition was clearly affected by crop residues. Trait diversity was 2.6 to 3 times larger when
33 crop residues were provided, irrespective of placement. Crop residues in CT also resulted in
34 heavier earthworms and in a shift in the community towards species with a thicker epidermis and
35 cuticle, a feather typhlosolis shape, and a higher average cocoon production rate. We conclude

36 that earthworm communities under conventional tillage respond more strongly to the amount of
37 crop residue than to its placement. Under non-inversion tillage, crop residue amounts affected
38 earthworm communities, but to a smaller degree than under conventional tillage.

39

40 **Key-words:** arable field, tillage, crop residue availability, trait-based approach, community
41 weighted mean, Rao's quadratic entropy

42 **1. Introduction**

43 Earthworms contribute crucially to soil processes, including in arable cropping systems
44 (Edwards, 2004) and have been classified into ecological groups (Bouché, 1977) to infer effects
45 on soil functioning. Endogeic species burrow horizontally in deeper soil layers and are
46 geophagous, feeding on soil organic matter. Epigeic species inhabit the topsoil without much
47 burrowing and anecic species dig deep permanent burrows with important effects on continuous
48 burrow formation and water infiltration (Keith and Robinson, 2012). Both epigeics and anecics
49 are saprophagous and feed on plant litter on the soil surface (Curry and Schmidt, 2007).
50 Earthworm communities in arable fields are dominated by endogeics (e.g., Crittenden et al.,
51 2014; Frazão et al., 2017), whereas epigeics and anecics usually occur at low densities, if at all.
52 This may result in an underperformance of earthworm-mediated soil functions that are central for
53 soil quality (Andriuzzi et al., 2015; Postma-Blaauw et al., 2006). The scarcity of epigeics and
54 anecics in arable fields is thought to be the result of intensive conventional tillage (Chan, 2001):
55 direct negative effects are exposure to predation and destruction of permanent burrows of deep-
56 burrowing anecics, and indirect effects are related to crop residue incorporation into the soil
57 profile. Residue incorporation is negative for epigeics and anecics (Frazão et al., 2019), but
58 positive for endogeics, by increasing the soil organic matter in the deeper layers of the soil
59 profile. Farmers are keen on having anecics inhabiting their arable soils, due to their contribution
60 to soil structure formation and water infiltration (Andriuzzi et al., 2015; Bertrand et al., 2015).
61 Previous studies have reported the effects of the anecic *Lumbricus terrestris* (Linnaeus, 1758) on
62 soil porosity and other soil fauna (enchytraeids, nematodes and other earthworms) seventeen
63 years after inoculation (Nuutinen et al., 2017).

64 Community response to disturbance has traditionally been analysed through taxonomic
65 approaches, focussing on species richness and composition (Feld et al., 2009), and in case of
66 earthworms also through broad ecological groups. However, additional information on the
67 functional ecology of communities may reflect important patterns of community assembly and
68 species coexistence (Mouchet et al., 2010), which can be better predictors of ecosystem function
69 than taxonomic indicators (Gagic et al., 2015). In this respect, Ricotta and Moretti (2011) argued
70 that community weighted means (CWM) (Garnier et al., 2004) and Rao's quadratic entropy
71 (RaoQ) (Botta-Dukát, 2005) represent two complementary aspects of functional composition and
72 diversity of communities, i.e. the mean and the diversity of functional traits within a given
73 species assemblage, respectively. Inoculating *L. terrestris* in combination with improved
74 conditions conducive to its survival, as well as stimulating epigeics through the accessibility of
75 crop residues on the soil surface could be an alternative to amend functional diversity of
76 earthworm communities in arable fields.

77 In the present study, we investigated the response of earthworm communities to crop residue
78 amount and placement in the soil profile, in arable fields under different tillage practices:
79 conventional mouldboard ploughing (hereafter "CT") and non-inversion tillage (hereafter
80 "NIT"). Our objectives were: (i) to evaluate the feasibility of inoculating *L. terrestris* under
81 different crop residue management in the two tillage systems; (ii) to assess how local earthworm
82 communities (density, diversity, species composition, ecological groups, and functional
83 diversity) are affected by crop residue management and inoculation of *L. terrestris*. In any trait-
84 based approach, one of the critical aspects is trait selection. Here, we chose traits that are
85 expected to respond to food availability and position in the soil, i.e. body weight, number of

86 cocoons, time to maturity, reproductive strategy, typhlosolis shape, and tegument (cuticle and
87 epidermis) thickness.

88 We hypothesised that i) the inoculation of *L. terrestris* would be more successful where crop
89 residues were provided on the soil surface, particularly concurring with less intensive soil
90 disturbance typical of the NIT trial; ii) crop residue management and the inoculation of *L.*
91 *terrestris* would affect the earthworm community composition, with epigeics benefitting from
92 crop residue availability on the soil surface, but being subject to competition with *L. terrestris*
93 where inoculated; and endogeics being facilitated by the inoculation of *L. terrestris*; and iii) the
94 availability of crop residue on the soil surface would favour trait diversity, as well as heavier
95 earthworms with larger reproductive output, faster developmental time, with a less complex
96 typhlosolis shape and thinner tegument.

97

98 **2. Materials and Methods**

99 **2.1 Study site**

100 In the summer of 2013, two parallel field trials were installed at the PPO Westmaas research
101 farm of Wageningen University and Research, located in the southwest of The Netherlands. The
102 trials were situated in two adjacent arable fields that differed in tillage practices since 2009: CT
103 and NIT. The CT field was mouldboard ploughed annually and the NIT field was loosened
104 without soil inversion, either with a paragrubber (2009-2012 and 2014-2015) or with a spading
105 machine (2013). Previous sampling indicated that both fields lacked *L. terrestris* (Frazão et al.,
106 unpublished results). The soil type is a Haplic Fluvisol (WRB, 2006), developed in calcareous
107 marine deposits with a sandy clay loam texture (49% sand, 24% clay) and a pH of 7.9 in the top
108 30 cm. Daily average temperature was 10.8 °C and annual precipitation was 883 mm over the

109 experimental period (Royal Netherlands Meteorological Institute, 2016). The crop rotation of
110 both fields was as follows: winter wheat in 2013, followed by radish (*Raphanus sativus* subsp.
111 *oleiferus*) as cover crop, sugar beet in 2014 and winter barley in 2015. Both fields received
112 similar mineral fertilization and synthetic crop protection; no animal manure was used
113 throughout the experimental period.

114

115 **2.2 Experimental design**

116 In August 2013, 24 plots (6x6 m) were established in the two neighbouring tillage fields,
117 arranged in a split-plot design with two factors and replicated in four blocks. Within each block,
118 the main plots were randomly assigned to the factor *L. terrestris* inoculation (two levels: “+”,
119 with inoculation and “-”, without inoculation), and subplots were randomly assigned to the
120 factor crop residue application (three levels that differed per trial). In the CT field the factor crop
121 residue application comprised three levels: (i) no crop residues (hereafter “S₀”), (ii) incorporation
122 of crop residues (hereafter “I₁₀₀”), and (iii) soil surface applied residues (hereafter “S₁₀₀”). In the
123 NIT field, the factor crop residue application comprised the levels (i) no residues (hereafter
124 “S₀”), (ii) 25% of crop residues placed on the soil surface (hereafter “S₂₅”), and (iii) 100% of
125 crop residues placed on the soil surface (hereafter “S₁₀₀”) (Fig. 1A). Inherent to the tillage
126 regimes, crop residue treatments under study were not exactly the same for the NIT and CT
127 systems, as it was impossible to test an incorporated crop residue treatment under non-inversion
128 tillage.

129 The crop residue amounts used in S₁₀₀ (CT and NIT trials) and I₁₀₀ were the same and were
130 applied annually in both trials. We kept the crop residue types as similar as possible across the
131 years, depending on availability. In 2013 a mixture of winter wheat stubble and radish

132 (*Raphanus sativus* subsp. *oleiferus*) was applied, as those were the crops grown in both fields. In
133 2014 a mixture of winter wheat straw and radish was applied after the removal of sugar beet
134 residues, which was the crop harvested at the time, and in 2015 only winter barley stubbles were
135 applied. Grain crop residues were applied at a rate of 4.7 t ha⁻¹ and radish at a rate of 1.1 t ha⁻¹
136 (DW) in the treatments S₁₀₀ and I₁₀₀ of both trials.

137 In October 2013, seven weeks before Fall tillage, (sub)adults of *L. terrestris* (Starfood,
138 Barneveld, The Netherlands) were inoculated in the “+” plots of both fields at a density of 20
139 ind. m⁻². For a week prior to inoculation, the individuals were acclimatized in tempex boxes with
140 a compost substrate provided by Starfood, at 6 °C in a climate chamber. Each individual was
141 carefully checked and the ones not appearing healthy and vigorous were discarded. In each of the
142 “+” plots, a 3x3 grid with 2 m spacing (Fig. 1B) was established and around each of the
143 intersects four holes were dug to 40 cm deep, and 20 individuals of *L. terrestris* were placed in
144 each hole. Soil pits were moistened before and after introducing earthworms, and refilled with
145 moistened soil. The order of the plots to be inoculated was *a priori* randomized. To prevent
146 predation by birds, flags and cannon sounds were used and upon observing mole activity, mole
147 traps were placed in the fields.

148

149 **2.3 Data collection**

150 2.3.1 Earthworm sampling

151 Earthworms were sampled in Spring (May) and Fall (September) 2014 and in Fall (October)
152 2015 in the CT and NIT trials. During the first two sampling events three soil monoliths of
153 30x30x20 (lxbxd) cm were collected in each plot, whereas in the last sampling event, only two
154 monoliths were taken per plot, due to logistical constraints. After digging a monolith, 2.5 l of

155 allyl isothiocyanate (AITC) solution (1 ml AITC dispersed in 20 ml 2-propanol added to 10 l of
156 water and mixed thoroughly) was applied to the pit, to expel deep burrowing earthworms.
157 Andriuzzi et al. (2017) have demonstrated that this is a suitable earthworm sampling method for
158 all earthworm ecological groups in arable systems. Individuals expelled by AITC were rinsed
159 and collected alive for further laboratory work. Monoliths were stored separately in plastic bags
160 for transportation and storage in the lab at 2 °C until hand-sorting.

161 2.3.2 Earthworm sample processing and body weight measurements

162 Earthworm samples were hand-sorted in the laboratory and individuals were kept alive in pots
163 with moist paper tissue at 16 °C for 48 h to void the guts. After voiding of the guts, live body
164 weight and developmental stage (juvenile, subadult or adult) were recorded individually for the
165 Spring 2014 samples. Specimens were then killed in 70% alcohol and identified to species
166 immediately. For the hand-sorted individuals collected in Fall 2014 and 2015, some adjustments
167 were made to reduce sample processing time. Therefore, (part of) the individuals were stored in
168 70% alcohol immediately after voiding of the guts. In those cases, the dead body weight was
169 measured after placing the specimens in water for 10 minutes, to allow body rehydration. As in
170 Spring 2014, individuals were weighed, assigned to their developmental stage and identified to
171 species. To correct for differences in the method of body weight measurement among different
172 samplings, 20 individuals sampled in Spring 2014 (live body weights ranging from 0.1 to 1.6 g)
173 were re-weighed after being stored for two years in alcohol. A linear regression (Equation 1,
174 adjusted $R^2 = 0.90$; $p = 1.318 \times 10^{-10}$) was computed between the rehydrated alcohol-conserved
175 body weight of 2016 (BW_{ethanol} in Equation 1) and the live body weight of 2014 (BW_{live} in
176 Equation 1).

$$177 \quad BW_{\text{live}} = BW_{\text{ethanol}} \times 1.05663 + 0.03372 \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

178 The regression coefficients in Equation 1 were used as a correction factor to express all body
179 weight values per g live weight. For the purpose of this study, only (sub)adult individuals were
180 used, given that trait values for juveniles are lacking and might differ from adult trait values.
181 Adult individuals were identified using Sims and Gerard (1999) and juveniles using (Stöp-
182 Bowitz, 1969), and complete individuals, as well as heads, were considered for identification.
183 Body weight was measured for intact individuals only excluding some 12% of the sampled
184 specimens.

185

186 **2.4 Functional traits**

187 We assessed seven functional traits (five continuous and two categorical) (Table 1) that were
188 expected to respond to resource availability: body weight in grams (measured per individual,
189 corrected for different weighing methods at different sampling occasions – see equation 1 – and
190 averaged for each species over the study duration), average number of cocoons produced per
191 year, reproductive strategy, typhlosolis shape, average time to maturity in weeks (Hedde et al.,
192 2012a), and cuticle and epidermis thickness in μm (Briones and Álvarez-Otero, 2018). Body
193 weight was used as an indicator for the condition of the individuals and relates to the energetic
194 investment in growth; reproductive strategy and number of cocoons relate to the investment in
195 reproduction, thereby reflecting the potential for population recovery after disturbance;
196 typhlosolis shape relates to the nutrient uptake efficiency (Pelosi et al., 2013); time to maturity
197 reflects the investment in individual development, and often represents a trade-off with
198 reproductive investment (Stearns, 1976); finally, tegument thickness (cuticle and epidermis)
199 reflects the burrowing ability of the species (Briones and Álvarez-Otero, 2018).

200

201 **2.5 Data analysis**

202 2.5.1 Taxonomic and ecological group approaches

203 Earthworm species densities and ecological group densities (epigeic and endogeic) of
204 subsamples were averaged per plot for each sampling period and expressed as number of
205 individuals per meter square. Shannon diversity index was computed per plot, as a measure of
206 species diversity (richness and relative abundance).

207 2.5.2 Trait-based approach

208 Functional diversity was assessed by community weighted means (CWM) and Rao's quadratic
209 entropy (RaoQ). CWM was calculated for each trait, as the mean of trait values for each species
210 in the community, weighted by the relative abundance of the species associated with that value
211 (Lavorel et al., 2008). RaoQ was calculated for the complete set of traits as the dissimilarity
212 between pairs of species within each plot, weighted by the product of the relative abundance of
213 both species (Leps et al., 2006).

214 2.5.3 Statistical analysis

215 The taxonomic, ecological group and trait data were analysed using univariate and multivariate
216 statistics. NIT and CT trials were considered separate datasets, to avoid statistical
217 pseudoreplication (Hurlbert, 1984), since the sample size of each tillage system was only one. As
218 we were interested in the effects of inoculation of *L. terrestris*, we excluded this species from the
219 analyses. The univariate approach consisted of mixed linear models using crop residue
220 application and inoculation treatments as fixed factors. The structure of the split-plot design was
221 incorporated in each model by nesting the crop residue application within the inoculation factor
222 in the random factors. Several response variables were modelled for each sampling season:
223 (sub)adult earthworm density, Shannon diversity index, epigeic and endogeic densities, CWM

224 for each trait, and RaoQ for all traits combined. If overall linear mixed models were statistically
225 significant at $p < 0.05$, pairwise comparisons were computed. P-value adjustments to avoid
226 inflation type I errors were considered necessary when the interaction between the fixed effects
227 was significant due to the large number of pairwise comparisons. In those cases, *post-hoc*
228 adjustments (Tukey HSD) were used. Overall models' distribution and variance assumptions
229 were inspected visually, and if needed, a variance structure was used to avoid heteroscedasticity
230 (Zuur et al., 2009).

231 The multivariate approach consisted of testing the centroid "location" (Anderson, 2001) and the
232 "dispersion" (Anderson, 2006) of the community's species composition. An analogy towards the
233 CWM was made with a multivariate test of the "CWM composition". The centroid "location"
234 analysis is a non-parametric version of a multivariate ANOVA, whereas the "dispersion"
235 analysis tests the homogeneity of multivariate dispersions (Anderson, 2006). Both analyses are
236 based on dissimilarity matrices. For the species composition analysis, a Bray-Curtis dissimilarity
237 matrix was used, after square root transformation of the earthworm density data. For the CWM
238 composition analysis a Gower dissimilarity matrix was used, allowing the combination of
239 categorical and continuous variables. If the centroid location analysis was significant, a
240 nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) was plotted to visualize the results. As in the
241 univariate analysis, crop residue application and *L. terrestris* inoculation were used as
242 explanatory variables, and the split-plot design structure was incorporated in a permutation
243 scheme that considered our nested design.

244 We present the Fall 2015 results in the main text of this article. As most univariate and
245 multivariate tests of Spring and Fall 2014 appeared as not significant, these are presented in the
246 Supplementary materials A (Tables S1 – S9). The raw datasets of all seasons for both

247 experimental trials are available in the Supplementary materials B. All analyses were performed
248 with R 3.3.1 (R CoreTeam, 2014), using packages nlme 3.1–131, lsmeans 2.27-61, FD 1.0-12,
249 ade4 1.7-6 and vegan 2.4-5.

250

251 **3. Results**

252 **3.1 Inoculation of *Lumbricus terrestris***

253 *L. terrestris* was found in both experimental trials throughout the sampling seasons (77
254 individuals in NIT vs. 46 in CT, of which 8 and 5 individuals were (sub)adults, respectively),
255 although the patterns were erratic and unrelated to the inoculation and crop residue treatments
256 (Table 2). Furthermore, besides the inoculated (sub)adult individuals, juveniles were also found
257 (Table 2), already in Spring 2014 (just seven months after inoculation). Highest average juvenile
258 density of 9.3 ind.m⁻² was recorded in Fall 2014 in NIT – S₂₅₋ and in CT – S₁₀₀₊ (Table 2), while
259 highest average densities of (sub)adults reached 2.8 ind.m⁻² in NIT – S₂₅₊ and 1.9 ind.m⁻² in CT
260 – I₁₀₀₊, also in Fall 2014. By the end of the study, in Fall 2015, no (sub)adults of *L. terrestris*
261 were found in the CT trial, nor in the non-inoculated plots of the NIT trial. However, irrespective
262 of the crop residue treatments, 1.4 ind.m⁻² were found in the inoculated plots of the NIT trial.
263 Juveniles were found in higher densities, particularly in the NIT trial, in erratic patterns unrelated
264 to crop residue treatments.

265 **3.2 Earthworm density**

266 In NIT, in Fall 2015, native earthworm (sub)adult density was higher in S₁₀₀ than in S₂₅ and S₀
267 (60 % and 37%, respectively, Table 3), whereas it was not affected by the inoculation of *L.*
268 *terrestris* nor by the interaction between both factors. In CT, native earthworm (sub)adult density
269 was not affected by *L. terrestris* inoculation, irrespective of residue application (Table 3).

270 **3.3 Species diversity and composition**

271 Besides the inoculated *L. terrestris*, (sub)adult individuals of six other earthworm species were
272 found in the two tillage trials: *Aporrectodea caliginosa* (Savigny, 1826), *Allolobophora*
273 *chlorotica* (Savigny, 1826), *Aporrectodea rosea* (Savigny, 1826), *Eiseniella tetraedra* (Savigny,
274 1826), *Lumbricus castaneus* (Savigny, 1826) and *Lumbricus rubellus* (Hoffmeister, 1843).
275 Among them, only one individual of *E. tetraedra* was found in each trial in Spring 2014. *L.*
276 *castaneus* was not detected during Fall 2014 (both trials), nor in Spring 2014 in the CT trial.

277 In both trials in Fall 2015, Shannon diversity index was low (≤ 1.0) and was not affected by *L.*
278 *terrestris* inoculation, irrespective of residue application (Table 3). Furthermore, in NIT, local
279 earthworm community composition was not affected by *L. terrestris* inoculation, irrespective of
280 residue application, whereas in CT, earthworm community composition showed differences in
281 terms of centroid location in the multivariate dimensional space, both with respect to the crop
282 residue application and to *L. terrestris* inoculation (Table 4, Fig. 2). The community composition
283 showed a separation between the surface-applied (S_{100}) and the incorporated (I_{100}) crop residue
284 treatments *vs.* the treatment where no crop residues (S_0) were provided. The separation between
285 *L. terrestris* inoculation treatments was less clear (Fig. 2), concurring with the p-value of 0.042,
286 which although significant was rather high.

287 **3.4 Ecological groups' distribution**

288 The NIT trial, in Fall 2015 showed a pronounced effect of surface availability of crop residues
289 on earthworm ecological groups (Table 3). Epigeics' density was about 2.5 times higher in S_{100}
290 than in the other treatments. Endogeics also increased significantly with crop residue availability
291 on the soil surface, although the effect was less pronounced, and the patterns were more erratic.
292 Endogeics were about 40% more abundant in S_{100} than in S_{25} , but were not significantly different

293 from S_0 (Table 3). The inoculation of *L. terrestris* did not affect earthworms in terms of
294 ecological groups (Table 3).

295 In the CT trial only epigeics responded to the crop residue treatments in Fall 2015 (Table 3).
296 Epigeic density in S_0 treatment was 20 and 30% lower than when residues were applied on the
297 soil surface (S_{100}) or incorporated into the soil (I_{100}), respectively. No significant differences in
298 density of epigeics were found between S_{100} and I_{100} (Table 3). Similarly to the findings in the
299 NIT trial, the inoculation of *L. terrestris* did not affect earthworms in terms of ecological groups
300 (Table 3).

301 **3.5 Trait composition and diversity**

302 In the NIT trial, CWM of typhlosolis shape, body weight and epidermis thickness of (sub)adult
303 earthworm species were significantly affected in Fall 2015 by crop residue availability on the
304 soil surface (Table 5). In S_{100} , the proportion of species with a bifide typhlosolis was
305 significantly smaller (-15%) compared to absence of crop residues, whereas I_{100} did not differ
306 from other treatments (Table 5). Neither body weight nor epidermis thickness, although
307 significant in the overall linear models, showed significant pairwise differences among any of the
308 three crop residue treatments.

309 In the CT trial in Fall 2015, the CWM body weight, number of cocoons, typhlosolis shape, and
310 cuticle and epidermis thickness were affected by the crop residue application. The distribution of
311 reproductive strategies was modified by the inoculation of *L. terrestris*, and the time to maturity
312 by the interaction of both factors (Table 6). CWM of (sub)adult earthworms' body weight was
313 larger in S_{100} and I_{100} than in the S_0 (16% and 9%, respectively). CWM of the number of cocoons
314 was 22% higher in S_{100} than in I_{100} , which was, in turn, 40% higher than in S_0 . The proportion of

315 species with a bifide typhlosolis was 52% and 23% higher in S₀ than in S₁₀₀ and I₁₀₀,
316 respectively. CWM of cuticle thickness was 33% larger in S₁₀₀ than in I₁₀₀, and in turn, it was
317 57% larger in I₁₀₀ than in S₀. Epidermis thickness was 4% larger in S₁₀₀ and 3% larger in I₁₀₀ than
318 in S₀. Inoculation of *L. terrestris* increased biparental reproduction in the local earthworm
319 community by 6%. Finally, an interactive effect between crop residue and inoculation of *L.*
320 *terrestris* was found for the CWM of time to maturity: it was 11% higher in S₀₊ treatments than
321 in I₁₀₀₊, and between 11 to 13% higher in I₁₀₀₋ and S₀₋ than in S₁₀₀₋.
322 Multivariate analyses showed no significant patterns in CWM composition for NIT in Fall 2015,
323 but in CT, plots with crop residues (S₁₀₀ and I₁₀₀) were separated from plots without (S₀) (Table 7,
324 Fig. 3). Although significant, trait composition as affected by the inoculation of *L. terrestris*
325 (Table 7) did not show such a clear separation between plots where *L. terrestris* had been
326 inoculated or not (Fig. 3).
327 Regarding trait diversity in Fall 2015, RaoQ was 2.6 and 3.0 times higher in S₁₀₀ and I₁₀₀ than
328 when no crop residues (S₀) were provided in CT, while not different in NIT (Table 8).

329

330 **4. Discussion**

331 **4.1 Attainment of *L. terrestris* inoculation in arable fields**

332 Particularly from a farmer's perspective, *L. terrestris* was successfully inoculated in both
333 experiments, since this species has established and reproduced in both fields. However the
334 success rate depended on tillage regime. The NIT trial provided better conditions for
335 establishment of this species, considering that 1.7 times as many individuals were found
336 compared to the CT trial. Additionally, more reproduction took place in the NIT trial, as 1.7
337 times more juveniles were found compared to the CT trial. Our ratio of *L. terrestris* individuals

338 collected between the CT and the NIT trials is much smaller than that of Nuutinen et al. (2011),
339 who found an average of 0.6 ind. m⁻² and 4.3 ind. m⁻² in conventional tillage and no-till systems,
340 respectively. However, in their study, the time span between *L. terrestris* inoculation and
341 sampling was 13 years. Surprisingly, in our study, *L. terrestris* was also found in non-inoculated
342 plots, sometimes even at higher densities than in plots that had been inoculated. We could not
343 enclose the experimental plots with physical barriers, which would have, most likely, minimized
344 the colonization of non-inoculated plots by *L. terrestris*. The existence of physical barriers would
345 have hampered the use of agricultural machinery, which would not be feasible under
346 conventional agricultural practices. Instead, we maximised the distances between inoculated vs.
347 non-inoculated plots (between 21 and 30 m; Fig 1A) to prevent colonization of non-inoculated
348 plots, but unfortunately this appeared not to be sufficient. Although Mather and Christensen
349 (1988) quantified the length of the surface movement of individuals of *L. terrestris* at 19 m in
350 one night, Eijsackers (2011) reviewed that in grazed grasslands the population's areal expansion
351 varied between 1.5 and 4 m yr⁻¹, and therefore the distances between plots in our experiments
352 were expected to be sufficient to avoid the colonization of non-inoculated plots by *L. terrestris*.
353 However, besides active surface dispersal, passive dispersal by tractor tires (Marinissen and van
354 den Bosch, 1992) may also have promoted the occurrence of *L. terrestris* in non-inoculated plots.
355 In both of the two tillage systems in Spring and Fall 2014, crop residue amount or placement had
356 no effect on *L. terrestris* density, suggesting that *L. terrestris* populations were not necessarily
357 restricted by crop residue availability, in opposition to our first hypothesis. Instead of becoming
358 established where crop residues were not limiting, it is likely that *L. terrestris* have burrowed
359 elsewhere and initiated movement to forage (Butt et al., 2003) in the initial phase of
360 experimentation. On the other hand, by the end of the study (i.e. Fall 2015), distribution patterns

361 of *L. terrestris*, particularly juveniles, seemed to be related to crop residues application,
362 suggesting that the response of this species to crop residue availability takes time. In the NIT
363 trial, densities of juveniles were highest with full crop residue application, as well as in the CT
364 trial, provided that residues were on the soil surface.

365 Our choice of crop residue for earthworms, both the local communities and the inoculated *L.*
366 *terrestris* was pragmatic and conformed with common agricultural rotations, i.e., wheat or barley
367 followed by radish as cover crop. Although indoor experiments have shown that earthworms can
368 have good survival rates with those food sources (Al-Maliki and Scullion, 2013; Frazão et al.,
369 2019; Giannopoulos et al., 2010), there is also evidence that earthworms, and in particular *L.*
370 *terrestris*, show dislike for feeding on species belonging to the Brassicaceae family (Valckx et
371 al., 2011), when subjected to food choice experiments. However, wheat and barley straw
372 applications have been shown to increase *L. terrestris* densities in natural populations (Stroud et
373 al., 2016), while cover cropping with radish has shown no effects on populations of this species
374 (Stroud et al., 2017).

375

376 **4.2 Crop residue management and earthworm communities**

377 Our results demonstrate that the local community of adult earthworms was affected by crop
378 residue availability and position, both in NIT and CT systems, although crop residue effects were
379 not similar between the tillage types. We were not able to infer effects of the inoculation on the
380 existing earthworm communities since *L. terrestris* colonized non-inoculated plots via active or
381 passive dispersal.

382 In CT, neither the amount nor the position of crop residues affected (sub)adult total earthworm
383 density or Shannon diversity (Table 3). However, as long as crop residues were applied, either at

384 the surface or incorporated at ploughing depth, epigeics' density was 3.5 to 5 times higher than
385 in absence of residues. A similar response was found for species composition which differed
386 between plots with and without crop residues (Fig. 2). These results suggest that under
387 conventional tillage the application of crop residues, rather than the position in the soil profile,
388 plays a larger role in shaping earthworm communities. These outcomes were unexpected as we
389 hypothesised that epigeics, being known to feed on decaying litter (Bouché, 1977; Curry and
390 Schmidt, 2007), would only profit from crop residues applied on the soil surface. Furthermore, as
391 we anticipated that the most important responses in community composition due to crop residue
392 availability would be found for epigeics, we had expected that when studying species
393 composition in the multivariate space, plots without residue would be more similar to those in
394 which the crop residue was incorporated. Incorporation of crop residues under conventional
395 tillage is often claimed as a reason for the unsuitability of arable fields for epigeics (Kladivko,
396 2001). Furthermore, in a mesocosm experiment, Frazão et al. (2019) demonstrated that the
397 growth and survival of *L. rubellus* was reduced when crop residues (mixture of wheat straw and
398 radish) were incorporated at 30 cm soil depth.

399 In the NIT system, crop residue amount had a pronounced effect on earthworm density as well as
400 density of epigeics (Table 3), whereas species composition did not differ among the crop residue
401 treatments, which was rather surprising (Fig. 2). Crop roots that were not removed after harvest
402 may have been a food source to the earthworm populations in the no residue treatments.

403 However, this does not explain the differences in epigeic density among crop residue treatments,
404 unless the duration of our trials was not long enough to pick effects on species composition.

405 In CT, crop residue stimulated trait diversity (Table 8) and modified the community trait profiles
406 (Table 6). However, in analogy to the ecological group and community composition analyses,

407 the trait based approach indicated that the location of crop residue application (soil surface and
408 incorporated) was trivial, in respect to trait diversity and CWM. The observation in the CT trial
409 that trait diversity (RaoQ) was positively affected by crop residue provision suggests some
410 degree of niche differentiation in those communities. Lower competition for resources as well as
411 higher efficiency in resource utilization have been linked to higher ecosystem function (Mason et
412 al., 2005). Applying crop residues, either on the soil surface or incorporated in the profile,
413 contributed to increased earthworm body weight, and shifted the earthworm community towards
414 species with a thicker epidermis and cuticle, a feather shaped typhlosolis, and species with
415 relative high average rates for cocoon production (Table 6). Moreover, earthworm species that,
416 on average, produce more cocoons and that have a relatively thick cuticle profited even more
417 when crop residues were applied on the surface. However, those effects were always smaller in
418 magnitude than when compared to the no residue treatments (Table 6). These findings suggest
419 that crop residue availability, irrespective of position in the soil profile, promotes earthworms
420 with better burrowing abilities (i.e., larger tegument thickness, see Briones and Álvarez-Otero
421 (2018)), higher recovery from disturbance (i.e., higher reproductive output, measured as average
422 number of cocoons), higher nutrient uptake efficiency (i.e., larger proportion of species with a
423 feathered typhlosolis, see Pelosi et al. (2013)). These characteristics may contribute to a higher
424 performance of the earthworm community (i.e., larger body weight). The suggestion of higher
425 nutrient uptake efficiency by the community is surprising, as we expected that removing and not
426 applying crop residues as a food source would select for species with high nutrient uptake
427 efficiency, i.e. species with a feather shaped typhlosolis. However, typhlosolis morphology is
428 unlikely to be the only trait to determine nutrient uptake efficiency. For example Thakuria et al.
429 (2010) highlighted that earthworm species' gut wall-associated bacterial communities shifted

430 according to food sources provided, although these shifts were more strongly determined by
431 habitat type and ecological group.

432 In contrast to the CT trial, in the NIT trial crop residue treatments did not affect earthworm trait
433 diversity (Table 8) nor modified the trait profiles, with the exception of typhlosolis shape (Table
434 5), where patterns were similar to those observed in the CT trial.

435 Functional responses have been amply studied in plants (e.g., Díaz and Cabido, 2001), while
436 little attention has been given to soil organisms. Nevertheless, earthworm functional response to
437 disturbances has been studied, in relation to tillage intensity (Pelosi et al., 2013; Pelosi et al.,
438 2016), flooding of floodplains (de Lange et al., 2013; Fournier et al., 2012), and soil pollution
439 (Hedde et al., 2012b; Pérès et al., 2011). To our knowledge, this is the first study in the field
440 focussing on earthworm functional responses to crop residue availability and position. Studies
441 that have focused on the relationship between earthworm communities and crop residue
442 availability with more traditional approaches, such as community composition, ecological groups
443 or total density are also rare (but see Eriksen-Hamel et al. (2009)). The latter authors did not find,
444 however, any differences between high vs. low crop residues input in earthworm abundance or
445 biomass. Contrary to Pelosi et al. (2013) who obtained dissimilar results with different
446 approaches in studying earthworm community responses to tillage, in our study, analysis of
447 species composition, ecological groups and trait diversity and composition resulted in consistent
448 outcomes in terms of response to crop residue availability and position in NIT and CT systems.

449 Therefore, the additional value of trait-based approaches in assessing the response of earthworms
450 to crop residues management was not fully confirmed with this study. Nevertheless, since
451 functional traits represent explicit links between biology and environment, it remains useful to
452 better understand which traits are affected by crop residues, and in that respect our trait-based

453 approach has added value. In general, in CT, the provision of residues had an effect on several
454 facets of earthworm communities, whereas in NIT, residue quantity had small effects on
455 earthworm communities.
456 Finally, further research should focus on the hypothesis that increasing earthworm functional
457 diversity, mediated by crop residue application, enhances soil functioning. However, earthworm
458 effects might be less straightforward, as Frazão et al. (2019) found evidence of trade-offs
459 between earthworm-mediated soil porosity and formation of large water-stable macroaggregates
460 related to crop residue placement in the soil profile.

461

462 **5. Conclusions**

463 Our study clearly illustrates different earthworm community responses to crop residue
464 availability in arable fields under contrasting tillage regimes. The inoculation of *L. terrestris* was
465 successful, but the success was inconsistently related to crop residue management. In contrast,
466 the type of tillage played an important role in terms of the success of inoculations, with less
467 intensive tillage systems providing better conditions for this species than conventional
468 mouldboard ploughing.

469 The largest differences in earthworm community responses were observed between no residues
470 vs. available residues in the CT trial when using the species composition, ecological groups and
471 trait-based approaches, whereas in the NIT trial, only the use of an ecological group approach
472 enabled us to show an effect of crop residue amount on earthworms. Our results suggest that in
473 arable fields earthworms are more affected by the amount of crop residue than by its position in
474 the soil profile.

475

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637 **Figure captions**

638 Fig. 1. A) Scheme of the experimental design of the CT and NIT trials and list of treatments. B)
639 Details of inoculation scheme within each + plot.

640 Fig. 2. Nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) of (sub)adult earthworm communities for
641 the main factor crop residues (panels A) and C)) and main factor inoculation of *L. terrestris*
642 (panels B) and D)) of the non-inversion (NIT, panels A) and B), stress = 0.13) and conventional
643 tillage trials (CT, panels C) and D), stress = 0.16), in Fall 2015. Dissimilarity between species
644 composition was determined through a Bray-Curtis distance matrix and earthworm density was
645 square root transformed. Inoculated *L. terrestris* was excluded from dissimilarity matrices.
646 Polygons in different colours indicate different crop residues (S_{100} : grey, S_{25} / I_{100} : white, S_0 :
647 black) and inoculation levels (+: black, -: grey).

648 Fig. 3. Nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) of CWM for the main factor crop residues
649 (panels A) and C)) and main factor inoculation of *L. terrestris* (panels B) and D)) of the non-
650 inversion (NIT, panels A) and B), stress = 0.08) and conventional tillage trials (CT, panels C)
651 and D), stress = 0.05), in Fall 2015. Dissimilarity between CWM composition was determined
652 through a Gower distance matrix. Inoculated *L. terrestris* was excluded from dissimilarity
653 matrices. Polygons in different colours indicate different crop residues (S_{100} : grey, S_{25} / I_{100} :
654 white, S_0 : black) and inoculation levels (+: black, -: grey).

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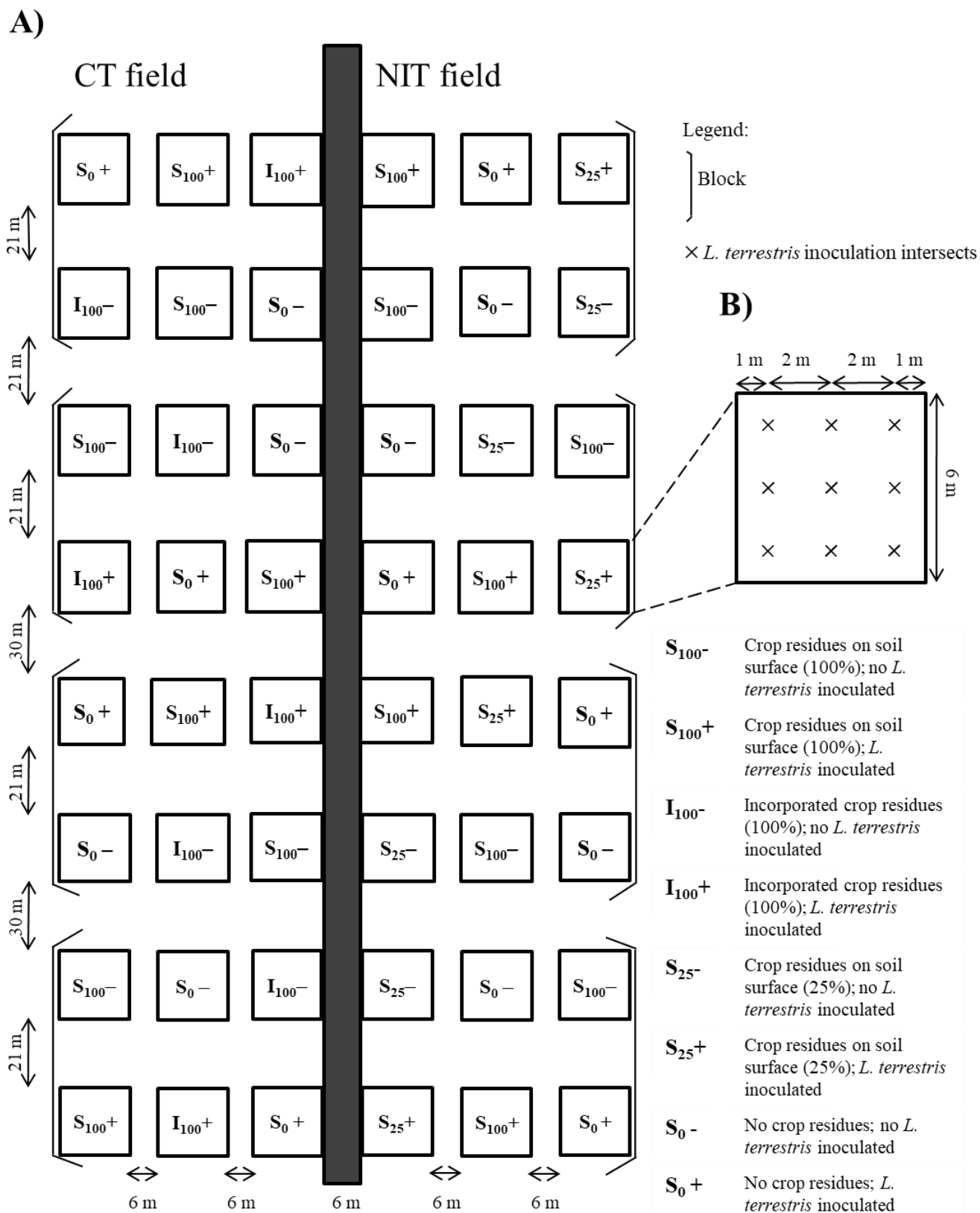
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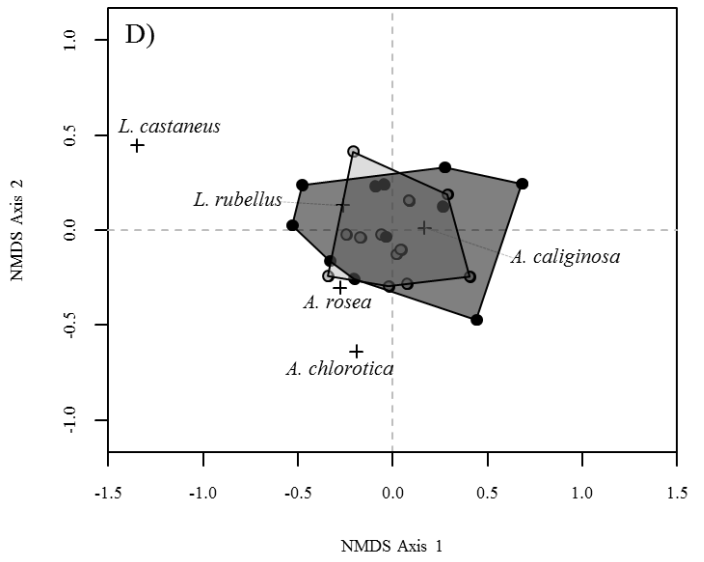
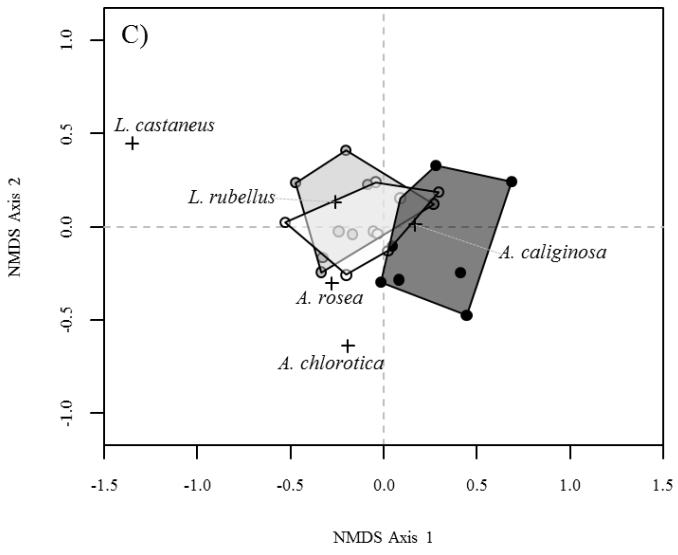
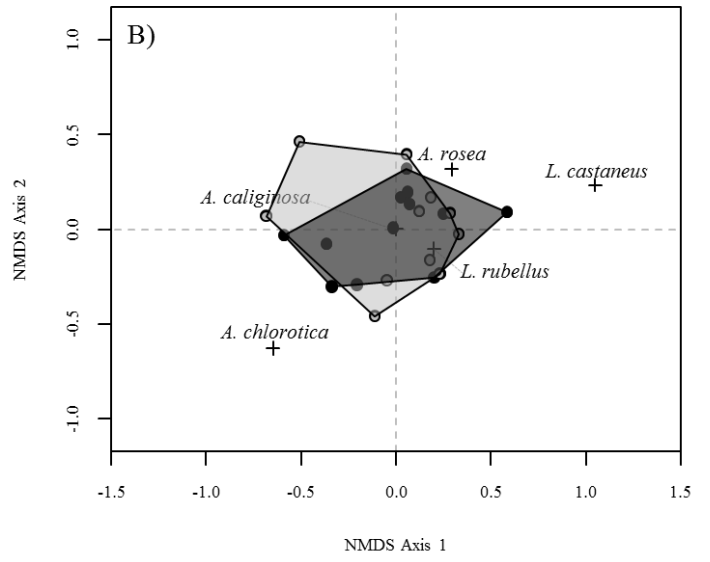
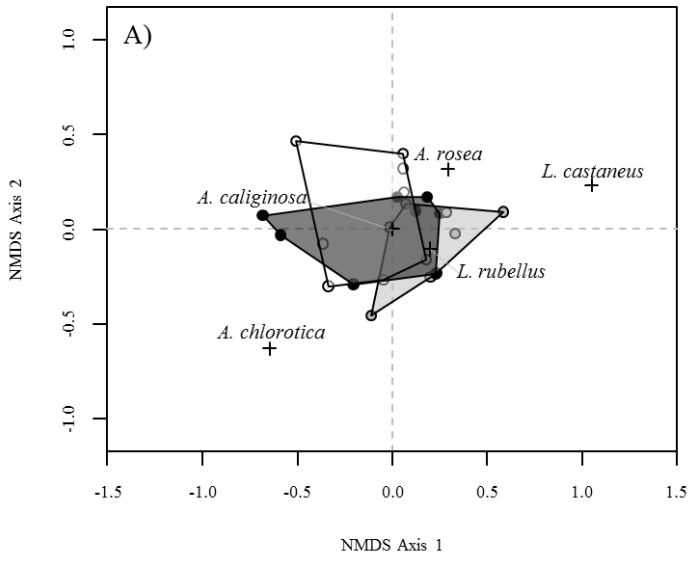
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659 **Figures**

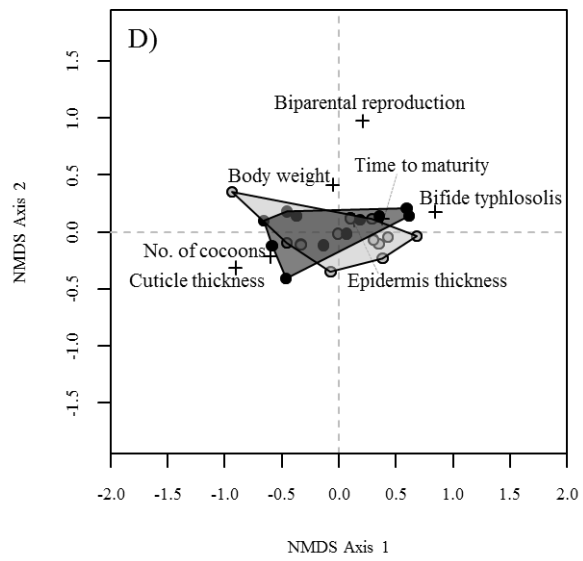
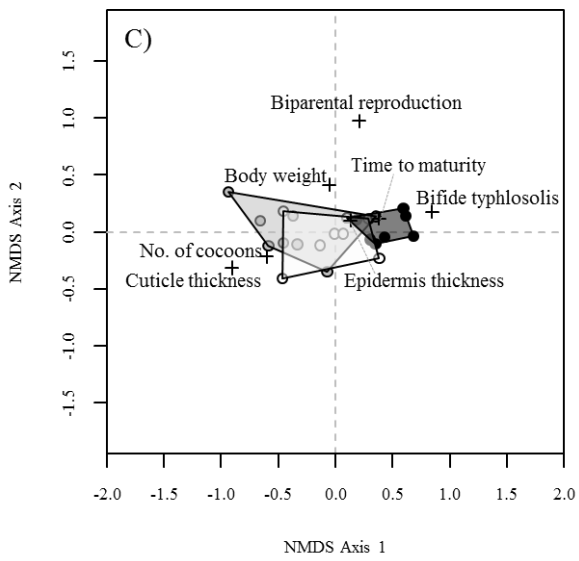
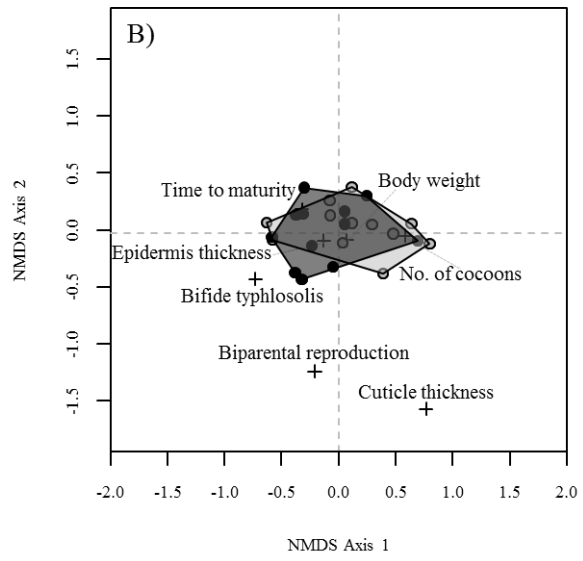
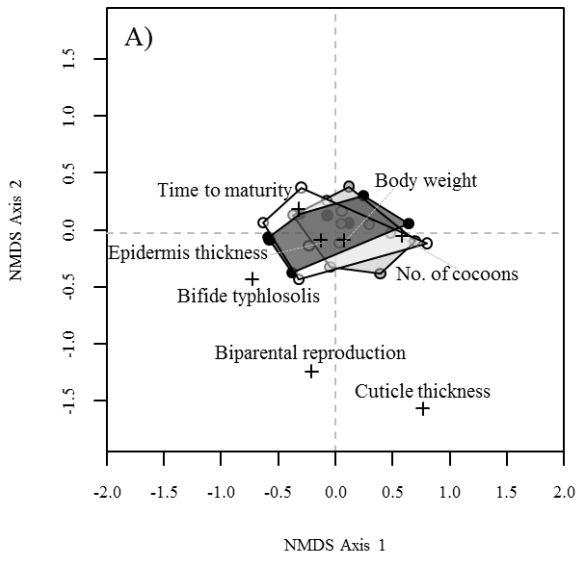
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662 Fig. 1



663 Fig. 2



664 Fig. 3

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672 **Tables**

673 Table 1 Literature acquired and measured (body weight) trait values of the species sampled in
 674 both trials. Earthworm species are arranged by ecological groups (first three species are
 675 endogeics; and last three are epigeics).

Species	Mean of adult body weight (g) †	No. of cocoon (per year) ‡	Reproductive strategy ‡	Typhlosolis shape ‡	Time to maturity (weeks) ‡	Cuticle thickness (µm) §	Epidermis thickness (µm) §
<i>A. caliginosa</i>	0.33	27	biparental	bifide	55	0.46	34.19
<i>A. chlorotica</i>	0.22	27	biparental	bifide	36	1.60	27.39
<i>A. rosea</i>	0.18	35	parthenogetic	bifide	55	0.67 #	32.68 #
<i>E. tetraedra</i>	0.08	72	parthenogetic	simple	13	1.74 #	27.27 #
<i>L. castaneus</i>	0.20	65	biparental	feather	24	1.74 #	27.27 #
<i>L. rubellus</i>	0.54	106	biparental	feather	37	3.21	39.42

676 † measured in this study

677 ‡ Hedde et al. (2012a)

678 § Briones and Álvarez-Otero (2018)

679 # Not measured in Briones and Álvarez-Otero (2018). Expert knowledge of Prof. Dr. Maria

680 Briones

681

682 Table 2 Mean, standard error (SE) and occurrence in number of plots (Freq) of the density of (sub)adult and juvenile individuals of *L.*
683 *terrestris* (ind. m⁻²) in the non-inversion tillage (NIT) and conventional tillage (CT) trials, for each of the sampling times (Spring
684 2014, Fall 2014 and Fall 2015). For legend of the treatments, see Figure 1.

NIT trial							CT trial						
Spring 2014			Fall 2014		Fall 2015		Spring 2014			Fall 2014		Fall 2015	
Mean (SE)	Freq		Mean (SE)	Freq	Mean (SE)	Freq	Mean (SE)	Freq		Mean (SE)	Freq	Mean (SE)	Freq
(Sub)adult individuals													
S₁₀₀₋	0.0 (0.0)	0	0.9 (0.9)	1	0.0 (0.0)	0	S₁₀₀₋	0.0 (0.0)	0	0.9 (0.9)	1	0.0 (0.0)	0
S₁₀₀₊	0.0 (0.0)	0	0.09 (0.0)	0	1.4 (1.4)	1	S₁₀₀₊	0.0 (0.0)	0	0.0 (0.0)	0	0.0 (0.0)	0
S₂₅₋	0.9 (0.9)	1	0.0 (0.0)	0	0.0 (0.0)	0	I₁₀₀₋	0.0 (0.0)	0	0.0 (0.0)	0	0.0 (0.0)	0
S₂₅₊	0.0 (0.0)	0	2.8 (1.5)	2	1.4 (1.4)	1	I₁₀₀₊	0.9 (0.9)	1	1.9 (1.3)	2	0.0 (0.0)	0
S₀₋	0.0 (0.0)	0	0.0 (0.0)	0	0.0 (0.0)	0	S₀₋	0.0 (0.0)	0	0.0 (0.0)	0	0.0 (0.0)	0
S₀₊	0.0 (0.0)	0	0.0 (0.0)	0	1.4 (1.4)	1	S₀₊	0.0 (0.0)	0	0.0 (0.0)	0	0.0 (0.0)	0
Juvenile individuals													
S₁₀₀₋	1.9 (1.3)	2	1.9 (1.3)	1	8.3 (2.8)	4	S₁₀₀₋	0.9 (0.0)	1	0.9 (0.9)	1	1.4 (1.4)	1
S₁₀₀₊	4.6 (2.1)	3	8.3 (3.1)	3	6.9 (2.9)	4	S₁₀₀₊	0.9 (0.0)	1	9.3 (3.0)	4	4.2 (2.0)	3
S₂₅₋	2.8 (2.8)	1	9.3 (4.7)	3	1.4 (1.4)	1	I₁₀₀₋	0.9 (0.0)	1	0.9 (0.9)	1	2.8 (1.8)	2
S₂₅₊	0.0 (0.0)	0	7.4 (4.8)	3	0.0 (0.0)	0	I₁₀₀₊	0.0 (0.0)	0	6.5 (3.2)	2	1.4 (1.4)	1

S₀-	1.9 (1.9)	1	3.7 (2.9)	2	4.2 (2.0)	3	S₀-	0.0 (0.0)	0	4.6 (2.5)	2	0.0 (0.0)	0
S₀+	0.0 (0.0)	0	8.3 (5.0)	3	0.0 (0.0)	0	S₀+	0.0 (0.0)	0	5.6 (2.2)	3	1.4 (1.4)	1

685

686

687 Table 3 Mean and standard error (SE) of earthworm (sub)adult density, density of epigeics and endogeics (ind. m⁻²) and Shannon
688 diversity index of the non-inversion tillage (NIT) and conventional tillage (CT) trials in Fall 2015. For legend of the treatments, see
689 Figure 1. F-statistics and associated p-value of best fitted linear mixed model of earthworm densities and Shannon diversity index.
690 Capital letters show significant pairwise differences within the main factor Crop residue application and small letters within the main
691 factor *L. terrestris* inoculation.

Treatments	NIT trial								CT trial							
	(Sub)adult density		Shannon diversity		Epigeics †		Endogeics ‡		(Sub)adult density		Shannon diversity		Epigeics †		Endogeics ‡	
	F	P	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p
S₁₀₀₋	109.7	(8.6) Ba	0.9	(0.1)	30.5	(3.6) Ba	79.2	(6.9) Ba	73.6	(11.4)	1.0	(0.1)	29.2	(1.4) Ba	44.4	(10.9)
S₁₀₀₊	97.2	(18.2) Ba	0.7	(0.1)	23.6	(8.9) Ba	73.6	(11.6) Ba	81.9	(11.4)	0.8	(0.2)	31.9	(9.2) Ba	50.0	(9.1)
S₂₅₋ / I₁₀₀₋	66.7	(22.3) Aa	0.7	(0.2)	15.3	(7.6) Aa	51.4	(17.0) Aa	75.0	(10.3)	0.6	(0.1)	13.9	(3.6) Ba	61.1	(7.5)
S₂₅₊ / I₁₀₀₊	62.5	(8.9) Aa	0.8	(0.0)	6.9	(1.4) Aa	55.5	(9.4) Aa	86.1	(7.3)	1.0	(0.1)	29.2	(3.5) Ba	56.9	(9.2)
S₀₋	70.8	(15.1) Aa	0.6	(0.1)	13.9	(5.3) Aa	56.9	(11.9) ABa	70.8	(9.2)	0.7	(0.1)	6.9	(2.7) Aa	63.9	(6.6)
S₀₊	80.5	(16.1) Aa	0.7	(0.2)	8.3	(4.8) Aa	72.2	(15.2) ABa	56.9	(15.3)	0.3	(0.1)	5.6	(3.9) Aa	51.4	(14.1)
Crop residues	9.753	<u>0.003</u>	1.847	0.200	18.084	<u>0.0002</u>	5.800	<u>0.017</u>	0.859	0.448	3.616	0.059	58.560	<u><0.0001</u>	0.860	0.448

Inoculation	0.015	0.910	0.035	0.863	2.073	0.246	0.091	0.783	0.038	0.858	0.450	0.550	2.140	0.240	0.212	0.676
Crop																
residues x	0.445	0.651	1.456	0.272	0.039	0.962	0.703	0.515	0.690	0.520	3.620	0.059	3.058	0.085	0.422	0.665
inoculation																

692 † Epigeic species: *Lumbricus castaneus*, *Lumbricus rubellus*

693 ‡ Endogeic species *Aporrectodea caliginosa*, *Allolobophora chlorotica*, *Aporrectodea rosea*

694

695 Table 4 F and p-values from non-parametric permutational multivariate analysis of variance
 696 (Location) and from multivariate homogeneity of variances (Dispersion) of (sub)adult earthworm
 697 community composition for each of the main factors (crop residues and inoculation of *L.*
 698 *terrestris*) and their interaction in the case of Location, of the non-inversion tillage (NIT) and
 699 conventional tillage trials (CT), for Fall 2015. Inoculated *L. terrestris* was excluded from
 700 distance matrices. Dissimilarity matrix calculated using the Bray-Curtis distance, and densities
 701 were square-root transformed.

	NIT trial				CT trial			
	Location		Dispersion		Location		Dispersion	
	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p
Crop residues	1.474	0.082	0.490	0.520	3.555	<u>0.013</u>	1.126	0.217
Inoculation	1.064	0.559	0.141	0.778	1.886	<u>0.042</u>	2.315	0.223
Crop residues x inoculation	0.335	0.794	-	-	2.095	0.072	-	-

702

703

704 Table 5 Mean and standard error (SE) of community weighted means (CWM) for the trait values in the **non-inversion tillage trial**
 705 **(NIT)**, for Fall 2015. Earthworm community taken into account for the computation excluded inoculated *L. terrestris*. For legend of
 706 the treatments, see Figure 1. F-statistics and associated p-value of best fitted linear mixed model of CWM. Both categorical traits only
 707 had two trait values, therefore, only one is shown. Capital letters show significant pairwise differences within the main factor Crop
 708 residue application and small letters within the main factor *L. terrestris* inoculation.

Treatments	Body weight		No. of cocoons		Reproductive		Typhlosolis		Time to		Cuticle		Epidermis	
	(g)		(per year)		strategy †		shape ‡		maturity		thickness (µm)		thickness (µm)	
S₁₀₀₋	0.37 (0.01)	Aa	49.02 (1.55)		0.93 (0.05)		0.72 (0.03)	Aa	48.40 (1.55)		1.30 (0.11)		34.87 (0.39)	Aa
S₁₀₀₊	0.35 (0.02)	Aa	43.00 (4.77)		0.95 (0.03)		0.78 (0.06)	Aa	50.37 (1.43)		1.01 (0.17)		34.70 (0.64)	Aa
S₂₅₋	0.36 (0.02)	Aa	42.21 (6.46)		0.95 (0.04)		0.81 (0.08)	ABa	50.77 (1.69)		1.04 (0.23)		34.78 (0.54)	Aa
S₂₅₊	0.33 (0.01)	Aa	36.99 (2.48)		0.92 (0.05)		0.88 (0.03)	ABa	50.14 (1.35)		0.97 (0.06)		33.71 (0.68)	Aa
S₀₋	0.36 (0.02)	Aa	41.51 (6.05)		0.96 (0.02)		0.82 (0.07)	Ba	51.09 (0.90)		1.00 (0.18)		34.82 (0.58)	Aa
S₀₊	0.33 (0.01)	Aa	35.37 (4.59)		0.91 (0.04)		0.90 (0.05)	Ba	51.22 (1.20)		0.87 (0.13)		33.83 (0.67)	Aa
	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p
Crop residues	4.310	<u>0.039</u>	3.746	0.055	0.044	0.957	4.710	<u>0.031</u>	1.444	0.274	1.267	0.317	4.915	<u>0.028</u>
Inoculation	1.860	0.266	1.239	0.347	0.801	0.437	1.217	0.351	0.103	0.770	1.321	0.334	0.902	0.412

Crop														
residues x	0.553	0.589	0.009	0.991	0.571	0.580	0.035	0.966	0.806	0.469	0.314	0.736	1.638	0.235
inoculation														

709 † Results presented for the category of biparental reproductive strategy;

710 ‡ Results presented for the category of bifide typhlosolis.

711 Table 6 Means and standard errors of community weighted means (CWM) for the trait in the **conventional tillage trial (CT)**, for Fall
712 2015. Earthworm community taken into account for the computation excluded inoculated *L. terrestris*. For legend of the treatments,
713 see Figure 1. F-statistics and associated p-value of best fitted linear mixed model of CWM. Both categorical traits only had two trait
714 values, therefore, only one is shown. Capital letters show significant pairwise differences within the main factor Crop residue
715 application and small letters within the main factor *L. terrestris* inoculation. When only small letters are provided, significant
716 differences refer to the interaction between both treatments.

Treatments	Body weight		No. of cocoons		Reproductive		Typhlosolis		Time to		Cuticle		Epidermis	
	(g)		(per year)		strategy †		shape ‡		maturity		thickness		thickness (µm)	
									(weeks)		(µm)			
S₁₀₀⁻	0.40 (0.02) Ba		61.67 (5.21) Ca		0.89 (0.05) Aa		0.57 (0.07) Aa		46.51 (1.46) ab		1.71 (0.19) Ca		35.98 (0.53) Ba	
S₁₀₀⁺	0.39 (0.01) Ba		55.87 (7.29) Ca		0.97 (0.03) Ab		0.63 (0.10) Aa		47.26 (2.32) abcd		1.50 (0.27) Ca		35.57 (0.34) Ba	
I₁₀₀⁻	0.36 (0.01) Ba		41.51 (2.27) Ba		0.93 (0.05) Aa		0.82 (0.03) Aa		51.81 (0.53) cd		0.96 (0.08) Ba		35.02 (0.19) Ba	
I₁₀₀⁺	0.38 (0.01) Ba		54.72 (4.19) Ba		0.90 (0.06) Ab		0.65 (0.06) Aa		47.65 (1.18) ac		1.47 (0.14) Ba		35.37 (0.40) Ba	
S₀⁻	0.33 (0.01) Aa		34.68 (2.38) Aa		0.90 (0.01) Aa		0.91 (0.03) Ba		52.36 (1.04) cd		0.78 (0.11) Aa		34.12 (0.18) Aa	
S₀⁺	0.35 (0.01) Aa		34.24 (4.21) Aa		1.00 (0.00) Ab		0.91 (0.05) Ba		52.72 (0.79) bd		0.75 (0.13) Aa		34.44 (0.45) Aa	
	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p
Crop residues	17.000	<u>0.0003</u>	25.566	<u><0.00001</u>	0.579	0.575	53.564	<u><0.0001</u>	16.291	0.0004	13.743	<u>0.001</u>	19.060	<u>0.0002</u>

Inoculation	1.796	0.273	0.424	0.562	64.751	<u>0.004</u>	7.008	0.077	12.328	0.039	0.475	0.540	0.350	0.598
Crop														
residues x	0.415	0.670	2.523	0.122	1.466	0.269	2.907	0.093	4.322	<u>0.039</u>	2.686	0.109	0.640	0.544
inoculation														

717 † Results presented for the category of biparental reproductive strategy;

718 ‡ Results presented for the category of bifide typhlosolis.

719 Table 7 F and p-values from non-parametric permutational multivariate analysis of variance
 720 (Location) and from multivariate homogeneity of variances (Dispersion) of CWM for each of the
 721 main factors (crop residues and inoculation) and their interaction in the case of Location, of the
 722 non-inversion (NIT) and conventional tillage (CT) trials, for Fall 2015. Inoculated *L. terrestris*
 723 was excluded from distance matrices. Dissimilarity matrix calculated using the Gower distance.

	NIT trial				CT trial			
	Location		Dispersion		Location		Dispersion	
	F	P	F	p	F	p	F	p
Crop residues	0.939	0.262	0.0495	0.960	9.690	<u>0.002</u>	1.0216	0.177
Inoculation	1.834	0.336	0.0433	0.868	1.306	<u>0.043</u>	0.0513	0.834
Crop residues x inoculation	0.085	0.949	-	-	1.779	0.260	-	-

724

725 Table 8 Mean and standard error of RaoQ in the non-inversion tillage (NIT) and conventional
726 tillage (CT) trials, for Fall 2015. Earthworm community taken into account for the
727 computation excluded inoculated *L. terrestris*. For legend of the treatments, see Figure 1. F-
728 statistics and associated p-value of best fitted linear mixed model of RaoQ. Capital letters
729 show significant pairwise differences within the main factor Crop residue application and
730 small letters within the main factor *L. terrestris* inoculation.

Treatments	NIT trial		CT trial	
S₁₀₀⁻	0.10 (0.01)		0.12 (0.01) Ba	
S₁₀₀⁺	0.07 (0.01)		0.10 (0.02) Ba	
S₂₅⁻ / I₁₀₀⁻	0.06 (0.02)		0.07 (0.01) Ba	
S₂₅⁺ / I₁₀₀⁺	0.06 (0.01)		0.11 (0.01) Ba	
S₀⁻	0.06 (0.02)		0.04 (0.01) Aa	
S₀⁺	0.05 (0.01)		0.03 (0.02) Aa	
	F	p	F	p
Crop residues	3.731	0.055	17.717	<u>0.0003</u>
Inoculation	2.756	0.196	0.138	0.735
Crop residues x inoculation	0.511	0.613	2.792	0.101

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