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Title	Calcium concentration in leaf litter alters the community composition of soil invertebrates in warm-temperate forests
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15	Running title: Calcium in leaf litter and soil organisms
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33 ABSTRACT

35	Many studies have shown the effects of aboveground plant species on soil organisms
36	due to differences in litter quality. However, the calcium concentration in soil has
37	received less attention as a controlling factor of soil invertebrate communities, despite
38	its being an essential element for many animals, especially crustaceans. Litter of
39	Japanese cedar (Cryptomeria japonica) plantations, which account for 19% of the
40	forested area in Japan, has a higher calcium concentration compared to other taxa such
41	as broad-leaved trees. We predicted that C. japonica plantations affect soil invertebrates
42	by altering calcium availability. We compared soil properties including exchangeable
43	calcium concentration and soil invertebrate communities between C. japonica
44	plantations and natural broad-leaved forests. Exchangeable calcium was significantly
45	higher in soil from cedar plantations than in that from broad-leaved forests. The
46	invertebrate community composition differed between the two forest types and was best
47	explained by the exchangeable calcium concentration. In particular, two major taxa of
48	soil crustaceans (Talitridae and Ligidium japonicum) were found only in cedar

49	plantations. Our results suggest that calcium concentrations in soil are altered in C.
50	<i>japonica</i> plantations and that this affects soil invertebrate communities.
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52	Keywords: Evergreen broad-leaved trees, Cryptomeria japonica, forest management,
53	crustaceans, Ligidium japonicum, Talitridae
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## 65 Introduction

67	Soil organisms can be affected by differences in aboveground vegetation (Bardgett
68	and Wardle 2010), often driven by the quality of the litter types (Swift et al. 1979; Berg
69	and McClaugherty 2003). Differences in litter quality among plant species can influence
70	the chemical properties of soil and act as determinants of the community structure of
71	soil invertebrates (Widden and Hsu 1987; Wardle et al. 2006). Because calcium is a
72	major structural component of the proteins forming animals, ambient calcium
73	concentration related to the animal densities in calcium poor environment (Alstad et al.
74	1999; Hessen et al. 2000; Ohta et al. 2014). Similarly, soil calcium concentrations can
75	have an important influence on soil invertebrate communities (Springett and Syers
76	1984). For example, the abundance of some soil invertebrates increase with the
77	available soil calcium concentration (Hotopp 2002; Reich et al. 2005; Skeldon et al.
78	2007). Global pattern of soil calcium concentration is governed by geological change,
79	acid deposition and annual precipitation (Potter and Conkling 2012; Binkley and Fisher
80	2013). For example, low rainfall areas (central North America) tend to have grater soil

81	calcium than humid Eastern United States (Potter and Conkling 2012). Calcium
82	availability and cycling in regional scale are governed by numerous factors including
83	forest vegetation dynamics, atmospheric deposition, soil mineral weathering, and losses
84	due to leaching (Likens et al. 1998; McLaughlin and Wimmer 1999; Dijkstra and Smits
85	2002). However, much research over the last half century has focused on the leaching of
86	calcium due to acid deposition (Likens et al. 1996; Driscoll et al. 2001), with much less
87	emphasis on other factors, such as changes in forest vegetation, even though the calcium
88	concentration in leaf litter varies greatly among tree species.
89	Litter of members of the Cupressaceae has a higher concentration of calcium
90	compared with other plant families (Kiilsgaard et al. 1987; Ohta et al. 2014). In this
91	study, we focused on Japanese cedar (Cryptomeria japonica, Cupressaceae) because its
92	leaf litter contains ~3% calcium (Xue and Luo 2002; Baba et al. 2004), more than three
93	times the amount in many other taxa, such as fir (Abies spp.) and many broad-leaved
94	trees (Kiilsgaard et al. 1987; Reich et al. 2005; Ohta et al. 2014). Japanese cedar
95	plantations cover 12% of the total land area and 19% of the forested area in Japan
96	(Forestry Agency 2011). Because soil organic matter in forests is derived mainly from

97	plant litter, the chemical properties of litter affect soil chemical properties (Reich et al.
98	2005). Indeed, the soil in Japanese cedar plantations has a calcium content that is three
99	to four times higher than that in evergreen broad-leaved forests in some parts of Japan
100	(Tsutsumi 1987; Ohta et al. 2014). Ohta et al. (2014) showed that the calcium
101	concentration in soil and streams, and the density and survival of dominant aquatic
102	crustaceans, were significantly higher in C. japonica plantations compared with
103	evergreen broad-leaved forests. However, Ohta et al. (2014) did not assess the effects of
104	forest vegetation on soil animal community through alteration of calcium availability.
105	Soil crustaceans that are frequently dominant decomposers in soil systems (O'hanlon
106	and Bolger 1999), and contain large amount of calcium in their body (Greenaway 1985).
107	Terrestrial crustaceans mainly take calcium from their food (e.g. leaf litter) and soil
108	water. Therefore, we anticipate that the calcium concentration in litter affects the
109	community structure of soil organisms in calcium-poor environment.
110	Addition of inorganic calcium often increases soil pH (Likens et al. 1996; Driscoll
111	et al. 2001; Warby et al. 2009), and therefore, higher calcium concentrations in soil due
112	to differences in forest vegetation are also likely to increase soil pH (Reich et al. 2005).

113	Alteration of soil pH also causes changes in the abundance of soil invertebrates (Hågvar
114	1990; Myrold 1990; Kaneko and Kofuji 2000). Therefore, plantations of C. japonica
115	may affect the community structure of soil invertebrates via increased soil pH.
116	We examined the effect of Japanese cedar (C. japonica) plantations on the
117	community structure of soil invertebrates, particularly the density of crustaceans. We
118	conducted field surveys in six plots that differed in surrounding forest vegetation. We
119	predicted (1) that the calcium concentration and soil pH would be higher in C. japonica
120	plantations compared to evergreen broad-leaved forests, and (2) that crustacean density
121	would be higher in <i>C. japonica</i> plantations than in evergreen broad-leaved forests.
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123	Methods
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125	Study area
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127	We conducted field surveys in the Wakayama Experimental Forest of Hokkaido
128	University (33°40'N, 135°40'E; 428 ha; annual mean temperature: 15.2°C) on the

129	Southern Kii Peninsula of Japan. The geological structure in this region consists of
130	sandstone and mudstone formed during the middle Tertiary (Tateishi 1976). Because of
131	the highly acidic soil and high annual rainfall (~4000 mm), the area is extremely poor in
132	calcium (Kihira et al. 2005). The forest soils are extremely thin, nearly exposing the
133	bedrock. Japanese cedar was planted in much of the area beginning in the 1960s, and
134	remnant natural evergreen broad-leaved forests are patchy.
135	We established a sampling plot (50 $\times$ 50 m) in each of six different catchments of
136	the Wakayama Experimental Forest. The plots were located on relatively flat forest
137	floors and separated by 0.2-1.5 km. Three of the six catchments were mostly covered
138	by evergreen broad-leaved forests 'evergreen', and the other three were covered by
139	Japanese cedar plantations 'cedar'. Forests in the 'evergreen' plots were dominated by
140	Quercus acuta, Quercus myrsinifolia, Quercus sessilifolia, Neolitsea aciculata, Eurya
141	japonica, and Machilus thunbergii (Ohta et al. 2014). The C. japonica trees in the
142	'cedar' plots were planted 30-82 years prior to this study. Calcium concentration in the
143	litter of <i>C. japonica</i> (3.4%) is about three times higher than in the evergreen
144	broad-leaved species (0.8–1.5%) at this study site (Ohta et al. 2014). Carbon, nitrogen,

145	phosphorus, and magnesium concentrations do not differ significantly among the
146	species, whereas potassium is about three times lower in C. japonica compared to the
147	broad-leaved species (Ohta et al. 2014).
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149	Sampling
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151	On 24 July 2012, we collected five samples at each plot from the litter and soil layers
152	using core samplers (soil layer: 50 mm in diameter and 50 mm in height, litter layer:
153	113 mm in diameter and 40 mm in height) to measure soil chemical properties and mass
154	of the litter layer. To determine the soil crustacean density, we established five sampling
155	quadrats separated by over 10 m in each plot. We collected crustaceans within the
156	sampling quadrats ( $25 \times 25$ -cm) to a depth of 3 cm (including litter and surface soil
157	layers) on 17 May and 21 September 2013. Soil crustaceans were separated from soil by
158	hand-sorting and placed in 99% ethanol. To examine the community structure of
159	ground-dwelling macroinvertebrates, we established two subplots ( $20 \times 20$ m) in each
160	plot. We collected ground-dwelling invertebrates using five pitfall traps (8 cm in

161	diameter and 6 cm in depth) per subplot. We placed the pitfall traps in each subplot $\sim 2$
162	m apart on 17 May, 19 July, 19 October, and 18 November 2013, and collected them 3
163	days later. We counted and identified all invertebrates found in the traps at least to the
164	ordinal level following Aoki (1999) and Ueno et al. (1985).
165	
166	Sample processing
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168	To measure soil nitrate and exchangeable calcium, we shook (160 rev min <sup><math>-1</math></sup> ) a 0.5 g
169	(air-dried mass) subsample of each soil sample in 100 ml of 1 M KCl solution for 1 h,
170	filtered the sample through filter paper (No. 5C; Advantec, Tokyo, Japan), and then
171	stored the suspension at -30°C until analysis. We analyzed the soil extracts for calcium
172	and nitrate concentration per unit air-dried mass using an inductively coupled plasma

- 173 (ICP) atomic emission spectrometer (ICPE-9000; Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) and the
- absorptiometric method (Sakata 2000). We placed a 5-g (air-dried mass) subsample of
- each soil sample in 25 ml 1 M KCL and measured the pH using a pH meter (TOA-DKK,
- 176 HM-30V; TOA Electronics, Tokyo, Japan). We dried soil subsamples in a drying oven

177	at 60°C for 24 h and then analyzed 50-mg dried soil samples for carbon and nitrogen
178	concentrations per dry mass using a CN analyzer (Sumigraph NC-900; Sumika
179	Chemical Analysis Service, Osaka, Japan). We dried a 1-g fresh subsample at 60°C for
180	48 h to calculate the soil water content as the difference in mass before and after
181	desiccation.
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183	Statistical analysis
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185	The soil properties (mass of the litter layer, water content, pH, C:N ratio,
186	exchangeable calcium, total carbon, total nitrogen, and nitrate concentration) were fit to
187	linear mixed models with forest vegetation type as a fixed factor and plot identity as a
188	random factor. The statistical significance of the effect of the fixed factor in each model
189	was evaluated by a likelihood ratio test ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ).
190	We performed canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) to explore the
191	relationships between the soil invertebrate composition and soil properties. The
192	invertebrate data from the five pitfall traps on all four sampling dates were pooled for

193	each subplot. Before conducting the CCA ordination, the abundance data for each taxon
194	were standardized to unit variance, and the most important explanatory variables from
195	all soil properties were determined by forward stepwise selection based on Akaike's
196	information criteria and Monte Carlo permutation tests. All statistical analyses were
197	conducted with R version 2.9.2 software (R Development Core Team 2011).
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199	Results
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201	Soil exchangeable calcium concentration (likelihood ratio test: $\chi^2 = 9.13$ , d.f. = 1, P
202	= 0.002) and C:N ratio (likelihood ratio test: $\chi^2$ = 8.90, d.f. = 1, <i>P</i> = 0.003) were
203	significantly higher, and nitrate concentration (likelihood ratio test: $\chi^2 = 8.53$ , d.f. = 1, P
204	= 0.003) was significantly lower in 'cedar' than 'evergreen'. In particular, soil in 'cedar'
205	plots had ~2.5 times more exchangeable calcium than the 'evergreen' plots (Table 1,
206	Fig. 1). The other soil properties including the mass of litter layer that was selected
207	explainatory variable in community composition of soil invertebrates did not differ
208	significantly between the forest types although soil pH was marginally higher in 'cedar'

209	than 'evergreen' (likelihood ratio test: $\chi^2 = 3.05$ , d.f. = 1, $P = 0.08$ ). We found two taxa
210	of crustaceans, Talitridae (Amphipoda) and Ligidium japonicum (Isopoda: Ligiidae) in
211	'cedar' plots by hand-sorting, but we found no crustaceans in 'evergreen' plots (Fig. 2).
212	Abundances of Talitridae and L. japonicum did not differ significantly among 'cedar'
213	plots between the two sampling months (generalized linear models assuming Poisson
214	distribution and likelihood ratio tests: $P > 0.05$ ).
215	Crustaceans, spiders, ants, beetles, lepidopteran larvae, and millipedes accounted for
216	23, 19, 9, 19, 10, and 9%, respectively, of the total invertebrates captured by pitfall traps
217	(Table 2). Crustaceans (mainly Talitridae and L. japonicum) dominated the
218	ground-dwelling invertebrate communities in 'cedar' plots, while they were remarkably
219	scarce, and millipedes (Paradoxosomatidae) and beetles were relatively abundant in
220	'evergreen' plots. Talitridae and L. japonicum were only collected in 'cedar' plots using
221	pitfall traps, and a few individuals of Venezillo sp. (Isopoda: Armadillidae) were
222	collected not only in 'cedar' but also 'evergreen' plots (Table 2). Taxonomic
223	compositions of ground invertebrates differed distinctively between 'cedar' and
224	'evergreen' plots (Table 2, Fig. 3). From all the soil properties, exchangeable calcium

225	concentration and mass of the litter layer explained the most variation among the 12
226	subplots in invertebrate community composition as determined through the forward
227	selection process of CCA. The first and second axes explained 17.17 and 14.04%,
228	respectively, of the variation in community composition (Monte Carlo permutation test:
229	P < 0.05). The CCA ordination showed that community composition in the 'cedar' plots
230	was distinctively different from that in the 'evergreen' plots along the first CCA axis,
231	which corresponded to the gradient of exchangeable calcium concentration, and the
232	'cedar' plots had much lower variation than the 'evergreen' plots (Fig. 3).
233	Compositional difference within 'evergreen' was distinctively indicated by second axis,
234	which weakly correlated with mass of litter layer (Fig. 3). Talitridae and L. japonicum
235	had large negative values on the first axis, and their high abundance characterized the
236	'cedar' community.
237	
238	Discussion
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240	Our results show that forest vegetation might affect the community structure of soil

241	invertebrates by altering calcium availability. Our field survey showed that soil
242	exchangeable calcium was ~2.5 times higher and soil pH was not significantly higher in
243	C. japonica plantations compared with that in evergreen broad-leaved forests (these
244	partly supported prediction 1). The major taxa of soil crustaceans (Talitridae and L.
245	<i>japonicum</i> ) were found only in <i>C. japonica</i> plantations, whereas only a few individuals
246	of a minor crustacean species (Venezillo sp.) occurred in broad-leaved forests
247	(supporting prediction 2). The community structure of soil invertebrates varied with
248	forest vegetation types, and calcium in the soil layer was the most important
249	environmental variable explaining the variation in community composition (supporting
250	prediction 2). Furthermore, both intra- and inter-plot variation in the soil invertebrate
251	community structure in C. japonica plantations were lower than in natural broad-leaved
252	forests, suggesting that the homogeneous environment created by the monoculture
253	plantation caused a large decrease in micro- and local-scale $\beta$ -diversity of soil
254	invertebrates. This might be caused by uniform increase in the abundance of Talitridae
255	and L. japonicum in C. japonica plantations and difference in the mass of litter layer
256	within 'evergreen' plots (Table 1, Fig. 3).

257	The difference in calcium concentration in leaf litter produces significant
258	differences in soil calcium (Morrison 1985; Kloeppel and Abrams 1995). In fact, Ohta
259	et al. (2014) showed that the calcium concentration in C. japonica litter was about three
260	times higher than that of dominant evergreen broad-leaved trees in Wakayama
261	Experimental Forest. We found that total calcium in the litter layer and
262	water-extractable calcium in the soil at 'cedar' sites were three to four times higher than
263	at 'evergreen' sites. These results support our finding that calcium supplied by C.
264	<i>japonica</i> litter increased the calcium concentration in the soil of our study plots.
265	Field manipulations at the Hubbard Brook Experimental Forest in the northeastern
266	United States indicated that adding CaSiO <sub>3</sub> to a catchment area increased calcium
267	concentrations in soil (Juice et al. 2006; Minocha et al. 2010; Nezat et al. 2010) and
268	altered the community structure of terrestrial snails, which have high demand for
269	calcium (Skeldon et al. 2007). Hotopp (2002) showed that the abundance of sugar
270	maple, a calciphilic species (Likens and Bormann 1970), was positively correlated with
271	terrestrial snail density. As in snails, crustaceans must ingest a lot of calcium
272	(Greenaway 1985). Because terrestrial crustaceans lose 20% of their body calcium

273	through exuviae (Ziegler et al. 2007), they need adequate calcium to calcify their
274	exoskeleton rapidly after exuviation. Terrestrial crustaceans in soil get calcium from
275	soil water and litter (Greenaway 1985; Glötzner and Ziegler 2000). Therefore, the
276	'cedar' plots, which have high calcium levels in their litter and soil layers, are well
277	suited for the survival of crustaceans (Figs. 1, 2). Indeed, both natural and artificial C.
278	<i>japonica</i> forests in central Japan have high densities of crustaceans (Ikeda at al. 2005).
279	Calcium addition to acidic soil increases soil pH (Groffman et al. 2006; Groffman
280	and Fink 2011). However, our result showed the soil pH was not significantly higher in
281	<i>C. japonica</i> plantations that increase the calcium concentration of the soils (Table 1).
282	Although previous studies showed soil pH may also affect the structure of invertebrate
283	communities by altering forest vegetation (e.g. Kaneko and Kofuji 2000), forward
284	selection of the CCA analysis selected exchangeable soil calcium concentration and not
285	pH in our result. Calcium concentration may have a greater impact on the community
286	structure of soil invertebrates in our study site.
287	The litter of other members of Cupressaceae, such as Chamaecyparis and
288	Sequoiadendron, also have high calcium content comparable to that of C. japonica

289	(Kiilsgaard et al. 1987; D'Amore et al. 2009). This might mean change in soil system
290	through difference in calcium concentration in leaf litter is caused in other forest types.
291	Furthermore, Reich et al. (2005) showed that exchangeable calcium in soils and the
292	density of earthworms were significantly higher in forests dominated by Acer
293	pseudoplatanus and Tilia cordata compared to forests dominated by Larix and Pinus,
294	even though calcium concentrations were ~40% lower in the litter of A. pseudoplatanus
295	and <i>T. cordata</i> than in <i>C. japonica</i> . This implies that the change in soil systems is
296	caused by the alteration of forest vegetation with low calcium content relative to $C$ .
297	japonica.
298	Soil crustaceans, such as Talitridae and L. japonicum, are powerful litter
298 299	Soil crustaceans, such as Talitridae and <i>L. japonicum</i> , are powerful litter decomposers (Zimmer 2002). Their existence influences litter decomposition rates
298 299 300	Soil crustaceans, such as Talitridae and <i>L. japonicum</i> , are powerful litter decomposers (Zimmer 2002). Their existence influences litter decomposition rates (O'Hanlon and Bolger 1999), and their abundance can lead to increased turnover rates
298 299 300 301	Soil crustaceans, such as Talitridae and <i>L. japonicum</i> , are powerful litter decomposers (Zimmer 2002). Their existence influences litter decomposition rates (O'Hanlon and Bolger 1999), and their abundance can lead to increased turnover rates of organic matter. Furthermore, soil crustaceans affect the dynamics of organic matter
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298 299 300 301 302 303	Soil crustaceans, such as Talitridae and <i>L. japonicum</i> , are powerful litter decomposers (Zimmer 2002). Their existence influences litter decomposition rates (O'Hanlon and Bolger 1999), and their abundance can lead to increased turnover rates of organic matter. Furthermore, soil crustaceans affect the dynamics of organic matter by incorporating organic material from the forest floor into deeper soil horizons (Mattson 2012) and may also enhance microbial biomass (Escher et al. 2000). Reich et

305	their litter cause an increase in exchangeable soil calcium and earthworm densities.
306	Therefore, especially in calcium-poor environments, transformation of forest vegetation
307	might change the densities of key decomposers such as crustaceans and earthworms,
308	thereby affecting the decomposition rates of soil organic matter and nutrient dynamics.
309	
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322	Alstad, N.E.W.,	, Skardal, L.,	Hessen,	D.O., 1	999.	The effect of	of calcium	concentration	on
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466	last colu	mn:	**	<i>P</i> <	< 0.0	)1, i	n.s.	P	> 0.	0
467	ss between an' niots									
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469	Signific 'redar'	n.s.	n.s.	n.s. (	*	n.s.	n.s.	* *	**	
470	een3	0.845	0.036	0.085	0.112	) ± 30.483	± 1.880	0.081	± 0.473	
471	evergr	7.80 ±	10.60 ±	3.58 ±	0.43 ±	201.00	14.15	0.82 ±	14.13	
472	en2	.569	0.023	0.226	.413	± 47.917	3.641	.113	0.638	
473	evergre	7.47 ± (	0.64 ± (	4.55±(	1.06 ± (	257.24	19.0±3	1.01 ± (	13.52 ±	
474	een1	± 1.240	0.045	0.182	0.183	8 ± 28.232	1.908	0.099	± 0.775	
475	everg	11.70	0.53 ±	4.26 ±	0.63 ±	139.5	9.90 ±	0.73 ±	14.27	
476		1.560	057	217	971	58.206	079	047	1.140	
477	cedar3	10.28 ± 1	0.57 ± 0.	5.20 ± 0.	2.21 ± 0.	174.65 ±	9.90 ± 3.	0.58 ± 0.	17.36 ± 1	
478		0.561	.064	.143	.349	E 33.999	.770	.059	0.781	
479	cedar2	11.04 ±	0.63±0	4.81 ± 0	<b>1.83 ± 0</b>	117.63 ±	6.76 ± 1	0.52±0	17.00 ±	
480		527	125	66	56	23.188	823	121	066	
481	cedar1	10.42 ± 0	0.62 ± 0.0	4.34 ± 0.1	1.81 ± 0.2	154.03 ±	10.33 ± 1	0.39 ± 0.0	15.89 ± 1	
482					(b/gm)					
483		ayer (g)	(6/6)		calcium	(b/bu	(b/bu)			
484	Plot name	Mass of litter l	Water content	Нd	Exchangeable	Total carbon (i	Total nitrogen	Nitrate (mg/g)	C:N ratio	

464 Table 1 Soil properties (mean  $\pm$  SE) at each plot. Significant differences between cedar 465 plantations (cedar) and evergreen broad-leaved forests (evergreen) are denoted in the 466 last column: \*\*P < 0.01, n.s. P > 0.05 (likelihood ratio tests).

## 485 Table 2 Abundance (5 traps<sup>-1</sup> 12 days<sup>-1</sup>; mean $\pm$ SE) of ground-dwelling

- 486 macroinvertebrates sampled by pitfall traps. 'cedar' and 'evergreen' mean cedar
- 487 plantation and evergreen broad-leaved forest.

	cedar	everareen
Gastropoda	0.67 + 0.67	
Oligochaeta	0.07 ± 0.07	0.00 ± 0.00
Haplotaxida	0.33 + 0.33	0 00 + 0 00
Diplopoda	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 1 0.00
Polydesmida		
Paradoxosomatidae	$0.00 \pm 0.00$	3.33 ± 1.76
Xystodesmidae	0.00 - 0.00	0.000 =0
Xystodesmus sp.	0.33 + 0.33	0.00 + 0.00
Julida	0.00 - 0.00	0.000 - 0.000
Julidae		
Anaulaciulus sp.	$0.00 \pm 0.00$	0.33 ± 0.33
Arachnida		
Araneae	4.00 ± 0.58	4.00 ± 1.00
Crustacea		
Amphipoda		
Talitridae	4.33 ± 0.88	$0.00 \pm 0.00$
Isopoda		
Ligiidae		
Ligidium japonicum	4.67 ± 0.88	$0.00 \pm 0.00$
Armadillidae		
Venezillo sp.	0.67 ± 0.33	0.33 ± 0.33
Insecta		
Archaeognatha		
Machilidae	0.33 ± 0.33	0.33 ± 0.33
Orthoptera		
Rhaphidophoridae	0.00 ± 0.00	0.67 ± 0.33
Lepidoptera (larva)	2.33 ± 0.88	$2.00 \pm 0.00$
Hymenoptera		
Formicidae		
Pachycondyla chinensis	$0.67 \pm 0.67$	$0.00 \pm 0.00$
Aphaenogaster famelica	$0.33 \pm 0.33$	$1.00 \pm 1.00$
Paratrechina flavipes	$0.33 \pm 0.33$	$0.67 \pm 0.67$
Formica hayashi	1.00 ± 0.58	0.33 ± 0.33
Camponotus obscuripes	0.00 ± 0.00	0.67 ± 0.67
Coleoptera (larva)	0.00 ± 0.00	0.67 ± 0.67
Coleoptera (adult)		
Geotrupidae		
Phelotrupes laevistriatus	$0.33 \pm 0.33$	$0.33 \pm 0.33$
Phelotrupes auratus	$0.33 \pm 0.33$	$0.00 \pm 0.00$
Scarabaeidae		
Paneius parvulus	$0.00 \pm 0.00$	$0.33 \pm 0.33$
Onthophagus nitidus	$0.33 \pm 0.33$	$0.67 \pm 0.67$
Staphylinidae		
Bolitobius sp.	$0.33 \pm 0.33$	$0.33 \pm 0.33$
Staphylininae	$0.00 \pm 0.00$	$0.33 \pm 0.33$
Carabidae		
Carabus iwawakianus	$0.00 \pm 0.00$	$0.67 \pm 0.67$
Chiaenius costiger	$0.67 \pm 0.67$	$0.00 \pm 0.00$
Stomis prognathus	$0.00 \pm 0.00$	$0.33 \pm 0.33$
Pterostichus (Rhagadus) sp.	0.33 ± 0.33	1.33 ± 0.88
Rupa japonica	1.00 ± 0.58	$0.33 \pm 0.33$
Synuchus picicolor	$0.00 \pm 0.00$	0.33 ± 0.33

Fig. 1 Concentration (mean  $\pm$  SE) of exchangeable calcium in soil in each plot. White and black bars indicate evergreen broad-leaved forests (evergreen) and cedar plantations (cedar), respectively. Significant differences between vegetation types are denoted by different letters (likelihood ratio tests, *P* < 0.05).

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Fig. 2 Abundance (mean ± SE) of Talitridae (a) and *Ligidium japonicum* (b) in each plot
by the hand-sorting method. White and black bars indicate evergreen broad-leaved
forests (evergreen) and cedar plantations (cedar), respectively.

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498 Fig. 3 Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) ordination of soil invertebrate

499 community composition in 12 subplots by the pitfall trap method. Explanatory variables

500 selected by forward selection are shown as arrows: Ca, exchangeable calcium

501 concentration and Litter, mass of the litter layer. White and black symbols indicate

subplot scores (mean  $\pm$  SE) of evergreen broad-leaved forests (evergreen) and cedar

503 plantations (cedar), respectively. Invertebrate taxa are abbreviated by alphabets: G,

504 Gastropoda; H, Haplotaxida; P, Paradoxosomatidae; Xs, *Xystodesmus* sp.; As,

505 Anaulaciulus sp.; A, Araneae; T, Talitridae; Lj, Ligidium japonicum; Vs Venezillo sp.;

506 L, Lepidoptera (larva); Pc, Pachycondyla chinensis; Af, Aphaenogaster famelica; Pf,

507 Paratrechina flavipes; Fh, Formica hayashi; Co, Camponotus obscuripes; C,

508 Coleoptera (larva); Pp, Panelus parvulus; On, Onthophagus nitidus; Pl, Phelotrupes

509 laevistriatus; Pa, Phelotrupes auratus; Bs, Bolitobius sp.; St, Staphylininae; Ci,

510 Carabus iwawakianus; Cc, Chlaenius costiger; Sp, Stomis prognathous; Ps,

511	Pterostichus (Rhagadus) sp.; Rj, Rupa japonica; Syp, Synuchus picicolor; M,
512	Machilidae; R, Rhaphidophoridae. Taxa indicated by boldface are crustaceans.
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Ohta et al. Fig. 2



555 Ohta et al. Fig. 3

