

Seasonal variations in macrofauna distribution according to the distance from a herbaceous strip in a Mediterranean alley cropping plot

Camille d'Hervilly, Isabelle Bertrand, Yvan Capowiez, Camille Béral, Léa Delapré-Cosset, Claire Marsden

▶ To cite this version:

Camille d'Hervilly, Isabelle Bertrand, Yvan Capowiez, Camille Béral, Léa Delapré-Cosset, et al.. Seasonal variations in macrofauna distribution according to the distance from a herbaceous strip in a Mediterranean alley cropping plot. Applied Soil Ecology, 2022, 170, pp.104309. 10.1016/j.apsoil.2021.104309. hal-03497099

HAL Id: hal-03497099 https://hal.inrae.fr/hal-03497099

Submitted on 5 Jan 2024

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



1 Seasonal variations in macrofauna distribution according to the distance from a 2 herbaceous strip in a Mediterranean alley cropping plot 3 4 Camille D'Hervilly ** 5 Isabelle Bertrand ^a 6 Yvan Capowiez ^b 7 Camille Béral c 8 Léa Delapré-Cosset ^a 9 Claire Marsden a* 10 11 ^a Eco&Sols, Univ Montpellier, CIRAD, INRAE, IRD, Montpellier SupAgro, 2 place Pierre 12 Viala, 34060 Montpellier, France ^b INRAE, UMR 1114 EMMAH, INRAE - Université d'Avignon, Site Agroparc, 84914 13 14 Avignon cedex 09, France ^c Agroof, 9 Plan de Brie, 30140 Anduze, France 15 16 17 * Corresponding authors 18 Camille D'Hervilly: c.dhervilly@gmail.com 19 Claire Marsden: claire.marsden@supagro.fr 20 21 22 23 24 25

Abstract

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

In alley cropping systems, herbaceous strips planted with trees are added into cropped fields. These systems could provide a favorable habitat for many organisms, producing shade in summer and litter in autumn, but their impacts on soil macrofauna are poorly studied, with most samplings limited to one date and therefore one season only. This study investigated the seasonal variations in the spatial distribution of soil macrofauna in a Mediterranean alley cropping plot. We sampled three different shading treatments: a strong shading treatment with lightly-pruned trees, a light shading treatment with pollarded trees, and a no-shade treatment without trees in the herbaceous strips. We measured the density of macrofauna individuals classified into different taxonomic and functional groups by the extraction of 25*25*25 cm soil cores in the herbaceous strip (with or without trees), and in the crop alley at 1 m and 2.5 m from the herbaceous strip. We found a similar response of macrofauna density to the distance from the herbaceous strip for all shading treatments. However, this response was strongly dependent on the season. In spring, just after soil tillage, most soil macrofauna presented higher densities in the herbaceous strip than in the crop alley, except for plant feeders. In early summer, this trend was mostly visible for earthworms, Diplopoda and adult Coleoptera. In autumn, higher densities in the herbaceous strip than in the crop alley were only significant for anecic and endogeic earthworms, while other macrofauna categories presented similar densities at all distances from the herbaceous strip, due to an increase in macrofauna density in the crop alley. These large seasonal variations in spatial distribution of soil macrofauna highlight the importance of temporal repetitions when studying community responses to agroforestry system design and management. The mechanisms by which population densities increased in the crop alley a few months after soil perturbation require further investigation.

52 Keywords

herbaceous strip; soil macrofauna; alley cropping; earthworm; agroforestry; market gardening

Abbreviations

57 HS refers to herbaceous strip

1. Introduction

We are facing a global decrease in biodiversity, partly associated with landscape simplification and with current dominant agricultural practices (Habel et al., 2019; McLaughlin and Mineau, 1995). Agroforestry, or the association of trees and agriculture, can promote an increase in animal biodiversity in cropped fields, because of the addition of new and more diverse habitats (Jose, 2009). For example, agroforestry has been shown to impact positively the presence of birds and of pollinator insects compared to simplified agricultural areas (Udawatta et al., 2019). Its impacts on soil dwelling fauna have been far less studied, especially in the Mediterranean zone, and so far work has focused mainly on earthworms or organisms of the soil surface such as adult carabids (Marsden et al., 2020).

In addition to its purely conservational value, soil-dwelling fauna performs essential roles in ecosystem functions, and increases in its diversity and density could improve the multifunctionality of agricultural land (Bender et al., 2016). Among them, litter-feeders (mainly earthworms, woodlice and millipedes) contribute to the decomposition of organic matter and to associated nutrient turnover through litter comminution and modification of microbial activity in their guts and fresh feces (Barrios, 2007; David, 2014; Frouz, 2018), and

to carbon storage in old feces (Frouz, 2018; Wolters, 2000). Some earthworms incorporate fresh organic matter into the mineral soil, where it can be protected from degradation and contribute to carbon storage (Bossuyt et al., 2005), which has also been shown for millipedes (Filser et al., 2016). Conversely, earthworms feeding on stabilized particulate organic matter contribute to mineralize it (Lavelle et al., 2006). Earthworm activity can also improve soil structure by the creation of burrows, soil decompaction and the creation of an organo-mineral horizon (Lavelle et al., 1998). In addition, the regulation of the invertebrate community by animal feeders is increasingly studied for pest control (Holland et al., 2017), and is performed by organisms living in the soil (Chilopoda, most larvae of Coleoptera, etc) or dependent on the soil for their larval stage or overwintering (insect predators at their adult stage) (Geiger et al., 2009). The soil can also host larvae of future crop pollinators. Practices promoting soil fauna abundance and diversity should thus be favored in a context of reduction of chemical inputs. In alley cropping agroforestry, trees are organized in rows in order to facilitate crop management practices along alleys. A strip of around 2 m wide is uncultivated below the trees, and an associated understory vegetation is initially sown or appears spontaneously, mostly herbaceous. The lack of disturbance, permanent soil cover and source of additional food resources from this non-exported vegetation creates a specific habitat in these herbaceous strips. They are an overwintering site for most surface-dwelling invertebrates living in alley cropping systems (Boinot et al., 2019), present higher earthworm densities than crop fields and crop alleys (Cardinael et al., 2019), and host high densities of woodlice (D'Hervilly et al., 2020; Pardon et al., 2019, 2020) and millipedes (Pardon et al., 2019). This herbaceous strip could particularly be a reservoir of macrofauna, i.e. soil fauna larger than 2 mm, then able to disperse towards the crop alley over wider distances than mites or springtails, for example. However, proof is still lacking that the herbaceous strip really

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

benefits the establishment of diverse and abundant communities in the crop alley, as studies of spatial heterogeneity in alley cropping systems are scarce and show contrasting results. For example, no variation in earthworm density was found in crop alleys with the distance from the herbaceous strip by Cardinael et al. (2019), while earthworm density was negatively impacted by herbaceous strip proximity in some sites (D'Hervilly et al., 2020; Rivest et al., 2020). In addition, the effect of the distance from the herbaceous strip is also probably influenced by tree properties, as they determine the quantity and quality of litter added in the crop alley and the strength and range of the microclimate effect. For example, woodlice and millipede activity were positively affected by old but not young tree row proximity in one study (Pardon et al., 2019), and a gradient in earthworm density from the tree to the center of the crop alley was found in a Canadian system for some tree species only (Price and Gordon, 1999). Finally, most studies rely on one single sampling season, while conceptually, dynamic exchanges between herbaceous strips and crop alleys can be expected to depend on the period of the year, driven by adverse or favorable properties of the crop alley or by soil organism life cycles affected by climatic conditions. This study aims to determine the seasonal variations of soil macrofauna distribution according to the distance from a herbaceous strip (HS) for different shade treatments in an alley cropping plot. We made the hypotheses that (i) HS can be a specific shelter for macrofauna, leading to higher faunal densities in HS than in crop alleys; (ii) this bimodal density distribution is particularly visible during certain seasons when conditions are not favorable for soil fauna in the crop alley, and replaced by a gradient-type distribution during other seasons due to soil macrofauna dispersal from the HS towards the crop alley; and (iii) this HS shelter effect is less visible in the presence of strongly-shading trees than in the presence of lightlyshading trees or without trees, as tree-induced changes in microclimate and in litter and soil organic matter presence may render crop alley conditions more favorable for soil macrofauna.

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

126

127

2. Methods

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

2.1. Site description

The study took place in an experimental alley cropping plot of 2,250 m² located near Vézénobres in the South of France (44.058 N, 4.111 E), included in a wider alley cropping site. The climate is Mediterranean (temperature of 15.2 °C and 760 mm of precipitation per year on average, French Institute of Meteorology Météo France). The soil is on recent alluvial deposits, loamy in the first 25 cm depth with a pH of around 8, 16 % of CaCO₃ and a CEC of 9.5 cmol⁺ kg⁻¹ on average (basic soil properties are detailed in Table 1 and Table S1 in the Supplementary resources). These soil properties were determined at the beginning of the sampling in 2018. Texture was analyzed on decarbonated soil sieved at 2 mm. Bulk density was determined with the cylinder method (dry weight of soil sampled in 100 cm³ cylinders). Soil organic carbon content was measured with an elemental analyser (Thermo Fisher Scientific Flash 2000) on soil sieved at 2 mm and ground at 250 µm. Hybrid walnut trees (Juglans nigra L. x Juglans regia L.) spaced 10 m apart were planted in 1995. Cereal and legume crops were grown with conventional practices between the tree rows until 2010 (mostly wheat and rapeseed, with some fallow periods). Since then, the plot has been converted to organic farming. The experiment was set up in 2015, after a year of sunflower cultivation with reduced tillage and no fertilizer, followed by a cover crop. The experimental plot was divided into three shade treatments of 750 m² each (Fig. 1a). In the strong shade treatment (shade ++), trees were only lightly pruned as usually done in agroforestry systems (mean diameter at breast height of 0.37 ± 0.07 m in 2017). In the light shade treatment (shade +), trees were strongly pruned to obtain pollarded trees (mean diameter at breast height of 0.33 ± 0.08 m in 2017).

Pruning took place in February 2015 and again in February 2018. In the last treatment, no tree was present (no shade), as trees initially present had been removed in 2011. Each treatment consists of three 8 m-wide and 25 m-long crop alleys and their adjacent herbaceous strips (HS), planted with trees in treatments shade ++ and shade + (Fig. 1a). HS are 2 m wide, covered with spontaneous vegetation and mowed about twice a year in each treatment (characteristics of the vegetation are detailed in Table 1 and Table S1 in the Supplementary materials). Each crop alley is made up of 5 mulched raised beds (with rameal chipped wood on 2 to 3 cm width or hay on 7 cm width alternating each year), about 90 cm wide and 20 cm high, parallel to the HS (Fig. 1b). In each shade treatment, the three crop alleys are managed as a rotation of 3 vegetable crops (carrots, tomatoes and lettuces), meaning that in a given year only one crop alley in each shade treatment is planted with tomatoes. The order of rotation of the different vegetables between the different crop alleys is the same for all shade treatments. Soil was rotary tilled and beds formed at the beginning of the experiment in 2015, and then soil was always rotary tilled after carrot production. After tomatoes or lettuces, beds were only consolidated with a hoe. Fertilization was similar for all productions, with the addition of ricinus oil cakes in 2015 (250 kg ha⁻¹), and 2016 (400 kg ha⁻¹), and of poultry manure in 2017 and 2018 (560 kg ha⁻¹ each year). No pesticides were used except in 2018 when slug pellets were applied (Ferramol at 0.08 kg ha⁻¹). Crops are drip irrigated during summer.

170

171

172

173

174

175

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

2.2. Sampling design and plot management during sampling

Macrofauna samplings took place in April (16th to 23rd) i.e. spring, June (18th to 22nd) i.e. early summer and November (14th to 21st) i.e. late autumn of 2018 to take into account seasonal variability. Rainfall during the year of the experiment was of 166 mm (January), 59 mm (February), 72 mm (March), 90 mm (April, first sampling), 101 mm (May), 4 mm (June,

second sampling), 20 mm (July), 56 mm (August), 19 mm (September), 257 mm (October) and 226 mm (November, last sampling, Bellegarde weather station, monitoring data from the INRAE CLIMATIK platform managed by the AgroClim laboratory of Avignon, Francedata). No sampling was carried out during late summer because the rainfall was very low, thus limiting the chance of finding soil macrofauna. Only the crop alleys planted with tomatoes were sampled in order to ensure homogeneous management practices. In these crop alleys, raised beds were rotary tilled in March and covered with a 2 to 3 cm-thick layer of ramial chipped wood obtained from walnut prunings. Different varieties of tomato plants previously grown in the nursery were planted a week after the first sampling (1.6 plants per m²). Each crop alley received two top dressings of poultry manure in March and in April after tomato plantation, for a total of 560 kg ha⁻¹. Tomato plants were drip-irrigated from June (before our sampling date) to mid-September. The previous crops in these crop alleys were lettuces (2015), tomatoes (2016) and carrots (2017). HS were moved after the June sampling date and at the end of summer. In tomato beds, manual weeding was regularly performed until the end of September, when tomato harvesting stopped. Sampling was designed in order to investigate the effect of the distance from the HS in different shading conditions. Macroinvertebrates were sampled along transects perpendicular to the HS with three distances from the HS (0 m i.e. in the middle of the HS, 1 m from the HS border i.e. in the closest tomato bed to the HS, and 2.5 m from the HS border i.e. in the next tomato bed) (Fig. 1b). For each shade treatment (shade++, shade + and no shade) and at each sampling season, each of the three distances from the HS was sampled eight times (eight transects were made), meaning 24 samples were taken for each shade treatment for a given season (72 samples per season all treatments combined, thus 216 samples in total). All samples were taken in the same crop alley for a given shade treatment as only one crop alley was planted with tomatoes in each shade treatment, and as no replication of the shade

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

treatments was available on this experimental plot. In the treatments with trees (shade ++ and shade +), four of these transects started at an HS sampling position located 1m from the nearest tree, and four others started at an HS sampling position located 5m from the nearest tree (Fig. 1b).

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

201

202

203

204

2.3. Macroinvertebrate sampling

At each sampling point, macroinvertebrates were hand sorted from soil blocks of 25*25*25 cm (adapted from Anderson and Ingram, 1993). Earthworms were kept alive in water, and then counted and determined at species level under laboratory conditions, and classified into the three main ecological categories anecic, endogeic and epigeic following Bouché (1977). Other macroinvertebrates were kept in ethanol, and then counted and determined under laboratory conditions. Chilopoda were determined at order level, while insects and Diplopoda were determined at family level when possible. Count values obtained were expressed as densities (individuals per m²). As ants presented a wide variation in their densities (due to their properties as social insects), ant density was separated in three density classes (no individuals found, between one and 240 individuals per m², and more than 240 individuals per m²). This classification was chosen to make a distinction between no ants present, few ants presents (240 individuals per m² refers to 15 individuals found in a soil block, abundance after which ant counts always reached high numbers of individuals which could not be counted precisely), and probable ant hill. A feeding group was attributed to each category of macrofauna when possible. Diplopoda, Isopoda and larvae of Diptera were classified as litterfeeders. Araneae, Chilopoda, Staphylinidae and larvae of Carabidae, Staphylinidae and Cantharidae were classified as animal-feeders. Elateridae, Curculionidae and larvae of Lepidoptera, Elateridae, Curculionidae and Melolonthinae were classified as plant-feeders, although they consume different parts of the plants. Anecic earthworms were classified at 50

% as soil-feeders, and at 50 % as litter-feeders based on anecic earthworm gut analyses by Bernier (1998), while endogeic earthworms were all classified as soil-feeders and epigeic earthworms were all classified as litter-feeders.

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

226

227

228

2.4. Statistical analyses

To investigate the effect of the distance from the HS within the different seasons and shade treatments, macroinvertebrate density (grouped in taxonomic and feeding groups, as well as ecological categories anecic, endogeic and epigeic for earthworms) was analyzed using generalized linear models fitted by quasi Poisson law (with a log link function). These analyses were not run for each earthworm species individually, as most species did not account for enough individuals. Distance from the HS (0, 1 or 2.5 m), shade treatment (shade ++, shade + or no shade) and season (April, June or November) and their interactions were used as fixed factors. Significant effects were determined by type II F tests and followed by pairwise comparisons (Tukey). Significance level was set to 5 %. As no significant difference was found for macrofauna density between transects distant 1 m and 5 m from the tree in the shade treatments with trees (shade ++ and shade +), all transects were treated as simple replicates, whatever their distance from the tree (data not shown). Analyses were run using R statistical software (version 3.6.2) (R Core Team, 2019) with packages *lme4* (Bates et al., 2015), car (Fox and Weisberg, 2019) and emmeans (Lenth, 2019). Ant density classes were analyzed with a cumulative link model, using the *ordinal* R package (Christensen, 2019). Species richness (i.e. number of different species) and the Shannon diversity index were calculated for earthworms at species level (vegan package in R, Oksanen et al., 2019), and analyzed using generalized linear models (species richness) or analyses of variance (Shannon index) with the same fixed factors season, distance from the HS and shade treatment.

Variations in macrofauna community composition between distances from the HS and shade treatments were evaluated with a principal component analysis using densities in taxonomic groups at order or family level when possible (packages *FactoMineR* and *ggplot2* in R) (Lê et al., 2008; Wickham, 2016) for each season. Groups with too few individuals (median equal to 0) were excluded from the analysis. Earthworms were separated into the ecological groups anecic, epigeic and endogeic to account for their different behaviors. In order to account for large differences in density between taxonomic groups, data were standardized to the maximal density measured for each taxonomic group (maximal margin method of function decostand, *vegan* package in R, Oksanen et al., 2019).

3. Results

3.1. Macrofauna community composition

Identified macrofauna were mostly earthworms ($17 \pm 12\%$ standard deviation, $32 \pm 17\%$ and $29 \pm 15\%$ of macrofauna individuals in the no shade, shade + and shade ++ treatments respectively), Chilopoda ($9 \pm 9\%$, $10 \pm 10\%$ and $20 \pm 16\%$ respectively), Diplopoda ($21 \pm 12\%$, $13 \pm 10\%$ and $4 \pm 6\%$ respectively) and Coleoptera ($26 \pm 13\%$, $17 \pm 16\%$ and $21 \pm 18\%$ respectively). Formicidae represented up to an estimated 82% of all individuals in some samples (while their mean contribution was estimated to $12 \pm 19\%$, $10 \pm 16\%$ and $7 \pm 14\%$ in the no shade, shade + and shade ++ treatments respectively) (Table S2 in the Supplementary materials).

The principal component analysis based on macrofauna density in the different taxonomic groups shows variable patterns with the season. In April and June, the principal component analysis mostly isolates sampling points of the HS from those of the tomato beds along the first axis (representing 23% of the variance in April and 25% of the variance in June) (Fig.

2a and Fig. 2b). In April, it is explained by more epigeic and anecic earthworms, Julidae and Isopoda in the HS than in the tomato beds. In June, it is explained by more epigeic earthworms, Julidae and Staphylinidae in the HS than in the tomato beds. The separation of sampling points from the different shade treatments is much less clear, and takes place along axis 2, which explains a lower part of the variance (16% in April, 15 % in June) (Fig. 2a and Fig. 2b). In the opposite, the separation between the HS and the tomato beds is not clear in November, where it is driven by component 2 (16 % of the variance, Fig. 2c), while the first component (22 % of the variance) clearly isolates the shade treatments from one another, especially the no shade treatment from shade ++. There were particularly more Polydesmidae and Elateridae larvae in the no shade treatment compared to other treatments, while the shade ++ treatment is additionally characterized by lower densities of endogeic earthworms and of Julidae compared to other treatments. The tomato beds at 1 m or 2.5 m from the HS could not be separated at any season.

3.2. Macrofauna density in taxonomic groups

The response of macroinvertebrate density to the distance from the HS was similar in all shade treatments (Table S3 in the Supplementary materials, significant interaction between distance from the HS and shade treatment for Diplopoda only, and probably due to large differences in densities between shade treatments, see Fig. S1 in the Supplementary materials). However, macrofauna density was different between shade treatments, with especially lower densities in shade ++ compared to other treatments for most taxonomic groups (except Chilopoda, cf Table S2 in the Supplementary materials).

The effect of the distance from the HS on macroinvertebrate density varies with the

taxonomic group and the season, as shown in Table 2 and Table S3 in the Supplementary

materials (significant effect of the interaction between the distance from the HS and the

season for Lumbricidae, Diplopoda, Isopoda, Chilopoda and adult Coleoptera). At all seasons, earthworms presented significantly higher densities in the HS compared to the tomato beds (1 and 2.5 m from the HS), and ants presented higher densities in the HS compared to 2.5 m from the HS (Table 2). Diplopoda presented higher densities in the HS than 2.5 m from the HS in April, and higher densities in the HS compared to all tomato beds (1 and 2.5 m from the HS) in June, but not in November. Isopoda presented higher densities in the HS than in the tomato beds (1 and 2.5 m from the HS) in April only. Adult Coleoptera presented higher densities in the HS compared to 1 m from the HS in April, and compared to both 1 and 2.5 m from the HS in June, while no difference was found in November. In the opposite, Chilopoda presented higher densities at 1 m from the HS than in the HS in November, while no difference was found at other seasons. Dermaptera and Coleoptera larvae did not vary significantly with the distance from the HS at any season (no significant effect of the interaction between distance from the HS and season or of the distance from the HS alone, Table S3 in the Supplementary materials). No significant difference between 1 and 2.5 m from the HS was found for any season or taxonomic group. The attenuation of differences in macrofauna density between the HS and the tomato beds in November is due to a significant increase in macroinvertebrate density at this season compared to April and June in the tomato beds but not in the HS for earthworms, Diplopoda, Isopoda and Chilopoda (Table 2).

318

319

320

321

322

323

324

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

3.3. Earthworm diversity

Seven species of earthworms were found in all shade treatments (Table 3). Earthworm diversity varied with the distance from the HS (Table 3). Species richness was higher in the HS than both 1 and 2.5 m from the HS in April and June, and than 2.5 m from the HS in November. The Shannon index presented a significant decreasing gradient from the HS to 2.5 m from the HS for all seasons.

The response of earthworm density to the distance from the HS varies with their ecological category (Fig. 3). Anecic earthworms presented higher densities in the HS compared to 1 and 2.5 m from the HS at all seasons, especially due to *Aporrectodea nocturna* (Table 3). Endogeic earthworms presented higher densities in the HS compared to 1 and 2.5 m from the HS in April and June, but only compared to 2.5 m from the HS in November, especially due to *Allolobophora chlorotica* and to *Aporrectodea rosea*. Epigeic earthworms (all of *Lumbricus castaneus* species) presented higher densities in the HS compared to 2.5 m from the HS in April, and compared to both 1 and 2.5 m from the HS in June, but no significant difference was found anymore in November for epigeic density between distances from the HS, because of a large increase in epigeic density in the tomato beds between June and November.

3.4. Feeding groups

The distribution of macrofauna in the plot varies according to the feeding group considered (Fig. 4). Litter-feeders presented higher densities in the HS compared to tomato beds in April and June, but not in November (Fig. 4a). This result was mostly driven by litter-feeding earthworms and Diplopoda. Soil-feeding earthworms presented higher densities in the HS than in the tomato beds at all seasons (Fig. 4b). Animal-feeders presented higher densities in the HS than in the tomato beds in April only (Fig. 4d). Animal-feeders were mostly Chilopoda, especially in June and November. Plant-feeders presented a different pattern from other groups, with a significantly lower density in the HS compared to the tomato beds in April (Fig. 4c). Plant-feeders were mostly Coleoptera larvae, of which a huge proportion consisted of Elateridae (85 $\% \pm 27 \%$).

4. Discussion

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

4.1. Constant patterns of macrofauna distribution throughout seasons

Throughout all seasons, HS macrofauna communities were characterized by higher densities of litter-feeders but similar Dermaptera and Chilopoda densities, compared to communities found in the tomato beds. Earthworms presented higher densities in the HS compared to both tomato beds at all seasons, especially due to anecic earthworms. Higher earthworm densities in HS than crop alleys were also found by Cardinael et al. (2019) in France and Rivest et al. (2020) in Québec for different alley cropping plots mostly cultivated with cereals and legume crops, and by Crittenden et al. (2015) in the Netherlands for herbaceous margins of fields cultivated with cereals and tuber crops. Anecic earthworms live in permanent burrows in the soil. HS were probably a favorable habitat to them as they were not subject to soil perturbation, while anecic earthworms were probably negatively impacted by the repeated destruction of their burrows and the lack of adequate food resources and protection against predators at the soil surface in the tomato beds (Chan, 2001). Aporrectodea nocturna, the main anecic earthworm species found in this study, is in particular known to reuse its burrows intensively (Capowiez, 2000). In addition, endogeic earthworms always presented higher densities in the HS than 2.5 m from the HS. Endogeic earthworms were probably strongly impacted by the recent rotary tillage as they live and feed inside the soil. Similarly, ants also presented higher densities in the HS than 2.5 m from the HS at all seasons. Anthills were probably repeatedly destroyed by intensive tillage in the tomato beds. In agreement with us, Boinot et al. (2019) found more activity density of ants in the tree row than in the crop alley in mature alley cropping systems cultivated with cereals in the south of France. In spatially structured systems like the one studied here, spatial differences in soil properties (e.g. higher soil organic carbon concentrations and stocks under tree rows such as often found in agroforestry systems (Cardinael et al., 2017)) could contribute to explaining locally higher densities of earthworms. However in our case, basic soil characteristics, including organic matter content, did not vary according to sampled positions (Table 1), therefore differences in macrofauna communities are more likely related to other changes in habitat characteristics caused by vegetation structure and management practices.

Dermaptera and Chilopoda density did not vary between HS and crop alleys at any season. Similarly, Smith et al. (2008b) did not find significant differences in Chilopoda abundance between grass margins and the adjacent wheat crop in England. These organisms are able to move quite fast and could have recolonized tomato beds more rapidly than other soil-dwelling organisms such as earthworms and larva after tillage. While adult Coleoptera have a faster dispersal, particularly flying Staphylinidae, they did not present the same pattern, probably because they use different habitats for living and feeding.

4.2. Seasonal variations in macrofauna distribution

Despite a constant general trend, this study reveals some seasonal variations in the differences between HS and tomato bed macrofauna communities, which could be due to climatic variations or to crop management. In April, most soil macrofauna was probably negatively impacted by the recent soil perturbations in the tomato beds. Smith et al. (2008b) indeed found that soil scarification reduces macrofauna density, but that populations recovered within a season after soil scarification. In the present study, these macrofauna categories seem to have recovered in November, or even in June for Isopoda. The recovery in November could have been amplified by the interruption of weeding and of other management, allowing the colonization of tomato beds by herbaceous vegetation, probably providing food and habitat usually not found in crop alleys for soil macrofauna. In addition, November 2018 was a particularly rainy month, which could have favored macrofauna activity. More generally,

Mediterranean regions are affected by strong climate variability: spring is not always a favorable season as it can sometimes be too dry, summer is generally very dry and hot, and intense rainfall events can occur in autumn, with variable timing and amplitude. Endogeic macrofauna is very sensitive to such variations in rainfall and temperature, with a limited activity in summer, and as found in this study a potential increase in activity in autumn. The herbaceous strip could act as a refuge in unfavorable seasons, by buffering climatic conditions compared to the exposed crop alley. In addition, some soil macrofauna taxa require different habitats at different periods of the year. In spring, macrofauna is probably found in the places where it overwintered, i.e. probably buffered habitats such as the HS. In summer, macrofauna concerned by aestivation (such as epigeic and anecic earthworms) is probably not present in places submitted to high temperatures and fast desiccation such as the crop alley, with little plant cover of the soil, low bulk density and fragile structure due to rotary tillage. The specific effect of the climatic conditions versus agricultural practices, particularly soil tillage, is however difficult to determine as each agricultural practice is strongly associated with the season. Epigeic earthworms and isopods are usually present at very low densities in tilled soils, probably because of the reduction in adequate shelter and food at the soil surface (Hassall and Tuck, 2007; Pelosi et al., 2009). Higher densities of isopods in tree rows compared to crop alleys have already been found in spring similarly to us in both young and old sites with cereals or tuber crops in Belgium and France (D'Hervilly et al., 2020; Pardon et al., 2019), and isopods have been shown to hibernate in tree rows in mature alley cropping plots in the south of France (Boinot et al., 2019). Epigeic earthworms have also been shown to be mostly present in tree rows in spring in France (Cardinael et al., 2019; D'Hervilly et al., 2020) or in field margins in July (Crittenden et al., 2015) compared to the neighboring crop. In addition, higher densities of Diplopoda were also found in tree rows than in adjacent crops by Pardon et

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

al. (2019). However, our study demonstrates that Isopoda, epigeic earthworms and Diplopoda can be present in the crop alley at similar densities to those of the HS in autumn, their establishment being probably favored in our case by the shelter provided by ramial chipped wood presence at the soil surface of the tomato beds. Tomato bed irrigation in June probably further favored early colonization by isopods, limiting the usual adverse conditions of the summer. Surprisingly, it did not favor epigeic earthworms whose presence was mostly restricted to the HS in June, although they are known to be positively affected by increases in soil humidity and litter presence at the soil surface (Bouché, 1977). Temperatures were probably too high for epigeic earthworm activity in summer, and ramial chipped wood was probably a more interesting resource for Isopoda than for epigeic earthworms. Adult Coleoptera were mostly Staphylinid beetles and Carabids in our study. Andersen (1997), and Smith et al. (2008b) found respectively more Carabid and Staphylinid beetles or more Coleoptera in field margins than in the cereal crop fields (in Norway and England respectively), similarly to what we found in April and June. The higher densities of adult Coleoptera in the HS than in the tomato beds in April and June could be due to additional prey for the animal-feeders in the HS as usually described for margin habitats (Landis et al., 2000). It could also be due to their behavior, as most of them feed at night (Martin-Chave et al., 2019a), and could use the HS as a shelter during the day. Contrary to our hypothesis, no significant difference was found between distances 1 m and 2.5 m from the HS for macrofauna density at all seasons. However, we only investigated the HS close vicinity, due to the limited size of our experimental plot (crop alleys were only 8 m wide), which could have hidden some effects. For example, Smith et al. (2008a) found higher macrofauna density up to 3 m from field margins compared to the middle of the field in England. However, while the HS presented higher endogeic earthworm density than both tomato beds in April and June, endogeic earthworm density was only significantly higher in

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

445

446

447

448

the HS than 2.5 m from the HS in November, suggesting a positive effect of HS vicinity on endogeic earthworm density in November. A positive effect of tree row proximity on earthworm density has already been suggested by Price and Gordon (1999). A possible explanation is that most macrofauna dispersed from the HS to at least 2.5 m from the HS in the crop alley in November, but that this dispersion was more limited for endogeic earthworms, whose movements are slowed as they are restricted to the soil. Plant-feeding Coleoptera larvae presented higher densities in the tomato beds than in the HS in April, and no differences between distances from the HS at other seasons. These Coleoptera were mostly wireworms (Elateridae), known to be detrimental to crops, which could explain their preference for the crop alley. However, wireworms are usually destroyed directly or indirectly by tillage (Parker and Howard, 2001), which was performed only a month before the first sampling season. Wireworms could have been located deeper in the soil in March during tillage, or soil cover by ramial chipped wood could have limited their predation after exposure at the soil surface. In addition, the use of rotary tillage could have made it easier for them to dig into the loose soil (particularly low bulk density in the crop alley). Overall, the seasonal and spatial patterns observed in this study reflect taxon-specific responses to a complex combination of variations in climatic conditions and management practices in a spatially-structured agricultural system. The well-known impacts of soil perturbation on soil fauna in agricultural systems (e.g. van Capelle et al., 2012) could be partially alleviated by the inclusion of herbaceous strips, allowing the recovery of some

472

473

471

450

451

452

453

454

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

4.3. Variations between shade treatments

macrofauna taxa in crop alleys at certain seasons.

We expected to find more homogeneous macrofauna densities relative to the distance from the HS in the strong-shade treatment (shade ++) than in the light shade (shade +) and no shade treatments, as we expected that the more homogeneous tree shading and litter inputs would attenuate the habitat differences between HS and raised beds. However, we found no effect of the shade treatment on the spatial distribution of macrofauna within the plot. Shade treatments most likely influenced all distances from the HS homogeneously, as soil macrofauna density and community composition differed between shade treatments at a general level, especially in November. Increased shade has been found to increase soil macrofauna density in tropical systems (Martius et al., 2004), but has rarely been studied in temperate or Mediterranean systems. Pardon et al. (2019) investigated the effect of herbaceous strips with or without trees at field edges in Belgium, and found a higher woodlice density in the presence of trees and no difference for millipedes, while in our study both were positively impacted in the absence of trees (no shade treatment). In our study, higher shade led to a lower macrofauna density for most macrofauna, Chilopoda excepted. This was particularly visible in November, possibly related to a delayed and cumulative impact on populations of the shade that appeared around the end of May. Similarly, Martin Chave et al. (2019b) found a lower activity density of the main Carabidae in the strong shade treatment compared to lighter shade treatments in September in the same experimental plot. The strong shade treatment (shade ++) was shown to buffer temperature variations in this same study (Martin-Chave et al., 2019b). A strong shade could have lowered temperature too much during the day in November, attenuating the positive impact of autumn on macrofauna activity. The soil environment was also probably strongly modulated by the soil cover by tree leaves and the limited herbaceous vegetation biomass observed in November in the strong shade treatment (shade ++). This would have further created buffered microclimate conditions in this treatment, and induced strong differences in litter quality and quantity between shade treatments, which has been shown to

474

475

476

477

478

479

480

481

482

483

484

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

494

495

496

497

modulate soil macrofauna abundance and diversity (Loranger-Merciris et al., 2008; Vohland and Schroth, 1999). Interestingly, earthworms and Dermaptera presented higher densities in the light shade treatment (shade +) than in both strong shade (shade ++) and no shade treatments, meaning the observed trends are not only the results of a variation of shade and of the inputs of tree litter. While these results on the shade treatments seem interesting, it is important to note that there was no replication of the shade treatments in this experiment. Observations of the differences between shade treatments are thus limited to hypotheses, and should be the focus of future investigations. However, the fact that the same effect of the distance from the HS was observed for three different shade treatments is relevant as it indicates that uncropped herbaceous strips are a possible reservoir of soil macrofauna in spring and summer, independently of the presence and management of trees on these strips.

5. Conclusions

Herbaceous strips were shown to present higher macrofauna density and earthworm diversity compared to nearby tomato beds whatever the shade treatment. This finding confirms the important role of non-perturbed herbaceous strips to preserve dense and diverse macrofauna communities across fields, including in alley cropping systems. However, this study reveals the importance of considering seasonal variations when studying soil macrofauna in alley cropping systems. The maximal seasonal activity was found to be in autumn, while most samplings in crops usually take place in spring, and patterns of macrofauna distribution in the plot could be quite different according to the season. The role of the season itself versus of the management practices (especially soil tillage) in these differences is hard to determine as both vary simultaneously, and requires further investigations with limited soil perturbation, such as zero tillage experiments, or the comparison of different crop managements. A possible

recolonization of crop alleys by macrofauna coming from the HS via seasonal movements in soil fauna after soil perturbation, as suggested by the results of this study, should be further investigated. Acknowledgements We wish to thank members of the Eco&Sols research unit and of the University of Avignon who helped with the field and identification work, especially Maé Podechard and Ninon Claude. We are grateful to Nancy Rakotondrazafy, Jean-Marc Souquet and Romain Domingo for the help in associated soil analyses, and to Delphine Mézières and Sébastien Boinot for the help in plant identification. We thank Denis and Virginie Florès for their kind permission to sample their field. This work was supported by the French foundation La Fondation de France. References Andersen, A., 1997. Densities of overwintering carabids and staphylinids (Col., Carabidae and Staphylinidae) in cereal and grass fields and their boundaries. J. Appl. Entomol. 121, 77–80. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1439-0418.1997.tb01374.x Anderson, J.M., Ingram, J.S.I., 1993. Tropical soil Biology and Fertility, a handbook of methods - second edition. CAB International, Wallingford, UK. Barrios, E., 2007. Soil biota, ecosystem services and land productivity. Ecol. Econ. 64, 269– 285. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2007.03.004 Bates, D., Maechler, M., Bolker, B., Walker, S., 2015. Fitting Linear Mixed-Effects Models Using lme4. J. Stat. Softw. 67, 1–48. https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v067.i01 Bender, S.F., Wagg, C., van der Heijden, M.G.A., 2016. An Underground Revolution:

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

549	Biodiversity and Soil Ecological Engineering for Agricultural Sustainability. Trends
550	Ecol. Evol. 31, 440–452. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2016.02.016
551	Bernier, N., 1998. Earthworm feeding activity and development of the humus profile. Biol.
552	Fertil. Soils 26, 215–223. https://doi.org/10.1007/s003740050370
553	Boinot, S., Poulmarc'h, J., Mézière, D., Lauri, P.É., Sarthou, J.P., 2019. Distribution of
554	overwintering invertebrates in temperate agroforestry systems: Implications for
555	biodiversity conservation and biological control of crop pests. Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.
556	285, 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2019.106630
557	Bossuyt, H., Six, J., Hendrix, P.F., 2005. Protection of soil carbon by microaggregates within
558	earthworm casts. Soil Biol. Biochem. 37, 251–258.
559	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2004.07.035
560	Bouché, M.B., 1977. Stratégies lombriciennes. Ecol. Bull. 25, 122–132.
561	Briones, M.J.I., Morán, P., Posada, D., 2009. Are the sexual, somatic and genetic characters
562	enough to solve nomenclatural problems in lumbricid taxonomy? Soil Biol. Biochem.
563	41, 2257–2271. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2009.07.008
564	Capowiez, Y., 2000. Differences in burrowing behaviour and spatial interaction between the
565	two earthworm species Aporrectodea nocturna and Allolobophora chlorotica. Biol.
566	Fertil. Soils 30, 341–346. https://doi.org/10.1007/s003740050013
567	Cardinael, R., Hoeffner, K., Chenu, C., Chevallier, T., Béral, C., Dewisme, A., Cluzeau, D.,
568	2019. Spatial variation of earthworm communities and soil organic carbon in temperate
569	agroforestry. Biol. Fertil. Soils 55, 171–183. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00374-018-1332-3
570	Chan, K.Y., 2001. An overview of some tillage impacts on earthworm population abundance
571	and diversity - implications for functioning in soils. Soil Tillage Res. 57, 179–191.
572	https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-1987(00)00173-2

- 573 Christensen, R.H.B., 2019. ordinal Regression Models for Ordinal Data. R package version
- 574 2019. 4-25.
- 575 Crittenden, S.J., Huerta, E., de Goede, R.G.M., Pulleman, M.M., 2015. Earthworm
- assemblages as affected by field margin strips and tillage intensity: An on-farm
- 577 approach. Eur. J. Soil Biol. 66, 49–56. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejsobi.2014.11.007
- 578 D'Hervilly, C., Marsden, C., Hedde, M., Bertrand, I., 2020. Sown understory vegetation strips
- impact soil chemical fertility, associated microorganisms and macro-invertebrates in two
- temperate alley cropping systems. Agrofor. Syst. 94, 1851–1864.
- 581 https://doi.org/10.1007/s10457-020-00501-w
- David, J.F., 2014. The role of litter-feeding macroarthropods in decomposition processes: A
- reappraisal of common views. Soil Biol. Biochem. 76, 109–118.
- 584 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2014.05.009
- Filser, J., Faber, J.H., Tiunov, A. V., Brussaard, L., Frouz, J., De Deyn, G., Uvarov, A. V.,
- Berg, M.P., Lavelle, P., Loreau, M., Wall, D.H., Querner, P., Eijsackers, H., Jiménez,
- 587 J.J., 2016. Soil fauna: Key to new carbon models. Soil 2, 565–582.
- 588 https://doi.org/10.5194/soil-2-565-2016
- Fox, J., Weisberg, S., 2019. An R Companion to Applied Regression, Third. ed. Sage,
- Thousand Oaks CA.
- Frouz, J., 2018. Effects of soil macro- and mesofauna on litter decomposition and soil organic
- matter stabilization. Geoderma 332, 161–172.
- 593 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoderma.2017.08.039
- Geiger, F., Wäckers, F.L., Bianchi, F.J.J.A., 2009. Hibernation of predatory arthropods in
- semi-natural habitats. BioControl 54, 529–535. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10526-008-
- 596 9206-5
- Habel, J.C., Samways, M.J., Schmitt, T., 2019. Mitigating the precipitous decline of terrestrial

- European insects: Requirements for a new strategy. Biodivers. Conserv. 28, 1343–1360.
- 599 https://doi.org/10.1007/s10531-019-01741-8
- Hassall, M., Tuck, J.M., 2007. Sheltering behavior of terrestrial isopods in grasslands.
- 601 Invertebr. Biol. 126, 46–56. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-7410.2007.00075.x
- Holland, J.M., Douma, J.C., Crowley, L., James, L., Kor, L., Stevenson, D.R.W., Smith,
- B.M., 2017. Semi-natural habitats support biological control, pollination and soil
- conservation in Europe. A review. Agron. Sustain. Dev. 37.
- 605 https://doi.org/10.1007/s13593-017-0434-x
- Jose, S., 2009. Agroforestry for ecosystem services and environmental benefits: an overview.
- 607 Agrofor. Syst. 76, 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10457-009-9229-7
- Landis, D.A., Wratten, S.D., Gurr, G.M., 2000. Habitat management to conserve natural
- enemies of arthropod pests in agriculture. Annu. Rev. Entomol. 45, 175–201.
- Lavelle, P., Decaëns, T., Aubert, M., Barot, S., Blouin, M., Bureau, F., Margerie, P., Mora, P.,
- Rossi, J.P., 2006. Soil invertebrates and ecosystem services. Eur. J. Soil Biol. 42.
- https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejsobi.2006.10.002
- 613 Lavelle, P., Pashanasi, B., Charpentier, F., Gilot, C., Rossi, J.-P., Derouard, L., André, J.,
- Ponge, J.-F., Bernier, N., 1998. Large-scale effects of earthworms on soil organic matter
- and nutrient dynamics To cite this version: Large-Scale Effects of Earthworms on Soil
- Organic Matter and Nutrient Dynamics, in: Edwards, C.A. (Ed.), Earthworm Ecology.
- 617 pp. 103–122.
- 618 Lê, S., Josse, J., Husson, F., 2008. FactoMineR: An R Package for Multivariate Analysis. J.
- 619 Stat. Softw. 25, 1–18. https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v025.i01
- 620 Lenth, R., 2019. emmeans: Estimated Marginal Means, aka Least-Squares Means. R package
- 621 version 1.4.1.
- 622 Loranger-Merciris, G., Imbert, D., Bernhard-Reversat, F., Lavelle, P., Ponge, J.F., 2008.

623 Litter N-content influences soil millipede abundance, species richness and feeding 624 preferences in a semi-evergreen dry forest of Guadeloupe (Lesser Antilles). Biol. Fertil. 625 Soils 45, 93–98. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00374-008-0321-3 626 Marsden, C., Martin-Chave, A., Cortet, J., Hedde, M., Capowiez, Y., 2020. How agroforestry 627 systems influence soil fauna and their functions - a review. Plant Soil 453, 29–44. 628 https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-019-04322-4 629 Martin-Chave, A., Béral, C., Capowiez, Y., 2019a. Agroforestry has an impact on nocturnal 630 predation by ground beetles and Opiliones in a temperate organic alley cropping system. Biol. Control 129, 128–135. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocontrol.2018.10.009 631 632 Martin-Chave, A., Béral, C., Mazzia, C., Capowiez, Y., 2019b. Agroforestry impacts the 633 seasonal and diurnal activity of dominant predatory arthropods in organic vegetable 634 crops. Agrofor. Syst. 93, 2067–2083. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10457-018-0309-4 635 Martius, C., Höfer, H., Garcia, M.V.B., Römbke, J., Förster, B., Hanagarth, W., 2004. 636 Microclimate in agroforestry systems in central Amazonia: Does canopy closure matter to soil organisms? Agrofor. Syst. 60, 291-304. 637 638 https://doi.org/10.1023/B:AGFO.0000024419.20709.6c 639 McLaughlin, A., Mineau, P., 1995. The impact of agricultural practices on biodiversity. 640 Agric. Ecosyst. Environ. 55, 201–212. https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-8809(95)00609-V 641 Oksanen, J., Blanchet, F.G., Friendly, M., Kindt, R., Legendre, P., McGlinn, D., Minchin, 642 P.R., O'Hara, R.B., Simpson, G.L., Solymos, P., Stevens, M.H.H., Szoecs, E., Wagner, 643 H., 2019. Vegan: ecological diversity. R Package Version 2.4-4. 644 https://doi.org/10.1029/2006JF000545 645 Pardon, P., Mertens, J., Reubens, B., Reheul, D., Coussement, T., Elsen, A., Nelissen, V., 646 Verheyen, K., 2020. *Juglans regia* (walnut) in temperate arable agroforestry systems: 647 effects on soil characteristics, arthropod diversity and crop yield. Renew. Agric. Food

648 Syst. 35, 533–549. https://doi.org/10.1017/S1742170519000176 649 Pardon, P., Reheul, D., Mertens, J., Reubens, B., De Frenne, P., De Smedt, P., Proesmans, W., 650 Van Vooren, L., Verheyen, K., 2019. Gradients in abundance and diversity of ground 651 dwelling arthropods as a function of distance to tree rows in temperate arable 652 agroforestry systems. Agric. Ecosyst. Environ. 270–271, 114–128. 653 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2018.10.017 654 Parker, W.E., Howard, J.J., 2001. The biology and management of wireworms (*Agriotes* spp.) 655 on potato with particular reference to the U.K. Agric. For. Entomol. 3, 85–98. 656 https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1461-9563.2001.00094.x 657 Pelosi, C., Bertrand, M., Roger-Estrade, J., 2009. Earthworm community in conventional, 658 organic and direct seeding with living mulch cropping systems. Agron. Sustain. Dev. 29, 659 287–295. https://doi.org/10.1051/agro/2008069 660 Price, G.W., Gordon, A.M., 1999. Spatial and temporal distribution of earthworms in a 661 temperate intercropping system in southern Ontario, Canada. Agrofor. Syst. 44, 141– 662 149. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1006213603150 663 R Core Team, 2019. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. Rivest, M., Whalen, J.K., Rivest, D., 2020. Variation of soil microbial and earthworm 664 665 communities along an agricultural transect with tree windbreak. Agrofor. Syst. 94, 1639– 666 1649. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10457-019-00476-3 667 Smith, J., Potts, S., Eggleton, P., 2008a. The value of sown grass margins for enhancing soil 668 macrofaunal biodiversity in arable systems. Agric. Ecosyst. Environ. 127, 119–125. 669 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2008.03.008 670 Smith, J., Potts, S.G., Woodcock, B.A., Eggleton, P., 2008b. Can arable field margins be 671 managed to enhance their biodiversity, conservation and functional value for soil 672 macrofauna? J. Appl. Ecol. 45, 269–278. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-

673	2664.2007.01433.x
674	Udawatta, R.P., Rankoth, L.M., Jose, S., 2019. Agroforestry and biodiversity. Sustainability
675	11, 2879. https://doi.org/10.3390/su11102879
676	van Capelle, C., Schrader, S., Brunotte, J., 2012. Tillage-induced changes in the functional
677	diversity of soil biota - A review with a focus on German data. Eur. J. Soil Biol. 50, 165-181
678	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejsobi.2012.02.005
679	Vohland, K., Schroth, G., 1999. Distribution patterns of the litter macrofauna in agroforestry
680	and monoculture plantations in central Amazonia as affected by plant species and
681	management. Appl. Soil Ecol. 13, 57-68. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0929-1393(99)0002
682	9
683	Wickham, H., 2016. ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis. Springer-Verlag, New
684	York.
685	Wolters, V., 2000. Invertebrate control of soil organic matter stability. Biol. Fertil. Soils 31,
686	1–19. https://doi.org/10.1007/s003740050618
687	
688	
689	
690	
691	
692	
693	
694	
695	
696	
697	

Figure captions

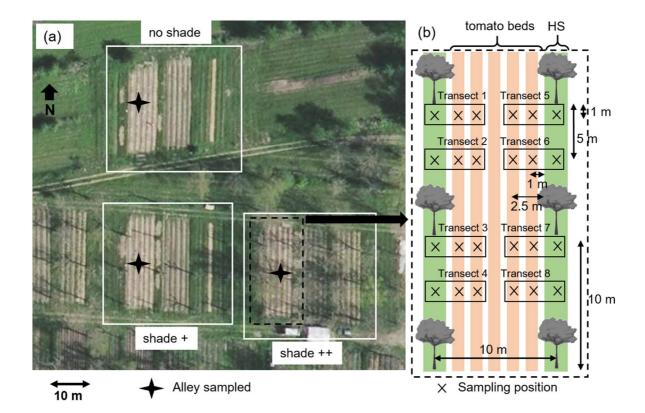
Fig. 1. Experimental plot (a) and sampling design (b). This sampling design was repeated for each shade treatment (no shade = no trees, shade + = strongly-pruned trees, shade ++ = lightly-pruned trees), and for each season (April, June and November of 2018). HS stands for herbaceous strip.

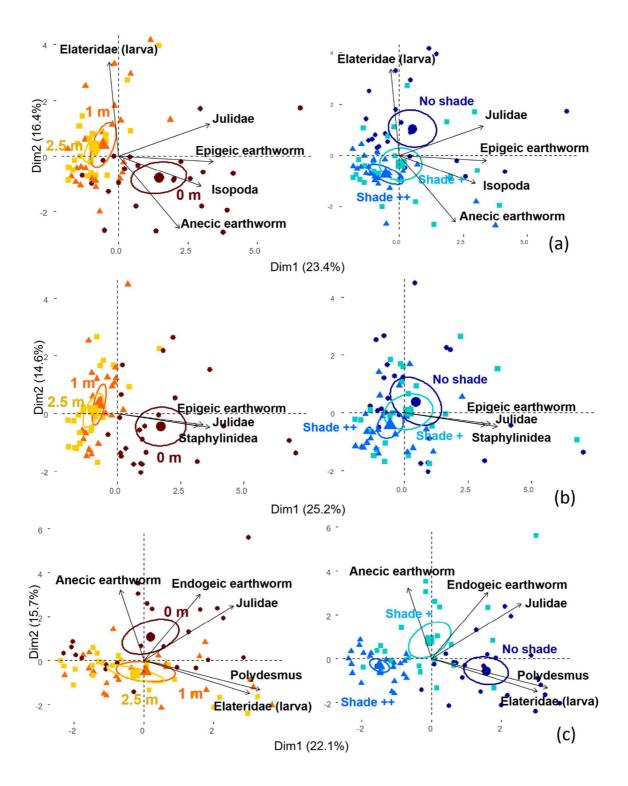
Fig. 2. Graphical representations of principal component analyses computed with macroinvertebrates at order or family level (when possible), for (a) April data, (b) June data and (c) November data. Earthworms were additionally separated by ecological categories. Individuals are identified by their distance from the herbaceous strip in the representations on the left, with red circles for 0 m, orange triangles for 1 m and yellow squares for 2.5 m. Individuals are identified by their shade treatment in the representations on the right with dark blue circles for the no shade treatment, light blue squares for shade + treatment, and medium blue triangles for shade ++ treatment. Ellipses represent confidence intervals at 95 % around barycenters. Only variables with a cos² > 0.5 are represented.

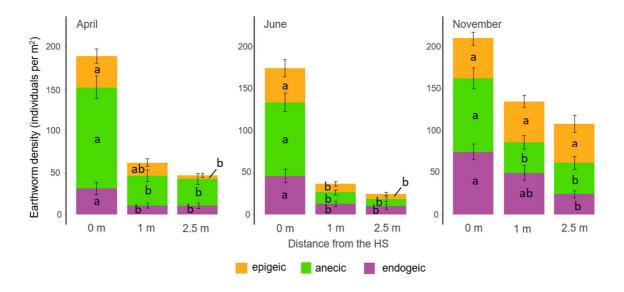
Fig. 3. Mean values of earthworm density for each earthworm ecological category at each season and each distance from the herbaceous strip (HS). Different letters indicate significant differences between distances from the HS for a given earthworm category and season (Tukey test, p-value < 0.05) after generalized linear models fitted with a quasi-Poisson law. Error bars are the standard error of the mean for each earthworm ecological category.

Fig. 4. Mean values of densities of litter-feeders (a), soil-feeders (b), plant feeders (c) and animal-feeders (d) at each season and distance from the herbaceous strip (HS). Different letters indicate significant differences between distances from the HS for the given season and

feeding group (Tukey test, p-value < 0.05) based on generalized linear models fitted with a quasi-Poisson law. Error bars are the standard error of the mean for each category of macrofauna included in the feeding groups.







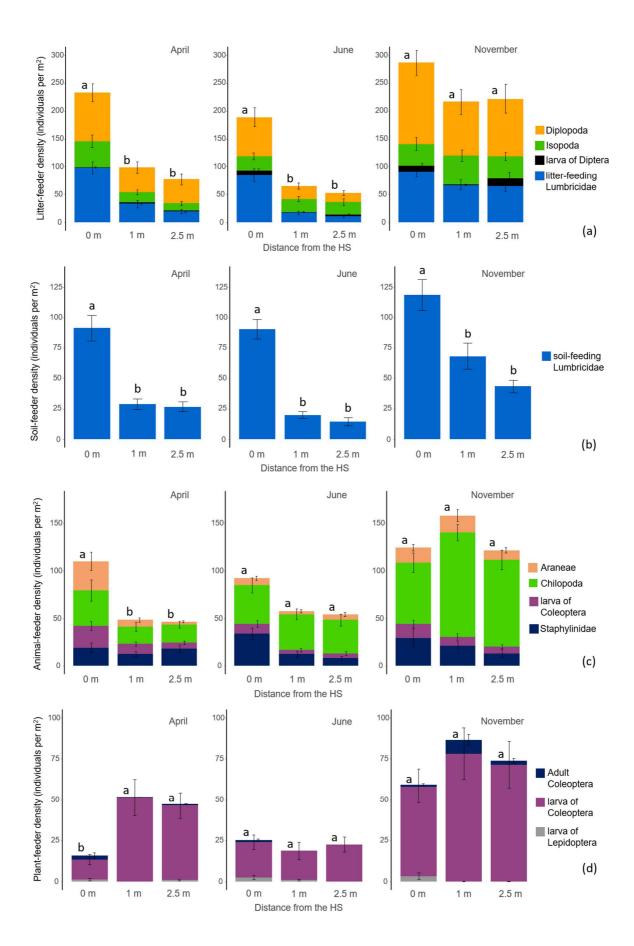


Table 1 Vegetation and soil properties (of the 0-25 cm soil layer) in each shade treatment, at different distances from the herbaceous strip (HS) (mean \pm standard deviation). Vegetation was collected in squares of 50*50 cm and oven-dried at 40 °C during a week for dry biomass determination.

	No shade			Shade +			Shade ++		
Distance from the HS	0 m	1 m	2.5 m	0 m	1 m	2.5 m	0 m	1 m	2.5 m
Texture (clay /	103 ± 2 /	105 ± 2 /	104 ± 4 /	114 ± 3 /	112 ± 6 /	110 ± 7 /	112 ± 4 /	110 ± 5 /	107 ± 2 /
silt /	410 ± 3 /	410 ± 11 /	$405 \pm 12 /$	$383 \pm 15 /$	$379 \pm 18 /$	$377 \pm 22 /$	386 ± 7 /	$379 \pm 14 /$	373 ± 7 /
sand, g kg ⁻¹)	471 ± 6	469 ± 8	475 ± 8	490 ± 11	496 ± 24	500 ± 30	484 ± 7	491 ± 18	502 ± 9
Bulk density (g cm ⁻³)	1.26 ± 0.08	1.07 ± 0.04	1.11 ± 0.04	1.27 ± 0.09	1.10 ± 0.05	1.13 ± 0.05	1.32 ± 0.06	1.11 ± 0.07	1.17 ± 0.04
pH (in water)	8.2 ± 0.0	8.2 ± 0.0	8.2 ± 0.1	8.1 ± 0.1	8.2 ± 0.0	8.2 ± 0.0	8.1 ± 0.1	8.3 ± 0.1	8.2 ± 0.0
Soil organic carbon (%)	1.5 ± 0.2	1.7 ± 0.3	1.6 ± 0.2	1.9 ± 0.1	2.0 ± 0.2	1.7 ± 0.1	2.0 ± 0.2	1.9 ± 0.1	1.8 ± 0.2
Gravimetric water content	27 ±3 /	30 ± 3 /	28 ± 1 /	28 ± 1 /	29 ± 1 /	27 ± 0 /	24 ± 4 /	26 ± 1 /	25 ± 2 /
(April/ June/	24 ± 2 /	32 ± 4 /	30 ± 3 /	$23 \pm 3 /$	$29 \pm 3 /$	$26 \pm 3 /$	25 ± 2 /	26 ± 2 /	$24 \pm 1 /$
November, %)	29 ± 2	33 ± 3	32 ± 2	27 ± 1	28 ± 1	27 ± 1	25 ± 1	26 ± 1	25 ± 1
Vegetation biomass (April /	120 ± 94 /	2 ± 6 /	2 ± 4 /	42 ± 37 /	0 ± 0 /	0 ± 0 /	64 ± 62 /	0 ± 0 /	0 ± 0 /
June /	$629 \pm 304 /$	77 ± 90 /	$62 \pm 56 /$	$426 \pm 75 /$	191 ± 282 /	$79 \pm 72 /$	$404 \pm 220 /$	14 ± 20 /	24 ± 19 /
November, g m ⁻²)	391 ± 243	125 ± 150	27 ± 30	233 ± 135	22 ± 27	13 ± 16	65 ± 31	6 ± 9	1 ± 3

Table 2 Mean values of macro-invertebrate densities (individuals per m²) for each distance from the herbaceous strip (HS) and each season for the three shade treatments combined. Mean values were obtained from linear generalized models fitted with a quasi-Poisson law. Values are back-transformed from the logarithmic scale used for analyses. Different lower case letters indicate significantly different values between the means for a given taxonomic group (Tukey test, p-value < 0.05). Different upper case letters indicate significantly different values between the different distance from the HS for all seasons combined when the answer was similar for all seasons (no significant effect of the interaction between season and distance from the HS in Table S3 of the Supplementary materials) (Tukey test, p-value < 0.05). Bold values and letters underline significant differences between distances from the HS for the taxonomic group and season concerned. For Formicidae, a cumulative link model was used.

	Distance from the HS	April	June	November
Lumbricidae	0 m	186.56 ab	174.03 ab	204.31 a
	1 m	59.48 d	36.04 de	129.13 bc
	2.5 m	45.45 de	25.17 e	106.55 с
Diplopoda	0 m	66.10 ab	60.32 abc	108.47 a
	1 m	29.55 bcd	18.65 d	62.87 abc
	2.5 m	25.43 cd	11.2 d	61.33 ab
Isopoda	0 m	46.30 a	23.21 ab	31.19 ab
	1 m	16.29 b	23.21 ab	47.38 a
	2.5 m	12.47 b	23.91 ab	35.74 ab
Chilopoda	0 m	31.02 cd	39.86 cd	62.76 bc
	1 m	16.66 d	39.93 cd	108.96 a
	2.5 m	17.66 d	35.74 cd	91.09 ab
Coleoptera (adults)	0 m	51.33 ab	61.74 a	35.69 abc
	1 m	19.25 с	28.38 bc	35.83 abc
	2.5 m	30.19 abc	21.85 bc	21.37 с
Coleoptera (larva)	0 m A	35.65	28.01	58.95
	1 m A	58.91	20.09	72.69
	1.5 m A	50.52	23.41	64.25
Dermaptera	0 m A	10.69	17.86	35.67
	1 m A	12.01	18.78	41.69
	2.5 m A	4.37	11.52	38.64
Formicidae 1	0 m A	0 - 240	0 - 240	0 - 240
	1 m AB	0	0 - 240	0 - 240
	2.5 m B	0	0	0

 1 category to which the median value belongs (between 0, 0 to 240 and more than 240 individuals $\mathrm{m}^{\text{-2}}$)

Table 3 Mean values ± standard deviation of the density of each earthworm species (individuals per m²), and mean values of earthworm diversity indices from generalized linear models (fitted by quasi Poisson law for species richness, and normal law for Shannon index). Different lower case letters indicate significantly different values between the means (Tukey test, p-value < 0.05). Different upper case letters indicate significantly different values between the different distance from the HS for all seasons combined when the answer was similar for all seasons (no significant effect of the interaction between season and distance from the HS in **Table S3** of the **Supplementary materials**) (Tukey test, p-value < 0.05). Bold values and letters underline significant differences between distances from the HS and seasons for index concerned.

	Distance from the HS	April	June	November	
Lumbricus	0 m	5.33 ± 9.03	4.00 ± 7.08	2.67 ± 6.09	
terrestris L.	1 m	2.67 ± 7.70	0.67 ± 3.27	2.67 ± 6.09	
(anecic)	2.5 m	0.00 ± 0.00	0.67 ± 3.27	1.33 ± 4.52	
Lumbricus	0 m	38.00 ± 42.15	40.67 ± 47.65	46 ± 36.64	
castaneus S.	1 m	15.33 ± 21.87	9.33 ± 11.48	48 ± 34.99	
(epigeic)	2.5 m	4.00 ± 11.80	6.00 ± 9.21	46 ± 47.49	
Allolobophora	0 m	17.33 ± 27.07	30.00 ± 35.72	35.33 ± 36.54	
chlorotica S.	1 m	8.00 ± 10.55	8.00 ± 14.92	31.33 ± 34.18	
(endogeic)	2.5 m	5.33 ± 9.03	8.00 ± 14.15	17.33 ± 20.52	
Aporrectodea	0 m	114.67 ± 57.33	83.33 ± 52.96	85.33 ± 58.3	
nocturna E.1	1 m	32.00 ± 29.08	12.67 ± 14.14	33.33 ± 35.60	
(anecic)	2.5 m	32.00 ± 31.65	8.00 ± 12.48	36.00 ± 36.32	
Aporrectodea	0 m	14.00 ± 16.56	12.67 ± 14.90	28.00 ± 26.38	
rosea S.	1 m	3.33 ± 8.14	3.33 ± 6.64	15.33 ± 15.99	
(endogeic)	2.5 m	5.33 ± 10.19	1.33 ± 4.52	4.67 ± 7.43	
Aporrectodea	0 m	0.00 ± 0.00	4.00 ± 4.00	8.00 ± 8.00	
icterica S.	1 m	0.00 ± 0.00	2.00 ± 2.00	2.00 ± 2.00	
(endogeic)	2.5 m	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	1.33 ± 1.33	
Aporrectodea	0 m	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	3.33 ± 3.33	
caliginosa S.	1 m	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	1.33 ± 1.33	
(endogeic)	2.5 m	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	1.33 ± 1.33	
Species richness	0 m	2.9 ab	3.3 ab	3.9 a	
	1 m	1.9 cd	1.7 cde	3.2 ab	
	2.5 m	1.4 de	1.1 e	2.3 bc	
Shannon index	0 m A	2.10	2.52	3.15	
	1 m B	1.72	1.52	2.57	
	2.5 m C	1.36	1.20	2.01	

¹ synonymy *Nicodrilus nocturnus* Bouché, 1972 (Briones et al., 2009)

