

Land management modulates the environmental controls on global earthworm communities

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- 1 Land management modulates the environmental controls on global earthworm
- 2 communities
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- 4
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- 9
- 10 Running title: Global patterns in earthworm communities
- 11
- 12 Abstract
- Aim: Soils and their biological communities face increasing pressure from multiple global
- 14 drivers, including land management and climate change. In soils, earthworms play key roles
- 15 in ecosystem functioning, but the environmental controls on their global communities are not
- 16 fully understood. Here, an earthworm dataset was compiled to investigate the effects of
- 17 environmental variables and land management on global earthworm communities.
- 18 **Location:** 40 ° S 65 ° N.
- 19 **Time period:** 1962 to 2016.
- 20 Major taxa studied: Earthworms

21 **Methods:** A dataset of 899 earthworm community observations, together with environmental

22 variables, was compiled across 169 globally distributed sites. Sites included natural forest

- and grassland or managed arable, pasture and plantation ecosystems. Total, anecic,
- 24 endogeic and epigeic abundances and total species richness were compared in natural and
- 25 managed ecosystems to quantify the effects of land management across climates. A
- 26 hierarchical model was used to test the importance of environmental controls in predicting
- the relationship between total earthworm species richness and abundance at a global scale.

Results: Land management prompted little change in total earthworm abundance at the
global scale, but reduced species richness and shifted community composition. Endogeic
earthworms were more abundant in managed ecosystems, while anecic and epigeic
earthworms show variable responses across ecosystem types. Global relationships between
total earthworm species richness and abundance were explained by climate, soil pH and
land management.
Main conclusions: Land management modulates the effects of environmental controls on

35 global earthworm communities, through direct disturbance and indirect changes in edaphic
36 conditions.

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Keywords: earthworms; community composition; species richness; land management; soil
pH; climate.

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41 **1. Introduction**

42 Global environmental drivers are placing increasing pressures on soils, with shifts in soil biodiversity and community composition reducing ecosystem resilience (Wagg et al., 2014; 43 44 Smith et al., 2016). In soils, earthworms act as important ecosystem engineers. By burrowing through the soil, earthworms influence soil aggregation and structure (Lavelle et 45 al., 2006) while their feeding and casting activities stimulate the decomposition of plant 46 material and encourage other beneficial soil organisms (Blouin et al., 2013). As 'nature's 47 plough', the activities of earthworms are particularly beneficial in managed ecosystems 48 (Darwin, 1881), and conservation management practices often aim to optimise soil 49 environmental conditions (e.g. soil organic carbon (SOM) and soil moisture) for earthworm 50 51 proliferation (Rounsevell et al., 2010). In turn the effects of earthworm activity on soil 52 aggregate stability, water regulation and carbon and nutrient cycling improve crop yields and soil carbon storage (Shuster et al., 2001; van Groenigen et al., 2014). Exotic earthworm 53 54 species, on the other hand, have invaded most areas of the globe (Hendrix et al., 2008), and when introduced into previously unoccupied areas can act as strong drivers of ecosystem
change (Hendrix, 2006; Eisenhauer, 2010; Craven *et al.*, 2017).

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58 Despite the long known impact of earthworms on soil fertility (Darwin, 1881), relatively few 59 attempts have been made to investigate large-scale patterns in earthworm communities 60 (Decaëns, 2010). Generally, earthworm communities are thought to become more complex and diverse towards the equator (Lavelle, 1983). Climatic factors (temperature and 61 62 precipitation) are considered fundamental drivers of these latitudinal trends in earthworm 63 communities (Brussaard et al., 2012; Rutgers et al., 2016), but such inferences are based on 64 limited data (Fierer et al., 2009; Decaëns, 2010; Brussaard et al., 2012). Other 65 environmental variables have also been reported to structure earthworm communities. For 66 instance, earthworm abundance increases with soil organic carbon (SOC) content across 67 ecosystem types and management intensity (Hendrix et al., 1992), while species richness tends to decline with increasing SOC availability (Bouché, 1972). Earthworm community 68 69 responses to disturbance through soil management show much more general trends at 70 regional and global scales (Decaëns & Jiménez, 2002; Decaëns et al., 2003; Spurgeon et 71 al., 2013). In a global meta-analysis, Briones and Schmidt (2017) found that earthworm population abundance and biomass declined with increasing tillage intensity, but also 72 depended on variations in soil, environmental, climatic and management conditions as well 73 as the different sensitivities of earthworm ecological groups. 74

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Earthworms are typically classified into three broad ecological groups (epigeic, anecic and
endogeic), which play different roles in ecosystem functioning and display different
responses to management and environmental changes (Blouin *et al.*, 2013). Epigeic
(surface-living) and anecic (vertical burrowing) earthworms rely on leaf litter for habitat and
food, and when this is disturbed by management practices such as tillage, their numbers are
largely reduced (Briones & Schmidt, 2017; Johnston *et al.*, 2018). Thus, managed soils are
often dominated by endogeic species, which live in temporary horizontal burrows in the

83 mineral soil (Riley et al., 2008). Although endogeic earthworms do offer beneficial soil functions in managed soils, more diverse earthworm populations are needed in order to 84 optimise ecosystem functioning under sustainable land management (Eisenhauer & 85 86 Schädler, 2011; Blouin et al., 2013). For instance, anecic earthworms are particularly 87 beneficial for enhancing plant production (van Groenigen et al., 2014), through greater 88 mineralisation of carbon and nutrients from plant material (Postma-Blaauw et al., 2006). Mineralisation of SOC, on the other hand, is enhanced by endogeic and not anecic 89 90 earthworms (Postma-Blaauw et al., 2006), while the feeding and burrowing activities of 91 epigeic and anecic earthworms increase water infiltration rates but endogeics do not 92 (Spurgeon et al., 2013).

93

94 Anticipating the effects of global environmental changes on earthworm communities and 95 their activities requires a more comprehensive understanding of the environmental controls on their global distribution, in both natural and managed ecosystems. Previous studies on 96 97 large-scale biogeographical distributions of soil microbes (bacteria and fungi) have revealed strong relationships between soil pH and soil organic matter (Fierer & Jackson, 2006; 98 99 Tedersoo et al., 2014; Malik et al., 2018) whereas those on soil animals suggest a closer 100 relationship with climatic conditions (Wall et al., 2008; Bates et al., 2013; Gibb et al., 2015). 101 Here, the working hypothesis was that biogeographic patterns in earthworm communities are fundamentally similar to other soil animals, with climatic variables structuring earthworm 102 communities in both natural and managed ecosystems. In managed ecosystems, declines in 103 species richness and shifts in community composition to endogeic earthworm dominance 104 was also expected (Kladivko, 2001). To test these hypotheses, a global earthworm dataset 105 was compiled across boreal, temperate, mediterranean and tropical climates, covering both 106 107 natural (forests and grasslands) and managed (arable, pasture and plantation) ecosystems.

108

109 2. Methods and Material

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111 2.1. Data collection

Studies of earthworm field populations and communities were synthesised, using ISI Web of 112 113 Knowledge (www.webofknowledge.com). To be included in the dataset, studies had to report 114 field-collected population abundances and/or species richness in un-manipulated field 115 conditions. That is, mesocosm experiments and experimental field trials that manipulated 116 environmental variables were excluded. Search terms included macrofauna, earthworm or 117 oligochaete and excluded the terms laboratory, microcosm or mesocosm in the title. Additional search terms for the topic included: population or community; abundance, density, 118 119 number or species richness; and field, forest, grassland, arable, plantation, pasture, 120 agricultural, managed or natural. Field studies were also excluded if they did not report 121 essential site information such as latitude, longitude or site location, or the year/month of earthworm collection to extract climatic data. Following the initial literature search, data gaps 122 for under-represented climates or ecosystems (e.g. natural ecosystems in mediterranean or 123 managed ecosystems in boreal climates) were addressed using specific search terms in 124 125 Web of Knowledge to ensure comparable sample sizes between climates. A total of 135 studies met the search criteria, which covered 169 globally distributed study sites (Figure 1) 126 over a period spanning 1962 to 2016. 127



Figure 1. Geographic distribution of study sites (n = 169) across 135 studies compiled in the earthworm dataset,
displayed over a world soil pH map (IGBP-DIS, 1998).

133 **2.2. Data summary**

Most studies combined hand sorting and formaldehyde extraction methods for earthworm 134 135 sampling, and abundance was typically measured as individuals m⁻². Cocoons were rarely reported and so not included in average abundance measures, whereas adults and juveniles 136 were summed to give total species abundance where relevant. The raw earthworm dataset 137 (N = 1583), reported seasonal earthworm population abundances and species richness 138 139 where available, and seasonal or annual population dynamics by species, ecological group 140 or total earthworm community. Where seasonal earthworm measurements were provided, 141 and when replicates were given for the same sites, population abundances were averaged to give annual and site-specific measurements. If species richness measurements were not 142 143 provided but species-specific abundances were reported, the number of species recorded was included in the dataset. Ecological group data (N = 398) were summarised by 144 classifying earthworm species by their broad ecological group (anecic, endogeic and 145 epigeic) and summing species-specific earthworm abundances in each group for single 146 147 sites. Total earthworm community data (N = 501), were summed for ecological groups

recorded at a single site, alongside measurements for total earthworm abundance andspecies richness.

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151 Environmental variables include mean annual temperature (MAT), mean annual precipitation 152 (MAP), soil moisture, pH, litter layer, soil organic carbon (SOC), total C, N and P, C:N, N:P 153 and C:P ratios. If soil organic matter (SOM, %) measurements were available, the standard conversion factor of SOC = SOM x 0.58 was used (Guo & Gifford, 2002). When soil 154 155 properties were reported according to soil layer, an average value for all soil layers was 156 calculated. Missing climate data were filled using global climate databases if latitude and 157 longitude and study month/s and/or year were reported. Monthly air temperatures (study temperature, ST) and precipitation (study precipitation, SP) measurements, together with 158 MAT and MAP if not reported, were compiled from local NOAA weather stations 159 160 (https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/cdo-web/datatools/findstation).

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The data were finally summarised by categorising study sites as boreal, temperate, mediterranean and tropical climates and ecosystem type (natural forests or grasslands, or managed arable, pasture or plantation ecosystems). Extrapolation was necessary in some cases, for instance by including subtropical studies within the tropical climate category and managed grasslands or forests as pastures or plantations, respectively. Managed ecosystems also included a variety of management practices. For instance, arable fields ranged from organic and conservation agriculture to conventional management schemes.

170 **2.3. Data analysis**

Data analysis was performed in the R environment software (RCoreTeam 2018) and focused on explaining relationships between global earthworm communities and environmental variables. First, differences in total earthworm species richness and abundance and ecological group abundance were analysed across climates, ecosystem types and management groups. Then, a hierarchical model was used to test the importance

of environmental controls in predicting the relationship between total earthworm speciesrichness and abundance at a global scale.

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179 **2.3.1.** Land management effects on global earthworm communities

180 Differences in total earthworm species richness and abundance and ecological group 181 abundance across climates, ecosystem types and management groups were analysed using all available measurements in the datasets. The effect of land management on total 182 183 earthworm abundance and species richness was tested using independent-samples t-tests, 184 with p < 0.05 supporting a difference between the two groups (natural vs managed 185 ecosystems). The effects of climate (tropical, mediterranean, temperate and boreal) and 186 ecosystem type (forest, grassland, arable, pasture or plantation) on total earthworm species richness and abundance, and the effects of both land management and climate on 187 188 ecological group (anecic, endogeic, epigeic) abundance, were tested using one-way ANOVA's and again taking p < 0.05 to support a difference between groups. 189

190

Earthworm and environmental data were then summarised according to ecosystem type (N 191 192 = 18) to investigate general relationships across climates and natural or managed ecosystems. The effects of land management on total, anecic, endogeic and epigeic 193 earthworm abundance were summarised by comparing observed abundances in different 194 climates and ecosystems. Management effect sizes were calculated by comparing mean 195 earthworm abundances in natural grasslands with abundances in managed arable or 196 pasture ecosystems, and mean abundances in natural forests were compared with 197 abundances in managed plantation ecosystems. Comparisons between mean abundances 198 199 across ecosystem types and managed and natural ecosystems were further made at the 200 global scale.

201

202 2.3.1. Multiple controls on global earthworm communities

Scaling relationships between earthworm species richness (SR) and abundance (A) were 203 analysed to investigate differences between climates and ecosystem type. First, the SR - A204 relationship was analysed without, and then with, interactions between A and climate 205 206 (boreal, temperate, mediterranean, tropical) and A and management (natural or managed). 207 Hierarchical models were then used to test the importance of environmental variables in predicting differences in earthworm species richness and abundance relationships at a 208 global scale. The hierarchy of terms tested followed an order similar to that suggested by de 209 210 Vries et al. (2012), in which 'controls' are added before 'function'. That is, variables that cause variations in multiple soil properties (e.g. climate) were added first, so that if 'controls' 211 explain the variation in 'functions' then addition of these variables do not improve model 212 likelihood. Terms were added in the order: climate (MAT, MAP, ST, SP and component 1 of 213 214 PCA's for each combination of the four variables), soil type (pH, soil moisture, SOC and PCA's), management (natural or managed) and nutrients (C:N, N:P, C:P and PCA's). Each 215 variable was added as a linear or quadratic term, with and without interactions with A. 216 Models were then compared by testing their influence on goodness of fit (Akaike's 217 218 Information Criterion, AIC), model likelihood (Chi-square p < 0.05) and parsimony ($\Delta AIC > 2$ for additional degrees of freedom). Models that met these criteria were tested with the 219 subsequent environmental variables. All regression models were performed with averaged 220 SR and A measurements for each ecosystem type (N = 18) and weighted using the 221 222 reciprocal of the variance of SR to account for differences in sample sizes. The independent 223 effects of key environmental variables, identified by the hierarchical model, were then 224 illustrated by correcting species richness for abundance and the other explanatory 225 environmental variables in the hierarchical model.

227 3. Results

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- **3.1. Land management effects on global earthworm communities**
- 230 Total earthworm species richness and abundance differed significantly with climate (ANOVA
- for species richness: F = 18.62, p < 0.0001; and abundance: F = 16.84, p < 0.0001) and
- ecosystem type (species richness: F = 7.90, p < 0.0001; and abundance: F = 24.68, p < 0.0001; and abundance: F = 24.68, p < 0.0001; and p < 0.
- 233 0.0001) (Figure 2). At a global scale, total earthworm species richness and abundance
- 234 differed in natural and managed ecosystems (independent-samples t-test for species
- richness: t = 4.58, p < 0.0001; and abundance: t = -2.86, p = 0.005) (Figure 2). Shifts in
- species richness and abundance, however, were highly variable across ecosystem types.
- 237 For instance, earthworm species richness declined in most managed compared to natural
- ecosystems within climates (Figure 2a), whereas total earthworm abundance displayed a
- 239 much more variable response (Figure 2b).



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Figure 2: Earthworm species richness and total abundance across global ecosystems (black: global, red:
tropical, purple: mediterranean, orange: temperate, blue: boreal climates and diamonds: natural, triangles:
managed ecosystems). Presented values are average a) earthworm species richness and b) total abundance
with standard error bars. Solid black vertical lines indicate global averages across climates and ecosystem types.
Number of data points are presented on the right-hand side of each plot.

248 Earthworm community composition was summarised by the relative abundance of the three ecological groups of earthworms: anecic, endogeic and epigeic, which reflect different 249 250 habitat needs and so sensitivity to soil disturbance. Analysis of the available ecological group data (N = 398) revealed that anecic, endogeic and epigeic abundances interacted 251 significantly with climate (F = 4.96, p < 0.0001), ecosystem type (F = 18.43, p < 0.0001) and 252 land management (F = 10.38, p < 0.0001). At a global scale, total, endogeic and epigeic 253 254 earthworm abundance increased, while anecic earthworm abundance declined, in response 255 to land management (Figure 3). Similar to total earthworm abundance (Figure 2), however, 256 ecological group abundance was highly variable across different ecosystem types (Table S1). For instance, although there was little difference in total earthworm abundance in 257 258 natural and managed ecosystems across the different climates, there were greater declines in abundance in arable compared to grassland ecosystems and increases in abundance in 259

- 260 pasture compared to grassland ecosystems (Figure 3). Effects on total earthworm
- abundance also disguised greater declines in anecic and epigeic earthworms in managed
- 262 ecosystems due to increases in endogeic earthworm abundance in all managed compared
- to natural ecosystems, particularly pastures (Figure 3).



Figure 3. Land management effects on total earthworm, anecic, endogeic and epigeic abundance. Effect sizes are calculated by comparing abundances in natural and managed ecosystems at a global scale (black symbols) or across climates (red: tropical, purple: mediterranean, orange: temperate, blue: boreal climates) and between specific natural and managed ecosystem types (square symbols: grassland and arable, circle symbols: grassland and pasture, triangle symbols: forest and plantation). Presented values are average effect sizes with standard error bars. Number of data points are presented on the right-hand side for the natural and managed ecosystems.

3.2. Multiple controls on global earthworm communities

Divergent earthworm responses to land management resulted in different scaling
relationships between earthworm species richness and total abundance at a global scale
(Figure 4). That is, the relationship between earthworm species richness and abundance
was better explained by differences between natural and managed ecosystems than null or
climate models (Table S2). There was no significant interaction between abundance and
management, however, as abundance was generally unaffected by land management at a
global scale (Figure 3).





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Figure 4. Scaling relationships between earthworm species richness and total abundance across climates (red:
tropical, purple: mediterranean, orange: temperate, blue: boreal) and ecosystem types (diamonds: natural,
triangles: managed) (N = 18). Linear regressions between abundance and species richness differed in natural
(diamond symbols and solid line) and managed (triangle symbols and broken line) ecosystems (Table S2).

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A hierarchical model was used to test the importance of environmental controls on global relationships between earthworm species richness and abundance (Figure 4 and Table S1). Addition of three terms improved the hierarchical model fits in comparison to the null model (Table 1, AIC = 23.77), with the condition that adding an additional term must be met with a goodness of fit of \triangle AIC > 2 and Chi-square *p* < 0.05. Climate PCA, measured as component

1 of a PCA conducted with MAT, MAP, ST and SP explained the effects of climate better 294 295 than MAT, MAP, ST or SP separately, or any other PCA between the variables. Overall, the 296 guadratic climate term explained 56 % of the variation in species richness-abundance relationships compared to the null model. An interaction term with soil pH and management 297 298 explained an additional 8 and 10 % of the variation in global earthworm patterns respectively. The final model had a greatly improved goodness of fit to the data and model 299 likelihood compared to the null model (\triangle AIC = 46.46, Chi-square *p* < 0.0001). The 300 hierarchical model also showed an improved goodness of fit and model likelihood in 301 comparison to the management model (Figure 4, $\triangle AIC = 34.52$, Chi-square p < 0.0001). 302 Importantly, the hierarchical model further revealed the environmental variables 303 underpinning shifts in the relationship between global earthworm species richness and 304 305 abundance with climate and land management.

Table 1. Comparison of models used to explain global patterns in the relationship between earthworm species richness (*SR*) and abundance (*A*). The null model does not include interactions between earthworm abundance with environmental variables or management, while the following models indicate additional terms added to a hierarchical model. Chi-square *p*-value < 0.05 indicate increased model likelihood following the addition of each term. Overall goodness of fit is determined by AIC values, where lower AIC's indicate a better fit to the data. Δ AIC's present the difference in AIC values between the different models and the final hierarchical model (Table S3).

Term added	Model	df	Chi-square p	AIC	AIC	R ₂	p
Null	SR ~ A	3		23.77	46.46	0.222	0.0278
Climate PCA	SR ~ A + Climate PCA +	5	< 0.0001	2.64	25.32	0.780	< 0.0001
	Climate PCA ²						
рН	SR ~ A + Climate PCA +	7	0.0129	-3.19	19.50	0.851	< 0.0001
	Climate PCA ² × pH						
Management	SR ~ A + Climate PCA +	11	< 0.0001	-22.69	0	0.952	< 0.0001
	Climate PCA ² × pH ×						
	Management						

308

The independent effects of climate (component 1 of a PCA conducted with MAT, MAP. ST 309 310 and SP) and soil pH were illustrated by correcting species richness for abundance and the other explanatory environmental variables in the hierarchical model (Figure 5). For example, 311 climate effects were assessed by correcting species richness for abundance, soil pH, and 312 management effects according to regression coefficients. Then, linear and quadratic models 313 between corrected species richness and the independent variable were tested with and 314 315 without interaction terms between the environmental variable and management. Results revealed linear declines in corrected abundance with increasing Climate PCA (increasing 316 MAT, MAP, ST and SP) (Figure 5a) and a polynomial relationship between corrected 317 species richness with soil pH (Figure 5b), and significant interactions between natural and 318 managed ecosystems. 319

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Figure 5. Relationships between corrected earthworm species richness with a) climate PCA and b) soil pH
 across natural (solid lines) or managed (broken lines) ecosystems and climates (symbol colours and shapes as in
 Figure 4). Species richness data were corrected for non-fixed explanatory variables as described in the text.

326 4. Discussion

321

327 Compilation of a global dataset in this study (Figure 1) reveals surprising similarities and expected differences in earthworm communities between natural and managed ecosystems. 328 329 Across four climates total earthworm abundance showed little response to land 330 management, while species richness was consistently reduced in managed compared to 331 natural ecosystems (Figure 2). These patterns can be largely explained by shifts in 332 earthworm community composition in managed ecosystems, which are generally composed 333 of fewer anecic and epigeic and more endogeic earthworms than natural ecosystems (Figure 334 3). Scaling relationships between earthworm species richness and total abundance differed in natural and managed ecosystems (Figure 4). A hierarchical model was used to show that 335 336 climate, soil pH and land management best explained global variations in earthworm communities (Table 1 and Figure 5). 337 338

Earthworm species richness and total abundance were highest in temperate and lowest in
 mediterranean climates, while abundance was comparable in tropical and boreal but species

341 richness higher in boreal than tropical climates (Figure 2). Climate thus strongly influences global earthworm communities, as hypothesised, through individual physiological and 342 343 behavioural responses to temperature and soil water extremes (Johnston et al., 2018). 344 Interestingly, this study indicates non-linear latitudinal shifts in earthworm species richness, 345 previously thought to increase from high to low latitudes (Lavelle, 1983). Nevertheless, these 346 global patterns reflect known relationships between soil biodiversity with temperature and 347 precipitation regimes (Brussaard et al., 2012). Temperate climates, however, have been 348 more extensively studied than any of the other climates investigated here. Differences in 349 sampling timing in colder climates will also introduce some bias as they were typically 350 sampled in the growing season, and earthworm species are known to display varying 351 sensitivities to soil temperature and water fluctuations (Briones et al., 2009). General gaps in earthworm taxonomy (Decaëns, 2010) further limits the current dataset not only to measures 352 353 of abundance and species richness, but also to those earthworms that have been identified at the species level. 354

355

Overall, earthworm abundance increased in managed compared to natural ecosystems 356 357 globally and across all but boreal climates (Figure 3). This global pattern could be largely explained by expected shifts in earthworm community composition to greater abundances of 358 endogeic earthworms in managed ecosystems (Riley et al., 2008; Kanianska et al. 2016). 359 Anecic and epigeic earthworm responses to land management, in comparison, were less 360 extreme than expected given the higher vulnerability of these ecological groups to soil 361 362 disturbance (Briones & Schmidt, 2017). Although anecic and epigeic abundances declined in arable compared to grassland ecosystems globally, both ecological groups responded 363 364 positively to pasture compared to grassland ecosystems alongside endogeic earthworms 365 (Figure 3). Livestock grazing is well known to increase earthworm density through the creation of earthworm hotspots of all ecological groups around dung pats (Bacher et al., 366 367 2018), but the global extent of this pattern has not been previously reported. Epigeic earthworms also responded positively to temperate plantation compared to forest 368

ecosystems (Figure 3 and Table S1), suggesting a competitive advantage of epigeic
earthworms in managed forests. Much less data, however, was available for ecological
groups compared to total earthworm abundances across the range of ecosystems studied
here.

373

374 Global relationships between earthworm species richness and abundance in natural and 375 managed ecosystems (Figure 4) were best explained by climate, soil pH and land 376 management (Table 1). Illustrating the independent effects of climate and soil pH in Figure 5 377 shows how corrected species richness declines with increasing temperature and 378 precipitation (which are positively correlated with climate PCA, Figure 5a) and changes 379 according to a polynomial relationship with soil pH (Figure 5b). Climate PCA captures 380 increasing mean annual and study temperatures and mean annual and study precipitations 381 (except for a decline in mediterranean climates) from boreal to tropical climates. Earthworm species richness thus declines with greater monthly temperatures (> 12 °C) and with both 382 lower (< 40 mm) and greater monthly precipitation (> 130 mm). Although species richness 383 measurements will be influenced by greater sampling effort in moderate climatic conditions, 384 385 similar patterns in natural and managed ecosystems suggest consistent climate effects on earthworms (Figure 5a). On the other hand, the decline in earthworm species richness 386 between natural and managed ecosystems was greater in more acidic soils (pH < 6) 387 compared to near-neutral soils (pH > 6) (Figure 5b). 388

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Reduced species richness in managed ecosystems is typically associated with an increase in soil pH at the ecosystem scale. For instance, species richness of earthworm communities was reduced across all climates in arable fields compared to grasslands while soil pH was usually higher in arable compared to grassland ecosystems. In contrast, greater species richness in temperate pastures compared to grasslands was associated with a decline in soil pH (Table S1). Different soil pH changes in managed ecosystems tend to reflect varying management intensities (Malik *et al.*, 2018). Reductions in soil pH in tropical arable

397 compared to grassland ecosystems could therefore indicate the widespread adoption of conservation agriculture (based on minimum soil disturbance) in these regions due to the 398 399 greater potential of tropical soil erosion under intensive management (Labrière et al., 2015). 400 More intensive management practices, such as tillage, have direct effects on earthworm 401 communities through direct mortality, the removal of plant litter and destruction of habitat 402 (Briones & Schmidt, 2017). Relationships between earthworm communities and soil pH in 403 this study are thus expected to reflect varying extents of plant litter removal and subsequent 404 changes in SOC accumulation in managed ecosystems.

405

406 Plant functional traits likely underpin the relationship between climate, soil pH and 407 earthworm communities in both natural and managed ecosystems (Figure 5). In temperate 408 forests, for example, Reich et al. (2005) found variation in leaf litter calcium concentrations to 409 be a key driver of long-terms changes in soil pH, earthworm abundance and biomass, and litter decomposition rates. Although relationships between soil C:N:P stoichiometry and 410 earthworm communities were not identified in this study, soil pH reflects the availability of 411 multiple nutrients (e.g. Mulder and Elser (2009)). Different relationships between earthworm 412 413 ecological groups and soil pH may further indicate successional feedback relationships between plant traits and earthworm communities. Earthworm invasions into previously 414 unoccupied forests, for example, are typically initiated by epigeic species which show a 415 greater tolerance for acidic soils (Hendrix, 2006). Earthworms then feedback to the plant 416 community by accelerating plant litter decomposition and nutrient mineralisation rates and 417 altering microbial community composition (Craven et al., 2017). Earthworm invasions are 418 therefore typically associated with successions in both plant quality and earthworm 419 420 community composition (Bohlen et al., 2004). Future shifts in temperature and precipitation 421 regimes, alongside changes in land management, will thus alter feedbacks between plant 422 traits, earthworms and multiple soil functions (Wardle et al., 2004).

423

424 Disentangling the effects of climatic, edaphic, management and biotic factors on global earthworm distributions requires a better understanding of the mechanisms linking individual 425 species to their populations in site-specific conditions and species populations to earthworm 426 communities at the ecosystem and global scale. Building global soil community databases at 427 428 the species- and site-specific level could help unravel the mechanisms linking earthworm 429 communities to their environments. First, however, focused empirical studies are needed to address current knowledge gaps in earthworm macroecology. Seasonal fluctuations in 430 431 earthworm communities in boreal ecosystems and earthworm communities in mediterranean 432 and tropical ecosystems, for example, need to be accounted for. Overall, the results of this 433 study show that global earthworm communities are strongly linked to climate and soil pH, 434 and that land management modulates global relationships between earthworm species richness and environmental controls. Better understanding of macroecological patterns in 435 436 earthworm communities are needed to aid prediction of the large-scale impacts of land management and climate changes on soil ecosystems. 437

438

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443

444 Data availability statement. The dataset compiled and analysed in this study is available
445 from Dryad (<u>https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.4fn50k3</u>).

446

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