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Exotic earthworm (Oligochaeta: Lumbricidae) assemblages on a landscape-scale in central Canadian woodlands: Importance of region and vegetation type

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20 Abstract: A growing understanding about the impacts of earthworms (Oligochaeta:

21 Lumbricidae) on ecosystem processes and forest restoration necessitates an examination of their 22 role in Canadian forests where they have become invasive. Little is known about the landscape 23 scale responses of earthworm populations to different regional characteristics and vegetation 24 types within Canada's central woodlands. We examined the regional variation of earthworm 25 species richness, biomass, and assemblage composition across a range of four municipal regions 26 (from south to north: Halton, Wellington, York, and Simcoe) and four habitat types (deciduous 27 forest, mixed forest, tree plantation, and meadow) with varying soil characteristics in woodlands 28 of south-central Ontario, Canada. In general, earthworm communities differed by region but not 29 by habitat type. The most southern regions supported the highest earthworm species richness, 30 biomass (*i.e. Lumbricus* and *Octolasion*), and density, and this was associated with a south-north 31 gradient in soil characteristics. Assemblage composition differed by region but not by habitat 32 type. The observed south-north gradient suggests an underlying effect of invasion spread 33 associated with human settlement and density. Our results provide baseline information about 34 earthworm communities in south-central Ontario forests, and will enable managers to plan for the increasing role of earthworms in Canada's future forests. 35

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38 *Key words:* earthworm communities, functional groups, invasive species, land use, *Lumbricidae*

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42 Introduction

43 The southern extent of the last Wisconsonian glaciation eliminated most native 44 earthworm species from Canada and the northern United States (Callaham et al. 2006, Addison 45 2009). Exotic earthworm species (Oligochaeta: Lumbricidae) were introduced during the late 46 1800s, presumably through the release of contaminated soil in ship ballasts from Europe 47 (Reynolds 1977; Tiunov et al. 2006); they are now widely distributed in select locations across 48 much of North America (Gates 1982; Reynolds 1994), where they re-engineer soil and site 49 characteristics. Because soils, vegetation, and ecosystem processes in Canadian temperate forests 50 have developed in the absence of earthworms following recent glacial recession, such invasions 51 cause major shifts in ecosystem functioning and services, impacting forest floor structure, soil 52 biogeochemistry, and faunal and plant community composition (e.g., Alban and Berry 1994; 53 Hale et al. 2005; Bohlen et al. 2004; Migge-Kleian et al. 2006; Holdworth et al. 2007a and b; 54 Costello and Lamberti 2009; Szlavecz et al. 2011; Crumsey et al. 2013; Sackett et al. 2013, 55 Craven et al. in press).

56 It is now well documented that earthworm invasion results in significant changes to 57 nutrient dynamics and soil structure in temperate forests (e.g., Hale et al. 2005; Sackett et al. 58 2013). For example, the feeding habits of *Lumbricus terrestris* have been shown to increase the 59 immobilization of nutrients leading to nitrification and leaching and an overall decrease in 60 nutrient availability (Hale et al. 2005). Earthworms may also shift the soil decomposer 61 community from one dominated by fungi and their interactions to one dominated by bacteria or 62 fungi antagonistic to decomposing fungi, again changing the rate of nutrient cycling and 63 decomposition (Bohlen et al. 2004; Jayasinghe and Parkinson 2009; Ewing et al. 2015).

64 Changes caused by the invasion of earthworms are also known to result in a loss of carbon (C)
65 storage due to increased respiration and microbial activity; however, in the long term,
66 earthworms may stabilize soil carbon by incorporating greater amounts of the litter layer into
67 their casts and stable aggregates (Bohlen et al. 2004).

The pattern of invasion and impact of earthworms is much dependent on land use history, 68 69 soil type, and functional traits of the invading species, amongst other factors (Frelich et al. 2006). 70 Whether a species is classified as epigeic, endogeic or anecic will determine the potential change 71 in soil characteristics. In general, as species richness increases, the thickness of the litter and duff 72 layer of the soil decreases (Gundale et al. 2005). McLean and Parkinson (1997) found that 73 epigeic species had effects on organic matter distribution and soil structure. Variation in the effects of these functional groups are expected due to their differential impact on the litter 'LFH' 74 75 layers, where 'L' is the top organic horizon composed of accumulating leaves and twigs and still 76 easily recognized, 'F' is the layer of partially decomposed organic matter with a sometimes matt-77 like appearance due to fungal hyphae and decaying litter, and 'H' is the lowest organic horizon 78 in which the original organic structures cannot be recognized and have been converted to humic 79 material (Denholm et al. 1993; Soil Classification Working Group 1998). Epigeic species mix 80 and consume the 'FH' layers, while the upper litter layer (L) remains intact (McLean and 81 Parkinson 1997; Hale et al. 2005). Endogeic and anecic species move deeper into the soil layers, 82 mixing the upper 25-30 cm of the mineral soil horizons (B or C) and converting the undisturbed 83 LFH and thin A horizon characteristic of native soils to a mull soil more similar to previously-84 tilled agricultural soil (Frelich et al. 2006), and in turn impacting water infiltration (Capowiez et 85 al. 2014).

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86 Understanding the biogeographic patterns of invasive species as they colonize new 87 regions will help predict patterns of spread and the relative vulnerability of particular regions and 88 ecosystems. At the landscape scale, the distribution of earthworms appears to be dependent on 89 habitat suitability (pH and litter quality), climatic conditions (temperature and moisture), human 90 activity, and land use practices (Tiunov et al. 2006). Among habitat types, earthworm abundance 91 and species richness are generally the highest in deciduous forests and the lowest in old 92 meadows and coniferous forests (Smith et al. 2008). In some cases, the dominant tree species 93 may be important; for example, earthworms occurred less frequently in forests dominated by 94 American beech (Fagus grandifolia) and hemlock (Tsuga canadensis) than in other hardwoods 95 (Suárez et al. 2006b). In areas where forests are transitioning from southern deciduous species to 96 northern coniferous species, earthworm invasion may progress more slowly due to either 97 combined or individual effects of a decrease in litter quality (changes in tree species 98 composition), decrease in soil pH, or decrease in temperature along a latitudinal gradient 99 (Addison 2009). Studies in Europe have shown earthworm distribution at the landscape level to 100 be dependent on climatic conditions, habitat suitability (pH and litter quality), and human 101 activity and land use practices (Tiunov et. al. 2006).

Little is known about the distribution, impact or drivers of earthworm expansion into central Canadian forests. Here, we conduct a landscape-scale study to compare earthworm communities in different regions and habitat types in central Canadian woodlands. Specifically, we examine the regional variation in earthworm community attributes (species richness, density, biomass, composition) across a range of municipal counties and habitat types in south-central Ontario, and identify habitat characteristics associated with attributes of earthworm communities. We predict that southern regional jurisdictions will have greater earthworm abundance and

109 species richness, especially for *Lumbricus* and epigeic species, than the northern regions, due to 110 the history of European settlement in this region. We also expected to find similar earthworm 111 species among similar habitat types due to the local biotic and abiotic conditions associated with 112 each, and higher biomass in deciduous forests than in other habitat types (Smith et al. 2008). 113 114 Methods 115 Study design 116 To analyze whether earthworm communities differed between regions and habitat type, 117 we selected four regional municipalities distributed along a \sim 125km transect in the south-north 118 direction of south-central Ontario: Simcoe County, York Region, Wellington County, and Halton 119 Region (Fig. 1; Table 1). These regions encompass the northern edge of the Carolinian forest 120 ecotone (Halton) as well as the Great-Lakes-St. Lawrence forest ecotone (Wellington, York, and 121 Simcoe) (NRCan 2012). We included four habitat types: deciduous forest, mixed forest, tree plantation, and meadow. Within each of the four regions, two subsamples (sites) of each habitat 122 123 type were selected (with the exception of Halton Region where only one suitable meadow site 124 could be found) for a total of eight (seven in Halton) sites per region (total sites=31) (Fig. 1). 125 Sites were selected of similar age, history, and estimated recreational use wherever possible in 126 order to decrease variation (Table 2). 127 At each site, five plots (10 m x 10 m) were sampled for earthworms, soils, and vegetation 128 during September-October, for a total of 155 plots. The plots were systematically selected 129 without preconceived bias at 30-50 m towards the interior of the forest but within 100 m from

130	any road or trail. This approach to sampling was used in order to account for the degree of
131	uncertainty about differential invasion in each region and the potential for correlation between
132	earthworm abundance and proximity to roads (Cameron et al. 2007; Sackett et al. 2012).
133	Sampling was done at least 50 m away from a forest edge in order to ensure interior habitat.
134	Each plot was sampled once.
135	
136	Study area and site description
137	The four study regions were similar in topography and representative of their respective
138	forest ecozones. Predominant tree species in the seven northern Carolinian forest sites included
139	American beech, maples (Acer spp.), black walnut (Juglans nigra), hickories (Carya spp.), and
140	oaks (Quercus spp.), while the 24 sites in the Great Lakes-St. Lawrence forest were
141	characterized by a greater percentage of conifers, such as red pine (Pinus resinosa), eastern white
142	pine (Pinus strobus), and eastern hemlock (Tsuga canadensis), as well as by yellow birch (Betula
143	alleghaniensis), maples, and oaks. The soils were variable among the regions, with podzolic soils
144	generally found in the north, and gleysols, luvisols, and brunisols in the south (Table 1). Average
145	annual precipitation and temperature was similar between the four regions, and all sites are
146	below 400 m in altitude.
147	All meadow and plantation sites we selected were historically used for agriculture, with
148	the exception of the two plantation sites in York region where there was no record of use for the
149	cleared land prior to the plantation; agricultural use was likely in this case too, considering the
150	historical patterns of cleared land across southern Ontario (Table 2). The deciduous and mixed
151	forest sites in the two southerly regions, Halton and Wellington, were also historically used for

160	Habitat types
159	
158	recreational activities, including hiking, horseback riding, and cycling.
157	Conservation Authority. These forested areas are currently open to the public for a range of
156	County, where management is conducted by the City of Guelph and the Grand River
155	are presently overseen by their respective regional foresters, with the exception of Wellington
154	never been cleared, and had no agricultural record. Forest management activities in these regions
153	forest. The deciduous and mixed forest sites in the two northern regions, York and Simcoe, had
152	agriculture, with the exception of one mixed forest site in Halton, which had always remained as

161 We defined the four habitat types based on the following criteria: (a) Deciduous Forest, 162 dominated by deciduous species such as sugar maple (*Acer saccharum*) or ash (*Fraxinus* spp) 163 comprising more than 50% of the total tree cover, and with only a minor component of 164 coniferous species, if any; (b) Mixed Forest, with more than 25% of the total canopy cover 165 consisting of coniferous species such as hemlock, and usually having a higher diversity of tree 166 species than deciduous forests; (c) Plantation Forest, originally planted (usually in rows) as a 167 monoculture of one or a few conifer species such as white pine, red pine or white spruce 168 (Piceaglauca); and (d) Meadow, an area with less than 25% cover of tree and shrub species, 169 composed largely of grasses and forbs such as goldenrods (Solidago spp.), and not actively 170 maintained for agricultural use (Lee et al. 1998) (Table 2).

171

172 Earthworm sampling and identification

173 Earthworms were sampled using three, 25x25-cm metal quadrats, spaced at least 2 m 174 apart, in each of the 155 plots. Specimens were extracted using a mustard powder (allylisothiocyanate) solution at a concentration of approximately 100 mg l⁻¹ AITC (Zaborski 175 176 2003, Coja et al. 2008), appropriate for the range of soil types sampled here (Lawrence and 177 Bowers 2002). The 25x25-cm quadrat was edged with a spade and pressed into the litter-cleared 178 soil surface to a depth of approximately 2 cm. Two liters of mustard solution was slowly poured 179 within the quadrat over the span of 10 min. All earthworms emerging within those 10 min were 180 collected and killed in a solution of 70% isopropyl alcohol and water (Hale et al. 2008). 181 Specimens collected from the three quadrats were pooled by plot and then by site (5 plots per 182 site). Earthworms were fixed using a 10% formalin solution for 24 h, and then put back into 70% 183 isopropyl alcohol for preservation.

184 Preserved earthworms were separated into three age classes based on clitellum 185 development; 1) juveniles (lacking clitellum), 2) adults (clitellate), and 3) pre-/post- clitellate 186 adults (clitellum not fully developed or clitellum absent but scar visible, respectively) (Reynolds 187 1977). Adult earthworms were then identified to species using Reynolds' (1977) key, counted, 188 and recorded. Juveniles could only be recorded to genus, unless the species were Dendrobaena 189 octaedra or Dendrodrilus rubidus, in which case they could be identified to species even as 190 juveniles. Octolasion juveniles and adults were grouped for analyses even though their juveniles 191 could not be confidently identified to species because only O. tyrtaeum adults were found. 192 Earthworms were weighed to ± 0.001 g, grouped by genus, with the exception of D. octaedra and 193 D. rubidus, since they could be identified to species as juveniles.

195 Vegetation sampling

196 Tree species composition, size class distribution, and basal area were assessed using a 197 standard stand analysis field sheet (Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources 2004) and a BAF2 198 prism at each of the 155 plots. Trees were divided into four size classes by diameter at breast 199 height (dbh); polewood (10-25 cm), small (26-36 cm), medium (38-48 cm), and large (>50 cm). 200 Values obtained from the five plots were pooled for each variable to characterize the site. 201 Presence of understory shrub and herbaceous species were recorded for all plant species 202 observed within the 10x10-m plots. The presence and species of tree seedlings were also 203 determined and included in the analysis. In Meadow plots, only forb species were recorded. 204 Values from the five plots were pooled for each site. To determine the approximate stand age 205 and management history, we consulted the forest managers in each region. A record of previous 206 harvesting practices and land uses was maintained for all regions.

207

208 Soil sampling and analysis

Approximately 10 cm³ of soil was collected from the top 10cm of each plot, pooled by site (5 plots per site), and analyzed for gravimetric soil moisture content, organic matter, texture, pH, and bulk density. Organic matter was measured through loss of ignition at 500°C for 4 h; initial tests for calcareousness using 10% HCl determined that most of the soils were non- to weakly calcareous (Denholm et al. 1993). Soil texture was measured using an adapted pipette method (Kroetsch and Wang 2008), that measures sedimentation rates of sand (50 μ m– 2 mm), silt (2–50 μ m), and clay (0–2 μ m) based on Stoke's law. Soil pH was measured from a wellmixed slurry of 10 g of fresh soil and 40 mL of distilled water (Hendershot et al. 2008).A separate soil sample was taken from the top 10 cm of soil of each plot using a metal ring of fixed dimensions (7.6 cm D x 4.4 cm H) and thus, a fixed volume (199.7 cm³) to determine bulk density.

220 Statistical analyses

For statistical analysis, earthworm data from the two habitat subsamples per region were pooled, and environmental data (soil and vegetation data) were averaged over the two habitat subsamples per region. We decided to pool data rather than analyze subsample data in nested analyses due to the high dissimilarity in earthworm biomass between many subsample pairs. This high earthworm spatial heterogeneity on a local scale is not unusual based on repeated sampling in other sites across this region of southern Ontario (T. Sackett, pers.obs.).

227 We compared the biomass of earthworms among habitat types and regions, and 228 considered both total biomass and biomass of earthworm genera for all samples where there were 229 more than two observations (Aporrectodea, Dendrobaena, Lumbricus, and Octolasion). 230 Differences in total earthworm biomass among habitat types and regions was tested using a 231 general linear model (function lm in R); earthworm biomasses were (log+1) transformed before 232 analysis to achieve normality of residuals and homogenous variances. For each separate 233 earthworm genus, the error residuals and variances could not meet model assumptions even after 234 transformation. Therefore, we used a permutation (i.e. randomization) test to detect non-random 235 patterns of earthworm biomass with habitat and regions. For each genus, we randomized the 236 biomass data over all cells (habitat and region) and calculated the F-statistic for habitat and

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region effects using the lm function. We repeated this for 5000 iterations, creating a random
distribution of F-statistics for these data. We then compared our actual F-statistic with this
distribution to find the probability that the actual statistic was obtained from the random
distribution.

241 Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) was used to visually explore differences 242 in earthworm community composition among sites, after which, we used permutational 243 multivariate analysis of variance (pMANOVA) to test for differences in earthworm assemblage 244 composition among habitats and regions (Anderson 2001; McArdle and Anderson 2001). This 245 analysis is a non-parametric analysis of variance of distance matrices among groups. If any 246 factors in the overall pMANOVAmodel were significant, we performed pairwise tests. For both 247 the ordination and pMANOVA, we included only those earthworms identified to species (i.e., 248 specimens only identified to genus were eliminated for the analysis), and also removed species 249 where less than five individuals were collected (D. rubidus, A. trapezoides) in order to reduce the 250 effect of these rare species on the analysis. Sites where no earthworms were identified to species 251 were also removed; this included the Plantation Forests in the Wellington region, and all 252 Meadow sites because only one of the seven Meadow sites had individuals identified to species. 253 For the remaining sites, we pooled the data from the five collections per sub-sample and two 254 sub-samples per habitat to yield 11 samples in the data set.

For the NMDS, we used a scree plot of dimensions versus stress to choose the number of dimensions for the ordination (2 dimensions were adequate). The metaMDS function from the R package {vegan} was then used to perform the NMDS of species composition among sites, building a Bray-Curtis distance matrix. We were particularly interested in exploring whether any measured environmental or geographical (i.e., latitude) variables were correlated with

260	differences in species composition among the sites, as represented in the NMDS configuration.
261	To evaluate this, we used the envfit function from the {vegan} package to test the strength and
262	direction of the relationship between the environmental variables with the NMDS sample
263	coordinates. Values from environmental variables were log-transformed before overlaying
264	because envfit assumes a linear relationship between the environmental vectors and the
265	ordination coordinates. For the two-way pMANOVA model (habitat and region as predictors), F-
266	statistics were estimated from 1000 permutations of the Bray-Curtis distance matrix using the
267	adonis function in the R library vegan.
268	We tested for significant relationships between environmental (edaphic: soil pH,
269	moisture, organic matter, bulk density; vegetation: [basal area conifer and deciduous?]) variables
270	and the predictors of region and habitat using general linear models (least squares estimation
271	method) (function lm in R).
272	
273	Results
274	
275	Earthworm richness and biomass
276	A total of 806 earthworms from nine species and 5 genera (Dendrobaena, Dendrodrilus,
277	Aporrectodea, Octolasion, Lumbricus) were collected in our study (Tables 3 and 4). Two
278	specimens of unknown and unidentifiable species were not included in the analyses. The highest
279	number of earthworm species was found in Halton Region (Table 3). Aporrectodea rosea, A.
280	tuberculata, Octolasion sp., and Lumbricus terrestris were absent from Simcoe County samples,

281 whereas A. rosea and A. turgida were not found in York County. Dendrobaena octaedra and 282 Dendrodrilus rubidus were absent in Wellington County samples and D. rubidus absent in 283 Halton Region. All nine species were collected with our sampling system in the Deciduous 284 Forests, and *Aporrectodea trapezoides* was found only in Deciduous Forests (2 specimens) 285 (Table 4). Meadows held the lowest species richness among the studied habitat types, where only 286 A. tuberculata, A. turgida, Octolasion sp. and L. rubellus were collected. Earthworms sampled in 287 the most southerly sites of Halton Region comprised 58% of the total number of earthworms 288 collected; York, Wellington, and Simcoe Regions represented 21%, 16% and 5% of the total, 289 respectively (Table 3). Throughout the four regions, the total density of earthworms was the 290 highest in the Deciduous Forests (50%), followed by the Mixed Forests (32%), the Plantation 291 Forests (15%), and finally the Meadows (3%) (Table 4). Earthworm biomass ranged from 0 to 47 g per m^2 (0 to 153 individuals per m^2) in the 292

293 samples. The general linear model showed that total earthworm biomass decreased with 294 increasing latitude ($F_{1,11}$ =6.60; p=0.026) (Fig. 2), indicating regional differences in biomass with 295 the highest being in Halton Region followed by Wellington, York, and Simcoe Regions. 296 Permutation tests on each earthworm genus indicated that the biomass of *Lumbricus* (p=0.036) 297 and Octolasion (p=0.044) genera both decreased with increasing latitude, but there was no 298 relationship between the biomass of either Dendrobaena or Aporrectodea with latitude 299 (p>0.050). Neither total earthworm biomass, nor the biomass of a particular genus, differed 300 significantly among the four habitats (p>0.050).

301

302 Earthworm community composition

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303	The NMDS ordination (Fig. 3) showed species composition and assemblages to be
304	grouped similarly by region (Final stress = 0.06 ; probability of achieving observed stress through
305	randomization = 0.04). Sites in the Simcoe and York Regions grouped at the left of the biplot
306	(upper and lower part, respectively) while those from Wellington and Halton Regions grouped
307	together on the right of the biplot. The ordination coordinates for the samples were significantly
308	associated with region and soil pH ($p < 0.050$). Dendrodrilus rubidus and Dendrobaena
309	octaedra were associated with Simcoe and York Regions, respectively, whereas Lumbricus sp
310	and Aporrectodea turgida were associated with the southern regions. The pMANOVA indicated
311	that the species composition in the earthworm assemblages differed among regions ($F_{3,5}=3.05$,
312	p=0.020) but not among habitats ($F_{2,5}$ =0.82, p=0.640). Pairwise comparisons showed that
313	assemblage composition differed between the northernmost Simcoe Region and the two
314	southerly regions, Wellington and Halton (p<0.050). Differences in functional groups were not
315	clear between habitat types. Mixed Forests and Plantation Forests had the highest density of
316	epigeic earthworm species, which were absent from in the Meadow samples (Table 4). Both
317	endogeic earthworms and the Lumbricus group were most abundant in Deciduous Forest and
318	Mixed Forest types.

319

320 Regional and habitat variations in soil

The general linear models indicated that latitude was associated with differences in soil characteristics such as pH, gravimetric soil moisture, organic matter, and proportion of two size classes of sand. Soil pH, proportion of organic matter, and percentage moisture all decreased with increasing latitude, from Simcoe to Halton Region (Table 5). The linear models indicated

325	that pH decreased by 1.1 units with each (decimal) unit of latitude ($F_{1,11}$ =40.6; p<0.001), ranging
326	from average value of 6.8 in the southern Wellington and Halton Regions, to 5.7 in the
327	northernmost region, Simcoe. Organic matter decreased by 6% with each unit of latitude
328	($F_{1,11}$ =8.4; p=0.014), ranging from 12-14 % in Wellington and Halton Regions to 7% in Simcoe
329	Region. Soil moisture decreased by 22% with each unit of latitude ($F_{1,11}$ =15.2; p=0.002), ranging
330	from 37-44% in Wellington and Halton Regions to 16% in Simcoe Region. Habitat types were
331	less associated with differences in soil characteristics than latitude. Only soil pH varied
332	significantly across all habitats (F _{3,11} =6.2, p=0.010), and pairwise tests indicated that Meadows
333	were significantly drier than Mixed Forests (p<0.050).

Discussion 335

336 Nine of the 17 known species of exotic earthworms in Ontario were collected in this 337 regional study across south-central Ontario, representing the most common species known to be 338 established in the province (Addison 2009). This is the first study since Reynold's (1977) to 339 examine specific site and habitat information for earthworm assemblages across regions in south-340 central Canada.

341 Earthworm biomass varied significantly among the four municipal regions we studied, 342 and this was correlated with soil characteristics. As expected based on visible signs of invasion 343 (patches of missing leaf litter and earthworm middens, casts, and burrow entrances from Suárez 344 et al. 2006a), the southern Halton Region had the highest richness, total biomass, and density of 345 earthworms, followed in decreasing order by Wellington, York, and Simcoe Regions for biomass 346 and density. In contrast, the opposite pattern was seen when only epigeic species were

347	considered, with the more northerly Simcoe and York Regions having the highest densities of
348	this functional group. Although there are inherent differences in the ecological function of
349	various epigeic species such as between L. rubellus and D. octaedra, we expected that epigeic
350	species in general would be more dominant in sites with sandier soils since work by others has
351	shown a relationship between their abundance and litter depth (McLean and Parkinson 1997),
352	especially in sites where earthworms had been introduced more recently (Hale et al. 2005). In
353	northwestern Canada, Cameron et al. (2007) found that epigeic species such as D. octaedra were
354	more abundant in areas with deeper litter, but they considered this result might be due to
355	unexplained environmental factors such as time since invasion.
356	Soil characteristics litter quality and litter quantity are known to influence earthworm
357	abundance and composition. Increased deciduous regeneration provides litter for many
258	arthworm spacios, but this is not aqually polatable to all. The Plantation Forests in Wallington
558	earthworm species, but this is not equally paratable to an. The Plantation Polests in weinigton
359	Region contained saplings of only one tree species whereas those in Halton Region had up to 10
360	species of deciduous tree saplings. In our study, the number of palatable tree species affecting
361	leaf litter, soil pH, and temperature all decreased from south to north, and this would likely slow
362	the rate of earthworm invasion and changes in the forest (Addison 2009) and help explain the
363	differences we observed in Simcoe Region, where the lowest density of earthworms was found
364	together with the lowest soil pH, moisture, and organic matter. In laboratory studies, L. terrestris
365	biomass and growth was greatest at 20°C and 30% soil moisture and reproductive structures
366	developed slower at cooler temperatures (Berry and Jordan 2001). Moreover, York and Simcoe
367	Regions both had high amounts of fine and coarse sand respectively, which corresponded with
368	low earthworm densities. In the national forests of Minnesota and Wisconsin (USA), Holdsworth
369	et al. (2007b) also found increased sandiness to be correlated with decreased earthworm

abundance. Thus, it is not surprising that we found epigeic species to be in higher proportion inthe two northerly regions as they appear to tolerate lower pH and more sandy sites.

372 The low density and biomass of earthworms in the most northerly regions of our study 373 could also possibly be explained by the differential rate of invasion over this latitudinal gradient, 374 with the northern sites likely being invaded more recently than the southern ones. According to 375 Hale et al. (2005), newly invaded areas would be expected to have a higher abundance of epigeic 376 species compared to anecic and endogeic species, and this is consistent with what we observed in 377 the northern Simcoe Region where there was a high proportion of epigeic and *Lumbricus* species 378 but a small proportion of endogeic species. In addition, because L. terrestris adults were not 379 found in this region, it is likely that the *Lumbricus* component (adults and immatures) was 380 largely composed of the epi-endogeic species L. rubellus, which is also capable of tolerating low 381 pH and functions similarly to the other two epigeic species found. In contrast, the most southern 382 regions of Halton and Wellington both had very low densities of epigeics and were dominated by 383 endogeic species. The epigeic species that we saw in the northern regions, Dendrobaena 384 octaedra and D. rubidus, were not found in the two southerly regions, while A. rosea was not 385 found in the northerly regions. The lack of Octolasion species and L. terrestris in the northern 386 Simcoe Region was somewhat surprising given that it was in close proximity to large bodies of 387 water where frequent introductions of these species would be thought to occur from sport 388 fishing. Lumbricus terrestris has a relatively slow rate of spread among the species considered 389 here, so its absence in the north could be explained if the original introduction was in the 390 southern sites. Although these variations in functional group composition and earthworm 391 abundance are consistent with predictions from the theory of invasion succession (Hale et al.

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2005), there may also be other factors, especially habitat, soil characteristics, and the relativelylow sample size that contribute to the observed patterns and must also be considered.

394 In contrast to our predictions, earthworm biomass and the species assemblage 395 composition did not differ significantly among the four habitat types. Based on soil pH, it was 396 predicted that the Plantation Forests would have the highest proportion of epigeic species, 397 followed by the Mixed Forests and Deciduous Forests. Epigeic species were not expected to be 398 abundant in the Meadow sites because the litter layer there would have been reduced by regular 399 agricultural tilling, leaving them unsuitable for earthworm habitat (Nuutinen et al. 1998). 400 Plantation Forests had five times fewer *Lumbricus* species than endogeic species, which was 401 surprising because endogeic species are not usually found in forest plantations whereas L. rubellus is an acid-tolerant species frequently collected from them (Ammer et al. 2006). The 402 403 relatively high pH of the Plantation Forest sites, especially in the more southerly regions (Table 404 5), might account for this unexpected result, while the relatively high bulk density of the 405 Meadow sites might account for the low overall abundance of earthworms found there. Smetak 406 et al. (2007) showed that younger urban habitats had increased bulk density due to compaction 407 than more natural habitats, and that this resulted in lower overall earthworm abundance.

The stage of succession in the conversion of Plantation Forests to more natural Deciduous Forests potentially had an influence on the earthworm communities we observed in this study. Two of the conifer plantations in the Wellington Region never thinned since being planted in 1982 (M. Neumann 2012, pers. comm.) had no earthworms present whereas the Plantation Forests in Halton Region that had been thinned to promote deciduous regeneration (Gartner Lee Ltd. et al. 2002) averaged 7.38 earthworms per m⁻². Thus, variations in forest

414 management history and practices between the different regions are important in helping to415 explain local earthworm abundance and assemblages.

416 Based on the general lack of historical information for the timing of earthworm invasion 417 in our study areas, it is difficult to determine definitively the cause of variation in their 418 earthworm communities across the four regions. We do know that the southern sites were settled 419 for agriculture slightly earlier (e.g. late 1700s to early 1800s) than the northern sites (e.g. late 420 1800s to early 1900s). In addition, agricultural activities have tended to be more intensive in the 421 southern than in the northern regions, and past land use and management have likely had a 422 profound influence on any associated soil characteristics. Thus, it is likely that our results 423 identify the presence of a latitudinal gradient in earthworm invasion for this region as soil 424 variables were well within the range for survival and likely had little effect on historical 425 movement and introduction patterns. The spread of earthworms is primarily anthropochorous, 426 and species distributions in forests differ depending on the type of human activity (e.g., 427 settlement, roads, fishing) and land-use history (e.g., Bohlen et al. 2004; Gundale et al. 2005; 428 Cameron et al. 2007; Cameron and Bayne 2009; Sackett et al. 2012). Human population estimates in the northern region were 92/km² whereas those in the southern region averaged 429 550/km² (Statistics Canada 2011) supporting the likelihood that human density is an important 430 431 explanatory variable for differences in the earthworm communities we observed here, and this 432 suggests further investigation is warranted into the effects of human settlement. Our results 433 provide new baseline information on the status, distribution, and relationship of functional 434 earthworm communities with respect to habitat characteristics in south-central Ontario. Armed 435 with this improved understanding, forest managers will be better able to plan for these soil 436 invaders as they continue to advance throughout Canada's forests.

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earthworms. Appl. Soil Ecol. 22: 87-95.

- 567 Table 1 –Location, soil order, precipitation, and temperature (1982-2012) of the four study
- regions in south-central Ontario where earthworm populations were sampled in 2011.

	Region	Latitudinal range (°N)	Soil order(s)	Average annual precipitation (mm)	Average annual temperature (°C)
	Simcoe	44.49-44.60	Podzols	938	6.6
	York	44.04-44.10	Grey brown Podzols	857	7.4
	Wellington	43.50-43.54	Podzols and gleysols	905	6.6
	Halton	43.46-43.56	Gleysols, luvisols, brunisols	884	6.8
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Habitat	Dominant species ^a	Age	Previous land	Centroid	location ^b
Site code		(years)	use	Northing	Easting
Deciduous					
SCDFA	Mh (57%), Aw (1%)	99	Natural	44.4943	-79.8148
SCDFB	Mh (91%)	107	Natural	44.5927	-79.7997
YRDFA	Mh (60%), Aw(19%)	80	Natural	44.0460	-79.3227
YRDFB	Mh (55%)	102	Natural	44.0682	-79.2864
CGDFA	Ag (53%), Msi (31%)) >40	Agriculture	43.5249	-80.3005
CGDFB	Ag (48%), Msi (48%)) >40	Agriculture	43.5358	-80.2914
HRDFA	Mh (82%)	65	Pasture	43.5403	-79.9865
HRDFB	Mh (52%)	75	Agriculture	43.5112	-79.9960
Mixed					
SCMFA	He (39%), Mh (29%)	80	Natural	44.4965	-79.8137
SCMFB	Mh (48%), He (36%)	98	Natural	44.5935	-79.8002
YRMFA	He (51%), Mh (19%)	132	Natural	44.0706	-79.2836
YRMFB	He (50%), Mh (18%)	132	Natural	44.0704	-79.2819
CGMFA	He (30%), Ag (28%)	>40	Agriculture	43.5102	-80.2209
CGMFB	Ag (33%), He (17%)	>40	Agriculture	43.5107	-80.2218
HRMFA	Mh (25%), He (14%)	57	Forestry	43.5320	-80.0940
HRMFB	Pw (23%), Bw 19%)	75	Agriculture	43.4632	-79.9934
Plantation					
SCPPA	Pr (67%)	52	Agriculture	44.4937	-79.8096
SCPPB	Pr (86%)	71	Agriculture	44.6054	-79.7865
YRPPA	Pr (81%)	53	Cleared (unk) ^d	44.0877	-79.3596
YRPPB	Pr (85%)	55	Cleared (unk) ^d	44.0428	-79.3209
CGPPA	Pw (100%)	30	Agriculture	43.5028	-80.2009
CGPPB	Pw (100%)	30	Agriculture	43.5037	-80.2049
HRPPA	Sw (48%), Pw (28%)	45	Agriculture	43.5203	-80.0558
HRPPB	Sw (48%), Pr (23%)	55	Agriculture	43.5630	-80.0166
Meadow ^c					
SCMA	Solispp, Asclsyri	unknown	Agriculture	44.5287	-79.6164
SCMB	Solispp, Asclsyri	unknown	Agriculture	44.5491	-79.5953
YRMA	Old crop	unknown	Agriculture	44.1013	-79.3388
YRMB	Old crop	unknown	Agriculture	44.1001	-79.3394
CGMA	Solispp, Dauccaro	unknown	Agriculture	43.5039	-80.2071
CGMB	Solispp, Corovari	unknown	Agriculture	43.5036	-80.2276
HRMA	Solispp, Rubuidae	unknown	Agriculture	43.5024	-79.9947

577 Table 2. Location and characteristics of the 31 study sites in south-central Ontario, Canada where 578 earthworm populations were sampled in 2011.

^a(%) Percentage composition of the dominant species based on proportion of total number of trees; See Appendix 1 for a list of species name and abbreviations.

^bCentroid location of the five plots was determined using the 'median center' function of the spatial statistics toolbox in the program ArcMap 10.0 (ESRI 2010).

^cDominant vegetation is based on flowering herbaceous species and does not account for grasses or sedges.

^dunk = Records of previous land use could not be found; however, it was most likely cleared for agriculture and replanted as a plantation based on the history of the two northerly regions.

- 579 Table 3 Mean densities (and range) of earthworm species collected from the four regions of
- 580 south-central Ontario, Canada during 2011.
- 581

	Mean density (individuals per m ²)				
Functional group and	Simcoe (n=40)	York (n=40)	Wellington (n=40)	Halton (n=35)	Average density
species					
Epigeic					
Dendrobaena octaedra	0.47 (0-3.75)	0.91 (0-10.00)	0	0.25 (0-3.75)	0.41 (0-10.00)
Dendrodrilus rubidus	0.06 (0-1.25)	0.03 (0-1.25)	0	0	0.02 (0-1.25)
Total epigeic	0.53 (0-5.00)	0.94 (0-5.00)	0	0.25 (0-3.75)	0.43 (0-10.00)
Endogeic	()	()			()
<i>Aporrectodea</i> iuveniles	0.06 (0-1.25)	0.94 (0-5.00)	1.31 (0-7.50)	4.82 (0-16.25)	1.69 (0-16.25)
A. rosea	0	0	0.09(0-1.25)	0 29 (0-2 50)	0.09(0-2.50)
A. trapezoides	0.06 (0-2.50)	0	0	0	0.02(0-2.50)
<i>A. tuberculata</i>	0	0.5 (0-5.00)	0.40 (0-5.00)	0.82 (0-3.75)	0.42 (0-5.00)
Aporrectodea	0.03 (0-1.25)	0	0.13 (0-3.75)	0.86 (0-5.00)	0.23 (0-5.00)
<i>turgida</i> (Eisen)	()		()		
Octolasion	0	0.75 (0-7.50)	1.81 (0-22.5)	3.11 (0-21.25)	1.36 (0-22.50)
species				· · · · · ·	· · · · ·
Total endogeic	0.15 (0-2.50)	2.19 (0-10.00)	3.74 (0-30.00)	9.90 (0-32.50)	3.81 (0-32.50)
Lumbricus group				× ,	× /
<i>Lumbricus</i> iuveniles	0.44 (0-8.75)	0.75 (0-6.25)	1.5 (0-8.75)	5.07 (0-25.00)	1.84 (0-25.00)
L. rubellus	0.06 (0-1.25)	0.03 (0-1.25)	0.03 (0-1.25)	0.68 (0-8.75)	0.16 (0-8.75)
L. terrestris	0	0.03 (0-1.25)	0.09 (0-1.25)	0.64 (0-5.00)	0.18 (0-5.00)
Total	0.50 (0-10.00)	0.81 (0-6.25)	1.62 (0-8.75)	6.39 (0-32.50)	2.18 (0-32.50)
<i>Lumbricus</i> group		, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	· · · · · ·	
Average density of all species (m ⁻²)	1.18 (0-11.25)	3.94 (0-13.75)	5.38 (0-38.75)	16.54 (0-65.0)	6.17 (0-65.00)
Number of species	5	6	5	7	

- 583 Table 4.Mean densities and range of earthworm species collected from the four habitat types in
- south-central Ontario during 2011.

	Mean density (individuals per m ²)					
Functional group and species	Deciduous forest (n=40)	Mixed forest (n=40)	Plantation forest (n=40)	Meadow (n=35)		
Epigeic						
Dendrobaena octaedra	0.34 (0-3.75)	0.66 (0-10.00)	0.59 (0-3.75)	0		
Dendrodrilus rubidus	0.03 (0-1.25)	0.03 (0-1.25)	0.03 (0-1.25)	0		
Total epigeic	0.37 (0-5.00)	0.69 (0-11.25)	0.62 (0-5.00)	0		
Endogeic						
Aporrectodea juveniles	3.16 (0-16.25)	1.69 (0-6.25)	1.41 (0-11.25)	0.32 (0-7.50)		
A. rosea	0.06 (0-1.25)	0.16 (0-1.25)	0.13 (0-2.50)	0		
A. trapezoides	0.06 (0-2.50)	0	0	0		
A. tuberculata	0.28 (0-3.75)	0.72 (0-5.00)	0.59 (0-5.00)	0.04 (0-1.25)		
A. turgida	0.59 (0-5.00)	0.22 (0-2.50)	0.06 (0-2.50)	0.04 (0-1.25)		
Octolasion species	2.66 (0-21.25)	2.19 (0-22.50)	0.31 (0-5.00)	0.14 (0-2.50)		
Total endogeic	6.81 (0-50.00)	4.98 (0-37.50)	2.50 (0-26.25)	0.54 (0-5.00)		
<i>Lumbricus</i> group						
Lumbricus juveniles	4.47 (0-25.00)	1.94 (0-11.25)	0.47 (0-2.50)	0.29 (0-5.00)		
L. rubellus	0.63 (0-8.75)	0.03 (0-1.25)	0.03 (0-1.25)	0.04 (0-1.25)		
L. terrestris	0.28 (0-2.50)	0.31 (0-5.00)	0.09 (0-2.50)	0		
Total <i>Lumbricus</i> group	5.38 (36.25)	2.28 (0-17.50)	0.59 (0-6.25)	0.33 (1.75)		
Average density of all species (m ⁻²)	12.56 (0-65.00)	8.00 (0-38.75)	3.72 (0-22.50)	0.86 (0-13.8)		
Number of species	9	8	8	4		

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- 589 Table 5. Mean values of soil variables and statistical variation between regions or habitat types
- 590 based on the top 10 cm of soil from the four sites sampled in southern Ontario. GSM:
- 591 gravimetric soil moisture, OM: organic matter, BD: bulk density

	рН	GSM (%)	OM (%)	BD (g/cm ³)	% fine sand (<250µm)	% coarse sand (>250μm)
Region						
Simcoe	5.70±0.16	16.4 ± 2.8	7.23±1.1	0.67 ± 0.10	43.9±6.9	50.1±6.4
York	6.41±0.25	34.0±4.4	9.35±1.8	0.69 ± 0.09	68.5 ± 5.0	10.1±5.1
Wellington	6.80±0.10	37.1±5.0	13.9 ± 2.2	0.76 ± 0.03	42.8±3.0	14.1±3.6
Halton	6.89±0.09	44.3±1.8	12.6±0.9	0.69 ± 0.02	43.0±1.9	14.8 ± 1.1
Habitat type						
Deciduous	6.65±0.16	36.9±5.3	13.4 ± 2.1^{1}	0.64 ± 0.04	41.8±4.8	31.3±8.0
Mixed	6.03±0.24	37.0±5.7	12.5±1.3	0.53 ± 0.07	49.8±6.4	19.4±8.8
Plantation	6.28±0.26	28.3±5.3	10.0 ± 1.3	0.69 ± 0.03	55.1±7.6	18.6±6.6
Meadow	6.82±0.16	27.9±4.1	6.29±1.3	0.93 ± 0.06	51.6±4.9	20.1±6.3

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602 Figure captions

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Figure 1. Centroid locations of the 31 study sites for the four study regions (shaded in grey) in

- 605 southern Ontario (shaded). \circ =deciduous forests (DF), \triangle =mixed forests (MF), \square = plantations
- 606 (PP), +=meadows (M).

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Figure 2. Total earthworm biomass at 15 sites in four different habitat types distributed latitudinally across southern Ontario, Canada. The solid line is the linear regression line and the shaded area is the 95% confidence region ($r^2=0.55$; p=0.048). Habitat abbreviations are as in Figure 1.

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Figure 3. Ordination (NMDS) plots of earthworm species assemblage composition from 15 collections across southern Ontario. Points are individual observations and ellipses enclose 1 SD of the data for samples within the Halton (H), York (Y) and Simcoe (S) Regions. No ellipse is drawn for Wellington (W) Region as only two samples are plotted. Gray arrows indicate the direction of significantly correlated environmental or geographical variables with differences in species composition among sites. Hollow diamonds with species names indicate the relative distribution of species among sites.

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