

Functional role of microarthropods in soil aggregation

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Soil aggregation has received a lot of attention in the last years; however, the 26 focus was mostly on soil microorganismsor larger soil fauna, especially 27 earthworms. The impact of the large group of microarthropods, e.g. Collembola 28 and Acari, is nearly unknown and hence underrepresented in the literature. Here 29 we propose and discuss potential direct and indirect mechanismsofhow 30 microarthropods could influence this process with the focus on collembolans, 31 which are in general a relatively well studied taxon. Indirect mechanisms are 32 likely to have larger impacts on soil aggregation than direct effects. The variety 33 of indirect mechanisms based on the provision of organic material like faecal 34 35 pellets, molts and necromass as food source for microorganisms is high and given available evidence we propose that these mechanismsare the most 36 influential. We highlight the need for overcoming the challenges of culturing and 37 handling of these animals in order to be able to design small scale experiments 38 and field studies which would enable us to understand the role of the different 39 functional groups, their interaction with other soil faunaand the impact of land 40 use practices on soil aggregation. 41

42 Key words: soil structure; microarthropods; Collembola; Acari

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44 Introduction

Soil structure plays a critical ecosystemic role in biogeochemical processes (e.g.
Jastrow, 1996), water infiltration, gas exchange efficacy, and resistance against
erosional loss, and influences the performanceof soil biota, including roots (Hartge and
Stewart, 1995; Miller and Jastrow, 1992; Oades, 1984; Rillig and Mummey, 2006). Soil
structure often referred to as the arrangement of different macro- and microaggregate

size fractions (organic/mineral complexes of >250µm or <250µm, respectively) and the
corresponding pore spaces (Hartge and Stewart, 1995; Rillig and Mummey, 2006).
Inhierarchically structuredsoils, organic matter serves as the main binding agent to
form and stabilize aggregates (Tisdall and Oades, 1982), but additionally, soil texture,
soil microorganisms, roots, inorganic binding agents, the predominant environmental
conditions, and the soil fauna are important for this process (Dexter and Horn, 1988;
Rillig et al., 2015).

While soil fauna is generally acknowledged as being important for soil aggregation, 57 direct empirical evidence is scarce for microarthropods, including mites and 58 collembolans, the two most abundantand diverse groups. This is surprising given that 59 these animals can occur at high densities, and given their role in the processing of 60 organic matter via chemical, physical and biological mechanisms (Lee and Foster, 61 1991; Wolters, 2000). We are only aware of two studies that have experimentally 62 quantified the impact of Collembola on soil structure (Siddiky et al., 2012a, b); these 63 experimental data, however, revealed an effect size comparable to that of much more 64 thoroughly studied soil biota, such as fungi. These experiments should be extended to 65 the field as this might also be of agricultural interest. 66

Among the various groups of soil biota, especially the effects of mycorrhizal fungi, 67 bacteria, earthworms, and termites have been studied intensely (e.g.; Lee and Foster, 68 1991: Oades and Waters, 1991; Bossuyt et al., 2005; Pulleman et al., 2005; Rillig and 69 Mummey, 2006; Velasquez et al., 2007). It is known that the excretion of e.g. 70 polysaccharides by bacteria and the physical enmeshment of soil particles by fungal 71 72 mycelia have a positive effect (see e.g. Degens, 1997; Lynch and Bragg, 1985; Oades, 1993; Rillig and Mummey, 2006; Tisdall, 1994b). Larger soil animals like earthworms 73 and termites directly affect soil structure by their burrowing activities and by the 74

digestion and excretion of relatively large amounts of organic material and soil
particles, which might also lead to increased soil aggregation (e.g. Lavelle, 1988; Lee,
1985; Lee and Foster, 1991; or see review by Six et al., 2004; Tisdall, 1994a, 1994b).

Given this striking asymmetry in our understanding of biotic contributions to soil 78 aggregation, we here propose and discuss potential mechanisms for Collembola, which 79 are also likely applicable to other soil microarthropods. We distinguish between direct 80 and indirect effects (Fig. 1); however all the mechanisms we discuss would in reality 81 take place simultaneously and in interaction with each other. As the collembolan 82 Folsomia candida is very well studied, especially with regard to properties that might 83 be involved in mechanisms of soil aggregation, we base our discussion mostly on this 84 species, but we believe without much loss of generality. 85

86

87 [Fig. 1]

88

89 Direct mechanisms

Direct effects of collembolans on soil structure can be categorized in terms of input of organic material, which positively contributes to soil structure, and degradation of aggregates, which is a negative effect.

93 Organic matter inputs

Possible positive, direct effects of collembolans on soil structure include the production, modification and movement of organic matter, which can then serve as binding agents, nuclei or building blocks for aggregates. Assimilated nutrients can either be contained in animal tissue or be excreted as metabolic waste.Especially 98 because microarthropods can occur in high numbers, they might produce a large 99 amount of faecal pellets. It has to be assumed that many soils contain millions of faecal 99 pellets per square meter (Hopkin, 2007). In this context,Kubiena (1953) reports about 101 the so-called 'alpine pitch rendzinas' on limestone which are nearly completely 102 composed of collembolan faeces forming a 15-20cm deep black humus layer.

103 Collembolan eggs are deposited in clutches and need a couple of days to weeks to develop (Hopkin, 2007). Eggs of the collembolan family Sminthuridaemight be covered 104 by a mixture of soil and collembolan waste to protect them from mold and dehydration 105 (Betsch-Pinot, 1976, 1977; Dallai et al., 2008). After hatching, the remaining egg 106 integuments might serve as source of fresh organic material to microorganisms (which 107 108 will be discussed in the paragraph about indirect mechanisms) or, due to the attached soil particles and organic material, as nuclei for microaggregate formation. 109 Collembolans go through several instars, which might mean molting at fairly high rates. 110 111 Most species molt throughout their whole life (up to 45 times). Specimens of Folsomia candida may live up to six months; however, for other species shorter or far longer 112 (one year and longer) life-spanshave been reported (Hopkin, 2007), which means that 113 their production of molts could be significant. Interestingly, some oribatid mites can 114 even survive for up to three years (Capinera, 2008). Their molts are hard-bodied due 115 to chitin and other components in the cuticle (see Weigmann, 2006) and hence their 116 breakdown should be slower, and thus they could serve as more long-lived building 117 blocks of aggregates. Finally, the production of necromassespecially in short-lived 118 119 species besides faecalpellets, molts and eggs, can potentially influence soil aggregation. Unfortunately, there is no study dealing explicitly with the input of these 120 types of organic material. Given the potentially high local abundances, this should 121 122 clearly be a target of future research.

123 Degradation of soil aggregates via disturbance

124 Collembola and Oribatida usually consist of populations in the order of 10,000 to 125 100,000 individuals per square meter (see Hopkin, 2007; Weigmann, 2006). Canthey 126 therefore counteract the formation of aggregates by crawling around or feeding on e.g. 127 microorganisms, plant remains or various excretory products? The impact of this 128 disturbance on a *per capita* basis might be low, but data about the impact of locally 129 high abundant microarthropods on soil aggregation are missing.

130

131 Indirect mechanisms

Several studies have investigated the soil food web, functional characteristics and 132 133 feedbacks between the different organism groups also in relation to aboveground biota; however, there are few data on the impact of interacting taxa like fungi and 134 microarthropods on soil aggregation (Salmon and Ponge, 2001, Siddiky et al., 2012a, 135 2012b). Fungi and bacteria are directly and indirectly contributing to the production and 136 release of materials and compounds that contribute to soil structure dynamicswhile soil 137 animals affect the translocation and provision of organic material for colonization, like 138 faecal pellets, molts, eggs, and necromass, and the modification of the activity of 139 microorganisms by grazing (Coleman et al., 2002). There are studies suggesting that 140 Collembola could have a positive effect on mycorrhizal functioning as their fungal 141 grazing might enhance fungal growth and respiration (Lussenhop, 1992). Other studies 142 suggest that collembolans could also have no or negative effects (Fitter and Garbaye, 143 144 1994; Fitter and Sanders, 1992), which brought attention to collembolans as important regulators of the mycorrhizal symbiosisacting in a density-dependent fashion (Gange, 145 2000). If there were positive effectson fungal growth or branching patterns, these 146

effects could enhance soilaggregation processes, while the reduction of fungal 147 biomass could have either negative effects or change the composition of the soil 148 microbial community with unclear functional consequences. It is also likely that the 149 observed effects depend on the abundance of Collembola or other microarthropods, a 150 hypothesis that should therefore be tested (for enchytraeids see Hedlund and 151 Augustsson, 1995). It has also been shown that Collembola do feed on 152 arbuscularmycorrhizal fungi (AMF), but, depending on the species, prefer non-AMF 153 mycelia(e.g. Klironomos and Kendrick, 1996; Klironomos and Ursic, 1998; Moore et 154 al., 1985; Thimm and Larink, 1995). Another important aspect of the interaction 155 156 between the microbial community and microarthropods is the dispersal of spores (Klironomos and Moutoglis, 1999; Lussenhop, 1992). AMF spores can be far larger 157 (20-500 µm)than non-AMF spores (Trappe, 1982) and it is more likely that spores are 158 159 ingested by earthworms rather than by Collembola (Fitter and Sanders, 1992; Moore et al., 1985). Brown (1995)has shown that spores can survive the gut passageof 160 earthworms with an increased germination rate afterwards (for more information about 161 gut microbiota in various taxa see e.g. Pherson and Beattie, 1979; Ponge 162 andCharpentie, 1981, König, 2006.). Still, collembolans are also able to act as vectors 163 by transporting spores attached to their cuticle (Gormsen et al., 2004), which is also 164 known for one oribatid group, the Damaeidae (Weigmann, 2006). Although this 165 phenomenon might be restricted to only a few species it should be considered as 166 important means of microbial transport which might have an impact on the composition 167 of the microbial community. 168

As described in the paragraph about the provision of organic material, one major question is how the organic materials influence the colonization by and composition of

microbial communities, which might lead to enhanced aggregate formation. There are
several potential mechanisms which have been investigated only in part so far.

Foster et al. (1983) report that fresh faecal pellets can be recognized as round and 173 smooth surfaces under the scanning electron microscope, whereas older pellets are 174 mostly densely covered by fungal hyphae; this highlights the importance of 175 microarthropodsinassisting microbial colonization of organic matter. It is also known 176 that during the molting of collembolans the whole midgut epithelium is also excreted to 177 dispose of the accumulated toxins (Fountain and Hopkin, 2001; Humbert, 1979). The 178 total gut volume of Folsomia candida was estimated up to 10nl, faecal pellets had a 179 volume of approx. 1nl (Thimm et al., 1998) and contained approx. 1.55 x 10⁴ bacterial 180 cells (identified by light microscopy) of which only less than 0.01% were dead. Taking 181 into consideration that, under laboratory conditions, the reported period between the 182 ingestion and the defecation of bacterial cells can be less than one hour (Czarnetzki 183 and Tebbe, 2004), the amount of living microbial cells excreted per individuum during 184 a life cycle is enormous. Some authors (e.g. Hanlon, 1981; Thimm et al., 1998) have 185 already highlighted the importance of the constant local input of gut (but also other 186 ingested) bacteria which might lead to an enhanced competition between already 187 existing soil microorganisms, and this might affect soil aggregation depending on the 188 ensuing species composition. The same might also be true for other organic material 189 provided through oviposition or necromass. 190

191 Collembolans usually excrete urine via the labial nephridia, but can also release 192 insoluble products via the midgut epithelium (Hopkin, 1997; Larsen, 2007). Most of the 193 nitrogenous and phosphorus-containing waste products are released as ammonia 194 (Sjursen and Holmstrup, 2004), uric acid and phosphate, depending on the species. In 195 spite of the studies addressing these aspects(e.g. Cragg and Bardgett, 2001; Milcu et

al., 2006; Verhoef et al., 1988) it is not clear how these different waste 196 197 productsinfluence local environmental conditions and hence the microbial community. Some studies have also investigated partly species-specific characteristics 198 of nitrogen and carbon release (Petersen, 1980; Sjursen and Holmstrup, 2004), the 199 influence of the available resource quality (Chen et al., 1995) and the creation of 200 nutrient sources for heterotrophic microbes and primary producers (Rusek, 1998). 201 These processes should therefore be recognized as integral components of soil 202 structure (Fjellberg, 1986; Rusek, 1985). 203

Indirect effects of microarthropods via the provision of organic material to microorganisms are not the only indirect mechanisms to be considered. The complex interactions with the larger components of the soil fauna have not yet been considered in detail in any study (but see Ponge 1988; Ponge, 1991;Salmon and Ponge, 2001). In our opinion, especially the interaction between different functional groups should be more closely investigated, as the biggest effect sizes are assumed to be found in this context rather than in studies dealing with direct effects.

Another important aspect is the impact of different agricultural practices on soil fauna 211 212 and soil aggregation as abiotic factors. Once the biotic interactions between different faunal groups have become clearer, another focus should be on the impact of tillage, 213 ploughing or compaction of soil on these interactions. It is known that different 214 taxonomic groups respond differently to agricultural practices in different types of soils 215 216 and depending on fertilizer additions etc. (see e.g. van Capelle et al., 2012, Roger-Estrade et al., 2010, for microarthropods see Ponge et al. 2013), however, closer 217 218 investigation would be necessary in order to develop appropriate strategies to e.g. increase soil fertility and resistance towards erosional loss by increasing soil stability 219 via soil fauna. 220

221 Conclusion

Despite their underrepresentation in the soil aggregation literature, we highlighted and
 discussed several potential mechanisms via whichmicroarthropods could influence soil
 aggregation.

Due to their relatively small body size and total biomass, which is lower than that of 225 fungi, bacteria and other taxa such as nematodes and protozoa, microarthropods may 226 rather indirectly than directly affect soil structure. However, in some cases the impact 227 of the production of assumedly large amounts of organic material in form of necromass, 228 229 eggs, etc. might play an important role as direct starting points for microaggregate formation. We propose to start studying soil aggregation formation with easy-to-handle 230 species such as Folsomia candidain experimental designs that allow assessing the 231 232 direction and magnitude of the various possible mechanisms, especially direct vs indirect mechanisms. Difficulties with culturingmicroarthropodsforexperiments, but also 233 with the collection of direct observations have hampered empirical studies to date. The 234 usage ofhigh resolution filmingand photographing, which is nowadays very feasible 235 given the remarkable advances in microscopy technologies, is necessary to observe 236 237 how microarthropods act in the formation of soil aggregates. Coupling these technologies with small scale experimental designs will allow teasing apart the roles of 238 various mechanisms that act simultaneously. An element of complexity and realisms 239 will be given by studies addressing the impact of different taxa (e.g. Collembola and 240 241 Acari) on soil structure in opposition to studies focusing onspecies-specific effects. In this context, a focus should in our opinion be on the interaction of functionally 242 243 defined,trait-based groups across all soil biota.

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450 Figure captions

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Fig. 1: Overview of potential mechanisms used by microarthropods for the formation of soil aggregates. Mechanisms are divided into direct and indirect processes and based on Collembola and oribatid mites as most abundant soil microarthropod representatives.