

cropping

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for four farm cropping manage-
ments differed in their source of
ure only (O), mineral fertilizer
fertilizer, herbicides plus insecti-
cides planted to annual crops either
1). Eleven nematode community
indices were measured in 1993,
numbers of bacterivores and plant-
greater, and MI1-5 values small-
values decreased with additions
source of nutrients. Total fungal
diversity with application of insecti-
cides decreased with applications of
tylenchus decreased with addi-
tylenchus and *Mylonchulus* abun-
dances demonstrates differential effects of
position.

nematodes, Shannon-Weaver, tro-

disturbance types. For example,
or "conventional" imply a mix-
separate effects of physical and
practices (Fiscus 1997). Some
chemical disturbance while others
sometimes, cultivation and nutrient

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enrichment alter a nematode population in an additive manner, and other times a population responds to cultivation and nutrient enrichment oppositely giving no net change in abundance. Increased understanding of the specific effects of cultivation and chemical application practices, individually and in combination, on nematode communities is important for calibration and interpretation of nematode community indices for use in regional or national environmental monitoring programs (Neher & Campbell 1994, 1996; Neher et al. 1995, 1998; Fiscus 1997).

Many short-term studies that describe effects of individual components of management practices on nematode community structure produce contradictory results. This study quantifies nematode community composition in four, long-term (18 consecutive years) farm management systems. Specifically, effects of organic manure are compared with those of mineral fertilization alone, combined with herbicides, or combined with herbicides and insecticides. We predicted that management practices that used organic manure in place of mineral fertilizer would increase microbial biomass, organic matter content, numbers of bacterivorous nematodes, and reduce numbers of plant-parasitic nematodes. Furthermore, herbicides and insecticides were predicted to reduce numbers of free-living nematodes, trophic diversity, and shift nematode communities to an earlier successional state.

Materials and Methods

A long-term agricultural experiment was established in 1975 at the University of Nebraska Agricultural Research and Development Center near Ithaca, Nebraska (Lat. 41:10:00, Long. 96:25:00) on a Sharpsburg silty clay loam soil. The objectives of the original project were to compare the overall performance of four eastern Nebraska farming systems representing different levels of chemical inputs ranging from organic methods with crop rotations to continuous corn with mineral fertilizers and pesticides (Table 1, Sahs & Lesoing 1985; Lesoing 1992). Treatments were assigned as follows: manure only (O=organic), mineral fertilizer only (F), mineral fertilizer plus herbicides (HF), and mineral fertilizer, herbicides plus insecticides (HFI). All farming systems were cultivated annually and planted to annual crops either in rotation (O, F, HF systems) or continuous corn (HFI system). Each stage of the crop rotation sequence (corn-soybeans-corn-oats/clover) was represented each year since 1975. Experimental units were 0.047 hectare and arranged in a randomized complete block design with four replications. Management decisions for each system followed best management practices for comparable farming systems in the local area.

Table 1. Characteristics of the four crop management systems in the long-term (1975–1993) comparison study

	Management System			
	O	F	HF	HFI
<i>Crop sequence, 1975–1992</i> ^a	C-B-C-O/CI	C-B-C-O/CI	C-B-C-O/CI	C-C-C-C
<i>Crops grown, 1993</i>	C,B,S,O/CI	C,B,S,O/CI	C,B,S,O/CI	C,B,S
<i>Fertilizer</i>	Manure or compost ^b	Mineral ^c	Mineral ^d	Mineral ^e
<i>Herbicides</i>	No	No	Yes ^e	Yes ^e
<i>Insecticides</i>	No	No	No	Yes ^f

^a C=corn, *Zea mays* L.; B=soybeans, *Glycine max* (L.) Merr.; O/CI=oats, *Avena sativa* L., and red clover, *Trifolium pratense* L.; S=sorghum, *Sorghum bicolor* (L.) Moench

^b In 1993, 7 metric tons compost (dry weight) applied per ha (62 kg N/ha)

^c No fertilizer applied in 1993; other years liked

^d corn and sorghum fertilized at 78 kg N/ha in 1993

^e 1993 herbicides: corn – Arena (15% a.i., 4.71/ha), Bladex 4L (43% a.i., 4.7 l/ha), Buctril (56% a.i., 0.9 l/ha); sorghum – Dual (86.4% a.i., 2.9 l/ha), Buctril (56% a.i., 1.2 l/ha), Atrazine 4L (43% a.i., 1.2 l/ha); soybeans – Dual (86.4% a.i., 2.9 l/ha), Basagran (42% a.i., 1.8 l/ha), Pinnacle (25% a.i., 17 g/ha); oat/clover – Butyrac 200 (25.9% a.i., 4.7 l/ha)

^f In 1993, Counter systemic insecticide/nematicide used as corn and sorghum seed treatment, 7.8 kg/ha (15% a.i.); sorghum seed treated with Captan and Lindane

Nematode community structure was determined once management practices had been implemented for 18 years continuously to determine the long-term effect of practices on nematode community composition. Six soil cores (0–15 cm depth, 2 cm diameter) were collected from random locations within crop rows and combined to form one composite sample per experimental subunit in September 1993, near crop maturity. Sampling time and intensity was comparable to other studies implementing nematode community indicators on a regional or national geographical scale (Neher et al. 1995, 1998). Samples were maintained at existing field moisture levels in insulated containers and shipped by overnight mail to Soil Foodweb, Inc. (Corvallis, Oregon) for analysis of nematodes, bacterial biomass and fungal biomass. Nematodes were extracted from a 5 g subsample from each composite soil sample using Baermann funnels (Ayoub 1980). Nematodes were identified to genus according to Bongers (1987) and trophic groups were assigned according to Yeates et al. (1993a). An additional 1 g subsample of soil was removed from each composite sample for measurement of microbial biomass by direct microscopy (Babiuk & Paul 1970). Total bacterial biomass was determined by counting populations and measuring the diameters of all bacteria. Active bacteria biomass was determined according to Lodge & Ingham (1991). Active fungal biomass was determined by measuring the length and diameter of FDA-stained hyphae (Ingham & Klein 1984; Lodge & Ingham 1991). All laboratory bioassays were performed on fresh soil, initiated within 48 hours of sampling. Percent organic matter content of each soil sample was determined by the Soil and Plant Analysis Laboratory (Lincoln, Nebraska).

Eleven indices were calculated to describe nematode community structure. All of the indices have been tested previously (e.g., Bongers 1990; Ettema & Bongers 1993; Freckman & Ettema 1993; Yeates 1994; Neher & Campbell 1994, 1996; Neher et al. 1995): 1) numbers of bacterivores, 2) numbers of fungivores, 3) ratio of fungivores to bacterivores defined as [fungivores/fungivores + bacterivores] (*sensu* Yeates et al. 1993b), 4) numbers of plant-parasites, 5) trophic group diversity with $NI = \exp[-\sum P_i(\ln P_i)]$, where P_i is the proportion of trophic group i in the total nematode community (Shannon & Weaver 1949), 6) maturity index MI1-5 (Bongers 1990), 7) MI2-5 (Bongers et al. 1995), 8) plant-parasitic maturity (PPI) (Bongers 1990), 9) maturity index ratio (PPI:MI) (Bongers et al. 1997), 10) percentage of total free-living nematodes that were assigned a $c-p$ value of 2 (early successional) (Bongers et al. 1995), and 11) percentage of free-living nematodes assigned a $c-p$ value of 4-5 (later successional) (Bongers et al. 1995).

An unbalanced Kruskal-Wallis test using an incomplete factorial design was performed using nematode index values as dependent variables (SAS 1989). A nonparametric test was used because numbers and indices were not distributed normally. Main effects (experimental blocks, management practice, and the 1993 crop), but not interactions between main effects, were treated as independent variables. Experimental subunits were analyzed initially as separate observations, but later averaged because there was no added benefit of having two rather than one observation per experimental unit. Single degree of freedom contrasts were used to identify effects of nutrient source (O versus F, HF and HFI), herbicides (F versus FH and HFI), and insecticides (HF versus HFI).

Results

Farming system ($p < 0.05$), but not crop present at time of sampling ($p > 0.10$), affected the composition of nematode communities. The most abundant trophic group for all management practices was bacterivores (Table 2). Numbers of bacterivores ($p = 0.0483$) and plant-parasites ($p = 0.0007$) were greater in systems with manure (i.e., O) than without manure (i.e., F, HF and HFI). Additions of herbicides or insecticides did not change numbers of bacterivores ($p = 0.7488$). Fungivores tended to be more abundant in systems with herbicides and/or insecticides (HF and HFI) than with mineral fertilizer alone (i.e., F) ($p = 0.0687$). Similarly, the fungivore: bacterivore ratio was greater in systems receiving herbicides and/or insecticides than mineral fertilizer alone ($p = 0.0335$) or organic manure ($p = 0.0005$). Numbers of omnivores ($p = 0.9371$) and predators ($p = 0.3853$) were similar among farming systems. Trophic diversity was greater in systems without manure than with manure ($p = 0.0155$).

PPI ($p = 0.0440$) and PPI:MI ($p = 0.0024$) values were greater in systems with manure than without manure. MI2-5 was greater in management practices that excluded herbicides and/or insecticides ($p = 0.0164$); substitution of mineral fertilization with organic manure decreased MI1-5 ($p = 0.0073$) but not MI2-5 ($p = 0.9550$). Systems receiving herbicides and/or insecticides had a larger proportion of free-living nematodes that were $c-p = 2$ than

Table 2. Mean value (\pm standard error) of microbial biomass in soils of four crops

	Index
<i>Nematodes</i>	Bacterivores ^b
	Fungivores ^b
	Fungivores: bacterivores ^c
	Plant-parasites ^b
	Trophic diversity ^d
	Omnivores ^b
	Predators ^b
	MI1-5 ^e
	MI2-5 ^f
	% $c-p = 2$ ^g
	% $c-p = 4-5$ ^h
<i>Microbes</i>	PPI ⁱ
	PPI:MI
	Active bacteria ^k
	Total bacteria ^k
<i>Soil</i>	Active fungi ^k
	Total fungi ^k
	% organic matter

^a number of samples

^b number of nematodes per g of dry soil

^c ratio of proportion of fungivores to bacterivores

^d Shannon diversity index of trophic groups

^e Maturity Index of free-living nematodes

^f Maturity Index of free-living nematodes

^g proportion of total free-living nematodes

^h proportion of total free-living nematodes

ⁱ maturity index of plant-parasitic nematodes

^j ratio of maturity of plant-parasitic nematodes

^k μ g biomass per g of dry soil

with mineral fertilizer alone ($p = 0.0007$) than with manure (i.e., O) ($p = 0.0007$).

Total fungal biomass ($p = 0.0267$) was greater in systems with manure than without manure, and increased positively with application of herbicides and/or insecticides among farming systems ($p > 0.20$). The most abundant genera identified in the four treatments (O, F, HF and HFI) treatments, respectively, were *Aphelenchus*, *Eucephala*, *Protorhabditis* and *Mylonchulus*. There were no significant differences of individual nematode genera abundance between *tylenchus* and *Mylonchulus*. Number of *tylenchus* ($p = 0.0001$) decreased with application of herbicides and/or insecticides ($p = 0.0012$), and insecticides ($p = 0.0267$) abundance increased with application of herbicides and/or insecticides ($p = 0.0267$).

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other studies implementing nema-
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Table 2. Mean value (\pm standard error) for selected indices of nematode community structure and microbial biomass in soils of four crop management systems (Table 1)

Index	Management System			
	<i>O</i> ($n=32$)	<i>F</i> ($n=30$)	<i>HF</i> ($n=31$)	<i>HFI</i> ($n=8$)
<i>Nematodes</i>				
Bacterivores ^b	40.2(10.6)	16.6(3.5)	22.2(4.9)	12.8(2.5)
Fungivores ^b	7.8(1.7)	7.6(1.6)	14.7(2.5)	10.3(3.6)
Fungivores:				
bacterivores ^c	0.2(0.0)	0.3(0.0)	0.4(0.0)	0.4(0.1)
Plant-parasites ^b	37.8(6.7)	19.7(3.5)	20.5(4.9)	6.9(1.9)
Trophic diversity ^d	2.7(0.1)	2.9(0.1)	3.0(0.1)	3.2(0.2)
Omnivores ^b	0.8(0.3)	1.1(0.4)	0.8(0.3)	0.8(0.4)
Predators ^b	2.9(0.6)	2.7(0.8)	2.7(0.8)	0.6(0.3)
MI1-5 ^e	2.1(0.1)	2.5(0.1)	2.2(0.1)	2.3(0.1)
MI2-5 ^f	2.6(0.1)	2.8(0.1)	2.4(0.1)	2.5(0.1)
% $c-p = 2$ ^g	47.1(4.3)	45.5(54.6)	66.5(2.9)	64.7(7.3)
% $c-p = 4-5$ ^h	18.0(3.3)	27.7(4.7)	20.9(5.4)	25.0(6.5)
PPI ⁱ	2.8(0.0)	2.7(0.1)	2.7(0.1)	2.6(0.3)
PPI:MI ^j	1.4(0.1)	1.2(0.2)	1.2(0.0)	1.1(0.1)
<i>Microbes</i>				
Active bacteria ^k	3.6(0.3)	4.1(0.4)	3.2(0.3)	4.8(0.6)
Total bacteria ^k	144.5(17.1)	145.2(20.5)	101.8(11.8)	159.0(86.1)
Active fungi ^k	8.0(0.9)	10.1(1.1)	7.2(0.9)	8.4(1.2)
Total fungi ^k	109.4(6.9)	117.3(10.5)	85.8(7.2)	136.3(22.3)
<i>Soil</i>				
% organic matter	3.7(0.3)	3.2(0.2)	3.1(0.2)	3.1(0.2)

^a number of samples

^b number of nematodes per g of dry soil

^c ratio of proportion of fungivores to bacterivores

^d Shannon diversity index of trophic groups

^e Maturity Index of free-living nematodes ($c-p = 1-5$)

^f Maturity Index of free-living nematodes ($c-p = 2-5$)

^g proportion of total free-living nematodes weighted as $c-p = 2$

^h proportion of total free-living nematodes weighted as $c-p = 4-5$

ⁱ maturity index of plant-parasitic nematodes ($c-p = 2-5$)

^j ratio of maturity of plant-parasitic ($c-p = 2-5$) to free-living nematodes ($c-p = 1-5$)

^k μg biomass per g of dry soil

with mineral fertilizer alone ($p = 0.0022$). There were no differences in the proportion of free-living nematodes that were $c-p = 4-5$ ($p = 0.2575$).

Total fungal biomass ($p = 0.0269$) and active bacterial biomass ($p = 0.0579$) were associated positively with application of insecticides. Active fungi and total bacteria were similar among farming systems ($p > 0.20$). Fifty-seven nematode genera in thirty-six families were identified in the four treatments (Table 3). Forty-nine, 43, 46 and 30 genera were present in O, F, HF and HFI treatments, respectively. The most abundant nematode genera on all treatments were *Aphelenchus*, *Eucephalobus*, *Filenchus*, *Helicotylenchus*, *Mesorhabditis*, *Plectus* and *Protorhabditis*. There were no significant effects of management practice on abundance of individual nematode genera except *Helicotylenchus*, *Pratylenchus*, *Cephalobus*, *Monhystera* and *Mylonchulus*. Numbers of *Pratylenchus* increased ($p = 0.0040$) and *Cephalobus* ($p = 0.0001$) decreased with applications of manure compared to mineral fertilizers. *Helicotylenchus* abundance decreased progressively with mineral fertilizer ($p = 0.0001$), herbicides ($p = 0.0012$), and insecticides ($p = 0.0060$). In contrast, *Monhystera* ($p = 0.0060$) and *Mylonchulus* ($p = 0.0267$) abundance increased with insecticide application.

Table 3. Mean number of nematodes per g of dry soil (\pm standard error) in soils of four crop management systems (Table 1)

Trophic group/ Family/Genus	c-p ^a	Management System			
		O(n ^b =32)	F(n=32)	HF(n=32)	HFI(n=8)
Bacterivores					
<i>Alaimus</i>	4	0.10(0.05)	0.10(0.04)	0.09(0.04)	0.00(0.00)
Cephalobidae	2				
<i>Acrobeles</i>		0.05(0.03)	0.03(0.02)	0.13(0.06)	0.05(0.05)
<i>Acrobeloides</i>		0.04(0.03)	0.02(0.02)	0.03(0.02)	0.00(0.00)
<i>Cephalobus</i>		0.57(0.21)	0.14(0.05)	0.46(0.11)	0.39(0.17)
<i>Chiloplacus</i>		0.04(0.04)	0.02(0.02)	0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)
<i>Eucephalobus</i>		1.46(0.48)	0.98(0.23)	0.98(0.31)	1.02(0.35)
<i>Cylindrolaimus</i>	3	0.18(0.08)	0.14(0.05)	0.13(0.06)	0.00(0.00)
Diplogasteridae	1				
<i>Diplogaster</i>		0.07(0.05)	0.02(0.02)	0.01(0.01)	0.00(0.00)
<i>Mesodiplogaster</i>		0.04(0.04)	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.03)	0.19(0.16)
Monhysteridae	1				
<i>Eumonhystera</i>		0.53(0.14)	0.47(0.16)	0.43(0.16)	0.04(0.04)
<i>Monhystera</i>		0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)	0.03(0.03)
<i>Odontolaimus</i>	3	0.03(0.02)	0.04(0.03)	0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)
<i>Panagrolaimus</i>	1	0.03(0.03)	0.00(0.00)	0.15(0.09)	0.00(0.00)
Plectidae	2				
<i>Anaplectus</i>		0.10(0.09)	0.00(0.00)	0.03(0.03)	0.03(0.03)
<i>Plectus</i>		0.72(0.18)	0.50(0.13)	1.11(0.42)	0.57(0.33)
<i>Wilsonema</i>		0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)	0.06(0.05)	0.00(0.00)
<i>Pristionchus</i>	3	0.05(0.04)	0.03(0.02)	0.02(0.01)	0.03(0.03)
<i>Prismatolaimus</i>	3	0.02(0.01)	0.01(0.01)	0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)
Rhabditidae	1				
<i>Mesorhabditis</i>		2.35(1.86)	0.04(0.02)	0.56(0.31)	0.21(0.11)
<i>Parisitorhabditis</i>		0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)	0.01(0.01)	0.00(0.00)
<i>Protorhabditis</i>		1.52(0.69)	0.72(0.62)	0.01(0.01)	0.00(0.00)
<i>Rhabdolaimus</i>	3	0.14(0.07)	0.05(0.04)	0.07(0.04)	0.03(0.03)
<i>Teratocephalobus</i>	3	0.03(0.03)	0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)
Fungivores					
<i>Aphelenchoides</i>	2	0.33(0.09)	0.23(0.10)	0.28(0.08)	0.47(0.23)
<i>Aphelenchus</i>	2	0.71(0.17)	0.89(0.24)	1.71(0.35)	0.65(0.29)
<i>Diphtherophora</i>	3	0.04(0.03)	0.07(0.03)	0.02(0.01)	0.03(0.03)
<i>Hexatylus</i>	2	0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)	0.07(0.07)	0.00(0.00)
<i>Nothotylenchus</i>	2	0.21(0.17)	0.05(0.04)	0.38(0.24)	0.31(0.31)
<i>Tylencholaimellus</i>	4	0.00(0.00)	0.07(0.07)	0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)
<i>Tylencholaimus</i>	4	0.27(0.13)	0.21(0.05)	0.39(0.14)	0.61(0.28)
Plant-parasites					
<i>Axonchium</i>	5	0.01(0.01)	0.00(0.00)	0.01(0.01)	0.03(0.03)
<i>Helicotylenchus</i>	3	4.17(0.90)	1.57(0.34)	1.27(0.32)	0.24(0.20)
<i>Paratylenchus</i>	2	0.27(0.19)	0.21(0.18)	0.13(0.06)	0.00(0.00)
Pratylenchidae	3				
<i>Pratylenchoides</i>		0.31(0.16)	0.17(0.09)	0.03(0.02)	0.05(0.05)
<i>Pratylenchus</i>		0.97(0.32)	0.16(0.06)	0.43(0.09)	0.12(0.06)
<i>Psilenchus</i>	2	0.14(0.07)	0.28(0.14)	0.09(0.04)	0.03(0.03)
<i>Pungentus</i>	4	0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)	0.02(0.02)	0.00(0.00)
<i>Telotylenchus</i>	3	0.01(0.01)	0.04(0.03)	0.03(0.03)	0.00(0.00)
Tylenchidae	2				
<i>Boleodorus</i>		0.10(0.10)	0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)
<i>Filenchus</i>		0.94(0.28)	0.74(0.24)	1.05(0.32)	0.43(0.30)
<i>Malenchus</i>		0.00(0.00)	0.04(0.04)	0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)
<i>Neopsilenchus</i>		0.01(0.01)	0.00(0.00)	0.03(0.03)	0.00(0.00)
<i>Tylenchus</i>		0.40(0.15)	0.51(0.16)	0.26(0.13)	0.42(0.22)

Trophic group/ Family/Genus	c-p ^a
<i>Tylenchorhynchus</i>	3
<i>Xiphinema</i>	5
Predators	
Aporcelaimidae	5
<i>Aporcelaimellus</i>	
<i>Aporcelaimus</i>	
Discolaimidae	5
<i>Discolaimum</i>	
<i>Discolaimus</i>	
<i>Eudorylaimus</i>	4
Mononchidae	4
<i>Clarkus</i>	
<i>Coomansus</i>	
<i>Mylonchulus</i>	
Omnivores	
<i>Enchodellus</i>	4
<i>Microdorylaimus</i>	4

^a Bongers (1990)

^b number of samples

Discussion

Management practices affected nematode communities in this study. Crop-specific pathogens and nematodes were found in the soil. Crop rotation between host and non-host plants may affect nematode community indices are sensitive to management practices. These are important criteria for assessing the impact of organic or national environmental monitoring programs on different management regimes and not solely on the crop.

Differences in nematode community composition between management-related differences in soil properties were cultivated in this study. Only one component of a management system was kept constant. Our results agree with previous studies on nematode communities between different management systems. For example, bacterivores were more abundant in organic than in mineral soil (Freckman 1988; Ettema & Bongers 1990; Weiss & Larink 1991). An increase in the number of fungivores; bacterivores (Freckman 1988) and nematodes (Freckman 1988) results of this study contrast those of Freckman (1988) who observed greater ratios of fungivores to bacterivores in the soil with than without.

Opposite of our predictions, the number of nematodes was higher than mineral fertilizer. In the O management system, the trophic index values were similar to those of parasitic nematodes to decrease with increasing organic matter (Ettema & Bongers 1993; Griffiths et al. 1993). The quantity of the organic matter may have a direct impact on pathogen populations. The difference between organic and conventional

error) in soils of four crop manage-

tem

HF(n=32)	HFI(n=8)
0.09(0.04)	0.00(0.00)
0.13(0.06)	0.05(0.05)
0.03(0.02)	0.00(0.00)
0.46(0.11)	0.39(0.17)
0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)
0.98(0.31)	1.02(0.35)
0.13(0.06)	0.00(0.00)
0.01(0.01)	0.00(0.00)
0.04(0.03)	0.19(0.16)
0.43(0.16)	0.04(0.04)
0.00(0.00)	0.03(0.03)
0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)
0.15(0.09)	0.00(0.00)
0.03(0.03)	0.03(0.03)
1.11(0.42)	0.57(0.33)
0.06(0.05)	0.00(0.00)
0.02(0.01)	0.03(0.03)
0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)
0.56(0.31)	0.21(0.11)
0.01(0.01)	0.00(0.00)
0.01(0.01)	0.00(0.00)
0.07(0.04)	0.03(0.03)
0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)
0.28(0.08)	0.47(0.23)
1.71(0.35)	0.65(0.29)
0.02(0.01)	0.03(0.03)
0.07(0.07)	0.00(0.00)
0.38(0.24)	0.31(0.31)
0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)
0.39(0.14)	0.61(0.28)
0.01(0.01)	0.03(0.03)
1.27(0.32)	0.24(0.20)
0.13(0.06)	0.00(0.00)
0.03(0.02)	0.05(0.05)
0.43(0.09)	0.12(0.06)
0.09(0.04)	0.03(0.03)
0.02(0.02)	0.00(0.00)
0.03(0.03)	0.00(0.00)
0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)
1.05(0.32)	0.43(0.30)
0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)
0.03(0.03)	0.00(0.00)
0.26(0.13)	0.42(0.22)

Trophic group/ Family/Genus	c-p ^a	Management System			
		O(n ^b =32)	F(n=32)	HF(n=32)	HFI(n=8)
<i>Tylenchorhynchus</i>	3	0.06(0.04)	0.00(0.00)	0.11(0.10)	0.00(0.00)
<i>Xiphinema</i>	5	0.17(0.08)	0.22(0.12)	0.51(0.34)	0.08(0.08)
Predators					
Aporcelaimidae	5				
<i>Aporcelaimellus</i>		0.01(0.01)	0.05(0.03)	0.03(0.03)	0.00(0.00)
<i>Aporcelaimus</i>		0.03(0.02)	0.13(0.06)	0.04(0.02)	0.03(0.03)
Discolaimidae	5				
<i>Discolaimum</i>		0.05(0.04)	0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)
<i>Discolaimus</i>		0.17(0.07)	0.04(0.02)	0.03(0.02)	0.00(0.00)
<i>Eudorylaimus</i>	4	0.28(0.11)	0.24(0.11)	0.40(0.16)	0.03(0.03)
Mononchidae	4				
<i>Clarkus</i>		0.01(0.01)	0.04(0.02)	0.03(0.02)	0.00(0.00)
<i>Coomansus</i>		0.02(0.02)	0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)
<i>Mylonchulus</i>		0.01(0.01)	0.04(0.03)	0.01(0.01)	0.08(0.05)
Omnivores					
<i>Enchodellus</i>	4	0.00(0.00)	0.01(0.01)	0.00(0.00)	0.00(0.00)
<i>Microdorylaimus</i>	4	0.16(0.06)	0.21(0.08)	0.15(0.05)	0.15(0.08)

^a Bongers(1990)

^b number of samples

Discussion

Management practices affected nematode community composition more than the current crop. Crop-specific pathogens such as *Heterodera glycines* did not dominate because of temporal rotation between host and non-host crops. Under these conditions, nematode community indices are sensitive to management practice and not crop species (Neher et al. 1995). These are important criteria for implementation of nematode community indices in regional or national environmental monitoring programs. These results illustrate effects of long-term management regimes and not short-term crop rotations.

Differences in nematode communities among farming systems are frequently due to management-related differences in organic matter inputs and intensity of cultivation. All treatments were cultivated in this study but differed in their source of nutrients and pest control. Only one component of a management system was altered per treatment keeping other variables constant. Our results agree with Wardle et al. (1995) who noted more differences in nematode communities between soils receiving organic mulch and those without mulch. For example, bacterivores were more abundant in soil with organic than mineral fertilizer as predicted. Numbers of bacterivores increase rapidly after organic material is added to soil (Freckman 1988; Ettema & Bongers 1993; Gupta 1994) because they are provided with organic matter and microbes, a source of food for the nematodes (Andrén & Lagerlöf 1983; Weiss & Larink 1991). An increase in bacterivores corresponds with a decreased ratio of fungivores: bacterivores (Freckman & Ettema 1993; Neher & Campbell 1994). Notably, the results of this study contrast those of Porazinska & Coleman (1995) and Yeates et al. (1997) who observed greater ratios of fungivores to bacterivores in soils amended with organic matter than without.

Opposite of our predictions, trophic diversity values were smaller in systems with manure than mineral fertilizer. In the O systems, both bacterivores and plant-parasites were abundant and trophic index values were small. Our results contrast those showing numbers of plant-parasitic nematodes to decrease with organic amendments (e.g., El Titi & Ipach 1989; Freckman & Ettema 1993; Griffiths et al. 1994; Scow et al. 1994; Clark et al. 1998). Perhaps, the quality and quantity of the organic material (Chung et al. 1988) or soil fertility influences the impact on pathogen populations. In another study, trophic diversity failed to differentiate between organic and conventional management practices when both bacterivores and plant-

parasites were abundant in both systems (Neher 1999). We anticipated that trophic diversity was influenced mainly by the presence and/or abundance of uncommon groups such as omnivores, predators and fungivores (Neher et al. 1998). In contrast, this study suggests that trophic diversity was related inversely to the dominance of the most abundant trophic groups, i.e., bacterivores and plant-parasites. Freckman & Ettema (1993) also reported inverse relationships between number of bacterivores and trophic diversity values. Abundance of bacterivores and plant-parasites declined and trophic diversity values increased with applications of herbicides and insecticides. These findings are supported by those of Todd et al. (1992) who demonstrated that insecticide-nematicide carbofuran reduced numbers of plant-parasite and microbivore densities in a prairie system. The method of application affects the severity of impact. For example, the insecticide lindane altered nematode communities for a short duration when applied to soil surfaces, but for longer periods when introduced directly into the soil (Wegorek & Trojanowski 1986). Lindane was applied as a seed coating in this study. Furthermore, mixtures of herbicides with insecticides affect nematodes differently than herbicides alone. Nematodes are also reduced in number by pesticides not designed for nematodes as a target. For example, the fungicide captan and protozoicide fumigillin reduce nematode numbers (Colinas et al. 1994).

In contrast with trophic diversity, values of successional maturity decreased in systems with mineral fertilizer compared to manure. Applications of herbicides and insecticides increased proportions of colonizers ($c-p = 2$) without significantly decreased proportions of persisters ($c-p = 4-5$). Earlier colonizers ($c-p = 1$) were most common with applications of manure. Contemporary agriculture is largely an effort to maintain ecosystems at a more productive, pre-mature successional stage, and nematode communities respond accordingly. Cultivation decreases fungal biomass, and numbers of fungivores and predators (Hendrix et al. 1986; Yeates & Bird 1994; Wardle et al. 1995), shifting ecological succession of cultivated soils to stages less mature than without cultivation (Neher & Campbell 1994; McSorley 1997). Compared to natural ecosystems, systems that are cultivated (Neher & Campbell 1994) and receive organic (Ettema & Bongers 1993) or mineral (Wasilewska 1979) fertilizers reduce nematode species diversity and shift to early successional stages. Apparently, subsequent applications of herbicides and/or insecticides shift nematode communities to a more primary stage than cultivation and/or organic amendments. Although nutrient enrichment affects nematode communities for a short duration (e.g., Yeates 1984; Ettema & Bongers 1993; Yeates & Bird 1994; Wardle et al. 1995), they have minimal impact on nematodes communities over the long term (Dmowska & Ilieva 1995).

This study demonstrates differential effects of pesticides and nutrient source on nematode community composition. Different nematode genera are more sensitive to the form of nutrient enrichment while others are more sensitive to pesticide application. Herbicides may affect abundance of microbes and nematodes indirectly by reducing root growth and inputs of organic matter (Wainwright 1978).

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Larval dynamics in an

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Summary. The larval dynamics of *Aphodius* dung beetles were monitored over a full year's activity period. This study builds on a previously published analysis of larval dynamics of *Aphodius* dung beetles. Total pitfall catch numbers in 20 day old dung pats, numbers of pupae and of larvae in dung pats, the timing of dung pats occurred, associated earthworm biomass and colonisation by *Stratiolaelaps spiniger*. This decomposition completed their development in the soil. kleptoparasitising *G. spiniger* nematodes. Interactions with *G. Spiniger* are likely to influence larval assemblages in southern Ireland.

Key words: Dung beetles; *Aphodius* spp.; decomposition

Introduction

Dung beetle communities in northern Ireland (Gittings & Giller 1991). These species display marked seasonal flight periods (Gittings & Giller 1991) and are influenced by factors which determine the phenology of the species, such as specific competition (e.g. Landin 1961). The phenology of *Aphodius* assemblages has been largely ignored the larval stages (although see Gittings & Giller 1991, e.g. Holter 1979a; Hirschbuhl 1988). The knowledge of the timing of all stages of the life cycle (Wolda 1988). In the case of *Aphodius*, important processes which affect the dynamics of *Aphodius* generally colonise fresh dung pats. This analysis indicates that resource availability is likely to be a while, based on Landin's (1961)

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