

1 **Long-term farming systems and last crop sown shape the species and**
2 **functional composition of the arable weed seedbank**

3

4 **Roser Rotchés-Ribalta^{a,b,c†*}, Francesc Xavier Sans^{a,b†}, Jochen Mayer^d and Paul Mäder^e**

5

6 ^a Agroecology Research Group, Department of Evolutionary Biology, Ecology and
7 Environmental Sciences, Faculty of Biology, University of Barcelona, Av. Diagonal 643, 08028
8 Barcelona, Spain

9 ^b Biodiversity Research Institute (IRBio), University of Barcelona, Av. Diagonal 643, 08028
10 Barcelona, Spain

11 ^c CREA, 08193 Cerdanyola del Vallès, Spain (current location)

12 ^d Research Institute of Organic Agriculture, Ackerstrasse, CH-5070 Frick, Switzerland

13 ^e Agroscope Reckenholz-Tänikon Research Station ART, Reckenholzstrasse 191, CH-8046
14 Zurich, Switzerland

15

16 † The first two authors contributed equally to this paper

17

18 * *Correspondence*: Roser Rotchés-Ribalta, Agroecology Research Group, Department of
19 Evolutionary Biology, Ecology and Environmental Sciences, Faculty of Biology, & IRBio,
20 University of Barcelona. Av. Diagonal 643, 08028 Barcelona, Spain. roserr@ub.edu

21

22 **Running title:** Long-term farming effects on weed seedbank

23

24 **Funding:** Spanish Ministry of Science, Innovation and Universities; Swiss Federal Office of
25 Agriculture.

26 **Abstract**

27 Questions

28 The assembly of arable weed communities is the result of local filtering by agricultural
29 management and crop competition. Therefore, soil seedbanks can reflect the effects of long-
30 term cumulative field management and crop sequences on weed communities. Moreover, soil
31 seedbanks provide strong estimates of future weed problems but also of potential arable plant
32 diversity and associated ecological functions. For this, we evaluated the effects of different
33 long-term farming systems under the same crop rotation sequence on the abundance, diversity
34 and community assembly of weed seedbank, as well as on the functional diversity and
35 composition.

36

37 Location

38 DOK (biodynamic (D), bioorganic (O), conventional (K)) long-term trial, Therwil, Switzerland.

39

40 Methods

41 The effects of long-term contrasted farming systems (i.e., biodynamic, organic, conventional,
42 mineral and unfertilised systems) and last crop sown (i.e., wheat and maize) were evaluated on
43 different indicators of species and functional diversity and composition of the weed soil
44 seedbank.

45

46 Results

47 The results showed significant influences of 40-years of contrasted farming systems on the
48 diversity and composition of the seedbank, with higher diversities being found in unfertilised
49 and organic farming systems, but also higher abundances than those found under conventional
50 systems. Organic farming also allowed higher functional richness, dispersion and redundancy.
51 Different farming systems triggered shifts in species and functional assemblies.

52

53 Conclusions

54 The results highlight the importance of organic management for the maintenance of a diverse
55 arable plant community and its functions. However, such results emphasize the need for
56 appropriate yearly management to reduce the abundance of settled weediness and prevent
57 affecting crop production. The farm management filtered community composition based on
58 functional traits. Although the soil seedbank buffers the long-term farming and crop sequence,
59 the last crop sown and, thus, the yearly management were important determinants of seedbank
60 composition.

61

62 **Keywords**

63 Arable farming, conventional farming system, crop type, functional diversity and redundancy,
64 long-term management, organic farming system, soil seedbank, species abundance and
65 diversity, weeds

66

67 **1. Introduction**

68 Management of agricultural land has largely focused on weed control to reduce the abundance
69 of undesired species and prevent crop losses. However, these practices have resulted in a
70 widespread decline of arable weed diversity (Baessler & Klotz, 2006; Preston et al., 2002) to the
71 point of being a matter of concern because, apart from their intrinsic conservation value, weeds
72 have an important ecological function delivering ecosystem services such as contributing to soil
73 structuring or as key components in the food webs of agroecosystems (Hawes et al., 2003;
74 Marshall et al., 2003).

75

76 The assembly of weed communities responds to local filtering processes, which are mainly the
77 farming practices and the competition exerted by crops. Weeds are thus suitable indicators of
78 agricultural intensity because they have high sensitivity to farming practices (Rotchés-Ribalta,
79 Blanco-Moreno, Armengot, Chamorro, & Sans, 2015) and are strongly related to other
80 organism groups (Marshall et al., 2003). Nevertheless, the weed seedbank might be a more
81 reliable indicator of the effects of long-term management and cropping sequence than the
82 aboveground weed community because the seedbank is the result of cumulative processes that
83 occurred in the past (Albrecht & Auerswald, 2009; Hawes, Squire, Hallett, Watson, & Young,
84 2010) and consequently, it could better reflect the effect of agricultural practices and cropping
85 systems over the years. Furthermore, seedbank analysis may allow overcoming differences due
86 to management in the sampling year with regards to weed control effectiveness or cropping
87 practices of a given year, according to Bohan et al. (2011).

88

89 Less intensive farming systems, such as organic systems, have been usually associated with
90 higher species diversities in comparison to conventional farming systems, which are
91 characterised by the use of synthetic chemical fertilisers, pesticides and herbicides, intensive
92 tillage and high sowing densities, among others. Besides, organic farming have also been
93 reported to enhance species richness in the seedbank (Albrecht, 2005; Menalled, Gross, &
94 Hammond, 2001; Rotchés-Ribalta, Armengot, Mäder, Mayer, & Sans, 2017), as well as the

95 seedbank size relative to conventional systems (Hawes et al., 2010; Ryan, Smith, Mirsky,
96 Mortensen, & Seidel, 2010). However, a lack of effect of farming systems on seedbank size and
97 diversity has also been described (Dölle & Schmidt, 2009; Sjursen, 2001). These different
98 results could be largely attributed to heterogeneity within each farming system and to
99 methodological shortcomings, such as differences in the spatial scale at which the studies were
100 conducted (Bengtsson, Ahnström, & Weibull, 2005). Farming systems (i.e. organic or
101 conventional management) are usually associated with specific agricultural practices such as
102 crop rotation or the type of soil tillage, making it difficult to fully understand the patterns of
103 these different practices. For this, trials under controlled conditions allow discernment between
104 the effects of specific parameters and better understand the underlying processes shaping weed
105 communities. Moreover, trials run for long-term periods can provide valuable knowledge on the
106 effects of agricultural practices on the weed seedbank community assemblies (Albrecht &
107 Auerswald, 2009).

108

109 The effects of long-term contrasted farming systems on weed seedbank size and diversity have
110 been previously addressed (e.g. Albrecht & Auerswald (2009); Menalled et al. (2001); Rotchés-
111 Ribalta et al. (2017)). However, species diversity indices can only reflect parts of the
112 complexity of weed communities and thus the effects of farm management on weed
113 communities cannot be captured by a single diversity index but need to be documented through
114 in-depth analysis of floristic composition and community functional attributes. The species
115 composition of weed seedbank represents a good indicator of trends in diversity because they
116 are the result of non-random filtering of the local species pool by farm management and
117 cropping history, especially at larger temporal scales (Hawes et al., 2010; Menalled et al., 2001).
118 These assemblages are determined by the functional attributes that the species possess
119 (Perronne, Le Corre, Bretagnolle, & Gaba, 2015; Solé-Senan, Juárez-Escario, Conesa, &
120 Recasens, 2018) and, thus, the consideration of functional diversity descriptors of the soil
121 seedbank may be a reliable estimate of the long-term effects of contrasted farming. Besides, the
122 soil seedbank can hold similar levels of functional diversities as the aboveground vegetation

123 (Pakeman & Eastwood, 2013), and thus, the functional approach of the seedbank can be a
124 promising and novel way to understand weed community assembly after long-term management
125 effects (Gaba, Fried, Kazakou, Chauvel, & Navas, 2014; Navas, 2012). Therefore, consideration
126 of not only the species diversity indices but also the functional descriptors of the community is
127 important to fully understand the patterns of long-term farming systems in shaping the seedbank
128 and thus, of potential established weed community. Given the importance of functional diversity
129 and redundancy to ecosystem resilience (Laliberté et al., 2010), an assessment of the impacts of
130 long-term farm management on these indices is crucial to determine the vulnerability of
131 functional groups to future perturbations (Laliberté et al., 2010).

132

133 The aim of this study was to evaluate the effects of long-term farming systems and last crop
134 sown (as a proxy of yearly cropping practices) on the abundance, diversity, and community
135 assembly of the soil seedbank, as well as on the functional diversities and composition. The
136 study was carried out in wheat and maize crops under organic and conventional farming
137 systems within a replicated, long-term experiment [DOK: biodynamic (D), bioorganic (O),
138 conventional (K) trial, Therwil, Switzerland]. Although plot-scale studies have been questioned
139 because the population dynamics of many organisms operate at larger scales (Bengtsson et al.,
140 2005), the importance of this study in the DOK trial lies in the accurate monitoring of farming
141 practices of each farming system, which have been under the same crop rotation scheme, and
142 homogeneity among plots within each system, which were rare in previous studies (Menalled et
143 al., 2001; Squire, Rodger, & Wright, 2000). The effects of farming on crop yields, soil fertility
144 and biodiversity of different groups of organisms (e.g., earthworms, arthropods and
145 aboveground weeds) in the DOK trial have already been analysed by Fließbach, Oberholzer,
146 Gunst, & Mäder (2007) and Mäder et al. (2002), among others. However, little attention has
147 been paid to the effects of long-term farming practices of the DOK trial on the soil seedbank
148 (except for Rotchés-Ribalta et al. (2017)) and on its specific and functional composition,
149 although knowledge on seedbanks might be indicative of long-time scale effects.

150

151 For this reason, in the current study, we aimed to complement the previous study conducted on
152 one single crop type (Rotchés-Ribalta et al., 2017) and answer: 1) whether long-term contrasted
153 farming systems and the last crop sown affect weed abundance, species diversity, and its two
154 components species richness and evenness, of the soil seedbank; 2) whether farming system and
155 crop type affect the weed species assemblies of the seedbank; and 3) whether the functional
156 diversity and the functional composition of the seedbank respond to long-term farming practices
157 and the last crop sown. Overall, we assumed that the size and the diversity of the weed seedbank
158 were lower in conventional than in organic systems because of the high pressure of farming
159 practices. We also expected that the different farming systems would result in a different
160 community assembly because of the different tolerance and response of each particular species
161 to management intensity. We specifically expected higher functional diversity and redundancy
162 under less-intensified farming systems. Furthermore, we expected to find more competitive
163 species, better adapted to more intensive weed control and high nutrient availability (e.g., taller
164 plants with higher SLA and larger seeds) in conventional farming systems. Contrarily, given
165 that soil seedbanks reflect the long-term effects and that crop rotation in the DOK long-term
166 trial has been the same in all plots, we did not expect a great effect from the last sown crop on
167 the soil seedbank.

168

169 **2. Methods**

170 2.1. Study site

171 The study was conducted in the DOK long-term agricultural experiment of Therwil, Switzerland
172 (7°33'E, 47°30'N), which compares biodynamic (D), bioorganic (O) and conventional (K)
173 farming systems. Detailed information on the DOK trial is given by Mäder et al. (2002). The
174 climate of the site is characterised by a mean annual temperature of 9.5°C and an annual
175 precipitation sum of 785mm.

176

177 2.2. Experimental design and farm management

178 The sampling was carried out in 2009 in wheat and maize plots that were under five different
179 farming systems: two conventional (i.e., conventional (hereafter CONFYM) and mineral
180 (CONMIN)), two organic (i.e., organic (BIOORG) and biodynamic (BIODYN)) and an
181 unfertilised (NOFERT) farming systems since 1978. The 5m × 20m plots under each farming
182 system and crop were randomly placed within four blocks (replicates) in a randomised split-
183 split-plot design that covered approximately 1.5 hectares (Figure 1). Crop rotation and soil
184 tillage were identical in the five farming systems. The 7-year rotation included series of
185 potatoes, winter wheat, soybeans, maize, winter wheat, grass-clover and grass-clover
186 (Table S1.1 in Supplementary Materials). In 2009, the crops were maize, winter wheat and
187 potato.

188
189 Different fertilisation regimes and plant protection strategies characterised these systems
190 (Table S1.2 in Supplementary Materials). Farmyard manure and slurry corresponding to 1.2 (1st
191 and 2nd rotation period) and 1.4 (3rd rotation period) livestock units/ha were applied in the
192 organic systems (BIOORG and BIODYN). BIOORG plots were also fertilised with small
193 amounts of rock dust and potassium magnesia. CONFYM system was fertilised with the same
194 amount of farmyard manure and with mineral fertilisers up to recommended levels from the
195 Swiss standards. CONMIN plots were amended with mineral fertilisers exclusively (from the
196 2nd crop rotation onwards). The level of fertilisation increased gradually from NOFERT,
197 BIODYN, BIOORG to CONFYM and CONMIN, corresponding to 0kg N ha⁻¹ in NOFERT;
198 95kg N_t ha⁻¹ and 26kg N_{min} ha⁻¹ (being N_t the total nitrogen content and N_{min} the mineral
199 nitrogen) in BIODYN; 98kg N_t ha⁻¹ and 31kg N_{min} ha⁻¹ in BIOORG; 170kg N_t ha⁻¹ and
200 111kg N_{min} ha⁻¹ in CONFYM; and 122kg N_t ha⁻¹ and 122kg N_{min} ha⁻¹ in CONMIN farming
201 systems, during the 3rd rotation period (when 1.4 livestock units/ha were applied).

202
203 Organic and conventional systems also differed in terms of plant protection strategies (Table
204 S1.2). Weed control in organic and in unfertilised systems was performed only mechanically
205 (i.e., through seedbed preparation, post-emergence control or manually), whereas chemical

206 weed control, apart from the mechanical, was carried out in conventional systems. Plant extracts
207 and preparations were used to protect plants in BIODYN and BIOORG systems, while
208 fungicides and insecticides based on threshold values were used in CONFYM and CONMIN
209 systems (see Table S1.2 for details).

210

211 2.3. Sampling

212 Sampling took place in five DOK systems (NOFERT, BIODYN, BIOORG, CONFYN and
213 CONMIN) after maize and wheat crops in September 2009. The soil seedbank in the potato
214 crops was sampled in June 2009, while the crop was still standing, which is why results from
215 the potato crop seedbank were presented in a separate study (Rotchés-Ribalta et al., 2017). Soil
216 samples were collected with an auger from the inner 12m × 3m of each plot (to avoid edge
217 effects) to a depth of 20cm and a core of 2.8cm in diameter (Figure 1). The sampling was
218 performed on a 0.75m × 2m grid pattern, resulting in 35 soil samples per plot (Figure 1). From
219 these 35 soil samples, a group of seven samples was each evenly distributed in a shallow
220 aluminium tray (28.5 × 18.6 cm, Figure 1), obtaining a total of five trays per plot. Trays were
221 placed in a non-heated greenhouse bench under natural photoperiod and watered regularly
222 (Faculty of Biology, University of Barcelona). The position of the trays was changed randomly
223 every 3-4 weeks. Samples were periodically allowed to dry mildly, and they were turned,
224 aerated, and watered again to stimulate germination. A detailed description of the method is
225 given by Gibson (2002). Emerged seedlings were periodically identified and removed after
226 counting. Taxonomic nomenclature followed Tutin (1993). Seedling inventories were conducted
227 thirteen times during a period of November 2009 to December 2010.

228

229 2.4. Diversity indices

230 The number of weed species in the seedbank within each farming system and crop type was
231 obtained from the list of species of all sampling dates in each aluminium tray. The abundance,
232 assessed as the number of seedlings m⁻² of field for each species, was calculated by dividing the

233 total number of seedlings emerged in each aluminium tray by the total area of soil cores
234 collected in the field and grouped in each tray ($[(0.014)^2 \times \pi] \times 7$).

235

236 The diversity of the weed seedbank was split into the following parameters calculated for each
237 tray (Magurran, 2004): a) species richness (s), as number of species per tray; b) Shannon's
238 diversity index (H'); and c) Pielou's evenness index (J'). Despite some indices might be
239 correlated (Dejong, 1975), they allowed us to capture different aspects of diversity and better
240 quantify the concept.

241

242 The effects of farming system and crop type on seedbank abundance, species richness, diversity
243 and evenness were analysed by linear mixed-effects models (Pinheiro & Bates, 2000), with the
244 inclusion of the nested sampling design of random factors (crop sub-sub-block nested to
245 treatment sub-block and this, nested to block; trays were considered pseudo-replicates).

246 Normality of the data and homogeneity of variances were checked visually and tested using the
247 Shapiro-Wilk and the Levene test, respectively. Abundance and species richness were log-
248 transformed to comply with assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity. Orthogonal
249 contrasts were performed to compare between NOFERT and the other fertilised treatments,
250 between the organic systems (BIOORG and BIODYN) and the conventional ones (CONFYM
251 and CONMIN), between BIODYN and BIOORG, between CONFYM and CONMIN and
252 between Wheat and Maize. Statistical analysis were conducted under R 3.6.0 (R Core Team,
253 2016), using "lme4" (Bates, Mächler, Bolker, & Walker, 2015) for mixed-effects models and
254 "lmerTest" for evaluating the P-values (Kuznetsova, Brockhoff, & Christensen, 2017).

255

256 2.5. Seedbank composition analysis

257 A multivariate analysis using presence/absence data of species was conducted to assess the
258 species composition of the seedbank under the different farming systems and crop types.

259 Species that occurred only in one tray were eliminated because they did not add information for
260 the ordination. The Jaccard dissimilarity index was computed between the lists of species (47

261 species) of each farming system and crop combination. Since we used a non-Euclidean distance
262 metric, we chose non-Metric Multidimensional Scaling (NMDS) for this ordination, using a
263 stable solution by random starts with $k = 2$ dimensions. NMDS is a robust unconstrained
264 ordination method in community ecology (Minchin, 1987), and restricting the number of
265 dimensions to two facilitates the graphical representation while achieving fairly good stress
266 (0.146). Farming system and crop type were fitted onto the ordination, and their significance
267 was tested with random permutations of the data. Species with more than 20% of the total
268 presence were also fitted onto the ordination. We carried out this analysis under R 3.6.0 (R Core
269 Team, 2016) using the ‘vegan’ package (Oksanen et al., 2019).

270

271 2.6. Functional analysis

272 Functional diversity components (functional richness, functional evenness and functional
273 dispersion) were computed based on the multiple trait matrix (Table 1) of arable species
274 recorded in each farming system and crop type using the FD package (Laliberté, Legendre, &
275 Shipley, 2014) for R 3.6.0 (R Core Team, 2016). With this package, a Principal Components
276 Analysis (PCA) was performed based on the Gower dissimilarity matrix, as calculated for the
277 species by traits matrices. The obtained axes were then used to compute functional richness and
278 functional evenness. Functional richness expressed the multidimensional trait space occupied by
279 species in each community. Functional evenness quantified how even individuals from a
280 community are distributed over trait space. Functional dispersion was computed based on the
281 trait dispersion per community considering the relative abundances (Laliberté et al., 2014). The
282 multiple trait matrix was also used to calculate functional redundancy of seedbank species per
283 farming system and crop type using the SYNCOSA package (Debastiani, 2018) for R 3.6.0 (R
284 Core Team, 2016). Functional redundancy was calculated as the difference between the species
285 diversity and Rao’s quadratic entropy based on their functional dissimilarity.

286

287 Plant functional traits and types were selected based on literature relative to the functional
288 responses to management and potential interference with crop (Bàrberi et al., 2018). The traits

289 and types included in the functional diversities computation were the Raunkiær life form
290 (categorical), growth form (categorical), soil seedbank longevity (proportion reported in each
291 category: long-term, short term and transient), specific leaf area (SLA, numerical), plant canopy
292 height (numerical), seed weight (numerical), affinity to nutrient conditions (numerical) and
293 seasonality of germination (proportion of chances to germinate in each season) (Table 1). Most
294 of the trait and type information for each species was obtained from Bàrberi et al. (2018,
295 Appendix S1) or, for species not present in this database, from literature following the same
296 criteria. Size measures (i.e., plant height, SLA and seed weight) were log-transformed to
297 homogenise the weight across taxa before calculation. Given that seedbank longevity was
298 entered as proportion reported in each category and seasonality of germination as proportion of
299 chances to germinate in each season, each category of seedbank longevity was weighted by
300 0.33, and each season of germination was weighted by 0.25, for an overall contribution of each
301 functional trait of 1.

302

303 The effects of the farming system and crop type on the functional diversity indices of the weed
304 seedbank communities were analysed using the same linear mixed-effects model framework as
305 for the analyses of diversity indices (see section “2.4. Diversity indices”).

306

307 Besides, we estimated the composition of functional traits and types using the community-
308 weighted mean (CWM) from the multi-trait matrix using the FD package (Laliberté et al., 2014)
309 for R 3.6.0 (R Core Team, 2016). Given that CWM has negative values, the ordination of
310 samples according to functional composition was conducted by means of a PCA. The CWM
311 trait matrix was used to perform a PCA to produce orthogonal axes of functional trait
312 composition and reduce trait redundancy. The first two axes obtained were used to plot the
313 seedbank samples of each farming system and crop type according to their functional trait
314 composition values. The significance of these two first PCA axes on spreading the samples
315 according to farming system and crop type was analysed using the same linear mixed-effects
316 models (Pinheiro & Bates, 2000) used for the diversity indices analyses (see section: “2.4.

317 Diversity indices”). These models were also used to assess the effects of farming system and
318 crop type on the CWM values of each trait/type or trait level of the weed seedbank community.
319

320 **3. Results**

321 3.1. Overview

322 A total of 20,362 seedlings were counted, corresponding to 50 species. Thirty-seven and 33 of
323 these appeared in CONFYM and CONMIN systems respectively; 40 and 42 were found in the
324 BIOORG and BIODYN systems, respectively; and 44 species were counted in NOFERT
325 system. While 32 species were recorded in all farming systems, only three species were detected
326 only in the BIOORG and BIODYN plots, and one in the two conventional systems (CONFYM
327 and CONMIN). Mean seedbank density values varied between farming systems. While 6,195
328 and 8,404 seedlings m⁻² were found in the CONFYM and CONMIN systems respectively,
329 19,622 and 14,413 seedlings m⁻² were found in the BIOORG and BIODYN systems. In the
330 NOFERT system, the seedbank density was 69,468 seedlings m⁻². Species with highest relative
331 density in all farming systems were *Sagina procumbens*, *Chenopodium polyspermum*, *Juncus*
332 *bufonius* and *Poa annua*. Several species showed different abundance patterns between long-
333 term farming systems and crop types (Table S1.3 in Supplementary Materials).

334

335 3.2. Seedbank density and diversity

336 The NOFERT system held significantly greater seedbank density than the fertilised systems
337 (Figure 2; Table 2). The seedbank density in the organic (BIOORG and BIODYN) farming
338 systems was significantly greater than in the conventional (CONFYM and CONMIN) farming
339 systems and in BIOORG compared to BIODYN (Figure 2; Table 2). A similar pattern was
340 found for species richness, with higher values in the NOFERT system relative to the other
341 fertilised systems and in organic (BIOORG and BIODYN) compared with conventional systems
342 (CONFYM and CONMIN) (Figure 2; Table 2). The Shannon diversity indices varied between
343 farming systems too with a significantly higher Shannon’s index in the organic farming systems
344 (BIOORG and BIODYN) compared with the conventional systems. Species evenness was

345 significantly higher in the NOFERT system than in the fertilised ones (BIOORG, BIODYN,
346 CONFYM and CONMIN).

347

348 Seedling density and species richness did not differ among crop types, except for the NOFERT
349 plots with wheat, which had a higher number of seedlings, as indicated by the significant
350 interaction (Table 2). Significant interactions between crop types and farming systems were also
351 found for seedling evenness: while fertilised wheat crops had higher evenness indices than
352 fertilised maize crops, the opposite was observed in the NOFERT plots (Figure 2; Table 2).

353

354 3.3. Seedbank species composition

355 Farming systems were linked to shifts in the seedbank species composition (NMDS, $k = 2$, non-
356 metric fit: $r^2 = 0.973$); with differences between the NOFERT, organic (BIOORG, BIODYN)
357 and conventional (CONFYM, CONMIN) systems. The fit of farming systems onto the plot
358 differed significantly ($r^2 = 0.273$, $P < 0.001$), indicating a gradient from the conventional
359 towards organic and unfertilised systems (Figure 3.a). Samples also differed according to crop
360 type ($r^2 = 0.062$, $P < 0.001$, Figure 3.b), with species such as *Papaver rhoeas*, *Cardamine*
361 *hirsuta* or *Chaenorhinum minus* appearing more commonly in wheat crops, and *Amaranthus*
362 *blitoides* or *Chenopodium polyspermum* occurring more commonly in maize crops (Figure 3.c).
363 The NOFERT system was separated in the ordination by the high presence of *Sagina*
364 *procumbens*, *Polygonum hydropiper* and *Gnaphalium uliginosum* (Figure 3.c).

365

366 3.4. Seedbank functional diversity

367 Functional richness was significantly higher in the unfertilised system than in the fertilised
368 systems; and significantly higher in the organic farming systems (BIODYN and BIOORG) than
369 in the conventional ones (CONFYM and CONMIN) (Figure 4; Table 2). Likewise, functional
370 evenness was marginally greater in the NOFERT system than in the fertilised ones. However,
371 the NOFERT system presented lower functional dispersion than the fertilised systems, and the

372 organic systems had higher functional redundancy than the conventional ones (Figure 4;
373 Table 2).

374

375 Wheat crops showed lower levels of functional richness but higher functional redundancy and
376 functional evenness than maize crops (Figure 4). However, the higher functional redundancy in
377 the wheat crops was specific to fertilised systems (i.e., no differences were found on the
378 functional redundancy between crop types for the unfertilised systems) (Table 2).

379

380 3.5. Seedbank functional composition

381 The first two axes of the PCA run for the seedbank CWM data explained 43.98% and 18.85% of
382 the total variance, respectively (see Table S1.4 in Supplementary Material for the values of the
383 first two PCA axes per trait). The CWM, when used as indicator of functional composition,
384 determined the ordination of seedbank samples according to farming systems, particularly
385 separating the NOFERT system samples from the fertilised ones (Figure 5.A, Table S1.5 in
386 Supplementary material). The crop type also determined a slight separation of the samples
387 according to their functional composition (Figure 5.B, Table S1.5). When representing the
388 levels of functional traits and types considered in the ordination, the NOFERT system was
389 characterised by a higher abundance of hemicryptophytes, rosette-growing plants and short-term
390 seedbank (Figure 5.C). The therophyte life form, higher SLA, seed weight, canopy height and
391 higher nutrient affinity characterised all fertilised plots (Figure 5.C). Wheat crops under the
392 fertilised systems were characterised by graminoid-growing plants with transient seedbanks and
393 autumn-germination, whereas maize crops under fertilised systems were characterised by
394 ascending plants, long-term seedbanks and spring-germinating species (Figure 5.C). See Table
395 S1.6 (Supplementary Materials) for further details on the results of the CWM per trait in
396 response to farming systems and crop type.

397

398 **4. Discussion**

399 The different long-term farming systems, under the same crop rotation sequence and tillage
400 practices, resulted in significant differences in the seedbank weed community. Although
401 previous studies pointed out to a strong influence of crop rotation and tillage on weed
402 communities (Mahaut, Gaba, & Fried, 2019), here we found that other farming practices
403 determined significant differences in the abundance, diversity and floristic composition of the
404 weed seedbank, as well as in the functional diversity, redundancy and composition. Besides, we
405 found that not only long-term farming but also the yearly management associated to the last
406 crop sown were important determinants of the functional and species composition of the soil
407 seedbank.

408

409 4.1. Dominant species

410 Only a few species showed high relative densities in all farming systems, and these were weeds
411 that produce many small seeds highly persistent in the seedbank or with high dispersal ability,
412 such as *Poa annua* and *Sagina procumbens* (Dölle & Schmidt, 2009). Some species with high
413 relative density in NOFERT system were likely selected by the lack of fertilisation, whereas
414 others with low abundances in NOFERT, such as *Cerastium glomeratum*, require high nutrient
415 availability (De Cauwer, Van Den Berge, Cougnon, Bulcke, & Reheul, 2010). Many of the
416 species that were abundant in conventional systems (e.g., *Chenopodium polyspermum* and *Poa*
417 *annua*), are nitrophilous species (Ellenberg, Weber, Düll, Wirth, & Werner, 2001), as reported
418 by Hawes et al. (2010) and De Cauwer et al. (2010), responding to the nutrient conditions of
419 those systems (Mäder et al., 2002). The species that are abundant in conventional systems are
420 likely to be resistant or difficult to control with herbicides (Rotchés-Ribalta et al., 2017). In
421 contrast, other arable species that predominate in organic systems, such as *Arabidopsis thaliana*,
422 *Papaver rhoeas* and *Amaranthus lividus*, are more sensitive to chemical weed control and
423 favoured by nutrient availability conditions from organic amendments (De Cauwer et al., 2010;
424 Hawes et al., 2010).

425

426 4.2. Seedbank density and diversity

427 Seedbank density values found in the DOK trial correspond to results obtained in other studies
428 (Hawes et al., 2010; Menalled et al., 2001; Rotchés-Ribalta et al., 2017), with higher densities in
429 the unfertilised system, indicating that lower nutrient availability involved a decrease in the
430 number of seeds incorporated in the soil from established weed populations (De Cauwer et al.,
431 2010). In general, weed seedbank abundance responds positively to fertilisation; nevertheless,
432 when weeds grow in competition with crop, the crop usually has higher competitive ability that
433 negatively affects the reproductive output of weed species (Gaba, Caneill, Nicolardot, Perronne,
434 & Bretagnolle, 2018) and thus the number of seeds shed to the soil. Differences in fertilisation
435 also determined higher species richness in the NOFERT system but also lower species
436 evenness. Therefore, although the lack of fertilisation involved greater species richness in the
437 weed seedbank, it also promoted greater abundance of few species more adapted to the nutrient
438 conditions in this system.

439

440 Organic farming, characterised by lower weed management intensity (i.e., conducted only
441 mechanically) and with less nutrient inputs, held a larger seedbank than conventional farming
442 systems, as previously reported (De Cauwer et al., 2010; Rotchés-Ribalta et al., 2017).
443 Established weed populations were, thus, better suppressed by both chemical and mechanical
444 weed controls used in conventional farming systems (Menalled et al., 2001), together with
445 increased indirect effects of crop competition due to higher nutrient availability in conventional
446 systems (Squire et al., 2000). This effect has likely reduced the amount of seeds shed onto the
447 soil. The trend of higher seedbank density in organically managed systems indicates the
448 potential threat these seeds can represent as future weed pests if they germinate and establish in
449 densities exceeding thresholds to compete with crops. However, seedbank communities in
450 organic farming systems also showed higher species diversities than conventional systems, as
451 reported previously (Albrecht, 2005; Rotchés-Ribalta et al., 2017; Ryan et al., 2010). This trend
452 mimics patterns found for aboveground weed vegetation (Mäder et al., 2002) and highlights the
453 potential of seedbank in organic farming systems to guarantee a diverse arable species
454 community (Menalled et al., 2001).

455

456 Species evenness in organic and conventional systems did not differ, indicating that all
457 communities, independently of the farming system, held equally abundant species. These results
458 disagreed with previous studies that pointed out that conventional systems tend to hold higher
459 abundances of seeds in the seedbank of only a few species that are tolerant to more intensive
460 farming practices (Dölle & Schmidt, 2009).

461

462 The crops investigated, i.e., maize and wheat, held similar levels of seedbank density, species
463 richness and Shannon's diversity index, in accordance with our expectations, as the seedbank
464 represents the integrative response of weed communities to environmental and management
465 conditions over the years (Bohan et al., 2011). However, higher species evenness was found in
466 wheat crops when they were fertilised, indicating a fair difference in the community structure
467 depending on the last crop sown but with different behaviours depending on the fertilisation.

468

469 4.3. Seedbank species composition

470 The distinct floristic composition of the seedbank among farming systems reflected the long-
471 term cumulative effects of 40-years farming, reinforcing trends of previous studies (Hawes et
472 al., 2010; Menalled et al., 2001; Rotchés-Ribalta et al., 2017), and indicating that accumulated
473 farming practices filtered the species with different sensitivity to management intensity.

474

475 The seedbank species composition showed differences between the crop types sown, contrary to
476 our expectations. This highlights the significant influence of the weed community established in
477 the previous season, which shed a particular composition of seeds to the soil (Menalled et al.,
478 2001). Such differences are likely to come from differences in the field preparation depending
479 on the time of sowing of each crop, which encourage or inhibit certain species to thrive
480 (Menalled et al., 2001; Perronne et al., 2015).

481

482 4.4. Seedbank functional diversity and composition

483 Farm management filters the community composition of arable species according to functional
484 traits rather than species (Solé-Senan et al., 2018). Therefore, functional diversity indices can be
485 more sensitive to community assembly rules than species diversities (Mouchet, Villéger,
486 Mason, & Mouillot, 2010). However, in our study, the response of functional richness was
487 similar to that of species richness, being higher in less intensified systems (i.e., in NOFERT
488 system compared with fertilised systems and in organic systems compared with conventional
489 ones). Although positive relationships between species richness and functional richness are
490 common, these indices are not surrogates *per se* (Díaz & Cabido, 2001), and therefore, the
491 consideration of different components of biodiversity is important to fully understand the
492 community assemblies in response to long-term farming. Higher functional richness found in
493 NOFERT system and in organic farming systems indicates that these less intensified systems
494 held greater odds that at least some species may respond differently to variable conditions and
495 perturbations (Díaz & Cabido, 2001).

496

497 Given that agricultural intensification acts as filter constraining plant species according to their
498 functional traits and ecological strategies, a reduction in farming intensity is usually associated
499 with increased functional divergence (Armengot et al., 2016; Solé-Senan et al., 2018). Our
500 results, however, point to a different pattern, with lower functional dispersion in unfertilised
501 systems in comparison with all the fertilised ones. This highlights that the NOFERT system
502 offered particular conditions and constraints, such as lower nutrient availability and soil organic
503 carbon (Fließbach et al., 2007), which may reduce the space of successful ecological strategies
504 and promote the dominance of a few specific functional traits and types.

505

506 Seedbank communities under long-term organic farming showed higher functional redundancy
507 than conventional farming, similar to other studies that attributed negative effects on community
508 stability to management intensity (Laliberté et al., 2010; Pillar et al., 2013). Functional
509 redundancy represents an insurance for the maintenance of ecosystem processes in case of
510 perturbations (Pillar et al., 2013). Therefore, arable weed communities in less-intensive systems

511 will be more stable and resilient whereas weed communities in conventional systems will be
512 more sensitive to disturbance and land-use changes.

513

514 Although arable weed species show similar functional attributes as they respond to specific
515 resource acquisition, growth strategies and tolerance to disturbances (Bourgeois et al., 2019), in
516 the current study, we found clear shifts in the mean trait values of seedbank communities
517 depending on the long-term farming systems. The seedbank community in fertilised systems
518 was characterised by traits typically related to better competitive abilities such as high nutrient
519 affinity, higher SLA, canopy height, seed weight and a greater proportion of therophytes. These
520 response attributes are related to weed communities and are indicative of fast life strategies
521 (Bourgeois et al., 2019; Navas, 2012). Fertilisation entails a resource-rich environment selecting
522 plants with high SLA and short life forms such as therophytes (Solé-Senan et al., 2018; Storkey
523 et al., 2013), whereas increases in competition with the crop for resources (i.e., light, nutrients
524 and water) favour species with tall canopies and heavy seeds (Albrecht & Auerswald, 2009;
525 Maclaren, Bennett, & Dehnen-Schmutz, 2019; Storkey et al., 2013). Although plant protection
526 strategies may involve changes on species communities according to functional traits (Maclaren
527 et al., 2019; Solé-Senan et al., 2018), no significant differences were found on mean trait values
528 between seedbank communities of conventional and organic farming systems. Therefore,
529 diverging methods of weed control and fertilisation in the long-term trial did not involve
530 differences on the functional composition of the seedbank.

531

532 The functional composition differed depending on the crop sown in the previous season,
533 contrary to our expectation. The last crop sown may have filtered the arable species community
534 through the timing of agricultural operations, selecting those species that germinate and emerge
535 simultaneously with the crop or with phenology mimicking the crop (Bourgeois et al., 2019;
536 Perronne et al., 2015). According to our results, the preceding crop determined a particular weed
537 community that shed seeds to the soil with a specific functional assembly. Hence, the seedbank
538 in wheat crops was characterised by autumn-germinating species, whereas the seedbank in

539 maize crops was dominated by spring-germinating species, matching the sowing and emergence
540 of each crop type.

541

542 **5. Conclusions**

543 Extensive farm management over the years (e.g., unfertilised and organic farming systems) was
544 associated with higher species diversities but also higher seed abundance in the seedbank than
545 conventional farming systems. From a function perspective, our results suggest that organic
546 systems are the most suitable farming system for the maintenance of arable weed seedbanks.
547 Given its positive effect, organic farming could potentially also benefit ecosystem functions and
548 services. However, management to guarantee the maintenance of established weed abundances
549 within appropriate thresholds that avoid affecting crop production is necessary.

550

551 Species assemblies and functional composition of the seedbank also depended on different
552 farming systems. Long-term fertilised farming systems (both organic and conventional) filtered
553 the arable seedbank community with traits indicative of fast life strategies and better
554 competitive abilities, which might represent potential competitive communities to the crop
555 when established.

556

557 Although the seedbank acts as a buffer of long-term management and crop sequence, the last
558 crop sown significantly shaped the composition of the soil seedbank in the DOK trial. Thus, the
559 specific management conducted in a given year should be carefully planned to shape the pool of
560 seeds shed from the arable community to the soil.

561

562 **Acknowledgements**

563 This work was partly supported by the Spanish Ministry of Science and Education with a grant
564 to Francesc Xavier Sans for a research stay in FiBL, Switzerland. The long-term DOK trial is
565 supported by the Swiss Federal Office of Agriculture. The authors acknowledge the financial
566 support for the publication of this paper to the project RTI2018-095597-B-I00, funded by the

567 Spanish Ministry of Science, Innovation and Universities, the State Research Agency and the
568 European Fund for Regional Development.

569

570 **Author contributions**

571 PM and JM designed and managed the DOK long-term trial. FXS designed the study and
572 collected the soil samples; RRR and FXS conducted the seedling sampling. RRR analysed the
573 data. RRR and FXS led the writing of the manuscript. All authors contributed critically to the
574 drafts and gave final approval for publication.

575

576 **Data accessibility**

577 Data supporting the results will be archived in a public repository accessible at
578 <http://hdl.handle.net/2445/154837>.

579

580 **References**

581 Albrecht, H. (2005). Development of arable weed seedbanks during the 6 years after the change
582 from conventional to organic farming. *Weed Research*, 45(5), 339–350.

583 Albrecht, H., & Auerswald, K. (2009). Seed traits in arable weed seed banks and their
584 relationship to land-use changes. *Basic and Applied Ecology*, 10(6), 516–524.
585 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.baae.2009.02.002> ER

586 Armengot, L., Blanco-Moreno, J. M., Bàrberi, P., Bocci, G., Carlesi, S., Aendekerk, R., ...
587 Sans, F. X. (2016). Tillage as a driver of change in weed communities: a functional
588 perspective. *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment*, 222, 276–285.
589 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2016.02.021>

590 Baessler, C., & Klotz, S. (2006). Effects of changes in agricultural land-use on landscape
591 structure and arable weed vegetation over the last 50 years. *Agriculture, Ecosystems &*
592 *Environment*, 115(1–4), 43–50. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2005.12.007>

593 Bàrberi, P., Bocci, G., Carlesi, S., Armengot, L., Blanco-Moreno, J. M., & Sans, F. X. (2018).
594 Linking species traits to agroecosystem services: a functional analysis of weed

595 communities. *Weed Research*, 58(2), 76–88. <https://doi.org/10.1111/wre.12283>

596 Bates, D., Mächler, M., Bolker, B., & Walker, S. (2015). Fitting Linear Mixed-Effects Models
597 using lme4. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 67(1). <https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v067.i01>

598 Bengtsson, J., Ahnström, J., & Weibull, A. C. (2005). The effects of organic agriculture on
599 biodiversity and abundance: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Ecology*, 42(2), 261–269.
600 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2664.2005.01005.x> ER

601 Bohan, D. A., Powers, S. J., Champion, G. T., Haughton, A. J., Hawes, C., Squire, G. R., ...
602 Mertens, S. K. (2011). Modelling rotations: can crop sequences explain arable weed
603 seedbank abundance? *Weed Research*, 51(4), 422–432. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365->
604 [3180.2011.00860.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3180.2011.00860.x)

605 Bourgeois, B., Munoz, F., Fried, G., Mahaut, L., Armengot, L., Denelle, P., ... Violle, C.
606 (2019). What makes a weed a weed? A large-scale evaluation of arable weeds through a
607 functional lens. *American Journal of Botany*, 106(1), 90–100.
608 <https://doi.org/10.1002/ajb2.1213>

609 De Cauwer, B., Van Den Berge, K., Cougnon, M., Bulcke, R., & Reheul, D. (2010). Weed
610 seedbank responses to 12 years of applications of composts, animal slurries or mineral
611 fertilisers. *Weed Research*, 50(5), 425–435. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365->
612 [3180.2010.00796.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3180.2010.00796.x)

613 Debastiani, V. J. (2018). Package ‘SYNCSA.’

614 Dejong, T. M. (1975). A Comparison of Three Diversity Indices Based on Their Components of
615 Richness and Evenness Published by : Wiley on behalf of Nordic Society Oikos Stable
616 URL : <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3543712> REFERENCES Linked references are availa.
617 *Oikos*, 26(2), 222–227.

618 Díaz, S., & Cabido, M. (2001). Vive la difference: plant functional diversity matters to
619 ecosystem processes. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 16(11), 646–655.

620 Dölle, M., & Schmidt, W. (2009). The relationship between soil seed bank, above-ground
621 vegetation and disturbance intensity on old-field successional permanent plots. *Applied*
622 *Vegetation Science*, 12(4), 415–428. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1654-109X.2009.01036.x>

623 Ellenberg, A., Weber, H., Düll, R., Wirth, V., & Werner, W. (2001). *Zeigerwerte von Pflanzen*
624 *in Mitteleuropa*. (Verlag Erich Goltze GmbH & Co, Ed.) (3rd ed.). Göttingen, Germany.

625 Fließbach, A., Oberholzer, H. R., Gunst, L., & Mäder, P. (2007). Soil organic matter and
626 biological soil quality indicators after 21 years of organic and conventional farming.
627 *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment*, 118, 273–284.
628 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2006.05.022>

629 Gaba, S., Caneill, J., Nicolardot, B., Perronne, R., & Bretnolle, V. (2018). Crop competition
630 in winter wheat has a higher potential than farming practices to regulate weeds. *Ecosphere*,
631 9(10). <https://doi.org/10.1002/ecs2.2413>

632 Gaba, S., Fried, G., Kazakou, E., Chauvel, B., & Navas, M. L. (2014). Agroecological weed
633 control using a functional approach: A review of cropping systems diversity. *Agronomy*
634 *for Sustainable Development*, 34(1), 103–119. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13593-013-0166-5>

635 Gibson, D. J. (2002). *Methods in comparative plant population ecology*. New York: Oxford
636 University Press.

637 Hawes, C., Haughton, A. J., Osborne, J. L., Roy, D. B., Clark, S. J., Perry, J. N., ... Squire, G.
638 R. (2003). Responses of plants and invertebrate trophic groups to contrasting herbicide
639 regimes in the Farm Scale Evaluations of genetically modified herbicide-tolerant crops.
640 *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London Series B-Biological Sciences*,
641 358(1439), 1899–1913. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2003.1406>

642 Hawes, C., Squire, G. R., Hallett, P. D., Watson, C., & Young, M. W. (2010). Arable plant
643 communities as indicators of farming practice. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment*,
644 138(1–2), 17–26. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2010.03.010>

645 Kuznetsova, A., Brockhoff, P. B., & Christensen, R. H. B. (2017). lmerTest Package: Tests in
646 Linear Mixed Effects Models. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 82(13), 1–26.
647 <https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v082.i13>

648 Laliberté, E., Legendre, P., & Shipley, B. (2014). Measuring functional diversity (FD) from
649 multiple traits, and other tools for functional ecology, 1–28. [https://doi.org/http://cran.r-](https://doi.org/http://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/FD/FD.pdf)
650 [project.org/web/packages/FD/FD.pdf](https://doi.org/http://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/FD/FD.pdf)

651 Laliberté, E., Wells, J. A., Declerck, F., Metcalfe, D. J., Catterall, C. P., Queiroz, C., ...
652 Mayfield, M. M. (2010). Land-use intensification reduces functional redundancy and
653 response diversity in plant communities. *Ecology Letters*, *13*(1), 76–86.
654 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2009.01403.x>

655 Maclaren, C., Bennett, J., & Dehnen-Schmutz, K. (2019). Management practices influence the
656 competitive potential of weed communities and their value to biodiversity in South
657 African vineyards. *Weed Research*, *59*, 93–106. <https://doi.org/10.1111/wre.12347>

658 Mäder, P., Fließbach, A., Dubois, D., Gunst, L., Fried, P., & Niggli, U. (2002). Soil fertility and
659 biodiversity in organic farming. *Science*, *296*(5573), 1694–1697.

660 Magurran, A. E. (2004). *Measuring biological diversity*.

661 Mahaut, L., Gaba, S., & Fried, G. (2019). A functional diversity approach of crop sequences
662 reveals that weed diversity and abundance show different responses to environmental
663 variability. *Journal of Applied Ecology*, *56*(6), 1400–1409. [https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-](https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2664.13389)
664 [2664.13389](https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2664.13389)

665 Marshall, E. J. P., Brown, V. K., Boatman, N. D., Lutman, P. J. W., Squire, G. R., & Ward, L.
666 K. (2003). The role of weeds in supporting biological diversity within crop fields. *Weed*
667 *Research*, *43*(2), 77–89. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-3180.2003.00326.x>

668 Menalled, F. D., Gross, K. L., & Hammond, M. (2001). Weed aboveground and seedbank
669 community responses to agricultural management systems. *Ecological Applications*, *11*(6),
670 1586–1601.

671 Minchin, P. R. (1987). An evaluation of the relative robustness of techniques for ecological
672 ordination. *Vegetatio*, *69*, 89–107.

673 Mouchet, M. A., Villéger, S., Mason, N. W. H., & Mouillot, D. (2010). Functional diversity
674 measures: an overview of their redundancy and their ability to discriminate community
675 assembly rules. *Functional Ecology*, *24*, 867–876. [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2435.2010.01695.x)
676 [2435.2010.01695.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2435.2010.01695.x)

677 Navas, M. L. (2012). Trait-based approaches to unravelling the assembly of weed communities
678 and their impact on agro-ecosystem functioning. *Weed Research*, *52*(6), 479–488.

679 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3180.2012.00941.x>

680 Oksanen, J., Blanchet, F. G., Friendly, M., Kindt, R., Legendre, P., McGlenn, D., ... Wagner, H.
681 (2019). vegan: Community ecology package. Retrieved from [http://cran.r-](http://cran.r-project.org/package=vegan)
682 [project.org/package=vegan](http://cran.r-project.org/package=vegan)

683 Pakeman, R. J., & Eastwood, A. (2013). Shifts in functional traits and functional diversity
684 between vegetation and seed bank. *Journal of Vegetation Science*, 24(5), 865–876.
685 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1654-1103.2012.01484.x>

686 Perronne, R., Le Corre, V., Bretagnolle, V., & Gaba, S. (2015). Stochastic processes and crop
687 types shape weed community assembly in arable fields. *Journal of Vegetation Science*,
688 26(2), 348–359. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jvs.12238>

689 Pillar, V. D., Blanco, C. C., Müller, S. C., Sosinski, E. E., Joner, F., & Duarte, L. D. S. (2013).
690 Functional redundancy and stability in plant communities. *Journal of Vegetation Science*,
691 24(5), 963–974. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jvs.12047>

692 Pinheiro, J., & Bates, D. (2000). *Mixed effect models in S and S-Plus*. New York, USA:
693 Springer-Verlag.

694 Preston, C. D., Telfer, M. G., Arnold, H. R., Carey, P. D., Cooper, J. M., Dines, T. D., ... Smart,
695 S. M. (2002). *The Changing Flora of the UK* (DEFRA). London.

696 R Core Team. (2016). *R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing*. Vienna,
697 Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing. Retrieved from [https://www.r-](https://www.r-project.org/)
698 [project.org/](https://www.r-project.org/)

699 Rotchés-Ribalta, R., Armengot, L., Mäder, P., Mayer, J., & Sans, F. X. (2017). Long-Term
700 Management Affects the Community Composition of Arable Soil Seedbanks. *Weed*
701 *Science*, 65(1), 73–82. <https://doi.org/10.1614/WS-D-16-00072.1>

702 Rotchés-Ribalta, Roser, Blanco-Moreno, J. M., Armengot, L., Chamorro, L., & Sans, F. X.
703 (2015). Both farming practices and landscape characteristics determine the diversity of
704 characteristic and rare arable weeds in organically managed fields. *Applied Vegetation*
705 *Science*, 18(3), 423–431. <https://doi.org/10.1111/avsc.12154>

706 Ryan, M. R., Smith, R. G., Mirsky, S. B., Mortensen, D. A., & Seidel, R. (2010). Management

707 filters and species traits: weed community assembly in long-term organic and conventional
708 systems. *Weed Science*, 58(3), 265–277. <https://doi.org/10.1614/WS-D-09-00054.1> ER
709 Sjurksen, H. (2001). Change of the weed seed bank during the first complete six-course crop
710 rotation after conversion from conventional to organic farming. *Biological Agriculture &*
711 *Horticulture*, 19(1), 71–90.
712 Solé-Senan, X. O., Juárez-Escario, A., Conesa, J. A., & Recasens, J. (2018). Plant species,
713 functional assemblages and partitioning of diversity in a Mediterranean agricultural
714 mosaic landscape. *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment*, 256, 163–172.
715 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2018.01.014>
716 Squire, G. R., Rodger, S., & Wright, G. (2000). Community-scale seedbank response to less
717 intense rotation and reduced herbicide input at three sites. *Annals of Applied Biology*,
718 136(1), 47–57.
719 Storkey, J., Brooks, D., Haughton, A., Hawes, C., Smith, B. M., & Holland, J. M. (2013). Using
720 functional traits to quantify the value of plant communities to invertebrate ecosystem
721 service providers in arable landscapes. *Journal of Ecology*, 101(1), 38–46.
722 <https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2745.12020>
723 Tutin, T. G. (1993). *Flora Europaea* (Vol. 2). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

724

725 **Supporting information**

726 Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version of this article:

727 Appendix S1: Supplementary tables.

728

729

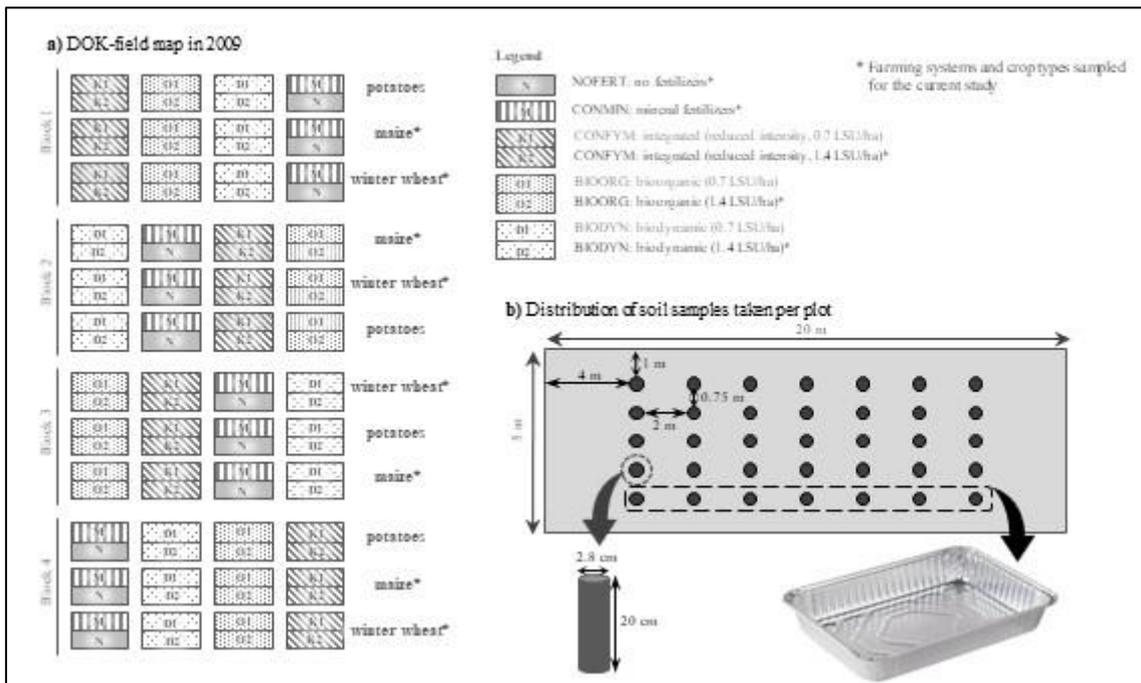
730 **Table 1:** Functional traits and levels or values considered in the functional diversity analyses with indication of the potential agro-ecosystem services (or
 731 disservices). “Prop” indicates proportion.

Plant trait	Trait levels	Potential services	
		Response trait	Effect trait
Raunkiær life form	Therophyte Hemicryptophyte Geophyte Chamaephyte	Potential to adapt to disturbance regimes	Potential to interfere with crop (potential disservice)
Growth form	Rosette Ascending or creeping Graminoid	Potential to capture environmental resources (light, space)	Potential to interfere with crop (potential disservice)
Soil seedbank longevity	Long-term (> 5 years) (prop reported) Short-term (1 - 5 years) (prop reported) Transcient (< 1 year) (prop reported)	Potential to endure in an ecosystem	Potential to interfere with crop in a long-term perspective (potential disservice)
Specific leaf area (SLA) (mm ² mg ⁻¹)	Mean value	Potential to use radiation efficiently and compete for light	Potential to interfere with crop (potential disservice)
Plant height (cm)	Mean of maximum values at maturity reported	Potential to react to environmental and management conditions	Potential to compete with crop (potential disservice)
Seed weight (mg)	Mean value	Potential to react to environmental and management conditions	Potential to compete with crop (potential disservice)
Affinity to soil nutrient conditions	1 to 10 being 1 oligotrophic and 10 in nutrient rich soils	Potential to adapt to nutrient soil conditions	Potential to compete with crop under a given set of conditions (potential disservice)
Seasonality of germination	Autumn (prop) Spring (prop) Summer (prop) Winter (prop)	Breath of species adaptation	Potential to interfere with crop (potential disservice)

732 **Table 2:** Coefficients and their standard errors of the linear mixed-effect models testing the effects of the long-term farming systems and the current
733 crop (i.e. maize or wheat) on the seedling density, species richness, Shannon's diversity index, Pielou's evenness index, on the functional richness,
734 functional evenness, functional dispersion and functional redundancy of the soil seedbank. Orthogonal contrasts to compare the different levels of
735 farming systems: conventional (CONFYM), mineral (CONMIN), organic (BIOORG), biodynamic (BIODYN) and unfertilized (NOFERT). Groups
736 of farming systems were: fertilized systems (**Fert** = CONFYM, CONMIN, BIOORG and BIODYN), organic systems (**Org** as BIOORG and
737 BIODYN) and conventional systems (**Con** as CONFYM and CONMIN). Statistical significance is indicated as · when $P < 0.1$; * when $P < 0.05$;
738 **, $P < 0.01$; and ***, $P < 0.001$.

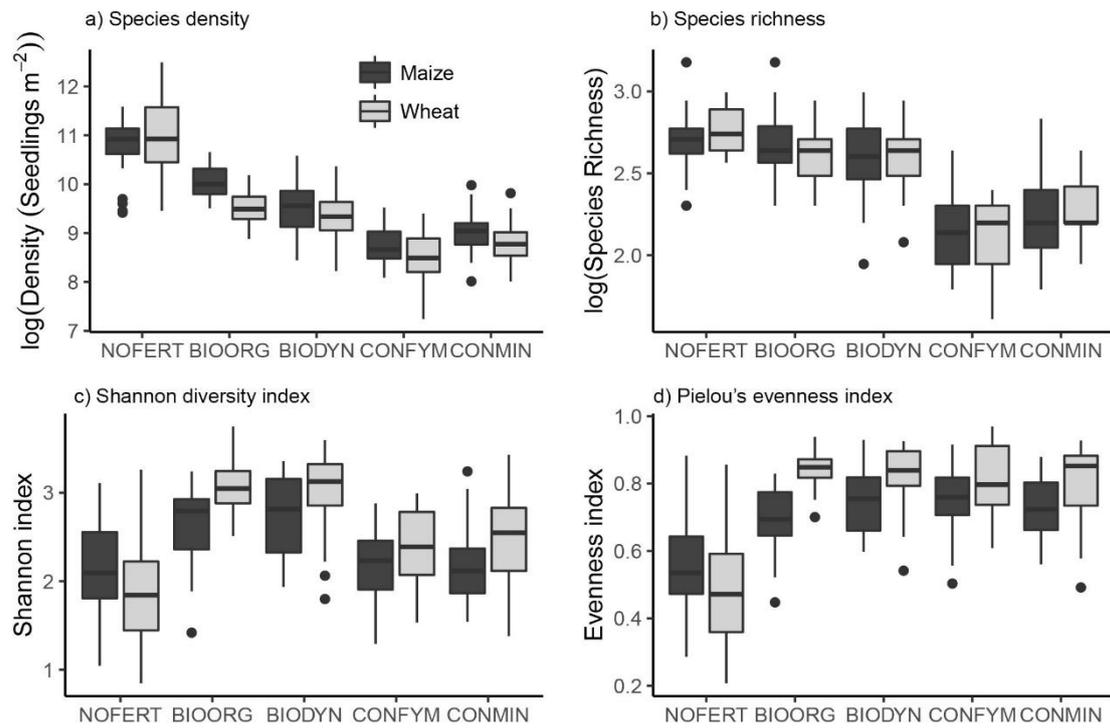
Contrasts	Seed density		Species richness		Shannon		Evenness	
	Estimate ± SE		Estimate ± SE		Estimate ± SE		Estimate ± SE	
Intercept	9.610 ± 0.112	***	2.467 ± 0.031	***	2.368 ± 0.079	***	0.695 ± 0.022	***
NOFERT vs. Fert	0.276 ± 0.038	***	0.057 ± 0.011	***	-0.066 ± 0.037	·	-0.034 ± 0.010	**
Org vs. Con	0.444 ± 0.086	***	0.226 ± 0.024	***	0.246 ± 0.083	**	-0.004 ± 0.023	
BIODYN vs. BIOORG	-0.283 ± 0.122	*	-0.057 ± 0.034		0.051 ± 0.117		0.033 ± 0.032	
CONFYM vs. CONMIN	-0.143 ± 0.122		-0.047 ± 0.034		-0.022 ± 0.117		0.010 ± 0.032	
WHEAT vs. MAIZE	-0.158 ± 0.109		0.012 ± 0.030		0.207 ± 0.105	·	0.060 ± 0.029	*
<u>Interactions</u>								
NOFERT vs. Fert × WHEAT vs. MAIZE	0.127 ± 0.054	*	0.013 ± 0.015		-0.102 ± 0.052	·	-0.032 ± 0.014	*
Org vs. Con × WHEAT vs. MAIZE	-0.060 ± 0.122		-0.026 ± 0.034		0.048 ± 0.117		0.014 ± 0.032	
BIODYN vs. BIOORG × WHEAT vs. MAIZE	0.197 ± 0.172		0.060 ± 0.048		-0.087 ± 0.165		-0.045 ± 0.045	
CONFYM vs. CONMIN × WHEAT vs. MAIZE	-0.006 ± 0.172		-0.009 ± 0.048		-0.023 ± 0.165		0.000 ± 0.045	
Contrasts	Functional richness		Functional evenness		Functional dispersion		Functional redundancy	
	Estimate ± SE		Estimate ± SE		Estimate ± SE		Estimate ± SE	
Intercept	0.073 ± 0.003	***	0.678 ± 0.011	***	0.204 ± 0.005	***	0.304 ± 0.010	***
NOFERT vs. Fert	0.004 ± 0.001	***	0.008 ± 0.005	·	-0.006 ± 0.003	*	-0.008 ± 0.005	

Org vs. Con	0.011 ± 0.003	***	-0.010 ± 0.010	-0.004 ± 0.006	0.023 ± 0.011	*
BIODYN vs. BIOORG	-0.001 ± 0.004		0.019 ± 0.015	-0.001 ± 0.008	0.014 ± 0.015	
CONFYM vs. CONMIN	-0.005 ± 0.004		0.015 ± 0.015	-0.002 ± 0.008	-0.002 ± 0.015	
WHEAT vs. MAIZE	-0.009 ± 0.003	**	0.018 ± 0.011	-0.010 ± 0.007	0.035 ± 0.014	*
<u>Interactions</u>						
NOFERT vs. Fert × WHEAT vs. MAIZE	0.003 ± 0.002		-0.007 ± 0.005	-0.004 ± 0.004	-0.017 ± 0.007	*
Org vs. Con × WHEAT vs. MAIZE	0.000 ± 0.004		-0.007 ± 0.012	0.001 ± 0.008	0.005 ± 0.015	
BIODYN vs. BIOORG × WHEAT vs. MAIZE	0.000 ± 0.005		-0.015 ± 0.017	0.002 ± 0.012	-0.025 ± 0.022	
CONFYM vs. CONMIN × WHEAT vs. MAIZE	0.002 ± 0.005		-0.003 ± 0.017	0.000 ± 0.012	0.001 ± 0.022	



741
742
743
744
745
746

Figure 1: a) DOK trial field map and crops sown in the year of sampling (2009). * indicate crop types and farming systems sampled for the current study. b) Distribution of soil samples taken per plot, sizes of soil cores sampled and distribution of cores gathered in each tray (obtaining a total of 5 trays per plot).



748

749 **Figure 2:** Boxplots of a) seedling density, b) species richness, c) Shannon diversity index and d)

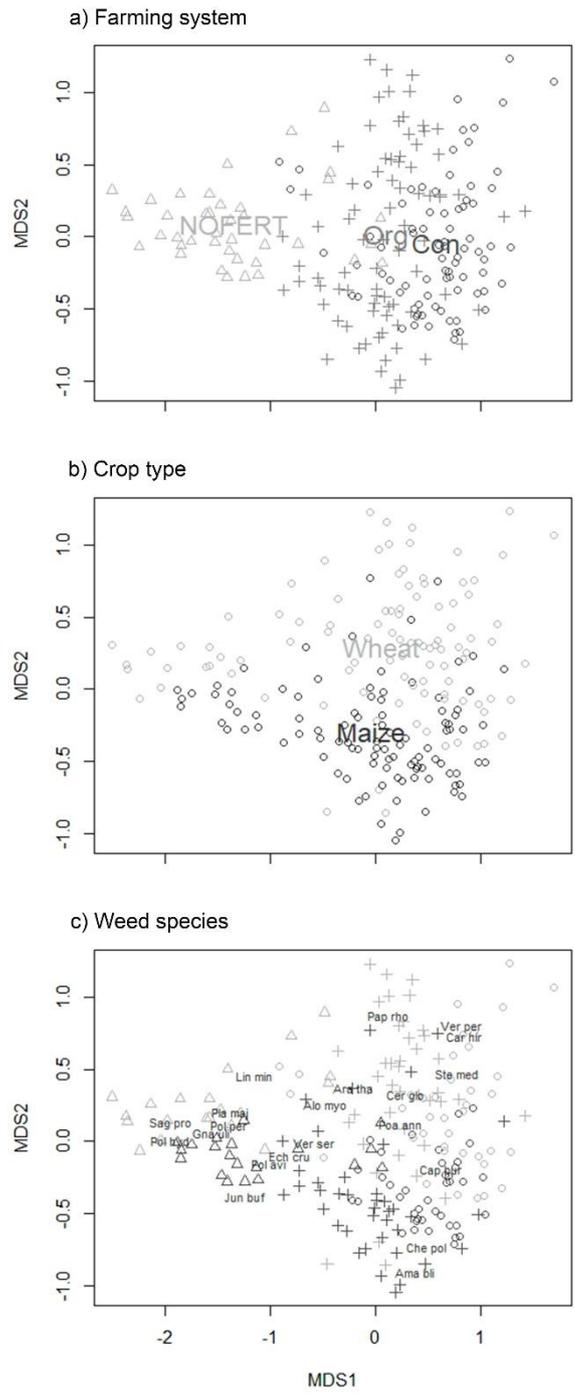
750 Pielou's evenness index of unfertilised (NOFERT), organic (BIOORG), biodynamic

751 (BIODYN), conventional (CONFYM) and mineral (CONMIN) farming systems of the DOK

752 trial of both maize and wheat crops, based on the 20 soil seedbank samples per farming system

753 and crop type.

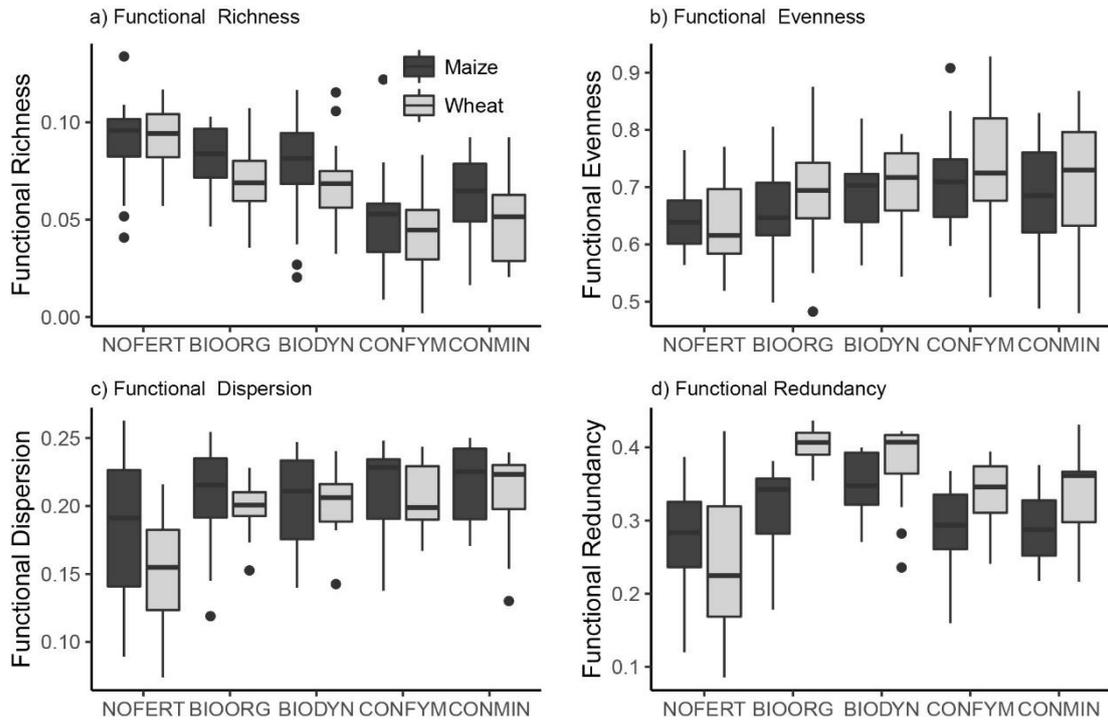
754



755

756 **Figure 3:** Site ordination (NMDS) based on floristic similarities between conventional
 757 (CONFYM and CONMIN, circles), organic/biodynamic (BIOORG and BIODYN, crosses) and
 758 unfertilised (NOFERT, triangles) farming systems (DOK trial) of both maize (dark grey) and
 759 wheat (light grey) crops of 200 soil seedbank samples ($k = 2$, r^2 nonmetric fit = 0.973). a)
 760 Farming system types fitted onto the ordination ($r^2 = 0.273$, $P < 0.001$); b) Crop type sown in
 761 the last season fitted onto the ordination ($r^2 = 0.062$, $P < 0.001$). c) Labels of most present

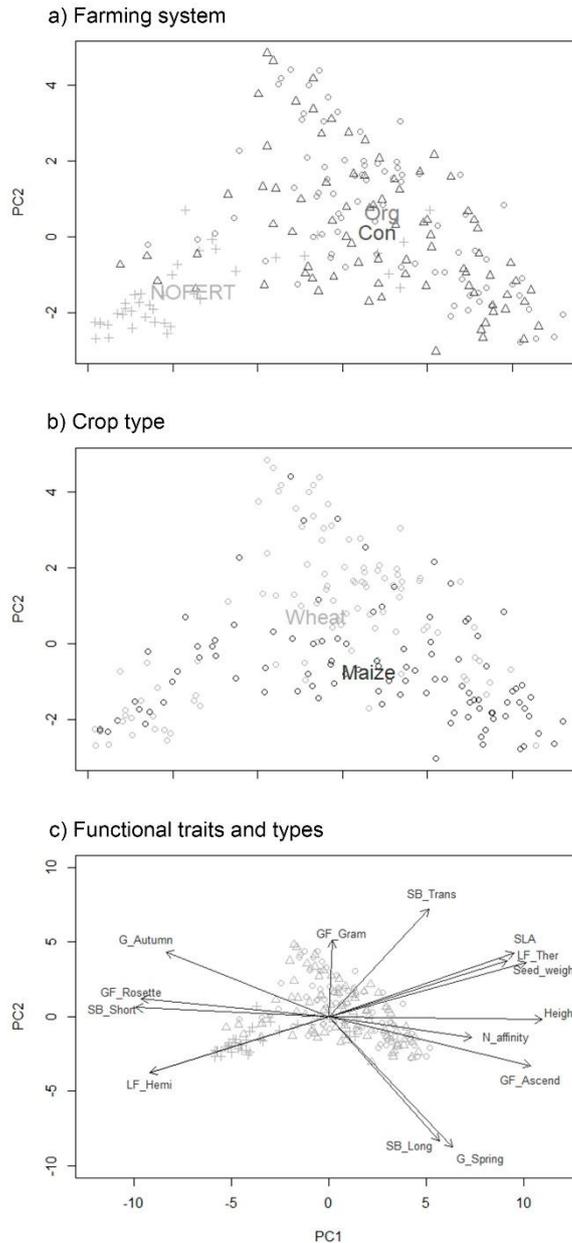
762 species fitted onto the ordination: Alo myo: *Alopecurus myosuroides*; Ama bli: *Amaranthus*
763 *blitoides*; Ara tha: *Arabidopsis thaliana*; Cap bur: *Capsella bursa-pastoris*; Car hir: *Cardamine*
764 *hirsuta*; Cer glo: *Cerastium glomeratum*; Che pol: *Chenopodium polyspermum*; Ech cru:
765 *Echinochloa crus-galli*; Gna uli: *Gnaphalium uliginosum*; Jun buf: *Juncus bufonius*; Lin min:
766 *Chaenorhinum minus*; Pap rho: *Papaver rhoeas*; Pla maj: *Plantago major*; Poa ann: *Poa annua*;
767 Pol avi: *Polygonum aviculare*; Pol hyd: *Polygonum hydropiper*; Pol per: *Polygonum persicaria*;
768 Sag pro: *Sagina procumbens*; Ste med: *Stellaria media*; Ver per: *Veronica persica*; Ver ser:
769 *Veronica serpyllifolia*.



770

771 **Figure 4:** Boxplots of a) functional richness, b) functional evenness, c) functional divergence
 772 (FDis index) and d) functional redundancy of unfertilised (NOFERT), organic (BIOORG),
 773 biodynamic (BIODYN), conventional (CONFYM) and mineral (CONMIN) farming systems of
 774 the DOK trial of both maize and wheat crops, based on the 20 soil seedbank samples per
 775 farming system and crop type. The functional traits considered for the calculation of functional
 776 diversity indices were: the Raunkiær life form, growth form, soil seedbank longevity, SLA,
 777 plant height, seed weight, affinity to soil nutrient conditions and season of germination.

778



779

780 **Figure 5:** Ordination diagrams of the first two PCA axes based on the functional composition
 781 (Community Weighted Mean, CWM) of 200 seedbank samples from: conventional (CONFYM
 782 and CONMIN, circles), organic/biodynamic (BIOORG and BIODYN, crosses) and unfertilised
 783 (NOFERT, triangles) farming systems (DOK trial) of maize (dark grey) and wheat (light grey)
 784 crops. Farming system (a) and crop type (b) labels are placed on the average values obtained on
 785 the first two PCA axis. c) Direction of the most significant response factors of functional traits
 786 considered for the CWM index: “LF_Thero”: life form therophyte; “LF_Hemi”: life form
 787 hemicryptophyte; “GF_Rosette”: growth form rosette; “GF_Ascend”: growth form ascending or

788 creeping; “GF_Gram”: growth form graminoid; “SB_Long”: long-term seedbank; “SB_Short”:
789 short-term seedbank; “SB_Trans”: transient seedbank; “SLA”: specific leaf area; “Height”:
790 plant canopy height; “Seed_Weight”: seed weight; “N_affinity”: nutrient affinity; “G_autumn”:
791 autumn germinating species; and “G_Spring”: spring germinating species.