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Glyphosate-based restoration of a degraded grassland threatens soil health and the diversity of nematode communities

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ABSTRACT

Invasive species have become a dominant component of native grasslands, leading to a reduction in biodiversity and ecosystem functioning. Grasslands hold the potential to sequester more carbon than forests, yet few large-scale intact grasslands remain on Earth. Consequently, the restoration of degraded grasslands is critical to resurrect the ecological and economic services they once provided. Although glyphosate-based herbicide restoration projects are among the most effective strategies to remove invasive plants and allow native species to reestablish, their off-target effects on belowground diversity are unclear. Nematodes are the most abundant and diverse animals on Earth and have been recognized as indicators of soil health due to their positioning at all trophic levels and ability to respond to environmental change such as pollution, disturbance, and climate change. The goal of this study was to examine the response of nematode communities to a glyphosate-based grassland restoration project. We applied different frequencies of Roundup ProMax® to field plots in the first year of the project and characterized the impact on nematode communities over the following four years using morphological counts and 18S rRNA metabarcoding. To test the effects of the herbicide on nematode community diversity, composition, and structure, we utilized a modelling approach with general linear models, PERMANOVAs, distance-based redundancy and co-occurrence network analyses. We show persistent negative effects on nematode diversity across all four years. In addition, compositional shifts and changes in nematode-specific functional indices indicated less healthy soils in herbicide-treated plots. Co-occurrence networks further confirmed less structured and more disturbed communities. No recovery of nematode communities in glyphosate treated plots was observed after four years, demonstrating the longevity of effects. In conclusion, this study reports negative off-target effects of glyphosate herbicide restoration projects on belo

1. Introduction

Invasive plants, whether introduced accidently or intentionally, have outcompeted native grasses and overtaken grassland ecosystems in many regions of North America (Gaskin et al., 2021). In addition to reducing biodiversity (e.g., plants, birds, insects) (Skórka et al., 2010; Menz et al., 2011; Vilà et al., 2011), invasive plant species disrupt ecosystem functioning (Dukes and Mooney, 2004) by affecting soil communities, soil properties, and nutrient cycling (Vilà et al., 2011; Gibbons et al., 2017; Porazinska et al., 2022). Simply put, a reduction in the diversity of grassland plants disrupts ecosystem functioning (Tilman et al., 1996; Prieto et al., 2015), reduces ecosystem stability (Tilman et al., 2006), and threatens environmental sustainability as well as the

global food supply (O'Mara, 2012). In the face of global climate warming, grasslands hold the potential to sequester large amounts of carbon (Watson et al., 2000), yet few large-scale continuous grasslands remain on Earth (Scholtz and Twidwell, 2022), highlighting the critical importance of restoring them (Buisson et al., 2022).

Multiple strategies have been implemented to successfully remove invasive plants (Kettenring and Adams, 2011; Weidlich et al., 2020) in order to resurrect the ecological and economic services that grasslands once provided (Bardgett et al., 2021). The most common strategies include physical removal via tillage and hand weeding, or chemical control via herbicide sprays. In comparison to physical controls, chemical control has enabled cost-effective restoration of a greater area with lower physical disturbance. Glyphosate-based herbicides (GBH) provide

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the most common form of chemical control in American grasslands (Wagner et al., 2017), but concerns about off-target effects jeopardizing overall restoration goals have been raised (Sesin et al., 2021).

Although Roundup® and Touchdown® are among the most commonly used GBHs around the world (Benbrook, 2016), their off-target effects on ecosystem functioning and human health are highly contested. While some studies have shown GBH to be environmentally benign and immobile in soil when used as directed (Duke and Powles, 2008), others have demonstrated contrasting results (Annett et al., 2014; Mesnage et al., 2015; Myers et al., 2016). Although GBHs are currently banned in ~30 countries, they remain approved for use in American and European markets, and low levels (below regulatory limits) of GBHs are widespread in soil and waterways (Kjaer et al., 2005; Battaglin et al., 2014; Struger et al., 2015). To increase the effectiveness of glyphosate, commercially available GBH products contain adjuvant ingredients (Travlos et al., 2017) such as surfactants or dyes. Some adjuvants may be equally or more toxic than pure glyphosate to a wide range of organisms (bacteria, protozoa, algae, lab rats, tadpoles) (Vincent and Davidson, 2015; Mesnage and Antoniou, 2018). However, since adjuvants constitute proprietary information, GBHs represent a range of commercial products and the effects of adjuvants vs. glyphosate are difficult to separate. Nevertheless, GBHs have been highly effective in weed and plant control including in the restoration of degraded grasslands.

GBHs function by inhibiting the shikimate acid pathway (Steinrücken and Amrhein, 1980) present in all plants, but also in many fungi, archaea, and some bacteria. Fungal communities appear to be similarly negatively affected across different ecosystems including natural grasslands with decreases in diversity and function as more GBH is applied (Druille et al., 2016; Vázquez et al., 2021; Bueno de Mesquita et al., 2023). In contrast, the response of soil bacterial communities to GBH has been more mixed, likely because the shikimate acid pathway is not found in all bacteria (Leino et al., 2021) and some can utilize GBH and its breakdown products as a nutrient source (i.e., C, N, P) to promote bacterial growth (Haney et al., 2000; Lancaster et al., 2010; Sviridov et al., 2015). In addition, variable conclusions (negative or no effects) (Busse et al., 2001; Weaver et al., 2007; Kepler et al., 2020) have been linked to low concentrations of GBH tested (Busse et al., 2001; Ratcliff et al., 2006). Although the shikimate pathway is absent in animals, off-target negative effects of GBHs have been observed in earthworms, where reduced activity and growth resulted in decreased soil nutrient cycling (Gaupp-Berghausen et al., 2015; Zaller et al., 2015). To better understand the overall effect of GBHs-based restoration in natural ecosystems on soil biota, there is a need to examine a wider organismal

Nematodes are microscopic roundworms that play important roles in grassland soil processes (Bardgett et al., 1999), and are a useful model system for studying soil health. Nematodes are the most abundant and diverse animals in the world, with over four hundred quintillion individuals present (van den Hoogen et al., 2019) and an estimated 0.5 million - 10 million different species (Hodda, 2022a). In addition to abundance and diversity, nematode functional and ecological significance is also remarkable (Yeates et al., 1993, 2009; Hodda, 2022b). Through diversity of lifestyles (r-K strategies) (Bongers and Ferris, 1999) and positioning at all trophic levels within foodwebs (e.g., primary decomposers, primary consumers, or predators) via diverse feeding habits (e.g., bacterial and fungal-feeders, plant, insect, and vertebrate parasites, omnivores, and predators), nematodes play significant roles in ecosystem functioning (Yeates et al., 2009; Neher, 2010; Schratzberger et al., 2019). Moreover, due to their ability to respond to environmental change including pollution, disturbance, or plant invasions (Todd, 1996; Neher, 2010; Gattoni et al., 2022; Porazinska et al., 2022), nematodes have been recognized as environmental bioindicators in various ecosystems (Bongers and Ferris, 1999; Neher, 2001; Wilson and Duarte, 2009) including grasslands (Ekschmitt et al., 2001; Todd et al., 2006). To inform and quantify general soil biota functioning and soil health,

nematode-specific indices (e.g., Maturity, Enrichment, and Structure) that utilize known functional and life traits have been developed (Bongers, 1990; Bongers and Bongers, 1998).

Although nematodes do not contain the shikimic acid pathway targeted by GBH, direct negative effects have been observed in lab experiments. For example, exposure of the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans to GBH at commercially applied concentrations have resulted in degeneration of adult neurons (Negga et al., 2011, 2012), impairment of nervous system development in juveniles (McVey et al., 2016), and inhibition of general mitochondrial functioning (Bailey et al., 2018). Irreversible effects have been detected in as little as 30 min (Burchfield et al., 2019) and can last through to the first generation after initial exposure (De la Parra-Guerra and Olivero-Verbel, 2020; De la Parra-Guerra et al., 2020). Moreover, increased concentrations of GBH reduced C. elegans' reproduction rate (e.g., eggs per worm) and decreased growth of the surviving individuals (Ruan et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2017; García-Espiñeira et al., 2018; Kronberg et al., 2018; Jacques et al., 2019). Similar to other animals, the effects of glyphosate on *C. elegans* appeared to be magnified in the presence of adjuvants, with one GBH being 85 times more lethal than glyphosate alone (Jacques et al., 2019). In a microcosm experiment of mixed species, the abundance and diversity of marine nematodes declined and composition shifted even under low GBH concentrations $(3.6 \mu g/L)$ (Salem, 2016).

Although negative effects of GBH on nematodes can be demonstrated in lab studies, it is unclear how much exposure to GBH nematodes experience in a functioning soil ecosystem. For example, in agricultural plots, herbicides in general appear to decrease the abundance of fungivores and predators but increase the abundance of bacterivores, plant parasites, and omnivores (Zhao et al., 2013). For GBH in particular, nematode communities in a GBH corn/soybean rotation were not different from those under alternative herbicide treatments (atrazine/sulfentrazone) (Liphadzi et al., 2005). However, GBH-treated vs. untreated soybean plots supported distinct communities with decreased abundance of bacterivores and increased abundance of fungivores, respectively (Mbatyoti et al., 2018). Although nematode response to GBH-based treatments have been studied in labs, microcosms, and to some extent in agricultural field plots, the effect of GBH application frequency in a natural environment (e.g., grasslands) for the purpose of restoration remains unexplored.

The aim of this study was to examine how soil biota at higher trophic levels, here represented by nematode communities, respond to the glyphosate-based restoration of a degraded natural grassland. Using experimental plots subjected to varying application frequencies (0, 2, 5 times) of Roundup ProMax® in the first year of the project, we monitored the response of nematode communities over a period of four years using 18S rRNA metabarcoding and nematode morphology. Our previous investigation of microbial communities within these plots over a single year (Bueno de Mesquita et al., 2023) found major negative shifts in soil chemistry (e.g., increase of soil nitrate and acidity, but a decrease in calcium and cation exchange), bacterial and archaeal communities (e. g., reduction of diversity and change in structure), and fungal communities (e.g., decrease in endophytic fungal root colonization) together suggesting significantly altered plant-soil-microbe relationships. Here, we build on this previous study by hypothesizing that GBH would have similar effects on nematode communities. Specifically, we hypothesized reduced overall abundance and diversity and shifts in community structure in response to GBH treatments, with a greater magnitude of response with increasing frequency of GBH applications. We expected these patterns to be driven by nematodes feeding predominantly on bacteria and fungi but also cascading to their predators. Finally, we expected these trends to be congruent with both reduced values of nematode-specific indices (i.e., Maturity, Enrichment, Structure, and Reverse Basal) indicative of disturbed food webs with altered interactions in herbicide treated soils. However, we also hypothesized that as nematode communities recover through time the negative effects of GBH would diminish.

2. Methods

2.1. Site description and nematode processing

Experimental plots were established at Denver Botanic Gardens Chatfield Farms, Colorado, $(39^{\circ}32'34.1''N\ 105^{\circ}06'00.8''W)$ to test the effectiveness and off-target impacts of herbicidal use (i.e., glyphosate) in the restoration of a degraded natural grassland. The full history of the site is provided by Bueno de Mesquita et al. (2023), but briefly the native grassland was seeded with Bromus inermis grass in the late 1800s. Since then, it was used for rangeland grazing until the early-mid 1900s when grazing ceased, and today the plant community remains dominated by the non-native grass. Bromus inermis is a rhizomatous grass that can have negative effects on biodiversity (SI Methods 1). Within this area, 12 plots (3 m wide x 30.5 m long) were established. These plots were representative of a larger grassland that was homogeneous in plant composition, topography, and exposure to weather conditions. A simple random pattern (via a random number generator with no constraints) was used to assign treatment to plots. Plots were subjected to one of three treatments: 0, 2, and 5 total applications of Roundup ProMAX® (51.2% glyphosate, and 48.8% proprietary adjuvants) during the first year of the project (SI Fig. 1). Each herbicide treatment consisted of four plots, two of which were designated to be seeded with native plants after the final application of the herbicide in the first year of the experiment. Roundup ProMAX® was applied with a truck sprayer at a rate of 173 L/ha (5.70 kg glyphosate/ha) for the first and fifth applications. All other applications of the herbicide were conducted with a backpack sprayer at 22 L/ha (0.73 kg glyphosate/ha). The first glyphosate application was conducted post early growing season on May 23, 2018, followed by applications at the start of August 2018, October 2018, March 2019, and April 2019. No follow up applications of herbicide were applied after this April 2019 date. All applications were carefully conducted during low periods of wind, and no drift was observed. Finally, at the beginning of the second growing season in May 2019, a seed mix of native plants (SI Table 1) was applied to the plots designated for seeding. Post-herbicidal native plants seeding has been utilized to assist the restoration process (Buisson et al., 2022). No mowing or other disturbance to the plots was conducted.

For soil sampling, each year three sampling sites (1 m radius) that had not been sampled before within each large plot were selected using a random number generator. Within each sampling site, 5 random soil scoops (~4 cm deep) were collected, and all three sampling sites were combined into one single composite soil sample per large plot (SI Fig. 1). Although scoops of ~4 cm depth can be regarded as limited for nematodes (instead of deeper cores), glyphosate was only applied to the soil surface and therefore any effect was expected to be strongest within the shallower soil layer. Furthermore, our main interest was soil biodiversity across multiple domains of life including microorganisms for which this depth is a standard protocol. Samples were then gently homogenized, stored in a cooler during transport, and maintained at 4 °C before processing. To test the initial impact and following recovery from the GBH treatment, soil sampling was repeated 4 times (June 27, 2018, August 23, 2019, June 22, 2020, and October 20, 2021), each time randomly selecting different sampling sites within each plot. At the first soil sampling date in 2018, plots expected to receive a total of 2 and 5 applications of glyphosate had only received a single application, but we use the "2" or "5" designations for statistical analyses and figures (see below). Soil moisture was determined gravimetrically by drying 5 g of soil in a 100 °C oven for 28 h. Using a modified Baermann funnel (Baermann, 1917), nematodes were extracted from 20 g of soil in 2018 and 2019, and from 50 g in 2020 and 2021. Although nematode studies commonly use larger amounts of soil, as little as 20 g might be more appropriate for Baermann extraction (Cesarz et al., 2019) and has been successfully utilized before (e.g., Porazinska et al., 2022, Hu et al., 2021), as lower soil volumes minimize disruption to plots. Extracted nematodes were counted and identified to the family level using an inverted microscope and taxonomic keys to evaluate trophic level

specimen counts (Goodey, 1951; Bongers, 1994). To account for variation in soil moisture and hence variation in the amount of soil used for nematode extraction, values were standardized across all samples to 100 g of dry soil prior to statistical analyses. When used in addition to morphology, 18S rRNA metabarcoding data allows for a complementary examination of nematode diversity but at a finer taxonomic resolution (i. e., ASV level instead of trophic). Hence, morphological data was used only for overall or trophic level absolute abundance, especially since this measure cannot not be obtained from sequencing data. More importantly, morphological data provided a positive control for sequencing data (i.e., to detect any major sequencing issues). We used the 18S rRNA metabarcoding data for all other analysis to describe patterns of nematode diversity, structure, and community composition. Although nematode-specific indices (i.e., Maturity, Enrichment, Structure, and Reverse Basal) are based only on the family level of taxonomic resolution, metabarcoding data was used to safeguard against the well described convergent evolution of nematode morphology. Lastly, although morphological and sequencing data have their own biases, the overall patterns have been shown to be independent of the method used (Kitagami et al., 2022).

2.2. DNA processing and sequencing

Counted and identified nematode samples (n = 48) were reduced to $\sim\!0.3$ ml and transferred to Qiagen DNeasy PowerSoil Kit bead beating tubes for DNA extraction and then stored at $-20~^\circ\text{C}$. High throughput metabarcoding was used to target the 18S rRNA gene using NF1/18Sr2b primers (Porazinska et al., 2009). Amplification was performed in triplicates following the 18S Earth Microbiome Project protocols (https://earthmicrobiome.org/protocols-and-standards/18s/). All amplicons were visualized with gel electrophoresis to confirm successful amplification, and the triplicates were pooled and sent to the Hubbard Center for Genome Studies, University of New Hampshire, for barcode attachment, library preparation, and paired-end sequencing on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 (2x250bp) (Illumina Inc., CA, USA). Negative controls for extraction and PCR were also sequenced.

2.3. Sequencing read processing

Code for the full bioinformatic pipeline, figure creation, and statistics is publicly available at https://www.WormsEtAl.com/glyphosate-rest oration and https://github.com/WormsEtAl/glyphosate-restoration. Reads were processed in QIIME2 (Bolyen et al., 2019) by first removing primer sequences using cutadapt (Martin, 2011). Next, forward and reverse reads were truncated as quality started to drop off (at 210 bp for forward and 180 bp for reverse, approximately at quality scores of 37 and 36 respectively), and joined to create 100% similarity amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) using DADA2 (Callahan et al., 2016). In order to best characterize Nematoda, taxonomy was assigned using BLAST against the SILVA v138 database (Quast et al., 2013) modified by replacing all nematode sequences with the nematode-specific and curated 18S-NemaBase (Gattoni et al., 2023). From the constructed table, ASVs assigned to non-Nematoda (29.5%) were removed, as were nematode ASVs with a reference sequence match below 92% identity and 98% query coverage (~1% of ASVs), or any animal-parasitic nematodes transient in the soil (<1% of ASVs). The final nematode table consisted of 397 ASVs with an average length of 322 bp, and average identity of 97.5%, and coverage of 99.85% to nematode reference sequences. Post filtering, each sample contained an average of 32,309.27 $\pm\ 2055$ reads. Raw reads are available at the NCBI Sequence Read Archive with the project ID PRJNA867499.

2.4. Nematode community processing and calculation of diversity metrics and indices

Nematode trophic categories (i.e., Bacterivores, Fungivores,

Omnivores/Predators, Plant Parasites, and Root Associates) were assigned to each ASV following Yeates et al. (1993) and Hodda (2022b) as needed. Nematodes of the family Tylenchidae were assigned to the Root Associate category, as although species may appear plant parasitic, they may feed on fungal hyphae instead (Yeates et al., 1993; Treonis, 2017). Alpha diversity metrics (Faith's Phylogenic Diversity, Richness, Shannon Diversity) were performed at the ASV level and calculated with Hill Numbers using hill_taxa from the hillR R package (Alberdi and Gilbert, 2019). Samples were not rarified as this generated negligible difference in alpha diversity metrics, and unrarefied data was congruent to morphological assessment (see results). Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrices of relative abundances were created at the ASV level using the distance function from the phyloseq R package (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013).

Selected nematode-specific indices (i.e., Maturity, Enrichment, Structure, and Basal) were calculated using the NINJA web interface (Sieriebriennikov et al., 2014) available at https://shiny.wur.nl/ninja/. These indices consider known biological, ecological, and functional traits of specific taxa (Neher, 2001), and can provide a complementary analysis to traditional community diversity metrics. Nematode indices are calculated using colonizer-persister (c-p) traits comparable to r-K spectrum and assign a value along a 1 to 5 scale to each nematode (Bongers, 1990; Bongers and Bongers, 1998; Ferris and Bongers, 2009). Nematode species with the shortest generation cycles, highest metabolic rates, and highest fecundity (colonizers) are assigned a c-p value of 1, those with opposite traits (persisters) a c-p of 5, and those with traits in-between these extremes the 2-4 values. Omnivores and Predators are the most p-selected nematodes (comparable to K), and hence highly sensitive to changes in the soil (McSorley, 2012; Du Preez et al., 2022). Bacterivores and Fungivores are generally c-selected (comparable to r), and although both are known to thrive in disturbed soils, it is important to distinguish between the two as a reduction in microbial abundance or richness may only affect one group but not the other. The Maturity Index (MI) is a measure of disturbance that is based on relative abundance and c-p values of all non-parasitic families. Low MI values indicate a community dominated by nematodes that prosper in disturbed soils, while high MI values indicate communities associated with "stable environments" (Bongers, 1990; Ferris and Bongers, 2009). In order to further characterize the structure of nematode communities and potential shifts in ecosystem functioning, the Basal Index (BI), Enrichment Index (EI), and Structure Index (SI) were also calculated (Ferris et al., 2001). The BI is a measure of stressful conditions and highlights the importance of c-p 2 Bacterivores and Fungivores that survive in harsh conditions. The EI provides insights on resource enrichment/availability (i.e., carbon and nutrients) and highlights c-p 1 Bacterivores that thrive under enriched resources. Finally, the SI measures soil food web complexity and places importance on taxa with high c-p values (3-5) that are sensitive to disturbance. For the MI, EI, and SI, higher values are reflective of more mature, structured and hence "healthy" soils while for the BI it is the opposite with higher values correlating with more disturbed soil (Ferris et al., 2001; Du Preez et al., 2022). Therefore, to keep all measures on the same scale, we reversed the BI (100 - BI = RevBI) and hence higher values of all metrics are indicative of healthier soils.

2.5. Statistics and data visualization

All statistics and data manipulation were performed in R Version 3.6.1 (R Core Team, 2020). To examine the responses of different dependent variables (i.e., Richness, Maturity Index, Soil Moisture) to our experimental treatments, we ran separate but identical linear models for each response variable. Herbicide application (0, 2, 4), sampling date as a categorical variable (2018, 2019, 2020, 2021), and their interactions were included as fixed effects in the model. We also included seeding (yes/no) as a fixed effect to account for this aspect of the previously established experiential design. Because the plots were repeatedly sampled, we initially considered including Plot ID as a random effect.

However, during routine exploratory data analysis (Zuur et al., 2009), we encountered issues with the estimation of the random effect variance components for Plot ID that likely resulted in inflating Type II errors due to a small number of sample replicates (Harrison et al., 2018). Therefore, we did not include Plot ID in our model and thus we treated each sampling location independent of other samples taken within the same plot. Independence of sampling locations within plots was further justified by the relatively homogenous experimental area and entire grassland, as well as the distance between sampling locations within plots often larger than between plots (SI Fig. 1). Furthermore, within each treatment plot, composite soil samples were always collected from new locations. Residuals of models were examined via the DHARMa R package (Hartig, 2022).

Due to distinct traits and roles, nematodes of different trophic groups are known to respond differently (i.e., an increase in one trophic group but a decrease in another) to the same habitat change, so responses were tested both with all trophic groups combined and then individually. To test the overall morphological abundance of all nematodes and specific trophic level counts, values were rounded to the nearest whole number, and a general linear mixed model was run using glmmTMB() from the glmmTMB R package with a negative binomial distribution to account for modest overdispersion (Brooks et al., 2017). Relative abundance of taxa at trophic, family, and genus levels using relative read abundance (i.e., where the relative sum of reads per each ASV in every sample equals 1) was run using glmmTMB() with a beta regression (Brooks et al., 2017). To highlight any minor significance masked by low abundance of selected taxa, a binary presence/absence model was run using a base glm function and a binomial distribution. Alpha diversity metrics and nematode-specific indices were tested using the standard base R linear model lm() with the same above factors. For all models, post hoc significance comparing treatments across all sampling dates was assigned using \$contrasts in emeans() from the emmeans R package (Searle et al., 1980). Further post hoc significance was determined using connected letters as generated by Tukey's HSD in the multcomp R package (Hothorn et al., 2008) as specified.

Compositional differences among communities (based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrices) were tested at the ASV level with a permutational analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) using the *adonis()* function in the vegan 2.5.7 R package (Dixon, 2003; Oksanen et al., 2019) with 9999 permutations and factors as described above. Pair-wise post hoc contrasts comparing treatments across all dates were calculated using the *pairwise.adonis2()* function within the pairwiseAdonis R package (Martinez Arbizu, 2022). NMDSs ordinations were used to visualize communities at the ASV level with the *distance* function from the phyloseq R package (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013). We also constructed dbRDAs using the *dbrda()* function in vegan (Dixon, 2003) to illustrate responses of specific genera. Centroids of factors (i.e., HerbcideYear combinations) were plotted along with all significant (non-zero) scores of different genera using *ggplot2*.

To examine potential shifts of interactions among nematodes, cooccurrence networks analysis was performed at the ASV level using a Spearman correlation ($P \leq 0.05$) with the *co_occurrence()* function from the phylosmith R package (Smith, 2019). Separate networks were created to examine the influence of treatment and date. Network parameters such as Degree (number of connections per node), Complexity (connections per number of nodes), and Centralization (centrality) were extracted using the igraph R package (Csardi and Nepusz, 2006). Increased values of these three network metrics are reflective of diminished stability of communities (May, 1973; Fan et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2021). Network parameters of co-occurrence networks were tested using separate linear models for each factor of interest (i.e., treatment or date).

3. Results

3.1. Total and morphological trophic abundance

Total morphological nematode abundance (standardized per 100 g dry soil) was affected by herbicide treatment and sampling date (GLM, P < 0.007), the interaction of herbicide treatment and date (P < 0.01), but not by seeding (P = 0.22, SI Table 2). Comparing dates, nematodes were the most abundant in 2018, followed by a sharp decrease to an equally low 2019 and 2020 before increasing in 2021, but still less abundant than in 2018 (SI Fig. 2). Comparing across all dates, pairwise model comparisons showed that 0 and 5 Roundup application treatments were significantly different (P = 0.008), as were 2 and 5 applications (P = 0.04) (SI Table 2). This trend was mostly driven by the 2018 sampling date, when sampling immediately followed the first herbicide spray, and it was the only sampling date in which the 0 and 2 applications were significantly different (P < 0.05) (SI Fig. 2). In the treatment with 5 applications, reduced nematode abundance was observed in 2018, 2019, and 2020; whereas in the last sampling date of the project (2021), this pattern was reversed.

Bacterivores, Fungivores, and Omnivores/Predators were the three most abundant trophic groups, comprising 73.27% of the total community. Because nematodes from different trophic groups exhibit distinct ecologies, we explored the effects of our experimental factors for each individual group. The abundance of every trophic group varied among sampling dates (GLM P < 0.01), but only Root Associates and Plant Parasites varied among the GBH treatments (P < 0.01), although interaction of date and treatment was also important for all trophic groups (P ≤ 0.05, SI Table 2). Across all dates, herbicide treatment consistently lowered the number of Root Associates, with the 2 and 5 treatments supporting fewer nematodes than the 0 treatment (P < 0.01) and the two treatments being similar to each other (P = 0.97, SI Table 2). The increase in overall abundance in 2021 was driven solely by an increase in Bacterivores, while all other trophic groups were still less abundant in 2021 than in 2018. Seeding did not affect the abundance of any trophic group (P > 0.13) except for a marginal effect on Omnivores/ Predators (P = 0.09).

3.2. Metabarcoding-based community diversity

After filtering for quality, 18S metabarcoding recovered 397 nematode ASVs that represented 10 nematode orders, 40 nematode families, and 70 genera. Despite potential biases in sequencing data due to completeness/correctness of databases and rRNA copy numbers, overall sequencing data patterns were generally similar to the morphology data (SI Fig. 3), highlighting our confidence for the molecular based results discussed henceforth.

The Faith's Phylogenic Diversity of the overall nematode community was affected by GBH treatment (P=0.0584) and date (P<0.01), but not by seeding (P=0.13, SI Table 3A), with reduced diversity observed in treatment plots for the second through third sampling date (SI Fig. 4A). In contrast, the Shannon diversity index was not affected by GBH treatment nor seeding, but was affected by date (P<0.001, LM) with the highest diversity in 2018, intermediate levels in 2019 and 2020, and the lowest diversity in 2021 (Tukey Post Hoc, SI Fig. 4B–SI Table 3A). Overall nematode community Richness (i.e., number of unique ASVs per sample) displayed a similar trend, except that 2019–2020 and 2021 were not significantly different (Tukey Post Hoc, SI Fig. 4C).

Nematodes representative of all trophic groups were found in all samples, except for Plant Parasites, which were low in abundance and absent in $\sim\!25\%$ of sampled soils. A presence/absence model for abundant Plant Parasites (only 1.1% of all reads) showed that neither herbicide nor the interaction of herbicide and date were significant (P > 0.45). Predictably, sampling date affected all diversity metrics of each trophic group (P < 0.02, SI Table 3A). Herbicide treatment (P < 0.05) was significant for the Faith's Phylogenic Diversity of all individual

trophic groups (except Plant Parasites) and declined with increasing applications for most trophic groups (i.e., Fungivores, Omnivores/ Predators, Root Associates), except for Bacterivores (P < 0.01) that instead increased in phylogenic diversity as the herbicide application increased (Fig. 1, SI Table 3A). The effect of GBH treatment on Shannon diversity and Richness varied by trophic group (SI Table 3A). For example, while the Shannon diversity and Richness of Bacterivores, Fungivores, and Root Associates generally declined, that of Omnivores/ Predators and Plant Parasites were unaffected (SI Fig. 5, SI Fig. 6). For trophic groups responding to the herbicide treatment, the double application was enough to impact the diversity across all dates (P < 0.02), and the 2- and 5-application treatments had a similar effect (P > 0.80, SI Table 3B). No diversity metric of any trophic group responded to seeding (SI Table 3A).

3.3. Metabarcoding-based community composition

There were significant effects of GBH treatment and date of sampling (P < 0.001, PERMANOVA) but not seeding (P > 0.11) on the Bray-Curtis composition of the entire nematode community (Fig. 2, SI Table 4A). Despite sampling date explaining more than three times the amount of variation than the GBH treatment (25% vs 8% respectively (SI Table 4A), nematode communities in the 0 and 5 application treatments were consistently the most distinct across all dates (P < 0.01), while the 0–2 and 2–5 comparisons were not (P > 0.10) (SI Table 4B). NDMS ordinations of Bray-Curtis dissimilarity at the ASV showed communities separating by treatments and sampling dates (Fig. 2A) and dbRDA clearly identified groups behind these patterns with omnivore and predatory nematodes associating with lower levels of herbicide, while bacterial-feeding nematodes with higher herbicide levels (Fig. 2B).

In general, composition within all trophic groups showed similar responses to GBH application (PERMANOVA, P < 0.03) and the sampling date (P < 0.001), with no effect of seeding (P > 0.26) (SI Table 4A). The exception to this was Root Associates for which only date (P < 0.01), and Plant Parasites for which only seeding (P = 0.02), date (P = 0.04), and the interaction of herbicide treatment and date were significant (P = 0.01). However, the absence of Plant Parasites in \sim 25% of samples lowered sample size and likely skewed and/or concealed any statistical effect of the herbicide. For trophic groups affected by herbicide applications (SI Fig. 7A-SI Fig. 7C-SI Fig. 7E), the compositions in the 0 and 5 treatments were uniformly different across all dates (P < 0.01, SI Table 4B), but the 2-application herbicide treatment was only uniformly different across all dates for Root Associates (P = 0.08, SI Table 4B). Compositions of individual trophic groups within the 2 and 5 treatments were similar to each other, except for Omnivores/Predators (P = 0.04, SI Table 4B).

Bacterivores, Fungivores, and Omnivores/Predators were the three most relatively abundant trophic groups, comprising on average 92% of the total community composition (Fig. 3A). The relative abundance of every trophic group varied among sampling dates (GLM P < 0.01, with P = 0.08 for Plant Parasites), but only Bacterivores and Omnivores/ Predators varied among the GBH treatments (P = 0.04 and P = 0.07, respectively) (SI Table 5A); however, the pattern was not consistent across the sampling dates (SI Table 5B). For example, while the relative abundance of Bacterivores increased with increasing frequency of Roundup in 2018 and 2021, the inverse was true for 2020 (Fig. 3B). Bacterivores were dominated by nematodes from the c-p 2 families of Cephalobidae and Plectidae (Fig. 3B). These two specific families showed consistently higher relative abundance in the most intensive Roundup treatment across all dates (P < 0.01) compared to the 0-application treatment, and to a lesser extent in the 5 compared to the 2 applications (P < 0.06). Plectidae was dominated by <code>Plectus</code> (68% of reads) showing a positive response to the herbicide treatment (P = 0.04), followed by genera identified as Ceratoplectus and Tylocephalus that had no response to the herbicide (P > 0.46). Cephalobidae was the most diverse bacterivore family and was dominated by Acrobeloides and Cephalobus

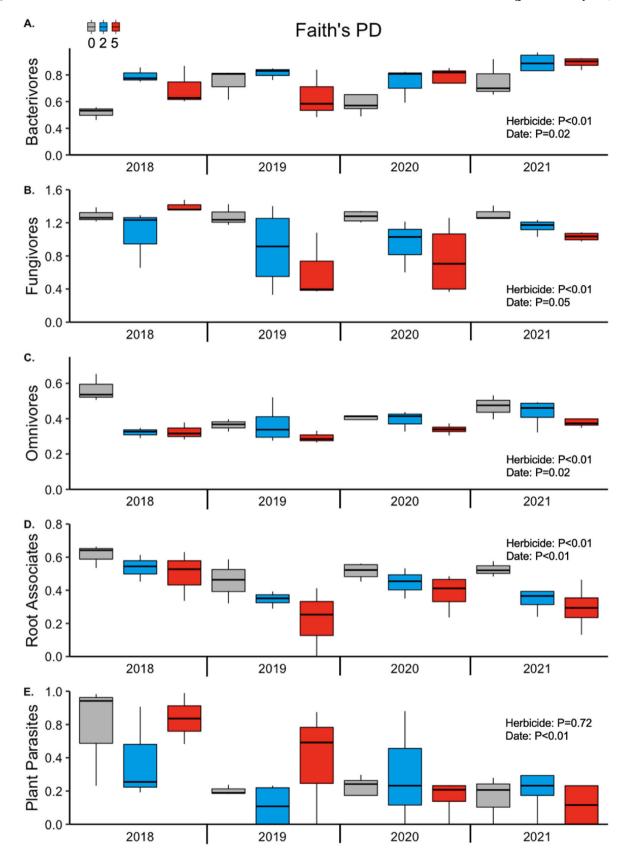


Fig. 1. Boxplots of Faith's Phylogenetic Diversity of specific nematode trophic groups generated from sequencing data: A. Bacterivores, B. Omnivores/Predators, C. Fungivores, D. Root Associates, and E. Plant Parasites from a four-year study of a grassland restoration project testing responses to Roundup ProMAX® application frequency (0, 2, and 5) across four sampling dates (June 2018, August 2019, June 2020, and October 2021). Diversity metrics were calculated with Hill numbers at the ASV level. P values represent effects of herbicide treatment and sampling date tested with GLM. In 2018, both "2" and "5" treatments received only a single herbicide application.

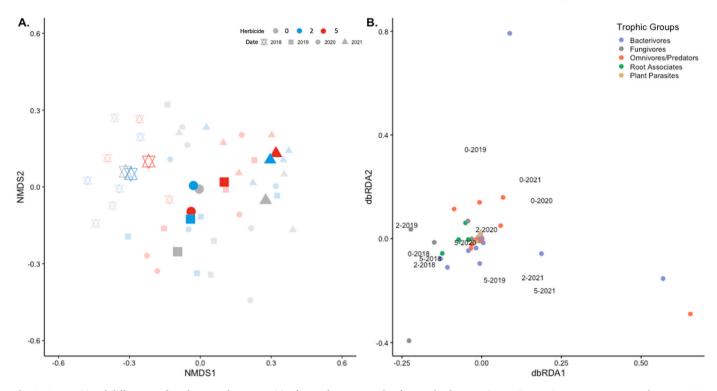


Fig. 2. Compositional differences of total nematode communities from a four-year study of a grassland restoration project testing responses to Roundup ProMAX® application frequency (0, 2, and 5) across four sampling dates (June 2018, August 2019, June 2020, and October 2021). A. Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix performed at the ASV level and visualized using NMDS. Faded points show each individual community, and solid-colored points show centroids of each herbicide/date combination. Despite sampling date explaining the most variation, herbicide treatment was also consistently significant (P < 0.01 PERMANOVA). B. Distance-based redundancy analysis (dbRDA) performed at the genus level. Dots show nematode taxa, and text labels show centroids of each herbicide/date combination. Site scores are not plotted.

(55% and 32% of reads, respectively), but only the former increased in response to the herbicide (P=0.04), while the latter did not (P=0.25). The remaining genera of Cephalobidae (i.e., *Acrobeles, Heterocephalobus, Eucephalobus, Cervidellus, Chiloplacus*, and *Pseudacrobeles*) did not respond to herbicide treatment either (P>0.48). Examining a dissimilarity matrix using a constrained ordination (dbRDA), Bacterivore genera further showed independent responses to treatments, with *Ceratoplectus* associated with high herbicide levels, and *Cephalobus* and *Chiloplacus* associated with different treatments even though both are in the same Cephalobidae family (SI Fig. 7B).

Fungivores (Fig. 3C) were by far dominated by the c-p 2 family Aphelenchidae (i.e., Ditylenchus and Paraphelenchus), with the relative abundance affected by the herbicide (P < 0.02) such that it doubled in high treatment plots compared to the control. Tylencholaimidae (i.e., *Tylencholaimus*) was also affected by the herbicide (P < 0.001) but as the sole c-p 4 fungivore, it decreased in treated plots (three times higher in control compared to the 5 treatment). Furthermore, dbRDAs showed that genera like Dorylaimellus and Aphelenchus greatly varied in their response to herbicide (SI Fig. 7D). Among Omnivores/Predators, Dorylaimidae dominated, followed by Nygolaimidae (Fig. 3D) and both were significantly affected by the herbicide (P < 0.03) but with contradictory responses. While the relative abundance of c-p 4 Dorylaimidae (represented by Mesodorylaimus and Opisthodorylaimus) increased in treated plots, that of c-p 5 Nygolaimidae declined. The third most abundant Omnivore/Predator family, Qudsianematidae (c-p 4) was not affected by herbicide treatment (P = 0.50). dbRDA ordinations clearly confirmed these patterns for all genera except Allorylaimus (SI Fig. 7F). Root Associated nematodes belonging to the single c-p 2 family Tylenchidae (Fig. 3E) were dominated by the relative abundance of Filenchus and Neopsilenchus (21% and 20% of Tylenchidae reads, respectively). Although the overall relative abundance of Root Associates was not affected by herbicide (P = 0.33, SI Table 5), that of Filenchus was (P = 0.07), which doubled in control samples compared to the highest treatment across all dates (P = 0.02). Plant Parasites were dominated by Dolichodoridae (i.e., *Tylenchorhynchus*), and Pratylenchidae (i.e., *Pratylenchus* and *Hirschmanniella*) (Fig. 3F). The relative abundance of these families and genera was not affected by herbicide (P > 0.56) or the interaction of date and herbicide (P > 0.48).

3.4. Metabarcoding-based nematode-specific indices

The Maturity Index (MI), which accounts for the free-living component of the nematode community, was affected by the herbicide treatment (P = 0.07) and seeding (P < 0.01), but not by sampling date (P = 0.35, Fig. 4A, SI Table 6A). Overall, the MI tended to be lower in treatments receiving the herbicide, but this trend was not significant in 2019 and 2020. All other indices were also significantly impacted by the herbicide treatment (P < 0.02) and not by sampling date (P > 0.14) with consistently lower values in treatments receiving herbicides in all dates and the largest difference between 0 and 5 applications (Fig. 4B–D, SI Table 6B).

3.5. Metabarcoding-based Co-occurrence networks

Network parameters from co-occurrence network analysis of communities such as the Degree (i.e., connectiveness) and Complexity (i.e., linkage density) were significantly affected by herbicide treatment (P < 0.01) but were not important in a separate model of sampling date (P > 0.29). Overall, both Degree and Complexity indicated that increased herbicide applications decreased the stability of nematode communities (SI Fig. 8A and B). The Centralization of each network was also higher in the 5- and 2-application treatment networks compared to the control, further indicating diminished stability in those communities (SI Fig. 8C).

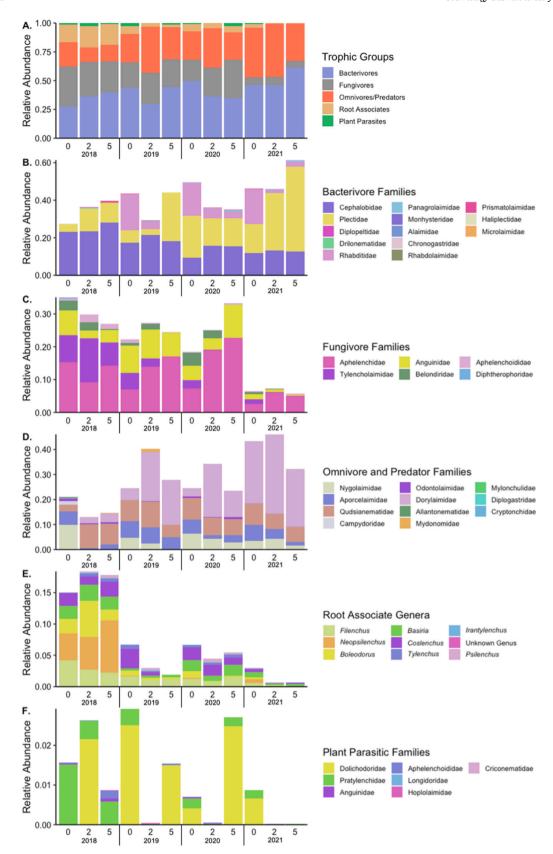


Fig. 3. Average relative read abundance of nematode communities from a four-year study of a grassland restoration project testing responses to Roundup ProMAX® application frequency (0, 2, and 5) across four sampling dates (June 2018, August 2019, June 2020, and October 2021). A. All trophic groups, B. Bacterivore families, C. Fungivore families, D. Omnivore/Predator families, E. Root Associate genera, and F. Plant Parasitic families. The relative abundance of each trophic group was affected by sampling date (P < 0.01, GLM), but only of bacterivores and omnivores/predators for herbicide application frequency treatment (P = 0.01, CLM) and (P = 0.01, CLM) respectively).

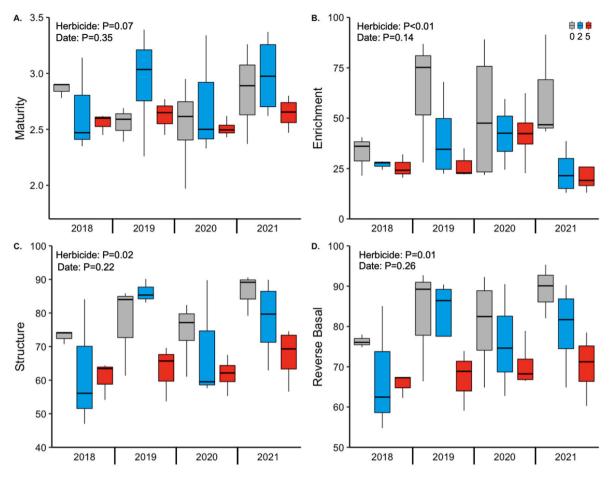


Fig. 4. Boxplots of nematode-specific community indices generated from sequencing data in response to Roundup ProMAX® application frequency (0, 2, and 5) across four sampling dates (June 2018, August 2019, June 2020, and October 2021). A. Maturity, B. Enrichment, C. Structure, and D. Reverse Basal. Higher values of all indices are reflective of nematode communities that are associated with healthier soils. Herbicide was important for all metrics (P < 0.07), but sampling date did not impact any indices (P > 0.14), showing that the nematode communities of the other indices remained degraded four years post herbicide application.

3.6. Soil moisture

The amount of moisture in sampled soils was not significant for herbicide application (P = 0.99), sampling date (P = 0.66), seeding (P = 0.99), nor the interaction of herbicide and date (P = 0.99).

4. Discussion

Grasslands are the predominant biome of the global biosphere (26% of total land cover) (Jung et al., 2020), and provide many important ecosystem services such as water purification and climate regulation (Zhao et al., 2020). Unfortunately, grasslands are among the most endangered ecosystems with over 50% converted to agriculture in the last 300 years (Boakes et al., 2010), and the other 50% often altered by invasive species. Both converted and invaded grasslands can be considered "degraded" since there is a measurable decrease in their productivity and overall functioning (Tilman et al., 1996, 2006; Prieto et al., 2015). To combat invasive species, different methods of restoration, including herbicide sprays with subsequent native plant seeding have been widely implemented. To examine the potential off-target effects of herbicide-based grassland restoration, we examined nematode communities in an ecosystem currently dominated by the invasive Bromus inermis grass but undergoing restoration efforts with a GBH. Previous examination within these plots found treatment-dependent impacts on archaeal, bacterial, and fungal communities (Bueno de Mesquita et al., 2023); here we build on that work by characterizing soil nematodes, another important component of the soil community but

positioned at higher levels of the soil food web. As hypothesized, measurable GBH-driven shifts in nematode abundance, diversity, composition, and potential interactions were observed within this restoration project, showing that the effects of GBH can apply to organisms across a wide spectrum of sizes, trophic levels, and functions. These shifts were particularly evident in nematode-specific indices that taken together suggest the lack of overall nematode community recovery within the four year sampling time of this study.

We consistently observed the lowest morphological abundance and nematode diversity for most trophic groups in plots receiving the highest rates of herbicides. These negative effects were not only driven by nematodes most closely associated with plants (Plant Parasitic and Root Associated nematodes) but also by taxa at secondary and tertiary trophic levels (i.e., Fungivores, Omnivores/Predators) highlighting that the effects of GBH expand beyond plants and apply to a wide spectrum of soil biota. As hypothesized, GBH negatively affected diversity of Fungivores and even more so of Root Associates across all sampling dates. Although Root Associated nematodes may facultatively feed on roots (especially root hairs), they most likely feed on rhizosphere fungi (Yeates et al., 1993; Treonis, 2017). Persistent GBH-induced negative effects on nematodes in these two trophic groups suggests that the initial reduced mycorrhizal fungi colonization observed in the first 12-months post herbicide treatments (Bueno de Mesquita et al., 2023) likely continued into our 4th sampling date in the fourth year, preventing a concurrent recovery of nematodes feeding on them. Additionally, similar negative effects of diversity were observed for Omnivores/Predators, indicating that herbicide off-target effects hold the potential to affect nematodes of all functional groups and life strategies and likely other microinvertebrates.

In contrast to these drastic negative reductions of diversity, Bacterivores were also affected by GBH treatments, but these effects were generally positive rather than negative. In fact, Bacterivores were more diverse (e.g., Faiths PD, Shannon's) and increased in Richness and morphological abundance (especially during the 4th sampling date) in GBH treatment plots compared to controls. Higher numbers of Bacterivore nematodes can be reflective of increased bacterial diversity and abundance (Jiang et al., 2017), and although Bueno de Mesquita et al. (2023) found decreases in Faith's phylogenic diversity of bacteria, richness was not significantly affected. This could indicate that more distinct nematode Bacterivores were able to feed on different types of bacteria possibly capable of utilizing GBH and its breakdown residues.

In addition to altered morphological abundance and/or alpha diversity, GBH treatment consistently affected the composition and structure of all trophic groups and consequently of the entire nematode community. Correspondingly, the composition of trophic groups significantly responded to the herbicide treatment, and the strongest effects were observed for Fungivore and Omnivore/Predator nematodes, albeit with a large sampling date to sampling date variation for all groups. Temporal variation is common in nematode communities (Girgan et al., 2020; Liang et al., 2020; McQueen and Treonis, 2020; Bristol et al., 2023) and in our study one specific source could be linked to sampling during different months (i.e. June in 2018, August in 2019, or October in 2021). Despite these seasonal differences, the effects of herbicide were consistently evident. These herbicide-driven effects were further defined by examining the relative abundance of specific taxa, but responses of individual genera were not uniform, and instead unique to each taxon. For example, the changes in the relative abundance of Bacterivore nematodes were driven solely by increases in abundance of the c-p 2 Cephalobus in the Cephalobidae family, with no response from other genera or other families in this trophic group. Unfortunately, besides rudimentary feeding preference studies (Salinas et al., 2007), little is known about the specific behaviors or ecology of this genus. Likewise, although herbicide treatment did not affect the relative abundance of all Fungivores combined, increasing herbicide applications drastically increased the c-p 2 Aphelenchidae, while the c-p 4 Tylencholaimidae decreased. These patterns, although consistent with the current understanding of nematode life strategy traits (i.e., nematodes with c-p 2 values survive and flourish in disturbed systems), a closer examination at the genus/ASV level indicated departures from these broad generalizations. For example, out of nine genera in Cephalobidae, only one responded as expected. Likewise, omnivores are typically considered sensitive to disturbance (McSorley, 2012) and although Nygolaimidae declined in herbicide treatment as expected, Dorylaimidae increased. These ASV-specific differences were further illustrated with dbRDAs, in which phylogenetically close nematode genera within the same family ordinated far from each other. Nematode c-p values reflect family-level generalizations (Du Preez et al., 2022), but our data suggests that nematode ecologies of even closely related taxa (i.e., genera) may not be as conserved as previously assumed and should be re-examined at finer taxonomic resolution.

In line with the shifts of diversity and composition, co-occurrence network parameters increased as the herbicide application frequency increased, suggesting diminished stability of communities (May, 1973; Fan et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2021) likely via altered interactions among nematode taxa. Furthermore, there was little or no influence of sampling date on the metrics, suggesting that recovery of these interactions after the initial herbicide perturbation was not occurring. Although little is known about nematode-to-nematode interactions, they are a part of functioning communities and should be studied in more detail.

Given the GBH-driven shifts in abundance, diversity, and community composition, shifts in nematode-specific indices were particularly evident. As hypothesized, indices were negatively impacted by the GBH applications in a dose dependent manner. First, the Enrichment Index

reflective of opportunistic to nutrient enrichment c-p 1-2 Bacterivores and Fungivores (e.g., Rhabditidae) showed very clear trends indicating decreased availability of nutrients and carbon in herbicide treated soils likely due to lower plant cover (Gruzdeva and Sushchuk, 2010). In addition, the representing contribution of c-p 2 Bacterivores and Fungivores showed lowered values (equivalent to higher in the non-transformed Basal Index) in herbicide-treated plots indicated more stressful soil conditions and more damaged due to perturbation soil food webs. Predictably, stress tolerant "basal" taxa including Cephalobus, Plectus, and Aphelenchus established their dominance over other taxa. The Structure Index encompassing c-p 3-5 nematodes of all trophic groups decreased in GBH plots again confirming decreased nematode community structure and likely decreased total belowground food web complexity. Finally, the Maturity Index accounting for all free-living nematodes and showed lower values in GBH plots suggesting more immature, less healthy soils than controls (Bongers, 1990). Most importantly, the negative effects of GBH on all nematode-specific indices were statistically independent of sampling date. Since nematode indices incorporate physiological and ecological traits of nematode taxa (Neher, 2001), this suggests that while the composition and abundance fluctuated from sampling date to sampling date, the functional roles of taxa remained unaffected, highlighting a lack of recovery of the nematode community. This provides evidence for rejection or our hypothesis about diminished GBH effects through time, as we did not observe any indication of nematode community recovery in the four years sampled, which may prevent or delay any future recovery of the entire belowground ecosystem.

Altogether, the observed shifts in nematode communities that were congruent across all of our analyses may indicate a decrease in the overall belowground food web functioning, since nematodes are important to soil nutrient cycling and decomposition (Bardgett et al., 1999; Ferris, 2010; Gebremikael et al., 2016; Schratzberger et al., 2019). Decreases of nematode diversity have been linked to decreases in soil functioning of grasslands (Ekschmitt et al., 2001). Because these grasslands are already degraded, confounding impacts of GBH on top of the invasive plants may severely limit the belowground community's ability to ever recover.

Although we are unable to directly differentiate between direct and indirect impacts of GBH, we can postulate that both may be occurring in natural ecosystems. In lab studies, direct negative effects of GBH (e.g., lower mitochondrial functioning, decreased reproductive rates) have consistently been observed on the C. elegans (Ruan et al., 2009; Bailey et al., 2018; Jacques et al., 2019), a commonly studied bacterivore nematode that likely shares many physiological pathways with all nematodes. In our study the effects of the GBH differed among and within trophic groups, with individual taxa varying in response. Since direct effects would most likely impair all nematodes equally, these trophic group and taxon-specific responses indicate that the indirect GBH driven effects on plant cover, soil chemistry, food source availability, and/or other factors are more influential than direct effects. Indeed, changing abiotic soil factors in our experimental plots, including increases in soil nitrate and decreases in pH, calcium and cation exchange capacity were observed (Bueno de Mesquita et al., 2023). Many abiotic factors (e.g., pH, soil moisture, organic matter) are known to play a major role in nematode community assembly (Vandegehuchte et al., 2015; Treonis et al., 2019; Nisa et al., 2021; Gattoni et al., 2022). Although soil moisture, the only abiotic factor we measured throughout the 4 years of sampling, was independent of examined nematode variables, impacts via shifts in pH and nitrate could be more important. Unfortunately, our biogeochemistry data spanned only the first sampling date of the project, limiting more concrete insights. However, similar soil effects, but in a different context (nitrogen deposition), have been shown to remain for many years (Bowman et al., 2018). Other indirect impacts could be via the soil microbial (e.g., archaeal, bacterial and fungal) communities that greatly changed in response to GBH applications (Bueno de Mesquita et al., 2023), and most likely explain

increased populations of certain bacterivorous nematodes (i.e., *Cephalobus*). Another likely impact could be via plant communities, directly affected by the herbicide, substantially lagging behind with the recovery process in the first four years of the study despite seeding with the native plants (personal communication). For the long term goals of grassland restoration to be successful, terrestrial nematode, archaeal, bacterial, fungal, and protist communities are all important for the health of the belowground soil ecosystem and are needed for the disturbed grassland community (including plants) to fully recover (Bardgett and van der Putten, 2014; Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2020). In addition, nematode communities can act as sentinel components of soil biodiversity before any effects to the above ground community are detected.

In conclusion, persistent negative effects on nematode community diversity and composition were evident across all four years of sampling after exposure to a glyphosate-based herbicide (i,e., Roundup ProMax®) restoration project, suggesting that this time span is insufficient for belowground ecosystem recovery. These negative effects on the nematode communities were reflected in the reduced values of nematode-specific ecological indices to suggest that a glyphosate-based herbicide restoration project creates less healthy soils compared to control plots. Regardless of the mechanism, we report quantifiable harm that this grassland management practice is causing to the soil food-web in this natural system, which needs to be considered when evaluating best practices for future restoration projects.

Research data

Raw reads are available at the NCBI Sequence Read Archive with the project ID PRJNA867499. Code for the full bioinformatic pipeline, figure creation, and statistics is publicly available at https://github.com/WormsEtAl.glyphosate-restoration. and https://github.com/WormsEtAl/glyphosate-restoration.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

J. Parr McQueen: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. Eli M.S. Gendron: Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. Adam J. Solon: Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. Clifton P. Bueno de Mesquita: Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. Rebecca A. Hufft: Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. Nancy Shackelford: Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. Katharine N. Suding: Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. Steven K. Schmidt: Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. Dorota L. Porazinska: Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Reads used for this manuscript have been uploaded to NCBI SRA.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2024.109350.

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