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**Species choice and spatial arrangement in soybean-based intercropping: levers that drive the delivery of multiple services.**

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**Highlights**

- The species intercropped with soybean affected soybean production and weed control
- The higher the soybean production was, the more weeds developed
- The spatial arrangement only affected soybean production, not weed control
- The spatial arrangement altered the trade-off between these services for some species

**Abstract**

The introduction of new crops into cropping systems is confronted with many barriers. For soybean, the main barriers are weed infestations and yield variability. With the proposition of using intercropping to overcome these barriers in soybean, this study explored the effects of combinations of different second-crop species and spatial arrangements on the delivery of multiple services. In a two-year field experiment in western France, soybean was intercropped with buckwheat, lentil, sorghum and sunflower in two spatial arrangements, within-row intercropping and alternate-row intercropping, to investigate their effects on weed control and soybean production services. The results showed that the highest soybean production occurred in the intercropping with lentil, followed by sorghum and sunflower, and finally buckwheat, but this effect varied by year. The opposite

28 species order was obtained for the weed control service, revealing a trade-off between the soybean  
29 production and weed control services. Nonetheless, alternate-row intercropping helped to increase  
30 soybean production without compromising weed control for some species.

31 Thus, combining these two intercropping management options is a promising way to achieve multiple  
32 service delivery from intercropping and to ease the introduction of soybean into cropping systems.

33 **Key words:**

34 Intercropping

35 Cropping systems diversification

36 Multiple services

37 Soybean

38 Spatial pattern

39 **Introduction**

40 The diversification of cropping systems is presented as one solution for reducing the environmental  
41 impacts of crop production, handling the withdrawal of chemical control solutions from the market,  
42 and stabilizing crop production through the prevention of yield decline (Bennett et al., 2012; Isbell et  
43 al., 2017; Kremen and Miles, 2012). Nonetheless, the diversification of cropping systems may be  
44 complicated by the many lock-ins in agrifood systems (Magrini et al., 2016). At the farm scale, farmers  
45 might not be inclined to try “diversification crops” due to the risks of failure, yield variability over the  
46 years, or the lack of technical advice and/or chemical solutions for weed, pest and disease control  
47 (Meynard et al., 2018).

48 Legumes are well known for their potential positive impact on crop rotations and their improvement  
49 of cropping system sustainability (Nemecek et al., 2008). Soybean, producing protein-rich grain, is still  
50 rarely cultivated in France (about 154 000 ha in 2018; Agreste, 2020). However, the development of  
51 early cultivars, the global increase in temperatures (Moriondo et al., 2010) and a favourable market  
52 for locally produced protein crops (Martin, 2015) are opportunities to increase its production area,  
53 even in regions where it has not been cultivated in the past. However, soybean has been shown to

54 have the second most variable yield among the major legume crops of Western Europe (Cernay et al.,  
55 2015). In addition, weed competition is the main biotic source of soybean yield losses at the global  
56 scale, before pathogens, animal pests and viruses (Oerke, 2006). Carkner and Entz (2017) attributed  
57 part of the high yield variability of soybean to the variable weed density in organic soybean cultivation.  
58 As a consequence, solutions to reduce yield variability, weed pressure and other risks linked to the  
59 introduction of soybean into cropping systems should be investigated.

60 We propose to use intercropping (IC) - the growing of two or more crops in the same field for a  
61 significant part of their life cycles (Willey, 1979) - as a facilitator of cropping system diversification.  
62 Indeed, the reduction of pest, weed and disease pressures through IC (Boudreau, 2013; Liebman and  
63 Dyck, 1993; Trenbath, 1993) could compensate for the low competitive ability or low tolerance of a  
64 diversification crop and address the lack of technical or chemical solutions. Moreover, the higher  
65 resilience of IC to biotic and abiotic stresses (Lithourgidis et al., 2011; Malézieux et al., 2009) and the  
66 higher yield stability (Raseduzzaman and Jensen, 2017) could mitigate the risk of crop failure. In our  
67 study, soybean was the diversification crop used to produce grains with high protein content. The  
68 “facilitator crop”, to be intercropped with soybean, was expected to help with weed control and was  
69 also harvested to increase productivity and provide harvest insurance.

70 The choice of the facilitator crop is expected to influence the level of competition between species –  
71 crop-crop and crop-weeds – and, as a consequence, change the service outcome. Few studies have  
72 studied soybean intercropped with several species (e.g.: Echarte et al., 2011; Pal et al., 1993), and none  
73 of the studies was located in Europe. In addition to the choice of intercropped species, different  
74 management options can influence the competition between component crops and affect the  
75 outcome of the intercropping. Some of these options have been extensively studied, including through  
76 meta-analysis for cereal-legume intercropping and, in a few cases, for soybean-based intercropping:  
77 relative density and relative sowing time (Echarte et al., 2011; Yang et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2015) and  
78 fertilization (Gomez and Gurevitch, 1998; Pelzer et al., 2014). However, few studies have explored the  
79 effect of spatial arrangement, and no consensus can be drawn from the available literature concerning

80 the effects on productivity. Kermah et al. (2017) found that both maize and legume grain yields were  
 81 generally higher in within-row intercropping than in alternate-row intercropping. In a faba bean-barley  
 82 mixture, barley yield was not affected by the spatial arrangement (SA), while the faba bean yield was  
 83 higher in alternate-row than in within-row intercropping, resulting in a productive advantage for  
 84 alternate-row (Martin and Snaydon, 1982). Finally, in pea-barley intercropping, no spatial arrangement  
 85 effect was detected in the yield of either crop (Chapagain and Riseman, 2014). However, given the  
 86 diversity of crops used in these studies and the lack of a general effect of spatial arrangement, we  
 87 argue that there could be an interaction effect from spatial arrangement and species on both  
 88 production and weed suppression.

89 The study of the relationships among several services and the effects of different management options  
 90 should provide more insight into combining several agronomic practices to improve the delivery of  
 91 multiple services.

92 The objective of this work was to explore the delivery of services (production and weed control)  
 93 expected from soybean-based intercropping as affected by species choice, spatial arrangement and  
 94 their combination through field experiments carried out in western France in 2018 and 2019.

## 95 **Materials & Methods**

### 96 **2.1 Site and soil**

97 The experiments were carried out in 2018 and 2019 in Brain-sur-l'Authion, France (47°28'N, 0°23'W).

98 Over ten years (2008 to 2017), the mean annual rainfall was 660 mm on the experimental site, and the  
 99 mean annual air temperature was 12°C.

**Table 1: Air temperature, cumulative rainfall and irrigation for the 2018 and 2019 cropping seasons and 10-year averages recorded in Brain-sur-l'Authion, France (47°28'N, 0°23'W).**

	Average temperature (°C)			Cumulative rainfall (mm)			Irrigation (mm)	
	2008-2017	2018	2019	2008-2017	2018	2019	2018	2019
May 16th - May 31st	15.2	17.7	15.3	37.2	63.0	7.0		30
June 1st - June 15th	17.2	18.5	15.6	26.4	86.6	57.4		
June 16th - June 30th	18.7	20.4	22.5	22.2	1.0	2.8	20	
July 1st - July 15th	19.5	22.1	22.0	18.3	79.2	0,0	26	30
July 16th - July 31st	19.9	22.0	22.2	24.6	10.4	18.2	55	30
August 1st - August 15th	19.1	21.8	19.8	23.4	23.6	13.2	20	
August 16th - August 31st	19.2	19.3	20.0	28.4	23.0	23.8		24
September 1st - September 15th	17.1	18.1	16.5	24.0	0.4	11.0		
September 16th - September 30th	15.1	16.1	17.3	18.4	5.4	31.8		

100 The air temperature, rainfall and irrigation recorded during the time of the experiments are shown in  
101 Table 1, averaged over 15-day periods. In 2018, the second half of May and June were particularly  
102 humid and warm compared to the normal. In 2019, late May and early June were cooler than in 2018,  
103 and the early June average temperature was below normal. In both years, July was warmer than the  
104 10-year average.

105 The soil was at least 90 cm deep. The topsoil (0-30 cm) of the field used in 2018 was a sandy loam with  
106 7.7% clay, 18.3% silt, 24.9% fine sand and 49.1% coarse sand. The organic matter content was 1.2%,  
107 and the pH of the soil in water was 7.3. In 2019, the soil texture was also sandy loam, with 16.9% clay,  
108 21.5% silt, 24% fine sand and 37.6% coarse sand. There was 1.9% organic matter, and the pH of the  
109 soil in water was 7.9. In both years, P, K and Mg were present in sufficient quantities in the soil. The  
110 preceding crop was a winter cereal-legume intercrop in 2018 and wheat in 2019. In both fields, a  
111 mustard-fava bean cover crop was sown in July after the harvest of the preceding crop and  
112 mechanically destroyed in March before soil preparation.

## 113 **2.2 Experimental setup**

114 Soybean (*Glycine max* (L.) Merr.) cv. Sirelia, from maturity group 000 with an indeterminate growth  
115 habit, was chosen to be intercropped with four crops. The four crops were selected from different  
116 families for their differences in morphology and growth habit in order to obtain different levels of  
117 competition. The ability to complete their cropping cycle at the same time as soybean was also a major  
118 criterion for cultivar choice. These crops were buckwheat (*Fagopyrum esculentum* Moench cv. Harpe),  
119 lentil (*Lens culinaris* Medik. cv. Rosana), sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor* (L.) Moench cv. RGT Iggloo) and  
120 sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L. cv. SY Valeo). These four crops will hereafter be referred to as  
121 “second-crops”.

122 All five crops were grown as sole crops (SC), and soybean was intercropped with each of the four  
123 second-crops in two spatial arrangements: mixed within-row (WR), with both crops mixed within the  
124 same row, and in alternate-row (AR), with each crop being sown in every other row. The intercropping

125 systems were designed following the replacement principle, with 50% of the sole soybean crop density  
126 replaced with 50% of the sole second-crop density.

127 The seeding rates for the sole crops were based on the densities recommended to farmers locally. The  
128 sole crop seeding densities were 68, 168, 350, 42 and 7.2 seeds per square metre for soybean,  
129 buckwheat, lentil, sorghum and sunflower, respectively. The soybean seeds were inoculated with  
130 *Bradyrhizobium japonicum* (strain G49; Force 48, Euralis Semences), while the lentil seeds were not  
131 inoculated because their inoculant was present in the soil. A bare-soil treatment was also performed  
132 to evaluate weed potential. The 14 treatments were sown on May 16<sup>th</sup> in 2018 and May 15<sup>th</sup> in 2019  
133 in a randomized complete block design with 4 replicates in each year. The plots were 18.0 m long by  
134 1.44 m, with four rows sown 36 cm apart. A north-south row orientation was maintained for both  
135 years. The crops were managed without fertilizers, pesticides or fungicides, except for the pesticides  
136 present on sunflower and sorghum seeds. Weeds were left to grow from the beginning of the  
137 experiment without any chemical or mechanical control. Irrigation was provided as needed (Table 1).

### 138 **2.3 Sampling and analysis**

139 Crop and weed samples were taken in every plot at soybean flowering (R1; Fehr and Caviness, 1977)  
140 and soybean maturity (R8) from the two central rows and from inter-rows over one metre long (1 m x  
141 0.72 m). In 2018, R1 occurred on July 4<sup>th</sup>, and R8 occurred on September 19<sup>th</sup>. In 2019, R1 occurred on  
142 July 8<sup>th</sup>, and R8 occurred on September 25<sup>th</sup>. All samples were dried at 70°C for 48 hours before  
143 weighing. Crop samples from sampling at soybean maturity were threshed using a stationary thresher  
144 (Type 350C-S.R.C. sas, Mayet, France) before drying. The soybean grain samples were ground down to  
145 120 µm (universal cutting mill “Pulverisette 19”; variable-speed rotor mill “Pulverisette 14”–Fritsch,  
146 Idar-Oberstein, Germany) and then analysed through isotope ratio mass spectrometry for their total  
147 N content.

### 148 **2.4 Calculations and statistical analysis**

149 The soybean seed protein content was calculated by multiplying the soybean grain nitrogen content  
150 by 5.5, a conversion factor suggested by Mariotti et al. (2008).

151 To compare the services obtained from intercropping to those obtained from the sole soybean crop,  
152 two ratios were calculated: the soybean yield in a given intercrop divided by the yield of soybean in  
153 the sole crop and the weed biomass at harvest in a given intercrop divided by the weed biomass at  
154 harvest in the soybean sole crop. The productivity of the second-crop in the intercrop was assessed  
155 through the ratio of its yield in a given intercrop to its yield in the corresponding sole crop. These  
156 indices were calculated from the estimates obtained after fitting the appropriate linear mixed model  
157 as suggested by Jensen et al. (2020).

158 Statistical analysis was performed separately for each year using linear mixed models with the lme4  
159 package in R software (Bates et al., 2015; R Core Team, 2019). The models had the form  $Y \sim \text{Species} * \text{Spatial}$   
160  $\text{Arrangement} + (1 | \text{Block})$  (lme4 syntax), with Y as the response variable, “Species” and “Spatial  
161 arrangement”, the explanatory variables, as fixed factors and “Block” as the random factor. ANOVA  
162 was performed on the fixed part of the model to determine the significance of each factor and their  
163 interactions. When not significant ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) or nearly significant ( $\alpha = 0.1$ ), the interaction was  
164 withdrawn from the model, and the model was refitted accordingly. To deal with the few missing data  
165 points, Type II sum of squares was used for the ANOVA (Langsrud, 2003).

166 To check the model assumptions, the residuals were tested for normality with the Shapiro test ( $\alpha =$   
167  $0.05$ ) and for homoscedasticity through the Bartlett test ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ). When the assumptions were not  
168 met, transformation using the Box-Cox procedure was performed (Box and Cox, 1964). Post hoc  
169 analysis was performed with Tukey’s HSD.

170 Linear mixed models were used to assess the relationships between biomass variables. They had the  
171 form  $Y \sim X + (1 | \text{Block})$  (lme4 syntax), and the relation was tested for Y and  $\log(Y)$ . They were calculated  
172 using the individual values of all treatments considered (i.e., not using the averaged values) and within  
173 each year. For each regression, only the data from intercropping treatments were considered, except  
174 for the relationship between the final weed biomass and the crop biomass, for which the soybean sole  
175 crop was included. The residuals were inspected to assess the normality and heteroscedasticity of their  
176 distribution. The marginal  $R^2$  of the model, representing the variance explained by the fixed part of the

177 model, was calculated using the r.squaredGLMM function based on Nakagawa et al. (2017). The model  
178 with the highest marginal  $R^2$  was selected.

## 179 Results

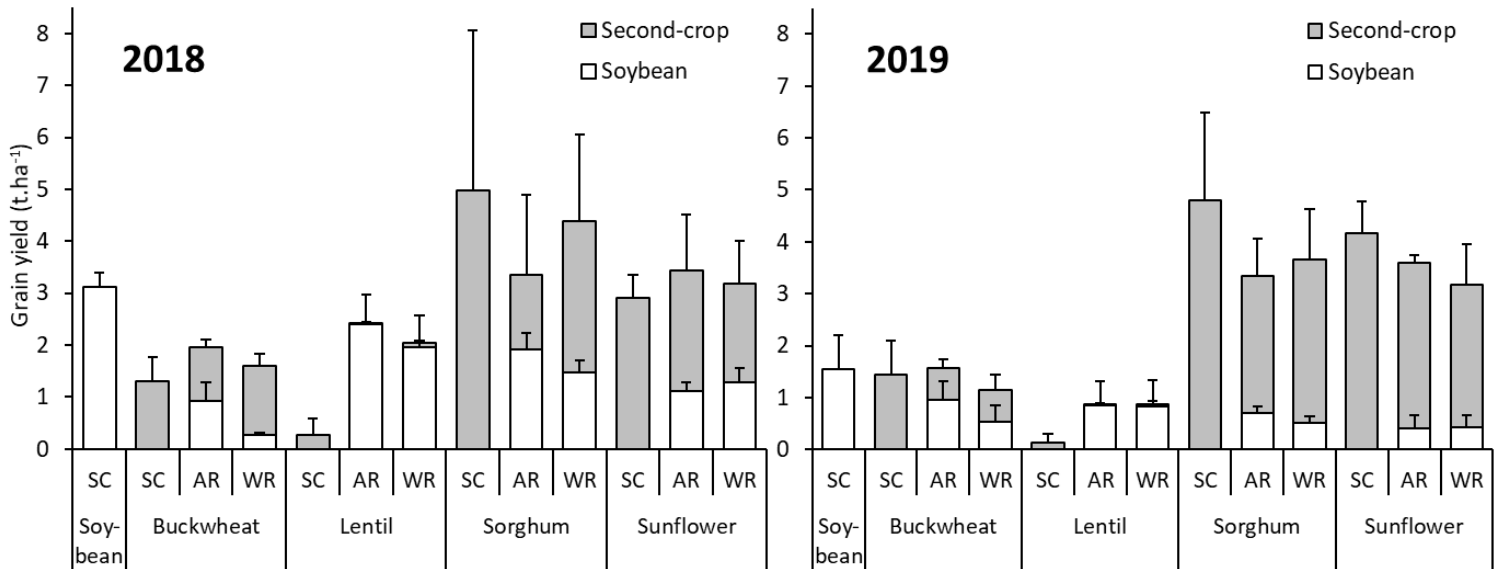


Figure 1: Grain yields of soybean, buckwheat, lentil, sorghum and sunflower in sole crops (SC) and intercropping in two spatial arrangements: alternate-row intercropping (AR) and within-row intercropping (WR). Error bars represent the standard deviation.

### 180 3.1 Soybean productivity

181 The soybean sole crop yielded 3.12 t.ha<sup>-1</sup> in 2018 and 1.56 t.ha<sup>-1</sup> in 2019 (Figure 1). In the intercropping  
182 treatments, the soybean yield ranged from 0.26 to 2.40 t.ha<sup>-1</sup> in 2018 and from 0.40 to 0.95 t.ha<sup>-1</sup> in  
183 2019. The choice of the second-crop species significantly affected soybean yield in both years (Table  
184 2). Soybean yield was the highest with lentils in both years and the lowest with buckwheat in 2018 and  
185 sunflower in 2019. Spatial arrangement also had an effect on soybean yield, but this effect was  
186 significant only in 2018 (Table 2). Alternate-row intercropping increased soybean yield on average by  
187 31% compared to that in within-row intercropping in 2018.

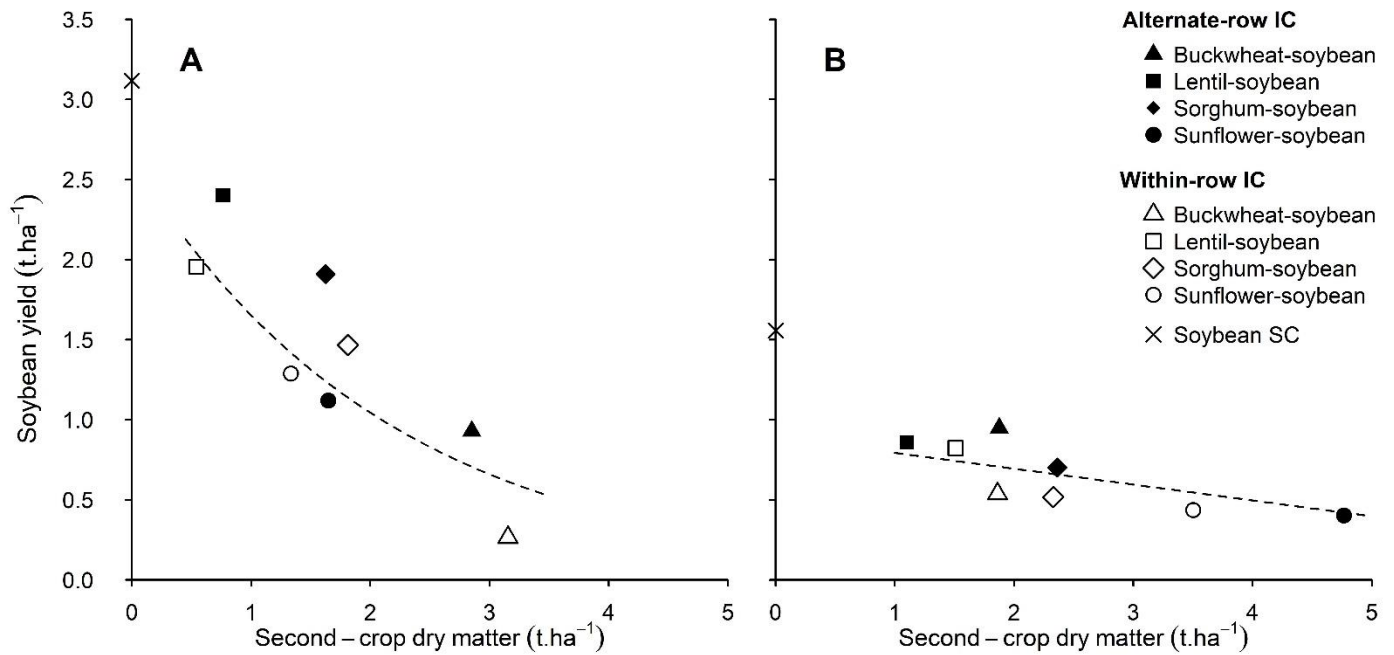


188 The protein content of soybean seeds was high and rather stable, on average 40.9 ( $\pm 2.3$ ) % in 2018 and  
189 34.6 ( $\pm 3.4$ ) % in 2019. Neither the intercropped species nor the spatial arrangement had a significant  
190 impact on soybean protein content. As a consequence, the total protein production was closely related  
191 to the soybean yield.

**Table 2: Species and spatial arrangement effects on soybean yield and weed dry matter at crop maturity within intercropping treatments.** When interaction was non-significant (N.S.; p-value > 0.1), models were refitted to a simpler additive model and results displayed. Significance levels are: . p-value <0.1, \* <0.05, \*\* <0.01 and \*\*\* <0.001. Different letters amongst species or spatial arrangements indicate significant differences with Tukey-HSD (p < 0.05).

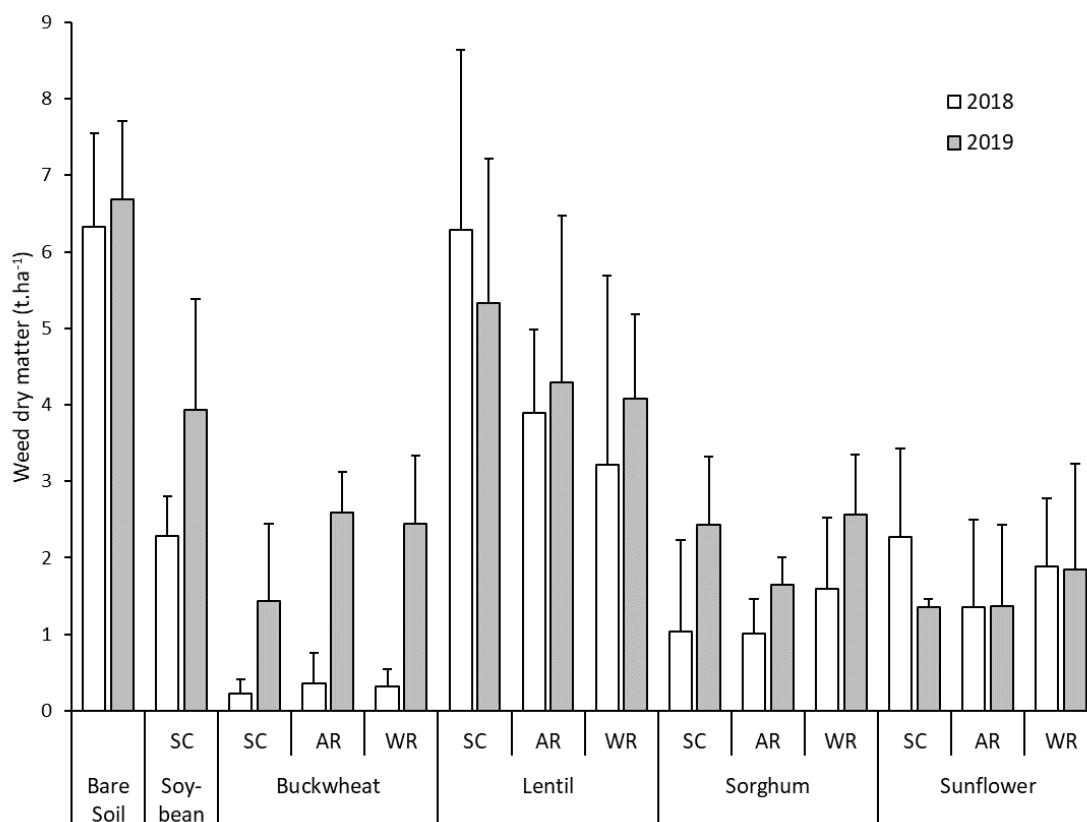
	Soybean yield (t.ha <sup>-1</sup> )		Weed dry matter (t.ha <sup>-1</sup> )	
	2018	2019	2018	2019
Species significance	<0,001 ***	0,026 *	<0,001 ***	<0,001 ***
Lentil-soybean	2,18 a	0,84 a	3,55 a	4,18 a
Sorghum-soybean	1,69 ab	0,61 ab	1,30 b	2,11 b
Sunflower-soybean	1,22 b	0,42 b	1,66 b	1,60 b
Buckwheat-soybean	0,60 c	0,74 ab	0,34 c	2,52 b
Spatial arrangement significance	0,011 *	0,128	0,419	0,500
Alternate-row	1,62 a	0,73	1,68	2,47
Within-row	1,24 b	0,58	1,75	2,73
Interaction significance	N.S.	N.S.	0.080 .	N.S.

192 Soybean yield decreased with the increase in second-crop dry matter measured at soybean flowering  
193 (Figure 2). Lentil had the lowest crop biomass in both years and was associated with the lowest yield  
194 reduction. Sorghum had a relatively stable biomass in both years, whereas buckwheat and sunflower  
195 had contrasting biomass in 2018 and 2019, which influenced the level of yield reduction. The  
196 relationship linking soybean yield to the second-crop biomass at soybean flowering was stronger in  
197 2018 than in 2019 (Figure 2).



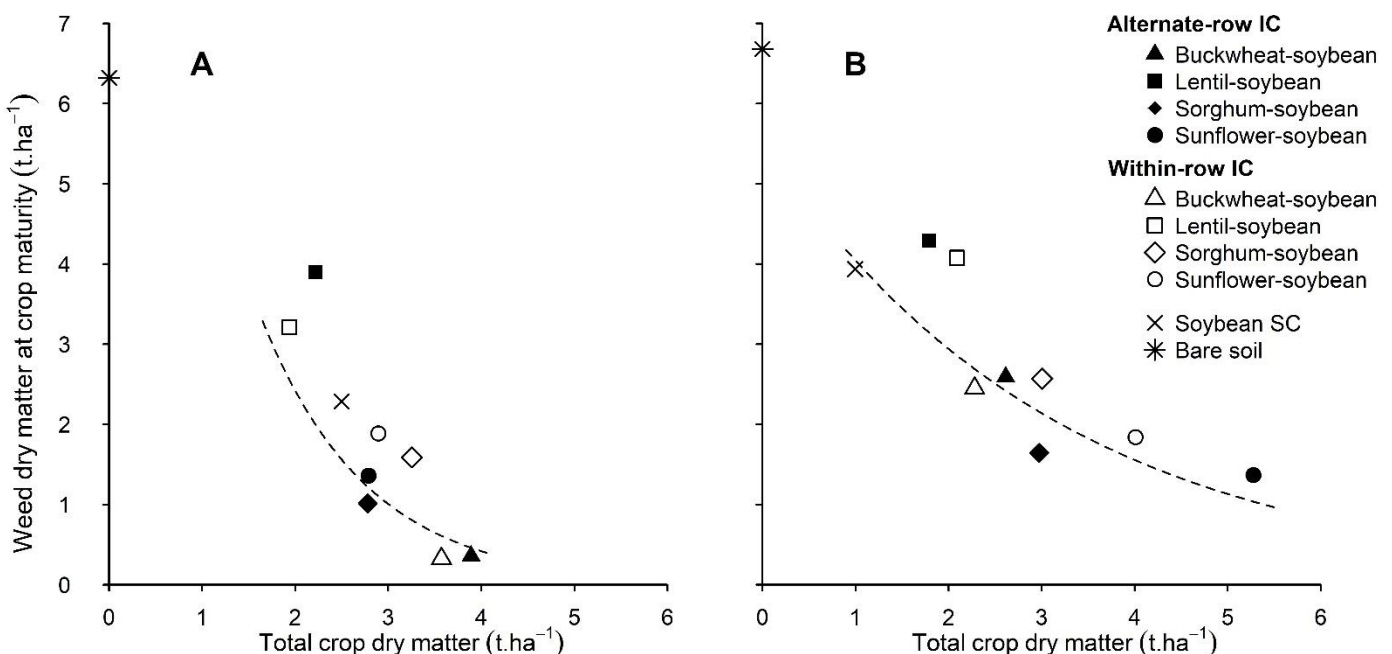
**Figure 2: Soybean yield as a response to second-crop dry matter at soybean flowering.** IC stands for intercropping, and SC stands for sole crop. **A** corresponds to 2018 and **B** to 2019. Each symbol corresponds to the averaged values of each treatment. The dashed lines represent the regressions fitted with all intercropping measurements. The soybean sole crop was not included in the regression calculation. In 2018,  $\log(Y) = -0.459 * X + 0.962$  ( $R^2 = 0.443$ ); in 2019,  $Y = -0.099 * X + 0.892$  ( $R^2 = 0.122$ ).

198 **3.2 Weed biomass**

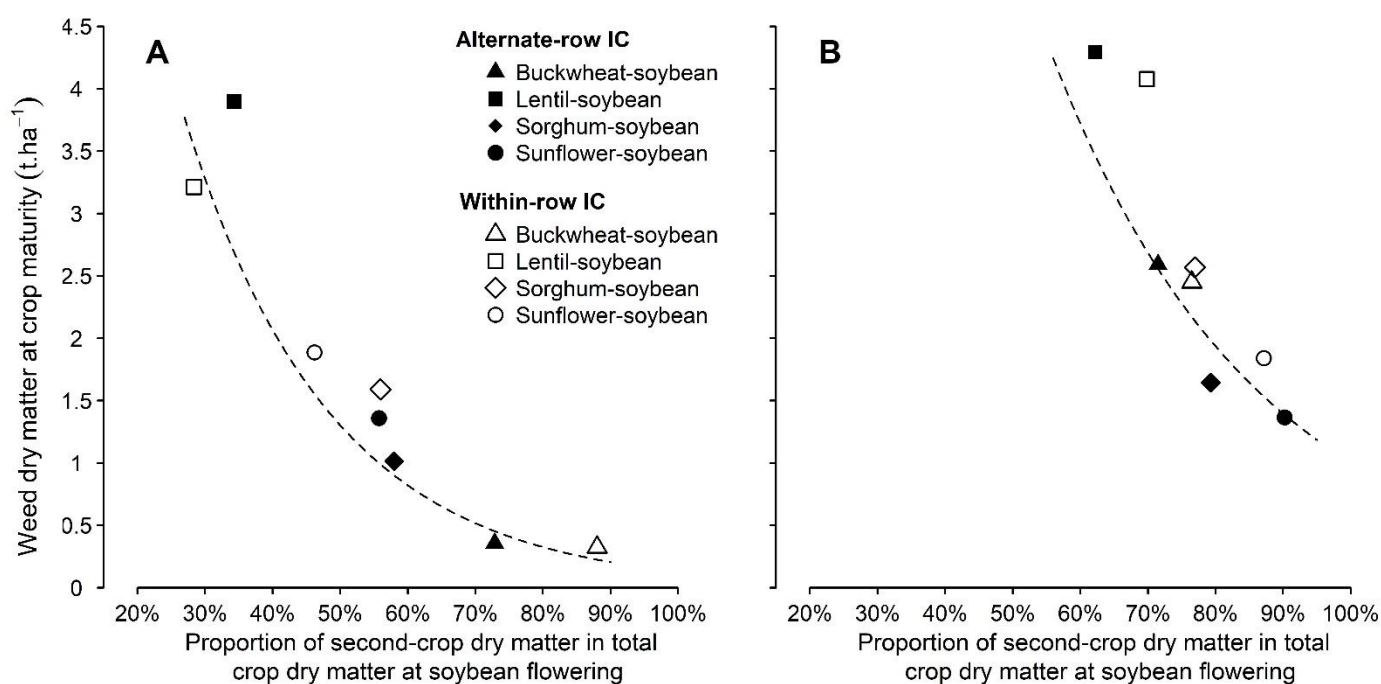


**Figure 3: Weed dry matter at crop harvest for all treatments.** SC stands for sole crop, AR for alternate-row intercropping with soybean and WR for within-row intercropping with soybean. Error bars represent the standard deviation.

199 The weed potential measured on bare soil was similar in both years, with values of 6.32 and 6.68 t.ha<sup>-1</sup>  
 200 <sup>1</sup> in 2018 and 2019, respectively. The main weed species occurring in both years were lamb’s quarters  
 201 (*Chenopodium album* L.) and lady’s thumb (*Polygonum persicaria* L.). The weed biomass in the soybean  
 202 sole crop reached 2.29 t.ha<sup>-1</sup> in 2018 and 3.94 t.ha<sup>-1</sup> in 2019 (Figure 3). The lentil sole crop had the  
 203 highest average weed biomass, with more than 5 t.ha<sup>-1</sup> in both years. At 0.22 t.ha<sup>-1</sup>, buckwheat had the  
 204 lowest average weed biomass value in 2018, while in 2019, it was sunflower, with 1.35 t.ha<sup>-1</sup>. In the  
 205 intercropping treatments, weed biomass varied greatly by treatment from 0.32 to 3.90 t.ha<sup>-1</sup> in 2018  
 206 and from 1.37 to 4.29 t.ha<sup>-1</sup> in 2019. The species effect on weed biomass in the intercropping  
 207 treatments was significant in both years (Table 2). The lentil-soybean IC had a significantly higher weed  
 208 biomass in both years than the other intercropping treatments. Sorghum and sunflower intercropped  
 209 with soybean had comparable weed control abilities, while buckwheat significantly lowered weed  
 210 biomass in 2018 compared to the other crops, but this was not the case in 2019. Spatial arrangement  
 211 had no significant effect on weed biomass at harvest (Table 2).



213 Overall, weed dry matter decreased with the increasing accumulation of dry matter by crops measured  
214 at soybean flowering (Figure 4). The low competitive ability of lentil-soybean intercropping was  
215 associated with a low crop biomass in both years. The other IC combinations had higher weed control  
216 ability due to their higher crop biomass. The buckwheat-soybean IC produced less total biomass in  
217 2019 than in 2018, while the sunflower-soybean IC showed the opposite trend. Thus, the level of weed  
218 control in a given intercropping treatment differed between years based on the level of crop biomass.  
219 In addition, the weed biomass decreased as the second-crop dry matter proportion in the total crop  
220 biomass at soybean flowering increased (Figure 5). In 2018, the second-crop dry matter proportion  
221 varied from 28% to 88% in lentil-soybean WR and buckwheat-soybean WR, respectively. In 2019, the  
222 range was smaller, from 62% in lentil-soybean AR to 90% in sunflower-soybean AR.



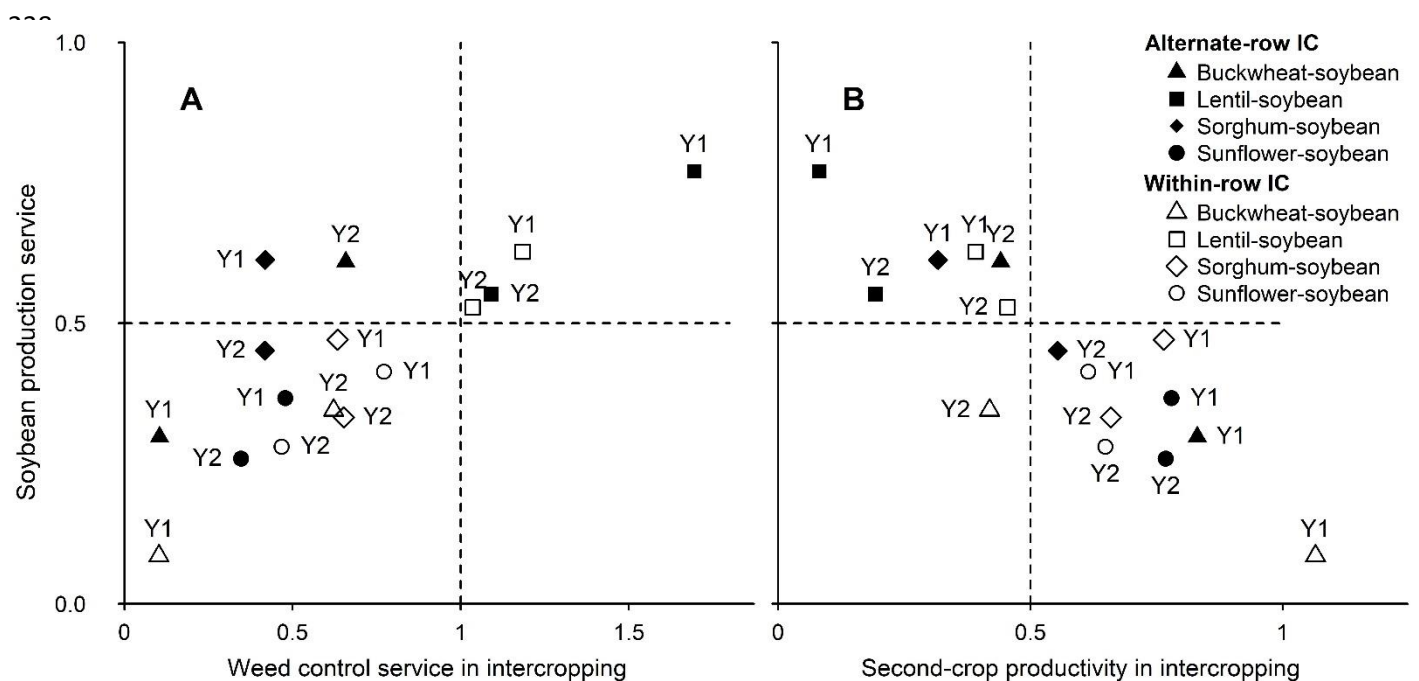
**Figure 5: Response of weed dry matter at crop maturity to second-crop dry matter proportion of the total intercropped dry matter at soybean flowering.** IC stands for intercropping. **A** corresponds to 2018 and **B** to 2019. Each symbol corresponds to the averaged values of each treatment. The dashed lines represent the regressions fitted for all intercropping measurements. In 2018,  $\log(Y) = -4.619 * X + 2.574$  ( $R^2 = 0.591$ ); in 2019,  $\log(Y) = -3.270 * X + 3.276$  ( $R^2 = 0.254$ ).

223

224 **3.3 Trade-off between soybean production and weed control services**

225 When considering within-row intercropping, the soybean production service, expressed as the  
226 soybean yield ratio, appeared to be related to the weed control service, expressed as the ratio of weed  
227 biomass present in the intercropping treatments to that in the soybean sole crop (Figure 6A).

228 Specifically, the higher the level of the weed control service, the stronger the disservice to soybean  
 229 grain yield. However, in the case of alternate-row intercropping, two situations were observed. On the  
 230 one hand, sunflower-soybean AR and lentil-soybean AR followed approximately the same trend as WR  
 231 intercropping. On the other hand, sorghum-soybean AR and buckwheat-soybean AR had higher  
 232 soybean yield ratios than their respective within-row intercropping treatments, with similar weed  
 233 ratios.  
 234 Second-crop relative productivity ranged from 0.08 to 1.07 in 2018 and from 0.19 to 0.77 in 2018  
 235 (Figure 6B). The treatments with a high reduction in the soybean grain production service had high  
 236 second-crop relative productivity. Thus, as weed control increased in the intercropping treatments,  
 237 soybean grain production decreased, but the second-crop yield ratio increased.



**Figure 6: Soybean production service of intercropping treatments in relation to their weed control service (A) and to the second-crop relative productivity (B).** The soybean production service value was obtained as the ratio of the soybean yield in a given intercropping treatment to the soybean yield in the sole crop. The weed control service value was obtained with the same ratio but using the final weed biomass. Second-crop relative productivity corresponds to the yield of the second crop in a given intercropping divided by the yield of the corresponding sole crop. IC stands for intercropping, AR for alternate-row intercropping and WR for within-row intercropping. Points labelled Y1 correspond to 2018 and Y2 to 2019.

239 **Discussion**

240 Our study highlighted that the delivery of services such as soybean yield or weed suppression  
241 depended on management options. The choice of the intercropped species and the spatial  
242 arrangement are key levers for influencing the delivery of these services. Thanks to the range of  
243 contrasting species studied, we observed a strong negative correlation between soybean yield and  
244 weed suppression. A key result is that the trade-off between the two types of service can be managed  
245 through spatial arrangement in some situations.

246 **4.1 Weed control**

247 The weed competition potential was high in our study. Furthermore, no mechanical or chemical  
248 control was applied. We demonstrate that intercropping soybean with another species seems to be a  
249 relevant practice for improving weed control, but it depends greatly on the choice of the second crop.  
250 Lentil intercropped with soybean was not able to improve weed control, whereas intercropping with  
251 the other species (buckwheat, sorghum and sunflower) reduced weed biomass by 23 to 90% compared  
252 to that in the soybean sole crop (Figure 6). The overall intercrop biomass production was important  
253 for competitiveness against weeds. Indeed, our results showed that an increase in the total  
254 intercropped biomass was associated with a reduced final weed biomass (Figure 4), which is in  
255 agreement with previous studies on intercropping (e.g.: Corre-Hellou et al., 2011; Gomez and  
256 Gurevitch, 1998) and on cover crops (e.g.: Finney et al., 2016; MacLaren et al., 2019). Additionally, an  
257 increase in the proportion of the second crop dry matter in the total intercropping dry matter was  
258 associated with weed biomass suppression (Figure 5). This is in accordance with the findings of cover  
259 crop studies where the augmentation of the proportion of non-legume biomass in mixtures was linked  
260 to higher weed biomass reduction (Hayden et al., 2014; MacLaren et al., 2019). Several mechanisms  
261 are involved in weed-crop competition, such as early N, light and moisture capture (Corre-Hellou et  
262 al., 2011; MacLaren et al., 2019). Early aboveground growth and relative crop height compared to  
263 weed height are important factors in weed-crop competition for light (Hock et al., 2006; Violle et al.,  
264 2009). Crop competition with weeds also depends on the nitrogen uptake capacity of the crop. Crops

265 that are able to obtain a large amount of N from sources other than the soil N pool (seed N and  
266 atmospheric N<sub>2</sub>) leave more soil resources available for weed development (Corre-Hellou et al., 2011).  
267 The highly diverse crops chosen for this study were characterised by their different resource  
268 acquisition strategies and different levels of biomass production potential, which undoubtedly affected  
269 weed control. Lentil, which was the least competitive against weeds, is known for its low biomass  
270 production, short canopy, and ability to fix a great part of its own nitrogen requirements, contributing  
271 to its low weed competitiveness ability (Erskine et al., 2011). In contrast, buckwheat was the most  
272 competitive species in our study and is known for its early thick canopy development, production of  
273 allelopathic compounds and competitiveness for soil resources (Falquet et al., 2015).

274 No effect of spatial arrangement was found on the weed control service (Table 2). Due to the  
275 differences in the aboveground architecture of the plants chosen for intercropping, within-row  
276 mixtures could have been expected to provide more regular soil shading than alternate rows of crops,  
277 especially for crops with low sowing densities. However, both spatial arrangements were established  
278 in rows separated by the same distance, with no weed control of any kind. Hence, weeds had the same  
279 opportunity to develop between rows before canopy closure, and their biomass accumulation was  
280 probably more related to the ability of certain species to close the canopy quickly than to an allegedly  
281 more homogeneous canopy structure.

#### 282 **4.2 Soybean production**

283 We demonstrated that weed growth was affected by the second-crop, and the same was true for  
284 soybean. Soybean production was affected by the level of competition from the second-crop (Figure  
285 2). Even though the year effect was strong, with lower soybean yield in 2019, lentil, sorghum and  
286 sunflower had a consistent effect on soybean yield. The buckwheat effect changed between the first  
287 and second years mainly due to its weaker and slower establishment in 2019 (author observations).  
288 Soybean, known to have low early growth at the beginning of its cropping cycle, can easily be  
289 outcompeted by an early fast-growing crop such as buckwheat (Hock et al., 2006; Jannink et al., 2000).  
290 This certainly occurred in 2018 and to a lesser extent in 2019. The early competitiveness of sorghum,

291 lentil and sunflower, considered rather poor, may not have been the most decisive factor in their  
292 competition against soybean. Thus, a second crop with relatively slow early growth will probably be  
293 better tolerated by soybean than one with early vigour. Geier et al. (1996) concluded that, in the case  
294 of sunflower-soybean interaction, light interception by sunflower above the soybean canopy was an  
295 important component explaining sunflower interference in soybean growth. Looking at crop  
296 characteristics, sunflower was the tallest; buckwheat, sorghum and soybean were more or less the  
297 same height; and lentil was the shortest (data not shown). Thus, as suggested by the ranking of the  
298 second crops in terms of competitiveness, the relative heights of the species might explain the  
299 differences in soybean productivity among intercropping treatments, as light extinction for a given  
300 plant is related to neighbour height (Violle et al., 2009).

301 Unlike weed control, soybean production was affected by the spatial arrangement (Table 2). Globally,  
302 soybean was more productive in alternate-row. Thus, resource acquisition by soybean could be  
303 improved by the spatial separation of soybean from the second crop. In contrast, the second-crop yield  
304 tended to be higher in within-row intercropping, suggesting that soybean was generally less  
305 competitive than the second crop. Like Martin and Snaydon (1982), we argue that the spatial  
306 separation of crops reduced the competitive advantage of the most competitive crop in the  
307 intercropping system by allocating a given space with corresponding resources to each species,  
308 therefore delaying interactions (positive or negative) until one species was able to reach the resource  
309 pool of the other. By extension, in the alternate-row design, row spacing is expected to influence the  
310 timing of interactions between crops and the resulting services.

### 311 **4.3 Interactions between services**

312 As explained above, the same crop characteristics and mechanisms may be involved in competition  
313 against both weeds and soybeans, thus contributing to weed control and impeding soybean  
314 production. This is in line with the trade-off we highlighted (Figure 6) and with the findings of den  
315 Hollander et al. (2007), who highlighted a trade-off between weed control and leek production in leek  
316 intercropped with different clover species. In their study, they linked the reduction in leek biomass to



317 clover species height and concluded that competition for light was the most important component  
318 between the cover crop and the main crop. They also identified clover species height and soil cover as  
319 two important traits involved in weed control. Lorin (2015) highlighted the importance of the same  
320 indicator, the living mulch biomass growth rate, in competition against both weeds and winter oilseed  
321 rape. This indicator was also related to traits such as vertical growth rate and leaf area. Hence, if similar  
322 traits are involved in both weed control and competition against the main crop, one might expect that  
323 a crop that is more competitive than the main crop against weeds as a sole crop will also be competitive  
324 against the main crop. Consequently, a ranking of sole crops on their ability to control weed  
325 development might be helpful in anticipating competition between crops. Additionally, trait-based  
326 approaches could be used to better anticipate service delivery and trade-offs (Damour et al., 2014;  
327 Gaba et al., 2015; Malézieux et al., 2009).

328 The trade-off between the weed control and soybean production services seems inevitable and  
329 difficult to manage. Nevertheless, we demonstrated that, through appropriate management options,  
330 it is possible to reduce the opposition between these services. For the same level of weed control, the  
331 spatial arrangement (alternate-row) limited the reduction in soybean yield, but the response to this  
332 arrangement differed among species (Figure 6).

333 There was also an antagonistic relationship between soybean production and second-crop production,  
334 as shown by the yield ratio values (Figure 6). However, this can be seen as positive for farmers because  
335 the second crop can improve the total yield at the field level and provide an additional service –  
336 production insurance – in the case of a low yield from the main crop.

### 337 **Conclusion**

338 Intercropping seems to be a promising tool for facilitating cropping system diversification and thereby  
339 providing multiple services. Nevertheless, due to the potential antagonistic relationships between  
340 these services, it is necessary to clearly define and rank the expectations for intercropping systems  
341 according to their relative importance to farmers; this should help in species choice. Moreover,  
342 relevant combinations of different management options can be designed to moderate these

343 antagonistic relationships and achieve multiple services. The identification of these management  
344 options requires further investigation of the competition between different cropping system  
345 components in terms of their respective crop traits.

346

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