

Mapping the imprint of biotic interactions on β -diversity

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▶ To cite this version:

Marc Ohlmann, Florent Mazel, Loïc Chalmandrier, Stéphane Bec, Eric Coissac, et al.. Mapping the imprint of biotic interactions on β -diversity. Ecology Letters, 2018, 21 (11), pp.1660-1669. 10.1111/ele.13143. hal-03750500

HAL Id: hal-03750500 https://cnrs.hal.science/hal-03750500

Submitted on 12 Aug 2022

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3	Marc Ohlmann ¹ , Florent Mazel ² , Loïc Chalmandrier ^{3,4} , Stéphane Bec ¹ , Eric Coissac ¹ , Ludovic										
4	Gielly ¹ , Johan Pansu ⁵ , Vincent Schilling ⁶ , Pierre Taberlet ¹ , Lucie Zinger ⁷ , Jérome Chave ⁶ , Wilfried										
5	Thuiller ¹										
6											
7	¹ Univ. Grenoble Alpes, CNRS, Univ. Savoie Mont Blanc, CNRS, LECA, Laboratoire d'Écologie										
8	Alpine, F-38000 Grenoble, France										
9	² Department of Botany and Biodiversity Research Centre, University of British Columbia,										
10	Vancouver, BC V6T 1Z4, Canada										
11	³ Landscape Ecology, Institute of Terrestrial Ecosystems, ETH Zürich, Zürich, Switzerland.										
12	⁴ Swiss Federal Research Institute WSL, 8903 Birmensdorf, Switzerland.										
13	⁵ Princeton University, 110 Morrison Hall, Princeton, NJ 08544, United States										
14	⁶ Université Toulouse 3 Paul Sabatier, CNRS, IRD, UMR 5174 Evolution et Diversité Biologique										
15	(EDB), F-31062 Toulouse, France.										
16	⁷ Ecole Normale Supérieure, PSL Research University, CNRS, Inserm, Institut de Biologie de										
17	l'Ecole Normale Supérieure (IBENS), F-75005 Paris, France.										
18	Email addresses : Marc Ohlmann (marc.ohlmann@univ-grenoble-alpes.fr), Florent										
19	Mazel(flo.mazel@gmail.com), Loïc Chalmandrier(loic.chalmandrier@usys.ethz.ch), Stéphane Bec										
20	(stephane.bec@univ-grenoble-alpes.fr), Eric Coissac (eric.coissac@gmail.com), Ludovic Gielly										
21	(ludovic.gielly@univ-grenoble-alpes.fr), Johan Pansu (johan.pansu@gmail.com), Vincent Schilling										
22	(vincent.schilling@hotmail.fr), Pierre Taberlet (pierre.taberlet@univ-grenoble-alpes.fr), Lucie										
23	Zinger (zinger@biologie.ens.fr), Jérôme Chave (jerome.chave@univ-tlse3.fr), Wilfried Thuiller										
24	(wilfried.thuiller@univ-grenoble-alpes.fr)										
25											
26	Corresponding author: Marc Ohlmann, LECA, UMR UGA-USMB-CNRS 5553, Université										
27	Grenoble Alpes, CS 40700 38058 Grenoble cedex 9, France, tel : +33 4 76 51 42 78, fax :+33 4 76										

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29 **Type of article:** Letters

- 30 **Running title:** Imprint of biotic interactions on β-diversity
- 31 **Keywords:** *β*-diversity, meta-communities, graphical model, interaction network, partial correlation
- 32 networks, graphical lasso
- 33
- 34 Number of words in the abstract: 149
- 35 Number of words in the main text: 4981
- 36 Number of references: 76
- 37 **Number of figures, tables:** 3 figures in the main text, 13 figures and 6 tables in Supplementary
- 38 Information
- 39
- 40 **Statement of authorship:** WT, FM and MO conceived the ideas with the help of LC. LC, EC, LG,
- 41 JP, FM, PT, LZ and WT collected the soil and environmental data in the field. LG, JP and PT ran the
- 42 PCR and DNA extractions. LZ and VS ran the bioinformatic analyses. MO ran all statistical
- 43 analyses and developed the method together with FM and WT. MO, FM and WT wrote the first
- 44 version of the paper, and all authors contributed substantially to the revisions.
- 45 **Data accessibility statement:** We confirm that, should the manuscript be accepted, the data
- 46 supporting the results will be archived on Dryad and the data DOI will be included at the end of the47 article.
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50 Abstract

Investigating how trophic interactions influence the β -diversity of metacommunities is of 51 52 paramount importance to understanding the processes shaping biodiversity distribution. Here, we 53 propose a statistical method for inferring the strength of spatial dependencies between pairs of 54 species groups. Using simulated data generated from a model of trophic community assemblage, we 55 showed that this method can recover the global structure of the trophic network from the β -diversity 56 patterns of multiple trophic groups. When applied to multi-trophic communities in the soil along an 57 elevational gradient in the French Alps, we found that fungi make a major contribution to the 58 structuring of β -diversity across trophic groups, that there were strong spatial dependencies between 59 groups known to interact specifically (e.g. plant- symbiotic fungi, bacteria-nematodes), and that the 60 influence of environmental gradient was less significant than expected. Our method should help 61 interpret a wide range of multi-trophic biodiversity patterns and vield new testable hypotheses.

62

64 Introduction

Understanding the processes that determine the spatial structure of biodiversity is one of the overarching goals of ecology (Ricklefs 1987). In particular, the study of β-diversity, the change in species (or species groups) identities across sampled locations, sheds light on different ecological, evolutionary, and biogeographic processes (e.g. Graham & Fine 2008; Anderson *et al.* 2011). For a given regional species pool, the processes responsible for β-diversity are usually assumed to be environmental filtering, dispersal limitations, and biotic interactions (HilleRisLambers *et al.* 2012; Meynard *et al.* 2013).

72 Previous studies have sought to analyze β -diversity by teasing apart the effects of 73 environmental filtering from biotic interactions along environmental gradients on a single group of 74 species (e.g. Peay et al. 2016 for fungi; Hanson et al. 2012 for bacteria; Mazel et al. 2017 for 75 mammals; Chalmandrier *et al.* 2015 for plants). However, biotic interactions *across* groups are also 76 expected to drive the structure and distribution of biodiversity. For example, plant-pollinator, 77 trophic (e.g. prey-predator or plant-decomposers) and host-symbiont (including pathogens, 78 mutualistic and commensal organisms) interactions strongly impact diversity distribution and 79 ecosystem functioning (Brose & Hilleband 2016). These interactions among groups of species, 80 although they are not necessarily species-specific (Walker et al. 2011; Peay et al. 2015), harbor 81 some degree of specificity due to trait constraints and shared habitat preferences (e.g. Allesina *et al.* 82 2008; Gonzales-Varo 2016). This interdependence among groups implies that the β -diversity of a 83 single group is likely to be contingent to that of the other groups. Hence, studying how the β diversity of multiple groups covaries along environmental gradients should help better understand 84 85 their spatial distribution and uncover their interactions.

Soil ecosystems are ideal for documenting these multi-group β-diversity patterns. Indeed,
they provide several examples of coupled biological systems (Wardle *et al.* 2006; Bardgett &
Wardle 2010), for example plant-mycorrhiza associations (Smith & Read 2008), direct plant control
on fungal communities (Broeckling *et al.* 2008), predator-prey relationships (Hedlund & Öhrn

90 2000) or plant-decomposer relationships (Hattenschwiler *et al.* 2005). Empirical evidence suggests 91 that these biological couplings do indeed produce spatial dependencies between the β -diversity of 92 the different groups (e.g. plants and fungi or bacterial turnover, Zinger *et al.* 2011; Prober *et al.* 93 2015; Geremia *et al.*, 2016). However, data on soil meta-communities remain scarce and there are 94 no appropriate statistical tools for exploring the β -diversity patterns in multiple soil groups (i.e. 95 more than two or three) while taking into account environmental variation.

96 Here we develop a generic method for analysing how the β -diversity of one group depends on 97 the β -diversity of the other groups and on the spatial variation in environmental conditions. This is 98 challenging due to potential confounding effects between different groups, which can generate 99 spurious correlations. Variance partitioning methods aim to disentangle the influence of several 100 explanatory variables on a response variable and they are, in principle, able to deal with 101 confounding effects by providing partial correlations among partitions (Borcard *et al.* 1992; Dray *et* al. 2012). However, the number of partitions grows exponentially with the number of explanatory 102 103 variables, making the method impractical for studies encompassing a large number of species 104 groups. This is problematic since the amplicon-based DNA analysis of environmental samples (i.e. 105 environmental DNA) holds the promise of more streamlined and consistent all-biodiversity 106 environmental surveys (Taberlet et al. 2012; Kress et al. 2015) and, consequently, new statistical 107 tools are needed. One possible solution to this problem is to use statistical tools called graphical 108 models (Koller & Friedman 2009), in which each node is a random variable and edges represent 109 conditional dependencies between these random variables. Partial correlation networks represent a 110 particular type of graphical model where the edges of the network are weighted by the partial 111 correlation coefficients (i.e. the correlation between two variables while controlling the others). 112 Here, we propose studying multi-group β -diversity patterns in soil communities using partial correlation networks. 113

114 Specifically, we hypothesise that interrelated β -diversity patterns among groups are partly 115 explained by biotic interactions along abiotic gradients, and that these spatial dependencies can be 116 detected using a method called graphical lasso to infer a partial correlation network (Friedman *et al.* 2007). Using simulated multi-trophic communities in a given, known trophic network, we first test 117 and validate our hypothesis and statistical method. We show that biotic interactions may indeed 118 119 produce interrelated β -diversity patterns (i.e. non-zero partial correlation coefficients) that can be uncovered using a partial correlation network. We then apply our method to an empirical dataset 120 121 including bacteria, microeukaryotes, meso/macrofauna, plants and abiotic factors along an elevation 122 gradient in the French Alps. We jointly explore the co-variation between the β -diversity of multiple 123 functional and trophic groups to unravel known and unknown potential biotic interactions, while controlling for the relative role of the abiotic environment and the β -diversity of the other groups. 124

- 125 Material and Methods
- 126

127 The method: applying the Graphical lasso to multi-group β-diversity patterns

128 *Erom species to relevant groups* – Species grouping can be defined by known trophic position (e.g. 129 symbiotic fungi), or by taxonomy (e.g. bacteria) or function. This step is essential and has to be 130 implemented in light of the prior knowledge of the study system (see our case study for an 131 example).

Measuring β-diversity and environmental distances – One possible measure of *β*-diversity between 132 133 two local communities, A and B, is the Jaccard dissimilarity index, defined as one minus the ratio of the number of species present in both A and B over the number of species present in either A or B. 134 135 The Jaccard dissimilarity index equals 0 when A and B share the same species, and 1 when they do not share any. We used the R package 'vegan' (Ricklefs 2008) to compute the Jaccard dissimilarity 136 index for multiple species groups independently (see below). Moreover, we partitioned the Jaccard 137 index into the true turnover component and the nested component (Baselga 2010), using the R 138 139 package 'betapart' (Baselga & Orme 2012). Environmental distances between pairs of local 140 communities were computed using Euclidean distances.

141 <u>*The graphical lasso method*</u> – The overarching goal of our approach is to use a network to 142 parsimoniously represent the correlations between the β -diversity of each group as a function of the 143 others and the environmental distances. This is challenging due to potential confounding effects (i.e. collinearity among multiple variables), which can generate spurious correlations. Working with 144 partial correlations (correlation between two variables when knowing the value of the others) 145 146 instead of marginal correlations (Pearson correlation) avoid these confounding effects. Consequently, a suitable description of the system consists of using a class of models that (1) 147 148 represent the conditional dependencies between random variables (here the β -diversity of multiple 149 species groups) using partial correlations while (2) allowing for a parsimonious representation of 150 the dependencies using a network. The Lasso approach (Tibshirani 1994) has been developed to produce precisely this type of parsimonious set of variables. More recently, its multivariate form, 151 152 the Graphical lasso (Glasso), has made it possible to represent the partial correlations between multiple variables in a network (here the β -diversity of multiple groups and the environmental 153 154 distances, Friedman et al. 2007; Mazumder & Hastie 2011). As a consequence, Glasso should be an appropriate tool for representing the structure of the partial correlations between multi-trophic β -155 156 diversity patterns.

157 In short, the Glasso uses the empirical variance-covariance matrix *S* (computed from the β -158 diversity values of multiple species groups and the environmental distances) to estimate a partial correlation matrix that quantifies the degree of association between pairs of variables conditional to 159 160 the other variables. In order to estimate the partial correlation matrix in Glasso, the S matrix is 161 inverted to produce the precision matrix P with the particular constraint that P must be sparse (i.e. 162 have many zeros). This is equivalent to the variable selection step in conventional statistical approaches (see Friedman et al. 2007 for mathematical details). The partial correlation matrix is 163 164 then computed from P as follows (Eq. 1):

165
$$cor(y_i, y_j | y_{I \setminus i, j}) = -\frac{p_{i,j}}{p_{i,i} p_{j,j}}$$
 (Eq.1)

166

167 where $cor(y_i, y_j | y_{I \setminus i,j})$ represents the partial correlation between the components i and j of a 168 random variable Y given all the other components, and $p_{i,j}$, $p_{i,i}$, $p_{j,j}$ are the elements of P.

As the precision matrices have been inverted with the constraint in order to ensure sparsity, it 169 follows that the partial correlation matrix is also sparse. This sparse representation of the 170 171 relationships between the β -diversity of multi-trophic groups and the environmental distances 172 means it can be represented simply and intuitively using a network. In the Glasso, this parsimonious representation (i.e. the number of 0 coefficients in the partial correlation matrix) is not optimally 173 174 determined but is arbitrary and depends on a coefficient λ . Here, we used the Extended Bayesian 175 Information Criterion (Foygel & Drton 2010) to select optimal λ . We used the R package 'ggraph' 176 to estimate the partial correlation matrix with graphical lasso (Epskamp & Fried 2016).

177

178 Representing conditional dependencies between β -diversity using a network representation – We plotted the inferred network using Gephi (Bastian et al. 2009) and analysed its properties. In 179 particular, we quantified the connectivity of each group by analysing the degree and the weighted 180 degree for each group in the partial correlation network. The degree represents the number of times 181 182 the β -diversity of a given group is conditionally dependent on the β -diversity of other groups. If the 183 β -diversity of two groups is conditionally independent (i.e. has a zero partial correlation 184 coefficient), they cannot causally influence each other (Murphy 2012). Consequently, the more connected a group is, the more central it is to structuring the β -diversity of all groups. The weighted 185 186 degree represents the total sum of partial correlations in β -diversity between a given group and all 187 other connected groups. The higher the sum, the more important the group.

188

189 Validating the method using simulations

190 In order to test whether the Glasso approach was able to recover known interactions among species 191 groups from local community β -diversity patterns, we first built a set of simulated data. We did so 192 by constructing a regional trophic web (step 1) from which local multitrophic communities were 193 sampled using a stochastic model (step 2). Then, we measured the partial correlation between the β - diversity of each trophic level (step 3) and tested whether these patterns matched the simulatedregional trophic web.

Step 1 – The regional web was assumed to have six trophic levels (one basal level and five consumer levels), containing twenty species each. We assumed some degree of specialization in the relationships between trophic levels: each consumer species had a number of prey equals to one plus a random number drawn in a Poisson law of parameter 1 (Fig. 1a). Thus, each consumer species had one prey species at least, and on average two prey species. Once the number of prey species had been drawn for a given consumer species, prey were drawn randomly from the lower trophic level.

203 Step 2 – Based on this regional network, we generated 1,000 local multi-trophic communities. Communities were simulated using a stochastic model of multi-trophic community 204 205 assembly inspired by the Trophic Theory of Island Biogeography (TTIB, Gravel et al. 2011; Massol 206 et al. 2017). The TTIB assumes bottom-up sequential dependencies (Holt 1997, 2009; Dunne et al. 207 2002) with two phases. In phase 1, each species can colonise a local community if at least one of its 208 prev species is present. In phase 2, a species which has lost its last prev species goes extinct. For the 209 sake of clarity, we assumed a homogeneous environment. The probability of each basal species being present in the local community was assumed to be constant and set to $p_0 = 0.5$. The 210 211 probability of each consumer species C being present in the local community is related to the 212 fraction of its prey available through the relation $p_C = (k/g)^r$ where g is the diet breadth of C (i.e. the 213 number of potential prev species), k is the number of its prev species present in the community, and r is a constant that controls the shape of the relation. In the TTIB, having more prey species present 214 215 in the community does not increase the probability of consumer presence, and the probability of 216 survival is either 0 (when k=0) or 1 (when k>0). This corresponds to the limit case r=0. For the 217 simulation, we used r=1, assuming that $p_{\rm C}$ grows linearly with the number of prev species present in 218 the community. We also studied the case r=1/3 presented in the appendices.

219 Step 3 – We then computed β -diversity patterns for each trophic level and inferred the partial correlations between these β -diversities using the Glasso method explained above. We thus obtained 220 221 a distribution of partial correlations between the β -diversity at the different trophic levels. We 222 expect these partial correlations to be high between trophic levels which interact directly and low between trophic levels which do not interact. Since here only two successive trophic levels interact 223 224 (see Fig. 1a), we expect the partial correlation between successive trophic levels to be high 225 compared to the partial correlation between non-successive trophic levels. We expect these partial 226 correlations to be more informative than marginal correlations (Pearson correlations), because they 227 avoid spurious correlations due to confounding effects.

228

229 Analysing multi-trophic patterns in multi-trophic soil ecosystems in the French Alps.

230 Study site and soil sampling – The study was conducted in the northern French Alps (Arves Massif, 45.12°N, 6.40°E) along a 977 m elevation gradient (1748m to 2725m a.s.l.) located in a single cow-231 232 grazed pasture, above the tree-line. The vegetation at the bottom of the gradient corresponds mainly 233 to subalpine grasslands, while alpine meadows with sparse vegetation dominate at high elevation 234 (Chalmandrier *et al.* 2017). Ten plots were established at 100m altitude intervals along the gradient, 235 each of them composed of two 10 x 10 m sub-plots. All plots were placed on the same south-facing 236 slope with a similar bedrock type and land-use to ensure a relatively homogeneous gradient. Mean annual temperature along the gradient ranges between 8°C at the bottom and 3°C at the top, while 237 238 mean annual rainfall is 473mm over the period 2000-2012. The soil sampling field campaign was 239 conducted in September 2012.

We collected twenty-one soil samples per sub-plot following the two diagonals with the distance increasing exponentially from the corners to the centre on one diagonal and from the centre to the corners on the other. Central points were sampled only once. This sampling scheme was implemented to cover as much local biodiversity as possible at the sub-plot scale (Taberlet *et al.* 2012; Chalmandrier *et al.* 2017) and provided an almost regular distribution of pairwise spatial distances between points. Each sample contained 50g of soil from the uppermost 10 cm of soil and was placed in individual plastic bags to be processed individually. Corers were cleaned and
sterilised using a blowtorch between each sample to prevent cross-contamination (Taberlet *et al.*2012). Extracellular DNA was extracted from 15g of soil as previously described (Taberlet *et al.*2012; Zinger et al. 2016) within four hours after sample collection to prevent microbial growth.
DNA was extracted twice for each sample. Blank extraction controls were included in the extraction
process (using solely phosphate buffer as the template).

252

253 *Molecular analyses* – Soil biodiversity was estimated using four DNA markers. Universal markers such as 18S (amplifying all Eukaryotes, 18S nuclear rDNA) and 16S (amplifying all Bacteria, 16S 254 255 rRNA) were used to obtain a general overview of the multi-trophic composition of the sites. Another two markers focus on Eukaryota diversity by targeting fungi (ITS1) and vascular plants 256 (Chloroplast trnL-P6 loop), respectively. For each DNA extract, PCRs were run in duplicate leading 257 258 to four PCR replicates per core sample. For each marker, PCM products were purified (MinElute™ 259 PCR purification kit, Qiagen) with extraction and PCR blank controls included in the mix. High-260 throughput sequencing of eukaryotes and plant amplicons was performed on an Illumina HiSeq 261 2500 platform (2x150 bp paired-end reads for Eukaryotes and 2*200pb for plants) while fungal, archae and bacterial amplicons (200-350 bp) were sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq (2 x 250 bp 262 263 paired-end reads) platform. Data curation is presented in Appendix 1. We pooled the samples 264 together per subplot in order to obtain a single community per sub-plot and converted the data into 265 presence-absences. The raw and curated sequencing data as well as associated metadata are 266 available on the Dryad Digital Repository under accession XXX (to be provided on manuscript 267 acceptance) and the summary statistics are presented in table S1. As explained above, we computed 268 β-diversity using the Jaccard dissimilarity index. Since this index is sensitive to sequencing depth difference between samples, we also used the true turnover component of the Jaccard index 269 270 (Baselga 2010), to remove this potential bias. The results obtained using the true turnover 271 component of the Jaccard index are similar to those using the Jaccard index so we only refer to the

Jaccard index in the main text, and present the results of the true turnover component of the Jaccardindex in Appendix 3.

274

275 *Defining trophic groups of species*

We selected *a priori* groups of soil taxa based on their distinctive role in the functioning of the soil 276 277 ecosystem, and in biogeochemical cycles (especially the carbon and nitrogen cycles). Our focal taxa 278 were: plants, fungi, bacteria, oribatid mites, nematodes, and springtails(Bardgett 2005). We included 279 plants since they are the primary producers and their diversity and identity drive the functioning and 280 the stability of most terrestrial ecosystems (Hooper, 1997; van der Heijen 1998). We also included 281 litter feeders that contribute to dead material fragmentation, in a particular oribatid mites and 282 springtails. Oribatid mites form one of the most abundant groups of arthropods in soil, (Behan-Pelletier 1999) with up to several hundreds of thousands of individuals per square meter (Norton 283 1990). Springtails are the most numerous group of hexapods in most terrestrial ecosystems 284 285 (Deharveng 2004). We also included a group of taxa that mineralise the fragmented litter, such as 286 saprophytic fungi and bacteria (Bardgett 2005). Fungi are found in different compartments of the 287 soil trophic web so we classified fungal OTUs into three main functional groups, namely, symbiotic fungi, saprophytic fungi and pathogenic fungi using the FUNguild database (Nguyen et al. 2016). 288 289 Symbiotic fungi represent a pivotal group in the soil ecosystem because over 90% of terrestrial 290 plant families benefit from symbiotic associations between their roots and fungi (Wang & Qiu 291 2006). Moreover, in arctic and alpine systems, 60% to 80% of the nitrogen available for plants is 292 supplied by mycorrhizal fungi (Bjorbækmoet *et al.* 2010). Bacteria also contribute to this supply by 293 fixing atmospheric nitrogen (Bonfante & Anca 2009; Haq *et al.* 2014). Finally, we included a group 294 of predators, here nematodes, the most abundant belowground multicellular animals (Bardgett 295 2005). Nematode OTUs were divided into bacterivore nematodes and herbivore/fungivore 296 nematodes using the NEMAguild database (Nguyen et al. 2016). In summary, the nine groups 297 included in this study were: plants, symbiotic fungi, pathogenic fungi, saprophytic fungi,

bacterivore nematodes, herbi/fungivore nematodes, bacteria, springtails, and oribatid mites. Most of these groups interact via trophic interactions, so that this study case matches the simulations described above, but not all of them. For the sake of clarity, we will hereafter refer to them as trophic groups.

302 *Environmental characteristics* – Mean annual soil temperature was estimated from field 303 meteorological stations placed at the centre of each plot. We also estimated growing season length 304 (GSL) and number of frost days based on daily maps of snow cover at 15 m resolution for 5 years 305 falling between 2000 and 2014 and air temperature values extracted from the SAFRAN 306 meteorological model developed by Meteo France for the French Alps (Durand et al. 2009). More 307 methodological details and validation results for the snow cover model are available in Carlson et al. (2015). For each sub-plot, topsoil (0-10 cm) characteristics were determined from the average 308 309 values obtained from three soil samples collected in July/August 2012, air-dried and then sieved at 310 2mm. Fine-scale topography and associated parameters (topographic wetness index and slope) were 311 inferred from airborne LIDAR data acquired the year of sampling. Mean soil pH over the gradient 312 was 5.40 (sd 0.300) whereas mean soil temperature over the year was 6.06°C (sd 2.84). The 313 environmental distances between sub plots were estimated with Euclidean distances from the first two axes of a principal component analysis run for all produced (and normalised) environmental 314 315 variables (the variance captured by the first two axes was 34% and 25% respectively, the first axis 316 roughly represented the climatic conditions whereas the second axis roughly represented the soil 317 conditions, see Appendix 2 for more details).

318

319 Results

320 *Validation of the statistical method* – Our simulations showed that trophic interactions produce 321 significant relationships between β -diversity on consecutive trophic levels. Moreover, the Glasso 322 method detected the conditional relationships between the β -diversity of the different trophic groups 323 corresponding to their trophic position in the network (Fig. 1b) contrary to the marginal correlations

(Fig. 1c). The median of both marginal and partial correlation coefficients between pairs of trophic 324 levels decreases with the shortest path length between these trophic levels. Nevertheless, while the 325 326 median of the marginal correlation coefficients (Fig. 1e) decreased slowly (the distribution of 327 marginal correlation coefficients overlapped), the median of the partial correlation coefficients (Fig. 1d) was close to 0 once the trophic level distance was higher than 1. In other words, marginal 328 329 correlation analyses detected spurious correlation between non-adjacent trophic levels, but this bias 330 was strongly alleviated when considering partial correlations. Although these simulation results 331 remain qualitative, they demonstrate that specialised biotic interactions between trophic group leave 332 detectable imprints on compositional patterns and that these patterns can be detected using our 333 method. Changing the shape of the relationship linking the probability of presence of a consumer species with its number of available prey species did not alter this conclusion (Fig. S4). 334

335

336 β -diversity modelling of empirical soil communities – In the French Alps, the partial correlations 337 estimated between the β -diversity of each predefined trophic group and environmental distances 338 were all positive (Fig. 2, Fig. S5, Fig. S6, table S2). The estimated partial correlation network had a 339 connectance of 0.618 and was composed of 34 undirected edges (i.e. partial correlation coefficients 340 > 0) out of 55 possible edges and 11 nodes (9 trophic groups and 2 environmental variables).

341 Saprophytic fungi were the most influential group in conditioning the β -diversity of the other 342 groups (highest degree value, 8, and highest weighted degree value, 1.30, Figure 3). Plants and 343 oribatid mites also had a strong influence on the β -diversity of other groups, as did pathogenic and 344 symbiotic fungi. In contrast, environmental variables had a relatively small impact on the β -345 diversity of the trophic groups.

346 The probability of observing a non-null partial correlation between the β -diversity of a trophic 347 group and the environmental distance was 0.44 (8 edges linking environmental nodes to the trophic 348 group nodes and 18 potential edges) whereas the probability of observing a link between the β -349 diversity of any two trophic groups was 0.69 (25 edges and 36 potential edges). Since the variables associated with disconnected nodes are conditionally independent and that conditionally independent variables cannot causally influence each other, this highlights the reduced influence of environmental variables on the β -diversity of the trophic groups.

353

354 Discussion

355 In this study, we proposed a method for dissecting the joint spatial structure of multiple trophic 356 groups. This method builds on observed patterns of β -diversity in multiple trophic groups to infer 357 the conditional dependencies between pairs of groups and with the environment, in order to pinpoint potential biotic interactions. Simulations confirmed that our method is able to recover the 358 359 overall structure of a trophic network using partial correlations. This method does not directly infer the interaction network at species level, and the inferred conditional dependencies at the group level 360 361 do not imply causality. A similar method for producing directed networks is path analysis (Wright 362 1921; Shipley 2000 application on soil diversity Schuldt *et al.* 2017). However, the ability of path 363 analysis to draw causal inference is controversial (Shipley 2000 but see Dawid 2010; Bollen & 364 Pearl 2013). The correlative method presented here should help interpret a wide range of multi-365 trophic biodiversity patterns. Although our approach is likely to be sensitive to the effect of a missing predictor (since the structure of the partial correlation network would be affected by the 366 367 addition of a variable), environmental DNA sampling should facilitate comprehensive assessments. 368 One key issue remains the mapping of OTUs into functional groups, which is only possible using integrative biology knowledge combined with large and comprehensive databases. An interesting 369 370 perspective for this method is that it could also be used to study temporal changes in biodiversity 371 (i.e., temporal β -diversity) using environmental DNA approaches (Bohan *et al.* 2017).

372 When applied to soil multi-trophic diversity along an elevation gradient of the French Alps, we 373 were able to quantify the relative importance of biotic interactions and the environment in shaping 374 the spatial structure of the meta-communities. Pairwise environmental distances displayed a low 375 correlation with the β -diversity of each group (as measured with the few non-zero partial

correlations). In other words, the ecological community was found to be shaped more by biotic 376 interactions than by abiotic environmental constraints. This result is rather surprising given the 377 sharpness of the elevational gradient, and the expected importance of environmental filtering in 378 379 shaping above and below-ground communities along elevation gradients (Meynard et al. 2013). 380 However, many previous studies have focused on intra-guild biotic interactions, or on 381 environmental effect only, and they have ignored the importance of inter-guild interactions (e.g. Chalmandrier *et al.*, 2015). As our climatic and soil properties were sampled at plot level, they 382 383 might not have been measured at the appropriate scale to reflect the fine conditions experienced by below-ground organisms (Falconer et al. 2015; Baveye et al. 2016; Zinger et al. 2017). A single 384 385 plot-scale measure of abiotic conditions may not be sufficient to explain the β -diversity of organisms with heterogeneous sizes and capture the fine-scale heterogeneity of soil conditions. 386 387 Additionally, we cannot rule out the fact that some relatively important missing environmental factors might explain the low predictive power of environmental distances (e.g. phosphorous for 388 symbiotic mushrooms, Liu *et al.* 2012; Camenzind *et al.* 2014). Nevertheless, while the greater β -389 390 diversity was due to true-turnover (a turnover measure independent of variation of species richness; 391 on average, 80% of the β -diversity across trophic groups), climatic and soil properties had a 392 stronger influence on the true-turnover component of the β -diversity of the different trophic groups. 393 The approach described here should help interpret a wide range of multi-trophic biodiversity 394 patterns and yield new testable hypotheses. For example, in multiple pairs of trophic groups we 395 found strong spatial associations which can be interpreted in light of functional associations. In the 396 soil, plants are directly affected by symbiotic/pathogenic fungi and root herbivores, whereas the 397 complex network of detritivorous organisms affects them indirectly (Bardgett 2005; Wardle et al. 398 2011). Our method showed that plant β -diversity was strongly linked to the β -diversities of 399 symbiotic fungi, pathogenic fungi, oribatid mites and bacterivore nematodes. While the links with 400 the two groups of fungi most likely reflect the strong direct associations between these groups and 401 the vegetation structure, the link with oribatid mites may be explained by the fact that this group

feeds on plant litter fungi, especially saprophytic fungi (Schneider *et al.* 2004, Crowther *et al.* 2012; 402 403 2011). The graphical lasso method detected this link showing that changes in the composition of 404 saprophytic fungi lead to a change in the oribatid mite assemblages. As expected, the β -diversity of 405 bacteria correlated to that of bacterivore nematodes, which reflects this known trophic interaction 406 (Ettema 1998; Wardle 2006). Moreover, the β -diversity of herbi/fungivore nematodes correlated to 407 that of symbiotic fungi. The link between the β -diversity of oribatid mites and springtails might be 408 explained by mite predation of springtails (Ferguson & Joly 2002). Interestingly, we revealed a link 409 between the β -diversity of oribatid mites and symbiotic fungi. This result suggests that mite 410 assemblages could be influenced by fungi spatial distribution through trophic interactions, which 411 have been so far very poorly documented (Gange & Brown 2003). Interestingly, our analysis also showed a strong partial correlation (the strongest partial correlation: 0.365) between the β -412 diversities of saprophytic fungi and bacteria. Many clades of these two groups exploit the same 413 resource (in particular cellulose, which represents 30-50 % of plant dry weight, Whipps 2001; De 414 415 Boer et al. 2005) which thus creates an indirect relationship between bacteria and saprophytic fungi, 416 through an unmeasured confounding effect. The relationship uncovered between bacteria and 417 symbiotic fungi could be attributed to the fact that bacteria can assist mycorrhiza by colonising the extraradical hyphae or by living in the cytoplasm of mycorrhizal fungi (Bonfante et al. 2009; Haq 418 419 et al. 2014).

420

421 Conclusions

The rise of environmental DNA metabarcoding and the ever-increasing availability of databases on species co-occurrence have opened up a new era in quantitative and predictive ecology. Comprehensive species lists of taxa are necessary, but not sufficient to provide information on how co-occurring species interact and whether multi-trophic interactions shape community assembly. We have developed a method that could reveal how trophic groups influence each other and respond to environmental variation. As such our method helps uncover potential causes of the compositional 428 turnover of species groups from a multi-trophic interaction perspective. Gathering informative 429 expert knowledge from literature review or using automatic methods should then pave the way to 430 understanding the fine-scale structure of multi-trophic assemblages and obtaining a more holistic 431 picture of biodiversity.

432

433 Acknowledgements

434 We would like to thank all the students and colleagues who participated in the intensive field season 435 that generated the data used in the manuscript, as well as the Genotoul bioinformatics platform 436 Toulouse Midi-Pyrenees (Bioinfo Genotoul) and Pierre Solbes (EDB-Calc Cluster) for providing 437 computing and storage resources. The research received funding from the French Agence Nationale de la Recherche (ANR) through the METABAR (ANR-11-BSV7-0020) and GlobNets (ANR-16-438 CE02-0009) projects, and from "Investissement d'Avenir" grants managed by the ANR 439 440 (Trajectories: ANR-15-IDEX-02; Montane: OSUG@2020: ANR-10-LAB-56; CEBA: ANR-10-441 LABX-25-01, TULIP: ANR-10- 599 LABX-0041).

442

443 **Competing interests**

L.G. and P.T. are co-inventors of patents related to the gh primers and the use of the P6 loop of the chloroplast trnL (UAA) intron for plant identification using degraded template DNA. These patents only restrict commercial applications and have no impact on the use of this locus by academic researchers.

450 Figure caption

451 Figure 1: Design and results of the simulation assessing the impact of biotic interactions on the 452 marginal and partial correlation of the β -diversity values of different trophic levels. (a) the trophic network used for the simulation, composed of six trophic levels. The indegree of each node 453 is one plus an integer randomly drawn from a Poisson law of parameter 1.0 (except for the basal 454 455 species). (b) Partial correlation network built using the median values of the partial correlations (inferred using the graphical lasso) between the β -diversity values of different trophic levels. (c) 456 457 Marginal correlation networks built using the median values of the Pearson correlations between the 458 β -diversity values of different trophic levels. (d) Partial correlation coefficient (inferred using the graphical lasso) between the β -diversity values of two trophic levels as a function of the shortest 459 460 path length between these trophic levels. (e) Marginal Pearson correlation coefficient between the 461 β -diversity values of two trophic levels as a function of the shortest path length between these 462 trophic levels.

463 **Figure 2:** Undirected partial correlation network inferred using the graphical lasso method 464 between the β-diversity of the major trophic groups constituting soil biodiversity and the 465 environmental distances. Each node represents the β-diversity of a trophic group or an 466 environmental distance. Here, only the partial correlations above the median value of the non-null 467 partial correlation coefficients (0.106) are shown. The non-filtered network is presented in Figure 468 S1. Edge thickness is proportional to the value of the partial correlation coefficient and the partial 469 correlation coefficients are all positive.

470

Figure 3: Properties of the inferred network. The degree (left panel) is the number of neighbours of nodes in a graph (here, the undirected partial correlation network). It measures the number of variables that are conditionally dependent on the variable associated with this node. The weighted degree (right panel) is the sum of the partial correlation coefficients attached to the edges adjacent to this node. Dashed lines represent the mean values of degree and weighted degree.

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Figure 1

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493	Figure 2
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Figure 3

508 References

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1 Appendices

2 Appendix 1 : Molecular and bioinformatics analyses

3 Data were then curated using the OBITools software package (Boyer et al. 2016) together with customs R scripts (R 4 Core Team 2015) following the procedure described in Zinger et al. (2017). Paired-end reads were assembled, assigned 5 to their respective samples/marker and dereplicated. Low-quality sequences were excluded. For the remaining ones we 6 computed pairwise dissimilarities between sequences (i.e. the number of mismatches, allowed to be 0-3) using the 7 Sumatra algorithm (Mercier et al. 2013), and formed Operational Taxonomic Units OTUs using the Infomap 8 community detection algorithm (Rosvall & Bergstrom 2008). Abundance of OTUs was defined as the sum of read 9 abundances of sequences belonging to them. In subsequent analyses, each OTU was represented by its most abundant 10 sequence. Each OTU was assigned a taxonomic clade using the ecotag program (Boyer et al. 2016) using a set of 11 reference databases to refine taxonomic annotations. (e.g. GENBANK, UNITE database, Abarenkov et al. 2010) We 12 paid particular attention to minimize PCR/sequencing errors, contaminant and false positive sequences as well as 13 potential non-functional PCRs by using the procedure described in Zinger et al. (2017). PCR replicates were finally 14 summed for each samples.

	Bacteria	Eukaryota	Fungi	Viridiplantae
Primers set				
Targeted region	V5-V6 regions, 16S rRNA gene	V7 region, 18S rRNA gene	ITS1	P6 loop of the chloroplast trn <i>L</i> intron
Forward primer (5'–3')	GGATTAGATACCC TGGTAGT [‡]	TTTGTCTGSTTAATTSCG§	CAAGAGATCCGTTGTT GAAAGTK [†]	GGGCAATCCTGAG CCAA¶
Reverse primer (5'–3')	CACGACACGAGCT GACG [‡]	TCACAGACCTGTTATTGC [§]	GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTA ACAAGG§§	CCATTGAGTCTCT GCACCTATC [¶]
PCR conditions				
Number of cycles	35	45	40	40
PCR cycles characteristics [†] † (Denaturation, Annealing, Elongation – Final elongation)	95°C(30s), 57°C(30s), 72°C(90s) – 72°C(7min)	95°C(30s), 45°C(30s) 72°C(60s) – 72°C(7min)	95°C (30 sec), 55°C (30 sec), 72°C (60s) – 72°C (7 min)	95°C(30s), 50°C(30s), 72°C(60s) – 72°C(7min)
Illumina platform	MiSeq 2x250	HiSeq 2x150	MiSeq 2x250	HiSeq 2x100
Reads and Otus statistics				
Initial number of OTUs	25383	7242	4193	2153

Final number of OTUs	24058	5833	2987	555
Initial number of reads	5042640	68893592	4159074	37509301
Final number of reads	4357053	61818803	3626819	35950935

15 [†] this study

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- 23 ⁺⁺ All PCRs were preceded by an initial denaturation at 95°C (10 min)
- 24 Table S1 Markers characteristics, PCR conditions and sequencing technology
- 25 Appendix 2 : Climatic and soil variables

26 <u>Climatic variables:</u> We described the bioclimatic conditions of the gradient using four variables describing both thermal

27 and nival regimes: soil temperature, solar radiations, Growing Season Length (hereafter "GSL") and number of frost

28 days. Mean annual soil temperature was recorded using HOBO stations located at the center of each sampling site.

29 Solar radiation was averaged from simulations of solar radiation using a 2-m digital elevation model (DEM) (Carlson et

30 al. 2015) derived from a LIDAR acquisition. The number of frost days, i.e. the number of snow-free days with air

31 temperature below 0°C, was computed as described in Carlson et al. (2015). GSL, the number of snow-free days with a

32 daily mean air temperature over 0°C between snow melt-out and August 15, was computed as described in

33 Chalmandrier et al. 2016.

34 <u>Topographical variables:</u> Slope, Topographic Wetness Index (TWI) and Topographic Position Index (TPI) were inferred

35 with the DEM derived from the airborne LiDAR data acquired the year of sampling.

36 <u>Soil analyses</u> were conducted in summer 2012 from soil cores taken at the center of each subplot (1m25x1m25). Each

37 of them were weighed and 5mm-sieved (Legay et al. 2014) and processed for quantifying soil moisture, soil organic

38 matter content, pH, soil texture (gravel mass and apparent density after 2mm sieving) and soil nutrients (ammonium

- 39 (soil NH4+), nitrates (soil NO3-), total dissolved nitrogen (TDN), and dissolved organic nitrogen (DON)) from 0.5m
- 40 K2SO4 soil extracts (Jones et al. 2004; Legay et al. 2014). Soil subsamples were added 100 mL distilled water to
- 41 saturate each soil core and calculate the waterfilled pore space (WFPS) and then air dried and ground to measure total

42 soil C and N (Legay et al. 2014). Microbial biomass nitrogen (N) was measured using the chloroform-fumigation

43 extraction technique of Vance et al. 1987). Potential N mineralization rates were estimated using anaerobic incubations

44 of fresh soil subsamples (Legay et al. 2014). Potential ammonium and nitrates leaching was measured from the

45 percolate of a site central supplementary core leached in a given volume of distilled water (Legay et al. 2016).

	PCA axis 1	PCA axis 2
pН	-0.417	-0.368
Gravel mass	0.791	-0.277
Apparent density	0.235	-0.781
Total porrosity rate	0.264	0.789
Water Filled pore space	-0.76	-0.23
Leaching NO3	-0.398	-0.029
Leaching NH4	0.0901	0.791
N rate	0.0542	-0.933
C rate	-0.587	0.713
C/N ratio	-0.332	0.896
Rate organic matter	0.332	0.863
N NO3	-0.341	-0.368
N NH4	-0.512	0.264
N TDN	0.257	-0.106
N NH4 product	-0.158	-0.0632
Year soil temperature	-0.823	0.00538
FrostDays	-0.858	-0.196
Growing Season Length	-0.983	-0.0919
Topographic wetness index	-0.652	-0.0833
slope	0.28	-0.343
Topographic position indexPI10m_mean_topo	0.35	0.101
Altitude Digital Elevation Model	0.98	0.0867
Mean solar radiation	-0.964	-0.058
Variance Growing Season Length	0.834	0.347

Table S2 Correlations between the environmental variables and the first two axes of the Principal Component Analysis



Figure S1 Scree plot of eigenvalues on the principal component on environmental variables

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Figure S2Correlation circles of the principal component analysis. Only 6 variable over the 24 variables are represented
here.
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Figure S3 Plots represented on the first factorial plan on the principal component analysis. The color of the points
correspond to their altitude.
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94 Figure S4 Design and results of the simulation assessing the impact of biotic interactions on the marginal and partial 95 correlation of the β -diversity values of different trophic levels for another shape of the relationship linking the 96 probability of presence of a consumer species with its number of available preys. (a) Two different shapes of the 97 relationship, the value used in the following plots is r=1/3, while the main text r=1 (b) Partial correlation network built 98 using the median values of partial correlations (inferred using Glasso) between the β -diversity values of different 99 trophic levels. (c) Marginal correlation networks built using the median values of the Pearson correlations between the 100 β -diversity values of different trophic levels. (d) Partial correlation coefficient (inferred using the graphical lasso) 101 between the β -diversity values of two trophic levels in function of the shortest path length between these trophic levels. 102 (e) Marginal Pearson correlation coefficient between the β -diversity values of two trophic levels in function of the 103 shortest path length between these trophic levels.



Figure S5 Undirected partial correlation network between β -diversity of the major trophic groups constituting of soil biodiversity and environmental distances. Each node represent the β -diversity of a trophic group or an abiotic environmental distance. Each edge represent a non-nul partial correlation between the variables associated to each node and was estimated using a graphical lasso. Consequently, if two nodes are disconnected, then the associated variables (β -diversity or environmental distances) are conditionally independent. The connectance of the network is 0.618.



122Figure S6 Histogram of the partial correlation coefficients estimated between β-diversity of major trophic groups123constituting of soil biodiversity and environmental distances. Partial correlation coefficients are all positive.



141 Figure S7 Histogram of the natural logarithm of the numbers of Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) assigned to each

- trophic group.

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Figure S8 Number of OTUs per trophic group in function of the altitude of the plots

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	Frost	Soil	Plants	Bacteria	Herbi/Fun givore nematodes	Bacterivor e nematodes	Oribatida	Saprophyt ic fungi	Symbiotic fungi	Pathogeni c fungi	Springtails
Frost	0	0	0	0	0.222	0	0.0358	0.0149	0	0.3	0.327
Soil	0	0	0.0347	0	0	0	0.0807	0	0	0	0.29
Plants	0	0.0347	0	0	0.0274	0.101	0.197	0.0914	0.169	0.166	0.0284
Bacteria	0	0	0	0	0	0.149	0	0.365	0.23	0	0
Herbi/Fun givore nematodes	0.222	0	0.0274	0	0	0.0833	0.084	0.084	0.11	0	0.0238
Bacterivor e nematodes	0	0	0.101	0.149	0.0833	0	0	0.0708	0.0739	0.0994	0
Oribatida	0.0358	0.0807	0.197	0	0.084	0	0	0.185	0.182	0.14	0.116
Saprophyt ic fungi	0.0149	0	0.0914	0.365	0.084	0.0708	0.185	0	0.234	0.252	0
Symbiotic fungi	0	0	0.169	0.23	0.11	0.0739	0.182	0.234	0	0.102	0
Pathogeni c fungi	0.3	0	0.166	0	0	0.0994	0.14	0.252	0.102	0	0.0541
Springtail s	0.327	0.29	0.0284	0	0.0238	0	0.116	0	0	0.0541	0

Table S3 Partial correlation between β -diversity values of trophic groups constituting of soil diversity and abiotic

169 environmental distances inferred using Glasso.

	Frost	Soil	Plants	Bacteria	Herbi/Fun givore Nematode s	Bacterivor e nematodes	Oribatida	Saprophyt ic fungi	Symbiotic fungi	Pathogeni c fungi	Springtails
Frost	1	0.305	0.581	0.405	0.648	0.497	0.672	0.678	0.575	0.772	0.703
Soil	0.305	1	0.392	0.235	0.325	0.0994	0.443	0.33	0.27	0.347	0.545
Plants	0.581	0.392	1	0.644	0.585	0.611	0.775	0.778	0.78	0.774	0.546
Bacteria	0.405	0.235	0.644	1	0.47	0.642	0.688	0.857	0.808	0.687	0.34
Herbi/Fun givore nematodes	0.648	0.325	0.585	0.47	1	0.531	0.64	0.664	0.657	0.626	0.513
Bacterivor e nematodes	0.497	0.0994	0.611	0.642	0.531	1	0.573	0.675	0.656	0.645	0.346
Oribatida	0.672	0.443	0.775	0.688	0.64	0.573	1	0.836	0.818	0.808	0.622
Saprophyt ic fungi	0.678	0.33	0.778	0.857	0.664	0.675	0.836	1	0.888	0.864	0.553
Symbiotic fungi	0.575	0.27	0.78	0.808	0.657	0.656	0.818	0.888	1	0.81	0.476
Pathogeni c fungi	0.772	0.347	0.774	0.687	0.626	0.645	0.808	0.864	0.81	1	0.628
Springtail s	0.703	0.545	0.546	0.34	0.513	0.346	0.622	0.553	0.476	0.628	1

Table S4 Marginal (Pearson correlation) between β -diversity values of trophic groups constituting of soil diversity and

173 abiotic environmental distances.

176 Appendix 3 : Statistical analysis using the true-turnover component of the β -diversity

177 We ran the statistical analysis on the true turnover component of the β -diversity (Baselga 2010) of each predefined 178 trophic group. while the larger amount of β -diversity was due to true-turnover (Fig. 9) and on average, 80% of the β -179 diversity across trophic groups. The partial correlations estimated between the true turnover component of the β-180 diversity of each predefined trophic group and environmental distances were all positive except one coefficient (Fig. 181 S10, Fig. S11, Fig. S12, table S4). The estimated partial correlation network had a connectance of 0.60 and was 182 composed of 33 undirected edges (i.e. partial correlation coefficients>0) out of 55 possible edges and 11 nodes (9 183 trophic groups and 2 environmental variables). The mean value of non null partial correlation coefficients was 0.133, 184 the median was 0.102 and the maximum 0.459.

185 Saprophytic fungi seemed to be the most influential group in conditioning the β -diversity of the others group (highest 186 degree value, 9, and highest weighted degree value, 1.37, Fig. S12). Environmental variables had a moderate impact on 187 the β -diversity of the trophic groups (degree of 6 for the first PCA axis, 4 for the second PCA axis and whereas the 188 mean degree of the partial correlation network was 6; weighted degree of 1.13 for the first PCA-axis, 0.381 for the 189 second pca axis node whereas the mean value is 0.759).

190 The probability of observing a non-null partial correlation between the β -diversity of a trophic group and the 191 environmental distance was 0.44 (8 edges linking environmental nodes to the trophic groups nodes and 18 potential 192 edges) whereas the probability of observing a link between the β -diversity of any two trophic groups was 0.67 (24 edges 193 and 36 potential edges), highlighting the weaker influence of environmental variables on the true turnover component of 194 the β -diversity of the trophic groups.

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208	Figure S9 Mean true turnover and ne	sted turnvoer components	of the Jaccard index for ϵ	each trophic group.
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Figure S10 Undirected partial correlation network inferred by the graphical lasso method between the true turnover component of the β -diversity of the major trophic groups constituting of soil biodiversity and the environmental distances. Each node represent the β -diversity of a trophic group or an environmental distance. Here, are only shown the partial correlations above the median value of the non-null partial correlation coefficients (0.102). The non-filtered network is presented in Figure S11. Edge thickness is proportional to the value of the partial correlation coefficient and the partial correlation coefficients are all positive.

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Figure S11 Undirected partial correlation network inferred by the graphical lasso method between the true turnover component of the β -diversity of the major trophic groups constituting of soil biodiversity and the environmental distances. Each node represent the β -diversity of a trophic group or an environmental distance. The connectance of the graph is 0.600 . Edge thickness is proportional to the value of the partial correlation coefficient and the partial correlation coefficients are all positive.



Figure S12 Histogram of the partial correlation coefficients estimated between the true turnover component of the β diversity of major trophic groups constituting of soil biodiversity and environmental distances. Partial correlation coefficients are all positive.



Figure S13 Properties of the inferred network. The mean degree (left panel) is the number of neighbors of nodes in a graph (here, the undirected partial correlation network). It measures the number of variables that are conditionally dependent to the variable associated to this node. The weighted degree (right panel) is the sum of the partial correlation coefficients attached to the edges adjacent this node.

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	Frost	Soil	Plants	Bacteria	Herbi/Fun givore nematodes	Bacterivor e nematodes	Oribatida	Saprophyt ic fungi	Symbiotic fungi	Pathogeni c fungi	Springtails
Frost	0	0.0122	0.1	0	0	0	0.459	0.129	0	0.0725	0.359
Soil	0.0122	0	0.0161	0	0.0442	0	0	0	0	0	0.164
Plants	0.1	0.161	0	0	0	0	0.0289	0.0314	0.112	0.162	0.0796
Bacteria	0	0	0	0	0.0327	0.0354	0	0.0302	0.275	0	-0.0744
Herbi/Fun givore nematodes	0	0.0422	0	0.0327	0	0.139	0	0.104	0.0896	0.00466	0
Bacterivor e nematodes	0	0	0	0.0354	0.139	0	0	0.0457	0.2	0.0353	0
Oribatida	0.459	0	0.0289	0	0	0	0	0.122	0	0	0.0181
Saprophyt ic fungi	0.129	0	0.0314	0.302	0.104	0.0457	0.122	0	0.292	0.321	0.0268
Symbiotic fungi	0	0	0.112	0.275	0.0896	0.2	0	0.292	0	0.254	0.0366
Pathogeni c fungi	0.0725	0	0.162	0	0.00466	0.0353	0	0.321	0.254	0	0
Springtail s	0.359	0.164	0.0796	-0.0744	0	0	0.0181	0.0268	0.0366	0	0

Table S5 Partial correlation between the true turnover component of β -diversity values of trophic groups constituting

274 of soil diversity and abiotic environmental distances inferred using Glasso.

	Frost	Soil	Plants	Bacteria	Herbi/Fun givore Nematode s	Bacterivor e nematodes	Oribatida	Saprophyt ic fungi	Symbiotic fungi	Pathogeni c fungi	Springtails
Frost	1	0.305	0.503	0.313	0.102	0.117	0.734	0.619	0.471	0.551	0.637
Soil	0.305	1	0.363	0.0432	0.216	-0.0226	0.249	0.255	0.207	0.158	0.367
Plants	0.503	0.363	1	0.276	0.231	0.235	0.416	0.535	0.54	0.557	0.417
Bacteria	0.313	0.0432	0.276	1	0.395	0.439	0.346	0.743	0.732	0.593	0.0491
Herbi/Fun givore nematodes	0.102	0.216	0.231	0.395	1	0.398	0.0963	0.468	0.467	0.396	0.158
Bacterivor e nematodes	0.117	-0.0226	0.235	0.439	0.398	1	0.196	0.499	0.557	0.456	0.0921
Oribatida	0.734	0.249	0.416	0.346	0.0963	0.196	1	0.556	0.448	0.463	0.461
Saprophyt ic fungi	0.619	0.255.	0.535	0.743	0.468	0.499	0.556	1	0.835	0.799	0.422
Symbiotic fungi	0.471	0.207	0.54	0.732	0.467	0.557	0.448	0.835	1	0.768	0.382
Pathogeni c fungi	0.551	0.158	0.557	0.593	0.396	0.456	0.463	0.799	0.768	1	0.331
Springtail s	0.637	0.367	0.417	0.0491	0.158	0.0921	0.461	0.422	0.382	0.331	1

Table S6 Marginal (Pearson correlation) between the true turnover component of β -diversity values of trophic groups

277 constituting of soil diversity and abiotic environmental distances.

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