

1 **Author Cover Page**

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6

7 **Title: High-throughput metabarcoding of soil and litter samples across Amazonia shows**  
8 **the highest biodiversity in areas with low organic carbon**

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25

## 26 **Abstract**

27 **Background.** Amazonia is a biologically megadiverse region, but our knowledge on its  
28 biodiversity and environmental determinants stems almost exclusively from aboveground  
29 organisms, notably plants. In contrast, the environmental factors that drive diversity patterns  
30 for microorganisms remain elusive, despite the fact that they constitute the overwhelming  
31 majority of organisms in any given location, both in terms of diversity and abundance.

32 **Methods.** We used recently generated operational taxonomic units (OTU) inferred from high-  
33 throughput metabarcoding of 16S (prokaryotes) and 18S (eukaryotes) markers to estimate  
34 richness and community composition of prokaryotes and eukaryotes in soil and litter (i.e.,  
35 leaves and above-ground debris) across Brazilian Amazonia. Together with novel data on soil  
36 chemical and physical properties, we identify abiotic correlations of soil microorganism  
37 richness and community structure using regression, ordination, and variance partitioning  
38 analysis.

39 **Results.** Soil organic carbon content was the strongest factor explaining OTU richness  
40 (negative correlation) and community composition across all datasets. We found important  
41 effects also for other soil variables, including pH. There was no significant correlation  
42 between OTU richness of litter and soil for eukaryotes, and only a weak correlation between  
43 OTU richness of soil and litter for prokaryotes.

44 **Discussion.** Our results provide a large-scale mapping of the physical and chemical  
45 correlations of soil and litter biodiversity in a longitudinal transect across the world's largest  
46 rainforest. Our methods help to understand links between soil compounds, OTU richness  
47 patterns, and community composition. The lack of strong correlation between litter and soil  
48 richness suggests the complementarity of these substrates, and highlights the importance to

49 include both in biodiversity assessments. Massive sequencing of soil and litter samples holds  
50 the potential to greatly complement traditional biological inventories in advancing our  
51 understanding of the factors affecting tropical diversity.

52

53 **Key-words:** Brazil; Eukaryotes; Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs); Prokaryotes;  
54 Rainforest; Soil microorganisms

55

## 56 Introduction

57 Tropical rainforests are mega-diverse and environmentally heterogeneous biomes, and their  
58 biodiversity has been shown to vary considerably over space. In Amazonia, the world's  
59 largest rainforest that covers most of northern South America, geology and soil  
60 physicochemical compounds are often considered crucial to regulate the biotic dynamics,  
61 vegetation, and diversity patterns at local to regional scales (Vogel et al., 2009; Laurence et  
62 al., 2010; Higgins et al., 2011; Tuomisto et al., 2016).

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63  
64 For plants, diversity patterns and community composition are associated with the availability  
65 of soil nutrients (Laurence et al., 2010). Soil cation concentration has been identified as the  
66 potentially most important factor determining plant species composition and turnover in  
67 Amazonia (e.g. Baldeck et al., 2016; Tuomisto et al., 2016; Cámara-Leret et al., 2017) and  
68 also shows a less prominent effect on species richness (Tuomisto et al., 2014). Soil chemistry,  
69 in particular phosphorus, is also known to affect the taxonomic composition of microbial  
70 communities (Buckley and Schmidt, 2001; Faoro et al., 2010; Navarrete et al., 2013). In  
71 addition, pH is known to shape microbial diversity (e.g. Osborne et al., 2011; Kuramae et al.,  
72 2012; Barnes et al., 2016). Finally, geology and soil physicochemical compounds affect all  
73 ecosystems directly and indirectly, via biotic interactions among animals, plants, and fungi  
74 (e.g. Tedersoo et al., 2016).

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75  
76 Soils are complex systems, and different soil layers may show different patterns of  
77 biodiversity (Hinsinger et al., 2009). For instance, Porazinska et al. (2012) found that

78 taxonomic composition varies between mineral soil and organic matter (litter) across biomes.  
79 High-throughput amplicon-based analyses such as metabarcoding (Taberlet et al., 2012) allow  
80 detailed examination of soil diversity patterns (Bardgett and van der Putten, 2014). However,  
81 these studies are usually focused on one or a few taxonomic groups, which make it difficult to  
82 draw general conclusions on the effects of soil properties on the overall determinants of  
83 biodiversity (e.g. Faoro et al., 2010; Laurence et al., 2010; Navarrete et al., 2013; Barnes et  
84 al., 2016).

**Comentado [h3]:** It is not in the bibliography

85  
86 Although several studies have reported on the importance of soil compounds for biodiversity  
87 patterns and community structure, no unified pattern has emerged. With the exception of a  
88 few studies reporting results on arthropods and microorganisms (Basset et al., 2012; Ramirez  
89 et al., 2014; Prober et al., 2015; Tedersoo et al., 2016), the diversity of most inconspicuous,  
90 less studied groups of organisms remains poorly understood. To understand the evolution,  
91 maintenance, ecosystem function, and distribution of organisms, a greater focus on the  
92 world's poorly known taxa such as fungi, insects, nematodes, and bacteria is warranted. After  
93 all, these organisms play key roles in mediating a wide range of biotic and abiotic processes  
94 (Falkowski et al., 2008; Stajich et al., 2009; Friesen et al., 2011). Understanding the role of  
95 soil physicochemical compounds in shaping organism richness and community composition  
96 in any location, but in particular in mega-diverse regions such as Amazonia, is therefore  
97 crucial.

98  
99 In this study, we investigate the physio-chemical correlation of soil and litter richness and  
100 community composition on a west-to-east transect across Brazilian Amazonia, along the

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101 Amazon River. We analyse richness estimates based on environmental DNA of the ribosomal  
102 16S (prokaryote) and nuclear ribosomal 18S (eukaryote) genes. Specifically, we seek to  
103 answer two questions on the correlations of OTU richness and community structure for both  
104 organism groups: (1) Does the genetic diversity (measured as OTU richness) of the litter layer  
105 correlate with the OTU diversity of the underlying soil; and (2) Are eukaryote (18S) and  
106 prokaryote (16S) OTU richness and community composition correlated with physical and  
107 chemical soil properties? If so, what are the most important correlates of OTU diversity?

108

109 **2. Materials and Methods**

110 **2.1. SAMPLING DESIGN AND LOCALITIES**

111 We sampled four main localities along a longitudinal transect across the Amazon River (Fig.  
112 1) following the sampling design of Tedersoo et al. (2014). Detailed locality descriptions are  
113 available in Ritter et al. (in review). Briefly, we sampled a total of 39 plots in different habitat  
114 types, which can be summarized as terra-firme forests, várzeas, igapós, and naturally open  
115 areas (e.g. campinas). These environments support distinct biota and are often associated with  
116 different kinds of soil. Terra-firme forests are unflooded and generally characterized by poor  
117 nutrient latosols (Falesi, 1984). In contrast, várzeas and igapós are seasonally flooded forests  
118 that remain submerged during parts of the year and they are differentiated by the type of the  
119 flooding water. Várzeas are flooded by white-water rivers and are nutrient rich areas (Junk et  
120 al., 2011). Igapós are flooded by black-water rivers and are characterized by large areas of  
121 white sands (podzols). Finally, the open areas of Amazonia are related to nutrient-  
122 impoverished sandy soils (Prance, 1996; Fine et al., 2005).

123

124 Our sampling was placed in areas that cover the different habitat types localized in: *Benjamin*  
125 *Constant* (9 plots), our westernmost locality, approximately 1,100 km west of Manaus in the  
126 upper Amazonas River (4.383° S, 70.017° W; Fig 1A); *Jauú national park* (6 plots; 1.850° S,  
127 61.616°W; Fig 1B) and *Novo Airão* (3 plots; 2.620° S, 60.944°W; Fig 1C), on the west side of  
128 the Negro River; *Reserva do Cuieras* (6 plots; 2.609° S, 60.217° W; Fig 1D) and *Reserva da*  
129 *Campina* (3 plots; 2.592° S, 60.030° W; Fig 1E), on the east side of the Negro River; and  
130 *Caxiaunã* (12 plots), a national forest located 350 km west of Belém (1.7352° S, 51,463°W;  
131 Fig 1F), which constitutes our easternmost locality. All samples collection were authorized by  
132 Brazilian authorities: ICMBio (registration number 48185-2) and IBAMA (registration  
133 number 127341).

134

## 135 2.2. PHYSICOCHEMICAL SOIL ANALYSES

136 We determined the physicochemical and nutrient profiles of the first five centimetres of three  
137 soil samples from each plot, totalling 117 samples. The samples were analysed for several  
138 chemical and textural variables. pH was measured in water (ratio 1:2.5). The exchangeable  
139 concentrations were measured for sodium (Na), potassium (K), and phosphorus (P) using  
140 Mehlich-1 extraction (unit mg/dm<sup>3</sup>) and for calcium and magnesium (Ca, Mg) using KCl (1  
141 mol/L) extraction (unit cmolc/dm<sup>3</sup>). The sum of all exchangeable bases (SB; which comprises  
142 K<sup>+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, and Na<sup>+</sup>; unit cmolc/dm<sup>3</sup>) was then calculated. We also estimated  
143 exchangeable aluminium (Al and H+Al; unit cmolc/dm<sup>3</sup>) extracted with calcium acetate (0.5  
144 mol/L at pH 7.0), aluminium saturation index (m; unit %), and Base Saturation Index (V; unit  
145 %). The effective cation exchange capacity (t) as well as the cation exchange capacity (T)

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146 were measured at pH 7.0 (unit cmolc/dm<sup>3</sup>). The C (organic carbon), and organic matter (M.O)  
147 = C (organic carbon) x 1,724 - Walkley-Black was quantified (unit g/kg). Soil texture was  
148 characterized by the percentage of fine (0.05 – 0.2 mm), thick (0.2 – 2 mm), and total sand  
149 (0.05 – 2 mm) as well as the silt (0.002 – 0.05 mm) and clay (< 0.002 mm) fraction of the soil  
150 weight. All analyses were commissioned from EMBRAPA Ocidental (Brazil), following the  
151 protocol described in Donagema et al. (2011). Afterwards, we used the mean of the three soil  
152 samples from the same plot to obtain a unique value for the measurement of each variable for  
153 each plot.

154  
155 2.3. DNA EXTRACTION, AMPLIFICATION, AND SEQUENCING  
156 The details of laboratory procedures are described in Ritter et al. (in review). We extracted  
157 soil and litter using the PowerMax® Soil DNA Isolation Kit (MO BIO Laboratories, USA),  
158 following the manufacturer's instructions. The amplification of 16S was performed by  
159 MacroGen (Republic of Korea) following standard protocols, and sequencing was performed  
160 using the Illumina MiSeq 2x300 platform. For metabarcoding of the 18S gene, sequencing  
161 preparation was performed at the laboratory of the University of Gothenburg as described in  
162 Ritter et al. (in review) and the amplicons were sequenced at SciLifeLab (Stockholm,  
163 Sweden) using an Illumina MiSeq 2x250 machine.

164  
165 2.4. SEQUENCE ANALYSES  
166 We used the USEARCH/UPARSE v9.0.2132 Illumina paired reads pipeline (Edgar, 2013) to  
167 filter out poor-quality sequences, de-replicate and sort reads by abundance, infer operational  
168 taxonomic units (OTUs; Blaxter et al. 2005), and remove singletons. We inferred OTUs at the

169 97% sequence similarity level. We used the SINA v1.2.10 for ARB SVN (revision 21008;  
170 Priesse, Peplies, and Glöckner, 2012) reference dataset for both markers and used SILVA  
171 1.3 for taxonomic assignments (Quast et al., 2013).

172

173 2.5. STATISTICAL ANALYSES

174 We rarefied all samples to the lowest number of reads (number of sequences in each OTU,  
175 which is analogous to abundance of each “species”) obtained from a single plot (22,209 for  
176 16S and 1,359 for 18S; Fig S2) to standardize the sampling effort per plot. An average value  
177 was computed to calculate local diversity using the function “rarefy” in the package vegan v.  
178 2.4-3 (Oksanen et al., 2007) in R v3.3.2 (R Development Core Team, 2017). We subsequently  
179 transformed the OTU tables to presence/absence for both prokaryote (16S) and eukaryote  
180 (18S) data.

181

182 For soil compounds, we first normalized all soil variables to zero mean and unit variance  
183 using the “scale” function of vegan. Afterwards, we performed two principal component  
184 analyses (PCAs). In the first analysis we used the chemical variables phosphorus (P),  
185 exchangeable bases (Na, K, Ca, and Mg), the sum of all exchangeable bases (SB),  
186 exchangeable aluminium (Al and the cation H+Al), Saturation Index by Aluminium (m), Base  
187 Saturation Index (V), effective cation exchange capacity (t), and cation exchange capacity (T).  
188 In the second analysis we used silt, clay, and three sand fractions (fine, thick, and total). Since  
189 the first PCA axis explained 66% of both chemical and physical variables, we used the first  
190 PCA axis of each analysis in the subsequent analyses. Given their importance in regulating  
191 the soil biota, we also used soil organic carbon content (Nielson et al., 2011) and pH (Lauber  
192 et al., 2009) as independent variables.

**Comentado [h6]:** It's S1

**Comentado [h7]:** Lines 73 and 97 in your R script. I would recommend changing the label parameter to label = FALSE

**Comentado [h8]:** I don't understand the sentence, if you rarefied to the lowest sample why do you do an average? It is confusing, you should say something like: An average value was computed to calculate the richness of each location after using ...

**Comentado [h9]:** prokaryotic

**Comentado [h10]:** eukaryotic

**Comentado [h11]:** It's not in the bibliography

193

194 To address our first research question (Does genetic diversity (measured as OTU richness) of  
195 the litter layer predict the OTU diversity of the underlying soil, for eukaryotes (18S) and  
196 prokaryotes (16S)?), we analysed the relationship between litter and soil OTU richness for  
197 prokaryote (16S) and eukaryote (18S) data using a linear regression model (the *lm* function in  
198 R). We analysed community dissimilarity between the different substrates performing two  
199 two-dimensional non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordinations of the  
200 presence/absence matrices. The first ordination was of litter and soil for prokaryotes (16S),  
201 and the second for eukaryotes (18S). Both ordinations used the quantitative version of the  
202 Jaccard dissimilarity index as implemented in the metaMDS function in the package vegan.  
203 Additionally, we used the “envfit” method implemented in vegan to fit substrate type (litter or  
204 soil) onto the NMDS ordination as a measure of the correlation of these factors with the  
205 NMDS axes. To visualize the OTU community similarity among plots, we constructed a  
206 similarity network with the qgraph v. 1.4.4 (Epskamp et al., 2012) package in R using a  
207 similarity index (1/Jaccard dissimilarity).

208

209 To address our second research question (Are eukaryote (18S) and prokaryote (16S) OTU  
210 richness and community composition correlated with physical and chemical soil properties? If  
211 so, what are the most important soil compounds correlates with biodiversity?), we performed  
212 four Bayesian general linear models (GLM) as implemented in the R-INLA v. 17.6.20 R  
213 package (Rue et al., 2009) with the OTU richness of litter and soil from the prokaryote (16S)  
214 and eukaryote (18S) data as response variables, and soil properties as explanatory variables.  
215 We first tested the effect of spatial auto-correlations by comparing analyses of standard  
216 GLMs, with GLM analysis using stochastic partial differential equations (SPDE) that

217 explicitly consider spatial correlation. Three plots were missing sand, silt, and clay  
218 information, and the corresponding values were therefore inferred through calculation of the  
219 regression weights from the observed data using the mice v. 2.30 R package (Buuren and  
220 Groothuis-Oudshoorn, 2011).

221  
222 To investigate the effects of soil compounds on community composition, we performed four  
223 partial Mantel tests using the distance matrices of geographical distance, environmental (soil  
224 properties) distance, and community distance (using the quantitative Jaccard dissimilarity).  
225 We then performed variation partitioning using the quantitative Jaccard dissimilarity distance-  
226 based redundancy analysis on the litter and soil data for the prokaryote (16S) and eukaryote  
227 (18S) communities. Variation partitioning gives an indication of the unique and shared  
228 contribution of each explanatory variable to the total community variation (Legendre and  
229 Legendre, 1998). We used the “varpart” function of the vegan package and assessed the  
230 significance for each section of the variation partitioning approach using redundancy analysis.

231  
232 Additional R packages we used for data curation and visualization were tidyverse v. 1.1.1  
233 (Wickham, 2017), Hmisc v. 4.0-3 (Harrell Jr., 2016), ggfortify v. 0.1.0 (Tang et al., 2016),  
234 gridExtra v. 2.2.1 (Auguie, Antonov and Auguie 2016), ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016), and viridis  
235 v. 0.4.0 (Garnier, 2016). Scripts for all analyses are provided in the supplementary material.

236  
237 **3. Results**  
238 **3.1. CORRELATION BETWEEN LITTER AND SOIL OTU RICHNESS (RESEARCH QUESTION 1)**

**Comentado [h12]:** Only taking into account richness not Evenness

**Comentado [h13]:** The reference is from 2008 and it's Harrell Jr. And Dupont.

**Comentado [h14]:** Not in bibliography

239 The mean of the rarefied numbers and standard deviations of OTUs for each plot for litter and  
240 soil separately are provided in Table S1, and the rarefaction curves are showed in Figure S1.  
241 We found a weak positive correlation between litter and soil OTU richness for prokaryotes  
242 (adj.  $R^2$  0.25,  $p < 0.001$ ; Fig. 2A). For eukaryotes, the correlation was not significant (Fig.  
243 2B). However, we registered an outlier for the plot “CXNCAMP3” with very low soil OTU  
244 richness. Excluding this data point strengthened the correlation for prokaryotes (adj.  $R^2$  0.46,  
245  $p < 0.001$ ; Fig. S2A), but not for eukaryotes (Fig. S2B).

**Comentado [h15]:** This value doesn't fit with the one showed in the Figure 2.

246  
247 The community composition of litter and soil had a weak separation on the two axes of the  
248 NMDS, even by habitat type (Fig. 3). The envfit test indicated weak but significant effects of  
249 substrate type on both the prokaryote ( $R^2$  of 0.1,  $p < 0.001$ ) and eukaryote ( $R^2$  of 0.11,  $p <$   
250 0.001) community compositions and a strong effect on the habitat type on both the prokaryote  
251 ( $R^2$  of 0.40,  $p < 0.001$ ) and eukaryote ( $R^2$  of 0.17,  $p < 0.001$ ) community composition. The  
252 similarity network shows a weak separation between litter and soil for both the prokaryote and  
253 the eukaryote communities (Fig. S4). There is no clear taxonomic variation among groups in  
254 litter or soil, neither in the prokaryote nor in the eukaryote data (Fig. 4).

**Comentado [h16]:** It is not strong

**Comentado [h17]:** It could be stronger if you take into account the relative abundance of each OTU. Computing the analysis with

**Comentado [h18]:** It should be called S3

**Comentado [h19]:** prokaryotic

**Comentado [h20]:** eukaryotic

255  
256 3.2. CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SOIL PROPERTIES AND OTU COMPOSITION (RESEARCH QUESTION  
257 2)

258 The first PCA axis represents a substantial proportion of the variation of the physical (66%)  
259 and chemical (66%) data. In the physical data PCA, large values are associated with coarse  
260 texture and small values with fine texture. The increasing values of PCA 1 are associated with  
261 silt (-0.45), clay (-0.38), fine sand fraction (0.28), coarse sand fraction (0.52), and total sand

262 fraction (0.55; Table S2). The first axis of PC1 is separated by habitat type with some overlap  
 263 of campinas (Fig. 5A). For the chemical data, large values are associated with poor soils. The  
 264 largest negative association was -0.35, namely the sum of all exchangeable bases (SB). The  
 265 largest positive association was 0.29, viz. the aluminium saturation index (Table S3). The  
 266 habitat types are not well separated along the first axis of the chemical PCA, with highly  
 267 scattered igapós and várzeas values. Campinas and terra firme, on the other hand, are  
 268 associated with positive values (poor soils) (Fig. 5B). For all datasets, the best GLM models –  
 269 considering the deviance information criterion (DIC) and Watanabe-Akaike information  
 270 criterion (WAIC) – were those that included spatial correlation (Table S4). For prokaryotes,  
 271 we identified organic carbon as an important predictor of OTU richness for both soil and  
 272 litter. In addition, chemical PC1 was a significant predictor for soil OTU richness and  
 273 physical PC1 for litter OTU richness. For eukaryote OTU richness, the most important  
 274 predictors were pH and organic carbon, for both litter and soil (Table 1). Overall, soil organic  
 275 carbon had the strongest effect on OTU richness for prokaryotes and eukaryotes in litter and  
 276 soil, showing a negative correlation.

**Comentado [h21]:** Not True. There is a mix of samples in the negative part of PC1 with some outliers from campinas and terra-firme.

**Comentado [h22]:** The same is shown in the Physical plot with respect to campinas.

**Comentado [h23]:** Change in Table text OUT for OTU

277

278 The Mantel test showed a significant association between environmental distance (soil  
 279 properties) and community similarity (Jaccard dissimilarity index) for all datasets (prokaryote  
 280 – soil [R = 0.52, p = 0.001], litter [R = 0.57, p = 0.001]; eukaryote – soil [R = 0.38, p = 0.001],  
 281 litter [R = 0.54, p = 0.001]). Accounting for geographic distances using partial Mantel tests  
 282 caused only a small decrease in the correlation coefficients, and all the correlations remained  
 283 highly significant (prokaryote – soil [R = 0.48, p = 0.001], litter [R = 0.53, p = 0.001];  
 284 eukaryote – soil [R = 0.35, p = 0.001], litter [R = 0.51, p = 0.001]).

**Comentado [h24]:** Add a space

285

286 The variation partitioning revealed that a moderate total percentage of the community  
287 variation was explained by soil **physic**-chemical data in the soil prokaryote model (33%) and  
288 in the litter prokaryote model (37%; Fig. 6). Soil physic-chemical data had a higher  
289 explanatory power for prokaryotes than for eukaryotes, with a total of 12% of community  
290 variation explained for soil and 18% for the litter communities for eukaryotes. Inside each  
291 dataset (prokaryote and eukaryote), the litter communities are more structured by soil  
292 characteristics than are the soil communities. All variables explained small but significant  
293 proportions of the variance in all communities, and showed some weak but significant  
294 interactions (Fig. 6).

295

## 296 4. Discussion

### 297 4.1. CONTRASTING LITTER AND SOIL DIVERSITY

298 A regression between soil and litter richness of prokaryotes and a non-significant regression  
299 between soil and litter OTU richness of eukaryotes was observed. Contrary to our expectation  
300 of litter being more dominated by plants and nematodes and soil by microorganisms, **we could**  
301 **not observe a difference in proportion of taxonomic groups between the soil and litter** (Fig. 4).  
302 This means that on the Amazon basin scale, the taxonomic composition at higher levels  
303 (phylum and order) is consistent between litter and soil. **Interestingly, the dominance order of**  
304 **the phyla in our samples was only partly congruent with the one recently reported in a large**  
305 **global dataset** (Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2018). While we, too, found Proteobacteria to be the  
306 most dominant phylum, the second most abundant phylum was Chloroflexi in our samples

**Comentado [h25]:** physico

**Comentado [h26]:** It's difficult to say when not considering relative abundance

**Comentado [h27]:** It's absolutely wrong! Delgado-Baquerizo et al. took into account the relative abundance of each OTU before evaluating the dominance of the different phyla (Figure 1c of that study).

307 while this phylum was only the 5<sup>th</sup> most abundant in the global dataset. Moreover, the rank-  
308 abundance distribution of the most dominant phyla was remarkably more even in our tropical  
309 sample than in the global sample, with Proteobacteria accounting for just over 20% of all  
310 reads (versus almost 40% in the global dataset) and 8 phyla accounting for > 5% of relative  
311 frequency each versus only 4 in Delgado-Baquerizo et al., (2018). For eukaryotes, too, we  
312 found contrasting results. For instance, unlike Porazinska et al. (2012) who found a  
313 dominance of nematodes in the litter of tropical forest, we found very similar proportions of  
314 nematode OTUs in soil and litter, with the highest diversity in the soil (Fig. 4). These  
315 differences could be related to sampling or primer biases but also may be related to  
316 differences in the forest structure between studies. Taken together these differences highlight  
317 the need of more studies across Amazon basin.

**Comentado [h28]:** These data are not shown neither in results nor in supplementary material.

318  
319 The OTU community composition was weakly correlated among samples at the OTU level,  
320 but we could not observe it on the phylum or order levels (Fig. 4). This is expected since for  
321 instance fungi can be anticipated to be a dominant group in any soil environment, including  
322 tropical forests (Tedersoo et al. 2017), but the dominant fungal taxa (OTU) may vary  
323 considerably even on local and sub-local scales in these forests (Urbanová et al. 2015).  
324 Urbanová et al. (2015) found similar results for bacteria and fungi; the phylum level indicated  
325 the same magnitude of diversity in soils and litter, but there were striking differences on the  
326 OTU level. The habitat types explain a higher proportion of community variation than does  
327 the substrate type, which is expected since both substrates would share a large number of  
328 organisms.

**Comentado [h29]:** Not shown anywhere. All the sampling locations are mixed in the results presented in Figure 4.



330 4.2. SOIL PREDICTORS OF OTU COMPOSITION

331 Soil **properties** are thought to be useful predictors of diversity and composition of  
332 microorganism communities, as inferred from several vegetation types globally (e.g. Lauber  
333 et al., 2009; Fierer et al., 2012; Navarrete et al., 2013; Barnes et al., 2016). In this study, we  
334 found that in Amazonia the soil properties we quantified have variable effects on OTU  
335 richness and community composition for litter and soil, and that they furthermore vary  
336 between prokaryotes and eukaryotes.

337

338 Considering the results from the linear models, pH was the second strongest factor in  
339 explaining both litter and soil eukaryote richness, although it had only a weak effect on  
340 prokaryote richness. Lauber et al. (2009) found pH to be the main factor in explaining  
341 bacterial phylogenetic diversity and phylogenetic composition, where soils with pH between  
342 4.5 and 8 had the lowest micro-organismal diversity, even in tropical forests with high macro-  
343 organism diversity. In our samples, the variation in pH was moderate, from 3.65 to 5.14. **The**  
344 **variation observed for the effect of pH (and other soil variables) in different sets of organisms**  
345 **(e.g. Acidobacteria and Actinobacteria) could help us understand the low percentage of**  
346 **explained variation for prokaryotes.**

347

348 Biotic and abiotic conditions jointly determine soil properties, which in turn interact with  
349 biotic and abiotic factors in a feedback loop. It is therefore important to consider  
350 environmental and biological interactions between variables. Indeed, our variance analysis  
351 reveals several interactions between soil compounds, although these interactions are weak.

**Comentado [h30]:** properties

**Comentado [h31]:** eukaryotic

**Comentado [h32]:** prokaryotic

**Comentado [h33]:** Where are the results to support this assumption?

352 This analysis is important for providing a better understanding of the study system, but it is  
353 limited to the variables we are able to sample. The first axis of physical PCA was well  
354 separated by the habitat types, however the first axis of chemical PCA was less well separated  
355 for flooded areas (igapós and várzeas). The campinas, which are associated with soil of the  
356 white sand type, are grouped in the extreme of positive values followed by terra-firme. In our  
357 results the large values of first axis of chemical PCA are associated with poor soils (Table  
358 S3). These results agree with previous studies, which report both habitats as being related with  
359 poor soils (Falesi, 1984; Prance, 1996; Fine et al., 2005).

**Comentado [h34]:** As I told you above, the separation is scattered in both plots for some samples.

**Comentado [h35]:** Both too scattered to assume this.

**Comentado [h36]:** largest

360

361 We found a negative correlation of soil organic carbon with OTU richness for all groups. This  
362 is a puzzling result, since soil organic carbon is often used as an indicator of soil biomass  
363 (Fierer et al., 2009), and soil biodiversity has previously been found to be correlated with  
364 carbon sequestration (Wagg et al., 2013). However, the relationship between soil biodiversity  
365 and carbon has varied across studies (Nielson et al., 2011). Furthermore, Fierer et al. (2012)  
366 and de Lima Brossi et al. (2014) found that soil organic matter was related to microbial  
367 community composition in several different vegetation types. The negative correlation  
368 between soil organic carbon content and OTU richness reported here might be related to high  
369 decomposition rates, keeping the carbon stock locked in aboveground biomass and low in the  
370 soil. Our results support the findings of Wall et al. (2008), who found a positive influence of  
371 richness of soil biota on decomposition rates in wet tropical environments. Along the same  
372 line, Wagg et al. (2013) found that soil diversity and soil community composition are related  
373 through nutrient cycling. Decreases in soil diversity and changes in soil communities alter the  
374 ability of soil organisms to break down organic matter and recycle nutrients, rendering the

**Comentado [h37]:** Not in the bibliography

**Comentado [h38]:** The reference is incomplete

375 return of nutrients to the above-ground community difficult (Wardle et al., 2004). These  
376 findings stress the complex nature of carbon-diversity dynamics and the plant–soil feedback  
377 mediated by soil biota (Mangan et al. 2010).

378

379 **5. Conclusions**

380 In this study we found significant correlations between physio-chemical soil properties and  
381 genetic diversity in Amazonia. Across the study area, we found that OTU richness and  
382 community composition are in part explained by different soil compounds. These compounds  
383 interact in a complex way, which stresses the importance of considering multiple factors and  
384 their interactions in the characterization of biodiversity patterns. Our most striking result was  
385 the negative correlation between organic carbon and OTU richness, and the effect of organic  
386 carbon on community composition. Soils are crucial for carbon cycling in terrestrial  
387 ecosystems, and our results suggest that a better understanding of the relationship between  
388 diversity (above and belowground) and carbon cycles might be essential for modelling carbon  
389 deposition and diversity patterns in the world’s largest and most biodiverse rainforest.

390

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Comentado [h39]: physico

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571 **Data Availability and Accessibility:**

572

573 - DNA sequences: GenBank accessions XXXXXXXX-XXXXXX; NCBI SRA:

574 XXXXXXXXXXXX

575 - Final DNA sequence assembly uploaded as online supplementary items

576 - Sampling locations, soil physical-chemical data, OTU tables, and R-scripts: Dryad

577 doi:XXXXXX

578

579 **Authors' contributions**

580 CDR, AA, and RHN conceived this study; CDR collected the data; CDR, AZ, and RHN

581 performed the analyses; CDR wrote the manuscript with contributions from all authors. All

582 authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

**Comentado [h40]:** You have to submit your fastq files to NCBI SRA and provide the BioProject number or the BioSample numbers.