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Eukaryotes in soil aggregates across conservation managements: Major roles of protists, fungi and taxa linkages in soil structuring and C stock

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Journal Pre-proof

Eukaryotes in soil aggregates across conservation managements: major roles of protists, fungi and taxa linkages in soil structuring and C stock

Running title: eukaryotic diversity and roles in soil aggregates

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Abstract

The stabilization of soil organic carbon (SOC) promoted by conservation agriculture (CA) depends on soil aggregation. Aggregation protects SOC and creates heterogeneous microhabitats hosting diverse soil biota which in turn promote aggregation. A long-term experiment, studying the interaction of tillage with nitrogen (N) fertilization on a soybean-wheat rotation, was used to investigate eukaryotic community diversity, composition, and structure within small macroaggregates (sM) and occluded microaggregates (mM). Using high-throughput Illumina sequencing, we found (i) a different eukaryote diversity response to management intensification across soil aggregates and soil depths; (ii) a conserved core community composition of eukaryotes across CA treatments and aggregates at surface and subsurface layers; (iii) a different effect of tillage on eukaryotic community structure in sM and mM along the soil profile according to N availability; (iv) a positive association of protists, and fungi with the amount of sM and mM, and their SOC content; (v) a stronger complexity of within- and cross-domain networks (eukaryotes and eukaryotes-prokaryotes) in mM than in sM at surface layer. Overall, our findings demonstrated for

the first time that protists together with fungi play major roles in soil structuring and C cycling, and that Cercozoa represent hubs in soil biota aggregate networks.

Keywords

soil aggregates; soil eukaryotes; protists; Illumina sequencing; 18S rRNA gene amplicon; soil biota linkages.

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1. Introduction

Soil organic carbon (SOC) stability mainly depends on physical protection (Six et al., 2000; Six and Paustian, 2014), whereas molecular structure of plant residues and root exudates play a secondary role in SOC persistence (Schmidt et al., 2011; Lal et al., 2015). Organic carbon (C) is protected in soil aggregates by physically limiting the access of decomposers and enzymes and the diffusion of O_2.

According to the model of Tisdall and Oades (1982), primary particles (clay and silt particles, Ø <53 µm) are bound together by persistent bacterial, fungal, and plant debris into free microaggregates (Ø 53-250 µm). Free microaggregates are bound into macroaggregates (Ø > 250 µm) by transient agents (i.e., microbial and plant polysaccharides) that are rapidly decomposed by microorganisms, and by temporary agents (i.e., roots, fungal hyphae and glomalin) that persist in the medium term. Labile SOC is mainly located in macroaggregates, while free microaggregates contain a more recalcitrant SOC pool (Elliott, 1986; Jastrow and Miller, 1998).

Intensive agricultural practices, such as tillage and fertilization, shorten the life cycle of macroaggregates and diminish the formation rate of new microaggregates, worsening soil structure (Six et al., 2000). In no-tillage systems (NT), the slower turn-over of macroaggregates resulted in more sequestration of crop-derived C in microaggregates formed within macroaggregates (occluded microaggregates, mM; Ø 53-250 µm), and thus the amount of mM is crucial for the long-term C-sequestration in soils (Six et al., 2000; Denef et al., 2007; Sheehy et al., 2015). In this context, the application of conservation agriculture (CA) practices (i.e., minimum tillage/NT, crop rotation and mulching) may allow the establishment of microhabitats with variable nutrient availabilities for a diverse soil biota, acting as efficient binding agent (Kong et al., 2011; Gupta and Germida, 2015; Totsche et al., 2018; Piazza et al., 2019). Moreover, CA practices may also produce yields equivalent to or even greater than conventional systems (Rusinamhodzi et al., 2011; Aune, 2012; Pittelkow et al., 2015; Himmelstein et al., 2016).

In boreal climates, long-term NT and minimum tillage (MT) have been shown to increase the amount of macroaggregates and mM as well as their SOC content in the shallow layer (surface soil within horizon A) in comparison to conventional tillage (CT) (Franzluebbers and Arshad, 1997; Sheehy et al., 2015). This was demonstrated under various soil textures and was more evident in clay, clay-loam and silt-loam soils. Similarly, in humid tropical climates and sandy loam soils, long-term application of MT significantly increased SOC content in large soil aggregates, whereas the reverse was reported under CT (Onweremadu et al., 2007). Accordingly, Denef et al. (2007) highlighted a promotion of mM fraction and mM-associated C stocks in NT and MT compared with CT under similar climate. Moreover, nitrogen (N) fertilization was reported to increase SOC in macroaggregates and free microaggregates by decreasing the activity of cellulolytic fungi and bacteria (Ghosh et al., 2019; Duan et al., 2021). Recently, in a cold and humid Mediterranean area and in a silt-loam soil, high N fertilization rates in combination with MT not only increased mM, but also promoted a shift to low level, but more efficient C-cycling microbial enzyme activities, which were correlated to a greater accumulation of SOC (Piazza et al., 2020). Overall, in four regions across Europe the intensification of agriculture was reported to consistently reduce soil biota diversity in bulk soil, making soil food webs less diverse and composed of smaller bodied organisms (Tsiafouli et al., 2015).

Although the role of bacterial and fungal communities (including arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi, AMF) in soil aggregation and SOC stabilization is widely recognized to be fundamental (Six et al., 2004; Lehmann et al., 2017; Bach et al., 2018), the diversity and potential role of other soil biota have received less attention. Soil biota diversity has indeed proved to be the major driver of C sequestration and nutrient cycling in bulk soil (De Vries et al., 2013; Wagg et al., 2019; Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2020). Many studies demonstrated that earthworms and bacterivore nematodes are directly involved in the formation of macroaggregates by incorporating fresh organic matter inside mM and thus promoting SOC accumulation (Six et al., 2004; Pulleman et al., 2005; Bossuyt et al., 2006; Fonte et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2013; Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2020). Moreover, an indirect

84 effect on SOC accumulation by earthworms and bactrivorous nematodes was also reported and
85 explained by the shift of soil microbial diversity through taxa regulating nutrient flow (Delgado-
86 Baquerizo et al., 2020). Thus, in this study, we investigate the diversity and related roles of the
87 eukaryotic component of soil biota within small macroaggregates (sM) and mM across CA
88 managements. Moreover, since a more connected soil biota network takes up more C (Morriën et
89 al., 2017), the study was extended to elucidate how eukaryotes are connected among each other, and
90 to the prokaryotic community. In this context, long-term CA field experiments in the Mediterranean
91 area, such as the one used in this study, provide a great opportunity for improving the understanding
92 of soil eukaryotic diversity and functionality in soil aggregates and C stocks.

93 The following hypotheses were tested: (1) conservation tillage and N fertilization shift soil
94 eukaryote community diversity, composition and structure, in soil aggregates along the soil profile;
95 (2) soil aggregates differentially shape the diversity, composition and structure of soil eukaryotes;
96 (3) some eukaryotic taxa are predictors for soil structuring and C stocks; (4) eukaryotes form
97 structured assemblages and distinctive networks in soil aggregates (within-domain networks); (5)
98 the traits of the eukaryotes-prokaryotes networks vary across aggregates (cross-domain networks),
99 and some network traits can predict soil structuring and C stocks.

100

101 **2. Materials and Methods**

102 *2.1. Field experiment*

103 A long-term CA field experiment on a bread wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) - soybean (*Glycine*
104 *max* L. Merr.) rotation was set up in 1993 at the Centro Interdipartimentale di Ricerche Agro-
105 Ambientali Enrico Avanzi (Pisa, Italy; 43°40' latitude N; 10° 19' longitude E; 1 m above sea level)
106 in an alluvial silt loam soil (131, 613 and 256 g kg^{-1} of sand, silt and clay, respectively). The
107 experiment was conducted comparing two tillage intensities and two N fertilization levels. The
108 tillage intensities were: conservation tillage (minimum tillage, MT: disk harrowing at 15-cm depth)

and conventional tillage (CT: mouldboard ploughing at 25-cm depth, disking and harrowing at 15-cm depth). The N fertilization levels applied only to bread wheat were: 0 and 200 kg N ha^{-1} (N0 and N200, respectively). The soil is classified as Typic Xerofluvent by USDA system (Soil Survey Staff, 1975) and as Fluvisol by FAO (IUSS, 2006). Climate of the site is cold, humid Mediterranean (Csa), according to the Köppen-Geiger climate classification (Kottek et al., 2006). The experiment was arranged following a split-plot design, with tillage as main-plot factor and N fertilization as subplot factor and three replicate plots (dimension: 11.5 x 14.5 m). The N fertilizer treatment was applied as urea and the rate was split into three applications, before sowing (60 kg N ha^{-1}), at the first detectable node (70 kg N ha^{-1}), and 15 days after this stage (70 kg N ha^{-1}). Under CT, almost 100% of the residues were incorporated in the 0-25 cm soil layer, whereas under MT approximately 50% of the crop residues were incorporated at 0-15 cm depth. Crops were managed applying pre-emergence herbicide for weed control and no disease or insect treatments (Piazza et al., 2020).

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2.2. Soil sampling and analysis of soil physical and chemical parameters

Soil sampling was carried out in Spring 2016 before soybean sowing. In each replicate plot, a homogenized sample was obtained by mixing four soil cores collected at two soil depths (surface layer: 0-15 cm; sub-surface layer: 15-30 cm). A total of twenty-four soil samples were collected (12 at the surface layer; 12 at the subsurface layer). Once in the laboratory, each sample was air-dried, gently broken apart and then passed through an 8-mm sieve. The isolation of small macroaggregates (sM; 250-2000 µm) was done from 80 g of the sieved soil samples by the wet sieving method (Six et al., 1999). Occluded microaggregates (mM; 53-250 µm) were isolated from an additional isolation of sM (i.e., starting from 80 g of the sieved soil samples) and utilising a device designed and built by Piazza et al. (2020). Once collected, the fractions were freeze-dried (FreeZone 2.5 Labconco, Kansas City, MO, USA) for 48-72 h for dry weight determination and chemical and molecular analyses. Both aggregate fractions of all samples were then analysed for SOC by CHN

combustion method (LECO, Italy) and SOC content was calculated and expressed in Mg ha^{-1} (Bremner and Mulvaney, 1982; Piazza et al., 2020).

2.3. Molecular analyses

DNA was extracted from 0.25 g of sM (n=24) and mM samples (n=24) using the DNeasy PowerSoil Kit (QIAGEN, Venlo, Netherlands). The DNA extracts were then quantified by a spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technology, Wilmington, DE) and stored at -20 °C. PCRs were generated from 10 ng μL^{-1} genomic DNA in volumes of 25 µL with 0.125 U μL^{-1} of GoTaq® Hot Start Polymerase (Promega Corporation, WA, USA), 0.5 µM of each primer, 0.2 mM of each dNTP, 1 mM of $MgCl_2$ and 1x reaction buffer, using the PTC-200 96-well Peltier Thermal Cycler (MJ Research, MA, USA). The primers were TAReuk454FWD1-ill (5'-TCGTCGGCAGCGTCAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGANNNHNNNWNNNHCCAGCASCYGC GGTAATTCC-3') and TAReukREV3-ill (5'-GTCTCGTGGGCTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGTACTTTCGTTCTTGATYRA-3') (modified from Stoeck et al., 2010). The primer pair has attached Illumina sequencing tags, and for the forward primer a 13 bp random sequence was included in order to improve cluster definition on the MiSeq slide. Primers target the hypervariable region V4 of the small subunit ribosomal RNA (SSU rRNA 18S) gene fragment. The thermal cycler was programmed as follows: 95 °C for 2 min, 35 cycles at 94 °C for 30 s, 50 °C for 45 sec, 72 °C for 1 min and 30 s and a final extension step at 72 °C for 10 min. PCR products were examined by electrophoresis through a 1% agarose gel in 0.5 × TBE buffer, then purified with magnetic beads (Agencourt® AMPure® XP, Beckman Coulter, USA) and freshly prepared 80% ethanol, and quantified by fluorimetry with the use of Quant-iT™ dsDNA HS (High-Sensitivity) Assay Kit (Invitrogen by Thermo Fisher Scientific, CA, USA), following the instructions of the manufacturer. Cleaned and quantified amplicons of each library were adjusted in an equimolar ratio (10 ng/µL) for the required Illumina P5 and P7 sequences

addition along with index sequences in a new PCR step. Indexing was performed using primers from the Nextera® Index kit (sets A and D; Illumina Inc., CA, USA) and the resulting metabarcoding libraries were sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq sequencer (2 * 300 bp paired-end reads) at the Genomics and Bioinformatics Laboratory (Technology Facility, Department of Biology, University of York, UK). Details are given in the Supplementary Methods 1.

2.4. Bioinformatic analyses

Raw data generated from the Illumina MiSeq sequencing run were processed and analyzed following the pipelines of QIIME 2 (2018.4) and USEARCH (v10.0.240) (Edgar, 2010; Caporaso et al., 2012). Forward and reverse paired-end sequences were assembled independently for each sample using -fastq_mergepairs USEARCH command. Primer sequences were then trimmed off by employing cutadapt plugin (2018.4) with default settings. To avoid potential errors in sequencing data, quality of sequence reads was checked by -fastq_eestats2 USEARCH command, using the expected number of errors in a read as a measure of quality for filtering (Edgar and Flyvbjerg, 2015). Reads were then trimmed at the length where the "drop-off" point for the maximum expected error value occurred (250 bp). Quality filtered reads were de-replicated by -fastx_uniques USEARCH command, then Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) were generated using USEARCH by clustering sequence reads at the 97% similarity threshold. During the process, chimeric sequences and singletons were removed from the dataset. For the curation, the sequences were aligned using ClustalW and then Neighbor Joining (NJ) phylogenetic tree was built in MEGA7 (Kumar et al., 2016) (https://www.megasoftware.net). The most abundant sequence of the eukaryotic OTU in each cluster was selected, and used as representative sequence for that OTU after branch collapsing. For the curation, the sequences were aligned using ClustalW and then Neighbor Joining (NJ) phylogenetic tree was built in MEGA7 (Kumar et al., 2016) (https://www.megasoftware.net). The most abundant sequence of the eukaryotic OTU in each

184 cluster was selected, and used as representative sequence for that OTU after branch collapsing. The
185 OTUs were phylogenetically assigned using the 18S SSU SILVA database (version 132, release
186 date 13.12.2017) (Quast et al., 2012; Yilmaz et al., 2013) by clustering sequence reads at the 97%
187 similarity threshold. After curation, the representative sequences were re-aligned using ClustalW
188 and the phylogenetic tree was built in MEGA7 using the Neighbor Joining (NJ) analysis with 1 000
189 boostrap replicates and the Kimura 2-parameter model (uniform rates).

190 The suitability of the eukaryotic community sampling was verified by rarefaction curves
191 plotting the number of eukaryotic classes/phyla *versus* the number of sequence reads, while
192 accumulation curves were calculated plotting the number of classes/phyla *versus* the number of soil
193 samples using the package Vegan in R (Oksanen et al., 2013). Since there was a high variability in
194 the number of reads per sample, sequencing depth per sample was standardized to the median
195 number of reads across the samples in each data matrix using the same package in R (standardized
196 datasets). All representative sequences were deposited in the NCBI GenBank database
197 (SUB5948379 submission: MN178662-MN178794 accession numbers).

198 Prokaryotic data were obtained from the same soil matrices and depths (Piazza, 2019) and were
199 based on the V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene sequenced using a MiSeq Illumina approach
200 (SUB5941754 submission: MN171543-MN172157 accession numbers).

201

202 *2.5. Statistical analyses*

203 To test hypothesis 1 - Conservation tillage and N fertilization shift soil eukaryote community
204 diversity, composition and structure in soil aggregates along soil profile - analysis of variance
205 (ANOVA), Venn diagrams and permutational analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) were applied.
206 Concerning diversity, richness, Shannon index (*H'*) and Simpson index ($\lambda = 1- \lambda'$) were calculated
207 at class level and analysed by two-way ANOVA, according to the experimental design. These
208 analyses were done in Vegan package in R and plotted by ggplot2 (Wickham and Chang, 2008).

Data were ln--transformed when needed to fulfil the assumptions of ANOVA. Post-hoc Tukey-B significant difference test was used for comparison among treatments. Concerning composition, Venn diagrams were drawn to visualize the OTUs unique to the treatments as well as the shared ones. The standardized datasets were used to generate the Venn diagrams by the online tool InteractiVenn (http://www.interactivenn.net; Heberle et al., 2015). Concerning structure, the relative abundances of eukaryotes were calculated at class level and the permutational analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) (Anderson and Braak, 2003) and the analysis of homogeneity of multivariate dispersion (PERMDISP) were used to test the effect of treatments (Togerson, 1958; Clarke and Gorley, 2006). Response data were square-root transformed to down-weight the dominant taxa and the Bray-Curtis index of dissimilarity was used to measure ecological distance. When PERMANOVA indicated a significant effect, the principal coordinate analysis (PCO) was carried out (Anderson et al., 2008) to visualize the most relevant patterns in the response data. In each PCO biplot, only the taxa with a strong correlation (r = 0.50-0.80) with the ordination scores on each PCO axis were displayed. *P*-values were calculated using the Monte-Carlo test and residuals were permuted according to the experimental model (Oksanen et al., 2013). Multivariate analyses were performed using PRIMER 6 and PERMANOVA+ software (Clarke and Gorley, 2006; Anderson et al., 2008).

To test hypothesis 2 - Soil aggregates differentially shape the diversity, composition and structure of soil eukaryotes - eukaryotic richness, *H'* and λ at phylum level and at both soil depths were analysed by one-way ANOVA, using soil matrix (sM *vs* mM) as fixed factor, and tillage and N fertilization as covariates. Analyses were performed in Vegan package in R and data were plotted by ggplot2. Data were ln-transformed when needed to fulfil the assumptions of ANOVA, and the post-hoc Tukey-B significant difference test was used for comparison among treatments. Moreover, the effect of matrix on composition and structure were analysed at phylum level using the Venn diagrams and PERMANOVAs, as described above.

To test hypothesis 3 **-** Some eukaryotic taxa are potential predictors for soil structuring and C stocks - multiple regression analysis was applied using as independent variables the standardized relative abundances (calculated as described above) of eukaryotic taxa at class level. To account for the compositional nature of the data, an additive log-ratio transformation was applied (Gloor et al., 2017). The dependent variables were sM and mM weights, and SOC content per unit of surface in sM and mM. The assumptions of the linear regression model were verified (Supplementary Method 2) and the multiple linear regression analysis was applied using a stepwise method with the following probability criteria: $P < 0.05$ to accept and of $P > 0.05$ to remove a phylum or a within/cross-domain network traits. Multiple regressions were performed using the SPSS software package version 25.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, United States)**.** Details about regression analysis are reported in Supplementary Methods 2.

To test hypothesis 4 - Eukaryotes form structured assemblages and distinctive networks in soil aggregates - we built networks using the SParse InversE Covariance estimation for Ecological ASsociation Inference (SPIEC-EASI) package version 0.1 in R (https://github.com/zdk123/SpiecEasi/). SPIEC-EASI is a pipeline for inferring sparse inverse covariance matrix within and between multiple compositional datasets, under joint sparsity penalty (Kurtz et al., 2015). The within-domain analyses were performed on the standardized eukaryotic dataset at class level for each soil matrix and depth. The neighborhood selection (MB method) was applied as graphical inference model (Meinshausen and Bühlmann, 2010), since it has been shown to better perform than other available methods (e.g., CCREPE, SPARCC, SPIEC-EASI glasso) (Kurtz et al., 2015). The Stability Approach to Regularization Selection (StARS) was applied to select the optimal sparsity parameter (Liu et al., 2010), and the StARS variability threshold was set to 0.05 and $n\lambda$ to 100 for all networks. We evaluated the weights of the edges in the networks using SPIEC-EASI (frequency *versus* edge weights = modularity), and we plotted the degree distributions of frequencies of the edges using adj2igraph (Kurtz et al., 2015). In the networks a node represents a connected taxon, an edge the connection between taxa, a singleton an unconnected taxon and a

dyad two connected taxa. For the eukaryotic networks (within-domain network) we calculated the following parameters: number of nodes excluding singletons, number of edges, number of singletons and dyads, number of subnetworks (a subnetwork is a network composed by at least three nodes), mean nodes per subnetwork, linkage density (complexity: the average number of edges per node), percentage of positive interactions and modularity. Moreover, in each network, we calculated the frequency of the phyla within the subnetworks, the mean of edges and nodes, and the percentage of positive edges for each phylum. Details about trait calculations are given in Supplementary Methods 3.

To test hypothesis 5 - The traits of the eukaryotes-prokaryotes networks vary across aggregates we inferred the associations between eukaryotes and prokaryotes domains by the cross-domain extension of SPIEC-EASI (Kurtz et al. 2015; Tripton et al., 2018). The same traits calculated for within-domain networks, except for the positive edges, were assessed (Supplementary Methods 3). In addition, the percentage of eukaryotes/prokaryotes per subnetwork was calculated and the number of subnetworks with only eukaryotes, only prokaryotes and with both domains were counted. The significance of the cross-domain relationships was tested by the Mantel test (Mantel and Valand, 1970) on the standardized read data that were centered and normalized and using the function Jaccard in PC-ORD 5 to build the resemblance matrix (Grandin, 2006) and also by the co-Correspondence Analysis (CoCA) (ter Braak and Schaffers, 2004) in CANOCO 5 (ter Braak and Smilauer, 2012). To test if some network traits can predict soil structuring and C stocks - a multiple linear regression was performed after verification of the assumptions (Supplementary Methods 3). The analysis was performed using as independent variables the log(1+x)-transformed and normalized within- and cross-domain network traits in sM and mM (i.e., traits of eukaryotic networks and of eukaryotic-prokaryotic networks), and using as dependent variables sM and mM weights, and SOC content per unit of surface in sM and mM. Scripts for within and cross-domain network construction and analysis are available in Supplementary Methods 4.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Illumina sequencing information

MiSeq sequencing yielded a total number of 2 940 322 reads from the 48 soil samples, and following quality-filtering a total of 2 884 052 sequence reads having a length of 392 bp were obtained. After BLAST against the 18S SSU SILVA database (Quast et al., 2012; Yilmaz et al., 2013), we found 2 036 277 reads, ranging from 3 to 106 540 reads per sample that were assigned to a total of 4 211 OTUs. After sequence curation and the removal of Plantae sequences, 863 809 reads, ranging from 6 421 and 46 429 reads per sample, were retrieved and assigned to 133 OTUs, 56 classes and 27 phyla (Fig. S1, Fig. S2). The rarefaction and accumulation curves demonstrated that sampling effort was sufficient as the curves reached the asymptote (Fig. S3, Fig. S4).

3.2. Effect of conservation management on eukaryotic diversity in soil aggregates

To test if conservation tillage and N fertilization shift the diversity of soil eukaryotes in soil aggregates (hypothesis 1), richness and diversity indices were determined along the soil profile in small macroaggregates (sM) and occluded microaggregates (mM). A greater eukaryotic diversity in sM was consistently found at both soil layers under CT compared to MT, as shown by the significant increase of richness (+26%) and *H'* and λ (+9%) (Fig. S5). This higher eukaryotic diversity might be due to larger root development and higher availability of root exudates, organic matter (e.g., nutrients, organic acids), water and oxygen, reported under deep ploughing systems, and which have been shown to promote microbial growth and soil biota diversity/functionality (Guan et al., 2014; Edwards et al., 2015; Ercoli et al., 2017; Piazza et al., 2020), according to the response of individual taxonomic units to habitat and trophic conditions (van Capelle et al., 2012). At surface layer, N fertilization significantly increased λ under MT, suggesting an increase in number of relative abundances of taxa regulated by N availability. Conversely, under CT, λ was

311 high and not modified by N fertilization, suggesting non-limiting N availability due to improved
312 plant growth and higher mineralization rate of residues. A low eukaryotic diversity was previously
313 found in bulk soil under N fertilization (Lentendu et al., 2014), and within soil aggregates a higher
314 microbial diversity was found at low nutrient availability and NT compared with high nutrient
315 availability and ploughing (Lagomarsino et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2013; Bach et al., 2018).

316 In mM an opposite pattern was found at surface layer, and no effect of N fertilization alone or
317 in interaction with tillage was observed at both soil depths (Fig. S5). At surface layer, the
318 eukaryotic diversity indices increased by 6% under MT compared to CT. Under tillage
319 intensification, macroaggregates are indeed disrupted and occluded microaggregates became free in
320 the soil (Six et al., 2000), potentially reducing diversity and C sequestration. This is supported by
321 the highest SOC accumulation observed in mM under MT (Piazza et al., 2020), and by the high soil
322 biota diversity found in the present study within mM.

323 To test if soil aggregates differentially shape the diversity of soil eukaryotes (hypothesis 2),
324 richness, *H'* and λ were determined in sM and mM. Overall eukaryotic diversity was significantly
325 higher in mM than in sM (Fig. S5) (i.e., at surface layer: richness +16%, *H'* +6%, and λ +2%; at
326 subsurface layer: richness +20 and *H'* +5%). These results are in accordance with the higher
327 richness and *H'* of bacteria and fungi found in free microaggregates compared to large
328 macroaggregates (Bach et al., 2018). Our findings support the fact that soil aggregates are distinct
329 habitat spaces with eukaryotes adapted to SOM resources, pore-space network, and water and
330 oxygen availability characteristic of sM and mM.

331

332 *3.3. Effect of conservation management on eukaryotic composition in soil aggregates*

333 To test if conservation tillage and N fertilization shift the composition of soil eukaryotes in soil
334 aggregates (hypothesis 1) and how soil aggregates shape their composition (hypothesis 2), this
335 parameter was evaluated along the soil profile in sM and mM. Across management practices and
336 soil depths, the eukaryotic phyla Cercozoa (21%), Ciliophora (13%), Chlorophyta (11%), Nematoda

337 (11%) and Glomeromycota (9%) were predominant in sM, whereas in mM the predominant phyla
338 were Ciliophora (19%), Cercozoa (18%) Chlorophyta (15%), and Ascomycota (11%) (Fig. 1a). The
339 other phyla showed an abundance ≤ 8%. Sun et al. (2021) found that protists were the most
340 dominant eukaryote (33.9% of the total eukaryotic sequences) in bulk soil. By contrast, Treonis et
341 al. (2018) analysing the whole eukaryotic structure in bulk soil found a high abundance of fungi,
342 Arthropoda, Nematoda and Anellida (40, 20, 20 and 11%, respectively), and a low abundance of
343 protists (0.63%). Among protists, Rhizaria was the group with the highest relative abundance in
344 arable soil, comprising as dominant taxa Cercozoa and Amoebozoa (Bates et al., 2013; Degrune et
345 al., 2019a; Santos et al., 2020). Similarly, in another study, fungi were reported to be the most
346 abundant (i.e., Ascomycota, Basidiomycota, fungi Incertae sedis and Glomeromycota), followed by
347 Alveolata, Metazoa, Rhizaria, Stramenopiles, and Viridiplantae (Chen et al., 2012). Therefore, we
348 can assume that the differences between bulk soil and soil aggregates depend on the variability of
349 pH, moisture and organic nutrient availability that shift soil biota at multiple trophic levels.

350 In both soil aggregates, the majority of taxa were common to all managements across soil
351 depths, whereas some were unique to certain managements, as shown by the Venn diagrams at class
352 resolution (Fig. 2b-c,e-f). This is also shown by the pie charts representing the proportion of the 56
353 classes retrieved in each management (Fig. 2a,d). Moreover, focusing on the shared taxa between
354 sM and mM, ca. 80% of eukaryotes were common to both soil aggregates, averaging soil depths
355 (Fig. 3a,b). Accordingly, a large conserved core community of soil prokaryotes and fungi was
356 found across managements at the same site in bulk soil (Piazza et al., 2019). This is also consistent
357 with the findings obtained in other studies in different soil types and managements in bulk soil as
358 well as in specific rhizocompartments (Lentendu et al., 2014; Edwards et al., 2015; Pershina et al.,
359 2018).

360 However, the exclusive presence of some eukaryotic taxa in the different systems and soil
361 aggregates (Fig. 2) suggests that long-term tillage and N fertilization may drive the development of
362 communities of specialized taxa putatively having specific functions (e.g., soil aggregate and/or

363 SOC accumulation and nutrient cycling). As example, at the surface layer, in sM the classes
364 *Nassophorea* and *Perkinsea* were exclusively found in MTN0, whereas *Pezizomycetes* and
365 *Gastrotricha* in CTN0 (Fig. 2a,b), while many taxa were exclusively found in mM, such as
366 Chlorophyta, *Eutardigrada*, *Eurotiomycetes*, *Nassophorea* and *Thecofilosea* in MTN0; Alveolata,
367 *Chilopoda* and *Rhabditophora* in MTN200 and *Dictyostelia* and *Pezizomycetes* in CTN200 (Fig.
368 2d,e). A more in-depth description of the eukaryotic composition and exclusiveness across
369 managements and aggregates is reported in the Supplementary Results and Discussion 1.
370
371 *3.4. Effect of conservation management on eukaryotic community structures in soil aggregates*

372 To test if conservation tillage and N fertilization shift the structure of soil eukaryotes in soil
373 aggregates (hypothesis 1), the relative abundance pattern of taxa was determined in soil aggregates.
374 Despite the high degree of similarity among treatments in term of community composition, we
375 highlighted a strong effect of the interaction between tillage and N fertilization on the eukaryotic
376 community structures in sM at both soil layers, and in mM only at the surface layer (Table 1, Fig.
377 1). Similarly, soil fungal community structure in bulk soil was strongly shaped by the interaction
378 between tillage and N fertilization at surface and subsurface layers (Piazza et al., 2019). However,
379 to our knowledge no studies have focused on the effect of the interaction of these practices on the
380 eukaryotic communities in soil aggregates, whereas a huge number of studies was performed to
381 assess the effect of tillage or N fertilization on the diversity/abundance and functionality of single
382 eukaryotic group in bulk soil (e.g., fungi: Jansa et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2019;
383 micro-arthropods, nematodes and protozoa: Adl et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2012; Briones and
384 Schmidt, 2017; Cai et al., 2020; protists: Zhao et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2021).

385 In the PCO plots, CTN0 and CTN200 showed similar community structures within sM at
386 surface layer (Fig. 1b) that were characterised by *Colpodea* and OTU1*Spirotrichea* (Ciliophora,
387 Alveolata) and *Conoidasida* (Apicomplexa, Alveolata). This supports that under ploughing N

388 availability is not limiting and the community structures are not affected by N fertilization. The
389 class *Colpodea* is a well-known dominant clade of mainly bacterivorous protists (Foissner, 1998)
390 and, according to our results, they were shown highly abundant in disturbed soils. By contrast,
391 *Spirotrichea* were found in more stable environments (Lüftenegger et al., 1985), not supporting the
392 large abundance found within sM under ploughed soils. This result not supported by literature may
393 suggest a high resistance of *Spirotrichea* to natural and anthropogenic stresses. Moreover,
394 Apicomplexa that are the third most abundant protistan group in soil, after Cercozoa and Ciliophora
395 (Fierer, 2017) are described as putative parasites of invertebrates (Del Campo et al., 2019). This is
396 in agreement with the lower occurrence of the invertebrates *Chromadorea* and *Enoplea* found in
397 our study under CT compared with MT. In MT, N fertilization determined a strong shift at the
398 surface layer (Fig. 1b), with community structure within sM under MTN200 characterized by a
399 large abundance of taxa belonging to Cercozoa, *Tubulinea* (Lobosa, Amoebozoa) and *Chromadorea*
400 (Nematoda) together with fungi, (i.e., OTU1Microbotryo: *Microbotryomicetes*, Ascomycota and
401 Mortierellomycota), and under MTN0 characterized by a large abundance of taxa belonging to
402 *Imbricatea* (Cercozoa), *Enoplea* (Nematoda) and OTU1*Nassophorea* (Ciliophora, Alveolata). The
403 dominance of Ascomycota in sM under MTN200 is in accordance with their higher abundance in
404 macroaggregates under mineral fertilization compared with no fertilization (Liao et al., 2018; Wang
405 et al., 2021). This confirms the importance of fungi as binding agents in soil aggregates (Six et al.,
406 2000). Cercozoa were reported to be affected by several abiotic factors, as soil moisture, clay
407 content and N availability (Lentendu et al., 2014; Fiore-Donno et al., 2019). However, although our
408 analyses did not allow discrimination of which cercozoan classes were favoured under MTN200
409 (Fig. 1b), the detection of *Imbricatea* within sM under MTN0 supports that N availability is a major
410 driver of cercozoan communities. This class had unexpectedly high abundance in sM under MTN0
411 (Fig. 1b), although it was shown to be highly favoured by organic fertilizers (Lentendu et al., 2014).
412 According to our results (Fig. 1b), the heterotroph lineage Tubulinea are dominant in highly N-
413 fertilizer soils (Sun et al., 2021), and the ciliate *Nassophorea*, characterizing the community

structures of sM under MTN0, supports their role in energy transfer between trophic levels under low N availability (Gao et al., 2016). Finally, the dominance in sM under MT of *Enoplea* and *Chromadorea* known to be plant and animal nematode parasites is consistent with their general trend in soil aggregates (Jiang et al., 2017). Their abundance in N0 and N200, respectively, might be explained by specific predator-prey interactions occurring within intra-aggregate pores at differential N availabilities.

At the subsurface layer (Fig. 1c), N fertilization drove a stronger shift of the eukaryotic community structure in sM under CT compared with MT that showed similar structures irrespective to N fertilization, highlighting an opposite pattern as compared with the one observed at surface layer (Fig. 1b). Under CTN0, sM was characterised by high abundance of *Chilopoda* (Arthropoda, Animalia) and *Sarcomonadea* (Cercozoa, Rhizaria), and under CTN200 by high abundance of *Colpodea* and *Conoidasida* (Alveolata) (Fig. 1c). Indeed, under ploughing, the subsurface layer is less compacted than under MT and shows a lower bulk density, resulting in an increase of pore size and aeration (Berisso et al., 2012). This may allow a larger root development under N fertilization and a higher variation in soil moisture and temperature compared with no fertilization (Piazza et al., 2020). Small macroaggregates are inaccessible to living centipedes (*Chilopoda*), thus their abundance in this fraction under CTN0 can be only related to a role as binding agents or as dead biomass consumed by decomposers. By contrast, *Sarcomonadea*, previously found in soil as the dominant class within the phylum Cercozoa (Degrune et al., 2019b), are likely to play an active role also in sM at low N availabilities. The abundance of *Colpodea* in CTN200 at the subsurface layer (Fig. 1c) is consistent with their dominance at the surface layer (Fig. 1b) and can be explained by bacterial pray changes following N application, while no information is available on *Conoidasida* trophic functional role.

In MTN0 and MTN200 at subsurface layer sM were characterized by *Chromadorea* (Nematoda), *Vampyrellidea* (Cercozoa), OTU1*Nassophorea* (Ciliophora, Alveolata) and many fungi (e.g., *Glomeromycetes*, *Sordariomycetes*) (Fig. 1c). The abundance of *Choromadorea* and

Nassophorea is consistent with surface layer observations. Moreover, *Vampyrellidea,* observed for the first time in sM, are fungivores that may control the parasitic rust fungus of wheat under MT (Adl and Gupta, 2006). Finally, the abundance of *Glomeromycetes* and *Sordariomycetes* confirms their crucial role in driving soil aggregates under undisturbed conditions (Rillig et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2021).

In mM, a strong interaction effect between tillage and N fertilization was found on the eukaryotic community structures only at surface layer, consisting in a strong shift of the structure under CTN0 compared with the other treatments (Table 1, Fig. 1d). This effect is in line with the aggregate distribution of mM found by Piazza et al. (2020). The shifts of aggregate distribution and eukaryotic community structure toward more mM and distinct soil biota communities under CT at low N availability can be related to a lower sequestration of C within mM and thus in differences of the related functional soil biota. By contrast, the lack of effect at subsurface layer is unexpected since the percentage of mM was significantly decreased by tillage intensification (CT < MT; - 21%) (Piazza et al., 2020). However, this inconsistency could be due to the coverage of the V4 region primer set, its taxonomic resolution or limitation in amplifying rare taxa or taxa with lower proportions of template DNA in DNA extracts (Choi and Park, 2020). Moreover, considering aggregate pore size and animal body size, the presence of traces of animal DNA (i.e., nematodes, Arthropoda) within aggregates is likely not attributable to the occurrence of living animals, but to the process of aggregate formation which utilises organic decaying material as binding agent.

Nitrogen fertilization determined a strong shift at the surface layer in the eukaryotic community structure of mM under CT (Fig. 1d) from *Glomeromycetes* (Glomeromycota), *Imbricatea*, *Sarcomonadea* and *Vampyrellidea* (Cercozoa) in CTN0 to OTU1*Xantho* (Ochrophyta), *Oligohymenophorea* (Ciliophora), Stramenopiles (Chromista) and the fungus *Tremellomycetes* in CTN200. This is the first time that Glomeromycota have been detected within mM fraction. Previously, using a cloning approach targeting the long-fragment SSU-ITS-LSU (Krüger et al., 2009) we could not detect AMF within mM (data not shown), and this was also supported by

466 several works reporting their major roles only in macroaggregates (e.g., Miller and Jastrow, 2000,
467 Rillig et al., 2002). However, in this study, the observed large proportion of Glomeromycota (14%)
468 in mM under CTN0 supports the fact that tillage under unfertilized conditions may not negatively
469 affect the development of the extraradical mycelium, potentially improving the production of
470 glomalin and enhancing soil aggregate stability (Bedini et al., 2002). Similarly, the high abundance
471 of Cercozoa in mM under CTN0 suggests for the first time that this phylum plays a major role
472 within mM under ploughed and no fertilized conditions at surface layer. This is consistent with the
473 findings of Degrune et al. (2019a) that highlighted under ploughing and at topsoil distinct cercozoan
474 communities in microhabitats (i.e., drilosphere and rhizosphere) compared with bulk soil.
475 Moreover, the distinct eukaryotic community found at surface layer in mM under CTN200
476 additionally supports that, under ploughing, nutrient availabilities in microhabitats allow the
477 dominance of functional protists (Alveolata: *Oligohymenophorea*; Chromista: OTU1*Xantho* and
478 Stramenopiles), potentially contributing to OM decomposition and mineralization through several
479 functional groups. In addition, scarce information is available on the functional roles in agricultural
480 soils of *Tremellomycetes*, a heterogeneous group comprising saprotrophs, animal parasites, and
481 fungicolous species.

482 Similar community structures were observed at surface layer within mM in MTN0 and
483 MTN200 [e.g., *Sarcomonadea*1 (Cercozoa), and fungi such as *Dothideomycetes* (Ascomycota) and
484 OTU1Cystobasidio (Basidiomycota)] (Fig. 1d). These results support the hypothesis of a major role
485 played by Cercozoa together with distinct classes of fungi also within mM under MT. However, it
486 is well known that the 18S barcoding utilised in this work is less efficient compared with the ITS
487 for detecting many groups of fungi (Schoch et al., 2012).

488 To test if soil aggregates differentially shape the structure of soil eukaryotes (hypothesis 2), the
489 relative abundance pattern of taxa was determined in sM and mM. Significant differences among
490 matrices (sM *vs* mM) were found and supported by PERMANOVAs (Table 1). PCO biplots
491 showed that at both soil layers more phyla were linked to mM as compared with sM (Fig. 3c,d).

Recently, Liao et al. (2018) and Wang et al. (2021) used an Illumina sequencing approach for studying at phylum and class level the bacterial and fungal community structures within soil aggregates across different fertilization treatments. Although differences in community structure were detected for both bacteria and fungi, fungal community in sM and free microaggregates differed more than bacteria (Liao et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2021). Our findings support that some unresolved taxa belonging to Glomeromycota and Ascomycota are positively associated with mM, as previously reported in free microaggregates for unclassified Ascomycota (Wang et al., 2021) and for a group of unclassified *Glomerales* (Lu et al., 2018). Similarly to the results of Jiang et al. (2017), the total abundance of nematodes increased with increasing aggregate size. Finally, the alveolate Apicomplexa, Ciliophora, and Dinoflagellata were preferentially found in mM, whereas the amoebozoan Conosa and Lobosa in sM. This result additionally confirms the functional role played by protists within microenvironments. Moreover, Mollusca in mM and Arthropoda and Anellida in sM at both soil layers can be considered as preferential binding agents for aggregate fractions.

Eukaryotic taxa predictors for soil structuring and C stocks

To test if some eukaryotic taxa are predictors for soil structuring and C stock (hypothesis 3) we utilised a multiple regression analysis that allowed to identify the eukaryotic taxa that were good predictors for the amount of sM and mM and their SOC content, irrespective of management and soil depth (Table S1). Specifically, *Microbotryomycetes* and Alveolata were moderately strongly related to the amount of sM, with *Microbotryomycetes* identified as best predictor. Similarly, Cercozoa and *Chytridiomycetes* were related to the amount of mM, with Cercozoa playing the major role. Moreover, *Microbotryomycetes*, Cercozoa and Alevolata were moderately related to SOC in sM, with *Microbotryomycetes* consistently found to be the best predictor. Finally, *Chytridiomycetes* and Cercozoa were moderately related to SOC in mM, with *Chytridiomycetes* the best predictor. Previously, Bach et al. (2018) identified bacterial and fungal indicators in free and

large macroaggregates. However, it is the first time that *Microbotryomycetes* and *Chytridiomycetes* have been shown to be correlated with the amount of sM and mM and their SOC content, respectively. Both fungal classes correlated with the pattern of C-cycling enzymes and SOC content in bulk soil (Piazza et al., 2019), and their abundance was high in sM and mM, respectively (Degrune et al., 2019b). *Microbotryomycetes* were also recently identified as good predictors of slow and passive SOC decomposition parameters (Hale et al., 2019). Our findings on the positive association of protists, Alveolata and Cercozoa, with the amount of sM and mM and their SOC content, support the multiple agroecological roles of protists found in bulk soil (Cavalier-Smith and Chao, 2003; Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2020). Moreover, our results confirm previous works reporting that protists are shaped by pore size reduction and soil aeration (Berisso et al., 2012; Degrune et al., 2019a), features related to soil aggregates. Thus, we can assume that Alveolata are playing major role in soil, promoting sM formation and slowing down the decay of SOM within sM, while Cercozoa are crucial microorganisms in mM taking part to long-term sequestration and storing of SOC.

3.6. How eukaryotes are interlinked among each other and to prokaryotes in soil aggregates, and network traits predictor for soil structuring and C stocks

To test if eukaryotes form structured assemblages and distinctive networks in soil aggregates (hypothesis 4), and how eukaryotes are linked to prokaryotes (hypothesis 5), within- and cross-domain networks were built for sM and mM. At the surface layer within- and cross-domain networks were more complex in mM than in sM, whereas at the subsurface layer they did not vary (Table 2, Fig. 4, Fig. S6). In the cross-domain networks, both sM and mM showed a general trend toward a higher percentage of eukaryotes per subnetwork compared to prokaryotes at the surface layer compared with the subsurface layer (Table 3, Fig. 4b,d). Moreover, at both soil depth, in the sM cross-domain networks the majority of subnetworks were composed of both eukaryotes and

543 prokaryotes, whereas in the mM cross-domain networks the subnetworks were half composed of
544 eukaryotes and half of prokaryotes, and few subnetworks were mixed (Table 3). This is the first
545 study that demonstrated that eukaryotes, components of soil biota communities usually studied
546 separately, formed structured associations within each other and with prokaryotes in soil
547 aggregates. Moreover, mM consistently had tighter connectivity compared with sM in both within-
548 and cross-domain networks (Fig. 4, Fig. S6). This might be related to microhabitat conditions (i.e.,
549 wetter and more nutrient rich microhabitats) in mM that shift biotic interactions from facilitation to
550 competition, leading to higher correlations between eukaryotic taxa or eukaryotic and prokaryotic
551 taxa, as previously reported for fungi and bacteria in bulk soil and roots across land uses and
552 agricultural managements with a gradient of nutrient availabilities (e.g., SOC, P levels) and pH (de
553 Menezes et al., 2015; Banerjee et al., 2016, 2018; Wang et al., 2021). Other explanations could be a
554 higher proportion of viable cells and spores and a lower niche heterogeneity (i.e., nutrients) in mM
555 respect to sM, leading to tighter within- and cross-domain networks. Finally, a higher plant residue
556 diversity in mM could also explain the within- and cross-domain mM network traits, as previously
557 shown for plant community composition or host selectivity against microbial network complexity
558 (Xiong et al., 2021).

559 In the within-domain networks of sM and mM and at both soil layers, Cercozoa were highly
560 co-occurring in the subnetworks respect to the other eukaryotic phyla, as shown by the network
561 traits (Table 3, Supplementary Results and Discussions 2). It is noteworthy the high percentage of
562 taxa belonging to Cercozoa (21%) involved in the largest subnetworks, composed of 33, occurring
563 at surface layer in the within-domain mM networks. In addition, while fungi, mainly Ascomycota
564 and Basidiomycota, were highly co-occurring in the within-domain sM subnetworks at both soil
565 layer, protists, as Ochrophyta and Stramenopiles together with Chlorophyta, were co-occurring in
566 the within-domain mM subnetworks at surface and subsurface layer, respectively (Table 2).
567 Following the definition of keystone taxa by Banerjee et al. (2018), we can support the
568 agroecological theory that some Cercozoa, as *Sarcomondea* and *Vampyrillidea* (Fig. 4c), can be

569 suggested as “hubs” (keystone taxa) within mM. Consistently, in the sM and mM cross-domain
570 networks at the surface layer, Cercozoa can be considered as “hubs” as they are directly connected
571 to prokaryotes in the largest subnetworks (Fig. 4b,d). Moreover, protists were involved in the
572 largest subnetworks and showed variable direct connections (Fig. 4b,d, Fig. S6b,d). Indeed, the
573 linkages of protists, according to their feeding versatility (Geisen, 2016), varied from direct
574 connections to many prokaryotes, mainly belonging to Chloroflexi in the cross-domain sM
575 networks (Fig. 4b, Fig. S6b), to direct linkages to other eukaryotes (e.g., fungi) or other protists in
576 mM networks (Fig. 4d, Fig. S6d). So far, studies on the functional roles of soil biota in the
577 formation of soil aggregates have mainly focused on the role played by a single functional group,
578 e.g. AMF, earthworms, nematodes, termites and microarthropods (mites and collembolans) (e.g.,
579 Lee and Foster, 1991; Pulleman et al., 2005; Rillig and Mummey, 2006; Siddiky et al., 2012a,b;
580 Zhang et al., 2016). However, only recently, Cercozoa and other protists, as Lobosa and Ciliophora,
581 were shown to be positively related with ecosystem services, i.e. nutrient cycling and OM
582 decomposition (Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2020). Details about traits and taxa co-occurrences in
583 within- and cross-domain networks and the significance of cross-domain relationships (Mantel test
584 and CoCA) are given in Supplementary Results and Discussion 2, Fig. S7 and Fig. S8.

585 To test if some network traits can predict soil structuring and C stocks, we utilized a multiple
586 regressions analysis that identified the number of edges and mean nodes per network as predictors
587 for the amount of sM and mM and their SOC content, irrespective of management and soil depth
588 (Table S2). Although network analysis is now largely applied to study soil biota co-occurrence and
589 plant-microbe associations across different treatments (e.g., de Menezes et al., 2015; Farrer et al.,
590 2019; Feng et al., 2019), little is known about soil biota networks within aggregates (Jiang et al.,
591 2015, 2017) and few studies have dissected the predictable power of the network traits (topological
592 properties) on ecosystem services. Jiang et al. (2015, 2017) indicated that aggregate fractions (large
593 and small macroaggregates, and free microaggregates) showed a strong effect on the association
594 networks of nematodes and bacteria and using the topological properties they could identify large

595 macroaggregates network as organized soil food web, showing functional interrelationships
596 between bacterivorous nematodes and bacteria. In accordance with our results, the topological
597 properties of soil biota networks should be taken into consideration for dissecting soil structuring as
598 well as C cycling.
599

600 **4. Conclusions**

601 We have shown that soil aggregation is essential for a complete 'multifunctional' perspective
602 of soil biota. A full understanding of relationships between soil biota and soil functions requires
603 analyses emphasizing the feedbacks between soil structure and soil biota, rather than a
604 unidirectional approach simply addressing the roles of single key functional groups. Next
605 generation sequencing tools have been confirmed in this study to be crucial in the understanding of
606 eukaryotic structures and soil biota networks and have the potential to further reveal their
607 contributions to soil functions. Indeed, our findings demonstrate for the first time that protists
608 together with fungi play major roles in soil structuring and C cycling, and that Cercozoa represent
609 hubs in the soil biota aggregate networks. This supports the fact that their conservation is
610 fundamental to prevent soil degradation and to enhance SOC accumulation in agroecosystems.
611

612 **Declaration of competing interest**

613 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
614 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.
615

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951 **Figure captions**

952

953 **Fig. 1.** Long-term effect of conservation management on community composition of eukaryotes in
954 two soil matrices: small macroaggregates (sM) and occluded microaggregates (mM). Managements
955 were: MTN0 (minimum tillage and 0 kg N ha^{-1}), MTN200 (MT and 200 kg N ha^{-1}), CTN0
956 (conventional tillage and 0 kg N ha^{-1}) and CTN200 (CT and 200 kg N ha^{-1}). Neighbor-joining (NJ)
957 tree of 56 eukaryotic taxon representative sequences (classes) found in (a) sM and (d) mM. NJ trees
958 are based on the sequences obtained from the amplification of the V4 region (18 SSU rRNA gene).
959 The eukaryotic taxa were assigned to Operational Taxonomic Unit (OTU) (at class phylogenetic
960 resolution) by BLAST against the 18S SSU SILVA database by clustering sequence reads at the
961 97% similarity threshold. For each OTU, the proportion of sequences retrieved in each management
962 (MTN0, light green; MTN200, dark green; CTN0, light red; CTN200, dark red) and soil depth (0–
963 15 cm: light grey; 15–30 cm: dark grey) are shown in the pie charts. Venn diagrams of eukaryotic
964 classes uniquely retrieved and shared across managements in sM at (b) 0-15 cm and (c) at 15-30
965 cm, and in mM at (e) 0-15 cm and (f) at 15-30 cm.

966

967 **Fig. 2.** Long-term effect of conservation management on relative abundances and community
968 structures of eukaryotes in two soil matrices: small macroaggregates (sM) and occluded
969 microaggregates (mM). Managements were: MTN0 (minimum tillage and 0 kg N ha^{-1}), MTN200
970 (MT and 200 kg N ha^{-1}), CTN0 (conventional tillage and 0 kg N ha^{-1}) and CTN200 (CT and 200 kg
971 N ha^{-1}). (a) Relative abundances of eukaryotes at phylum level across treatments, matrices and soil
972 depths. (b) Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCO) biplots on the interaction of tillage and N
973 fertilization on the eukaryotic community structure at class level in sM at 0-15 cm and (c) at 15-30
974 cm, and (d) in mM at 0-15 cm. The output of the PCO biplots is based on the significant effect of

975 treatments following the permutational analysis of variance (PERMANOVA). We displayed only
976 the taxa with a strong correlation (r = 0.50-0.70) with the ordination scores on each PCO axis.

977

978 **Fig. 3.** Venn diagrams of eukaryotic phyla uniquely retrieved and shared in sM and mM at 0-15 cm
979 (a) and at 15-30 cm (b). Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCO) biplots on effect of soil matrix
980 (small macroaggregates sM *vs* occluded microaggregates mM) on eukaryotic community structure
981 at phylum resolution at (a) 0-15 cm and at (b) 15-30 cm soil depth. The PCO biplots are based on
982 the significant effect of soil matrix according to the permutational analysis of variance
983 (PERMANOVA). In the biplots, only the taxa with a strong correlation (r = 0.50-0.70) with the
984 ordination scores on each PCO axis were displayed.

985

986 **Fig. 4.** Eukaryotic networks (within-domain networks) and eukaryotic-prokaryotic networks (cross-
987 domain Associations networks) (at class phylogenetic resolution) in small macroaggregates (sM)
988 (a,b) and occluded microaggregates (mM) (c,d) at surface layer (0-15 cm soil depth). Within-
989 domain networks were built using the SParse InversE Covariance estimation for Ecological
990 ASsociation Inference (SPIEC-EASI) package version 0.1 in R
991 (https://github.com/zdk123/SpiecEasi/), while cross-domain networks were built by the cross-
992 domain extension of SPIEC-EASI (Kurtz et al., 2015; Tipton et al., 2018). Details about network
993 construction are given in Material and Methods and Supplementary Methods 3, and R scripts are
994 provided in Supplementary Methods 4.

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Table 1

Results of PERMANOVA and variation partitioning of the long-term effect of conservation management (tillage and N fertilization) within small macroaggregates (sM) and occluded microaggregates (mM) and of the effect of matrix (sM *vs* mM) on eukaryotic community structure at 0-15 and 15-30 cm soil depths.

	df	Pseudo-F	P (perm)	Variance explained	df	Pseudo-F	P (perm)	Variance explained
			0-15 cm				15-30 cm	
Eukaryotes at class level - sM								
TIL[†]	1	2.24	**0.025**[‡]	**11.96**	1	4.02	**0.003**	**22.69**
N fert	1	2.11	**0.017**	**10.76**	1	2.21	**0.012**	**9.05**
TIL x N fert	1	1.99	**0.024**	**19.13**	1	2.55	**0.019**	**23.20**
PERMDISP								
TIL			0.693				0.071	
N fert			0.078				0.359	
Eukaryotes at class level - mM								
TIL	1	4.60	**0.003**	**19.94**	1	1.05	0.411	-
N fert	1	3.90	**0.002**	**16.02**	1	1.64	0.127	-
TIL x N fert	1	3.79	**0.006**	**30.85**	1	0.90	0.569	-
PERMDISP								
TIL			0.237				-	
N fert			0.362				-	
Eukaryotes at phylum level - sM vs mM								
Matrix[§]	1	1.07	**0.001**	**38.31**	1	11.18	**0.001**	**42.51**
TIL x N fert	1	2.90	**0.004**	**3.74**	1	1.22	0.287	4.51
N fert	1	1.54	0.140	10.69	1	2.36	**0.014**	**2.84**
PERMDISP								
Matrix			**0.025**				0.069	

[†]PERMANOVA was performed following a split-plot design with tillage (TIL) as main-plot factor and N fertilization (N fert) as subplot factor and with three replicate plots per treatment: TIL (minimum tillage and conventional tillage) and N fert (0 kg N ha^{-1} and 200 kg N ha^{-1}).

[‡]In bold statistically significant values ($P \leq 0.05$).

[§]PERMANOVA was performed using the matrix as fixed factor, TIL and N fert as covaribales and 12 replicate plots per matrix.

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Table 2
Traits of within- (eukaryotes) and cross-domain (eukaryotes - prokaryotes) network in macroaggregates (sM) and occluded microaggregates (mM) at 0-15 and 15-30 cm soil depth (for the network diagrams see Fig. 4 and S10).

Traits	sM 0-15	sM 15-30	mM 0-15	mM 15-30
Eukaryotes				
Number of nodes excluding singletons	37	33	46	39
Number of edges	29	25	44	31
Number of singletons	12	16	8	15
Number of dyads	3	6	1	6
Number of subnetworks	6	5	4	5
Mean nodes per subnetwork	5.17 ± 0.60	4.20 ± 0.49	11.0 ± 7.34	5.40 ± 1.03
Linkage density (complexity)	1.57 ± 0.11 a	1.51 ± 0.13	1.89 ± 0.14 b	1.56 ± 0.13
% Positive interactions	78.4	75.8	95.7	79.5
Modularity	3	5	4	5
Identity of phyla with a frequency within the subnetworks ≥ 10%	Basidiomycota 15.9% Cercozoa 16.8%	Ascomycota 20% Basidiomycota 10% Cercozoa 11.7%	Cercozoa 11.6% Ochrophyta 16.7%	Chlorophyta 12% Cercozoa 21.7% Stramenopiles 16.7%
Eukaryotes - Prokaryotes				
Total number of nodes excluding singletons	79	83	96	67
Number of eukaryotic nodes excluding singletons	37	38	49	30
Number of prokaryotic nodes excluding singletons	42	45	47	37
Number of edges	74	72	109	54
Number of singletons	22	18	6	36
Number of dyads	3	8	2	5
Number of subnetworks	7	4	8	11
Mean nodes per subnetwork	10.43 ± 4.43	8.38 ± 2.74	23.50 ± 19.50	5.18 ± 0.70
Linkage density (complexity)	1.87 ± 0.11 a	1.76 ± 0.11	2.26 ± 0.12 b	1.61 ± 0.11
Modularity	9	9	11	9
Percentage of eukaryotes per subnetwork	68.39 ± 12.26	50.79 ± 12.03	74.70 ± 14.61	39.01 ± 14.69
Percentage of prokaryotes per subnetwork	31.61 ± 12.26	49.21 ± 12.03	25.30 ± 14.61	60.99 ± 14.69
Number of subnetworks with only eukaryotes	2	1	2	4
Number of subnetworks with only prokaryotes	0	1	0	5
Number of mixed subnetworks	5	6	2	2

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Table 3
Traits of within- (eukaryotes) and cross-domain (eukaryotes - prokayotes) network in macroaggregates (sM) and occluded microaggregates (mM) at 0-15 and 15-30 cm soil depth (for the network diagrams see Fig. 4 and S10).

Traits	sM 0-15	sM 15-30	mM 0-15	mM 15-30
Eukaryotes				
Number of nodes excluding singletons	37	33	46	39
Number of edges	29	25	44	31
Number of singletons	12	16	8	15
Number of dyads	3	6	1	6
Number of subnetworks	6	5	4	5
Mean nodes per subnetwork	5.17 ± 0.60	4.20 ± 0.49	11.0 ± 7.34	5.40 ± 1.03
Linkage density (complexity)	1.57 ± 0.11 a	1.51 ± 0.13	1.89 ± 0.14 b	1.56 ± 0.13
% Positive interactions	78.4	75.8	95.7	79.5
Modularity	3	5	4	5
Identity of phyla with a frequency within the subnetworks ≥ 10% †	Basidiomycota 15.9% Cercozoa 16.8%	Ascomycota 20% Basidiomycota 10% Cercozoa 11.7%	Cercozoa 11.6% Ochrophyta 16.7%	Chlorophyta 12% Cercozoa 21.7% Stramenopiles 16.7%
Eukaryotes - Prokaryotes				
Total number of nodes excluding singletons	79	83	96	67
Number of eukaryotic nodes excluding singletons	37	38	49	30
Number of prokaryotic nodes excluding singletons	42	45	47	37
Number of edges	74	72	109	54
Number of singletons	22	18	6	36
Number of dyads	3	8	2	5
Number of subnetworks	7	4	8	11
Mean nodes per subnetwork	10.43 ± 4.43	8.38 ± 2.74	23.50 ± 19.50	5.18 ± 0.70
Linkage density (complexity)	1.87 ± 0.11 a	1.76 ± 0.11	2.26 ± 0.12 b	1.61 ± 0.11
Modularity	9	9	11	9
Percentage of eukaryotes per subnetwork	68.39 ± 12.26	50.79 ± 12.03	74.70 ± 14.61	39.01 ± 14.69
Percentage of prokaryotes per subnetwork	31.61 ± 12.26	49.21 ± 12.03	25.30 ± 14.61	60.99 ± 14.69
Number of subnetworks with only eukaryotes	2	1	2	4
Number of subnetworks with only prokaryotes	0	1	0	5
Number of mixed subnetworks	5	6	2	2

† For details about the traits of within-domain networks for each eukaryotic phylum occurring in sM and mM at both soil depths see Table S5.

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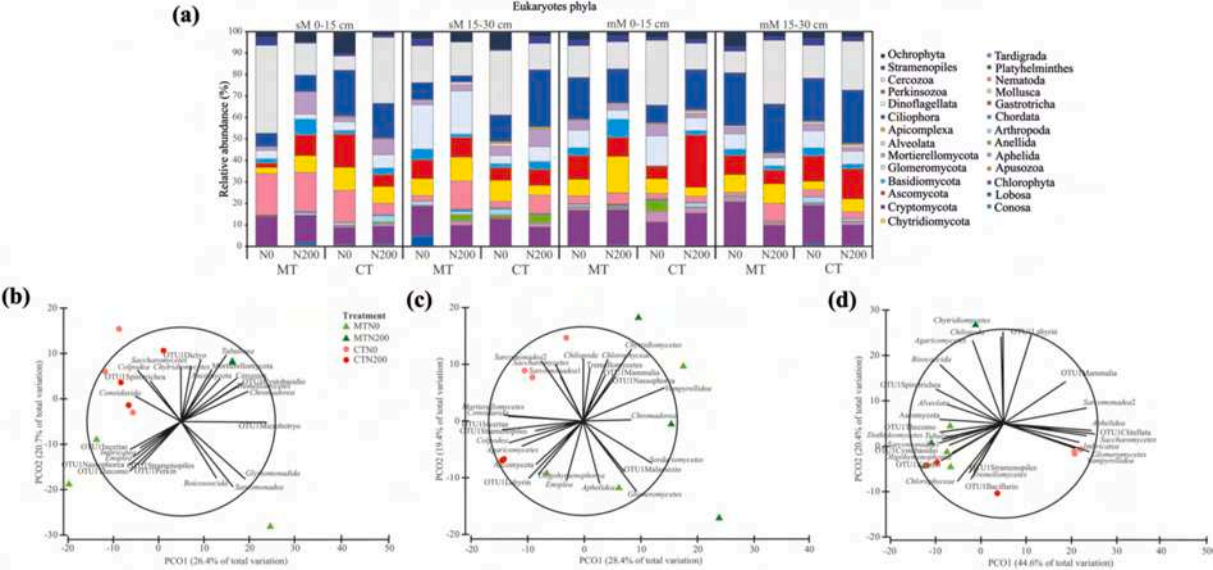
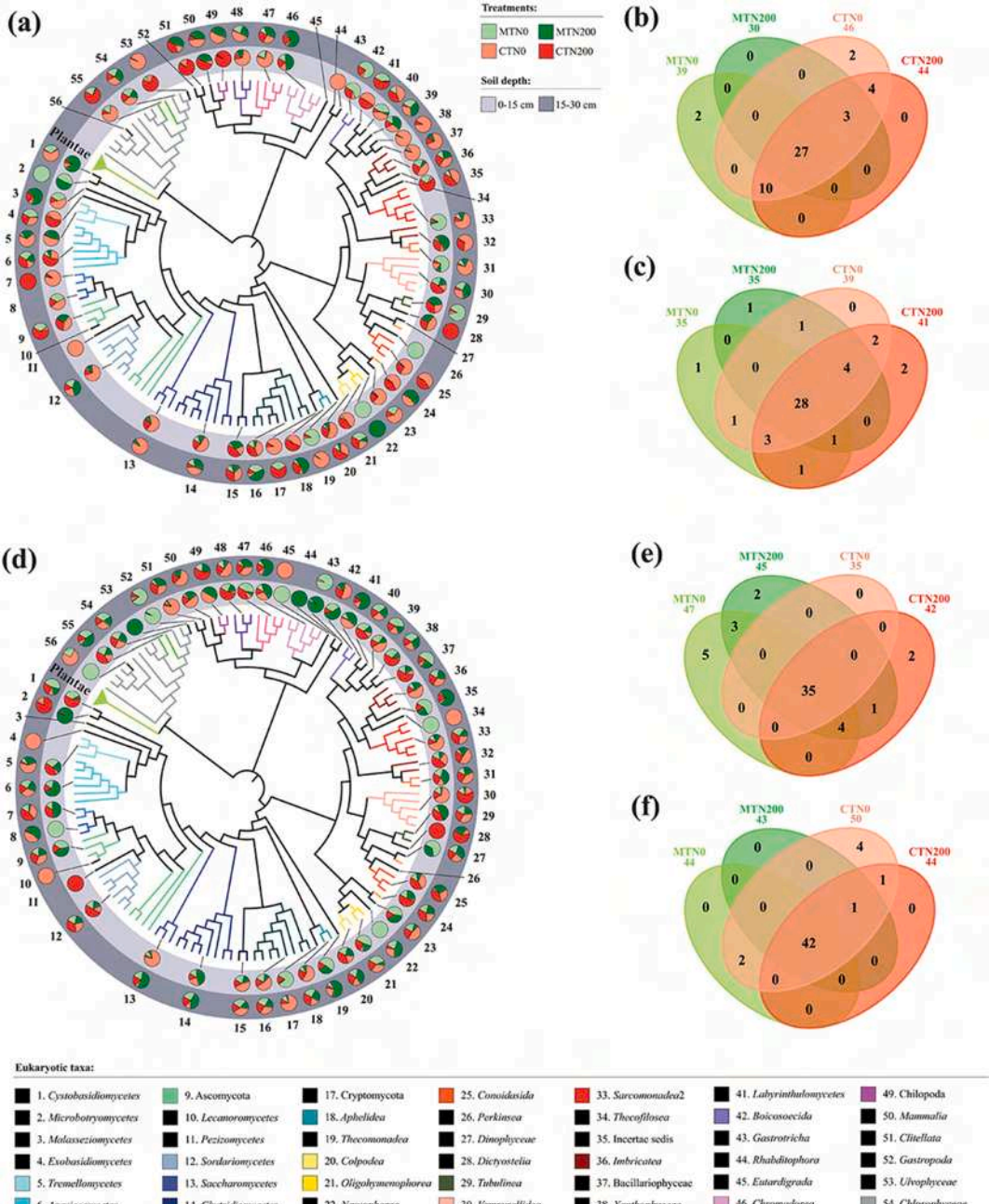
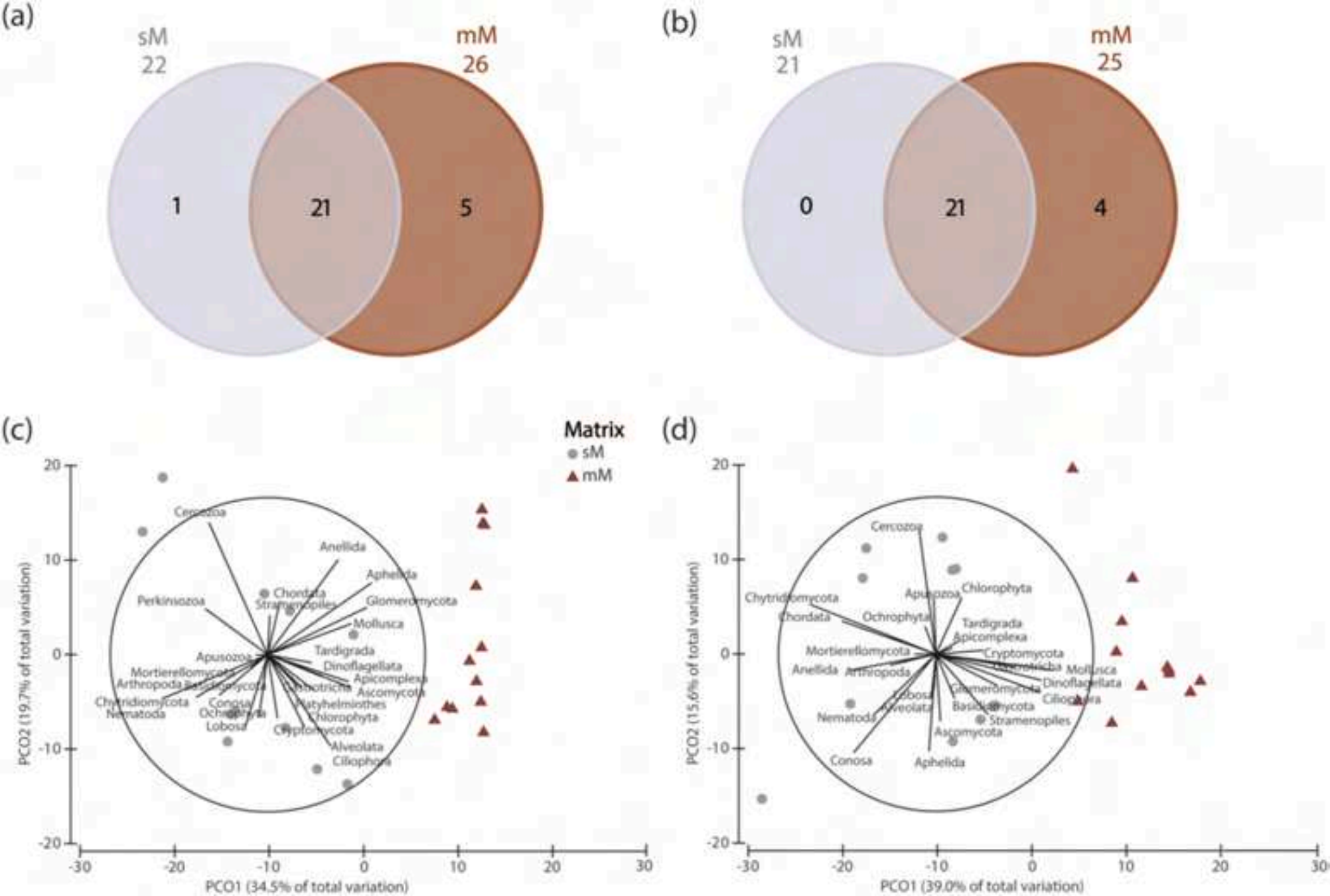
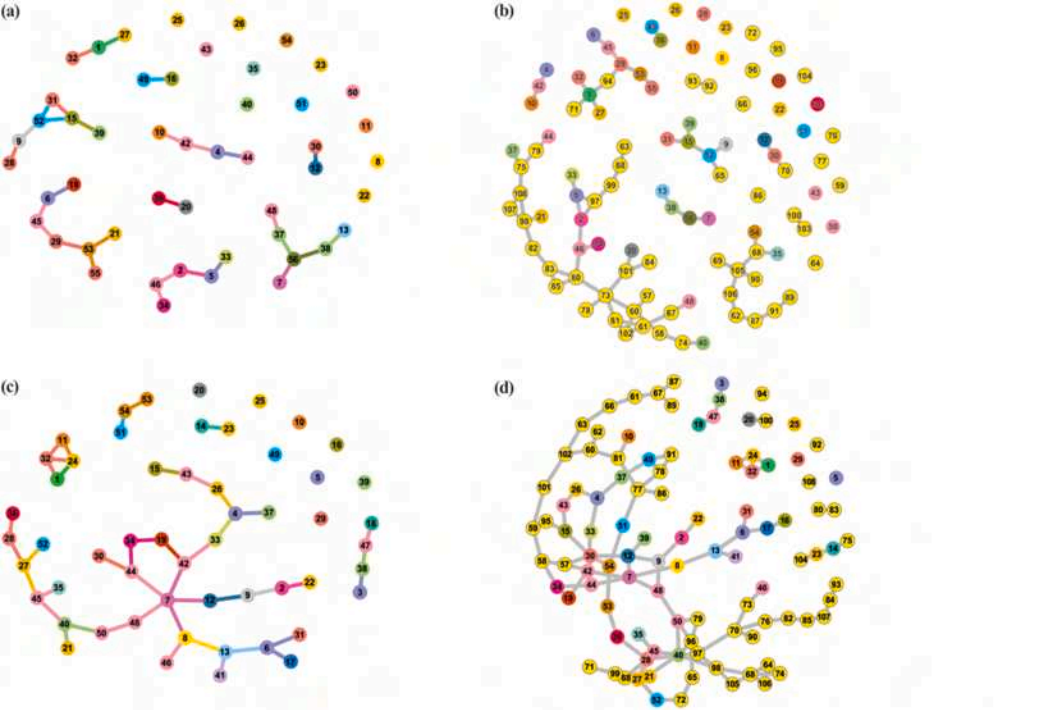

(a)
Eukaryotes phyla
sM 0-15 cm
sM 15-30 cm
mM 0-15 cm
mM 15-30 cm
Relative abundance (%)
N0
N200
MT
CT
Ochrophyta
Stramenopiles
Cercozoa
Perkinsozoa
Dinoflagellata
Ciliophora
Apicomplexa
Alveolata
Mortierellomycota
Glomeromycota
Basidiomycota
Ascomycota
Cryptomycota
Chytridiomycota
Tardigrada
Platyhelminthes
Nematoda
Mollusca
Gastrotricha
Chordata
Arthropoda
Anellida
Aphelida
Apusozoa
Chlorophyta
Lobosa
Conosa
(b)
(c)
(d)
Treatment
MTN0
MTN200
CTN0
CTN200
PCO1 (26.4% of total variation)
PCO2 (20.7% of total variation)
PCO1 (28.4% of total variation)
PCO2 (19.4% of total variation)
PCO1 (44.6% of total variation)
PCO2 (20.4% of total variation)


(a)
Treatments:
MTN0
MTN200
CTN0
CTN200
Soil depth:
0-15 cm
15-30 cm
Plantae
(b)
MTN200
30
CTN0
46
MTN0
39
CTN200
44
0
0
2
0
0
4
2
0
3
0
27
0
0
10
0
0
(c)
MTN200
35
CTN0
39
MTN0
35
CTN200
41
1
0
1
0
2
1
0
4
2
28
1
3
0
1
1
(d)
Plantae
(e)
MTN200
45
CTN0
35
MTN0
47
CTN200
42
2
0
3
0
0
5
0
0
2
35
0
0
1
4
0
(f)
MTN200
43
CTN0
50
MTN0
44
CTN200
44
0
4
0
0
1
0
0
1
0
42
2
0
0
0
0
Eukaryotic taxa:
1. Cystobasidiomycetes
2. Microbotryomycetes
3. Malasseziomycetes
4. Exobasidiomycetes
5. Tremellomycetes
6. Agaricomycetes
7. Dothideomycetes
8. Eurotiomycetes
9. Ascomycota
10. Lecanoromycetes
11. Pezizomycetes
12. Sordariomycetes
13. Saccharomycetes
14. Chytridiomycetes
15. Mortierellomycota
16. Glomeromycetes
17. Cryptomycota
18. Aphelidea
19. Thecomonadea
20. Colpodea
21. Oligohymenophorea
22. Nassophorea
23. Spirotrichea
24. Alveolata
25. Conoidasida
26. Perkinsea
27. Dinophyceae
28. Dictyostelia
29. Tubulinea
30. Vampyrellidea
31. Sarcomonadea1
32. Cercozoa
33. Sarcomonadea2
34. Thecofilosea
35. Incertae sedis
36. Imbricatea
37. Bacillariophyceae
38. Xanthophyceae
39. Chrysophyceae
40. Stramenopiles
41. Labyrinthulomycetes
42. Bolcosoecida
43. Gastrotricha
44. Rhabditophora
45. Eutardigrada
46. Chromadorea
47. Enoplea
48. Arachnida
49. Chilopoda
50. Mammalia
51. Clitellata
52. Gastropoda
53. Ulvophyceae
54. Chlorophyceae
55. Trebouxiophyceae
56. Chlorophyta


(a)
sM
22
mM
26
1
21
5
(b)
sM
21
mM
25
0
21
4
(c)
Matrix
sM
mM
PCO2 (19.7% of total variation)
PCO1 (34.5% of total variation)
Cercozoa
Anellida
Aphelida
Chordata
Stramenopiles
Perkinsozoa
Glomeromycota
Mollusca
Tardigrada
Apusozoa
Dinoflagellata
Mortierellomycota
Arthropoda
Apicomplexa
Basidiomycota
Ascomycota
Chytridiomycota
Conosa
Ochrophyta
Platyhelmisthes
Nematoda
Chlorophyta
Lobosa
Cryptomycota
Alveolata
Ciliophora
(d)
PCO2 (15.6% of total variation)
PCO1 (39.0% of total variation)
Cercozoa
Chytridiomycota
Apusozoa
Chlorophyta
Chordata
Ochrophyta
Tardigrada
Apicomplexa
Mortierellomycota
Cryptomycota
Anellida
Arthropoda
Mollusca
Dinoflagellata
Glomeromycota
Ciliophora
Lobosa
Alveolata
Basidiomycota
Nematoda
Stramenopiles
Ascomycota
Conosa
Aphelida



Eukaryotic taxa:

1. *Dictyostelia* - Conosa
2. *Tubulinea* - Lobosa
3. Chlorophyta
4. *Chlorophyceae* - Chlorophyta
5. *Trebouxiophyceae* - Chlorophyta
6. *Ulvophyceae* - Chlorophyta
7. *Thecomonadea* - Apusozoa
8. *Aphelidea* - Aphelida
9. *Clitellata* - Anellida
10. *Arachnida* - Arthropoda
11. *Chilopoda* - Arthropoda
12. *Mammalia* - Chordata
13. Gastrotricha
14. *Gastropoda* - Mollusca
15. *Chromadorea* - Nematoda
16. *Enoplea* - Nematoda
17. *Rhabditophora* - Platyhelminthes
18. *Eutardigrada* - Tardigrada
19. *Chytridiomycetes* - Chytridiomycota
20. Cryptomycota
21. Ascomycota
22. *Dothideomycetes* - Ascomycota
23. *Eurotiomycetes* - Ascomycota
24. *Lecanoromycetes* - Ascomycota
25. *Pezizomycetes* - Ascomycota
26. *Sordariomycetes* - Ascomycota
27. *Saccharomycetes* - Ascomycota
28. *Agaricomycetes* - Basidiomycota
29. *Tremellomycetes* - Basidiomycota
30. *Cystobasidiomycetes* - Basidiomycota
31. *Microbotryomycetes* - Basidiomycota
32. *Exobasidiomycetes* - Basidiomycota
33. *Glomeromycetes* - Glomeromycota
34. *Mortierellomycetes* - Mortierellomycota
35. Alveolata
36. *Conoidiasida* - Apicomplexa
37. *Colpodea* - Ciliophora
38. *Nassophorea* - Ciliophora
39. *Oligohymenophorea* - Ciliophora
40. *Spirotrichea* - Ciliophora
41. Dinoflagellata
42. *Sarcomonadea1* - Cercozoa
43. *Sarcomonadea2* - Cercozoa
44. *Imbricatea* - Cercozoa
45. Incertae sedis - Cercozoa
46. Cercozoa - Cercozoa
47. *Thecofilosea* - Cercozoa
48. *Vampyrellidea* - Cercozoa
49. Stramenopiles
50. *Bicosoecida* - Cercozoa
51. *Labyrinthulomycetes* - Stramenopiles
52. *Chrysophyceae* - Stramenopiles
53. *Bacillariophyceae* - Ochrophyta
54. *Xanthophyceae* - Ochrophyta
55. *Malasseziomycetes* - Basidiomycota
56. *Perkinsea* - Perkinsozoa

Prokaryotic taxa:

57. *Alphaproteobacteria* - Proteobacteria
58. *Deltaproteobacteria* - Proteobacteria
59. *Gammaproteobacteria* - Proteobacteria
60. *Betaproteobacteria* - Proteobacteria
61. *Blastocatellia* - Acidobacteria
62. Acidobacteria
63. *Holophagae* - Acidobacteria
64. Chlamydiae
65. *Clostridia* - Firmicutes
66. *Bacilli* - Firmicutes
67. Gemmatimonadetes
68. Cloacimonetes
69. *Sprochaetia* - Spirochaetes
70. *Deinococci* - Deinococcus Thermus
71. *Anaerolineae* - Chloroflexi
72. *Dehalococcoidia* - Chloroflexi
73. Chloroflexi
74. *Ardenticatenia* - Chloroflexi
75. *Caldilineae* - Chloroflexi
76. *Kiritimatiellae* - Verrucomicrobia
77. *Chloroflexia* - Chloroflexi
78. *Thermomicrobia* - Chloroflexi
79. *Elusimicrobia* - Elusimicrobia
80. *Thermoleophilia* - Actinobacteria
81. Actinobacteria 1
82. *Rubrobacteria* - Actinobacteria
83. *Acidimicrobiia* - Actinobacteria
84. *Nitriliruptoria* - Actinobacteria
85. Actinobacteria 2
86. Verrucomicrobiae - Verrucomicrobia
87. Verrucomicrobia
88. *Spartobacteria* - Verrucomicrobia
89. *Phycisphaerae* - Planctomycetes
90. Planctomycetes
91. *Planctomycetacia* - Planctomycetes
92. Omnitrophica
93. Saccharibacteria
94. Parcubacteria
95. Peregrinibacteria
96. Cyanobacteria
97. Chlorobia - Chlorobi
98. *Ignavibacteria* - Chlorobi
99. *Cytophagia* - Bacteroidetes
100. Bacteroidetes
101. *Flavobacteriia* - Bacteroidetes
102. *Sphingobacteriia* - Bacteroidetes
103. Candidatus Berkelbacteria
104. Microgenomates
105. *Methanobacteria* - Euryarchaeota
106. *Methanomicrobia* - Euryarchaeota
107. Thermoplasmata - Euryarchaeota
108. Thaumarchaeota

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Highlights

- Eukaryote diversity responded differently to managements across soil aggregates
- A core community of eukaryotes was found across managements, aggregates and depths
- Tillage shifted eukaryotic structure in sM and mM according to N availability
- Protists and fungi positively correlated with the amount of sM, mM and SOC content
- Within- and cross-domain networks of mM at 0-15 cm showed the highest complexity

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Declaration of interests

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

☐The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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