

1 **Unraveling biogeographical patterns and environmental drivers of soil**
2 **fungus diversity at the French national scale**

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31
32 **Abstract**

33 The fungal kingdom is among the most diversified kingdoms on earth with estimations up to
34 12 million species. Yet, it remains poorly understood with only 150,000 fungal species currently
35 described. Given the major ecological role of fungi in ecosystem functioning, these numbers
36 stress the importance of investigating fungal diversity description across different ecosystem
37 types. Here, we explored the spatial distribution of the soil fungal diversity on a broad
38 geographical scale, using the French Soil Quality Monitoring Network that covers the whole
39 French territory (2,171 soils sampled along a systematic grid). Fungal alpha-diversity was
40 assessed directly from soil DNA using a metabarcoding approach by targeting the 18S rDNA
41 gene. The total accumulated fungal diversity across France included 136,219 OTUs, i.e., about
42 1% of worldwide soil fungal diversity (based on a maximum diversity estimate of 12 million)
43 for a territory representing only 0.3% of terrestrial surface on Earth. Based on this dataset, the
44 first extensive map of fungal alpha-diversity was drawn and evidenced a heterogeneous and
45 spatially structured distribution in large biogeographical patterns of 231 km radius for richness
46 (Hill diversity of order 0) and smaller patterns of 36 km radius for dominant fungi (Hill diversity
47 of order 2). As related to other environmental parameters, the spatial distribution of fungal
48 diversity (Hill numbers based on different orders of diversity) was mainly influenced by local
49 filters such as soil characteristics and land management, but also by global filters such as
50 climate conditions with various relative influences. Interestingly, cropped soils exhibited the
51 highest pool of fungal diversity relatively to forest and vineyard soils. In complement, soil
52 fungal OTUs network interactions were calculated under the different land uses across France.
53 They varied hugely and showed a loss of 75% of the complexity in crop systems and grasslands
54 compared to forests, and up to 83% in vineyard systems. Overall, our study revealed that a
55 nation-wide survey with a high spatial resolution approach is relevant to deeply investigate the
56 spatial distribution and determinism of soil fungal diversity. Our findings provide novel insights
57 for a better understanding of soil fungal ecology across the 18S rDNA gene and upgrade
58 biodiversity conservation policies by supplying representative repositories dedicated to soil
59 fungi.

60

61 1. Introduction

62 The fungal kingdom has been evolving continuously for more than 800 million years to
63 adapt to and colonize a large number of habitats on Earth (Loron et al., 2019; Naranjo-Ortiz
64 and Gabaldón, 2019; Li et al., 2021; Bonneville et al., 2020; Berbee et al., 2020). This
65 heterotrophic kingdom represents about 2% of the global biomass on Earth (Bar-On et al., 2018)
66 and is among the most diverse kingdom in the Eukaryota domain (Mora et al., 2011; Blackwell,
67 2011; Taylor et al., 2014; Hawksworth and Lücking, 2017). Recent extrapolations based on
68 environmental DNA characterization using a metabarcoding approaches with mainly the
69 internal transcribed spacer (ITS), evaluated that the total number of fungal taxa ranged from
70 6.28 million to 12 million (Baldrian et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2019; Phukhamsakda et al., 2022).
71 To date, only 150,000 fungal species have been described by the scientific community to date
72 (Species Fungorum 2022, <http://www.speciesfungorum.org/Names/Names.asp>), namely only
73 1.25-2.4% of the whole estimated fungal diversity.

74 The majority of fungi is found in terrestrial ecosystems, especially in soils; only 4,000
75 extant fungi from freshwater habitats are presently listed (Calabon et al., 2022). Fungi play
76 crucial ecological roles in soils by contributing to their proper functioning due to a wide range
77 of functional guilds (Bar-On et al., 2018; Frac et al., 2018). Fungi are keystones of the soil food
78 web, both in biogeochemical cycles and in interactions with other macro- and microorganisms
79 (de Vries et al., 2013; Treseder and Lennon, 2015; Hannula and Träger, 2020). The functions
80 of fungal communities provide many ecosystem services that promote mineral nutrition of
81 plants linked to soil organic matter turnover, phosphorus and nitrogen availability (Miyachi et
82 al., 2020; Ward et al., 2022). They are important decomposers (saprotrophs) of organic matter:
83 they break down complex biopolymers and play a key role in organic matter recycling (Hage
84 and Rosso, 2021). Regarding symbiotic interactions, there are no less than 50,000 mycorrhizal
85 fungi interacting with 340,000 land plants representing 90% of beneficial symbiosis with a host
86 plant association (Genre et al., 2020). Fungal pathogens and parasites can cause diseases and
87 important crop losses and have a significant economic impact (Möller and Stukenbrock, 2017;
88 Fausto et al., 2019). Some of them are also identified as biocontrol agents and are involved in
89 plant protection through the regulation of pathogenic microorganisms and insect pests (Peng et
90 al., 2021). Fungi are also known as ecosystem engineers contributing to soil aggregation and
91 maintenance. Thus, the stability of the soil structure largely depends on mycelium density and
92 the pool of fungal enzymatic activities (Lehmann et al., 2020).

93 The spatial distribution of fungal diversity has been more recently and less studied than
94 the spatial distribution of bacterial diversity, in particular when it comes to identifying and

95 ranking the local and global filters that influence species richness (Griffiths et al., 2011; Terrat
96 et al., 2017; Fierer and Jackson, 2006; Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2018; Ranjard et al., 2013;
97 Tedersoo et al., 2021). In 2014, Tedersoo and collaborators generated the first global map of
98 fungal richness by using the ITS marker and revealed that fungi are spatially structured and
99 exhibit biogeographical patterns (Tedersoo et al., 2014). One major hotspot of fungal diversity
100 was located in Latin America and a cold-spot in the Sahel region, whereas fungal diversity
101 distribution was shown homogeneous across Europe. A second global map of fungal diversity
102 was drawn from a meta-analysis of the *chao* index (Větrovský et al., 2019). Conversely to
103 Tedersoo and collaborators (2014), they highlighted a lower fungal diversity in Latin America
104 and a higher in North Africa (Větrovský et al., 2019). In parallel, Ma and collaborators (Ma et
105 al., 2017) revealed a heterogeneous spatial distribution according to a gradient of forest soils at
106 the continental scale in Eastern China. These differences and even discrepancies in the location
107 of biogeographical patterns at global scale reflect the huge gap of knowledge in fungal diversity
108 distribution and the need to complete these studies with high resolution approaches at a finer
109 scale.

110 Soil fungal communities are constantly subjected to natural biotic and abiotic stresses,
111 but also to human activities through global warming, deforestation, and land use intensification.
112 These stresses altogether have a significant influence on fungal abundance, diversity and
113 community assembly and lead to an overall impact on soil functions (Pärtel et al., 2017; Geisen
114 et al., 2019; Thomson et al., 2015; Tsiafouli et al., 2015; Shi et al., 2019). Several large- and
115 small-scale studies showed that fungal richness is driven by land uses, edaphic factors, climate
116 conditions, and spatial descriptors (Ma et al., 2017; Větrovský et al., 2019; George et al.,
117 2019a). Farming practices on cropped soils such as tillage, fertilization or crop rotation can
118 have an influence on fungal diversity (Sommermann et al., 2018; Sadet-Bourgeteau et al., 2019;
119 Stefan et al., 2021; Finn et al., 2021; Tedersoo et al., 2014) or not (Lentendu et al., 2014).
120 Altogether, soil pH emerges as the strongest driver of fungal alpha-diversity, similar to bacteria
121 at global or territorial scales (Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2018; Terrat et al., 2017). Some studies
122 indicate a positive effect of soil pH on fungal richness at the national (George et al., 2019b) and
123 global (Bastida et al., 2021) scales, whereas others show a negative effect on a global scale
124 (Tedersoo et al., 2014). In 2020, Tedersoo and collaborators also proposed a unimodal
125 relationship between soil pH and fungal richness / Shannon diversity (Tedersoo et al., 2020).
126 Fungal richness also appears higher in fine soil textures than in coarse soil textures (George et
127 al., 2019b). In the same vein, plant cover – especially increased tree richness – shows a positive
128 impact on fungal richness and Shannon diversity (Tedersoo et al., 2020). Soil carbon is also an

129 important driver of fungal diversity, with a positive (Maestre et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2019;
130 Bastida et al., 2021) or a negative effect (George et al., 2019b), depending on the territory
131 studied, the scale investigated and the molecular marker used. Other findings show that soil
132 calcium and phosphorus, the C:N ratio, bulk density, some spatial descriptors (e.g., latitude,
133 longitude, altitude), and climate conditions also have an influence on fungal alpha-diversity
134 (Maestre et al., 2015; Bastida et al., 2021; Tedersoo et al., 2014).

135 In the face of these discrepancies and given the essential role of fungi for ecosystem functioning
136 and sustainability, it is essential to deeply characterize soil fungal diversity – in terms of alpha-
137 and beta-diversity –, using the most recent molecular and high-throughput methods to better
138 decipher the impacts of global and local filters (Chu et al., 2020; Hyde, 2022). In this context,
139 we investigated the French Soil Quality Monitoring Network (RMQS) using a metabarcoding
140 approach to determine the soil fungal diversity at a national scale. Based on a regular grid of
141 2,171 sites across France, this survey captured the various land uses, climates, geomorphology
142 types, and soil characteristics. Located in Western Europe, France is the third largest European
143 country and exhibits the third highest pedological diversity across the world according to the
144 WRB classification (Minasny et al., 2010), and is also known to exhibit diversified land use
145 and climate conditions (Ballabio et al., 2016; Karimi et al., 2020). Main land uses in France are
146 dominated by croplands, grasslands, and forests. Climate conditions are also among the most
147 diverse ones in Europe and organized in three major poles: oceanic, Mediterranean, and
148 mountainous. All these facts lead us to conclude that France could be considered as an ideal
149 national-scale observatory for monitoring the variations of biotic and abiotic components of
150 soil ecosystems. The RMQS soil sampling strategy is probably one of the most intensive and
151 extensive national soil sampling strategies in the world, and this systematic random sampling
152 leads to good spatial coverage profitable both for mapping soil characteristics and unraveling
153 environmental variation. Using this soil survey, a substantial body of scientific knowledge on
154 soil bacterial biogeography has been produced by the use of molecular tools (Ranjard et al.,
155 2013; Terrat et al., 2017; Karimi et al., 2018, 2020), associated with several technical
156 developments to standardize metabarcoding, associated bioinformatics, and statistical analysis
157 (Djemiel et al., 2020; Terrat et al., 2019, 2012).

158 Here, we explored the spatial distribution of the soil fungal communities on a broad
159 geographical scale in order to better understand fungal diversity determinism according to
160 environmental filters using high-throughput sequencing of the small 18S rDNA gene subunit
161 directly amplified from soil DNA. In most studies, alpha-diversity is characterized by one
162 index. However, in order to obtain a global overview of fungal diversity in a biogeographical

163 context, it is important to explore deeper the distribution of rare and dominant taxa and ranking
164 the influence of environmental filters in a deterministic process (Jousset et al., 2017; Rivett and
165 Bell, 2018; Jiao and Lu, 2020). To reach this objective, we used Hill numbers to combine
166 complementary diversity indexes such as richness, exponential Shannon diversity, and inverse
167 Simpson. Methods based on spatial prediction (geostatistics) were applied to the data to map
168 and explore the macro-ecological patterns of soil fungal diversity along the environmental
169 gradients encountered in France. We used a set of environmental datasets – including soil
170 physico-chemical characteristics, climate conditions, and land use – to explain variations in soil
171 fungal diversity and rank the environmental filters structuring the spatial fungal distribution on
172 a wide extent. Finally, we compared the variations of fungal diversity across different land uses
173 plus climate types with the variations of the complexity of the fungal interaction networks by
174 inferring co-occurrence networks at the operational taxonomic unit (OTU) level.

175

176 2. Methods

177 2.1. Soil sampling design

178 Soils were sampled from 2,171 locations across France between June 2000 and June 2009 as
179 part of the RMQS set up to monitor the quality of French soils. As described previously
180 (Ranjard et al., 2013), these sites included a wide range of land uses: forests (n=589), grasslands
181 (n=537), crops (n=886), vineyards/orchards (n=65), and low anthropized environments (n=94),
182 and eight climatic regions: type 1 (n=284), type 2 (n=270), type 3 (n=545), type 4 (n=418), type
183 5 (n=265), type 6 (n=86), type 7 (n=94), and type 8 (n=95). In France, low anthropized
184 environments group wetlands, peatlands, sclerophyllous forests, natural grasslands, sparsely
185 vegetated areas, and bare rocks (Karimi et al., 2020). Inside each of the 2,171 cells of a regular
186 16 km × 16 km grid throughout France, a smaller 20 m × 20 m grid was used for sampling
187 where 25 core samples of topsoil (approximately 0-30 cm depth) were taken. The core samples
188 were pooled and homogenized to obtain a composite sample. The sampling protocols applied
189 on the RMQS are available through the RMQS2 manual (Jolivet et al., 2022). Each sample was
190 air-dried following a standardized procedure at 35°C until the soil humidity was below 1%,
191 then sieved to 2 mm and separated into two sub-samples. The first sub-sample was frozen at -
192 40 °C for molecular analyses, while the second sub-sample was used for physico-chemical
193 analyses. A detailed description of the physico-chemical analyses performed in this study (soil
194 pH, texture, organic carbon, nitrogen, and phosphorus) is accessible from (Jolivet et al., 2006).
195 All the data are available in dataverse Gis Sol (<https://doi.org/10.15454/QSXKGA>).

196

197 2.2. Molecular characterization of fungal communities

198 2.2.1. Soil DNA extraction

199 Soil DNA was extracted from 1g of soil using the GnS-GII standard procedure (Terrat et al.,
200 2012, 2015). Briefly, the soil underwent two lysis steps, i.e., mechanical lysis and chemical
201 lysis. In both cases, the soil was ground and homogenized for 90 s with 2 g of 0.1 mm diameter
202 silica beads, 2.5 g of 1.4 mm diameter ceramic beads, and 4 glass beads of 4 mm diameter in 5
203 ml of a mix solution containing 100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8), 100 mM EDTA (pH 8), 100 mM
204 NaCl, 2% (wt/vol) sodium dodecyl sulfate, and up to 2.5 ml ultrapure water using a Fast-Prep-
205 24 classic kit, and then incubated at 70 °C for 30 min. The mixture was centrifuged (7,000 g,
206 20 °C, 5 min) to retrieve the lysate. A deproteinization step was necessary using 1/10th of
207 volume with 3 M potassium acetate (pH 5.5) followed by a centrifugation step (14,000 g, 4 °C,
208 5 min) to recover the supernatant containing the soil DNA. DNA was precipitated using
209 isopropanol at -20 °C, and stored at -20 °C for 30 min. The last step consisted in washing the
210 DNA pellet with ethanol and resuspending it in 200 µl of ultrapure water. Then, crude DNA
211 were purified with NucleoSpin Soil kits following the manufacturer's instructions (NucleoSpin
212 Soil, Macherey-Nagel). The purified DNA were quantified by fluorescence (QuantiFluor,
213 Promega) using an Infinite® 200 PRO plate reader (Tecan) and then normalized to 1 ng/µl.

214

215 2.2.2. Library preparation for sequencing

216 The V7-V8 regions of the fungal 18S rDNA gene were amplified from purified DNA using
217 forward primer FR1 and reverse primer FF390 (Chemidlin Prévost-Bouré et al., 2011) with a
218 two-step PCR. Both amplifications were carried out in a total volume of 25 µl using 1 to 5 ng
219 of DNA, 4 µl of 5x HOT FIREPol® Blend Master Mix with 7.5 mM MgCl₂ (Solis Biodyne,
220 Tartu, Estonia), and 1 µl (10 µM) of each primer (Eurogentec). The first step amplified the
221 target region under the following conditions: initial denaturation at 94 °C for 3 min, followed
222 by 35 cycles of 94 °C for 30 s; 52 °C for 1 m; 72 °C for 1 mn, and final extension at 72 °C for
223 5 min. The 18S PCR products were purified using an AMPure bead kit (Beckman) and
224 quantified using a QuantiFluor staining kit (Promega, USA). The second amplification was
225 performed to add barcodes for multiplexing samples. The conditions of the second PCR were
226 similar, with a reduced number of cycles (seven) and a specific purification with a MinElute kit
227 (Qiagen). Library preparation for the 2,171 samples was conducted at the GenoSol platform;
228 Illumina HiSeq 2 × 250 bp paired-end sequencing was conducted by Genoscope (Evry, France).

229

230 2.3. Bioinformatic analysis

231 We used BIOCUM-PIPE v.20 pipeline (<https://forgemia.inra.fr/biocum/biocum-pipe>) to
232 process the 18S rRNA gene sequences (Djemiel et al., 2020). FASTQ paired-end raw reads
233 were filtered with PRINSEQ to keep the good-quality sequences and then overlapped with
234 FLASH to form contiguous reads. The libraries were demultiplexed and trimmed with zero
235 difference between the barcode and primer sequences. The sequences were aligned with the
236 Infernal tool based on RNA structures (Nawrocki and Eddy, 2013). Chimeras were removed by
237 a “hunting-recovering” step specific to BIOCUM-PIPE (Djemiel et al., 2020). An additional
238 step allowed us to check whether all our sequences were indeed affiliated to fungal sequences.
239 Following this, a global clustering at 95% similarity was performed with the cleaned sequences,
240 to cluster into Operational Taxonomic Units (or OTUs), followed by a post-clustering step with
241 ReClustOR to improve the clustering (Terrat et al., 2019). All our diversity indices
242 (geostatistical modeling, variance partitioning) and co-occurrence networks analyzes are
243 performed on this OTU-based approaches with a post-clustering step for consistence with the
244 evaluations of fungal diversity generally described in the literature (Terrat et al., 2015; Karimi
245 et al., 2019).

246

247 2.4. Statistical analysis

248 Hill numbers were calculated to estimate alpha-diversity and compare samples on a linear scale
249 to provide a complete interpretation of alpha-diversity through different metrics. Hill numbers
250 with $q = 0$ corresponded to the OTU richness observed in a sample (emphasizes rare fungal
251 OTUs), $q = 1$ to the exponential of Shannon diversity (correspond to “typical” or “common”
252 fungal OTUs), and $q = 2$ to inverse Simpson index (correspond to dominant fungal OTUs)
253 (Alberdi and Gilbert, 2019). We tested if the variables were normally distributed or
254 approximately so, using the *shapiro.test* function (R “stats” package). Depending on the result,
255 we applied a boxcox transformation if the gaussian assumption was not satisfied. To compute
256 the boxcox transformation from the “forecast” R package (Hyndman et al., 2020), we estimated
257 the lambda value with the *BoxCox.lambda* function and applied the transformation with the
258 *BoxCox* function. Outliers were tracked using the *grubbs.test* function in the “outliers” R
259 package (Komsta and Komsta, 2011) for each Hill number dataset. Once the outliers were
260 removed, to estimate the multiple comparisons across the modalities (land uses or climate
261 types), analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were used, and we verified the normality assumption
262 of residuals. If it was satisfied, we used a Least Significant Difference (LSD) test with adjusted
263 p-value < 0.05 ; if it was not satisfied, we used a nonparametric test with *kruskal* function from
264 “agricolae” package and a correction by the Bonferroni method for the multiple comparisons.

265 The details of the removed samples (i.e., the samples considered to be outliers and the ‘low
266 anthropized environment’ samples that we decided to exclude) in the different land uses are
267 available in Supplementary Figure 1, as recommended by Dini-Andreote et al. (2021) (Dini-
268 Andreote et al., 2021)), who developed a data management strategy with good practices for
269 biogeographical studies.

270 The environmental data that did not follow a Gaussian distribution were log-transformed.
271 Moreover, the soil pH covaries with land uses, with a majority of acidic soils in forests and a
272 majority of neutral and basic soils in croplands and vineyards/orchards (Supplementary Figure
273 2). Therefore, we performed a polynomial transformation of degree 2 for the soil pH variable
274 to improve the accuracy of fitting for the variance partitioning analysis.

275 Relationship between fungal alpha-diversity and environmental filters was assessed using
276 variance partitioning. Briefly, the first step consisted in reducing the effect of model collinearity
277 to obtain the most parsimonious models. We used the *vif* function (the variance inflation factors
278 (VIF)) in the “usdm” R package (Naimi, 2015) and kept the explanatory variables with $VIF \leq$
279 5. A second filtering step was performed to determine the best environmental variables using
280 the *regsubset* function (“leaps” R package (Lumley and Lumley, 2013)) and based on the
281 Bayesian information criterion (BIC) and adjusted R^2 . Lastly, we conducted a redundancy
282 analysis (Legendre, 2018) to model variation of the overall environmental filters using the *rda*
283 and *ordiR2step* functions (“vegan” R package (Oksanen et al., 2013)). To select the best
284 variables, we performed a forward multiple regression selection to build a model maximizing
285 the adjusted R^2 . We used the *ordiR2step* function with 10,000 permutations maximum and the
286 *anova.cca* function (“vegan” R package) to evaluate the variance explained by the best
287 explanatory environmental filtering variables.

288 Geostatistical modeling was used to assess the alpha-diversity spatial variations. We followed
289 a standard approach as proposed in Granger and collaborators (2015). First, a variogram model
290 was fitted to the experimental variogram computed using alpha-diversity observed at the sample
291 sites. Then, we predicted the unsampled locations by a global kriging approach that used all the
292 points in the dataset (global neighborhood). We implemented this approach with the “gstat” R
293 package (Bivand et al., 2015). We tried to fit various authorized variogram models and kept the
294 one that minimized the objective function. Then, we used the results of leave-one-out cross-
295 validation (LOOCV) to evaluate the performance of the best fitted geostatistical model by
296 computing the standardized squared prediction errors (Lark, 2002).

297 To obtain the information of the putative OTU richness across France, we computed the
298 rarefaction (interpolation) and prediction (extrapolation) curves for fungal richness ($q=0$) using
299 the R package iNEXT (Hsieh et al., 2016).

300

301 2.5. Fungal co-occurrence networks

302 We used the methodological analysis previously described in Karimi and collaborators (2020,
303 2019) to compute the fungal co-occurrence networks between land uses and climate types.
304 Briefly, two main steps were required: i) standardizing the number of soils (fixed at 60 samples
305 for land uses and 83 for climate types) used to compute the networks per land use to avoid a
306 sampling size effect, and ii) carrying out network repetitions (100 repetitions) to integrate the
307 residual heterogeneity of the soils within each land use and climate type. Thus, the minimum
308 number of combinations ensured that each network was computed from a unique combination
309 of sites. Then, for each replicate, network computation was based on a contingency matrix of
310 136,219 fungal OTUs for the 60 or 83 randomly selected soil samples. The Spearman
311 correlation coefficient for each pair of OTUs was used as a similarity index to estimate fungal
312 OTU co-occurrence. A correlation was considered robust and non-random if the p-value was
313 below 0.06 after correction using the false-discovery rate (FDR) method. To describe the
314 topology of the networks, a set of metrics was calculated using “statnet” package (Handcock et
315 al., 2019), including the number of connected nodes, the proportion of connected nodes, the
316 number of links, connectance, and the ratio between the positive and negative links. These
317 metrics are defined in Karimi and collaborators (2017). We used a Kruskal-Wallis test with
318 Bonferroni correction for the multiple comparisons of the fungal networks across land uses and
319 climate types, using 100 repetitions. The median networks were mapped using Cytoscape
320 software (v. 3.9.1) (Shannon et al., 2003).

321

322 3. Results

323 3.1. Evaluation and extrapolation of fungal alpha-diversity across France

324 Based on 18S rDNA amplicon sequencing to characterize the fungal diversity of the 2,171
325 sampled soils, we obtained a total of 180 million raw sequences. The use of bioinformatic filters
326 (in BIOCUM-PIPE workflow) resulted in 2,060 samples with sufficient high-quality data for
327 the assessment of fungal communities. Regarding the cumulated fungal diversity from the
328 whole France, we identified 136,219 OTUs from the 2,060 samples. Thanks to our intensive
329 soil sampling strategy combined with in-depth sequencing, we obtained an extrapolated total
330 value of 186,794 fungal OTUs (Fig.1) at the national scale.

331

332 3.2. Spatial distribution of fungal alpha-diversity across France

333 We generated three national maps showing the soil fungal alpha-diversity based on Hill
334 numbers with orders of diversity of zero, one and two using a kriging interpolation approach
335 (Fig. 2). The results of the LOOCV show very low R^2 values equal to 0.058, 0.057 and 0.038
336 for $q=0$, $q=1$ and $q=2$, respectively. However, the median and the mean of the SSPES are very
337 close to the expected values (e.g., 0.45 and 1). The fitted variograms reveal different spatial
338 structuring depending on the weighting of OTU relative abundances (Supplementary Table 1).
339 Thus, the predicted map of fungal richness (Hill diversity of order 0) exhibited a heterogeneous
340 and spatially structured distribution with a large autocorrelation distance of about 231-km
341 radius (Fig. 2a, 2d). More or less wide regions with hot or cold spots of fungal diversity were
342 observed. More specifically, soils from the north-west to the center of France support a high
343 fungal richness whereas soils from the north-east, the south-east, and the southwest support a
344 lower fungal richness.

345 The models fitted for $q=1$ (exp. Shannon diversity) and $q=2$ (inverse Simpson) exhibited the
346 spottiest distribution with short autocorrelation distances (27-km radius and 36-km radius,
347 respectively) (Fig. 2b, 2e and 2c, 2f). The hotspots observed for $q=1$ and $q=2$ were less diffuse
348 and remained strongly present in the north-west to the center of France. This spotty distribution
349 highlighted small hotspots of abundant fungal OTUs in certain geographical zones described as
350 having low fungal diversity by $q = 0$, such as the south-east and the north-east of France.

351

352 3.3. Relationship between sets of environmental filters and fungal alpha-diversity

353 We used a variance partitioning approach to evaluate the relative share of fungal diversity
354 explained variance by each set of environmental variables (soil characteristics, land use, climate
355 conditions, and spatial descriptors) for the different Hill numbers in partial models using a
356 redundancy analysis (RDA). Globally, environmental filters explained 20.1%, 15.52, % and
357 7.54% of the total variance of fungal richness for $q=0$, $q=1$ and $q=2$, respectively (Fig. 3a, 4a,
358 5a and Supplementary Table 2). For $q=0$, the main drivers of fungal richness variance were the
359 soil characteristics (11.30%), and then to a lesser extent climate conditions (0.88%), land use
360 (0.39%), and spatial descriptors (0.26%) (Fig. 3a). For $q=1$, the soil characteristics (9.30%)
361 were the main drivers, and then to a lesser extent, spatial descriptors (0.90%), climate conditions
362 (0.63%), and land use (0.44%) (Fig. 4a). For $q=2$, the soil parameters (4.25%) and land use
363 (2.16%) were the main drivers, followed to a lesser extent by climate conditions (0.69%) and
364 spatial descriptors (0.31%) (Fig. 5a). The percentage of interactions between the environmental

365 filters decreased from 7.25% for $q=0$ to 4.25% for $q=1$, and neared zero for $q=2$ (0.12%). The
366 main soil physical and chemical properties for each land use and climate condition are
367 summarized in Supplementary Figures 3 and 4.

368

369 3.4. Influence of the soil characteristics on soil fungal alpha-diversity

370 The key determining soil parameter for fungal richness was pH (variation explained by 6.72%).
371 A unimodal relationship was evidenced, with minimum fungal diversity in the most acidic and
372 alkaline soils (Supplementary Figure 2). For $q=0$, a significant influence of the soil texture was
373 also demonstrated, with a linear negative relationship observed with clay (2.38%) and silt
374 (0.65%). Conversely, a positive relationship was observed with the total lead content (0.58%)
375 and a negative relationship with the total nickel content (0.53%) and the total cadmium content
376 (0.37%) (Fig. 3b).

377 For $q=1$, soil pH (6.30%) had a unimodal distribution and was also the strongest driver followed
378 by the clay content (3%) with a negative linear correlation (Fig. 4b). For $q=2$, the soil pH
379 remained the strongest driver with also a unimodal relationship, and organic carbon and the
380 total iron content were also identified as secondary drivers, with a negative linear relationship
381 (Fig. 5b). Moreover, a weak positive relationship was observed with silt (variation explained
382 by 0.16% with a significance level of 0.1).

383

384 3.5. Influence of climate conditions on soil fungal alpha-diversity

385 The great diversity of climate conditions in France allowed us to compare fungal diversity
386 across eight types of climates (Fig. 6a). Temperature, rainfall, and elevation are summarized in
387 Supplementary Figure 4. Our analyses revealed that fungal diversity for $q=0$ and $q=1$ was
388 highest under oceanic climate (type 5) and lowest under Mediterranean climate (types 6 and 8)
389 and under the climate of the southwestern basin (type 7) (Fig. 6b and 6c). Moreover, we
390 observed no significant difference from types 6, 7 and 8. Fungal diversities for $q=0$ and $q=1$
391 under mountain and continental climates had an intermediate value between oceanic and
392 Mediterranean climates. Regarding the dominant OTUs ($q=2$), there was no significant
393 difference in fungal diversity across the various climate types of France (Fig. 6d).

394

395 3.6. Variation of soil fungal diversity as related to land uses

396 By comparing fungal richness ($q=0$) across the different land uses encountered in France (Fig.
397 7a), we observed several significant differences (Fig. 7b). Forest and vineyard/orchard soils

398 harbored lower fungal richness than grassland and agricultural soils, and can be ranked as
399 follows: vineyards/orchards (\bar{x} = 1,384 OTUs) \leq forests (\bar{x} = 1,393 OTUs) < grasslands (\bar{x} =
400 1,469 OTUs) \leq crops (\bar{x} = 1,498 OTUs) (Fig. 7b). The same trend was observed for q=1 (Fig.
401 7c) but was different for q=2 (Fig. 7d). For q=2, fungal diversity in grassland and vineyard soils
402 appeared lowest compared to forest and crop soils.

403 Within the four major land uses of French soils, we identified and compared more precisely
404 land managements (Fig. 8). For example, forests can be categorized into three groups –
405 deciduous forests, coniferous forests, and mixed forests. Among forest managements, we
406 observed significant differences between deciduous and mixed forests: the lowest richness was
407 found in mixed forests (Fig. 8a). For q=1, fungal diversity in deciduous forests was significantly
408 higher than in coniferous and mixed forests (Fig. 8b), while no difference was detected for q=2
409 (Fig. 8c). Significant differences were also recorded by comparing the different land
410 managements of the crop systems: whatever the metrics, soil fungal diversity was higher under
411 crops with a grassland rotation than under crops without a grassland rotation. No significant
412 difference was recorded between vineyards and orchards or between the various grassland
413 managements (Fig. 8).

414

415 3.7. Comparison of soil fungal co-occurrence networks between land uses and climate types

416 The networks were graphically composed of connections (links) between the nodes
417 corresponding to the OTUs. The links represented the significant positive and negative
418 correlations between the OTUs occurring in the soils under the respective land uses or climate
419 types (Fig. 9). A visual analysis of the networks obtained for the different land uses revealed a
420 significant shift in structure ranging from a highly connected, tightly closed structure in forests
421 to a sparse, open structure in vineyards (Fig. 9a). In grassland and crop soils, the networks
422 exhibited an intermediate structural complexity in terms of their numbers of links and connected
423 OTUs (Fig. 10a). Statistical comparisons of the network metrics between land uses confirmed
424 a highly significant decreasing gradient of network complexity, with a pattern: forest >>
425 grassland \geq crop system > vineyard & orchard soils (Supplementary table 3, Fig. 10a). The
426 average number of links significantly decreased by 84% from forest to vineyard soils, and by
427 76% from forest to field crop and grassland soils. The average connectance also progressively
428 decreased by 81% from forest to vineyard soils, and by 78% from forest to field crop and
429 grassland soils. The ratio between the positive and negative links was lower in forest soil and
430 higher in vineyard & orchard soil (Fig. 10a). The fungal networks across the eight climate types
431 exhibited a progressive decrease in connectivity between climate types 1, 2, 3 and 4, then a very

432 significant drop for types 5 and 7, and the greatest connectivity for types 6 and 8 (Figs. 9b and
433 10b, Supplementary table 4). Conversely, the highest ratio between the positive and negative
434 links was observed in networks within types 5 and 7, and the lowest one for type 8.

435

436 4. Discussion

437 Two molecular markers are commonly used to explore fungal diversity thanks to
438 metabarcoding approaches: the internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region, accepted as a universal
439 barcode, and the 18S rRNA gene as an alternative, the two being considered today as
440 complementary. Both have advantages and drawbacks, in particular to observe specific
441 functional groups. For example, members of the class Glomeromycetes are better characterized
442 using 18S rDNA than ITS, especially in the soil microbiota, and this could have a significant
443 impact on fungal diversity metrics (George et al., 2019b). In addition, important reference
444 sequences are only annotated at the phylum level in the international databases (Nilsson et al.,
445 2012, 2016; Banos et al., 2018). Moreover, a recent study highlighted that national-scale fungal
446 biogeography studies based on 18S rDNA were robust and sensitive to decipher the
447 relationships between fungal diversity and environmental filters (George et al., 2019b). For all
448 these reasons, the use of 18S rDNA gene to characterize fungal alpha-diversity in soil can be
449 relevant. Once the molecular marker was chosen, the hypervariable region had to be selected
450 for sequencing. Various criteria had to be taken into account such as amplicon length in relation
451 to the sequencer, or the desired taxonomic and phylogenetic resolution. We sequenced the V7-
452 V8 regions because they appeared to be the most promising regions for fungal diversity
453 assessment (Banos et al., 2018). The last tricky step of a fungal diversity study is the
454 bioinformatics analysis, which is dependent on the pipeline (Pauvert et al., 2019). Nevertheless,
455 our previous studies on bacterial biogeography showed that our metabarcoding pipeline and
456 associated tools were highly appropriate to analyze large microbial datasets (Djemiel et al.,
457 2020; Terrat et al., 2019).

458 As for the alpha-diversity analysis, we chose to use the Hill numbers – which have several
459 advantages (Roswell et al., 2021) – to provide an overview of fungal diversity for each site.
460 This allowed us to observe all OTUs – "typical" OTUs and dominant ones –, based on their
461 abundance frequencies (Chao et al., 2014), especially as fungal diversity can be represented by
462 a few dominant species with a high relative abundance (Egidi et al., 2019a).

463 The first predictions of worldwide fungal diversity ranked from 2.2 to 3.8 million
464 species (Hawksworth and Lücking, 2017), but recent molecular works updated estimations up

465 to 6.28 to 12 million species predicted by computing several hundreds of international studies
466 (Phukhamsakda et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2019; Baldrian et al., 2022). At the national scale, this
467 question remains unexplored for soil ecosystems. In our study, we predict total fungal richness
468 at a national scale for the first time by an extrapolation analysis from metabarcoding at the OTU
469 levels. Compared to the estimated worldwide diversity, France exhibits a very high cumulated
470 soil fungal richness (about 1% of the global soil fungal diversity based on a maximum diversity
471 estimate of 12 million) relative to its small surface (0.3 % of terrestrial land). Independently to
472 the molecular marker used, this suggests that global soil fungal richness is under-estimated
473 worldwide partly due to the poor intensive sampling strategy that has only been extensive to
474 date, with few sampling sites. Consequently, this strategy seems relatively inefficient to capture
475 the local environmental heterogeneity that hosts and shapes fungal richness. Therefore, it is
476 important to gather several deeply investigated national surveys to estimate global soil fungal
477 diversity more robustly (Dini-Andreote et al., 2021). Another example of soil fungal diversity
478 estimation at a national scale has been described in Wales, where 437 samples were collected
479 in sites on a surface area of $20 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$, leading to a total evaluation of 4,408 OTUs based on
480 18S rDNA characterization (George et al., 2019b).

481 Our first maps of the three Hill numbers were provided to describe the spatial distribution of
482 soil fungal alpha-diversity across France, as previously done for molecular microbial biomass
483 and bacterial richness (Dequiedt et al., 2011; Terrat et al., 2017). The heterogeneous spatial
484 distribution of fungal diversity observed in France is not congruent with several studies using
485 ITS marker (Větrovský et al., 2019; Tedersoo et al., 2014), which did not observe significant
486 variations across Europe with a global soil mapping approach. The two studies computed 365
487 and 3,085 soil samples across the world, respectively, compared to 2,171 in the present study
488 at the scale of France. In addition, these global sampling strategies were based on non-random
489 designs that generally left aside difficult access (polar, arid, mountainous) regions, hence with
490 possible biases on the environmental representativeness of soil fungal habitats. A recent study
491 in northern Europe generated an extrapolated fungal richness map of Estonia using ITS marker
492 that confirmed a heterogeneous geographic distribution with hot- and cold-spots at the national
493 scale (Tedersoo et al., 2020). Altogether, these observations stress the need to assess more
494 intensive samplings at different scales in order to describe robustly the global distribution of
495 soil fungal diversity and its determinism (Dini-Andreote et al., 2021).

496 The soil fungal community is well known to be largely dominated by a few highly abundant
497 taxa and to include a large number of rare taxa (Egidi et al., 2019). Few biogeography studies
498 have focused on abundant and rare taxa through the different alpha-diversity metrics (e.g., Hill

499 numbers) (Bent and Forney, 2008). Yet, comparing the spatial distribution of dominant and rare
500 biosphere fungi is important to better grasp the environmental determinism that shapes soil
501 fungal diversity (Mo et al., 2018). Mapping of richness ($q=0$, including all OTUs), and “typical”
502 ($q=1$, including common fungal OTUs abundances) and dominant ($q=2$, including OTUs with
503 high relative abundance) fungal OTUs revealed different spatial patterns, “patchier” (i.e.,
504 spatially more diffuse) for $q=0$ with 231 km radius, and “spottier” (i.e. spatially more restricted)
505 for $q=1$ (27 km) and $q=2$ (36 km). These results altogether suggest a 'patchier' pattern, generally
506 considered less stochastic than a 'spottier' distribution (Dequiedt et al., 2011; Terrat al., 2015).
507 A similar observation was made in eastern China, with different spatial distributions of rare and
508 dominant soil fungal OTUs based on ITS marker (the authors did not use Hill numbers but
509 relative abundance and a threshold to group rare and dominant OTUs), suggesting differential
510 sensitivity to various environmental filters leading to increase the endemism of particular
511 dominant taxa (Jiao and Lu, 2020).

512 The decrease of the explained variance between the $q=0$, $q=1$ and $q=2$ Hill numbers indicates
513 that environmental and spatial characteristics had a low influence on the national distribution
514 of dominant OTUs. These are generally considered as generalist and more driven by stochastic
515 processes, whereas rare taxa are more driven by deterministic processes (Zhao et al., 2022; Jia
516 et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2022b, a). The spottier distribution observed for $q=2$ could support this
517 hypothesis of a more random distribution across France, less influenced by environmental
518 filters. Whatever the Hill numbers, the main filters explaining the variance of fungal diversity
519 were the soil characteristics: soil pH was the main driver, followed by clay content for $q=0$ and
520 $q=1$, and the trophic conditions for $q=2$ (organic C and total Fe contents). Such an influence of
521 soil trophic resources on dominant fungal OTU diversity seems in accordance with their
522 generalist and copiotrophic strategy (Wang et al., 2021). Numerous studies have reported the
523 importance of soil pH in the distribution of fungal richness across different scales (Rousk et al.,
524 2010; Glassman et al., 2017; Tedersoo et al., 2014, 2020; George et al., 2019b). Interestingly,
525 we revealed a unimodal relationship of soil pH with fungal diversity, whereas most studies
526 found either a positive or a negative linear relationship (Tedersoo et al., 2014; Maestre et al.,
527 2015; Bastida et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2019). Such a discrepancy could be partly explained by
528 the large pH range recorded in France – 3.7 to 9 –, *versus* 3.6 to 5.2 in Wales (George et al.,
529 2019b) or more surprisingly 3.34 to 10.43 at the European scale (Fernandez-Ugalde et al.,
530 2022). Emphasizing our hypothesis, other studies report the same unimodal relationship for
531 fungi by using ITS marker and even for bacteria (Bickel et al., 2019; Tedersoo et al., 2020). As
532 for bacterial richness across France, fungal richness was lower in fine-textured soil, which is

533 not congruent with the results obtained in Wales based on the 18S rDNA marker (George et al.,
534 2019b). In France, we may think that fine-textured soils offer less diverse habitats for fungi, as
535 previously reported (Witzgall et al., 2021; Tecon and Or, 2017). This might be partly explained
536 by the decrease in microscale heterogeneity with increasing clay content, leading to a lower
537 diversity of microbial habitats and a smaller hosting capacity for various indigenous microbial
538 species (Tecon and Or, 2017). Finally, some soil heavy metals were minor but represented
539 significant drivers of fungal richness. A positive relationship was observed with total lead, but
540 a negative one with cadmium and nickel. These metallic elements occur naturally but also result
541 from human activities and are known to be toxic for soil fungi when accumulated in the
542 environment (Sun et al., 2022; Ding et al., 2022). In crop soils, significant Cd accumulation
543 through the input of phosphate fertilizers extracted from contaminated limestone rocks has been
544 observed (Khan et al., 2017) and our results could reflect the significant impact of this
545 contamination on soil fungi at a broad scale.

546 Conversely to bacterial biogeography at the scale of France, climate conditions have been
547 identified as important global filters of the distribution of fungal diversity across France for all
548 Hill numbers based on three different orders of diversity (Terrat et al., 2017). The highest fungal
549 richness and highest typical OTU diversity found under oceanic climate may be partly
550 explained by particular conditions such as buffered mean temperature and humidity inducing
551 soil homeothermy and stability of water availability favorable to fungal development (Canini
552 et al., 2019; Jiao et al., 2021). On the contrary, the high variability of these conditions between
553 seasons could explain the decline observed under Mediterranean climate. The poor influence of
554 climate on the diversity of abundant fungal OTUs across France could reflect their generalist
555 strategy better adapted to a high magnitude of environmental fluctuations over time, as
556 previously observed in eastern China (Jiao and Lu, 2020). Moreover, our results indicate that
557 rare fungi were more present in geographical regions with abundant annual rainfall and mild
558 mean temperature, in line with the observation of increasing fungal richness with frequent
559 rainfall (Tedersoo et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2018; Bahram et al., 2018).

560 In France, each land use corresponds to a particular intensity of soil disturbance resulting from
561 the intensification of agricultural practices. We can rank the different land uses according to the
562 intensity level of their soil disturbance as follows: forests < grasslands < crops <
563 vineyards/orchards. The crop systems – vineyards in particular – use pesticides and soil tillage
564 that have deleterious effects on fungal diversity (Karimi et al., 2021; Christel et al., 2021). We
565 observed the highest richness ($q=0$) and typical ($q=1$) OTU diversity in grasslands and crops
566 corresponding to the intermediate levels of disturbance. Similar observations have been

567 reported about nematodes (Vazquez et al., 2019), bacteria (Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2018;
568 Terrat et al., 2017), and fungi by using 18S rDNA marker (George et al., 2019b) at different
569 scales. Conversely, no difference has been reported between forest, grassland, and crop soils in
570 Estonia (Tedersoo et al., 2020), and decreased fungal richness has been reported between
571 temperate-forest and crop soils at a global scale (Bastida et al., 2021). Our observations support
572 the intermediate disturbance hypothesis (IDH) stating that the species richness of an ecosystem
573 is maximized when it is submitted to an intermediate disturbance, and minimized when it is
574 submitted to either a low disturbance by a competitive exclusion process or to a high
575 disturbance by a selection process (Connell, 1978; Wilkinson, 1999; Giller et al., 1998). More
576 precisely, agricultural practices such as tillage can stimulate microbial richness in crop systems
577 (Szoboszlay et al., 2017; Lienhard et al., 2013), and the highest level of richness is generally
578 explained by the coexistence of microorganisms with different ecological strategies that
579 promote ecosystem stability (Griffiths and Philippot, 2013). Interestingly, we also observed the
580 highest diversity of dominant fungal OTUs (inverse Simpson, Hill $q=2$) in crop systems, *versus*
581 lowest diversity in grasslands, in line with previous studies reporting a similar trend in grassland
582 and crop soils (Xu et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2022). This observation suggests that increased
583 fungal diversity in intensive soil management crop systems is concurrent with decreased fungal
584 evenness.

585 Analyzing fungal diversity according to the different land managements within each land use
586 highlighted the highest fungal diversity in the agricultural systems when crop rotation included
587 grasslands. Inserting temporary grasslands in the rotations is well known to improve soil quality
588 in terms of nutrient provision and recycling, soil structure, and biological regulation (Martin et
589 al., 2020) and could favor the development of soil fungi, as previously described at the
590 landscape scale in Brittany by using 18S rDNA marker (Western France, Le Guillou et al.,
591 2019). More fundamentally, this statement also raises the question of the influence of
592 aboveground (plant) diversity on the abundance and diversity of belowground (micro-)
593 organisms due to the maintenance of diverse habitats in soils and to changes in nutrient cycling
594 poorly investigated in crop systems to date (Wardle et al., 2004). Among forest ecosystems,
595 deciduous forests seem to provide the most favorable conditions for fungal diversity. Across
596 France, deciduous forests present the highest tree family richness compared to mixed and
597 coniferous forests (data not showed). Therefore, our results are in line with studies showing that
598 plant species richness positively affects the soil fungal diversity (Tedersoo et al., 2016; Hiiesalu
599 et al., 2017). The lowest fungal diversity observed in coniferous forest soil also confirmed the
600 strong influence of the lower availability and/or degradability of organic substrates provided by

601 this litter for microorganisms (Leckie et al., 2004; De Boer et al., 2005). However, other
602 parameters such as plant genotype, forest stand age or tree density, not taken into account in
603 the present study, could also affect fungal diversity (Tedersoo et al., 2016; Hazard and Johnson,
604 2018; Spake et al., 2015). In contrast, no difference related to the different types of grassland
605 or to the distinction between vineyards and orchards was recorded.

606 Beyond fungal alpha-diversity, the analysis of co-occurrence networks is a relevant way of
607 providing a more comprehensive view of fungal diversity and its interactions according to
608 environmental variations on a broad scale (Karimi et al., 2017). As previously observed for
609 bacterial co-occurrence networks across France, land use intensity affects the complexity of
610 fungal networks (Karimi et al., 2019). Although forest ecosystems exhibited the lowest fungal
611 richness, they harbored the highest complexity of fungal co-occurrence networks. Strong losses
612 of about 83% of the links between forests and vineyards and about 75% between ‘forests’ on
613 the one hand and ‘grasslands and crop systems’ on the other hand were observed across France.
614 A similar trend has been observed for bacterial networks across France (Karimi et al., 2019)
615 and also for fungi along a transect from forest to vineyards in Australia (Xue et al., 2022).
616 However, soil fungal interaction networks remain poorly described by comparing land uses on
617 a broad scale. The lowest fungal diversity and lowest complexity of interaction networks
618 observed in vineyard and orchard soils could be related to the intensification of agricultural
619 practices in these systems (Karimi et al., 2019). Vineyard soils are indeed known to be strongly
620 disturbed by intensive tillage, a restricted plant cover and large pesticide inputs (Quiquerez et
621 al., 2022). This intensification of agricultural practices can lead to the isolation of fungal taxa
622 and the loss of links between taxa in these soils by i) reducing microbial biomass, hence a lower
623 probability of each cell encountering another and interacting with it (Dequiedt et al., 2011), ii)
624 stimulating self-sufficient opportunistic microorganisms that do not interact with others
625 (Lienhard et al., 2013), and iii) reducing spatial connectivity between soil ecological niches due
626 to soil tillage and compaction, hence physical isolation of fungal taxa (Cordero and Datta,
627 2016). Altogether, our results confirm that forest soils remain a favorable habitat for soil fungi
628 by representing a mosaic of connected ecological niches that are fully complete and shared by
629 non-opportunistic taxa (Karimi et al., 2019). Interestingly, the highest fungal diversity and
630 lowest complexity of interaction networks were observed in oceanic climate soils. The lowest
631 fungal diversity and a very low complexity of interaction networks were also observed under
632 the climate of the south-western basin. Finally, the lowest fungal diversity and lowest
633 complexity of interaction networks were observed under Mediterranean climate (region types
634 6 and 8). The soils under Mediterranean climate presented the greatest level of stress, with the

635 highest annual temperatures and the lowest annual precipitation, and did not provide favorable
636 ecological niches for fungal diversity.

637

638 5. Conclusions

639 At the scale of France, by using 18S rDNA gene, the soil fungal diversity is driven by soil
640 characteristics, land management and climatic conditions. Soil pH was the most important soil
641 property explaining rare and abundant fungal diversity. The lowest fungal richness was found
642 in less disturbed environments (forests) and highly disturbed environments (vineyards &
643 orchards) compared to grasslands and croplands. Highly disturbed environments (crops,
644 vineyards & orchards) harbored the lowest fungal network complexity compared to forest soils,
645 which harbored the most connected networks. Our study confirms that a nation-wide survey is
646 relevant to deeply investigate the spatial distribution and determinism of soil fungal diversity.
647 In addition, compiling data obtained from different molecular markers (ITS and 18S rDNA)
648 could also significantly improve the description and comprehensiveness of the soil fungal
649 diversity. The multiplication and the sum of such studies conducted across the world could
650 highly upgrade biodiversity conservation policies and provide representative repositories
651 dedicated to soil microorganisms in a context of global change. To go further, it will be
652 important to explore fungal beta-diversity and fungal taxonomy at the scale of France in order
653 to reach a more comprehensive understanding of spatial distribution, ecological processes, and
654 environmental filters. Finally, it will also be important to investigate the ecological and
655 functional traits assignment of soil fungal communities, using recent tools and databases
656 developed to better predict the shift in soil functioning according to land management intensity
657 (Djemiel et al., 2022).

658

659 **Code and data availability**

660 The fungal DNA sequencing datasets supporting the results presented in this article are
661 available at the EBI ENA under accession number PRJEB57875. The code that supports the
662 findings of this study are available from the first author upon request.

663

664 **Authors' contributions**

665 All authors conceptualized the research project. Claudy Jolivet coordinated the RMQS program
666 and the soil sampling at the territory scale. Lionel Ranjard is the scientific coordinator of the
667 different projects dealing with the characterization of the soil microbial communities at the

668 scale of France. Charles Guillard, Solène Perrin, Gwendoline Comment, Julie Tripied and
669 Mélanie Lelièvre performed the molecular analyses. Patrick Wincker and Corinne Cruaud
670 contributed to DNA sequencing. Christophe Djemiel and Sébastien Terrat performed the
671 bioinformatic analyses. Claudy Jolivet, Nicolas P.A. Saby, Line Boulonne provided the
672 environmental dataset. Christophe Djemiel, Samuel Dequiedt, Walid Horrigue, Arthur Bailly,
673 and Nicolas P.A. Saby contributed to the statistical and geostatistics analyses. Christophe
674 Djemiel and Lionel Ranjard wrote the original draft. Christophe Djemiel, Sébastien Terrat,
675 Nicolas P.A. Saby, Claudy Jolivet, Line Boulonne, Antoine Pierart, Pierre-Alain Maron, and
676 Lionel Ranjard reviewed and edited the final manuscript.

677

678 **Competing interests**

679 One author is member of the editorial board of SOIL journal. The peer-review process was
680 guided by an independent editor, and the authors have also no other competing interests to
681 declare.

682

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721

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1226

1227 **Figures**

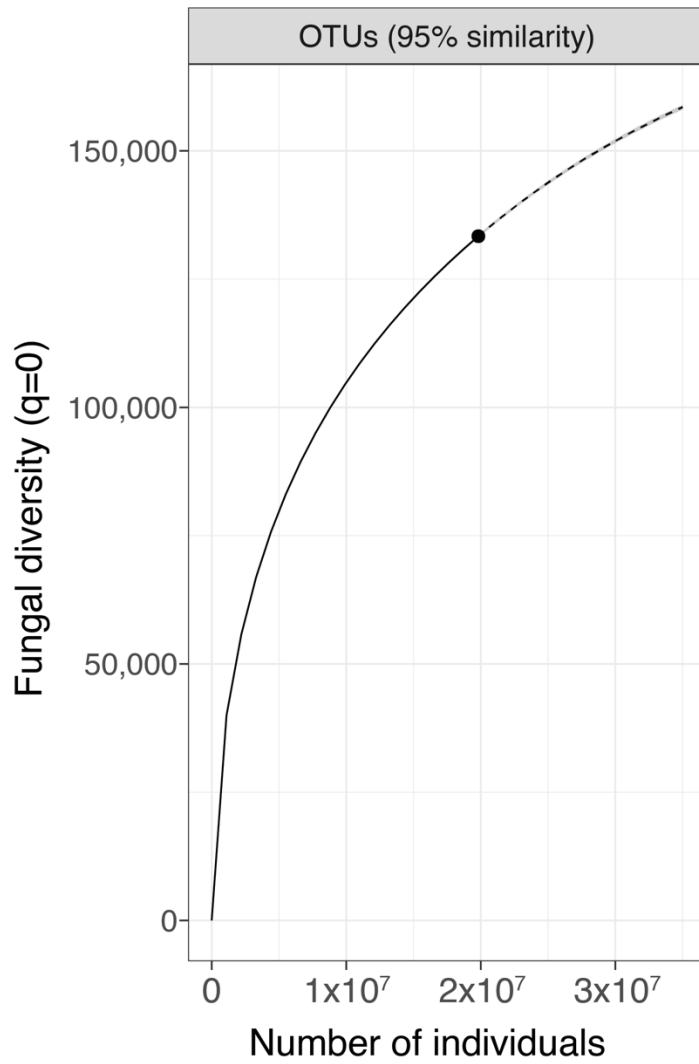


Figure 1

1228

1229 Fig. 1: Maximum number of fungal species expected across France based on OTUs. The
 1230 analyses of fungal richness rarefaction (solid line segment) and extrapolation (dotted line
 1231 segment) was performed with iNEXT.

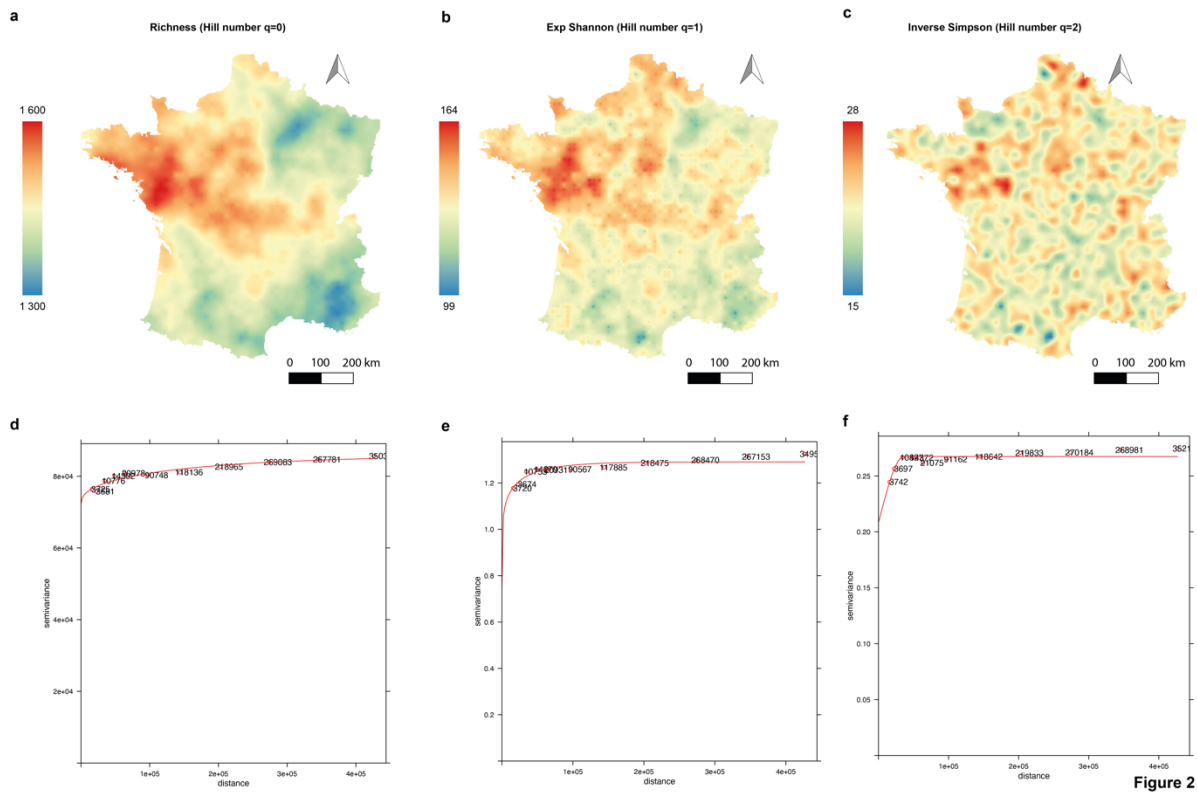


Figure 2

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Fig. 2: National soil fungal alpha-diversity maps and robust variograms in France. Map of fungal richness (a). Map of fungal exponential of Shannon diversity (b). Map of fungal inverse Simpson (c). The variogram of fungal richness and the exponential of Shannon diversity are based on Matern model with M. Stein's parameterization (d and e). The variogram of fungal inverse Simpson is based on a spherical model. Colors correspond to the extrapolated values expressed as OTUs *per* soil sample (f).

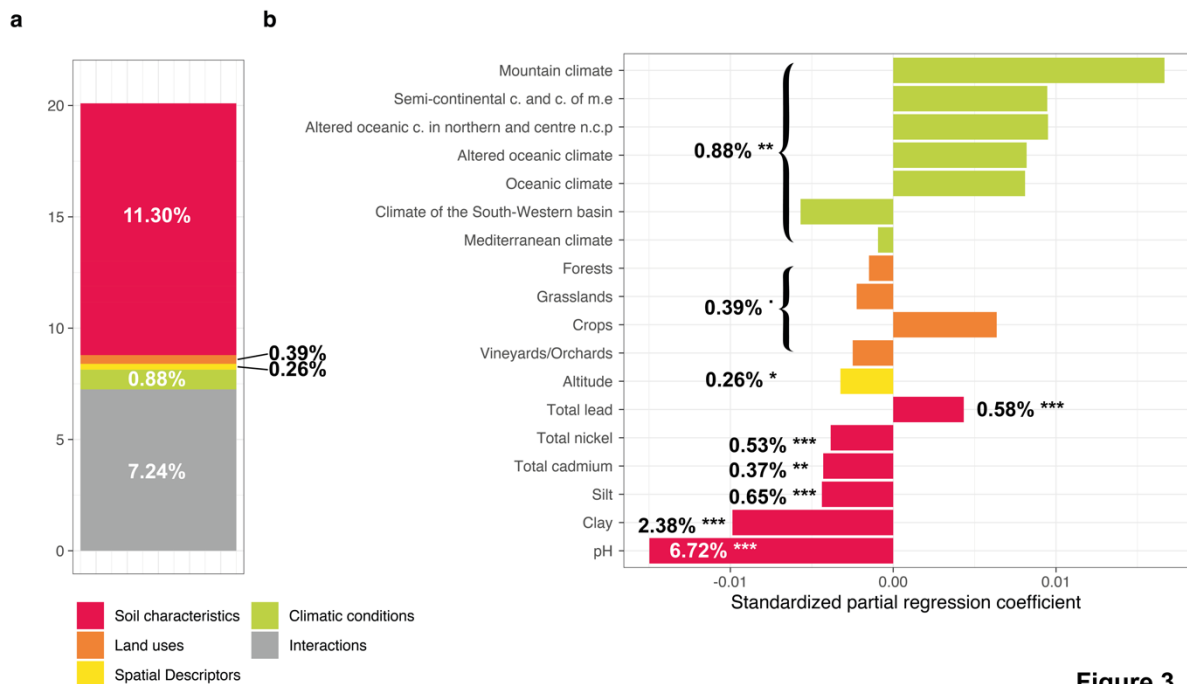


Figure 3

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1240 Fig. 3: Variance partitioning analysis to determine how local factors and factors related to
 1241 global environmental filters explained variance in fungal richness (a). The amount of explained
 1242 variance corresponds to the adjusted R^2 values of the contextual groups using partial
 1243 redundancy analysis. (b) Model parameters for the distribution of fungal richness. Each
 1244 parameter is presented with its estimated model coefficients and its marginal effect assessed by
 1245 a permutation test. * $P < 0.1$; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$. Missing values indicate that the variable
 1246 was not retained in the model. Sand was removed prior to model evaluation since it was
 1247 represented by the opposite of the sum of the silt and clay contents.

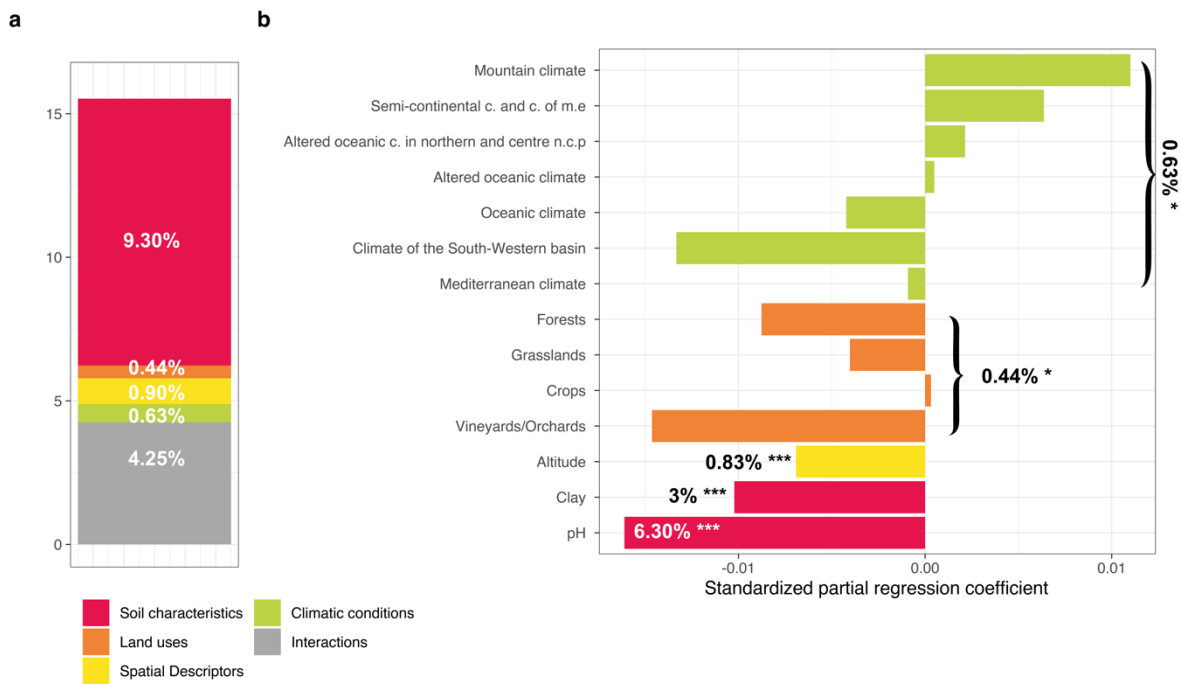


Figure 4

1248
 1249 Fig. 4: Variance partitioning analysis to determine how local factors and factors related to
 1250 global environmental filters explained variance in the exponential of fungal Shannon diversity
 1251 (a). The amount of explained variance corresponds to the adjusted R^2 values of the contextual
 1252 groups using partial redundancy analysis. Model parameters for the distribution of the
 1253 exponential of fungal Shannon diversity (b). Each parameter is presented with its estimated
 1254 model coefficients and its marginal effect assessed by a permutation test. * $P < 0.1$; ** $P < 0.01$;
 1255 *** $P < 0.001$. Missing values indicate that the variable was not retained in the model. Sand was
 1256 removed prior to model evaluation since it was represented by the opposite of the
 1257 silt and clay contents.

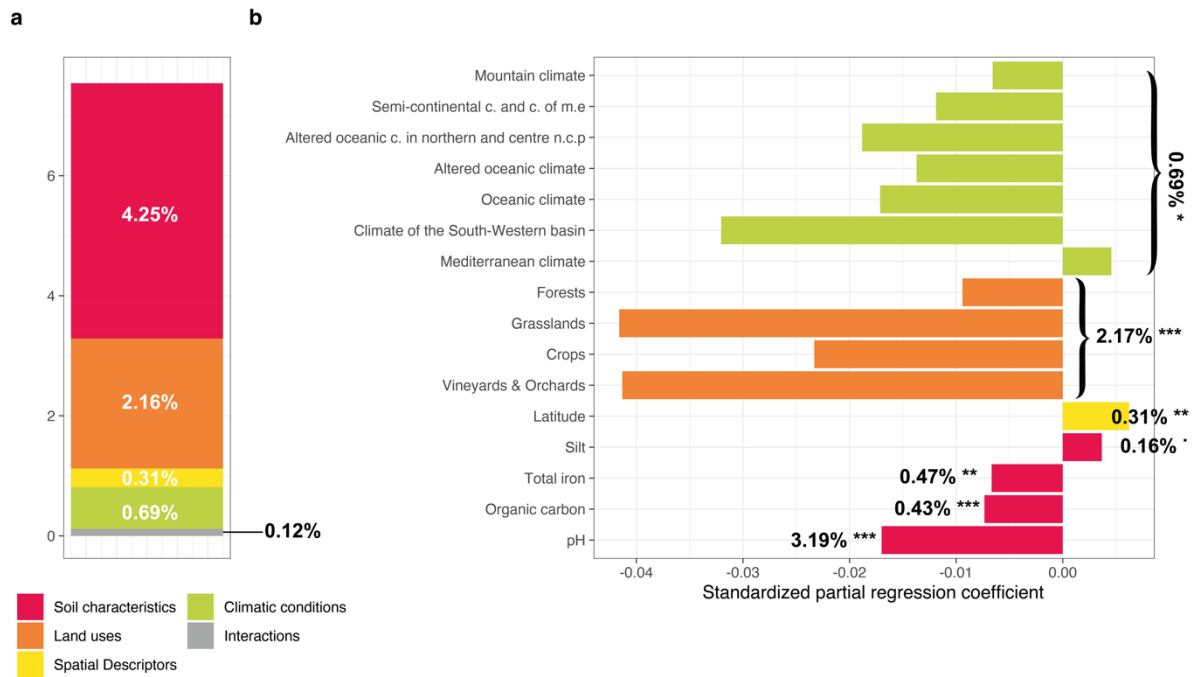
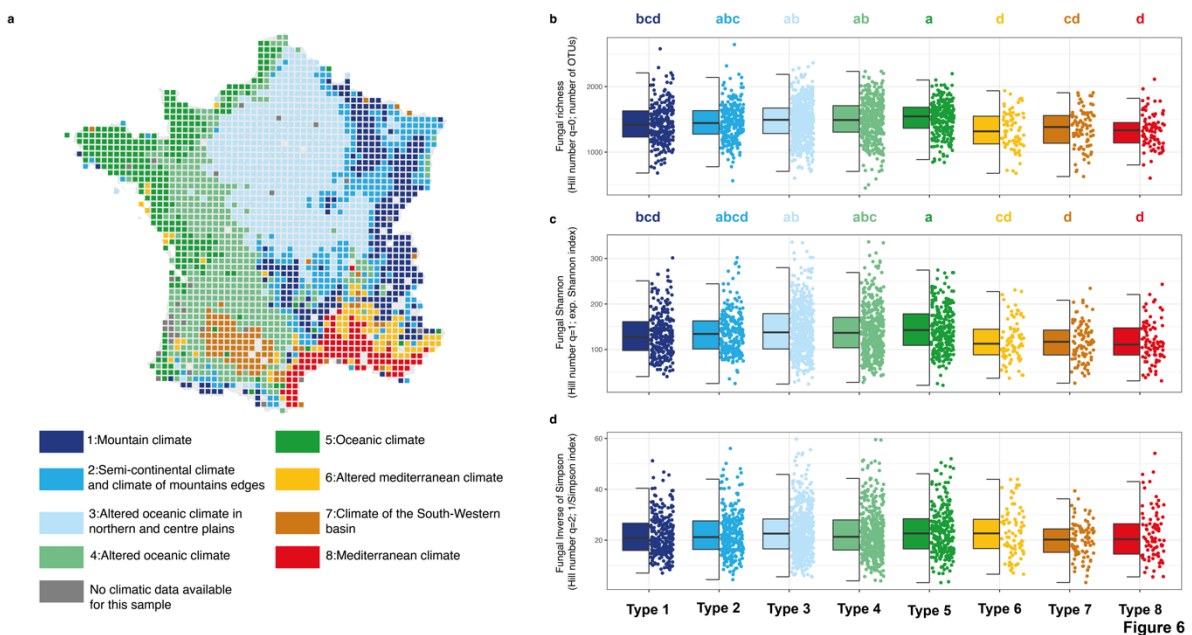


Figure 5

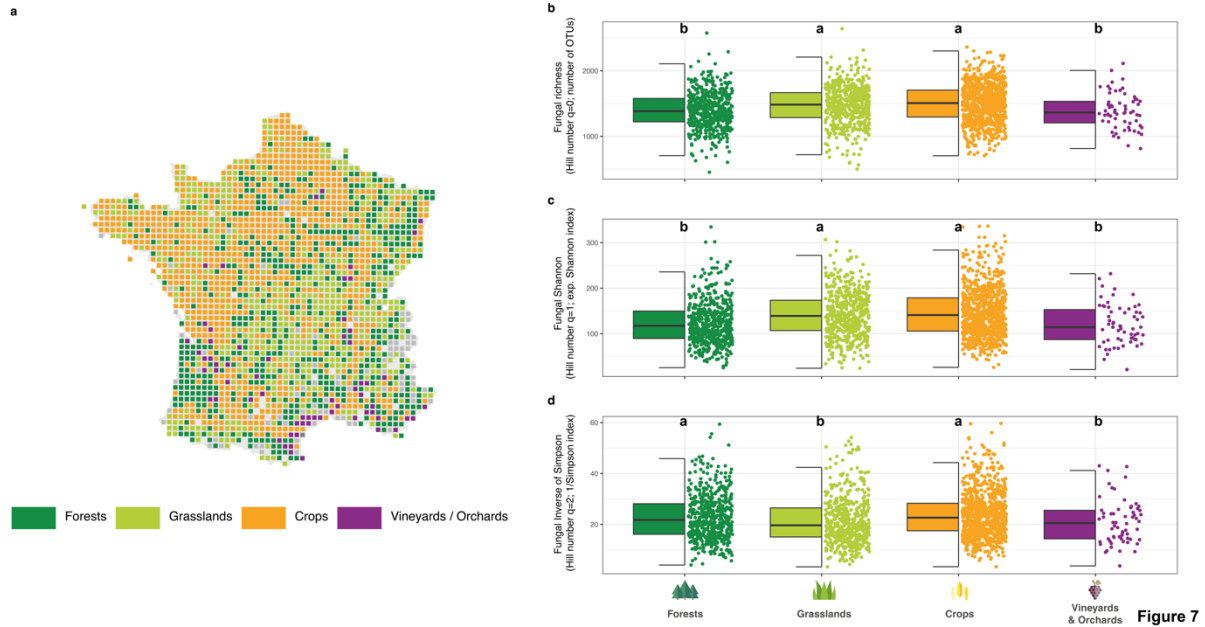
1258

1259 Fig. 5: Variance partitioning analysis to determine how local factors and factors related to
 1260 global environmental filters explained variance in fungal inverse Simpson (a). The amount of
 1261 explained variance corresponds to the adjusted R^2 values of the contextual groups using partial
 1262 redundancy analysis. Model parameters for the distribution of fungal inverse Simpson (b). Each
 1263 parameter is presented with its estimated model coefficients and its marginal effect assessed by
 1264 a permutation test. * $P < 0.1$; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$. Missing values indicate that the variable
 1265 was not retained in the model. Sand was removed prior to model evaluation since it was
 1266 represented by the opposite of the sum of the silt and clay contents.



1267

1268 Fig. 6: Map of the RMQS sampling sites and classification of the eight climate types (a). Soil
 1269 fungal alpha-diversity distribution across climate types for fungal richness (b), the exponential
 1270 of fungal Shannon diversity (c), and fungal inverse Simpson (d). Different letters designate
 1271 significantly different values following multiple comparisons.



1272
 1273 Fig. 7: Map of the RMQS sampling sites and classification for the four land uses (a). Fungal
 1274 richness distribution across land uses (b). Distribution of the exponential of fungal Shannon
 1275 diversity across land uses (c). Fungal inverse Simpson distribution across land uses (d).
 1276 Different letters designate significantly different values following multiple comparisons.

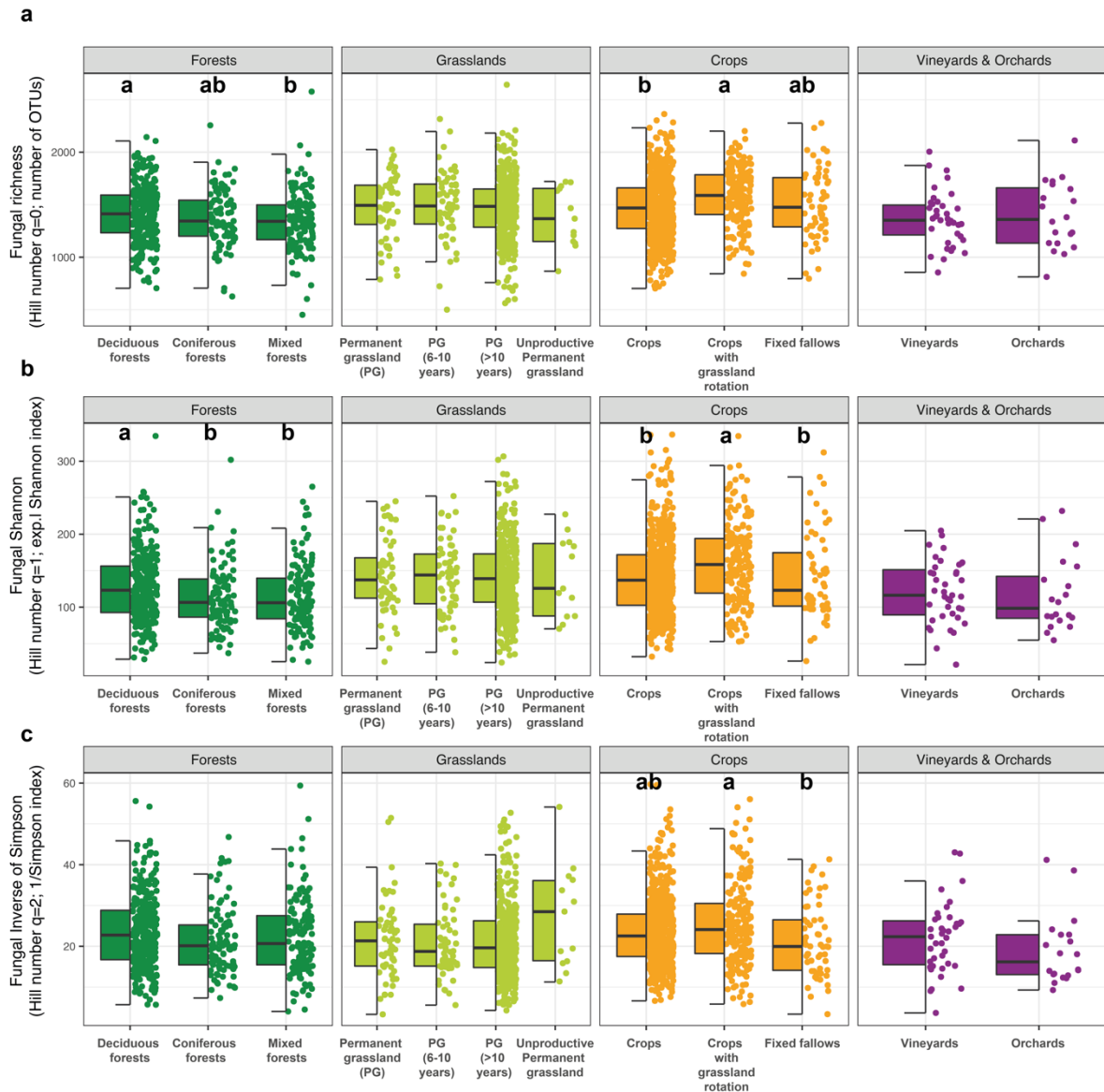
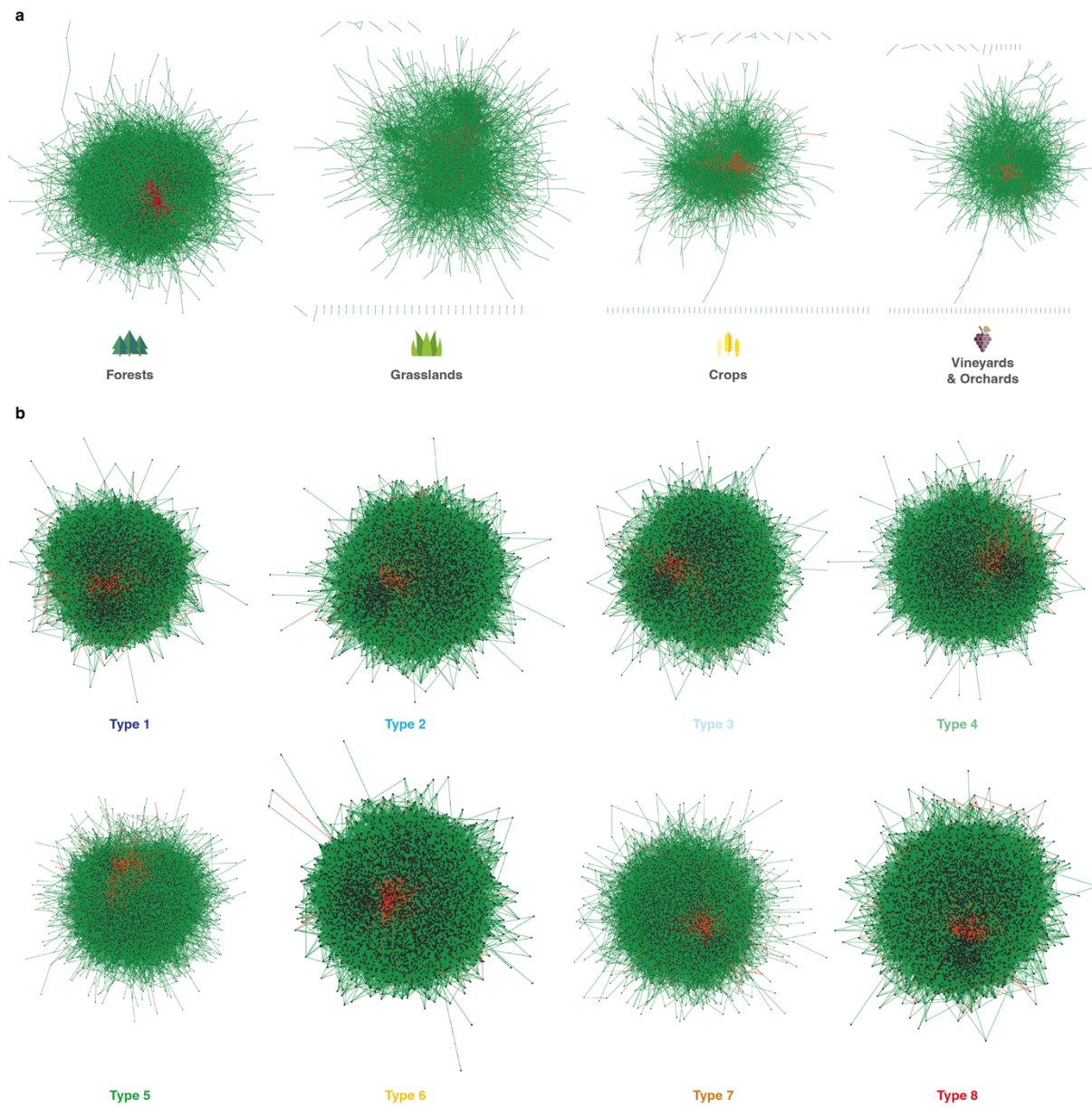


Figure 8

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1278 Fig. 8: Distribution of soil fungal alpha-diversity within the four major land uses of French soils
 1279 according to a more precise land management characterization for fungal richness (a), the
 1280 exponential of fungal Shannon diversity (b), and fungal inverse Simpson (c). Different letters
 1281 designate significantly different values following multiple comparisons.



1282

Figure 9

1283

Fig 9. Co-occurrence networks of fungal OTUs across land uses (a) and climate types (b) in

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France. Among the 100 replicates of the 4 types of land cover or 8 climate types, we visualized

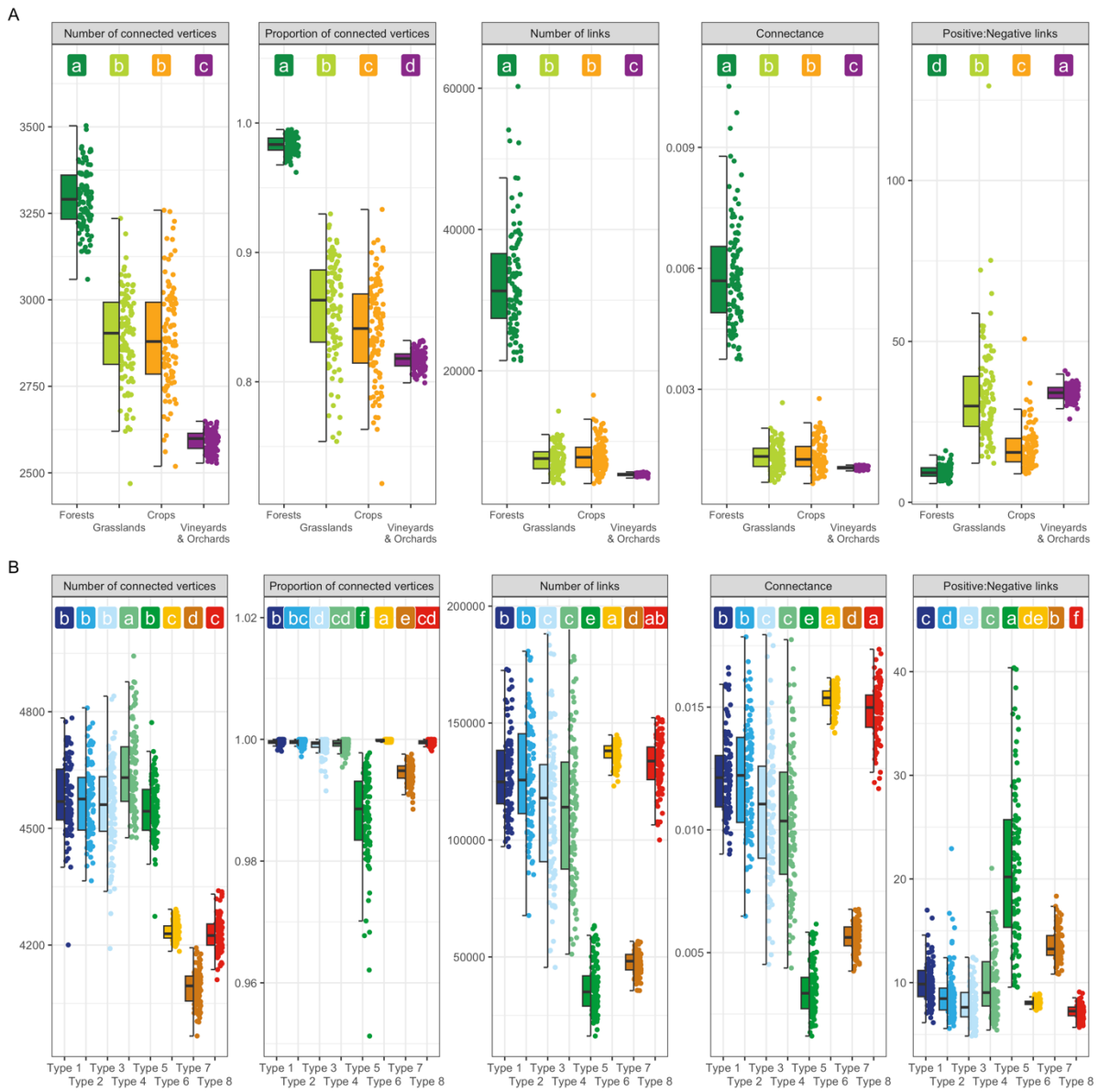
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the network closest to the median network based on the number of links and connectance. The

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red edges represent the negative links, and the green edges represent the positive links. Nodes,

1287 OTUs; edges, links between the nodes.



1288

1289 Fig 10. Fungal co-occurrence network metrics for the four land uses (a) and eight climate types
 1290 (b) based on five indices. Different letters designate significantly different values following
 1291 multiple comparisons.