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Deterministic selection dominates microbial community assembly in termite mounds

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## **Highlights**

1. Termite mounds associated microbial communities exhibited a significant distance-decay pattern.
2. Deterministic selection predominated the microbial community assembly in termite mounds.
3. Mean annual temperature is the most important predictor of microbial profiles in termite mounds.
4. Deterministic processes exhibited a weaker impact on bacteria than fungi.



12 **Abstract**

13 Termite mounds are an important habitat for an enormous diversity of microorganisms.  
14 However, the microbial community assembly processes in termite mounds remain  
15 unresolved, which impeded our ability to predict the biological functions of these  
16 mound-associated microbiota under the global changes. Here we conducted a large-scale  
17 investigation in northern Australia to explore biogeographical patterns of microbial  
18 community in termite mounds and identify the role of deterministic and stochastic  
19 processes in microbial community assembly. Microbial communities in termite mounds  
20 exhibited a significant distance-decay pattern, and fungi had a stronger distance-decay  
21 relationship than bacteria. The neutral community model and normalized stochasticity  
22 ratio index (*NST*) revealed that the deterministic selection, rather than stochastic forces,  
23 predominated the microbial community assembly in termite mounds. Deterministic  
24 processes exhibited a significantly weaker impact on bacteria (*NST* = 45.23%) than on  
25 fungi (*NST* = 33.72%), likely due to the wider habitat niche breadth and higher potential  
26 migration rate of bacteria. Random forest model further demonstrated that mean annual  
27 temperature was the most important predictor of both bacterial and fungal profiles in  
28 termite mounds. These findings improved our understanding of spatial patterns and  
29 processes of microbiome in termite mounds, which is critical to decipher the role of  
30 termite mounds associated microbes in regulating ecosystem multifunctionality.

31 **Keywords:** Community assembly; Biogeography; Ecological model; Biotic interaction;  
32 Termite mounds

### 33 **Introduction**

34       Unravelling the role of ecological processes and environmental factors in governing  
35 the assembly of microbial communities is a central goal in microbial ecology (Dumbrell  
36 et al., 2010; Stegen et al., 2013). Mounting evidence suggested that microbes can coexist  
37 in the environment with limiting resources and exhibit a significant biogeographic pattern  
38 (Nemergut et al., 2013; Zhou and Ning, 2017). Deterministic and stochastic processes,  
39 based on the niche-based and neutral theory, respectively, are commonly used to explain  
40 the assembly of species into communities (Dini-Andreote et al., 2015; Zhou and Ning,  
41 2017). The fundamental premise of niche-based theories is that ecological traits differ  
42 among species within a community (e.g., different nutrition requirements), which allow  
43 them to occupy different niches and differentiate limited resources within the ecosystem  
44 (Leibold and McPeck, 2006; Mitchell et al., 2019). Neutral theories assume that all  
45 individuals are ecologically equivalent and have the same demographic rates (Chave,  
46 2004), and dispersal limitation and stochasticity are the key processes that drive the  
47 community assembly (Hubbell, 2001). Growing evidence, after a long-standing debate,  
48 shows that deterministic and stochastic processes are not mutually exclusive, but rather  
49 act concurrently to regulate the community assembly (Dini-Andreote et al., 2015; Kim et  
50 al., 2018; Chen et al., 2019).

51       Currently, ecologists have had a good knowledge of how abiotic factors (e.g., pH,  
52 temperature) drive the diversity and distribution of bacterial and fungal communities in  
53 terrestrial ecosystems across regional to global scales (Tedersoo et al., 2014; Bahram et

54 al., 2018; Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2018). Recent studies reported that the global  
55 distribution of soil faunal communities including earthworms, nematodes, and  
56 invertebrates, is primarily driven by vegetation and climate across biomes (Bastida et al.,  
57 2019; Phillips et al., 2019; van den Hoogen et al., 2019). Termites are among the most  
58 abundant groups of insects on Earth, and play a vital role in the terrestrial ecosystem by  
59 consuming dead plants, woods and feces, driving nutrient cycling processes, and  
60 producing greenhouse gas methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) (Lavelle et al., 2006; Nauer et al., 2018;  
61 Ashton et al., 2019). Some termites can create unique nest structures (also known as  
62 ‘mounds’) from soil, saliva and excreta, which substantially alter soil physicochemical  
63 properties, increase soil nutrient availability, and enhance plant growth (Pringle et al.,  
64 2010; Bonachela et al., 2015; Singh et al., 2019). Termite mounds, as an ‘island of  
65 fertility’, harbour a broad range of microorganisms that are essential to regulation of  
66 multiple ecosystem functions (Chiri et al., 2020). A recent study demonstrated that the  
67 methanotrophic bacteria dwelling in termite mound walls mitigated approximately half of  
68 termite produced CH<sub>4</sub> (Nauer et al., 2018). However, we still lack the knowledge of  
69 microbiomes and microbial assembly processes in ubiquitous termite mounds, which is  
70 essential to predict the role of termite mounds in regulating terrestrial ecosystem  
71 functions.

72 In this study, we conducted a large-scale investigation across >1500 km in northern  
73 Australia to explore the microbial assembly processes and drivers in regulating the  
74 composition of termite mound associated microbial communities (Figure S1). Our

75 hypothesis is that, if stochastic process dominates the microbial assembly, chance events  
76 due to the restricted dispersal to nearby locations would probably produce more  
77 compositionally similar communities between termite mounds and its matrix soil. Owing  
78 to the differences in physiochemical properties between termite mounds and surrounding  
79 soils, if deterministic process dominates the microbial assembly, distinct microbial  
80 community compositions would be found between termite mounds and soil. Therefore,  
81 by comparing the microbial community assembly in termite mounds and surrounding  
82 soils, this study provides an ideal setting to improve our understanding of the  
83 mechanisms governing the microbial biogeographic pattern and the contribution of  
84 deterministic and stochastic processes to community assembly processes. The present  
85 study aimed to (1) quantify the relative importance of deterministic and stochastic  
86 processes in termite mound microbial assembly; (2) explore whether bacterial and fungal  
87 taxa assemble via similar or different community assembly mechanisms in termite  
88 mounds; and (3) identify the dominant driver in shaping the microbial communities in  
89 termite mounds.

## 90 **Materials and Methods**

### 91 *Study area and sample collection*

92 We collected termite mound samples in May 2019 from 16 locations spanning >  
93 1500 km in Northern Territory and Queensland of northern Australia (133.36° E to  
94 140.36° E, 22.98° S to 19.25° S) (Figure S1). Spatial geographical coordinates and  
95 elevations were recorded using a handheld GPS (eTrex Venture, Garmin, Olathe, KS,

96 USA). Termite mounds (0.5-1.5 m in height, 0.2-1.0 m in diameter) were highly abundant  
97 and widely distributed in the sampling region. We established a 50 m × 50 m plot at each  
98 sampling location, and collected composite samples (0-5 cm) from 8~10 termite mound  
99 walls. A total of 134 termite mound samples were collected in this sampling campaign.  
100 All samples were sieved < 2 mm mesh and divided into two fractions. One fraction was  
101 frozen at -80 °C for molecular analyses of bacterial and fungal communities, and the  
102 other was stored at 4 °C for soil physicochemical analyses.

### 103 *Climatic data collection*

104 Climatic attributes, including mean annual precipitation (MAP) and temperature  
105 (MAT) of each sampling location, were obtained from the WorldClim database version 2  
106 (<http://www.worldclim.org/>) based on the spatial geographical coordinates (Fick and  
107 Hijmans, 2017). We calculated the aridity index (AI, the ratio of precipitation and  
108 evapotranspiration) of each location using the Global Aridity Index and Potential  
109 Evapotranspiration in Climate Database v2 (<https://cgiarcsi.community/>). Extracted data  
110 were processed with the ‘raster’ and ‘sp’ packages in R (Pebesma and Bivand, 2005;  
111 Hijmans and van Etten, 2019).

### 112 *Soil physicochemical analysis*

113 Standard methods were used to characterize soil physicochemical properties  
114 (Rayment and Lyons, 2011). Soil pH was measured in a 1: 2.5 mass: volume of soil and  
115 water suspension with a pH meter (Thermo Scientific Inc., Waltham MA, US). Dissolved  
116 organic carbon (DOC) and nitrogen (DON) were extracted with MilliQ water and

117 measured using a TOC analyzer (Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan). Total carbon (TC) and  
118 nitrogen (TN) were measured using the Dumas combustion method on LECO FP628  
119 analyzer (LECO Corp., MI, USA). Nitrate nitrogen ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N) and ammonium-nitrogen  
120 ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N) were extracted with 2 M KCl solution and measured with a flow analyzer  
121 (Skalar Analytical B. V. Tinstraat, Breda, Netherland).

### 122 *Characterization of microbial community structure*

123 Total genomic DNA was extracted using a DNeasy PowerSoil Kit (QIAGEN Pty Ltd.,  
124 Hilden, Germany) *as per* the manufacturer's instructions. The DNA quality was assessed  
125 using a NanoDrop 2000c spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham,  
126 USA). The DNA concentration was determined with a Qubit™ dsDNA HS Assay kit on a  
127 Qubit™ 3.0 fluorometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, USA).

128 The bacterial 16S rRNA gene and fungal ITS region were amplified with the primers  
129 515FmodF/806RmodR (Walters et al., 2016) and ITS1F/ITS2R (White et al., 1990),  
130 respectively, on the CFX96 Touch™ PCR Detection System (Bio-Rad, Hercules, USA).  
131 Amplicons of bacteria and fungi were sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq PE300 platform  
132 (Illumina Inc., CA, USA) at the Majorbio Bio-pharm Technology Co., Ltd (Shanghai,  
133 China). Raw sequences were filtered for quality control by Majorbio. Briefly, raw  
134 pair-end reads containing over three ambiguous nucleotides, reads with a low ( $Q < 20$ )  
135 average quality score, short reads ( $< 100$  nt) and barcode were discarded to generate the  
136 high-quality sequences. The sequences were processed and analyzed using the  
137 Quantitative Insights Into Microbial Ecology 2 (Bolyen et al., 2019). Chimeric sequence

138 was checked using the ‘USEARCH’ package with the UCHIME algorithm (Edgar et al.,  
139 2011). DADA2 pipeline was used to generate a feature table of amplicon sequence  
140 variants (ASVs) (Callahan et al., 2016). Singletons, chloroplast and mitochondrial  
141 sequences were discarded from the final dataset. Representative sequences were assigned  
142 to taxonomic lineages using the RDP classifier against the SILVA database for bacteria  
143 (Quast et al., 2012) and UNITE database for fungi (Nilsson et al., 2018). The raw  
144 sequences data were uploaded to the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) data  
145 depository (PRJNA647630).

#### 146 *Statistical analysis*

147 All statistical analyses were performed in the R platform (R Core Team, 2016). To  
148 estimate the relationships between the bacterial and fungal communities, we performed  
149 the Procrustes analysis and Mantel test with the ‘vegan’ package (Oksanen et al., 2017).  
150 The pairwise geographic distance between sampling sites was calculated using the ‘sp’  
151 package (Pebesma and Bivand, 2005) based on the coordinates of each sampling site. The  
152 distance–decay rate of the microbial communities was calculated as the slopes of  
153 ordinary least-squares regressions between geographic distance and community similarity  
154 (1–dissimilarity of the Bray–Curtis matrices). We calculated Levins’ niche breadth index  
155 for both bacteria and fungi with the ‘niche.width’ function in ‘spaa’ package in R (Zhang  
156 et al., 2016). A neutral community model (NCM) was used to predict the potential  
157 importance of stochastic processes in community assembly by determining the  
158 relationships between the detection frequency of microbial taxa in a set of local

159 communities and their relative abundance across the wider metacommunity (Sloan et al.,  
160 2006). NCM was constructed in R with the code provided by Burns et al. (2016). We  
161 further used the normalized stochasticity ratio (*NST*) to quantify the relative importance  
162 of deterministic and stochastic processes in community assembly with 50% as the  
163 boundary point between more deterministic (*NST* < 50%) and more stochastic (*NST* >  
164 50%) assembly (Ning et al., 2019). Random forest model was performed to identify the  
165 important predictors of microbial assembly in termite mounds with the packages of  
166 ‘randomForest’ (Liaw. A and Wiener. M, 2002), ‘rfPermute’(Archer, 2018) and  
167 ‘A3’(Fortmann-Roe, 2015). Ordinary least-squares (OLS) regression model was used to  
168 determine the relationships between the abundance of the most important predictor and  
169 microbial profiles in termite mounds.

## 170 **Results**

### 171 *Characterization of edaphic and climatic variables*

172 Soil properties were as follows: soil pH ranged from 4.93 to 7.36 (with an average of  
173 6.16), total carbon and total nitrogen ranged from 0.19-1.32% and 0.02-0.10%,  
174 respectively. Mean annual precipitation and temperature ranged from 254 to 583 mm and  
175 21.36 to 26.54 °C. Aridity index ranged from 0.08 to 0.21, with an average of 0.12. More  
176 detailed information about the soil properties and climatic variables in this study is  
177 provided in Table S1.

178 ***Microbial community compositions in termite mounds***

179       After assembling and quality filtering, a total of 8,185,293 and 8,190,911 high  
180 quality sequences were obtained for bacteria and fungi, respectively. These sequences  
181 were clustered into 14,772 bacterial ASVs and 4,503 fungal ASVs. The bacterial  
182 community compositions were predominated by the bacterial phyla Actinobacteria and  
183 Proteobacteria, which together occupied over 80% of the total sequences. Ascomycota, a  
184 common fungal phylum, showed an extremely higher relative abundance in termite  
185 mounds, which accounted for over 96% of the total sequences (Figure 1a). Mantel test ( $R$   
186  $= 0.739$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) together with Procrustes analysis (sum of squares  $M^2 = 0.234$ ,  $P <$   
187  $0.001$ , 9999 permutations) indicated that bacterial profiles were significantly correlated  
188 with the fungal communities (Figure 1b).

189 ***Distance-decay of community similarity in termite mounds***

190       We estimated the distance decay relationship (DDR) for both bacteria and fungi in  
191 termite mounds. Although DDR was significant for both bacteria and fungi ( $P < 0.001$ ),  
192 the fitness values were remarkably low ( $R^2 < 0.1$ ), indicating a weak decay of microbial  
193 community similarity with geographic distance. In addition, the slope of distance-decay  
194 curves, based on the OLS regression model, was steeper for fungi (slope = -1.91) than  
195 that for bacteria (slope = -0.21) in termite mounds (Figure 2).

196 ***Microbial community assembly processes in termite mounds***

197       We calculated the community-level habitat niche breadths ( $B_{com}$ ) to explore the

198 relative importance of deterministic and stochastic processes in microbial community  
199 assembly (Figure 3). A significantly higher *Bcom* value was observed for bacteria than  
200 fungi in termite mounds ( $P < 0.001$ ) (Figure 3a). In addition, we fitted the bacterial and  
201 fungal communities to the neutral community model. The goodness of fit was better for  
202 bacteria (65.42% of the variations explained) than fungi (32.85% of the variations  
203 explained) (Figure 4). Bacteria ( $m = 0.0372$ ) exhibited a higher mitigation rate than fungi  
204 ( $m = 0.0015$ ), indicating that bacterial taxa were less limited by dispersal. We further  
205 employed the normalized stochasticity ratio (*NST*) to quantify the role of deterministic  
206 and stochastic processes in microbial community assembly (Figure 3b). The *NST* value  
207 was below the 50% boundary point for both bacterial and fungal communities, suggesting  
208 that deterministic process played a more important role than stochasticity during the  
209 microbial assembly in termite mounds. Additionally, a significantly ( $P < 0.001$ ) higher  
210 *NST* value was observed in bacterial communities with an average of 45.23% than that in  
211 fungal communities with an average of 33.72% (Figure 3b)

### 212 ***Multiple drivers accounting for the microbial assembly in termite mounds***

213 Random forest modeling was employed to identify the most important predictors of  
214 microbial assembly in termite mounds, and OLS model was used to test the relationship  
215 between selected predictors and microbial community composition profiles. Our random  
216 forest modelling (ntree = 5000) explained 69.3% and 70.1% of the microbial assembly  
217 variance in bacteria and fungi, respectively (Figure 5a). Most edaphic properties e.g. soil

218 pH (Bacteria,  $P < 0.05$ ; Fungi,  $P < 0.01$ ),  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ( $P < 0.05$ ), TN ( $P < 0.05$ ) and C/N ( $P <$   
219  $0.05$ ) exhibited significant impacts on both bacterial and fungal community compositions  
220 in termite mounds. Climatic factors including MAT ( $P < 0.01$ ), MAP ( $P < 0.05$ ) and AI ( $P$   
221  $< 0.05$ ) also significantly influenced the microbial compositions. Among all the factors,  
222 MAT was the most important driver in shaping both bacterial and fungal community  
223 compositions in termite mounds. OLS model further indicated that microbial profiles (as  
224 represented by nMDS1) were positively correlated with MAT for both bacteria ( $R^2 =$   
225  $0.449$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) and fungi ( $R^2 = 0.491$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (Figure 5b). Nevertheless, it should  
226 be noted that a large proportion of variation (71% for bacteria and 75% for fungi)  
227 remained unexplained in the variation partitioning (Figure S2).

## 228 **Discussion**

### 229 *Temperature based deterministic selection dominates microbial community assembly in* 230 *termite mounds*

231 The biogeographic pattern of microbial communities has received little attention so  
232 far in ubiquitous termite mounds, a unique environment for microorganisms in terms of  
233 nutrient availability and soil properties. The present study improves our understanding of  
234 the spatial patterns of termite mound-associated microbial communities and sheds light  
235 into the underlying processes and mechanisms of microbial community assembly. A  
236 significant distance decay pattern for both bacterial and fungal communities was  
237 observed in termite mounds across large spatial scales. The fitness values ( $R^2 < 0.1$ ) of

238 the DDR were substantially lower than those reported in other natural soil ecosystems  
239 (Griffiths et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2017), suggesting that microbial communities in  
240 termite mounds exhibit less apparent spatial patterns across a large scale. According to  
241 Hubbell's neutral theory, community similarity was predicted to decrease with increasing  
242 spatial distance due to dispersal limitation (Hubbell, 2001). Nevertheless, it is difficult to  
243 disentangle the relative importance of deterministic and stochastic processes by solely  
244 analyzing DDR. The differences in environmental factors, such as pH, MAT, MAP and  
245 vegetation, also likely increase with increasing geographical distance and play a key role  
246 in structuring microbial communities across regional and global scales (Maestre et al.,  
247 2015; Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2016). In this case, the environmental changes induced  
248 shifts in microbial community compositions can be attributed to the taxonomic niche  
249 differentiation i.e. the deterministic process (Bell, 2010). Based on the neutral community  
250 model, we observed a lower fitness value ( $R^2$ ) and mitigation rate ( $m$ ) compared with  
251 previous studies (Burns et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2019), in which stochastic processes  
252 were dominant in shaping microeukaryotic and zebrafish gut microbial community  
253 assembly. Thus, our results indicate that stochastic processes may play a less important  
254 role in termite mound microbial community assembly. This finding is supported by the  
255 *NST*, a general mathematical framework for quantitatively assessing the influences of  
256 stochastic and deterministic processes in microbial community assembly (Ning et al.,  
257 2019). The *NST* value below the boundary (50%) further provided evidence that the niche  
258 based deterministic selection dominates microbial community assembly in termite

259 mounds.

260 In the present study, we found that both climatic and edaphic factors play an  
261 important role in microbial community compositions in termite mounds, which is  
262 consistent with the global topsoil microbial communities (Bahram et al., 2018). Moreover,  
263 the MAT could be the most important driver in shaping the termite mound microbial  
264 compositions as revealed by random forest and OLS models. However, some potential  
265 caveats in the interpretation of our findings should be considered. Regarding the  
266 biological interactions, trophic-level interactions, e.g. predation and mutualisms, are not  
267 considered in the present study, but they play a unique role in maintenance of species  
268 diversity (Chesson, 2000). In addition, the mitigation of termites may increase the  
269 termite-associated microbial dispersal and modify the relative importance of  
270 deterministic and stochastic processes in shaping the microbial community assembly in  
271 termite mounds. These limitations together with the undetermined environmental  
272 variables could explain why over 70% proportion of variation remains unexplained for  
273 both bacterial and fungal communities in the variation partitioning (Figure S2). Actually,  
274 it is impractical to address the effects of all potentially biotic and abiotic variables,  
275 especially for a broad-scale field survey and this is consistent with previous studies where  
276 50% - 90% variation remains unexplained in exploring the drivers that shaping the soil  
277 microbial patterns (Wang et al., 2017; Jiao et al., 2019).

278 *Differences in community assembly between bacteria and fungi*

279 In the present study, we demonstrated that overall the niche-based deterministic  
280 processes determine the termite mound and matrix soil microbial community assembly.  
281 An interesting finding is that the *NST* value of bacteria is significantly higher than that of  
282 fungi (Figure 3b), suggesting that stochastic processes contribute more to bacterial  
283 communities than to fungal communities. This observation could be due to the  
284 size-plasticity hypothesis (body size effect) that smaller organisms (bacteria) are less  
285 environment filtered than larger organisms (Liu et al., 2015), and thus ecological  
286 determinism will increase with organism size (De Bie et al., 2012; Farjalla et al., 2012).  
287 We further quantified the community-level habitat niche breadth, and found that bacteria  
288 had a significant wider niche breadth than fungi. A previous study reported that  
289 organisms with wider niche breadths might have greater metabolic plasticity and be less  
290 influenced by deterministic processes (Pandit et al., 2009). In addition, we observed that  
291 the mitigation rate of bacterial communities was approximately 25 times higher than  
292 fungal communities based on the NCM (Figure 4), which is an important factor for  
293 stochastic processes and partially explains why the slope of the fungal distance-decay  
294 pattern was steeper than that of bacteria.

295 Other explanations could be related to differential responses of bacteria and fungi to  
296 environmental factors, which has been suggested as a main reason for the contrasting  
297 global biogeographic trends for bacteria and fungi (Bahram et al., 2018). For instance, we  
298 observed a significant positive relationship between bacterial alpha diversity and MAT (*P*

299 < 0.001), in contrast, no significant correlation was identified for fungal alpha diversity  
300 ( $P = 0.280$ ) (Figure S3). Microbial dormancy is suggested to promote biodiversity within  
301 microbial communities by allowing competing organisms to partition resources across  
302 time (Chesson, 2000; Lennon and Jones, 2011). It has been suggested that less than 10%  
303 of bacterial cells in a given community are in an active stage at any time (Locey, 2010).  
304 Like some bacteria (e.g., *Bacillus subtilis*) (Leggett et al., 2012), fungi also have the  
305 ability to form dormant status (e.g. resistant spores). The difference in dormancy  
306 strategies between bacteria and fungi may affect the community niche breadth and  
307 assembly, which was supported by a previous study that protist communities are more  
308 responsive to species sorting than bacterial communities, because protists have a more  
309 limited tendency to enter dormancy (Wu et al., 2018).

## 310 **Conclusions and implications**

311 Our work provides novel evidence that microbial community assembly in termite  
312 mounds was governed to a great extent by temperature based deterministic selection,  
313 rather than by stochastic processes, which is the first step to predict the ecological  
314 activities and processes of termite mounds in the context of global changes. The  
315 difference in the stochasticity between bacteria and fungi may be attributed to the  
316 differences in habitat niche breadth, potential mitigation rate, responses to environmental  
317 variations and dormancy strategies, which highlight the importance of considering  
318 organism characteristics in differentiating the role of stochastic and deterministic  
319 assembly processes in microbial communities.

320 ***Conflict of interest***

321 The authors declare that they have no competing interests

322 ***Acknowledgements***

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325 ***Appendix A. Supplementary data***

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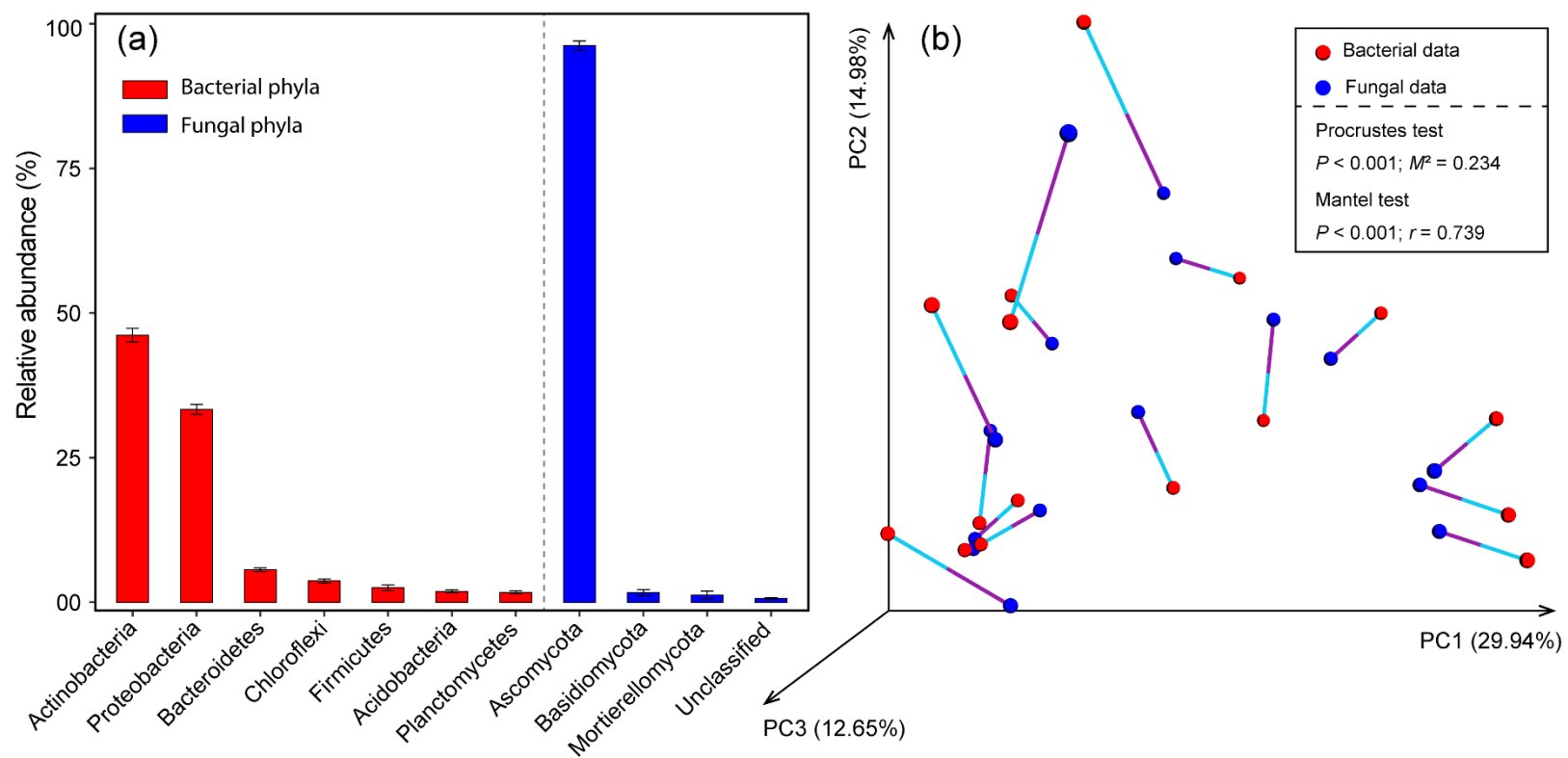
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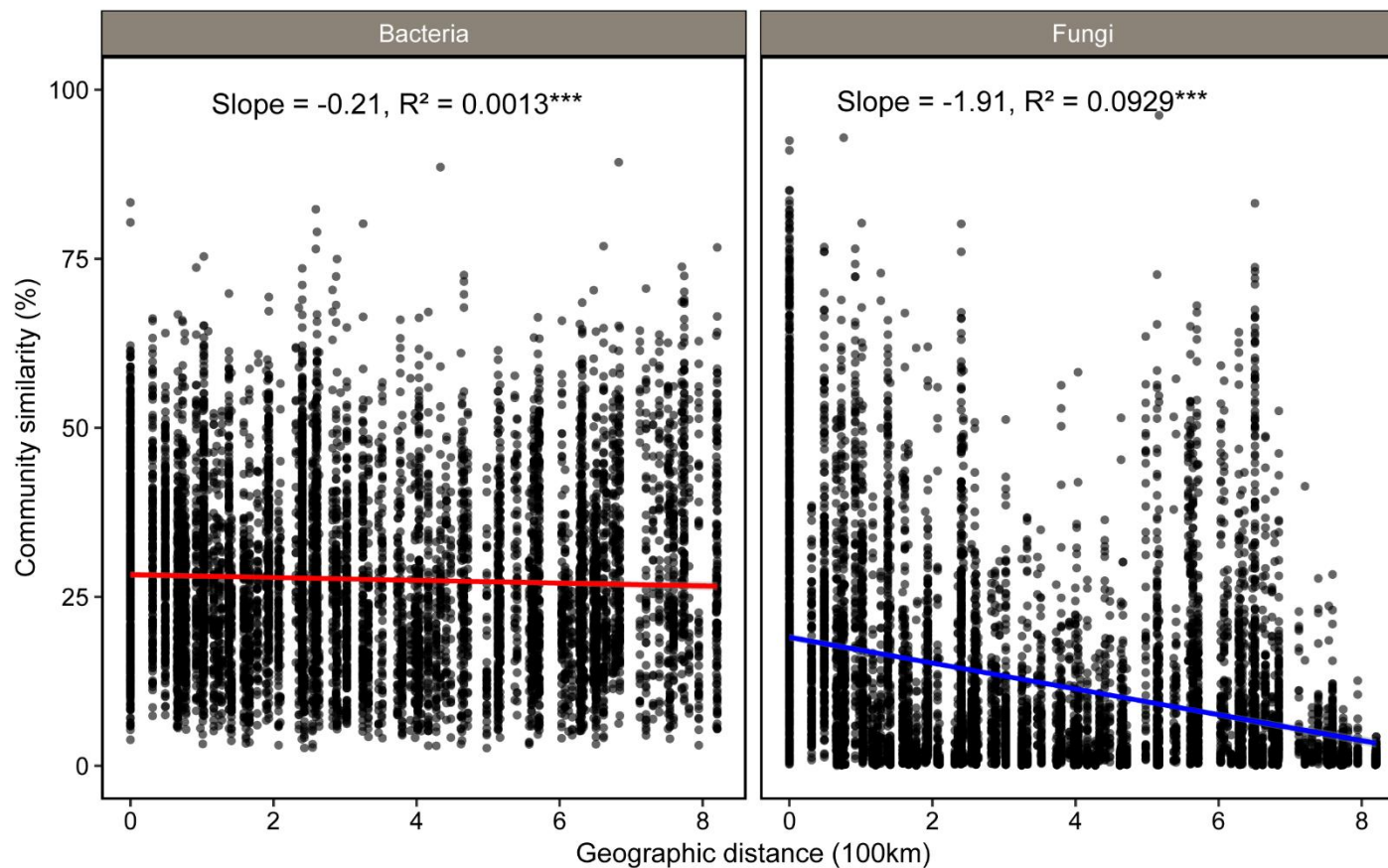
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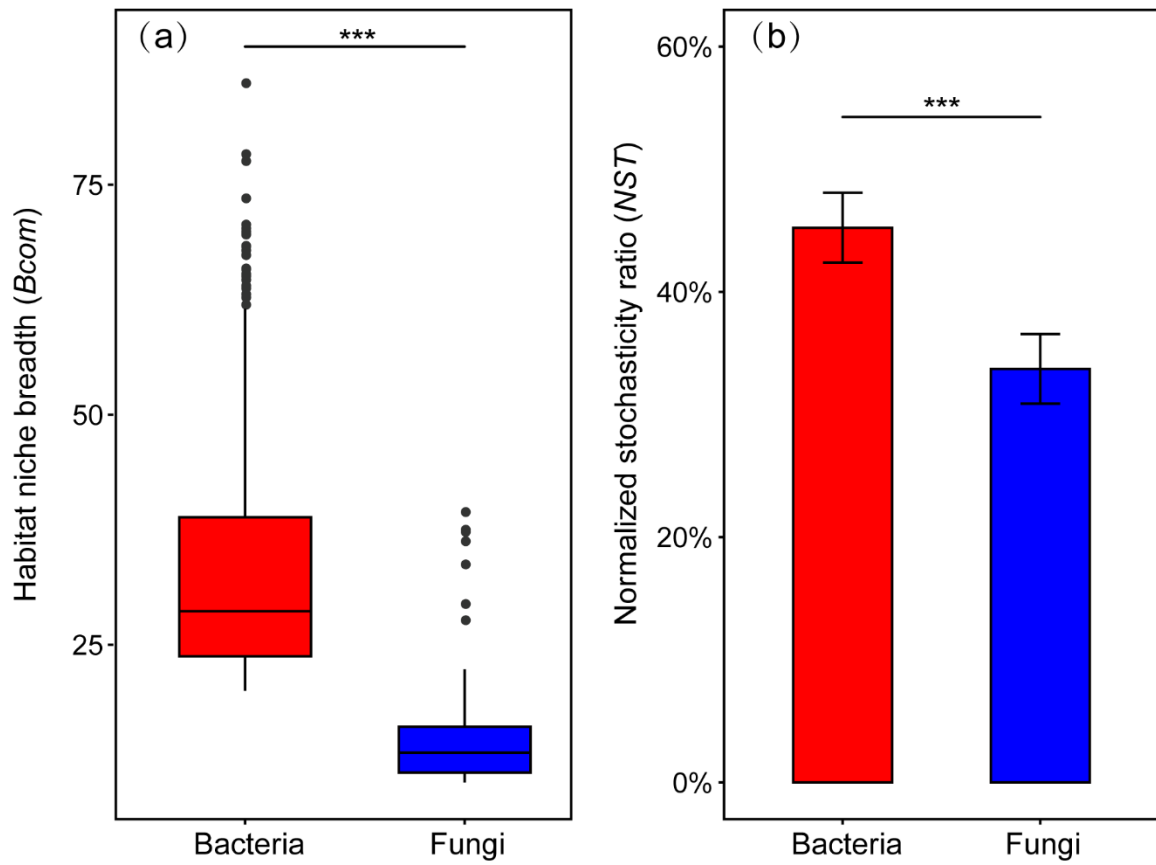
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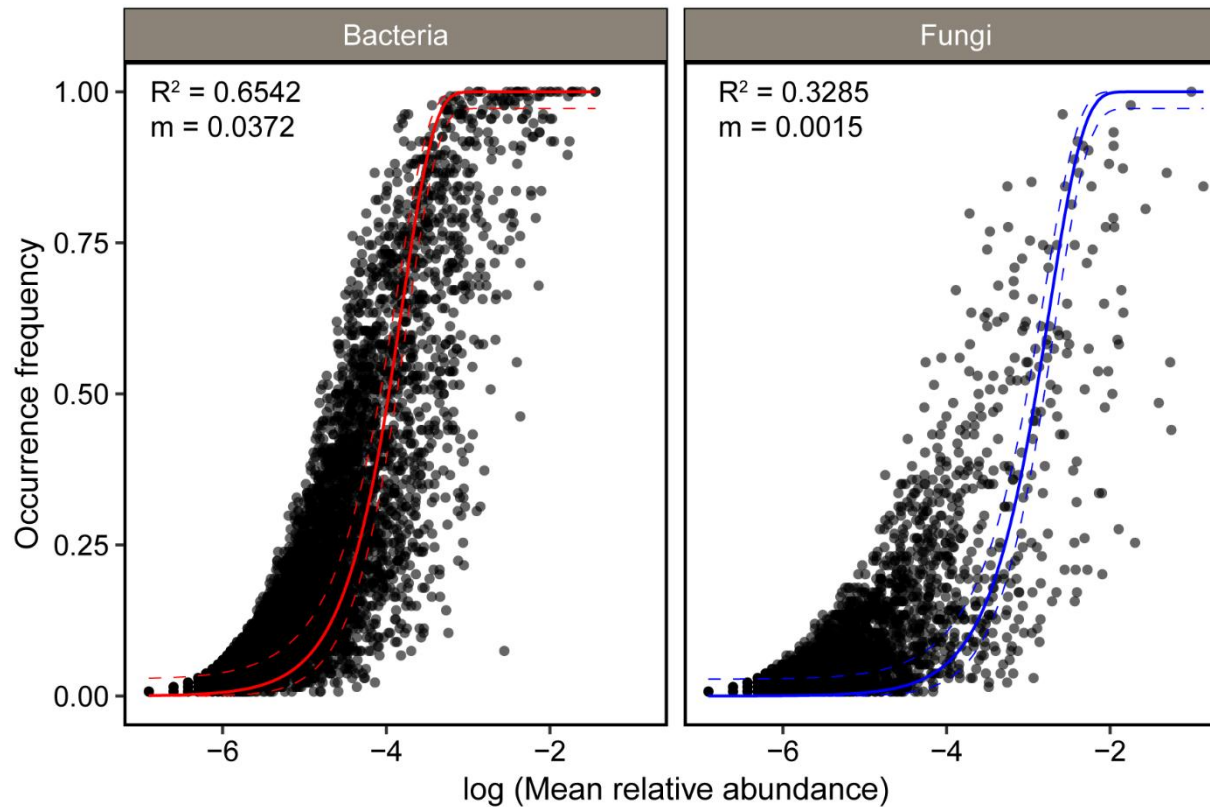
**Figure 1** Distribution of bacterial and fungal phyla in termite mounds (a); Procrustes analysis (OTU-level) depicts significant correlations between bacterial and fungal compositions (b).



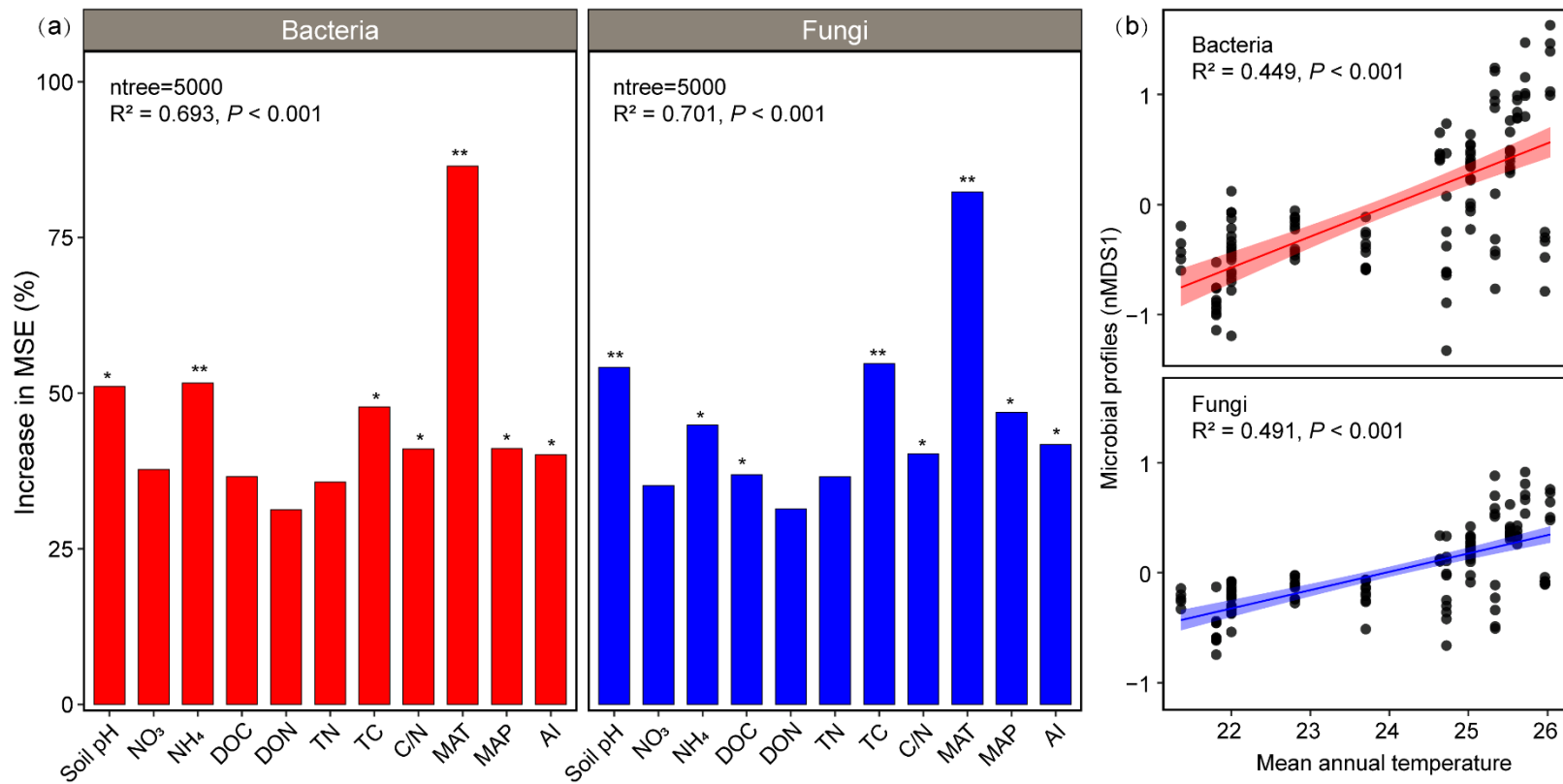
**Figure 2** Distance-decay curves showing the relationships between the Bray–Curtis similarity of bacterial and fungal communities and geographic distances between sampling sites. Solid blue and red lines denote the ordinary least-squares linear regressions. The results are based on a 97% sequence similarity cut-off. Asterisks denote significant correlation ( $***P < 0.001$ ).



**Figure 3** Boxplots showing the mean habitat niche breadth from all taxa for each sample (*Bcom*) in termite mounds (a). Barplots showing the comparison of normalized stochasticity ratio (*NST*) between bacterial and fungal communities in termite mounds (b). Asterisks denote significant differences (\*\*\*)  $P < 0.001$ .



**Figure 4** Fit of the neutral community model (NCM) showing the OTU predicted occurrence frequencies versus the relative abundance in termite mounds. The blue and red solid lines indicate the best fit to the Sloan's neutral model and the dashed lines represent 95% confidence intervals around the model prediction.  $R^2$  and  $m$  values indicate the goodness of fit to the neutral model and the estimated migration rate, respectively.



**Figure 5** Random Forest modelling indicating the importance the predictors for microbial profiles (a); Ordinary least squares (OLS) regression analysis showing the relationships between the microbial profiles and mean annual temperature (b). NO<sub>3</sub>: nitrate nitrogen, NH<sub>4</sub>: ammonium-nitrogen, DOC: dissolved organic carbon, DON: dissolved organic nitrogen, TN: total nitrogen, TC: total carbon, C/N: ratio of total carbon and nitrogen, MAT: mean annual temperature, MAP: mean annual precipitation, AI: aridity index. \* $P < 0.05$ , \*\* $P < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $P < 0.001$ .

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## \*Declaration of Interest Statement

The authors declare no conflict of interest.