

# Influence of environment and host plant genotype on the structure and diversity of the Brassica napus seed microbiota

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- 1 Influence of environment and host plant genotype on the structure and
- 2 diversity of the Brassica napus seed microbiota

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- 15 pollination

#### 16 ABSTRACT

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Seeds are involved in the transmission of microorganisms from one plant generation to the next and consequently act as reservoirs for the plant microbiota. The driving processes 18 influencing seed microbiota assemblage have not been yet deciphered because of 19 confounding factors related to environmental location, agricultural practices and host 20 genotype selection. Nine genotypes were chosen among a large panel of genetically diverse 21 Brassica napus accessions. The taxonomic structure of the seed microbiota was monitored 22 by amplification and subsequent high-throughput sequencing of gyrB and ITS1 markers for 23 two successive years on seed lots collected from self-pollinated plants. Seed germination capacities were compared between all seed lots. Although harvesting year was the main 25 driver of seed microbiota composition, the host genotype also significantly altered the structure of seed microbial assemblages. The core microbiota of B. napus included nine 27 fungal taxa shared between all the genotypes and years, while no bacterial taxa were 28 conserved across all genotypes and years. The harvesting year had the major effect on seed 29 germination but with some differences between genotypes. The study demonstrated the 30 relative contribution of host- and environmental-filtering on the assemblage of the seed 32 microbiota. It suggested some influence of these assemblages on seed germination.

Plants live in association with a diverse and complex set of microorganisms also known as microbiota. The plant microbiota can modify several host traits, such as plant nutrition 35 (Paredes et al., 2018), flowering kinetics (Panke-Buisse et al., 2015) and resistance against 36 plant pathogens and herbivores (Haney et al., 2018; Kwak et al., 2018). Owing to such 37 impacts on plant growth and health, it is of interest to decipher the biological and ecological 38 processes involved in the assembly of the plant microbiota. Several studies have notably 39 investigated the impact of environmental factors and host genetic variation on the 40 composition of plant microbiota (e.g. Bulgarelli et al., 2012; Peiffer et al., 2013; Horton et al., 41 2014; Edwards et al., 2015; Pérez-Jaramillo et al., 2017; Fitzpatrick et al., 2018). These 42 studies have revealed a major impact of environment on the taxonomic structure of plant 43 microbiota and a limited but significant contribution of the host genotype. Accordingly, it has been recently highlighted that community heritability ( $H^2_{C}$ , Opstal & Bordenstein, 2015) 45 of the maize rhizosphere microbiota is low, even if the abundance of some operational taxonomic units (OTUs) is significantly affected by host genetics (Walters et al., 2018). This 47 broad-sense heritability  $(H^2)$  of some bacterial taxa is probably linked to host genes involved 48 49 in the recruitment of its microbiota, for instance genes related to specific plant metabolites and to plant immunity (Hacquard et al., 2017; Sasse et al., 2018). 50

In contrast to other plant habitats, diversity of seed microbial assemblages is restrained

(Barret *et al.*, 2015; Klaedtke *et al.*, 2016; Leff *et al.*, 2017; Rybakova *et al.*, 2017; Rodríguez *et al.*, 2018; Adam *et al.*, 2018; Bergna *et al.*, 2018; Rezki *et al.*, 2018), perhaps as a

consequence of a seed bottleneck for microbial transmission (Paredes & Lebeis, 2016;

Newcombe *et al.*, 2018). In fact considering that rhizosphere and phyllosphere are plant

habitats with a highly diversified and abundant microbiota, seeds act as a filter and select

smaller sized and less diversified microbial assemblages. Therefore, the relative importance of vertical transmission from maternal plant to its progeny over horizontal transmission from the environment is probably limited in plants (Leff *et al.*, 2017; Newcombe *et al.*, 2018). Nevertheless, seeds represent the initial inoculum of the plant microbiota and can thus potentially impact plant fitness especially during its early development stages.

Rapidity and uniformity of seed germination and seedling growth together with 62 emergence ability under adverse environmental conditions and performance after storage 63 are collectively referred to as seed vigor (Finch-Savage & Bassel, 2016). Seed vigor is 64 determined by seed dormancy (Bentsink & Koornneef, 2008) and seed longevity (Leprince et 65 al., 2017); both traits being influenced by genetic and environmental perturbations. For instance, seed dormancy in Brassica napus is affected by the genotype and pre-harvest 67 environmental conditions (Gulden et al., 2004; Gruber et al., 2009). In contrast to 68 physiological and environmental factors, the impact of seed microbiota composition on seed 69 vigor has not been yet explored. However, experimental evidences indicated that some 70 plant-associated bacteria can repress germination through the production of oxyviniglycines 71 (McPhail et al., 2010; Chahtane et al., 2018) or decrease dormancy through free cytokinins 72 production (Rodrigues Pereira et al., 1972; Goggin et al., 2015). Hence, one may argue that 73 changes in seed microbiota structure could ultimately result in differences of seed vigor.

The few studies that have investigated the importance of ecological processes involved in the assembly of the seed microbiota have reported that the environment significantly impacts the structure of the seed microbiota, and especially fungal assemblages (Klaedtke *et al.*, 2016). Part of these studies has also highlighted that the host genotype could have a weaker but significant influence on bacterial endophytes of oilseed rape; however, it is

difficult to eliminate environmental variations that could be confounding (Rybakova *et al.*, 2017). In addition, neutral-based processes such as dispersal and ecological drift are also involved in the assembly of seed microbial assemblages (Rezki *et al.*, 2018).

Brassica napus (oilseed rape) is a cropping plant cultivated worldwide for its oilseed and 83 for protein cattle feed production. B. napus is sensitive to a range of soilborne plant 84 pathogens including Plasmodiophora brassicae, Rhizoctonia solani and Verticillium 85 longisporum, which can cause clubroot, seedling damping-off and Verticillium wilt, respectively (Hwang et al., 2012; Sturrock et al., 2015; Depotter et al., 2016). In absence of 87 efficient control methods to restrict the populations of these phytopathogenic 88 microorganisms, some biocontrol-based methods based on seed inoculation with microbial 89 consortia have been proposed (Kataria & Verma, 1992; Müller & Berg, 2008). However, employing these seed inocula requires more basic knowledge on processes involved in 91 assembly and dynamics of the seed microbiota (Barret et al., 2016). In this study, we 92 estimated the impact of host genotypes and environment on the structure of the seed 93 microbiota of nine genotypes representing the diversity of winter oilseed rape (WOSR) during two consecutive years. In addition, we explored the potential effect of seed 95 microbiota composition on seed germination of these nine genotypes.

#### 7 MATERIALS AND METHODS

## 98 Selection of winter oilseed rape (WOSR) genotypes.

A total of 116 cultivars of winter oilseed rape (*Brassica napus*), registered in France between the 1950's and the 2000's, were gathered from the CRB BraCySol (INRA, IGEPP, France) to represent the diversity of inbred lines cultivated in Western Europe. All cultivars were genotyped with the infinium Brassica 60K SNP array (Clarke *et al.*, 2016). A set of 628 polymorphic SNPs presenting a low level of linkage disequilibrium (r²<0.2) were selected to analyze the structure of the genetic diversity within the accessions.

The structure of the collection was studied using admixture (Alexander *et al.*, 2009) and ten cross-validations. The genetic diversity of the collection was analyzed using Darwin software (Perrier & Bonnot, 2003). Sokal and Michener genetic distances were estimated between each couple of cultivars, and then clustering was performed using UPGMA. Nine *B. napus* genotypes, namely Astrid, Aviso, Boston, Colvert, Express, Major, Mohican, Tenor and Zorro, were chosen among the collection (Supplementary Fig. S1, Table S1) as representative of *B. napus* diversity.

# 112 Seed production.

The selected genotypes were cultivated in 2012-2013 (Y0) in the same experimental field (INRA, Le Rheu, France) to minimize the effect of any former environmental difference between genotypes, and under self-pollination cages to ensure autogamy and therefore produce genetically homogenous lines. The 2013 (Y0) seeds, harvested individually for each genotype were sown in 2015 in a field located close to the field dedicated to seed 2013 production. Pollination bags were applied over 20 plants per genotype after cutting off the

early emerging flowers. The 2015-2016 (Y1) seeds of 20 plants were harvested and pooled 119 independently for each genotype. In 2016-2017 (Y2), the seeds harvested for each genotype 120 in the Y1 trial were sown in a field near the previous locations (INRA, Le Rheu, France) with 121 the same cropping and harvesting process as Y1. GPS coordinates, distances between fields 122 123 and cropping history for each year are available on Supplementary Table S2. Climatic data for the cropping periods Y1 and Y2 are reported in Supplementary Figure S2. All seed lots 124 harvested in Y1 and Y2 were stored in paper bags in dark dry conditions and at room 125 temperature. 126

#### 27 Seed phenotyping.

Seed imbibition, germination, and early radicle growth were monitored in vitro with an 128 automated phenotyping platform (Phenotic, SFR Quasav, Angers, France), which is described in detail in Ducournau et al. (2004, 2005) and Wagner et al. (2012). Briefly, four subsamples 130 of 25 seeds by genotype and year (Y1 and Y2) were incubated at 20°C on germination test 131 paper (GE Healthcare, type 3644) continuously moistened for 5 days and image acquisition 132 was performed every two hours. Image acquisition, image analysis and data analysis 133 methods are described in Demilly et al. (2014). The following parameters were determined: 134 seed area (Area; in mm<sup>2</sup>), volume 8h after initiation of imbibition (Imb Vol; in mm<sup>3</sup>), radicle 135 136 elongation after 8h (Elon germ, in mm), mean germination time (germination, in hours), and time to reach 50% of germination per seed subsample (T50, in hours). Differences were 137 assessed with Kruskal-Wallis tests and considered as significant at a p-value < 0.01. 138

### 139 Microbial DNA sample preparation.

DNA extraction was performed on five subsamples of 1,000 seeds (~4 g) per genotype (45 subsamples in total per year). First, seeds were soaked in 20 mL of phosphate buffered 141 saline (PBS) supplemented with 0.05% (v/v) of Tween 20 for 2h30 under constant agitation 142 (140 rpm) at room temperature. After this seed soak that enables the recovery of epiphytic 143 and endophytic microorganisms (Barret et al., 2015), the suspensions were centrifuged 144 (4,500 g, 10 min) and DNA extraction was performed on the resulting pellets with the 145 DNeasy PowerSoil HTP 96 Kit (Qiagen), following the manufacturer's procedure. Seed 146 suspensions in PBS are classically performed in seed pathology (see International Seed 147 Testing Association –ISTA: https://www.seedtest.org/en/home.html) to PCR-amplify 148 bacterial strains located in the endosperm (e.g. Acidovorax citrulli; or Xanthomonas citri). 149 Numerous antimicrobial compounds are associated to seed tissues and are released during 150 grinding, which therefore can result in underestimation of seed microbial diversity. 151

# 152 Libraries construction and sequencing.

An initial PCR amplification was performed with the primer sets gyrB\_aF64/gyrB\_aR553 153 (Barret et al., 2015) and ITS1F/ITS2 (Buée et al., 2009), which target a portion of gyrB and 154 the fungal ITS1 region, respectively. The cycling conditions for ITS1F/ITS2, were an initial 155 denaturation at 94°C for 3 min, followed by 35 cycles of amplification at 94°C (30 s), 50°C (45 156 157 s) and 68°C (90 s), and a final elongation step at 68°C for 10 min. The cycling conditions for gyrB were: initial denaturation at 94°C for 3 min, 35 cycles of amplification at 94°C (30 s), 158 55°C (45 s) and 68°C (90 sec), and final elongation step at 68°C for 10 min. Amplicons were 159 purified with magnetic beads (Sera-Mag<sup>™</sup>, Merck). A second PCR amplification was 160 performed to incorporate Illumina adapters and barcodes. PCR cycling conditions were 161 identical for the two molecular markers: a first denaturation step at 94°C (1 min), followed by 12 cycles at 94°C (1 min), 55°C (1 min) and 68°C (1 min), and a final elongation at 68°C for 10 min. Amplicons were purified as previously described and quantified with the QuantIT PicoGreen ds DNA Assay Kit (ThermoFisher Scientific). All the amplicons were pooled in equimolar concentrations and the concentration of the equimolar pool was monitored with quantitative PCR (KAPA SYBR® FAST, Merck). Amplicon libraries were mixed with 10% PhiX and sequenced with MiSeq reagent kit v2 500 cycles (one sequencing cartridge per year).

#### 169 Sequence processing.

Fastq files were processed with DADA2 version 1.6.0 (Callahan et al., 2016), using the 170 parameters described the workflow for "Big Paired-end" in Data: 171 172 (https://benjjneb.github.io/dada2/bigdata\_paired.html). The only modification relative to this protocol was a change in the truncLen argument according to the quality of 173 the sequencing run. Taxonomic affiliations for amplicon sequence variants (ASV) generated 174 with DADA2 were assigned with a naive Bayesian classifier (Wang et al., 2007) on an in-175 house qyrB database (Bartoli et al., 2018) and the UNITE v7.1 fungal database (Abarenkov et 176 al., 2010). 177

# 178 Microbial community analyses.

Analyses of diversity were conducted with the R package Phyloseq version 1.22.3 (McMurdie & Holmes, 2013). Data were normalized based on sequencing depth, using a rarefaction of 1,100 and 15,000 sequences per sample for *gyrB* and ITS1, respectively. Observed richness (number of ASV per sample), estimated richness (Chao1 index), and inverse Simpson's index were calculated with Phyloseq. Faith's phylogenetic diversity was calculated on *gyrB* dataset with the R package picante version 1.6-2 (Kembel *et al.*, 2010). Differences in alpha-diversity

estimators between years and genotypes were assessed with Kruskal-Wallis tests.

186 Differences were considered as significant at a *p*-value < 0.01.

Changes in microbial assemblage composition were assessed with Bray-Curtis (BC) index and weighted UniFrac (wUF) distance (Lozupone & Knight, 2005). Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) was used for ordination of BC index and wUF distance. To quantify the relative contribution of plant generation and plant genotype in microbial community profiles, canonical analysis of principal coordinates (CAP) was performed with the function capscale of the R package vegan 2.4.2 (Oksanen *et al.*, 2017) followed with permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA; Anderson, 2001).

194 A presence/absence matrix of common ASVs was constructed as follows. Common ASV was recorded as present if detected in all subsamples (n=5) of one seed lot. One seed lot 195 196 corresponded to seeds collected each year from each plant genotype. Visualization of genotype-specific ASVs and shared ASVs between plant genotypes was assessed for each 197 year with the R package UpSetR (Lex et al., 2014). The number of common bacterial and 198 199 fungal ASV between years for each individual genotype was also assessed using Venn 200 diagrams. This binary matrix was used for assessing Jaccard and unweighted UniFrac distance (uUF) between genotypes. Comparisons of Sokal-Michener genetic distance and 201 Jaccard/uUF distances were monitored with coefficient of determination.

Distribution of bacterial and fungal ASVs in other Brassicaceae seeds was assessed by investigating their prevalence in 479 seed samples associated to *Brassica oleracea*, *Brassica rapa* and *Raphanus sativus* (Barret *et al.*, 2015; Rezki *et al.*, 2016, 2018).

The datasets supporting the conclusions of this article are available in the SRA database under the accession number PRJEB31617.

#### **RESULTS** 209

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#### Diversity of the seed microbiota of *B. napus*. 210

Overall 4,451 bacterial and 359 fungal ASVs were detected within gyrB and ITS1 datasets. 211

ASV provided a finer resolution than OTU (Callahan et al., 2017), this descriptor was 212

therefore used for estimating the taxonomic structure of the seed microbiota of *B. napus*. 213

According to coverage estimates, the number of gyrB sequences was not sufficient for 214 reaching the plateau after rarefaction, while saturation was achieved for fungal reads. Hence, predicted richness (Chao1 index) was assessed for bacterial assemblages, while 216 observed richness (number of ASVs) was measured for fungal assemblages. Although 217 218 bacterial and fungal richness were significantly different between the two harvesting years (P < 0.01), seed samples collected in Y2 contained on average fewer bacterial and more 219 fungal ASVs than Y1 seed sample (Fig. 1A, D). The increase of fungal richness in Y2 was 220 associated with a significant decrease in fungal diversity (Fig. 1E). While bacterial diversity 221 did not differ between years (Fig. 1B), bacterial phylogenetic diversity (Faith's PD), was 222 significantly higher in Y2 (P < 0.01; Fig. 1C). In contrast to the harvesting year, no significant 223 224 differences in  $\alpha$ -diversity estimators were observed between plant genotypes (P > 0.01).

Similarities in composition of bacterial and fungal assemblages were estimated with weighted UniFrac (wUF) distance and Bray-Curtis (BC) index, respectively. Ordination of wUF and BC revealed a significant clustering of seed-associated bacterial and fungal assemblages according to the harvesting year (Fig. 2, Table 1). The relative influence of the harvesting year and the plant genotype in assemblage composition was further inspected through canonical analysis of principal coordinates (CAP) followed by PERMANOVA. Based on CAP 230 analyses, 16.4% and 65.5% of variances in bacterial and fungal assemblage compositions,

respectively, were explained by the harvesting year, (P < 0.01). Changes in bacterial and 232 fungal assemblage compositions were also significantly (P < 0.01) explained by the plant 233 genotype, with 19.3% and 11.5% of variances driven by this factor, respectively (Table 1). 234 Interaction between harvesting year and genotype was significant (P < 0.01) and explained 235 16.6% and 13.3% of variances of bacterial and fungal assemblage compositions respectively. 236 When each year is analyzed separately, the impact of plant genotype (P < 0.01) ranged from 237 40% to 90% of explained variance (Table 1, Supplementary Fig. S3). However, similarity in 238 assemblage compositions between genotypes were different in Y1 and Y2. 239

#### 240 Core and specific fractions of the *B. napus* microbiota.

Differences in relative abundance of bacterial orders between genotypes were mostly 241 242 observed within Y1 (Fig. 3A). Notably we detected a higher abundance of Sphingomonadales and Pseudomonadales in Astrid, Aviso and Boston in comparison to the other genotypes 243 (Fig. 3A). However, these differences between genotypes were not detected in Y2, where 244 principal variations were related to increase in relative abundance of Enterobacteriales in 245 Express and Zorro. Regarding fungal assemblages, differences in relative abundance of 246 fungal orders were mostly observed between harvesting years, with a decrease in relative 247 abundance of Tremellales and Helotiales in Y2 (Fig. 3B). 248

The distribution of ASVs between plant genotypes for each year of production was also assessed (Fig. 4, Fig. 5). Among the 15 bacterial ASVs systematically detected in at least one genotype in Y1, none were shared between all genotypes (Fig. 4A). In Y2, six bacterial ASVs (out of 268) were shared between all genotypes (Fig. 4B). Four of these six ASVs have been already detected in more than 10% of seed samples (n = 479) collected from various Brassicaceae including Brassica oleracea, Brassica rapa and Raphanus sativus (Table 2). The

inheritance of bacterial ASVs between years was quite low, since only three genotypes (Astrid, Aviso and Boston) possessed four and five ASVs in common in Y1 and Y2, respectively (Supplementary Fig. S4A). These ASVs shared between both years are related to *Sphingomonas, Pseudomonas* and *Frigoribacterium*.

Fungal assemblages shared more ASVs between all genotypes in comparison to bacterial 259 assemblages. Indeed, 18 (out of 37) and 19 (out of 52) fungal ASVs were shared between all 260 the genotypes in Y1 and Y2, respectively (Fig. 5). For each genotype, 35% to 40% fungal ASVs 261 were conserved from Y1 to Y2 (Supplementary Fig. S4B). In addition, nine fungal ASVs were 262 systematically detected during both years. These fungal ASVs are also highly prevalent in 263 seed samples of other Brassicaceae species (Table 2). There were very few bacterial ASVs 264 specifically associated to one genotype in Y1, while there were in general more specific 265 bacterial ASVs per genotype in Y2. Conversely, very few genotypes harbor specific fungal 266 ASVs in Y1 as in Y2 (Supplementary Table S3, Table S4). 267

# 268 Relationship between B. napus genotypes and seed microbiota composition.

To assess if the composition of the seed microbiota could be related to genetic relatedness 269 of B. napus, we compared Sokal-Michener genetic distance to Jaccard and uUF distances 270 calculated with ITS1 and gyrB sequences, respectively (Supplementary Fig. S5). Coefficient of 271 determination between Jaccard/uUF distances and Sokal-Michener distance were low for 272 bacterial ( $r^2$ = 0.026 in Y1;  $r^2$ = 0.009 in Y2) and fungal ( $r^2$ = 0.005 in Y1;  $r^2$ = 0.117 in Y2) 273 assemblages. While a significant (P = 0.002) positive correlation between genetic distance 274 and fungal assemblage composition was detected in Y2, the overall genetic similarities 275 between the B. napus genotypes employed in this work is not a robust predictor of seed 276 277 microbiota composition.

# Impact of production year and host genotype on seed phenotypes.

There were no significant differences between years and genotypes for seed area, radicle 279 elongation and imbibition speed (Supplementary Fig. S6). However, according to average 280 germination rate (n=100), germination of seed samples harvested in Y1 was significantly (P <281 0.01) slower than germination of seed samples harvested in Y2 (Fig. 6). Significant 282 differences were also observed between genotypes within specific year. For instance, seeds 283 from Astrid germinated on average earlier (P < 0.01) than the other genotypes in Y1 but not 284 in Y2 (Fig. 6). Seeds from Tenor had a slower mean germination time (P < 0.01) in comparison 285 to the other genotypes but only for samples collected in Y2 (Fig. 6). Thus, another metric, 286 T50, varied in the same way as mean germination time (Supplementary Fig. S6D). Of note, 287 three bacterial ASV were specifically associated with Astrid in Y1 (Supplementary Table S3). 288 Moreover, 3 bacterial ASVs and 5 fungal ASVs were specifically associated to Tenor in Y2 289 (Supplementary Table S4). 290

#### 291 **DISCUSSION**

The aim of this study was to assess the relative influence of the environment (*i.e.* year) and the host genotype on the structure of the *B. napus* seed microbiota. To eliminate environmental variations within a year, we sowed seeds of nine *B. napus* genotypes in the same field. In addition, to ensure homogeneous genetic material and preserve genotype specificities, each individual plant was cultivated in self-pollination.

Over two years we observed a decrease in bacterial richness for seed samples collected 297 during the second year. This loss of bacterial richness could be explained by a selection of 298 bacterial taxa across years, in an analogous process that has been described for continuous 299 cropping (e.q. Zhao et al., 2018). Loss of bacterial richness might be related to the repeated 300 self-pollination process, which limits dispersal of individuals among local bacterial 301 302 assemblages (Vannette & Fukami, 2017). If this assumption was correct, a similar reduction of richness would be expected within seed fungal assemblages. However, fungal richness 303 increased in Y2. Therefore, alteration of richness could be solely due to differences in 304 richness of local microbial assemblages between years. Influence of the harvesting year was 305 the main driving factor of seed fungal assemblage composition with 65.5% of explained 306 307 variance. These results agree with a previous report showing that seed fungal assemblages of common bean are mostly shaped by crop management practices and geographical 308 locations (Klaedtke et al., 2016). The high impact of environmental filtering on composition 309 of the fungal fraction of the seed microbiota could be related to local biogeographical 310 patterns of fungal assemblages (Peay et al., 2016). 311

Diversity and composition of the *B. napus* seed microbiota was different between years but also between the host genotypes used in this study. Host-genotype is an important

driver in the assembly of the seed microbiota, especially for the bacterial fraction. The impact of host genotypes on the structure of B. napus microbiota was already highlighted for endophytic bacteria (Rybakova et al., 2017). Since seed lots employed by Rybakova et al. 316 (2017) were collected from different geographical regions, the influence of host genotype 317 was therefore inseparable from the influence of the environment. Our study confirmed 318 without any confounding factor that the structure of the B. napus seed bacterial assemblage 319 are partly genotype-dependent. Since interaction between year and genotype was 320 significantly influencing β-diversity, we assessed the influence of host genotypes on 321 microbiota compositions for each year. According to these analyses, the plant genotype 322 explained a major part of variation in seed microbial assemblage composition, therefore 323 suggesting an important influence of host-filtering in the assembly of the seed microbiota. 324 However, composition of seed microbial assemblage differed greatly between harvesting 325 years. In addition, a small part of the B. napus seed bacterial assemblage is inherited from 326 one generation to the next. Overall, our study highlighted a low inheritance of bacterial and 327 fungal assemblages across B. napus generations. Indeed no bacterial ASV were consistently 328 329 detected between plant generations, while nine fungal ASVs were conserved between years. The absence of conserved bacterial ASV between year and genotypes could be explained by 330 a stronger impact of host-filtering on assembly of the bacterial fraction of the seed 331 microbiota. Alternatively, the absence of generalist bacterial ASV observed between years 332 could be partly explained by the weak number of bacterial ASVs detected in Y1. The inheritance of seed-borne microbial taxa is quite low, therefore confirming previous 334 observations performed on R. sativus over three consecutive generations (Rezki et al., 2018) 335 and Solanum lycopersicum over two generations (Bergna et al., 2018). Hence, the main 336

acceptable conclusion is that few microbial taxa associated with seeds are inherited and that 337 most of seed-borne taxa represented cases of horizontal transmission (Leff et al., 2017). 338 Despite these changes in assemblage compositions, the ASVs detected on seed samples 339 corresponded to microbial taxa frequently associated with other seed samples. For instance, 340 four of the bacterial generalists detected in Y2, namely Pantoea agglomerans, Pseudomonas, 341 Sphingomonas and Frigoribacterium, were already detected in more than 10% of other 342 Brassicaceae seed lots (Barret et al., 2015; Rezki et al., 2018). Hence, these taxa might be 343 adapted to the seed habitat. The case was different for fungi with a significant number of 344 fungal ASVs recovered through generations. However this does not mean that these taxa are 345 vertically-transmitted. Assessing the relative importance of vertical and horizontal 346 transmission will required an in-depth analysis of the seed transmission pathways (internal, 347 floral and external) employed by these fungal taxa. Therefore, it is tempting to speculate that 348 these differences in seed microbiota composition between years are the result of 349 350 fluctuations of the local microbial reservoir. In this way, specific microbial recruitment and selection by the genotypes are modulated among years. Consequently, the relative impact of 351 the host genotype on the structure of seed microbial assemblages is difficult to predict, as it 352 is dependent of fluctuations of the local reservoir. 353

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Previous works performed on the rhizosphere and phyllosphere of multiple maize genotypes have highlighted a relatively low  $H^2$  of microbial taxa (Wallace *et al.*, 2018; Walters *et al.*, 2018). Although the number of genotypes employed in our study precluded the measurement of this broad sense heritability, we did not establish any significant link between the genetic distance of the nine genotypes and their microbial distances. While considering the variability between subsamples collected from plants of the same genotype

and cultivated on the same field, in addition to the relative influence of environment and host genotype, there is a contribution of other neutral-based processes on the assembly of the seed microbiota (Rezki et al., 2018). However, some specific plant functions and traits, and especially genes implicated in plant immune system, shape the structure and diversity of their own microbiota (Horton et al., 2014; Li et al., 2018). Thus, it would be necessary to use a larger number of genetically diverse genotypes of WOSR to explore this hypothesis at a finer resolution (i.e. intra-species). To date, some studies failed to establish this link even when microbial diversification due to genetic diverse plant species was demonstrated (Bouffaud et al., 2012; Schlaeppi et al., 2014). However, establishing a direct correlation between genotypes and their microbiota would be of great interest for selecting genotypes with a specific microbiota in which certain taxa would ensure positive functions for the plant fitness. 

Among different observed seed phenotypes, only the mean germination time and T50 (half-mean germination time) varied between years. Seed germination progresses through three phases (Bewley, 1997). The first phase, known as imbibition, is a physical process driven by difference in water potential between the inside and the outside of the seed. Based on seed volume monitored during 8 hours after initiation of imbibition, no significant differences in imbibition was observed between seed samples. This observation suggested that seed moisture was quite comparable between seed samples and that the resulting differences in germination kinetics are related to later phases. Since the environmental factor (year) more strongly shapes the bacterial and fungal communities, we assessed whether the change in microbiota composition could explain variation in germination rates. Authors demonstrated that the environmental conditions, age of seed and genotype (He *et al.*, 2014; Nagel *et al.*, 2015; Leprince *et al.*, 2017) affect different seed performances like secondary

dormancy and seed vigor. The requirement to perform germination assays for all seed 385 samples simultaneously ultimately results in differences in longevity of seed collected in Y1 386 and Y2. However, long-term storage (i.e. several years) of B. napus seeds samples does not 387 impact germination time but rather germination percentage (Nagel et al., 2011), which was 388 not different between Y1 and Y2. Moreover, Astrid and Tenor genotypes did not support the 389 ageing effect hypothesis as their germination rates were either similar or inverted 390 respectively between Y1 and Y2 compared to the other genotypes. In addition, for Tenor 391 different bacterial and fungal ASVs were effectively described in seed assemblages. Seed 392 393 moisture cannot be involved as there was no significant differences during imbibition phase. Therefore, because of the most probable assumption of microbiota involvement, further 394 experiments are required to investigate further the implication of microbial assemblages in 395 germination or extended seed phenotypes variations. 396 In conclusion, the microbial assemblages of B. napus seeds are mainly influenced by the 397 environment but to a lesser extent by the plant genotype. The inheritance of some abundant 398 399 bacterial and fungal ASVs also differs between genotypes. Further studies will explore more 400 extensively the host genetic determinants driving the microbial assemblages and the impact of such assemblages on seed vigor. 401

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#### **407 LITERATURE CITED**

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Table 1 Percentage of explained variance for beta-diversity estimators. Percentage of explained variance estimated with PERMANOVA analysis (P < 0.01) for β-diversity of bacterial (gyrB) and fungal (ITS1) assemblages.

	Year	Genotype	Year:Genotype	Genotype (Y1)	Genotype (Y2)
gyrB	16.4	19.3	16.6	44	40.8
ITS1	65.5	11.5	13.3	66.2	90.7

Table 2 Core members of *Brassica napus* seed microbiota. Prevalence (expressed as a percentage) of each amplicon sequence variants (ASV) in *B. napus* seed samples collected in year 1 (Y1), year 2 (Y2) and in seed samples (Others) of *Brassica oleracea, Brassica rapa* and *Raphanus sativus* reported by Barret *et al.*, 2015; Rezki *et al.*, 2016; Rezki *et al.*, 2018.

ASV	Taxonomy	Y1 (%)	Y2 (%)	Others (%)
Bacteria				
ASV00001	Pantoea agglomerans	0.0	100.0	90.6
ASV00003	Ralstonia pickettii	0.0	100.0	0.6
ASV00028	Pseudomonas	20.0	100.0	34.9
ASV00038			100.0	10.6
ASV00046	Frigoribacterium	10.0	100.0	11.1
ASV00124			100.0	0.0
Fungi				
ASV0001	Alternaria infectoria	100.0	100.0	72.6
ASV0002	Cladosporium	100.0	100.0	97.6
ASV0003	Cladosporium delicatulum	100.0	100.0	100.0
ASV0004	Botrytis fabae	100.0	100.0	47.9
ASV0005	Sporidiobolales sp.	100.0	100.0	60.1
ASV0006	Alternaria infectoria	100.0	100.0	66.2
ASV0007	Alternaria brassicae	100.0	90.0	95.4
ASV0008	Cryptococcus victoriae	100.0	0.0	34.8
ASV0009	Cryptococcus victoriae	100.0	0.0	37.5
ASV0010	Cryptococcus oeirensis	100.0	0.0	37.8
ASV0011	Filobasidium stepposum	100.0	100.0	95.4
ASV0012	Alternaria infectoria	100.0	100.0	62.8
ASV0013	Alternaria infectoria	0.0	100.0	47.0
ASV0014	Bulleromyces sp.	100.0	0.0	0.3
ASV0015	Bensingtonia sp.	100.0	90.0	58.5
ASV0017	Erysiphe cruciferarum	100.0	20.0	12.8
ASV0018	Cryptococcus oeirensis	0.0	100.0	0.0
ASV0019	Udeniomyces pannonicus	60.0	100.0	14.0
ASV0021	Cladosporium aggregatocicatricatum	100.0	100.0	47.3
ASV0022	Alternaria	90.0	100.0	0.3
ASV0025	Cryptococcus victoriae	0.0	100.0	0.0
ASV0028	Cryptococcus tephrensis	100.0	90.0	32.9
ASV0029	Cryptococcus carnescens	90.0	100.0	32.9
ASV0030	Cladosporium perangustum	0.0	100.0	4.6
ASV0038	Phaeosphaeria caricicola	100.0	0.0	11.9
ASV0041	Cladosporium ramotenellum	0.0	100.0	5.2
ASV0044	Cryptococcus victoriae	0.0	100.0	0.0
ASV0054	Ramularia vizellae	0.0	100.0	0.9

Figures, Tables and Supporting information captions. 627

while shape corresponded to the two years of production.

were assessed with ITS1 ASVs for fungi.

Fig. 1 Diversity of seed-associated microbial assemblages of B. napus. Seed samples of nine 628 genotypes were collected during two consecutive years (Y1 and Y2). Community profiling of 629 the seed microbiota was performed on five seed subsamples per genotype. (A) Estimated 630 richness (Chao1 index), (B) diversity (Inverse Simpson's index) and (C) phylogenetic diversity 631 (Faith's phylogenetic diversity index) were monitored with gyrB ASVs for bacteria. (D) 632 Observed richness (number of detected ASVs) and (E) diversity (Inverse Simpson's index) 633

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Fig. 2 Similarities in microbial composition between B. napus genotypes seed-associated 636 microbial assemblages. Similarities in seed microbial composition were estimated with 637 weighted UniFrac distance (A) and Bray-Curtis index for bacterial and fungal assemblages (B), 638 respectively. Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) was used for ordination of weighted 639 UniFrac distance and Bray-Curtis index. Samples are coloured according to their genotypes, 640

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643 Fig. 3 Taxonomic composition of B. napus seed microbiota. Relative abundance of the most abundant bacterial (A) and fungal (B) order within B. napus seed samples collected from nine genotypes across two successive generations. Taxonomic affiliation of bacterial and fungal ASVs was performed with an in-house gyrB database (Bartoli et al., 2018) and the UNITE v7.1 646 database (Abarenkov et al., 2010), respectively. Unknown taxa represented ASVs that are 647 not affiliated at the order level.

Fig. 4 Generalist and specific bacterial ASVs. Prevalence of bacterial ASVs across plant genotypes were investigated with UpSetR (Lex *et al.*, 2014). Upper histograms represented the number of ASVs associated to one specific intersection in Y1 (A) or Y2 (B). Plant genotype associated with each particular intersection is highlighted with a dot. Intersection associated with all genotypes is displayed in red. The histogram located on the left of each UpSetR representation indicated the number of ASVs per genotype. Finally, boxplot represented the median relative abundance (log10) of bacterial ASVs associated with each intersection.

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Fig. 5 Generalist and specific fungal ASVs. Prevalence of fungal ASVs across plant genotypes 658 were investigated with UpSetR (Lex et al., 2014). Upper histograms represent the number of 659 ASVs associated with one specific intersection in Y1 (A) or Y2 (B). Plant genotype(s) 660 associated with each particular intersection is (are) highlighted with a dot. Intersection 661 associated with all genotypes is displayed in red. The histogram located on the left of each 662 UpSetR representation indicated the number of ASVs per genotype. Finally, boxplot 663 represented the median relative abundance (log10) of fungal ASVs associated with each 664 665 intersection.

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667 **Fig. 6 Dynamics of seed germination of each genotype and year.** Germination was monitored *in vitro* with an automated phenotyping platform (Phenotic; Ducournau *et al.,* 2004, 2005; Wagner *et al.,* 2012). Four subsamples of 25 seeds by genotype and year (Y1 and Y2) were incubated at 20°C on germination paper (GE Healthcare, type 3644) continuously moistened for 5 days and image acquisition was performed every two hours.

Fig. S1 Distribution of the 116 genotypes representing the diversity of WOSR in Western Europe, among the 5 WOSR genetic groups. Cultivars were genotyped using 628 SNP (Clarke et al., 2016). The structure of the collection was studied using ADMIXTURE (Alexander et al., 2009). Each genetic group is represented with a colour. A cultivar belongs to the group of which the colour is majority. The 9 selected genotypes of the study are marked with a yellow star.

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Fig. S2 Climatic data for the cropping periods Y1 and Y2. (A) Rainfall level in mm (RR-DC) and mean humidity in % (UM-MD). (B) Mean calculated temperature (TMC), minimal (TN) and maximal (TX) temperatures in °C. All data are reported for 10 days (decade) during the years 2015-2016 (Y1) and 2016-2017 (Y2) from records at Le Rheu station 35240002 – La Grande-Verrière – (48,113°N, -1,781°E) (INRA Agroclim network)

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Fig. S3 Similarities in microbial composition between *B. napus* genotypes seed-associated microbial assemblages, per year. Similarities in seed microbial composition were estimated with weighted UniFrac distance (A, B) and Bray-Curtis index (C, D) for bacterial and fungal assemblages, respectively. Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) was used for ordination of weighted UniFrac distance and Bray-Curtis index. Samples are colored according to their genotypes, while shape corresponded to the year (●=Y1; ▲=Y2).

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Fig. S4 Number of bacterial (A) and fungal (B) ASVs shared between years or specific of oneyear, for each genotype.

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**Fig. S5** Relationships between *B. napus* genetic distances and similarities of microbial assemblage compositions. The relationship between plant genotype and microbial assemblage composition was estimated by fitting a linear regression model between Sokal-699 Michener genetic distance and unweighted UniFrac distance (bacteria; A, B) or Jaccard index (fungi; C, D) for Y1 (A, C) and Y2 (B, D).

702 Fig. S6 Different phenotyping parameters calculated for seeds of each year and genotype.

703 (A) Seed surface at initial time; (B) Seed imbibition 8h after initiation of imbibition; (C)

4 Radicle elongation 8h after initiation of germination; (D) Time at which a half of the seeds

705 have germinated. Significant results are marked with a red star.

**Table S1** Characteristics of the nine *B. napus* genotypes. Quality: 00 or ++ is for absence or 708 presence of Glucosinolate-Erucic acid. WOSR groups are defined from the genetic diversity 709 study of 116 WOSR accessions with 628 SNPs (Fig. S1).

**Table S2** Cropping conditions for the *B. napus* seed production.

**Table S3** Genotype-specific bacterial and fungal ASVs for Y1.

**Table S4** Genotype-specific bacterial and fungal ASVs for Y2.

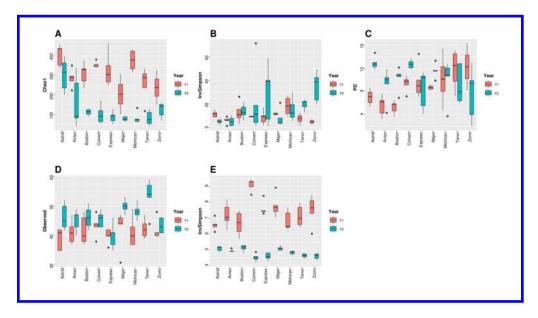


Fig. 1 Diversity of seed-associated microbial assemblages of B. napus. Seed samples of nine genotypes were collected during two consecutive years (Y1 and Y2). Community profiling of the seed microbiota was performed on five seed subsamples per genotype. (A) Estimated richness (Chao1 index), (B) diversity (Inverse Simpson's index) and (C) phylogenetic diversity (Faith's phylogenetic diversity index) were monitored with gyrB ASVs for bacteria. (D) Observed richness (number of detected ASVs) and (E) diversity (Inverse Simpson's index) were assessed with ITS1 ASVs for fungi.

940x529mm (72 x 72 DPI)

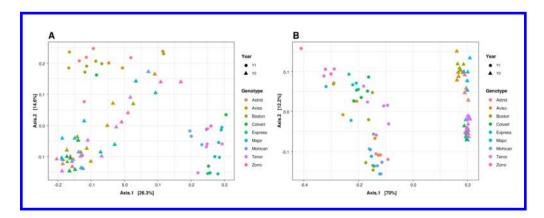


Fig. 2 Similarities in microbial composition between B. napus genotypes seed-associated microbial assemblages. Similarities in seed microbial composition were estimated with weighted UniFrac distance (A) and Bray-Curtis index for bacterial and fungal assemblages (B), respectively. Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) was used for ordination of weighted UniFrac distance and Bray-Curtis index. Samples are coloured according to their genotypes, while shape corresponded to the two years of production.

940x361mm (72 x 72 DPI)

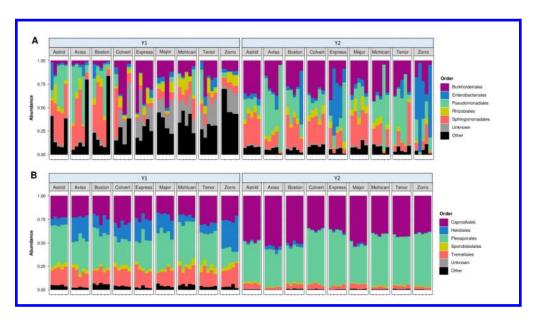


Fig. 3 Taxonomic composition of B. napus seed microbiota. Relative abundance of the most abundant bacterial (A) and fungal (B) order within B. napus seed samples collected from nine genotypes across two successive generations. Taxonomic affiliation of bacterial and fungal ASVs was performed with an in-house gyrB database (Bartoli et al., 2018) and the UNITE v7.1 database (Abarenkov et al., 2010), respectively.

Unknown taxa represented ASVs that are not affiliated at the order level.

940x529mm (72 x 72 DPI)

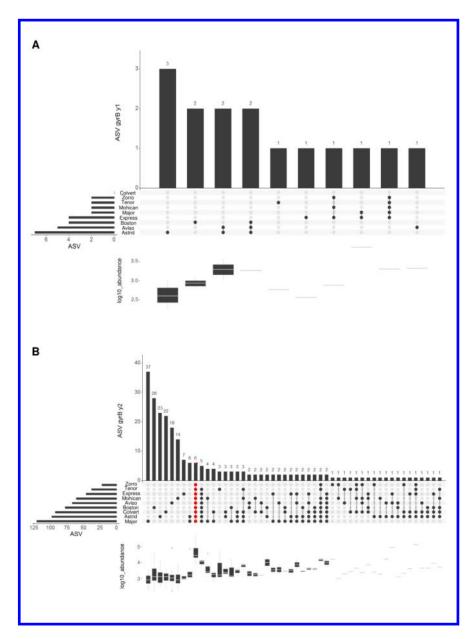


Fig. 4 Generalist and specific bacterial ASVs. Prevalence of bacterial ASVs across plant genotypes were investigated with UpSetR (Lex et al., 2014). Upper histograms represented the number of ASVs associated to one specific intersection in Y1 (A) or Y2 (B). Plant genotype associated with each particular intersection is highlighted with a dot. Intersection associated with all genotypes is displayed in red. The histogram located on the left of each UpSetR representation indicated the number of ASVs per genotype. Finally, boxplot represented the median relative abundance (log10) of bacterial ASVs associated with each intersection.

680x940mm (72 x 72 DPI)

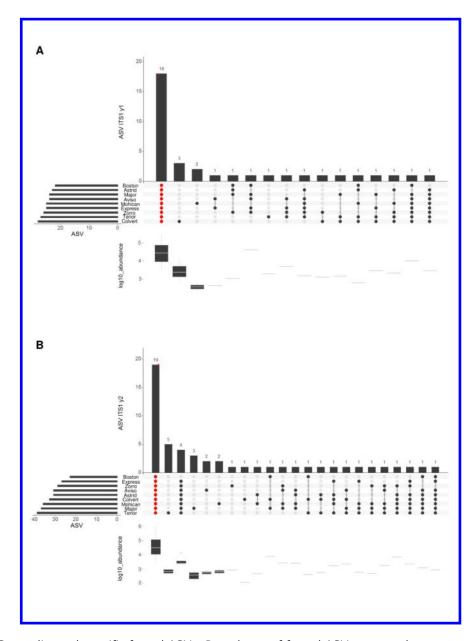


Fig. 5 Generalist and specific fungal ASVs. Prevalence of fungal ASVs across plant genotypes were investigated with UpSetR (Lex et al., 2014). Upper histograms represent the number of ASVs associated with one specific intersection in Y1 (A) or Y2 (B). Plant genotype(s) associated with each particular intersection is (are) highlighted with a dot. Intersection associated with all genotypes is displayed in red. The histogram located on the left of each UpSetR representation indicated the number of ASVs per genotype. Finally, boxplot represented the median relative abundance (log10) of fungal ASVs associated with each intersection.

680x940mm (72 x 72 DPI)

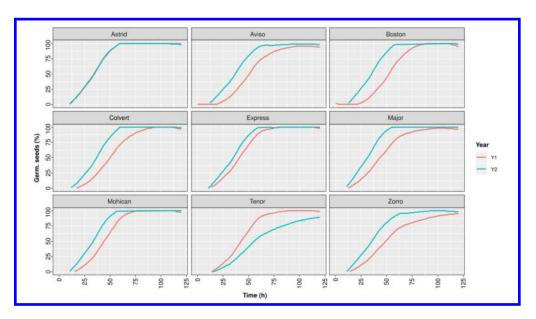


Fig. 6 Dynamics of seed germination of each genotype and year. Germination was monitored in vitro with an automated phenotyping platform (Phenotic; Ducournau et al., 2004, 2005; Wagner et al., 2012). Four subsamples of 25 seeds by genotype and year (Y1 and Y2) were incubated at 20°C on germination paper (GE Healthcare, type 3644) continuously moistened for 5 days and image acquisition was performed every two hours.

940x529mm (72 x 72 DPI)

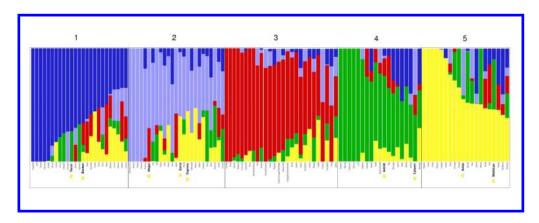


Fig. S1 Distribution of the 116 genotypes representing the diversity of WOSR in Western Europe, among the 5 WOSR genetic groups. Cultivars were genotyped using 628 SNP (Clarke et al., 2016). The structure of the collection was studied using ADMIXTURE (Alexander et al., 2009). Each genetic group is represented with a colour. A cultivar belongs to the group of which the colour is majority. The 9 selected genotypes of the study are marked with a yellow star.

3305x1275mm (72 x 72 DPI)

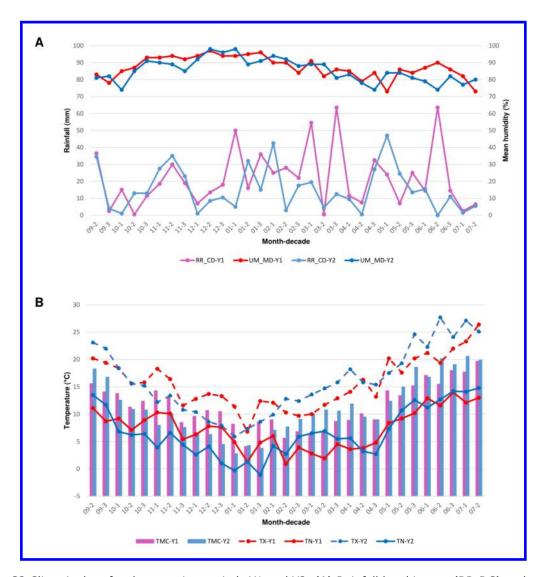


Fig. S2 Climatic data for the cropping periods Y1 and Y2. (A) Rainfall level in mm (RR-DC) and mean humidity in % (UM-MD). (B) Mean calculated temperature (TMC), minimal (TN) and maximal (TX) temperatures in °C. All data are reported for 10 days (decade) during the years 2015-2016 (Y1) and 2016-2017 (Y2) from records at Le Rheu station 35240002 – La Grande-Verrière – (48,113°N, -1,781°E) (INRA Agroclim network)

694x740mm (72 x 72 DPI)

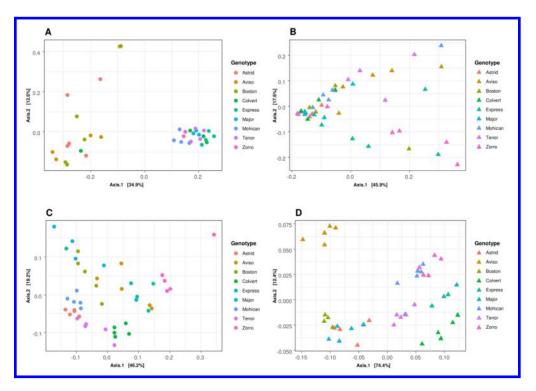


Fig. S3 Similarities in microbial composition between B. napus genotypes seed-associated microbial assemblages, per year. Similarities in seed microbial composition were estimated with weighted UniFrac distance (A, B) and Bray-Curtis index (C, D) for bacterial and fungal assemblages, respectively. Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) was used for ordination of weighted UniFrac distance and Bray-Curtis index. Samples are colored according to their genotypes, while shape corresponded to the year ( $\square$ =Y1;  $\square$ =Y2).

940x666mm (72 x 72 DPI)

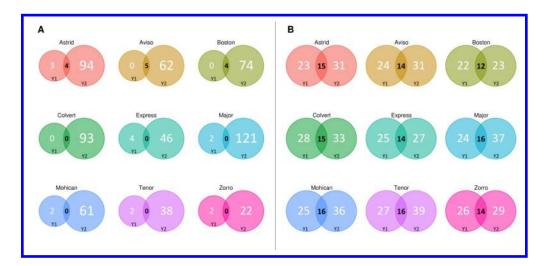


Fig. S4 Number of bacterial (A) and fungal (B) ASVs shared between years or specific of one year, for each genotype.

940x445mm (72 x 72 DPI)

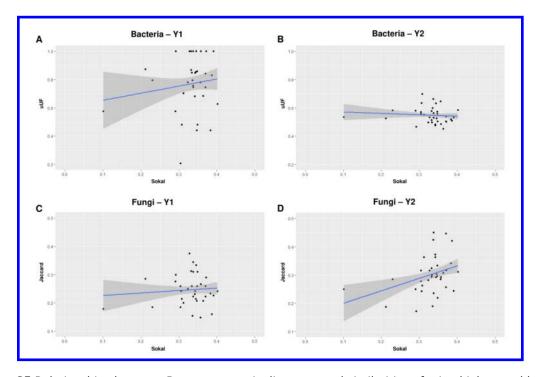


Fig. S5 Relationships between B. napus genetic distances and similarities of microbial assemblage compositions. The relationship between plant genotype and microbial assemblage composition was estimated by fitting a linear regression model between Sokal-Michener genetic distance and unweighted UniFrac distance (bacteria; A, B) or Jaccard index (fungi; C, D) for Y1 (A, C) and Y2 (B, D).

861x583mm (72 x 72 DPI)

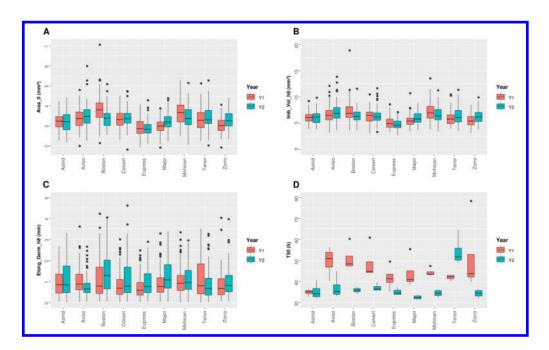


Fig. S6 Different phenotyping parameters calculated for seeds of each year and genotype. (A) Seed surface at initial time; (B) Seed imbibition 8h after initiation of imbibition; (C) Radicle elongation 8h after initiation of germination; (D) Time at which a half of the seeds have germinated. Significant results are marked with a red star.

987x611mm (72 x 72 DPI)

**Table S1** Characteristics of the nine *B. napus* genotypes. Quality: 00 or ++ is for absence or presence of Glucosinolate-Erucic acid. WOSR groups are defined from the genetic diversity study of 116 WOSR accessions with 628 SNPs (Fig. S1).

Name	Quality	Year of creation	Breeder (country)	WOSR genetic group
Astrid	00	2003	Euralis (UK)	4
Aviso	00	2000	Danisco (France)	5
Boston	00	2000	Limagrain (UK)	1
Colvert	00	1997	Limagrain (UK)	4
Express	00	1993	NPZ (Germany)	2
Major	++	1977	INRA (France)	2
Mohican	00	1995	Euralis (France)	5
Tenor	00	1999	Momont/Limagrain (France)	1
Zorro	00	1994	NPZ (Germany)	2

**Table S2** Cropping conditions for the *B. napus* seed production.

Location of INRA fields in Le Rheu, France						
Years	Year code	GPS coor	dinates			
2012-2013	Y0	48°06'36.29"N	1°46'22.04''0			
2015-2016	Y1	48°06'40.86"N	1°46'26.08''0			
2016-2017	Y2	48°06'37.21"N	1°47'07.98''0			

Distance between fields in meters					
	Y0 <sup>1</sup>	Y1	Y2		
Y0	0				
<b>Y1</b>	170	0			
Y2	966	860	0		

	Cropping history							
Years	Year code	WOSR Genotypes	Sowing date	Date of self- pollination bag attach <sup>2</sup>	Harvest date			
2015-2016	Y1							
		Astrid	11/09/2015	04/04/2016	15/07/2016			
		Aviso	11/09/2015	10/04/2016	15/07/2016			
		Boston	11/09/2015	10/04/2016	15/07/2016			
		Colvert	11/09/2015	07/04/2016	15/07/2016			
		Express	11/09/2015	07/04/2016	15/07/2016			
		Major	11/09/2015	10/04/2016	15/07/2016			
		Mohican	11/09/2015	08/04/2016	15/07/2016			
		Tenor	11/09/2015	10/04/2016	15/07/2016			
		Zorro	11/09/2015	10/04/2016	15/07/2016			
2016-2017	Y2							
		Astrid	22/09/2016	04/04/2017	04/07/2017			
		Aviso	22/09/2016	07/04/2017	04/07/2017			
		Boston	22/09/2016	07/04/2017	04/07/2017			
		Colvert	22/09/2016	05/04/2017	04/07/2017			
		Express	22/09/2016	05/04/2017	04/07/2017			
		Major	22/09/2016	07/04/2017	04/07/2017			
		Mohican	22/09/2016	05/04/2017	04/07/2017			
		Tenor	22/09/2016	06/04/2017	04/07/2017			
		Zorro	22/09/2016	06/04/2017	04/07/2017			

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Self-pollination with cages of 1.80 m height, 0.65 m diameter, covered with a polyester veil, Lenglart, France

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>30x70 mm bags ref SM570Y, Sealed air Cryovac, France

Table S3 Genotype-specific bacterial and fungal ASVs for Y1.

	Bacterial A	SVs		Fungal ASVs			
Genotype	ASV	Taxonomy	Ab (log10)	ASV	Taxonomy	Ab (log10)	
Astrid	ASV00217	Sphingomonos	2.6				
AStria	ASV00217 ASV00220	Sphingomonas		-	-	-	
		Sphingomonas	3	-	-	-	
	ASV00704	Sphingomonas	2.3	-	-	-	
Aviso	ASV00047	Sphingomonas	3.3	-	-	-	
Boston	ASV00046	Frigoribacterium	3.1	-	-	-	
	ASV00178	Sphingomonas	2.8	-	-	-	
Colvert	_	-	-	ASV0037	Sclerotinia	4	
	-	-	-	ASV0047	Cryptococcus	3.4	
	-	-	-	ASV0043	Cystofilobasidium macerans	2.9	
Express	ASV00993	Comamonadaceae	2.6	-	-	-	
Major	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Mohican	_	-	_	ASV0023	Holtermanniales	2.8	
	-	-	-	ASV0076	Entylomatales	2.3	
Tenor	ASV00020	Propionibacterium acnes	2.7	ASV0062	Cryptococcus victoriae	3.3	
Zorro			-			_	

**Table S4** Genotype-specific bacterial and fungal ASVs for Y2.

	Bacterial AS	SVs	Fungal ASVs			
Genotype	ASV	Taxonomy	Ab (log <sub>10</sub> )	ASV	Taxonomy	Ab (log <sub>10</sub> )
Astrid	ASV00004	Pantoea agglomerans	4.2	-	-	-
	ASV00014	Pseudomonas viridiflava	3.7	-	-	-
	ASV00100	Pseudomonas fluorescens	4.0	-	-	-
	ASV00216	Oxalobacteraceae	3.4	-	-	-
	ASV00243	Microbacteriaceae	3.3	-	-	-
	ASV00268	Pseudomonas	3.4	-	-	-
	ASV00300	Sphingomonas	3.4	-	-	-
	ASV00309	Oxalobacteraceae	3.4	-	-	-
	ASV00330	Sphingomonas	3.2	-	-	-
	ASV00339	Sphingomonas	3.3	-	-	-
	ASV00446	Sphingomonas	3.1	-	-	-
	ASV00457	Sphingomonas	3.1	-	-	-
	ASV00482	Oxalobacteraceae	3.1	-	-	-
	ASV00510	Frigoribacterium	3.0	-	-	-
	ASV00637	Sphingomonas	2.9	-	-	-
	ASV00709	Oxalobacteraceae	2.8	-	-	-
	ASV00724	Oxalobacteraceae	2.8	-	-	-
	ASV00782	Sphingomonas	2.6	-	-	-
	ASV00804	Sanguibacter keddieii	2.7	-	-	-
	ASV00933	Oxalobacteraceae	2.5	-	-	-
	ASV00944	Actinobacteria	2.6	-	-	-
	ASV00995	Sphingomonas	2.5	-	-	-
	ASV01202	Sphingomonas	2.5	-	-	-
Aviso	ASV00016	Pseudomonas	4.9	ASV0089	Alternaria infectoria	2.9
	ASV00018	Pseudomonas tolaasii	4.9	ASV0114	Alternaria infectoria	2.6
	ASV00068	Pantoea agglomerans	3.1	-	-	-
	ASV00110	Pseudomonas proteolytica	3.1	-	-	-
	ASV00164	Pseudomonas	3.6	-	-	-
	ASV00285	Rhizobium	3.4	-	-	-
	ASV00297	Sphingomonas	3.3	-	-	-
	ASV00410	Pseudomonas proteolytica	3.2	-	-	-
	ASV00424	Sphingomonas	3.0	-	-	-
	ASV00449	Pseudomonas	2.9	-	-	-
	ASV00493	Sphingomonas	3.1	-	-	-
	ASV00540	Curtobacterium	3.0	-	-	-
	ASV00653	Oxalobacteraceae	2.9	-	-	-
	ASV00673	Frigoribacterium	2.8	-	-	-
	ASV00697	Actinobacteria	2.8	-	-	-
	ASV00737	Pseudomonas fluorescens	2.8	-	-	-
	ASV01479	Frigoribacterium	2.3	-	-	-
	ASV01639	Sphingomonas	2.2	-	-	-
Boston	ASV00030	Erwinia billingiae	4.6	-	-	-
	ASV00062	Pseudomonas	3.7	-	-	-
	ASV00064	Pseudomonas	3.1	-	-	-
	ASV00085	Pseudomonas viridiflava	3.6	-	-	-
	ASV00108	Pseudomonas	4.0	-	-	-
	ASV00137	Pseudomonas	3.8	-	-	-
	ASV00193	Rhizobium	3.4	-	-	-
			3.4 3.7 3.7	-	-	-

	A OV (0004 4	Manadia	0.0			
	ASV00214	Massilia	3.6	-	-	-
	ASV00215	Rhizobium	3.4	-	-	-
	ASV00244	Rahnella aquatilis	2.8	-	-	-
	ASV00283	Rhizobium	3.4	-	-	-
	ASV00302	Rhizobium	3.2	-	-	-
	ASV00358	Rhizobium	3.3	-	-	-
	ASV00438	Pseudomonas	3.1	-	-	-
	ASV00473	Sphingomonas	3.0	-	-	-
	ASV00491	Pseudomonas	2.6	-	-	-
	ASV00523	Sphingomonas	2.9	-	-	-
	ASV00524	Oxalobacteraceae	3.0	-	-	-
	ASV00531	Comamonadaceae	3.0	-	-	-
	ASV00573	Sphingomonas	2.9	-	-	-
	ASV00610	Rhizobium	2.9	-	-	-
	ASV00903	Oxalobacteraceae	2.6	-	-	-
	ASV01010	Oxalobacteraceae	2.5	-	-	_
	ASV01142	Oxalobacteraceae	2.5	_	-	_
	ASV01318	Morganella morganii	2.4	_	-	_
	ASV01439	Microbacterium	2.2	_	_	_
	7.0101.00					
Colvert	ASV00034	Pseudomonas	3.3	ASV0076	Entylomatales	2.0
	ASV00200	Pseudomonas	3.6	_	-	_
	ASV00207	Sphingomonas	3.3	_	_	_
	ASV00227	Sphingomonas	3.6	_	_	_
	ASV00270	Rhizobium	3.5	_	_	_
	ASV00296	Sphingomonas	3.4	_	_	_
	ASV00321	Oxalobacteraceae	3.0	_	_	_
	ASV00347	Rhodobacteraceae	3.3	_		_
	ASV00347	Sphingomonas	3.3	_		_
	ASV00304 ASV00377	Sphingomonas	3.1	_	-	_
				-	-	-
	ASV00392	Frigoribacterium	3.2	-	-	-
	ASV00432	Oxalobacteraceae	3.2	-	-	-
	ASV00483	Sphingomonas	3.1	-	-	-
	ASV00549	Oxalobacteraceae	3.0	-	-	-
	ASV00557	Sphingomonas	3.0	-	-	-
	ASV00612	Sphingomonas	2.9	-	-	-
	ASV00615	Rhizobium	2.6	-	-	-
	ASV00664	Methylobacterium	2.8	-	-	-
	ASV00736	Sphingomonadaceae	2.7	-	-	-
	ASV00829	Frigoribacterium	2.7	-	-	-
	ASV01320	Frigoribacterium	2.4	-	-	-
	ASV01377	Rhizobiales	2.3	-	-	-
_						
Express	ASV00037	Pseudomonas	3.0	-	-	-
	ASV00326	Sphingomonas	3.3	-	-	-
	ASV00371	Sphingomonas	3.3	-	-	-
	ASV00403	Sphingomonas	3.0	-	-	-
	ASV00525	Sphingomonas	2.9	-	-	-
	ASV00535	Sphingomonas	3.0	-	-	-
	ASV00608	Oxalobacteraceae	2.9	-	-	-
Major	ASV00017	Pseudomonas fluorescens	3.4	ASV0037	Sclerotinia	2.6
	ASV00128	Sphingomonas	3.0	ASV0047	Cryptococcus	2.9
	ASV00252	Rhodococcus	3.4	ASV0135	Ulocladium chartarum	2.0
	ASV00253	Sphingomonas	3.5	-	-	-
	ASV00261	Sanguibacter keddieii	2.5	-	-	-
	ASV00273	Variovorax	3.1	-	-	-
	ASV00275	Rhizobium	3.1	-	-	-

	ASV00322	Sphingomonas	3.3	_	_	_
	ASV00332	Sphingomonas	3.3	_	_	_
	ASV00363	Methylobacterium	3.3	_	_	_
	ASV00379	Agrobacterium tumefaciens	3.0	_	_	_
	ASV00389	Sphingomonas	3.2	_	_	_
	ASV00397	Pseudomonas fluorescens	3.2	_	_	_
	ASV00404	Sphingomonas	3.1	_	_	_
	ASV00490	Microbacteriaceae	3.0	_	_	_
	ASV00506	Pseudomonas	2.6	_	_	_
	ASV00515	Oxalobacteraceae	3.0	_	-	_
	ASV00572	Sphingomonas	2.9	_	-	_
	ASV00579	Microbacteriaceae	2.9	_	-	_
	ASV00588	Rhizobium	2.8	_	-	_
	ASV00603	Sphingomonas	2.9	_	-	_
	ASV00621	Oxalobacteraceae	2.9	_	-	_
	ASV00685	Pseudomonas fluorescens	2.8	_	-	_
	ASV00727	Oxalobacteraceae	2.8	_	_	_
	ASV00730	Methylibium	2.8	_	_	_
	ASV00738	Sphingomonas	2.8	_	_	_
	ASV00745	Sphingomonas	2.8	_	_	_
	ASV00773	Sphingomonas	2.7	_	_	_
	ASV00863	Actinobacteria	2.7	_	_	_
	ASV00875	Frigoribacterium	2.7	_	_	_
	ASV00916	Clavibacter michoganensis	2.6	_	_	_
	ASV00947	Sphingomonas	2.6	_	_	_
	ASV00966	Alphaproteobacteria	2.6	_	_	_
	ASV01070	Oxalobacteraceae	2.5	_	_	_
	ASV01327	Curtobacterium	2.4	_	_	_
	ASV01608	Pseudomonas fluorescens	2.2	_	_	_
	710 70 1000	r ocadomenas nacrescens				
Mohican	ASV00044	Pseudomonas lurida	3.3	ASV0081	Alternaria infectoria	3.0
	ASV00054	Stenotrophomonas maltophilia	3.0	ASV0110	Gibellulopsis nigrescens	2.6
	ASV00122	Pseudomonas	3.9	-	-	-
	ASV00239	Agrobacterium	3.2	_	-	_
	ASV00368	Oxalobacteraceae	3.3	_	_	_
	ASV00375	Actinobacteria	3.3	_	-	_
	ASV00414	Sphingomonas	3.2	_	-	_
	ASV00562	Oxalobacteraceae	3.0	_	-	_
				_	_	_
	ASV00633	Actinomycetales	2.7	-	-	-
	ASV00633 ASV00639	Actinomycetales Actinomycetales	2.7 2.8	-	- -	-
	ASV00633 ASV00639 ASV00668	Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Actinomycetales	2.7 2.8 2.8	-	- - -	- - -
	ASV00633 ASV00639 ASV00668 ASV00743	Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Rhizobiales	2.7 2.8 2.8 2.7	- - -	- - -	- - -
	ASV00633 ASV00639 ASV00668 ASV00743 ASV00865	Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Rhizobiales Sphingomonas	2.7 2.8 2.8 2.7 2.6	- - - -	- - - -	- - - -
	ASV00633 ASV00639 ASV00668 ASV00743 ASV00865 ASV01174	Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Rhizobiales Sphingomonas Hymenobacter	2.7 2.8 2.8 2.7 2.6 2.4	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - -
	ASV00633 ASV00639 ASV00668 ASV00743 ASV00865	Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Rhizobiales Sphingomonas	2.7 2.8 2.8 2.7 2.6	- - - - -	- - - - -	-
Tenor	ASV00633 ASV00639 ASV00668 ASV00743 ASV00865 ASV01174 ASV01574	Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Rhizobiales Sphingomonas Hymenobacter	2.7 2.8 2.8 2.7 2.6 2.4	- - - - - - - -	Alternaria infectoria	- - - - - - - 3.0
Tenor	ASV00633 ASV00639 ASV00668 ASV00743 ASV00865 ASV01174 ASV01574	Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Rhizobiales Sphingomonas Hymenobacter Sphingomonas Pseudomonas fluorescens	2.7 2.8 2.8 2.7 2.6 2.4 2.3			- - - - - - 3.0
Tenor	ASV00633 ASV00639 ASV00668 ASV00743 ASV00865 ASV01174 ASV01574	Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Rhizobiales Sphingomonas Hymenobacter Sphingomonas	2.7 2.8 2.8 2.7 2.6 2.4 2.3 4.7 3.2	ASV0083		3.0
Tenor	ASV00633 ASV00639 ASV00668 ASV00743 ASV00865 ASV01174 ASV01574 ASV00022 ASV00289	Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Rhizobiales Sphingomonas Hymenobacter Sphingomonas Pseudomonas fluorescens Pseudomonas rhizosphaerae	2.7 2.8 2.8 2.7 2.6 2.4 2.3		Pleosporaceae	
Tenor	ASV00633 ASV00639 ASV00668 ASV00743 ASV00865 ASV01174 ASV01574 ASV00022 ASV00289	Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Rhizobiales Sphingomonas Hymenobacter Sphingomonas Pseudomonas fluorescens Pseudomonas rhizosphaerae	2.7 2.8 2.8 2.7 2.6 2.4 2.3 4.7 3.2 3.0	ASV0083 ASV0093 ASV0100	Pleosporaceae Alternaria infectoria	3.0 2.8 2.7
Tenor	ASV00633 ASV00639 ASV00668 ASV00743 ASV00865 ASV01174 ASV01574 ASV00022 ASV00289	Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Rhizobiales Sphingomonas Hymenobacter Sphingomonas Pseudomonas fluorescens Pseudomonas rhizosphaerae	2.7 2.8 2.8 2.7 2.6 2.4 2.3 4.7 3.2 3.0	ASV0083 ASV0093	Pleosporaceae Alternaria infectoria Alternaria triticina	3.0 2.8
Tenor	ASV00633 ASV00639 ASV00668 ASV00743 ASV00865 ASV01174 ASV01574 ASV00022 ASV00289	Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Actinomycetales Rhizobiales Sphingomonas Hymenobacter Sphingomonas Pseudomonas fluorescens Pseudomonas rhizosphaerae	2.7 2.8 2.8 2.7 2.6 2.4 2.3 4.7 3.2 3.0	ASV0083 ASV0093 ASV0100	Pleosporaceae Alternaria infectoria Alternaria triticina	3.0 2.8 2.7