

Assembly of seed-associated microbial communities within and across successive plant generations

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Plant and Soil

Assembly of seed-associated microbial communities within and across successive plant generations --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	Background and Aims Seeds are involved in the transmission of microorganisms from one plant generation to another and consequently may act as the initial inoculum source for the plant microbiota. In this work, we assessed the structure and composition of the seed microbiota of radish (Raphanus sativus) across three successive plant generations. Methods According to the bacterial (gyrB) and fungal (ITS1) markers employed in this work, the seed microbiota composition and structure were highly variable between seed samples. The relative contribution of dispersal and ecological drift in inter-individual fluctuations were estimated with a neutral community model. Results Fluctuations in microbial community profiles were related to changes in community membership and composition across plant generation but also to variation between individual plants. Overall we found that seed-associated microbial communities are dominated by few bacterial and fungal taxa whose distributions cannot be explained by neutral			
Suggested Reviewers:	processes. However, neutral processes are probably responsible for variation in community composition of the vast majority of rare taxa associated to radish seeds. Conclusions Altogether, these results provide a first glimpse of the governing processes driving the assembly of the seed microbiota and could be helpful for designing biocontrol-based strategies. Eric Nelson			

	Professor, Cornell University ebn1@cornell.edu Eric Nelson handled the previous version of the manuscript as a Guest Editor of Plant and Soil's special issue : Seeds and Microbes
	Jaco Vangronsveld Universiteit Hasselt jaco.vangronsveld@uhasselt.be Specialist of seed endophyte
	Tim Mauchline Rothamsted Research tim.mauchline@rothamsted.ac.uk Recently published an interesting paper on seed-associated bacteria
	Tom Curtis Newcastle University tom.curtis@newcastle.ac.uk The group of Tom Curtis has developped neutral community model for investigating the importance of dispersion and drift in assembly of microbial community.
	Steven Kembel Universite du Quebec a Montreal kembel.steven_w@uqam.ca Expert in plant-associated microbial assemblages.

IRHS, 42 rue Georges Morel, 49171 Beaucouze France

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Dear Editor,

We wish to submit our manuscript entitled "Assembly of seed-associated microbial communities within and across successive plant generations" for review to Plant and Soil's special issue: Seeds and Microbes. This manuscript is a revised version of manuscript PLSO-D-16-01789 that has been submitted in the special issue Seeds and Microbes of Plant and Soil. We tried to address all the comments made by the reviewers.

The present work assessed the structure and composition of the seed microbiota of radish (*Raphanus sativus*) across three successive plant generations. The relative importance of niche and neutral processes (ecological drift and dispersal) in the assembly of the seed microbiota is investigated at the individual plant level. Overall we found that seed-associated microbial communities are dominated by few bacterial and fungal taxa whose distributions cannot be explained by neutral processes. However, neutral processes are probably responsible for variation in community composition of the vast majority of rare taxa associated to radish seeds.

We confirmed that all the material presented in the current manuscript is original research and has neither been published nor been submitted for publication elsewhere. We would sincerely appreciate if you would consider this article for review and would welcome any queries you might have regarding our submission.

Authors of this manuscript confirm that all the work presented in the manuscript is original and report no conflicts of interest.

Yours faithfully, Matthieu Barret

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23								

24 Abstract

25 Background and Aims

Seeds are involved in the transmission of microorganisms from one plant generation to another and consequently may act as the initial inoculum source for the plant microbiota. In this work, we assessed the structure and composition of the seed microbiota of radish (Raphanus sativus) across three successive plant generations.

30 Methods

According to the bacterial (*gyrB*) and fungal (ITS1) markers employed in this work, the seed microbiota composition and structure were highly variable between seed samples. The relative contribution of dispersal and ecological drift in inter-individual fluctuations were estimated with a neutral community model.

35 Results

Fluctuations in microbial community profiles were related to changes in community
membership and composition across plant generation but also to variation between individual
plants.

Overall we found that seed-associated microbial communities are dominated by few bacterial and fungal taxa whose distributions cannot be explained by neutral processes. However, neutral processes are probably responsible for variation in community composition of the vast majority of rare taxa associated to radish seeds.

43 Conclusions

Altogether, these results provide a first glimpse of the governing processes driving the assemblyof the seed microbiota and could be helpful for designing biocontrol-based strategies.

47 Introduction

Plants have co-evolved with complex microbial communities which are known collectively as 48 the plant microbiota. The plant microbiota can promote plant growth and plant health (Muller 49 et al., 2016). For instance, plant-associated microbial communities can modulate biomass 50 accumulation (Sugiyama et al., 2013), metabolites production (Badri et al., 2013), drought 51 tolerance (Lau and Lennon, 2012; Rolli et al., 2015) and flowering time (Wagner et al., 2014; 52 Panke-Buisse et al., 2015, Dombrowski et al., 2017). Moreover, the plant microbiota can also 53 increase host resistance to foliar or root pathogenic agents (Busby et al., 2016; Ritpitakphong 54 et al., 2016; Mendes et al., 2011; Santhanam et al., 2015). 55

56 Owing to the beneficial effects of the microbiota on plant fitness, the relative importance of different community assembly processes in determining its structure over space and time is 57 of great interest (Paredes & Lebeis, 2016). Community assembly processes could be divided 58 into four main forces, namely dispersal, diversification, drift and selection (Vellend 2010, 59 Nemergut et al., 2013). Over recent years many research groups have investigated the 60 importance of selection in determining plant-associated microbial assemblage structure. For 61 instance, it is now widely accepted that rhizosphere bacterial assemblages are partly determined 62 by selection (Bulgarelli et al., 2013). Indeed, environmental-filtering such as soil 63 physiochemical properties and to a lesser extend host-filtering are involved in variation of 64 bacterial root microbiota profiles (Bulgarelli et al., 2012; Lundberg et al., 2012; Peiffer et al., 65 2013; Edwards et al., 2015; Dombrowski et al., 2017). Moreover environmental- and host-66 filtering are also important drivers of leaf-associated microbiota composition (Bodenhausen et 67 al., 2013, Horton et al., 2014; Wagner et al., 2016). In comparison to selection, the relative 68 importance of dispersion, diversification and ecological drift in driving assembly of plant-69 associated microbial communities has not been well investigated. To our best knowledge, only 70 one study has investigated the relative importance of selection, dispersion and ecological drift 71

in the assembly of the leaf microbiota (Maignien et al., 2014). According to the results presented
in this work, community membership of the phyllosphere microbiota is shaped by selection,
while community composition is driven by diversification and ecological drift (Maignien et al.,
2014).

Microbial entities of the plant microbiota can be either acquired from the surrounding 76 environment (horizontal transmission) or directly from the parent (vertical transmission). To 77 date, the relative contribution of horizontal and vertical transmission in the ultimate 78 79 composition of the plant microbiota is unclear (Shade et al., 2017). On the one hand, recruitment of microbes from the surrounding bulk soil in the rhizosphere strongly support the role of 80 horizontal transmission (Bulgarelli et al., 2012; Edwards et al., 2015). On the other hand, the 81 presence of conserved seed-associated micro-organisms across multiple plant generations 82 (Johnson-Monje & Raizada 2011; Hardoim et al., 2012) suggest that some members of the plant 83 84 microbiota are vertically transmitted. Although the contribution of the seed-associated microorganisms in shaping the ultimate composition of the plant microbiota is under debate, studying 85 the biological and ecological processes involved in the assembly of seed-associated microbial 86 community can have important implication for plant growth and health. Indeed, the composition 87 of the seed microbiota can contribute to key seed traits such as seed preservation (Chee-Sanford, 88 89 2006) or release of seed dormancy (Goggin et al., 2015). Occasionally, seed transmissions of Shiga toxin producers could dramatically impact the sanitary quality of seed samples (King et 90 al., 2011). From an epidemiological angle, seed transmission of plant pathogens serves as a 91 major method of dispersal and is therefore important for predicting disease emergence and 92 spread. Very low degrees of seed contamination by bacterial pathogens can lead to efficient 93 plant colonization (Darrasse et al., 2007). Furthermore, seed transmission of phytopathogens 94 95 can take place on non-host plants (Darrasse et al., 2010; Darsonval et al., 2008), which can then serve as a reservoir of plant pathogens. Finally, the seed microbiota can have early or late 96

97 consequences on plant growth and health with decrease of germination rate (Nelson, 2004;
98 Munkvold, 2009) or enhancement of ear emergence time (Mitter et al., 2017).

Recent diversity surveys of the seed microbiota showed a high level of variation in 99 100 microbial assemblages composition (Lopez-Velasco et al., 2013; Links et al., 2014; Barret et al., 2015; Klaedtke et al., 2016; Rezki et al., 2016). Based on these previous studies, it seems 101 that selection by the host plant is not a major driver of community assembly (Barret et al., 2015; 102 Klaedtke et al., 2016). In contrast, environmental-filtering is shaping the structure of seed-103 104 associated fungal assemblages (Klaedtke et al., 2016). Since the high variation in community composition observed across seed samples remains difficult to explain solely by environmental-105 filtering, other ecological forces such as dispersal, diversification and ecological drift 106 (Nemergut et al., 2013) may play an important role in assembly of the seed microbiota. 107

The objective of the present work was to assess the relative importance of these 108 ecological processes in the assembly of the seed-associated microbial communities. To do so, 109 we employed a theoretical framework based on neutral theory that has been successfully 110 adapted to interpret the composition of host-associated microbial communities (Venkataraman 111 112 et al., 2015; Burns et al., 2016; Li et al., 2016). Instead of considering differences of ecological fitness between community members as the main driver of community assembly (i.e. niche-113 based theory), neutrality hypothesis assumes that community members are ecologically 114 equivalents. Under this assumption, the extinction of a local individual creates an empty site 115 that is either fill by the offspring of a local individual or by immigration of a new community 116 member. We used radish (Raphanus sativus var. Flamboyant5) as a model system since this 117 plant has a high multiplication rate (one plant produces 500 seeds on average), allowing analysis 118 of the seed microbiota for individual plants. The structure and diversity of seed-associated 119 microbial communities were analysed on seed samples collected on individual plants during 120 three successive generations through community profiling approaches. Based on this profiling, 121

we observed the frequency of taxa occurrence in local communities (seed samples collected on individual plant) and their abundances across the metacommunity (all seed samples collected on the different plants of the same generation) and compared the observed OTU distribution to an estimated OTU distribution calculated with a neutral community model. According to the OTUs distribution, it seems that seed-associated microbial communities are composed of few dominant taxa that are selected by the host or the environment and multiple rare taxa whose distributions can be explained by neutral processes.

130 Material & Methods

131 Seed collection

Radish seeds (Raphanus sativus var. Flamboyant5, Vilmorin) were sown in March 2013 at the 132 FNAMS experimental station (47°28'12.42" N, 0°23'44.30" W, Brain-sur-l'Authion, France). 133 Mature seeds of the first plant generation were collected manually on individual plant and 134 immediately submitted to DNA extraction. To limit border effect, plants located at the border 135 136 of the experimental plot were not sampled. The remaining seeds in the experimental plot were harvested mechanically with a thresher. Seed samples collected mechanically were stored at 137 9°C at a relative humidity of 60% for 6 months. These mechanically harvested seeds were used 138 139 for sowing in the following season. The same procedure was repeated for seeds of the second (2014) and third generation (2015). 140

DNA extraction was performed on 73 seed samples collected manually from individual 141 142 plants in 2013 (9 plants), 2014 (32 plants) and 2015 (32 plants). In addition, DNA extraction was performed on 3 subsamples of 1,000 seeds for each seed lot harvested mechanically in 143 144 2013, 2014 and 2015 (9 subsamples in total). Seeds were initially soaked in 25 mL of phosphate buffer saline (PBS) supplemented with 0.05% (v/v) of Tween® 20 during 2 hours and 30 145 minutes at room temperature under constant agitation (140 rpm). Suspensions were centrifuged 146 147 (6000 x g, 10 min, 4°C) and pellets were resuspended in approximately 2 ml of supernatant and transferred in microtubes. Total DNA was extracted with the Power Soil DNA Kit (MoBio 148 Laboratories) following procedure described earlier (Barret et al., 2015). 149

150

151 Libraries construction and sequencing

152 Community profiling approaches were performed on 82 environmental DNA samples 153 corresponding to seed samples harvested manually (73) or mechanically (9) from three 154 consecutive plant generations. Amplifications of one bacterial marker (gyrB) and one fungal marker (ITS1) were performed with the primer sets gyrB_aF64/gyrB_aR353 (Barret et al.,
2015) and ITS1F/ITS2 (Buée et al., 2009) following procedures described earlier (Barret et al.,
2015). Amplicon libraries were mixed with 5% PhiX control according to Illumina's protocols.
A total of three sequencing runs was performed for this study with MiSeq Reagent Kits v3 (600 cycles).

160

161 Data analysis

The choice of gyrB as a bacterial molecular marker is dictated by its lowest taxonomic 162 resolution (species-level) in comparison to classic molecular markers based on the 163 hypervariable regions of the 16S rRNA gene (Barret et al., 2015). In addition, gyrB is a single-164 copy gene that encodes the β subunit of the bacterial gyrase, which then limits the 165 overestimation of taxa possessing multiple copies of rrn operons. The occurence of gyrB was 166 167 investigated in a set of 32,062 bacterial genomic sequences available in the IMG database v4 (Markowitz et al., 2012) at the time of analysis (10th December 2015). Coding sequences that 168 169 belong to the protein family TIGR01059 and KO2470 were defined as GyrB orthologs and 170 retrieved for further analysis (30,627 hits found in 30,175 genomic sequences). The corresponding nucleotidic sequences were aligned against a reference gyrB alignment (Barret 171 et al., 2015) with the align.seqs command of mothur 1.36.1 (Schloss et al., 2009) using the 172 173 following parameters : align=gotoh, match=3, mismatch=-2, gapopen=-50, gapextend=-50, ksize=8. Sequences that did not aligned (102) were discarded and only unique sequences 174 (haplotypes) were conserved in the reference alignment (10,427 haplotypes). According to the 175 gANI cliques defined previously by Varghese and collaborators (Varghese et al., 2015), the 176 gyrB marker has the best precision (0.964) and sensitivity (0.955) at a genetic distance of 0.02 177 178 (98% identity cutoff).

Sequence analyses were performed as described earlier by Barret et al., 2015 using a 179 sequence curation pipeline (Kozich et al., 2013) within mothur 1.36.1 (Schloss et al., 2009). 180 Briefly, gyrB sequences were aligned against a gyrB reference alignment composed of 10,427 181 haplotypes. Chimeric sequences were detected and removed from the dataset using the 182 command chimera.uchime (Edgar et al., 2011). Taxonomic affiliation of gyrB sequences was 183 performed with a Bayesian classifier (Wang et al., 2007) implemented in the classify.seqs 184 command against an in-house gyrB database containing 30,525 representative sequences at a 185 80% bootstrap confidence score. All sequences not affiliated at the phylum level and containing 186 a predicted stop codon were discarded from the dataset. A de novo clustering method (i.e. 187 188 average-linkage clustering at a 98% identity cut-off) was performed with the cluster.split command for assigning gyrB sequences to operational taxonomic units (OTUs). 189

The variable ITS1 regions of the fungal internal transcribed spacer were extracted with the Perl-based software ITSx 1.0.4 (Bengtsson-Palme et al., 2013). Reference-based clustering was performed with UCLUST 1.2.22 algorithm (Edgar, 2010) at a 97% identity cut-off against the UNITE 7.1 database (Abarenkov et al., 2010).

Observed richness (number of OTUs) and evenness (estimated with Simpson's reciprocal index) were calculated with the R package phyloseq (McMurdie & Holmes, 2013) on OTU tables rarefied to 5,000 sequences per sample. Differences in richness and evenness between variables were assessed by one-way ANOVA with post-hoc Tukey's HSD test.

Differences in community membership and composition between plant generations were assessed with Jaccard and Bray-Curtis indices, respectively. Jaccard and Bray-Curtis indices were calculated on OTU tables transformed to even sampling depth (OTU count divided by the number of read per sample and multiply by 1,000,000). Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) was used for ordination of Jaccard and Bray-Curtis distances. Permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA; Anderson, 2001) was carried out to assess

the importance of the plant generation on seed-associated microbial community profiles. To 204 quantify the contribution of the plant generation in microbial community profiles, canonical 205 analysis of principal coordinates was performed with the function capscale of the R package 206 207 vegan 2.4.2 (Oksanen, 2017) followed with PERMANOVA with the function adonis. Changes in relative abundance of OTUs between the different plant generations (2013, 2014 and 2015) 208 were assessed with likelihood ratio test (LRT) with the R package DESeq2 1.14.1 (Anders & 209 Huber, 2010). OTU with a corrected p-value < 0.01 and a log2FC > |2| were considered as 210 differentially abundant between the different plant generations. 211

212

Testing the importance of neutral processes in community assembly

The role of neutral processes in assembly of seed-associated microbial communities was 214 215 estimated by fitting the Sloan neutral community model for prokaryotes (Sloan et al., 2007) to 216 the observed OTU distribution. The conceptual framework on which is based this model is as follow: a large community (a.k.a metacommunity), which is composed of all micro-organisms 217 218 associated to seed samples collected on all plants located in the same experimental plot, serves 219 as a source of immigrants to a local community that is composed of micro-organisms associated to one seed sample collected from one individual plant. Since neutrality hypothesis assumes 220 221 that community members are ecologically equivalents, changes in structure of the local community is due to the death of an individual that is either replaced by an immigrant or by 222 local reproduction. 223

We assessed the capability of the Sloan neutral community model for prokaryotes to estimate the distribution of seed-associated micro-organisms. The Sloan model estimates the rate of immigration (*m*) into the local community by comparing OTU frequency across multiple samples (Sloan et al., 2007). The Sloan model predicts that abundant entities in the large community are widespread across samples since their dispersions could occur by chance, while rare members are more likely to be lost by drift in the local community. We used a custom R
script written by Burns and collaborators for fitting the Sloan neutral community model to OTU
distribution (Burns *et al.*, 2016). The fit of Sloan model was compared with the fit of a binomial
distribution model using the Akaike information criterion of each model (Burns *et al.*, 2016).
Binomial distribution model is used for assessing the importance of random sampling on
community structure in absence of drift and dispersal limitation (Sloan *et al.*, 2007).

The validity of prediction of neutral community models with barcoding datasets has been recently assessed by Sommeria-Klein and collaborators (2016). According to this study, neutral-model inference is affected by the number of reads per sample, which should be smaller than the number of sampled individuals (Sommeria-Klein et al., 2016). This limitation could be easily tested by subsampling the number of reads and assessing that the estimators of immigration are unchanged. The number of sequences per sample was then rarefy to 1,000 and 5,000 counts before fitting both neutral community models.

243 **Results**

The assembly of radish seed-associated microbial communities was monitored across 244 three plant generations (2013, 2014 and 2015) through community profiling approach. A total 245 246 of 73 seed samples were collected manually from individual plant in 2013 (9 plants), 2014 (32 plants) and 2015 (32 plants). Seeds of the remaining plants in the experimental plot were 247 harvested with a threshing machine and used for sowing the following year. Since manual and 248 mechanical harvesting can result in differences in composition of seed-associated microbial 249 250 community, three subsamples of 1,000 mechanically-harvested seeds per year (9 subsamples in total) were also subjected to community profiling, therefore resulting in 82 seed samples in 251 total. 252

Bacterial and fungal assemblage profiles were estimated after assignation of gyrB and 253 ITS1 sequences to operational taxonomic units (OTUs). Overall, 43,102 bacterial OTUs and 254 255 25,618 fungal OTUs were detected across all seed samples. While the number of observed bacterial OTUs was not significantly different between manual- and mechanically-harvested 256 257 seed samples, fungal richness was significantly higher in mechanically-harvested seed samples (P < 0.01, one-way ANOVA with post hoc Tukey's HSD test, Fig. S1). However, this increase 258 in fungal richness did not impact evenness (as assessed with Simpson's reciprocal index, Fig. 259 S1). As the level of alpha-diversity associated to seed samples used for sowing (mechanically 260 harvest) was comparable to the alpha-diversity of seed samples collected from individual plants, 261 the harvesting method is not involved in variation of microbial community composition across 262 years. Therefore, to investigate variation in seed-associated microbial assemblages between 263 individual plants, only seed samples collected manually were considered in the subsequent 264 analyses. 265

266

267 Assembly of the seed microbiota over successive plant generations

The assembly patterns of radish seed microbiota was monitored among samples collected manually in 2013, 2014 and 2015. First, we compared microbial richness and evenness over the three plant generations (**Fig. 1**). A significant increase in bacterial and fungal richness (**Fig. 1A** and **Fig. 1B**) was observed for samples collected in 2015 *vs.* those collected the previous years (P < 0.01, one-way ANOVA with post hoc Tukey's HSD test). However, this increase in microbial richness was not associated with significant differences in microbial evenness over the successive plant generations (**Fig. 1C** and **Fig. 1D**).

275 Similarity in community membership and community composition was estimated through calculation of Jaccard and Bray-Curtis similarity indices, respectively.Ordination of 276 Jaccard and Bray-Curtis similarity indices with principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) revealed 277 a significant clustering (PERMANOVA, P < 0.001) of seed-associated fungal communities 278 according to the plant generation (Fig. 2A and Fig. 2B). In contrast, seed-associated bacterial 279 280 communities were only significantly clustered for the third plant generation (P < 0.001; Fig. 2 C and Fig. 2D). Jaccard ordinations had higher explanatory value and more discrete clustering 281 282 by year than Bray-Curtis, suggesting that inter-annual differences in community structure can 283 be attributed to patterns in the presence and absence of taxa (e.g. many taxa observed exclusively in one year). The relative contribution of the plant generation in community profiles 284 285 was further investigated through canonical analysis of principal coordinates (CAP) followed by PERMANOVA. According to CAP analyses, the plant generation explained 22% and 32% of 286 variation in bacterial and fungal community membership and 27% and 39% of bacterial and 287 fungal community composition (PERMANOVA, P < 0.001). 288

To determine if some OTUs were specifically associated with one particular generation, we performed likelihood ratio tests (LRT) with DESeq2 on OTU table. LRT revealed that the relative abundances of 25 bacterial OTUs were significantly different (pvalue ≤ 0.01 and $\log_2FC \geq |2|$) between the first and second plant generations (**Fig. S2A**). The number of significant bacterial OTUs with differences in relative abundant increases to 62 between the second and third plant generation (**Fig. S2E**). Significant changes in relative abundances of 69 and 125 fungal OTUs were also detected between 2013 vs 2014 and 2014 vs 2015, respectively (**Fig. S2B and Fig. S2F**). In conclusion, differences in richness, diversity, community membership, community composition and OTUs relative abundance indicate a significant contribution of plant generation and/or harvest year on the structure of seed-associated microbial communities.

300

Assembly of seed-associated microbial communities among individual plants within the same harvest year

Results obtained in the previous subsection have shown that plant generation and/or harvest 303 year are important drivers of the structure of the seed microbiota. However, variation in richness 304 305 (Fig. 1) and community composition (Fig. 3) of the radish seed microbiota were observed between seed samples collected the same year on distinct individual plants. Overall, the radish 306 307 seed microbiota is mainly composed of 2 bacterial genera, namely Pantoea and Pseudomonas 308 (Fig. 3A), and 2 fungal genera: Alternaria and Cladosporium (Fig. 3B). While the presence of 309 these microbial genera in seed samples was relatively conserved across individual, their relative abundances were variables (Fig. 3A and Fig. 3B). 310

To further evaluate variation in community membership and composition of the radish seed microbiota, we counted the number of OTUs that were conserved among all individual plants (core microbiome, Shade & Handelsman 2012). Among the 43,102 bacterial OTUs detected in the *gyrB* dataset, only three were observed in all seed communities. These three bacterial OTUs are affiliated to *Pantoea agglomerans*, *Pseudomonas viridiflava* and *Erwinia tasmaniensis* (**Table 1**). Regarding fungal communities, nineteen fungal OTUs among 25,618 OTUs detected were conserved in all seed samples. Among these 19 fungal OTUs, 14 were affiliated to the *Alternaria* genus (**Table 1**).

Although, the core fraction of the radish seed microbiota was relatively restricted in 319 320 OTU number, it was composed of highly abundant taxa, representing on average 70% and 87% of all bacterial and fungal reads, respectively. Despite their strong conservations across 321 individuals, the relative abundance of the core members of the radish seed microbiota varies 322 greatly between seed samples (Fig. S3). For instance the relative abundance of bacterial 323 OTU00001, which is affiliated to P. agglomerans, ranges from 7% to 82% within seed samples 324 collected in 2014 (Fig. S3A). Shift in relative abundance of fungal OTUs was also important 325 326 between seed samples, with variation from 4% to 43% for OTU00002 (Cladosporium) in 2014 (Fig. S3B). This variability of community composition in seed samples collected from the same 327 plant genotype grown on the same experimental plot, suggest that non-selective processes such 328 329 as dispersal, drift and diversification may be involved in community assembly of the seed microbiota. 330

331

332 Neutral processes are involved in intra-annual community assembly of the seed

333 microbiota

In order to investigate the relative role of dispersal and ecological drift in shaping seedassociated microbial community, we used a conceptual framework based on neutral theory. In this conceptual framework, every seed sample harvested from one individual plant represents a local community that is part of a larger metacommunity corresponding to all seed samples collected on the different plants of the same generation. Based on the microbial community profiles obtained with *gyrB* and ITS1 sequences, we observed the frequency of OTU occurrence in local communities and their abundance across the metacommunity.

First, the fit of the Sloan model to the observed OTU distribution was used for assessing 341 the relative importance of dispersal limitation and ecological drift. Since neutral-model 342 inference is affected by the number of reads per sample (Sommeria-Klein et al., 2016), the 343 number of sequences per sample was either rarefy to 1,000 or 5,000 counts before fitting the 344 Sloan neutral community model (Sloan et al., 2007). Both rarefaction procedures did not 345 significantly impact the estimated migration rate (Table 2). Hence the largest dataset (5,000 346 347 counts per sample) was used in subsequent analyses. Overall, the estimated migration rate was more important for seed-associated fungal communities in comparison to seed-associated 348 bacterial communities (Table 2). The goodness of fit of Sloan model was estimated for each 349 350 plant generation by root-mean square error (RMSE, Fig. 4). Frequency of bacterial and fungal OTUs occurrence within local community was adequately described the neutral model for seed 351 collected in 2014 and 2015 with RMSE < 0.1 (Fig. 4). Larger differences between observed 352 OTUs occurrence and predicted OTUs occurrence were reported for microbial communities 353 associated to seed harvested in 2013 (RMSE = 0.12 and 0.14 for bacterial and fungal OTU 354 355 datasets, respectively). This increase in RMSE values could be explained by the limited number 356 of samples employed (n = 9) in 2013. In order to estimate the effect of dispersal and drift on local microbial community structure, we compared the fit of the Sloan model to the fit of a 357 358 binomial distribution model. Binomial distribution model is used for assessing the importance of random sampling on community structure in absence of drift and dispersal limitation (Sloan 359 et al., 2007). According to Akaike information criterion (AIC), both models performed equally 360 well (Table 2), therefore suggesting that dispersal, ecological drift and random sampling are 361 involved in local assembly of seed-associated bacterial communities. 362

To identify microbial taxa that are potentially subjected to deterministic processes, we compared the observed OTU frequency to the predicted OTU frequency by Sloan model. OTUs that are found more frequently than estimated could represent microbial taxa that are positively

selected by the host or the environment, whereas OTUs that are less frequent than expected 366 could represent taxa negatively selected. Using the 95% confidence interval of the Sloan neutral 367 model we detected bacterial and fungal taxa that depart from the estimated neutral distributions 368 (Fig. 4). Interestingly only a subset of microbial taxa consistently diverged from neutral 369 370 distribution across the three plant generation (Table 3). A total of three bacterial OTUs related to the *Pseudomonas fluorescens* group were less frequent than expected by Sloan neutral model 371 (Table 3), and could represent taxa that under negative selection. In contrast, one bacterial and 372 373 five fungal OTUs possessed a higher observed frequency for each plant generation. These putative positively-selected taxa correspond to one bacterial endophyte affiliated to 374 Plantibacter flavus and 5 OTUs related to the Alternaria genus (Table 3) that are not part of 375 the radish seed core microbiota. 376

377 **Discussion**

Seeds are involved in the transmission of microorganisms from one plant generation to another 378 and consequently may act as the initial inoculum source for the plant microbiota (Truyens et 379 al., 2015; Barret et al., 2016). From an epidemiological point of view, seed transmission of 380 phytopathogenic microorganisms represents an important mean of pathogen dispersion and is 381 therefore significant in emergence of disease (Nelson et al., 2004). For these reasons, exploring 382 383 (i) the transmission of seed-microbial communities across multiple generations and (ii) the processes involved in community assembly is of interest to control plant diseases (Shade et al., 384 2017). 385

In the present study, we investigated the structure of microbial communities associated 386 to several seed samples collected on different plant individuals during three successive plant 387 generations. Based on the molecular markers employed in this work, seed microbiota 388 composition and structure were distinct between plant generations. These differences in 389 community structure across successive generations may solely be due to annual fluctuations in 390 391 local weather conditions. Indeed, it is well accepted that climatic changes influence the composition of soil and plant-associated microbial communities (Compant et al., 2010; Classen 392 et al., 2015). Other variables such as the type of cultivated plants that surrounded the 393 experimental plots could also be involved in the observed variation in community composition. 394 Recent work indicates that emigration of epiphytic bacteria and fungi from plants surfaces are 395 important local sources of airborne micro-organisms and therefore of the surrounding plants 396 (Lymperopoulou et al., 2016). Although the same experimental plot was employed during the 397 course of this study, cultivated plant species in the immediate vicinity of the radish plants were 398 not controlled between the different years and could account for the observed diversity. 399

400 While generation-specific variation was observed within seed-associated microbial 401 communities, highest variation was found between seed samples collected the same year on

different individual plants. As most diversity surveys of seed-associated microbial communities 402 403 are performed on seed samples consisting of multiple plant entities (Barret et al., 2015; Links et al., 2014: Klaedtke et al., 2016), this source of variation is usually ignored. Overall only three 404 405 bacterial OTUs and 19 fungal OTUs were detected in all seed samples collected in this work. These core OTUs are affiliated to bacterial (e.g. Pantoea agglomerans or Pseudomonas 406 viridiflava) and fungal taxa (Alternaria or Cladosporium) frequently associated to seed of 407 408 various plant species (Barret et al., 2015; Hodgson et al., 2014; Links et al., 2014; Rezki et al., 409 2016; Truyens et al., 2015).

The fluctuations in microbial community composition observed between seed samples 410 collected on different plant individuals could be explained by neutral-based processed. The 411 Sloan neutral model employed in this work was able to predict the distribution of microbial taxa 412 across seed-associated microbial communities, suggesting that ecological drift and dispersal 413 414 generate a significant amount of diversity. Given the small value of estimated migration rate for seed-associated bacterial communities (m = 0.04), it seems that ecological drift is an 415 416 important driver of bacterial community assembly. The importance of ecological drift in 417 community assembly has been previously reported in communities (i) under weak host selection and (ii) where the vast majority of taxa are in low relative abundances (Nemergut et al., 2013). 418 419 These two features are frequently encountered in seed-associated bacterial communities. Indeed, the overall composition of seed-associated bacterial communities is not shaped by the 420 host genotype (Barret et al., 2015; Klaedtke et al., 2016). Moreover, seed-associated microbial 421 communities are composed of few abundant entities and a multitude of low-abundance 422 423 members (Rezki et al., 2016) that might be prone to extinction at the local level.

Regarding fungal taxa, it seems that the estimated migration rate is responsible for the observed variation in structure of seed-associated fungal communities. This results is not in accordance with the biogeographical diversity observed for fungal communities, which has

been primarily related to dispersal limitation of these micro-organisms (Peav et al., 2016). 427 428 However, at a finer spatial scale, such as the experimental plot employed over the course of this study, dispersal limitation should be rather limited and passive dispersion of spore-forming 429 organisms by water or wind facilitated, therefore resulting in stochastic distribution. Owing to 430 the observed composition of seed-associated fungal communities, the influence of ecological 431 drift in community assembly is probably less plausible for fungal taxa. Indeed, seed-associated 432 433 fungal communities are composed of multiple highly-abundant entities that are partly selected by the environment (Klaedtke et al., 2016). 434

Although the observed distribution of most microbial OTUs followed the estimated 435 436 distribution of Sloan neutral model, some OTUs deviated clearly from the model. The taxa that are more widespread than expected could represented microbial entities that are positively 437 selected by the host or the environment. Among those taxa, one bacterial OTU related to 438 439 Plantibacter flavus, a bacterial endophyte of several plant species (Lumactud et al., 2016), and 5 fungal OTUs related to the Alternaria genus were consistently overrepresented in every plant 440 441 generations. In addition to these taxa, the core members of the radish seed microbiota detected 442 in every seed samples over the three plant generations metacommunity are probably indicative of non-neutral processes. This is especially true for highly abundant OTUs such as Pantoea 443 agglomerans that represents on average more than 50% of all reads or to a lesser extend for 444 fungal OTUs related to *Cladosporium* and *Alternaria*. 445

In conclusion, the present work highlighted a low heritability of the seed microbiota during successive plant generations. This low level of heritability could be explained in part by the importance of neutral based processes in community assembly. Neutral processes related to ecological drift might be important for the structure of seed-associated bacterial communities, while dispersion is potentially involved in assembly of the fungal fraction of the seed microbiota. These findings are important for developing biocontrol-based strategies. Indeed, if 452 neutral processes are the main drivers of community assembly, then one might expect that early-453 arriving taxa would prevent or limit colonization of late-arriving ones, especially if resource 454 use between these taxa greatly overlaps. Therefore, inoculation of plant at flowering stage with 455 micro-organism having a high overlap in resource use with the phytopathogenic agent(s) is 456 likely to restrict seed transmission of the plant pathogen. The efficiency of this strategy will be 457 of course strongly linked to the competitive potential of the selected bacterial strains.

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467

468 **Conflict of interest**

Matthieu Barret and Philippe Simoneau are Guest Editors of the special issue. This does not,however, interfere with the reviewing process.

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758 Table & Figure legends

759

760 Figure 1: Diversity of seed-associated microbial communities

- 761 Richness ("Observed", A, B) and diversity ("InvSimpson", C, D) were estimated for bacterial
- 762 (A, C) and fungal communities (B, D) with gyrB and ITS1 sequences, respectively. Richness
- and evenness were assessed with the number of OTUs rarefied to 5,000 sequences per sample
- and Simpson's reciprocal index. Each dot correspond to a seed sample collected in 2013 (red),
- 765 2014 (green) or 2015 (blue). Letters "a" and "b" denote significant changes between conditions
- considered at a p-value ≤ 0.01 (as assessed by ANOVA with post hoc Tukey's HSD test).
- 767

769 Figure 2: Microbial community similarities between seed samples harvested from three

770 different generations

Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) ordination of Jaccard (A and C) and Bray-Curtis (B and
D) indices calculated with ITS1 (A and B) and *gyrB* sequences (C and D). Each dot represents
a microbial community associated with seeds harvested in 2013 (red), 2014 (green) and 2015
(blue).

775

776 Figure 3: Variation in relative abundance of microbial communities

Relative abundance of the most prevalent 5 bacterial and fungal genera within seed samples
collected from individual plants across 3 successive generations (2013, 2014 and 2015)
according to *gyrB* (A) and ITS1 (B) sequences. Taxonomic affiliation of bacterial and fungal
OTUs was performed with an in-house *gyrB* database and the UNITE database, respectively.
Unknown taxa represent OUT that are not affiliated at the genus level.

782

783 Figure 4: Fit of the Sloan neutral model

Frequency and abundance of bacterial (A, B, C) and fungal (D, E, F) OTUs in seed samples collected in 2013 (A, D), 2014 (B, E) and 2015 (C, F). Dashed lines represent 95% confidence intervals around the neutral community model prediction. OTUs that occurred more and less frequently than predicted by the neutral model are displayed in red and blue, respectively.

	abundance	(%)					
Bacterial OTUs							
Otu000001	57.88	Pantoea agglomerans					
Otu000002	8.71	Pseudomonas viridiflava					
Otu000004	4.10	Erwinia tasmaniensis					
Fungal OTUs	5						
OTU00001	29.35	Alternaria					
OTU00002	24.98	Cladosporium					
OTU00003	13.49	Alternaria					
OTU00004	2.77	Alternaria					
OTU00005	2.28	Mycosphaerella					
OTU00006	2.03	Filobasidiales					
OTU00007	1.95	Alternaria					
OTU00008	1.91	Alternaria					
OTU00012	1.34	Alternaria					
OTU00009	1.16	Alternaria					
OTU00010	1.11	Stemphylium					
OTU00015	1.06	Alternaria					
OTU00013	1.05	Alternaria					
OTU00014	0.83	Alternaria					
OTU00019	0.47	Alternaria					
OTU00021	0.41	Filobasidium					
OTU00023	0.34	Alternaria					
OTU00033	0.24	Alternaria					
OTU00036	0.21	Alternaria					

789 Table 1: Frequency and relative abundance of the core members of the seed microbiota

Median relative Taxonomic affiliation

790

OTU

The core members of the seed microbiota were assessed with *gyrB* and ITS1 sequences for

bacterial and fungal entities, respectively.

Datasets	Samples	N	OTUs	m	RMSE Sloan	RMSE binomial	AIC Sloan	AIC binomial
ITS1_2013_1000	9	1000	236	0.83 <u>+</u> 0.17	0.13	0.08	-292	-508
ITS1_2013_5000	9	5000	712	0.78 + 0.10	0.12	0.07	-977	-1840
ITS1_2014_1000	32	1000	501	0.47 + 0.08	0.09	0.09	-954	-974
ITS1_2014_5000	32	5000	1434	0.41 + 0.05	0.08	0.09	-3136	-3071
ITS1_2015_1000	32	1000	650	0.79 + 0.09	0.07	0.05	-1696	-1982
ITS1_2015_5000	32	5000	2169	0.75 + 0.07	0.06	0.05	-5801	-6942
gyrB_2013_1000	9	1000	232	0.18 + 0.07	0.17	0.20	-169	-141
gyrB_2013_5000	9	5000	640	0.12 + 0.02	0.14	0.20	-666	-384
gyrB_2014_1000	32	1000	633	0.03 + 0.01	0.08	0.14	-1342	-780
gyrB_2014_5000	31	5000	1906	0.04 + 0.01	0.07	0.13	-4440	-2575
gyrB_2015_1000	32	1000	1044	0.02 + 0.01	0.07	0.12	-2664	-1545
gyrB_2015_5000	32	5000	3813	0.04 + 0.01	0.06	0.10	-10118	-7147

Table 2: Fitting the Sloan neutral model to the radish seed microbiota

Table 3: OTUs that deviated from the Sloan model frequency

OTUs	Kingdom	Taxonomic affiliation	2013-2014- 2015
Otu000015	Bacteria	Pseudomonas trivialis	-1
Otu000018	Bacteria	Pseudomonas fluorescens	-1
Otu000019	Bacteria	Pseudomonas fluorescens	-1
Otu000074	Bacteria	Plantibacter flavus	+1
OTU00112	Fungi	Alternaria alternata	+1
OTU00131	Fungi	Alternaria infectoria	+1
OTU00133	Fungi	Alternaria infectoria	+1
OTU00148	Fungi	Alternaria alternata	+1
OTU00156	Fungi	Alternaria alternata	+1

OTUs with a lower (-1) and higher (+1) frequency than expected by the Sloan neutral are indicated. All reported values were consistent across years.





























Supplemental Information 1 2 Article title: Assembly of the seed microbiota within and across successive plant generations 3 Authors: Samir Rezki, Claire Campion, Philippe Simoneau, Marie-Agnès Jacques, Ashley 4 5 Shade and Matthieu Barret 6 7 8 Figure S1: Diversity of microbial communities associated to seed samples collected manually and mechanically 9 Richness (A and B) and evenness (C and D) were estimated for bacterial (A and C) and fungal 10 communities (B and D) with gyrB and ITS1 sequences, respectively. Richness and evenness 11 are assessed with the number of OTUs and Inverse-Simpson index. Each dot correspond to a 12 seed sample collected in 2013 (red), 2014 (green) or 2015 (blue). The asterisk denotes 13 significant changes between conditions considered at a p-value ≤ 0.01 (as assessed by ANOVA) 14 15 with post hoc Tukey's HSD test). 16 17 Figure S2: Differences in OTU relative abundance between plant generations Bacterial (A, C and E) and fungal (B, D and F) OTUs differentially enriched in the following 18 19 contrasts: 2013 vs 2014 (A and B); 2013 vs 2015 (C and D) and 2014 vs 2015 (E and F). Only OTUs with $\log_2 FC > |2|$ and corrected pvalue < 0.01 are displayed. 20 21 22 Figure S3: Relative abundance of bacterial and fungal OTUs 23 Mean relative abundance of the top 5 bacterial (A) and fungal OTUs (B) in seed samples collected in 2013, 2014 and 2015. 24 25

















