1 A parasite's paradise: Biotrophic species prevail oomycete

2 community composition in tree canopies

- 3 Running title: Biotrophic oomycetes in tree canopies
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14 Abstract

15 Oomycetes (Stramenopiles, Protista) are among the most severe plant pathogens, 16 comprising species with a high economic and ecologic impact on forest ecosystems. Their 17 diversity and community structures are well studied in terrestrial habitats, but tree canopies 18 as huge and diverse habitats have been widely neglected. A recent study highlighted distinct 19 oomycete communities in the canopy region compared to forest soils when taking oomycete 20 abundances into account, in contrast to the homogeneity at the incidence level. It remains 21 however unknown if this homogeneity also leads to a functional homogenisation among 22 microhabitats. In this study, we supplemented functional traits to oomycete canopy and 23 ground communities, which were determined over a time period of two years with a 24 metabarcoding approach. Our results showed that even though most oomycetes occurred in 25 all habitats, a strong discrepancy between the strata and correspondingly the distribution of 26 oomycete lifestyles could be observed, which was constant over time. Obligate biotrophic 27 species, exclusively feeding on living host tissue, dominated the canopy region, implying tree 28 canopies to be a hitherto neglected reservoir for parasitic protists. Parasites highly 29 specialised on hosts that were not sampled could be determined in high abundances in the 30 canopy and the surrounding air, challenging the strict host dependencies ruled for some 31 oomycetes. Our findings further contribute to the understanding of oomycete ecosystem 32 functioning in forest ecosystems.

33 Keywords: protists, oomycetes, canopies, metabarcoding, parasites, forest ecosystems

34 1 INTRODUCTION

35 Some of the most devastating plant pathogens with worldwide economic and ecologic 36 relevance belong to the Oomycota, protists in the Stramenopiles within the SAR 37 superkingdom (Adl et al., 2019). They comprise several distinct lineages, i.a. the Pythiales, 38 Peronosporales and Saprolegniales (Marano et al., 2014) and occupy ecologically important 39 positions as saprotrophs and severe pathogens. The infamous oomycete Phytophthora 40 infestans causes one of the most destructive plant diseases, the potato late blight, and 41 initiated the great Irish famine in the late 1840's with a million deaths and massive 42 emigration (Mizubuti & Fry, 2006). The ecological and economic impact of oomycetes has 43 led to an increased research interest on their community structures (Robideau et al., 2011; 44 Riit et al., 2016; Singer et al., 2016; Jauss et al., 2020b, 2020a; Fiore-Donno & Bonkowski, 45 2021), and, correspondingly, their pathogenicity and infection strategies (Rizzo & Garbelotto, 46 2003; Rizzo et al., 2005; Thines & Kamoun, 2010).

Three lifestyles are described for oomycetes: **Saprotrophic** species are free-living and feed on dead and decaying matter (Lewis, 1973). They occupy key roles in the trophic upgrading of terrestrial, marine and freshwater habitats (Marano et al., 2016). Although saprotrophy is less common in oomycetes, it is believed to be the ancestral state of oomycete nutrition (F.

51 Martin et al., 2016; Spanu & Panstruga, 2017), while the majority of currently described 52 oomycetes are plant pathogens (Thines & Kamoun, 2010). The pathogenic lifestyles include 53 hemibiotrophy, characterised by an initial biotrophic phase later turning into a necrotrophic 54 phase after the death of the host (Fawke et al., 2015; Pandaranayaka et al., 2019), as well 55 as obligate biotrophy, which comprises species exclusively feeding on living host tissue 56 (Spanu & Kämper, 2010). Even though obligate biotrophic species usually do not actively kill 57 their host, they still damage the host by chlorosis, inflorescence and killing of seedlings, and 58 thus cause severe economic losses (Parkunan et al., 2013; Krsteska et al., 2014; Kamoun et 59 al., 2015).

60 Oomycete communities are well studied in terrestrial habitats, however, most studies focus 61 on soil and the rhizosphere (Arcate et al., 2006; Esmaeili Taheri et al., 2017; Sapp et al., 62 2019; Fiore-Donno & Bonkowski, 2021). Recently, Jauss et al. (2020b) characterised 63 oomycete diversity and community composition in tree canopies, which are huge 64 ecosystems containing heterogeneous microhabitats and a large proportion of undescribed 65 diversity (Nadkarni, 2001). Albeit the same oomycetes were present on the ground and in 66 the canopy, communities inhabiting canopy habitats were significantly distinct from soil and 67 leaf litter communities in their abundances. The authors concluded that oomycete diversity in 68 forest ecosystems is shaped by deterministic microhabitat filtering, while a study by Jauss et 69 al. (2020a) could determine air dispersal and convective transport to be the stochastic 70 supplier and distributor of oomycetes among microhabitats and strata. However, the former 71 study only analysed one time point, while the latter study dealing with air samples could 72 show a strong temporal variability in community composition. Accordingly, seasonal 73 variability has been shown to influence protistan communities, to some extent, in several 74 studies (Nolte et al., 2010; Fiore-Donno et al., 2019; Fournier et al., 2020; Walden et al., 75 2021). For cercozoan communities, Walden et al. (2021) could show annually reoccurring 76 succession patterns in the phyllosphere. This implied not only spatially, but also seasonally 77 structured cercozoan communities in tree canopies, although this was not reflected on a

78 functional scale. If seasonal variation is also reflected in the functional diversity of oomycetes

79 in forest ecosystems, however, remains elusive.

Accordingly, we supplemented functional traits and investigated the seasonal stability of oomycete community composition in forest floors and tree canopies over a period of two years. Our study tackles two hypotheses: (1) Oomycete communities vary not only in their spatial distribution, but also in their seasonal composition, and (2) the deterministic processes leading to differences in community composition between canopy and ground habitats also shape the functional diversity and functional distribution among microhabitats.

86 2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1 Sampling, DNA extraction and sequencing

88 Microhabitat samples were collected in two seasons over a period of two years, i.e. autumn 89 (October) 2017 and 2018 and spring (May) 2018 and 2019 in cooperation with the Leipzig 90 Canopy Crane (LCC) Facility in a floodplain forest in Leipzig, Germany (51.3657 N, 12.3094 91 E). Samples were obtained and processed as described in Jauss et al. (2020b). Briefly, 92 seven microbial microhabitat compartments related to tree surface were sampled in the 93 canopy at 20-30m height: Fresh leaves, dead wood, bark, arboreal soil and three cryptogam 94 epiphytes (lichen and two moss genera, Hypnum and Orthotrichum). In addition, two ground 95 samples (soil and leaf litter) were sampled. All microhabitat samples were taken with four 96 replicates, from three tree species with three replicates each. DNA extraction was performed 97 with the DNeasy PowerSoil kit (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's 98 instruction. This procedure was performed on four sampling dates: October 2017 (Jauss et 99 al., 2020b), May 2018, October 2018 and May 2019 (this study). Oomycete-specific PCRs 100 and sequencing were performed as described in Jauss et al. (2020b) with tagged primers

101 designed by Fiore-Donno & Bonkowski (2021); the used primer tag combinations are102 provided in Supplementary Table 1.

103 2.2 Sequence processing

104 Sequence processing and bioinformatics analyses followed the pipeline described in Jauss 105 et al. (2020b). Briefly, raw reads were merged using VSEARCH v2.10.3 (Rognes et al., 106 2016) and demultiplexed with cutadapt v1.18 (M. Martin, 2011). Primer and tag sequences 107 were trimmed and concatenated sequencing runs were then clustered into operational 108 taxonomic units (OTUs) using Swarm v2.2.2 (Mahé et al., 2015). Chimeras were de novo 109 detected using VSEARCH. OTUs were removed from the final OTU table if they were 110 flagged as chimeric, showed a quality value of less than 0.0002, were shorter than 150bp, or 111 were represented by less than 0.005% of all reads (i.e. 368 reads). OTUs were first 112 taxonomically assigned by using BLAST+ v2.9.0 (Camacho et al., 2009) with default 113 parameters against the non-redundant NCBI Nucleotide database (as of June 2019) and 114 removed if the best hit in terms of bitscore was a non-oomycete sequence. Finer taxonomic 115 assignment was performed with VSEARCH on a custom oomycete ITS1 database (Jauss et 116 al., 2020b). The annotation was refined by assigning the species name of the best 117 VSEARCH hit to the corresponding OTU if the pairwise identity was over 95%, OTUs with 118 lower percentages were assigned higher taxonomic levels. Functional annotation was 119 performed on genus level with a custom python script, based on the oomycete functional 120 database published by Fiore-Donno & Bonkowski (2021). Samples with low sequencing 121 depth were removed by loading the final OTU table into QIIME 2 v2018.11 (Bolyen et al., 122 2019) and retaining at least five samples per microhabitat and 15 samples per tree species 123 per sampling date, i.e. samples with at least 1172 reads. Additionally, the oomycete OTU 124 abundance matrix of air samples from Jauss et al. (2020a) was used for a comparison 125 between tree related microhabitats and the surrounding air from spring 2019, as these 126 samples were taken simultaneously.

127 2.3 Statistical analyses

128 All statistical analyses were conducted in R v3.5.3 (R Core Team, 2019). Alpha diversity 129 indices were calculated for each sample using the *diversity* function in the vegan package 130 (Oksanen et al., 2019). Non-metric multidimensional scaling was performed on the Bray-131 Curtis dissimilarity matrix of the log transformed relative abundances (functions vegdist and 132 metaMDS in the vegan package, respectively), the same matrix was used for a 133 permutational multivariate analysis of variance (permANOVA) with the adonis function. 134 Partitioning and visualisation of relative abundances between canopy, soil and leaf litter was 135 performed with the ggtern package (Hamilton & Ferry, 2018). Determination of significantly 136 differentially abundant OTUs was performed with the DESeq2 package (Love et al., 2014). 137 All figures were plotted with the ggplot2 package (Wickham, 2016).

138 3 RESULTS

139 3.1 Taxonomic and functional annotation

We obtained 375 OTUs from 4,262,960 sequences. 77 OTUs (= 20.5% of all OTUs) showed a sequence similarity of less than 70% to any known reference sequence. Plotting the sequence similarity against reference sequences revealed similar patterns as previously described by Jauss et al. (2020b), i.e., many OTUs showed a similarity of 97-100% to known reference sequences, while additional peaks at ~75% and ~85% may indicate hitherto undescribed oomycete lineages (Supplementary Figure 1).

Peronosporales and Pythiales dominated all microhabitats at all sampling events (Supplementary Figure 2). Distribution of functional groups was relatively constant for all four sampling events (Figure 1). Based on OTU presence/absence, the pattern was nearly identical for all microhabitats (Figure 1A-D). Approximately 20% of all OTUs occupied a hemibiotrophic lifestyle, 30% were determined to be obligate biotrophic, only few OTUs

belonged to saprotrophic species and the lifestyle of the remaining 50% of OTUs could not be determined, mainly due to low sequence similarities to reference sequences. However, when taking abundances of OTUs into account, the pattern clearly shifted. OTUs assigned to obligate biotrophic species dominated canopy habitats, while ground habitats were more dominated by hemibiotrophic species (Figure 1E-H). Comparing the data from Spring 2019 (Figure 1D,H) with air samples previously published

157 by Jauss et al. (2020a) (Figure 2) revealed that the air surrounding canopy and ground 158 habitats was dominated by obligate biotrophic OTUs, irrespective of incidence or 159 abundance.

160 3.2 Abundance partitioning

161 3.2.1 Partitioning between Canopy, Soil and Leaf Litter

To further determine the distribution of functional groups together with the taxonomic annotation, the relative abundances of each OTU were partitioned for canopy, soil and leaf litter samples (Figure 3). Again, OTUs assigned to obligate biotrophic species dominated canopy samples, while hemibiotrophic species were more evenly distributed or more abundant in leaf litter and soil habitats. Albuginales were almost exclusively present in canopy samples, Peronosporales dominated canopy and leaf litter samples, while Pythiales showed a rather even distribution.

The relative abundances of the latter two orders were further partitioned into the four sampling events (Supplementary Figure 3). Abundances of Pythiales were rather homogenous and consistent throughout the seasons, while Peronosporales abundances were more shifted to the canopy region in spring samples. In Autumn 2017, OTUs assigned to the Peronosporales were almost exclusively present in canopy and leaf litter samples, while the distribution in Autumn 2018 was more homogenous.

175 3.2.2 Differential Abundance Analysis

176 To determine which OTU abundances were significantly different between the two strata 177 ground and canopy as well as the two sampling seasons spring and autumn, a differential 178 abundance analysis was carried out (Figure 4, Supplementary Figure 4). Within the 179 Peronosporales, this revealed the genera Peronospora and Hyaloperonospora (obligate 180 biotrophic genera) to be the dominant taxa in canopy samples, while Phytophthora 181 (hemibiotrophic) species were significantly differentially abundant in ground samples (Figure 182 4). For the seasonal effect, more *Peronospora* species were differentially abundant in spring 183 samples compared to autumn samples (Supplementary Figure 4). Within the Pythiales, the 184 genera Pythium (hemibiotrophic) and Globisporangium (obligate biotrophic) were 185 significantly differentially abundant in ground samples. Most Pythiales, however, could not 186 be determined due to the low sequence similarity to reference sequences.

187 3.3 Alpha and beta diversity

Despite OTU richness being quite variable among microhabitats, Shannon diversity as well as evenness were high and did not differ between the samplings (Supplementary Figure 5). Beta diversity analyses revealed similar patterns for all seasons as well: the NMDS plot (Figure 5) showed a large overlap of canopy inhabiting communities, which in turn did not overlap with leaf litter and soil communities. This indicated distinct communities inhabiting canopy and ground habitats, respectively, a pattern recurring in all samplings.

Variation in community composition was twice as high among microhabitats ($R^2=0.20$) than between canopy and ground ($R^2=0.11$) or sampling dates ($R^2=0.10$). Tree species ($R^2=0.05$) and season ($R^2=0.04$) explained only a minor fraction of beta diversity (permANOVA, Table 1).

198 4 DISCUSSION

199 The most striking pattern of comycete community composition is the distribution of obligate 200 biotrophic and hemibiotrophic species, with the former dominating canopy habitats and the 201 latter predominantly found in ground habitats (Figure 1). In a previous study, Jauss et al. 202 (2020b) proposed increasing functional diversity instead of increasing species richness with 203 increasing habitat diversity, as most OTUs were shared between all habitats irrespective of 204 specific strata or tree species. Here we supplemented functional traits of the detected OTUs, 205 which revealed that the observed diversity is driven by the lifestyle of the oomycetes. 206 Species occupying a hemibiotrophic lifestyle dominated the two ground habitats soil and leaf 207 litter. Hemibiotrophy is characterised by an initial biotrophic phase, which turns into a 208 necrotrophic phase (Fawke et al., 2015; Pandaranayaka et al., 2019). Oomycetes dwelling 209 the ground habitats are thus capable of feeding on the dead organic matter in the soil, leaf 210 litter and deadwood samples. Deadwood on the forest floor has already been shown to 211 harbour hemibiotrophic oomycetes (Kwaśna et al. 2017a; 2017b). In the canopy, however, 212 deadwood harbours only little hemibiotrophic species, as they are dominated by obligate 213 biotrophic species, like the other canopy habitats. The reason for this might be the high 214 number of obligate biotrophs in the other surrounding canopy habitats as well as in the air 215 (Figure 2). These samples might be overwhelmed by the passive influx of biotrophic species, 216 which are capable of surviving in the other, living, habitats, which would be an interplay 217 between stochastic and deterministic processes for community assembly.

Recent molecular studies analysing oomycete diversity determined similar patterns as reflected in our study, i.e. soil habitats are dominated by hemibiotrophic species, mostly members of the Pythiales (Sapkota & Nicolaisen, 2015; Riit et al., 2016; Fiore-Donno & Bonkowski, 2021). Species of the genus *Pythium* were significantly differentially abundant in our ground habitats. Habitats in the canopy, however, were dominated by the obligate biotrophic genera *Peronospora* and *Hyaloperonospora* (Figure 4). Tree canopies have only recently been subject to studies on microbial diversity (Jauss et al., 2020a, 2020b; Walden et

225 al., 2021; Herrmann et al., 2021), indicating tree canopies to be a hitherto neglected 226 reservoir for parasitic microorganisms. Species of the genus Hyaloperonospora are known to 227 be highly host-specific, infecting plant species of Brassicaceae and closely related families 228 (Lee et al., 2017 and references therein). However, none of our sampled trees and 229 microhabitats belong to the Brassicaceae or the order Brassicales. Yet, we observed a high 230 number of reads and OTUs assigned to the genus Hyaloperonospora in the microhabitat 231 samples in the canopy as well as in the air samples in both strata, while their number in 232 ground microhabitats is significantly depleted (Figure 4). This indicates a non-random 233 distribution of Hyaloperonospora species, as the air as a distribution mechanism should lead 234 to a more or less equal distribution in canopy and ground habitats. Here, they should not be 235 able to survive due to their high host specificity. But the domination in canopy samples 236 implies a capability of survival on hosts they are not specialised on. Thus, we tentatively 237 propose an even less strict host dependency for the genus Hyaloperonospora than already 238 suggested (Yerkes & Shaw, 1959; McMeekin, 1960; Dickinson & Greenhalgh, 1977).

239 The significant differential abundance in the canopy of several undetermined OTUs that can 240 only be assigned to the family Pythiaceae (Figure 4) indicates hitherto undescribed lineages, 241 specialised on the survival in the canopy. Members of the Pythiaceae can occupy all 242 lifestyles, from saprotrophy over hemibiotrophy to obligate biotrophy (Fawke et al., 2015; 243 Marano et al., 2016; Fiore-Donno & Bonkowski, 2021). If the OTUs in the canopy would 244 show an obligate biotrophic lifestyle, it would be in line with observations of the other 245 lineages in the canopy (Figure 1). Yet, the sequence similarity of these OTUs amounts to 246 only ca 80-85% to any reference sequence, thus we only tentatively draw conclusions about 247 their lifestyle.

A common pattern in microbial community ecology studies is a high seasonal variability (Nolte et al., 2010; Fiore-Donno et al., 2019; Fournier et al., 2020; Walden et al., 2021). Oomycete community compositions were in fact slightly, yet significantly distinct for every sampling and correspondingly for every season (Table 1). This pattern is in line with hypotheses proposed by Jauss et al. (2020a), that seasonal variation in air samples drives

253 the community composition in forest ecosystems. The environment, however, then selects 254 the species most adapted to the microhabitat, leading to overall similar community patterns 255 and microhabitat differences for every season (Figure 5). The seasonal changes in 256 microhabitat properties (e.g. temperature, moisture or habitat structure) thus affect all 257 habitats and communities equally. The season itself explained less variance in community 258 composition than the sampling dates (i.e., Autumn 2017 vs. Autumn 2018 etc.; Table 1), 259 suggesting that annual changes do not lead to similar community structures within 260 microhabitats in each season as an annual cycle per se, but rather indicate a high temporal 261 variability while preserving spatial diversity. Fournier et al. (2020) observed similar patterns, 262 concluding deterministic niche-based processes in microbial forest soil community assembly. 263 Implications are that ecosystem functioning of oomycete communities is not mainly affected 264 by seasonal fluctuations, but rather by microhabitat identity and, correspondingly, responses 265 of lifestyle to microhabitat filtering (Fiore-Donno & Bonkowski, 2021).

266 Conclusions

267 Both our hypotheses were confirmed in this study: Oomycetes show not only a spatial, but, 268 to a lesser extent, also a temporal variation in their communities. Within the temporal 269 variation however, the spatial variation is preserved, leading to overall similar community 270 patterns for every sampling date. Further, these deterministic processes also shape their 271 functional diversity in forest ecosystems. Our results indicate that tree canopies not only 272 offer numerous distinct habitats to microorganisms, but also serve as a reservoir for parasitic 273 species. Spatial diversity and correspondingly functional diversity drive the oomycete 274 community to a greater extent than temporal diversity. Thus, our findings contribute to future 275 studies on oomycete ecosystem functioning.

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286 Conflict of Interest

287 None declared.

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459 Data Accessibility

- 460 Raw sequence data have been submitted to the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA)
- 461 database under the Bioproject number PRJEB37525, with accession numbers ERS4399744,
- 462 ERS5649966 and ERS5649967.
- 463 All figures, codes and detailed bioinformatic/statistical methods used in this study are
- 464 available at https://github.com/RJauss/ParasitesParadise.

465 Author contributions

- 466 MB and MS conceived the study. RW and StS designed the sampling and DNA extraction.
- 467 AMF-D contributed the primers and functional annotation of oomycetes. SW and R-TJ
- 468 conducted the sampling, DNA extraction and PCRs. KF assisted DNA extraction and PCRs.
- 469 RT-J performed the bioinformatic and statistical analyses and drafted the manuscript. All
- 470 authors contributed to and approved the final version.

471 Tables

Table 1: Results of permutational multivariate analysis of variance (permANOVA) from the
 adonis function. Factors were used independently with the default of 999 permutations. Season
 provides the two factors Autumn and Spring, while Sampling Date corresponds to the specific time
 points of sampling, i.e. Autumn 2017, Spring 2018 etc.

	Df	SumsOfSqs	F value	R2	p
Tree Species	2	5.18	7.95	0.05	0.001
Microhabitat	8	20.45	9.12	0.20	0.001
Stratum	1	10.78	35.20	0.11	0.001
Season	1	4.00	12.15	0.04	0.001
Sampling Date	3	10.32	11.10	0.10	0.001

477 Figures

Figure 1: Functional annotation of oomycete OTUs in canopy and ground habitats. (A-D)
Distribution of functional groups based on OTU presence/absence, i.e. the proportion of OTUs per
Lifestyle. (E-H) Distribution of functional groups when taking abundances into account. A = Arboreal
Soil, B = Bark, D = Deadwood, F = Fresh Leaves, H = Hypnum, Li = Lichen, O = Orthotrichum, S =
Soil, LL = Leaf Litter

Figure 2: Functional annotation of oomycete OTUs from Spring 2019. Microhabitat samples based on OTU presence/absence (A) and OTU abundances (C) compared to air samples based on OTU presence/absence (B) and OTU abundances (D). For microhabitat abbreviations, see Figure 1.

Figure 3: Ternary plot partitioning the relative abundances of OTUs between canopy, soil and leaf litter. Each dot represents one OTU, sorted by taxonomic order and coloured by lifestyle. *Incertae sedis* comprises families and genera not associated with any order, e.g. Lagenaceae or *Paralagenidium.* The order *Undetermined* represents OTUs with sequence similarities of less than 70% to any reference sequence.

Figure 4: Differential abundance analysis between the two strata canopy (top panels) and ground (bottom panels) sorted by taxonomic order. Each dot represents one significantly differentially abundant OTU grouped by genus. Y-axis (log2FoldChange) gives the measurement of the differential abundance.

Figure 5: Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination of Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrices for canopy and ground microhabitats. Canopy microhabitat communities show a large overlap along all sampling events. Ground habitat communities are strongly separated, indicating unique exclusive communities compared to the canopy region, irrespective of the sampling season.

499 Supplementary Figures

500 Supplementary Figure 1: Sequence similarity of reads (top) and OTUs (bottom) per sampling 501 event to published reference sequences. 20.5% of all OTUs, corresponding to 3% of all reads, had 502 a similarity of less than 70% to any known reference sequence (not shown).

503 **Supplementary Figure 2: Taxonomic assignment of OTUs per sampling and microhabitat.** Black 504 line separates canopy and ground habitats. Distribution of taxonomic groups was similar for every 505 sampling, i.e. Pythiales and Peronosporales dominating all samples.

506 **Supplementary Figure 3: Ternary plot partitioning the relative abundances of Peronosporales** 507 **and Pythiales per sampling event.** Each dot represents one OTU.

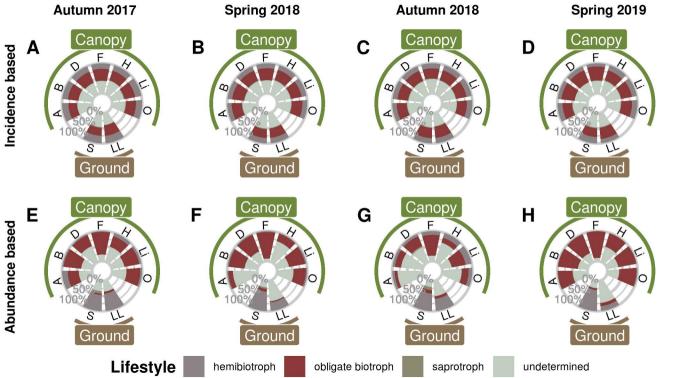
508 Supplementary Figure 4: Differential abundance analysis between the two seasons spring (top 509 panels) and autumn (bottom panels) sorted by taxonomic order. Each dot represents one 510 significantly differentially abundant OTU grouped by genus. Y-axis (log2FoldChange) gives the 511 measurement of the differential abundance.

512 Supplementary Figure 5: Boxplot of alpha diversity indices for microhabitat communities per

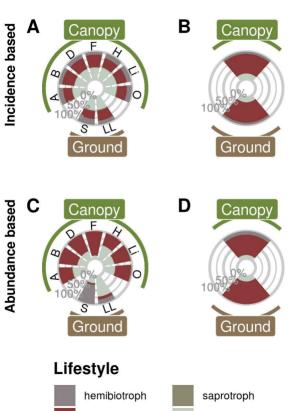
513 **sampling.** Outliers are given by dots. Observed patterns show no strong variability over the four 514 sampling events.

515 Supplementary Tables

516 **Supplementary Table 1: Primer tags used in this study.** Given are the sample ID, forward and 517 (reverse complemented) reverse tag and the ENA sequencing run ID.

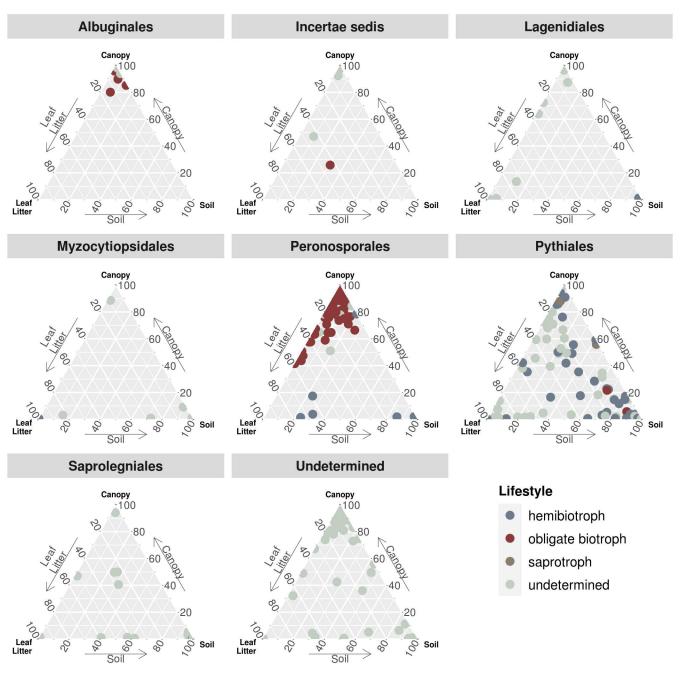


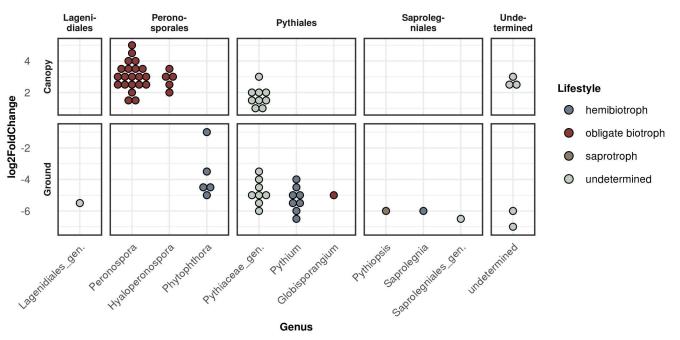
Spring '19 Microhabitats/Spring '19 Air Samples

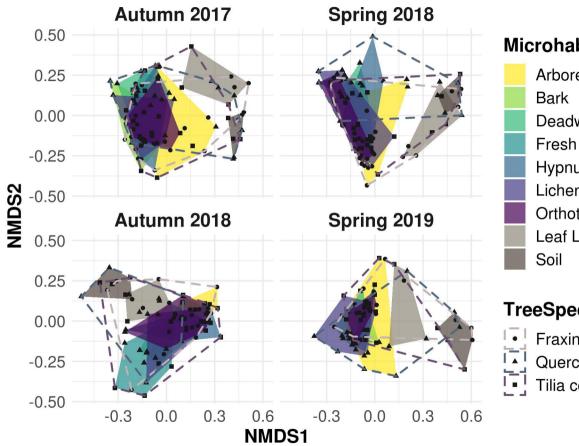


obligate biotroph undet

undetermined







Microhabitat

Arboreal Soil Deadwood **Fresh Leaves** Hypnum Lichen Orthotrichum Leaf Litter

TreeSpecies

Fraxinus excelsior

- Quercus robur
- Tilia cordata