1	µgreen-db: a reference database of the plastidial 23S rRNA gene of
2	photosynthetic eukaryotic algae and cyanobacteria
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#### 24 Abstract : 200 words max → Delete 30/40 words

# 25 Abstract:

The study of Studying the ecology of photosynthetic eukaryotic microalgae and 26 27 prokaryotic cyanobacteria communities requires molecular tools to complement the historical technique of morphological observations. These tools being developed lay 28 29 rely on specific genetic markers and, hence requireing the development of 30 specialised databases to achieve taxonomic assignment. Here, we set up a reference database, called µgreen-db, for the plastidial 23S rRNA gene. The sequences were 31 retrieved from either generalist (NCBI, SILVA) or Comparative RNA Web (CRW) 32 databases, in addition to using a more original approach involving recursive BLASTS 33 searches to obtain the best sequence recovery. At present, µgreen-db includes 2,326 34 plastidial 23S rRNA sequences spanning four Kingdoms (Eubacteria, Chromista, 35 36 Protozoa and Plantae) encompassing 442 unique genera and 736 species of eukaryotic algae, cyanobacteria and non-vascular land plants based on the NCBI 37 38 and AlgaeBase taxonomy. In addition the µgreen-db is also available using based on the PR2/SILVA taxonomy is also available withcontaining 2,217 sequences (399 39 unique genera and 696 unique species). By uUsing the µgreen-db, we were able to 40 assign 98.5% of the sequences at the phyla level foref the V5 domain? of the 23S 41 rRNA plastid gene obtained by metabarcoding after amplification from soil extracted 42 DNA. This, thus highlightings the good coverage of database. The ugreen-db 43 database is accessible at <a href="http://microgreen-23sdatabase.ea.inra.fr">http://microgreen-23sdatabase.ea.inra.fr</a>. 44

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### Introduction

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Photosynthetic microalgae and cyanobacteria can be found inhabiting diverse 48 aquatic and terrestrial habitats thanks to their advanced abilities to adapt to a range 49 50 of challenging environmental conditions (e.g., soils, marine, freshwater and brackish, airborne, plants and animals, including extreme environments such as polar regions 51 52 or deserts)1-5. These ubiquitous microorganisms play essential ecological roles in the global carbon and nitrogen cycles and also contribute to the production of 53 atmospheric oxygen. As primary producers, they form the base of trophic networks 54 (e.g. microbial loop in aquatic ecosystems<sup>6</sup>) and may represent a potentially rich 55 reservoir for diverse, natural biosynthetic products<sup>7</sup>. 56

Soil microalgae primarily belong to three main groups: the prokaryotic cyanobacteria and two eukaryotic algae including the green algae and the diatoms8. Cyanobacteria, formerly called 'blue-green algae', are prokaryotes, monophyletic and belong to the bacterial domain<sup>9,10</sup>. Eukaryotic algae represent a polyphyletic assemblage including several lineages that evolved from a primary common endosymbiosis: the main group of green algae (Viridiplantae) belongs to a wellsupported monophyletic group subdivided in two major groups, the Chlorophyta and the Streptophyta [this second group includes Charophyta and the land plants; the red algae (Rhodophyta) and the glaucophytes (Glaucophyta)]. Other lineages such as euglenids (Euglenozoa), chlorarachniophytes (Cercozoa), cryptomonads (Cryptophyta), haptophytes (Haptophyta or brown stramenopiles algae), [Bacillariophyta (or diatoms) and Ochrophyta)], and Dinoflagellates (Miozoa, also known as Myzozoa)], also belong to the Viridiplantae group but have a secondary endosymbiotic origin<sup>11-16</sup>.

The diversity and composition of the microbial photosynthetic community can be used as a bioindicator of soil quality<sup>17</sup> and the presence of invasive species. Microbial photosynthetic communities can also help identify and monitor the involvement of specific groups in the biodegradation of environmental pollutants<sup>5,16,18</sup>. In addition a better understanding of microbial photosynthetic community diversity can help understand their function and contribution to C cycling, notably in marine<sup>19</sup> and dryland<sup>20</sup> ecosystems.

During the past century, a large body of knowledge on microalgae taxonomy has been gathered from microscopic observations, providing valuable information for a complementary trait approach. However, in the past twenty years, phylogenetic analyses have demonstrated that an approach based on morphological determination alone is somewhat artificial for most of the microalgal genera and should be revised<sup>21,22</sup>. Recently, several studies have estimated the diversity of indigenous photosynthetic microbial communities in various environments using metabarcoding coupled to High-Throughput Sequencing (HTS)<sup>3,23-28</sup>. A range of molecular markers have been used to describe cyanobacteria and eukaryotic algae diversity with varying degrees of resolution (e.g. 16S/18S/23S rRNA, *tuf*A, *psbA*, rbcL, ITS)<sup>28-33</sup>. Various hypervariable regions (e.g. V4, V8-V9) of the 18S rRNA gene are commonly used<sup>34</sup>. However, the 23S rRNA gene presents several advantages over the other markers. In particular its length and higher sequence variability provide a better phylogenetic resolution compared to small rRNA subunits<sup>35,36</sup>. More

precisely, domain V of the 23S rRNA gene, known as the Universal Plastid Amplicon (UPA), allows the targeting of organisms containing plastids with a remarkable universality, covering most photosynthetic microbial groups<sup>37,38</sup>. For cyanobacteria, this marker also seems to be promising as it provides better coverage of community diversity than either 16S/18S rDNA or *tuf*A<sup>31</sup>. Moreover, the UPA has a length (~ 410 bp) suitable for HTS Technologies<sup>37</sup>, such as Illumina<sup>39</sup>. The use of UPA can also be used in addition to other markers thereby obtaining a comprehensive overview of microbial diversity<sup>27,31,33,40</sup>.

Major collaborative projects and studies at the international level (e.g. UniEuk, EukRef) are currently underway to propose a classification of microbial eukaryotes that will serve as a reference for a universal taxonomy<sup>41-43</sup>. The proposed tools are mainly deployed on the 18S gene that allows the targeting of eukaryotic photosynthetic organisms but not the cyanobacteria group.

Metabarcoding still remains the fastest and cheapest method to study the microbial diversity and community structures. However, it requires reference databases, updated with a good coverage of organisms, a good\_high level of sequence quality and curated taxonomy to achieve taxonomic assignment of obtained sequences<sup>44</sup>. There are already several generalist or specialist databases that include some groups of algae with curated taxonomy. The most popular databases are: SILVA, that groups SSU and LSU rRNA genes from eukaryotic and prokaryotic organisms<sup>45</sup>; PR<sup>2</sup>, a protist small subunit ribosomal reference database<sup>46</sup>; PhytoREF, a reference database of the plastidial 16S rRNA gene of photosynthetic eukaryotes<sup>47</sup>; R-Syst::diatom, that gathers the 18S rRNA gene and rbcL diatom

sequences<sup>48</sup>; and DINOREF, a reference database of 18S rRNA for the dinoflagellates<sup>49</sup>. Recently, Sherwood et al.<sup>27</sup> made available—a database available (http://scholarspace.manoa.hawaii.edu/handle/10125/42782) that groups 97,194 UPA and LSU amplicon sequences from their own project, including sequences that are not present in SILVA. However, these sequences are mainly assigned to the Bacteria domain (75% of the total sequences with only < 1% assigned to Cyanobacteria), whilst within the 10% of eukaryotic sequences, 80% are associated to the Metazoa group. Moreover, the taxonomy is not completely standardized and therefore difficult to use for HTS analyses. A reference database of the UPA marker exists containing only algae-related taxa as well as standardized taxonomy however, it includes much fewer sequences (573 sequences) than the other UPA database described above<sup>50</sup>. Thus to our knowledge, no 23S rRNA database exists to date that fulfills all of the important criteria (*i.e.* good coverage of organisms, good sequence quality and curated taxonomy) for the metabarcoding study of indigenous algae communities.

Here, we propose a new reference database of plastid sequences in eukaryotes and cyanobacteria. This database, called µgreen-db, was constructed from various sources (SILVA, CRW, BLAST or extracted from genomes) to be the most representative. When possible, the complete sequence of the 23S rRNA gene is provided, allowing users greater flexibility to create, for example, their own primers for environmental metabarcoding studies. The taxonomy associated with the sequences is based oncoherent with the PR²/SILVA, NCBI and AlgaeBase databases. In the µgreen-db and only forthose of the NCBI and AlgaeBase databases, sequences of non-vascular land plants are also provided with the aim of

improving the study of algae communities in soil environments where mosses and liverworts (Bryophytes) can be abundant and where bryophyte sequences can be consequently co-amplified with algal sequences because of the similarity of the plastidial 23S rRNA gene between algae and mosses. Thus the inclusion of sequences related to bryophyte taxa will allow avoidinghelp avoid orphaned sequences and improve the recovery of taxonomic information from sequence datasets. This database is open-source and can be downloaded from the website (http://microgreen-23sdatabase.ea.inra.fr).

### Results

### Overview of µgreen-db

The µgreen-db currently contains 2,326 non-redundant sequences including 440 complete, 1,658 incomplete, and 228 environmental plastidial 23S rDNA sequences (Fig. 2A). The mean sequences length is between 800 bp and 4,000 bp with 2,271 sequences longer than 800 bp (Fig. 2B).

The µgreen-db provides a reference file containing all the sequences in fasta format. For each sequence, the associated identifier is in the following form: [C or I or E]AccessionNumber.Letter(if duplicate).start.end;AllLineage where 'C' signifies complete, 'I' incomplete and 'E' environmental. We also provide a set of two files, a reference sequence file with a unique identifier in fasta format and another with the complete taxonomy that can be used easily in the most popular metabarcoding pipelines (e.g. Mothur, QIIIME, GnS-PIPE) with\_-either the NCBI,-the AlgaeBase or PR²/SILVA taxonomy.

# Taxonomic validation – Taxonomic composition of μgreen-db

Following the initial retrieval of the database sequences in June 2016, a further update of the entire taxonomy was completed using NCBI in August 2018. During this update we encountered three scenarios for each sequence these included (i) no change in taxonomy, (ii) obsolete accession number (8 sequences) or (iii) removal or loss of the accession number (2 sequences). For the specific cases of (ii) we updated the accession number whilst in the case of (iii) we removed these particular sequences from our database.

Taxonomic coverage (corresponding to the percentage of sequences for a given rank) was higher with AlgaeBase than with NCBI (Fig. 3). Coverage at the class and genus level was slightly better with The PR2/SILVA compared to AlgaeBase. For sequences assigned from the NCBI database, we obtained 86% and 42% coverage at the Phylum and Class rank respectively (Fig. 3). We obtained 9 phyla through the 4 supergroups (Terrabacteria, Excavata, Archaeplastida, and SAR) but 14% of the sequences were without taxonomic assignment at this rank (Fig. 4A). For our sequences assigned from the AlgaeBase database, we obtained 100% coverage at the phylum level (Fig. 3), with 1 phylum for the Eubacteria kingdom, 6 phyla for the Chromista kingdom, 1 for the Protozoa kingdom and 7 for the Plantae kingdom, of which 4 were algae, and 1 phylum Chromerida that has no kingdom affiliation as yet (Fig. 4B). The most represented phylum was Cyanobacteria with 939 sequences, followed by Euglenozoa (349 sequences), and Chlorophyta (314 sequences) while Bacillariophyta was less represented (54 sequences) (Fig. 4B).

2,283 sequences (*i.e.* 98% of the total sequences) could be assigned up to genus rank with 442 unique *genera* (the top 3 of the most represented *genera* were: 207 Prochlorococcus, 120 Chroococcidiopsis, 90 Synechococcus, all types of cyanobacteria). A total of 1,590 sequences have species level affiliation including 736 unique *species* (not including uncultured and \* .sp) with the NCBI and AlgaeBase taxonomy.

The µgreen-db based on the PR²/SILVA taxonomy contains 2,217 of the 2,326 sequences found, distributed across seven groups (Bacteria, Stramenopiles, Hacrobia, Alveolata, Rhizaria, Excavata, Archaeplastida) (Fig. 4C) with 399 unique *genera* and 696 unique *species* available (with the same top 3 as previously) representing as well as 93.3 % of Cyanobacteria, 97% of photosynthetic eukaryotic algae and 92.8% of non-vascular land plants.

# Databases finalisation

This database is now fully operational and can now be used to perform—a taxonomic assignments in metabarcoding projects. Using the universal primer pair to amplify the 23S rRNA V region (UPA)<sup>38,51</sup> on our database, we obtain 1,500 out of the 2,366 sequences with a PCR *in silico* (Supplementary Fig. S1). Several formatted files have been generated for metabarcoding data analysis (https://zenodo.org/record/3385760#.XW-NptPVLUI).

# Description of the µgreen-db web interface

The µgreen-db is also available *via* a web interface (<a href="http://microgreen-23sdatabase.ea.inra.fr">http://microgreen-23sdatabase.ea.inra.fr</a>). Access to all data is provided *via* this interface and simply allows searches for taxa of interest. This website also permits downloading of the latest sequence and/or taxonomy files. Finally, various information on the construction of this database, statistics and news are also accessible through this website.

### Metabarcoding validation

We tested the ability of  $\mu$ green-db to assign sequence datasets generated from a set of indigenous soil phototrophic microbial communities obtained from a soil that was exposed to two contrasted lightening conditions (dark vs. light). The Shannon diversity indices calculated from the OTU dataset highlighted a higher diversity in the dark treatmentness compared to that of the light he enlightened treatment (H'=3.1 ± 0.1 vs. H'=2.6 ± 0.1, respectively) (Table S1). This decrease of diversity was associated to a lower richness (441.3 ± 41.2 vs. 378.3 ± 31.4 OTUs) and a lower evenness (0.51 ± 0.01 vs. 0.43 ± 0.02) of the community after exposure to light. Interestingly,  $\mu$ green-db allowed appropriate affiliation of 96% and 98.5% of the sequence datasets at the phylum and genus level, respectively. Examination of the taxonomic affiliation of the sequences also revealed a broad diversity of the phototrophic soil microbial community, with 11 phyla and 149 unique *genera* detected. As observed for the diversity metrics, light conditions significantly shaped the composition of the phototrophic community. Most markedly, at the phylum level, Cyanobacteria became highly dominant, increasing from 4 ± 2.4% to 72.0 ± 1.8% of

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the assigned sequences after exposing of the soil to the light (Fig. 5A, 229 230 Supplementary Table S1). In the same way, sequences related to Charophyta 231 increased from 1.4 ± 0.5 to 8.4 ± 1.8% following light exposure. In contrast, 232 Chlorophyta, Bacillariophyta and Ochrophyta, which represented 39.75 ± 2.37;  $29.2 \pm 3.1$ ; and  $17.4 \pm 0.2\%$  of the sequences in the dark treatment, decreased to 233 234  $5.9 \pm 0.7$ ;  $4.4 \pm 0.9$ ; and  $4.3 \pm 0.8\%$ , respectively after light exposure (Fig. 5A). Also, 235 the Miozoa phylum disappeared in the light treatment. Typically all phyla were consistently found in all three sample replicates, with the exception of 236 Anthocerotophyta that was detected in only one of the three replicates belonging to 237 the light treatment (Fig. 5A). The clear taxonomic separation of dark and light 238 239 treatments was also observed at the genus level (Fig. 5B). The increase of Cyanobacteria in the light was mainly caused by the stimulation of three genera: 240 241 Microcoleus, Nodosilinea and Synechococcus. Klebsormidium was the only genus explaining the increase of the Charophyta phylum in response to light. In contrast, 242 there was a higher contribution of Chlorophyta, Bacillariophyta and Ochrophyta in the 243 244 dark treatment caused by the higher occurrence of genera such as Chlorella and (for Chlorophyta); Eunotia (for Bacillariophyta) and Ectocarpus, 245 Ettlia Nannochloropsis and Vaucheria (for Ochrophyta). 246

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#### Discussion

The study of algae and cyanobacteria diversity can now be achieved using either morphological identification through microscopy observations or molecular tools that analyse genetic markers and provide taxonomic affiliation. It is even

recommended to combine these two methods or to use multiple molecular markers to obtain improved coverage of the *species* present<sup>31,52,53</sup> and to continuously improve barcoding databases. This combining of techniques is particularly powerful for identifying key relationships that underpin the construction of trait-based knowledge that can be used to improve our functional understanding of photosynthetic microbial communities.

µgreen-db is a new resource gathering 23S rRNA sequences associated with their taxonomy. We have paid special attention to taxonomy by providing three different sources from spanning the PR2/SILVA, NCBI and AlgaeBase databases and with a full lineage from the kingdom/phylum levels to the species level, allowing an efficient taxonomic assignment. Nevertheless,  $\mu$  green-db is not a phylogenetic or taxonomic authority and provides only taxonomy data from various sources (PR2/SILVA, NCBI AlgaeBase) with and full lineage from the supergroup/kingdom/phylum levels to the species level, allowing a complete taxonomic assignment for bioinformatic analysis. One limitation of using the plastidial 23S rRNA gene in metabarcoding studies is that few seguences are available from public databases (e.g. GenBank, SILVA)51,54. This explains why it was necessary to retrieve our sequences using several strategies to obtain the most diverse database possible. In addition, to retrieve the sequences from various databases, we implemented a strategy of recursive BLAST with phylogenetic tree construction to improve our spectrum of organisms. Consequently, we were able to recover more than 1,500 sequences and to significantly increase the total number of sequences in our reference database.

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Regarding the taxonomic assignment of sequences from NCBI, we obtained contrasting results. Although there was an assignment for almost all sequences at the genus level, only 86% of the sequences were assigned at the phylum level and 42% at the class level. We also noticed that there could be diverging rankings between the PR2/SILVA, NCBI database and AlgaeBase databases. For example, for the cryptomonads group was, placed at the class level for NCBI and at the phylum level for AlgaeBase. The classification of this particular group remains widely debated and explains why we opted to propose both affiliations, allowing the user to decide. Indeed, until very recently, the consensus classification for the eukaryotes<sup>55</sup> did not use any ranks at all and the cryptomonads are thus listed just as 'Cryptophyceae' (not phylum/division Cryptophyceae or class Cryptophyceae) but should be classified now to order rank<sup>43</sup>. Another example is the Phaeophyceae group that is associated at the phylum level for NCBI and at the class level for AlgaeBase. As stated on their website, the NCBI taxonomy database is not an authoritative source for nomenclature or classification. For this reason, we recommend using the taxonomy from the AlgaeBase, because it provides manual curation, and offers a very complete bibliography for each taxon<sup>56</sup>.

Analysis of the environmental soil samples allowed validation of the power of µgreen-db to characterise the taxonomic composition of indigenous phototrophic microbial communities. We were able to assign 98.5% of the sequences at the phylum level and 96% at the genus level, highlighting the good coverage of the phototrophic diversity in the database. From a biological point of view, our results

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provided evidence for a strong impact of photoperiod illumination on the composition and diversity of the phototrophic microbial community.

Under long-term dark incubation, the dominant eukaryotic microalgae can be related to species having a mixotrophic strategy to remain active in the dark, and/or to species better able to overcome unfavorable lighting conditions through the switch to dormant forms and/or the production of resistant forms. A number of the algae taxa detected in the dark conditioned soil across the dominant phyla (Chlorophyta, Bacillariophyta and Ochrophyta) are able to modulate their metabolism from phototrophic to heterotrophic with assimilating assimilation of dissolved organic carbon depending on prevalent environmental conditions 57,58. Such trophic and flexible metabolic strategies are an important competitive advantage in soils, where light can rapidly become a limiting factor for obligate autotrophs<sup>59</sup> during photosynthetic growth, as reported in lakes<sup>60</sup>. In our study, the dominance of some eukaryotic classes of microalgae under continuous dark conditions stressed that they may be equally adapted to survive using obligate chemoheterotrophic metabolism. In contrast, Cyanobacteria with strict mixotrophic capacities may not be as able to grow efficiently using chemoheterotrophy under long periods of time<sup>61</sup>. Moreover, the relatively strong occurrence of certain species (e.g. Vaucheriaceae), currently not considered as mixotrophs<sup>62</sup> may result from an ability of these organisms to switch to a dormant stage during unfavorable conditions and produce resistantee forms (i.e. zygospore, akinetes, zoospores). Such forms of resistance or dispersal stages have been reported for a wide range of Cyanobacteria and eukaryotic algae<sup>63</sup>.

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During the photoperiod treatment, the strong development of numerous cyanobacterial taxa over-competing eukaryotic algae might also be explained partially by the high alkalinity of the studied soil (pH = 8.2). Alkaline soils are known to promote cyanobacteria over eukaryotic green algae<sup>64,65</sup>. Under our experimental conditions (optimum water content, temperature and light) cyanobacteria that have relatively faster growing strategies with shorter generation times than eukaryotic algae, may have been favoured over microalgae. This could potentially explain why the soil surface became overrun by cyanobacteria and contributed to the lower diversity indices observed under light conditions. The µgreen-db now paves the way for future studies investigating the community and functional ecology of photosynthetic organisms in soils.

In conclusion, our results demonstrate that µgreen-db represents a powerful tool to assign the plastidial 23S rRNA genes of photosynthetic eukaryotic algae and cyanobacteria in soil environments. Future improvements to the database will consist of setting up regular routines to enrich this open access database by adding new sequences but also and assimilating any changes in accession, by updating NCBI accession numbers and taxonomy from various sources. We also encourage the future community of users to engage with the curators of the database to report any errors found either in the database or on the website or via the website portal or directly by email to the corresponding author.

# Methods

# Retrieval of plastidial 23S rDNA sequences from public databases

We developed several strategies to recover the maximum number and diversity of sequences (Fig. 1). Plastidial 23S rRNA sequences in cyanobacteria, algae and bryophytes were retrieved from SILVA r123 (June 2016)<sup>45</sup>. We also retrieved 23S chloroplast sequences from various organisms (e.g. algae, bryophytes, angiosperms) from a Comparative RNA Web Site and Project led by the Gutell Lab at the University of Texas at Austin (www.rna.ccbb.utexas.edu/DAT/3C/Alignment/)66. Another set of sequences was also recovered from NCBI with the Gene (the list of different queries is available in the Supp data 1 file). We also used various BLAST (with a megablast approach and set the maximum target parameter of 1,000) to improve the sequence recovery. We first performed a BLAST with a 23S rRNA sequence from a close organism on plastid genomes. We then performed a second BLAST by taking a sequence guery in the nr/nt database and retrieved all the returned sequences. From these sequences, we performed recursively a phylogenetic tree in order to know what sequence was furthest away every time. We thereafter aligned the sequences using Muscle (Mega7)67 and reconstructed the phylogenetic tree using a maximumlikelihood method<sup>68</sup>. To improve the exhaustivity of µgreen-db, we performed another **BLAST** WGS NCBI against the database of (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/wgs/), selecting sequences with a score bit greater than 1000 and belonging to the targeted organisms, and performed a final BLAST from the sequences obtained against the 23S rRNA sequence file. Sequences corresponding to taxa not present in the 23S rRNA sequence file were then selected and added to the sequence dataset (based on less than 97% identity).

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#### Sequence verification

According to the origins of the sequences, we conducted a series of different filters in order to retain only plastid sequences (Fig. 1). Regarding the sequences originating from SILVA, we only kept sequences with a length higher than 700 bp and a quality ≥75 %. For the sequences recovered from other databases, we also carried out a verification of the secondary structure, with the INFERNAL tool<sup>69</sup>. Finally we checked the non-redundancy of the sequences to retain only unique sequences. For each sequence found in both SILVA and BLAST databases, we checked whether the sequence was included in the 'BLAST' sequence (i.e. at the identity level). If it was not the case, we aligned them and kept the least fragmented sequence. We also removed the sequences assigned to Angiosperms from the CRW database. High length sequences (more than 5,000 bp) were also deleted.

## Taxonomic validation – The taxonomic framework of µgreen-db

The NCBI and AlgaeBase taxonomy were both retrieved to provide users the choice for further analyses (Fig. 1). To obtain a standardized taxonomy in the form of phylum, class, order, family, genus and species, we recovered the *taxonID* from the accession number of NCBI (<a href="ftp://ftp.ncbi.nih.gov/pub/taxonomy/accession2taxid/">ftp://ftp.ncbi.nih.gov/pub/taxonomy/accession2taxid/</a>) and used the *taxonkit* tool (<a href="http://github.com/shenwei356/taxonkit">http://github.com/shenwei356/taxonkit</a>) to retrieve the full lineage. The AlgaeBase taxonomy was also used to obtain more information at the kingdom level. Where no rank information was available, we ascribed the abbreviation rank followed by two underscores plus Unnamed\_rank (e.g. p. Unnamed\_rank). As non-vascular land plants are not represented in AlgaeBase,

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we assigned the Plantae Kingdom from the NCBI taxonomy to these sequences and made modifications at the phylum level. All these sequences were assigned to the phylum Streptophyta from the NCBI taxonomy. However as Streptophyta is an Infrakingdom subdivised into three phyla in AlgaeBase, we have assigned Bryopsida, Polytrichopsida, Sphagnopsida, Tetraphidopsida, Takakiopsida, Andreaeobryopsida, Andreaeopsida, Oedipodiopsida classes the Bryophyta phylum; to Jungermanniopsida, Marchantiopsida, Haplomitriopsida classes to the Marchantiophyta phylum, and Anthocerotopsida and Leiosporocerotopsida classes to the Anthocerotophyta phylum. To format at the PR2/SILVA taxonomy, the full lineage are constructed with the genus name from NCBI by searching into the PR2 database (https://github.com/pr2database/pr2database) and SILVA (https://www.arb-silva.de/no\_cache/download/archive/current/Exports/taxonomy/).

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## Databases finalisation - Construction of the µgreen-db database

The database is available in two forms: from tabular flat files, and from a website

(http://microgreen-23sdatabase.ea.inra.fr) (Fig. 1). The tabular flat files were

formatted with a custom homemade script. The web interface was built using Bulma

(https://bulma.io), a modern and open source CSS framework based on Flexbox with

a custom template. The website uses PHP (v7.2.7) to communicate with the MySQL

database, providing back-end storage of sequences and taxonomy by using queries

and Javascript to make it more dynamic and user-friendly. We have estimated the

hypothetical coverage of primers conventionally used to study the diversity of

410 algae<sup>38,51</sup> by performing an *in silico* PCR amplification.

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### Metabarcoding validation

Soil sampling, experimental design

Soil samples were taken from the top 10 cm of a luvisol with a decarbonated sandy A horizon (pH = 8.2, C<sub>org</sub> = 11.5 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, N<sub>tot</sub> = 0.83 g kg<sup>-1</sup>) located in the north of Paris used for conventional cropping, with a wheat/maize rotation. Soil was sampled and incubated either under a 16 h light/24h photoperiod or continuous dark conditions, as described previously<sup>70</sup> to obtain contrasted phototrophic microbial communities. Briefly, after sieving at 5 mm and homogenizing the soil, 6 microcosms were set up by placing 400 g of fresh soil weighed at 80% of its water holding capacity in 0.825 dm3 glass jars. Three microcosms were coated with aluminium foil to prevent the development of phototrophic organisms (dark condition), and three microcosms were conditioned under a day/night cycle (light condition) consisting of a 16 h light/24h photoperiod using LED lighting with an intensity of about 200 µmol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> in the visible range to promote the growth of the native phototrophic organisms. After 40 days of incubation at 20°C with regular monitoring of soil moisture, a soil aliquot was sampled from each of the six microcosms and stored at -40°C before DNA extraction. Soil microbial DNA extraction, 23S rRNA gene amplification and Illumina sequencing Microbial DNA was extracted and purified from 1 g of each soil sampled, using the GnSGII procedure described previously<sup>71</sup>. Crude DNA extracts were quantified by agarose gel electrophoresis before being purified using a GENECLEAN turbo kit 433 (MpBiomedical) and quantified using a QuantiFluor staining kit (Promega) prior to 434 further investigation.

A 23S rRNA gene fragment targeting the V5 domain to characterise algae diversity was amplified using primers p23SrV f1 (5'GGACAGAAAGACCCTATGAA3') and p23SrV\_r1 (5'TCAGCCTGTTATCCCTAGAG3')38. Amplifications were carried out in a total volume of 25 µl using 5 µl of DNA (10 ng), 10 µl of buffer solution 10x with 20 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub> (Promega), 0.4 µl of dNTPs (25 mM, DNTPack 250U Roche), 2 µl (10 µM, Eurogentec) of each primer, 0.5 µl of Taq polymerase (5U/µl Taq PFU, Promega), 1.25 µl of T4 gene 32 (500 µg/mL, MP Biomedical) and 11.35 µl of water. PCR1 conditions were: 2 min at 94°C, followed by 35 cycles of 45 s at 94°C, 45 s at 63°C, and 1 min at 72°C, and final elongation for 10 min at 72°C. The PCR products were then purified using a MinElute PCR purification kit (Qiagen) and quantified using a QuantiFluor staining kit (Promega). A second PCR of seven cycles was then duplicated for each sample under similar PCR conditions, with purified PCR products as matrix (10 ng of DNA was used for a 25 µl mix of PCR) and dedicated fusion primers ('p23SrV\_f1/MID,' 'p23SrV\_r1/MID) integrating the required keys, and multiplex identifiers at the 5' extremities. All duplicated PCR products were then pooled, purified using a MinElute PCR purification kit (Qiagen), and quantified using a QuantiFluor staining kit (Promega). For all libraries, equal amounts from 29 samples were pooled and then cleaned to remove excess nucleotides, salts, and enzymes using the Agencourt AMPure XP system (Beckman Coulter Genomics). TE buffer

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455 (100 μl) (Roche) was used for the elution. Sequencing was then carried out on an
 456 Illumina MiSeq (GenoScreen, France).

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Bioinformatics sequence analysis

To perform the raw data analysis of the 23S plastid rDNA amplicons generated from the soil samples, used the **GnS-PIPE** pipeline (availability: https://zenodo.org/record/1123425#.W82vmDVR2OE)72. The different steps have already been described previously73. After preprocessing filtering and chimera checking, all samples were normalized at 31.650 sequences. The taxonomic affiliation was performed using the µgreen-db and the USEARCH program (v6.0.307; www.drive5.com/usearch) with specific parameters (-maxhits 15, -maxaccepts 0, and maxrejects 0). The microbial DNA sequence data sets supporting the results in this article are available at the EBI ENA with accession PRJEB30252.

To access the putative number of amplifications and the coverage of the different taxons, we achieved *in silico* PCR from μgreen-db we used the mothur software (v.1.40.5) with the *pcr.seqs* command and allowed zero mismatches between each of the primer pairs. Graphic representations were produced using custom scripts based on Highcharts facilities (<a href="http://www.highcharts.com/">http://www.highcharts.com/</a>).

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481	
482	Author contributions
483	PAM and ST and OC designed the study; JS, LW, OC and JO performed the soil
484	study and provided the environmental 23S rRNA datasets; CD, DP, ST and SM
485	performed bioinformatics; CD, ST, OC and PAM wrote the first draft of the
486	manuscript. All authors contributed to the final editing.
487	
488	Data accessibility
489	μgreen-db is available in flat files at url: <a href="http://microgreen-23sdatabase.ea.inra.fr">http://microgreen-23sdatabase.ea.inra.fr</a> and
490	Zenodo repository (https://zenodo.org/record/3385760#.XW-NptPVLUI).
491	The microbial DNA sequencing data sets supporting the results in this article are
492	available at the EBI ENA with accession number PRJEB30252.
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Code de champ modifié

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#### 713 Figures legends

- 714 Figure 1: Workflow describing the different steps performed to generate the curated
- 715 and annotated 23S rDNA reference database constructed from various databases
- 716 and methods.

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- Figure 2: Pie chart and histograms showing (A) the origin and number, and (B) the
- 718 length of the plastidial 23S rDNA sequences available in the database.
- 719 Figure 3: Taxonomic coverage at different ranks from the PR2/SILVA, NCBI and
- 720 AlgaeBase taxonomy.
- 721 <u>Figure 4:</u> Sequence distribution of the µgreen-db database at the Phylum level and
- 722 grouped by Kingdom or supergroups. (A) Based on NCBI taxonomy according to Adl
- et al. (2012)<sup>55</sup> for the group classification, (B) Based on AlgaeBase taxonomy, (C)
- 724 Based on PR<sup>2</sup> and SILVA taxonomy.

725 <u>Figure 5:</u> Relative sequence abundance of algae and cyanobacteria at Phylum (A) 726 and Genus (B) level.

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### **Additional Information**

## 729 Supplementary information

- Supp data File 1: List of commands used to retrieve, filter and construct the μgreen db.
- Supp data Figure 1: Number of sequences amplified by in silico PCR from µgreen db based on AlgaeBase taxonomy and using different primer pairs from literature with
   0 mismatch.
- 735 <u>Supplementary Table 1:</u> Indexes of diversity of the soil photosynthetic microbial communities according to the lightning treatment.
- 737 Supplementary Table 2: Occurence (A) and relative abundance (B) of the main phyla
- 738 of soil photosynthetic microorganisms according to lightning treatment.
- 739 Supplementary Table 3: Occurence (A) and relative abundance (B) of the main
- genera of soil photosynthetic microorganisms according to lightning treatment.
- 741 <u>Supplementary Table 4:</u> Identification of phyla shared between different soil samples.
- 742 <u>Supplementary Table 5:</u> Identification of genera shared between different soil

743 samples.744

745 **Competing interests:** The Authors declare no competing interests