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Tardigrade community microbiomes in North American orchards include putative endosymbionts and plant pathogens
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Abstract
The microbiome of tardigrades, a phylum of microscopic animals best known for their ability to survive extreme conditions, is poorly studied worldwide and completely unknown in North America. An improved understanding of tardigrade-associated bacteria is particularly important because tardigrades have been shown to act as vectors of the plant pathogen <i>Xanthomonas campestris</i> in the laboratory. However, the potential role of tardigrades as reservoirs and vectors of phytopathogens has not been investigated further. This study analyzed the microbiota of tardigrades from six apple orchards in central Iowa, USA, and is the first analysis of the microbiota of North American tardigrades. It is also the first ever study of the tardigrade microbiome in an agricultural setting. We utilized 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing to characterize the tardigrade community microbiome across four contrasts: location, substrate type (moss or lichen), collection year, and tardigrades versus their substrate. Alpha diversity of the tardigrade community microbiome differed significantly by location and year of collection but not by substrate type. Our work also corroborated earlier findings, demonstrating that tardigrades harbor a distinct microbiota from their environment. We also identified tardigrade-associated taxa that belong to genera known to contain phytopathogens ( <i>Pseudomonas, Ralstonia</i> , and the <i>Pantoea/Erwinia</i> complex). Finally, we observed members of the genera <i>Rickettsia</i> and <i>Wolbachia</i> in the tardigrade microbiome; because these are obligate intracellular genera, we consider these taxa to be putative endosymbionts of tardigrades. These results suggest the presence of putative endosymbionts and phytopathogens in the microbiota of wild tardigrades in North America.

### 35 **1** Introduction

36 Tardigrades are a poorly-studied but globally ubiquitous phylum of microscopic animals. 37 They are members of the superphylum Ecdysozoa, a group that also includes arthropods and nematodes. All tardigrades are aquatic; however, while some live in bodies of fresh or salt water, 38 39 they are most commonly collected from moss or lichen, where they live in interstitial films of 40 water. When this water dries up, tardigrades survive by dehydrating and entering a state of 41 dramatically reduced metabolism known as cryptobiosis (Kinchin 1994). In this state, they are famously able to survive extreme conditions, ranging from temperatures near absolute zero 42 43 (Becquerel 1950) to the vacuum of space (Jönsson et al. 2008). Despite extensive study of 44 tardigrades' survival abilities, little is known about many aspects of their biology, including their microbiota (Vecchi et al. 2018). This is particularly important because tardigrades' presence in 45 moss and lichen, which often grow on tree bark, brings them into close contact with trees, 46 47 including important orchard crops such as apple trees (Malus domestica L. Borkh). Therefore, any plant pathogens present in the tardigrade microbiota have the potential to affect these crops, 48 49 underscoring the importance of understanding the tardigrade microbiota in an agricultural 50 context. The first study of tardigrade-associated bacteria, published in 1999, found that bacteria of 51 52 the phytopathogenic genus Xanthomonas could be grown from the feces of the tardigrade 53 Macrobiotus hufelandi C.A.S. Schultze, 1834 isolated from the wild. However, attempts to 54 inoculate Mac. hufelandi with Serratia marcescens were unsuccessful, suggesting a non-random 55 relationship between Mac. hufelandi and Xanthomonas (Krantz, Benoit, and Beasley 1999). The following year, a second paper showed that Mac. hufelandi exposed to infected leaves could 56 57 spread X. campestris py. raphani (the causal pathogen of radish leaf spot disease) to healthy radish seedlings in the laboratory. This demonstrated that Mac. hufelandi can act as a vector of 58 59 radish leaf spot disease (Benoit et al. 2000). Animal vectors are known to spread many plant diseases, with major consequences for 60 crop production worldwide (Ng and Falk 2006; Mew 1993; Duveiller, Bragard, and Marite 61 1997). Current research focuses on insect vectors (Ng and Falk 2006), but the work of Krantz et 62 al. and Benoit et al. demonstrate that at least one tardigrade species (*Mac. hufelandi*) can spread 63 bacterial disease in plants (Benoit et al. 2000) and can act as reservoirs of plant pathogens 64 (Krantz, Benoit, and Beasley 1999). Because Mac. hufelandi and many other tardigrade species 65 live in close contact with plants, bacteria deposited in their feces may infect these plants, 66 especially as other Ecdysozoans are known to spread phytopathogens in this manner (Dutta et al. 67 2014; Stavrinides, McCloskey, and Ochman 2009). Tardigrades also have the potential to spread 68 phytopathogenic bacteria over large areas because many tardigrade species are cosmopolitan 69 (Meyer 2013) and may be dispersed by wind or migratory birds (Mogle et al. 2018). 70 71 The genus Xanthomonas found in association with Mac. hufelandi includes pathovars that infect staple food crops including rice (Oryza sativa L.) (Mew 1993), wheat (Triticum aestivum 72 73 L.) (Duveiller, Bragard, and Marite 1997), and maize (Zea mays L.) (Karamura et al. 2007) with

74 potentially devastating effects. For example, bacterial blight (*X. oryzae* pv. *oryzae*) can cause

yield losses of up to 50% in rice infected as seedlings, impacting both economies and food

security (Mew 1993). Yet, although tardigrades are known vectors of this important genus, there

has been no additional literature published on phytopathogens associated with tardigrades in thepast two decades.

79 Recent studies of the tardigrade microbiome, while not focusing on phytopathogens, have leveraged advances in sequencing technology by using 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing. 80 Vecchi et al. surveyed the microbial communities associated with six tardigrade species: 81 82 Acutuncus antarcticus (Richters, 1904) collected from freshwater sediment in Antarctica, after which a subsample was raised in laboratory culture; Ramazzottius oberhaeuseri (Doyère, 1840), 83 collected from lichen on two different trees in Italy; Macrobiotus macrocalix Bertolani & 84 Rebecchi, 1993 and Richtersius coronifer (Richters, 1903), both collected from the same moss 85 on a rock in Sweden; and Echiniscus trisetosus Cuénot, 1932, and Paramacrobiotus areolatus 86 (Murray, 1907), both collected from the same moss on a rock in Italy. The authors found that the 87 tardigrade microbiome is dominated by Proteobacteria and Bacteroidetes, is distinct from and 88 usually less diverse than that of their substrates, differs among tardigrade species, and is altered 89 by laboratory culturing of the tardigrades. Vecchi et al. also identified potential endosymbionts 90 of the obligate intracellular order *Rickettsiales* within the tardigrade microbiome (2018). This is 91 92 particularly intriguing because the genera Wolbachia and Rickettsia, both members of *Rickettsiales*, are known to have reproductive effects on their hosts, including inducing 93 parthenogenesis (Giorgini et al. 2010; Werren, Baldo, and Clark 2008). Notably, parthenogenesis 94 95 is common in tardigrades (Bertolani 2001; Guil et al. 2022). A subsequent analysis of these data identified four putative endosymbionts in the order Rickettsiales, three of which belonged to 96 Anaplasmataceae and one to Ca. Tenuibacteraceae. These were differentially associated with 97 different tardigrade species, and fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) detected bacteria 98 99 within the ovaries of some tardigrades, suggesting that tardigrade endosymbionts are vertically 100 transmitted (Roberto Guidetti et al. 2020). A second study surveyed the microbiota of a newly-described tardigrade species, 101

Paramacrobiotus experimentalis Kaczmarek, Mioduchowska, Poprawa & Roszkowska, 2020, 102 collected from two samples of moss growing on soil in Madagascar and subsequently raised in 103 laboratory culture for two years before DNA extraction (Kaczmarek et al. 2020). This study 104 105 again identified differences between the tardigrades' microbiome and that of their environment 106 and detected evidence of putative endosymbionts of the intracellular groups Rickettsiales and 107 Polynucleobacter. Proteobacteria and Firmicutes were the dominant phyla in Pam. 108 experimentalis, and 31 operational taxonomic units (OTUs) shared across tardigrade samples 109 were identified as potential core microbiome members for this tardigrade species (Kaczmarek et 110 al. 2020).

111 A third paper conducted 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing on four tardigrade species: Hypsibius exemplaris Gasiorek, Stec, Morek & Michalczyk, 2018, collected from rotting leaves 112 113 in a pond in the United Kingdom; Macrobiotus polypiformis Roszkowska, Ostrowska, Stec, Janko & Kaczmarek, 2017, collected from moss on a wall in Ecuador; Paramacrobiotus 114 fairbanksi Schill, Förster, Dandekar & Wolf, 2010, collected from moss in Antarctica; and 115 116 Paramacrobiotus sp. Guidetti, Schill, Bertolani, Dandekar & Wolf, 2009, collected from moss on a wall, soil, and railroad tracks at two locations in Poland. Of these, all but Pam. fairbanksi 117 were subsequently cultured prior to DNA extraction. This study identified Proteobacteria, 118 Firmicutes, and Actinobacteria as the most abundant phyla in the studied tardigrades, but 119

primarily focused on putative endosymbionts of tardigrades, specifically OTUs assigned to

121 *Rickettsiales* and *Wolbachia*. Members of *Wolbachia* were detected in adult *Pam*. sp. and *Mac*.

122 *polypiformis*, and *Rickettsiales* were detected in eggs of *Pam. Fairbanksi* as well as adult *Mac.* 

123 polypiformis and Pam. sp. Neither Rickettsiales nor Wolbachia were detected in Hys. exemplaris

124 or the adult *Pam. fairbanksi* (Mioduchowska et al. 2021).

125 Most recently, Zawierucha et al. sequenced 16S rRNA, ITS1, and 18S rRNA genes to identify bacteria, fungi, and microeukaryotes, respectively, associated with the glacial tardigrade 126 Cryobiotus klebelsbergi (Mihelčič, 1959). C. klebelsbergi were collected from cryoconite on the 127 surface of Forni Glacier in Italy; DNA was extracted from four samples immediately and from 128 129 another three after starving for three weeks. The authors found that relative richness of bacteria, fungi, and microeukaryotes was highest in cryoconite, followed by fed tardigrades and finally 130 starved tardigrades. *Polaromonas* sp. was the most abundant bacterium in both fed and starved 131 132 C. klebelsbergi, while Pseudomonas sp. and Ferruginibacter sp. were the second most abundant bacteria in fed and starved tardigrades, respectively. 133

16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing has allowed major advances in understanding of 134 135 the tardigrade microbiota. However, contamination is an ongoing issue in microbiome studies, especially in low microbial biomass samples such as tardigrades where contaminants can make 136 up a relatively large proportion of all sequence reads and therefore have a disproportionately 137 large impact on results. A minimum standard developed for such studies is the RIDE checklist, 138 which advises researchers to report the methodology used to reduce and assess contamination, to 139 include three types of negative controls (sampling blank, DNA extraction blank, and no-template 140 amplification controls), to determine contamination level by comparing these negative controls 141 142 to the samples, and to explore contaminants' impact on results (Eisenhofer et al. 2019). However, while recommended laboratory practices can reduce contamination, they cannot 143 eliminate it. Therefore, *in silico* approaches have been developed to better accomplish the last 144 145 two steps of the RIDE checklist. For example, the program decontam identifies contaminants based on presence in negative controls and higher frequencies in low-concentration samples. It 146 then removes them from further analysis, dramatically improving the accuracy of results (Davis 147 148 et al. 2018; Karstens et al. 2019). In this work, we followed the RIDE checklist and utilized

decontam for *in silico* contaminant removal.

150 This study represents the first survey of tardigrade microbiota in North America, as well 151 as the first such survey in an agricultural setting (apple orchards). Rather than focusing on the 152 microbiome of individual tardigrade species, this work is the first to study the microbiome of a 153 full community of tardigrades, hereafter referred to as the tardigrade community microbiome. It 154 is also only the fifth survey of the tardigrade microbiome ever conducted and leverages 155 contamination mitigation methods not used in the previous studies. In addition to identifying 156 putative plant pathogens and endosymbionts associated with tardigrade communities in apple 157 orchards, this study examines whether the tardigrade microbiome differs in four contrasts: (1) across locations, (2) between substrates (moss vs. lichen), (3) between tardigrades and their 158 159 substrates, and (4) across years.

4

### 160 2 Materials and Methods

## 161 2.1 Moss and Lichen Sample Collection

In summer 2019, lichen samples were collected from apple trees growing in six orchards 162 (Locations 1-6) in Hardin and Franklin counties in north-central Iowa, USA (Fig. S1). One of 163 these (Location 1) had previously been surveyed for tardigrades (Tibbs-Cortes, Tibbs-Cortes, 164 and Miller 2020). One sample of lichen was collected from each tree, and three to five trees were 165 sampled at each location. Moss was also present on the sampled apple trees at Location 2, so a 166 167 moss sample was collected from three of these trees. In June 2020, additional lichen samples were taken from the trees at Location 1 to enable comparison across years. All moss and lichen 168 samples were placed in individual brown paper bags, which were stored in a cool, dry room to 169 170 allow the samples to dehydrate. From each of the 2020 lichen samples, five subsamples of 0.25 g were placed in sterile 1.5 mL tubes and frozen at -20 °C for substrate DNA extraction. Table 1 171

172 shows a summary of collected samples.

### 173 2.2 Aseptic Technique

174 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing studies focusing on low-biomass samples are prone 175 to biases from external contamination during sample processing, DNA extraction, library 176 preparation, and sequencing. Therefore, all subsequent tardigrade isolation and DNA extraction 177 steps were carried out using barrier pipette tips (Axygen) and in a sterile work area dedicated to 178 the project. A Bunsen burner was used to create a sterile field for all tardigrade isolations and 179 DNA extractions.

### 180 2.3 Tardigrade Extraction

To extract tardigrades, each moss or lichen sample was soaked in glass-distilled water for
a minimum of four hours. Subsamples of this water were then examined under a dissecting
microscope, and tardigrades were extracted with Irwin loops (Schram and Davison 2012; Miller
1997). The Irwin loop was disinfected by a flame between each collected tardigrade.

Next, isolated tardigrades were washed by immersion in droplets of PCR-grade water
treated with diethyl pyrocarbonate (DEPC). Tardigrades were then transferred to a fresh drop of
DEPC-treated water. This washing process was repeated for a total of three washes, and Irwin
loops were sterilized between each wash. Three to six replicates of 30 tardigrades each were
collected from each substrate sample (identified by replicate codes shown in Table 1) and were
then stored in DEPC-treated water at -20 °C.

## 191 2.4 DNA extraction and sequencing

The DNeasy PowerLyzer PowerSoil Kit (Qiagen) was utilized for DNA extraction. Substrate samples were first ground with a sterilized pestle before being transferred to the bead tubes, while tardigrades were directly transferred to bead tubes. Bead tubes were then transferred to a Bead Mill 24 homogenizer (Fisher Scientific). Tardigrades were homogenized using a single 30 second cycle at 5.00 speed, and substrate samples were homogenized using three 30 second cycles with 10 seconds between cycles at 5.50 speed. Homogenized bead tubes were then 198 centrifuged at 10,000 x g (30 seconds for tardigrades and 3 minutes for substrate) before

199 proceeding according to the manufacturer's instructions; the optional 5 minute incubation at 2 -

 $8^{\circ}$ C was performed during steps 7 and 9. Following elution of DNA with 90  $\mu$ L of elution buffer,

201 DNA quality and concentration of a 1  $\mu$ L sample was measured using a NanoDrop spectrometer.

Extracted DNA was stored at  $-20^{\circ}$ C.

DNA was loaded onto sterile 96 well plates for library preparation and sequencing. In addition to the tardigrade and substrate samples, three types of controls were included to account

for contamination. Six tardigrade processing controls (TPC, equivalent to RIDE sampling blank
 controls) were created by applying the tardigrade extraction and subsequent DNA extraction

- protocols to blank samples. Ten DNA processing controls (DPC, equivalent to RIDE DNA
- extraction blank controls) were created by conducting DNA extraction on  $100 \,\mu$ L of DEPC-
- treated water. Finally, ten wells were loaded with DEPC-treated water to form the library
- 210 processing controls (LPC, equivalent to RIDE no-template amplification controls). Controls and
- samples were then submitted for library prep and 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing targeting
- the V4 region at the Iowa State University DNA facility. Library preparation was conducted
- following the Earth Microbiome Project 16S Illumina amplicon protocol
- 214 (<u>https://earthmicrobiome.org/protocols-and-standards/16s/</u>) with the following modifications: (1)
- a single amplification was conducted for each sample rather than in triplicate, (2) PCR

216 purification was conducted using the QIAquick PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen), and (3) all

- reactions and purification steps were conducted at half volume using a Mantis liquid handler
- 218 (Formulamatrix) which was cleaned with isopropanol prior to library preparation. Libraries were
- loaded onto the MiSeq platform at a concentration of ~ 4pM, and paired-end sequencing was
- conducted at 500 cycles.

# 221 **2.5 Data Analysis**

Following sequencing, three paired end samples representing replicates L6\_19\_Tr2\_li2, L6\_19\_Tr4\_li1, and L5\_19\_Tr3\_li3 (Table 1) were removed from the dataset due to poor

quality. Raw reads were processed with mothur version 1.43.0. Sequences were screened to

remove reads that contained any ambiguities, were shorter than 252 bases, and had

homopolymeric sequences greater than eight bases. In total, 1,157,089 reads were removed from

the raw dataset of 7,805,248 reads. Screened reads were then aligned against the SILVA

alignment version 138, and reads which aligned outside the region covered by 95% of the

alignment were removed. The SILVA database was also used to remove 145,663 chimeric

sequences and to classify remaining sequences. *De novo* OTU clustering was then conducted at a
99% similarity threshold.

R version 4.0.3 running packages decontam (Davis et al. 2018), phyloseq (McMurdie and 232 Holmes 2013), and corncob (Martin, Witten, and Willis 2020), as well as a more efficient 233 implementation of DivNet known as divnet-rs (https://github.com/mooreryan/divnet-rs) running 234 in Rust, were used for subsequent analyses. Using decontam, contaminant OTUs were identified 235 and removed based on their relative prevalence in control vs. true samples (prevalence method, 236 threshold 0.25) (Davis et al. 2018). Next, OTUs with fewer than 10 reads in experimental 237 238 samples were removed. From these data, alpha diversity parameters (Shannon and Simpson) 239 were calculated using DivNet and divnet-rs (Willis and Martin 2020). Relative abundance,

240 differential abundance, and differential variability of taxa were calculated in corncob using a

beta-binomial model (Martin, Witten, and Willis 2020). Differences were declared significant

when False Discovery Rate (FDR)-corrected *P* values (Benjamini and Hochberg 1995) were less

than 0.05. Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA) was conducted in phyloseq using the default

244 Bray-Curtis distance.

# 245 **2.6** Identification of unclassified putative plant pathogens and endosymbionts

246 In the cases where OTUs of interest were not classified by mothur to the genus level, 247 BLAST and RDP Classifier (Camacho et al. 2009; Wang et al. 2007) results were used to 248 provide additional information about taxonomic classification. First, the mothur command 249 "get.oturep" was used to generate a FASTA file containing the representative sequence for each OTU; OTUs with fewer than 10 reads in experimental samples were removed. BLAST analysis 250 251 was performed using BLAST+ v2.11.0. The NCBI 16S RefSeq collection (representing 22,061 252 taxa) (O'Leary et al. 2016) was downloaded and converted into a BLAST database using the "makeblastdb" command. The "blastn" command was then run against this database using the 253 254 representative sequence FASTA as the query. Results with the 15 lowest E-values were kept for 255 each OTU. The representative sequence FASTA was also entered into the RDP Classifier web tool version 2.11 using 16S rRNA training set 18 256

(<u>https://rdp.cme.msu.edu/classifier/classifier.jsp</u>), and the assignment detail for all OTUs was
 downloaded.

259 2.7 Data and Code Availability

Raw sequencing files are deposited at the Sequence Read Archive. Mothur output and code used for analysis is available at <u>https://github.com/LTibbs/tardigrade\_microbiome</u>.

# 262 **3 Results**

In total, 118 DNA samples and 26 controls were sequenced. The DNA samples consisted 263 of 20 from lichen as well as 89 and 9 from tardigrades extracted from lichen and moss, 264 respectively, collected from a total of 23 different apple trees in six Iowa orchards. The controls 265 consisted of 6 TPCs, 10 DPCs, and 10 LPCs. From these sequences, 248,493 OTUs were 266 identified by mothur. The decontam package identified and removed 986 OTUs as contaminants. 267 Of the remaining OTUs, 235,652 were removed because they were represented by fewer than ten 268 reads in the experimental samples, leaving 11,855 OTUs for further analysis. 269 270 Mothur classification and decontam scores for all OTUs with more than 10 reads in

experimental samples are shown in Table S1. BLAST results and RDP Classifier results for these
OTUs can be found in Tables S2 and S3, respectively. Relative abundance of OTUs by sample

- and by contrast are provided in Table S4 and Tables S5-S8, respectively; significantly
- differentially abundant and variable phyla, genera, and OTUs across contrast levels are presented
- in Table S9. Overall, the five most abundant phyla were *Proteobacteria*, *Bacteroidota*,
- 276 Actinobacteriota, Firmicutes, and Acidobacteriota (Fig. S2), while the three most abundant
- 277 genera were *Pseudomonas*, *Bradyrhizobium*, and an unclassified *Enterobacteriaceae* (Fig. S3).
- From the PCoA of all samples, the first principal coordinate clearly separates substrate samples

from tardigrade samples, while the second coordinate tends to separate the 2020 from the 2019

samples. Samples from different locations and from moss and lichen are not clearly separated by

the first two coordinates (Fig. S4).

# 282 **3.1 Contrast 1: Location**

The tardigrade community microbiome differed significantly across locations, as shown

- by the Simpson and Shannon indices, which differed significantly in most pairwise comparisons of locations (Table 2). Across locations, 13 phyla and 44 genera were both significantly
- differentially abundant and significantly differentially variable. Sixteen OTUs were significantly
- differentially abundant only, four OTUs were significantly differentially variable only, and three
- OTUs were both significantly differentially abundant and variable (Table S9). These identified
- differential taxa included the aforementioned top five phyla (Proteobacteria, Bacteroidota,
- 290 Actinobacteriota, Firmicutes, and Acidobacteriota) and top three genera (Pseudomonas,
- 291 Bradyrhizobium, and unclassified Enterobacteriaceae) from the experiment as a whole. Despite
- these differences, the locations clustered together in the PCoA (Fig. 1).

# 293 3.2 Contrast 2: Moss vs. Lichen

294 The community microbiome of tardigrades extracted from moss did not differ 295 significantly in alpha diversity from that of tardigrades extracted from lichen as measured by the Shannon and Simpson indices (Table 2). PCoA further demonstrates that the overall microbial 296 297 community did not differ by substrate type (Fig. 1). However, between tardigrades collected 298 from moss and those from lichen, five phyla and 11 genera were both significantly differentially 299 abundant and significantly differentially variable, while three OTUs were significantly 300 differentially abundant only (Table S9). These included the common phyla Firmicutes and 301 Bacteroidota; of these, Firmicutes were more abundant in moss-associated and Bacteroidota in 302 lichen-associated tardigrades (Table S10, Fig. 2).

303

# **304 3.3 Contrast 3: Tardigrades vs. Substrate**

The microbiota of tardigrades was significantly less diverse than that of their lichen 305 substrate, as measured by both Shannon and Simpson indices (Table 2); the tardigrade and 306 307 substrate samples also formed distinct clusters as shown by PCoA (Fig. 1). Between tardigrades and their substrate, 17 phyla, 181 genera, and 101 OTUs were significantly differentially 308 abundant and variable, while 308 OTUs were significantly differentially abundant only and 124 309 OTUs were significantly differentially variable only (Table S9). These differential taxa included 310 four of the top five phyla (all except Proteobacteria) and all three of the three most abundant 311 genera from the experiment as a whole. Remarkably, the relative abundance of Firmicutes was 312 313 nearly a thousand times higher in the tardigrades (20.5%) than in their substrate (0.021%) (Table 314 S10, Fig. 2).

315

### 316 **3.4 Contrast 4: Year**

317 From 2019 to 2020, the tardigrade community microbiome increased in diversity as 318 measured by the Simpson index, though no significant difference was found between the Shannon indices (Table 2). The two years also formed mostly distinct clusters in the PCoA (Fig. 319 320 1). Between the two years, 44 genera and one OTU were significantly differentially variable and abundant, while two phyla and 26 OTUs were significantly differentially abundant only (Table 321 322 S9). These differential taxa included two of the five most common phyla (Proteobacteria and 323 Actinobacteriota) and two of the three most common genera (Pseudomonas and unclassified 324 Enterobacteriaceae). The unclassified Enterobacteriaceae had a particularly large change in 325 relative abundance, decreasing more than 160-fold from 10.1% in 2019 to 0.062% in 2020 326 (Table S11, Fig. 3).

327 **4 Discussion** 

## 328 4.1 Tardigrade Community

This study examined the microbiota of the full tardigrade community from a particular 329 substrate sample, in contrast to previous surveys that studied isolated species, often from 330 laboratory cultures (Vecchi et al. 2018; Kaczmarek et al. 2020; Mioduchowska et al. 2021; 331 332 Zawierucha et al. 2022). It is of course desirable to identify species-specific microbiota, as Vecchi et al. (2018) found that tardigrade-associated bacteria varied among tardigrade species. 333 334 However, while it is occasionally possible in samples containing only a few tardigrade species to extract members of each for study (Vecchi et al. 2018), many environmental samples contain 335 numerous species, including cryptic species that may be difficult or impossible to distinguish 336 337 without molecular, life cycle, or other data (Roberto Guidetti et al. 2016; Cesari et al. 2013). For example, in the current survey, at least three tardigrade genera (Milnesium, Ramazzottius, and 338 339 Paramacrobiotus) were observed, but all would require additional morphometric or egg 340 observations to identify to species level (Michalczyk et al. 2012; R. Guidetti et al. 2009; Kinchin 1996; Binda 1987). Consequently, laboratory culturing is usually required for identification of 341 342 tardigrade species, but Vecchi et al. (2018) found that culturing significantly affects the 343 tardigrade microbiome. Therefore, the current study has the unique advantage of better reflecting 344 the tardigrade community microbiome in its natural state compared to studies that focus on cultured tardigrades. 345 While tardigrade species were not identified in this study, a December 2015 collection 346 effort at Location 1 provides information on tardigrade diversity in the area. From lichen 347

348 growing on some of the same apple trees used in the current study, the previous study identified

349 *Milnesium* cf. *barbadosense* Meyer and Hinton 2012; *Mil. burgessi* Schlabach, Donaldson,

- Hobelman, Miller, and Lowman, 2018; *Mil. swansoni* Young, Chappell, Miller, and Lowman,
- 2016; and *Pam. (A.) tonollii* (Ramazzotti, 1956), as well as members of *Milnesium* Doyère,

1840; Ramazzottius Binda and Pilato, 1986; Paramacrobiotus Guidetti, Schill, Bertolani,

353 Dandekar and Wolf, 2009; and Macrobiotidae Thulin, 1928 not identifiable to species (Tibbs-

- Cortes, Tibbs-Cortes, and Miller 2020). While tardigrade communities are dynamic across both
- time (Schuster and Greven 2007, 2013) and space (Meyer 2008, 2006), the dominant species

present in tardigrade communities in a given area can remain remarkably stable across years
(Schuster and Greven 2007; Nelson and McGlothlin 1996). This suggests that species

- information from the 2015 survey may be relevant to the current study.
- 359

# 360 4.2 Reducing Effects of Contamination

361 All tardigrade microbiome surveys, including the current study, employed laboratory technique to reduce contamination by washing the tardigrades in sterile water before DNA 362 363 extraction (Vecchi et al. 2018; Mioduchowska et al. 2021; Kaczmarek et al. 2020; Zawierucha et al. 2022). Working in a sterile environment further decreases contamination; therefore, 364 Zawierucha et al. extracted tardigrades from substrate in a sterile environment (laminar flow 365 chamber) (2022), and we worked in a sterile field created by a Bunsen burner throughout the 366 experiment. Three previous studies included one type each of negative controls recommended by 367 the RIDE standards for low biomass studies (Eisenhofer et al. 2019) (DNA extraction blank in 368 (Mioduchowska et al. 2021), sampling blank in (Kaczmarek et al. 2020), and no-template 369 amplification control in (Zawierucha et al. 2022)). Kaczmarek et al. and Mioduchowska et al. 370 did not sequence the negative controls; instead, they performed PCR amplification of these 371 controls and determined that no contamination was present because no bands were visible 372 (Kaczmarek et al. 2020; Mioduchowska et al. 2021). However, samples without visible bands 373 from PCR can generate sequencing reads (Davis et al. 2018) and would not detect contaminants 374 introduced during library preparation or sequencing steps. Zawierucha et al. removed all OTUs 375 376 present in the no-template amplification control from analysis (2022). However, low levels of 377 true sequences, especially from high-abundance OTUs, are often present in negative controls due 378 to cross-contamination of samples; these biologically important OTUs would therefore be 379 removed from the analysis (Davis et al. 2018; Karstens et al. 2019). In our study, we included 380 and sequenced all three RIDE-recommended types of negative controls. 381 No previous survey of the tardigrade microbiota has employed model-based in silico 382 contaminant identification and removal, which we accomplished using the decontam package. Decontam removed 986 OTUs as contaminants, including five that would otherwise have been in 383 the top ten OTUs in the study by read count. Of course, further improvements are always 384 possible. Contaminants are expected to differ in prevalence among negative control types 385

depending on their point of introduction, but current *in silico* contamination removal methods treat all negative controls identically (Davis et al. 2018). Future development of a method that leverages the unique information provided by each type of negative control would therefore be desirable. However, by working under a flame, including and sequencing all recommended types of negative controls, and leveraging *in silico* contaminant identification and removal, we have produced what we expect to be the tardigrade microbiome survey least affected by contamination to date.

## **4.3 Tardigrade Community Microbiome by Contrast**

We investigated the tardigrade community microbiome across four contrasts. First, we determined that the tardigrade community microbiome varied significantly in structure across locations (Table 2). Vecchi *et al.* (2018) found that an average of 15.4% of the microbial OTUs

397 in a tardigrade collected from moss or lichen originate from its substrate. Therefore, known impacts of geographical location on microbial communities (Baldrian 2017; Coller et al. 2019) 398 could have resulted in different microbial communities present in each location to inoculate the 399 tardigrades. Additionally, as the tardigrade microbiota is species-specific (Vecchi et al. 2018), 400 the differences in microbial communities observed across locations may reflect spatial variation 401 in tardigrade communities' species composition (Meyer 2008). Of course, these explanations are 402 not mutually exclusive and could both play a role in shaping distinct tardigrade community 403 microbiomes across locations. Vecchi et al. surveyed tardigrades of the same species collected 404 from different locations, but they did not test for differences in the microbiome across locations. 405 However, they did identify an OTU in the genus *Luteolibacter* that was significantly associated 406 with Ram. oberhaeuseri collected from a location at 34 meters above sea level but not from 407 another location 797 meters above sea level (Vecchi et al. 2018), suggesting that future work 408 may detect differences in the microbiota of the same tardigrade species across locations. 409

In contrast two, the community microbiome of tardigrades collected from lichen was 410 compared with that of tardigrades collected from moss on the same trees. While a few taxa were 411 412 significantly differentially abundant and variable across substrates, the two substrates did not differ in alpha diversity and were not separated by PCoA (Fig. 1). This similarity in the 413 tardigrade community microbiome was initially surprising, as previous literature has 414 demonstrated significant differences between the microbiota of moss and lichen even on the 415 same tree (Aschenbrenner et al. 2017). However, this similarity across substrates could be due to 416 the presence of similar tardigrade species, as previous studies have failed to demonstrate 417 significant differences between tardigrade communities found in moss and lichen (Young and 418 419 Clifton 2015; Nelson, Bartels, and Fegley 2020). In future surveys, it would be interesting to compare the microbiota of tardigrades from additional substrate types (e.g., soil) and to 420 determine if this similarity in tardigrade microbiome across substrates persists at the species as 421 422 well as the community level.

Results of contrast three demonstrate that the tardigrade community microbiome is 423 distinct from and significantly less diverse than that of its lichen substrate (Table 2, Fig. 1). This 424 425 result agrees with previous studies that found relatively higher diversity in substrates than in their 426 resident Ecdysozoans, including wild tardigrades collected from moss and lichen (Vecchi et al. 427 2018), cultured tardigrades (Kaczmarek et al. 2020), and the nematodes Meloidogyne hapla 428 (Adam et al. 2014) and Caenorhabditis elegans (Johnke, Dirksen, and Schulenburg 2020). This 429 study is the first to demonstrate this trend at the tardigrade community rather than species level. 430 Vecchi et al. (2018) suggested that the lower microbial diversity in tardigrades with respect to 431 their substrates may be due to the small size of tardigrades limiting the biomass and therefore the diversity of their microbiome (small host hypothesis) and/or to selectiveness of tardigrades 432 inhibiting growth of some bacterial species and promoting growth of others (selective host 433 hypothesis). Supporting the selective host hypothesis, earlier work found that tardigrades could 434 be successfully inoculated with some bacteria (Xanthomonas) but not others (Serratia) (Krantz, 435 Benoit, and Beasley 1999). It is possible that some bacteria have co-evolved with tardigrades, 436 becoming permanent residents of the gastrointestinal tract or cuticle, a hypothesis that has been 437 suggested for the Ecdysozoan C. elegans (F. Zhang et al. 2017). The life cycle of tardigrades 438 poses a unique selective pressure on any permanent residents of the microbiota, as these 439

organisms would also have to survive within the tardigrade during cryptobiosis. This would be
especially true for the obligate endosymbiotic taxa *Rickettsiales* and *Polynucleobacter* previously
observed in tardigrades (Vecchi et al. 2018; Roberto Guidetti et al. 2020; Kaczmarek et al. 2020;
Mioduchowska et al. 2021), as well as for the *Rickettsia* identified in the current study (see

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below). 445 Contrast four determined that the tardigrade community microbiome is temporally dynamic, changing significantly on the same trees from 2019 to 2020 (Table 2, Fig. 1). Again, 446 this may be due to changes in habitat microbiome, as microbiota of other substrates (e.g., soil 447 and litter) are known to vary across years due to changing environmental factors such as nutrient 448 449 availability (Martinović et al. 2021). This variation may also be due to temporal changes in the tardigrade community composition; although tardigrade species present may remain consistent in 450 a location over years, their relative abundances shift in part due to changes in rainfall, humidity, 451 and temperature (Schuster and Greven 2007). This temporal variability raises important 452 implications for future studies of the tardigrade community microbiome. For example, the 453 relative abundance of putative phytopathogens differed significantly across years (Table S9). 454 455 Future work could identify temporal variables affecting the ability of tardigrades to act as potential reservoirs of phytopathogens and other bacteria. We also encourage further studies of 456 457 the tardigrade microbiome to account for temporal changes and to investigate this variation with additional time points to increase resolution. 458

## 459 4.4 Tardigrade-Associated Taxa

In this study, the five most abundant phyla were *Proteobacteria*, *Firmicutes*, 460 461 Bacteroidota, Actinobacteria, and Acidobacteria (Table S10). All of these except Acidobacteria were previously reported as highly abundant in at least two of the three previous tardigrade 462 microbiome surveys that presented results at a phylum level, with *Proteobacteria* identified as 463 the most abundant phylum in all cases (Vecchi et al. 2018; Kaczmarek et al. 2020; 464 Mioduchowska et al. 2021). Combined, the tardigrades in these studies represent a diverse set of 465 species, including wild and laboratory-reared specimens isolated from multiple continents, 466 suggesting that the predominance of these phyla is broadly characteristic of the microbiome of 467 Tardigrada, regardless of species or location. These phyla, especially *Proteobacteria*, are also 468 dominant in the microbiomes of other Ecdysozoans, including soil nematodes (Dirksen et al. 469 470 2016; Elhady et al. 2017; Adam et al. 2014), marine nematodes (Arcos et al. 2021), and insects 471 (Colman, Toolson, and Takacs-Vesbach 2012; Engel and Moran 2013). The tardigrade 472 microbiota therefore appears similar to that of other Ecdysozoans at the phylum level. A number of OTUs significantly more abundant in tardigrades than in their substrate in 473 this study belong to taxa previously identified in the tardigrade microbiome. These include 474 members of Enhydrobacter (Vecchi et al. 2018), Enterobacteriaceae (Mioduchowska et al. 475 2021; Kaczmarek et al. 2020), and Acinetobacter (Vecchi et al. 2018; Mioduchowska et al. 2021) 476 477 (Table S9). In this study, OTU 22 was classified as *Enhydrobacter*, and its abundance in the tardigrade population varied over time, increasing significantly from 2019 (0.21%) to 2020 478 (2.1%) (Table S8, Table S9). It is possible that *Enhydrobacter* is common to Ecdysozoan 479 480 microbiomes, as it is also an abundant taxon in the gut contents of larval wood wasps (J. Li et al. 481 2021) and nematodes (Adam et al. 2014). Members of Enterobacteriaceae included OTUs 2 and

482 20. OTU 20 was further identified as a member of the Escherichia/Shigella complex, but OTU 2 483 could not be classified to the genus level (Table S2, Table S3). OTU 2 showed significant 484 temporal variation, decreasing in relative abundance from 10.0% to 0.062% from 2019 to 2020 485 (Table S8, Table S9). Enterobacteriaceae is also highly represented in the gut microbiota of insects (Moro et al. 2021; Hernández-García et al. 2017) and nematodes (Zhou et al. 2022; 486 487 Zimmermann et al. 2020). This suggests that *Enterobacteriaceae* may be residents of the tardigrade digestive tract. Finally, OTU 16 was a member of Acinetobacter that increased 488 significantly in abundance from 2019 (0.000052%) to 2020 (2.3%) and was one of the three 489 OTUs significantly differentially abundant across substrate type (Table S8, Table S9). 490 Acinetobacter is associated with the cuticle of the nematodes M. hapla, M. incognita, and 491 492 Pratylenchus penetrans (Adam et al. 2014; Elhady et al. 2017), suggesting that it may also be associated with the cuticle of tardigrades. 493

However, many of the tardigrade-associated taxa observed in this study have not been 494 previously reported in the tardigrade microbiome. In fact, the most abundant OTU across all 495 samples in this study (OTU 1) was a member of the genus *Bradyrhizobium*, which was not 496 497 previously reported from the tardigrade microbiome. This OTU was also spatially dynamic, differing significantly in abundance across locations (Table S9). Bradyrhizobium has been 498 previously observed in the microbiota of plant pathogenic nematodes (Eberlein et al. 2016; 499 Adam et al. 2014) and leaf hoppers (Horgan et al. 2019). This genus has also been found in the 500 lichen microbiome (Bates et al. 2011; Erlacher et al. 2015; Graham et al. 2018), perhaps 501 indicating that tardigrades acquire this bacterium from their habitat. Another tardigrade-502 503 associated genus, *Micrococcus*, was differentially abundant across both locations and years 504 (Table S9). This genus has been reported from the cuticles of soil nematodes (Adam et al. 2014) 505 as well as fish parasitic nematodes (Arcos et al. 2021), suggesting that *Micrococcus* may be associated with the tardigrade cuticle. Another notable tardigrade-associated genus in this study 506 507 was Nakamurella, represented primarily by OTU 33, which showed differential abundance across locations (Table S9). Nakamurella intestinalis has been isolated from the feces of another 508 Ecdysozoan, the katydid Pseudorynchus japonicus (Kim et al. 2017). N. endophytica and N. 509 510 *flava* were identified as endophytes of mangroves and mint, respectively (Yan et al. 2020; Tuo et 511 al. 2016), and N. albus and N. leprariae were originally discovered in lichens (Jiang et al. 2020; An et al. 2021). This suggests that tardigrades could obtain endophytic or lichen-dwelling 512 513 Nakamurella from their habitat.

## 514 **4.5 Putative Endosymbionts**

Our survey corroborates previous observations of putative endosymbionts of the obligate 515 intracellular order Rickettsiales associated with tardigrades. Three of the four previous surveys of 516 the tardigrade microbiome have detected OTUs of this order (Vecchi et al. 2018; Roberto 517 Guidetti et al. 2020; Kaczmarek et al. 2020; Mioduchowska et al. 2021); in addition to 518 519 unclassified *Rickettsiales*, these OTUs included members of *Wolbachia* (Mioduchowska et al. 2021), Anaplasmataceae, and Ca. Tenuibacteraceae (Roberto Guidetti et al. 2020). Kaczmarek 520 et al. also detected the obligate intracellular genus Polynucleobacter (2020). In the current 521 522 survey, we identified two Rickettsiales OTUs. Of these, one was classified by mothur as 523 Wolbachia (OTU 3606), and the other was further classified as Rickettsia (OTU 180) by BLAST

and RDP analysis (Table S2, Table S3). The relative abundance of OTU 180 was significantly

- higher in tardigrades (0.88%) than in their lichen substrate (0.0012%) (Table S7) as well as
- significantly higher in 2020 (1.0%) than in 2019 (0.00026%) (Table S8, Table S9). OTU 3606
- was numerically more abundant in tardigrades (0.030%) than substrate (0.000000000051%),
- though this difference was not statistically significant (Table S7). Taken together, the
- 529 intracellular nature of *Rickettsiales* and the higher abundance in tardigrades suggests that OTUs
- 530 180 and 3606 are endosymbionts of tardigrades.

The presence of endosymbionts may have implications for tardigrade reproduction and 531 evolution, as members of *Rickettsia* and *Wolbachia* are known to manipulate host reproduction 532 533 in other Ecdysozoans. Wolbachia is well-known for causing parthenogenesis in nematodes and arthropods, as well as feminization of males, cytoplasmic incompatibility, and male-killing 534 (Werren, Baldo, and Clark 2008; Kraaijeveld et al. 2011; Correa and Ballard 2016; Kaitoch and 535 Kotásková 2018). Similarly, Rickettsia can induce parthenogenesis (Hagimori et al. 2006; 536 Giorgini et al. 2010) and male-killing (Lawson et al. 2001) in arthropods. Parthenogenesis is 537 common in tardigrades (Bertolani 2001; Guil et al. 2022). Further investigation is necessary to 538 539 determine if this is due to reproductive manipulators such as Rickettsia and Wolbachia. Future

- analysis could follow the example of Guidetti *et al.* by incorporating FISH to confirm the
- 541 presence of these and other endosymbionts within tardigrade tissues (2020).
- 542

# 543 4.6 Putative Phytopathogens

544 Our analysis also aimed to determine whether wild tardigrades living in apple orchards 545 harbor phytopathogenic bacteria, and in fact, the second most abundant genus overall found in 546 this survey was *Pseudomonas*, which contains more than twenty known plant pathogens (Höfte 547 and De Vos 2006). *Pseudomonas* was significantly associated with tardigrades (relative 548 abundance in tardigrades and substrate of 2.7% and 0.051%, respectively) (Table S11) and was 549 spatially and temporally dynamic in the tardigrade community microbiome, as relative abundance of *Pseudomonas* decreased significantly from 2019 (19.6%) to 2020 (3.0%) and 550 differed significantly across locations (Table S9, Table S11). Pseudomonas was also detected in 551 all four of the previous surveys of the tardigrade microbiome (Vecchi et al. 2018; Mioduchowska 552 et al. 2021; Kaczmarek et al. 2020; Zawierucha et al. 2022), and Vecchi et al. identified it as part 553 554 of the core tardigrade microbiome (2018). Pseudomonas is also present in the microbiota of soil 555 nematodes (Adam et al. 2014; Dirksen et al. 2016; Zimmermann et al. 2020) and insects (Hernández-García et al. 2017; Horgan et al. 2019; Xue et al. 2021). Notably, other Ecdysozoans 556 (insects) act as vectors of *P. syringae* (Stavrinides, McCloskey, and Ochman 2009; Donati et al. 557 558 2017), which is one of the most agriculturally damaging *Pseudomonas* species (Höfte and De 559 Vos 2006; Xin, Kvitko, and He 2018). However, *Pseudomonas* is very diverse, containing many non-pathogenic species (Silby et al. 2011; Passera et al. 2019). In fact, some Pseudomonas 560 isolates from wild C. elegans confer resistance to fungal pathogens in their hosts (Dirksen et al. 561 2016), raising the possibility that *Pseudomonas* could be similarly beneficial to tardigrades. 562 Two additional putative phytopathogens were significantly more abundant in tardigrades 563 than their substrate. The first, OTU 261, was identified by mothur as a member of *Ralstonia*, a 564 565 genus containing the phytopathogenic R. solanacearum complex. In addition to being found at

significantly higher abundance in tardigrades (0.018%) than their substrate (.00017%) (Table

S7), OTU 261 was temporally dynamic, decreasing significantly from 2019 (0.16%) to 2020 567 568 (0.00068%) (Table S8, Table S9). *Ralstonia* has been previously observed in the tardigrade *Pam*. fairbanksi (Mioduchowska et al. 2021) and in nematodes (Elhady et al. 2017; Eberlein et al. 569 2016). The R. solanacearum complex causes major yield losses in food crops including 570 571 tomatoes, bananas, and potatoes (Yuliar, Nion, and Toyota 2015; Paudel et al. 2020). Two notable members of this complex are spread by insect vectors; the cercopoids Hindola fulva and 572 H. strata act as vectors of R. syzygii, while the Blood Disease Bacterium is spread 573 nonspecifically by pollinators (Eden-Green et al. 1992; Remenant et al. 2011). 574 575 The second, OTU 208, was classified by BLAST and RDP analysis to the Erwinia/Pantoea cluster (Table S2 Table S3), which includes a number of economically 576 577 important phytopathogens (Kido et al. 2008; Y. Zhang and Qiu 2015; Dutkiewicz et al. 2016; Shapiro et al. 2016). E. amylovora is of particular note as it causes fire blight in apple trees 578 (Aćimović et al. 2015). This OTU had a significantly higher relative abundance of 0.046% in 579 tardigrades compared to 0.0044% in their substrate (Table S7, Table S9). While neither Erwinia 580 581 nor Pantoea have previously been identified in tardigrades, Erwinia has been found in

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arthropods (Xue et al. 2021) and nematodes (Eberlein et al. 2016). Additionally, multiple
phytopathogens in *Pantoea* and *Erwinia* are transmitted by insect vectors (Dutkiewicz et al.
2016; Ordax et al. 2015; Sasu et al. 2010; Basset et al. 2000; Walterson and Stavrinides 2015).
However, it is also possible that OTU 208 represents a symbiont in tardigrades, as *Erwinia* also
includes the olive fly obligate gut symbiont *Candidatus Erwinia dacicola* (Blow et al. 2020).

587 Additional putative plant pathogens were observed at lower abundances in the tardigrade 588 community microbiome and were not significantly more abundant in tardigrades than their substrate. These include another Ralstonia (OTU 1556) and OTU 1620, which was classified as 589 Pectobacterium by BLAST and RDP (Table S2, Table S3). Members of Pectobacterium cause 590 591 soft rot diseases in economically important plants, and some strains are capable of infecting multiple plant species (Ma et al. 2007; X. Li et al. 2020). Additionally, prompted by previous 592 observation of the tardigrade Mac. hufelandi acting as a vector of the plant pathogen 593 594 Xanthomonas campestris (Benoit et al. 2000), we searched the tardigrade community 595 microbiome for members of Xanthomonas. OTUs 10,409 and 12,281 were classified as 596 Xanthomonas (OTU 10,409 by BLAST and RDP analysis), but were both at extremely low 597 abundance (Table S4).

598 In summary, we observed the presence of multiple putative plant pathogens in the 599 community microbiome of tardigrades isolated from apple orchards. Tardigrades could act as 600 vectors or reservoirs of these putative pathogens, a possibility raised by the previous observation of Mac. hufelandi as a vector of X. campestris (Benoit et al. 2000). However, a major limitation 601 602 of this study is the use of only 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing. Because multiple marker genes are required to distinguish among species within Pseudomonas, Ralstonia, Erwinia, and Pantoea 603 (Y. Zhang and Qiu 2015; Paudel et al. 2020; Palmer et al. 2017; Gomila et al. 2015; Saati-604 605 Santamaría et al. 2021), we were unable to identify OTUs in our study to species level. Therefore, we are unable to determine whether the identified OTUs in plant pathogenic genera 606

are themselves phytopathogens. We encourage future analyses of tardigrade-associated bacteria

in these groups through techniques such as metagenome sequencing and multilocus sequencetyping to clarify this point.

# 610 5 Conclusion

611 This study is the first microbiome analysis of wild tardigrade populations in an agricultural setting and is also the first microbiome study assessing North American tardigrades. 612 Our methods reduced the effects of contamination compared to other tardigrade microbiome 613 studies by including aseptic technique, all three recommended control types, and in silico 614 contaminant removal. We found that the tardigrade community microbiome is distinct from the 615 616 substrate microbiota and varies across location and time. In addition to identifying putative 617 endosymbionts, we also observed multiple tardigrade-associated taxa that may represent phytopathogens. The results of this study both increase our knowledge of the tardigrade 618 619 microbiome and prompt new avenues of research.

# 620 6 Author Contributions

621 LTC: Conceptualization, Software, Formal Analysis, Investigation, Data Curation, Writing –

622 Original Draft and Review & Editing, Visualization. BTC: Conceptualization, Investigation,

Data Curation, Writing – Original Draft and Review & Editing, Visualization. SSE:

624 Methodology, Resources, Writing - Review & Editing

625

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- 636

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 Native Microbiota of the Model Nematode Caenorhabditis Elegans." *The ISME Journal* 14

1011 (1): 26–38. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41396-019-0504-y.

## 1012 Figure Legends

1013

- 1014 **Figure 1.** Principal Coordinates Analyses conducted by contrast based on Bray-Curtis distance.
- 1015 Location names (Location 1 through Location 6) are abbreviated as L1 through L6. (A)
- 1016 Tardigrade samples from different locations overlap one another, as do (**B**) tardigrades isolated 1017 from lichen and moss. However, (**C**) tardigrade and substrate samples are clearly separated, and
- 1018 (**D**) 2019 and 2020 tardigrade samples are mostly separated.
- Figure 2. Relative abundance of top 10 identifiable phyla shown across all contrasts. Location
  names (Location 1 through Location 6) are abbreviated as L1 through L6.
- 1021
- Figure 3. Relative abundance of top 10 genera (identifiable at least to family level) shown across
  all contrasts. Location names (Location 1 through Location 6) are abbreviated as L1 through L6.
- Figure S1. Collection locations map. The map of Iowa, USA shows the sampled counties
   outlined in red. The inset shows collection sites within Hardin and Franklin counties identified
   by location number.
- 1028
- Figure S2. Relative abundance of top 10 identifiable phyla shown across all samples. Location
  names (Location 1 through Location 6) are abbreviated as L1 through L6.
- 1031
- Figure S3. Relative abundance of top 10 genera (identifiable at least to family level) shown
  across all samples. Location names (Location 1 through Location 6) are abbreviated as L1
  through L6.
- 1035
- 1036 Figure S4. Principal Coordinates Analysis of all samples based on Bray-Curtis distance.
- 1037 Location names (Location 1 through Location 6) are abbreviated as L1 through L6. Substrate
- samples are clearly separated from the tardigrade samples along Axis 1. On Axis 2, samples
- 1039 from 2020 are generally clustered away from 2019 samples. Samples from different locations
- 1040 and from lichen and moss overlap.
- 1041
- 1042 Tables
- **Table 1.** Details of samples used in the experiment. Samples are arranged by contrast; when
- samples were included in multiple contrasts, these samples appear more than once in the table.
- 1045 "Loc. code" is the location code for a given orchard (e.g., L1 is Location 1) and "# trees"

1046 indicates the number of trees sampled at that location for a given contrast. From each sample of

1047 moss or lichen, three to six replicates were extracted, identified in the "Replicate codes" column.1048

# 1049

Contrast	Year	Loc. code	GPS location	Sample details	# trees	Replicate codes
Contrast 1:	2019	L1	42.56N,	Tardigrades	3	L1_19_Tr1_li1-3,
Tardigrades from same			-93.49W	from lichen		L1_19_Tr2_li1-3, L1_19_Tr3_li1-3
substrate (lichen)	2019	L2	42.43N,	Tardigrades	4	L2_19_Tr1_li1-3,
in different			-93.07W	from lichen		L2_19_Tr2_li1-3,
locations.						L2_19_Tr3_li1-3,
	2019	L3	42.44N,	Tardigrades	3	L2_19_Tr4_li1-3 L2_19_Tr1_li1-3,
	2017	15	-93.11W	from lichen	5	L2_19_Tr2_li1-3,
						L2_19_Tr3_li1-3
	2019	L4	42.42N,	Tardigrades	4	L4_19_Tr1_li1-3,
			-93.08W	from lichen		L4_19_Tr2_li1-3, L4_19_Tr3_li1-3,
						L4_19_Tr4_li1-3
	2019	L5	42.40N,	Tardigrades	4	L5_19_Tr1_li1-3,
			-93.31W	from lichen		L5_19_Tr2_li1-3,
						L5_19_Tr3_li1-3, L5_19_Tr4_li1-3
	2019	L6	42.69N,	Tardigrades	5	L6_19_Tr1_li1-3,
		20	-93.22W	from lichen	0	L6_19_Tr2_li1-3,
						L6_19_Tr3_li1-3,
						L6_19_Tr4_li1-3,
Contrast 2:	2019	L2	42.43N,	Tardigrades	3	L6_19_Tr5_li1-3 L2_19_Tr1_li1-3,
Tardigrades	2017	12	-93.07W	from lichen	5	L2_19_Tr2_li1-3,
from different						L2_19_Tr3_li1-3
substrates (moss	2019	L2	42.43N,	Tardigrades	3	L2_19_Tr1_mo1-3,
vs. lichen) on the same tree			-93.07W	from moss		L2_19_Tr2_mo1-3, L2_19_Tr3_mo1-3
Contrast 3:	2020	L1	42.56N,	Tardigrades	4	L1_20_Tr1_li1-5,
Tardigrades vs.			-93.49W	from lichen		L1_20_Tr2_li1-5,
their substrate						L1_20_Tr2_li1-5,
(lichen).	2020	L1	42.56N,	Lichon only	4	L1_20_Tr4_li1-5
	2020	LI	42.36N, -93.49W	Lichen only	4	L1_20_Tr1_sub1-6, L1_20_Tr2_sub1-5,
			<i>y y y y y y y</i>			L1_20_Tr2_sub1-5,
						L1_20_Tr4_sub1-4
Contrast 4:	2019	L1	42.56N,	Tardigrades from lichen	3	L1_19_Tr1_li1-3,
Tardigrades from the same			-93.49W	from fichen		L1_19_Tr2_li1-3, L1_19_Tr3_li1-3
trees in different	2020	L1	42.56N,	Tardigrades	3	L1_20_Tr1_li1-5,
years.			-93.49W	from lichen		L1_20_Tr2_li1-5,
						L1_20_Tr2_li1-5

**Table 2.** Alpha diversity measures Shannon and Simpson estimated for each level of each

1051 contrast of interest. Within each contrast and diversity measure, estimates that are significantly

1052 different from one another (Benjamini-Hochberg corrected *P* value <0.05) share no letters.

Contrast	Level of Contrast	Shannon	Simpson
	Location 1	1.570 <sup>a</sup>	0.437 <sup>a</sup>
	Location 2	3.545 <sup>b</sup>	0.244 <sup>b</sup>
1: Location	Location 3	$0.970^{\circ}$	0.779 <sup>c</sup>
1. Location	Location 4	2.093 <sup>d</sup>	0.466 <sup>a</sup>
	Location 5	1.605 <sup>a</sup>	0.683 <sup>d</sup>
	Location 6	3.830 <sup>b</sup>	0.255 <sup>b</sup>
2: Moss vs. Lichen	Moss	2.929 <sup>a</sup>	0.175 <sup>a</sup>
2. MOSS VS. LICHEII	Lichen	2.926 <sup>a</sup>	0.205 <sup>a</sup>
3: Tardigrades vs.	Tardigrade	2.895 <sup>a</sup>	0.279 <sup>a</sup>
Substrate	Substrate	6.673 <sup>b</sup>	$0.004^{b}$
4: Year	2019	1.448 <sup>a</sup>	0.447 <sup>a</sup>
4. 1 Cal	2020	1.566 <sup>a</sup>	0.365 <sup>b</sup>

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### 1054 Supplemental Table Legends

Table S1. Mothur classification and decontam score for all OTUs with more than 10 reads in
 experimental samples. OTUs with decontam score below the 0.25 threshold are marked as
 contaminants.

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**Table S2.** BLAST results for OTUs with more than 10 total reads in experimental samples.
BLAST+ v2.11.0 was used to query representative sequences for each OTU against a database
generated from the NCBI 16S RefSeq collection. The 15 hits with the lowest E-values are given
for each OTU.

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**Table S3.** RDP Classifier results for OTUs with more than 10 total reads in experimental samples. Representative sequences for each OTU were uploaded to the RDP Classifier webtool

1066 (https://rdp.cme.msu.edu/classifier/classifier.jsp), version 2.11 using 16S rRNA training set 18.

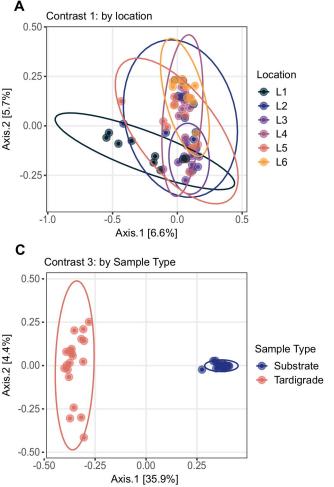
1067

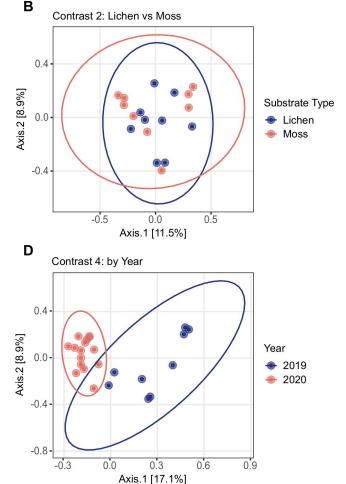
**Table S4.** Relative abundance of all analyzed OTUs in each sample.

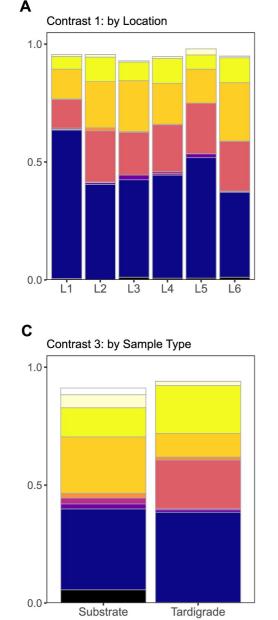
- **Table S5.** Relative abundance of each OTU by level of Contrast 1 (Location).
- 1070 Table S6. Relative abundance of each OTUs in moss and in lichen (*i.e.*, at each level of Contrast1071 2).
- **Table S7**. Relative abundance of each OTU in tardigrades and in their lichen substrate (*i.e.*, at each level of Contrast 3).

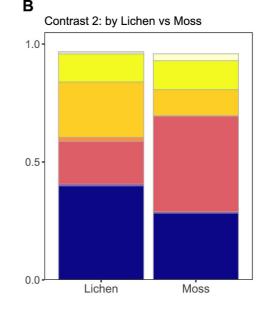
**Table S8**. Relative abundance of each OTU in tardigrades in 2019 and in 2020 (*i.e.*, at each level
 of Contrast 4).

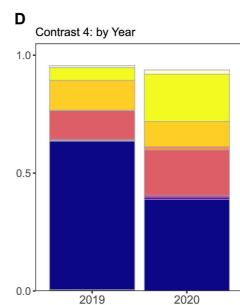
- **Table S9.** Differentially abundant and variable taxa across contrasts. Corncob was used to
- identify significantly (Benjamini-Hochberg corrected P value < 0.05) differentially abundant and
- 1078 variable taxa across four contrasts of interest. Genus names are presented including their phylum,
- 1079 class, order, and family names to prevent ambiguities.
- 1080 **Table S10.** Relative abundance of top 10 identifiable phyla across levels of each contrast.
- 10811082 Table S11. Relative abundance of top 10 genera (identifiable at least to family level) across
- 1083 levels of each contrast.







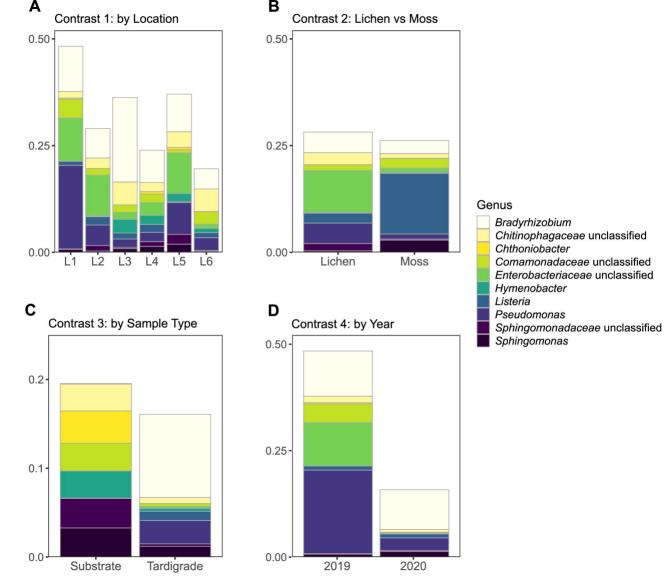




### Phylum

Abditibacteriota Acidobacteriota Actinobacteriota Bacteroidota Cyanobacteria Firmicutes Myxococcota Planctomycetota Proteobacteria Verrucomicrobiota

# Relative Abundance



Relative Abundance