

1 **Title:** Artisanal and farmers bread-making practices differently shape fungal species community
2 **composition** in French sourdoughs

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4 **Running title:** Bread-making practices as a driver of yeast species community **composition**

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31 **Key words:** domestication, yeast, *Kazachstania*, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, fermentation

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33 No competing interests

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35 Financial supports: French National Research Agency (ANR-13-ALID-0005) and INRAE

36 **Abstract**

37 Preserving microbial diversity in food systems is one of the many challenges to be met to
38 achieve food security and quality. Although industrialization led to the selection and spread of specific
39 fermenting microbial strains, there are still ongoing artisanal processes that may allow the conservation
40 of a wider diversity of microbial species. We examined whether the diversity of artisanal practices could
41 lead to an increased level in fungal species diversity for bread making. We used an interdisciplinary
42 participatory research approach including bakers, psycho-sociologists and microbiologists to analyze
43 French bread-making practices and describe fungal communities in naturally fermented sourdough of
44 27 bakers and 12 farmer bakers. Bread-making practices were classified in two groups: the farmer-like
45 practices group and the artisanal-like practices group. Surprisingly, the well-known bakery yeast,
46 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, was dominant (i.e. with a relative abundance over 50%) in only 24% of
47 sourdoughs while other yeast species of the closely related *Kazachstania* genus were dominant in 54%
48 of sourdoughs. Bread-making practices were found to drive the distribution of yeast species. The most
49 remarkable difference was the occurrence of *Kazachstania humilis* in sourdoughs made with artisanal-
50 like practices and the occurrence of *Kazachstania bulderi* in sourdoughs made with farmer-like
51 practices. Phenotyping of these two species in laboratory sourdough mimicking media revealed
52 phenotypic divergence between sourdough and non-sourdough strains for *K. humilis* but not for *K.*
53 *bulderi*. Overall, our results showed that preserving bread-making practices diversity allows the
54 preservation of a higher taxonomic and phenotypic diversity in microbial communities.

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57 Introduction

58 Humans started to ferment food before the Neolithic using naturally fermenting microbial
59 communities. In the 19th century, the industrialization and the increase of knowledge in microbiology
60 resulted in changes in fermented food practices with the use of **starters**. This selection led to a reduction
61 in species **diversity** and genetic diversity for fermented food processing and limited *in situ* conservation
62 of microbial communities in industrialized systems [1–3]. Domestication of the yeast *Saccharomyces*
63 *cerevisiae* for the production of beer, wine, cheese, leavened bread, that of the fungi *Penicillium*
64 *roqueforti* or *Penicillium camemberti* for cheese production or that of the fungus *Aspergillus oryzae* for
65 rice or soybean fermented products are well studied cases [1–10]. The recent renewed interest in
66 artisanal practices that make use of naturally fermenting microbial communities could promote again
67 the conservation of microbial diversity. However, the effect of artisanal practices on the distribution of
68 microbial species remains poorly documented.

69 Among fermented foods, bread is still a symbol deeply engrained in the history, religious rites
70 and medicine of several cultures. The origin of bread likely originated 14 000 years ago, suggesting that
71 bread was made long before plant domestication [11]. Since the Neolithic, bread history is intimately
72 combined with the evolution of cereals, bread-making associated tools and the advent of Mediterranean
73 civilizations [12]. Leavened bread was traditionally made with flour, water and a fermenting agent,
74 which was either a fermenting beverage or a fermenting dough, called sourdough. This sourdough was
75 generally initiated from a mixture of flour and water, naturally colonized by lactic acid bacteria (LAB)
76 and yeasts. Sourdough was then either maintained from one bread-making process to the other or
77 initiated again and again, depending on the craftsman [13, 14]. In the 19th century, the use of
78 yeast starters made of *S. cerevisiae*, often called « baker's yeast », spread as an alternative to sourdough.
79 Nowadays, *S. cerevisiae* industrial starters are more frequently used than sourdoughs, although the latter
80 are gaining interest. A recent study showed that industrial populations of *S. cerevisiae* have followed a
81 different evolutionary path than sourdough populations of *S. cerevisiae* [10]. Both have been
82 domesticated by humans and have improved their fermentation performance in a sourdough-mimicking

83 medium. However, industrial and sourdough strains of *S. cerevisiae* differ genetically and
84 phenotypically, indicating that sourdough use contributes to the conservation of bread related *S.*
85 *cerevisiae* lineages [10].

86 Beyond *S. cerevisiae*, sourdough can also host other yeast species. To date, more than 40 yeast
87 species have been detected in sourdough [1, 15, 16]. The most frequently encountered species are
88 *Wickerhamomyces anomalus* and *Kazachstania humilis*. Several other species in the genus
89 *Kazachstania* (*Kazachstania barnettii*, *Kazachstania exigua*, *Kazachstania bulderi*, *Kazachstania*
90 *unispora*) as well as several species in the polyphyletic genus *Pichia* have also been recurrently detected.
91 The factors that determine the distribution of these species are still unknown. A recent large-scale study
92 of 500 sourdoughs from four continents found no effect of geography or factors related to bread-making
93 practices such as age of sourdough, storage location, feeding frequency, grain intake, house
94 characteristics [17]. However, most of the sourdoughs in this study were made by private citizens who
95 probably did not maintain the sourdough microbial community in the same way as a professional baker.
96 To our knowledge, no studies have been conducted to date to investigate the effect of bakers' bread-
97 making practices on sourdough yeast community composition.

98 In France, sourdough breads are made both by bakers and farmers who also grow and mill their
99 own wheat. The number of farmers-bakers has increased in the 2000s with two motives: to grow wheat
100 varieties meeting their needs and to assert their independence from industry [18]. Although farmer-
101 bakers are less numerous than bakers, they participate in the renewed interest in local wheat varieties
102 and artisanal know-how, which may contribute to the conservation of both socio-cultural diversity and
103 microbial diversity.

104 Here, we used a participatory research approach involving psycho-sociologists, biologists, bio-
105 statisticians, bakers and farmers-bakers to study whether and how bakers and farmers-bakers contribute
106 to the preservation of socio-cultural and fungal species diversity in sourdough microbial community.

107 **Materials and methods**

108 A total of 27 bakers and 12 farmer-bakers participated to the study. They were all making bread with
109 organic flour except five. All of them sent sourdough to the lab for microbiological and metabolic
110 analysis. Among them, 36 described their bread-making practices as well.

111 **A questionnaire survey, face-to-face interviews and focus-groups to collect bread-** 112 **making practices**

113 Data on bread-making practices were collected through a questionnaire survey, interviews and focus
114 groups. The collected variables were related to *i*) the ingredients origin : wheat varieties types (ancient
115 populations also called landraces / modern varieties), whether they produced flour from their own wheat,
116 whether they had their own mill or use an external mill, water origin, *ii*) the sourdough recipe: its age,
117 its hydration state, the origin of the chief sourdough (sample of dough or sourdough), the number of
118 back-sloppings before bread making and per week, the temperature of water used for back-sloppings,
119 *iii*) their bread-making practices: the number of bread makings per week, the percentage of sourdough,
120 flour and salt in bread dough, the kneading methods, the total duration of fermentation and the addition
121 of baker's yeast in dough.

122 **Sourdoughs samples, enumeration and strain isolation**

123 Sourdoughs were collected before kneading and referred to as final sourdoughs (Table S1). On the day
124 of collection, they were sent to the lab where yeast and bacteria were enumerated and isolated as in [19,
125 20], and sourdoughs stored at -20°C in sterile vials for non- culture based analysis. Ethics and rights
126 associated with sourdough collection and strains isolation have been respected.

127 **Sourdough acidity and metabolic analyses**

128 For each sourdough, three independent 1-g replicates were analyzed. pH and Total Titrable Acidity were
129 measured as described in [20]. Organic acids, alcohol and sugars concentrations (expressed as g/kg of
130 sourdough) were analyzed by liquid chromatography using an HPLC HP 1100 LC system (Agilent
6

131 technologies, Santa clara, CA, USA) equipped with a refractive index detector (RID Agilent G1382A)
132 and a UV detector (Agilent G1314A). Two different columns were used, a Rezex ROA-organic acids
133 column and a Rezex RPM-monosaccharide column (SDVB – Pb+2 8%, 300x7.8mm, Phenomenex,
134 Torrance, CA, USA). The details of the experiments are described in supplementary information
135 (Method S1).

136 **Yeast species identification**

137 The Internal transcribed spacer 1 (ITS1) ribosomal DNA of each 1216 yeast isolates was amplified by
138 PCR from chromosomal DNA, either by using primers ITS1F and ITS2 [21, 22], or primers NSA3 and
139 58A2R [19, 22]. For isolates unidentified with the ITS1 region alone, DNA was extracted according to
140 MasterPure Yeast DNA purification kit (Epicentre, Epibio). PCR reactions targeting partial genes, the
141 D1D2 region of the large subunit of rRNA (LSU), a part of the RNA polymerase II large subunit
142 encoding gene (*RPB1*), a part of the RNA polymerase II encoding gene (*RPB2*), a part of the actin
143 encoding gene *Act1* and Transcriptional Elongation Factor TEF were performed. To discriminate three
144 specific isolates, PCR on genes *GHD1*, *FSY1*, *URA3*, *DRC1*, *MET2* were performed [23–26] (Table S2).
145 All PCR products were sent to be sequenced with Sanger sequencing (Eurofins, Germany). Species were
146 identified using NCBI [27], YeastIP [28] and a personal database, which was constructed after *ITS1*,
147 *RPB2*, LSU sequencing of all 33-yeast species reportedly found in sourdoughs in the literature [19].

148 **Sourdough DNA extraction, MiSeq sequencing, bioinformatics**

149 The ITS1 region was targeted with the PCR primers ITS1-F (5'- CTTGGTCATTTAGAGGAAGTAA -
150 3') and ITS2 (5'-GCTGCGTTCTTCATCGATGC-3').

151 The sequencing run was performed with MiSeq Reagent Kit v3. 2015 [20]. Sequences were analyzed
152 through FROGS “Find Rapidly OTU with Galaxy Solution” [29] and home-made pipelines. Overlapped
153 reads were merged with Flash [30] with a minimum overlap of 10 nucleotides, a maximum overlap of
154 300 nucleotides and a maximum mismatch density of 0.1. Primers were removed with Cutadapt [31]
155 and data were cleaned with Sickle with quality-threshold and length-threshold equal to 20 [32]. Reads

156 were clustered with Swarm (d=3) [33] and chimeras deleted with VSEARCH [34]. Sequences were then
157 filtered on minimum abundance of 0.005% of all sequences. From the OTU's abundance table and for
158 each OTU, the taxonomic affiliation using UNITE Version 7.1, Release 2016-11-20 [35], YeastIP [28]
159 and our own databases [19] was obtained by blasting OTUs representative sequences against each
160 database.

161 **Phenotypic analysis of yeast strains**

162 Fermentation performance of the two most frequently encountered *Kazachstania* species were assessed
163 as described in [10] for *S. cerevisiae*. Fifteen sourdough strains of *K. bulderi* and 16 sourdough strains
164 of *K. humilis* were included in the analysis. *Kazachstania bulderi* strains were coming from sourdoughs
165 B4, B12, B15, B17 B20, B21, while *K. humilis* strains were coming from sourdoughs B2, B5, B6, B7,
166 B10, B17. From one to three strains per sourdough were analyzed in the experiment. In addition, four
167 strains of *K. bulderi* (strain MUCL 38021 isolated from silage in Namur, Belgium, strain MUCL 54694
168 isolated from ensilage in Erezée, Belgium, strain NRRL Y-27205 and strain CLIB 604 isolated from
169 maize silage in the Netherland) and three strains of *K. humilis* (strain CBS 7754 isolated from food
170 dressing, strain CLIB 1323 isolated from bantu beer, and strain CBS 2664 isolated from alpechin) which
171 were coming from non-sourdough habitats, were added as control to test the effect of habitat of origin.
172 Each strain was phenotyped at least in triplicate leading to a total of 145 fermentations distributed over
173 two blocks. Briefly, fermentations were carried out at 24 °C with constant magnetic stirring (300 rpm)
174 during 24 h. CO₂ release was measured by weight loss every 40 min using an automated robotic system
175 [36]. At the end of fermentation, population size and cell viability were determined by flow cytometer
176 (C6 cytometer, Accuri, BD Biosciences) as described in [37].

177

178 **Data analyses**

179 To analyse bread-making practices, a multiple correspondence analysis (MCA) and hierarchical
180 clustering (complete linkage clustering method) on principal components based on the first two axes of
181 the MCA were performed using the FactoMineR R package [38].

182 To analyse fungal community, weighted Unifrac distances between sourdough communities were
183 computed from a rooted phylogenetic tree based on the OTUs sequences using the R-packages Phyloseq
184 and GUniFrac [39, 40]. Phylogenetic sequences were aligned with Clustalo and phylogenetic tree were
185 built with the parsimony algorithm, with 100 replicates bootstraps, pairwise ktuple-distances with
186 Seaview [41]. Different roots were tested (*Sporidiobolales sp.*, *Bullera globospora*, *Trichosporon*
187 *asahii*, *Udeniomyces pyricola*). Tree architecture did not change with the root. It did not fit the expected
188 phylogeny and, notably, some *Ascomycota* were misclassified among the *Basidiomycota*. However, the
189 dominant sourdough species belonging to the *Saccharomycetaceae* family were clustered according to
190 expected clades or subclades, except that *Kazachstania servazzi* and *Kazachstania unispora* were
191 grouped in a clade closer to *Saccharomyces* species than to other *Kazachstania* species. Using the
192 Unifrac distances matrix, we performed a Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) and clustered
193 sourdough communities using the first two axes of the PCoA, and the complete linkage clustering
194 method (hclust R function). To check the sensitivity of our analysis to this misclassification, we
195 performed the same analyses without the sourdoughs that had one misclassified species representing
196 more than 10% of their reads, *i.e.* sourdoughs B20, B41, B42, and B44 and found the same clustering
197 [40].

198 For each sourdough, the species richness, Chao1, Shannon and Simpson indexes were computed, and
199 the Shannon and Simpson indices values were converted to the effective number of species per
200 sourdough. This number was estimated from the Shannon diversity index as $exp^{Shannonindex}$ and from
201 the Simpson diversity index as $\frac{1}{1-Simpsonindex}$ [42, 43]. For probability estimates, the exact 95%
202 confidence intervals were computed using a binomial distribution.

203 To study the link between microbial **species diversity** and bakery practices, a univariate Permutational
204 Multivariate Analysis (PERMANOVA) on the Unifrac distance matrix was performed for each bakery
205 practice variable. We performed univariate analysis on the 30 bakers who had less than 8 missing values
206 among the 29 bread-making practices variables and adjusted the p-value using FDR correction to
207 account for multiple testing. In addition, independence exact Fisher tests between the variable providing
208 fungal community PCoA groups and each of the bread-making practices variables were performed.
209 Multiple testing was accounted for using the False Discovery Rate method [44].

210 The link between the baker practices group, the fungal community group or the yeast dominant species
211 and the variation of each quantitative variable (microbial density, pH, TTA, metabolite concentration)
212 was tested with the following mixed effect model: $Y_{ijk} = \mu + \alpha_i + B_j + \varepsilon_{ijk}$ with $\varepsilon_{ijk} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$,
213 where α_i is the effect of the fungal community group i modelled as a fixed effect and B_j is the effect
214 of sourdough j modelled as a random effect and k represents the measurement replicates. For sourdough
215 hydration rate, the variable was arcsin transformed but sourdough effect was not included in the model
216 because no repetition was obtained from any sourdough. The model parameters were estimated using
217 the `lmerTest` R package [45]. To test the fixed effects, we used likelihood ratio tests. Multiple
218 comparisons of means were performed using Tukey tests with the `multcomp` package. p-values were
219 all adjusted for multiple testing with the FDR method. The geographical structuration was tested with a
220 Mantel test on the Unifrac distances matrix and the geographical distances matrix computed with the
221 package `geosphere` [46] and `ade4` [47].

222 Finally, the phenotypic diversity of *K. bulderi* and *K. humilis* strains coming from sourdough and non-
223 sourdough habitats were analyzed. Population size and mortality rate after 27h of fermentation measured
224 by flow cytometer were used as proxy for absolute fitness. The cumulative CO₂ production curve was
225 calculated and the kinetics of CO₂ production rate over time was estimated by successive linear
226 smoothing over 5 points. Four fermentation parameters were then estimated: the maximum CO₂ release
227 (CO₂max, in g/L) was estimated by the maximum of the cumulative CO₂ production curve, the
228 fermentation latency-phase time (t_{1g}, in h) was estimated by the time between inoculation and the

229 beginning of the fermentation calculated as 1g/L of CO₂ release, the maximum CO₂ production rate
230 (V_{max} in g/L/h) was estimated by the maximum of the CO₂ production rate kinetic and the time of the
231 V_{max} (tV_{max} in h) as the time between inoculation and the V_{max}. Hence, the phenotype of each strain
232 was characterized by six quantitative variables called “phenotype variables” below: its population size,
233 its mortality rate and the four fermentation parameters. To determine whether the origin of the strain
234 (sourdough or non-sourdough) had an impact on strain phenotype, each log-transformed quantitative
235 variable was analyzed separately using a mixed linear model as described below. The experimental
236 design was unbalanced between the two blocks with very few non-sourdough strains in one of the two
237 blocks. Therefore, for each phenotype variable, we first estimated the block effect with a subset of 8
238 strains cultivated in both blocks using a linear model with two fixed effects : the strain and the block.
239 Additive models were used as the interactions terms were not significantly different from zero after
240 adjusting p-values with the Benjamini-Hochberg method. Second, each phenotype variable was
241 corrected for the block effect and analyzed with the mixed effect model: $Y_{ijkl} = \mu + \alpha_i + \beta_j + \gamma_{ij} +$
242 $Z_k + \epsilon_{ijkl}$ where Y_{ijkl} represents the log-transformed phenotype variable corrected for the block effect
243 for the strain k , from species i ($i=1,2$), sampled in environment j ($j=1,2$), observed for replicate l . μ
244 represents the mean of the phenotype variable, α_i the additive effect of species i , β_j the additive effect
245 of environment j , and γ_{ij} their interaction. Z_k represents the gaussian random effect of strain k with $Z_k \sim$
246 $N(0, \sigma_s^2)$ and ϵ_{ijkl} the gaussian residuals with $\epsilon_{ijkl} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$. For each species i , the impact of the
247 environment was quantified using the contrast $\Delta_i = \beta_S + \gamma_{i,S} - \beta_{NS} - \gamma_{i,NS}$ with NS standing for
248 “non-sourdough” and “S” for “sourdough” and tests ($H_0 = \Delta_i = 0, H_1: \Delta_i \neq 0$) were performed and
249 p-values were adjusted using the Benjamini-Hochberg method. As log-transformed data were analyzed,
250 the exponential of this contrast can be interpreted as the ratio between the sourdough mean and the non-
251 sourdough mean. Confidence intervals and tests were performed using the doBy R-package.

252 All statistics and plots (ggplot2 [48], leaflet package [49], with minor esthetical adjustment with
253 Inkscape) have been done with R. Data and scripts are shared on Zenodo.
254 <http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.2600170>

255

256 **Results**

257 **Two groups of bread-making practices**

258 A total of 39 French bakers producing natural sourdough bread and distributed all over France
259 participated to the study (Table S1). The bread-making practices of 35 of them were collected through
260 one or several methods: personal interviews (with 12 bakers), focus groups (3 groups), observation
261 during bread-making workshops (2 workshops), and an online/phone survey (36 bakers). The general
262 process of sourdough bread making is presented in Figure 1. We analyzed 28 variables around this
263 general bread making process, describing variations of the practices at all steps of the bread making
264 process, from wheat grains to baked bread (Figure S1). Four bakers (B6, B10, B19, B20) who did not
265 provide enough information about their practices were excluded from the multivariate analysis.
266 According to a hierarchical clustering on principal components (HCPC), the 32 other bakers clustered
267 into two groups corresponding to two main types of bread-making practices (Figure 2). The first group,
268 hereafter termed “farmer-like” practices group, includes 6 bakers and 11 farmers-bakers using the
269 following practices: low bread production (<500 kg per week, 81% of the bakers of the “farmer-like”
270 group), use of ancient wheat populations (56%), manual kneading (63%), working at ambient
271 temperature (88%), long fermentation periods (more than 4 hours for 88%), and no use of commercial
272 baker’s yeast (88%). In addition, they tend to make their chief sourdough from dough after kneading
273 (75%). The second group, hereafter called “artisanal-like” practices group consists of 12 bakers and 4
274 farmer-bakers having more intensive practices, characterized by a large bread production (>500 kg per
275 week, 81%), mechanical kneading (100%), use of modern wheat varieties (63%), working at ambient
276 temperature (56%), using commercial yeast starters in addition to sourdough for bread making or using
277 commercial yeast starters for pastries and buns making (81%). In this second group, bakers tend to make
278 their chief sourdough from a final sourdough.

279 **Composition of sourdough fungal communities**

280 Sourdough is a mix of flour and water naturally fermented by bacteria and yeasts. Sourdough yeast
281 density ranged from $8.1 \cdot 10^4$ to $5.8 \cdot 10^8$ CFU per gram of sourdough, with a mean value of $2.9 \cdot 10^7$ CFU
282 per gram, as commonly found in sourdoughs from all over the world [1, 16, 50, 51]. We isolated 20 to
283 40 yeast strains from each sourdough **by picking colonies randomly** and identified species using ITS
284 sequence as well as other barcodes when needed (see M&M section). Among the 39 collected
285 sourdoughs, one (sourdough B14) did not give any colony in the laboratory, suggesting that his
286 sourdough microbiota was no longer alive. A total of 1216 strains were characterized from the other 38
287 sourdoughs. In addition, we developed an ITS1 meta-barcoding MiSeq sequencing method on
288 sourdough (see sup M&M). After filtering 5,360,620 raw ITS1 sequences for quality, abundance
289 (0.005%) and chimera, 3,542,801 sequences were further analyzed. Overall, the sequences clustered in
290 113 OTUs. The number of reads per sourdough ranged from 8421 to 194 557. Therefore, we carried out
291 our analysis on the rarefied matrix. Among all OTUs, 64 were identified as non-yeast, including 10
292 assigned to the order *Triticodae* (especially to the species *Triticum aestivum*), 50 assigned to **assigned**
293 **to genera that include plant pathogen species together with saprobic ones**, such as *Alternaria*, *Aspergillus*
294 or *Fusarium*, *Gibberella*, while 4 OTUs remained unidentified. Among the 40 yeast or yeast-like OTUs,
295 96% of total reads were assigned to the phylum *Ascomycota*, 87.5% to the order *Saccharomycetales* and
296 85.7% to the family *Saccharomycetaceae*. Only 4% of the total reads were assigned to the phylum
297 *Basidiomycota*. Overall, three OTUs assigned to the species *Kazachstania humilis*, *Kazachstania*
298 *bulderi* and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* represented 20.3%, 15.5% and 24.1% respectively of the total
299 number of reads and 28.1%, 23.7% and 18.2% respectively of the number of reads identified as yeast
300 species (Figure 3).

301 Both non-culture-based and culture-based methods allowed the identification of the same dominant
302 species (defined as a species with an over 50% frequency) for all sourdoughs but five (B09, B20, B22,
303 B25, B41) (Figure 3). In two cases, the discrepancy was explained by the detection of *Cladosporium* sp.
304 at high frequency with metabarcoding while this species could not be isolated in the laboratory (Figure

305 3). In two other cases, it was explained by a high number of *S. cerevisiae* isolated in the laboratory
306 compared to what was observed using metabarcoding sequencing. Finally, in the last case, the
307 identification of *Pichia kudriavzevii* required additional sequencing as it shares an identical ITS with
308 *Candida xylopsoci*. Because metabarcoding allows a deeper characterization of the fungal species
309 diversity with few discrepancy cases, the distribution of fungal species diversity will be further described
310 using metabarcoding data only. Previous analysis of the same sourdoughs revealed that *F.*
311 *sanfranciscensis* was the dominant bacterial species in all analyzed sourdoughs but two, where the
312 dominant species was either *L. curvatus* or *L. heilongjiangensis* [20, 52, 53]. Therefore, we decided to
313 study the distribution pattern of microbial species in the fungal community only.

314 **Fungal species diversity within and between sourdoughs**

315 All sourdoughs but two had a dominant yeast species with a relative abundance over 50% and
316 many species with a lower relative abundance (Figure 3). Within sourdoughs, fungal species richness
317 ranged from 10 to 33, with a 23.5 median (Table S3). The effective number of species per sourdough
318 calculated from the Shannon diversity index ranged from 1 to 6.8 (Table S3), with 70% of sourdoughs
319 having an index below 2 (Table S3). Between-sourdough species differences were analyzed using
320 weighted Unifrac distances, computed from a phylogenetic tree built from the distances between OTUs
321 using *Sporidiobolales species* as root (Figure S2). Unifrac distances computed with four differently
322 rooted trees were highly positively correlated (Figure S3). Unifrac distances between sourdoughs ranged
323 from 0.0005 and 0.71, with a median of 0.49 and a mean of 0.52. The clustering of sourdoughs according
324 to their Unifrac distances is show Figure 5. There was no significant correlation between the Unifrac
325 distances and geographical distances between sourdoughs (Mantel test, $P=0.35$).

326 We then analyzed specifically the distribution of yeast species as yeast, together with lactic acid
327 bacteria, are the main functional player in a sourdough ecosystem and for bread quality. Over the 40
328 yeast species detected in the 38 sourdoughs, 12 had a relative abundance over 50% in at least one
329 sourdough, four had a relative abundance between 20% and 50% and 24 had a relative abundance below
330 10%. All dominant species (relative abundance over 50%) were fermentative yeast species, except in

331 one sourdough that had a *Cladosporium* species. We found all the sourdough yeast genera
332 (*Saccharomyces*, *Kazachstania*, *Pichia*, *Torulaspora* and *Hyphopichia*) commonly reported in the
333 literature except the *Wickerhamomyces* genus that we did not detect in our samples [1, 15, 16].

334 **The baker's yeast species, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* is not the most widespread yeast** 335 **species in French organic sourdoughs**

336 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* was found in 53% of all sourdoughs (95% confidence intervals=36%
337 - 69%) but was dominant (relative abundance over 50%) in only 24% (95% confidence intervals=11%
338 - 40%) (Figure 3). In two cases, *S. cerevisiae* co-occurred with another yeast species at similar relative
339 abundance. In the first case, *S. cerevisiae* was present at a relative abundance of 40% with *Candida sake*
340 at a 41% relative abundance. In the second case, it was found at a relative abundance of 47% with *Pichia*
341 *kudriavzevii* at a relative abundance of 52%. In all the other cases, *S. cerevisiae* had a relative abundance
342 below 21% and was found with other dominant yeast species, such as *Kazachstania australis*,
343 *Kazachstania humilis*, *Saccharomyces uvarum* or *Torulaspora delbrueckii*. This suggests that *S.*
344 *cerevisiae* did not displace other species and can indeed be out-competed by other species in sourdoughs.

345 **Sourdough yeast species mostly belong to the *Kazachstania* genus**

346 *Kazachstania* was the most represented yeast genus over all sourdoughs, when considering both the
347 number of reads over all sourdoughs and the number of detected species. Indeed, this genus represented
348 57% of the total number of reads while *Saccharomyces* represented 26% of the total number of reads.
349 In addition, eight species of the *Kazachstania* genus were found in sourdough, while the *Saccharomyces*
350 genus was represented by two species (*S. uvarum* and *S. cerevisiae*) (Figure 3). **The *Kazachstania* genus**
351 **is one of the closest genetically related genus to *Saccharomyces* and contained Crabtree positive yeasts,**
352 **able to ferment glucose even when oxygen is present if the amount of sugar is sufficient (Hagman &**
353 **Piskur 2015). *Kazachstania* species dominated in 54% (95% confidence intervals=36%-69%) of**
354 **sourdoughs while *Saccharomyces* species dominated in 27% only (95% confidence intervals=13%-**
355 **43%). *Kazachstania humilis*, followed by *K. bulderi* were the most commonly dominant *Kazachstania***

356 species, and found in respectively 21% (95% confidence intervals=10%-37%) and 15% of sourdoughs
357 (95% confidence intervals=6%-31%) (Figure 3). A recently described *Kazachstania* species,
358 *Kazachstania bozae*, was also identified in five sourdoughs (4.5%-29%) and found dominant in three
359 (1.7%-22%) [64]. Strains of this species were closely related to a strain previously isolated from boza,
360 a Bulgarian fermented drink, as estimated with ITS and LSU (D1D2) barcodes (Source: NCBI,
361 GenBank: KC118125.1 and KX369579.1). In addition, *Kazachstania saulgeensis*, a recently described
362 species [65, 66], was dominant in one sourdough (0.07%-14%). *Kazachstania unispora* and
363 *Kazachstania servazzi* which had previously been detected in sourdough were also found [17, 17, 53,
364 57, 58, 63, 67–71]. Finally, some *Kazachstania* species were detected for the first time as dominant in
365 sourdoughs, whereas they had been previously found in other environments, like soil (*K. australis*),
366 sauerkraut (*K. barnettii*) [72–74]. None of the previous studies on sourdough have evidenced as many
367 *Kazachstania* species in sourdough.

368 **The composition of sourdough fungal communities was associated with differences in** 369 **bread-making practices**

370 We tested whether sourdough fungal community beta diversity could be explained by bread-making
371 practices. To do so, we performed univariate PERMANOVA analysis on the 30 bakers with less than 8
372 missing values for the 29 bread-making practices variables (Table S4). The univariate analysis revealed
373 that the weighted Unifrac distance is structured according to the use of commercial yeast in bakery
374 ($P < 0.05$). It also varied significantly with sourdough age, chief sourdough origin (dough, sourdough or
375 both), the quantity of bread produced per week, the milling method (cylinder, millstone, Astrie, Tyrol),
376 the type of wheat variety (ancient, modern or a mix thereof) and the fermentation duration. However,
377 after FDR correction for taking into account multiple testing, none of these variables significantly
378 explained Unifrac distances.

379 In order to understand further the relationship between sourdough fungal community composition
380 and bread-making practices, we clustered sourdoughs according to their fungal community composition,
381 on the basis of the PCoA of their weighted Unifrac distances. Then, we tested the link between the

382 fungal community group and the bread making practice group (farmers/artisanal practices group) as well
383 as the link between the fungal community group and each of the different bread-making practices
384 (Figure 5). Sourdoughs were clustered into three fungal community groups. Group 1 clustered all
385 sourdoughs (but two) having *Kazachstania* species as dominant species (*K. humilis*, *K. barnettii*, *K.*
386 *bulderi*, *K. saulgeensis*, *K. bozae*). Group 2 contained sourdoughs with *Saccharomyces* sp., *K. servazzi*
387 or *K. unispora* as dominant species. Group 3 sourdoughs harbored *S. cerevisiae* together with other
388 species such as *Pichia kudriavzevii*, *Candida sake*, or a Dipodascaceae sp. Group 1 sourdoughs were
389 mostly made by bakers having farmer's bread-making practices while group 2 and 3 sourdoughs were
390 mostly made by bakers using artisanal practices (exact Fisher test, P=0.035). The fungal community
391 groups were significantly associated with two specific bread making practice variables: the quantity (in
392 kg) of bread made per week (Exact Fisher test, P=0.001) and the use of commercial yeast (Exact Fisher
393 test, P=0.05). All sourdoughs in group 2 but one were found in bakeries making between 500 kg and
394 1000 kg of bread per week, while groups 1 and 3 sourdoughs originated from bakeries producing very
395 different amounts of bread (ranging from amounts below 250 kg to over 1000 kg). In addition, group 1
396 sourdoughs were more frequently found in bakeries that do not use commercial yeast while group 2 and
397 3 were more frequently found in bakeries using the commercial yeast *S. cerevisiae* (Exact Fisher test,
398 P=0.01). Interestingly, group 1 sourdoughs harbored *S. cerevisiae* either at a relative abundance below
399 1% or not at all, while all groups 2 and 3 sourdoughs had *S. cerevisiae* at a relative abundance over 20%,
400 except in three cases where it was either absent or at a relative abundance below 6%.

401 To test more specifically the link between bread-making practices and the distribution of
402 *Kazachstania* species, we analyzed more in depth group 1 sourdoughs. Within this group, 8 sourdoughs
403 had *K. humilis* as dominant species, 6 had *K. bulderi*, 3 had *K. bozae* and the remainder had still other
404 *Kazachstania* species. All sourdoughs made with artisanal practices carried *K. humilis* as dominant
405 species or, in one case, the *K. bozae*. By contrast, sourdoughs made with farmers' practices had as
406 dominant species *K. bulderi*, *K. australis*, *K. barnettii*, *K. saulgeensis* or *K. bozae* (exact Fisher test,
407 P=0.004).

409 **Fungal community composition was partly related to sourdough acidity, maltose**
410 **concentration and hydration**

411 The composition of fungal community may affect sourdough metabolic content (sugars, acids, alcohols)
412 via fungal strains metabolite consumption and production. Inversely, the presence and concentration of
413 different compounds (sugars, acids, alcohols) may affect differently the fitness depending on the strains
414 and consequently be one of the drivers of fungal community composition. For example, lactic acid
415 bacteria (LAB) are the main producers of acidity in sourdough, but yeasts also produce acetic acid and
416 also indirectly affect acidity through positive or negative interaction with bacteria.

417 To investigate the relation between sourdough fungal communities and metabolic compounds, we
418 quantified sourdough hydration, yeast density, bacteria density, sourdough pH, Total Titrable Acidity
419 (TTA), sourdough concentration in seven sugars (maltose, glucose, fructose, raffinose, arabinose,
420 mannose, xylose), four alcohols (glycerol, ethanol, mannitol, meso-erythritol), six acids (lactate,
421 acetate, glutarate, pyruvate, malate, succinate) and calculated the fermentative quotient (lactate over
422 acetate ratio). For each variable, there was a wide range of variation (Table S5). The principal component
423 analysis based on all variables showed no evidence of sourdough grouping (Figure S4). As expected in
424 fermentation, yeast density was positively correlated to ethanol ($r=0.74$, $P<0.001$), glycerol ($r=0.67$,
425 $P<0.001$), and acetate ($r=0.6$, $P<0.001$) concentration. However, it was not significantly correlated to
426 sugar concentrations. This might be explained by the co-occurrence of bacteria which have their own
427 metabolism and interact by competition and/or cross feeding with sourdough yeasts.

428 We then tested whether the variation of each quantitative variable was associated with the bread-
429 making practices groups (farmer-like practices and artisanal practices). There was no significant effect
430 of the bread making practice group except for sourdough hydration that was significantly higher in
431 sourdoughs made using farmer-like practices ($F_{1,94}=11.69$, $P<0.001$). On average, sourdoughs made with

432 farmers-liker practices had 55% water while sourdoughs made with artisanal-like practices had in
433 average 49% of water.

434 In addition, we tested whether variations in quantitative variables were associated with the fungal
435 community groups (Table S5). Group 3 microbial community sourdoughs (defined by PCoA clustering
436 on Unifrac distance, see below), which contains *S. cerevisiae* in co-dominance with a second yeast
437 species (*Candida sake*, *Pichia kudriavzevii* or a *Dipodascus* species), had a significantly higher mean
438 pH (mean pH_{group3}=4.2 against pH_{group1}=3.8, Tukey Contrasts, P<0.001), lower TTA (mean TTA
439 _{group3}=7.7 against TTA_{group1}=17.1, Tukey Contrasts, P=0.002), and a higher maltose concentration (mean
440 Maltose_{group3}=52.8 mg/gr of sourdough against Maltose_{group1}=24.1 mg/gr of sourdough, Tukey
441 Contrasts P=0.002) than group1, having a *Kazachstania* dominant species. Compared to group 2 having
442 in most cases *S. cerevisiae* as dominant species, it also had higher pH (pH_{group2}=3.9, Tukey Contrasts,
443 P=0.003), and higher maltose concentration (Maltose_{group2}=23.7, Tukey contrast, P=0.003). These data
444 may reflect a lower fermentative activity for group 3 fungal community having two co-dominant species,
445 and/or a negative interaction effect of group3 fungal community on the activity of lactic acid bacteria
446 (LAB), which are the main producers of sourdough acids. Previous studies on the bacteria content of
447 the same sourdoughs showed that *L. sanfranciscensis* was most generally the dominant species, although
448 *L. heilongjiangensis*, *L. curvatus* or *L. brevis* were also found as dominant species [20, 52, 53]. We
449 found no significant correlation between LAB and yeast densities ($r = -0.15$, $p = 0.45$, Figure S4) but the
450 link between fungal and bacteria community might be species and strains dependent. Additional studies
451 on the interactions between fungal and bacterial communities need to be performed to better understand
452 how they may drive sourdough acidity and sugar content.

453 Finally, we analyzed whether the variations of each quantitative variable was associated with the
454 dominant yeast species. We only considered the 26 sourdoughs having either *S. cerevisiae* (9
455 sourdoughs), *K. humilis* (8 sourdoughs), *K. bulderi* (6 sourdoughs) or *K. bozae* (3 sourdoughs) as
456 dominant species, since the other yeast species were found dominant only once. The differences in
457 dominant species was not significantly associated to variation in sourdough sugar, acids or alcohol

458 concentration. However, on average, sourdoughs dominated by *K. bulderi* were more hydrated (63%
459 water content in average) than sourdoughs dominated by *K. humilis*, *K. bozae*, and *S. cerevisiae*, having
460 respectively 49%, 47%, 53 % water content in average ($P < 0.001$ for the 3 Tukey Contrasts).
461 *Kazachstania bulderi* was found to be dominant only in sourdoughs made using farmers' practices, a
462 bread making practice group that was also found to be associated with more hydrated sourdoughs.
463 Additional experiments should be carried out to test whether this species has indeed a better fitness in
464 more hydrated sourdoughs or whether its presence in more hydrated sourdoughs is related to covariation
465 with other farmer practices.

466 **Phenotypic signatures of domestication**

467 A previous analysis on *S. cerevisiae* revealed that sourdough strains had higher average fitness and
468 fermentation performance than strains from other environments in a sourdough-mimicking medium
469 (Bigey et al. 2021). Here, we investigated whether **evidence of a domestication syndrome** could also be
470 found in *K. humilis* and *K. bulderi*, the two *Kazachstania* species most commonly found in French
471 sourdoughs. We tested whether fitness (log of population size and mortality at the end of fermentation)
472 and fermentation performance (CO_2max , V_{max} , t_{1g} , tV_{max}) differed between sourdough strains and
473 strains from elsewhere.

474 A principal component analysis of 38 strains of *K. bulderi* and *K. humilis*, based on quantitative variation
475 in the six phenotypic variables described below was carried out. The first two axis explained 80.5% of
476 the variation and clearly separated strains by species (Figure 6). The *K. bulderi* strains were located at
477 the right of the PCA and were characterized by high population size and low mortality at the end of
478 fermentation, while the *K. humilis* strains were located at the left and were characterized by a rapid onset
479 of fermentation (t_{1g}), high maximum fermentation rate (V_{max}), and a short time to reach V_{max}
480 (tV_{max}). Non-sourdough strains of *K. humilis* were located outside the cloud of sourdough strains while
481 non-sourdough strains of *K. bulderi* were distributed within and outside the cloud of sourdough strains.

482 Statistical comparison of sourdough and non-sourdough strains of *K. bulderi* and *K. humilis* for each
483 phenotypic variable revealed **phenotypic divergence** for *K. humilis* but not for *K. bulderi*. While the *K.*
484 *bulderi* sourdough strains did not ferment significantly faster than the non-sourdough strains, the *K.*
485 *humilis* sourdough strains showed significantly higher V_{max}, lower t_{lg}, and lower tV_{max} than the non-
486 sourdough *K. humilis* strains (Figure 7, Table S6). On average, they started fermentation two hours
487 before the others and reached V_{max} three hours before the others. In addition, their V_{max} were on
488 average 34% higher than the others.

489 **Discussion**

490 Sourdough microbial diversity has been intensively studied worldwide. Despite a cultural and historical
491 interest on bread in France, French sourdough fungal diversity was only partly characterized before this
492 study [19, 53, 71]. A recent large-scale (> 500 starters) study of sourdough microbial diversity revealed
493 the fungal diversity that can be detected over the globe across home-made sourdoughs [17].
494 Comparison of these findings with the diversity found in France showed that all the yeast species
495 detected at a relative abundance over 1% in this international collection of sourdoughs were detected in
496 French sourdoughs except the species, *Wickerhamomyces anomalus*, *Pichia membranifaciens*,
497 *Naumovozya castellii*, and *Saccharomyces bayanus*. Inversely, French baker's sourdough harbored
498 some yeast species that were never found elsewhere, such as *K. bozae*, *K. australis*, *K. saulgeensis* [65].
499 Beyond the baker yeast species, *S. cerevisiae*, the most represented yeast genus in French sourdough
500 was *Kazachstania*. Eight *Kazachstania* species were found as dominant yeast species in at least one
501 French sourdough. This includes *K. humilis*, *K. bulderi*, *K. barnettii*, *K. unispora*, *K. servazzii*, *K. bozae*,
502 *K. australis*, *K. saulgeensis*. Three *Kazachstania* species (*K. exigua*, *K. lodderae*, *K. naganishi*) already
503 reported in sourdough were not found in our collection of French sourdough. *Kazachstania lodderae*
504 and *K. naganishi* are rarely found in sourdough. By contrast, *K. exigua* is a frequently cited sourdough
505 species in the literature. It has been previously found in France, Finland [77], Italy [78, 79], Denmark
506 [80], Ethiopia [81], USA [17]. It is also the first species to have been isolated from a sourdough (in San
507 Francisco, [29]). However, the attempt to study its genetic variation has been hampered by the fact that

508 it probably originated from hybridization between unknown yeast species [82]. To date, the genus
509 *Kazachstania* is composed of more than 40 species, of which 11 are present in the sourdough. It is
510 possible that an adaptive radiation linked to the adaptation to different sourdoughs or to different
511 anthropized niches has taken place, as it has been observed for example in cichlids during their
512 adaptation to different lakes. Indeed, five of the *Kazachstania* species present in the sourdough have so
513 far only been detected in human-related niches. These are *K. saulgeensis*, *K. barnettii*, *K. bozae*, *K.*
514 *bulderi*, *K. humilis*. These species are genetically closer to each other than they are to *K. australis*, *K.*
515 *servazzii* and *K. unispora* which have also been found in nature and are grouped in another part of the
516 *Kazachstania* phylogenetic tree. Genomic analysis of these species would shed light on their evolution.
517 So far, eight of the 11 *Kazachstania* species found in the sourdough have at least one genome assembly
518 available in public databases, including *K. saulgeensis* and *K. barnettii* [44, 45], and the assemblies of
519 *K. bulderi* and *K. humilis*, which were recently published in public databases (Bio project:
520 PRJEB44438). The genomic and phenomic analysis of the large collection of *Kazachstania* strains
521 obtained by our study, together with the world collection of *Kazachstania* strains, may shed light on the
522 radiation and domestication processes of these species.

523 We found that yeast community composition was partly related with bread-making practices. Bread-
524 making practices divergence also led to different phenotypic signatures. Strains of the *K. humilis*
525 species, which was typical of sourdough made by artisanal-like practices, had increased fermentation
526 rate while strains of *K. bulderi* which was typical of sourdough made by farmer-like bread-making
527 practices had not. The species *K. humilis* has been found in many countries, viz. Austria, Canada, China,
528 Denmark, Ethiopia, Finland, Germany, Greece, Italy, Morocco, the Netherland, Spain, UK, USA, and
529 France [1, 15–17, 19, 53, 55–60]. It is also the most frequently encountered *Kazachstania* species in
530 sourdoughs around the world. This species is therefore frequently found in bakeries, where short
531 fermentations are often favored. This may explain why sourdough strains of *K. humilis* seem to have
532 been selected for increased fermentation rate. Increased fermentation rate was also found in bakery
533 strains of *S. cerevisiae* when compared to non-bakery strains.

534 In contrast, we did not find evidence of selection for improved fermentation performance in *K.*
535 *bulderi*, which was the third most represented species in French sourdough. *Kazachstania bulderi* was
536 found in bakeries with farmer-like practices. These bakeries often bake bread once or twice a week and
537 store their sourdough for several days. They also often use long fermentation and thus may not have
538 selected an increased fermentation rate. Farmer-bakers typically store their sourdough for several days
539 during the week and therefore make a lower number of backslopping during the week. In addition, they
540 make bread with longer fermentation times than artisanal bakers. It is therefore possible that they did
541 not select to accelerate the speed of fermentation and instead let natural selection in the sourdough
542 environment act alone. Alternatively, the lack of phenotypic divergence between sourdough and non-
543 sourdough strains may reflect the limitation of our sampling. *Kazachstania bulderi* has been reported
544 for the first time in anaerobic maize silage in the Netherlands and in fermented liquid feed for piglets
545 [61, 62], more recently in French, Belgium and Spain sourdoughs [19, 53, 57, 63] but to our knowledge
546 was never found in wild environment. Here, we compare sourdough strains with strains coming from
547 ensilage and animal feed. It is unknown whether ensilage and animal feed strains are wild strains or feral
548 strains that have escaped from other domesticated environments. This may explain why we did not detect
549 any phenotypic divergence between sourdough and non-sourdough strains of *K. bulderi*. Other than
550 fermentation phenotypes, there was no evidence of fitness differences between sourdough and non-
551 sourdough strains of *K. humilis* and *K. bulderi* in sourdough mimicking media. Additional experiments
552 in real dough should be performed to further test the effect of natural selection in this environment.

553 Other evolutionary process than selection could also explain the distribution of yeast species across
554 sourdoughs. Interviews with the bakers working with sourdough hosting *K. bulderi* and *K. bozae*
555 suggested the role of dispersion of these species in French sourdoughs. Indeed, these bakers have been
556 connected over the years either through seed exchanges, sourdough mixing or gifts, bread making
557 training in common or working in one another's bakery. Some yeast species have been found in the
558 bakery house environment and baker's hands and may thus be dispersed through baker's tools or baker's
559 travels [58, 67, 75, 76]. However, it is still unclear whether wheat seeds and flour are a source of
560 sourdough yeasts.

561 To our knowledge, this is the first evidence of the influence of artisanal practices on taxonomic
562 diversity in microbial communities. On the other hand, several studies have shown that making
563 fermented products could lead to the selection of divergent phenotypes and genotypes. This is the case
564 of sourdough and industrial populations of the baker's yeast *S. cerevisiae* that diverge among themselves
565 and have a better fermentation performance than non-baker's strains. As for beer populations, sourdough
566 populations have acquired a better capacity to assimilate maltose, linked at least in part to an increase
567 in the number of copies of the genes involved in the assimilation of maltose. Several studies on wine
568 populations of *S. cerevisiae*, *Torulaspora delbrueckii* et *Lachancea thermotolerans* also showed that
569 wine populations are genetically differentiated from strains from other environments and present
570 beneficial phenotypes in grape must and for wine quality. The analysis of filamentous cheese fungi *P.*
571 *roqueforti* and *P. camemberti* populations also revealed cheese making genetically differentiated
572 populations. Interestingly, different genetic groups associated with different cheese making practices
573 were found. Strains of the blue cheese fungus, *P. roqueforti*, isolated from Roquefort cheese were more
574 diverse and were genetically and phenotypically different than strains used to make other blue cheeses
575 [83, 84, 85]. Two varieties of the white cheese making fungus, *P. camemberti*, with different phenotypic
576 features, were associated with different kind of cheese (camembert and brie). All together these studies
577 show that the diversity of practices used to make fermented products allows to maintain genetic,
578 phenotypic and taxonomic diversity.

579 However, fungal domestication also involved important bottleneck. For example, the low level of
580 genetic diversity found in blue-cheese *P. roqueforti* strains and *P. camemberti* strains revealed the risk
581 of diversity erosion in fermented product making [6, 7, 84]. This risk is associated with the massive use
582 of few industrial strains or the need to standardize products to meet the specifications of industrial
583 production or AOP. Here, we show that despite the recurrent use of *S. cerevisiae* as industrial starter
584 species in bakeries and homes, and the occurrence of this species in a wide range of habitats such as
585 soil, trees, and humans [9, 54], this species does not appear to have overwhelmingly colonized French
586 traditional sourdoughs (Figure 3, Figure 4). This result confirmed a recent analysis which revealed that
587 *S. cerevisiae* sourdough strains have a different evolutionary history than industrial strains [10]. The

588 dynamic of microbial species colonization and invasion in food environment remain largely unknown.
589 A recent study suggested that wild-type *Penicillium* can evolved in a few weeks into a domesticated
590 form. Additional experiments at the level of microbial community will shed light on the dynamic of
591 microbial community establishment in food production and on the ability of industrial strains to invade
592 food microbial community.

593

594 **Conclusion and perspectives**

595 In conclusion, a great diversity of bread-making practices and fungal community composition
596 was found in our sample of French sourdoughs. Surprisingly, the well-known baker's yeast *S. cerevisiae*
597 was found dominant only in one fourth of the sampled sourdoughs. By contrast, several species of the
598 neighboring genus *Kazachstania* were detected at high frequency, revealing a major role for this mostly
599 unknown genus in the study of fungal domestication and in bread making. Therefore, our results
600 highlight the necessity of maintaining socio-cultural diversity to maintain microbial diversity in food
601 systems. These findings could not have been evidenced without the collaboration of bakers and
602 scientists, showing the importance of participatory research projects to gain new insight into biodiversity
603 preservation.

604

605 **Acknowledgements**

606 This work has emanated from research conducted with the financial support of the French National
607 Research Agency, ANR-13-ALID-0005 and INRAE. We thank all the bakers and farmers-bakers for
608 constructing the project with us and for sharing their sourdoughs and knowledge. We thank Yoann
609 Robert, Candice Aulard, Josette Bessière for lab assistance and Matthieu Barret for MiSeq sequencing.
610 We also would like to thank Philippe Roussel for sharing his knowledge about French bread.

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828 **Figure Legends**

829 **Figure 1.** The sourdough bread making process. Sourdough is a mix of flour and water naturally
830 fermented by bacteria and yeasts. It is initiated by mixing flour, water and occasionally other ingredients.
831 It is then “fed” by regularly adding flour and water, a process termed back-slopping. Once considered
832 mature by bakers based on their acidity, flavour and bubbling activity, the sourdough is called "chief",
833 or “mother” sourdough, and can then be used for bread making. The bread making process starts from
834 this “chief sourdough”, or from a piece of dough or sourdough sampled from the preceding bread making
835 process, or initiated from a mix of flour and water naturally colonized by yeasts and LAB following
836 several back-sloppings. Once or several times, the chief sourdough is refreshed by adding flour and
837 water to constitute the final sourdough, which is used for bread making. This final sourdough is mixed
838 with flour, water, and other ingredients (salt, seeds, yeasts starters, etc.) during kneading to constitute
839 the dough. After kneading, primary fermentation occurs during the first rising. The dough is then divided
840 and shaped. The pieces of dough are then left to rise during a second fermentation and finally oven-
841 baked.

842

843 **Figure 2.** Multiple Correspondence Analysis (MCA) based on 28 categorical variables describing
844 bread-making practices.

845 A) Representation of bakers. Each point represents a bakery. **The purple area on the left brings together**
846 **baker with “artisanal” practices and the light blue area on the right the bakers with “farmer” practices.**

847 The dot’s colors indicate the PCoA cluster of the sourdough fungal community (see Figure 5). Black
848 dots for group 1, empty dot for group 2, grey for group 3. The fungal community of the sourdough of
849 baker 14 was not studied. B) Representation of the 20 first categories that contributed the most to the
850 MCA axes. The category, **which corresponds to a class of a variable**, is written next to the triangle. C)
851 Distribution of each variable for each bread-making practices group. Only variables that mostly
852 explained differences between bread making practice groups are shown: use of commercial yeast,
853 kneading method, chief origin, kg of bread production per week, number of bread making per week,

854 percent of water in dough, number of back-sloppings before making bread, water origin, sourdough age
855 and flour percentage in dough. The categories of each of these variables are indicated on the right.

856

857 **Figure 3.** Yeast species diversity was analyzed for 38 out of the 39 sourdoughs with both cultural and
858 metabarcoding methods. Left: species were identified by traditional microbial isolation and
859 identification using ITS sequencing. Right: species were identified using ITS1 metabarcoding. The
860 three most frequently-encountered species are shown in contrasting colors surrounded by black (blue:
861 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, red: *Kazachstania bulderi*, yellow: *Kazachstania humilis*). The bread-
862 making practice of the baker who supplied the sourdough is indicated on the left (“artisanal” in purple,
863 “farmer” in light blue).

864

865 **Figure 4.** Distribution of yeast species diversity across French sourdoughs. Each bar represents the yeast
866 species diversity of one sourdough and is placed on the map where the baker is located. Sourdoughs
867 from “farmer” practice are surrounded in light blue and sourdoughs from “artisanal” practice are
868 surrounded by purple.

869

870 **Figure 5.** Representation of sourdough depending on the weighted Unifrac distances between
871 microbial communities. A) shows the clustering of sourdoughs according to their Unifrac distances on
872 a tree (left) or on a PCoA (right). Sourdough fungal community can be clustered in three groups
873 according to their weighted Unifrac distances. B to E) shows on the left: a tree constructed from the
874 Unifrac distance matrix, in the center: sourdoughs represented on the first 2 axes of the PCoA and on
875 the right: the distribution of modalities of a variable for each group of sourdoughs (number of each
876 group on the x-axis). B) shows the distribution of bread-making practices among fungal community
877 groups, C) shows the distribution of the dominant or most frequent species among fungal community
878 (K: *Kazachstania*, C: *Candida*, T: *Torulaspora*, P: *Pichia*), D) shows the use of commercial
879 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* starter and E) shows the quantity of bread per week.

880

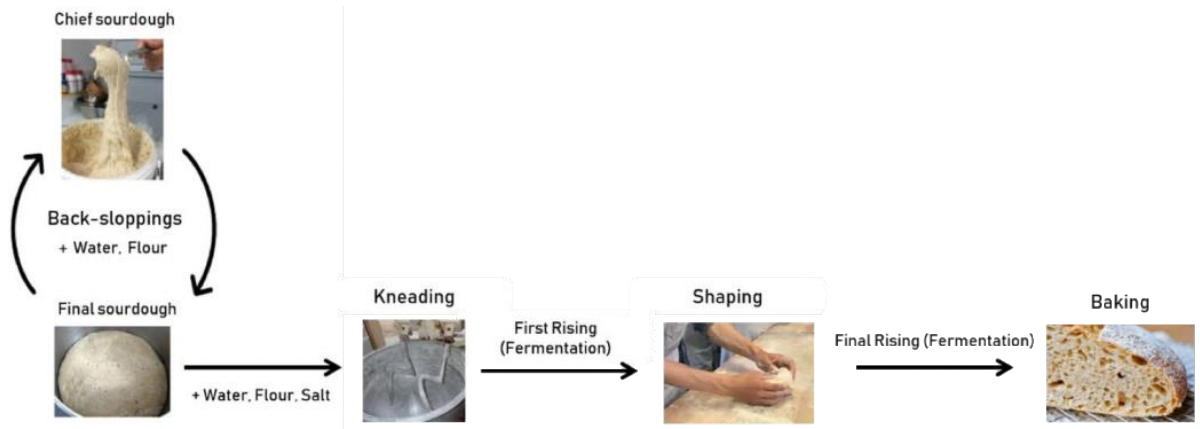
881 **Figure 6.** Principal component analysis of 37 *K. humilis* and *K. bulderi* strains based on the
882 quantitative variation of maximum CO₂ production (CO₂max), fermentation latency phase (t_{1g}),
883 maximum CO₂ production rate (V_{max}), time to reach the maximum production rate (tV_{max}), log of
884 population size and mortality at the end of the fermentation. The correlations between variables are
885 presented on the left while the figure on the right shows the projection of strains on the first two axes
886 representing 70.64% of the variation. The strains are colored according to their habitat of origin
887 (sourdough/non-sourdough). Their species is indicated by symbol.

888

889 **Figure 7.** Ratio between the sourdough strains mean and the non-sourdough strains mean values of
890 each quantitative variable measuring fermentation performance: **maximum CO₂ production**
891 **(CO₂max), fermentation latency phase (t_{1g}), maximum CO₂ production rate (V_{max}), time to reach**
892 **the maximum production rate (tV_{max}), log of population size.** Confidence intervals are indicated by
893 bars.

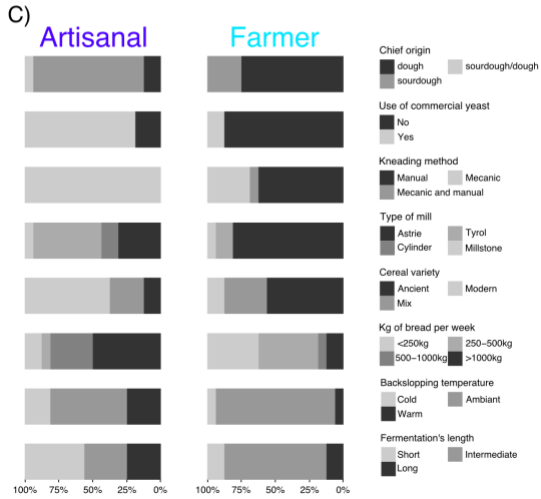
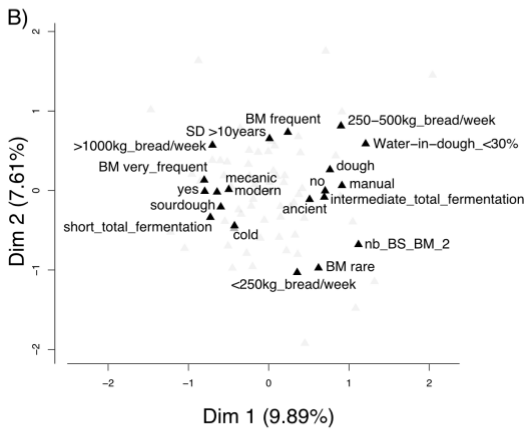
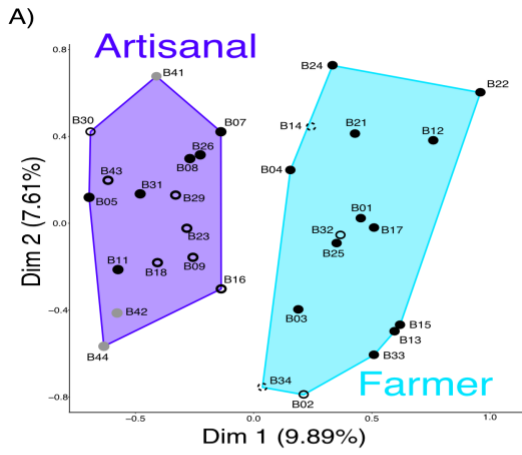
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895 Figure 1



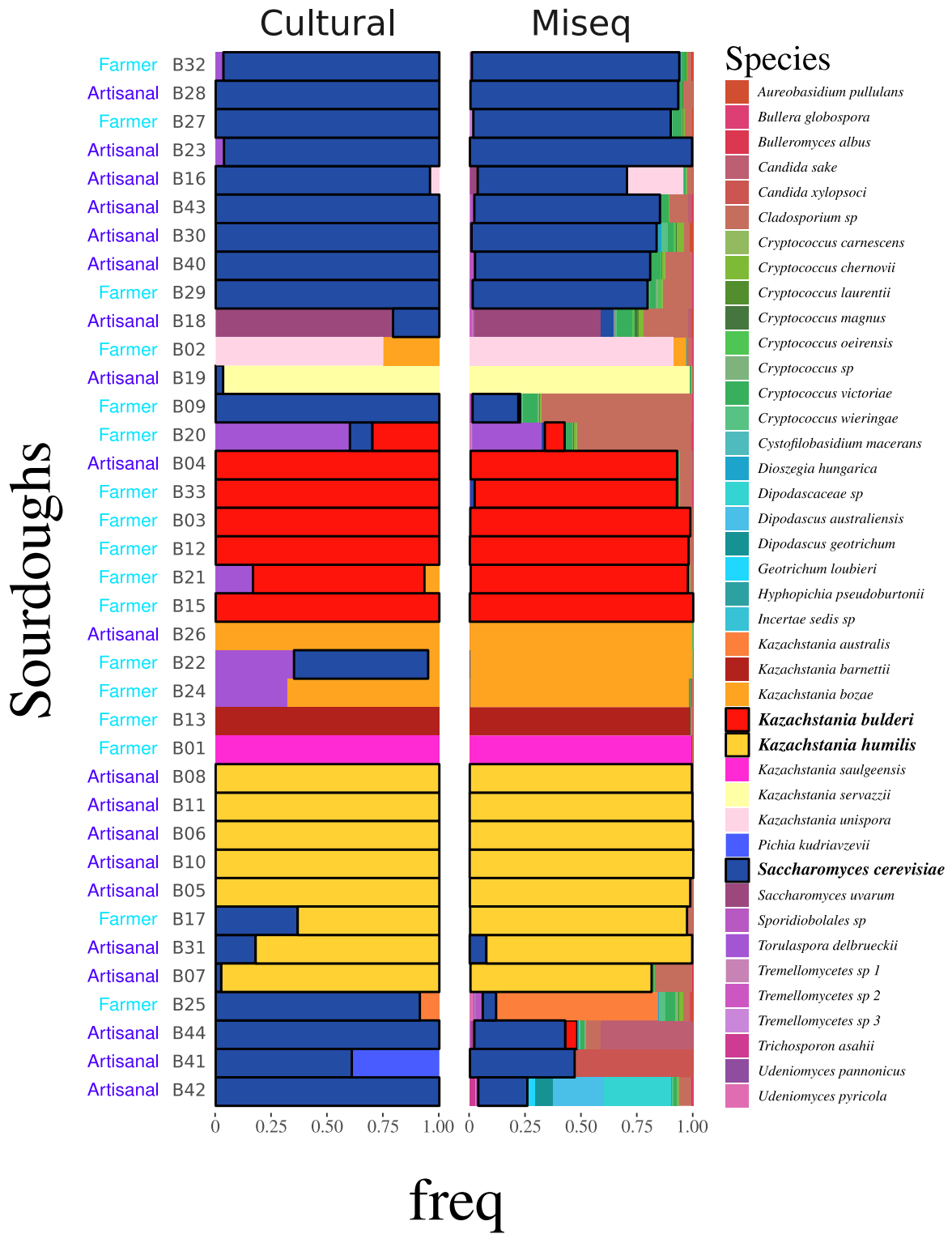
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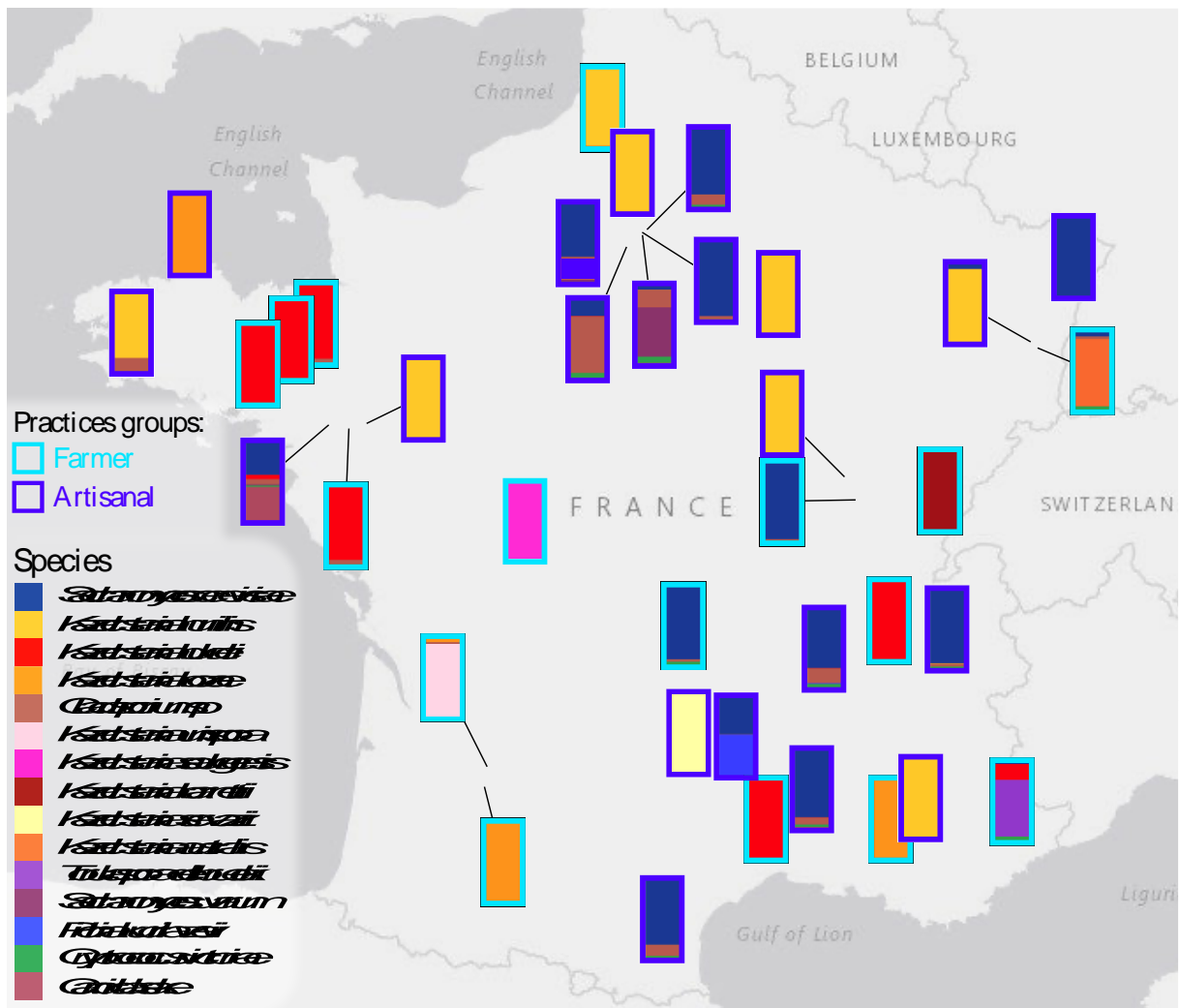
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901 Figure 3



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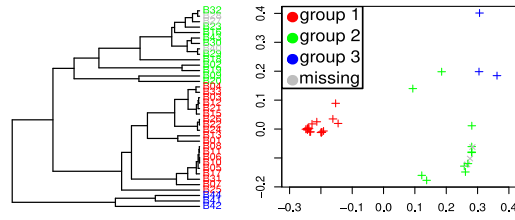
904 Figure 4
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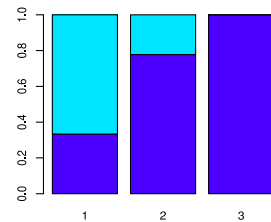
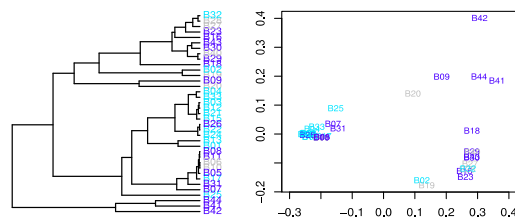
908 Figure 5
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A) Unifrac tree, clustered in 3 groups PcoA, clustering in 3 groups



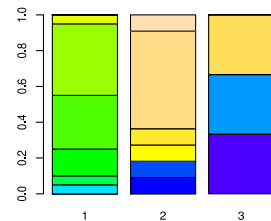
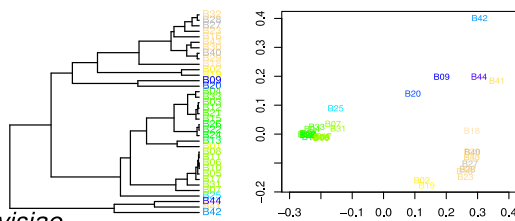
B) Practices clustering

- Artisanal practices
- Farmer practices
- Missing



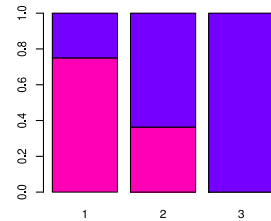
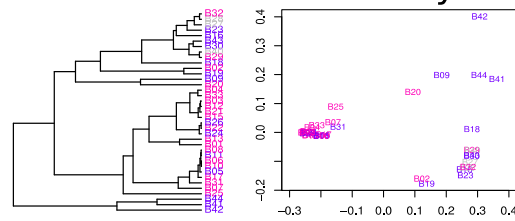
C) Dominant species

- *C. xylopsi* / *S. cerevisiae*
- *C. sp*
- *T. delbrueckii* / *C. sp*
- *D. sp*
- *K. australis*
- *K. barnettii*
- *K. bozae*
- *K. bulderi*
- *K. humilis*
- *K. saulgeensis*
- *K. servazzii*
- *K. unispora*
- *P. kudriavzevii* / *S. cerevisiae*
- *S. cerevisiae*
- *S. uvarum*



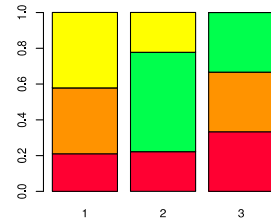
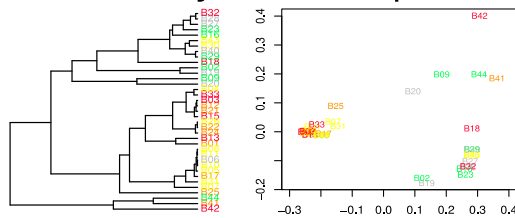
D) Use of commercial yeast

- No
- Yes
- Missing



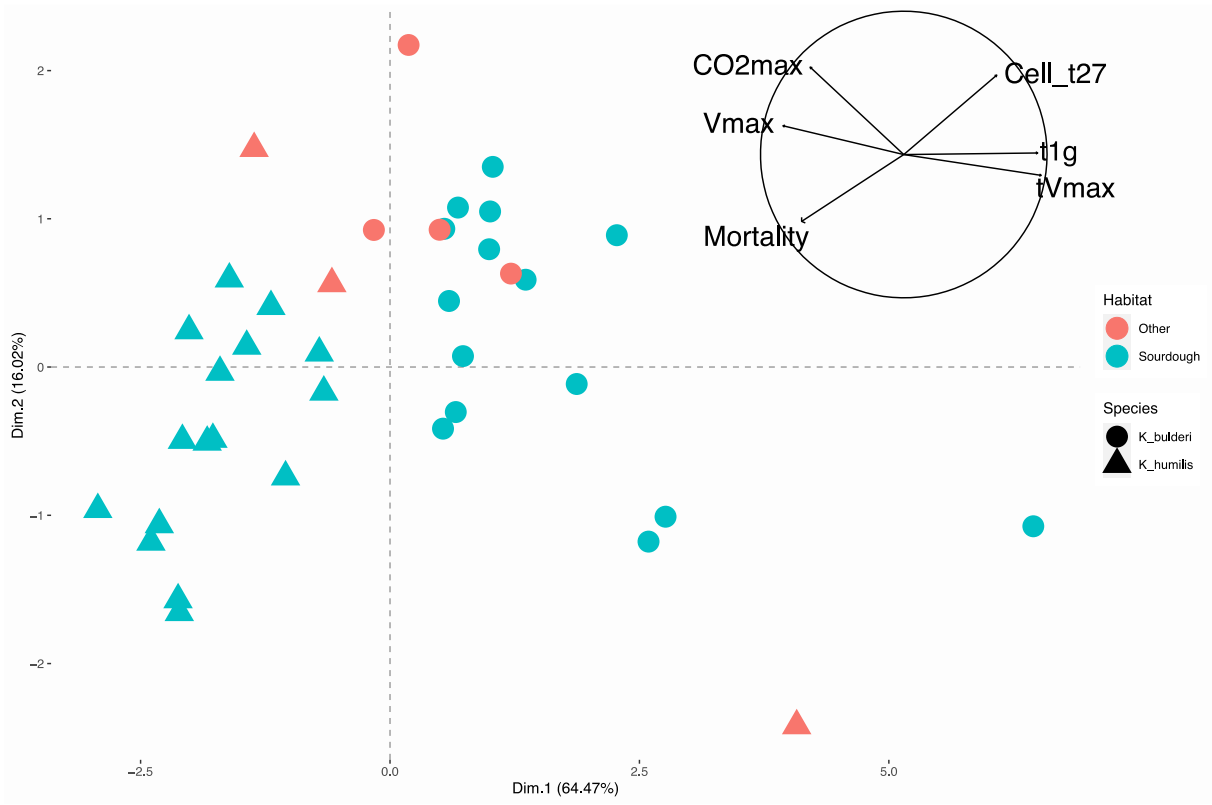
E) Quantity of bread per week

- <250kg
- 250–500kg
- 500–1000kg
- >1000kg
- Missing



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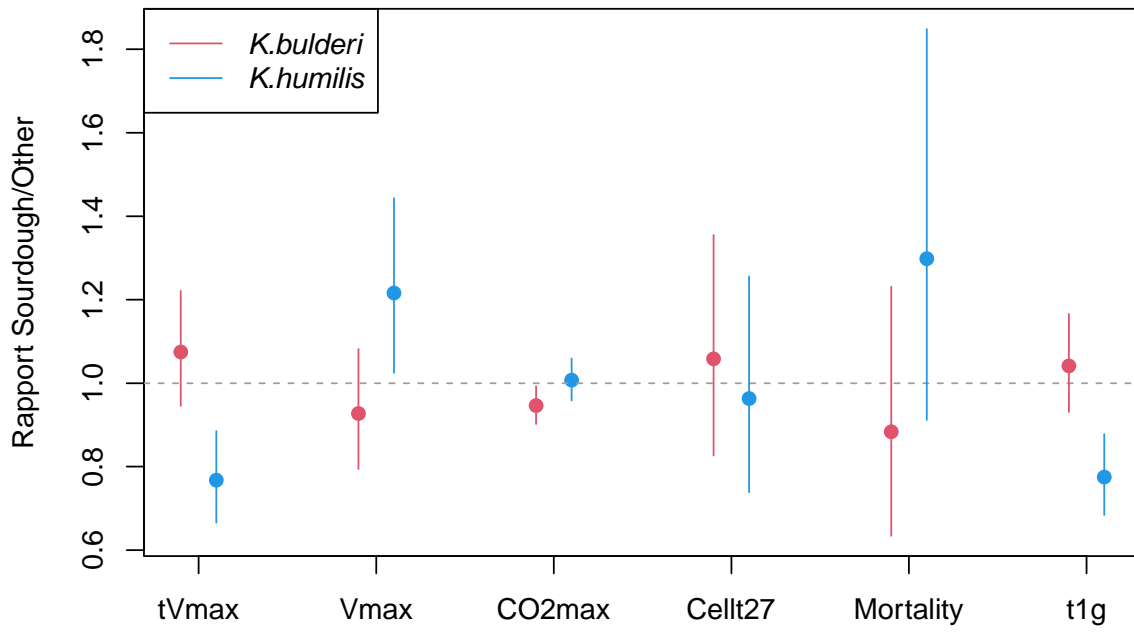
912 Figure 6
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915 Figure 7

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