1 **Title:** DNA methylation patterns in bacteria of the genus *Ensifer* during free-living growth and
2 during nitrogen-fixing symbiosis with *Medicago* spp.
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4 **Running title:** DNA methylation in the genus *Ensifer*
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ABSTRACT

Methylation of specific genomic DNA sequences is ubiquitous in bacteria and has known roles in immunity and regulation of cellular processes, such as the cell cycle. Here, we explored DNA methylation in bacteria of the genus *Ensifer*, including its potential role in regulating the process of terminal differentiation occurring during nitrogen-fixing symbiosis with legumes. Using single-molecule real-time sequencing, six unique genome-wide methylated motifs were identified across four *Ensifer* strains, five of which were strain-specific. These five motifs were nearly fully methylated across the genomes in all tested conditions, and they were not enriched in the promoter regions of symbiosis, carbon source, or cell cycle-regulated genes, suggesting that most DNA methylation is not a major regulatory mechanism in the genus *Ensifer*. Only the GANTC motif, recognized by the cell cycle-regulated CcrM methyltransferase, was methylated in all strains. In actively dividing cells, methylation of GANTC motifs increased progressively from the *ori* to *ter* region in each replicon, in agreement with a cell cycle-dependent regulation of CcrM. The GANTC methylation profile transited into a genome-wide pattern of near full methylation in the early stage of symbiotic differentiation, followed by a progressive decrease in methylation from the *ori* to *ter* regions of fully differentiated symbiotic bacteria. This is evidence of a dysregulated and constitutive CcrM activity during terminal differentiation, which we suggest is a driving factor for endoreduplication of terminally differentiated bacteroids.

IMPORTANCE

Nitrogen fixation by bacteria (rhizobia) in symbiosis with legumes is economically and ecologically important. In some cases, the symbiosis involves a complex bacterial transformation, known as terminal differentiation, that includes major shifts in the transcriptome and cell cycle. Epigenetic regulation via DNA methylation is an important regulatory mechanism contributing to the biology of diverse bacteria; however, the roles of DNA methylation in rhizobia and symbiotic nitrogen fixation have been poorly investigated. We show that aside from cell cycle regulation, DNA methylation is unlikely to be a major mechanism of transcriptional regulation in rhizobia and non-rhizobia of the genus *Ensifer*. However, we found strong evidence that the cell cycle methyltransferase CcrM is dysregulated during symbiosis, which may be a key factor driving the cell cycle switch in terminal differentiation and the establishment of effective rhizobium – legume symbioses. These novel results advance our understanding of this highly important, yet incompletely understood process.

INTRODUCTION

Methylation of genomic DNA is a pervasive phenomenon found in eukaryotes (1–3), archaea (4), and bacteria (4, 5). The biological roles of DNA methylation are most extensively studied in mammals, where it contributes to normal development and disease via its impact on gene expression (6). In bacteria, DNA methylation is best known for its role in restriction-modification (R-M) systems that are thought to provide defence against phage infection and limit horizontal gene transfer through the degradation of invading non-methylated DNA (7). Several methyltransferases (MTases) of R-M systems have also been implicated in phase variation in pathogens through modulating gene expression (8). A recent study of over 200 bacterial and archaeal species identified orphan MTases not belonging to R-M systems in nearly half of the genomes (4). To date, biological functions have been attributed to very few orphan MTases, namely, the Dam MTase of the γ-Proteobacteria and the CcrM MTase of the α-Proteobacteria (9). The Dam MTase of *Escherichia coli* is notable for its role in regulation of DNA replication (10, 11) and DNA repair (12) by modulating the activity of other DNA-binding proteins. The CcrM MTase was first identified in *Caulobacter crescentus* (13), with homologs since identified in diverse α-Proteobacteria (14, 15). CcrM activity was shown to be cell cycle regulated in *C. crescentus* and *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* (13, 16), leading to methylation of its cognate DNA motif (the pentanucleotide GANTC) specifically during a short period at the end of DNA replication. This leads to a switching of GANTC sites between fully methylated (methylated on both strands) and hemi-methylated (methylated only on the template strand) as a result of DNA replication (17), which serves to modulate gene expression in a cell cycle-dependent fashion (18–20). Over- and under-expression of *ccrM* results in defects in DNA replication and cell division (14, 16, 19), while its complete loss is generally lethal.

The rhizobia are a polyphyletic group of α-Proteobacteria and β-Proteobacteria that can both live free in the soil and enter into an endosymbiotic interaction with legumes (21). This interaction begins following an exchange of signals between the free-living partners (22), and it culminates in the formation of a new organ known as a root nodule within which the cytoplasm of plant cells contain thousands of N_2-fixing bacteria called bacteroids. Bacteroid formation results in the differential expression of more than a thousand genes (23, 24) and global changes in cellular metabolism (25). In legumes of the Inverted-Repeat Lacking Clade (IRLC) and the Dalbergioid clade of the family *Papilionoideae*, bacteroid development involves an additional process of terminal differentiation (26, 27); in other legume clades, bacteroid differentiation is less pronounced and is reversible. Terminal bacteroid development, in contrast to reversible bacteroid formation, involves cell enlargement (bacteroids are 5- to 10-fold longer than their free-living counterparts) and genome endoreduplication (resulting in up to 24 copies of the genome per cell), indicative of a cell cycle transition occurring during differentiation (26). Indeed, the correct expression of cell cycle regulators in *Ensifer* (syn. *Sinorhizobium*) *meliloti*, a symbiont of *Medicago* species of the IRLC, is essential for the formation of functional bacteroids (28, 29), while over-expression of CcrM or disruption of the master cell cycle regulator CtrA can give rise to bacteroid-like morphology in free-living cells (14, 30). Additionally, mutants in the *E. meliloti*

cell cycle regulators *divJ*, *cbrA*, and *cpdR1*, encoding three negative regulators of CtrA, form non-
functional nodules in which bacteroids do not differentiate properly (28, 29, 31), and genes
encoding several cell cycle regulators (including CcrM) are strongly downregulated in bacteroids
(24). The differentiation and cell cycle switch of bacteroids is controlled by the legume host
through the production of a large family of peptides, known as Nodule-specific Cysteine-Rich
(NCR) peptides (32–34).
Multiple studies have provided evidence that changes in the methylation status of the DNA
of legume nodule cells contributes to symbiotic development (35–37). Conversely, it remains
unknown if methylation of rhizobium DNA contributes to the regulation of N_2-fixation or
bacteroid development. We are aware of only one study (38) comparing DNA methylation of a
rhizobium (*Bradyrhizobium diazoefficiens* USDA110) between free-living and symbiotic states
(soybean nodules), and comparing these changes with differential expression data. Intriguingly,
the authors identified a DNA motif that was methylated specifically in bacteroids (38). However,
no clear evidence was presented that methylation of this (or any other) motif is involved in
transcriptional regulation, and the number of genes both differentially expressed and differentially
methylated in bacteroids did not appear to be different than expected by chance. While these data
may suggest that DNA methylation does not play a major role in regulating N_2-fixation by rhizobia,
they do not address the role of DNA methylation in terminal bacteroid differentiation, as *B.*
diazoefficiens undergoes reversible differentiation in soybean nodules (39).
Here, we use Pacific Biosciences Single-Molecule Real-Time (SMRT) sequencing to
detect genome-wide patterns of DNA methylation in four strains belonging to the genus *Ensifer*.
Our results indicate that DNA methylation is poorly conserved across the genus and suggests that
DNA methylation is not a major mechanism of regulating gene expression in these organisms aside
from cell cycle control. However, analysis of bacteroid samples suggests that constitutive
activation of the CcrM MTase may be a contributing factor driving terminal differentiation.
120
RESULTS
The methylomes of the genus *Ensifer*
Our experimental design, as summarized in the Materials and Methods and **Figure S1**, was
developed to support an investigation into multiple potential roles of DNA methylation in plant-
associated bacteria from the genus *Ensifer* through the use of SMRT sequencing. This was
accomplished by: i) including DNA samples isolated from phylogenetically diverse wild-type
strains, ii) examining DNA methylation in a single strain across multiple conditions (exponential
phase growth versus stationary phase; growth with sucrose versus growth with succinate), iii)
investigating the impact of a large-scale genome reduction on DNA methylation patterns, and iv)
isolating DNA from bacteroids purified from legume nodules.
We began with a base modification analyses of four wild-type strains from three species,
including three nodule-forming strains (*E. meliloti* Rm2011, *E. meliloti* FSM-MA, *E. fredii*
NGR234) and one plant-associated, non-symbiotic strain (*E. adhaerens* OV14) (**Figure 1**). To
ensure consistency, all strains were grown to mid-exponential phase in a common minimal

Figure 1. Phylogeny of the *genus Ensifer.* An unrooted maximum likelihood phylogeny of 17 representative *Ensifer* strains. The phylogeny represents the bootstrap best tree following 100 bootstrap replicates, prepared on the basis of the concatenated nucleotide alignments of 1566 core genes. Values represent the bootstrap support. N_2-fixing legume symbionts were identified by the presence of the symbiotic genes *nodABC* and *nifHDK*. They are indicated in blue, while red denotes non-symbiotic strains. The four wild-type strains used in this study are indicated with arrows.

Table 1. Methylated motifs identified in this study.

Motif*	Type†	Count¥	Frequency (motifs/kb)
E. meliloti 2011			
GANTC CTNAG	m6A	11,169	1.67
RCGCCTC YGCGGAG	m4C	3,943	0.59
CGCA(N5)GTG GCGT(N5)CAC	m6A	1,085	0.16
E. meliloti FSM-MA			
GANTC CTNAG	m6A	11,215	1.67
TCGA(N8)TCGA AGCT(N8)AGCT	m6A	2,612	0.39
E. fredii NGR234			
GANTC CTNAG	m6A	11,111	1.61
CAGA(N7)GTTG GTCT(N7)CAAC	m6A	188	0.03
E. adhaerens OV14			
GANTC CTNAG	m6A	8,475	1.10
WNCCGATG WNGGCTAC	m6A	4,596	0.60

* The methylated nucleotides are indicated in boldface font.
† Indicates whether the modification is a N^6-methyladenoside (m6A) or N^4-methylcytosine (m4C).
¥ The total times the motif appears in the genome, regardless of methylation status.

medium with succinate as the carbon source. A total of six methylated motifs were identified, of
which five were m6A modifications and one was a m4C modification (**Table 1**). Five of the six
motifs were methylated specifically in one strain. Only the GANTC motif, recognized by the
highly conserved cell cycle-regulated CcrM methyltransferase (13, 14), was methylated in all four
strains. To further examine the conservation, or lack thereof, of DNA modification across the
genus *Ensifer*, we examined the distribution of methyltransferases in the model species *E. meliloti*.
Based on gene annotations, we identified 24 genes encoding putative MTases in a previous
pangenome analysis of 20 *E. meliloti* strains (40). Of these 24 genes, only one (*ccrM*) was found
in all 20 strains, while four were found in two strains and 19 were found in a single strain. These
results suggest that DNA methylation is unlikely to play a biologically significant role in the genus
Ensifer aside from cell cycle control via CcrM-mediated methylation, and phage defence.
In support of most DNA methylation not having a regulatory function in the genus *Ensifer*,
no global effect of carbon source (sucrose [glycolytic] vs. succinate [gluconeogenic]) was
observed on the DNA methylation pattern of *E. meliloti* Rm2011 (**Figure S2**), nor were any motifs
enriched in the promoter regions of genes previously shown to be differentially expressed when
grown with glucose vs. succinate (41). Similarly, no global differences in DNA methylation were
detected between *E. meliloti* Rm2011 and RmP3496, a Rm2011 derivative lacking the pSymA and
pSymB replicons that together account for 45% of the genome content of *E. meliloti* (42) (**Figure
S3**).
156
Cell cycle regulation by the CcrM methyltransferase
A progressive increase in the extent of methylation (herein defined as the estimated fraction of
reads mapping to a motif that were methylated) of GANTC sites was observed from the *ori* to *ter*
regions of the chromosomes of all four strains during mid-exponential growth (**Figures 2, S4-S6**).
There was a local drop in GANTC methylation around the 1.5 Mb mark in the *E. meliloti* FSM-
MA chromosome (**Figure S4**); however, this was seen in only two of three replicates and
corresponded to a region of high sequencing depth (**Figure S7**), suggesting the result is a
sequencing artefact. In contrast to exponential phase cultures, GANTC sites displayed near full
methylation (averaging ~ 95%) across the genome during early stationary phase, while all other
motifs displayed near full methylation (averaging 95-99%) across the genome regardless of growth
state. The observed pattern of GANTC methylation indicates a progressive switch from full to
hemi-methylated states as DNA replication proceeds (model provided as **Figure S8**), confirming
that the CcrM methyltransferase of the family *Rhizobiaceae* is cell cycle regulated as demonstrated
in *C. crescentus* (13, 17, 43). Strikingly, the GANTC methylation pattern differed across replicons
within each genome. For example, in *E. meliloti* Rm2011 the extent of GANTC methylation
ranged from 0.80 to 0.98 for pSymB and 0.80 to 0.96 for pSymA, while for the chromosome the
range was from 0.71 to 0.99 (**Figure 2**). This result suggests that replication of each replicon is
asynchronous, with replication of the secondary replicons being initiated later in the cell cycle than
that of the chromosome (model provided as **Figure S8**).
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Figure 2. Genome-wide DNA methylation of *E. meliloti* Rm2011. (**A-F**) The extent of methylation is shown, using a 10 kb sliding window, of GANTC sites (black) and CGCA(N5)GTG sites (grey) across the chromosome (**A,D**), pSymB (**B,E**), and pSymA (**C,F**) replicons of exponential phase (**A-C**) or early stationary phase (**D-F**) *E. meliloti* Rm2011. Averages from three biological replicates are shown. (**G-I**) Cumulative GC skews, shown using a 10 kb sliding window, across the *E. meliloti* Rm2011 chromosome (**G**), pSymB (**H**), and pSymA (**I**) replicons.

177   A previous study identified 462 cell cycle-regulated genes in *E. meliloti* through RNA-
178 sequencing of synchronized cell populations (44), which were classified into six groups based on
179 the timing of their expression. We identified 111 cell cycle-regulated genes, belonging to 78
180 transcripts, that contained at least one GANTC in the predicted promoter regions (defined as the
181 125 bp upstream of the transcript; **Dataset S1**), and distribution of these 111 genes across the six
182 cell cycle gene expression groups was unbiased (44). As these 111 genes are both cell cycle
183 regulated and contain a GANTC site, they represent an initial candidate CcrM regulon in *E.*
184 *meliloti* although further work is required to validate the CcrM regulon.
185   We found it striking that the *E. adhaerens* OV14 genomes had 2,636 to 2,740 fewer
186 GANTC sites than the other three strains, despite having the largest genome size. Normalized by
187 genome length, there are 1.10 GANTC sites per kb in the *E. adhaerens* OV14 genome (**Table 1**),
188 which is similar to the 1.12 GANTC sites per kb in *C. crescentus* NA1000. In contrast, the three
189 legume symbionts contained more than 1.60 GANTC sites per kb across their genomes (**Table 1**).
190 This result prompted us to examine the frequency and distribution of GANTC sites across 157
191 *Ensifer* genomes. As defined previously (45), the genus *Ensifer* can be broadly sub-divided into

two monophyletic clades; the "symbiotic" clade (113 strains) in which nearly all strains are legume
symbionts, and the "non-symbiotic" clade (44 strains) in which nearly all strains are non-
symbionts. Consistent with previous results (18), GANTC sites occurred less frequently in all
genomes (0.90 to 1.83 GANTC sites per kb) than expected in a random sequence of nucleotides
(~ 3.5 GANTC sites per kb). Moreover, GANTC sites were ~ 2-fold more common in intergenic
regions than in coding regions (**Figure 3**). Strikingly, there was a strong and statistically significant
difference (p-value $< 1 \times 10^{-10}$; two-sample t-test) in the frequency of GANTC sites across the
genomes of strains belonging to the symbiotic clade compared to strains of the non-symbiotic
clades (**Figure 3**), with an overall average of 1.70 and 1.06 GANTC sites per kb in the symbiotic
and non-symbiotic clades, respectively. The difference in the frequency of GANTC sites between
the two clades could not be explained by differences in the GC content of these organisms, as both
clades had an average GC content of 61.9% (**Figure S9**), suggesting that the difference reflects
underlying differences in the evolution, and possibly the biology, of these two clades.
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Figure 3. GANTC frequency in the genus *Ensifer*. Box plots summarizing the frequency of GANTC sites (as GANTC sites per kb) in 157 *Ensifer* strains is shown. The monophyletic "symbiotic" and "non-symbiotic" clades as defined previously (45), are represented by 111 and 44 genomes respectively. The densities of GANTC sites across the entire genome (pink), within coding regions (blue), and within intergenic regions (yellow) are shown. Statistically different values ($p < 0.05$) are denoted by uppercase letters as determined by a one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey's HSD post hoc test.

Contributions of DNA methylation to bacteroid differentiation
The only previously published study to examine the role of rhizobium DNA methylation during
symbiosis using SMRT sequencing did so in a symbiosis where the bacteria do not undergo
terminal differentiation (38, 39). To evaluate whether DNA methylation potentially contributes to
regulation of terminal differentiation, we determined the DNA methylation patterns of *E. meliloti*
Rm2011 and FSM-MA bacteroids purified from whole *Medicago sativa* nodules. *E. meliloti* FSM-
MA bacteroids were additionally purified from *Medicago truncatula* nodules to determine whether
the host plant influences bacteroid DNA methylation. *E. meliloti* Rm2011 bacteroids were not
isolated from *M. truncatula* nodules as, unlike FSM-MA, Rm2011 forms a poor symbiosis with
M. truncatula (46, 47).
Moreover, we exploited the spatially distinct developmental zones that are present in

indeterminate nodules (48), like those formed by *M. sativa* and *M. truncatula*. At the tip of these
nodules, a bacteria-free meristem is present, responsible for the continuous growth of the nodule.
Immediately below is the infection and differentiation zone II where nodule cells become infected
and bacteria differentiate into the large, polyploid bacteroids. The tip and zone II of nodules
appears white. Adjacent to the white zone II is the easily recognizable pinkish zone III (due to the
presence of the oxygen-carrying leghemoglobin) where mature bacteroids fix nitrogen. This
nodule tissue organization provided an opportunity to examine how DNA methylation patterns
may differ between differentiating and differentiated bacteroids. To this end, *E. meliloti* Rm2011
and FSM-MA bacteroids were isolated from nodules hand-sectioned at the white-pink border;
bacteroids isolated from the white sections represent the infecting and differentiating bacteroids
(zone II) while those isolated from the pink sections represent the mature, hence terminally
differentiated, N_2-fixing bacteroids (zone III).
Fluorescence microscopy and flow cytometry confirmed that nodule sectioning resulted in
the isolation of distinct bacteroid populations (**Figures 4, S10-S12**). Nearly all of the bacteroids
isolated from whole-nodule samples and zone III samples were enlarged and polyploid, and most
were positive for propidium iodide (PI) staining as expected for terminally differentiated
bacteroids (26). In contrast, bacteroids of the zone II samples contained a mix of cell types differing
in their size, ploidy level, and PI staining. These data confirmed that the whole-nodule samples
and zone III samples consisted predominately of mature N_2-fixing bacteroids, whereas the zone II
samples contained a mix of cells at various stages of bacteroid differentiation.
With the exception of the GANTC sites (described below), no global difference was
observed in the methylation patterns of bacteroids versus free-living cells (**Figures 5, 6, S13-S16**).
Although a lower percentage of each motif was detected as methylated in the bacteroid samples
compared to free-living samples, this was correlated with lower sequencing depth (**Table S1**) and
thus unlikely to be biologically meaningful. Unlike *B. diazoefficiens* USDA110 (38), we did not
identify motifs that were methylated specifically in the *E. meliloti* bacteroids. In addition, we found
little evidence for any of the methylated motifs being enriched in the promoter regions of *E.*
meliloti Rm2011 genes up-regulated or down-regulated in bacteroids relative to free-living cells,
as identified in published transcriptomic data for *E. meliloti* Rm1021 (23), a near-isogenic relative
of strain Rm2011 also derived from the nodule isolate SU47. These data suggest that most DNA
methylation is unlikely to be a significant factor in directly regulating gene expression in *E. meliloti*
bacteroids.
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CcrM methyltransferase activity is dysregulated during terminal differentiation
Bacteroid development involves cell enlargement and genome endoreduplication, indicative of a
cell cycle transition occurring during differentiation (26). Indeed, *ccrM* and other genes encoding
cell cycle regulators are strongly downregulated in terminally differentiated *E. meliloti* bacteroids
(24). We were therefore interested to examine whether GANTC methylation by the CcrM MTase
was disrupted in bacteroids. Our data revealed a surprising genome-wide pattern of GANTC
methylation in *E. meliloti* Rm2011 and FSM-MA bacteroids, which differed from free-living cells

Figure 4. Morphology of *E. meliloti* Rm2011 cell populations. Free-living *E. meliloti* Rm2011 cells (**A-C**), and *E. meliloti* Rm2011 cells purified from *M. sativa* zone II nodule sections (**D-F**), *M. sativa* zone III nodule sections (**G-I**), or *M. sativa* whole nodules (**J-L**). Ploidy data is provided in Figure S9. Micrographs show *E. meliloti* Rm2011 cell populations stained with the DNA binding dyes DAPI (blue) and PI (red). The scale bar represents 10 nm. (**A,D,G,J**) DAPI fluorescence overlaid with DIC (differential interference contrast) images. (**B,E,H,K**) PI fluorescence overlaid with DIC images. (**C,F,I,L**) Histograms summarizing the distribution of flow cytometry side scattering values, providing an estimation of cell morphology, of heat-killed *E. meliloti* Rm2011 populations. Graphs are based on 50,000 cells. Data for *E. meliloti* FSM-MA is shown in Figure S10.

in either the exponential or stationary phases of growth (**Figures 5, 6, S13-S16**). The majority of
GANTC sites had moderate to high levels of methylation in zone II, zone III, or whole nodule
samples, averaging 0.71 to 0.95 across each replicon (**Figures 5, 6, Tables S2, S3**). Moreover, a
progressive decrease in the extent of chromosomal methylation of the GANTC sites was observed
from the *ori* to *ter* in nearly all bacteroid samples, which differs from the patterns seen in
exponential (progressive increase from *ori* to *ter*) and stationary (consistent methylation) phase
cells. The exception was the *E. meliloti* FSM-MA zone II bacteroid sample, which displays a

Figure 5. Chromosome-wide DNA methylation of *E. meliloti* Rm2011 bacteroids. The extent of methylation of (**A-E**) GANTC, (**F-J**) CGCA(N$_5$)GTG, and (**K-O**) RCGCCTC motifs across the *E. meliloti* Rm2011 chromosome is shown using a 10 kb sliding window. Averages from three biological replicates are shown for free-living and whole nodule samples; data represents one replicate for the zone II and zone III nodule sections. (**A,F,K**) Free-living cells harvested in mid-exponential phase. (**B,G,L**) Free-living cells harvested in early stationary phase. (**C,H,M**) Bacteroids isolated from *M. sativa* zone II nodule sections. (**D,I,N**) Bacteroids isolated from *M. sativa* zone III nodule sections. (**E,J,O**) Bacteroids isolated from *M. sativa* whole nodule samples. Data for pSymB and pSymA are shown in Figures S12 and S13.

consistently high level of GANTC methylation across the genome (**Figure 6C**). This pattern,
which is different from those in exponential phase cells as well as mature bacteroids, could
correspond to the methylation status of an early stage of bacteroid differentiation. Supporting this
hypothesis, the flow cytometry data was consistent with the *E. meliloti* FSM-MA zone II
bacteroids having a lower average DNA content than the *E. meliloti* Rm2011 zone II bacteroids
(**Figure S17**), suggesting that the former sample represents an earlier stage of differentiation than

Figure 6. Chromosome-wide DNA methylation of *E. meliloti* FSM-MA bacteroids. The extent of methylation of (**A-F**) GANTC and (**G-L**) AGCT(N_8)AGCT motifs across the *E. meliloti* FSM-MA chromosome is shown using a 10 kb sliding window. Averages from three biological replicates are shown for free-living and whole nodule samples; data represents one replicate for the zone II and zone III nodule sections. (**A,G**) Free-living cells harvested in mid-exponential phase. (**B,H**) Free-living cells harvested in early stationary phase. (**C,I**) Bacteroids isolated from *M. sativa* zone II nodule sections. (**D,J**) Bacteroids isolated from *M. sativa* zone III nodule sections. (**E,K**) Bacteroids isolated from *M. sativa* whole nodule samples. (**F,L**) Bacteroids isolated from *M. truncatula* whole nodule samples. Data for pSymB and pSymA are shown in Figures S14 and S15.

the latter sample. In contrast to GANTC, the extent of methylation of the second m6A modified motif in each genome was consistently high, irrespective of condition or replicon (**Figures 5, 6, Tables S2, S3**). Similarly, sequencing depth was consistent across the length of each replicon (**Figure S7**). These observations indicate that the changes in GANTC methylation patterns are biologically meaningful and not simply a sequencing artefact, and they are suggestive of a dysregulation of CcrM during terminal bacteroid differentiation.

Chromosome, pSymB, and pSymA sequencing depth are unequal in *E. meliloti* bacteroids

We noticed that in each bacteroid sample, the average extent of GANTC methylation for the chromosomes of the two strains were lower (by 0.04 to 0.13) than that of pSymA or pSymB, and unlike the chromosome, the extent of GANTC methylation was relatively constant across pSymA and pSymB (**Figures S13-S16** compared to **Figures 5 and 6**). These results suggest that, unlike in free-living cells, replication of the three replicons is not well coordinated during terminal differentiation. In agreement with this hypothesis, the mean sequencing depth across pSymA and pSymB was on average ~ 33% lower than that of the chromosome in all replicates of the *E. meliloti* whole-nodule bacteroid samples (**Table 2**). Assuming sequencing depth is correlated with copy number, this observation suggests that *E. meliloti* bacteroids carry only two copies each of pSymA and pSymB per three copies of the chromosome.

Table 2. Relative sequencing depth of each *E. meliloti* replicon.

Strain	Sample	Relative mean sequencing depth *		
		Chromosome	pSymA	pSymB
Rm2011	Mid-exponential	1.00 ± 0.00	1.00 ± 0.03	0.98 ± 0.03
Rm2011	Stationary	1.00 ± 0.00	1.06 ± 0.02	1.02 ± 0.03
Rm2011	*M. sativa* bacteroids	1.00 ± 0.00	0.64 ± 0.02	0.62 ± 0.02
FSM-MA	Mid-exponential	1.00 ± 0.00	1.02 ± 0.03	0.87 ± 0.05
FSM-MA	Stationary	1.00 ± 0.00	1.10 ± 0.00	1.01 ± 0.03
FSM-MA	*M. sativa* bacteroids	1.00 ± 0.00	0.79 ± 0.04	0.71 ± 0.02
FSM-MA	*M. truncatula* bacteroids	1.00 ± 0.00	0.66 ± 0.02	0.59 ± 0.01

* Sequencing depth is presented as a fraction, relative to the sequencing depth of the chromosome in the same sample. Values are the means of triplicate samples ± standard deviation.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we examined the genome-wide DNA methylation patterns in the free-living cells of four *Ensifer* strains, and in bacteroids of two *E. meliloti* strains, and detected a total of six methylated motifs. We were able to predict cognate MTases for most of the motifs based on genome annotations, the exception being the WNCCGATG motif of *E. adhaerens* OV14. The CGCA(N$_5$)GTG motif of *E. meliloti* Rm2011 is presumably methylated by Smc02296 (HsdM), a predicted m6A MTase belonging to the HsdRSM type I R-M system that is known to be functional and reduce transformation efficiency (49, 50). The RCGCCTC motif of *E. meliloti* Rm2011 is possibly methylated by Smc03763, a predicted cysteine-specific MTase located upstream of the gene *vsr* that putatively encodes a very short patch repair protein. Neither of these proteins are found in the other three strains examined here. The motifs TCGA(N$_8$)TCGA of *E. meliloti* FSM-MA and CAGA(N$_7$)GTTG of *E. fredii* NGR234 are likely methylated by SMB554_16155 and NGR_c01340, respectively, which are 88% identical at the amino acid level. Homologs of these two proteins are not found in the other two strains.

With the exception of GANTC, each methylated motif was detected as methylated only in

a single strain. Moreover, MTases are, with the exception of CcrM, not conserved among *E.*
meliloti strains. The lack of conservation suggests that most DNA methylation does not have a
major regulatory role in the genus *Ensifer*, aside from its role in cell cycle regulation. Supporting
this conclusion, no motif was enriched in the promoter regions of symbiosis, carbon source, or cell
cycle-regulated genes, and we did not detect any motifs that were methylated specifically in
bacteroids. However, we cannot rule out that one or more methylated motifs may influence specific
gene expression during free-living growth, differentiation, or N_2-fixation through extended motifs
or proximity to other promoter elements, similar to the interplay between CcrM and GcrA during
cell cycle regulation in *C. crescentus* (20, 51).

As previously published studies have provided evidence for a cell cycle transition
occurring during terminal bacteroid differentiation (26), we were particularly interested in CcrM,
a cell cycle-regulated MTase that is broadly conserved in the α-Proteobacteria, and its cognate
DNA motif, GANTC. By identifying GANTC sites in the promoter regions of a previously
identified set of 462 cell cycle-regulated genes (44), we identified a candidate CcrM regulon in *E.*
meliloti consisting of 111 genes. However, further studies are required to better delineate the CcrM
regulon in *E. meliloti* as the presence of a GANTC site is not diagnostic of CcrM regulation;
GANTC sites were found in the promoter regions of 904 transcripts that did not display cell cycle
regulation, and the promoter regions of cell cycle regulated genes were not enriched in GANTC
sites relative to the whole *E. meliloti* genome. Studies in *C. crescentus* suggest that the impact of
the fully or hemi-methylated status of GANTC sites on gene expression is mediated, at least in
part, through modulating the activity of the transcription regulator GcrA (20, 51). However, not
all promoter sites containing a GANTC motif are regulated by GcrA in *C. crescentus*, with the
relationship dependent on an extended YGAKTCK motif and the precise position of this motif
relative to other promoter elements (51). Likely, CcrM-mediated gene regulation in the genus
Ensifer is similarly dependent upon additional sequence elements beyond the GANTC motif.

Consistent with past observations (18), GANTC sites were under-represented in the
genomes of 157 *Ensifer* strains, particularly within coding regions. More surprising, however, was
the strong difference in the frequency of GANTC sites between the previously defined (45)
symbiotic and non-symbiotic clades in the genus *Ensifer*, with the frequency of GANTC sites
being ~ 60% higher in the symbiotic clade. As methylation of the GANTC motif by CcrM is known
to influence gene expression in *C. crescentus* (18), our observations suggest that CcrM has a
greater impact on modulating gene expression in the symbiotic clade compared to the non-
symbiotic clade. Although further work is required to understand the biological significance of the
greater frequency of GANTC sites in the symbiotic clade, it is tempting to speculate it is associated
with legume symbiosis.

In support of a link between CcrM activity and terminal bacteroid differentiation, our data
is consistent with CcrM activity influencing terminal bacteroid differentiation. The overall
moderate to high rates of GANTC methylation in all *E. meliloti* bacteroid samples, coupled with
the lack of a chromosome-wide pattern in the *E. meliloti* FSM-MA zone II sample, suggests that
CcrM remains constitutively active throughout most of terminal differentiation. Considering that

over-expression of CcrM can give rise to bacteroid-like morphology in free-living cells (14), we
hypothesize that constitutive CcrM MTase activity is one (of potentially multiple) factor(s) driving
polyploidization of bacteroids (**Figure S8**). CcrM activity is confined to a short window in the cell
cycle since the *ccrM* gene is expressed in the late phase of genome replication (44) and the CcrM
protein is degraded by the Lon protease prior to cell division (52). Thus, constitutive CcrM MTase
activity in differentiating bacteroids could be obtained through an aberrant expression of the gene
or alternatively a lack of proteolytic degradation of the CcrM protein. In agreement with the latter
possibility, Lon protease was identified as a target of the NCR247 peptide (34). It is tempting to
speculate that NCR peptides like NCR247 inhibit Lon protease activity, thereby stabilizing CcrM
and trigger the bacteroid differentiation. However, the CcrM MTase does not appear to remain
active in fully differentiated bacteroids, with the lower GANTC methylation near the chromosomal
ter regions suggesting that loss of CcrM MTase activity occurs slightly prior to completion of
genome endoreduplication (model provided as **Figure S8**). These hypotheses are consistent with
M. truncatula – E. meliloti nodule zone-specific RNA-sequencing data (24), which showed that
ccrM expression in the root distal portion of zone II is ~ 2-fold higher than in the root proximal
portion of zone II, and ~ 10-fold higher than in zone III.
Our analyses also provide insight into the genome replication dynamics of *E. meliloti*
during free-living growth and terminal bacteroid differentiation. Interestingly, our data are
consistent with a loss of coordination of replication of the three replicons during terminal bacteroid
differentiation, leading to unequal copy numbers with two copies of pSymA and pSymB per three
copies of the chromosome in bacteroids. This contrasts with free-living cells, where copy number
of the three replicons was approximately equal based on average sequencing depth. In contrast to
our results, a previous comparison of the relative abundance of the three replicons in free-living
E. meliloti Rm1021 versus bacteroids, no changes were detected using comparative genome
hybridization with microarrays (26). We believe that the difference between our present data and
the previous analysis is due to the subtlety of the differences and the lower sensitivity of the
microarray hybridization method compared to high throughput sequencing.
We also observed that the extent of GANTC methylation at the *ori* of pSymA and pSymB
is higher than at the *ori* of the chromosome, while the *ter* of the pSymA and pSymB has a slightly
lower extent of GANTC methylation than the *ter* of the chromosome. As GANTC methylation
occurs at a fixed stage of the cell cycle corresponding to the end of chromosome replication, our
observations indicate that pSymA and pSymB replication is initiated later in the cell cycle than
initiation of chromosome replication, while their replication terminates slightly before completion
of chromosomal replication and the activation of CcrM (model provided as **Figure S8**). These
results provide additional support for the notion of spatiotemporal regulation of DNA replication
and partitioning in the multipartite *E. meliloti* genome as proposed previously (44, 53). Similarly,
replication of chromosome II of *Vibrio cholerae* is delayed relative to chromosome I, leading to
the replication of these two replicons terminating at approximately the same time (54). Thus, co-
ordinating the timing or replication termination may be a general feature of multipartite genomes.
389

 MATERIALS AND METHODS

Experimental design

The overall experimental design is summarized in **Figure S1**. Genomic DNA was isolated from

four wild-type *Ensifer* strains to explore how DNA methylation varies across this genus; to allow

direct comparison, the four strains were grown to mid-exponential phase in minimal medium with

succinate as a carbon source. To investigate how DNA methylation patterns differ between

actively dividing and non-dividing cells, genomic DNA was isolated from *E. meliloti* Rm2011

growth to either mid-exponential phase or stationary phase. Genomic DNA was isolated from *E.*

meliloti Rm2011 grown to mid-exponential phase with either a glycolytic (sucrose) or

gluconeogenic (succinate) carbon source to investigate whether DNA methylation may play a role

in regulating carbon metabolism. Furthermore, a *E. meliloti* Rm2011 derivative lacking the pSymA

and pSymB replicons (named RmP3496), as well as a complemented strain in which pSymA and

pSymB were re-introduced (named RmP3499), were studied to gain insight into whether these

replicons contribute to DNA methylation patterns in *E. meliloti* Rm2011; these strains were grown

with sucrose (instead of succinate) as RmP3496 lacks the succinate transporter.

In addition to the free-living samples, *E. meliloti* bacteroid samples purified from legume

nodules were collected to investigate changes in DNA methylation during bacteroid differentiation

and nitrogen fixation. To do so, *E. meliloti* Rm2011 and *E. meliloti* FSM-MA bacteroids were

isolated from *M. sativa* whole nodules. *E. meliloti* FSM-MA bacteroids were additionally purified

from *M. truncatula* whole nodules to examine the impact of host plant on bacteroid DNA

methylation patterns. *E. meliloti* Rm2011 bacteroids were only isolated from *M. sativa* nodules as,

unlike FSM-MA, Rm2011 forms a poor symbiosis with *M. truncatula* (46, 47). Moreover, *E.*

meliloti Rm2011 and *E. meliloti* FSM-MA bacteroids were isolated from *M. sativa* nodule sections

(sectioned at the white – pink border to separate the root distal infection and differentiation zone

II [white] from the root proximal nitrogen-fixing zone III [pink]) to facilitate an analysis of how

DNA methylation patters differ between differentiating bacteroids and fully differentiated and

nitrogen-fixing bacteroids.

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

Bacterial strains used in this work are listed in **Table S4**. All strains were routinely grown on TY

with 2 μM $CoCl_2$ as it was required for *E. meliloti* RmP3496 (42). The MM9 minimal medium

(42) consisted of the following: 40 mM MOPS, 20 mM KOH, 19.2 mM NH_4Cl, 85.6 mM NaCl, 2

mM KH_2PO_4, 1 mM $MgSO_4$, 0.25 mM $CaCl_2$, 1 μg ml^{-1} biotin, 42 nM $CoCl_2$, 38 μM $FeCl_3$, 10

μM thiamine-HCl, and either 10 mM sucrose (MM9-sucrose) or 20 mM disodium succinate

(MM9-succinate). Prior to inoculation of plants with *E. meliloti*, the strains were grown in YEB

medium (55).

DNA isolation from free-living cells

Overnight cultures of all strains grown in MM9-succinate or MM9-sucrose media were diluted

into 10 mL of the same medium to a starting OD_{600nm} of 0.025 (0.05 for RmP3499) and incubated

overnight at 30˚C with shaking (130 rpm). The next day, cultures were diluted into 40 mL of the
same medium in 100 mL flasks to the OD_{600nm} values as listed in **Table S5**. To obtain mid-
exponential phase samples, cultures were harvested after 15.5-16 hours of growth at OD_{600nm}
values between 0.37 and 0.69 (**Table S5**). To obtain stationary phase samples, cultures were
harvested after 24 hours of growth at OD_{600nm} values of ~ 1.4. In all cases, cultures were streaked
on TY plates to check for contamination and then centrifuged (8,200 g, 10 minutes, 4°C); the full
40 mL was centrifuged for mid-exponential phase cultures, whereas only 15 mL was centrifuged
for stationary phase cultures. The majority of the supernatant was discarded, and the pellet
resuspended in the remaining volume, transferred to a 2 mL tube, centrifuged again (16,200 g,
room temperature, one minute), and the supernatant discarded. Three biological replicates, each
starting from a separate overnight culture, were performed. DNA was isolated using
phenol:chloroform extractions and ammonium acetate precipitations as described elsewhere (56),
and the DNA pellets (following RNase A treatment) were resuspended in 200 µL of 10 mM Tris-
HCl, pH 8.5.
444
DNA isolation from bacteroids
M. sativa cv. Gabès and *M. truncatula* cv. A17 were used for all experiments. Seeds were scarified,
surface sterilized, and germinated on Kalys agar as described previously (47). Fifty mL of
overnight cultures of *E. meliloti* Rm2011 or FSM-MA, grown in YEB, were centrifuged (4,000 g,
20 minutes, room temperature) and resuspended in ~ 1,200 mL of sterile, distilled water to obtain
a cell suspension at an OD_{600nm} of ~ 0.1. Germinated seedlings were immersed for one hour in the
appropriate rhizobial cell suspension, and then planted in a perlite:sand (2:1) mixture. Plants were
grown in a greenhouse for five to six weeks, with occasional watering with a 1 g L^{-1} nutrient
solution (PlantProd solution [N-P-K, 0-15-40; Fertil]).
454   For whole nodule samples, pink nodules were collected from 53-60 plants per replicate 34-
35 days post-inoculation. Nodules were collected from the roots and stored in tubes in liquid
nitrogen until collection was complete, at which point they were stored at -80°C until use. For
sectioned nodule samples, pink nodules were collected from 103 *M. sativa* plants for each of the
microsymbionts 35 to 40 days post-inoculation. Nodules were manually sectioned at the white-
pink border. Nodule sections were stored in tubes over dry ice or liquid nitrogen until collection
was complete, at which point they were stored at -80°C until use. Average plant shoot dry weights
for all samples are listed in **Table S6**. Bacteroids were isolated from the nodule samples using
Percoll gradient centrifugation as described elsewhere (26). The recovered bacteroids were
resuspended in 50-100 µL of Bacteroid Extraction Buffer (BEB; 125 mM KCl, 50 mM Na-
succinate, 50 mM TES, pH 7.0), and either used immediately for microscopy, flow cytometry, and
DNA isolation, or stored at -80°C until use.
466   Nucleic acids were initially purified from all bacteroid samples using Epicentre
MasterPure™ Complete DNA and RNA Purification Kits, following the protocol for DNA
isolation from cell samples. For sectioned nodule samples, pure DNA was isolated by using the
manufacturer's protocol for the complete removal of RNA. For whole nodule samples, the isolated

DNA was further purified by treating the nucleic acids samples with RNase A, after which pure
DNA was isolated by using phenol:chloroform extractions followed by ammonium acetate DNA
precipitations as described elsewhere (56). In all cases, the final DNA pellets were resuspended in
200 µL of 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.5. Three biological replicates were performed for bacteroids
isolated from whole nodules, whereas only one replicate was performed for bacteroids isolated
from sectioned nodules due to difficulties in obtaining sufficient DNA yields.
476
DNA sequencing, modification detection, and motif analysis
DNA sequencing was performed at the U.S. Department of Energy Joint Genome Institute (JGI)
or in-house at the University of Florence (the stationary phase samples) using Pacific Biosciences
(PacBio) sequencing technology (57). Genomic DNA was sheared to 3 kb using a Covaris LS220
(Covaris Inc., Woburn, MA, USA) or 15 kbp (for stationary phase samples) using g-TUBEs
(Covaris Inc., Woburn, MA, USA). Sheared DNA was treated with exonuclease to remove single-
stranded ends and DNA damage repair mix followed by end repair and ligation of barcoded blunt
adapters using SMRTbell Template Prep Kit 2.0 (PacBio, Menlo Park, CA, USA). Libraries were
purified with AMPure PB beads (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA) and eight libraries with
different barcodes were pooled at equimolar ratios and purified with AMPure PB beads. For most
samples, SMRTbell template libraries were prepared using a Sequel Binding Kit 3.0 (PacBio,
Menlo Park, CA, USA), and sequenced on a Sequel instrument using a v3 or v4 sequencing primer,
1M v3 SMRT cells, and Version 3.0 sequencing chemistry with 1x360 or 1x600 sequencing movie
run times. The exceptions were the *E. meliloti* Rm2011 zone II and *E. meliloti* FSM-MA zone III
bacteroid samples. For these samples, SMRTbell template libraries were prepared using a Sequel
II Binding Kit 2.0 (PacBio, Menlo Park, CA, USA), and then sequenced on a Sequel II instrument
using the tbd-sample dependent sequencing primer, 8M v1 SMRT cells, and Version 2.0
sequencing chemistry with 1x900 sequencing movie run times.
DNA modification detection and motif analysis were performed using the PacBio SMRT
Link software (PacBio, Menlo Park, CA, USA). Briefly, raw reads were filtered using SFilter to
remove short reads and reads derived from sequencing adapters. Filtered reads were aligned
against the appropriate reference genome (**Table S1**) using BLASR (58) and modified sites were
then identified through kinetic analysis of the aligned DNA sequence data (59); the number of
mapped bases per sample is provided in **Table S1**. Modified sites were then grouped into motifs
using MotifFinder. These motifs represent the recognition sequences of MTase genes active in the
genome (60). Downstream analyses were performed using custom Perl and R scripts.
503
Flow cytometry
Flow cytometry was performed as described previously (26). Freshly prepared bacteroid samples
were diluted in 200 µL of BEB, heat-treated for 10 minutes in a 70°C water bath, and then stained
with the DNA-binding dye diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI). Cell size and ploidy level of the
bacteroid samples were determined using flow cytometry with a Beckman Coulter CytoFLEX S
instrument. Measurements consisted of 50,000 cells. Data analysis was performed using the

CytExpert 2.2.0.97 software.
511
Fluorescence microscopy
513   One μL of each freshly prepared bacteroid sample was mixed with 1 μL of 50 μg mL^{-1} DAPI and
514   1 μL of 100 μg mL^{-1} propidium iodide (PI), which are both DNA binding dyes. Samples were
515   visualized at 100x magnification under oil immersion using a Nikon Eclipse 80*i* fluorescence
516   microscope with the NIS-Elements BR 4.00.01 software and a Digital Sight DS-U3 camera.
517
Phylogenetic analysis
The nucleotide fasta files of representative *Ensifer* species were downloaded from the National
Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) Genome database. A core gene phylogeny was
constructed using a previously prepared pipeline (61) reliant on the use of Roary 3.11.3 (62),
Prokka 1.12-beta (63), PRANK 140110 (64), trimAl (65), and RAxML 8.2.9 (66). The phylogeny
was visualized with the iTol webserver (67). Identification of nodulation (*nodABC*) and
nitrogenase genes (*nifHDK*) was performed with a published pipeline (61) reliant on the use of
HMMER 3.1b2 (68), and the Pfam-A 31.0 (69) and TIGERFAM 15.0 (70) databases.
526
Data availability
Most sequencing data is available through the JGI Genome Portal (genome.jgi.doe.gov/portal/)
under Proposal 503835, as well as through NCBI (see **Table S1** for Biosample accessions). The
stationary phase data is available only through the NCBI (BioProject accession PRJNA706182;
see **Table S1** for Biosample accessions). All custom scripts to perform the analyses described in
this study are available through GitHub (github.com/diCenzo-
Lab/003_2021_Ensifer_DNA_methylation).
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773 **Table S1.** Number of mapped subread bases per sample.

Strain	Condition & Replicate	Genome Accession (NCBI Assembly)	Mapped Subreads Bases	NCBI Biosample Accessions for data generated in this study
E. meliloti FSM-MA	MM9-succinate 1	GCA_002215195.1	2,414,122,786	SAMN12793050
E. meliloti FSM-MA	MM9-succinate 2	GCA_002215195.1	1,973,904,434	SAMN12793077
E. meliloti FSM-MA	MM9-succinate 3	GCA_002215195.1	2,276,105,908	SAMN12793051
E. meliloti FSM-MA	MM9-succinate stationary 1	GCA_002215195.1	983,326,511	SAMN18104108
E. meliloti FSM-MA	MM9-succinate stationary 2	GCA_002215195.1	1,149,234,588	SAMN18104109
E. meliloti FSM-MA	MM9-succinate stationary 3	GCA_002215195.1	1,112,880,576	SAMN18104110
E. meliloti FSM-MA	*M. sativa* whole nodules 1	GCA_002215195.1	669,928,620	SAMN12793096
E. meliloti FSM-MA	*M. sativa* whole nodules 2	GCA_002215195.1	619,883,638	SAMN12793097
E. meliloti FSM-MA	*M. sativa* whole nodules 3	GCA_002215195.1	2,014,796,418	SAMN12792983
E. meliloti FSM-MA	*M. truncatula* whole nodules 1	GCA_002215195.1	1,223,643,922	SAMN13167594
E. meliloti FSM-MA	*M. truncatula* whole nodules 2	GCA_002215195.1	993,061,044	SAMN13168102
E. meliloti FSM-MA	*M. truncatula* whole nodules 3	GCA_002215195.1	1,038,438,145	SAMN13167746
E. meliloti FSM-MA	*M. sativa* distal nodule sections 1	GCA_002215195.1	454,620,103	SAMN15739021
E. meliloti FSM-MA	*M. sativa* proximal nodule sections 1	GCA_002215195.1	2,644,422,028	SAMN14511029
E. meliloti Rm2011	MM9-succinate 1	GCA_000346065.1	1,859,862,543	SAMN12793063
E. meliloti Rm2011	MM9-succinate 2	GCA_000346065.1	2,307,929,125	SAMN12793100
E. meliloti Rm2011	MM9-succinate 3	GCA_000346065.1	2,174,907,026	SAMN12793065
E. meliloti Rm2011	MM9-succinate stationary 1	GCA_000346065.1	1,303,384,501	SAMN18104105
E. meliloti Rm2011	MM9-succinate stationary 2	GCA_000346065.1	1,223,856,206	SAMN18104106
E. meliloti Rm2011	MM9-succinate stationary 3	GCA_000346065.1	1,217,560,804	SAMN18104107
E. meliloti Rm2011	MM9-sucrose 1	GCA_000346065.1	1,302,160,101	SAMN12793017
E. meliloti Rm2011	MM9-sucrose 2	GCA_000346065.1	1,673,395,654	SAMN12793016
E. meliloti Rm2011	MM9-sucrose 3	GCA_000346065.1	2,965,562,894	SAMN12793099
E. meliloti Rm2011	*M. sativa* whole nodules 1	GCA_000346065.1	814,031,492	SAMN12793035
E. meliloti Rm2011	*M. sativa* whole nodules 2	GCA_000346065.1	798,075,475	SAMN12793034
E. meliloti Rm2011	*M. sativa* whole nodules 3	GCA_000346065.1	1,138,170,578	SAMN12793018
E. meliloti Rm2011	*M. sativa* distal nodule sections 1	GCA_000346065.1	6,610,799,406	SAMN16773451
E. meliloti Rm2011	*M. sativa* proximal nodule sections 2	GCA_000346065.1	1,544,246,716	SAMN13167882
E. meliloti RmP3496	MM9-sucrose 1	GCA_000346065.1	1,138,116,503	SAMN12792987
E. meliloti RmP3496	MM9-sucrose 2	GCA_000346065.1	1,328,727,153	SAMN12793078
E. meliloti RmP3496	MM9-sucrose 3	GCA_000346065.1	2,234,156,208	SAMN12793033
E. meliloti RmP3499	MM9-sucrose 1	GCA_000346065.1	1,302,160,101	SAMN12792986
E. meliloti RmP3499	MM9-sucrose 2	GCA_000346065.1	1,673,395,654	SAMN12793101
E. meliloti RmP3499	MM9-sucrose 3	GCA_000346065.1	2,965,562,894	SAMN12793098
E. fredii NGR234	MM9-succinate 1	GCA_000018545.1	1,741,191,577	SAMN12792974
E. fredii NGR234	MM9-succinate 2	GCA_000018545.1	2,484,318,454	SAMN12793102
E. fredii NGR234	MM9-succinate 3	GCA_000018545.1	2,279,238,884	SAMN12793103
E. adhaerens OV14	MM9-succinate 1	GCA_000583045.1	1,883,494,303	SAMN12793104
E. adhaerens OV14	MM9-succinate 2	GCA_000583045.1	2,914,499,268	SAMN12792975
E. adhaerens OV14	MM9-succinate 3	GCA_000583045.1	2,272,958,147	SAMN12793036

775   **Table S2.** Average extent of methylation of m6A modified motifs in *E. meliloti* Rm2011.

Condition	Chromosome	pSymB	pSymA
GANTC			
Free-living (mid-exponential)	0.878	0.916	0.883
Free-living (stationary)	0.957	0.960	0.964
M. sativa distal nodule sections	0.712	0.883	0.882
M. sativa proximal nodule sections	0.787	0.925	0.918
M. sativa whole nodules	0.791	0.921	0.920
CGCA(N$_5$)GTG			
Free-living (mid-exponential)	0.978	0.980	0.981
Free-living (stationary)	0.974	0.981	0.982
M. sativa distal nodule sections	0.966	0.959	0.961
M. sativa proximal nodule sections	0.978	0.974	0.983
M. sativa whole nodules	0.973	0.972	0.976

777   **Table S3.** Average extent of methylation of m6A modified motifs in *E. meliloti* FSM-MA.

Condition	Chromosome	pSymB	pSymA
GANTC			
Free-living (mid-exponential)	0.803	0.898	0.836
Free-living (stationary)	0.938	0.947	0.947
M. sativa distal nodule sections	0.906	0.948	0.942
M. sativa proximal nodule sections	0.784	0.915	0.895
M. sativa whole nodules	0.860	0.946	0.936
M. truncatula whole nodules	0.793	0.917	0.911
TCGA(N_8)TCGA			
Free-living (mid-exponential)	0.984	0.984	0.981
Free-living (stationary)	0.980	0.984	0.984
M. sativa distal nodule sections	0.973	0.973	0.980
M. sativa proximal nodule sections	0.978	0.915	0.977
M. sativa whole nodules	0.980	0.964	0.963
M. truncatula whole nodules	0.976	0.974	0.981

779 **Table S4.** Bacterial strains.

Strain	Genotype	Source
Ensifer adhearens OV14	Wild type OV14; not a nitrogen-fixing legume symbiont	(1)
Ensifer fredii NGR234	Wild type NGR234 *rif-1*; Rif^R	(2)
Ensifer meliloti FSM-MA	Wild type FSM-MA; Cm^R	(3)
Ensifer meliloti Rm2011	Wild type SU47 *str-3*; Sm^R	Lab collection
Ensifer meliloti RmP3496	Rm2011 lacking pSymA and pSymB; Sm^R Sp^R	(4, 5)
Ensifer meliloti RmP3499	RmP3496 with pSymA and pSymB re-introduced; Sm^R Sp^R	(5)

780 Cm – Chloramphenicol; Sm – Streptomycin; Sp – Spectinomycin; Rif – Rifampicin

781 **Table S5.** Densities and doubling times of bacterial cultures grown for the isolation of DNA.

Strain	Carbon source	Replicate 1 *			Replicate 2			Replicate 3		
		Starting density †	Final density	Doubling time (h)	Starting density	Final density	Doubling time (h)	Starting density	Final density	Doubling time (h)
E. meliloti Rm2011	Succinate	0.015	0.554	2.98	0.014	0.525	2.94	0.014	0.499	2.98
E. meliloti FSM-MA	Succinate	0.004	0.571	2.13	0.003	0.420	2.20	0.003	0.369	2.26
E. fredii NGR234	Succinate	0.019	0.631	3.09	0.016	0.650	2.92	0.016	0.634	2.94
E. adhaerens OV14	Succinate	0.002	0.686	1.86	0.002	0.564	1.84	0.002	0.552	1.85
E. meliloti Rm2011	Sucrose	0.014	0.581	2.91	0.013	0.512	2.90	0.013	0.516	2.90
E. meliloti RmP3499	Sucrose	0.010	0.648	2.56	0.008	0.494	2.61	0.008	0.46	2.66
E. meliloti RmP3496	Sucrose	0.039	0.574	3.98	0.035	0.389	4.44	0.035	0.401	4.38

782 * Each Replicate 1 sample consisted of two 40 mL cultures (inoculated from the same starter culture) that were combined prior to DNA
783 isolation. The density and doubling time values for this replicate are based on just one of the cultures for each sample.
784 † All density values are OD_{600nm} measurements.

785 **Table S6.** Plant shoot dry weights.

Plant	Bacterium	Replicate	Number of plants	Average shoot dry weight (mg)
Plants for whole nodules [†]				
M. sativa	*E. meliloti* Rm2011	1	55	57
M. sativa	*E. meliloti* Rm2011	2	52	60
M. sativa	*E. meliloti* Rm2011	3	52	54
M. sativa	*E. meliloti* FSM-MA	1	60	84
M. sativa	*E. meliloti* FSM-MA	2	60	80
M. sativa	*E. meliloti* FSM-MA	3	55	90
M. truncatula	*E. meliloti* FSM-MA	1	60	58
M. truncatula	*E. meliloti* FSM-MA	2	60	60
M. truncatula	*E. meliloti* FSM-MA	3	55	68
M. sativa	Uninoculated	1	10	ND [*]
M. truncatula	Uninoculated	1	5	ND [*]
Plants for sectioned nodules[†]				
M. sativa	*E. meliloti* Rm2011	1	103	180
M. sativa	*E. meliloti* FSM-MA	1	103	162
M. sativa	Uninoculated	1	55	31

786 * ND: Not determined.

787 † Plants for isolation of whole nodules and plants for isolation of sectioned nodules were grown

788 independently at separate periods of the year.

Variation in DNA methylation across the genus *Ensifer*

E. meliloti Rm2011 | *E. meliloti* FSM-MA | *E. fredii* NGR234 | *E. adhaerens* OV14

Grown to mid-exponential phase in minimal medium with succinate as the carbon source

Impact of growth stage (actively divided versus non-dividing) on DNA methylation

E. meliloti Rm2011 | *E. meliloti* FSM-MA

E. meliloti Rm2011 | *E. meliloti* FSM-MA

Grown to **mid-exponential phase** in minimal medium with succinate as the carbon source

Grown to **stationary phase** in minimal medium with succinate as the carbon source

Role of DNA methylation in regulating carbon metabolism

E. meliloti Rm2011

E. meliloti Rm2011

Grown to mid-exponential phase in minimal medium with **succinate** as the carbon source

Grown to mid-exponential phase in minimal medium with **sucrose** as the carbon source

Influence of secondary replicons on DNA methylation patterns

E. meliloti Rm2011 | *E. meliloti* RmP3496 | *E. meliloti* RmP3499

Grown to mid-exponential phase in minimal medium with sucrose as the carbon source

Contributions of DNA methylation changes to regulation of bacteroid differentiation and nitrogen-fixation

E. meliloti Rm2011 | *E. meliloti* FSM-MA

E. meliloti Rm2011 | *E. meliloti* FSM-MA

E. meliloti Rm2011 | *E. meliloti* FSM-MA

Isolated from **M. sativa distal nodule sections** (zone II)

Isolated from **M. sativa proximal nodule sections** (zone III)

Isolated from **M. sativa whole nodules**

Impact of plant host on bacteroid DNA methylation

E. meliloti FSM-MA

E. meliloti FSM-MA

Isolated from **M. sativa** whole nodules

Isolated from **M. truncatula** whole nodules

Figure S1. Experimental design overview. A schematic overview of the experimental design of this study, summarizing the comparisons that were performed, and which strains/conditions correspond to each comparison.

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Figure S2. Impact of carbon source on genome-wide DNA methylation of *E. meliloti* Rm2011.
The extent of methylation is shown, using a 10 kb sliding window, of cells grown to mid-
exponential phase and provided succinate (black) or sucrose (grey) as the sole source of carbon.
(**A-C**) Data for the GANTC motif for the chromosome (A), pSymB (B), and pSymA (C). (**D-F**)
Data for the CGCA(N$_5$)GTG motif for the chromosome (D), pSymB (E), and pSymA (F). (**G-I**)
Data for the RCGCCTC motif for the chromosome (G), pSymB (H)**,** and pSymA (I).

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804 **Figure S3. Impact of pSymA and pSymB removal on chromosome-wide DNA methylation of**
805 *E. meliloti* **Rm2011.** The extent of methylation for the chromosome, shown using a 10 kb sliding
806 window, is provided for wild type *E. meliloti* Rm2011 (black) or *E. meliloti* ΔpSymAB (grey)
807 grown to mid-exponential phase and provided sucrose as the sole source of carbon. (**A**) Data for
808 the GANTC motif. (**B**) Data for the CGCA(N$_5$)GTG motif. (**C**) Data for the RCGCCTC motif.

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Figure S4. Genome-wide DNA methylation of *E. meliloti* FSM-MA. (**A-F**) The extent of
methylation is shown, using a 10 kb sliding window, of GANTC sites (black) and
TCGA(N$_5$)TCGA sites (grey) across the chromosome (**A,D**), pSymB (**B,E**), and pSymA (**C,F**)
replicons of exponential phase (**A-C**) or early stationary phase (**D-F**) *E. meliloti* FSM-MA.
Averages from three biological replicates are shown. (**G-I**) Cumulative GC skews are shown, using
a 10 kb sliding window, across the *E. meliloti* FSM-MA chromosome (**G**), pSymB (**H**), and
pSymA (**I**) replicons.

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Figure S5. Genome-wide DNA methylation of *E. fredii* NGR234. (**A-C**) The extent of
methylation is shown, using a 10 kb sliding window, of GANTC sites (black) and
CAAC(N$_7$)TCTG sites (grey) across the chromosome (**A**), pNGR234b (**B**), and pNGR234a (**C**)
replicons of exponential phase *E. fredii* NGR234. Averages from three biological replicates are
shown. (**D-F**) Cumulative GC skews are shown, using a 10 kb sliding window, across the *E. fredii*
NGR234 chromosome (**D**), pNGR234b (**E**), and pNGR234a (**F**) replicons.

Figure S6. Genome-wide DNA methylation of *E. adhaerens* OV14. (**A-C,G**) The extent of methylation is shown using a 10 kb sliding window, of GANTC sites (black) and WNCCGATG sites (grey) across chromosome 1 (**A**), chromosome 2 (**B**), pOV14b (**C**), and pOV14c (**G**) replicons of exponential phase *E. adhaerens* OV14. Averages from three biological replicates are shown. (**D-F,H**) Cumulative GC skews are shown, using a 10 kb sliding window, across the *E. adhaerens* OV14 chromosome 1 (**D**), chromosome 2 (**E**), pOV14b (**F**), and pOV14c (**H**) replicons.

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Figure S7. Sequencing depth across the *E. meliloti* RM2011 and FSM-MA chromosome. The
sequencing depths (i.e., number of reads mapping to a given nucleotide) of the (**A-E**) *E. meliloti*
Rm2011 chromosome and (**F-K**) *E. meliloti* FSM-MA chromosome are shown, using a 10 kb
sliding window. Averages from three biological replicates are shown for free-living and whole
nodule samples; data represents one replicate for the zone II and zone III nodule sections. (**A,F**)
Free-living cells harvested in mid-exponential phase. (**B,G**) Free-living cells harvested in early
stationary phase. (**C,H**) Bacteroids isolated from *M. sativa* zone II nodule sections. (**D,I**)
Bacteroids isolated from *M. sativa* zone III nodule sections. (**E,J**) Bacteroids isolated from *M.*
sativa whole nodule samples. (**K**) Bacteroids isolated from *M. truncatula* whole nodule samples.

The equation shown in panel A:

$$\%GA^mNTC_{ori} \approx 50\% + 50(t_{cell\ cycle} - t_{rep*})/t_{cell\ cycle}\%$$

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Figure S8. Model describing the methylation patterns observed in cultures and bacteroids.
(A) Methylation pattern in free-living cells in exponential and stationary phases of growth. The
blue/red line indicates the relevant cell cycle phases: red is the S-phase or genome replication
phase; blue is the gap phases and division. The replication progression and methylation status of
the circular chromosome and a plasmid is depicted during the cell cycle progression from cell birth
until division. The replicons at cell birth are in dark blue and the newly replicated DNA is in

orange. Full grey rectangles indicate the fully methylated state and grey/white rectangles indicate the hemimethylated state. Replicons start the cell cycle in a fully methylated state across the genome and freshly replicated genome segments become hemimethylated. CcrM activity (green box) is confined to a short window in the cell cycle because the *ccrM* gene is expressed in the late phase of genome replication (6) and because the protein is degraded by the Lon protease prior to cell division (7). The formula expresses the extent of methylation at the origin (*ori*) of replication in an asynchronous bacterial population in culture. The methylation level shuttles between 50% and 100% depending on the proportion of cells in the culture that have a hemimethylated origin due to ongoing DNA replication prior to the activation of CcrM, and the complementary proportion of cells that have a fully methylated origin because they either have not yet started DNA replication or they have completed (or nearly completed) DNA replication and have activated CcrM. The fraction of cells in the different cell phases is in turn proportional to the duration (t) of the corresponding cell cycle stages (t_{rep*} is the time from initiation of replication till activation of CcrM, just before replication termination). Based on this formula, our experimentally measured extent of methylation at the *ori* of the chromosome in exponential phase cells, and the measured doubling time of *E. meliloti*, we estimate that it takes about 1 hour to replicate the chromosome, corresponding to a DNA polymerase rate of $\sim$ 450 to 500 nucleotides per second. This compares well with the estimated DNA polymerase rates of *Escherichia coli* and *Caulobacter crescentus*, which are $\sim$ 600 and $\sim$ 350 nucleotides per second, respectively (8, 9). In the genus *Ensifer*, the extent of methylation at the *ori* of the megaplasmids is higher than in the chromosome, while the terminus (*ter*) of the megaplasmids has a slightly lower extent of methylation. Since DNA methylation happens at the fixed stage of the cell cycle at the end of chromosome replication, it follows that plasmid replication is initiated later in the cell cycle than initiation of chromosome replication, and that their replication terminates slightly before termination of the chromosome and the activation of CcrM. This is consistent with independent analyses revealing spatiotemporal regulation of DNA replication and partitioning in *E. meliloti* (6, 10). The *ter* of the chromosome remains near fully methylated during the complete cell cycle because its replication coincides with the activity window of CcrM. In a stationary phase culture, methylation approaches 100% because few cells are in the replication phase and the majority of cells are in a gap phase of the cell cycle. **(B)** Methylation pattern in an early stage of bacteroid differentiation. Early stage bacteroids have a high extent of methylation across the genome suggesting that the activity of CcrM is extended to include also the replication phase of the cell cycle. This can be the result of an aberrant expression of the *ccrM* gene or a lack of proteolytic degradation of the CcrM protein. **(C)** Methylation pattern in a late stage of bacteroid differentiation. In mature bacteroids, the methylation extent at the *ori* is high but characteristically, the *ter* of the chromosome in bacteroids has a reduced methylation extent. This can be the result of a drop in CcrM activity during the last chromosome replication cycle of the endoreduplication process in differentiating bacteroids. Possibly, the drop of CcrM activity can also be the cause of the arrest of the endoreduplication process. Reduced methylation at the *ter* region is generally not observed in the plasmids, suggesting that plasmid endoreduplication finishes before chromosome endoreduplication and that CcrM activity stops after the end of plasmid replication. The iconography of the illustrations is based on Figure 1 of Mohapatra et al. 2014 (11).

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897 **Figure S9. GC content in the genus *Ensifer*.** Box plots summarizing the GC content of the
898 genomes of 157 *Ensifer* strains are shown. The monophyletic "symbiotic" and "non-symbiotic"
899 clades as defined previously (12), are represented by 111 and 44 genomes respectively.

Figure S10. Cell size and DNA content of *E. meliloti* Rm2011 cell populations. Pseudo-coloured scatterplots displaying the DNA content (X-axis) and cell size (Y-axis) of various *E. meliloti* Rm2011 populations, based on flow cytometry readings of 50,000 cells. The colour scheme indicates the number of values plotted at a given location of the graph, with blue to red indicating lower to higher density. Free-living *E. meliloti* Rm2011 cells (**A**), *E. meliloti* Rm2011 cells purified from *M. sativa* zone II nodule sections (**B**), and *E. meliloti* Rm2011 cells purified from *M. sativa* zone III nodule sections (**C**).

Figure S11. Morphology of *E. meliloti* FSM-MA cell populations. Free-living *E. meliloti* FSM-
MA cells (**A-C**), and *E. meliloti* FSM-MA cells purified from *M. sativa* zone II nodule sections
(**D-F**), *M. sativa* zone III nodule sections (**G-I**), *M. sativa* whole nodules (**J-L**), or *M. truncatula*
whole nodules (**M-O**). Ploidy data is provided in Figure S12. Micrographs show *E. meliloti* FSM-
MA cell populations stained with the DNA binding dyes DAPI (blue) and PI (red). The scale bar
represents 10 nm. (**A,D,G,J,M**) DAPI fluorescence overlaid with DIC (differential interference
contrast) images. (**B,E,H,K,N**) PI fluorescence overlaid with DIC images. (**C,F,I,L,O**) Histograms
summarizing the distribution of flow cytometry side scattering values of heat-killed *E. meliloti*
FSM-MA populations. Graphs are based on 50,000 cells.

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Figure S12. Cell size and DNA content of *E. meliloti* FSM-MA cell populations. Pseudo-
coloured scatterplots displaying the DNA content (X-axis) and size (Y-axis) of various *E. meliloti*
FSM-MA populations, based on flow cytometry readings of 50,000 cells. The colour scheme
indicates the number of values plotted at a given location of the graph, with blue to red indicating
lower to higher density. Free-living *E. meliloti* FSM-MA cells (**A**), *E. meliloti* FSM-MA cells
purified from *M. sativa* zone II nodule sections (**B**), and *E. meliloti* FSM-MA cells purified from
M. sativa zone III nodule sections (**C**).

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Figure S13. pSymB-wide DNA methylation of *E. meliloti* Rm2011 bacteroids. The extent of
methylation of (**A-E**) GANTC, (**F-J**) CGCA(N$_5$)GTG, and (**K-O**) RCGCCTC motifs across the
E. meliloti Rm2011 pSymB replicon is shown using a 10 kb sliding window. Averages from three
biological replicates are shown for free-living and whole nodule samples; data represents one
replicate for the zone II and zone III nodule sections. (**A,F,K**) Free-living cells harvested in mid-
exponential phase. (**B,G,L**) Free-living cells harvested in early stationary phase. (**C,H,M**)
Bacteroids isolated from *M. sativa* zone II nodule sections. (**D,I,N**) Bacteroids isolated from *M.*
sativa zone III nodule sections. (**E,J,O**) Bacteroids isolated from *M. sativa* whole nodule samples.

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Figure S14. pSymA-wide DNA methylation of *E. meliloti* Rm2011 bacteroids. The extent of
methylation of (**A-E**) GANTC, (**F-J**) CGCA(N$_5$)GTG, and (**K-O**) RCGCCTC motifs across the
E. meliloti Rm2011 pSymA replicon is shown using a 10 kb sliding window. Averages from three
biological replicates are shown for free-living and whole nodule samples; data represents one
replicate for the zone II and zone III nodule sections. (**A,F,K**) Free-living cells harvested in mid-
exponential phase. (**B,G,L**) Free-living cells harvested in early stationary phase. (**C,H,M**)
Bacteroids isolated from *M. sativa* zone II nodule sections. (**D,I,N**) Bacteroids isolated from *M.*
sativa zone III nodule sections. (**E,J,O**) Bacteroids isolated from *M. sativa* whole nodule samples.

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Figure S15. pSymB-wide DNA methylation of *E. meliloti* FSM-MA bacteroids. The extent of
methylation of (**A-F**) GANTC and (**G-L**) AGCT(N$_8$)AGCT motifs across the *E. meliloti* FSM-
MA pSymB replicon is shown using a 10 kb sliding window. Averages from three biological
replicates are shown for free-living and whole nodule samples; data represents one replicate for
the zone II and zone III nodule sections. (**A,G**) Free-living cells harvested in mid-exponential
phase. (**B,H**) Free-living cells harvested in early stationary phase. (**C,I**) Bacteroids isolated from
M. sativa zone II nodule sections. (**D,J**) Bacteroids isolated from *M. sativa* zone III nodule
sections. (**E,K**) Bacteroids isolated from *M. sativa* whole nodule samples. (**F,L**) Bacteroids
isolated from *M. truncatula* whole nodule samples.

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Figure S16. pSymA-wide DNA methylation of *E. meliloti* FSM-MA bacteroids. The extent of
methylation of (**A-F**) GANTC and (**G-L**) AGCT(N$_8$)AGCT motifs across the *E. meliloti* FSM-
MA pSymA replicon is shown using a 10 kb sliding window. Averages from three biological
replicates are shown for free-living and whole nodule samples; data represents one replicate for
the zone II and zone III nodule sections. (**A,G**) Free-living cells harvested in mid-exponential
phase. (**B,H**) Free-living cells harvested in early stationary phase. (**C,I**) Bacteroids isolated from
M. sativa zone II nodule sections. (**D,J**) Bacteroids isolated from *M. sativa* zone III nodule
sections. (**E,K**) Bacteroids isolated from *M. sativa* whole nodule samples. (**F,L**) Bacteroids
isolated from *M. truncatula* whole nodule samples.

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Figure S17. Cell size and DNA content of *E. meliloti* zone II bacteroids. (A-B) Histograms
summarizing the distribution of flow cytometry side scattering values of heat-killed *E. meliloti*
Rm2011 (**A**) and *E. meliloti* FSM-MA (**B**) zone II bacteroid populations. (**C-D**) Histograms
summarizing the distribution of flow cytometry DAPI fluorescence values of heat-killed *E. meliloti*
Rm2011 (**C**) and *E. meliloti* FSM-MA (**D**) zone II bacteroid populations. Graphs are based on
50,000 cells.

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