FINE-SCALE ADAPTATIONS TO ENVIRONMENTAL VARIATION AND GROWTH
STRATEGIES DRIVE PHYLLOSPHERE *METHYLOBACTERIUM* DIVERSITY.

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Abstract
Methylobacterium is one of the most prevalent bacterial genera of the phyllosphere, present on
the leaves of nearly every plant. Despite its ubiquity and its importance for host plant function,
little is known about whether diversity over space and time within the genus reflects neutral
processes like migration and drift, or environmental filtering of life history strategies and
adaptations to temperature and host tree species. Here, we investigated how phylogenetic
diversity within the genus *Methylobacterium* is structured by biogeography, seasonality, and
growth strategies. Using deep, culture-independent barcoded marker gene sequencing coupled
with culture-based approaches, we quantified seasonal shifts in *Methylobacterium* diversity over
a year from early summer to fall in two temperate forests in Québec, Canada. As an alternative to
the 16S rRNA gene, we used *rpoB,* a highly polymorphic marker gene, which has not
experienced detectable horizontal gene transfer nor copy number variation in *Methylobacterium*
genomes. We cultured very different subsets of *Methylobacterium* diversity from the same leaf,
depending upon the temperature of isolation and growth (20 °C or 30 °C). For instance, one the
most abundant *Methylobacterium* lineages was almost exclusively isolated at 20 °C, suggesting
long-term adaptation to temperature. Both culture and barcoding approaches revealed that a

considerable and previously underestimated diversity of *Methylobacterium* colonize the surface

of leaves in temperate forests. This diversity was strongly structured according to both large

(>100km; between forests) and small geographical scales (<1.2km within forests), and among

host tree species, and was dynamic over seasonal time scales. To determine if these seasonal

effects were driven by temperature, we measured growth of 79 isolates at different temperature

treatments. Different lineages showed subtle and significant differences in growth performance

when subject to temperature increase or decrease, but most have higher yield and slower growth

rate at 20° than 30° C, with strong lineage- and season-dependant variation in their overall

growth strategies. We proposed that the homogenization of *Methylobacterium* community

structure observed over a growing season resulted from the progressive replacement of isolates

with high yield strategy typical of cooperative, structured communities, by isolates with rapid

growth. Together our results show how *Methylobacterium* is phylogenetically structured into

lineages with distinct growth strategies, which helps explain their differential abundance across

regions, host tree species, and time. This works paves the way for further investigation of

adaptive strategies and traits within a ubiquitous phyllosphere genus.

Acknowledgments: FRQNT (funding), NSERC (funding), Canada Research Chairs (funding),

NSF (DEB-1831838), Geneviève Lajoie, Dominique Tardif, Ariane Lafrenière, Hélène Dion-

Phénix, Yves Terrat, Kenta Araya (help for sampling), Sylvain Dallaire (help for phenotyping

screen), Sergey Stolyar (discussions), Gault Natural Reserve (McGill University), Station

Biologique des Laurentides (UdeM), Centre d'Étude de la Forêt (CEF), QCBS.

Author contributions : J.B.L., E.S.L., D.C.M., G.B., B.J.S. and S.W.K. planned fieldwork and

the experiments. J.B.L. E.S.L., D.C.M. and G.B. performed experiments. J.B.L. and E.S.L.

performed bioinformatic analyses with contributions from D.S. and J.M.S. J.A.F., C.J.M. and

J.M.S. provided discussion in the early stages of this study. J.B.L. B.J.S. and S.W.K. drafted the

manuscript with contributions from C.J.M.

Data accessibility: raw reads for *16s* and *rpoB* barcoding on phyllosphere communities

(BioProject PRJNA729807; BioSamples SAMN19164946-SAMN19165146) can be retrieved

from NCBI under SRA Accession Numbers SRR14532212-SRR14532451. Partial nucleotide

sequences from marker genes obtained by SANGER sequencing on *Methylobacterium* isolates
(BioProject PRJNA730554 ; Biosamples SAMN19190155-SAMN19190401) can be retrieved
from NCBI under GenBank Accession Numbers MZ268514-MZ268593 (*16s*), MZ330152-
MZ330358 (*rpoB*) and MZ330130-MZ330151 (*sucA*).
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Introduction

Phyllosphere, the aerial parts of plants including leaves, is a microbial habitat estimated as vaste as twice the surface of the earth [1]. Although exposed to harsh conditions, like UVs, temperature variations and poor nutrient availability, the phyllosphere arbors a diverse community of microorganisms, of which bacteria are the most abundant [1]. A key challenge in microbial ecology and evolution is understanding the evolutionary and ecological processes that maintain diversity in habitats such as the phyllosphere. Bacteria living in the phyllosphere carry out key functions including nitrogen fixation, growth stimulation and protection against pathogens [1–3]. At broad spatial and temporal scales, bacterial diversity in the phyllosphere varies as a function of biogeography and host plant species, potentially due to restricted migration and local adaptation to the biotic and abiotic environment [4–6], leading to patterns of cophylogenetic evolutionary association between phyllosphere bacteria and their host plants [7]. Whether those eco-evolutionary processes are important at short time scales, as microbes and their host plants migrate and adapt to changing climates, is still an open question [8]. Another challenge is to link seasonal variation with plant-associated microbial community dynamics, as shifts in microbial community composition are tighly linked with host plant carbon cycling [9] and ecosystem functions including nitrogen fixation [10]. More generally, we understand very little about how the ecological strategies of phyllosphere bacteria vary among lineages and in response to variation in environmental conditions throughout the growing season [9,11].

Phylogenetic signal in traits or suites of correlated traits that are used as indicators of the ecological life history strategy of microbes suggest niche adaptation [12], and these phenotypic traits influence the assembly of ecological communities through their mediation of organismal interactions with the abiotic and biotic environment [13]. Recent work evaluating the phylogenetic depth of microbial trait evolution has shown that many microbial phenotype traits exhibit phylogenetic signal, with closely related lineages possessing similar phenotypic traits, although the phylogenetic depth at which this signal is evident differs among traits [14]. Most comparative studies of microbial trait evolution have focused on broad scale patterns across major phyla and classes [14], although some studies have found evidence for complex patterns of phenotypic and genomic evolution within microbial genera interacting to determine patterns of community

assembly and niche evolution [15,16]. Furthermore, to date the majority of studies of the diversity of
plant-associated microbes have been based on the use of universal marker genes such as the
bacterial 16S rRNA gene, providing a global picture of long-term bacterial adaptation to different
biomes and host plants at broad phylogenetic scales [17], but lacking sufficient resolution to assess
the evolutionary processes at finer spatial and temporal scales that lead to the origin of and
adaptations within microbial genera and species [18,19].

The Rhizobiales genus *Methylobacterium* (*Alphaproteobacteria*, *Rhizobiales*,
Methylobacteriaceae) is one of the most prevalent bacterial genera of the phyllosphere, present
on nearly every plant [20,21]. Characterized by pink colonies due to carotenoid production,
Methylobacterium are facultative methylotrophs, able to use one-carbon compounds, such as
methanol excreted by plants, as sole carbon sources [21–23]. Experimental studies have shown the
important roles of *Methylobacterium* in plant physiology, including growth stimulation through
hormone secretion [24–26], heavy metal sequestration [26], anti-phytopathogenic compound secretion,
and nitrogen fixation in plant nodules [27], sparking increasing interest in the use of
Methylobacterium in plant biotechnology applications [26,28,29]. Although up to 64
Methylobacterium species have been described [30–38], genomic and phenotypic information was
until recently limited to a small number of model species: *M. extorquens, M. populi*, *M. nodulans*,
M. aquaticum and *M radiotolerans*, mostly isolated from anthropogenic environments, and only
rarely from plants [39–43]. Newly available genomic and metagenomic data now allow a better
understanding of *Methylobacterium* diversity across biomes [30], but we still understand relatively
little about the drivers of the evolution and adaptation of *Methylobacterium* in natural habitats.

In this study, we assessed the diversity of *Methylobacterium* in temperate forests and asked
whether *Methylobacterium* associated with tree leaves act as an unstructured population with
large effective size, or if this diversity was maintained by regional factors (*e.g.* a combination of
isolation by distance and regional environmental variation) or by niche adaptation (*e.g.* host tree
or temperature adaptation) [12]. First, we assessed *Methylobacterium* diversity by combining
culturing and barcoding approaches along with phylogenetic analysis and quantified how this
diversity varied across space, time, and environment in the phyllosphere. Second, we quantified
the extent of phylogenetic niche differentiation within the bacterial genus *Methylobacterium*,

with a focus on quantifying the evidence for adaptation to local environmental variation at
different spatial, temporal and phylogenetic scales. We hypothesized that distinct phylogenetic
lineages would be associated with distinct environmental niches. Third, we quantified
Methylobacterium growth performance under fine-scale environmental variations, with a focus
on temperature, to determine whether *Methylobacterium* diversity fine-scale dynamics over space
and time might result from environmental filtering of isolates with contrasting growth strategies
under local environmental conditions. We found that *Methylobacterium* phyllosphere diversity
consisted of deeply branching phylogenetic lineages associated with distinct growth phenotypes,
isolation temperatures, and large-scale spatial effects (forest of origin), while finer-scale spatial
effects, host tree species, and time of sampling were more weakly and shallowly phylogenetically
structured. Over the course of a year, from spring to fall, we observed a homogenization of
Methylobacterium community structure coinciding with the progressive replacement of isolates
with high yield strategy by isolates with rapid growth. Together our results show that this
ubiquitous phyllosphere genus is structured into lineages with distinct growth strategies, which
helps explain their differential abundance across space and time.

Results

Phylogenetics of plant-associated Methylobacterium diversity.

We evaluated the known *Methylobacterium* diversity associated with plants, especially the
phyllosphere, by compiling information about the origin of 153 *Methylobacterium* isolates for
which genomes were available. We found that plants (65% of genomes) and especially the
phyllosphere compartment (41% of genomes) were the most prevalent source of
Methylobacterium. From these genomes, we built a maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree based
on the complete nucleotide sequence of *rpoB*, a highly polymorphic marker that experienced no
copy number variation in many bacteria taxa [44,45], and that we confirmed to be single copy in
Methylobacterium and related genera *Microvirga* and *Enterovirga* (**Figure 1, Table S1**). In this
phylogeny, we roughly identified main *Methylobacterium* groups (A, B, and C) previously
defined based on the 16S gene [30] and found that phyllosphere-associated diversity was not
randomly distributed in the *Methylobacterium* phylogenetic tree. Strains isolated from the

phyllosphere represented the largest part of diversity within group A (56% of strains) but not in groups B and C (17 and 12% of strains, respectively). Most of diversity within group A consisted of undescribed taxa falling outside previously well-described linages (**Figure 1, Table S1**). For the purpose of this study, we refined *Methylobacterium* group A that we subdivided into 9 monophyletic clades (A1-A9), using a ~92% pairwise similarity (PS) cut-off on the *rpoB* complete sequence (**Figure S1**).

16S Community analyses reveal Methylobacterium ubiquity and diversity in the phyllosphere.

We focused on *Methylobacterium* phyllosphere diversity variation observable at the scale of seasonal variation on individual trees within a geographic region, the temperate forests of northeastern North America. In two forests: Mont Saint Hilaire (MSH) and Station biologique des Laurentides (SBL), we marked 40 trees representative of diversity observed in 4-6 plots distributed along a 1.2 km transect (4-10 trees per plot). In MSH, the transect followed an elevation and floristic gradient, while in SBL, it followed a relatively constant environment (**Figure 2**). For this time series, each tree was sampled 3-4 times from June to October 2018. We evaluated the microbial phyllosphere diversity in our time series based on sequencing and identification of bacterial 16S gene amplicon sequence variants (ASVs; [46]) in a representative subset of 46 phyllosphere samples from 13 trees (**Tables S2-S4, Figures S2,S3**). As observed in previous studies [4], the distribution of the phyllosphere bacterial community was mostly explained by differences among forests (31.6% of variation explained; p<0.001; PERMANOVA; Hellinger transformation; 10,000 permutations), host tree species (15.6% of variation; p<0.001) and time of sampling (12.0%; p<0.05; **Table S5, Figure S4**), indicating that between-forest variation and adaptation to hosts were the main drivers of this diversity, which also varied greatly at the time scale of a year. Although representing only 1.3% (0.0-3.2% per sample) of total 16S sequence diversity, *Methylobacterium* was present in almost all analyzed samples (45 out of 46). We assigned the 15 *Methylobacterium* ASVs identified by 16S sequencing to clades from *Methylobacterium* group A: A9 (*M. phyllosphaerae/M. mesophilicum/M. phyllostachyos/ M. pseudosasicola/M. organophilum;* 0.87% of total diversity, nine ASVs), A6 (*M. sp.*, 0.29%; one ASV) and A1 (*M. gossipicola*; 0.13%, 3 ASVs; **Table S4**). With two rare ASVs (<0.01% of relative abundance) assigned to *M. komagatae*, belonging to group A [30] but unrelated to any

aforementioned clade, we defined a new clade (A10). No ASV was assigned to group B or group
C, hence confirming observations from available genomes that *Methylobacterium* group A is
tightly associated with the phyllosphere.

Development of a single-copy molecular marker to monitor fine-scale dynamics of
Methylobacterium populations.

Although the 16S barcoding approach suggests that *Methylobacterium* is ubiquitous in the
phyllosphere of temperate forests, regardless of location, time and host tree species, identification
based on 16S sequencing presents some limits in assessing microbial population dynamics at
local scales, and in assessing fine-scale evolutionary adaptations [18]. First, the low polymorphism
of the 16S rRNA gene does not permit distinguishing among species within clades typical of the
phyllosphere, thus confounding species with potentially divergent evolutionary routes reflecting
the distinct ecological niches they occupy within the phyllosphere. Second, 16S copy number
variation within *Methylobacterium* (4-12) and even within groups of closely related strains (4-6
copies in group A; 5 in group B; 6-12 copies in group C), may induce biases in estimating
relative abundances of taxa, and thus in assessing the dynamics of populations over space, time
and among host tree species.

To assess *Methylobacterium* diversity at a finer evolutionary level, we thus developed a
molecular marker targeting all members of the *Methylobacteriaceae* family, using the core gene
rpoB (**Figure 1** [44,45]). Based upon *rpoB* sequences available for *Methylobacterium*, as well as
sequencing of *rpoB* partial sequences from 20 *Methylobacterium* strains isolated from a pilot
survey in MSH in 2017 (See supplementary information; **Figure 2, Tables S2,S6)**, we
determined that this gene is polymorphic enough to explore diversity within the aforementioned
Methylobacterium clades (**Table S7, Figure S5**). For the rest of this study, we used the *rpoB*
marker to monitor temporal trends in *Methylobacterium* diversity in the phyllosphere from our
2018 time series in both forests **(Figure 2, Table S3)**.

Culture-based assessment of Methylobacterium diversity in the tree phyllosphere.

We evaluated the culturable part of *Methylobacterium* diversity from a subsample of 36 trees (18

per forest) representative of floral diversity in the 2018 time series in MSH and SBL. To date,

Methylobacterium was mostly isolated assuming its optimal growth was in the range 25-30 °C [47],

an approach that could lead to a bias toward mesophylic isolates in estimating microbial

diversity, especially in the case of microbes inhabiting temperate forests where temperatures

typically range from 10 to 20 °C during the growing season [48]. We thus performed replicate

isolation of *Methylobacterium* at both 20 and 30 °C on minimum mineral salt (MMS) media with

0.1% methanol as sole carbon source. We successfully amplified the *rpoB* marker for 167 pink

isolates (**Tables S8-S10**) that we assigned to *Methylobacterium* based upon their phylogenetic

placement (**Figure S6**). As observed for 16S ASVs, most isolates were assigned to clades from

group A typical of the phyllosphere: A9 (59.9% of isolates), A6 (24.6%), A1 (5.4%), A10 (3.6%)

and A2 (1.8%). Few isolates were assigned to group B (4.8% of isolates), mostly related to *M.*

extorquens, and none to group C. But the higher polymorphism in the *rpoB* marker allowed us to

uncover a considerable diversity within clades, as we identified 71 unique *rpoB* sequences, in

contrast to the smaller number obtained with 16S barcoding (15 ASVs).

Such high diversity in *rpoB* suggests that standing genetic variation is segregating within

Methylobacterium populations inhabiting the phyllosphere. We hypothesized that the

maintenance of this divestity could be explained by regional factors (*e.g.* a combination of

isolation by distance and regional environmental variation) and/or by niche adaptation (*e.g.* host

tree or temperature adaptation)[12]. To do so, we quantified associations between each ecological

factor and *Methylobacterium* diversity (at varying depths in the *rpoB* phylogeny; **Figure 3a**). For

each phylogenetic depth, we tested the association of each clade (with >50% bootstrap support;

see Methods; **Figure S7**) with four factors and their interactions (PERMANOVA with 10,000

permutations): (1) forest of sampling (2) temperature of isolation, (3) sampling time, and (4) host

tree species. For every phylogenetic depth tested, clades had distinct associations with forest of

origin (7.5±2.2% of variance explained; $p<0.001$) and temperature of isolation (7.2±1.6% of

variance explained; $p<0.001$; **Figure 3a**). Interestingly, temperature of isolation was the most

important factor distinguishing deep phylogenetic divergences (pairwise nucleotide

similarity<0.988), while forest of origin was slightly more important in structuring more recently

diverged clades. This suggests that mechanisms underlying isolation success at different

temperatures played a significant role in the early divergence among *Methylobacterium* clades
associated with tree leaves, while spatial variation among different forests evolved more recently.
Time of sampling had a slight but significant effect on diversity (2.4±0.2% of variance explained;
p<0.05) and it was observed at roughly the same phylogenetic depths at which temperature of
isolation was the dominant factor (pairwise nucleotide similarity range 0.957-0.986), suggesting
that seasonal *Methylobacterium* diversity dynamics could be partly driven by temperature
adaptation. We did not observe any significant effect of host tree species on *Methylobacterium*
isolate diversity, for any level of the phylogeny, suggesting no strong specific associations
between *Methylobacterium* strains and the tree species from which they were isolated.

We next asked specifically which nodes within the *Methylobacterium* phylogenetic tree were
associated with the two major factors contributing to overall diversity, namely forest and
temperature of isolation (**Figure 3a**). For every level in the *rpoB* phylogeny, we independently
tested for nodes (supported by at least 50% bootstrap) associated with forest of origin (SBL and
MSH) or temperature of isolation (20 and 30 °C) by permutation (100,000 permutations per level
and per factor; **Figure 3b**). We identified two nodes strongly associated with temperature of
isolation and corresponding to clades A6 (20 °C; *p<0.01*) and A9 (30 °C; *p<0.01*; **Figure 3b**).
Other clades were evenly isolated at 20 and 30 °C and we observed no significant association
between temperature of isolation and nodes embedded within clades. Nodes associated with
forest of origin also roughly corresponded to certain major clades, with clades A1+A2 and A10
almost exclusively sampled in MSH *(p<0.01* and *p<0.05*, respectively). Clade A9 was isolated
significantly more often at SBL *(p<0.001)* but at least one of its subclades was significantly more
isolated at MSH *(p<0.05)*, suggesting a relatively recent migration event. The fact that
Methylobacterium diversity typical of the phyllosphere show contrasted associations with forest
and temperature of isolation suggests that their evolution was tightly linked with processes
related to spatial and environmental variation including isolation by distance as well as niche-
based processes including adaptation to local climatic conditions.

Comparison of Methylobacterium diversity assessed by rpoB barcoding and strain isolation

To determine if these culture-based results were representative of the potentially uncultured
Methylobacterium diversity, we developed a culture-independent barcoded amplicon sequencing
approach based on *rpoB*. We performed *rpoB* amplicon sequencing for 184 leaf samples from 53
trees in both forests, allowed a monthly monitoring for most trees (**Table S3**). We identified 283
Methylobacteriaceae rpoB ASVs in these samples (**Figures S8-S11, Tables S10,S11**),
representing 24.6% of all sequences. Non-*Methylobacteriaceae* ASVs were mostly assigned to
other Rhizobiales families (850 ASVs, 70.33% of sequence abundance) and to Caulobacterales
(209 ASVs, 4.42% of sequence abundance) typical of the phyllosphere (see supplementary
information), suggesting that our *rpoB* marker is not limited to *Methylobacteriaceae* and can
potentially be used at a broader taxonomic scale. Within *Methylobacteriaceae*, ASVs were
mostly classified as *Methylobacterium* (200 ASVs, 23.05% of sequence relative abundance), and
Enterovirga (78 ASVs, 1.56%; **Table S12**). We assigned *Methylobacterium* ASVs to previously
defined clades using a maximum likelihood tree combining ASV sequences and reference
genomes (**Figure S12**). Most of *Methylobacterium* diversity was within the previously cultured
clades A9 (45.2% of *Methylobacterium* sequence abundance), A6 (24.3%), A1 (6.1%) and A10
(1.0%; **Table S13**). Estimates of *Methylobacterium* diversity based on *rpoB* sequences from
culture-independent sequencing or cultured isolates were generally concordant (**Table S13,
Figure S13**). Nevertheless, we cannot exclude the possibility that some diversity was not
isolated. For instance, although 19.1% of total *Methylobacterium* diversity assessed by *rpoB*
culture-free barcoding was assigned to group B, it only represented 4.8% of isolates. One
possible explanation could be adaptation of some isolates from this group to temperatures below
the range used for isolation (20-30 °C), as temperatures at the very beginning (May) and end
(October) of the growing period in Quebec typically range between 5 and 15°C.
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310   *Fine-scale temporal and spatial distribution of Methylobacterium diversity assessed by rpoB*
311   *barcoding*
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Our isolate-based survey suggested that the distribution of *Methylobacterium* diversity was
driven by both spatial and seasonal variation. This result was largely supported using the culture-
free approach (*rpoB* barcoding). Specifically, we found that spatial variation at both large
(distance between forests: 100km) and local scales (distance between plots within forest: 150-

1,200 m), as well as sampling date during the growing season (1-5 months), explained the largest
part of variance in the community composition of 200 *Methylobacterium* ASVs (proportion of
variation explained: 31.1%, 10.8% and 3.7%, respectively; p<0.001; PERMANOVA; Hellinger
transformation, Bray-Curtis dissimilarity, 10,000 permutations; **Table S14**). A majority of
Methylobacterium ASVs (124 out of 200) were significantly associated with one or either forest
(ANOVA; Bonferroni correction; **Figure 4a**), regardless their clade membership. The only
exception was observed for clade A1, which was almost exclusively observed (and isolated; see
Figure 3b) in the MSH forest. Also consistent without our isolation-based results, we found no
clear association between ASV or clade with host tree species, nor plots within forests (data not
shown).

To focus on temporal variation and fine-scale spatial effects, we removed large-scale spatial
variation by analyzing each forest separately. We quantified fine-scale spatial and temporal
dynamics of *Methylobacterium* diversity (200 ASVs), using autocorrelation analysis based on
Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index (*BC*). We observed a weak but significant decrease of community
similarity with geographical distance separating two samples within MSH (ANOVA on linear
model; *p*<0.001) but not SBL (*p*>0.05, **Table S15, Figure 4b**), and a significant decrease of
community similarity with time separating two samples in both forests (ANOVA on linear
model; *p*<0.001; **Table S15**), which was more marked in MSH than in SBL (**Figure 4c**). Both
results indicate that *Methylobacteriaceae* diversity is heterogeneously distributed even at very
local space and time scales. The overall community dissimilarity consistently decreased from
June to October in both MSH (from 0.624 to 0.297) and SBL (from 0.687 to 0.522; **Table S15,**
Figure 4d), suggesting that *Methylobacteriaceae* diversity was progressively homogenized by
migration or ecological filtering between the beginning and the end of the growing season at the
scale of a forest, although without affecting locally its heterogeneous spatial distribution in MSH
(**Table S15, Figure 4e**). The heterogeneous spatial distribution of *Methylobacterium* diversity
observed in MSH forest suggests either more restricted migration than in SBL, and/or local
adaptation due to environmental gradients. One possible explanation is that the floristic and
altitudinal gradient observed in MSH (**Figure 2d**) – but not in SBL – might generate local
adaptation to host tree species for *Methylobacterium* colonizing leaves in this more
heterogeneous forest, hence counteracting the homogenizing effect of neutral processes like

migration [49]. Accordingly, we found slight but significant effects of host tree species, and of the

interaction between host tree species and plots within forests, on *Methylobacterium* community

composition (each explaining 4.6% of variation in community composition; p<0.01%,

PERMANOVA; **Table S14**).

We tested for temporal autocorrelation in each node of the ML tree (**Figure S12**) supported by at

least 30% of bootstrapps (200 permutations) and observed significant temporal dynamics (as

attested by the positive slope between pairwise time and BC dissimilarity) in most testable nodes

(ANOVA, Bonferroni correction; **Figure 4f**). We observed the strongest temporal signals in

nodes embedded within clades A1 (MSH) and B (both forests), Accordingly, we found 25 ASVs

whose abundance significantly increased thourough the growing season (ANOVA; Bonferroni

correction; p<0.05), mostly belonging to clades A1 (n=11). Four ASVs increased significantly

with time in both forests and mostly belonged to group B (n=3), suggesting that at least a part of

the characteristics driving short-term dynamics of *Methylobacterium* communities are shared

among members of different clades within the genus.

Effect of short scale temperature variation in combination with other environmental and genetic

factors on Methylobacterium growth performances

A major environmental difference between forest sites and throughout the growing season relates

to shifts in temperature, suggesting, together with temperature preference of some clades during

the isolation step, that *Methylobacterium* diversity dynamics we observed over space and time

might result from clade contrasted growth performances under local climatic conditions. To

further explore the role of temperature, we measured growth of 79 *Methylobacterium* isolates

(sampled in 2018 in both forests; MSH: *n*=32, SBL: *n*=47 ; **Table S16**) for four temperature

treatments mimicking temperature variations during the growing season. Each treatment

consisted of an initial pre-conditioning step (*P*) during which each strain was incubated on solid

MMS media with methanol as sole carbon source for 20 days at either 20 °C (*P20*) or 30 °C

(*P30*), and a second monitoring step (*M*) during which pre-conditioned strains were incubated on

the same media and their growth monitored for 24 days at 20 °C (*P20M20* and *P20M30*) or 30 °C

(*P30M20* and *P30M30*; **Table S16, Figure S14***). Treatments *P20M20* and *P30M30* mimicked

stable thermal environments, and treatments *P20M30* and *P30M20* mimicked variable thermal environments. For each isolate and temperature treatment, logistic growth curves were inferred from bacteria spot intensity variation observed over three time points during the monitoring step (**Figures S15, S16**). From growth curves, we estimated maximum growth intensity, or yield (*Y*) and growth rate (*r*) as the inverse of lag+log time necessary to reach *Y* (**Figure S16, Table S16** [50,51]). Clade membership explained a large part of variation in *Y* and *r* (30.6 and 7.6% of variation explained, respectively; ANOVA; *p*<0.001), indicating that *Methylobacterium* growth performance is largely long-term inherited and tends to be shared among clade members (**Figures 5a,b, Table 1**). Certain clades had a higher yield range than others, suggesting differences in their carbon use efficiency [51], here provided by methanol. For example, group B isolates (*Y* = 12.2 ± 5.0) have higher yield than group A (*Y* = 5.4 ± 3.5). Different growth rates rather suggest contrasted growth strategies across clades [51,52]. Strains from clades A1, A2 and B had the highest growth rate (*r* range: 0.101±0.032 – 0.121±0.031), suggesting they have fast-growth strategy. Other clades (A6, A9 and A10) had on average slower growth (*r* range: 0.082±0.021 – 0.088±0.024), suggesting that they have more efficient strategy [51].

Compared to clade membership, we observed that time of sampling, host tree species and forest explained less variation in growth rate (5.4%, *p*<0.001; 2.2%, p<0.01 and 1.5%, p<0.05, respectively; ANOVA; **Table 1**), suggesting that plasticity to the environment was a secondary but still determining factor in strain growth strategy. The weak or non-significant interactions between clade membership and the aforementioned environmental factors (ANOVA; **Table 1**) suggest that these patterns were consistent across clades, indicating they are unlikely to result from long-term adaptation but rather correspond to short-term responses to environmental conditions. In both SBL and MSH, growth rate increased consistently from June (*r* = 0.075±0.018 and 0.085±0.033, respectively) to September/October (*r* = 0.097±0.031 and 0.103±0.027, respectively; **Figure 5c**). Growth rate increase thorough the season might result from increasing competition within phyllosphere communities, for instance by selection for faster growth. Accordingly, culture-independent *rpoB* confirmed that clades associated with faster growth (clades B and A1) increased in abundance over time.

Temperature also had significant effects on growth performance. Temperature during the
monitoring phase explained respectively 2.0% and 15.8% of variation in yield and growth rate
($p<0.01$ and $p<0.001$, respectively; ANOVA; **Figure 5d, Table 1**), regardless of clade
membership (no significant interaction in the ANOVA). Isolates incubated at 20 °C have on
average higher yield ($Y=6.9\pm5.4$) but slower growth ($r=0.077\pm0.022$) than isolates incubated at
30 °C ($Y=4.9\pm3.6$; $r=0.100\pm0.030$), suggesting that higher temperature tends to shift
Methylobacterium toward faster growth but lower efficiency, a typical trade-off observed in other
bacteria [51]. The effect of monitoring temperature on growth rate was also independent from time
of sampling (no significant interaction in the ANOVA), suggesting that *Methylobacterium* also
grow faster and less efficiently at 30 °C regardless temporal environmental variations.
Accordingly, the pre-conditioning temperature had no effect on growth rate ($p>0.05$; ANOVA),
and very limited on yield (1.4%; $p<0.05$; ANOVA), suggesting limited effect of short-time
temperature shift on *Methylobacterium* growth performance (**Table 1**).
422
423   **Discussion**
424
Methylobacterium is ubiquitous on leaves in the temperate forests of Québec and its diversity in
this habitat is quite similar to what has been described in the phyllosphere throughout the world,
with three main clades A9 (*M. brachiatum*, *M. pseudosasicola*), A6 (*M. sp.*) and A1 (*M.
gossipicola*) dominating diversity in the canopy. Our barcoding approach based on a clade-
specific *rpoB* marker revealed astonishing diversity within these clades, as well as within several
other clades: B (*M. extorquens*), A2 (*M. sp.*), A4 (*M. gnaphalii*, *M. brachytecii*) and A10 (*M.
komagatae*) whose importance in the phyllosphere has been underestimated by classical 16S
barcoding or strain isolation approaches. This diversity, like that of the overall phyllosphere
community, was mostly determined by differences between forests, with barcoding approaches
suggesting combined effects of restricted migration, local adaptation to host tree species, and
climatic conditions at large geographical scales (>100km). With higher molecular resolution, we
observed that *Methylobacterium* diversity was structured even at the scale of a forest (within 2
km), which according to a fine-scale timeline survey over the growing season also showed a clear
pattern of temporal dynamics and succesion. A finer analysis of *Methylobacterium* diversity
suggested that clade identity partly explained *Methylobacterium* geographical distribution at large

scale (forest) but not at finer scales (plots), nor was it an indicator of adaptation to a particular

host tree species, nor a determinant of temporal dynamics. Rather, the distribution of

Methylobacterium diversity at small temporal and geographical scales likely resulted from more

contemporaneous community assembly events selecting for phenotypic traits that evolved among

deeply diverging lineages of *Methylobacterium*, as has been observed in other bacterial [16] and

plant clades [53].

We explored mechanisms explaining the temporal dynamics of *Methylobacterium* diversity at the

scale of a growing season. Because we observed contrasting *Methylobacterium* isolable diversity

between 20 and 30 °C, we suspected that adaptation to temperature variation during the growing

season could explain part of these temporal dynamics. By monitoring *Methylobacterium* isolate

growth under different temperature treatments, we confirmed that temperature affected isolate

growth performances. The fact that most tested isolates grow slower but more efficiently at 20 °C

than at 30 °C (**Figure 5d**), regardless of their phylogenetic and environmental characteristics, is

in line with a temperature-dependent trade-off between growth rate and yield described in many

bacteria (reviewed in [51]). High yield strategies are typical of cooperative bacterial populations,

while fast growth-strategies are typical of competitive populations [51], suggesting that 20 °C is

likely closer to the thermal niche of a cooperative *Methylobacterium* community, in agreement

with average temperatures in temperate forests during the growing season. This observation also

stresses the importance of considering incubation temperature when interpreting results from

previous studies assessing *Methylobacterium* diversity based on strain isolation. We observed

several lines of evidence that factors other than direct adaptation to temperature drive

Methylobacterium responses to temperature variation, by affecting their growth strategy in

different competitive conditions rather than by affecting their metabolism directly. First, clade

identity was one of the main predictors of overall strain performance, with some clades (A1, A2,

B) possessing a rapid growth strategy under all temperature conditions, while others (clades A6,

A9, A10) had systematically slower growth. These clade-specific growth strategies could explain

for instance why certain *Methylobacterium* isolates are less competitive and less frequently

isolated at higher temperatures. Still, we cannot rule out that clade-specific growth strategy also

reflect experimental conditions. Second, we observed strong associations between strain growth

performance and time of sampling, regardless of clade association, suggesting that growth

dynamic strategies also respond to seasonal variations in environmental conditions, and to the
level of establishment and competition in the phyllosphere community [51]. This observation,
together with clade identity, could explain why, assuming that environmental conditions at the
end of the growing season became unfavorable for most strains, strains from clades A1 and B
with a fast-growth strategy consistently increase in frequency during this period and lead to the
homogeneization of the community. Taken together, our temporal survey of diversity dynamics
and screening for growth performance suggest the following timeline of the dynamics of the
Methylobacterium phyllosphere community. At the very beginning of the growing season, a pool
of bacteria with mixed ecological strategies and genotypes colonizes newly emerging leaves. Due
to the stochasticity of this colonization, we initially observe strong dissimilarity among
phyllosphere communities, regardless of their spatial position. During the summer, optimal
environmental conditions allow the progressive establishment of a cooperative and structured
bacterial community with a high yield strategy [51]. At the end of the growing season, with
migration, environmental conditions shifting and leaves senescing, strains with a fast-growth
strategy are able to grow rapidly, dominating the phyllosphere community and leading to its
homogeneization before leaves fully senesce.

Our study illustrates that *Methylobacterium* is a complex group of divergent lineages with
different ecological strategies and distributions, reflecting long-term adaptation to highly
contrasted environments. Based upon a similar observation, some authors recently proposed to
reclassify *Methylobacterium* group B within a new genus (*Methylorubrum*) that they argue is
ecologically and evolutionarily distinct from other *Methylobacterium* clades [30]. Although clade B
was well supported as a distinct clade in our analyses, our results suggest that it is in fact
embedded within clade A, which would render the genus *Methylobacterium* paraphyletic if clade
B is defined as a distinct genus, and group B was not particularly ecologically distinct in
comparison with other major clades. Our results emphasize the fact that torough genomic
investigations are needed to clarify the taxomonic status of *Methylobacterium*. Beyond any
taxonomic considerations, neither clade identity assessed by individual genetic markers nor the
tremendous ecological diversity among *Methylobacterium* clades can predict all of the spatial and
temporal variation in *Methylobacterium* diversity in nature. In order to define the niches of
Methylobacterium clades and to understand the metabolic mechanisms underlying their

contrasted life strategies, future characterization of their functions and genome structure will be

required using phylogenomic approaches.

In conclusion, we find that *Methylobacterium* adaptive responses to local environmental variation

in the phyllosphere are driven by both long-term inherited ecological strategies that differ among

major clades within the genus, as well by seasonal changes affecting habitat characteristics and

community structure in the phyllosphere habitat. Overall, our study combining sequencing- and

culture-based approaches provides novel insights into the factors driving fine-scale adaptation of

microbes to their habitats, and in the case of *Methylobacterium* our approach revealed the

particular importance of considering organismal life-history strategies to help understand the

small-scale diversity and dynamic of this ecologically important taxon.

Figures and Table

Figure 1 - *Methylobacterium* **phylogeny and ecology.** Most of *Methylobacterium* diversity is found in association with plants, especially in the phyllosphere. Maxium-Likelihood phylogenetic tree (100 permutations, only nodes supported by at least 50% of bootstraps are shown) from *rpoB* complete nucleotide sequences (4064 bp) available for 153 *Methylobacterium* genomes and rooted on 32 *Methylobacteriaceae* outgroups (*Microvirga*, *Enterovirga*; no shown; see **Table S1**). For each genome, the anthropogenic origin (black squares) and/or environmental origin are indicated (color code on top left). Groups A, B, C adapted from [30]. Monophyletic clades within group A (A1-A9) were defined using a ~92% nucleotide pairwise similarity cut-off on the *rpoB* complete sequence (see **Figure S1**).

Figure 2 - Sampling design. a) Locations of the two sampled forests MSH (green) and SBL (orange) in the province of Québec (Canada). b) Time line survey in each forest in 2018 (2-4 time points available per tree). c-d). Detailed map of each forest and each plot within forests (squares; 6 to 10 trees were sampled per plot; see **Table S2,S3**). In MSH, plots H0 and L0 were sampled once in 2017 for a pilot survey. In SBL and MSH, plots 1-6 were sampled 4 times in 2018. For each plot, tree localizations are indicated by point colored according to their taxonomie (color code on bottom left): ABBA (*Abies balsamea*), ACRU (*Acer rubrum*). ACSA (*Acer saccharum*), OSVI (*Ostrya virginiana*), QURU (*Quercus rubra*), FAGR (*Fagus grandifolia*), ASPE (*Acer Pennsylvanicum*). Shades of grey indicate elevation (50 m elevation scale)

Figure 3 - Tests for phylogenetic association of traits with culture-based estimation of *Methylobacterium* diversity. a) Part of variance in *Methylobacterium* isolated diversity explained by each trait and their interactions (PERMANOVA tests for association; 10,000 permutations; x-axis) in function of pairwise nucleotide similarity as a proxy for phylogenetic depth (PS; y-axis). PERMANOVA were conducted at different depths within a maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree (100 bootstraps; nodes supported in less than 50% of replicated trees were removed; legend on top right) drawn from partial *rpoB* nucleotide sequences of 187 isolates (pilot survey in 2017: n=20; timeline survey in 2018: n=167) and 188 *Methylobacteriaceae* reference sequences. The four following traits and their interactions were tested (see Venn

diagram on top left for color code): forest of origin, host tree species, sampling date and temperature of isolation. Points indicate significant part of variance (legend on the left). b) Test for node association (100,000 permutations) with forest of origin and temperature of isolation (color code on top) mapped on the *rpoB* phylogeny (scaled on PS values; original tree in **Figure S6**). Colored frames in the tree indicate nodes significantly associated with at least one factor (ANOVA; Bonferonni correction; $p<0.001$: "***"; $p<0.01$:"**"; $p<0.05$:"*"). For each isolate (names in bold), colored boxes at the tip of the tree indicate forest of origin and temperature of isolation.

Figure 4 - Short-scale spatial and temporal dynamics of *Methylobacterium* communities assessed by *rpoB* barcoding. a) A principal component analysis (PCA) on 200 *Methylobacterium* ASVs relative abundance (Hellinger transformation, Bray-Curtis (*BC*) dissimilarity) shows that 184 phyllosphere samples (black points) cluster according to forest of origin (MSH, SBL). The significant association of 124 ASVs with one or either forest (ANOVA, Bonferonni correction; $p<0.05$; point size proportional to variance) is shown (points colored according to clade assignation). b) Spatial and c) temporal autocorrelation analyzes conducted in each forest separately. Points represent BC dissimilarity in function of pairwise geographic (*pDist*; b) or pairwise time (*pTime*; c) distance separating two communities. For each forest and variable, the predicted linear regression (*BC~pDIST* or *~pTime*) is indicated (full line: $p<0.001$; dotted line: $p>0.05$; ANOVA). d) *BC* in function of sampling time for each forest. e) Detail of spatial autocorrelation analyzes in MSH, conducted for each sampling time point separately. f) Scaled ML tree (original tree from **Figure S12** scaled on pairwise nucleotide similarity (PS)) of 200 *Methylobacterium* ASV (points) and 176 reference *rpoB* sequences rooted on *Microvirga* and *Enterovirga* (out group not shown). Temporal autocorrelation analyzes per forest were conducted for each node supported by at least 30% of bootstraps (200 permutations). For each forest and node, the strength of the slope (estimate of the linear regression *BC~pTime*; proportional to point size) was displayed when highly significant ($p<0.001$; ANOVA, Bonferonni correction).

Figure 5 - Analysis of 79 *Methylobacterium* isolate growth performances under 4 different temperature treatments. For each strain and temperature treatment, the yield (*Y*: maximal

growth intensity) and growth rate (r; inverse of log+lag time) were estimated from growth curves. a) Average growth curves (growth intensity in function of time) for each clade (line: mean value; frame: 1/3 of standard deviation; point: average maximal growth). b) r in function of Y. Each point represents the average r/Y values for an isolate and a temperature treatment (79 isolates x 4 treatments), colored according to clade membership. Ellipsoides are centered on average values per clade and represent 30% of confidence interval (standard deviation). c) r (log scale) in function of time at which strains were isolated, colored according to the forest of origin. Points: real data; bars: average r value per forest (n=2) and time (n=4) category. d) r in function of Y, corrected for clade assignement (residuals of the r~Clade and Y~Clade linear regressions). Each point represents the average r/Y residual values for an isolate and a temperature treatment (79 isolates x 4 treatments), colored according to monitoring temperature (legend on top right).

Table 1 - Part of variance in yield (Y) and growth rate (r) measured in 79 *Methylobacterium* strains grown under 4 temperature treatments. Y and r values were transformed in log to meet normal distribution. Significance of Y and r response were evaluated by ANOVA in linear models: $\log(Y) \sim F*H*D*T_p*T_M*C$ *and* $\log(r) \sim F*H*D*T_p*T_M*C$, respectively, with following factors : clade (C), forest of origin (F), host tree species (H), time of sampling (D), temperature of incubation during pre-conditioning (T_P) and monitoring (T_M) steps and their interactions (only significant are shown: "***": p<0.00l; "**": p<0.01; "*": p<0.05).

	Rate	Yield
Forest (F)	0.015*	0.002
Host tree species (H)	0.022**	0.013**
Date of sampling (D)	0.054***	0.013**
Pre-conditioning temperature (TP)	0.001	0.014**
Monitoring temperature (TM)	0.158***	0.020**
Clade (C)	0.076***	0.306***
F:D	0.006	0.036***
H:D	0.001	0.015**
H:C	0.006	0.058***
D:C	0.032*	0.022*
F:H:D	0.019**	0.035***
F:H:C	0.013*	0.006
other interactions	0.142	0.084
Residuals	0.456	0.377

List of supplementary information

Figure S1 - Validation of *Methylobacterium* group A subdivisions in nine clades.

Table S1 - List of reference *Methylobacteriaceae* genomes from which the complete *rpoB* and *sucA* nucleotide sequences were available.

Table S2 - Description of sites of sampling.

Table S3 - Description of trees monitored in 2018 and sample usage.

Figure S2 - ASV rarefaction on diversity assessed by *16s* barcoding in 46 phyllosphere samples, 1 positive control (METH community) and 1 negative controls.

Table S4 - Summary of 16S ASV taxonomic assignation using SILVA (v.138).

Figure S3 - Main bacteria order distribution across 46 phyllosphere samples and one positive control (METH community) in function of different factors.

Figure S4 - Community analysis on bacterial diversity assessed from 16S barcoding in 46 phyllosphere samples.

Table S5 - PERMANOVA analysis of variance in bacterial community diversity assessed from 16S barcoding in 46 phyllosphere samples

Table S6 - List of 76 strains isolated in MSH during a pilot survey in august 2017.

Table S7 - Primers used to amplify hyper variable regions in genes *sucA* and *rpoB*.

Figure S5 - ML phylogenetic trees from *sucA* (a) and *rpoB* (b) concatenated hypervariable regions.

Table S8 - Information for 98 *Methylobacterium* strains successfully isolated, amplified and sequenced for the *rpoB* marker from 2018 timeline (isolation batch 1/2).

Table S9 - Information for 69 *Methylobacterium* strains successfully isolated, amplified and sequenced for the *rpoB* marker from 2018 timeline (isolation batch 2/2).

Table S10 - Information on 187 strains used for *rpoB* phylogeny, including 167 strains isolated in 2018 and 20 strains isolated in 2017.

Figure S6 - ML tree on *rpoB* gene partial nucleotide sequences from 187 *Methylobacterium* strain isolated in 2017 (n=20) and 2018 (n=167) and 188 *Methylobacteriaceae* reference genomes.

Figure S7 - Iterative normalization of the *rpoB* phylogeny

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a

Host tree species

Forest of origin   Sampling time

Isolation temperature

p ≤ 0.001
p ≤ 0.01
p ≤ 0.05

Part of variance

b

Isolation temperature   30°C 20°C

Forest of origin   SBL MSH

Node support

50   75   100

PS

1
0.99
0.98
0.97
0.96
0.95
0.94

A9

A10

A8
A7

A6

B

A3 A4

A2

A1

A5

C

Enterovirga

Microvirga

30°C**
SBL***

SBL**
SBL**

30°C*

MSH*

MSH*

MSH**†
MSH**†
MSH*

20°C**

20°C**