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

3

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 temperature adaptation, growth strategies in *Bacteria*

15

16 Abstract

17 *Methylobacterium* is a prevalent bacterial genus of the phyllosphere. Despite its ubiquity, little is 18 known about the extent to which its diversity reflects neutral processes like migration and drift, 19 or environmental filtering of life history strategies and adaptations. In two temperate forests, we 20 investigated how phylogenetic diversity within Methylobacterium was structured by 21 biogeography, seasonality, and growth strategies. Using deep, culture-independent barcoded 22 marker gene sequencing coupled with culture-based approaches, we uncovered a previously 23 underestimated diversity of Methylobacterium in the phyllosphere. We cultured very different 24 subsets of *Methylobacterium* lineages depending upon the temperature of isolation and growth 25 (20 °C or 30 °C), suggesting long-term adaptation to temperature. To a lesser extent than 26 temperature adaptation, *Methylobacterium* diversity was also structured across large (>100km; 27 between forests) and small geographical scales (<1.2km within forests), among host tree species, 28 and was dynamic over seasons. By measuring growth of 79 isolates at different temperature 29 treatments, we observed contrasting growth performances, with strong lineage- and season-30 dependent variations in growth strategies. Finally, we documented a progressive replacement of 31 lineages with a high-yield growth strategy typical of cooperative, structured communities, in favor of those characterized by rapid growth, resulting in convergence and homogenization of community structure at the end of the growing season. 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.

38

39 Abstract importance

40 *Methylobacterium* is a bacterial group tied to plants. Despite its ubiquity and importance to their 41 hosts, little is known about the processes driving Methylobacterium community dynamics. By 42 combining traditional culture-dependent and -independent (metagenomics) approaches, we 43 monitored *Methylobacterium* diversity in two temperate forests over a growing season. On the 44 surface of tree leaves, we discovered remarkably diverse and dynamic Methylobacterium 45 communities over short temporal (from June to October) and spatial scales (within 1.2 km). 46 Because we cultured very different subsets of Methylobacterium diversity depending on the 47 temperature of incubation, we suspected that these dynamics partly reflected climatic adaptation. 48 By culturing strains in lab conditions mimicking seasonal variations, we found that diversity and 49 environmental variations were indeed good predictors of Methylobacterium growth 50 performances. Our findings suggest that *Methylobacterium* community dynamics at the surface of 51 tree leaves results from the succession of strains with contrasted growth strategies in response to 52 environmental variations.

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63 early stages of this study. J.B.L. B.J.S. and S.W.K. drafted the manuscript with contributions

- 64 from C.J.M.
- 65

Data accessibility: raw reads for 16s and rpoB barcoding on phyllosphere communities 66 (BioProject PRJNA729807; BioSamples SAMN19164946-SAMN19165146) were deposited in 67 68 NCBI under SRA Accession Numbers SRR14532212-SRR14532451. Partial nucleotide 69 sequences from marker genes obtained by SANGER sequencing on Methylobacterium isolates 70 (BioProject PRJNA730554; Biosamples SAMN19190155-SAMN19190401) were deposited in 71 NCBI under GenBank Accession Numbers MZ268514-MZ268593 (16s), MZ330152-MZ330358 72 (rpoB) and MZ330130-MZ330151 (sucA). R codes and related data were deposited on Github 73 (https://github.com/JBLED/methylo-phyllo-diversity).

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76 Introduction

77

78 Phyllosphere, the aerial parts of plants including leaves, is a microbial habitat estimated as vaste 79 as twice the surface of the earth (1). Although exposed to harsh conditions, like UVs, temperature 80 variations and poor nutrient availability, the phyllosphere arbors a diverse community of 81 microorganisms, of which bacteria are the most abundant (1). A key challenge in microbial 82 ecology and evolution is understanding the evolutionary and ecological processes that maintain 83 diversity in habitats such as the phyllosphere. Bacteria living in the phyllosphere carry out key 84 functions including nitrogen fixation, growth stimulation and protection against pathogens (1-3). 85 At broad spatial and temporal scales, bacterial diversity in the phyllosphere varies as a function 86 of biogeography and host plant species, potentially due to restricted migration and local 87 adaptation to the biotic and abiotic environment (4–6), leading to patterns of cophylogenetic 88 evolutionary association between phyllosphere bacteria and their host plants (7). Whether those 89 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 90 91 seasonal variation with plant-associated microbial community dynamics, as shifts in microbial 92 community composition are tighly linked with host plant carbon cycling (9) and ecosystem 93 functions including nitrogen fixation (10). More generally, we understand very little about how 94 the ecological strategies of phyllosphere bacteria vary among lineages and in response to 95 variation in environmental conditions throughout the growing season (9, 11).

96

97 Phylogenetic signal in traits or suites of correlated traits that are used as indicators of the 98 ecological life history strategy of microbes suggest niche adaptation (12), and these phenotypic 99 traits influence the assembly of ecological communities through their mediation of organismal 100 interactions with the abiotic and biotic environment (13). Recent work evaluating the 101 phylogenetic depth of microbial trait evolution has shown that many microbial phenotype traits 102 exhibit phylogenetic signal, with closely related lineages possessing similar phenotypic traits, 103 although the phylogenetic depth at which this signal is evident differs among traits (14). Most 104 comparative studies of microbial trait evolution have focused on broad scale patterns across 105 major phyla and classes (14), although some studies have found evidence for complex patterns of 106 phenotypic and genomic evolution within microbial genera interacting to determine patterns of 107 community assembly and niche evolution (15, 16). Furthermore, to date the majority of studies of 108 the diversity of plant-associated microbes have been based on the use of universal marker genes 109 such as the bacterial 16S rRNA gene, providing a global picture of long-term bacterial adaptation 110 to different biomes and host plants at broad phylogenetic scales (17), but lacking sufficient 111 resolution to assess the evolutionary processes at finer spatial and temporal scales that lead to the 112 origin of and adaptations within microbial genera and species (18, 19).

113

114 The Rhizobiales *Methylobacterium* (Alphaproteobacteria, genus Rhizobiales, 115 *Methylobacteriaceae*) is one of the most prevalent bacterial genera of the phyllosphere, present 116 on nearly every plant (20, 21). Characterized by pink colonies due to carotenoid production, 117 *Methylobacterium* are facultative methylotrophs, able to use one-carbon compounds, such as 118 methanol excreted by plants, as sole carbon sources (21–23). Experimental studies have shown 119 the important roles of *Methylobacterium* in plant physiology, including growth stimulation 120 through hormone secretion (24-26), heavy metal sequestration (26), anti-phytopathogenic 121 compound secretion, and nitrogen fixation in plant nodules (27), sparking increasing interest in 122 the use of *Methylobacterium* in plant biotechnology applications (26, 28, 29). Although up to 64 123 Methylobacterium species have been described (30-38), genomic and phenotypic information 124 was until recently limited to a small number of model species: M. extorquens, M. populi, M. 125 nodulans, M. aquaticum and M radiotolerans, mostly isolated from anthropogenic environments, 126 and only rarely from plants (39-43). Newly available genomic and metagenomic data now allow 127 a better understanding of *Methylobacterium* diversity across biomes (30), but we still understand 128 relatively little about the drivers of the evolution and adaptation of Methylobacterium in natural 129 habitats.

130

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 138 the extent of phylogenetic niche differentiation within the bacterial genus Methylobacterium, 139 with a focus on quantifying the evidence for adaptation to local environmental variation at 140 different spatial, temporal and phylogenetic scales. We hypothesized that distinct phylogenetic 141 lineages would be associated with distinct environmental niches. Third, we quantified 142 Methylobacterium growth performance under fine-scale environmental variations, with a focus 143 on temperature, to determine whether Methylobacterium diversity fine-scale dynamics over space 144 and time might result from environmental filtering of isolates with contrasting growth strategies 145 under local environmental conditions. We found that Methylobacterium phyllosphere diversity 146 consisted of deeply branching phylogenetic lineages associated with distinct growth phenotypes, 147 isolation temperatures, and large-scale spatial effects (forest of origin), while finer-scale spatial 148 effects, host tree species, and time of sampling were more weakly and shallowly phylogenetically 149 structured. Over the course of a year, from spring to fall, we observed a homogenization of 150 Methylobacterium community structure coinciding with the progressive replacement of isolates 151 with high yield strategy by isolates with rapid growth. Together our results show that this 152 ubiquitous phyllosphere genus is structured into lineages with distinct growth strategies, which 153 helps explain their differential abundance across space and time.

- 154
- 155 **Results**
- 156

157 *Phylogenetics of plant-associated Methylobacterium diversity.*

158

159 We evaluated the known *Methylobacterium* diversity associated with plants, especially the 160 phyllosphere, by compiling information about the origin of 153 Methylobacterium isolates for 161 which genomes were available. We found that plants (65% of genomes) and especially the 162 phyllosphere compartment (41% of genomes) were the most prevalent source of 163 Methylobacterium. From these genomes, we built a phylogenetic tree based on the complete 164 nucleotide sequence of *rpoB*, a highly polymorphic marker that experienced no copy number 165 variation in many bacteria taxa (44, 45), and that we confirmed to be single copy in 166 *Methylobacterium* and related genera *Microvirga* and *Enterovirga* (Figure 1, Supplementary 167 dataset 1a). In this phylogeny, we roughly identified main *Methylobacterium* groups (A, B, and 168 C) previously defined based on the 16S gene (30) and found that phyllosphere-associated diversity was not randomly distributed in the *Methylobacterium* phylogenetic tree. Isolates from
the phyllosphere represented the largest part of diversity within group A (56% of isolates) but not
in groups B and C (17 and 12% of isolates, respectively). Most of diversity within group A
consisted of undescribed taxa falling outside previously well-described linages (Figure 1,
Supplementary dataset 1a). 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.

176

177 *16S Community analyses reveal Methylobacterium ubiquity and diversity in the phyllosphere.*

178

179 We focused on *Methylobacterium* phyllosphere diversity variation observable at the scale of 180 seasonal variation on individual trees within a geographic region, the temperate forests of 181 northeastern North America (Figure 2a,b). In two forests: Mont Saint Hilaire (MSH; 45.54 N 182 73.16 W; Figure 2c) and Station biologique des Laurentides (SBL; 45.99 N 73.99 W; Figure 183 2d), we marked 40 trees representative of diversity observed in 4-6 plots distributed along a 1.2 184 km transect (4-10 trees per plot). In MSH, the transect followed an elevation and floristic 185 gradient, while in SBL, it followed a relatively constant environment. For this time series, each 186 tree was sampled 3-4 times from June to October 2018 (Figure 2b; Supplementary dataset 1b). 187 We evaluated the microbial phyllosphere diversity in our time series based on sequencing and 188 identification of bacterial 16S gene amplicon sequence variants (ASVs; (46)) in a representative 189 subset of 46 phyllosphere samples from 13 trees (Supplementary dataset 1c-e). As observed in 190 previous studies (4), the distribution of the phyllosphere bacterial community was mostly 191 explained by differences among forests (31.6% of variation explained; p<0.001; PERMANOVA; 192 Hellinger transformation; 10,000 permutations), host tree species (15.6% of variation; p<0.001) 193 and time of sampling (12.0%; p<0.05; Table 1), indicating that between-forest variation and 194 adaptation to hosts were the main drivers of this diversity, which also varied greatly at the time 195 scale of a year. Although representing only 1.3% (0.0-3.2% per sample) of total 16S sequence 196 diversity, Methylobacterium was present in almost all analyzed samples (45 out of 46; 197 Supplementary dataset 1d,e). We assigned the 15 *Methylobacterium* ASVs identified by 16S 198 sequencing to clades from Methylobacterium group A: A9 (M. phyllosphaerae/M. 199 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;
Supplementary dataset 1e). 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.

206

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

209

210 Although the 16S barcoding approach suggests that *Methylobacterium* is ubiquitous in the 211 phyllosphere of temperate forests, regardless of location, time and host tree species, identification 212 based on 16S sequencing presents some limits in assessing microbial population dynamics at 213 local scales, and in assessing fine-scale evolutionary adaptations (18). First, the low 214 polymorphism of the 16S rRNA gene does not permit distinguishing among species within clades 215 typical of the phyllosphere, thus confounding species with potentially divergent evolutionary 216 routes reflecting the distinct ecological niches they occupy within the phyllosphere. Second, 16S 217 copy number variation within Methylobacterium (4-12) and even within groups of closely related 218 isolates (4-6 copies in group A; 5 in group B; 6-12 copies in group C), may induce biases in 219 estimating relative abundances of taxa, and thus in assessing the dynamics of populations over 220 space, time and among host tree species.

221

222 To assess Methylobacterium diversity at a finer evolutionary level, we thus developed a 223 molecular marker targeting all members of the *Methylobacteriaceae* family, using the core gene 224 rpoB (Figure 1 (44, 45)). Based upon rpoB sequences available for Methylobacterium 225 (Supplementary dataset 1a), as well as sequencing of *rpoB* partial sequences from 20 226 Methylobacterium isolates from a pilot survey in MSH in 2017 (Figure 2d; Table S1; 227 Supplementary dataset 1f,g) we determined that this gene is polymorphic enough to explore 228 diversity within the aforementioned *Methylobacterium* clades (See **supplementary method**). For 229 the rest of this study, we used the *rpoB* marker to monitor temporal trends in *Methylobacterium* 230 diversity in the phyllosphere from our 2018 time series in both forests.

231

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

233

234 We evaluated the culturable part of *Methylobacterium* diversity from a subsample of 36 trees (18) 235 per forest) representative of floral diversity in the 2018 time series in MSH and SBL. To date, 236 Methylobacterium was mostly isolated assuming its optimal growth was in the range 25-30 °C 237 (47), an approach that could lead to a bias toward mesophylic isolates in estimating microbial 238 diversity, especially in the case of microbes inhabiting temperate forests where temperatures 239 typically range from 10 to 20 °C during the growing season (48). We thus performed replicate 240 isolation of Methylobacterium at both 20 and 30 °C on minimum mineral salt (MMS) media with 241 0.1% methanol as sole carbon source. We successfully amplified the *rpoB* marker for 167 pink 242 isolates that we assigned to *Methylobacterium* based upon their phylogenetic placement 243 (Supplementary dataset 1g,h; Supplementary method). As observed for 16S ASVs, most 244 isolates were assigned to clades from group A typical of the phyllosphere: A9 (59.9% of isolates), 245 A6 (24.6%), A1 (5.4%), A10 (3.6%) and A2 (1.8%). Few isolates were assigned to group B 246 (4.2% of isolates), mostly related to *M. extorquens*, and none to group C (**Table S2**). But the 247 higher polymorphism in the *rpoB* marker allowed us to uncover a considerable diversity within 248 clades, as we identified 71 unique rpoB sequences, in contrast to the smaller number obtained 249 with 16S barcoding (15 ASVs).

250

251 Such high diversity in *rpoB* suggests that standing genetic variation is segregating within 252 Methylobacterium populations inhabiting the phyllosphere. We hypothesized that the 253 maintenance of this divestity could be explained by regional factors (e.g. a combination of 254 isolation by distance and regional environmental variation) and/or by niche adaptation (e.g. host 255 tree or temperature adaptation)(12). To do so, we quantified associations between 256 *Methylobacterium* diversity assessed at varying depths in the *rpoB* phylogeny (Supplementary 257 method; Figure 3a) with four factors and their interactions (PERMANOVA with 10,000 258 permutations): (1) forest of sampling (2) temperature of isolation, (3) sampling time, and (4) host 259 tree species. For every phylogenetic depth tested, diversity had distinct associations with forest of 260 origin (4.5 \pm 1.0% of variance explained; p<0.001) and temperature of isolation (5.9 \pm 2.1% of 261 variance explained; p<0.001; Figure 3a; Supplementary dataset 1i). Interestingly, temperature 262 of isolation was the most important factor distinguishing deep phylogenetic divergences (pairwise 263 nucleotide similarity range: 0.948-0.993), while forest of origin was slightly more important in 264 structuring more recently diverged nodes (pairwise nucleotide similarity >0.993). This suggests 265 that mechanisms underlying isolation success at different temperatures played a significant role 266 in the early divergence among *Methylobacterium* clades associated with tree leaves, while spatial 267 variation among different forests evolved more recently. Time of sampling had a slight but 268 significant effect on diversity (2.1 \pm 0.2% of variance explained; p<0.05) and it was only observed 269 for higher pairwise nucleotide similarity values (range 0.994-1.000), suggesting seasonal 270 Methylobacterium diversity dynamics at the tip of the tree. We did not observe any significant 271 effect of host tree species on *Methylobacterium* isolate diversity, for any level of the phylogeny, 272 suggesting no strong specific associations between *Methylobacterium* isolates and the tree species 273 from which they were isolated.

274

275 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 276 277 temperature of isolation (Figure 3a). For every level in the *rpoB* phylogeny, we independently 278 tested for nodes (with at least 30% of support) associated with forest of origin (SBL and MSH) or 279 temperature of isolation (20 and 30 °C) by permutation (100,000 permutations per level and per 280 factor; Figure 3b). We identified two nodes strongly associated with temperature of isolation and 281 corresponding to clades A6 (20 °C; p < 0.001) and A9+A10 (30 °C; p < 0.001; Figure 3b). Other 282 clades were evenly isolated at 20 and 30 °C and we observed no significant association between 283 temperature of isolation and nodes embedded within clades. Nodes associated with forest of 284 origin also roughly corresponded to certain major clades, with clades A1+A2 almost exclusively 285 sampled in MSH (p < 0.01). Overall, clade A9 was isolated significantly more often in SBL 286 (p < 0.001) but at least three of its subclades were significantly associated to either MSH or SBL 287 (p < 0.05), suggesting relatively recent migration events. The fact that *Methylobacterium* diversity 288 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 289 290 environmental variation including isolation by distance as well as niche-based processes 291 including adaptation to local climatic conditions.

293 Comparison of Methylobacterium diversity assessed by rpoB barcoding and isolation

294

295 To determine if these culture-based results were representative of the potentially uncultured 296 *Methylobacterium* diversity, we developed a culture-independent barcoded amplicon sequencing 297 approach based on *rpoB*. We performed *rpoB* amplicon sequencing for 179 leaf samples from 53 298 trees in both forests, allowed a monthly monitoring for most trees (Supplementary dataset 1c,j). 299 We identified 283 *Methylobacteriaceae rpoB* ASVs in these samples (Supplementary dataset 300 1j,k), representing 24.6% of all sequences. Non-Methylobacteriaceae ASVs were mostly 301 assigned to other Rhizobiales families (850 ASVs, 70.33% of sequence abundance) and to 302 Caulobacterales (209 ASVs, 4.42% of sequence abundance) typical of the phyllosphere (see 303 **Supplementary method**), suggesting that our *rpoB* marker is not limited to *Methylobacteriaceae* 304 and can potentially be used at a broader taxonomic scale (Figure S1a). Within 305 Methylobacteriaceae, ASVs were mostly classified as Methylobacterium (200 ASVs, 23.05% of 306 sequence relative abundance), and *Enterovirga* (78 ASVs, 1.56%; Supplementary dataset 1k). 307 We assigned *Methylobacterium* ASVs to previously defined clades using a maximum likelihood 308 tree combining ASV sequences and reference genomes (Figure S1b). Most of Methylobacterium 309 diversity was within the previously cultured clades A9 (45.2% of Methylobacterium sequence 310 abundance), A6 (24.3%), A1 (6.1%) and A10 (1.0%); Supplementary dataset 1j; Table S2). 311 Estimates of *Methylobacterium* diversity based on *rpoB* sequences from culture-independent 312 sequencing or cultured isolates were generally concordant (Figures S1c,d; Table S2). 313 Nevertheless, we cannot exclude the possibility that some diversity was not isolated. For 314 instance, although 19.1% of total *Methylobacterium* diversity assessed by *rpoB* culture-free 315 barcoding was assigned to group B, it only represented 4.2% of isolates. One possible 316 explanation could be adaptation of some isolates from this group to temperatures below the range 317 used for isolation (20-30 °C), as temperatures at the very beginning (May) and end (October) of 318 the growing period in Quebec typically range between 5 and 15°C.

319

320 Fine-scale temporal and spatial distribution of Methylobacterium diversity assessed by rpoB
321 barcoding

323 Our isolate-based survey suggested that the distribution of *Methylobacterium* diversity was 324 driven by both spatial and seasonal variation. This result was largely supported using the culture-325 free approach (rpoB barcoding). Specifically, we found that spatial variation at both large 326 (distance between forests: 100km) and local scales (distance between plots within forest: 150-327 1,200 m), as well as sampling date during the growing season (1-5 months), explained the largest 328 part of variance in the community composition of 200 Methylobacterium ASVs (proportion of 329 variation explained: 32.4%, 8.0% and 4.8%, respectively; p<0.001; PERMANOVA; Hellinger 330 transformation, Bray-Curtis dissimilarity, 10,000 permutations; Table 1). A large proportion of 331 Methylobacterium ASVs (83 out of 200) were significantly associated with one or either forest 332 (ANOVA; Bonferroni correction; Figure 4a; Supplementary dataset 11), regardless their clade 333 membership. The only exception was observed for clade A1, which was almost exclusively 334 observed (and isolated; see Figure 3b) in the MSH forest. Also consistent without our isolation-335 based results, we found no clear association between ASV or clade with host tree species, nor 336 plots within forests (data not shown).

337

338 To focus on temporal variation and fine-scale spatial effects, we removed large-scale spatial 339 variation by analyzing each forest separately. We quantified fine-scale spatial and temporal 340 dynamics of Methylobacterium diversity (200 ASVs), using autocorrelation analysis based on 341 Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index (BC). We observed a weak but significant decrease of community 342 similarity with geographical distance separating two samples within MSH (ANOVA on linear 343 model; p<0.001) but not SBL (p>0.05, Table 2, Figure 4b), and a significant decrease of 344 community similarity with time separating two samples in both forests (ANOVA on linear 345 model; p < 0.001; Table 2), which was more marked in MSH than in SBL (Figure 4c). Both 346 results indicate that *Methylobacteriaceae* diversity is heterogeneously distributed even at very 347 local space and time scales. The overall community dissimilarity consistently decreased from 348 June to October in both MSH (from 0.624 to 0.297) and SBL (from 0.687 to 0.522; Table 2, 349 Figure 4d), suggesting that *Methylobacteriaceae* diversity was progressively homogenized by 350 migration or ecological filtering between the beginning and the end of the growing season at the 351 scale of a forest, although without affecting locally its heterogeneous spatial distribution in MSH 352 (Table 2, Figure 4e). The heterogeneous spatial distribution of *Methylobacterium* diversity 353 observed in MSH forest suggests either more restricted migration than in SBL, and/or local

354 adaptation due to environmental gradients. One possible explanation is that the floristic and 355 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 356 357 heterogeneous forest, hence counteracting the homogenizing effect of neutral processes like 358 migration (49). Accordingly, we found slight but significant effects of host tree species, and of 359 the interaction between host tree species and plots within forests, on Methylobacterium 360 community composition (explaining 7.1% and 4.3% of variation in community composition; 361 p<0.001 and ,p<0.01, respectively; PERMANOVA; Table 1).

362

363 We tested for temporal autocorrelation in each node of the ML tree (Figure S1b) supported by at 364 least 30% of bootstrapps (200 permutations) and observed significant temporal dynamics (as 365 attested by the positive slope between pairwise time and BC dissimilarity) in most testable nodes 366 (ANOVA, Bonferroni correction; Figure 4f). We observed the strongest temporal signals in 367 nodes embedded within clades A1 (MSH) and B (both forests), Accordingly, we found 25 ASVs 368 whose abundance significantly increased thourough the growing season (ANOVA; Bonferroni 369 correction; p < 0.05), mostly belonging to clades A1 (n=11). Four ASVs increased significantly 370 with time in both forests and mostly belonged to group B (n=3), suggesting that at least a part of 371 the characteristics driving short-term dynamics of *Methylobacterium* communities are shared 372 among members of different clades within the genus (Supplementary dataset 11).

373

374 *Effect of short scale temperature variation in combination with other environmental and genetic*375 *factors on Methylobacterium growth performances*

376

377 A major environmental difference between forest sites and throughout the growing season relates 378 to shifts in temperature, suggesting, together with temperature preference of some clades during 379 the isolation step, that *Methylobacterium* diversity dynamics we observed over space and time 380 might result from clade contrasted growth performances under local climatic conditions. To 381 further explore the role of temperature, we measured growth of 79 Methylobacterium isolates 382 (sampled in 2018 in both forests; MSH: n=32, SBL: n=47; Supplementary dataset 1m) for four 383 temperature treatments mimicking temperature variations during the growing season. Each 384 treatment consisted of an initial pre-conditioning step (P) during which each isolate was 385 incubated on solid MMS media with methanol as sole carbon source for 20 days at either 20 °C 386 (P20) or 30 °C (P30), and a second monitoring step (M) during which pre-conditioned isolates 387 were incubated on the same media and their growth monitored for 24 days at 20 °C (P20M20 and 388 *P20M30*) or 30 °C (*P30M20* and *P30M30*; Figure S2). Treatments *P20M20* and *P30M30* 389 mimicked stable thermal environments, and treatments P20M30 and P30M20 mimicked variable 390 thermal environments. For each isolate and temperature treatment, logistic growth curves were 391 inferred from bacteria spot intensity variation observed over three time points during the 392 monitoring step (Figures S2, S3). From growth curves, we estimated maximum growth intensity, 393 or yield (Y) and growth rate (r) as the inverse of lag+log time necessary to reach Y (Figure S4 394 (50, 51)). Clade membership explained a large part of variation in Y and r (30.6 and 7.6% of 395 variation explained, respectively; ANOVA; p<0.001), indicating that *Methylobacterium* growth 396 performance is largely long-term inherited and tends to be shared among clade members (Figures 397 **5a,b, Table 3**). Certain clades had a higher yield range than others, suggesting differences in their 398 carbon use efficiency (51), here provided by methanol. For example, group B isolates ($Y = 12.2 \pm$ 399 5.0) have higher yield than group A ($Y = 5.4 \pm 3.5$). Different growth rates rather suggest 400 contrasted growth strategies across clades (51, 52). Isolates from clades A1, A2 and B had the 401 highest growth rate (r range: $0.101\pm0.032 - 0.121\pm0.031$), suggesting they have fast-growth 402 strategy. Other clades (A6, A9 and A10) had on average slower growth (r range: 0.082 ± 0.021 – 403 0.088 ± 0.024), suggesting that they have more efficient strategy (51).

404

405 Compared to clade membership, we observed that time of sampling, host tree species and forest 406 explained less variation in growth rate (5.4%, p<0.001; 2.2%, p<0.01 and 1.5%, p<0.05, 407 respectively; ANOVA; Table 3), suggesting that plasticity to the environment was a secondary 408 but still determining factor in strain growth strategy. The weak or non-significant interactions 409 between clade membership and the aforementioned environmental factors (ANOVA; Table 3) 410 suggest that these patterns were consistent across clades, indicating they are unlikely to result 411 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 =412 413 0.075 ± 0.018 and 0.085 ± 0.033 , respectively) to September/October ($r = 0.097\pm0.031$ and 414 0.103 ± 0.027 , respectively; Figure 5c). Growth rate increase thorough the season might result 415 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.

418

419 Temperature also had significant effects on growth performance. Temperature during the 420 monitoring phase explained respectively 2.0% and 15.8% of variation in yield and growth rate 421 (p<0.01 and p<0.001, respectively; ANOVA; Figure 5d, Table 3), regardless of clade 422 membership (no significant interaction in the ANOVA). Isolates incubated at 20 °C have on 423 average higher yield (Y=6.9 \pm 5.4) but slower growth (r=0.077 \pm 0.022) than isolates incubated at 424 30 °C (Y=4.9 \pm 3.6; r=0.100 \pm 0.030), suggesting that higher temperature tends to shift 425 Methylobacterium toward faster growth but lower efficiency, a typical trade-off observed in other 426 bacteria (51). The effect of monitoring temperature on growth rate was also independent from 427 time of sampling (no significant interaction in the ANOVA), suggesting that *Methylobacterium* 428 also grow faster and less efficiently at 30 °C regardless temporal environmental variations. 429 Accordingly, the pre-conditioning temperature had no effect on growth rate (p>0.05; ANOVA), 430 and very limited on yield (1.4%; p<0.05; ANOVA), suggesting limited effect of short-time 431 temperature shift on *Methylobacterium* growth performance (Table 3).

432

433 **Discussion**

434

435 *Methylobacterium* is ubiquitous on leaves in the temperate forests of Québec and its diversity in 436 this habitat is quite similar to what has been described in the phyllosphere throughout the world, 437 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-438 439 specific *rpoB* marker revealed astonishing diversity within these clades, as well as within several 440 other clades: B (M. extorquens), A2 (M. sp.), A4 (M. gnaphalii, M. brachytecii) and A10 (M. 441 komagatae) whose importance in the phyllosphere has been underestimated by classical 16S 442 barcoding or isolation approaches. This diversity, like that of the overall phyllosphere 443 community, was mostly determined by differences between forests, with barcoding approaches 444 suggesting combined effects of restricted migration, local adaptation to host tree species, and 445 climatic conditions at large geographical scales (>100km). With higher molecular resolution, we 446 observed that Methylobacterium diversity was structured even at the scale of a forest (within 2 447 km), which according to a fine-scale timeline survey over the growing season also showed a clear 448 pattern of temporal dynamics and succession. A finer analysis of Methylobacterium diversity 449 suggested that clade identity partly explained *Methylobacterium* geographical distribution at large 450 scale (forest) but not at finer scales (plots), nor was it an indicator of adaptation to a particular 451 host tree species, nor a determinant of temporal dynamics. Rather, the distribution of 452 Methylobacterium diversity at small temporal and geographical scales likely resulted from more 453 contemporaneous community assembly events selecting for phenotypic traits that evolved among 454 deeply diverging lineages of Methylobacterium, as has been observed in other bacterial (16) and 455 plant clades (53).

456

457 We explored mechanisms explaining the temporal dynamics of *Methylobacterium* diversity at the 458 scale of a growing season. Because we observed contrasting *Methylobacterium* isolable diversity 459 between 20 and 30 °C, we suspected that adaptation to temperature variation during the growing 460 season could explain part of these temporal dynamics. By monitoring Methylobacterium isolate 461 growth under different temperature treatments, we confirmed that temperature affected isolate 462 growth performances. The fact that most tested isolates grow slower but more efficiently at 20 °C 463 than at 30 °C (Figure 5d), regardless of their phylogenetic and environmental characteristics, is 464 in line with a temperature-dependent trade-off between growth rate and yield described in many 465 bacteria (reviewed in (51)). High yield strategies are typical of cooperative bacterial populations, 466 while fast growth-strategies are typical of competitive populations (51), suggesting that 20 °C is 467 likely closer to the thermal niche of a cooperative *Methylobacterium* community, in agreement 468 with average temperatures in temperate forests during the growing season. This observation also 469 stresses the importance of considering incubation temperature when interpreting results from 470 previous studies assessing *Methylobacterium* diversity based on isolation. We observed several 471 lines of evidence that factors other than direct adaptation to temperature drive *Methylobacterium* 472 responses to temperature variation, by affecting their growth strategy in different competitive 473 conditions rather than by affecting their metabolism directly. First, clade identity was one of the 474 main predictors of overall isolate performance, with some clades (A1, A2, B) possessing a rapid 475 growth strategy under all temperature conditions, while others (clades A6, A9, A10) had 476 systematically slower growth. These clade-specific growth strategies could explain for instance 477 why certain *Methylobacterium* isolates are less competitive and less frequently isolated at higher 478 temperatures. Still, we cannot rule out that clade-specific growth strategy also reflect 479 experimental conditions. Second, we observed strong associations between isolates growth 480 performance and time of sampling, regardless of clade association, suggesting that growth 481 dynamic strategies also respond to seasonal variations in environmental conditions, and to the 482 level of establishment and competition in the phyllosphere community (51). This observation, 483 together with clade identity, could explain why, assuming that environmental conditions at the 484 end of the growing season became unfavorable for most strains, isolates from clades A1 and B 485 with a fast-growth strategy consistently increase in frequency during this period and lead to the 486 homogeneization of the community. Taken together, our temporal survey of diversity dynamics 487 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 488 489 of bacteria with mixed ecological strategies and genotypes colonizes newly emerging leaves. Due 490 to the stochasticity of this colonization, we initially observe strong dissimilarity among 491 phyllosphere communities, regardless of their spatial position. During the summer, optimal 492 environmental conditions allow the progressive establishment of a cooperative and structured 493 bacterial community with a high yield strategy (51). At the end of the growing season, with 494 migration, environmental conditions shifting and leaves senescing, isolates with a fast-growth 495 strategy are able to grow rapidly, dominating the phyllosphere community and leading to its 496 homogeneization before leaves fully senesce.

497

498 Our study illustrates that *Methylobacterium* is a complex group of divergent lineages with 499 different ecological strategies and distributions, reflecting long-term adaptation to highly 500 contrasted environments. Based upon a similar observation, some authors recently proposed to 501 reclassify *Methylobacterium* group B within a new genus (*Methylorubrum*) that they argue is 502 ecologically and evolutionarily distinct from other *Methylobacterium* clades (30). Although clade 503 B was well supported as a distinct clade in our analyses, our results suggest that it is in fact 504 embedded within clade A, which would render the genus Methylobacterium paraphyletic if clade 505 B is defined as a distinct genus (Figure S5), and group B was not particularly ecologically 506 distinct in comparison with other major clades (Figure 1). Our results emphasize the fact that 507 torough genomic investigations are needed to clarify the taxomonic status of *Methylobacterium*. 508 Beyond any taxonomic considerations, neither clade identity assessed by individual genetic 509 markers nor the tremendous ecological diversity among *Methylobacterium* clades can predict all 510 of the spatial and temporal variation in *Methylobacterium* diversity in nature. In order to define 511 the niches of *Methylobacterium* clades and to understand the metabolic mechanisms underlying 512 their contrasted life strategies, future characterization of their functions and genome structure will 513 be required using phylogenomic approaches.

514

515 In conclusion, we find that Methylobacterium adaptive responses to local environmental variation 516 in the phyllosphere are driven by both long-term inherited ecological strategies that differ among 517 major clades within the genus, as well by seasonal changes affecting habitat characteristics and 518 community structure in the phyllosphere habitat. Overall, our study combining sequencing- and 519 culture-based approaches provides novel insights into the factors driving fine-scale adaptation of 520 microbes to their habitats, and in the case of Methylobacterium our approach revealed the 521 particular importance of considering organismal life-history strategies to help understand the 522 small-scale diversity and dynamic of this ecologically important taxon.

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527 Figures and Table

528

529 Figure 1 - Methylobacterium phylogeny and ecology. Most of Methylobacterium diversity is found 530 in association with plants, especially in the phyllosphere. Phylogenetic consensus tree (nodal 531 posterior probabilities indicated next to the branches) from *rpoB* complete nucleotide sequences 532 available for 153 Methylobacterium genomes and rooted on 32 Methylobacteriaceae outgroups 533 (*Microvirga*, *Enterovirga*; no shown; see **Supplementary dataset 1a**). For each genome, species 534 name, the anthropogenic origin (black squares) and/or environmental origin (color code on top 535 right) are indicated. Groups A, B, C adapted from Green et Ardley (30). Monophyletic clades 536 within group A (A1-A9) were defined using a 292% nucleotide pairwise similarity cut-off on the 537 *rpoB* complete sequence.

538

539 Figure 2 - Sampling design. a) Locations of the two sampled forests MSH (green) and SBL 540 (orange) in the province of Québec (Canada). b) Time line survey in each forest in 2018 (2-4 time 541 points available per tree). c-d). Detailed map of each forest and each plot within forests (squares; 542 6 to 10 trees were sampled per plot; see **Supplementary dataset 1b**). In MSH, plots H0 and L0 543 were sampled once in 2017 for a pilot survey. In SBL and MSH, plots 1-6 were sampled 4 times 544 in 2018. For each plot, tree localizations are indicated by point colored according to their 545 taxonomie (color code on bottom left): ABBA (Abies balsamea), ACRU (Acer rubrum). ACSA 546 (Acer saccharum), OSVI (Ostrya virginiana), QURU (Quercus rubra), FAGR (Fagus 547 grandifolia), ASPE (Acer Pennsylvanicum). Shades of grey indicate elevation (50 m elevation 548 scale)

549

550 Figure 3 - Tests for phylogenetic association of traits with culture-based estimation of 551 Methylobacterium diversity. a) Part of variance in Methylobacterium isolated diversity 552 explained by each trait and their interactions (PERMANOVA tests for association; 10,000 553 permutations; x-axis) in function of pairwise nucleotide similarity as a proxy for phylogenetic 554 depth (PS; y-axis; see Supplementary dataset 1i). PERMANOVA were conducted at different 555 depths within a consensus phylogenetic tree (nodes with less than 30% of support were collapsed; 556 legend on top right) drawn from partial *rpoB* nucleotide sequences of 187 isolates (pilot survey in 557 2017: n=20; timeline survey in 2018: n=167) and 188 Methylobacteriaceae reference sequences.

558 The four following traits and their interactions were tested (see Venn diagram on top left for 559 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 (100,000 560 561 permutations) with forest of origin and temperature of isolation (color code on top) mapped on 562 the *rpoB* phylogeny (scaled on PS values). Frames in the tree indicate nodes significantly 563 associated with at least one factor (ANOVA; Bonferroni correction; p<0.001: "***"; 564 p < 0.01:"**"; p < 0.05:"*"). For each isolate (names in bold), colored boxes at the tip of the tree 565 indicate forest of origin and temperature of isolation.

566

567 Figure 4 - Short-scale spatial and temporal dynamics of Methylobacterium communities 568 assessed by *rpoB* barcoding. a) A principal component analysis (PCA) on 200 569 Methylobacterium ASVs relative abundance (Hellinger transformation, Bray-Curtis (BC) 570 dissimilarity) shows that 179 phyllosphere samples cluster according to forest of origin (MSH: 571 open triangles, SBL: full triangles) and date of sampling (detail showed only for MSH). The 572 significant association of 83 and 25 ASVs with forest of origin and/or sampling date, respectively 573 (ANOVA, Bonferroni correction; p < 0.05; point size proportional to variance; legend on bottom 574 left) is shown (points colored according to clade assignation; legend on top right). b) Spatial and 575 c) temporal autocorrelation analyzes conducted in each forest separately. Points represent BC 576 dissimilarity in function of pairwise geographic (*pDist*; b) or pairwise time (*pTime*; c) distance 577 separating two communities. For each forest and variable, the predicted linear regression 578 $(BC \sim pDIST \text{ or } \sim pTime)$ is indicated (full line: p<0.001; dotted line: p>0.05; ANOVA). d) BC in 579 function of sampling time for each forest. e) Detail of spatial autocorrelation analyzes in MSH, 580 conducted for each sampling time point separately. f) Scaled ML tree (original tree from Figure 581 S1b scaled on pairwise nucleotide similarity (PS)) of 200 Methylobacterium ASV (points) and 582 176 reference *rpoB* sequences rooted on *Microvirga* and *Enterovirga* (out group not shown). 583 Temporal autocorrelation analyzes per forest were conducted for each node supported by at least 584 30% of bootstraps (200 permutations). For each forest and node, the strength of the slope 585 (estimate of the linear regression $BC \sim pTime$; proportional to point size) was displayed when 586 highly significant (p<0.001; ANOVA, Bonferroni correction).

588 Figure 5 - Analysis of 79 Methylobacterium isolate growth performances under 4 different 589 temperature treatments. For each isolate and temperature treatment, the yield (Y: maximal growth intensity) and growth rate (r; inverse of log+lag time) were estimated from growth 590 591 curves. a) Average growth curves (growth intensity in function of time) for each clade (line: 592 mean value; frame: 1/3 of standard deviation; point: average maximal growth). b) r in function of 593 Y. Each point represents the average r/Y values for an isolate and a temperature treatment (79 594 isolates x 4 treatments), colored according to clade membership. Ellipsoides are centered on 595 average values per clade and represent 30% of confidence interval (standard deviation). c) r (log 596 scale) in function of time at which samples strains were isolated from were collected, colored 597 according to the forest of origin. Points: real data; bars: average r value per forest (n=2) and time 598 (n=4) category. d) r in function of Y, corrected for clade assignment (residuals of the r-Clade 599 and Y-Clade linear regressions). Each point represents the average r/Y residual values for an 600 isolate and a temperature treatment (79 isolates x 4 treatments), colored according to monitoring 601 temperature (legend on top right).

602

604 Table 1 - PERMANOVA analysis of variance in *Bacteria* and *Methylobacterium* community

605 **diversity.** *Bacteria* diversity was assessed by *16s* barcoding in 46 phyllosphere samples. 606 *Methylobacterium* was assessed by *rpoB* barcoding after filtering out non-*Methylobacterium* 607 diversity in 179 phyllopshere samples. Part of variance in dissimilarity (R^2 ; Bray-Curtis index) 608 among samples associated with four factors and their possible interactions (F: forest of origin; D: 609 date of sampling; H: host tree species; P: plot within forest) and their significance are shown 610 (10,000 permutations on ASV relative abundance, Hellinger transformation; "***": p<0.001; 611 "**": p<0.01; "*": p<0.05.) For 16s, P was omitted to conserve degrees of freedom.

	Bacteria (16s) 46		Methylobacterium (rpoB	
Samples				
Factor	R ²	Pr(>F)	R ²	Pr(>F)
Forest of origin (F)	0.316***	<0.000	0.324***	<0.001
Host tree specie (H)	0.156***	<0.001	0.071***	<0.001
Time of sampling (D)	0.120*	0.016	0.048***	<0.001
Plot within forests (P)	-	-	0.080***	<0.001
F:H	0.020	0.080	0.004	0.110
H:D	0.239	0.217	0.074**	0.028
H:P	-	-	0.043**	0.007
D:P	-	-	0.058	0.455
H:D:P	-	-	0.085	0.052
Residuals	0.150	-	0.213	-

612

613

615 Table 2 - Summary of statistics from autocorrelation analyzes on 179 phyllosphere 616 Methylobacterium samples assessed by rpoB barcoding (200 ASVs). For each model, pairwise 617 dissimilarity between two communities was assessed with the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index 618 (BC) from ASV relative abundance (Hellinger transformation) under a linear model. Spatial 619 autocorrelation general models: BC in function of pairwise spatial distance separating two 620 sampled trees (pDist) and date of sampling (Date) and their interaction (pDist:Date). Samples 621 from forests MSH and SBL were analyzed separately (two models). Only pairwise comparisons 622 among samples from a same date were considered. Spatial autocorrelation models per date: BC 623 in function of pairwise spatial distance (*pDist*). Each sampling date (n=4) and forest (n=2) was 624 analyzed separately (eight models). Temporal autocorrelation: general models: BC in function of 625 pairwise spatial time separating two sampled trees (*pTime*). Samples from forests MSH and SBL 626 were analyzed separately (two models) and all spatial scales were considered. For each model, 627 the average and standard deviation of the intercept (mean BC value) are indicated. For each 628 factor (*pDist*, *Date*, *pDist*:*Date* and *pTime*), the average and standard deviation of estimates (slope) are indicated. Significance of estimates was assessed by ANOVA ("***": p<0.001; "**": 629 p<0.01; "*": p<0.05). 630

Categories (<i>n</i>) In		Intercept (sd) Estimates*10 ⁻³ (sd)			
Spatia	al autocorrelati	ion general models:	lm(BC~pDist*D)		
Site (within dates)	BC	pDist	D	pDist:Date
MSH		0.5965 (0.0107)	-0.0041 (0.0192)***	-2.7648 (0.1313)***	0.0007 (0.0002)**
SBL		0.6493 (0.0097)	0.0157 (0.0145)	-1.5575 (0.1646)***	0.0000 (0.0002)
Spatia	al autocorrelati	ion models per date	: lm(BC~pDist)		
Site	Date	BC	pDist	_	
MSH	27 Jun.	0.6237 (0.0340)	-0.0425 (0.0725)		
	6 Aug.	0.4919 (0.0112)	0.0503 (0.0192)**		
	7 Sept.	0.3746 (0.0059)	0.0313 (0.0099)**		
	18 Oct.	0.2966 (0.0045)	0.0795 (0.0073)***	_	
SBL	20 Jun.	0.6868 (0.0146)	0.0082 (0.0216)		
	16 Jul.	0.5819 (0.0113)	0.0215 (0.0174)		
	16 Aug.	0.5415 (0.0105)	0.0114 (0.0150)		
	20 Sept.	0.5222 (0.0089)	0.0145 (0.0130)		
Temp	oral autocorre	lation general mode	ls (BC∼pTime)		
Site		BC	pTime		
MSH		0.4086 (0.0032)	1.0786 (0.0607)***		
SBL		0.5789 (0.0030)	0.3012 (0.0617)***		

632 Table 3 - Part of variance in yield (Y) and growth rate (r) measured in 79 Methylobacterium

633 isolates grown under 4 temperature treatments. *Y* and *r* values were transformed in log to

634 meet normal distribution. Significance of *Y* and *r* response were evaluated by ANOVA in linear 635 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 636 factors : clade (*C*), forest of origin (*F*), host tree species (*H*), time of sampling (*D*), temperature of

637 incubation during pre-conditioning (T_P) and monitoring (T_M) steps and their interactions (only

638 significant are shown: "***": p<0.001; "**": p<0.01; "*": p<0.05).

639

	Rate	Yield
Forest (F)	0.015*	0.002
Host tree species (<i>H</i>)	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 (<i>C</i>)	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

640

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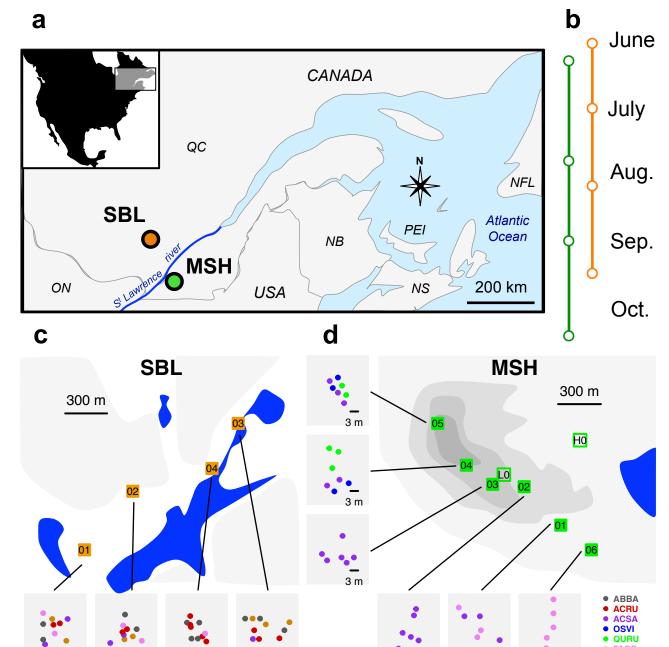
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Plant (unknown part) Phyllosphere Endophyte Seed Rhizosphere С Soil indicum Fungi or lichen 3 Water Ocean 2 Gut Anthopogenic A9 013 M. Phylk M. mesophilicui Α5 N. durans M. oxalidis 2 . phyllostac M. ^{soli} UNC378MF P1-11 M. brachiatum TX0642 GXF4 ۵ Leaf88 111MFTsu3.1M4 Leaf94 M. pseudosasicola Leaf111 ARG-1 Leaf104 BL36 GXS13 WL7 Leaf125 WL18 GV094 WL64 WL1 WL2 GV104 Leaf117 A1 Leaf113 17Sr1-43 Gh-105 A7 **** WL69 M. gossipiicola M. dankookense M. symbioticum af100 A8 \ A6 A2 ğ C M RAS 18 M. extorquens A3 A4 В

Environmental sources



3 m

3 m

3 m

3 m

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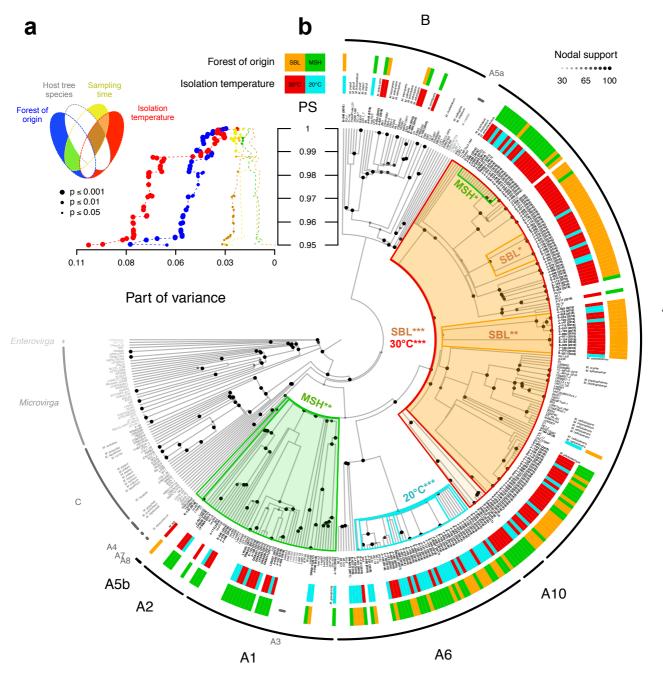
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A9

