Boreal moss-microbe interactions are revealed through metagenome assembly of novel

bacterial species

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Abstract (max 200 words)

Moss-microbe interactions play important roles for ecosystem processes in boreal forests. Yet, the extent to which the environment and host-specific characteristics drive the composition and metabolic potential of boreal moss microbiomes is still poorly understood. In this study, we use shotgun metagenomics to identify the taxonomy and metabolic potential of the bacterial communities of four moss species in the boreal forests of Northern Québec, Canada. To better characterize moss bacterial community composition and diversity, we assembled the genomes of 110 potentially novel bacterial species. Our results highlight that moss genus, species, gametophyte section, and key abiotic factors drive moss-associated bacterial community composition and diversity. Green gametophyte sections harbored differentially abundant bacteria (e.g., *Bradyrhizobia*) exhibiting significant carbon fixation capacities, particularly through the phosphate acetyltransferase-acetate kinase pathway. On the other hand, brown gametophyte sections harbored differentially abundant Cyanobacteria (e.g., *Stigonema* spp.) demonstrating partial pathways for anoxygenic photosynthesis and nitrogen fixation, which are important for nitrogen cycling in boreal ecosystems. Overall, our findings provide insights into the relationships between boreal mosses and their bacterial communities, for which data remains scarce. As global change accelerates in boreal ecosystems, identifying the roles of moss microbial symbionts in influencing their hosts and ecosystem functions becomes critical.

Introduction

Boreal forests are one of Earth's largest biomes, covering 29% of land surfaces [1] and storing at least 30% of global carbon [2]. Within this ecosystem, a diverse understory vegetation thrives, consisting of vascular plants, lichens, and bryophytes (small non-vascular plants including liverworts, hornworts, and mosses). Ubiquitous in boreal forests, mosses are crucial contributors to key ecosystem processes, notably to nitrogen (N) fixation and carbon (C) sequestration [3], which are also facilitated by moss symbiotic microorganisms [4, 5]. Moss microbes contribute around 50% of N inputs to boreal forests, play crucial roles in facilitating C degradation in peatlands, and facilitate host adaptation in degraded landscapes [6]. Moss-associated microbial communities are notably dominated by bacteria from the Proteobacteria, Acidobacteria, Actinobacteria, and Cyanobacteria phyla [7–9]. Driven by the pressures of accelerating climate change, boreal ecosystems face a temperature increase of ~2.5ºC before the end of the century, which could alter moss-microbe interactions with major implications for global N [10] and C cycles [11]. In addition, boreal forests are often harvested intensively for forestry or disturbed by mining activities [12, 13]. Considering the strong pressures of climate change on boreal forests combined with the ever-increasing anthropogenic impacts on land use, improving our understanding of the drivers and functions of moss-microbe interactions is imperative to mitigate the risks of altering this precious habitat [14, 15].

Moss microbial communities can be affected by many local abiotic and biotic factors [8, 16]. For example, soil pH and temperature were shown to structure bacterial communities associated with *Sphagnum* moss species [9, 17, 18]. Phylogenetic relationships and host species are also important drivers of moss bacterial community diversity and community composition [5, 9, 20]. While different moss species have been shown to associate with contrasting bacterial communities [18, 21, 22], closely related moss species are likely to

harbor more similar microbial taxa than more distantly related ones. This convergence can be attributed to shared host physiological traits and ecological niches. For example, Holland-Moritz *et al*. [23], showed that phylogenetic relationship between *Sphagnum* species explained up to 65% of the variation in bacterial community composition. Interestingly, moss identity also influences the effects of environmental factors on bacterial diversity and community composition [18]. While previous studies have often focused on characterizing the microbial taxonomy and functions of dominant boreal mosses such as *Pleurozium schreberi* [24] and peat mosses of the genus *Sphagnum* [25], scant research is available on other moss genera such as *Polytrichum* and *Dicranum* (but see [26]), which are common in Canadian boreal forests [27]. Importantly, these taxa are key candidates for remediation and restoration efforts as they often thrive in degraded landscapes [28]. There is thus an important knowledge gap on moss-microbe interactions beyond common moss genera. Considering the urgency to develop conservation strategies for bryophytes, it appears crucial to deepen our understanding of moss-microbe interactions and of their functional roles in unaltered boreal ecosystems by investigating lesser studied moss species, their phylogenetic relationships, and local environmental factors.

Beyond moss identity, physiological differences within single host, such as disparities in tissue types along the moss gametophyte, could also influence moss-microbe interactions. Gametophytes are the dominant life stage of mosses, which are separated along their vertical gradient in two distinct sections: an above-ground living "green" section, and an underlying, decaying "brown" section [29]. These sections can differ in microbial diversity, community composition, and functional profiles [30, 31]. The green section harbors photosynthetically active microbes [32, 33] and is associated with N-fixing cyanobacteria [34]; it is often the focus of studies on moss-bacteria associations. Meanwhile, the brown section is much less studied, even though it is thought to be an important source of nutrients for specific groups of

microbes, such as bacteria [35]. Notably, green and brown sections of the moss gametophyte are exposed to different microenvironmental conditions [36], where variations in light, soil pH, moisture, and temperature can impact moss microbial diversity and functions. Overall, to gain a detailed overview of moss-microbe interactions, it is necessary to measure how gametophyte sections assemble divergent microbial communities and functional profiles, and whether these differences are consistent among moss species as well as along environmental gradients.

In recent years, metagenome-resolved community profiling became a widespread approach to estimate environmental microbial composition and functions [37]. The advent of whole metagenome sequencing (WMS) revolutionized the field of microbial ecology, making it possible to assemble metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) and thus delve into the so-called "dark matter" of microbiomes [38]. By leveraging the entire genomic material of a sample, WMS not only enables the discovery of novel or uncultured microbial species; it also provides a more complete picture of the metabolic potential of community members. WMS is therefore particularly useful in characterizing understudied microbiomes, such as that of boreal mosses. The discovery of novel microbial species combined with an improved understanding of how the metabolic potential of microbes differs across gametophytes and along environmental gradients, could be key to predict changes in moss-microbe interactions as climate change and human activities continue to impact boreal ecosystems.

Here, we measure the influence of moss identity, gametophyte section, and abiotic environment on moss bacterial communities and metabolic potential. We focus on four boreal moss species in the Eeyou Istchee (James Bay) region of Québec, Canada: *Polytrichum juniperinum*, *P. commune*, *P. piliferum*, and *Dicranum undulatum* (Fig. 1ab). We use WMS and a combination of cutting-edge bioinformatic tools to (i) characterize moss-microbe interactions, (ii) assemble metagenomes, and (iii) identify novel bacterial species associated

116 with boreal mosses. Our objectives are to (1) provide a detailed portrait of moss-associated

117 bacteria and their metabolic potential; and (2) quantify the relative importance of moss

118 species, gametophyte section, soil pH, and temperature as drivers of moss-bacteria

119 interactions.

Results and Discussion

Bacterial community composition and diversity are driven by moss identity, gametophyte section, soil pH, and temperature

First, we investigated the influence of moss genus, moss species (nested within moss genus), gametophyte section, soil pH, and temperature on bacterial community composition and diversity (Table 1a; Fig. 2). We then narrowed our focus on the three *Polytrichum* spp. (excluding *Dicranum* sp.; Table 1b). This sequential approach allowed us to disentangle whether closely related moss species are likely to harbor more similar microbial taxa than more distantly related ones. Both moss genus and species (nested within genera) were strong drivers of bacterial community composition (Genera: $R^2 = 13.8\%$, p-value = 0.001; Species: $R^2 = 12.3\%$, p-value = 0.001; Fig. 2a, Table 1a). Thus, our results highlight that differences in bacterial community composition are driven by both moss genus and, within these genera, by moss species. These findings are in line with previous studies in which moss phylogeny has been shown to be an important driver of bacterial community composition [4, 8, 25]. Notably, when restricting the analysis to the three closely related *Polytrichum* spp., the effect of moss species on bacterial community composition remained strong and significant ($R^2 = 19.7\%$, p-value = 0.001; Table 1b). This finding illustrates a potential co-evolutionary relationship between mosses and some of the bacteria members within the community [17, 39]. Yet, more studies are needed to fully understand the nature and mechanisms driving these genus- and species-specific interactions. We also found that bacterial community composition differed between green and brown gametophyte sections, regardless of whether *Dicranum* sp. was included in the model or not ($R^2 = 12.7\%$, p-value = 0.001; $R^2 = 17.2\%$, p-value = 0.001, respectively; Fig. 2b, Table 1ab). This variation between sections can be explained by differences in physiology of the gametophyte sections [40] and micro-environmental

conditions (e.g., soil pH, moisture, temperature) [36]. In addition, we observed a significant

interaction between gametophyte sections and moss genus (R^2 = 2.6%, p-value = 0.001;

Table 1a), as well as moss species (R^2 = 1.3%, p-value = 0.042; Table 1b), highlighting that

the effect of gametophyte section on bacterial community composition differs among moss

species. In both models, whether *Dicranum* sp. was included or not, we found that soil

temperature (with *Dicranum:* R^2 = 7.4%, p-value = 0.001; without *Dicranum*: R^2 = 6.9,

p-value = 0.001) and pH (R^2 = 5.1%, p-value = 0.001 and R^2 = 4.1%, p-value = 0.001

respectively) were significant drivers of bacterial community composition. Interestingly, the

effect of abiotic factors on community composition was weaker than that of moss genus and

species (Table 1). Finally, several 2nd level interactions of soil pH and temperature impacted

moss bacterial community composition (Table 1), in coherence with the important roles of

abiotic factors in structuring moss-microbe interactions across moss species [9, 17, 18].

Bacterial alpha diversity differed between moss genera, with alpha diversity being

higher for *Polytrichum* than for *Dicranum* (χ^2 = 10.3, p-value = 0.001; Table 2a, Fig. 2c).

However, we did not detect a significant association between moss species and bacterial

alpha diversity, neither when nesting species within moss genera (χ^2 = 0.07, p-value = 0.97;

Table 2a, Fig. 2c) nor when narrowing the model to *Polytrichum* spp. (χ^2 = 0.08, p-value =

0.96; Table 2b, Fig. 2c). Of note, alpha diversity in green section was consistently lower than

in brown section of the gametophyte. This pattern was consistent between moss genera (χ^2 =

29.2, p-value < 0.001; Fig. 2c, Table 2a) and among *Polytrichum* spp. (χ^2 = 35.7, p-value <

0.001; Fig. 2c, Table 2b). This could be explained by (i) a phenomenon of niche dominance

of a few taxa in green section or by (ii) the proximity of brown section to soil which is known

to be extremely rich in microorganisms. As such, brown section could behave as an interface

in which both soil and moss-associated bacteria can thrive. This section is also mostly shaded

from UV by the overlying green section due to the boundary layer effect (i.e., the physical

phenomenon in which wind velocity is reduced); an effect that minimizes moisture loss [41].

Among abiotic factors, soil temperature was the only factor that showed a significant association with moss bacterial alpha diversity, evident in both models, with and without *Dicranum* sp. ($\chi^2 = 6.3$, p-value = 0.01 and $\chi^2 = 6.6$, p-value = 0.01; Fig. 2c, Table 2ab). Furthermore, we did not detect a significant effect of the interaction between gametophyte section and moss genus or species on bacterial alpha diversity (Table 2).

In summary, our results show that moss genus, gametophyte section, soil pH and temperature, are important drivers of moss bacterial community composition and diversity, but that moss species only affects the former. As boreal ecosystems face the heightened pressures of global change, our work demonstrates that moss green and brown sections within a moss gametophyte differ in bacterial community composition (Fig. 2d) and alpha diversity, which subsequently could affect gametophyte-specific microbial functions.

Metagenome assembly reveals that novel bacteria constitute most of moss bacterial community

By assembling our metagenomes, we discovered 110 potentially novel bacterial species whose genome was not represented in reference databases. Specifically, we performed metagenome co-assembly, binning, and dereplication which produced 157 non-redundant species-level MAGs. We filtered out MAGs with quality scores (QS) ≤ 0.50 (QS = completeness - 5 × contamination), yielding a subset of 118 MAGs of high quality. Then, in order to estimate which MAGs belong to undescribed species, we compared them to every known representative bacterial genome using a combination of tools based on mash distance and average nucleotide identity (see *Methods*). This resulted in a set of draft genomes from 110 putative novel species which belonged to 23 bacterial orders from nine phyla (Fig. 3). Hereafter, we refer to this set as the novel species-level MAGs (nMAGs), in

that they constitute genomes that are non-redundant with any published genomes at the

species level. These novel bacterial genomes have a mean length of 4.0 ± 1.2 Mbp, QS of

0.73 ± 0.13, and L50 of 11.9 kb $\pm$ 10.5. Full quality statistics of the nMAGs are reported in

Supplementary Data 1, including the number of contigs and proportion of GC content.

Among these potential novel species interacting with mosses, we recovered seven

nMAGs from the order Baltobacterales [42] from the phylum Eremiobacterota [43] (Fig. 3)

despite the presence of 200 species-representative genomes in the GTDB Release 08-RS214

database (28th April 2023). Many Eremiobacterota species were recently described by

metagenome assembly from a number of boreal ecosystems such as Alaskan mosses [18],

Canadian acidic springs [44], and Swedish peatlands [45]. While there is little to no

information on the ecological traits of the species belonging to Eremiobacterota, several

genera were shown to have the capacity for C fixation [39]. Species from the Baltobacterales

order were highly prevalent in our samples, detected in 109/131 (~83%) samples, with two

Nyctobacter MAGs being of very high quality (QS = 0.95 and 0.91 respectively;

Supplementary Data 1). Our study thus contributes novel information about moss-associated

members of this clade.

To gain a more detailed understanding of the microbial communities of boreal

mosses, we added the 110 nMAGs to the 85,205-reference genome GTDB used for

community profiling, resulting in an average 4.3-fold increase in sample containment (a

measure of proportion of sample k-mers included in the minimal reference genomes set that

encompasses all k-mers in a sample; see Methods; Supplementary Figure S1). This

demonstrates the effectiveness of using *de novo* metagenome assembly to identify and

describe previously unknown microbial species, which is crucial for environmental datasets,

and to increase the proportion of sample information to perform ecological analyses.

Specific bacterial species associate with moss species

To test for differentially abundant taxa, we used ANCOM-BC2 [47], which estimates $\log_2$-fold changes in absolute abundances between sample groups through pairwise comparisons. To assess differences in abundance across moss species, we used the Dunnett's test, with *D. undulatum* samples as a reference group for comparison. *D. undulatum* was selected because of its contrasting bacterial community composition, which served as a baseline for evaluating differential abundant bacteria among the moss species (Fig. 4a). A total of 28 species were found to be differentially abundant across the three *Polytrichum* species compared to *D. undulatum* (Fig. 4a; Supplementary Figure S2). Of these 28 bacterial species, 24 were nMAGs, underlining the contribution of the assembly process to the depth of our analyses. Notably, we found that the order Baltobacterales was more abundant in *P. commune* by 2.7 to 3.3 $\log_2$-folds in comparison to other moss species (Fig. 3; Supplementary Figure S2). Previous metagenomic studies have shown that Baltobacterales encode genes necessary for hopanoid synthesis (a biochemical process in which hopanoid, steroid-like compounds, are produced) [46]. Hopanoid molecules have been shown to contribute to bacterial tolerance to low pH soils [48], temperature stress [49], microbial defense [50], and are linked to N-fixation [51, 52]. Interestingly, hopanoid structures were shown to act as biomarkers for the presence of specific microorganisms, including Cyanobacteria [53]. Notably, *P. commune* is known for its antibacterial properties [54] and specimens from this moss species were sampled from acidic soils (Supplementary Data S2) in our study. The stress-tolerance properties of hopanoid structures in Baltobacterales MAGs could provide an adaptive advantage for colonization and persistence of bacteria in acidic and anti-microbial habitats such as *P. commune* mosses.

Interestingly, two *Stigonema* spp. (cyanobacteria) were differentially abundant in *P. juniperinum* and *P. piliferum*, but not in *P. commune*. During sampling, the majority of

P. commune were found in shaded conditions (Supplementary Data S2). This suggests that

shade, under which *P. commune* grows, may hinder the growth of Cyanobacteria. In general,

many nMAGs that were differentially abundant in *Polytrichum* species belonged to the orders

Acetobacterales and Terriglobales (Fig. 4a; Supplementary Figure S2). Of note,

Terriglobales, one of the most overall relatively abundant taxa ($20.8 \pm 10.8\%$ of attributed

sequences across all samples, Fig. 2d), were also found to be highly present in sub-arctic and

boreal peatland moss microbiomes [55].

Three species were found to be differentially abundant in *D. undulatum*, from the

orders Solirubrobacterales, Steroidobacterales, and Streptosporangiales, respectively (Fig. 4a;

Supplementary Figure S2). The most closely related species from these orders were

incidentally all species identified through MAG assembly and were described in soil and

roots in non-boreal ecosystems [56, 57]. A potential reason for the differences in bacterial

community between *Dicranum* and *Polytrichum* genera could be due to environmental

preferences (*Dicranum* sp. preferring moist soils), as well as moss N and phosphorus (P)

content [58]. Although our results show that moss-associated microbial communities are

influenced by moss identity, experimental studies are needed to disentangle the simultaneous

effects of biotic and abiotic conditions on moss-associated bacteria and on their contribution

to ecosystem functions.

Bacterial associations are specific to brown and green gametophyte sections

We identified 44 species as differentially abundant between green and brown gametophyte

sections ($p < 0.01$), of which 18 are nMAGs (Fig. 4b). These species are hereafter described

as "associated" to the section in which they were more abundant. Our work identified 27

species as brown-associated, including all nine *Bradyrhizobia*, thus suggesting a strong

specificity for brown gametophytes for members of this genus (Fig. 4b). Of note, Holland-

Moritz, *et al*. [18] showed that *Bradyrhizobia* are putative N_2-fixers, thus potentially

contributing to N cycling.

Bacterial species with the highest $\log_2$-fold change in brown gametophytes included

three nMAGs from the genus *Edaphobacter*; species from the order Solirubrobacterales

(*VAYN01*) and Terriglobales (*CAIQPK01*), as well as two species from the order

Streptosporangiales (Bog-532 sp019240215 and a *Trebonia* nMAG; Fig. 4b). Various

Edaphobacter species, such as *E. lichenicola sp. nov., Edaphobacter modestus gen. nov.*, and

Edaphobacter aggregans sp. nov., were previously described from alpine forest soils [59, 60].

Although Solirubrobacterales are understudied, several research have detected members of

this order in diverse ecosystems including agricultural lands [61] and Antarctic soils [62].

Several other brown-associated taxa, such as *Rudaea* spp., *CAIMXF01*, *Trebonia*, and

Acidisarcina, are also mainly associated with soils [63–65]. Finally, two cyanobacterial

species (*Stigonema*) were differentially abundant in brown gametophytes (Fig. 4b). In line

with our findings, Renaudin, *et al*. [10] found that cyanobacterial biomass increased towards

the bottom of moss gametophyte, peaking at approximately 2-3 cm from the apex. In

addition, Klarenberg *et al*. [66] suggested that there is no lateral transmission from soil to

moss gametophytes. However, given the number of soil taxa that were also found in brown

gametophyte sections, our results suggest that this section is an interface colonised by both

soil and moss-associated microbes.

In the green gametophyte section, nMAGs from the genera *CAHJXF01*, *CAHJXG01*,

Lichenicola, and *Palsa-465* had the highest log-fold change ($\log_2$-fold > 1.29; Fig. 4b) in

absolute abundance, compared to the brown section. Hay *et al*. [68] described MAGs of

CAHJXF01 and *CAHJXG01* from high Arctic glaciers, containing the gene form I RubisCo –

an important gene for C fixation. We also found that green-associated Rhizobiales

encompassed the genera *Methylobacteria*, *Lichenihabitans minor*, and *RH-AL1* spp., but not

Bradyrhizobium spp. (Fig 4). *Methylobacteria* consume methanol that has been released from

the stomata of non-bryophyte leaves [69] and are associated with the phyllosphere of

terrestrial vascular plants [70]. The presence of stomata on bryophytes is phylogenetically

determined. However, detection of this taxa may indicate the capacity for some of the studied

mosses to release methanol [71]. *Methylobacteria* were also found in the core microbiome of

boreal shrubs [72] and were shown to colonize non-boreal mosses (e.g., *Didymodon tectorum*

and *Funaria hygrometrica* [73, 74]). Similarly, *Lichenihabitans minor* and *RH-AL1* have been

shown to harbor genes associated with methanol consumption [67]. Although *Lichenihabitans*

minor tends to be associated with lichens, our detection of this species is not surprising, given

the prevalence of lichens in the habitat of boreal mosses [75]. *Lichenicola* and *Lichenicoccus*,

eponymously, are taxa that are associated with lichens, for example *Lichenicola cladoniae* has

previously been found in Antarctic lichens [76]. Overall, through our analysis, we observed

enrichments in several genera such as *CAHJXF01*, *CAHJXG01*, *Methylobacteria*,

Lichenihabitans, and *RH-AL1* spp. in green gametophyte section. Future studies would be

warranted to quantify their impact on C fixation and methanol consumption in boreal forests.

Bacterial metabolic potential differs in green and brown gametophyte sections

Next, we investigated the metabolic potential of the differentially abundant bacterial species

by analyzing which pathways their genomes have the potential to express. We focused on

four pathway groups that are relevant for boreal ecosystem functioning: photosynthesis,

nitrogen metabolism, methane metabolism, and carbon fixation.

First, we found that two brown-associated *Stigonema* species, also known as true-

branched filamentous cyanobacteria, had partial pathway completeness for anoxygenic

photosystems I and II (*Stigonema sp903903925* = 83.3% and *Stigonema* BrZ1 MAG =

66.7%) (Fig. 5; Supplementary Data S3). These were the only two differentially abundant

species capable of encoding these pathways at least partially. We also observed that two *Stigonema* spp. stood out because of their partially encoded N fixation (nifHDK + vnfDKGH) pathway (*Stigonema sp903903925* = 75% and *Stigonema* MAGs = 50%) (Fig. 5; Supplementary Data S3). This supports a previous finding that in feathermoss, *Stigonema* was shown to be an important contributor to N fixation [77, 78]. *Stigonema* spp. also show partial pathway completeness in all methane modules that are relevant to methanogenesis, and not methane oxidation, which is a well-described function of cyanobacteria [79] (Fig. 5; Supplementary Data S3). Overall, our findings suggest that cyanobacteria associated with the brown moss sections are photosynthetically active and have the potential for N fixation [80, 81].

Second, we detected complete assimilatory nitrate reduction pathways in both green- and brown-associated Rhizobiales, which have no capacity for N fixation (Fig. 5; Supplementary Data S3). Although it is known that Rhizobiales are symbiotic N-fixers for nodule-producing leguminous plants, Garrido-Oter *et al*. [82] proposed that the development of symbiotic genes, including N fixing genes, can fluctuate in non-nodule producing plants. Considering that mosses do not form nodules and our observation that moss-associated cyanobacteria can fix N, we believe that the N-fixing function of Rhizobiales associated with mosses may have become redundant and therefore lost. Furthermore, most methane metabolic pathways were also partially complete in green and brown-associated Rhizobiales genomes (Fig. 5; Supplementary Data S3). This aligns with the results of a previous study on *Sphagnum* mosses, which found that methanotrophy is primarily carried out by Rhizobiales species [83]. *Methylobacteria,* which were differentially abundant in green sections, showed full potential to encode the anoxygenic photosystem II pathway, except for the *Methylobacterium* MAG, which only encodes 50% of the required genes (Fig. 5; Supplementary Data S3). Notably, certain species of phyllosphere *Methylobacteria* were

described as anoxygenic photosynthetic bacteria [84]. Of note, the only pathway from the photosynthesis group that was significantly associated with the green gametophyte section was the anoxygenic photosystem II (Supplementary Table S1). Furthermore, in green-associated Rhizobiales, we did not detect the phosphate acetyltransferase-acetate kinase pathway, which contributes to carbon fixation, unlike in most of *Bradyrhizobia* (Fig. 5; Supplementary Data S3). However, among pathways in C fixation group, phosphate acetyltransferase-acetate kinase pathway was the only one significantly associated with the green gametophyte section (Fig. 5; Supplementary Data S3). This pathway is part of a central metabolism of bacteria [85]. Yet, the completeness of both the phosphate acetyltransferase-acetate kinase pathway, coupled with the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway in *Bradyrhizobia* implies the metabolic potential for C fixation [86]. To sum up, our findings suggest that green- and brown-associated *Rhizobiales* provide a range of metabolic contributions such as C fixation, methane metabolism, and nitrate reduction to their ecosystem.

Third, brown-associated Burkholderiales (*Caballeronia* spp.) showed potential activity for denitrification, dissimilatory and assimilatory nitrate reduction, and a complete nitrification pathway (Fig. 5; Supplementary Data S3). However, the only green-associated Burkholderiales species (CAHJXF01 nMAG) lacked all three nitrification pathways (denitrification, nitrification, and complete nitrification, Fig. 5). While methane oxidation pathways were absent, partial completeness was observed in several methane metabolism pathways (Fig. 5; Supplementary Data S3). These findings suggest the diverse metabolic capability within the Burkholderiales order and their potential roles in N cycling and methane metabolism [87, 88]. Curiously, pathways for coenzyme M and F420 biosynthesis were partially to fully complete in several brown-associated species (Fig. 5; Supplementary Data S3). F420 is a co-enzyme that is costly to synthesize; nevertheless, Ney *et al*. [89] found that it was commonly synthesized by aerobic bacteria. Meanwhile, coenzyme M is found in

methanotrophic archaea and used by bacteria in metabolizing of different substrates, for

example alkenes [90], which are found in boreal forest soils [91]. More interestingly, alkenes

are known to be produced by bacteria associated with lichens [92]. In our sampling sites,

lichens frequently grew alongside mosses in the same patches. Based on this observation, our

results suggest that the presence of coenzyme M moss-associated bacteria may be attributed

to their utilization of alkenes commonly found in lichens.

Finally, prokaryotic C fixation pathways such as the Arnon-Buchanon cycle and the

Wood-Ljungdahl pathway, and methane metabolism pathways such as formaldehyde

assimilation, had the highest average pathway completeness (Fig. 5; Supplementary Data S3).

Additionally, several methane metabolism pathways, such as ribulose monophosphate

pathway, methanogenesis, acetate and coenzyme M biosynthesis, were significantly

associated with the green gametophyte section (Supplementary Table S1). These results

therefore highlight the importance of moss-associated bacteria in biogeochemical processes

outside of N fixation and recapitulate the capacity for moss-bacteria to mediate C fixation

[93, 94]. Overall, our findings demonstrate the diverse metabolic potential and adaptations of

bacterial species associated with different sections of moss gametophyte, shedding light on

their roles in N cycling, methane metabolism, and C fixation in boreal forests.

Conclusion

In this study, using a whole metagenome sequencing approach, we (1) characterized

moss-associated bacteria and their metabolic potential and (2) explored the relative

importance of moss identity, moss physiological characteristics, and abiotic environment as

drivers of moss-bacteria interactions. Our results showed that moss genus, moss species,

gametophyte section, and to a lesser extent soil pH and soil temperature, are important drivers

of bacterial community composition and diversity (Tables 1-2; Fig. 2). Using metagenomic

assembly, we identified 110 potentially novel bacterial species (Fig. 3). Our study identified

distinct bacterial communities associated with four different moss species, as well as

contrasting associations with green and brown gametophyte sections, revealing insights into

their ecological roles in boreal forests (Fig. 4). We demonstrated how green- and brown-

associated bacteria of the moss gametophyte differ in taxonomy (Tables 1-2) but also in

metabolic potential (Fig. 5). Green-associated bacteria were shown to exhibit significant C

fixation capacities, particularly through the phosphate acetyltransferase-acetate kinase

pathway, while brown-associated cyanobacteria (e.g., *Stigonema* spp.) demonstrated partial

pathways for anoxygenic photosynthesis and N fixation, important for N cycling in boreal

ecosystems. Meanwhile, Burkholderiales displayed diverse metabolic functions, including

potential roles in nitrification and denitrification, crucial for maintaining N balance. Overall,

our findings contribute to the understanding of moss-bacteria interactions and provide

insights into how mosses may respond to environmental disturbances. As bryophytes are

submitted to the accelerating global change in boreal ecosystems, additional research on the

rich diversity of moss species is needed to grasp fully the roles of microbial symbionts in

influencing host and ecosystem functions. Invaluable data rests in ecosystems that are

currently exposed to low levels of anthropogenic stress. We suggest that collecting this data

is urgent, as well as studying how bryophytes and their microbial partners will adapt under

altered environmental conditions.

Methods

Study area

This study was conducted within the Eeyou Istchee (James Bay) region of Northern Québec

(Fig. 1a; N51.7040721°, W76.0521982°). All sampling locations were part of Québec's

boreal forest biome which is dominated by Jack pine (*Pinus banksiana*) and black spruce

(*Picea mariana*) [95]. The monthly average annual temperature of this region is 0.3□, while

mean annual precipitation is 741 mm [96]. The soils are predominantly acidic and nutrient

poor [97].

<u>Study design and moss species</u>

Samples were taken from four acrocarpous (stems harbor archegonia at the top) moss species:

Polytrichum juniperinum, *Polytrichum commune*, *Polytrichum piliferum*, and *Dicranum*

undulatum (Fig. 1b), which are endemic to the Eeyou-Istchee region of Québec [28]. These

were sampled in September 2021, at five different locations (Fig. 1a). Three microsites, each

5 to 10 meters apart, were randomly selected and then, at each microsite, 3-by-3-inch moss

patches were established (Fig. 1a). At each microsite/species, we measured soil temperature,

by inserting the probe of the Fisherbrand^{TM} Envirometer^{TM} directly in the soil of where the

moss was sampled after it had been removed. Soil pH was measured in the laboratory using

the method described by Hendershot, Lalande and Duquette [98]. Mosses were first visually

identified to species level in the field and then confirmed by microscopy. For each moss

species, samples were taken from both the brown and green sections of the gametophyte,

which were determined visually (Fig. 1c). To maintain the integrity of the samples, the green

and brown sections were separated while on site, using ethanol and DNA-away treated

tweezers and scissors. Samples were placed in sterile 50 mL tubes and immediately stored at

-20□ for the return trip to the laboratory, where they were stored at -80□. A total of 131

samples were collected for brown and green gametophyte sections across *P. juniperinum* (n_B

$_=$ 24, n_G = 22), *P. commune* ($n_{B=}$ 9, n_G = 9), *P. piliferum* ($n_{B=}$ 26, n_G = 26), and *D. undulatum*

($n_{B=}$ 8, n_G = 7) from five sites (see Supplementary Table S2 for sample breakdown).

<u>DNA extraction and whole metagenome sequencing (WMS)</u>

Green and brown gametophyte sections were processed separately, but in the same manner.

DNA extraction of moss samples was performed as modified versions of the protocols used

by Holland-Moritz, et al. [4] and Klarenberg, et al. [16]. Using tweezers and scissors

sterilized with 80% ethanol solution and 'DNA Away' solution (Thermo Fisher Scientific,

MA, USA), 0.25 g of each moss sample were weighed out and divided into two sterile 2 mL

bead beating tubes that also contained three sterilized stainless-steel beads. These tubes were

then frozen in liquid N_2 for approximately 30s and mosses were broken down using the

FisherbrandTM Bead Mill 24 Homogenizer for 30s at 1.75 m/s. DNA was subsequently

extracted using the QIAGEN DNEasy PowerSoil DNA Extraction Kit with some minor

changes. Each moss sample was divided into two 2 mL PowerBead extraction tubes. The kit

buffer and beads were added to each tube, along with 60 uL of C1 Solution from the kit. All

tubes with buffer were homogenized at 3.25 m/s for 30s and then at 2.40 m/s for 10 minutes

using the FisherbrandTM Bead Mill 24 Homogenizer. After centrifugation as per the

extraction kit protocol, supernatant from both tubes of one sample were combined in one tube

with 250 uL of C2 Solution from the extraction kit. The rest of the extraction followed the

manufacturer's instructions. All extractions were performed under a Type A2 Bio Safety

Cabinet. Extracted DNA were subsequently quantified using the NanoDropTM One

Spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, MA, USA). Samples under 20 ng/uL or with

A260/230 ratios less than 1.8 were tested for presence of bacteria by PCR amplification of

the V4-V5 region of bacterial 16S rRNA using 515F (GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA) as

forward primer and 806R (GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT) as reverse primer. The 25 uL

PCR reaction mix for these tests consisted of 5 uL of 1X GC Buffer, 0.5 uL of 10uM dNTPs,

0.5 uL each of 10uM forward and reverse primers, 0.25 uL HotStart DNA polymerase and

17.25 uL RNAse free MilliQ water. PCR thermocycling conditions were an initial

denaturation at 94□ for 3 minutes, followed by 35 cycles of: denaturation at 95□ for 30s,

annealing at 50□ for 30s, elongation at 72□ for 1 minute 30s; lastly there was a final

elongation step at 72□ for 10 minutes. All tested samples showed amplification at the

predicted length of 290 base pairs.

In total, 131 metagenomic libraries were generated. Samples were sequenced on a

single lane of Illumina NovaSeq6000 with 2×150bp chemistry at Génome Québec

(Montréal, Canada).

<u>Sample quality control</u>

The raw sample library size was $14.8 \times 10^6 \pm 2.2 \times 10^6$ reads. Raw reads were trimmed and

quality-controlled using Kneaddata. At the time of the experiment, all four moss species

sampled in this study lacked reference genomes. Thus, host DNA was partially removed by

aligning reads against the closely related genome of *Polytrichum patens*, as well as the

human genome hg38 to control for human contamination, using Bowtie2 (from within the

Kneaddata pipeline). On average, clean samples contained $10 \times 10^6 \pm 1.6 \times 10^6$ paired-end

reads.

<u>Choice of a co-assembly strategy</u>

Metagenome assembly quality depends on depth of coverage of each genome within samples

[99]. A common strategy is to co-assemble samples based on biological similarities, by

pooling sequences submitted to the assembler, increasing the coverage of genomes, and

therefore retrieving more good quality genomes [100]. In this study, we concatenated samples

taken from the same moss species and gametophyte section into 46 sample pools. We applied

the pipeline described in the following section identically to both assembly and co-assembly

strategies. Co-assembly generated 157 MAGs with completeness > 50% and contamination

< 10%, compared to 139 through regular sample-level assembly. Given this, we focused on

the MAGs generated by co-assembly, which had a slightly higher average completeness,

increasing from 73.6% ± 16.5 to 74.2% ± 15.4%.

<u>Metagenome co-assembly and MAG generation</u>

Samples were co-assembled using MetaWRAP modules [101]. First, paired-end sequences

were assembled using metaSPAdes and re-assembled unassembled reads using MEGAHIT.

Contigs were then binned with three binners (MetaBAT2, CONCOCT and MaxBin2).

Afterwards, these three sets of bins were hybridized with MetaWRAP's bin_refinement

module to produce a final set of refined bins for each co-assembly. Bin quality was then

assessed using CheckM and bins with completeness < 50% and contamination > 10% were

excluded [102], thus yielding a set of 260 bins (5.7 ± 3.3 bins per co-assembly).

To obtain a unique set of species-level MAGs for the whole study, bins were pooled

from all co-assemblies and dereplicated them using Drep [103]. Drep uses a two-step

clustering strategy, whereby bins are first clustered using Mash [104]; then, within each

cluster, bins are dereplicated at a 95% average nucleotide identity (ANI) using MUMmer

[105]. GUNC [106] was used to identify chimeric MAGs, which were then removed from the

final set of species-level metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs).

<u>MAG novelty analysis</u>

MAGs which potentially belonged to species with no published reference genome, and

therefore were absent from the reference database, were identified by applying three

bioinformatic validations. First, we taxonomically annotated MAGs using GTDB-Tk [107].

Second, we calculated the Mash distance between these 156 MAGs and the 31,332 non-

redundant bacterial and archaeal genomes from EnsemblBacteria. Third, since Mash distance

could be underestimated when comparing incomplete MAGs, we used skani [108] to

compute ANI between these MAGs and the 85,205 GTDB species representative genomes.

MAGs were labelled as novel MAGs (nMAGs) if they had an ANI < 0.95 having a Mash

distance > 0.05 and no species-level taxonomy assignment. Additionally, after adding the

nMAGs to the reference genome index as described below, two were dropped because they

were not detected by Sourmash [109]. nMAGs were only kept if they exhibited an assembly

quality score (defined as Completeness – $5 \times$ Contamination) > 0.50, yielding a final set of

110 nMAGs.

<u>nMAG annotations</u>

nMAGs were further annotated by predicting their coding sequences using Prodigal [110] and

passing these to the MicrobeAnnotator [111] pipeline, generating an estimation of their

metabolic potential through pathway completeness reconstruction (see *Pathway completeness*

analysis below for further details). Finally, phylogeny was estimated using PhyloPhlAn [112]

and built phylogenetic trees using ggtree [113], allowing a cross-validation with their

attributed GTDB taxonomy. nMAGs statistics (length, L50, number of contigs and GC

contents) were assessed using bbmap.

<u>Taxonomy characterization and abundance estimation of bacterial community</u>

Sample community composition and relative abundance at the species level was estimated

using Sourmash gather [109] with a k-mer size of 31, using the GTDB representative species

genome index [107] to which nMAGs were added. This approach also measures a sample's

containment, which represents the proportion of sample k-mers found in the smallest set of

reference genomes required to cover all sample k-mers with an exact match. Of note, k-mers-

based community profiling tools generate a *sequence* abundance table, which is not

normalized for genome length (as opposed to marker-gene-based tools). However, the

necessity to introduce nMAGs in the reference database precludes the use of marker-gene

referencing for taxonomic assignment.

Containment was used to estimate the improvement in sample coverage caused by the

addition of nMAGs to the GTDB-rs214 reference index. The GenBank reference index

(comprising 1.22M microbial genomes) was also compared and the containment increase is

reported for both scenarios (Supplementary Figure S1). Finally, the sequence abundance

matrix was built into a phyloseq object using the raw counts; this object was then used as a

starting point for all subsequent analyses.

<u>Beta- and alpha diversity analyses</u>

All statistical analyses and plots were made using the open-access software R 4.2.1. For

community composition (multivariate) analyses, uneven sequencing depth and

heteroskedasticity were addressed by applying variance stabilizing transformations (VST,

DESeq2 [114]) to the abundance matrix. This matrix was then used to estimate pairwise

Bray-Curtis dissimilarity between samples [115], and to compute principal coordinates using

the *capscale* function in the vegan package [116]. Finally, *adonis2* (vegan) was used to run

PERMANOVAs [116], assessing the sensitivity of model outputs to the order of its

parameters.

In brief, we explored the effect of moss genus, moss species, gametophyte section,

and soil abiotic factors on bacterial community composition. We ran models with and without

Dicranum samples, thus testing the differences in bacterial community composition between

moss genera and among *Polytrichum* spp. (*P. juniperinum*, *P. commune* and *P. piliferum*),

respectively. This approach allowed us to disentangle whether closely related moss species

are likely to harbor more similar microbial taxa than more distantly related ones, because of

shared physiological traits and similar ecological niches. In the models with *Dicranum*

samples, we modelled multivariate bacterial community composition as a function of categorical variables '*moss genus*', '*moss species*' nested within '*moss genus*', '*gametophyte section*', and continuous variables '*soil pH*' and '*soil temperature*', and their two-way interactions. We nested '*moss species*' within the genera to account for the hierarchical taxonomic structure and to explore species-specific effects on bacterial community composition and alpha diversity (see below). In the models without *Dicranum* samples, we modelled multivariate bacterial community composition as a function of categorical variables '*moss species*', '*gametophyte section*', and continuous variables '*soil pH*' and '*soil temperature*', and their two-way interactions. A fixed effect '*moss species*' was included in the models, to quantify the portion of variance in bacterial community composition explained by *Polytrichum* spp. In all multivariate models, permutations were restricted within blocks (i.e., 'Location'), using the function *how* of the permute package [117].

For alpha diversity analyses, reads were rarefied to 24,900 (slightly less than the lowest sample sum of reads) using *rarefy_even_depth* (phyloseq) to account for uneven sequencing depth [39, 118]. Linear models were run on Shannon index using function *lmer* in the lme4 [119] package. Then the *Anova* function in the *car* package was used to assess model significance. Final models were further simplified by removing insignificant interactions. For each of the alpha diversity models, the functions *simulateResiduals* and *plot* in the package DHARMa were used to assess model fit [120].

To explore the differences in bacterial diversity among moss identities, gametophyte section and abiotic factors, bacterial diversity (Shannon index) was modelled as a function of categorical variables 'moss *genus*', '*moss species*' (nested within '*moss genus*'), '*gametophyte section*', and continuous variables '*soil pH*' and '*soil temperature*', and their two-way interactions. Finally, models excluding *Dicranum* samples were run to confirm effect persistence intra-genera, for example by including fixed factor '*moss species*'. In all

models, to account for variation among sampling locations, the random effect 'Location' was

included, and to account for nested design, we nested 'Microsite' under 'Location'. See

Supplementary Table S3 for more details on model structures, fixed and random effects

tested, and link functions.

<u>Differential abundance analyses (DAA)</u>

To identify species associated with moss species and gametophyte section, DAA were

performed using ANCOM-BC2 package [47]. This approach was chosen because it takes into

account the compositionality (e.g., data is commonly expressed in terms of relative

abundances) of next-generation sequencing data [121], controls for false discovery rate by

accounting for multiple testing and multiple group comparisons, and corrects for taxon- and

sample-specific biases (i.e., differences in extraction efficiency across taxa and sampling

fraction across samples). In brief, differentially abundant taxa were identified between

(1) gametophyte section (green vs. brown), controlling for host moss species, soil pH, and

soil temperature; and (2) host moss species, controlling for gametophyte section, using

Dunnett's test with *D. undulatum* as a reference group. In the latter, environmental covariates

were omitted because they were correlated with location (SoilTemp ~ Location, $R^2 = 0.58$,

$p < 1e\text{-}10$) and moss species (SoilpH ~ Host, $R^2 = 0.62$, $p < 1e\text{-}10$), and location is

significantly associated with moss species ($\chi^2 = 179.1$, $p < 1e\text{-}10$). For both approaches, we

only considered species that were present in at least 10% (n = 13) sample [122]. The Holm

procedure was used to account for multiple comparisons. We only reported results that passed

ANCOM-BC2's sensitivity test to pseudo-count addition and had a $p_{adj} < 0.01$.

<u>Pathway completeness analysis</u>

Pathway completeness is a value from 0 to 1 that represents the proportion of proteins

making up a given pathway (or module) whose coding sequence could be found in a genome.

The relationship between pathway completeness and gametophyte green and brown sections

was investigated for the 44 differentially abundant species. The tests were performed on

pathways from four groups of interest : nitrogen metabolism, photosynthesis, methane

metabolism and carbon fixation (Supplementary Table S1), as described in Kyoto

Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) [123]. Pathways for which completeness was

≤ 20% in more than 80% of genomes were excluded, yielding a subset of 15 pathways. Since

pathway completeness correlates with genome completeness [124], we controlled for genome

completeness (attributing 100% to non-MAGs). Specifically, the model *Module proteins (%)*

~ Gametophyte sections (green or brown) + MAG completeness was tested, using a

generalized linear model with a quasibinomial distribution and a logit link function to fit the

response variable, which is a proportion that includes 0 and 100%. *p*-values were corrected

using the Holm method and only pathways with $p_{adj} < 0.05$ were reported as significant. The

heatmap in figure 5 was generated using the '*ComplexHeatmap*' package in R.

Environmental DNA contamination assessment

The quasi absence of non-bacterial genomes in our assemblies prompted us to investigate the

high-level taxonomy of sample reads. 100,000 reads per sample were randomly selected and

used to perform a BLASTn search against the entire *ncbi_nt* database (across all Kingdoms).

Although this approach cannot be used to estimate the relative abundance of non-microbial

reads, our data showed that numerous reads belonged to Eukaryotic, non-microbial species

(see Supplementary Figures S3 and S4). However, short reads metagenome assembly

pipelines generally do not perform well to assemble fungal, archaeal and protist genomes.

Therefore, the effective sequencing depth of bacterial species, even after adding our nMAGs

is lower than the sample sequencing depth. Bioinformatic software versions and non-default

options are reported in Supplementary Table S4.

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, the authors would like to thank the Cree Community of Nemaska for

welcoming our team and allowing us to sample on their land. We thank Nemaska Lithium for

their collaboration and support of the project. We would also like to acknowledge J. Chamard

and members of S. Roy's Lab (L. Garneau, J. Beaudin, O. Alix-Paré, and S. Malo) for the

much-appreciated help with sampling and moss dissections, E. Lussier for extensive support

with laboratory work, J.-F. Lucier for assistance with metagenomic analysis, and

M. Desrochers for map generation. We are grateful to Génome Québec and to the Digital

Research Alliance of Canada for providing us with access to super computers to perform our

bioinformatic analyses. We also thank J. Beaudin, P. Moffett, and P. B. Beauregard for

critical reading of the manuscript. We are grateful to Isabel Ramirez for beautiful depictions

of mosses presented in Figure 1b. This work was supported by funding from (1) Fonds de

recherche du Québec – Nature et technologies (FRQNT) Programme partenariat sur le

développement durable du secteur minier (Grant 285683 lead PI Pr. Roy and co-PI Pr.

Laforest-Lapointe); and (2) Pr. Laforest-Lapointe's Canada Research Chair on Applied

Microbial Ecology.

Data availability statement

Scripts for statistical analyses, along with taxonomy tables and metadata used for analysis are

available in the Github repository (https://github.com/jorondo1/borealMoss). Raw sequence

data are being deposited in the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA).

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Author contributions

987 SI, SR, and ILL designed the experiment. SI conducted the sample collection, processing, and

988 molecular work. JRL developed the bioinformatic workflow and conducted the bioinformatic

989 analyses with the contribution from SI, MF, and ILL. SI and JRL analyzed the data with

990 support from MF and ILL. SI wrote the first draft with the contribution from JRL, MF, ILL

991 and SR. All authors reviewed the final manuscript.

Additional Information

993 Authors declare no competing interests.

Table legends

Table 1. Moss genus, moss species nested within moss genus, gametophyte section, soil pH, soil temperature, and their interactions drive moss bacterial community composition. Shown are the PERMANOVA on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity (n = 131 and n=121 samples respectively) degrees of freedom (df), determination coefficients (R^2), and p-values (significant values are shown in bold).

Table 2. The effects of moss genus, moss species nested within moss genus, gametophyte section, soil pH, and temperature on moss bacterial alpha-diversity (Shannon index). Shown are the linear mixed-effects model (n = 131 and n=121 samples respectively) test statistics (χ^2), degrees of freedom (df), and p-values (significant values are shown in bold).

Figure legends

Figure 1. Sampling design, location, and collected moss species.

Panel (a) shows the sampling layout: at each location, three microsites were chosen at random (indicated by yellow circles). Within each microsite, three replicate samples were collected (shown as green circles). Inset in the top right of Panel (a) shows a map of Québec with the sampling sites located within the continuous boreal forest region. Panel (b) shows the illustrations of each of four moss species (drawings were created by Isabel Ramirez). Panel (c) shows the images of green and brown sections of the moss gametophyte.

Figure 2. (a, b) Two-dimensional principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) of bacterial communities based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index, calculated using vst-transformed abundance table. Each point represents one moss sample, and ellipses indicate a 95% confidence interval around moss samples that represent same moss species (a) or from the same moss gametophyte section (b). (c) Differences in alpha diversity (Shannon diversity) of moss bacterial communities. Boxplots are faceted according to moss species. Showed are

1018   four moss species: *P. juniperinum* (nB = 24, nG = 22), *P. commune* (nB = 9, nG = 9), *P.*

1019   *piliferum* (nB = 26, nG = 26), and *D. undulatum* (nB = 8, nG = 7). (d) Bacterial taxonomic

1020   profiles between green and brown gametophyte sections and among moss species. Bar charts

1021   are faceted by moss species, and bar colours represent different microbial taxa.

1022

Figure 3. Novel species-level metagenome-assembled genomes obtained with co-assembly.

From inner to outer layers: proportion of guanine and cytidine in assembly nucleotides

(% GC), genome size (length, Mbp), number of contigs in each MAG, length of the shortest

of the largest contigs required to cover 50% of the total assembly length (N50) and quality

score (QC). The inner section shows the phylogenetic tree of 110 metagenome-assembled

genomes constructed using *PhyloPhlAn* and built phylogenetic trees using *ggtree* packages,

allowing a cross-validation with their assigned taxonomy in the GTDB database. The

different colored dots on the branches of the tree correspond to the colors of the bacterial

orders listed in the legend.

1032

Figure 4. Differential abundance of bacterial species between moss species and between

green and brown gametophyte sections.

LFC: $\log_2$-fold change in absolute abundances, with all values showing significant

differential abundance ($p < 0.01$). (a) Differentially abundant bacterial species in moss

species relative to *D. undulatum*. LFC are relative to *D. undulatum*. Positive LFC (blue)

indicates enrichment in specified moss species relative to *D. undulatum*, whereas negative

LFC (red) indicates enrichment in *D. undulatum* relative to specified moss species.

(b) Bacterial species that are differentially abundant in either green or brown sections of moss

gametophyte. Bar colours indicate in which section (green or brown) the species was

differentially enriched, with LFC calculated in relation to the reference group. Blank cells

correspond to species for which no significant differences in abundance were detected, and

therefore no LFC values reported.

1045

Figure 5. Metabolic abilities of the differentially abundant species in brown and green

gametophyte sections.

The pathway completeness of selected metabolic pathway groups, such as photosynthesis,

nitrogen and methane metabolism, and prokaryotic carbon fixation, is indicated for each

genome (blue scale). This figure also shows the taxonomic rank (e.g., bacterial order) for

each of 44 differentially abundant genomes.

Table 1. Moss genus, moss species nested within moss genus, gametophyte section, soil pH,

soil temperature, and their interactions drive moss bacterial community composition. Shown

are the PERMANOVA on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity (n = 131 and n=121 samples

respectively) degrees of freedom (df), determination coefficients (R^2), and p-values

(significant values are shown in bold).

	Variables	df	R^2 (%)	p-value	df	R^2 (%)	p-value
			a) with *Dicranum sp.*			b) without *Dicranum sp.*	
1st level	Moss Genus	1	13.8	**0.001**	-	-	-
	Moss Species	-	-	-	2	19.7	**0.001**
	Gametophyte Section	1	12.7	**0.001**	1	17.2	**0.001**
	Soil Temperature	1	7.4	**0.001**	1	6.9	**0.001**
	Soil pH	1	5.1	**0.001**	1	4.1	**0.001**
2nd level	Genus × Species	2	12.3	**0.001**	-	-	-
	Genus × Gametophyte Section	1	2.6	**0.001**	-	-	-
	Genus × Soil Temperature	1	0.6	0.232	-	-	-
	Genus × Soil pH	1	0.2	0.789	-	-	-
	Species × Gametophyte Section	-	-	-	2	1.3	**0.042**
	Species × Soil Temperature	-	-	-	2	3.0	**0.003**
	Species × Soil pH	-	-	-	2	3.0	**0.001**
	Gametophyte Section × Soil Temp.	1	0.9	**0.003**	1	1.1	**0.011**
	Gametophyte Section × Soil pH	1	0.3	0.447	1	0.2	0.749
	Total (%)		**57.3**			59	

1057

1058 **Table 2.** The effects of moss genus, moss species nested within moss genus, gametophyte

1059 section, soil pH, and temperature on moss bacterial alpha diversity (Shannon index). Shown

1060 are the linear mixed-effects model (n = 131 and n=121 samples respectively) test statistics

1061 (χ^2), degrees of freedom (df), and p-values (significant values are shown in bold).

		a) *Dicranum sp.*			b) without *Dicranum sp.*		
Variables		df	χ2 (%)	p-value	df	χ2 (%)	p-value
1st level	Moss Genus	1	8.6	**0.003**	-	-	-
	Moss Species	-	-	-	2	0.08	0.960
	Gametophyte Section	1	29.3	<0.001	1	35.7	**<0.001**
	Soil Temperature	1	6.3	**0.012**	1	6.6	**0.010**
	Soil pH	1	1.2	0.279	1	1.7	0.192
2nd level	Genus × Species	2	0.07	0.966	-	-	-
	Genus × Gametophyte Section	1	2.1	0.148			
	Genus × Soil Temperature	1	0.04	0.840	-	-	-
	Genus × Soil pH	1	0.08	0.784	-	-	-
	Species × Gametophyte Section	-	-	-	2	2.8	0.246
	Species × Soil Temperature	-	-	-	2	2.3	0.320
	Gametophyte Section × Soil Temp.	1	1.7	0.194	1	3.0	0.084
	Gametophyte Section × Soil pH	1	12.6	**<0.001**	1	6.8	**0.009**
Total R² (%)			62			59	

1062

1063

Figure 1. Sampling design, location, and collected moss species.

Panel (a) shows the sampling layout: at each location, three microsites were chosen at

random (indicated by yellow circles). Within each microsite, three replicate samples were

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1071

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1081

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of the largest contigs required to cover 50% of the total assembly length (N50) and quality

score (QC). The inner section shows the phylogenetic tree of 110 metagenome-assembled

genomes constructed using *PhyloPhlAn* and built phylogenetic trees using *ggtree* packages,

allowing a cross-validation with their assigned taxonomy in the GTDB database. The

different colored dots on the branches of the tree correspond to the colors of the bacterial

orders listed in the legend.

Figure 4. Differential abundance of bacterial species between moss species and between green and brown gametophyte sections.

LFC: $\log_2$-fold change in absolute abundances, with all values showing significant differential abundance ($p < 0.01$). (a) Differentially abundant

bacterial species in moss species relative to *D. undulatum*. LFC are relative to *D. undulatum*. Positive LFC (blue) indicates enrichment in

specified moss species relative to *D. undulatum*, whereas negative LFC (red) indicates enrichment in *D. undulatum* relative to specified moss

species. (b) Bacterial species that are differentially abundant in either green or brown sections of moss gametophyte. Bar colours indicate in

which section (green or brown) the species was differentially enriched, with LFC calculated in relation to the reference group. Blank cells

correspond to species for which no significant differences in abundance were detected, and therefore no LFC values reported.

1099

1100   **Figure 5.** Metabolic abilities of the differentially abundant species in brown and green gametophyte sections.

1101   The pathway completeness of selected metabolic pathway groups, such as photosynthesis, nitrogen and methane metabolism, and prokaryotic

1102   carbon fixation, is indicated for each genome (blue scale). This figure also shows the taxonomic rank (e.g., bacterial order) for each of the 44

1103   differentially abundant genomes.