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1	Biogeographical patterns of legume-nodulating Burkholderia: from
2	African Fynbos to continental scales
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45 Abstract

46 Rhizobia of the genus Burkholderia have large-scale distribution ranges, and are usually 47 associated with South African papilionoid and South American mimosoid legumes, yet little 48 is known about their genetic structuring at either local or global geographical scales. To 49 understand variation at different spatial scales, from individual legumes in the Fynbos (South 50 Africa) to a global context, we conducted analyses of chromosomal (16S rRNA, recA) and 51 symbiosis (*nifH*, *nodA*, *nodC*) gene sequences. We showed that the global diversity of 52 nodulation genes is generally grouped according to the South African papilionoid or South 53 American mimosoid subfamilies, whereas chromosomal sequence data were unrelated to 54 biogeography. While nodulation genes are structured on a continental scale, a geographical 55 or host specific distribution pattern was not detected in the Fynbos region. In host range experiments, symbiotic promiscuity of Burkholderia tuberum STM678^T and B. phymatum 56 STM815^T was discovered in selected Fynbos species. Finally, a greenhouse experiment was 57 58 undertaken to assess the ability of mimosoid (Mimosa pudica) and papilionoid (Dipogon 59 lignosus, Indigofera filifolia, Macroptilium atropurpureum and Podalyria calyptrata) species 60 to nodulate in South African (Fynbos) and Malawian (Savanna) soils. While the 61 Burkholderia-philous Fynbos legumes (D. lignosus, I. filifolia and P. calyptrata) only 62 nodulated in their native soils, the invasive neotropical species M. pudica did not develop 63 nodules in the African soils. The Fynbos soil, notably rich in Burkholderia, seems to retain 64 nodulation genes compatible with the local papilionoid legume flora, but is incapable of 65 nodulating mimosoid legumes which have their center of diversity in the South American 66 continent.

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70 Importance section

This study is the most comprehensive phylogenetic assessment of root-nodulating *Burkholderia* and investigates biogeographic and host-related patterns of the legumerhizobial symbiosis in the South African Fynbos biome, as well as at global scales, including native species from the South American Caatinga and Cerrado biomes. While a global investigation of the rhizobial diversity revealed distinct nodulation and nitrogen fixation genes among South African and South American legumes, regionally distributed species in the Cape region were unrelated to geographical and host factors.

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79 Introduction

80 Microorganisms have been observed to vary in distribution, diversity and species 81 composition across spatial scales (1), challenging the long-held perception of a microbial 82 cosmopolitism driven by their high dispersal capacities (2). Although microorganisms can 83 disperse over lengthy distances, dispersal limitations have revealed spatially isolated 84 microbial populations over multiple spatial scales (1,3-5). For rhizobia (both alpha- and beta-85 subclasses of the Proteobacteria), similar geographical distribution patterns have been 86 detected in different bacterial groups and over various spatial scales, showing a geographical 87 structure preserved in phylogenies of both chromosomal and nodulation genes (6-11).

88 Root-nodulating species of the genus Burkholderia (Betaproteobacteria), have been described 89 from different regions in the world, including parts of the Americas, Africa, Asia and 90 Australasia. The highest level of diversity has been reported from the South American 91 Cerrado/Caatinga and South African Fynbos biomes (12), together with Asian and 92 Australian/New Zealand representatives so far described exclusively from non-native 93 invasive species, such as the weeds Mimosa diplotricha, M. pigra, M. pudica (13-18) and 94 Dipogon lignosus (49,79). Burkholderia species isolated from native legumes from 95 neotropical and African regions, which are dominated by distinct legume floras (South 96 American Mimosoideae versus South African Papilionoideae), differ genetically in their 97 nodulation genes (12,19), suggesting that the legume host is shaping symbiotic diversity and 98 that the biogeography of rhizobia is linked to the distribution of compatible legume hosts 99 ((20) and references therein). Despite many local surveys of Burkholderia interactions with 100 papilionoids and mimosoids across the globe, our knowledge of the global distribution 101 pattern is still fragmented and a spatial survey of the genus Burkholderia has never been 102 conducted in a global context and across biomes.

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blied and Environmental Microbioloay 103 In South Africa, Burkholderia symbionts are widespread and associated with diverse lineages 104 of the tribes Crotalarieae (21-23,26), Hypocalypteae (24,25), Indigofereae (26), Phaseoleae 105 (26,27,28) and Podalyrieae (24,26,29,30), indicating that the South African soils are an 106 important reservoir for nodulating Burkholderia, and thus this needs to be explored further 107 for new candidate species. With the exception of *B. phymatum* strains nodulating the non-108 native crop species Phaseolus vulgaris (common bean) in Moroccan soils (31), the legume-109 Burkholderia symbiosis in Africa has only been reported in a range of sites within the 110 Fynbos region, supporting the idea of the Cape region as an exclusive biodiversity hotspot 111 for the symbiosis (12).

112 The general aim of the present study is to provide novel insights into the biogeography of 113 Burkholderia and to elucidate the extent to which it exhibits a geographical pattern in relation 114 to the distribution of its hosts. Because lineages vary in distribution and diversity over 115 various spatial scales, and spatial factors play a significant role in shaping microbial 116 communities, it is clear that geographical patterning should be analyzed across multiple 117 spatial scales (from local to broad geographical regions). We took advantage of the large 118 record of root-nodulating Burkholderia established since the first reports of its nodulation 119 ability ((12) and references therein), supplemented with new sequence data of Fynbos 120 Burkholderia. Available sequence data for chromosomal 16S rRNA and the symbiosis-121 related *nodA*, *nodC* and *nifH* genes were analyzed in a world-wide perspective to assess 122 geographic patterns at a continental scale, as well as the host specific interactions with the 123 legume subfamilies Mimosoideae and Papilionoideae.

124 The diversity, geographic distribution and host associations were further investigated at a 125 regional scale in the South African (Cape) Fynbos biome. The *Burkholderia* symbionts from 126 five Cape legume tribes and 11 genera of the Papilionoideae were investigated by Applied and Environ<u>mental</u>

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129 We hypothesize that the Burkholderia symbionts of native and invasive legume species 130 reported from Africa, America, Asia and Australasia exhibit a geographical distribution 131 pattern with continents having their own subset of symbionts. We also expect a geographical 132 effect on the genetic variation of rhizobia at a regional scale within the Fynbos. Our specific 133 objectives were (1) to determine and compare the *Burkholderia* types for housekeeping and 134 symbiosis loci recorded from mimosoids and papilionoids reported from four different 135 continents; (2) to investigate the distribution pattern of Burkholderia and its host-associations 136 within the Fynbos biome, using field-collected nodules of indigenous papilionoids; (3) to 137 investigate the ability of South African papilionoid legume species (Indigofera filifolia, 138 Dipogon lignosus, Podalyria calyptrata, Psoralea pinnata) and the South American species 139 Mimosa pudica (subfamily Mimosoideae) to form nodules in South African (Fynbos) and 140 Malawian (Savanna) soil; and (4) to test and evaluate the host range of the Burkholderia tuberum STM678^T and *B. phymatum* STM815^T type strains on selected Fynbos species, 141 142 which are known to exhibit different host affinities as dictated by their genetically distinct 143 nodulation genes. We expect that the tested papilionoid legumes from the Fynbos are 144 exclusively nodulated by the common and native symbiont *B. tuberum* STM678^T.

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146 Material and Methods

147 Burkholderia datasets and OTU-based analyses

Analyses of Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) were used to cluster the 16S rRNA sequence data. A large 16S rRNA data set was constructed, comprising 1121 sequences and 75 validly named *Burkholderia* species with multiple accessions per species. Sequences were aligned with available bacterial reference sequences via the Ribosomal Database Project (RDP pyrosequencing pipeline; http://pyro.cme.msu.edu). An uncorrected pairwise distance matrix was calculated and the number of OTUs and rarefaction curves at various cut-off values (0.030 to 0.010) were calculated in Mothur v.1.31.2 (33).

155 Four other Burkholderia datasets were obtained from available 16S rRNA (365 sequences), 156 nifH (246 sequences), nodA (152 sequences) and nodC (199 sequences), assigning all 157 rhizobia to four geographical regions (Africa, America, Asia and Australasia and two 158 legume subfamilies (Papilionoideae and Mimosoideae). The alignments were created with 159 Muscle (32) using Geneious v.5.1.7 (http://www.geneious.com). The diversity of 16S rRNA 160 sequences was clustered into OTUs, using the previous estimated cut-off value to delineate 161 taxonomic identities at species level. For the data sets of *nifH*, *nodA* and *nodC*, we applied a 162 similar conservative similarity cut-off value in order to classify genetic groups of the more 163 variable symbiosis genes. Unique and shared types among different continents and 164 subfamilies were identified in Mothur.

Alignments for the NeighborNet analyses were compiled based on the previous 16S rRNA, *nifH, nodA* and *nodC* rhizobial datasets: one sequence representative per sequence cluster was manually selected from the original alignments and these were imported into SplitsTree v.4.12.8 (34) to display the phylogenetic relatedness among the clusters as a NeighborNet network (35), using the most complex model of nucleotide substitution (GTR) available. Bootstrap confidence values were generated using 1,000 permutations.

172 Fynbos rhizobia

173 We investigated 20 root nodulated Fynbos species in this study, representing various 174 localities (Fig. 1) and diverse host legumes (five legume tribes and 11 genera). Voucher 175 information and GenBank accession numbers are listed in Table S2 and the geographical 176 localities are shown in Figure 1. Nodules were collected in the field from a broad 177 geographical range at different localities, covering diverse soil types ranging from limestone 178 substrate (De Hoop Nature Reserve, Still Bay), granite substrate (Paarl Mountain Nature 179 Reserve), sandstone mountain slopes (Bainskloof Nature Reserve) to coastal deep sand (Cape 180 Point Nature Reserve). Three to five nodules were removed from each host plant for isolation 181 of rhizobia.

182 Rhizobia were identified by both standard culturing techniques (36) and direct genomic DNA 183 extraction from nodules. The latter method enabled the unequivocal assessment of the 184 intranodular endophyte diversity, including unculturable endophytes that can be masked 185 using culturing-based techniques due to the selective effects of growth media and an 186 incomplete sampling of colony morphotypes. For the standard culturing technique, rhizobia 187 were isolated on yeast extract mannitol agar (YEMA) from a single bacterial colony type, 188 following standard procedures (36). Pure rhizobial cultures from single colonies were stored 189 at -80°C in YEM broth containing 20% glycerol. Total DNA of the rhizobial cultures was 190 obtained by the following thermal cell lysis procedure: A loopful of bacterial culture was 191 suspended in 20 µl lysis buffer (10% SDS, 1M NaOH) followed by incubation for 15 minutes 192 at 95°C. The lysate was centrifuged at 10,000 g for 45 s and 180 µl of sterile water was 193 added. The DNA extract was centrifuged for another 5 minutes at 10,000 g at 4°C and 194 preserved at -20°C. For the direct DNA extraction from root nodules, genomic DNA of Downloaded from http://aem.asm.org/ on July 8, 2016 by Univ of Dundee

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195 surface-sterilized nodules was obtained using the E.Z.N.A.TM HP Plant DNA Mini Kit196 (Omega bio-tek) as per manufacturer's instructions.

197 PCR amplification of 16S rRNA used universal bacterial primers (27f and 1492r) as 198 previously described (37). Amplicons of nearly complete 16S rRNA were sequenced and 199 subjected to BLAST analyses on GenBank as a first identification tool. Amplification of the 200 recA housekeeping gene and the nodA nodulation gene was carried out with the primers 201 recA-63F, recA-504R, nodA-1F, nodA-2R and PCR parameters as described by Gaunt et al. 202 (38) and Haukka et al. (39). Amplification of the nodC nodulation gene was carried out for 203 selected Fynbos isolates, using the primers nodC-540 and nodC-1160. All primer sequences 204 are listed in Table S3.

Amplified 16S rRNA products from total genomic DNA extractions of the nodules were cloned into a pGEM-T vector (Promega), according to the manufacturer's instructions, and transformed into JM109 *E. coli* by heat shock (40). Purified plasmids and all PCR products were sent to Macrogen for sequencing (Macrogen Inc, Seoul, Korea). Sequencing primers for 16S rRNA, *recA* and *nodA* were the same as for the initial PCR.

210

211 Authentication of cultured rhizobia from field nodules

Nodulation capabilities of isolates from field nodules were tested on siratro (*Macroptilium atropurpureum*) (36). Table S2 lists the authenticated isolates in this study together with previously tested strains (26). Rhizobial isolates from nodules of legume species (*Dipogon lignosus, Indigofera filifolia, Podalyria calyptrata* and *Psoralea pinnata*) grown in the greenhouse were authenticated on their respective host. Nodulation (three replicates) was assessed by either inoculating seedlings with a rhizobial culture (OD₆₀₀) or leaving them uninoculated as negative controls. Authentication was confirmed if isolates nodulated the

219 roots of inoculated plants from all replicated pots, and the uninoculated plants remained 220 nodule-free.

221

222 Phylogenetic analyses of the 16S rRNA, recA and nodA sequence data

223 Sequence reads were assembled and sequence alignments were created with Muscle (32) 224 using Geneious v.5.1.7 (http://www.geneious.com). For the combined phylogeny of 16S 225 rRNA and recA, missing sequences due to the lack of amplification were treated as missing 226 data. Phylogenetic relationships were conducted using Bayesian Inference (BI) and 227 Maximum Likelihood (ML) optimality criteria. Bayesian analyses were carried out in 228 MrBayes v.3.1 (41) after determining the appropriate model of evolution with MrModeltest 229 v.3.06 (42) under the Akaike information criterion. Modeltest selected for the 16S rRNA, 230 recA and nodA datasets the GTR+I+G model. Four Markov Chains were run simultaneously 231 for four million generations, sampling every 100 generations. The initial 25% of trees were 232 regarded as "burnin" and discarded. Convergence of the chains was checked using Tracer 233 v.1.4 (43). ML analyses were performed using RAxML-VI-HPC v.7.0.4 (44). A total of 100 234 RAxML searches were conducted, relying on the GTR-GAMMA model of evolution. 235 Support values were estimated using a multi-parametric bootstrap resampling with 1000 236 pseudo-replicates.

237

238 Geographic distances among Fynbos representatives

239 The genetic variation of rhizobia across spatial scales in the Fynbos was calculated on both 240 chromosomal (recA) and nodulation (nodA) data. Genetic distance matrices for both sets of 241 genes was constructed including our Fynbos isolates and supplemented with previously 242 described rhizobial strains (see Fig. 1). The recA and nodA datasets comprised 134 and 128 243 sequences, respectively, covering genera of the tribes Podalyrieae (Amphithalea, Cyclopia,

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Podalyria, Virgilia), Crotalarieae (Aspalathus, Crotalaria, Rafnia), Hypocalypteae 245 (Hypocalyptus), Phaseoleae (Bolusafra, Dipogon) and Indigofereae (Indigofera). Genetic 246 variation of all pairs of isolates was linked with a geographic distance matrix calculated from 247 their geographic coordinates using the Geographic Distance Matrix Generator, v.1.2.3 (Ersts, 248 American Museum of Natural History, Center for Biodiversity and Conservation). Values of 249 genetic variations were grouped within geographic distance classes (0-200, 201-400, 401-250 600, 601-800 km) and plotted as box plots in R v.2.15.3 (45). The correlation between 251 genetic similarities and geographic distances was investigated using a Mantel test in 252 Genealex 6.501 (46), and its significance was tested on 9.999 permutations.

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244

254 Trapping experiment

255 The legume species Dipogon lignosus (L.) Verdc. (Phaseoleae), Indigofera filifolia Thunb. 256 (tribe Indigofereae), Macroptilium atropurpureum (DC.) Urb. (siratro; tribe Phaseoleae), 257 Mimosa pudica L. (tribe Mimoseae), Podalyria calyptrata C.A. Sm. (Podalyrieae) and 258 Psoralea pinnata L. (Psoraleae) were grown in soil samples from Malawi (Chinyonga, 259 Blantyre - S15.819431, E35.041753) and South Africa (Table Mountain National Park -260 S33.952532, E18.456871). Both sites are part of natural ecosystems with no history of 261 cultivation or rhizobial inoculation. At each locality, soils were sampled from the top 0-20 262 cm from at least three field sites and bulked to generate a composite sample for rhizobial 263 isolation. Soil pH was determined from 4 g samples of sieved (1 mm mesh) mixed in 40 ml 264 1M KCl.

265 The Cape legume species I. filifolia and P. calyptrata are endemic to the Western Cape 266 Province of South Africa. Psoralea pinnata, also endemic to the Fynbos, became naturalized 267 and invasive in South Australia and New Zealand (47). Dipogon lignosus and M. pudica, 268 which are native to South Africa and South America respectively, are also considered as

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invasive (48,49). All legume species of the trapping experiment, except for *Ps. pinnata*, which is strictly associated with *Mesorhizobium* (alpha-class of Proteobacteria) (26), have been shown to form associations with *Burkholderia*. (26,49,50). Siratro is a widely used species known to be very promiscuous with regard to symbionts (51) and was proven previously to be effectively nodulated by *Burkholderia tuberum* (29,52).

274 Nodulation was assessed by growing germinated seedlings (three replicates) in 20 cm 275 diameter plastic pots filled with acid-washed sterile sand and a layer of 200 g of soil (the 276 layer of soil was omitted from negative control pots). Seeds were surface-sterilized in 4% 277 (w/v) sodium hypochlorite for 10 min., rinsed in six changes of sterile water, soaked in 278 boiled water and pre-germinated at room temperature on 1.5% (w/v) agar plates until root 279 emergence. Pots were covered with a layer of nylon PA6 beads (Lomold group HQ, South 280 Africa) and provided with a sterile watering tube to prevent cross-contamination. All plants 281 were watered with sterile de-ionized water every two days. Nodules were harvested from 282 seedlings after two months and rhizobia were isolated on YEMA as previously described.

283

284 *Host range study*

285 Seeds of legume species from the tribes Crotalarieae, Hypocalypteae, Indigofereae and 286 Podalyrieae were used for this study. Seeds were surface-sterilized with concentrated 287 sulphuric acid for 10 min. followed by 4% sodium hypochlorite for 10 min. Seedlings were 288 grown in glass tubes with a sterile mixture of Vermiculite/Perlite as a rooting medium and fed 289 with Jensens N-free plant nutrient medium under aseptic conditions (53). After one week of 290 plant cultivation, seedlings were inoculated with the wild type strains *B. tuberum* STM678^T and B. phymatum $STM815^{T}$ (54). Plants were harvested after 6 weeks and inspected for 291 292 nodule formation and the potential ability to perform symbiotic nitrogen fixation was assessed 293 by the presence of leghemoglobin (Lb). In addition, nodules were fixed and embedded for

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light microscopy to assess their internal structure, as this is also a strong indicator of
effectiveness (26,55). Three species of *Podalyria* and one *Virgilia* species, *V. oroboides* (tribe
Podalyrieae), were also inoculated with a GFP-marked *B. tuberum* STM678 variant strain
(29); nodule preparation and morphological observation of the STM678-GFP construct in
nodule sections, using light and fluorescence microscopy, are according to (29). Uninoculated
plants served as controls.

300

301 Nucleotide sequence accession numbers

The 16S rRNA sequences were deposited in the GenBank database under the accession numbers KF791602-KF791673 and KF824727-KF824733. The *recA* sequences were deposited under accession numbers KF791796-KF791864, KF824747-KF824753, KP013139-PK013158 and KT700208-KT700213. Sequences for the *nodA* sequences were deposited under the accession numbers KF791743-KF791795, KF824740-KF824746, KP013159-KP013178 and KT700202-KT700207. Sequences for the *nodC* sequences were deposited under the accession numbers KP013126-KP013137.

309

310 Results

311 16S rRNA gene sequence cut-off levels used for (putative new) species delineation

312 A large 16S rRNA dataset comprising 75 validly named Burkholderia species was 313 constructed to evaluate the genetic diversity of Burkholderia at five different sequence 314 similarity threshold values ranging from 97% to 99% (Fig. S1). A sequence similarity level 315 to delineate the true number of sequences at species level was obtained between a cut-off 316 value of 98.5% and 99%, resulting in 59 and 96 OTUs. Although there is some controversy 317 about the concept of a species in prokaryotes (56-59) the results of the empirical clustering 318 analysis, using 16S rRNA data, support 98.5% as a conservative threshold value for species 319 level definitions within Burkholderia and corresponds to the general threshold value of 320 98.65% estimated to delineate the global prokaryotic diversity (60). A 98.5% threshold value 321 was used for further diversity calculations of 16S rRNA datasets.

322

323 Phylogenetic clustering of the Burkholderia richness according to geography and legume 324 subfamily

325 The diversity of root-nodulating Burkholderia was classified according to geography and 326 their hosts for different DNA regions (16S rRNA, nifH, nodA and nodC). Table 1 shows the 327 16S rRNA OTUs and clusters of symbiosis genes calculated at a cut-off value of 98.5%, 328 which are identified from different continents and host associations occurring across 329 continents and legume subfamilies. From a total of 23 16S rRNA OTUs, eight groups 330 occurred on more than one continent, including one OTU (number 5) globally distributed 331 across all four continents assessed and three OTUs (numbers 1, 5 and 12) associated with 332 both legume subfamilies (Table 1). Burkholderia tuberum (OTU number 1) was a highly 333 recorded species (107 16S rRNA sequences) associated with eight South African genera 334 (Amphithalea, Aspalathus, Cyclopia, Hypocalyptus, Lebeckia, Podalyria, Rhynchosia and

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338 In contrast to 16S rRNA, fewer nodulation and nitrogen fixation types were shared among 339 continents, including only four nifH (numbers 2, 4, 5 and 9), five nodA (numbers 3, 5, 6, 10 340 and 16) and three *nodC* (numbers 4, 9 and 10) types. One group of *nodC* (type number 4) and 341 one group of *nifH* (type number 4) sequences were globally distributed on all the four 342 continents. A total of five sequence clusters were shared between both subfamilies for nifH 343 (numbers 1 and 4), nodA (numbers 3 and 14) and nodC (number 4). All nodA and nodC 344 sequence clusters associated with both legume subfamilies originate from mimosoids and 345 from the papilionoid hosts Macroptilium and Phaseolus.

346 Phylogenetic NeighborNet analyses for chromosomal (16S rRNA), nitrogen fixation (nifH), 347 and nodulation (nodA and nodC) genes revealed the genetic divergence and clustering among 348 sequence types and their affinities for a geographical locality and legume subfamily (Fig. 2). 349 The genetic distances, proportional to evolutionary divergences, were more pronounced for 350 the symbiosis genes (*nifH*, *nodA* and *nodC*) than for the conservative 16S rRNA gene. For 351 16S rRNA, phylogenetic relationships among OTUs were not structured by geography nor 352 host (Fig. 2A). Large genetic clusters contained OTUs from different continents and 353 subfamilies, confirming the previous observation of shared 16S rRNA types across localities 354 and hosts (Table 1). In contrast to 16S rRNA, NeighborNet analyses of nitrogen fixation 355 (nifH) (Fig. 2B) and nodulation (nodA and nodC) genes (Fig. 2C-D) identified a strong 356 pattern according to geography and host. Genetic clusters were identified, separating the 357 African papilionoids from the South American and Asian mimosoid representatives.

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361 In order to investigate the biodiversity and geographic distribution of Burkholderia at a 362 smaller spatial scale, rhizobia of diverse indigenous Fynbos species were sampled and 363 analyzed using a combination of culture and non-culture based identification techniques. 364 Initially, a standard culture method was applied to selected legume lineages covering most 365 legume groups (Table S2; Amphithalea, Aspalathus, Bolusafra, Crotalaria, Dipogon, 366 Hypocalyptus, Indigofera, Podalyria, Rafnia, Rhynchosia and Virgilia) and all rhizobia were 367 identified as Burkholderia, showing only a single colony morphotype in each root nodule. 368 All cultured strains were authenticated using siratro (Table S2), showing effective nodules 369 and enhanced plant growth compared with nodule-free controls. Only the strain from Rafnia 370 acuminata (Dlodlo 22) failed to form effective nodules on siratro and so was not regarded as 371 a rhizobial symbiont.

372 In addition, a culture independent approach was performed using direct PCR analyses to 373 assess the nodule rhizobial diversity and to confirm single strain occupation within a nodule. 374 PCR amplifications on the total genomic DNA extraction of the intranodular tissue produced 375 high quality and single-copy sequences for all genetic markers investigated, suggesting one 376 dominant Burkholderia strain as nodule resident. Amplified 16S rRNA products were cloned 377 for available nodules in selected species within genera of two legume tribes (Podalyria: 378 Muasya, 6490; 6463 and Indigofera: Muasya & Stirton, 6502B; 6502C) to test the one-379 symbiont one-nodule specificity. For all samples investigated, similar 16S rRNA clones (20 380 per sample) were obtained showing a single bacterial endosymbiont in each nodule.

381 Sequence data of 16S rRNA, *recA* and *nodA* from rhizobia of 26 Podalyrieae (13 individuals,
382 3 genera), 11 Indigofereae (8 individuals, 1 genus), 4 Hypocalypteae (2 individuals, 1 genus),

383 15 Crotalarieae (6 individuals, 3 genera) and 16 Phaseoleae (9 individuals, 3 genera) were

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384 analyzed with Maximum Likelihood and Bayesian phylogenetic analyses (Figs. 3-4), 385 clustering the isolates within diverse reference strains, comprising root-nodulating (B. dilworthii WSM3556^T, B. dipogonis LMG19430^T, B. kirstenboschensis Kb15^T, B. 386 rhynchosiae WSM3937^T, B. sprentiae WSM5005^T, B. tuberum STM678^T) and plant-387 beneficial (B. phytofirmans PsJN^T, B. xenovorans LB400^T) lineages. Our isolates from 388 389 various host legumes (e.g. Amphithalea, Aspalathus, Indigofera, Rafnia, Rhynchosia, 390 Podalyria) were closely related to nodulated representatives (B. kirstenboschensis, B. 391 rhynchosiae, B. tuberum) of the current Fynbos record, but the majority of isolates appeared 392 to be related to bacteria without generally nodulating traits (B. phytofirmans, B. xenovorans)

393

394 Analyses of rhizobial lineages in relation to their geographical provenance showed many 395 widely distributed 16S rRNA OTU types, suggesting genetic similarity of Burkholderia in 396 Fynbos soils. To evaluate the diversity of Fynbos rhizobia in relation to geography at a 397 regional scale, we investigated spatial structuring by the common approach of isolation by 398 distance (61), assuming that geographic distance and population genetic differentiation are 399 expected to correlate positively because population connectivity occurs more frequently 400 among adjacent habitats. For close and distantly located populations, genetic variation was 401 examined among Burkholderia strains, showing no effect of geographical distance on the 402 genetic distance for both recA and nodA sequence data (Fig. 5). Genetic differentiation was 403 constant among the different distance classes (0-200; 201-400; 401-600; 601-800 km), 404 showing mean values of genetic similarities of ca. 94% and 96% for recA and nodA, 405 respectively (Fig. 5). A Mantel test examined the associations between pairwise differences 406 in genetic and geographical distances, rejecting an effect of geographical distance on the 407 genetic *Burkholderia* variation (P > 0.05).

or were grouped apart into clusters without known reference species (Fig. 3).

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408 Similar to geography, no link was observed between *Burkholderia* strains and host genotype. 409 For the majority of hosts, different populations of one legume species were associated with a 410 set of genetically diverse strains of Burkholderia for both chromosomal and nodulation data 411 (Figs. 3-4). Sequence analyses showed that a given Burkholderia lineage was associated with 412 different legume lineages and in turn these host plants accommodated genetically diverse 413 symbionts.

414 Nodulation of Cape legumes in African soils and identity of rhizobial groups

415 Nodulation of the legumes I. filifolia, P. calyptrata and Ps. pinnata, which are restricted in 416 distribution to the Cape Fynbos biome, and the widely distributed species D. lignosus and M. 417 pudica was assessed in South African (Fynbos region) and Malawian (Savanna grassland) 418 soils. The pH of the soil from the Fynbos (pH = 4.6 ± 0.2) was substantially lower than at the 419 Savanna site (pH = 7.1 ± 0.3). Distinct symbiotic associations were found among the 420 legumes with a strong influence of the source of soils on the rhizobia sampled (Figs. 6-7). 421 Podalyria calyptrata (Podalyrieae), I. filifolia (Indigofereae) and D. lignosus (Phaseoleae) 422 were exclusively nodulated by Burkholderia in Fynbos soil, with the exception of one 423 Bradyrhizobium isolate associated with D. lignosus that was from Fynbos soil. None of these 424 legume species nodulated in Malawian soil, except Ps. pinnata (Psoraleeae) and siratro 425 (Phaseoleae) that were able to form nodules in both soils (Table S4), with isolates identified 426 as Mesorhizobium (Ps. pinnata - Fynbos), Burkholderia (siratro - Fynbos) and 427 Bradyrhizobium (Ps. pinnata, siratro - Malawi). Mimosa pudica formed no nodules in either 428 the South African or the Malawian soils.

429 The Burkholderia and Mesorhizobium symbionts isolated from legumes growing in Fynbos 430 soils were placed in different clades (Figs. 6-7) and were highly related (99-100% sequence 431 similarity) to known reference strains previously isolated from various South African 432 legumes (Table S4). The recA and nodA sequence data of bradyrhizobia symbionts from the

Malawian soils were related (97-99%) to known African, South American and European
isolates (Table S4).

435

436 Host range of Burkholderia tuberum and B. phymatum among South African legumes

437 The host range experiment showed that all legumes from the tribes Crotalarieae, 438 Hypocalypteae, Indigofereae and Podalyrieae were able to nodulate successfully with the type strain of *B. tuberum*, STM678^T, except for four *Calpurnia* species, which either did not 439 produce nodules (C. aurea and C. intrusa) or showed ineffective nodulation (C. glabrata 440 441 and C. sericea) (Table 2; Fig. S2). All legume species assessed in the host range experiment 442 are native Fynbos species, except for Calpurnia, where only C. intrusa is found in the 443 karroid vegetation near the Fynbos-dominated Swartberg Mountains. The presence of B. 444 tuberum in the nodule structure was confirmed in Podalyria and Virgilia species by 445 fluorescence microscopy of the GFP transconjugant strain of STM678 (Fig. 8), and in all the 446 other species by immunogold labelling with a Burkholderia-specific antibody (Fig. S2). The type strain of *Burkholderia phymatum*, STM815^T, formed functional nodules on four native 447 448 Fynbos legume species of the tribe Podalyrieae (Cyclopia and Virgilia), whereas other 449 species of the genera Amphithalea (tribe Podalyrieae), Hypocalyptus (tribe Hypocalypteae), 450 Aspalathus and Lebeckia (both tribe Crotalarieae) produced ineffective nodules or remained 451 nodule-free (Table 2; Fig. S2).

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453 Discussion

454 Spatial distribution of root nodulated Burkholderia at continental scale

455 The global survey of the Burkholderia record revealed various geographical and host-related 456 patterns within the 16S rRNA and *nifH*, *nodA* and *nodC* datasets at a continental scale. 457 Chromosomal 16S rRNA types were highly diverse (Fig. 2A, Table 1) and unrelated to the 458 host subfamily or geographical region, whereas nitrogen fixation and nodulation genes are 459 clearly structured by a geographical and host factor (Fig. 2B-D) with only a few sequence 460 groups identified across continents and legume subfamilies (Table 1). The observation of an 461 association between geography, host legume and nodulation genes, showing two large 462 clusters of highly diverged nodulation gene types, according to their geographical origin and 463 host subfamily, corroborates previous Burkholderia studies (12,19). All African distributed 464 rhizobia were clustered in one group, and were highly diverged (<75% gene similarity) from 465 the remaining mimosoid-related Burkholderia.

466 The geographical distribution of the legume host seems to be the key factor, explaining the 467 nodulation and nitrogen fixation gene phylogenetic structure at a continental scale, 468 supporting the idea that the rhizobial biogeography largely follows their hosts (20), which 469 represent two distinct legume floras of South African papilionoids and South American 470 mimosoids in the Fynbos and Cerrado/Caatinga biomes, respectively (12,62). Evidence is 471 accumulating that the vast majority of Mimosa species native to central Brazil are exclusively 472 associated with Burkholderia (10,55), whereas in Mexico, which is considered as another 473 large centre of radiation of the genus, most endemic species are not nodulated by beta-474 rhizobia (17), but are specifically associated with alpha-proteobacteria and only a few 475 lineages are able to form interactions with Burkholderia (11,63). Distinct nodule occupancies 476 of beta- and alpha-rhizobia within the native home range of Brazilian and Mexican Mimosa 477 species, respectively, can be largely explained by a combination of geographical separation Downloaded from http://aem.asm.org/ on July 8, 2016 by Univ of Dundee

Applied and Environmental Microbiology 478 of the various *Mimosa* clades with distinct symbiont preferences, and their subsequent co-479 evolution with rhizobia in contrasting soil types (e.g. acid versus neutral/alkaline soils) (11). 480 Conversely, access and availability of rhizobia, due to varied adaptation to edaphic and 481 climatic factors, may be a critical factor governing dispersal of legumes outside native areas 482 and thereby influence legume biogeographic patterns. The latter may be true for South Africa 483 and Western Australia, which have frequent angiosperm dispersal events in the Cenozoic 484 (64), associated with similarity of niches (Mediterranean climate, oligotrophic acidic soils), 485 yet legumes are one of the few (large) families that do not exhibit disjunction between the 486 two continents. While the endemic Australian tribes Bossiaeeae and Mirbelieae are largely 487 associated with *Bradyrhizobium* lineages (65,66), the tribe Hypocalypteae, which is endemic 488 to South Africa and resolved as a sister group to the mirbelioids is strictly associated with 489 Burkholderia.

490 The nodulation genes nodA and nodC are frequently used to understand the symbiotic 491 specificities and their evolutionary adaptation to a specific host (67). Because nodulation 492 genes are involved in the synthesis of Nod-factors (i.e. rhizobial signaling molecules required 493 for the earliest host responses) they determine the host specificity (68-70) and have been 494 frequently shown to align with their Burkholderia host (12,17,28). The specificity of the 495 symbiotic association of Burkholderia with mimosoid and papilionoid legumes is clearly 496 demonstrated in one single species, B. tuberum, which has distinct nodulation genes or 497 symbiotic variants and has been ascribed to symbiovars mimosae and papilionoideae, 498 respectively (71,72). However, a link between nodA types and the legume subfamily is not 499 strictly predictable for all species. Macroptilium atropurpureum (siratro, Papilionoideae) for 500 example, known as a valuable plant for trapping a broad range of alpha- and beta-rhizobia (52), is able to nodulate with both *B. tuberum* sv. papilionoideae (e.g. $STM678^{T}$) (29) and sv. 501 502 mimosae strains (e.g. STM4801) (71). Similarly, the mimosoid symbiont B. phymatum

STM815^T has been isolated from nodules of the papilionoid *P. vulgaris*, which is known for 503 504 its wide range of symbiotic partners (31). Apart from the records involving promiscuous host 505 legumes (siratro, P. vulgaris), Burkholderia species and their nodulation genes appear to 506 group and evolve in close concert with their mimosoid and papilionoid hosts. However, 507 evidence is accumulating that, although rhizobial species (e.g. B. tuberum sv. papilionoideae) 508 associated with the subfamily of Papilionoideae appear incapable of nodulating mimosoid 509 hosts (29), the opposite is not the case (12). In addition to common bean (73), diverse 510 papilionoids such as the Fynbos species Dipogon lignosus (49) and legumes of the genera 511 Cyclopia and Virgilia (Table 2, Fig. S2) have been demonstrated to form effective nodules 512 with the mimosoid-nodulating B. phymatum-type symbiont (17, 74), confirming its broad 513 host range and ability to associate with legumes of the mimosoid and papilionoid subfamily. 514 While symbiosis genes are largely structured according to legume subfamily, 16S rRNA 515 clusters are more diverse (Fig. 2A), affiliated with various hosts from different parts of the 516 world (Table 1). A widespread occurrence of Burkholderia strains, especially for 16S rRNA 517 types (Table 1), indicates an inter-continental and global distribution pattern for different 518 strains of burkholderias (e.g. B. diazotrophica, B. mimosarum, B. phymatum, B. sabiae and 519 B. tuberum). The occurrence and vast diversity of Burkholderia outside Africa and South 520 America are mostly recorded from pan(sub)tropically distributed Mimosa species (M. 521 pudica, M. pigra, M. diplotricha). Burkholderia symbionts of these widespread invasive 522 plant species are included in the clustering analyses and close relationships of nodulation 523 genes with their native distributed relatives support previous observations that rhizobia are 524 co-transported with the seeds or plants from their native to new invasive habitats. Following 525 the co-introduction hypothesis (75), symbionts that have been co-introduced with their hosts 526 or which have hitchhiked on introduced material over long-distances, bridging geographical 527 barriers between continents, has been evidenced in many studies (15,49,76-78). For

ied and Environmental Microbiology 528 Burkholderia, a plausible long-distance migration event from South Africa to New Zealand, 529 possibly dispersed across the Australian continent, has been reported in the South African 530 papilionoid Dipogon lignosus (tribe Phaseoleae) (79), which is invasive in New Zealand and 531 Australia (49, 79) as revealed by high sequence similarities of the symbiosis genes (nodA 532 sequence clusters 6, 10; nodC sequence clusters 9, 17) between invasive populations of 533 Dipogon and native South African relatives from the genera Bolusafra, Crotalaria, 534 Cyclopia, Hypocalyptus, Indigofera, Podalyria and Rhynchosia.

535

536 Geographical distribution and specificity of Fynbos Burkholderia

537 While the global Burkholderia diversity was structured for the nodulation genes at legume 538 subfamily level, an interaction between rhizobia, host legumes and geographical distribution 539 was not shown at regional scale, showing widely spread and locally diverse Burkholderia 540 populations in the Fynbos. Our results corroborate a previous study, demonstrating the 541 widespread occurrence of Burkholderia and the absence of a site sampling effect on the 542 rhizobial diversity of selected Hypocalypteae and Podalyrieae species (24,30). Using 543 geographical distances as a proxy for population connectivity, genetic variation is expected 544 to correlate positively with the sampling site distances. Our study does not show any 545 correlation between genetic variation and geographical distance, suggesting the absence of 546 genetic isolation through high rates of rhizobial dispersal of both chromosomal and 547 symbiosis traits.

548 In the Fynbos region, local environmental variables, rather than spatial dispersal factors, are 549 most likely the major ecological drivers for rhizobial distributions. In a recent study, Lemaire 550 and associates (26) showed that genetic variation of Fynbos Burkholderia was correlated 551 with differences in site elevation, a feature also observed in symbionts of South American

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552 *Mimosa* species (10); hence the indirect effects of temperature and rainfall may play a 553 significant role in the rhizobial community structure.

554 Symbiotic associations of Fynbos legumes for Burkholderia have been described in many 555 lineages with various degrees of specificity. In the tribe Podalyrieae, a strong preference for 556 Burkholderia is observed, showing all legume species and genera (except for Calpurnia 557 which is not endemic to the Fynbos - Table 2, Figure S2) strictly nodulated with 558 Burkholderia (12,24,26). Other common plant groups such as the tribes Crotalarieae and 559 Indigofereae also contain Burkholderia-philous species, although (closely related) legume 560 lineages within the same tribes and co-occurring in the similar habitats have been recorded 561 with classical alpha-rhizobial lineages ((26) and references therein).

562 In this study, the Burkholderia-legume interaction was further investigated at a finer 563 taxonomic scale. Diverse phylogenetic clusters of Burkholderia strains were observed within 564 native legume genera of the tribes Crotalarieae (Aspalathus, Crotalaria, Lebeckia, Rafnia), 565 Indigofereae (Indigofera), Phaseoleae (Bolusafra, Dipogon, Rhynchosia), Podalyrieae 566 (Amphithalea, Podalyria, Virgilia), but without a host specific pattern (Figs. 3-4). For both 567 chromosomal and nodulation genes, the latter symbiotic genes determining host specificity 568 (68), a relaxed association among genetically similar rhizobia and different legume species, 569 genera and tribes was demonstrated. The variation of host-Burkholderia interactions 570 corroborates a previous rhizobial screening in selected legume genera of the tribes 571 Hypocalypteae (Hypocalyptus) and Podalyrieae (Cyclopia, Podalyria, Virgilia) (24,30). In 572 South America, a similar relaxed host specific interaction has been described for 573 Burkholderia and their mimosoid hosts (10,62). The predominance or prevalence of 574 Burkholderia strains in both papilionoid and mimosoid legumes, but without a host specific 575 pattern, indicates that the host genotype has not been a major factor on the local Burkholderia 576 distribution. This observation is in line with the current host range study, showing selected

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577

Burkholderia tuberum STM678^T and Burkholderia phymatum STM815^T. Strains of B. 578 phymatum, which is found as a common symbiont of Mimosa in French Guiana, Papua New 579 580 Guinea, India and China (12,16,17,71), has not been isolated from field nodules collected in 581 the Fynbos, yet they are able to nodulate selected papilionoids (Dipogon, Cyclopia, Virgilia). 582 The promiscuous character of the papilionoid-Burkholderia symbiosis has previously been 583 demonstrated in other species of Podalyrieae (12) and Phaseoleae (29,49,52). 584 Although Fynbos legumes were generally associated with diverse Burkholderia species,

South African papilionoid species able to form effective nodules with the strains

585 individual root nodules consistently accommodated a single strain. The observation of a 586 single Burkholderia strain per nodule may suggest high selective constraints of the host 587 towards their symbiont. In order to retain a stable and mutualistic interaction, legumes 588 generally hinder the emergence of opportunistic rhizobial strains and select cooperative (i.e. 589 effectively nitrogen-fixing rhizobia) ones over non-beneficial symbionts (referred to as 590 partner choice) (80,81) by providing only one beneficial symbiont with ample carbon 591 resources while an uncooperative nodule occupant is disfavored with host resources (referred 592 to as host sanctions) (82,83). However, the general observation of a relaxed interaction or 593 accommodation of diverse rhizobial strains per host individual may indicate that the one-594 nodule one-strain interaction is a result of high competitiveness for nodulation among 595 rhizobial strains, rather than to selection by the host plant.

596

597 Nodulation of Fynbos legumes outside their distribution range

598 A legume growing in non-native soil can only form nodules when naturalized populations of 599 compatible rhizobia are available in the soil. In our inoculation experiment, siratro and Ps. 600 pinnata nodulated in soils collected from South Africa and Malawi, whereas P. calyptrata, I. 601 filifolia and D. lignosus were nodule-free in the Malawian soil. The inability to form nodules

Applied and Environmental Microbiology 602 in Malawian soil suggests that these legumes, known to exhibit a strong host preference for 603 Burkholderia (24,26,84), did not find their specific Burkholderia symbionts in the Malawian 604 (Savanna) soil, which was substantially higher in pH compared to the Cape soil. The 605 occurrence and success of Burkholderia in South African (Fynbos) soils, but also in the 606 South American Cerrado/Caatinga biomes, can be linked with the general ecological 607 adaptation of these symbionts to acidic soil conditions, which may play a prominent role as 608 ecological driver on the rhizobial diversity (19,27,28,32). In Malawi, legume nodulation by 609 Burkholderia has never been reported as far as we know, and further Burkholderia surveys in 610 other African soils are needed to provide evidence for a more limited distribution pattern on 611 the African continent with the Fynbos biome reported as a major center of diversity.

612 The inability of legumes to form a symbiosis with Burkholderia in Malawian soils does not 613 necessarily indicate the absence of Burkholderia in other regions of Africa (e.g. see report of 614 Burkholderia nodulating the non-native common bean in Moroccan soil (31)), but may also 615 result from incompatible types of symbiosis genes within local Burkholderia communities. In 616 this context, the observation that Mimosa pudica is unable to nodulate within the 617 Burkholderia-rich Fynbos soils, strongly suggests that the necessary mimosoid type 618 nodulation genes (which are genetically distinct from the papilionoid type nodulation genes) 619 are not naturally occurring in these soils. The absence of effective rhizobia and their 620 compatible symbiosis genes is a potential barrier to the colonization of novel habitats by the 621 host legumes. For exotic legumes such as *Mimosa pudica*, it appears that the host needs to 622 bring its own native symbionts into the new environment for an optimal and successful 623 colonization and distribution (15,16).

624 In contrast to legumes with a specific preference for *Burkholderia*, *Ps. pinnata* was nodulated 625 by *Mesorhizobium* in Fynbos soils and by *Bradyrhizobium* in Malawian soil, indicating a 626 more relaxed interaction, albeit one that does not involve beta-rhizobia. Although field 627 nodules of this genus have been consistently associated with *Mesorhizobium* in the Fynbos 628 (26), Bradyrhizobium was also able to nodulate Psoralea effectively, probably in the absence 629 of their preferred *Mesorhizobium* symbionts in these Savanna soils. The genus *Psoralea* has a 630 centre of diversity in the Fynbos but several species occur in montane grasslands in North-631 Eastern South Africa, Mozambique and Swaziland, and two species are naturalized in 632 Australia (47). The current Mesorhizobium diversity from Fynbos Psoralea has been placed 633 in a separate cluster unrelated to known 16S rRNA or *nodA* gene types from other African 634 localities, suggesting rhizobial strains restricted to the Cape region. The Bradyrhizobium 635 isolates from the Malawian soils, however, were closely related to B. elkanii, and are 636 geographically widespread and able to nodulate a broad range of legumes from different 637 continents (65,85-88). In a recent study by Parker (89), a phylogenetic analysis on a broad 638 sampling of *Bradyrhizobium* strains from diverse plant groups provided evidence for a broad 639 host range of most bradyrhizobia lineages, including B. elkanii, that are associated with 640 diverse legume tribes.

641

642 Concluding remarks

643 Burkholderia populations, like many free-living microbes and other (classical) rhizobial 644 groups, are widespread and occur on different continents (except Antarctica and Europe), a 645 phenomenon which can be explained by their capacity for long-distance dispersal. By 646 investigating nodulation genes of publicly available sequence data, rather than taxonomic 647 identities (16S rRNA types), we observed a strong biogeographic relationship, which 648 corresponds largely to two main groups of *Burkholderia* with distinct host related affinities. 649 Indeed, various phylogenetic studies have described taxonomically diverse papilionoid- and 650 mimosoid-associated rhizobia with a geographical structure preserved in the nodulation 651 genes (nodA and nodC), supporting the hypothesis that traits (i.e. nodulation genes) rather

652 than taxon names (i.e. chromosomal genes) are the fundamental units of biogeography (90). 653 In contrast to the global investigation of Burkholderia, regionally distributed species in the 654 Fynbos did not show any geographical distribution pattern. Within the Cape region, genetic 655 variation for both chromosomal and nodulation genes was unrelated to geographical or host 656 factors, suggesting that nodulating Burkholderia are omnipresent in the Fynbos biome and do 657 not constrain the distribution of their native host legumes in terms of compatible symbionts.

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665

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Figure Legends

Table 1.

Occurrence of 16S rRNA OTUs and sequence clusters of symbiosis genes (*nifH*, *nodA* and *nodC*) shared among different continents (South America - SAM, Africa - AFR, Australasia - AUS and Asia - ASI) and host subfamilies (Mimosoideae - MIM and Papilionoideae - PAP). The host genera and reference strains of *Burkholderia* are listed per group (98.5% sequence similarity threshold value). - = not present ¹ *Burkholderia phymatum* STM815^T was allegedly isolated from the papilionoid *Machaerium lunatum* in French Guiana but has never been proven to renodulate its original host (12) or an alternative *Machaerium* species (*M. brasilense*, (17)).

16S rRNA OTU	Geographic Distribution	Host Subfamily	Reference strain	Host Genera of Mimosoideae	Host genera of Papilionoideae
1	SAM-AFR	MIM-PAP	B. tuberum	Mimosa	Amphithalea, Aspalathus, Cyclopia, Hypocalyptus, Lebeckia, Macroptilium, Podalyria, Rhynchosia, Virgilia
3	AFR-AUS	PAP	B. dipogonis	-	Bolusafra, Crotalaria, Cyclopia, Dipogon, Hypocalyptus, Podalyria, Rafnia, Virgilia
4	SAM-ASI-AUS	MIM	B. mimosarum	Mimosa	-
5	SAM-AUS-ASI-AFR	MIM-PAP	B. phymatum	Mimosa, Parapiptadenia, Piptadenia	Machaerium ¹ , Phaseolus
6	SAM-ASI	MIM	B. sabiae	Abarema, Mimosa, Parapiptadenia	-
7	SAM-AUS	MIM	B. diazotrophica	Mimosa, Piptadenia, Anadenanthera	
8	SAM-AUS	MIM	-	Mimosa	-
12	AFR-SAM	MIM-PAP	-	Mimosa	Hypocalyptus

	cluster nifH
	gene
	1
	2
	4
5	5
	9
Ě	Sequence
	cluster nodA
2 0	gene
<u>ĕ</u> .	3
p - q	5
Aicr	6
	10
2	14
Ć	16
	6

Sequence

SAM

AFR-AUS

SAM-AUS-ASI-AFR

SAM-ASI-AUS

SAM-ASI-AUS

SAM-ASI-AUS

AFR-AUS

AFR-AUS

SAM-ASI

SAM

AFR-AUS

MIM-PAP

MIM-PAP

MIM-PAP¹

мім

РАР

PAP

мім

MIM-PAP

PAP

MIM

PAP

B. tuberum

B. tuberum B. phymatum/B.

diazotrophica

B. mimosarum

B. rhynchosiae

B. phymatum

B. dipogonis

B. tuberum

B. sabiae

B. rhynchosiae

B. mimosarum

gene					
4	SAM-AUS-ASI-AFR	MIM-PAP	B. phymatum/B. diazotrophica	Anadenanthera, Mimosa	Phaseolus
9	AFR-AUS	PAP	B. dipogonis	-	Crotalaria, Dipogon
10	SAM-ASI	MIM	B. mimosarum	Mimosa	-

Mimosa

Mimosa

Mimosa

Mimosa

Mimosa

Mimosa

Mimosa

Abarema, Anadenanthera,

Macroptilium

Machaerium¹, Phaseolus

Dipogon, Rhynchosia

Machaerium

Podalyria

Macroptilium

Amphithalea, Aspalathus, Crotalaria, Cyclopia, Dipogon, Hypocalyptus, Indigofera, Lebeckia, Podalyria, Rafnia, Virgilia

Crotalaria, Cyclopia, Dipogon, Hypocalyptus, Virgilia,

Bolusafra, Dipogon, Indigofera, Rhynchosia

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Table 2.

Nodulation of selected Fynbos species after inoculation with *Burkholderia tuberum* $STM678^{T}$ or *B. phymatum* $STM815^{T}$. E = effective nodulation; I = ineffective nodulation, considered if inoculated plants are not greener than uninoculated controls and only few and white nodules are visible; - = not tested. New reports of nodulation are indicated in bold. ¹Nodules tested with both *Burkholderia tuberum* $STM678^{T}$ and STM678GFP.

*Data from Elliott et al. (29)

Crotalarieae Aspalathus carnosa Bergius E no nodules Lebeckia ambigua E.Mey. E no nodules Hypocalypteae Hypocalyotus coluteoides (Lam.) B.Dahlgren E
Aspalathus carnosa Bergius E no nodules Lebeckia ambigua E.Mey. E no nodules Hypocalypteae
Lebeckia ambigua E.Mey. E no nodules Hypocalypteae Hypocalyotus coluteoides (Lam.) R.Dahlgren E -
Hypocalypteae Hypocalyptus coluteoides (Lam.) R.Dahlgren E -
Hypocalvptus coluteoides (Lam.) R.Dahlgren E -
Hypocalyptus sophoroides (P.J.Bergius) Baill. E
Indigofereae
Indigofera filifolia Thunb. E -
Podalyrieae
Amphithalea ericifolia (L.) Eckl. & Zeyh E I
Calpurnia aurea (Aiton) Benth. no nodules -
Calpurnia glabrata Brummitt I -
Calpurnia intrusa (W.T.Aiton) E.Mey. no nodules -
Calpurnia sericea Harv. I -

Cyclopia subternata Vogel	E	Е
Cyclopia genistoides (L.) Vent.	E*	Е
Cyclopia intermedia E.Mey.	E*	Е
Liparia laevigata Thunb.	E	-
Liparia splendens (Burm.f.) Bos & de Wit	E	-
Podalyria burchellii DC.	E	-
Podalyria calyptrata (Retz.) Willd.	E1	-
Podalyria canescens E.Mey.	E1	-
Podalyria leipoldtii L.Bolus	E	-
Podalyria myrtillifolia Willd.	E ¹	-
Podalyria rotundifolia (P.J.Bergius) A.L.Schutte	E	-
Podalyria sericea R.Br	E	-
Stirtonanthus taylorianus (L.Bolus) BE.van Wyk & A.L.Schutte	E	-
Virgilia oroboides (P.J.Bergius) T.M.Salter	E1	Е
Xiphotheca fruticosa (L.) A.L.Schutte & BE.van Wyk	E	-

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Figure 1

Map of South Africa showing the geographical distribution of sampling sites within the Western and Eastern Cape Provinces. Records of our isolates are indicated with white squares, whereas samples from other studies are shown with black dots.

Figure 2

NeighborNet networks of (A) 16S rRNA, (B) *nifH*, (C) *nodA* and (D) *nodC* sequence types. Sequence types exclusively recorded from one continent are shown by colored circles (Africa – green circles, South America – red circles, Asia – blue circles, Australasia – yellow circles). Numbers of sequence clusters sharing isolates from different continents and/or legume subfamily are shown in grey squares as listed in Table 1. Bootstrap support values below and above 50% are shown with grey and black branches, respectively. Scale bar represents substitutions per site.

Figure 3

Phylogenetic tree of rhizobial isolates of the Fynbos biome based on 16S rRNA and *recA* data. Support values for the Bayesian and Maximum Likelihood analyses are given at the nodes (Bayesian posterior probabilities – bootstrap support values for the Maximum Likelihood analysis). Reference strains are shown in bold.

Figure 4

Phylogenetic tree of rhizobial endosymbionts based on *nodA* data. Support values for the Bayesian and Maximum Likelihood analyses are given at the nodes (Bayesian posterior probabilities – bootstrap support values for the Maximum Likelihood analysis). Reference strains are shown in bold.

Figure 5

Box plots of pairwise genetic distances for (A) *recA* and (B) *nodA* sequence data grouped within four spatial distance classes (0-200; 201-400; 401-600-601-800 km). Box plots represent observations within 95% confidence intervals and the whiskers

extend from the box to the highest and lowest values, excluding outliers, which are shown as circles. The line across the box indicates the median.

Figure 6

Phylogenetic tree based on recA sequences of rhizobial isolates sampled from the trapping experiments. The closest reference strains obtained from BLASTN searches (see Table S4) are included in the analyses. Bayesian support values are given at the nodes. Geographic distribution of the isolates and reference strains are shown for each taxon. Number of substitutions per site is shown on the phylogram.

Figure 7

Phylogenetic tree based on nodA sequences of rhizobial isolates sampled from the trapping experiments. The closest reference strains obtained from BLASTN searches (see Table S4) are included in the analyses. Bayesian support values are given at the nodes. Geographic distribution of the isolates and reference strains are shown for each taxon. Number of substitutions per site is shown on the phylogram.

Figure 8

Fluorescence (A,C,E,F) and normal transmitted light (B, D) microscopy of sections (50 µm) from nodules of Podalyria calyptrata (A-B), P. canescens (C, D), P. myrtillifolia (E) and Virgilia oroboides (F) showing infected cells containing symbiotic bacteroids (*) as either green fluorescent (A, C, E, F) or dense opaque (B, D) regions in the nodule center. The green-yellow colour in the nodule cortex (A, C, E, F) results from autofluorescence of lignin and suberin. Bars = $100 \,\mu m$.

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(C)



(D)

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⊷0.01



0.08 substitutions per site



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Geographic distance (km)

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0.07 substitutions per site





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