

Herbivory, nitrogen, and stomatal length structure endophyte bacterial community composition of sessile oak (*Quercus petraea*)

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We studied the relationship between plant functional foliar traits and the endophytic bacterial communities associated in trees, taking the example of sessile oak (*Quercus petraea* (Matt.) Liebl). Forty-five samples with replicates of eight leaves per sample were collected in spring, summer and autumn. Bacterial community diversity was analyzed via Automated Ribosomal Intergenic Spacer Analysis (ARISA). The leaf traits specific leaf area, level of herbivory, stomatal number, stomatal length, carbon and nitrogen concentration were measured for the leaves of each sample. For statistical analysis, linear mixed effect models, the Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA) and Non-Parametric Multivariate Analysis of Variance (NPMANOVA) were applied. Herbivory, nitrogen and carbon concentration were significantly different in autumn compared to spring and summer (p value < 0.05), while stomatal length was differentiated between spring and the other two seasons (p value < 0.01). The seasonal differentiation of the bacterial community structure was explained by the first and second axes (29.7 % and 25.3 %, respectively) in the CCA. The most important foliar drivers resulted to be herbivory, nitrogen concentration and stomatal length.

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16 Short title: Endophytes and foliar traits in oak

17

18 ABSTRACT

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20 communities associated in trees, taking the example of sessile oak (*Quercus petraea* (Matt.) Liebl).
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31 most important foliar drivers resulted to be herbivory, nitrogen concentration and stomatal length.

32

33 INTRODUCTION

34 One of the major interfaces of biological interaction is between microbiota and plants. While many
35 integrative studies exist, regarding description of bacterial taxa related to host plants and linking
36 bacterial and plant communities across different spatial scales (e.g. symbiosis), temporal scales
37 remain less unexplored. Plant functional traits are increasingly used in ecological research and are
38 a promising avenue to link plant characteristics to environmental factor in interdisciplinary
39 researches (*Cornwell et al., 2008; Wellstein et al., 2011*). Leaf environment is characterized by
40 foliar functional traits that are hypothesized to affect the hosted microbiome. In the context of the
41 leaf environment of deciduous trees and inhabiting endophytic bacteria, intra-annual dynamics are
42 of special interest.

43 Endophytic bacteria are ubiquitous inhabitants that colonize the inner parts of most
44 terrestrial plant species beyond the epidermal cell layers (*Lodewyckx et al., 2015; Santoyo et al.,*
45 *2016*). Inside the plant, there are diverse ecological niches in which endophytic bacteria can
46 survive and grow, i.e. within cells, in the intercellular space and in the vascular systems (*Jacobs,*
47 *Bugbee & Gabrielson, 1985; Bell et al., 1995*). Endophytic bacteria are very important to the host
48 plant as they can contribute to the maintenance of its growth and health by, e.g. promoting nutrient

49 acquisition and defense against pathogens (*Hirano et al. 1982; Afzal, Khan & Sessitsch, 2014*).
50 This is particularly true for long-lived plant species such as trees and consequently they could
51 affects forest ecosystems (*Griffin & Carson, 2015; Griffin et al., 2016; Griffin et al., 2017; Tashi-*
52 *Oshnoei, Harighi & Abdollahzadeh, 2017*). Endophytic bacteria have often long-term ecological
53 interactions with the host plants including symbiosis, mutualism and commensalism. They can
54 either be obligate or facultative endophytes. Obligate endophytes are strictly associated with the
55 host plant and they are eventually transferred vertically through plant generations (*Santoyo et al.,*
56 *2016*). Facultative endophytes originate from the surrounding environment and they are often
57 included within epidermal cell layers (*Hardoim, van Overbeek & van Elsas, 2008*). More
58 complicate is the definition of endophytic pathogens, since historically endophytes have been
59 defined as non-harmful microorganisms (*Hallmann et al., 1997*). Recently the advances of
60 molecular microbiology have shown the complex dynamics of pathogenesis possibly related to the
61 physiologic behavior of entire microbial communities, rather than of a single strain (*Fürnkranz et*
62 *al., 2012; Erlacher et al., 2014*). In this respect, harmful and beneficial endophytes could have in
63 common several mechanisms to colonize and diffuse into plant tissues (*Berg, Eberl & Hartmann,*
64 *2005*).

65 Different plant organs have diverse ways of colonization. Free-living soil microorganisms
66 colonize roots (*Bulgarelli et al., 2012; Edwards et al., 2015*). Leaf endophytic bacteria, especially
67 in case of tall trees, can be acquired from the leaf surface via stomata that represent apertures in
68 the foliar tissue connected to the intercellular space (*Ou et al., 2014; Carrell, Carper & Frank,*
69 *2016; Griffin & Carson 2015*). It has been hypothesized that leaves are a suitable surface for
70 exchange with bacteria inhabiting the atmosphere (*Bowers et al., 2009*). Microbial communities
71 inhabiting leaves, including endophytic bacteria, appear to be rather specialized, given that they
72 share less than 1% of the bacterial species with soil (*Kim et al., 2012*).

73 While numerous publications are focused on leaf epiphytes (*Hirano et al., 1982; Balint-*
74 *Kurti et al., 2010; Lopez-Velasco et al., 2011*), leaf endophytic bacteria remain largely unexplored.
75 Moreover, the possible role of plant functional traits for bacterial community dynamics represents
76 a research gap. In detail, there are a few studies regarding the temporal dynamic and the
77 environmental factors driving the endophytic bacterial communities associated with forest tree
78 species. Previous works revealed that endophytes are subject to leaf age and leaf developmental
79 stage in grapevine and in elm (*Mocali et al., 2003; Bulgari et al., 2014*). However, the potential

80 drivers affecting the endophytic bacteria composition behind leaf aging are still not well
81 understood, especially in forest plants. To the best of our knowledge, no papers have been
82 published so far about a possible linkage between endophytic community assemblages, seasonality
83 and leaf plant traits. Since it well known that stomata represents the main door for bacterial leaf
84 colonization (*Underwood, Melotto & He, 2007*), it is reasonable hypothesize that any changes of
85 stomata morphology due to leaf ageing could provoke consequences on the final endophytic
86 community composition. This could reflect the previous results of Mocali et al. (*2003*) and of
87 Bulgari et al. (*2014*).

88 In our study, we aimed to test (i) if there is a temporal gradient associating leaf aging with
89 bacterial turnover and (ii) if foliar plant traits are linked to bacterial community dynamics across
90 time. For this reason, we tested two hypotheses: (i) seasonality affects endophytic bacterial
91 community structure due to changes in foliar chemical composition, and (ii) there is a strict link
92 between endophytic bacterial community structure and foliar traits because some traits, such as
93 stomatal length, could favor the entering of bacterial cells into leaves. To assess the validity of our
94 hypotheses, we investigated a sessile oak forest located in the on Alps in the Northern Italy through
95 an entire growing season.

96

97 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

98 **Study site and sampling**

99 The study area is located in the Monticolo nature reserve on the hillslopes of the Mitterberg at 550
100 m a.s.l. in South Tyrol, Italy. The selected study site is representative of the present oak forest,
101 dominated by sessile oak (*Quercus petraea* (Matt.) Liebl.) with few specimens of Scots pine (*Pinus*
102 *sylvestris* L.) in the tree layer as well as of Sweet chestnut (*Castanea sativa* Mill.) and Manna ash
103 (*Fraxinus ornus* L.) in the understory. The forest grows on acidic shallow soil above porphyry
104 bedrock on a west-south-west oriented slope. We selected five individuals of sessile oak within
105 the study site, i.e. a circular plot of 15 m radius (706 m²) representing relatively homogeneous site
106 conditions within the slope. From each tree, we selected three branches taking eight leaves from
107 the same branch, which were used to assess the endophytic bacteria as well as the foliar functional
108 traits. Branches were chosen to have the maximum distance between them, i.e. an angle of 120°C
109 between two adjacent branches. In detail, we used three leaves for the functional traits
110 measurements and five leaves for the determination of the endophytic bacterial microbial

111 community. We sampled three subsequent seasons in the year 2014, i.e. spring (June 5th), summer
112 (August 25th) and autumn (October 20th). A total of 120 leaves per season was collected, 45 leaves
113 were used for the analysis of functional traits while 75 for the analysis of endophytes.

114 We measured six functional traits related to important plant functions, i.e. specific leaf area
115 (SLA), leaf nitrogen content (N), leaf carbon content (C), C:N ratio, stomatal number (STNR) and
116 stomatal length (SL). SL is a measure for the size of stomata (*Taiz & Zeiger, 2002*). For each
117 season, we determined the SLA of the leaves following standard protocols (*Pérez-Harguindeguy*
118 *et al., 2013*). For each leaf, the area was measured the sampling day using a scanner (CanoScan
119 Lide, Canon, Cernusco sul Naviglio, Italy). Subsequently, leaves were oven dried at 70°C for 72
120 hours to obtain their dry weight and the SLA, measured in mm² mg⁻¹, was calculated (*Pérez-*
121 *Harguindeguy et al., 2013*). N and C were determined using an elemental analyzer (Flash 2000
122 Organic Elemental Analyzer, Thermo Scientific, Milan, Italy) pooling together the three leaves of
123 each branch.

124 To measure stomatal characteristics, we applied the clear nail polish method described by
125 Hilu & Randall (1984) obtaining epidermal impressions of the abaxial surface of each leaves that
126 were examined under an optical microscope (Leica DMLS, Leica Biosystems, Nussloch,
127 Germany) connected to a digital camera. The images were analyzed through the image processing
128 software DeltaPix InSight, (DeltaPix, Smorum, Denmark). The stomata were counted on three
129 fields of view per leaf on a standard counting area at 400 x magnification to determine the stomatal
130 density as number of stomata (STNR) for each standard counting area. On each counting area, the
131 length of the guard cells of stomata (SL) was measured for 15 randomly selected stomata.

132 Additionally, the percentage of consumed leaf area was estimated to describe leaf-level
133 herbivory. We considered only those leaves exhibiting types of insect-mediated damages that
134 would not affect SLA, i.e. hole feeding, margin feeding and sucking (*Labandeira et al., 2007*).

135 Insect-mediated damage types have been recorded using the classification of Labandeira
136 et al. (2007) for herbivory, i.e. hole feeding, margin feeding, skeletonization, surface feeding,
137 piercing and sucking, oviposition, mining and galling. As a further damage-type, leaf-rolling was
138 recorded.

139

140 **DNA extraction and Automated Ribosomal Intergenic Spacer Analysis (ARISA)**

141 Leaves used for microbiological analysis were processed within 4 hours as follows (Hrynkiewicz
142 K., personal communication): Five leaves for each replicate were disinfected with 70% ethanol
143 twice each for 3 min. Leaves were then washed with sodium hypochlorite (1.5%) and TWEEN®
144 20 for ten minutes, three rinses in sterile, distilled shaking water. Disinfected leaves were grinded
145 to a fine powder under liquid nitrogen using a sterile mortar and pestle. The disinfected samples
146 were stored at -20°C. Triplicates of the water used in the last rise were used as negative for PCR
147 amplification and plated on a LB and TSA medium to verify the disinfection protocol. Absence of
148 PCR amplification products was observed. Furthermore, absence of bacterial colonies was
149 observed in all the plates after 10 days of incubation at 30°C.

150 DNA was extracted using the Qiagen DNeasy PowerPlant Pro Kit (Qiagen, Milan, Italy)
151 accordingly to the user's manual. Extracted DNA was stored at -80°C. The quality and the size of
152 the soil DNA were checked by electrophoresis on 1.2% agarose gel with a marker (Eurogentec
153 Smart Ladder, Belgio). The absorbance (260 nm) of 2 µl of DNA was used to evaluate the
154 concentration of DNA by NanoVue Spectrophotometer (GE Healthcare, Little Chalfont, UK).

155 The 16S-23S rRNA Internal Transcribed Spacer (ITS)-PCR was performed using the
156 primers ITSF and ITSReub labeled with 6-FAM according to the chemical and thermal
157 amplification protocol of Cardinale et al. (2004). Capillary electrophoresis was done by STAB
158 Vida Lda. (Caparica, Portugal). Data were investigated via Peak Scanner Software 1.0 (Applied
159 Biosystems, Monza, Italy) and the downstream matrix was normalized and analyzed according to
160 Borruso, Zerbe & Brusetti (2015).

161

162 **Data analysis**

163 PAST software (Hammer, Harper & Ryan, 2001) was used for the statistical analysis. ANOVA
164 was used to test for differences in the endophytic bacterial richness between seasons. Canonical
165 correspondence analysis (CCA) of the endophytic microbial community structure in dependence
166 of functional leaf traits and season was performed. Non-Parametric Multivariate Analysis of
167 Variance (NPMANOVA) with Bonferroni corrected p -value was applied to investigate differences
168 among the endophytic bacterial communities across the three seasons using Bray-Curtis
169 dissimilarity distance.

170 Linear discriminant analysis (LDA) effect size (LEfSe) algorithm was used to identify taxa
171 preferentially abundant in each season using default parameters. Briefly, the algorithm identifies
172 the indicator bacterial taxa specialized within the 3 seasons (Segata et al., 2011).

173 Given the nested design of the experiment, the variation of leaf functional traits across the
174 three seasons was investigated applying linear mixed effect models in R (R Development Core
175 Team 2014 version 3.1.2), using *nlme* package (Pinheiro et al., 2017). For SLA, SL, STNR, N, C,
176 C:N and herbivory we analyzed each trait as response variable, season as fixed variable and, as
177 random factor, we nested the branches from which we sampled the leaves in the respective trees.
178 We log transformed the data that did not satisfied the assumption of variance normality tested with
179 Shapiro test.

180

181 **RESULTS**

182 **Functional leaf traits and insect-mediated damage types**

183 Figure 1 and Table 1 shows the results of functional leaf traits investigated in this study across the
184 three sampling seasons. Leaf N and C were significantly lower in autumn than in spring and
185 summer ($p < 0.01$). The C:N ratio and the level of herbivory were significantly higher in autumn
186 than in spring and summer ($p < 0.01$). SL was significantly higher in spring compared to summer
187 and autumn ($p < 0.01$). Among the insect mediated damage types searched in our plots, the
188 herbivory-mediated damage was due to the damage-types of hole feeding, margin feeding and
189 sucking. STNR and SLA did not show significant differences across the seasons ($p > 0.05$).

190

191 **Bacterial community structure**

192 An average of 82 ± 15 peaks per sample representing bacterial richness, ranging from 200 bp to
193 1200 bp, were found. No significant results in terms of number of peaks across the three seasons
194 were found (spring 82 ± 9 ; summer 86 ± 19 and autumn 79 ± 14 ; ANOVA p -value: n.s.).
195 NPANOVA showed significant differences between the bacterial community structure of spring
196 and of autumn ($p < 0.001$), while the bacterial community structures of summer did not cluster
197 apart representing a bridge between the two seasons (Table 2). Scattered peaks in between the
198 range 550-850 bp were mostly found in spring and autumn, causing the separation between these
199 two seasons. The LDA showed that 13 ARISA peaks were responsible of the discrimination of
200 spring with respect to the other seasons, 14 peaks were typically discriminant for summer, and 9

201 for autumn. Most of those peaks were situated in the 550-880 bp slot, confirming the NPANOVA
202 results (Table 3).

203

204 **Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA)**

205 Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) was used to investigate the effects of functional leaf
206 traits and the level of herbivory on endophytic bacterial communities across the seasons.
207 Differentiation is illustrated by the first and second axes in the CCA (29.7% and 25.3%,
208 respectively) and the leaf features fitted into the CCA. The CCA ordination diagram (Figure 2)
209 revealed first, that community structure variation appeared along season (temporal sequence) and,
210 second, the existence of relationships between plant foliar traits and endofoliar microbiota across
211 the temporal sequence. In detail, the community variation is related mainly to the level of
212 herbivory, N and SL, and less to STNR, C and SLA (length of vectors in the ordination diagram;
213 Figure 2).

214

215 **DISCUSSION**

216 We explored the seasonal diversity behavior via fingerprinting ARISA of the of leaf endophytic
217 bacterial communities. ARISA is a corroborate technique used to investigate bacterial structure
218 variations and the correlations with environmental parameters (*Esposito et al., 2013; Borruso,*
219 *Zerbe & Brusetti 2015; Pioli et al., 2018*) with a comparable robustness as Next Generation
220 Sequencing (*van Dorst et al., 2014*). Differently by other fingerprinting techniques such as the
221 Length Heterogeneity-PCR or the Denaturing Gradient Gel Electrophoresis of the partial 16S
222 rRNA genes, ARISA can investigate the bacterial community at a deeper taxonomic resolution.
223 Actually, ARISA can reach the subspecies level (*Danovaro et al., 2006*), via detection of the length
224 polymorphisms of the internal 16S-23S ribosomal DNA spacers within the several copies of
225 ribosomal operons in a bacterial cell (typically from 1 to 10 copies; *Gürtler, 1999*). Although the
226 endophytic bacterial communities did not show significant differences in alpha diversity across
227 the three seasons, their beta diversity differed mainly between spring and autumn (Table 2 and
228 Figure 2). These results support the idea of an intimate association between endophytes and the
229 leaf, seen as a dynamic micro-ecosystem that selects for different specific microbial communities
230 along time. Regarding which taxa contribute to the observed difference between seasons, even if
231 the attribution of single ARISA peaks to specific taxa cannot be conclusive due to the real

232 possibility that a peak could be represented by several taxa from different phyla, a putative raw
233 taxon attribution could be done. For instance, according to some authors, many Gram negative
234 bacterial species harbor ITS with tRNA genes (*Triplett et al., 1999; Ranjard et al., 2000*). Their
235 spacers usually range between 500 and 800 bp (*Gürtler & Stanisich, 1996*). On the other side Gram
236 positive bacteria harbor shorter ITS, while rhizobia have very long spacers, often longer than 1000
237 bp (*Gürtler & Stanisich, 1996*). The length range between 500 and 600 bp is what had been
238 observed in our case differentiating spring to autumn. We could hypothesize that seasons have an
239 effect on the diversity of Gram negative bacteria. A different answer of Gram negative bacteria
240 rather than Gram positive bacteria due to different environmental pressures had already been
241 observed in other plant-related compartments, such as rhizosphere (*Cicczazzo et al., 2014*).

242 Leaves have been traditionally considered as “short-lived environment”, where specialized
243 bacteria can dynamically colonize new niches and leave others according to the leaf continuous
244 modifications over seasons (*Vorholt, 2012*). Bulgari et al. (2014) hypothesized that the endophytic
245 communities in *Vitis vinifera* should remain stable across the seasons in absence of bacterial plant
246 pathogens such as phytoplasma. However, this is in contrast with our findings and those of other
247 researchers. Influence of the seasonality on endophytic microbial community composition
248 associated with different tree species (i.e. *Acer negundo*, *Ulmus pumila*, and *U. parvifolia*) were
249 also found by Shen & Fulthorpe (2015). Moreover, others observed that the bacterial community
250 composition in the phyllosphere was primarily driven by temporal changes and community
251 succession (*Copeland et al., 2015*). In order to shed light on the processes behind community
252 changes, we explored the role of leaf functional traits in bacterial structure dynamics. In fact,
253 previous studies investigated the effect of migration and community succession in the phyllosphere
254 microbiome and suggested that colonization, persistence, and succession of the community may
255 be key-factors driving the phyllosphere microbiome (*Redford & Fierer, 2009; Shade, McManus*
256 *& Handelsman, 2013; Maignien et al., 2014; Copeland et al., 2015*). The relevance of
257 environmental conditions such as temperature optima of the bacteria or the changing physiology
258 of tree host species have been discussed for their possible effects (*Jansson & Douglas, 2007*).
259 However, previous studies did not look deeper into possible drivers in terms of plant functional
260 characteristics behind the observed dynamical processes of the microbiome.

261 Given that we found a clear endophytic seasonal variation, it is highly interesting to
262 understand better the potential leaf-level drivers behind the compositional variation. In fact, based

263 on our results, we suggest that foliar characteristics related to leaf-level herbivory, nutrient
264 contents and stomatal length aperture affect directly the bacterial community composition over
265 time.

266 As a matter of fact, herbivory could be an effective way to inoculate microbial insects
267 symbionts, commensals and pathogens into plant tissues. It is the case, for instance, of
268 phytoplasmas inoculated into grapevine by Hemiptera-like leafhoppers (Gonella et al., 2008; *Alma*
269 *et al.*, 2018). In our forest plots, several herbivory traces have been recorded during the
270 experiments. In general, the majority of insect species causes single distinct damages on leaves
271 (Labandeira et al., 2007). From a survey of herbivory types on *Quercus petraea* leaves in the forest
272 of Monticolo, we detected seven types of recurring damages, i.e. margin feeding (detected in the
273 90% of the observed leaves), surface feeding (61%), hole feeding (45%), sucking (31%),
274 skeletonization (12%), mining (12%) and leaf rolling (9%). This number of herbivory damage
275 types justifies the perception of a relatively high insect diversity since it has been shown that there
276 is a quantitative relation between the richness of damage types and the insect species richness
277 (*Carvalho et al.*, 2015). Phloem-feeding insects could act as inoculating vectors of entire bacterial
278 communities between different plant individuals, moving bacterial strains from a tree to another
279 (*Lòpez-Fernàndez et al.*, 2017). It is reasonable to hypothesize that, as insect abundance and
280 diversity may change due to season variation (*Grimbacher et al.*, 2018), also the endophytic
281 bacterial communities potentially transmissible among tree individuals change, hence contributing
282 to our observed results.

283 In addition, stomata are the major door for the leaf colonization by foliar bacterial
284 pathogens (*Underwood, Melotto & He, 2007; Melotto, Underwood & He, 2008*). To counteract
285 the entrance of potential pathogens, plants have evolved a number of mechanisms to detect and
286 remove pathogenic bacterial cells from their tissues, regulating to some extent the access of
287 bacteria through stomata (*Gimenez-Ibanez et al.*, 2017). This is due to the ability of plants in
288 detecting specific molecular signals such as bacterial lipopolysaccharides, flagellins or elongation
289 factors (*Underwood, Melotto & He, 2007*). Consequently, plants close the majority of their leaf
290 stomata. However, bacteria may overcome this mechanism of defense, entering into the leaf
291 intercellular spaces by taking advantage of those stomatal guard cells that are not able to react to
292 the presence of bacterial signals (*Underwood, Melotto & He, 2007*). We observed that SL
293 influenced the shaping of the endophytic community structure, especially in spring (Fig. 2). This

294 observation could mirror the entrance of specific as well as unspecific bacterial strains into leaves
295 when the leaves were growing. Actually, Gailing et al (2008) found that in *Quercus robur* the
296 variability of stomatal number is genetically determined. Additionally, Turner & Heichel (1977)
297 demonstrated for *Quercus rubra* that SL reaches its maximum before leaves developed their
298 maximum areas in late spring. It is plausible that bacteria enter into the leaf as soon as it has
299 flushed, and then a sort of successional dynamic is established until reaching an equilibrium once
300 the stomata shape are fixed. The difference in SL between spring leaves from summer and autumn
301 leaves may depend by the contraction of the leaf pool available for measurements caused by the
302 loss of the leaves that occur both naturally during the vegetative season (Brooke et al., 1996) and
303 because of the detected herbivory.

304 Finally, leaf nutrient contents and their changes can influence bacteria (Kembel et al.,
305 2014). It has been shown that endophytic bacterial taxa able to fix nitrogen occur in oak species
306 (Tashi-Oshnoei, Harighi & Abdollahzadeh, 2017), in the wild poplar *Populus trichocarpa* leaves
307 (Doty et al., 2016), and in *Pinus flexilis* needles (Moyes et al., 2016), helping plants establishment
308 and growth in N-limited environment. Eventually, a drop in leaf nitrogen content could challenge
309 bacterial shifts towards nitrogen-fixing taxa and in contrast to denitrifying bacteria.

310 Our results of diminishing nutrients such as C and N with leaf aging is in line with other
311 studies (Li et al., 2017), while other functional traits related to the stomata, such as STNR and
312 SLA did not vary significantly along season. Another study on leaf traits of seven different woody
313 species grown under experimental conditions shed light on their seasonal variation (Römermann
314 et al., 2016). The results of this study highlight that SLA and stomatal size were robust traits across
315 season in terms of small intraspecific variation. In comparison, our species *Q. petraea* also has
316 stable STNR and SLA levels. However, as explained above, the changes in SL most likely reflect
317 changes in the leaves' pool of the forest as the leaves' pool was diminished by herbivory and
318 browsing that led to leaf loss after the spring season. Moreover, herbivory, that increases over
319 season due to elongated exposure time, can have a direct impact on endophytic bacteria as well as
320 an indirect effect by influencing other leaf characteristics. For example, the open structures of the
321 leaf, limited to the size and number of stomata in intact leaves, are largely modified by herbivory
322 that exposes further leaf tissue. Due to the increasing rate of changes that can be assumed with
323 aging (Suzuki et al., 1987; Chavana-Bryant et al., 2017), we expect that leaf characteristics exert
324 a differential impact during aging on the bacterial community.

325

326 **Conclusions**

327 Based on our findings, we suggest that herbivory, nitrogen content, and size of stomatal
328 aperture at the leaf level are main drivers affecting the endophytic bacterial community
329 composition in oaks growth in alpine forest environments. We argued that herbivory and stomata
330 length are the main doors from where bacteria enter to colonize the leaf. Consequently, the
331 endophytic community assemblages switch during the progression of seasons, when the stomatal
332 length increases during the leaf germination and elongation, and when the chemical characteristics
333 of the leaf are different from those in autumn.

334

335 **Acknowledgements**

336 We thank Prof. Giustino Tonon for the access to the Monticolo site area, managed under the
337 NITROFOR project.

338

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553 **Figure and Tables captions**

554

555 **Figure 1** Differences of foliar traits (N = nitrogen, C = carbon, C:N = carbon/nitrogen ratio, SLA=
556 specific leaf area, SL = stomatal length, STNR = stomatal number per reference area, HERB =
557 level of herbivory) among three seasons (spring, summer, autumn). Significant differences
558 according to linear mixed effect models followed by post-hoc test are indicated by different lower
559 case letters. Graphics without letters were not significant. Detailed results of linear mixed effect
560 models are given in Table 3.

561

562 **Figure 2** CCA analysis of endophytic communities across a temporal sequence (spring: blue dots;
563 summer: green dots; autumn: red dots) and plant foliar traits. CCA was calculated with the
564 following plant foliar traits: HERB = level of herbivory; STNR = number of stomata; SLA =
565 specific leaf area; SL = length of stomata; N = leaf nitrogen content; C = leaf carbon content.

566

567 **Table 1** Results of linear mixed effect models for each trait . A: leaf nitrogen content; B: leaf
568 carbon content; C: C:N ratio; D: specific leaf area (SLA); E: stomatal length (SL); F: stomatal
569 number /STNR): G: herbivory level. Each single trait was analyzed as response variable, season
570 as fixed variable and branches nested in the respective trees as random variable. The basic level
571 (intercept) corresponds to the spring season.

572

573 **Table 2** *P* value results from Non-Parametric MANOVA (NPMANOVA) with Bonferroni
574 corrected *p* value among endophytic bacterial communities across the three seasons (Bray-Curtis
575 dissimilarity).

576

577 **Table 3** OTU biomarkers characterizing each single season on the basis of the Linear Discriminant
578 Analysis effect size.

Figure 1

Differences of foliar traits among the three analyzed seasons

Differences of foliar traits (N = nitrogen, C = carbon, C:N = carbon/nitrogen ratio, SLA= specific leaf area, SL = stomatal length, STNR = stomatal number per reference area, HERB = level of herbivory) among three seasons (spring, summer, autumn). Significant differences according to linear mixed effect models followed by post-hoc test are indicated by different lower case letters. Graphics without letters were not significant. Detailed results of linear mixed effect models are given in Table 3.

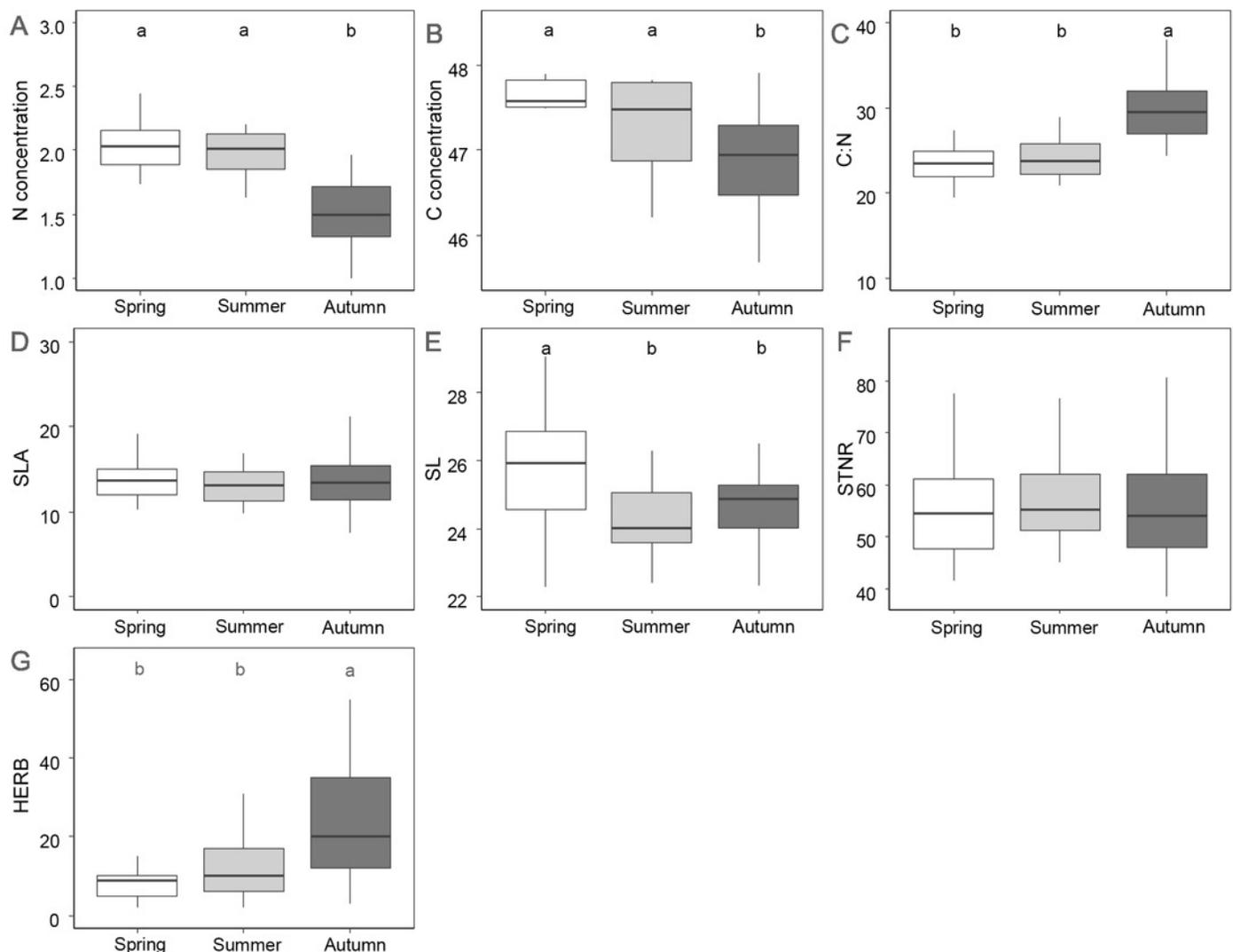


Figure 2

CCA analysis of endophytic communities across the three seasons

CCA analysis of endophytic communities across a temporal sequence (spring: blue dots; summer: green dots; autumn: red dots) and plant foliar traits. CCA was calculated with the following plant foliar traits: HERB = level of herbivory; STNR = number of stomata; SLA = specific leaf area; SL = length of stomata; N = leaf nitrogen content; C = leaf carbon content.

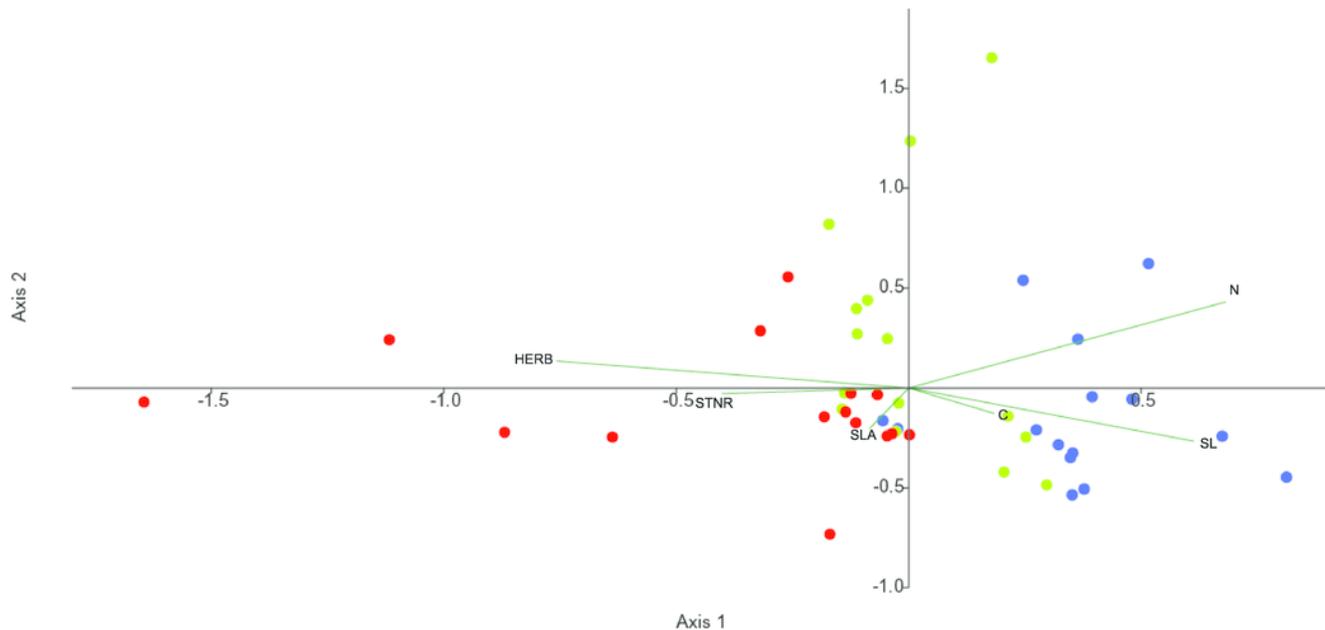


Table 1 (on next page)

NPMANOVA of the endophytic community structures

P value results from Non-Parametric MANOVA (NPMANOVA) with Bonferroni corrected *p* value among endophytic bacterial communities across the three seasons (Bray-Curtis dissimilarity).

1 **Table 1** Results of linear mixed effect models for each trait (N = leaf nitrogen content, C = leaf
 2 carbon content, C:N = C:N ratio, SLA = specific leaf area, SL = stomatal length, STNR = stomatal
 3 number, HERB = herbivory level). Each single trait was analyzed as response variable, season as
 4 fixed variable and branches nested in the respective trees as random variable. The basic level
 5 (intercept) corresponds to the spring season.

6

Trait	Fixed effect	Value	Std.Error	DF	t-value	p-value
N	(Intercept)	2.04	0.07	28	30.67	0.00
	Summer	-0.07	0.09	28	-0.85	0.41
	Autumn	-0.57	0.09	28	-6.51	0.00
log(C)	(Intercept)	3.86	0.00	28	882.56	0.00
	Summer	-0.01	0.00	28	-1.68	0.10
	Autumn	-0.02	0.00	28	-4.90	0.00
log(C:N)	(Intercept)	3.16	0.05	28	69.09	0.00
	Summer	0.03	0.06	28	0.54	0.59
	Autumn	0.33	0.06	28	5.82	0.00
SLA	(Intercept)	13.98	0.99	28	14.05	0.00
	Summer	-0.84	1.26	28	-0.66	0.51
	Autumn	0.97	1.26	28	0.77	0.45
SL	(Intercept)	25.69	0.58	28	44.00	0.00
	Summer	-1.66	0.31	28	-5.44	0.00
	Autumn	-1.49	0.31	28	-4.87	0.00
STNR	(Intercept)	55.48	3.87	28	14.35	0.00
	Summer	2.37	1.72	28	1.38	0.18
	Autumn	0.81	1.72	28	0.47	0.64
log(HERB)	(Intercept)	2.08	0.13	28	16.29	0.00
	Summer	0.39	0.17	28	2.30	0.03
	Autumn	0.88	0.17	28	5.16	0.00

7

Table 2 (on next page)

Linear mixed effect models for each leaf trait

Results of linear mixed effect models for each trait (N = leaf nitrogen content, C = leaf carbon content, C:N = C:N ratio, SLA = specific leaf area, SL = stomatal length, STNR = stomatal number, HERB = herbivory level). Each single trait was analyzed as response variable, season as fixed variable and branches nested in the respective trees as random variable. The basic level (intercept) corresponds to the spring season.

1 **Table 2** *P* value results from Non-Parametric MANOVA (NPMANOVA) with Bonferroni
2 corrected *p* value among endophytic bacterial communities across the three seasons (Bray-Curtis
3 dissimilarity).

4

Seasons	Summer	Autumn
Spring	0.0804	0.0009
Summer	/	0.2484

5

6

Table 3 (on next page)

LEfSe analysis showing the main OTU biomarkers characterizing each single season.

OTU biomarkers characterizing each single season on the basis of the Linear Discriminant Analysis effect size.

1 **Table 3** OTU biomarkers characterizing each single season on the basis of the Linear Discriminant
 2 Analysis effect size.

3

OTU	Season	LDA-score	p-value
OTU620	Autumn	3.22	0.033
OTU660	Autumn	3.51	0.016
OTU713	Autumn	3.26	0.043
OTU833	Autumn	2.93	0.043
OTU582	Autumn	4.05	0.000
OTU600	Autumn	3.24	0.035
OTU1160	Autumn	2.83	0.039
OTU640	Autumn	3.09	0.034
OTU850	Autumn	3.06	0.035
OTU222	Spring	4.38	0.000
OTU454	Spring	4.00	0.000
OTU671	Spring	3.07	0.043
OTU530	Spring	3.15	0.004
OTU286	Spring	3.18	0.007
OTU361	Spring	3.90	0.000
OTU213	Spring	2.95	0.014
OTU547	Spring	3.65	0.043
OTU238	Spring	3.68	0.050
OTU383	Spring	3.23	0.043
OTU474	Spring	3.68	0.043
OTU654	Spring	4.36	0.004
OTU519	Spring	3.79	0.024
OTU350	Summer	3.08	0.008
OTU575	Summer	3.27	0.042
OTU573	Summer	3.54	0.030
OTU316	Summer	2.98	0.014
OTU842	Summer	2.67	0.043
OTU598	Summer	3.13	0.015
OTU662	Summer	3.16	0.030
OTU666	Summer	2.87	0.014
OTU529	Summer	3.17	0.004
OTU995	Summer	2.91	0.014
OTU727	Summer	2.79	0.043
OTU1119	Summer	2.70	0.014
OTU564	Summer	2.79	0.043
OTU634	Summer	2.82	0.043

