- 1 Diversity of isoprene-degrading bacteria in phyllosphere and soil communities from a
- 2 high isoprene-emitting environment: a Malaysian oil palm plantation
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- 4 Ornella Carrión^{1+*}, Lisa Gibson¹⁺, Dafydd M.O. Elias², Niall P. McNamara², Theo A. van Alen³, Huub
- 5 J.M. Op den Camp³, Christina Vimala Supramaniam⁴, Terry J. McGenity⁵, J. Colin Murrell^{1*}
- ¹School of Environmental Sciences, University of East Anglia, Norwich Research Park, Norwich, NR4
 7TJ, UK
- ²UK Centre of Ecology & Hydrology, Lancaster Environment Centre, Library Avenue, Bailrigg,
 Lancaster, LA1 4AP, UK
- 10 ³Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Science, IWWR, Radboud University Nijmegen,
- 11 Heyendaalseweg 135, NL-6525 AJ Nijmegen, The Netherlands
- 12 ⁴School of Biosciences, Nottingham Centre of Sustainable Palm Oil, University of Nottingham-Malaysia,
- 13 Jalan Broga, 43500 Semenyih, Selangor Darul Ehsan, Malaysia
- 14 ⁵School of Life Sciences, University of Essex, Colchester, UK
- ¹⁵ ⁺These authors contributed equally to this work
- 16
- 17 *Corresponding authors:
- 18 J Colin Murrell, ¹School of Environmental Sciences, University of East Anglia
- 19 Norwich Research Park, NR4 7TJ, UK
- 20 E-mail: j.c.murrell@uea.ac.uk
- 21 Tel: (+44) 01603 592959
- 22
- 23 Ornella Carrión, ¹School of Environmental Sciences, University of East Anglia
- 24 Norwich Research Park, NR4 7TJ, UK
- 25 E-mail: o.carrion-fonseca@uea.ac.uk
- 26 Tel: (+44) 01603 592239
- 27
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29 Abstract

Background: Isoprene is the most abundantly produced biogenic volatile organic compound (BVOC) on Earth, with annual global emissions almost equal to those of methane. Despite its importance in atmospheric chemistry and climate, little is known about the biological degradation of isoprene in the environment. The largest source of isoprene is terrestrial plants, and oil palms, the cultivation of which is expanding rapidly, are among the highest isoprene-producing trees.

Results: DNA stable isotope probing (DNA-SIP) to study the microbial isoprene-36 degrading community associated with oil palm trees revealed novel genera of 37 isoprene-utilising bacteria including Novosphingobium, Pelomonas, Rhodoblastus, 38 Sphingomonas and Zoogloea in both oil palm soils and on leaves. Amplicon 39 sequencing of *isoA* genes, which encode the α -subunit of the isoprene 40 monooxygenase (IsoMO), a key enzyme in isoprene metabolism, confirmed that oil 41 palm trees harbour a novel diversity of *isoA* sequences. In addition, metagenome 42 assembled genomes (MAGs) were reconstructed from oil palm soil and leaf 43 metagenomes and putative isoprene degradation genes were identified. Analysis of 44 unenriched metagenomes showed that *isoA*-containing bacteria are more abundant in 45 soils than in the oil palm phyllosphere. 46

47 Conclusion: This study greatly expands the known diversity of bacteria that can
48 metabolise isoprene and contributes to a better understanding of the biological
49 degradation of this important but neglected climate-active gas.

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Keywords: Isoprene, climate, isoprene monooxygenase, DNA stable isotope probing,
oil palm.

53 Background

Isoprene (2-methyl-1, 3-butadiene), with atmospheric emissions of 400-600 Tg·y⁻¹, is 54 the most abundantly produced biogenic volatile compound (BVOC) on Earth. This is 55 approximately one-third of the total volatile organic compounds (VOCs) emissions and 56 almost equal to global annual emissions of methane [1, 2]. Due to its volatile nature 57 and high reactivity, isoprene plays a complex role in atmospheric chemistry and hence, 58 59 climate. In pristine environments with low levels of nitrogen oxides (NOx), isoprene reacts with hydroxyl radicals (OH) and reduces the oxidising capacity of the 60 61 atmosphere, which in turn increases the lifetime of greenhouse gases such as methane. However, when NOx are present at high levels, as commonly found in urban 62 areas, they react with isoprene to form nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) and increase the 63 tropospheric levels of ozone, which has detrimental impacts on air quality, human 64 health and impedes progress towards many of the UN sustainable development goals 65 [3-6]. Conversely, the products of isoprene oxidation can form secondary aerosols and 66 act as cloud condensation nuclei, resulting in a global cooling effect [7]. 67

While there are some industrial sources of isoprene (0.8 Tg \cdot y⁻¹), primarily from the 68 production of synthetic rubber [8], the vast majority of isoprene emissions (~90%) 69 originate from terrestrial plants [9, 10], with small contributions from marine algae (0.1-70 71 12 Tg·y⁻¹), bacteria, fungi and animals [9, 11-16]. The enzyme responsible for isoprene production in plants is isoprene synthase, the presence and activity of which can vary 72 significantly even between closely related species [17-20]. In isoprene-emitting plants, 73 isoprene is produced in the chloroplast via the methyl-erythritol 4-phosphate (MEP) 74 75 pathway [21]. Isoprene synthase is responsible for converting dimethylallyl diphosphate (DMAPP) to isoprene. Despite the fact that up to 2% of the carbon fixed 76 by isoprene-emitting plants contributes to the synthesis of isoprene [22-23], its role in 77

plants is not fully understood. It has been reported that isoprene improves the resilience of plants to oxidative, thermal and biotic stresses [23-26]. However, the molecular mechanisms behind these processes have not yet been fully elucidated. In addition, it has been recently suggested that isoprene may play a role in regulating gene expression in plants [27].

83 While the production and atmospheric fate of isoprene has been well studied, biological consumption in the isoprene biogeochemical cycle remains relatively 84 unexplored. Field chamber and continuous-flow studies have shown that soils are a 85 biological sink for isoprene at environmentally relevant concentrations [28-30]. Several 86 bacterial strains capable of growing on isoprene as a sole carbon and energy source 87 have been isolated from soils, phyllosphere and aquatic environments (reviewed in 88 [31]). Most of these strains are Gram-positive Actinobacteria, although more recent 89 studies have led to the isolation of Gram-negative Proteobacteria expanding the 90 known diversity of isoprene-degrading bacteria [32]. All characterised isoprene-91 utilising microorganisms contain six genes (*isoABCDEF*) that encode the isoprene 92 monooxygenase (IsoMO) enzyme, which catalyses the first step in the isoprene 93 degradation pathway. Adjacent genes isoGHIJ encode enzymes involved in the 94 subsequent steps of isoprene metabolism [33]. The IsoMO belongs to the soluble 95 diiron monooxygenase (SDIMO) family [34] and the α-subunit contains the diiron 96 centre at the putative active site. The gene encoding this IsoMO α -subunit, *isoA*, is 97 highly conserved in isoprene-utilising bacteria and is an excellent marker gene for 98 isoprene degraders [35, 36]. The development of probes targeting isoA has been a 99 100 successful approach to investigate the distribution, diversity and abundance of isoprene degraders in several environments, including oil palm soils and leaves [35]. 101 However, it is important to combine the use of isoA probes with other cultivation-102

103 independent techniques such as DNA stable isotope probing (DNA-SIP) [37] to investigate the diversity of active isoprene degraders in the environment and to better 104 assess the role that microbes play in the biogeochemical cycle of isoprene. Indeed, 105 previous DNA-SIP experiments with ¹³C-labelled isoprene have led to the identification 106 of novel genera of isoprene degraders in phyllosphere and soil environments, such as 107 Sphingopyxis, Ramlibacter and Variovorax [32, 38]. In turn, the sequencing 108 information provided by these DNA-SIP experiments has allowed the design of 109 targeted cultivation strategies that resulted in the isolation of representative strains of 110 111 these novel genera of isoprene degraders [32], which now can be used as model microorganisms to study how isoprene metabolism is regulated. 112

The oil palm tree (*Elaeis guineensis*) is one of the highest isoprene-producing trees, 113 with estimated emissions of 175 μ g·g⁻¹ (dry leaves)·h⁻¹ [39]. Oil palm is a major crop 114 across South East Asia and is the source of 30% of the world's vegetable oil [40], and 115 in countries such as Malaysia it covers >85% of total agricultural land, with an ongoing 116 annual land usage increase of 6.9% attributed solely to oil palm cultivation [40, 41]. 117 Therefore, the vast expansion of a single crop that emits such high amounts of 118 isoprene have raised serious concerns about the impact of oil palm plantations on air 119 quality [42]. Here, we combine cultivation-dependent techniques with DNA-SIP, isoA 120 and 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing, and focussed metagenomics, to study the 121 isoprene-degrading microbial communities associated with oil palm trees in a 122 Malaysian plantation, both from the phyllosphere and from the soil nearby. 123

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127 Results and Discussion

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129 Identification of active isoprene-degrading bacteria using DNA-SIP
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131 Diversity of bacteria from soils in the vicinity of oil palm trees

Analysis of 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequences showed that the unenriched bacterial 132 community from soils in the vicinity of oil palm trees was very similar across replicates. 133 confirming that extraction and handling procedures were consistent (Fig S1 and Fig 134 S2 show the relative abundance (RA) of 16S rRNA genes in these environmental 135 samples). The unenriched soil microbial community (S T0) was mainly composed of 136 Proteobacteria (40.8 ± 0.5% RA), Actinobacteria (13.1 ± 0.7%), Bacteroidetes (11.2 ± 137 1.4%) and Acidobacteria (10.8 \pm 0.6%, Fig S1), all of which are dominant phyla in soils 138 [43-46]. The most abundant genera were Rhodoplanes (5.9 ± 0.1%) and 139 Flavobacterium ($4.0 \pm 0.9\%$; Fig S2). 140

141 Soils were then enriched with ¹³C-isoprene to identify the active isoprene degraders in this environment through DNA-SIP (see Methods). Sequencing of the 16S rRNA 142 genes of the ¹³C-heavy fractions showed that, although there was considerable inter-143 sample variability, Rhodoblastus (10.2-33.7%) and Pelomonas (14.2-54.9%) were 144 highly enriched in all soil replicates (S 13C H; Fig 1). Novosphingobium was one of 145 the major genera labelled in the ¹³C-heavy fractions of replicates 2 (S 13C H R2) and 146 3 (S 13C H R3) representing 47.8% and 24.5%, respectively. Finally, Sphingomonas 147 dominated the isoprene-degrading community of replicate 3 (S 13C H R3) with a RA 148 of 42.4% (Fig 1). These four genera had 19 to 90-fold higher RA in ¹³C-heavy (S 13C 149 H) than in the ¹³C-light (S 13C L) soil fractions, and constituted 28.7-40.2% of the total 150 microbial community of the unfractionated soils incubated with ¹³C-isoprene (13C UF; 151

Fig S2), which strongly suggest that they are active isoprene degraders. As expected, *Novosphingobium, Pelomonas, Sphingomonas* and *Rhodoblastus* also dominated the ¹²C-isoprene-incubated microbial community (S 12C L) and each genus had a very similar RA to those of the unfractionated ¹³C-samples (S 13C UF; Fig S2).

Previous DNA-SIP experiments and cultivation-dependent studies have identified 156 157 members of Sphingomonadaceae (Sphingopyxis) and Comamonadaceae (Ramlibacter and Variovorax) as isoprene degraders with a functional IsoMO [32, 36, 158 38]. However, this is the first evidence that other genera of these families such as 159 Sphingomonas, Novosphingobium and Pelomonas are likely to be able to metabolise 160 isoprene. In addition, *Rhodoblastus* is the first member of the *Beijerinckiaceae* family 161 to be implicated in isoprene degradation. Therefore, it will be interesting to attempt to 162 isolate representative strains of this genus in future studies in order to confirm this 163 ability. 164

DNA-SIP and 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing showed that the oil palm soil 165 harbours a distinct isoprene-degrading bacterial community from soils beneath 166 temperate trees that emit high levels of isoprene, such as willow. DNA-SIP 167 experiments using willow soil incubated with ¹³C-labelled isoprene identified 168 Rhodococcus, Ramlibacter and Variovorax as the major genera labelled in the ¹³C-169 heavy fractions [32]. However, these genera represented <1% of the ¹³C-heavy (S 170 13C H) fractions from oil palm soil. Also, other well-characterised isoprene-degrading 171 microorganisms, such as Gordonia, Nocardioides, Mycobacterium and Sphingopyxis 172 species [32, 47, 48], constituted only a small part of the isoprene-degrading community 173 (<1%) from soils taken from the vicinity of oil palm trees. 174

Both unenriched samples and heavy DNA fractions from these soil incubations were 175 also subjected to metagenomic sequencing. Community composition of raw reads was 176 assessed with MetaPhIAn2 [49]. As MetaPhIAn2 uses a range of clade-specific marker 177 genes to assess the phylogeny of the metagenomics reads, results differed slightly 178 from those obtained using 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing analysis. According 179 to the phylogenetic analysis of the soil metagenomes, the unenriched soil (S T0) 180 181 community was dominated by Proteobacteria (81.5%), Actinobacteria (7.8%) and Acidobacteria (6.3%; Fig S1), confirming the results obtained by the analysis of the 182 183 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing data. The most abundant bacteria in the unenriched soils that could be classified at the genus level belonged to Cupriavidus 184 (14.2%), followed by Pseudogulbenkiania (13.2%) and Burkholderia (11.7%; Fig 1). 185

Metagenomic sequencing revealed that ¹³C-heavy fractions from replicates 1 and 2 (S 186 13C H R1-2) were dominated by *Thiomonas* (34.5%) and *Gordonia* (18.2%), whereas 187 replicate 3 (S 13C H R3) had a higher abundance of Gordonia (47%) and Sphingobium 188 (21.8%; Fig 1). However, these genera represented <1% of the ¹³C-heavy fractions in 189 the 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing data. It is not surprising to find members of 190 Gordonia dominating the isoprene-degrading community, since strains from this genus 191 have been shown to contain a complete isoprene degradation gene cluster [48]. 192 However, this study provides the first evidence that Thiomonas and Sphingobium 193 species may be also able to catabolise isoprene. 194

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196 Diversity of bacteria from the phyllosphere of oil palm trees

The bacterial community of unenriched oil palm leaf (L T0) samples was dominated by Proteobacteria (74.5 \pm 0.3%, Fig S1), which is not surprising since Proteobacteria

have been found to be the most abundant phylum in the phyllosphere of several plant species [50-53]. Firmicutes also constituted a major component of the unenriched bacterial community from oil palm leaves (22.1 ± 0.2%, Fig S1), as has been reported for some trees and agricultural plants [51, 52, 54-55]. The most abundant genera in the oil palm phyllosphere were *Acinetobacter* (26.4 ± 0.7%), followed by *Clostridium* (22.0 ± 0.2%) and *Enterobacter* (11.6 ± 0.2%; Fig 2).

The 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing data showed that the diversity of the 205 isoprene-degrading community of the samples incubated with ¹³C-isoprene (L 13C H) 206 was highly consistent between replicates, with Gordonia (51.4 ± 9.4%) and Zoogloea 207 (12.3 ± 2.2%) being the most abundant genera (Fig 2). The RA of Gordonia and 208 Zoogloea was 84.9 and 58.2-fold higher in the ¹³C-heavy (L 13C H) compared to the 209 ¹³C-light (L 13C L) fraction, respectively (Fig S3), indicating that they are active 210 isoprene degraders. In addition, these two genera constituted 10.8% of the total 211 microbial community of the ¹³C-unfractionated (L 13C UF) samples and, as expected, 212 were also highly abundant in the ¹²C-isoprene-incubated (L 12C L) microbial 213 community (13.6%; Fig S3). 214

Strains of Gordonia that grow on isoprene as sole carbon and energy source have 215 been isolated previously from leaves of an oil palm tree in the Palm House of Kew 216 Gardens, London [32]. However, although a number of SIP experiments with ¹³C-217 isoprene have been performed with samples from a wide range of environments, 218 including the phyllosphere, estuaries and soils, no members of the *Zoogloea* genus or 219 220 the order *Rhodocyclales* have been identified as active isoprene degraders [32, 36, 38, 48]. Here, the identification of *Zoogloea* as an isoprene degrader indicates that the 221 variety of microorganisms able to metabolise this important climate-active gas is 222 greater than previously known. 223

Rhizobium also had a relatively high RA (8.5 \pm 2.2%) in all replicates from ¹³C-heavy fractions (L 13C H) compared to the unenriched (L T0) samples (Fig 2). However, its RA was 2.2-fold higher in the ¹³C-heavy (L 13C H) than the ¹³C-light (L 13C L) fractions, which is the same ratio observed between the ¹²C-heavy (L 12C H) and the ¹²C-light (L 12C L) fractions (Fig S3). Therefore, based on these data, and since no strains of this genus have been isolated from this environment to corroborate its ability to degrade isoprene, *Rhizobium* spp. cannot be yet confirmed as isoprene degraders.

Previous SIP experiments exploring the phyllosphere of other high isoprene-emitting 231 trees from temperate regions, such as poplar, identified *Rhodococcus* and *Variovorax* 232 as the major players in isoprene degradation [38]. However, in our experiment, the 233 phyllosphere from tropical oil palm trees yielded a distinct profile of active isoprene 234 degraders, with Gordonia and Zoogloea being the main genera enriched in the ¹³C-235 heavy fractions and *Rhodococcus* and *Variovorax* showing a low RA (2.1 \pm 0.4% and 236 <1%, respectively). The RA of other well-characterised isoprene degraders such as 237 Sphingopyxis, Ramlibacter, Nocardioides or Mycobacterium [32, 48] also represented 238 <1% of the labelled bacterial community from oil palm leaves (L 13C H). 239

Phylogenetic analysis of the unenriched leaf (L T0) metagenomes confirmed that the unenriched bacterial community of the oil palm phyllosphere was overwhelmingly dominated by Proteobacteria (99.1% RA; Fig S1). At the genus level, metagenomics analysis also supported the 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing data, since *Acinetobacter* (40.8% RA) and *Enterobacter* (12.7% RA) were highly abundant in the unenriched phyllosphere community, together with *Pantoea* (15.5% RA; Fig 2).

Metagenomic data showed that *Gordonia* constituted 93.7% of the isoprene-degrading community of oil palm leaves (L 13C H R1-3; Fig 2), in accordance to the 16S rRNA

gene amplicon sequencing results. However, no *Zoogloea* sequences were identified
in the ¹³C-heavy fractions in the metagenomic analysis probably due to the different
approach that MetaPhIAn2 uses to assign the phylogeny of the reads compared to the
16S rRNA gene amplicon analysis.

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253 Comparison of isoprene degraders from soils and phyllosphere of oil palm trees

Studying the microbial diversity associated with plants is an essential step to 254 understand host-microbiome interactions. However, only a few studies comparing 255 microbial communities of phyllosphere and soils associated with the same plant 256 species have been conducted to date (e.g. [54, 56-57]). Here we show that the 257 unenriched bacterial communities from oil palm soils (S T0) and leaves (L T0) are 258 distinct even at the phylum level (Fig S1), as reported for other plant species [54], 259 although both soil and leaves are dominated by Proteobacteria. The 16S rRNA gene 260 amplicon sequencing data also revealed that the active isoprene-degrading bacteria 261 from soil samples were phylogenetically more diverse than those from the oil palm 262 phyllosphere (see above). 263

When comparing the unenriched soil (S T0) and leaf (L T0) communities, it is interesting to note that although each major player in isoprene degradation was present in these contrasting environments at similar RA (Table S1), they responded differently to isoprene enrichment (S 13C H and L 13C H). This suggests that the physiochemical conditions and/or interactions with other groups of microorganisms shapes the composition of the isoprene-degrading community in a particular environment.

In addition, unenriched soil and leaf oil palm metagenomes (S T0 and L T0) were 271 analysed for the presence and relative abundance of *isoA* genes. Metagenomic data 272 showed that *isoA*-containing bacteria were 5-fold more abundant in soil samples (1%) 273 of Bacteria) than in the phyllosphere samples (0.2% of Bacteria). Metagenomes 274 obtained in previous studies of unenriched samples from high isoprene-emitting trees 275 from temperate regions, such as poplar [38] and willow [32], were also analysed for 276 277 comparison. Results showed that 0.7% of Bacteria from soil beneath a willow tree and 0.02% of Bacteria from poplar leaves contained *isoA* genes. These data, though 278 279 sparse, showed the same trend observed in the oil palm environment, with soils containing greater numbers of bacteria with the genetic potential to degrade isoprene 280 than the phyllosphere. This finding is surprising considering the greater availability of 281 isoprene in the canopy than at ground-level [58] and indicates that soils could be a 282 more important sink for isoprene than previously thought. 283

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285 <u>Recovery of metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs)</u>

Assembled contigs from soil and leaf metagenomes were used to reconstruct 286 metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs) using MaxBin2 [59]. A total of 20 MAGs 287 from soil and 52 from leaf samples were obtained (Table S2). From these, two MAGs 288 from soils and three from leaf ¹³C-heavy DNA metagenomes with >75% completeness 289 and <10% contamination contained genes encoding homologous polypeptides to 290 IsoABCDEF (E<1e-40). MAGs containing IsoMO-encoding genes from soil 291 incubations were taxonomically classified as Novosphingobium and Rhizobiales, and 292 leaf MAGs were classified as Gordonia, Zoogloeaceae and Ralstonia (Table S3). 293

The Novosphingobium soil-associated MAG contained the full isoprene degradation 294 gene cluster (*isoABCDEFGHIJ*) on a single contig along with *aldH1*, which encodes 295 an aldehyde dehydrogenase [33]. However, no further accessory genes were 296 recovered (Fig 3). The products of these genes shared 76.2-100% amino acid identity 297 (Table S4) with the corresponding polypeptides from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5, a 298 Sphingomonadales strain isolated from oil palm [32]. When the diversity and 299 abundance of *isoA* genes in the ¹³C-heavy DNA fractions from soil samples were 300 analysed by isoA amplicon sequencing, two amplicon sequence variants (ASVs), 301 302 ASV44 and ASV11, were identified, closely related to the IsoA from the Novosphingobium MAG (>99% amino acid identity; Table S5). These two ASVs 303 represented 7.9% of the isoA genes of the ¹³C-heavy DNA fraction from replicate 2 304 and 11% from replicate 3, respectively (Fig 4). 305

A Rhizobiales MAG was also reconstructed from ¹³C-heavy DNA soil samples. 306 Although this MAG had a high completeness (97.6%) and low contamination (2.5%), 307 it showed a high strain heterogeneity (79%; Table S3), indicating that the MAG 308 originated from DNA from one or more closely related microorganisms, thus making 309 identification at a higher resolution difficult. Despite this, a complete isoprene 310 degradation gene cluster (*isoABCDEFGHIJ*) plus aldH1 were located in a single contig 311 (Fig 3). When these genes were translated, they exhibited an amino acid identity of 312 54.8-84.9% to the homologous proteins from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5, except for isoD, 313 the product of which was more closely related to IsoD from Ramlibacter sp. WS9 [32] 314 (Table S4). *isoA* gene amplicon sequencing analysis revealed that the ASVs closely 315 related to the IsoA from the *Rhizobiales* MAG (>71% amino acid identity; Table S5) 316 dominated the *isoA*-containing bacterial community from all ¹³C-heavy DNA soil 317 replicates, comprising a total of $78 \pm 6.8\%$ of the *isoA* genes in these samples (Fig 4). 318

The Gordonia phyllosphere MAG was identified to the species level as Gordonia 319 polyisoprenovorans i37 [48] (average nucleotide identity; ANI: 96.7%) and contained 320 all IsoMO-encoding genes isoABCDEF, along with downstream genes isoGHIJ (Fig. 321 3). This MAG also contained aldH2, CoA-DSR and gshB, which are accessory genes 322 often found within the isoprene degradation gene cluster in Gram-positive bacteria and 323 encode an aldehyde dehydrogenase, a CoA-disulfide reductase and a glutathione 324 325 synthetase, respectively [33]. All the genes associated with the isoprene degradation pathway recovered in the Gordonia MAG encoded polypeptides that shared >94% 326 327 amino acid identity to the corresponding proteins from Gordonia polyisoprenovorans i37, except for IsoB (82.1%) and AldH1 (83%; Table S4). When the ¹³C-heavy DNA 328 fractions from leaf samples were analysed by isoA amplicon sequencing, several 329 ASVs with a high percentage of amino acid identity to the IsoA from the Gordonia MAG 330 (>93%; Table S5) were recovered. However, ASV1, which showed 100% amino acid 331 identity to IsoA from the Gordonia MAG, overwhelmingly dominated the isoA-332 containing bacterial community, representing $91.9 \pm 7.3\%$ of the *isoA* genes in these 333 samples (Fig 4). 334

The remaining two phyllosphere MAGs, Zoogloeaceae and Ralstonia, contained 335 genes that encoded homologous polypeptides to IsoABCDEF, although they showed 336 337 a low amino acid identity to the corresponding IsoMO proteins from well-characterised isoprene degraders (34.1-52.5%; Table S4). In addition, no gene homologues to 338 isoGHIJ were recovered from these MAGs (Fig 3). While the absence of homologues 339 to *isoGHIJ* and the low sequence identity to IsoABCDEF indicates that these bacteria 340 may harbour a novel isoprene degradation pathway, especially considering that these 341 MAGs were recovered from ¹³C-heavy DNA fractions metagenomes, we cannot be 342 absolutely certain that they are from bona fide isoprene degraders. These isoA-like 343

sequences were not identified by the *isoA* amplicon analysis, suggesting that the
relatively high number of mismatches with the *isoA* primers prevented successful PCR
amplification. Therefore, further targeted isolations of these bacteria and/or expression
of these *isoABCDEF* genes in a heterologous host [38] are required to establish that
these are genuine isoprene degraders.

349 Finally, if Zoogloeaceae and Ralstonia microorganisms could be confirmed as bona fide isoprene degraders, the abundance of bacteria with the potential to metabolise 350 isoprene would increase from 1% to 2% in oil palm soil and from 0.1% to 0.2% in 351 phyllosphere unenriched samples. Similarly, the RA of *isoA*-containing bacteria would 352 also increase in both willow soil (from 0.7% to 1.3% of Bacteria) and poplar leaf (from 353 0.02% to 0.05% of Bacteria) unenriched samples, indicating that isoprene degraders 354 could be more abundant in the environment than previously thought. However, more 355 samples from contrasting ecosystems need to be explored to support this hypothesis. 356

357

358 Isolation and characterisation of Variovorax sp. OPL2.2

359 Cultures set up using material from the DNA-SIP experiments from soils and leaves 360 were subcultured three times at 2-week intervals with 25 ppmv isoprene before plating 361 onto minimal medium with isoprene as sole carbon source (see Methods). A strain 362 belonging to the genus *Variovorax* isolated from leaf enrichments, was able to grow 363 on isoprene as sole carbon and energy source (Fig S4).

Although DNA-SIP experiments have shown that *Variovorax* plays an important role in isoprene degradation in the phyllosphere [38], *Variovorax* sp. OPL2.2 is the first strain of this genus isolated from a tropical environment. When genomic DNA of OPL2.2 was screened for *isoA*, it yielded a PCR product which had a translated

sequence with 99.4% amino acid identity to IsoA from *Variovorax* sp. WS11, an
isoprene degrader isolated from willow soil [32].

370 The genome of this new isolate from oil palm, Variovorax sp. OPL2.2, was sequenced using Illumina and Nanopore technologies to confirm that it contained a full isoprene 371 degradation gene cluster. Assembly of both Illumina and Nanopore reads and 372 373 downstream analysis with CheckM [60] revealed that the Variovorax sp. OPL2.2 genome was comprised of 50 contigs totalling 8.5 Mbp and had a 98.4% 374 completeness, 1.1% contamination and a GC content of 67.4%. Finally, after 375 automatic annotation by Prokka [61], 8,200 predicted coding sequences were found 376 in the Variovorax sp. OPL2.2 genome. 377

378 Genome analysis confirmed that Variovorax sp. OPL2.2 contained isoABCDEF 379 encoding IsoMO. isoGHIJ and aldH1 genes, which are involved in the subsequent steps of isoprene metabolism, were located upstream *isoABCDEF* in an identical 380 381 layout to those of many bona fide isoprene-degrading strains [38] (Fig 3). garB, which encodes a glutathione disulfide reductase, was also located in the same gene cluster 382 (Fig 3). *isoABCDEFGHIJ*, aldH1 and garB, encoded polypeptides with high amino acid 383 identity (99.7-100%) to those from Variovorax sp. WS11. Indeed, ANI analysis 384 (>99.9%) revealed that Variovorax sp. OPL2.2 is the same species as Variovorax sp. 385 WS11. 386

387

388 Conclusions

The area of agricultural land dedicated to cultivating oil palm has increased dramatically over the last forty years and continues to increase annually due to palm oil demand from the food industry, domestic products and biofuel production [42].

Growth of a high isoprene-emitting crop and the consequent reactions of isoprene with 392 NOx have raised concerns about the impact of large oil palm plantations on air quality 393 and the regional delivery of the UN sustainable development goals. Therefore, to 394 better understand the role that microbes play in mitigating the effects of this climate-395 active gas, it is essential to examine the microbial diversity and abundance of 396 isoprene-degrading bacteria. In this study, we show that oil palm harbours a unique 397 and distinct community of isoprene degraders compared to other high isoprene-398 emitting trees from temperate environments and contains higher numbers of bacteria 399 400 with the genetic potential to metabolise this climate-active gas, especially soils beneath oil palm trees. Isoprene-utilising bacteria from oil palm soils were 401 phylogenetically more diverse than those from the oil palm phyllosphere, with 402 Novosphingobium, Pelomonas, Rhodoblastus, Sphingomonas being found in soils 403 and *Gordonia* and *Zoogloea* on oil palm leaves. Analysis of MAGs revealed that bins 404 from these genera contained isoprene degradation gene clusters and amplicon 405 sequencing data showed that oil palm trees contain novel isoA sequences, many of 406 which were highly similar to isoA genes recovered from Novosphingobium, Gordonia 407 or *Rhizobiales* MAGs. The discovery of novel isoprene-degrading bacteria enhances 408 a more robust isoA database necessary to utilise the isoA probes and assess the 409 distribution, abundance and activity of the isoprene degraders in the environment. 410

411

412 Methods

413 DNA-stable isotope probing

Three trees from different locations in an oil palm plantation in Palong (Negeri Sembilan, Malaysia) were sampled on 12th November 2018 (Table S6). Soil (50 g)

was collected at a depth of 0-5 cm within the palm circle of three 28-year old oil palm 416 trees after removing vegetation from the surface of the soil. Five healthy leaflets from 417 lower canopy fronds of the corresponding trees were sampled to allow comparison of 418 the diversity of isoprene-degrading bacteria between the oil palm phyllosphere and 419 adjacent soils. Soils and leaf samples were sent to the laboratory of Prof. Niall 420 McNamara at the UK Centre for Ecology and Hydrology in Lancaster, where 421 422 appropriate facilities to import soils into the UK were available, for processing. Cells were extracted from the soils as follows: 5 g of soils were resuspended in 50 ml sterile 423 424 distilled water in a sterile 250 ml conical flask. Flasks were then shaken at 150 rpm for 30 min at room temperature to dislodge cells from soil particles. Soil suspensions were 425 decanted into a 50 ml measuring cylinder and left undisturbed for 1 h to allow 426 sedimentation of soil particles. The aqueous layer was decanted into a sterile flask. 427 This treatment was repeated including a sonication step for 5 min in a water bath 428 429 (Mettler Electronics) to optimise recovery of cells that were attached to soil particles. Soils particles were appropriately disposed of by autoclaving and the aqueous layers 430 of both treatments were then combined and transported in sealed vials to University 431 of East Anglia, where microcosms with soil washings were set up. 432

Soil DNA-SIP enrichments were set up in triplicate and consisted of 80 ml of combined 433 soil washings in 2 litre air-tight bottles containing 25 ppmv of either ¹²C or ¹³C-labelled 434 isoprene. Soil microcosms were incubated at 30 °C in the dark with agitation at 150 435 rpm. Five leaves per oil palm tree (the same trees used for the soil microcosms) were 436 cut into approximately 10 cm length and 5 cm width and placed in sterile glass bottles 437 containing 250 ml sterile distilled water. Leaf samples were sonicated for 5 min in a 438 water bath (Mettler Electronics) and agitated at 150 rpm at room temperature for 1 h 439 to dislodge microbial cells from plant material. Leaf washings were then filtered 440

through 0.22 µm cellulose nitrate membrane filters (Pall) to concentrate cells. Filters 441 were washed with 40 ml of Ewers minimal medium [62]. Subsequently, filters were 442 discarded, and the washings transferred to 2 litre air-tight bottles to form the basis of 443 the leaf microcosms. Phyllosphere microcosms were then amended with 25 ppmv of 444 either ¹²C or ¹³C-labelled isoprene. Leaf DNA-SIP enrichments were set up in triplicate 445 and incubated at 30 °C in the dark with shaking (150 rpm). Consumption of isoprene 446 447 by soil and leaf microcosms was monitored with a Fast Isoprene Sensor (Hills-Scientific) and replenished when the headspace concentration fell below 10 ppmv. 448

Sampling of soil and leaf DNA-SIP incubations was performed as follows: 10 ml 449 aliquots were collected at T0 and after 5 days (12.5 µmol C assimilated .g⁻¹) of 450 incubation for soil microcosms. 10 ml aliquots from microcosms set up with leaf 451 washings were collected at T0 and after 10 days (50 µmol C assimilated ·g⁻¹) of 452 incubation. Soil and leaf aliquots were then spun down and supernatants were 453 454 discarded. After that, pellets were resuspended with a 1 ml solution containing sodium phosphate and MT buffers included in the FastDNA Spin Kit for Soil (MP Biomedicals) 455 and transferred to Lysing matrix E tubes to proceed with the DNA extraction according 456 to the manufacturer's instructions. 0.5-2 µg DNA per sample was separated into heavy 457 (¹³C-labelled) and light (¹²C-unlabelled) DNA by isopycnic ultracentrifugation as 458 previously described [36]. DNA in each fraction was quantified using a Qubit dsDNA 459 HS Assay kit (ThermoFisher Scientific) following the manufacturer's instructions. The 460 density of each fraction was estimated by refractometry using a Reichert AR200 461 refractometer (Reichert Analytical Instruments). Heavy and light DNA fractions from 462 each sample were identified by plotting DNA abundance vs fraction density (Fig S5) 463 and used for subsequent downstream analysis. 464

465

466 <u>16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing</u>

To investigate the bacterial diversity in samples from DNA-SIP experiments, 16S rRNA 467 genes of DNA extracted from unenriched (T0), unfractionated (UF), labelled (heavy; 468 H) and unlabelled (light; L) soil and leaf fractions were amplified with bacterial primers 469 341F and 785R [63]. Duplicate PCRs for each sample were pooled before purification 470 471 of PCR amplicons with a High Pure PCR product purification kit (Roche) according to the manufacturer's instructions. It was not possible to obtain amplicons from ¹²C-heavy 472 DNA (S 12C H) samples arising from SIP experiments with soils due to the low amount 473 of DNA present in these fractions (below the detection limit of 0.2 ng of the Qubit 474 dsDNA HS Assay kit). DNA libraries from purified 16S rRNA gene amplicons were 475 prepared and sequenced at MrDNA (Shallowater, TX, USA) with Illumina MiSeq 476 technology, obtaining an average of 100,757 16S rRNA genes per sample with an 477 average length of 300 bp. Sequence data were processed using MrDNA analysis 478 pipeline. Briefly, reads were first joined and depleted of barcodes. Then, short 479 sequences (<150 bp) and sequences with ambiguous base calls were removed. 480 Resultant sequences were denoised and operational taxonomic units (OTUs) were 481 defined with clustering at 97% similarity, followed by removal of singleton sequences 482 chimeras. Taxonomy of OTUs was then assigned using BLASTn 483 and (http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov) against a curated database derived from RPDII 484 (http://rdp/cme.msu.edu) and NCBI (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov). 485

486

487 *isoA* gene amplicon sequencing

isoA genes of DNA extracted from ¹³C-heavy soil and leaf fractions were amplified with
 primers isoA14F and isoA511R [35]. Duplicate PCRs for each replicate enriched with

¹³C-isoprene were pooled before purification of PCR amplicons with a High Pure PCR
product purification kit (Roche) as above. DNA libraries from purified PCR products
were prepared and sequenced at MrDNA (Shallowater, TX, USA) using Illumina MiSeq
technology, obtaining an average of 13,542 reads per sample with an average length
of 300 bp.

495 isoA amplicon sequencing data were analysed with the Bioconductor package DADA2 (version 1.6) [64] after demultiplexing the reads and removing primer sequences. 496 Reads were then trimmed to 275 nucleotides and guality-filtered if their expected error 497 was greater than two. Sequences were then denoised using the estimated error rates 498 and resultant reads were dereplicated. Subsequently, forward and reverse reads were 499 merged, chimeric sequences were discarded and the DADA2 algorithm was used to 500 infer individual amplicon sequence variants (ASVs). ASVs were then manually 501 checked by BLASTx [65]. Those ASVs with a top hit distinct from a ratified IsoA 502 sequence were discarded, obtaining a final set of 28 ASVs for soil and 6 ASVs for leaf 503 enrichments. 504

505

506 Metagenomic analysis of oil palm soil and leaf DNA-SIP samples

The 16S rRNA gene profile of each biological replicate of unenriched (T0), labelled (heavy; H) and unlabelled (light; L) fractions from leaf and soil samples was analysed by denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE, see below). As they showed highly similar profiles, biological replicates from both unenriched soils (S T0 R1, S T0 R2 and S T0 R3) and phyllosphere (L T0 R1, L T0 R2 and L T0 R3) samples and ¹³C-heavy fractions from leaves (L 13C H R1, L 13C H R2 and L 13C H R3) were combined in equal proportions for metagenomics sequencing (Fig S6), resulting in samples S T0,

L T0 and L 13C H R1-3, respectively. However, the community profile of ¹³C-heavy 514 fraction from soils replicate 3 (S 13C H R3) showed some differences compared to 515 those from ¹³C-heavy fractions from replicates 1 and 2 (S 13C H R1 and S 13C H R2; 516 Fig S6). Therefore, ¹³C-heavy DNA soil fractions from replicates 1 and 2 were pooled 517 (S 13C H R1-2) for downstream analysis, whereas ¹³C-heavy DNA from replicate 3 (S 518 13C H R3) was sequenced separately. Libraries were prepared by MrDNA 519 520 (Shallowater, TX, USA), resulting in an average library size of 700 bp for soils T0 (S T0), 710 bp for leaves T0 (L T0), 643 bp for soils ¹³C-heavy fractions from replicates 521 522 1 and 2 (S 13C H R1-2), 622 bp for soils ¹³C-heavy fraction replicate 3 (S 13C H R3) and 639 bp for ¹³C-heavy leaves fractions (L 13C H R1-3). Libraries were then pooled 523 in equimolar ratios of 1 nM and sequenced as paired ends using the Illumina NovaSeq 524 6000 system. 525

526 Metagenomic reads were quality-filtered using the iu-filter-quality-minoche script [66] 527 included in Illumina-utils (version 1.4.4) [67], obtaining an average of 19,000,000 528 quality-filtered reads per sample with an average length of 143 bp. Taxonomy of 529 unassembled metagenomes was analysed using MetaPhIAn2 (version 2.0) [49].

The abundance of *isoA* genes in unassembled oil palm (this study), willow [32] and 530 poplar [38] unenriched metagenomes was determined by tBLASTn of IsoA sequences 531 from ratified isoprene-degrading bacteria against the raw reads ($E \le 1e-4$). Each 532 potential IsoA sequence retrieved from the analysis of metagenomes was manually 533 checked by BLASTx against a database of IsoA proteins from bona fide isoprene 534 degraders and discarded if they showed <50% amino acid identity. Only unique hits 535 were counted. Hit numbers were normalized against read number of the smallest 536 metagenome, to the smallest gene length and to hits of recA. Hits of recA in 537 unenriched metagenomes were determined by tBLASTn (E \leq 1e-6) of RecA 538

539 sequences from a database obtained from RDP's FunGene [68]. Quality-filtered reads 540 from soil and leaf samples were assembled using metaSPAdes (version 3.13) [69] 541 with kmers 21, 33 and 55, and the quality of each assembly was analysed with 542 MetaQUAST (version 4.6.3) [70]. N50 values were ~1 kb for all metagenome 543 assemblies except for the unenriched soil (S T0) sample, which had an N50 value of 544 684. Complete statistics of metagenomes assemblies are shown in Table S2.

Assembled contigs were used to reconstruct metagenome assembled genomes 545 (MAGs) using MaxBin2 (version 2.2.2) [59]. MAGs completeness and contamination 546 was assessed and taxonomically assigned using CheckM (version 1.0.18) [60]. A total 547 of 20 MAGs from soil and 52 from leaf samples were obtained. Those MAGs with 548 >75% completeness and <5% contamination were then reassembled and 549 taxonomically verified using the "reassemble bins" and "classify bins" modules of the 550 metaWRAP pipeline (version 1.2.2) [71] to improve assembly and increase the 551 552 likelihood of obtaining full isoprene degradation gene clusters. Local BLAST databases were constructed and screened for the presence of homologues to known 553 isoprene degradation proteins IsoABCDEFGHIJ and other polypeptides associated 554 with the pathway such as AldH1, GshB and GarB using a cut-off value of E<1e-10 in 555 permissive searches, and E<1e-40 in restrictive searches. A total of two MAGs from 556 557 soils and three from leaves were identified to be of interest based on a completion of >75%, contamination <10% and the presence of IsoABCDEF homologues (Table S3). 558 Finally, MAGs were annotated using Prokka (version 1.13.3) [61]. 559

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561

563 Isolation and characterisation of isoprene-degrading bacteria

Once soils and leaf microcosms set up for DNA-SIP experiments had assimilated 50 564 µmol C per g of sample (10 days for leaves and 11 days for soils), they were diluted 565 1/10 into sealed 120 ml serum vials containing 10 ml Ewers minimal medium [62] to 566 isolate isoprene-degrading strains from these environments. Vials were supplemented 567 568 with 25 ppmv isoprene and incubated at 30 °C with shaking (150 rpm). Vials were subcultured three times at 2-week intervals before plating onto Ewers medium agar. 569 These plates were incubated in air-tight jars containing isoprene vapour (1%, v/v) as 570 sole carbon source. After four days, colonies with different morphologies were 571 inoculated in 120 ml serum vials containing 10 ml Ewers medium and 25 ppmv 572 isoprene to determine isoprene consumption of isolates in liquid medium. 573 Consumption of isoprene was monitored using a gas chromatograph fitted with a flame 574 ionization detector as previously described [33]. Those cultures that consistently 575 576 consumed isoprene were checked for purity by plating onto rich medium R2A agar (Oxoid) and by phase contrast microscopy (Zeiss Axioscop). 577

Growth curves of selected isolates on isoprene were performed as follows: bacterial 578 strains were first grown on Ewers medium with glucose (10 mM) for 48 h at 30 °C. 579 Cultures were then pelleted and washed three times with Ewers medium with no 580 carbon sources and adjusted to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.8. Cell suspensions were then 581 inoculated into 120 ml serum vials containing 20 ml of fresh Ewers medium amended 582 with isoprene vapour (5%, v/v) as sole carbon source. Cultures were incubated at 30 583 °C and growth was estimated by measuring cell density at OD₆₀₀ with a UV-1800 584 spectrophotometer (Shimadzu). 585

Genomic DNA of isoprene-degrading strains was extracted using a Wizard Genomic 586 DNA purification kit (Promega) according to the manufacturer's guidelines. The 587 phylogeny of isolates was identified by PCR amplification of their 16S rRNA genes 588 with primers 27F and 1492R [72] and subsequent Sanger sequencing (Eurofins 589 genomics). Genomic DNA was also examined for the presence of *isoA* genes using 590 PCR primers isoA14F and isoA511R, which are specific for the detection of isoA, 591 592 encoding the IsoMO α -subunit [35]. PCR conditions for amplification of *isoA* genes consisted of an initial step of 94 °C for 2 min, followed by 31 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s, 593 594 54 °C for 30 s, 72 °C for 1 min and a final extension step of 72 °C for 7 min as described in [35]. 595

596

597 Illumina and Nanopore sequencing of genomic DNA from Variovorax sp. OPL2.2

Genomic DNA from Variovorax sp. OPL2.2 for Illumina and Nanopore sequencing was 598 extracted using a phenol: chloroform: isoamyl alcohol method described by Wilson 599 [73]. For Illumina sequencing, library preparation was done using the Nextera XT kit 600 601 (Illumina) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The library was checked for quality and size distribution using the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent) and the Qubit 602 dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The library was then denatured and 603 sequenced with Illumina Miseg technology (San Diego, California USA). Paired-end 604 sequencing of 2 x 300 bp was performed using the MiSeq Reagent Kit v3 (San Diego, 605 California USA) according the manufacturer's protocol. Illumina sequencing of 606 607 Variovorax sp. OPL2.2 genomic DNA resulted in 1,274,620 reads.

Genomic DNA (0.9 μg) from *Variovorax* sp. OPL2.2 was used to prepare the library
 for Nanopore sequencing. Library construction was performed using the Ligation

610 Sequencing Kit 1D (SQK-LSK109) in combination with the Native barcoding Expansion Kit (EXP-NBD104) according the manufacturer's protocol (Oxford 611 Nanopore Technologies). DNA fragments were repaired and A-tailed using the 612 NEBNext® FFPE DNA Repair Mix and NEBNext® Ultra™ II End Repair/dA-Tailing 613 Module (New England Biolabs). After purification with AMPure XP beads (Beckman 614 Coulter Life Sciences), selected barcodes were ligated using the Blunt/TA Ligase 615 Master Mix (New England Biolabs). After ligation of the barcodes and bead clean-up, 616 the library was quantified using the Qubit dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher 617 618 Scientific). Thereafter, adapters were ligated using the NEBNext® Quick Ligation Module (New England Biolabs). The library was then purified and quantified with the 619 Qubit dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and sequenced using a Flow 620 Cell (R9.4.1) and MinION device (Oxford Nanopore Technologies) according to the 621 manufacturer's instructions. 622

Nanopore sequencing resulted in 44,530 reads (N50 = 10.5 kb). Base-calling and demultiplexing after sequencing was done using the Guppy Base-calling Software
(Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Limited Version 3.2.4+d9ed22f) resulting in 13,966
reads, selecting for a minimal sequence length of 3,000 bp.

Assembly of both Illumina and Nanopore reads to obtain a full-length genome was
done using Unicycler [74]. Assembly of *Variovorax* sp. OPL2.2 reads yielded 50
contigs with a total length of 8,516,444 bp, and the largest contig being 2,344,322 bp.
Completeness of the assembled genome was analysed by CheckM [60] resulting in
98.4% completeness and 1.1% contamination. Automatic annotation of *Variovorax* sp.
OPL2.2 genome was performed using Prokka [61].

Finally, average nucleotide identity (ANI) between *Variovorax* sp. OPL2.2 and *Variovorax* sp. WS11 [32, 38] was calculated using the online ANI calculator available on the Kostas Lab website (http://enve-omics.ce.gatech.edu/ani/index, accessed 10/12/2019).

637

638 Denaturing gel gradient electrophoresis

Bacterial 16S rRNA genes from DNA samples arising from DNA-SIP experiments were
amplified using primers 341F-GC [75] and 907R [76]. To visualise 16S rRNA gene
profiles of the bacterial communities from soil and leaf incubations, denaturing gel
electrophoresis (DGGE) was performed following the protocol described by El
Khawand *et al.* [36].

644

645 Additional files

Additional file 1: Fig S1. Bacterial diversity profile of the oil palm unenriched (T0) 646 647 community at the phyla level. Fig S2. Bacterial community profiles of oil palm soil samples analysed by 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing. Fig S3. Bacterial 648 community composition of oil palm leaf samples analysed by 16S rRNA gene amplicon 649 650 sequencing. Fig S4. Growth curve of Variovorax sp. OPL2.2 on isoprene as sole carbon and energy source. Fig S5. DNA retrieved as function of density of each 651 fraction recovered after isopycnic ultracentrifugation. Fig S6. 16S rRNA gene profiles 652 of oil palm soil and phyllosphere samples analysed by DGGE. Table S1. Relative 653 abundance of key isoprene-degrading bacterial genera in oil palm soil and leaf 654 samples. Table S2. Statistics for metagenome assemblies. Table S3. Metagenome 655 assembled genomes (MAGs) that contain genes encoding proteins homologous to 656

IsoABCDEF (E<1e-40). Table S4. MAGs genes encoding polypeptides homologous
to proteins involved in isoprene metabolism from ratified isoprene-degrading strains.
Table S5. ASVs retrieved from *isoA* amplicon sequencing analysis of ¹³C-heavy DNA
from soil and leaf incubations. Table S6. Location of oil palm trees used to set up soil
and leaf DNA-SIP incubations (docx 2.0 Mb).

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682

683 Availability of data and materials

Amplicon sequencing and metagenomic data generated in this study were deposited
to the sequence read archives (SRA) under Bioproject PRJNA272922 (Biosamples
SAMN14771267 - SAMN14771280).

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688 Authors' contributions

OCF, LG, TJM and JCM planned the experiments. OCF and LG carried out the experimental work and analysed results. LG designed and performed bioinformatics analyses. DMOE, NPMcN and CVS collected oil palm soil and phyllosphere samples in Malaysia. TAvA and HJMOdC performed the Illumina and Nanopore sequencing of genomic DNA from *Variovorax* sp. OPL2.2. OCF, LG and JCM wrote the manuscript with contributions from all authors. All authors read and approved the manuscript before submission.

696

697 Ethics approval and consent to participate

698 Not applicable

699

700 **Consent for publication**

701 Not applicable

702 Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

704

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885 Figure legends

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887 Fig 1. Bacterial community profile of oil palm soil samples. Bacterial diversity of the unenriched 888 (T0) and labelled (heavy; H) fractions of ¹³C-isoprene soil incubations was analysed by 16S rRNA gene 889 amplicon (16S) and metagenomics (MG) sequencing. The unenriched bacterial community (S T0) 890 represents the average of three biological replicates. ¹³C-heavy DNA from replicates 1 and 2 were 891 combined before MG sequencing due to their highly similar 16S rRNA gene community profile shown 892 by DGGE, resulting in sample S 13C H R1-2 (see Methods). Only genera with >5 RA% in at least one 893 of the conditions are represented. Genera present at >10% in any sample are shown in bold. Genera 894 with <5% RA are grouped in "Others". For complete 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing data, 895 including individual replicates and ¹²C-isoprene controls, see Fig S2.

896

897 Fig 2. Bacterial community composition of oil palm phyllosphere samples. Bacterial diversity 898 profile of unenriched (T0) and labelled (heavy; H) fractions of ¹³C-isoprene incubations of oil palm leaf 899 samples was analysed by 16S rRNA gene amplicon (16S) and metagenomics (MG) sequencing. The 900 unenriched bacterial community (L T0) represents the average of three biological replicates. ¹³C-heavy 901 DNA from replicates 1, 2 and 3 of leaf incubations were combined before MG sequencing due to their 902 highly similar 16S rRNA gene community profile shown by DGGE, resulting in sample L 13C H R1-3 903 (see Methods). Only genera with >5 RA% in at least one of the conditions are represented. Genera 904 present at >10% in any sample are shown in bold. Genera with <5% RA are grouped in "Others". For complete 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing data, including individual replicates and ¹²C-isoprene
controls, see Fig S3.

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Fig 3. Isoprene metabolic gene clusters from representative isoprene-degrading strains (in bold)
and metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs). Genes encoding IsoMO (*isoABCDEF*) are coloured
in red. Adjacent genes not involved in isoprene degradation are coloured in white. Regulatory genes
are shown in black. "\\" represents a discontinuity between two DNA contigs. *Variovorax* sp. OPL2.2
was isolated in this study from oil palm leaf enrichments.

913

914 Fig 4. Relative abundance and diversity of *isoA* genes in ¹³C-heavy fractions from oil palm incubations. isoA sequences in ¹³C-heavy fractions from oil palm soil (S 13C H) and leaf (L 13C H) 915 916 samples were analysed by isoA amplicon sequencing (see Methods). Only AVSs with >5% RA in at 917 least one replicate are represented. ASVs present at >10% in any sample are shown in bold. ASVs 918 closely related to IsoA from *Rhizobiales* MAG are represented in purple; ASVs with highest homology 919 to IsoA from Novosphingobium MAG are shown in green; ASVs closely related to IsoA from 920 Rhodococcus are coloured in blue; ASVs with highest homology to IsoA from Gordonia MAG are 921 represented in orange. ASVs with RA <5% are grouped as "Others". For complete *isoA* gene amplicon 922 sequencing data, see Table S5.

923

Additional File 1

Diversity of isoprene-degrading bacteria in phyllosphere and soil communities from a high isoprene-emitting environment: a Malaysian oil palm plantation

Ornella Carrión^{1+*}, Lisa Gibson¹⁺, Dafydd M.O. Elias², Niall P. McNamara², Theo A. van Alen³, Huub J.M. Op den Camp³, Christina Vimala Supramaniam⁴, Terry J. McGenity⁵, J. Colin Murrell^{1*}

¹School of Environmental Sciences, University of East Anglia, Norwich Research Park, Norwich, NR4 7TJ, UK

²Centre of Ecology and Hydrology, Lancaster University, Bailrigg, Lancaster, LA1 4AP, UK

³Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Science, IWWR, Radboud University Nijmegen, Heyendaalseweg 135, NL-6525 AJ Nijmegen, The Netherlands

⁴School of Biosciences, Nottingham Centre of Sustainable Palm Oil, University of Nottingham-Malaysia, Jalan Broga, 43500 Semenyih, Selangor Darul Ehsan, Malaysia

⁵School of Life Sciences, University of Essex, Colchester, UK

*These authors contributed equally to this work

*Corresponding authors:

J Colin Murrell, ¹School of Environmental Sciences, University of East Anglia Norwich Research Park, NR4 7TJ, UK E-mail: j.c.murrell@uea.ac.uk Tel: (+44) 01603 592959

Ornella Carrión, ¹School of Environmental Sciences, University of East Anglia Norwich Research Park, NR4 7TJ, UK E-mail: o.carrion-fonseca@uea.ac.uk Tel: (+44) 01603 592239

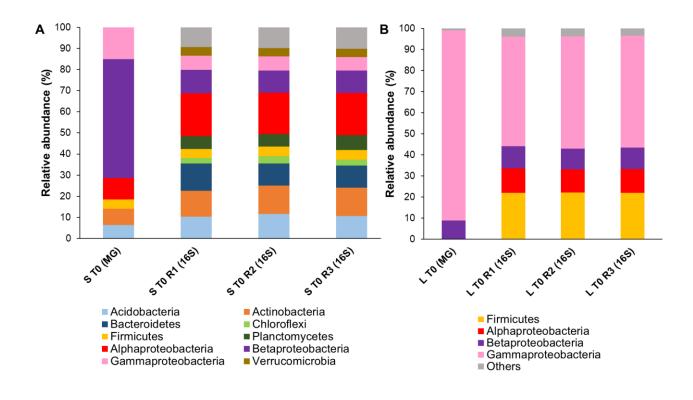


Fig S1. Bacterial diversity profile of the oil palm unenriched (T0) community at the phyla level. Bacterial community composition was analysed by 16S rRNA gene amplicon (16S) and metagenomics (MG) sequencing. A: soil T0 samples; B: phyllosphere T0 samples. Only phyla with >2% relative abundance in at least one of the samples are represented. The Proteobacteria phylum is subdivided into Alpha-, Beta- and Gammaproteobacteria classes. Bacterial phyla with <2% relative abundance are recorded as "Others".

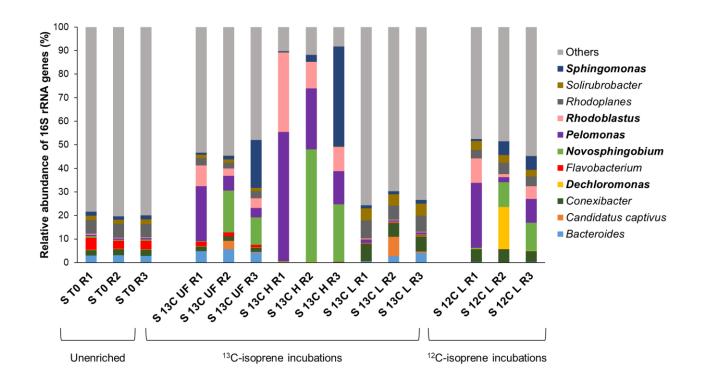


Fig S2. Bacterial community profiles of oil palm soil samples analysed by 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing. T0: unenriched samples; 13C UF: unfractionated DNA from ¹³C-isoprene enrichments; 13C H: heavy DNA from ¹³C-isoprene incubations; 13C L: light DNA from ¹³C-isoprene samples; 12C L: light DNA from ¹²C-isoprene control samples. Only OTUs with >5% relative abundance in at least one of the replicates are represented. Genera present at >10% in any sample are shown in bold. OTUs with <5% relative abundance are shown as "Others".

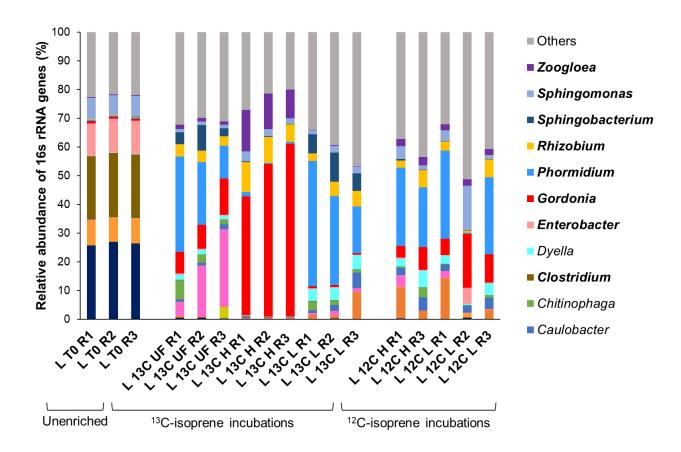


Fig S3. Bacterial community composition of oil palm leaf samples analysed by 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing. T0: unenriched samples; 13C UF: unfractionated DNA from ¹³C-isoprene enrichments; 13C H: heavy DNA from ¹³C-isoprene incubations; 13C L: light DNA from ¹³C-isoprene samples; 12C H: heavy DNA from ¹²C-isoprene control incubations; 12C L: light DNA from ¹²C-isoprene control samples. Only OTUs with >5% relative abundance in at least one of the replicates are represented. Genera present at >10% in any sample are shown in bold. OTUs with <5% relative abundance are recorded as "Others".

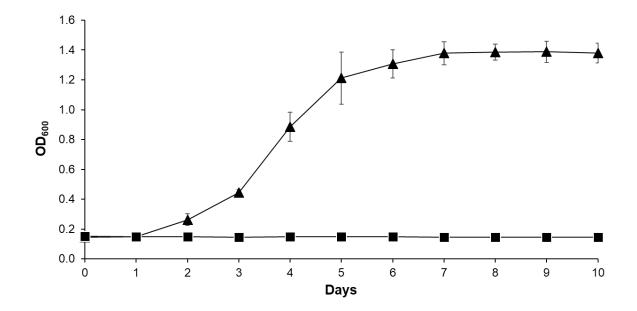


Fig S4. Growth curve of *Variovorax* **sp. OPL2.2 on isoprene as sole carbon and energy source.** Triangles: *Variovorax* **sp. OPL2.2 cultures amended with isoprene** (5%; v/v). Data points represent the average of three biological replicates with their respective standard deviations. Squares: *Variovorax* **sp.** OPL2.2 culture with no carbon source added (control; one replicate).

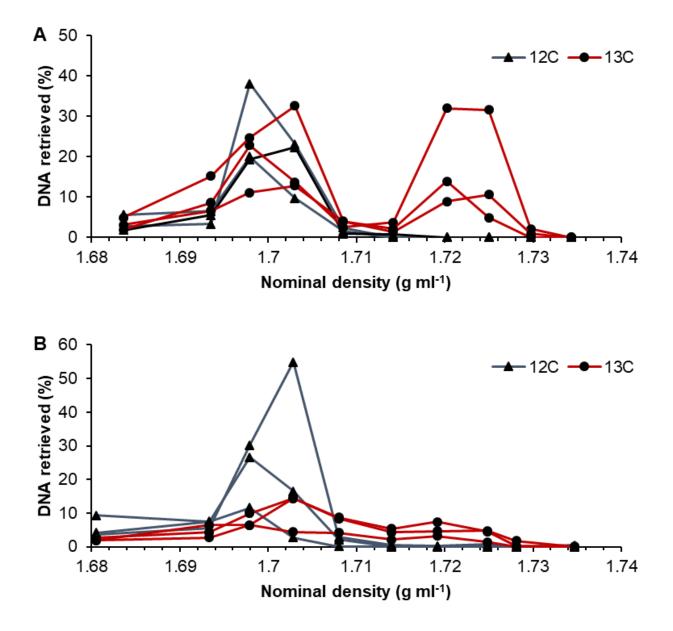
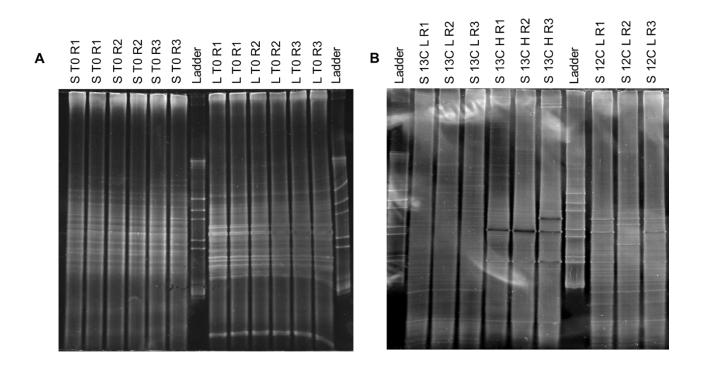
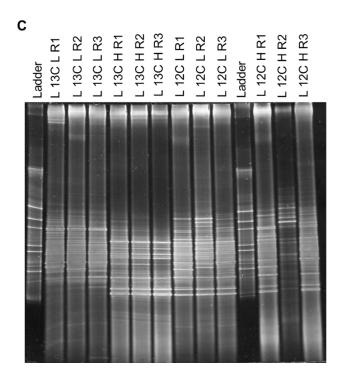


Fig S5. DNA retrieved as function of density of each fraction recovered after isopycnic ultracentrifugation. A: soil samples incubated with ¹²C (blue line) or ¹³C-isoprene (red line); B: leaf incubations with ¹²C (blue line) or ¹³C-isoprene (red line).





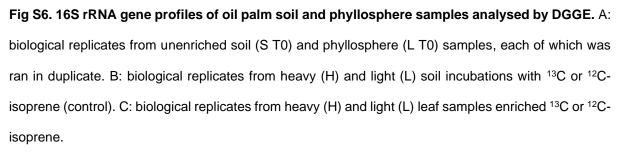


Table S1. Relative abundance of key isoprene-degrading bacterial genera in oil palm soil and leaf samples.

Genus	S TO	L TO	S 13C H	L 13C H
Gordonia	0.7 ± 0.2%	0.8 ± 0.1%	0.9 ± 0.1%	51.4 ± 9.3%
Novosphingobium	0.6 ± 0.1%	2.8 ± 0.1%	24.2 ± 23.8%	0.3 ± 0.1%
Pelomonas	0.5 ± <0.1%	0.4 ± 0.1%	31.7 ± 21.0%	0.4 ± 0.1%
Rhodoblastus	0.4 ± 0.1%	0.2 ± <0.1%	18.4 ± 13.3%	0.3 ± 0.1%
Sphingomonas	1.5 ± 0.1%	7.1 ± 0.3%	15.2 ± 23.6%	2.6 ± 0.7%
Zoogloea	0.2 ± <0.1%	0.3 ± 0.1%	0.3 ± 0.1%	12.3 ± 2.2%

Relative abundance of bacterial genera in oil palm incubations was analysed by 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing. Values shown represent the average of three biological replicates with their respective standard deviations. S T0: unenriched soil samples; L T0: unenriched leaf samples; S 13C H: heavy DNA from soil samples enriched with ¹³C-isoprene; L 13C H: heavy DNA from leaf samples enriched with ¹³C-isoprene.

Table S2. Statistics for metagenome assemblies.

	S TO	S 13C H R1-2	S 13C H R3	L TO	L 13C H R1-3
Contigs	138,886	36,166	22,852	76,131	114,878
Largest contig (bp)	75,971	703,868	1,215,493	732,750	621,426
Total length (bp)	101,440,201	64,831,442	49,671,873	152,876,094	150,393,192
GC (%)	63.9	64.9	64.6	56.5	66
N50	684	2,852	5,677	5,018	1,565
N75	568	1,078	1,322	1,171	798
L50	50,076	3,502	959	3,953	18,953
L75	91,069	13,317	6,174	21,847	54,079
Bins	4	9	7	28	24

Metagenomes from unenriched soil (S T0) and leaf (L T0) samples and ¹³C-heavy fractions from soil (S 13C H R1-2 and S 13C H R3) and leaf (L 13C H R1-3) incubations were assembled with metaSPAdes using kmers 21, 33 and 55. Quality of the assemblies was analysed by MetaQUAST and bins obtained using MaxBin2.

Table S3. Metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs) that contain genes encoding proteins homologous to IsoABCDEF (E<1e-40).

MAG	Metagenome of origin	Size (Mbp)	N50	Completeness (%)	Contamination (%)	Strain heterogeneity (%)
Novosphingobium	S 13C H R3	3.7	441,005	99.5	<0.1	0
Rhizobiales	S 13C H R3	4.1	59,990	97.6	2.5	79
Gordonia polyisoprenovorans	L 13C H R1-3	6.1	194,257	99.8	0.9	40
Zoogloeaceae	L 13C H R1-3	5.2	49,423	98.7	2.1	10
Ralstonia	L 13C H R1-3	4.5	5,039	79	6.4	0

MAGs were reconstructed from metagenomic sequencing of ¹³C-heavy DNA from soil (S 13C H) and leaf (L 13C H) incubations with ¹³C-isoprene. MAGs completeness and contamination was assessed and taxonomically assigned using CheckM (see Methods). N50 is calculated for contigs.

Table S4. MAGs genes encoding polypeptides homologous to proteins involved in isoprenemetabolism from ratified isoprene-degrading strains.

Novosphingobium MAG

Gene	Description	Closest protein from ratified isoprene degrader	Amino acid identity (%)	Coverage (%)
isoA	Hydroxylase α-subunit	IsoA from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	95.2	100
isoB	Hydroxylase γ-subunit	IsoB from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	100	85.1
isoC	Reiske-type ferrodoxin	IsoC from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	100	78.6
isoD	Coupling protein	IsoD from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	100	90.6
isoE	Hydroxylase β-subunit	IsoE from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	83.7	100
isoF	Flavoprotein NADH reductase	IsoF from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	76.2	100
isoG	Racemase	IsoG from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	91.1	100
isoH	Dehydrogenase	IsoH from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	89.4	100
isol	Glutathione-S-transferase	Isol from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	89.8	100
isoJ	Glutathione-S-transferase	IsoJ from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	90.6	98
aldH1	Aldehyde dehydrogenase	AldH1 from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	85.3	100

Rhizobiales MAG

Gene	Description	Closest protein from ratified isoprene degrader	Amino acid identity (%)	Coverage (%)
isoA	Hydroxylase α-subunit	IsoA from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	84.9	100
isoB	Hydroxylase γ-subunit	IsoB from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	67.4	97
isoC	Reiske-type ferrodoxin	IsoC from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	61.2	92
isoD	Coupling protein	IsoD from Ramlibacter sp. WS9	60	92
isoE	Hydroxylase β-subunit	IsoE from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	54.8	98
isoF	Flavoprotein NADH reductase	IsoF from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	54.9	99
isoG	Racemase	IsoG from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	72.9	96
isoH	Dehydrogenase	IsoH from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	74.3	100
isol	Glutathione-S-transferase	Isol from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	72.9	95
isoJ	Glutathione-S-transferase	IsoJ from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	69.9	100
aldH1	Aldehyde dehydrogenase	AldH1 from Sphingopyxis sp. OPL5	64.7	99

Gordonia polyisoprenovorans MAG

Gene	Description	Closest protein from ratified isoprene degrader	Amino acid identity (%)	Coverage (%)
isoA	Hydroxylase α-subunit	IsoA from Gordonia polyisoprenovorans i37	98.8	100
isoB	Hydroxylase γ-subunit	IsoB from Gordonia polyisoprenovorans i37	82.1	100
isoC	Reiske-type ferrodoxin	IsoC from Gordonia polyisoprenovorans i37	99.1	100
isoD	Coupling protein	IsoD from Ramlibacter sp. WS9	99	95
isoE	Hydroxylase β-subunit	IsoE from Gordonia polyisoprenovorans i37	98.8	100
isoF	Flavoprotein NADH reductase	IsoF from Gordonia polyisoprenovorans i37	99.4	100
isoG	Racemase	IsoG from Gordonia polyisoprenovorans i37	98.3	100
isoH	Dehydrogenase	IsoH from Gordonia polyisoprenovorans i37	99.1	100
isol	Glutathione-S-transferase	Isol from Gordonia polyisoprenovorans i37	100	100
isoJ	Glutathione-S-transferase	IsoJ from Gordonia polyisoprenovorans i37	94.7	100
aldH1	Aldehyde dehydrogenase	AldH1 from Gordonia polyisoprenovorans i37	83	100
aldH2	Aldehyde dehydrogenase	AldH2 from Gordonia polyisoprenovorans i37	94.8	100
gshB	Glutathione synthetase	GshB from Gordonia polyisoprenovorans i37		98
coADR	CoA disulfide reductase	CoADR from Gordonia polyisoprenovorans i37	94	100

Zoogloeaceae MAG

Gene	Description	Closest protein from ratified isoprene degrader	Amino acid identity (%)	Coverage (%)
isoA	Hydroxylase α-subunit	IsoA from Variovorax sp. WS11	51.1	100
isoB	Hydroxylase γ-subunit	IsoB from Ramlibacter sp. WS9	51.7	97
isoC	Reiske-type ferrodoxin	IsoC from Ramlibacter sp. WS9	51	93
isoD	Coupling protein	IsoD from Gordonia sp. OPL2	44.9	85
isoE	Hydroxylase β-subunit	IsoE from Ramlibacter sp. WS9	43	85
isoF	Flavoprotein NADH reductase	IsoF from Ramlibacter sp. WS9	39	97

Ralstonia MAG

Gene	Description	Closest protein from ratified isoprene degrader	Amino acid identity (%)	Coverage (%)
isoA	Hydroxylase α-subunit	IsoA from Variovorax sp. WS11	48.3	100
isoB	Hydroxylase γ-subunit	IsoB from Ramlibacter sp. WS9	52.5	83
isoC	Reiske-type ferrodoxin	IsoC from Ramlibacter sp. WS9	47.6	92
isoD	Coupling protein	IsoD from Rhodococcus opacus PD630	44.2	81
isoE	Hydroxylase β-subunit	IsoE from Nocardioides sp. WS12	45.1	94
isoF	Flavoprotein NADH reductase	IsoF from Rhodococcus opacus PD630	39.1	100

Homology of the polypeptides encoded by genes recovered from MAGs to proteins from ratified isoprene degraders was analysed by BLASTx (see Methods) and is expressed as amino acid identity.

Table S5. ASVs retrieved from *isoA* amplicon sequencing analysis of ¹³C-heavy DNA from soil and leaf incubations.

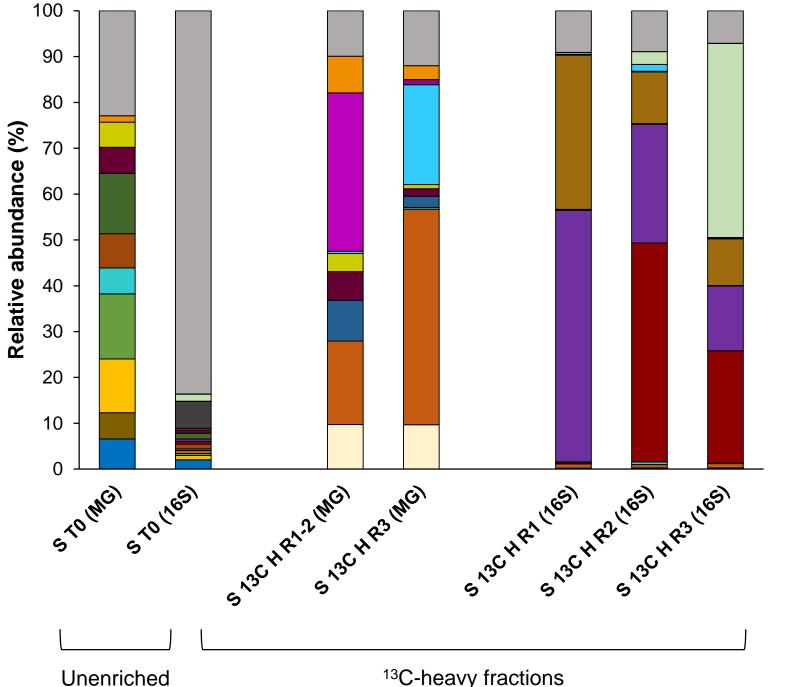
	Closest IsoA sequence	Source	Amino acid Identity(%)	Cover (%)	Soil Samples RA(%)	Leaf Samples RA(%)
ASV_1	Gordonia i37	Isolate	100	99	5.3±4.6	91.9±7.3
ASV_2	Rhizobiales	Metagenome	100	99	35.5±6.1	
ASV_4	Rhizobiales	Metagenome	92.5	99	6.1±5.3	
ASV_5	Rhizobiales	Metagenome	100	99	8.9±8.7	
ASV_7	Rhizobiales	Metagenome	100	99	4.2±3.7	
ASV_8	Rhizobiales	Metagenome	71	99	2.2±3.8	
ASV_9	Rhizobiales	Metagenome	98.7	99	1.8±3.1	
ASV_11	Novosphingobium	Metagenome	100	99	3.7±3.4	
ASV_12	Rhizobiales	Metagenome	98.9	99	1.4±1.3	
ASV_13	Rhodococcus AD45	Isolate	100	99	3.9±3.4	0.9±1.3
ASV_14	Rhizobiales	Metagenome	98.1	99	1.8±0.4	
ASV_15	Rhizobiales	Metagenome	96.2	99	2.5±2.4	
ASV_16	Rhodococcus AD45	Isolate	84.91	99	2.9±2.1	
ASV_17	Rhizobiales	Metagenome	92.45	99	0.6±1	
ASV_18	Rhizobiales	Metagenome	98.9	99	2.6±4.5	
ASV_19	Rhizobiales	Metagenome	100	99	1.8±3.1	
ASV_21	Rhizobiales	Metagenome	98.7	99	0.3±0.6	
ASV_23	Rhodococcus AD45	Isolate	99.37	99	1.2±1	
ASV_24	Rhizobiales	Metagenome	100	99	0.2±0.3	
ASV_26	Rhizobiales	Metagenome	98.1	99	0.2±0.4	
ASV_29	Rhizobiales	Metagenome	100	99	1.8±3.2	
ASV_30	Rhizobiales	Metagenome	98.7	99	0.1±0.3	
ASV_34	Gordonia i37	Isolate	98.1	99		3.4±5.6
ASV_37	Rhizobiales	Metagenome	96.2	99	0.1±0.2	
ASV_44	Novosphingobium	Metagenome	99.4	99	2.6±4.6	
ASV_53	Rhizobiales	Isolate	99.4	95	0.5±0.8	
ASV_59	Gordonia i37	Isolate	99.4	96		1.8±3
ASV_85	Gordonia i37	Isolate	99.4	96		2.7±3.8
ASV_110	Rhizobiales	Metagenome	99.4	100	0.1±0.2	
ASV_114	Gordonia i37	Isolate	100	99		0.9±1.3
ASV_122	Rhizobiales	Metagenome	95.6	100	0.1±0.2	
ASV_160	Novosphingobium	Metagenome	100	99	0.2±0.4	
ASV_168	Gordonia i37	Isolate	93.1	100		1.7±3.0

Amino acid identity of ASVs retrieved from soil (S 13C H) and phyllosphere (L 13C H) samples to IsoA from ratified isoprene-degrading strains or MAGs reconstructed from metagenomes analysed in this study was determined by BLASTx (see Methods). Relative abundance (RA) of each ASV in heavy fractions from ¹³C-isoprene soil and leaf incubations represent the average of three biological replicates with their respective standard deviations. ND: not detected.

Table S6. Location of oil palm trees used to set up soil and leaf DNA-SIP incubations.

Sample	Latitude (N)	Longitude (E)	Elevation (m)
Palong A	2° 54' 03''	102° 39' 54"	55
Palong B	2° 54' 06''	102° 39' 33"	63
Palong C	2° 54' 03''	102° 38' 56"	33

Soil and leaf samples were collected from the same trees to allow comparison of the diversity of isoprene degraders from both environments.



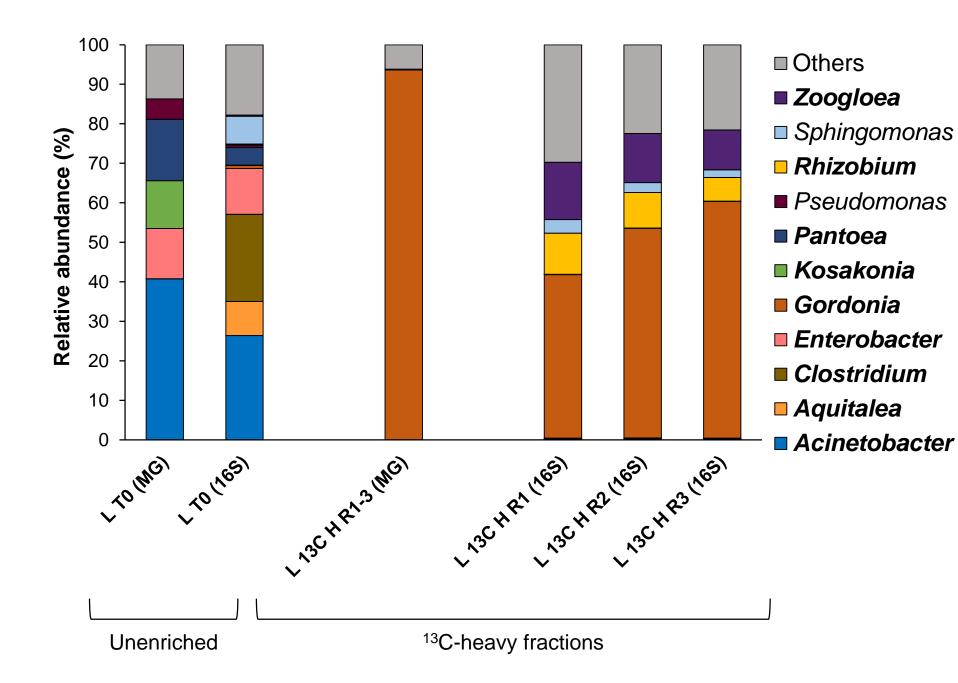


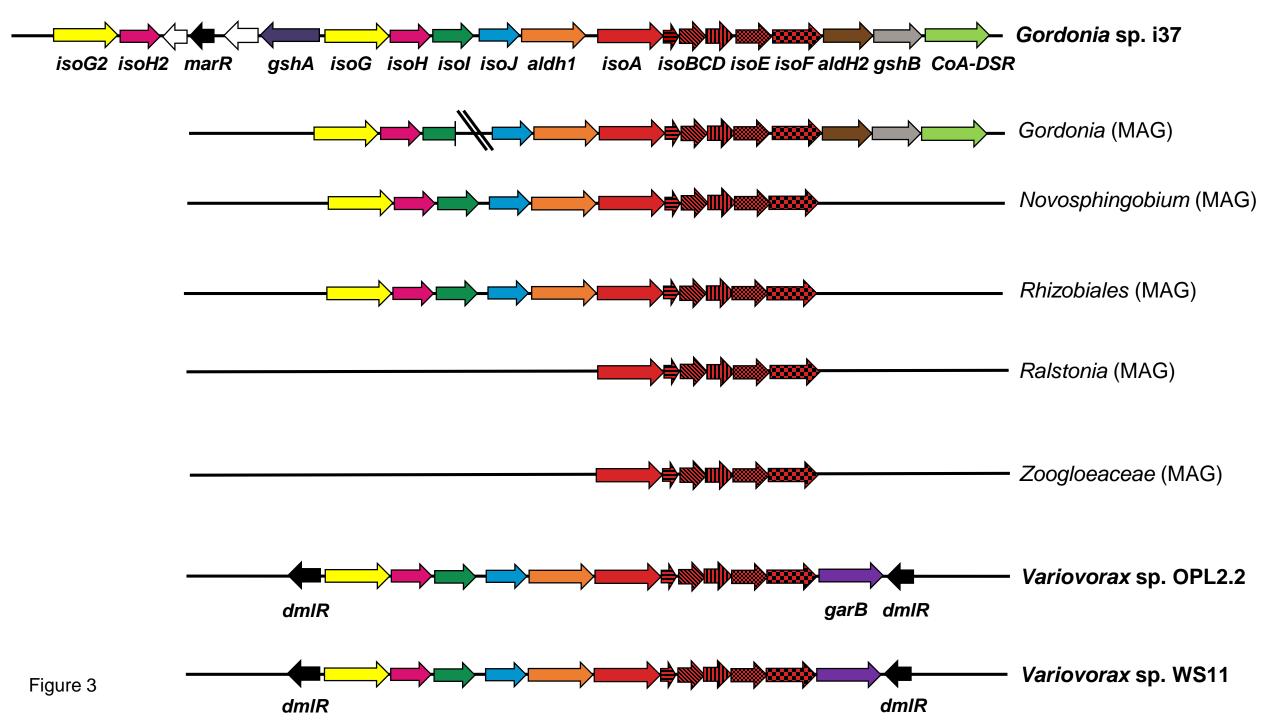
■ Others

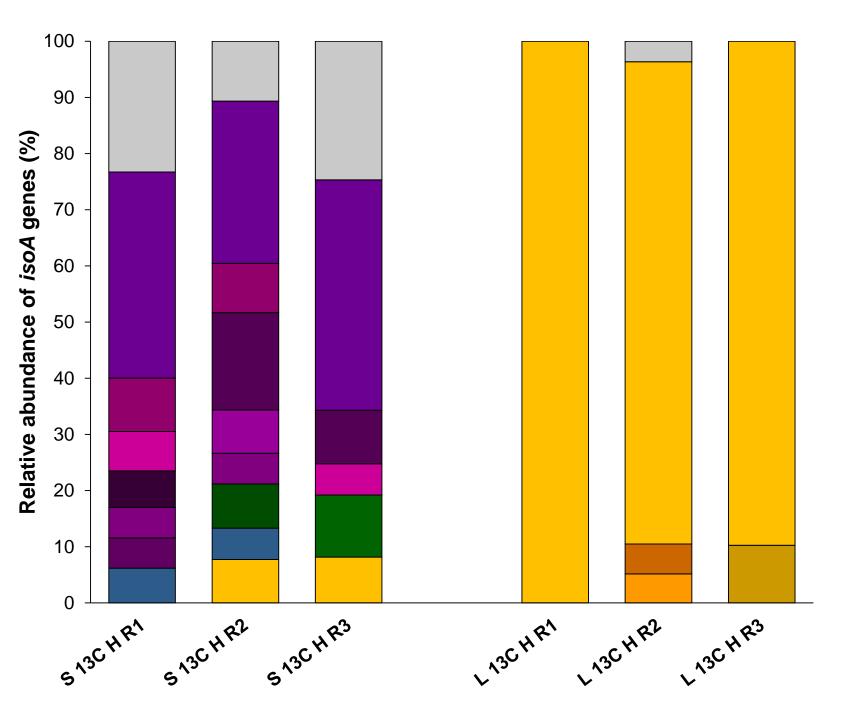
Figure 1

Acidobacteriaceae unclassified

Acinetobacter







ASV_2 (Rhizobiales) ■ ASV_4 (Rhizobiales) ■ ASV_5 (Rhizobiales) ■ ASV_7 (Rhizobiales) ■ ASV_8 (Rhizobiales) ■ ASV_9 (Rhizobiales) ■ ASV_18 (Rhizobiales) ■ ASV_19 (Rhizobiales) ■ ASV_29 (Rhizobiales) ■ ASV_11 (Novosphingobium) ■ ASV_44 (Novosphingobium) ■ ASV_13 (Rhodococcus) ASV_1 (Gordonia) ASV_34 (Gordonia) ■ ASV_59 (Gordonia) ■ ASV_168 (Gordonia)

□ Others