1   Title: Environment dependence of rhizobial relative fitness in the legume-rhizobia symbiosis
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4   Liana T. Burghardt[a,b], Brendan Epstein[a], Michelle Hoge[a], Diana Trujillo[c], and Peter Tiffin[a]
5
6   [a]Department of Plant and Microbial Biology, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, MN 55108
7   [b]current affiliation Department of Plant Science, The Pennsylvania State University, University
8   Park, Pennsylvania
9   [c]Department of Plant Pathology, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, MN 55108

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Author for correspondence:
Liana T. Burghardt
Department of Plant Science
109 Tyson Building
University Park, PA 16802
liana.burghardt@gmail.com
1-(814)-863-6168

24
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Abstract:

Spatial and temporal variation in resource availability, population density, and composition

likely affect the ecology and evolution of symbiotic interactions. We examined how host

genotype, Nitrogen addition, rhizobial density, and community complexity affected a legume-

rhizobia (*Medicago truncatula - Ensifer meliloti*) mutualism. Host genotype had the strongest

effect on the size, number, and rhizobial composition of root nodules (the symbiotic organ). By

contrast, the effect of small changes in N-availability and the complexity of the inoculum

community (2, 3, 8, or 68 strains) were minor. Higher inoculum density resulted in a nodule

community that was less diverse and more beneficial but only in the more selective host. With

the less selective host, higher density resulted in more diverse and less beneficial nodule

communities. Density effects on strain composition deserve additional scrutiny as they can create

eco-evolutionary feedback and have translational relevance for overcoming establishment

barriers in bio-inoculants.

Short Abstract:

The environmental context of the nitrogen-fixing mutualism between leguminous plants

and rhizobial bacteria varies over space and time. The understudied environmental variable of

rhizobial density had a larger effect on the relative fitness of 68 rhizobia (*Ensifer meliloti*) strains

in nodules than the addition of low-levels of nitrogen or community complexity.

Introduction:

Biotic interactions have important consequences for population dynamics (Morris *et al.* 2019), selection (Caruso *et al.* 2017), and local adaptation (Runquist *et al.* 2020) of interacting species. Of course, these biotic interactions do not occur in isolation and the benefits and costs of the interaction can be modified (Bronstein 1994) by population density, the presence of additional species (Wood *et al.* 2018), genetics (Ford *et al.* 2017) and abiotic factors such as resource availability (Schultz *et al.* 2001; Lau *et al.* 2014; Wurzburger & Ford Miniat 2014; Rivett *et al.* 2016) or moisture levels (Wolinska & King 2009; Louthan *et al.* 2018; Benning & Moeller 2019). These responses (*i.e.* plasticity) can evolve if there is genetic variation in traits that modify the sensitivity of an interaction to additional environmental variables such as immunity, stress tolerance, or phenology (e.g. Ramegowda & Senthil-Kumar 2015; Garrido-Oter *et al.* 2018). Here we examine how three sources of environmental variation, resource availability, rhizobia density, and rhizobial community complexity, affect the rhizobium species (*Ensifer meliloti*) as it engages in symbiosis with its leguminous host plant (*Medicago truncatula*).

Environment dependence is a recurring theme in the study of the symbiosis between legume plants and rhizobial bacteria (Heath & Tiffin 2007; Keller & Lau 2018; Burghardt 2020). In this mutualistic relationship, rhizobia convert atmospheric nitrogen (N_2) into a plant-useable form to support host growth and reproduction while rhizobia gain carbon resources from the plant to support the growth and reproduction prior to release back into the soil (Denison & Kiers 2011; Poole *et al.* 2018). While this relationship is commonly beneficial to the plant host (Gibert *et al.* 2018), the magnitude of these fitness benefits to the plant depends on the identity of the rhizobial strain as well as additional environmental parameters including N, P, water- and light-availability, and temperature (Larimer *et al.* 2014; Vuong *et al.* 2017; Keller & Lau 2018; Heath *et al.* 2020). Experiments in which plants are inoculated with a single rhizobial strain, often at very high density, have shown that the benefits rhizobia obtain from symbiosis also can be context dependent (*e.g.* Friel & Friesen 2019; Batstone *et al.* 2020). However, in natural and agricultural populations rhizobia densities are likely to vary and multiple rhizobia strains compete for nodule occupancy and host enrichment (Burghardt 2020). Results from single-strain experiments may not be directly translatable to multi-strain environments because between-strain

competition can strongly affect nodulation success (Triplett & Sadowsky 1992). Indeed, strain

fitness proxies in single-strain environments are not strongly correlated with strain fitness in

multi-strain communities (Burghardt *et al.* 2018).

Theoretically, resource availability has the potential to shape the evolution of resource-

based symbiosis (Akcay *et al.* 2011; Bever 2015). N-availability could affect selection acting on

rhizobia and plant hosts via a number of mechanisms. For instance, additional N can reduce the

overall frequency of associations with hosts by reducing nodule number or size (Heath & Tiffin

2007; Heath *et al.* 2010; Menge *et al.* 2015). While forming fewer nodules in high N

environments may have little effect on plant fitness, it certainly reduces the chances of each

rhizobia associating with a legume and, if nodules remain small, also reduces the number of

rhizobia released from host nodules (a major component of the fitness benefit rhizobia receive

from engaging in the symbiosis). Nitrogen can also alter competitiveness among symbionts,

perhaps through altering the strength of host preference (Elliott *et al.* 2009) or enrichment via

host rewards/sanctions (Kiers *et al.* 2006; Oono *et al.* 2011). Despite the intuitive appeal of

theoretical predictions that additional N will reduce host dependence on rhizobia and lead to

relaxed selection for rhizobial host benefit, there is limited empirical support for N-mediated

shifts in competitive outcomes between rhizobia. Partner choice as measured by nodule

occupancy does not shift with N-addition in *Acmispon* (Regus 2014, Wendlandt *et al.* 2019) or

Medicago (Laguerre *et al.* 2012; Grillo *et al.* 2016) and only weakly shifts in *Mimosa* (Elliott *et*

al. 2009). However, which strain initiates each nodule only represents the first stage of selection.

Once nodules form, differential nodule growth and strain reproduction can allow some strains to

increase in frequency relative to others, but again, studies to date suggest that N has only a

limited effect on rhizobial fitness (Laguerre *et al.* 2012; Vuong *et al.* 2017).

Unlike N-addition, the effect of rhizobial population density on the legume benefit and

rhizobial fitness has received scant empirical attention. However, population densities can

strongly affect the ecology and evolution of biotic interactions including hosts and pathogens

(*e.g.* Schuhegger *et al.* 2006), predator and prey (*e.g.* Jaffee 2003), and plants and pollinators

(*e.g.* Moeller 2004). The density of rhizobial symbionts varies over space and time. For example,

twenty years of cropping system differences resulted in four-orders-of-magnitude differences in

rhizobia population densities: 6.8×10^6 rhizobia gram^{-1}in soy/wheat/maize rotations, 4.5×10^5 in

continuous soy, and 6.1×10^2 in continuous maize (Yan *et al.* 2014). There are many reasons to

suspect that selection could be density dependent; the density of rhizobia in the soil could affect

the number of nodules that a host forms (Oldroyd *et al.* 2001), the role of quorum sensing

(Gonzalez & Marketon 2003; Sanchez-Contreras *et al.* 2007; Veliz-Vallejos *et al.* 2014), and the

relative importance of host-mediated vs. soil-mediated selection (Daubech *et al.* 2017; Westhoek

et al. 2017). Predicting the outcome of rhizobial density on strain selection is, however, difficult.

For instance, when rhizobial population densities are high more nodulation sites (root hairs) will

interact with multiple strains and more nodules will be formed and thus, we might expect

opportunities for plant-imposed selection on bacterial populations to increase (Westhoek *et al.*

2017). On the other hand, when rhizobial densities are high, plant control may decrease as traits

that influence rhizobial competitiveness become more important (Triplett & Sadowsky 1992).

Much of the empirical work on legume-rhizobia symbiosis relies on single-strain

inoculations, however, in nature legume hosts often form nodules with a diverse community of

strains (Thies *et al.* 1991; Rangin *et al.* 2008). Microbial community complexity can affect

community assembly and interactions (Billick & Case 1994). Synthetic communities are

increasingly being used to query the effect of additional community members (Coward *et al.*

2008; Großkopf & Soyer 2014; Widder *et al.* 2016). For example, Freidman *et al.* (2017) showed

that competitive outcomes between two bacterial strains living in the guts of *C. elegans* are not

affected by the presence of additional strains (Lopez *et al.* 2019). While rhizobial strain

frequency in nodules is clearly dependent on the presence of other strains (Triplett & Sadowsky

1992; Laguerre *et al.* 2012; Westhoek *et al.* 2017), experiments have not investigated whether

pairwise competitive outcomes are affected by the presence of other strains. In other words, does

strain A always beat strain B regardless of which and how many other strains are present in the

community?

Here we report on the extent to which strain fitness in nodules and plant traits are affected

by each of three environmental factors, N-availability, population density, and the complexity of

the rhizobial community to which plants are exposed. Given previous work showing that

rhizobial fitness can strongly depend on host genotype (Burghardt *et al.* 2018, 2019b, a; Gano-

Cohen *et al.* 2019) we examine the effect of these treatments on each of two commonly used

plant genotypes. Our results indicate that host-genotype has a much greater effect on strain

fitness than the environmental manipulations. Among the environmental manipulations, the

effects of bacterial density were approximately twice as great as the effects of N-addition.

Community complexity had little effect on the relative fitness rankings of rhizobial strains

suggesting that higher-order interactions between strains are rare. Our results suggest that

variation in population densities could influence ecological and evolutionary dynamics in

rhizobial communities and are a factor that should be considered more explicitly in empirical,

theoretical, and applied work.

Material and methods

We measured strain communities inside host nodules using a select-and-resequence

approach, a variant of evolve-and-resequence approaches (Burghardt *et al.* 2018). We inoculated

plants with a community of 68 rhizobial strains (hereafter referred to as C68). These strains

were chosen to capture the majority of genetic variation present among 160 sequenced strains

(Epstein *et al.* 2018; Nelson *et al.* 2018). To evaluate whether increasing the amount of N

available to plants altered strain composition of the nodule community, we grew plants with a

low level of additional N (+100ml 3mMol KNO_3 week^{-1}). To evaluate the potential for rhizobia

density to affect strain fitness, we inoculated plants with two rhizobial densities: low ($5x10^5$

rhizobia plant^{-1}) and high ($5x10^7$ rhizobia plant^{-1}). To examine the effect of community

complexity, we constructed communities of nested subsets of eight, three, and all pairwise

competitions of the three. To form the rhizobia communities, we grew each of 68 *E. meliloti*

strains in 3ml Tryptone yeast media (6g tryptone, 3g yeast extract, 0.38g $CaCl_2$ per L) for 3 days

and then combined an equal volume of each culture to generate a community (C68) with

approximately equal representation of each strain (median strain frequency 0.014, range 0.009-

0.02). We used the same method to form the eight (C8), three (C3), and three two-strain

communities (M:H, M:K, and H:K). All strain names are list in Supplemental Figure S3.

Seeds of two host genotypes A17 var. Varma and R108 (Medicago HapMap accession

numbers HM101 and HM340, Stanton-Geddes et al. 2013) were bleached, rinsed, scarified with

a razor blade, stratified on wet filter paper at 4ºC in the dark for two days, and then allowed to

germinate at room temperature for one day. Twelve germinated seeds were then planted in each

of 45 1L pots filled with sterilized Sunshine Mix. When seedlings were three days old 100 ul of

each rhizobial community diluted in 9.9 ml 0.85% NaCl w/v solution were used to inoculate

each pot (approximately 10^8 cells, except for the low-density treatment which was inoculated

with ~ 10^6 cells, Figure S1). Plants were fertilized with 150ml of N-free fertilizer (Bucciarelli *et*

al. 2006 see Burghardt et. al. 2018 for details) once a week and watered with sterile water as

needed. Six weeks after planting, we sampled ~500 (A17) or ~200 (R108) nodules from the

plants in each pot (Figure S2), crushed them, and used a series of differential centrifugation steps

to enrich for and pellet undifferentiated bacteria (Burghardt et al. 2018). Pellets were stored at -

20°C until we extracted DNA using the UltraClean Microbial DNA Isolation Kit (no. 12224; Mo

Bio Laboratories). In addition to harvesting the nodules, we measured on a per plant basis:

nodule number, nodule fresh weight, and vegetative and root biomass (dried at 60°C for 72

hours).

Strain frequencies: We estimated the frequency of each strain in each nodule pool using the

method in Burghardt et al. 2018. In brief, DNA isolated from each replicate was sequenced on

an Illumina HiSeq 2500 (NexteraXT libraries, 125 bp paired-end reads, 3.6-9.4 million read pairs

library^{-1}). Reads were trimmed with TrimGalore! (v0.4.1) using default settings, except with

minimum read length = 100 bp, quality threshold = 30, and minimum adapter match = 3. We

used bwa mem (v0.7.17; Li and Durbin, 2010) with default settings to align reads to the *E.*

meliloti USDA1106 genome (Nelson *et al.* 2018; NCBI BioProject: PRJNA388336). We

identified SNPs segregating in each of the sequenced communities using FreeBayes (v1.2.0-2-

g29c4002; (Garrison & Marth 2012) with a minimum read mapping quality of 30. After cleaning

and alignment, median read depth per sample was 65X (range 29X-115X). To estimate strain

frequency, we used only SNPs for which every strain had an unambiguous call. We then

estimated the frequency of each strain in each sample using HARP (Kessner *et al.* 2013) as

described in Burghardt *et al.* (2018).

Nodule community measurements: Based on strain frequencies, we calculated three nodule

community metrics for each replicate: composition, diversity, and host benefit. We estimated

community composition as the fold change in the frequency of each strain (q_x) in a nodule

community relative to mean frequency of that strain across four sequencing replicates of the

initial community (fitness = $\log_2(q_{x\ selected}/\bar{q}_{x\ initial})$). This transformation both normalizes the

frequency distribution and controls for small differences in initial strain frequency (median q_x

$_{initial}$=0.0092, 5%-95% quantile: 0.0054-0.0154). We estimated community diversity as the

exponent of Shannon diversity, which we calculated using the 'renyi' function in vegan package

of R. We calculated predicted host benefit as the sum of the per strain frequency in nodules

multiplied by the dry plant weight from a single-strain inoculation experiment (data from

(Burghardt *et al.* 2018):

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$$\frac{\sum_{x=1}^{n} q_x * dry\ plant\ weight\ in\ single\ strain\ experiment_x}{\sum_{x=1}^{n} q_x}$$

For A17 replicates we used A17 single-strain data and for R108 we used R108 single-strain data.

We scaled each host-specific dataset to range from zero (complete occupancy by the least

beneficial strain) to one (complete occupancy by the most beneficial strain).

Statistical analysis of community measures: We used redundancy analysis (RDA, "rda" in the

vegan R package Oskanen et al. 2017) and ANOVA to analyze the effects of Host genotype (H),

Density (D), and Nitrogen (N) and their interactions on each of the nodule community measures.

To collapse the dimensionality of the strain relative fitness data and analyze shifts in relative

fitness across treatments, we used RDA. RDA fits a multivariate linear regression to centered

and scaled data and then uses principal component analysis (PCA) to decompose the major axes

of variation in the fitted parameters. The adjusted R^2 of each RDA model provides an estimate of

the proportion of variance in relative fitness explained by the model predictor(s). We permuted

the data to determine the probability that fitness differences occurred by chance ('anova'

function, 999 permutations). To analyze strain diversity, we used an ANOVA ('lm' and 'anova')

to test for differences amongst treatments. To analyze host benefit, we used an ANOVA ('lm'

and 'anova'). Because the effects of D and N were host dependent (H x D, H x N interactions),

we also analyzed the effects of N, D, and their interaction for each host separately.

Analysis of rank order and community complexity: For each pairwise competition of the three

strains used to form three-strain community (C3), we identified the strain with higher strain

frequency and asked if the same strain was at higher frequency in the more complex three strain

community. We also examined whether strain frequency rankings in the C3 community

remained the same in the eight- (C8) and sixty-eight- (C68) strain communities. Likewise, we

examined whether the frequency rankings of each of the strains in the C8 community remained

the same in the C68 community.

Statistical analysis of plant phenotypes: We used an ANOVA ('lm' and 'anova') to test for the

effects of host genotype, inoculum density, and nitrogen level and their interactions on six plant

traits (nodule number, average nodule weight, nodule weight per, shoot biomass, root biomass,

and root to shoot ratio). The first two traits violated the assumption of homogeneity of variance

between hosts, so we focus on host-specific analyses. To evaluate the effect of community

complexity on plant phenotypes, we ran a model with Host (H) and community complexity (C;

2, 3, 8, and 68 strains) and their interaction as continuous predictors. Although we test for the

among-treatment differences in plant phenotypes, the experiments were designed to evaluate the

effect of treatments on strain fitness and were not well powered to detect among-treatment

differences in plant phenotypes.

Results:

Host genotype has a large effect on strain fitness and nodule phenotypes

Consistent with previous work, the strain composition of the nodule communities was

strongly affected by host genotype. In fact, host identity had a greater effect on strain

composition, Shannon's diversity, and predicted benefit of the nodule community (Figure 2,

Table 1, Table S1, Table S2), than did N-addition, inoculum density, or the complexity of the

inoculum community. Relative to R108, A17 hosts produced ~ 10 times more nodules (Fig 3a)

that were approximately one tenth the size (Fig 3b), and harbored nodule communities that were

less diverse (Fig 2b) and more beneficial (Fig 2c).

N-availability weakly affected strain composition, diversity, and benefit

Because Nitrogen is the primary resource rhizobia provide to their host, researchers have

speculated, and modeling has suggested that N-availability could alter the relative fitness of

rhizobia strains. However, we found that N-availability explained only a small portion of the

variance in the overall composition of the nodule communities (2.2% of the RDA variance,

p=0.23; Figure 2), although the effect was slightly greater when hosts were analyzed separately

(in A17 p=0.027, 6.4% of the variance and in R108 p = 0.46, 4.2% of the variance; Table 1). N-

addition had similar magnitude of effect on the diversity (Shannon's) of the nodule community

and the predicted benefit of the strain community, with the effects being greater in A17

(diversity: p=0.039, 8.7% of variance and strain benefit: p = 0.030, 7.9% of variance) than R108

(p=0.85, 0.17% of variance and p = 0.28, 3.2% of variance, respectively). See Table S1 and

Table S2 for full results.

Rhizobia inoculation density had a stronger effect than N-addition

Inoculating plants with 100-fold less rhizobia cells caused larger changes in strain

diversity and predicted benefit of the nodule community than N-addition (Figure 2). Moreover,

the effect of density depended on the host. With A17 hosts, density explained 16.1% (p=0.001)

of variance in community composition vs. 6.4% (p=0.027) of the variance explained by N-

addition. With R108, density explained 6.1% (p=0.053) of the variance vs 4.2 % (p=0.46)

explained by N-addition. Density affected diversity of the nodule community in opposite

directions in the two hosts. Compared to the low-density inoculation, the high-density

inoculation resulted in A17 nodule communities being less diverse (based on Shannon's

diversity) and more beneficial (both $p < 0.001$). By contrast, with R108 the low-density

inoculation resulted in nodule community that was more diverse, although not greater than

expected by chance ($p = 0.78$) and less beneficial ($p < 0.003$). See Table S1 and Table S2 for

details.

Relative fitness rankings are similar across communities of increasing complexity

In nature, the complexity of rhizobial communities varies in both space and time. We

found that although the absolute frequency of each of three focal strains was strongly affected by

the presence of additional strains in the inoculum, we found little evidence that additional strains

in the inoculum community altered strain-rankings relative to each other. In other words, with

minor exceptions, the more frequent strain in pairwise competitions was also the more frequent

strain in more complex communities (Table 2). The minor exceptions involved two strains

(KH46c and HM006.1) that had nearly equal frequencies in pairwise inoculations and also nearly

equal frequency when part of more strain-rich communities (Figure S6; Table 2). Similarly the

relative-frequency ranking of strains when plants were inoculated with three strains (C3) were

almost always the same as the relative ranking of those strains when they were part of a 68 strain

inoculum community (Figure 4a) and the relative ranking of the strains in C8 treatment were

nearly always the same as they were in the C68 treatment (Figure 4b). These results suggest that

strain competitiveness is relatively robust to the presence of additional strains and strains with

higher frequency in pairwise competitions will also have higher frequencies in more complex

communities.

Effects of N, D, and complexity on nodule and plant traits were host specific

The effect of N-addition and inoculum density on plant phenotypes were host-specific

(Table S3). In A17, increased rhizobial density resulted in plants forming more nodules

($p=0.004$; Fig 3a) that weighed less ($p<0.001$; Fig 3b). In R108, an increase in rhizobia density

resulted in plants forming more, but smaller nodules, but only in the N-addition environment

(Nitrogen x Density $p = 0.036$ & $p = 0.033$ respectively). Neither N-addition or rhizobia density

had measurable effects on either above or belowground biomass, although both N ($p=0.029$) and

to a lesser extent density ($p=0.087$) decreased the root to shoot ratio in A17 but not in R108 (Fig

S7). Complexity of the inoculum community had little effect on nodule number or vegetative

biomass (Fig S8; Table S4) although it did have minor effects on nodule weight in A17 but not

R108 (Host x Complexity $p= 0.018$), and root weight ($p = 0.053$) of both hosts.

Discussion

The symbiosis between legumes and rhizobia plays an important ecological role by

contributing nitrogen to natural and agricultural ecosystems and to the success of legumes

(Vitousek *et al.* 2013; Harrison *et al.* 2018; Taylor *et al.* 2020). Here we asked how host

genotype and each of three environmental factors, that are likely to vary spatially and temporally

affect the rhizobia community in nodules. Nitrogen, despite being the key benefit that rhizobia

provide plants, had relatively small effects on the strain composition, diversity, and benefit of

nodule communities. Similarly, the complexity of the inoculum community (number of strains

used to inoculate a plant) had only small effects on relative strain competitiveness, suggesting

that higher-order interactions among strains do not alter the pairwise rankings of strain success.

Interestingly, inoculum density had large and host-specific effects on the nodule community—

density had a larger effect on strain composition, diversity, and benefit in the host (A17) that

imposes greater selection on the rhizobia population.

Theoretically, the availability of alternative sources of the resources provided by

symbiosis can alter selection on beneficial symbionts (West *et al.* 2002; Akcay *et al.* 2011; Bever

2015). When mutualistic relationships are considered in a market framework, external N

improves the bargaining power of the host and increases the relative fitness of less beneficial

strains (Akcay *et al.* 2011). Similarly, relaxed selection for symbiont benefit could occur because

it is less costly for the host to allocate resources to a less beneficial partner if it can obtain the

resource from an alternative source (Bever 2015). Despite the potential, we found the addition of

small amounts of N had little effect on rhizobial strain composition, diversity, and the host

benefits of the nodule community. Indeed, in one host genotype (A17), selection for beneficial

strains was stronger, not weaker, in the N-addition environment. Our findings of subtle effects

of N-addition are consistent with several other studies of nodule occupancy (Kosslak & Bohlool

1985; Laguerre *et al.* 2012; Regus *et al.* 2014; Grillo *et al.* 2016; Wendlandt *et al.* 2019).

Similarly, our results align with two previous studies that assessed composite strain fitness across

all nodules formed by a plant. Nitrogen addition did not affect rhizobial composition in pools of

4-week-old *Medicago* nodules inoculated with a mixture of two *Ensifer* species or a mixture of

Fix- and Fix+ strains (Laguerre *et al.* 2012) and had weak effects on strain fitness two species of

Acacia—drought and phosphorous addition treatments had larger effects (Vuong *et al.* 2017).

Although our results are consistent with these short-term (single growing season) studies,

it is clear that addition of N over longer periods of time can affect the symbiosis. Many legumes

regulate nodule formation and symbiotic nitrogen fixation when high levels of abiotic N are

available, presumably reflecting a cost of forming and maintaining the symbiosis—(Menge *et al.*

2015). For instance, Weese *et al.* found rhizobia in a grassland community to be less beneficial

to hosts after 22 years of N addition (Weese *et al.* 2015; Klinger *et al.* 2016). One way to

reconcile discrepancies between short and long-term experiments is to note that even if relative

fitness is not altered by N- addition other parameters that influence absolute fitness could

change. For instance, reductions in host population sizes, nodule numbers, or nodule size could

all increase the importance of rhizobial adaptation to environments external to the host and result

in a population of strains with reduced host benefit via selective tradeoffs or drift (Denison &

Kiers 2004; Heath & Stinchcombe 2014; Hollowell *et al.* 2016; Burghardt *et al.* 2018; Burghardt

2020). Experiments that hold relative fitness constant while varying absolute fitness and vice

versa will clarify the key drivers of evolutionary trajectories in response to N.

Whereas the effects of N on the legume-rhizobial symbiosis has been the focus of many

studies, the potential for density-dependent selection shaping legume-rhizobia symbiosis has

received scant attention. Nevertheless, rhizobial density varies widely in nature (e.g. 10^2 -10^6 per

gram Yan *et al.* 2014). The 100-fold difference in inoculum density we examined resulted in

host-dependent shifts in the composition of the nodule community, with increased density

resulting in more beneficial strains being favored in one host and less beneficial strains being

favored in the other host. The results raise questions about the generality of laboratory

experiments that rely on extremely high densities of rhizobia—presumably to ensure that hosts

will not be rhizobia limited. Interestingly, while the majority of nodules screened in the field

tend to have a single occupant (Kosslak & Bohlool 1985; Moawad & Schmidt 1987; Ndungu *et*

al. 2018), the probability of one nodule being infected by multiple strains increases with

rhizobial density (Daubech *et al.* 2017; Westhoek *et al.* 2017). Whether strain competition occurs

via direct interactions within a nodule vs. competition between nodules inhabited by different

strains can affect mechanisms of rewards/sanction and the scale at which selection occurs

(Akçay 2015).

The two host genotypes differed markedly in the characteristics of the nodules they

produced, A17 made many small nodules while R108 made a few large nodules, a pattern found

in all nitrogen, density, and inoculum environments. Interestingly, overall investment in nodule

tissue per plant was very similar for both hosts, and decreases in nodule numbers at low

inoculum densities were offset by increases in nodule size (a pattern previously observed by

Singleton & Tavares 1986). In R108 plants, the combination of lower nodule number and low

selectivity resulted in increased variability in strain fitness amongst replicates. Increased

stochasticity in strain fitness could influence rhizobial evolution—not by directly determining

rhizobial fitness—but because it determines the strength of drift.

Conclusions:

Using a high-throughput methodology, we evaluated the context-dependence of host-

dependent strain fitness in legume-rhizobia symbiosis. Our finding that host genetic variation is

a consistent driver of rhizobial relative fitness across environmental perturbations suggests it is

possible to identify the genomic basis of strain x host interactions (Wang *et al.* 2012, 2018;

Gourion & Alunni 2018) and use that information to breed legume crops that associate with

beneficial rhizobial strains even when environmental conditions change across years or locations.

Our results also suggest that host-imposed selection might depend on the density of the rhizobia

population in the soil. From a translational perspective, understanding density-dependent

selection could aid in the developing of beneficial inoculants that overcome establishment

barriers (Kaminsky *et al.* 2019).

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Table 1: PERMANOVA on RDA of strain relative fitness shows effects of plant host and

inoculum density are far stronger than effects of nitrogen (top). Analyses of each host separately

(bottom) revealed that density and nitrogen both had greater effects with A17 than R108 hosts

Model and Terms	DF	Prop. Var	F	*P*
Both Hosts (adj. r^2= 0.29)				
Host	1	0.24	16.06	**< 0.001**
Density	1	0.047	3.1	**0.004**
Nitrogen	1	0.022	1.44	0.12
Host x Density	1	0.033	2.19	**0.022**
Host x Nitrogen	1	0.02	1.33	0.18
Density x Nitrogen	1	0.017	1.12	0.28
Host x Density x Nitrogen	1	0.015	0.96	0.41
Residual	40	0.60		
A17 only (adj. r^2= 0.14)				
Density	1	0.16	4.3	**< 0.001**
Nitrogen	1	0.064	1.72	**0.027**
Density x Nitrogen	1	0.027	0.71	0.86
Residual	20	0.75		
R108 only (adj. r^2= 0.024)				
Density	1	0.061	1.43	0.055
Nitrogen	1	0.042	0.98	0.46
Density x Nitrogen	1	0.049	1.14	0.26
Residual	20	0.85		

Note: Nitrogen was retained as a term in the sub-models because host values and variances were
so divergent from each other.

Table 2: Rankings of strain frequencies in two strain communities were consistant across

increasingly complex communities: three strains (C3), eight strains (C8), and 68 strains (C68).

The higher frequency strain is shown in bold followed by the proportion of replicates in which

the higher frequency strain also had higher relative frequency in the more complex communites.

Host	Pairwise Community	Pairwise strain frequency	C3 (5 reps)	C8 (5 reps)	C68 (6 reps)
A17	**HM006.1**: KH46c	**0.79** : 0.21	1	1	1
	M162 : **HM006.1**	0.01 : **0.99**	1	1	1
	M162 : **KH46c**	0.01 : **0.99**	1	1	1
R108	**HM006.1**: KH46c	**0.56** : 0.44	0.83	0.66	1
	M162 : **HM006.1**	0.01 : **0.99**	1	1	1
	M162 : **KH46c**	0.01 : **0.99**	1	1	1

645
646

Figure 1: Design of the Nitrogen x Density (a)
and Community complexity (b) experiments
and traits measured on strains or plants in
both experiments (c). All plants were
harvested ~6 weeks after planting. Inoculation
density is given per plant (~10 plants per pot).
Colored stacked bars represent strain
frequencies in each of six initial communities
of 68 strains (C68- six replicate pots for each
N*D treatment), 8 strains (C8- five reps), 3
strains (C3- five reps), and 2 strain pairwise
competitions (M:H, H:K, M:K-four reps
each).
660
661

Figure 2: Host genotype and inoculum density affected rhizobia strain community characteristics. a) Host genotype, density, and their interaction all contributed to variation in strain composition in nodules (percent contribution is in parenthesis, Table 1, Figure S4 for RDA analysis by host genotype). b) Shannon's diversity decreased (i.e. stronger selection) at high densities ($p<.001$) and high nitrogen ($p=0.039$) in A17. R108 nodules were always more diverse than A17 ($p<0.001$) regardless of density or nitrogen (Table S2 for full model) (c) N-addition had little effect on the predicted benefit of nodule communities. However, predicted benefit significantly increased at high densities in A17 ($p<0.001$) and significantly decreased in R108 ($p=0.003$, full results in Table S3).

Figure 3: Nodule traits in Density and

Nitrogen treatments. Hosts produced very

different numbers (a) and sizes (b) of

nodules but a similar overall weight (c)

across treatments. At low inoculation

densities, nodule number decreased and

nodule weight increased (full results in

Table S2).

Figure 4: Rank order of relative strain

frequencies in the nodule communities were

a) identical when plants were inoculated with

either the 3-strain (C3) or 68-strain (C68)

community, and b) b) nearly identical when

inoculated with either the 8-strain (C8) or C68

community. Ranks were determined based on

mean strain frequency across 5 (C3 and C8) or

6 (C68) replicates for A17 (triangles) and

R108 (circles).