- <sup>1</sup> Competitive hierarchies, antibiosis, and the distribution of
- bacterial life history traits in a microbiome \*

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Abstract Microbiome manipulation requires an understanding of how species interact within communities. Can outcomes of ecological interactions be predicted from microbial life history traits, the identity of the species, or both? We addressed these questions by study-11 ing the competitive interaction network in a community of 40 endophytic *Pseudomonas* spp. bacterial isolates from a native plant. Pairwise competition experiments revealed competitive dominance of P. fluorescens over P. syringae strains within this microbiome-derived community. P. syringae strains with higher growth rates won more contests, while P. fluo-15 rescens strains with shorter lag times and lower growth rates won more contests. Adding to their competitive dominance, P. fluorescens strains often produced antibiotics to which few 17 P. syringae strains were resistant. Many competitive outcomes among P. syringae strains 18 were predicted to be reversed by P. fluorescens inhibitors because indirect benefits accrued 19 to less competitive strains. P. fluorescens strains frequently changed competitive outcomes, suggesting a critical role of strains within this bacterial clade in structuring plant micro-21 biome communities. Microbial traits also may provide a handle for directing the outcome of colonization processes within microbiomes.

24 Keywords: Pseudomonas, indirect interactions, phyllosphere, microbiome, phytopathogen

## Introduction

- The ecological forces shaping bacterial microbiome community structure are difficult to char-
- 27 acterize, given the diversity and relatively uncultivable nature of these taxa, particularly in

Code and data available at https://github.com/phumph/competitive\_hierarchies.

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animals. Plants, in contrast, possess a highly cultivable microbiome and have potential to serve as models for understanding microbiome ecology and evolution generally. Moreover, plant growth-promoting bacterial (PGPB) formulations are being deployed in agriculture. Quantifying and predicting ecological outcomes among common species in these artificial 31 communities is therefore also of practical value. 32 Competition may be the principle ecological force shaping microbial community structure 33 (Foster & Bell 2012; Coyte & Rakoff-Nahoum 2019), yet distinct forms of competition can operate within communities: competition for shared resources and interference with another 35 species' ability to do so (Case & Gilpin 1974). In addition to structuring microbiome communities, competition of both types is a potent source of natural selection (Hibbing et al. 2010; Cornforth & Foster 2013; Mitri & Foster 2013). Teasing apart how exploitative and interference competition interact in a community context remains a challenge more generally (Amarasekare 2003; Delong & Vasseur 2013; Coyte et al. 2015). Furthermore, as diversity increases, the number of possible indirect interactions in the community scales faster than the number of direct interactions. Accordingly, a species may benefit from additional competitors if the net indirect effects dampen direct competition faced by other species (Levine 1976; Lawlor 1979; Stone & Roberts 1991; Wootton 1994; Miller & Travis 1996). Such indirect facilitation has not been well explored in microbiomes. Species-rich communities are also more likely to harbor members with traits that have a large ecological impact (Banerjee et al. 2018). In microbial communities, strains that secrete diffusible antibiotics, resource substrates, or signaling molecules can alter the fitness of nonproducers (Lee et al. 2010; Gutiérrez & Garrido 2019). By selecting for more specialized traits involved in resistance or metabolite uptake, these secretions can upend competitive hierarchies that would otherwise be mediated by canonical competitive fitness traits. It is unclear if microbial taxa with large indirect impacts are common in natural microbiomes (Banerjee et al. 2018). Leaf-dwelling (phyllosphere) bacteria secrete compounds altering

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growth and survival of nearby bacteria (Lindow & Brandl 2003; Quiñones et al. 2005;

Dulla & Lindow 2009; Dulla et al. 2010) and can co-localize on the leaf surface and interior (Monier & Lindow 2005). Thus, there is potential for direct and indirect interactions between competing bacteria to affect community assembly and steady-state patterns of diversity in plant microbiomes.

Finally, competition need not be purely hierarchical: intransitive loops may arise in species-rich communities whereby numerical dominance cycles at local spatial scales, resulting in community stability (Kerr et al. 2002; Rojas-Echenique & Allesina 2011). Even modest intransitivity can buffer against extinction (Laird & Schamp 2006; Rojas-Echenique & Allesina 2011; Laird 2014) and the degree of intransitivity can shape species diversity (Reichenbach et al. 2007). Although intransitivity occurs in microbial systems in the laboratory (Kerr et al. 2002; Kelsic et al. 2015), its occurrence in natural microbiome communities is not well understood (Lankau et al. 2011; Godoy et al. 2017).

To address the various gaps highlighted above, we studied how microbial traits mediate direct and indirect competitive outcomes in an assemblage of co-occurring bacterial species from a wild, endophytic microbiome meta-community. Specifically, we (1) characterized life history trait variances and co-variances of diverse isolates in the laboratory, (2) examined how such traits related to competitive interaction networks manifest in spatial microcosms, and (3) analyzed whether indirect interactions among strains might be expected to strengthen or weaken competitive hierarchies among strains, with the latter expected to promote co-existence under natural conditions. We used a diverse set of endophytic *Pseudomonas* spp. bacteria derived from native bittercress (Brassicaceae: *Cardamine cordifolia* A. Gray), encompassing an extensive sample of the diversity found in both the putatively phytopathogenic *P. syringae* clade and the presumed saprophyte *P. fluorescens* clade (Humphrey *et al.* 2014; Humphrey & Whiteman 2020).

# $^{79}$ Methods

#### 80 Overview

We measured a network of pairwise competitive interactions among 40 *Pseudomonas* spp.

strains, wherein strains competed for shared resources in spatial microcosms. We quantified

each strain's ability to invade and defend against invasion and derived a composite measure

of competitiveness that incorporated both invasive and defensive ability. We simultaneously

measured each strain's capacity to interfere with growth of surrounding competitors through

inhibitory secretions, as well as each strain's apparent ability to resist such inhibitors. Using

independent measurements of maximum rate of increase, lag phase, and maximum yield in

vitro, we then determined the underlying correlates of both exploitative and interference

competitive abilities, as well as effect of phylogenetic distance on these correlations. Fi
nally, using the distribution of pairwise outcomes measured in our competition assays, we

inferred the number and direction of indirect interactions that would result in facilitation

via inhibition of a superior competitor by a nearby producer strain.

#### 93 Bacterial strains

Of the 51 Pseudomonas spp. strains isolated from bittercress and previously described (Humphrey et al. 2014), we selected a set of 40 (26 P. syringae, 14 P. fluorescens) that represented the phylogenetic diversity present in this community (Humphrey & Whiteman 2020). We included the laboratory strain P. syringae pv. maculicola str. ES4326 in our strain set owing to its phylogenetic similarity to strains isolated from bittercress and its extensive characterization in the laboratory as a pathogen of Arabidopsis thaliana (Cui et al. 2002, 2005; Groen et al. 2013). All bacterial strains used had undergone only one prior growth cycle after freezing following initial isolation on King's B plates from surface-sterilized homogenates of bittercress leaf samples (Humphrey et al. 2014). For each strain,

we estimated resource usage (i.e., growth) parameters (maximum growth rate r, lag phase L, maximum yield K) from in vitro growth cycles conducted in 96-well plates (see Online Supplemental Materials [OSM]: Supplemental Methods for details).

#### of Pairwise competition assays

We conducted pairwise high-density competition assays in spatial microcosms in which a 107 "resident" strain inoculated onto the surface of each plate competed with each "invader" 108 strain spotted on top (see **OSM: Supplemental Methods** for details). We visually scored 109 growth of each invader as 0 for no visible growth of the invader above a negative control 110 spot containing sterile growth media alone, 0.5 for a largely translucent 'megacolony', which 111 reflected a definite presence of growth but which was relatively suppressed and confined 112 to the megacolony margin, and 1 for obvious and robust megacolony growth. We scored 113 inhibition interactions as a binary outcome indicating the presence of a zone of clearance 114 (halo)  $\geq 1$  mm surrounding the extent of the invader megacolony. 115

## 116 Calculating indexes of competitiveness

Each strain was assayed under 40 different conditions both as resident strain and invader, comprising an interaction network with 1,600 entries (including self vs. self). One version of the interaction network represents the outcome of resource competition and details the extent of growth of each invader, while the other captures the presence or absence of inhibitory interactions indicated by zones of clearance in the resident population. For resource competitions, we calculate the invasive capacity ( $C_o$ ) and defense capacity (i.e. territoriality;  $C_d$ ) of each strain.  $C_o$  for each strain i was calculated as

$$C_{o,i} = \frac{1}{n_{ij}} \sum_{i \neq j}^{n} x_{ij}$$

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where  $x_{ij} \in \{0, 0.5, 1\}$  and  $n_{ij}$  is the total number of scored interactions for each strain as the invader with all non-self resident strains.  $C_o$  is thus the expected value of growth attained by each strain as the invader across the population of residents. Similarly,  $C_d$  quantifies the ability of each strain to resist invasion by other strains and is calculated as

$$C_{d,j} = \frac{1}{n_{ji}} \sum_{j \neq i}^{n} (1 - x_{ji})$$

Here, strain j is in the resident state, and  $x_{ji} \in \{0, 0.5, 1\}$  as before but with a subscript reversal, indicating the degree to which the resident prevented the growth of each invader i. As above,  $n_{ji}$  is the number of interactions occurring between each focal resident and its non-self invaders.  $C_d$  can thus be interpreted as the expected amount of growth each resident strain can prevent among the population of invaders assayed.

We then calculated an overall exploitative competition index,  $C_w$ , for each strain as

$$C_w = C_o - (1 - C_d)$$

where  $-1 \le C_w \le 1$ . These extremes represent absolute competitive inferiority (-1), where

a strain failed to prevent all growth of any invader and similarly failed to invade any other strain, to absolute competitive dominance (1), where a strain fully invaded all residents and fully prevented growth of all invaders.

We also calculated  $C_t$  and  $C_r$  based on the interaction matrix for interference competition. Here,  $C_t$  is the proportion of successful invasions (i.e., given growth of 0.5 or above) that also resulted in halo formation produced by the invading strain, indicating inhibition of the resident.  $C_r$  for a strain is the proportion of contests with all invading inhibitor strains (i.e., all strains with  $C_t > 0$ ) that failed to result in halo formation, which we interpreted as resistance. Analogous to  $C_w$  above, we calculated an overall interference competition index,  $I_w$ , as

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$$I_w = C_t - (1 - C_r)$$

where  $-1 \le I_w \le 1$ , which is analogous to the aggressiveness index (AI) of (Vetsigian *et al.* 145 2011). 146

### Analyzing the distribution of competitive outcomes

We determined when outcomes of all pairwise interactions between strains i and j  $(i \neq j)$ took the following forms: reciprocal invasibility (RI), where strains i and j each invade one 149 another; reciprocal non-invasibility (RNI), where strains i and j cannot invade each other; 150 and asymmetric (Asym), where strain i invades strain j but j cannot invade i. To compare 151 outcome distributions, we constructed binomial linear models to estimate the probability of RI, RNI, and Asym as a function of bacterial clade (P. syringae versus P. fluorescens). 153 In addition, we compared trait co-variances and overall levels of trait dispersion between 154 P. syringae and P. fluorescens, correcting for phylogenetic distance between strains in each 155 clade. To do so, we first we conducted principal components analysis (PCA) using the matrix 156 of mean-centered and scaled competitive indexes and growth parameters for all strains (40 x 157 9 matrix) as input. We then calculated Euclidean distance between vectors of [PC1, PC2, 158 PC3] for all pairs of strains within each *Pseudomonas* clade. Using these calculated pairwise 159 multivariate trait distances as a response variable, we computed linear regression models 160 with bacterial clade as well as phylogenetic distance  $(D_q)$  as predictors. We calculated  $D_q$  as 161 the pairwise uncorrected nucleotide distance between 2,690 bp of sequence comprised of four 162 partial housekeeping gene sequences previously generated for each strain from Humphrey 163 et al. (2014). Orthologous sequences from the genome of Psm4326 were derived from its 164 published genome sequence (Baltrus et al. 2011); RefSeq ID NZ AEAK0000000.1). 165

### Inferring indirect interactions from the pairwise network

We next examined the structure of the pairwise competitive interaction network for signa-167 tures of intransitivity (i.e., non-hierarchical or context-dependent interactions). Using data 168 from pairwise interaction outcomes, we assessed (1) whether three-strain competitions would 169 result in intransitive loops (e.g., rock-paper-scissors outcomes) such that no species would be 170 globally dominant; and (2) whether the presence of secretions from a nearby P. fluorescens 171 strain would reverse the outcome of a pairwise interaction that would typically result in 172 competitive dominance of a single strain (indirect facilitation). Facilitation can occur by 173 strain A releasing strain C from inhibition from strain B (where A also has to be resistant to 174 B's inhibitors), or from resource competition from superior competitor strain B. This analysis 175 is agnostic to mechanism but calculates the proportion of conditions under which facilitation of an otherwise weaker competitor is expected to arise. A total of 8,203 trios were analyzed 177 for potential facilitation based on the pairwise interaction data from 641 pairs of strains that 178 met the competitive asymmetry criteria. For each strain, we calculated the net effect of antagonistic vs. facilitative indirect interactions 180 across all possible trios and compared this to underlying fitness metrics derived from the 181 pair-wise interaction network. We then compared how strongly the net effects from indirect 182 facilitation are expected to change fitness ranks of strains in relation to their baseline values 183 of overall competitiveness  $(C_w)$ . 184

# 185 Results

# 186 Competitive outcomes

Pairwise soft-agar invasion assays revealed that the competitive ability of *P. fluorescens* strains was consistently superior to *P. syringae* strains (Fig. 1): ~99% of strain pairings

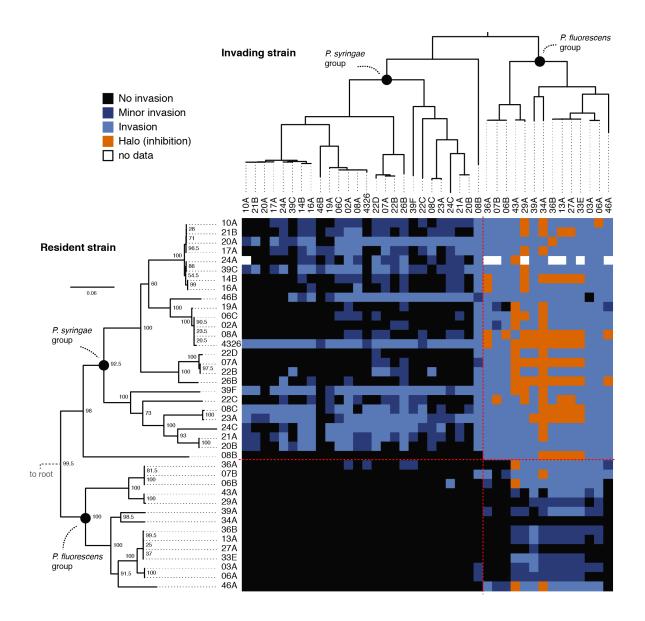


Figure 1: Pairwise competitive interactions in a phyllosphere *Pseudomonas* spp. community. Rows reflect strains in the resident state, while columns reflect strains in the invader state. Dashed red lines through interaction matrix denote within–between clade divisions for ease of visualization. Phylogeny modified from Humphrey et al. (2014).

between the two clades resulted in asymmetric dominance of *P. fluorescens* over *P. syringae* (99% Asym; Fig. S2; Tables S1, S2). Within *P. fluorescens*, the proportion of reciprocally non-invasible (RNI) pairings was significantly higher compared to within *P. syringae* pairings (Fig. S2; Tables S2, S3). The competitive dominance of *P. fluorescens* over *P. syringae* was evident across both exploitative and interference-based measures of competitiveness (Figs 1, 2; Table S1).

Of the 40 strains assayed, 13 (all *P. fluorescens*) produced halos surrounding some subset

### 195 Interference competition

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of the resident strains they invaded (antibiosis), indicating the production of antibiotics 197 (diffusible inhibitors/toxins) (Fig. 1). Mean inhibition index  $(I_w)$  among P. fluorescens 198 strains was 0.15, although two strains inhibited only one other, and P. fluorescens strain 199 03A failed to inhibit any strain (Fig. 1). Four P. fluorescens strains were susceptible to 200 inhibition by two of the toxic strains (43A, 34A; Fig. 1). Resistance to toxin producers in P. 201 syringae was variable, although the mean value was high at 0.72 (Fig. 2b; Table S1). 202 In at least one case, resistance among P. syringae strains showed a strong correlation with 203 phylogenetic position: invading strain P. fluorescens str. 43A adopted distinctly different 204 phenotypes in pairings with P. syringae strains from different sub-clades (perMANOVA F =205 7.04, 1000 permutations, p = 0.002; Fig. S3). Nine of the 25 43A megacolonies had a smooth 206 morphology, 13 adopted a highly motile morphology we call the "smooth spreader", and 207 the three remaining adopted a wrinkly spreader-like morphology (Fig. S3a-c). Inhibitor 208 production by 43A was strongly associated with the smooth morph ( $\chi^2 = 19.2, p < 0.001$ ; 209 Fig. S3e); 43A only inhibited one strain as the smooth spreader morph, and then only after 210 it had stopped expanding across the plate (personal observation). None of the three wrinkly 211 spreader-like morphs produced toxins that inhibited a resident strain. 212

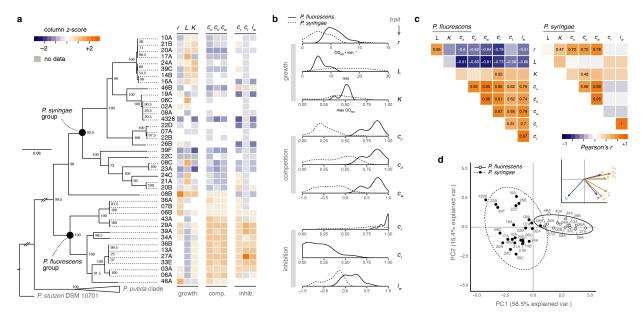


Figure 2: Phylogenetic distribution of life history trait variation within a Pseu-domonas spp. community. a. Life history components are maximum growth rate  $(r_m)$ , lag phase (l), maximum yield (K), derived from individual microcosm growth experiments; and components of offensive  $(C_o)$ , defensive  $(C_d)$ , overall  $(C_w)$  competitiveness, resistance to toxicity  $(C_r)$ , toxicity  $(C_t)$ , and overall interference capacity  $(I_w)$  derived from a pairwise competitive interaction network (see Methods). Column z-score of each trait value indicated by color. b. Smoothed frequency distributions of trait values for each measured trait by clade (P. fluorescens) and P. syringae). c. Pairwise correlations and principle component analysis (PCA) (d) of nine traits revealed clear dissimilarities in trait distributions and patterns of co-variance between clades. Correlations with text values reflect magnitude of each Pearson's  $\rho$  where the FDR corrected p < 0.05; comparisons with FDR-corrected p < 0.10 are italicized. d. PCA 95% envelopes per clade depicted as solid or dashed ellipses. Dots are labeled with strain IDs. Individual trait vector loadings are in blue for resource use traits and orange for competitive indexes).

### Life history correlates of competitiveness

The correlations between competition and growth traits showed opposite patterns for strains 214 within P. syringae versus P. fluorescens: overall exploitative competitiveness  $(C_w)$  was neg-215 atively correlated with both r and L for P. fluorescens (Pearson's  $\rho = -0.78, -0.75,$  re-216 spectively; Fig. 2c). That is, P. fluorescens strains with shorter lag (smaller L), and thus 217 smaller r, were more competitive in our assay. This apparent trade-off between maximum in 218 vitro growth rate r and growth initiation (1/L) was not observed across P. syrinage strains. 219 Instead,  $C_w$  in P. syringae was positively correlated with only r ( $\rho = 0.78$ ; Fig. 2c). Strains 220 from neither clade showed a canonical trade-off between r and in vitro saturation density 221 (K). On the contrary, P. syringae strains showed a positive correlation between K and 222 growth rate as well as defensive capacity  $C_d$ , while for P. fluorescens K was positively cor-223 related with levels of resistance  $(C_r)$ . Overall, offense  $(C_o)$  and defense  $(C_d)$  were strongly 224 positively correlated with linear slopes near 1 for both clades (Fig. 2c; Fig. S5). All three 225 measures of exploitative competition were positively related to interference measures for P. 226 fluorescens (Fig. 2c). Principal component analysis (PCA) of all nine traits revealed largely non-overlapping 95% 228 confidence ellipses for the two clades (Fig. 2d). The first two PCs together explained 72.5% 229 of the variation in the data. The loading vectors of  $C_w$  and lag duration were in opposing 230 directions, indicating a negative correlation, while those for competitiveness and inhibitory 231 capacity are largely co-linear, indicating a positive correlation (Fig. 2d). The loading for 232 resistance,  $C_r$ , was nearly co-linear with lag duration, a relationship not apparent in the 233 pair-wise correlation analysis in Fig. 2c. 234 Overall, strains within the P. syringae clade showed greater intra-clade pairwise trait dif-235 ferences across PCs 1-3 than strains within P. fluorescens (Welch's unequal variants t test,  $t = 8.7, p < 10^{-6}$ ; Fig. S7). While multivariate trait distance increased on average with phylogenetic distance ( $D_g$  term  $\beta=0.1,~p<10^{-10};$  Table S4), P. syringae strains showed

a higher average trait distance even after accounting for  $D_g$  in a multiple regression model (Psyr term  $\beta = 0.9$ ,  $p < 10^{-8}$ ; Table S4).

### Competitive interaction network and intransitivity

Five trios met the criteria for a rock-paper-scissor game out of the 9,604 possible trios of interactions evaluated (Fig. 3a). Nine unique strains were implicated in these trios. Each 243 trio was comprised of distantly related P. syringae strains (mean  $D_G$  between strains in 244 R-P-S trios = 0.118 [0.115 - 0.122 95% CI]. A further 632 (7.7%) met the criteria whereby 245 the inferior competitor was facilitated by the inhibition of the superior competitor by a third 246 party to which the facilitated strain was resistant (Fig. 3a). 247 Despite the overall tendency to reinforce pairwise interactions, indirect facilitation from 248 inhibitor-producing strains implicated nearly all (39) of the 40 studied strains in one or more 249 of the three possible trio roles: the facilitator, the knocked-out competitor, or the facilitated 250 strain (A, B, and C, respectively; Fig. 3a). Overall, 26 strains were facilitated (C), and 251 21 of these also served as the knocked-out competitor (B) in a subset of the trios (Fig 3b, inset). Twelve of the 13 inhibitor-producing strains (all P. fluorescens) were implicated as facilitators (A strains) (Fig 3b, inset). 254 Intuitively, the propensity towards B vs. C roles was correlated by underlying differences 255 in competitive fitness: the most facilitated strains (high C fraction) were among the least 256 competitive (low  $C_w$ ) in the population, indicated by a negative correlation (r = -0.76257 [0.86 - 0.58] 95% CI],  $p < 10^{-5}$ ; Fig. 2c). B strains were intermediate relative to the entire 258 range of  $C_w$  values. Facilitator A strains had consistently higher  $C_w$ , owing to the generally 259 higher competitiveness of P. fluorescens strains: in all but 6 of the 632 facilitation trios, 260 the A strain out-competed the C strain in the pairwise network, even though such strains 261 were resistant to their inhibitors (Fig 3b). This finding suggests that facilitation in this 262 network depends on it occurring at a distance whereby the facilitator does not immediately 263

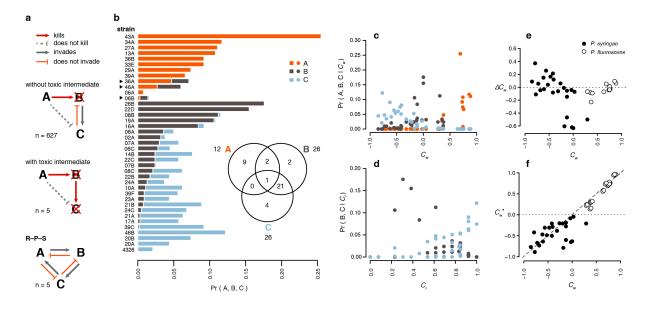


Figure 3: Prevalence of intransitive interactions in a *Pseudomonas* spp. interaction network. a. Types of interaction trios resulting in facilitation or rock-paper-scissors (R-P-S) competitive asymmetries. N = number of trios meeting the given criteria out of the total trios analyzed (see Methods). b. Frequency distributions of how often each strain played the facilitator (A), the knocked-out intermediate (B), or the facilitated (C). Several strains played multiple roles; strains in facilitative trios with as well as without toxic intermediates are indicated with black triangles to the left of the strain IDs. Panel (b) inset displays the distribution of the number of unique strains that played each combination of roles. Only 06B played all three roles. The probability of playing A, B, or C roles in facilitative trios varied with (c) overall competitiveness,  $C_w$ , as well as (d) resistance. e.  $\Delta C_w$  plotted against base-line  $C_w$  shows initially weaker P. syringae strains benefit the most from indirect interactions (Pearson's  $\rho = -0.67$ ), while P. fluorescens fitness remains relatively unaffected by indirect interactions ( $\rho = 0.74$ ). f. Net competitive fitness ( $C_w' = C_w + \Delta C_w$ ) after considering indirect effects weakens competitive hierarchies among P. syringae ( $\rho = 0.50$ ) but has little effect on P. fluorescens competitive fitness ( $\rho = 0.98$ ).

out-compete the resistant strain which it facilitated. Also intuitively, resistance  $(C_r)$  was 264 strongly positively correlated with the probability of being facilitated (Pearson's  $\rho = 0.57$  $[0.32 - 0.75 95\% \text{ CI}], p < 10^{-4}.$ 266 Only rarely were P. fluorescens strains anything other than the facilitator strain: only three 267 were ever knocked out by an A strain to which they lacked resistance (36A, 46A, 06B). 268 This finding reveals that P. fluorescens strains very rarely benefit from indirect facilitation, 260 in contrast to their frequent role as facilitator (Fig. S8). One strain (P. fluorescens str. 270 43A) played the role of facilitator (A) in >25% of all facilitation trios, over 2.5-fold more 271 often than the next most frequent facilitator (Fig. 3b). This indicates that the presence 272 of individual inhibitor-producing community member can substantially shift the outcome 273 distribution among non-producers. 274 Averaged across all inhibitor-producing strains, the net effects of indirect interactions reshuf-275 fled the fitness ranks of P. syringae strains to a degree that weakens the original pairwise 276 competitive hierarchy (rank correlation  $\rho$  between  $C_w$  and  $C_w' = 0.50$ ; Fig. 3e; Fig. S8), 277 such that the former advantage of several top P. syringae competitors gets redistributed 278 across a larger number of relatively weaker competitors. In contrast, the hierarchy among 270 P. fluorescens strains was generally recapitulated, or exacerbated, by indirect interactions 280 arising from antibiosis in this network. 281

# 82 Discussion

#### 283 Overview

We discovered clear clade- and trait-level associations with the outcomes of competitive interactions among naturally occurring bacterial strains. Using a subset of endophytic bacteria isolated from a native sub-alpine plant (*C. cordifolia*), we found major differences in both exploitative and interference competitiveness between the two principle *Pseudomonas* 

spp. clades in this endophytic community. Trait co-variance structure revealed the biological differences between these two major clades of native plant-associated *Pseudomonas* spp. bacteria. Such patterns suggest that the evolution of competitiveness may involve distinct 290 components of life history in these bacterial lineages. When placed into an ecological context, 291 the trait distributions we revealed across this bacterial assemblage are predicted to generate 292 context dependence in competitive outcomes in the form of facilitation, whereby a inhibitor 293 strain displaces a strong competitor and thereby facilitates a resistant but weaker recipient. 294 Thus, the community context of interference competition is important for predicting the 295 outcome of competitive pairings which typically depend primarily on exploitative capacity. 296 Such a dataset allows dissection of several dimensions of in vitro fitness exhibited by a 297 natural community of phyllosphere *Pseudomonas* spp. and provides a platform for testing 298 hypotheses about the mechanistic bases of competitive traits (e.g., toxin production and 299 resistance) and their potential effects on ecological diversity and microbiome community structure. We also showed that P. fluorescens, presumed to be soil dweller, can be both common and important in structuring the outcome of ecological interactions within the 302 context of the leaf microbiome. Together, this work helps build an understanding of how 303 competitive traits might evolve in tandem with other life history traits in representatives 304 from real communities that interact in nature.

# Correlations between growth traits and competitiveness

Neither *P. syringae* nor *P. fluorescens* strains exhibited canonical growth rate trade-offs with maximum yield, *K*, which can result in a tragedy of the commons whereby rapid but wasteful use of resources yields higher competitive ability (Pfeiffer *et al.* 2001; MacLean 2008). Rather, a more pronounced signal was that maximum growth rate was correlated with a longer lag phase in *P. fluorescens*. This pattern contradicts the traditional dichotomy between generally "fast" vs. "slow" life histories and contrasts with patterns observed in

microbial evolution experiments. For example, Escherichia coli lines adapting to a glucoselimited environment exhibited coordinated increases in growth rate and shorter lag time after 10,000 generations (Vasi et al. 1994; Lenski et al. 1998). Additionally, E. coli selected 315 to persist in lag phase during periods of antibiotic stress exhibited no pleiotropic changes in 316 maximum growth rate despite up to a 10-fold increase in lag time (Fridman et al. 2014). Our 317 study adds support for the idea that lag phase deserves attention as an important feature of 318 microbial life cycles, and characterizing the physiology of cells during this phase may reveal 319 the nature of its correlations with maximum growth rate and competitive fitness in this and 320 other systems. 321

The negative correlation between lag phase and growth rate in P. fluorescens resembles a 322 colonization—competition trade-off. Spatial priority effects arising from territoriality can pro-323 vide a mechanism for maintenance of colonization-competition trade-offs that would other-324 wise lead to competitive exclusion (Edwards & Schreiber 2010). A colonization—competition trade-off underlies territoriality in Vibrio spp. based on the differential ability of clones to contest territory vs. disperse to new ephemeral habitats (Yawata et al. 2014). One hy-327 pothesis arising from our work is that P. fluorescens strains that preempt as much space 328 as possible within patchy and ephemeral leaf environments may reap the rewards of their 329 territorial monopoly even at the expense of a decreased maximal growth rate. 330

The production of exudate  $(C_t)$  or exudate resistance  $(C_r)$  did not trade-off with any of the 331 life history traits we measured (Fig. 2a). This is consistent with findings that exudate pro-332 duction did not affect in vitro growth rates measures in P. fluorescens (Garbeva et al. 2011). 333 Instead, we found a positive correlation between inhibitory ability  $(C_t)$  and overall exploita-334 tive competitiveness for P. fluorescens. Although perhaps unexpected from a theoretical 335 perspective (Neumann & Jetschke 2010), such a positive correlation is nevertheless intuitive: 336 megacolonies invading a resident strain presumably must reach a critical size in order for any toxicity to be detectable if induction is either density dependent or if the toxic effects 338 are concentration dependent. Cells may only reach such a critical density if their relative

exploitative competitiveness enables them to do so, without which interference competitive ability is irrelevant. Further empirical work, scaling from individual cells to populations, will be required to properly ground co-existence theory for microbes in mechanistic models of trait-trait interactions.

Our study is limited in that we relied on visible manifestation of growth inhibition. Inter-344 ference mechanisms range from direct injection of bacterial effectors via Type VI Secretion 345 Systems (Decoin et al. 2014, 2015), the production of subversive growth-regulating secreted 346 N-acylhomoserine lactones (AHLs) or enzymes that quench these signals typically involved 347 in quorum sensing (Dulla & Lindow 2009; Dulla et al. 2010), or the production of secreted 348 toxins (e.g. bacteriocins or phage-derived proteins). Further work is needed to describe 349 the range of interference mechanisms that may operate within plant microbiomes and to 350 characterize the ecological effects of newly described modes of interference capable of being 351 deployed by P. syringae (Hockett et al. 2015; Kandel et al. 2020) that this study was not capable of detecting.

## 354 Ecological implications

If strains from P. syringae and P. fluorescens were to compete in an unstructured environment, where preemption of space was irrelevant, P. syringae strains with high growth rates 356 might be expected to out compete a variety of P. fluorescens strains with relatively lower 357 growth rates (Fig. 2). But within the structured and ephemeral context of the leaf environ-358 ment, P. fluorescens may act as a territorial species whose potential effect in the phyllosphere 359 may be to exclude colonization by other strains including P. syringae. This is consistent 360 with the identity of P. fluorescens as a plant mutualist, although the evidence of this comes 361 exclusively, to our knowledge, from studies of its indirect effects via plant defensive signaling 362 or direct toxicity to pathogenic fungi following its colonizing of plant roots (Mendes et al. 363 2011; Hol et al. 2013). In addition to such indirect effects, the superior competitiveness of P.

fluorescens over P. syringae suggests that direct interactions may affect phyllosphere bacterial community assembly and plant disease risk from phytopathogenic isolates of P. syringae. Irrespective of the underlying mechanisms of interference and resistance, the frequency of these traits in a community may have large indirect effects that generate context-dependent competitive asymmetries among diverse genotypes.

The ecological context in which traits are expressed impacts functional diversity (both ge-370 netic and phenotypic) found within natural communities (Ohgushi et al. 2012), despite 371 strong pairwise competitive asymmetries, as seen here between Pseudomonas spp. clades. 372 In our interaction network, indirect effects of interference competition may equalize fitness 373 differences between P. syringae competitors that otherwise have asymmetric exploitative 374 abilities (Fig. 3b; Fig. S8). Facilitation of the sort explored here is only possible with an 375 intermediate frequency of toxin resistance expressed by P. syringae (Fig. 3d). The fact that 376 resistance is not more common among P. syringae suggests a cost of resistance that did not manifest itself in the assays conducted in our study. Further study into the mechanisms of production of, and resistance to, interference traits in this community would help explain the distribution of these traits in the community as well as their costs and correlations with 380 other traits. 381

We show that the gains from facilitation are predominantly accrued by weaker resource 382 competitors (Fig. 3c-f; Fig. S8). Only in a small subset of the facilitation trios could the 383 facilitated strain invade the producer. When the facilitated strain does not pose a competitive 384 threat to the facilitator—as is the case most of the time here—the gains from facilitation may 385 be short-lived. However, the overall effect of this degree of facilitation may be to prolong 386 periods between exclusion/extinction events, elevating the diversity that is observable at any 387 given point within the system (Laird & Schamp 2006). The additional form of intransitivity 388 found in our study is a pair of extended trios that have R-P-S invasion asymmetries, which are predicted to lead to frequency-dependent or cyclical invasion dynamics (Laird 2014). This prediction is awaiting an empirical test, and this system presents an excellent opportunity

for doing so.

#### 393 Conclusions

We found that competitive abilities of strains within a natural assemblage of plant-derived Pseudomonas spp. varied between the two major clades present, P. fluorescens and P. sy-395 ringae. Competitive fitness in our assays hinged on different traits in these two clades, and 396 the higher degree of inter-strain trait dispersion in P. syringae may indicate that the focal 397 traits measured here undergo more rapid evolution given the same degree of phylogenetic 398 divergence (Fig. 2d; Fig. S7). We found no apparent life history trade-offs between growth 399 rate and yield. Although speculative, the P. fluorescens clade may contain early colonizing 400 strains that contest territory to a greater extent, which may serve to directly buffer against 401 leaf colonization from potentially phytopathogenic P. syringae. In contrast, a high degree of 402 inhibitor resistance among P. syringae may prevent local exclusion when spatial structure 403 releases them from direct exploitative competition with P. fluorescens. Finally, the com-404 bination of exploitative and interference competition due to inhibitor-mediated facilitation 405 may stabilize co-existence of strains that otherwise competitively exclude one another. Our study sheds light on the types of ecological interactions between bacterial lineages within microbiomes that should be quantified during development of microbial formations for clinical and crop enhancing purposes.

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#### 418 Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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