

1 Title: Environment dependence of rhizobial relative fitness in the legume-rhizobia symbiosis

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13

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28

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32

33 *Supplemental Figures and Tables:*

34

35 *Abstract:*

36 Spatial and temporal variation in resource availability, population density, and composition
37 likely affect the ecology and evolution of symbiotic interactions. We examined how host
38 genotype, Nitrogen addition, rhizobial density, and community complexity affected a legume-
39 rhizobia (*Medicago truncatula* - *Ensifer meliloti*) mutualism. Host genotype had the strongest
40 effect on the size, number, and rhizobial composition of root nodules (the symbiotic organ). By
41 contrast, the effect of small changes in N-availability and the complexity of the inoculum
42 community (2, 3, 8, or 68 strains) were minor. Higher inoculum density resulted in a nodule
43 community that was less diverse and more beneficial but only in the more selective host. With
44 the less selective host, higher density resulted in more diverse and less beneficial nodule
45 communities. Density effects on strain composition deserve additional scrutiny as they can create
46 eco-evolutionary feedback and have translational relevance for overcoming establishment
47 barriers in bio-inoculants.

48

49 *Short Abstract:*

50 The environmental context of the nitrogen-fixing mutualism between leguminous plants
51 and rhizobial bacteria varies over space and time. The understudied environmental variable of
52 rhizobial density had a larger effect on the relative fitness of 68 rhizobia (*Ensifer meliloti*) strains
53 in nodules than the addition of low-levels of nitrogen or community complexity.

54 *Introduction:*

55 Biotic interactions have important consequences for population dynamics (Morris *et al.*
56 2019), selection (Caruso *et al.* 2017), and local adaptation (Runquist *et al.* 2020) of interacting
57 species. Of course, these biotic interactions do not occur in isolation and the benefits and costs
58 of the interaction can be modified (Bronstein 1994) by population density, the presence of
59 additional species (Wood *et al.* 2018), genetics (Ford *et al.* 2017) and abiotic factors such as
60 resource availability (Schultz *et al.* 2001; Lau *et al.* 2014; Wurzburger & Ford 2014;
61 Rivett *et al.* 2016) or moisture levels (Wolinska & King 2009; Louthan *et al.* 2018; Benning &
62 Moeller 2019). These responses (*i.e.* plasticity) can evolve if there is genetic variation in traits
63 that modify the sensitivity of an interaction to additional environmental variables such as
64 immunity, stress tolerance, or phenology (e.g. Ramegowda & Senthil-Kumar 2015; Garrido-Oter
65 *et al.* 2018). Here we examine how three sources of environmental variation, resource
66 availability, rhizobia density, and rhizobial community complexity, affect the rhizobium species
67 (*Ensifer meliloti*) as it engages in symbiosis with its leguminous host plant (*Medicago*
68 *truncatula*).

70 Environment dependence is a recurring theme in the study of the symbiosis between
71 legume plants and rhizobial bacteria (Heath & Tiffin 2007; Keller & Lau 2018; Burghardt 2020).
72 In this mutualistic relationship, rhizobia convert atmospheric nitrogen (N₂) into a plant-useable
73 form to support host growth and reproduction while rhizobia gain carbon resources from the
74 plant to support the growth and reproduction prior to release back into the soil (Denison & Kiers
75 2011; Poole *et al.* 2018). While this relationship is commonly beneficial to the plant host (Gibert
76 *et al.* 2018), the magnitude of these fitness benefits to the plant depends on the identity of the
77 rhizobial strain as well as additional environmental parameters including N, P, water- and light-
78 availability, and temperature (Larimer *et al.* 2014; Vuong *et al.* 2017; Keller & Lau 2018; Heath
79 *et al.* 2020). Experiments in which plants are inoculated with a single rhizobial strain, often at
80 very high density, have shown that the benefits rhizobia obtain from symbiosis also can be
81 context dependent (e.g. Friel & Friesen 2019; Batstone *et al.* 2020). However, in natural and
82 agricultural populations rhizobia densities are likely to vary and multiple rhizobia strains
83 compete for nodule occupancy and host enrichment (Burghardt 2020). Results from single-strain
84 experiments may not be directly translatable to multi-strain environments because between-strain

85 competition can strongly affect nodulation success (Triplett & Sadowsky 1992). Indeed, strain
86 fitness proxies in single-strain environments are not strongly correlated with strain fitness in
87 multi-strain communities (Burghardt *et al.* 2018).

88
89 Theoretically, resource availability has the potential to shape the evolution of resource-
90 based symbiosis (Akçay *et al.* 2011; Bever 2015). N-availability could affect selection acting on
91 rhizobia and plant hosts via a number of mechanisms. For instance, additional N can reduce the
92 overall frequency of associations with hosts by reducing nodule number or size (Heath & Tiffin
93 2007; Heath *et al.* 2010; Menge *et al.* 2015). While forming fewer nodules in high N
94 environments may have little effect on plant fitness, it certainly reduces the chances of each
95 rhizobia associating with a legume and, if nodules remain small, also reduces the number of
96 rhizobia released from host nodules (a major component of the fitness benefit rhizobia receive
97 from engaging in the symbiosis). Nitrogen can also alter competitiveness among symbionts,
98 perhaps through altering the strength of host preference (Elliott *et al.* 2009) or enrichment via
99 host rewards/sanctions (Kiers *et al.* 2006; Oono *et al.* 2011). Despite the intuitive appeal of
100 theoretical predictions that additional N will reduce host dependence on rhizobia and lead to
101 relaxed selection for rhizobial host benefit, there is limited empirical support for N-mediated
102 shifts in competitive outcomes between rhizobia. Partner choice as measured by nodule
103 occupancy does not shift with N-addition in *Acmispon* (Regus 2014, Wendlandt *et al.* 2019) or
104 *Medicago* (Laguerre *et al.* 2012; Grillo *et al.* 2016) and only weakly shifts in *Mimosa* (Elliott *et al.*
105 *et al.* 2009). However, which strain initiates each nodule only represents the first stage of selection.
106 Once nodules form, differential nodule growth and strain reproduction can allow some strains to
107 increase in frequency relative to others, but again, studies to date suggest that N has only a
108 limited effect on rhizobial fitness (Laguerre *et al.* 2012; Vuong *et al.* 2017).

109
110 Unlike N-addition, the effect of rhizobial population density on the legume benefit and
111 rhizobial fitness has received scant empirical attention. However, population densities can
112 strongly affect the ecology and evolution of biotic interactions including hosts and pathogens
113 (*e.g.* Schuhegger *et al.* 2006), predator and prey (*e.g.* Jaffee 2003), and plants and pollinators
114 (*e.g.* Moeller 2004). The density of rhizobial symbionts varies over space and time. For example,
115 twenty years of cropping system differences resulted in four-orders-of-magnitude differences in

116 rhizobia population densities: 6.8×10^6 rhizobia gram^{-1} in soy/wheat/maize rotations, 4.5×10^5 in
117 continuous soy, and 6.1×10^2 in continuous maize (Yan *et al.* 2014). There are many reasons to
118 suspect that selection could be density dependent; the density of rhizobia in the soil could affect
119 the number of nodules that a host forms (Oldroyd *et al.* 2001), the role of quorum sensing
120 (Gonzalez & Marketon 2003; Sanchez-Contreras *et al.* 2007; Veliz-Vallejos *et al.* 2014), and the
121 relative importance of host-mediated vs. soil-mediated selection (Daubech *et al.* 2017; Westhoek
122 *et al.* 2017). Predicting the outcome of rhizobial density on strain selection is, however, difficult.
123 For instance, when rhizobial population densities are high more nodulation sites (root hairs) will
124 interact with multiple strains and more nodules will be formed and thus, we might expect
125 opportunities for plant-imposed selection on bacterial populations to increase (Westhoek *et al.*
126 2017). On the other hand, when rhizobial densities are high, plant control may decrease as traits
127 that influence rhizobial competitiveness become more important (Triplett & Sadowsky 1992).

128

129 Much of the empirical work on legume-rhizobia symbiosis relies on single-strain
130 inoculations, however, in nature legume hosts often form nodules with a diverse community of
131 strains (Thies *et al.* 1991; Rangin *et al.* 2008). Microbial community complexity can affect
132 community assembly and interactions (Billick & Case 1994). Synthetic communities are
133 increasingly being used to query the effect of additional community members (Coward *et al.*
134 2008; Großkopf & Soyer 2014; Widder *et al.* 2016). For example, Freidman *et al.* (2017) showed
135 that competitive outcomes between two bacterial strains living in the guts of *C. elegans* are not
136 affected by the presence of additional strains (Lopez *et al.* 2019). While rhizobial strain
137 frequency in nodules is clearly dependent on the presence of other strains (Triplett & Sadowsky
138 1992; Laguerre *et al.* 2012; Westhoek *et al.* 2017), experiments have not investigated whether
139 pairwise competitive outcomes are affected by the presence of other strains. In other words, does
140 strain A always beat strain B regardless of which and how many other strains are present in the
141 community?

142

143 Here we report on the extent to which strain fitness in nodules and plant traits are affected
144 by each of three environmental factors, N-availability, population density, and the complexity of
145 the rhizobial community to which plants are exposed. Given previous work showing that
146 rhizobial fitness can strongly depend on host genotype (Burghardt *et al.* 2018, 2019b, a; Gano-

147 Cohen *et al.* 2019) we examine the effect of these treatments on each of two commonly used
148 plant genotypes. Our results indicate that host-genotype has a much greater effect on strain
149 fitness than the environmental manipulations. Among the environmental manipulations, the
150 effects of bacterial density were approximately twice as great as the effects of N-addition.
151 Community complexity had little effect on the relative fitness rankings of rhizobial strains
152 suggesting that higher-order interactions between strains are rare. Our results suggest that
153 variation in population densities could influence ecological and evolutionary dynamics in
154 rhizobial communities and are a factor that should be considered more explicitly in empirical,
155 theoretical, and applied work.

156

157

158 **Material and methods**

159 We measured strain communities inside host nodules using a select-and-resequence
160 approach, a variant of evolve-and-resequence approaches (Burghardt *et al.* 2018). We inoculated
161 plants with a community of 68 rhizobial strains (hereafter referred to as C68). These strains
162 were chosen to capture the majority of genetic variation present among 160 sequenced strains
163 (Epstein *et al.* 2018; Nelson *et al.* 2018). To evaluate whether increasing the amount of N
164 available to plants altered strain composition of the nodule community, we grew plants with a
165 low level of additional N (+100ml 3mMol KNO₃ week⁻¹). To evaluate the potential for rhizobia
166 density to affect strain fitness, we inoculated plants with two rhizobial densities: low (5x10⁵
167 rhizobia plant⁻¹) and high (5x10⁷ rhizobia plant⁻¹). To examine the effect of community
168 complexity, we constructed communities of nested subsets of eight, three, and all pairwise
169 competitions of the three. To form the rhizobia communities, we grew each of 68 *E. meliloti*
170 strains in 3ml Tryptone yeast media (6g tryptone, 3g yeast extract, 0.38g CaCl₂ per L) for 3 days
171 and then combined an equal volume of each culture to generate a community (C68) with
172 approximately equal representation of each strain (median strain frequency 0.014, range 0.009-
173 0.02). We used the same method to form the eight (C8), three (C3), and three two-strain
174 communities (M:H, M:K, and H:K). All strain names are list in Supplemental Figure S3.

175

176 Seeds of two host genotypes A17 var. Varma and R108 (Medicago HapMap accession
177 numbers HM101 and HM340, Stanton-Geddes *et al.* 2013) were bleached, rinsed, scarified with

178 a razor blade, stratified on wet filter paper at 4°C in the dark for two days, and then allowed to
179 germinate at room temperature for one day. Twelve germinated seeds were then planted in each
180 of 45 1L pots filled with sterilized Sunshine Mix. When seedlings were three days old 100 ul of
181 each rhizobial community diluted in 9.9 ml 0.85% NaCl w/v solution were used to inoculate
182 each pot (approximately 10^8 cells, except for the low-density treatment which was inoculated
183 with $\sim 10^6$ cells, Figure S1). Plants were fertilized with 150ml of N-free fertilizer (Bucciarelli *et*
184 *al.* 2006 see Burghardt *et. al.* 2018 for details) once a week and watered with sterile water as
185 needed. Six weeks after planting, we sampled ~ 500 (A17) or ~ 200 (R108) nodules from the
186 plants in each pot (Figure S2), crushed them, and used a series of differential centrifugation steps
187 to enrich for and pellet undifferentiated bacteria (Burghardt *et al.* 2018). Pellets were stored at -
188 20°C until we extracted DNA using the UltraClean Microbial DNA Isolation Kit (no. 12224; Mo
189 Bio Laboratories). In addition to harvesting the nodules, we measured on a per plant basis:
190 nodule number, nodule fresh weight, and vegetative and root biomass (dried at 60°C for 72
191 hours).

192
193 *Strain frequencies:* We estimated the frequency of each strain in each nodule pool using the
194 method in Burghardt *et al.* 2018. In brief, DNA isolated from each replicate was sequenced on
195 an Illumina HiSeq 2500 (NexteraXT libraries, 125 bp paired-end reads, 3.6-9.4 million read pairs
196 library⁻¹). Reads were trimmed with TrimGalore! (v0.4.1) using default settings, except with
197 minimum read length = 100 bp, quality threshold = 30, and minimum adapter match = 3. We
198 used bwa mem (v0.7.17; Li and Durbin, 2010) with default settings to align reads to the *E.*
199 *meliloti* USDA1106 genome (Nelson *et al.* 2018; NCBI BioProject: PRJNA388336). We
200 identified SNPs segregating in each of the sequenced communities using FreeBayes (v1.2.0-2-
201 g29c4002; (Garrison & Marth 2012) with a minimum read mapping quality of 30. After cleaning
202 and alignment, median read depth per sample was 65X (range 29X-115X). To estimate strain
203 frequency, we used only SNPs for which every strain had an unambiguous call. We then
204 estimated the frequency of each strain in each sample using HARP (Kessner *et al.* 2013) as
205 described in Burghardt *et al.* (2018).

206
207 *Nodule community measurements:* Based on strain frequencies, we calculated three nodule
208 community metrics for each replicate: composition, diversity, and host benefit. We estimated

209 community composition as the fold change in the frequency of each strain (q_x) in a nodule
210 community relative to mean frequency of that strain across four sequencing replicates of the
211 initial community (fitness = $\log_2(q_x \text{ selected} / \bar{q}_x \text{ initial})$). This transformation both normalizes the
212 frequency distribution and controls for small differences in initial strain frequency (median q_x
213 $\text{initial}=0.0092$, 5%-95% quantile: 0.0054-0.0154). We estimated community diversity as the
214 exponent of Shannon diversity, which we calculated using the ‘renyi’ function in vegan package
215 of R. We calculated predicted host benefit as the sum of the per strain frequency in nodules
216 multiplied by the dry plant weight from a single-strain inoculation experiment (data from
217 (Burghardt *et al.* 2018):

$$218 \quad \frac{\sum_{x=1}^n q_x * \text{dry plant weight in single strain experiment}_x}{\sum_{x=1}^n q_x}$$

219 For A17 replicates we used A17 single-strain data and for R108 we used R108 single-strain data.
220 We scaled each host-specific dataset to range from zero (complete occupancy by the least
221 beneficial strain) to one (complete occupancy by the most beneficial strain).

222
223 *Statistical analysis of community measures:* We used redundancy analysis (RDA, “rda” in the
224 vegan R package Oskanen et al. 2017) and ANOVA to analyze the effects of Host genotype (H),
225 Density (D), and Nitrogen (N) and their interactions on each of the nodule community measures.
226 To collapse the dimensionality of the strain relative fitness data and analyze shifts in relative
227 fitness across treatments, we used RDA. RDA fits a multivariate linear regression to centered
228 and scaled data and then uses principal component analysis (PCA) to decompose the major axes
229 of variation in the fitted parameters. The adjusted R^2 of each RDA model provides an estimate of
230 the proportion of variance in relative fitness explained by the model predictor(s). We permuted
231 the data to determine the probability that fitness differences occurred by chance (‘anova’
232 function, 999 permutations). To analyze strain diversity, we used an ANOVA (‘lm’ and ‘anova’)
233 to test for differences amongst treatments. To analyze host benefit, we used an ANOVA (‘lm’
234 and ‘anova’). Because the effects of D and N were host dependent (H x D, H x N interactions),
235 we also analyzed the effects of N, D, and their interaction for each host separately.

236
237 *Analysis of rank order and community complexity:* For each pairwise competition of the three
238 strains used to form three-strain community (C3), we identified the strain with higher strain

239 frequency and asked if the same strain was at higher frequency in the more complex three strain
240 community. We also examined whether strain frequency rankings in the C3 community
241 remained the same in the eight- (C8) and sixty-eight- (C68) strain communities. Likewise, we
242 examined whether the frequency rankings of each of the strains in the C8 community remained
243 the same in the C68 community.

244

245 *Statistical analysis of plant phenotypes:* We used an ANOVA ('lm' and 'anova') to test for the
246 effects of host genotype, inoculum density, and nitrogen level and their interactions on six plant
247 traits (nodule number, average nodule weight, nodule weight per, shoot biomass, root biomass,
248 and root to shoot ratio). The first two traits violated the assumption of homogeneity of variance
249 between hosts, so we focus on host-specific analyses. To evaluate the effect of community
250 complexity on plant phenotypes, we ran a model with Host (H) and community complexity (C;
251 2, 3, 8, and 68 strains) and their interaction as continuous predictors. Although we test for the
252 among-treatment differences in plant phenotypes, the experiments were designed to evaluate the
253 effect of treatments on strain fitness and were not well powered to detect among-treatment
254 differences in plant phenotypes.

255

256

257 **Results:**

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

259 Consistent with previous work, the strain composition of the nodule communities was
260 strongly affected by host genotype. In fact, host identity had a greater effect on strain
261 composition, Shannon's diversity, and predicted benefit of the nodule community (Figure 2,
262 Table 1, Table S1, Table S2), than did N-addition, inoculum density, or the complexity of the
263 inoculum community. Relative to R108, A17 hosts produced ~ 10 times more nodules (Fig 3a)
264 that were approximately one tenth the size (Fig 3b), and harbored nodule communities that were
265 less diverse (Fig 2b) and more beneficial (Fig 2c).

266

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

268 Because Nitrogen is the primary resource rhizobia provide to their host, researchers have
269 speculated, and modeling has suggested that N-availability could alter the relative fitness of

270 rhizobia strains. However, we found that N-availability explained only a small portion of the
271 variance in the overall composition of the nodule communities (2.2% of the RDA variance,
272 $p=0.23$; Figure 2), although the effect was slightly greater when hosts were analyzed separately
273 (in A17 $p=0.027$, 6.4% of the variance and in R108 $p = 0.46$, 4.2% of the variance; Table 1). N-
274 addition had similar magnitude of effect on the diversity (Shannon's) of the nodule community
275 and the predicted benefit of the strain community, with the effects being greater in A17
276 (diversity: $p=0.039$, 8.7% of variance and strain benefit: $p = 0.030$, 7.9% of variance) than R108
277 ($p=0.85$, 0.17% of variance and $p = 0.28$, 3.2% of variance, respectively). See Table S1 and
278 Table S2 for full results.

279

280 *Rhizobia inoculation density had a stronger effect than N-addition*

281 Inoculating plants with 100-fold less rhizobia cells caused larger changes in strain
282 diversity and predicted benefit of the nodule community than N-addition (Figure 2). Moreover,
283 the effect of density depended on the host. With A17 hosts, density explained 16.1% ($p=0.001$)
284 of variance in community composition vs. 6.4% ($p=0.027$) of the variance explained by N-
285 addition. With R108, density explained 6.1% ($p=0.053$) of the variance vs 4.2 % ($p=0.46$)
286 explained by N-addition. Density affected diversity of the nodule community in opposite
287 directions in the two hosts. Compared to the low-density inoculation, the high-density
288 inoculation resulted in A17 nodule communities being less diverse (based on Shannon's
289 diversity) and more beneficial (both $p < 0.001$). By contrast, with R108 the low-density
290 inoculation resulted in nodule community that was more diverse, although not greater than
291 expected by chance ($p = 0.78$) and less beneficial ($p < 0.003$). See Table S1 and Table S2 for
292 details.

293

294 *Relative fitness rankings are similar across communities of increasing complexity*

295 In nature, the complexity of rhizobial communities varies in both space and time. We
296 found that although the absolute frequency of each of three focal strains was strongly affected by
297 the presence of additional strains in the inoculum, we found little evidence that additional strains
298 in the inoculum community altered strain-rankings relative to each other. In other words, with
299 minor exceptions, the more frequent strain in pairwise competitions was also the more frequent
300 strain in more complex communities (Table 2). The minor exceptions involved two strains

301 (KH46c and HM006.1) that had nearly equal frequencies in pairwise inoculations and also nearly
302 equal frequency when part of more strain-rich communities (Figure S6; Table 2). Similarly the
303 relative-frequency ranking of strains when plants were inoculated with three strains (C3) were
304 almost always the same as the relative ranking of those strains when they were part of a 68 strain
305 inoculum community (Figure 4a) and the relative ranking of the strains in C8 treatment were
306 nearly always the same as they were in the C68 treatment (Figure 4b). These results suggest that
307 strain competitiveness is relatively robust to the presence of additional strains and strains with
308 higher frequency in pairwise competitions will also have higher frequencies in more complex
309 communities.

310

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

312 The effect of N-addition and inoculum density on plant phenotypes were host-specific
313 (Table S3). In A17, increased rhizobial density resulted in plants forming more nodules
314 ($p=0.004$; Fig 3a) that weighed less ($p<0.001$; Fig 3b). In R108, an increase in rhizobia density
315 resulted in plants forming more, but smaller nodules, but only in the N-addition environment
316 (Nitrogen x Density $p = 0.036$ & $p = 0.033$ respectively). Neither N-addition or rhizobia density
317 had measurable effects on either above or belowground biomass, although both N ($p=0.029$) and
318 to a lesser extent density ($p=0.087$) decreased the root to shoot ratio in A17 but not in R108 (Fig
319 S7). Complexity of the inoculum community had little effect on nodule number or vegetative
320 biomass (Fig S8; Table S4) although it did have minor effects on nodule weight in A17 but not
321 R108 (Host x Complexity $p= 0.018$), and root weight ($p = 0.053$) of both hosts.

322

323

324 **Discussion**

325 The symbiosis between legumes and rhizobia plays an important ecological role by
326 contributing nitrogen to natural and agricultural ecosystems and to the success of legumes
327 (Vitousek *et al.* 2013; Harrison *et al.* 2018; Taylor *et al.* 2020). Here we asked how host
328 genotype and each of three environmental factors, that are likely to vary spatially and temporally
329 affect the rhizobia community in nodules. Nitrogen, despite being the key benefit that rhizobia
330 provide plants, had relatively small effects on the strain composition, diversity, and benefit of
331 nodule communities. Similarly, the complexity of the inoculum community (number of strains

332 used to inoculate a plant) had only small effects on relative strain competitiveness, suggesting
333 that higher-order interactions among strains do not alter the pairwise rankings of strain success.
334 Interestingly, inoculum density had large and host-specific effects on the nodule community—
335 density had a larger effect on strain composition, diversity, and benefit in the host (A17) that
336 imposes greater selection on the rhizobia population.

337

338 Theoretically, the availability of alternative sources of the resources provided by
339 symbiosis can alter selection on beneficial symbionts (West *et al.* 2002; Akcay *et al.* 2011; Bever
340 2015). When mutualistic relationships are considered in a market framework, external N
341 improves the bargaining power of the host and increases the relative fitness of less beneficial
342 strains (Akcay *et al.* 2011). Similarly, relaxed selection for symbiont benefit could occur because
343 it is less costly for the host to allocate resources to a less beneficial partner if it can obtain the
344 resource from an alternative source (Bever 2015). Despite the potential, we found the addition of
345 small amounts of N had little effect on rhizobial strain composition, diversity, and the host
346 benefits of the nodule community. Indeed, in one host genotype (A17), selection for beneficial
347 strains was stronger, not weaker, in the N-addition environment. Our findings of subtle effects
348 of N-addition are consistent with several other studies of nodule occupancy (Kosslak & Bohlool
349 1985; Laguerre *et al.* 2012; Regus *et al.* 2014; Grillo *et al.* 2016; Wendlandt *et al.* 2019).
350 Similarly, our results align with two previous studies that assessed composite strain fitness across
351 all nodules formed by a plant. Nitrogen addition did not affect rhizobial composition in pools of
352 4-week-old *Medicago* nodules inoculated with a mixture of two *Ensifer* species or a mixture of
353 Fix- and Fix+ strains (Laguerre *et al.* 2012) and had weak effects on strain fitness two species of
354 *Acacia*—drought and phosphorous addition treatments had larger effects (Vuong *et al.* 2017).

355

356 Although our results are consistent with these short-term (single growing season) studies,
357 it is clear that addition of N over longer periods of time can affect the symbiosis. Many legumes
358 regulate nodule formation and symbiotic nitrogen fixation when high levels of abiotic N are
359 available, presumably reflecting a cost of forming and maintaining the symbiosis—(Menge *et al.*
360 2015). For instance, Weese *et al.* found rhizobia in a grassland community to be less beneficial
361 to hosts after 22 years of N addition (Weese *et al.* 2015; Klinger *et al.* 2016). One way to
362 reconcile discrepancies between short and long-term experiments is to note that even if relative

363 fitness is not altered by N- addition other parameters that influence absolute fitness could
364 change. For instance, reductions in host population sizes, nodule numbers, or nodule size could
365 all increase the importance of rhizobial adaptation to environments external to the host and result
366 in a population of strains with reduced host benefit via selective tradeoffs or drift (Denison &
367 Kiers 2004; Heath & Stinchcombe 2014; Hollowell *et al.* 2016; Burghardt *et al.* 2018; Burghardt
368 2020). Experiments that hold relative fitness constant while varying absolute fitness and vice
369 versa will clarify the key drivers of evolutionary trajectories in response to N.

370

371 Whereas the effects of N on the legume-rhizobial symbiosis has been the focus of many
372 studies, the potential for density-dependent selection shaping legume-rhizobia symbiosis has
373 received scant attention. Nevertheless, rhizobial density varies widely in nature (e.g. 10^2 - 10^6 per
374 gram Yan *et al.* 2014). The 100-fold difference in inoculum density we examined resulted in
375 host-dependent shifts in the composition of the nodule community, with increased density
376 resulting in more beneficial strains being favored in one host and less beneficial strains being
377 favored in the other host. The results raise questions about the generality of laboratory
378 experiments that rely on extremely high densities of rhizobia—presumably to ensure that hosts
379 will not be rhizobia limited. Interestingly, while the majority of nodules screened in the field
380 tend to have a single occupant (Kosslak & Bohlool 1985; Moawad & Schmidt 1987; Ndungu *et al.*
381 *et al.* 2018), the probability of one nodule being infected by multiple strains increases with
382 rhizobial density (Daubech *et al.* 2017; Westhoek *et al.* 2017). Whether strain competition occurs
383 via direct interactions within a nodule vs. competition between nodules inhabited by different
384 strains can affect mechanisms of rewards/sanction and the scale at which selection occurs
385 (Akçay 2015).

386

387 The two host genotypes differed markedly in the characteristics of the nodules they
388 produced, A17 made many small nodules while R108 made a few large nodules, a pattern found
389 in all nitrogen, density, and inoculum environments. Interestingly, overall investment in nodule
390 tissue per plant was very similar for both hosts, and decreases in nodule numbers at low
391 inoculum densities were offset by increases in nodule size (a pattern previously observed by
392 Singleton & Tavares 1986). In R108 plants, the combination of lower nodule number and low
393 selectivity resulted in increased variability in strain fitness amongst replicates. Increased

394 stochasticity in strain fitness could influence rhizobial evolution—not by directly determining
395 rhizobial fitness—but because it determines the strength of drift.

396

397 *Conclusions:*

398 Using a high-throughput methodology, we evaluated the context-dependence of host-
399 dependent strain fitness in legume-rhizobia symbiosis. Our finding that host genetic variation is
400 a consistent driver of rhizobial relative fitness across environmental perturbations suggests it is
401 possible to identify the genomic basis of strain x host interactions (Wang *et al.* 2012, 2018;
402 Gourion & Alunni 2018) and use that information to breed legume crops that associate with
403 beneficial rhizobial strains even when environmental conditions change across years or locations.
404 Our results also suggest that host-imposed selection might depend on the density of the rhizobia
405 population in the soil. From a translational perspective, understanding density-dependent
406 selection could aid in the developing of beneficial inoculants that overcome establishment
407 barriers (Kaminsky *et al.* 2019).

408

409

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632 management. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 80, 5394–5402.

633

634 Table 1: PERMANOVA on RDA of strain relative fitness shows effects of plant host and
635 inoculum density are far stronger than effects of nitrogen (top). Analyses of each host separately
636 (bottom) revealed that density and nitrogen both had greater effects with A17 than R108 hosts
637

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		
<hr/>				
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		
<hr/>				
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		

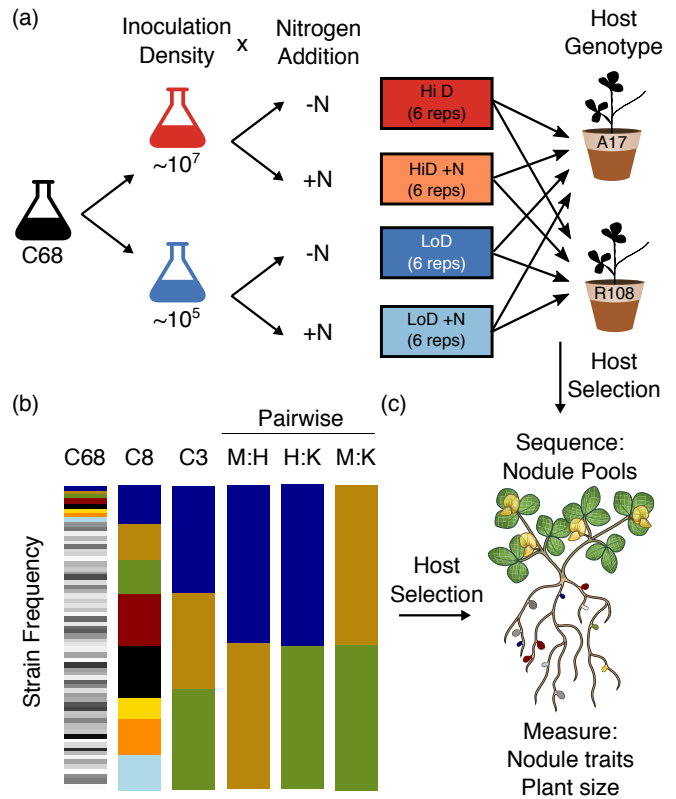
638 Note: Nitrogen was retained as a term in the sub-models because host values and variances were
639 so divergent from each other.

640 Table 2: Rankings of strain frequencies in two strain communities were consistant across
641 increasingly complex communities: three strains (C3), eight strains (C8), and 68 strains (C68).
642 The higher frequency strain is shown in bold followed by the proportion of replicates in which
643 the higher frequency strain also had higher relative frequency in the more complex communitites.
644

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

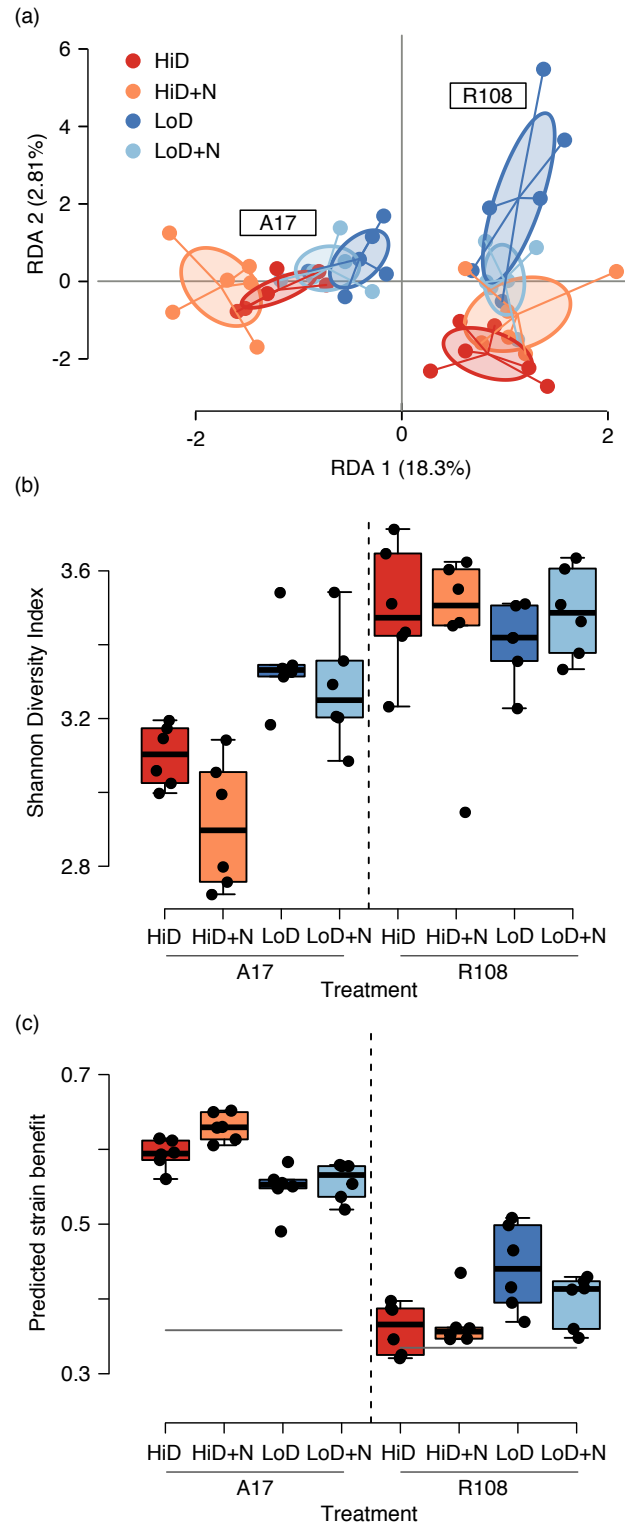
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647 Figure 1: Design of the Nitrogen x Density (a)
 648 and Community complexity (b) experiments
 649 and traits measured on strains or plants in
 650 both experiments (c). All plants were
 651 harvested ~6 weeks after planting. Inoculation
 652 density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

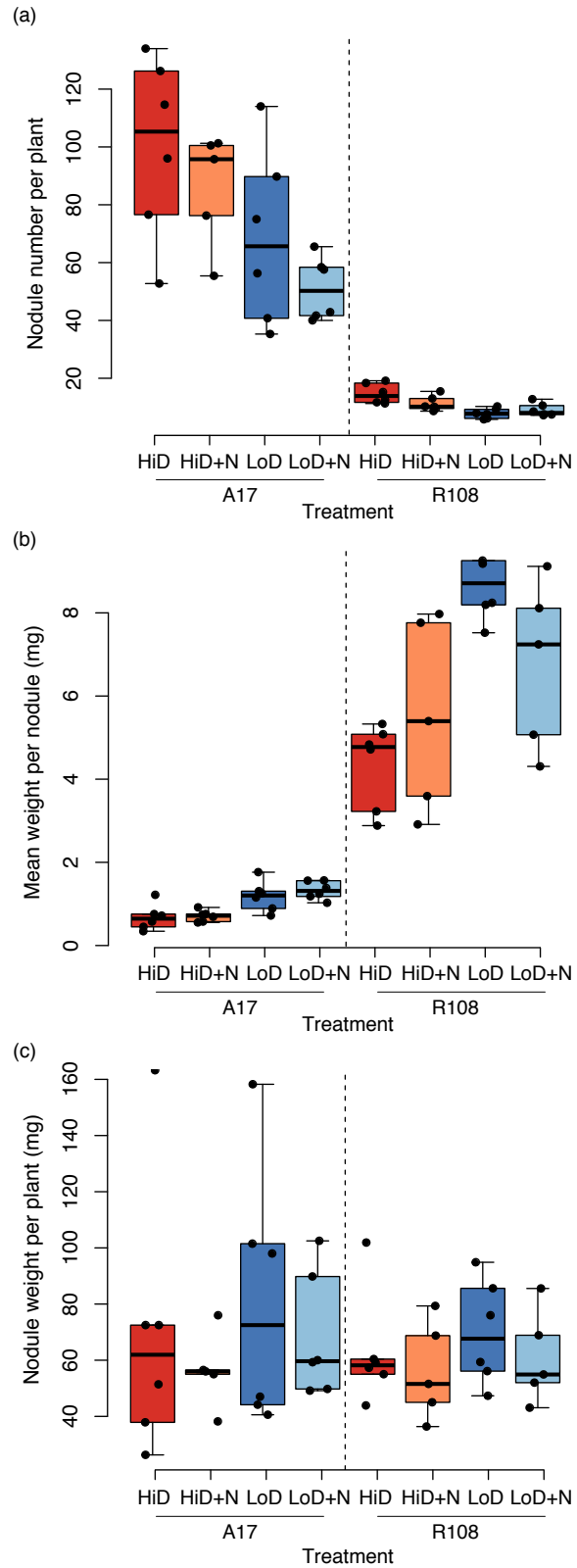


662 Figure 2: Host genotype and inoculum
663 density affected rhizobia strain community
664 characteristics. a) Host genotype, density,
665 and their interaction all contributed to
666 variation in strain composition in nodules
667 (percent contribution is in parenthesis,
668 Table 1, Figure S4 for RDA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

681
682
683



684 Figure 3: Nodule traits in Density and
685 Nitrogen treatments. Hosts produced very
686 different numbers (a) and sizes (b) of
687 nodules but a similar overall weight (c)
688 across treatments. At low inoculation
689 densities, nodule number decreased and
690 nodule weight increased (full results in
691 Table S2).
692



693 Figure 4: Rank order of relative strain
694 frequencies in the nodule communities were
695 a) identical when plants were inoculated with
696 either the 3-strain (C3) or 68-strain (C68)
697 community, and b) b) nearly identical when
698 inoculated with either the 8-strain (C8) or C68
699 community. Ranks were determined based on
700 mean strain frequency across 5 (C3 and C8) or
701 6 (C68) replicates for A17 (triangles) and
702 R108 (circles).
703

