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Bacterial community richness shifts the balance between volatile organic compound-mediated microbe-pathogen and microbe-plant interactions

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WR, JW, AJ, VF, WZ, MX, WS and SQ developed the ideas; WR, AJ, VF and WZ designed the study; WR, JW, MX, WS and WZ set up the experiment; WZ, JW and WR collected data; WR and WZ analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript; AJ, VF, WZ and SQ provided comments on the manuscript.

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1	Bacterial community richness shifts the balance between volatile organic compound-
2	mediated microbe-pathogen and microbe-plant interactions
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15 Abstract

Even though bacteria are important in determining plant growth and health via volatile organic 16 compounds (VOCs), it is unclear how these beneficial effects emerge in multi-species microbiomes. 17 Here we studied this using a model plant-bacteria system, where we manipulated bacterial 18 community richness and composition and determined the subsequent effects on VOC production 19 and VOC-mediated pathogen suppression and plant growth-promotion. We assembled VOC-20 21 producing bacterial communities in different richness levels ranging from one to twelve strains using three soil-dwelling bacterial genera (Bacillus, Paenibacillus and Pseudomonas) and 22 investigated how the composition and richness of bacterial community affect the production and 23 24 functioning of VOCs. We found that VOC production correlated positively with pathogen suppression and plant growth-promotion and that all bacteria produced a diverse set of VOCs. 25 However, while pathogen suppression was maximized at intermediate community richness levels 26 when the relative amount and the number of VOCs were the highest, plant growth-promotion was 27 maximized at low richness levels and was only affected by the relative amount of plant growth-28 promoting VOCs. The contrasting effects of richness could be explained by differences in the 29 amount and number of produced VOCs and by opposing effects of community productivity and 30 evenness on pathogen suppression and plant-growth promotion along the richness gradient. 31 32 Together, these results suggest that the number of interacting bacterial species and the structure of the rhizosphere microbiome drive the balance between VOC-mediated microbe-pathogen and 33 microbe-plant interactions potentially affecting plant disease outcomes in natural and agricultural 34 ecosystems. 35

Keywords: Bacterial diversity, Community richness, Pathogen suppression, Plant growth
 promotion, Plant-microbe interactions

38 1. Introduction

Soil microbiome research has focused mainly on the beneficial effects of root-associated microbes 39 that reside in the near vicinity of the plants. However, microbes also interact with each other and 40 plants over long distances by producing volatile organic compounds (VOCs) that are a broad group 41 of lipophilic compounds with low molecular weight (100–500 Da), high vapor pressure and low 42 boiling point [2]. These properties facilitate evaporation and diffusion of VOCs over long distances 43 through the atmosphere or porous soils from the point of production [3]. The VOCs have been 44 reported for distinct bioactive functions, which are as diverse as the chemical structures of VOCs 45 shaping a wide range of bacteria-bacteria and bacteria-plant interactions, including cell-to-cell 46 communication, plant growth, flowering and photosynthesis stimulation, inhibition of parasites and 47 pathogens and activation of systematic plant resistance against biotic and abiotic stresses [4, 5, 6, 48 49 7]. The composition of the emitted VOCs can also vary depending on the environmental conditions such as the substrate composition of the growth media [8]. While several VOCs have been shown 50 51 to change pairwise interactions with plants and microorganisms [9, 10], it is less clear how the presence of other microbes in multi-species communities affects the production and functioning of 52 VOCs. Here we studied this directly by manipulating bacterial community richness and 53 composition and determining subsequent effects on VOC production and VOC-mediated pathogen 54 suppression and plant growth-promotion. 55

Biodiversity is a key driver of several ecosystem functions [11] and the underlying bacterial interactions have been shown to affect the number, type and composition of produced antifungal VOCs [12, 13]. Bacterial community diversity could affect VOC production in many ways. First, multispecies communities could produce higher amounts and a greater number of VOCs by reaching higher cell densities compared to species grown in isolation due to complementary [14]

or facilitative [15] effects. Alternatively, it is possible that high bacterial community diversity could 61 lead to increased antagonism within the bacterial community, which could then offset the VOC 62 production by having a negative effect on the growth and overall metabolism of the community 63 64 [16]. Increasing community diversity could thus either promote or constrain VOC production depending on the species interactions between the interacting community members that could be 65 driven by competition for shared resources, cooperation, cheating or antibiosis [1, 3]. Second, 66 67 increasing the number of species in a community could increase the number of unique VOCs that are produced if each species produces a different subset of compounds [17]. High community 68 diversity could thus increase the range of VOC-mediated functions. Third, intra- and interspecific 69 70 bacterial interactions could lead to the expression of certain 'emergent' VOCs that are not produced in monocultures. One potential mechanism for this could be interference competition which is often 71 72 stronger in diverse bacterial communities due to the production of a high variety of antimicrobial compounds [18]. While co-culturing two to five bacteria together has been shown to induce the 73 production of novel antifungal VOCs [3, 19], the effects of diversity on bacteria-specific VOCs 74 have not yet been explored. 75

Theory and experiments suggest that increasing community diversity and richness could 76 predictably affect the production of VOCs by bacterial communities. However, it is still largely 77 78 unknown how these changes affect the type and strength of VOC-mediated functioning with bacterial pathogens and plants. To address this shortcoming, we used a model plant-bacteria system 79 to causally test how the microbial community richness affects the VOC-mediated functioning in 80 terms of Arabidopsis thaliana plant growth-promotion and the suppression of a wide-spread 81 bacterial pathogen, Ralstonia solanacearum, capable of infecting many plant species [20]. To 82 achieve this, we assembled VOC-producing model bacterial communities in different richness 83 levels ranging from one to twelve strains using three ubiquitous, soil-dwelling bacterial genera: 84

Bacillus, Paenibacillus and *Pseudomonas*. We then determined and classified the emitted VOCs
by all bacterial communities and explored how this variation affected plant growth-promotion and
pathogen suppression as a function of bacterial community richness.

88

89 **2.** Methods

90 (a) Bacterial strains

We used a total of twelve common soil bacterial strains belonging to *Bacillus*, *Paenibacillus* and 91 Pseudomonas genera, which were isolated from the rhizosphere of different plant species (four 92 strains from each genus; for more detail, see Table S1). The bacterial strains were selected based 93 on the preliminary experiments, where we tested that pathogen suppression and plant growth-94 promotion were solely mediated by VOCs (Table S1). The bacterial strains were stored at -80°C in 95 nutrient broth (BD DifcoTM, Becton, Dickinson and Company, USA) containing 70% glycerol and 96 routinely grown on nutrient agar medium (Bacto[®] agar, Cat. No. 214030, Becton, Dickinson and 97 Company, USA). We used the *Ralstonia solanacearum* QL-Rs1115 strain isolated in China [21] 98 as our target pathogen, which was stored at -80°C in casamino acid-peptone-glucose (CPG) 99 medium [1 g casamino acid (BD BactoTM, Becton, Dickinson and Company, USA), 10 g peptone 100 (Sigma-Aldrich), 5 g glucose (Sigma-Aldrich) and pH 7.0] containing 70% glycerol [22]., 101 During the experiments, R. solanacearum was grown on CPG agar medium. 102 (b) Assembly of model rhizosphere bacterial communities 103 104 Single colonies of twelve bacterial strains (Table S1) were grown separately in nutrient broth as

- 105 monocultures for 24 hours at 30°C before washing twice and adjusting to the final concentrations
- 106 of 1×10^7 colony forming units (CFU)/ml with 0.85% NaCl. The monoculture cell suspensions of
- bacterial strains were mixed in equal proportions $(500 \ \mu l)$ to assemble 43 model communities with

varying diversity (strain richness) levels and composition ranging from monocultures to 2, 3, 4, 6
and 12 species communities (Table S2) using broken stick design [23]. The final cell concentrations
of monocultures and mixed co-culture communities were set to the same (1×10⁷ CFU/ml). Each
bacterial strain was replicated two times at each richness level except for richness levels 1 and 12.
The assays for each model community were conducted in triplicate.

In order to verify whether all three bacterial genera could co-exist, we grew all the 113 114 assembled bacterial communities in microtiter plates. Each well was filled with 195 µl of modified minimal salt medium amended with 1.5% sucrose, and 0.4% tryptone soy broth (w/v) and 115 116 inoculated with 5 μ l of bacterial communities, thereby mimicking the conditions used for VOC measurements later in the experiment. After 36 hours at 30°C, total bacterial, Pseudomonas, and 117 Paenibacillus cell densities were determined by serial plating on nutrient agar medium, 118 Pseudomonas selective agar (CFC) medium, and Paenibacillus selective nutrient agar medium 119 supplemented with 10 µg/ml polymyxin B sulfate, respectively [24, 25]. Bacillus densities were 120 determined by subtracting the *Pseudomonas* and *Paenibacillus* densities from the total bacterial 121 densities. Plating method was chosen over the qPCR method to include only living cells to our 122 analysis. Potential negative effects of selective plates on target bacteria were also confirmed: 123 Paenibacillus and Pseudomonas genera were not negatively affected by the selective media as 124 125 similar colony numbers were observed when the same samples were grown on nutrient agar medium (Figure S1). The bacterial cell densities were represented as community productivity at 126 different bacterial richness levels. 127

(c) Measuring VOC-mediated pathogen suppression and plant growth-promotion by monocultures and communities

130 We assessed the VOC-mediated inhibitory potential of each bacterial monoculture and constructed

131 community on *R. solanacearum* pathogen using divided Petri dish and soil systems. Briefly, a

single colony of *R. solanacearum* was grown in CPG medium for 24 hours at 30°C before washing 132 twice with 0.85% NaCl and adjusting to a final concentration of 1×10^7 CFU/ml. Later, one half of 133 the divided Petri dish (85 mm diameter) was filled with 15 ml of CPG agar medium and spot-134 135 inoculated with the cell suspension of R. solanacearum at five cm apart two locations (5 μ l in each; Figure S2). The cell suspensions for 43 model communities $(1 \times 10^7 \text{ CFU/ml})$ were prepared as 136 described above and spot-inoculated at five cm apart two locations (5 µl in each) on the other side 137 138 of the Petri dish containing minimal salt agar medium (same as above but with 15 g agar/L; Figure S2). Petri dishes were incubated at 30°C for 12 hours to initiate bacterial growth and then sealed 139 140 with Parafilm and incubated for further three days at 30°C. Three replicates were set up for each 141 community, including negative control treatment with *R. solanacearum* growing in the absence of VOC-producing communities. Later, R. solanacearum colonies were removed along with agar 142 medium using a sterilized scalpel, suspended in 1 ml of sterilized water, diluted by 500 times and 143 spread on CPG agar plates to count the CFU/ml (cell densities) after incubation at 30°C for 2 days. 144 The VOC effects were presented as the percentage increase or decrease in the pathogen suppression 145 146 relative to the control treatment. Moreover, in a separate experiment, the effect of VOCs produced by R. solanacearum on the growth of monocultures of Bacillus, Paenibacillus and Pseudomonas 147 bacterial strains was also evaluated in triplicate using the same method as described above 148 149 including negative control treatments with bacterial monocultures growing separately in the absence of VOC-producing R. solanacearum. These results showed that the VOCs of R. 150 solanacearum were not able to inhibit the cell densities of any of the bacterial strains from Bacillus, 151 152 Paenibacillus and Pseudomonas genera (Figure S3).

The Petri dish assays were validated using a sterilized soil system as follows [26]. The soil (pH 6.5, organic matter 11.65 g/kg, and available N, P, and K contents 41.3, 238.7, and 177.5 mg/kg, respectively) was collected from Yixing, China, and sterilized 121°C for 60 min. One ml of each bacterial monoculture and community $(1 \times 10^7 \text{ cells/ml})$ was mixed with 7.5 g of soil (dry weight) and inoculated to one half of the divided Petri dish. The other half of the dish was filled with CPG agar and spot-inoculated with *R. solanacearum* as described above (Figure S2). Three replicates were set up for each treatment including negative control with *R. solanacearum* in the absence of VOC-communities. Dishes were incubated at 30°C for 12 hours to initiate bacterial growth and then sealed with Parafilm and incubated for three days at 30°C. The VOC-effects on the cell densities of *R. solanacearum* was quantified similarly as described above.

We used the A. thaliana plant model system to assess whether changes in microbial 163 community richness and composition affected plant growth via changes in VOC composition. The 164 165 Petri dish system was used in a similar way as described above in triplicate, including a negative control treatment where A. thaliana grew in the absence of VOC-producing bacteria. The cell 166 suspensions of 43 model communities (1×107 CFU/ml) were spot-inoculated on one side of the 167 Petri dish as described above and incubated at 30°C for 12 hours to initiate bacterial growth (Figure 168 S2). Later, three Arabidopsis Col-1 seedlings were placed onto the other half of the Petri dish 169 containing half-strength Murashige and Skoog agar medium (0.8% agar and pH 5.7). Before that, 170 Arabidopsis seeds were surface sterilized, vernalized for 2 days at 4°C in the dark on half-strength 171 Murashige and Skoog agar medium with 1.5% sucrose and then placed in a growth chamber (22°C 172 173 temperature, 12h light, 12h dark, 40W fluorescent light) for three days. The Petri plates were sealed with parafilm and placed in a growth chamber. After two weeks, plants were gently removed from 174 the medium, roots washed with sterilized water and the whole plant was blot dried and weighted 175 176 to determine the plant fresh weight (mg/plant). To determine VOC-mediated plant growthpromotion in the soil, a similar system was used as when evaluating VOC-mediated pathogen 177 suppression in the soil except that the pathogen was replaced with three *Arabidopsis* seedlings 178 inoculated onto half-strength Murashige and Skoog agar medium. After two weeks, plant fresh 179

weight (mg/plant) was determined as described above. The VOC effects were presented as the
percentage increase or decrease in plant growth relative to control treatment.

182 (d) Analysis of VOC profiles produced by bacterial strains and assembled communities

183 To analyze the VOC profiles produced by all bacterial monocultures and communities, cell suspensions (1×10⁷ CFU/ml) were prepared as described above and two spots (5 μ l each) 184 inoculated on minimal salt agar medium (15 g agar/L) in a 100-ml vial and placed at 30°C. After 185 186 12 hours of growth, vials were sealed and incubated for further 72 hours at 30°C. Three replicates were set up for each treatment and vials without the inoculation of bacteria were used as controls. 187 After incubation, $10 \,\mu$ l of (Z)-3-hexenyl acetate (5 mM) as an internal standard was added into the 188 189 vial. Later, a solid-phase microextraction (SPME) fiber [Supelco (Bellefonte, PA) stable flex divinylbenzene/carboxen/polydimethylsiloxane (DCP, 50/30 µm)] was inserted into the vial and 190 incubated further 30 min at 30°C and another 30 min at 50°C. The SPME fiber was then inserted 191 into the injector of gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) (Finnigan Trace DSQ, Austin, 192 TX, USA) and desorbed at 220°C (1 min) with an RTX-5MS column (30 m, 0.25-mm inside 193 diameter, 0.25 µm). The following oven temperature protocol was used: 33°C (3 min), 180°C 194 (10°C/min), and 240°C (30°C/min) and finally for 5 min at 240°C. The mass spectrometer was 195 operated at 70eV and 220°C in the electron ionization mode with a scan from 50 to 500 m/z. 196 197 Chromatographs were obtained and analyzed by AMDIS 2.73 (National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, USA). The mass spectra of deconvoluted VOC peaks were compared 198 with those in the NIST/EPA/NIH Mass Spectrometry Library with respect to the spectra in the 199 200 Mainlib and/or Replib databases (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA). Later, the Kovats retention indexes were calculated for each compound using an alkane calibration mix and 201 compared with those found in NIST/EPA/NIH Mass Spectrometry Library. The compound was 202 considered identified if its mass spectra matched well with a listed compound, had match 203

factor >800 and the difference between the retention index calculated for the detected compound 204 and the listed compound (for a semi-standard non-polar column) was not larger than five. Except 205 for 14 unidentified and four commercially unavailable VOCs (Data-set S1), the production of 67 206 identified VOCs was further confirmed by comparing with standard compounds [Sigma, Tokyo 207 Chemical Industry Co., Ltd. (TCI, Tokyo, Japan) and Aladdin Reagent Database, Inc. (Shanghai, 208 China)]. The standards were mixed and measured using SPME fibers as described above. The peaks 209 210 similar to the control treatment (without bacterial inoculation) were not considered for the identification of VOCs. The number of VOCs produced in each treatment were recorded and the 211 212 chromatographic peak area was expressed as the relative peak area to (Z)-3-hexenyl acetate 213 (internal standard) in arbitrary units (a.u.) as an indirect approach to estimate the relative amount (concentration) of each VOC. 214

(e) Classification of emitted compounds into pathogen-suppressing and plant growth promoting VOCs

To evaluate the effect of different concentrations of identified VOCs (GC-MS analysis) on 217 pathogen suppression, the Petri dish system was used in a similar way as described above. The cell 218 suspension of *R. solanacearum* (1×10^7 CFU/ml) was spot-inoculated at two locations (5 µl in each) 219 on one side of the Petri dish and incubated at 30°C for 12 hours to initiate bacterial growth. Later, 220 stock solutions (20 µg/ml, 100 µg/ml, 500 µg/ml, 2 mg/ml and 10 mg/ml) of 67 commercially 221 available pure VOCs (Dataset S1) were prepared separately in methanol by serial dilutions and the 222 other side of Petri dish was inoculated with 15 μ l of stock solutions to give 0.3 μ g, 1.5 μ g, 7.5 μ g, 223 30 µg and 150 µg final amount of each VOC on a ~10 mm diameter sterile filter paper disc 224 (WhatmanTM filter paper, 6 µm pore size), respectively. Petri dishes were sealed with Parafilm and 225 incubated for three days at 30°C. The sterile filter paper discs inoculated with nothing or with 226 methanol were used as control treatments (no difference found between these control treatments). 227

The VOC-effects on the cell densities *R. solanacearum* was quantified similarly as described above.
[7, 25].

To evaluate the effect of VOCs on plant growth, the same methodology described above was used, with one exception: instead of the pathogen, three *Arabidopsis* Col-1 seedlings were placed onto the other half of the Petri dish containing half-strength Murashige and Skoog salt agar medium. After two weeks, plant fresh weight (mg/plant) was determined as described above. The VOC effects were presented as the percentage increase or decrease in plant growth relative to control treatment [7, 25].

236 (f) Statistical analysis

237 The statistical differences between bacterial strains and genera were analyzed using ANOVA and Tukey's tests. Linear regression analysis was used to analyze separately the VOC-mediated 238 pathogen suppression and plant growth-promotion, relative amount of VOCs (sum of relative peak 239 area to (Z)-3-hexenyl acetate of detected GC-MS peaks), number of VOCs (number of peaks) and 240 VOC composition (first axis of the principal component analysis on non-transformed data), and 241 total community abundance, genera abundances and community evenness (at genera level) as the 242 function of bacterial community richness (factor with 6 levels); significance at P=0.05. Similarly, 243 to link VOCs production with VOC-mediated activity, we separately analyzed the VOC-mediated 244 245 pathogen suppression and plant growth-promotion as the function of the relative amount of produced VOCs, number of VOCs and VOC composition; significance at P=0.05. To further link 246 VOC profiles and community properties to functioning, we used separate models to explain plant 247 growth-promotion and pathogen suppression with bacterial genera, community abundances and 248 community evenness, community richness and strain identity effects and relative amount, number 249 and composition of VOCs. To uncover the most parsimonious GLMs with the best explanatory 250 power, and to avoid potential correlations between different explanatory variables, sequential 251

analyses were performed using stepwise model selection based on Akaike information criteria
(AIC). Statistical analyses were conducted with SPSS version 19.0 statistical software (SPSS, Inc.,
Chicago, IL, USA).

255

256 **3. Results**

(a) Production, classification and activity of pathogen-suppressing and plant growth promoting VOCs by bacterial species and genera

All twelve bacterial strains were effective at VOC-mediated pathogen suppression and plant 259 260 growth-promotion, though some bacterial strains were more effective than the others on agar medium and/or in soil (Figure S4a-b). Overall, these effects were similar regardless if they were 261 measured on agar media or in the soil ($F_{1, 70}=0.02$, P=0.891 for pathogen suppression and $F_{1, 70}=0.02$, P=0.891 for pathogen suppression and F₁. 262 263 $_{70}$ =2.20, P=0.143 for plant growth-promotion). As a result, VOC-mediated pathogen suppression and plant growth-promotion observed on agar media and in the soil were highly positively 264 correlated ($R^2=0.20$; P<0.0001 and $R^2=0.61$; P<0.0001, respectively; Figure S5), which suggests 265 that VOCs activity on agar media provided a realistic estimate of VOC activity in the natural soil. 266 At the genera level, *Paenibacillus* showed relatively lower pathogen suppression (F_{2, 33}=14.73, 267 P < 0.0001) and *Bacillus* genera relatively lower plant growth-promotion on agar medium (F₂. 268 ₃₃=28.01, *P*=0.001; Figure S6a-b), while no between-genera differences were observed in the soil 269 (Figure S6a-b). 270

We next compared the relative amount and number of VOCs produced by different bacterial genera and strains. We found that *Paenibacillus* genera produced higher relative amount ($F_{2, 33}$ = 263.3, *P*<0.0001) and number ($F_{2, 33}$ = 61.8, *P*<0.0001) of total VOCs compared to *Pseudomonas* and *Bacillus* genera, which did not differ from each other (Figure S6c-d). However, bacterial strains showed significant variation in the relative amount ($F_{11, 24}$ = 357.2, *P*<0.0001) and number ($F_{11, 24}$ = 54.6, *P*<0.0001) of produced VOCs within each genus (Figure S7a-f).

When VOC effects were tested as pure compounds, most of the produced VOCs had 277 278 pathogen-suppressing activity (52%; Figure S6a-b) and only 7% had plant growth-promoting activity (Figure S6c), while both pathogen-suppressing and plant growth-promoting activities were 279 increased with the increase in the concentration of VOCs (Figure S8). At the genera level, we found 280 281 that in total 49 VOCs produced by Paenibacillus genera showed pathogen suppression, while *Pseudomonas* and *Bacillus* genera produced 33 and 40 pathogen-suppressing VOCs, respectively 282 (Figure S6c-d; Data-set S1). As a result, the relative amount ($F_{2,33}$ = 46.9, P<0.0001) and the 283 number of pathogen-suppressing VOCs (F2, 33= 34.6, P=0.001) were the highest with Paenibacillus 284 genera (Figure S6c-d). In contrast, only eight Paenibacillus, eight Pseudomonas and five Bacillus 285 VOCs showed plant growth-promotion (Figure S6c-d; Data-set S1). While the highest relative 286 amount of plant growth-promoting VOCs was produced by *Bacillus* genera (F_{2.33}= 42.6, *P*<0.0001; 287 Figure S6c), Paenibacillus and Pseudomonas genera both produced the most diverse selection of 288 plant growth-promoting VOCs (F_{2.33}=10.5, P=0.011; Figure S6d). These results suggest that while 289 all bacteria from each genus produced both types of VOCs, most of the produced VOCs had 290 pathogen-suppressing effect and that the *Paenibacillus* genera showed the highest relative VOC 291 292 production in general.

(b) Effect of bacterial community richness on the VOC-mediated pathogen suppression and plant growth-promotion

We next explored how bacterial community richness affected the VOC-mediated pathogen suppression and plant growth-promotion using agar media assays (quantitatively similar results obtained in the soil; Figure S9a-b). We found that bacterial community richness and pathogen suppression showed a hump-shaped relationship ($F_{2, 126}$ =90.4, *P*<0.0001) where pathogen

suppression peaked at the intermediate community richness (4 species) reaching 40% suppression 299 efficiency and then decreasing to 8% efficiency at richness level 12 compared to non-VOC control 300 (Figure 1a). This pattern could be explained well with the relative amount ($F_{2, 127}$ =58.18, P<0.0001; 301 Figure 1b), number (F_{2, 126}=67.7, *P*<0.0001; Figure 1C) and composition (F_{2, 126}=13.68, *P*<0.0001; 302 Figure S10a) of produced pathogen-suppressing VOCs, which all showed a similar hump-shaped 303 relationship peaking at richness level 4 and then decreasing at richness levels 6 and 12. Together, 304 305 pathogen suppression showed highly significant and positive relationships with the relative amount, number and composition of pathogen-suppressing VOCs (Figure 2a-b; Figure S10b; Table S3). 306

307 In contrast, the highest plant growth-promotion was observed at low community richness levels (F_{1, 127}=13.8, P<0.0001). Specifically, a 67% increase in plant growth-promotion observed 308 at the richness level 1 decreased to 17% increase at richness level 4, and at richness level 12, an 309 average of 33% decrease in plant growth-promotion was observed compared to control treatment 310 (Figure 1d). Reduction in the plant growth-promotion correlated clearly with a decrease in the 311 relative amount of plant growth-promoting VOCs ($F_{1, 127}$ = 39.9, P<0.0001; Figure 1e) resulting in 312 90% decrease between richness levels 1 and 12. However, similar to pathogen-inhibiting VOCs, 313 the number of plant growth-promoting VOCs peaked at intermediate richness levels reaching up 314 to 139% increase at the richness level 4 and then decreasing down to 19% increase at the richness 315 level 12 compared to the richness level 1 (F_{2, 126}=56.1, P<0.0001; Figure 1f). The composition of 316 plant growth-promoting VOCs did not show any relationship with plant growth-promotion (Figure 317 S10c). As a result, plant growth showed a highly significant and positive relationship only with the 318 relative amount of plant growth-promoting VOCs (Figure 2c-d; Figure S10D; Table S3). 319

320 (c) Linking pathogen suppression and plant growth-promotion with the production of VOCs

321 We next investigated if VOC-mediated functioning could be explained by the emission of certain

322 VOCs. A total of 85 different VOCs were produced by all bacterial communities. Except for three

VOCs (1, 2-ethanediol 1, 2-diphenyl; 9-decen-i-ol and 5-octadecene), the relative amount of VOCs 323 varied significantly between communities with different richness levels (Dataset S1). Interestingly, 324 15 VOCs were produced only in communities. Similarly, 49 VOCs produced at richness levels 1-325 4 were absent from the VOC profiles of 6 and 12 species communities (Figure S11A; Data-set S1). 326 Out of 85 VOCs in total, 41 VOCs showed pathogen-suppressing activity. Of these, 4 pathogen-327 suppressing VOCs were not produced at the community richness level 1, and 26 pathogen-328 329 suppressing VOCs produced at richness levels 1-4 were absent from the VOC profiles of 6 and 12 species communities (Figure S11b; Data-set S1). When chemical groups of VOCs were evaluated, 330 80% (61) of the identified VOCs produced by twelve bacterial strains belonged to alkane, alcohol, 331 332 aldehyde, benzene, ketone and fatty acid groups. Almost all alcohol, aldehyde, benzene and ketone group VOCs showed pathogen-suppressing activity. Other VOC groups related to pathogen 333 334 suppression included naphthalene, phenol, sulfur and nitrogen containing compounds (Figure S12). Only six out of 85 VOCs were found to show plant growth-promoting activity (Figure S8C). 335 Of these compounds, four VOCs were not produced at richness level 12, while tetradecane was 336 only produced at richness levels 6 and 12 albeit in low relative amount (Figure S11c; Data-set S1). 337 Interestingly, two of the plant growth-promoting VOCs (indole, heptadecane) also showed 338 antibacterial activity against R. solanacearum (Figure S8a-b). When chemical groups of VOCs 339 340 were evaluated, plant growth-promoting VOCs mainly belonged to the alkane (4) group; while one VOC belonged to the diol and one to the nitrogen-containing compounds group (Figure S12). These 341 results suggest that bacterial interactions within communities can trigger and abolish the production 342 of certain pathogen-suppressing and plant growth-promoting VOCs. 343 (d) Linking bacterial community properties with pathogen suppression and plant growth-344

345 promotion

Lastly, we explored if richness-mediated VOC effects could be explained by certain underlying 346 community properties such as community productivity, evenness, genera abundances or strain 347 identity effects. While the community productivity increased with bacterial richness ($F_{1,127}$ =36.8, 348 P=0.004; Figure 4a), the relative abundance of all three genera showed a parabolic relationship 349 with the richness reaching the lowest abundances at the intermediate richness levels and the highest 350 abundances when grown in the low or high richness level communities (Figure 4b). Moreover, 351 352 while the community evenness of bacterial genera did not differ at the lower richness levels (in 2-4 species communities), it considerably decreased at the higher richness levels ($F_{4,88}$ =41.00, 353 P < 0.0001; Figure 4c). As a result, bacterial community properties showed contrasting effects on 354 355 VOCs functioning; while total community productivity was positively linked with pathogen suppression, it showed a negative effect on the plant growth-promotion (Table S4). In contrast, 356 while community evenness had no effect on the pathogen suppression, it was positively linked with 357 the plant growth-promotion (Table S4). Furthermore, while the densities of *Pseudomonas* and 358 Paenibacillus genera showed a negative relationship with pathogen suppression, the densities of 359 all three genera showed positive effects on the plant growth-promotion (Table S4). Finally, some 360 strains had strong and often opposing identity effects on both the pathogen suppression and plant 361 growth-promotion (Table S4). These results suggest that bacterial community properties had 362 363 contrasting effects on VOC-mediated functioning, which likely constrained simultaneous expression of pathogen suppressing and plant growth-promoting VOCs. 364

365 **4. Discussion**

While the role of individual VOC on plant physiology and antimicrobial activity has been well described [3, 13], their production and effects in complex microbial communities are poorly understood. Especially, VOC-mediated effects on bacterial pathogens and plants remain unclear.

Here we investigated this by addressing how the composition and richness of bacterial communities 369 370 affect the production of different VOCs and VOC-mediated functioning in terms of pathogen suppression and plant growth-promotion. We found that the majority of produced VOCs were 371 pathogen-suppressing and that bacterial strains from all genera produced both types of VOCs in 372 monocultures. However, VOC production was dramatically changed when the strains were grown 373 together in communities. Specifically, we found that pathogen suppression was maximized at 374 375 intermediate community richness levels when the relative amount and number of produced 376 pathogen-suppressing VOCs were the highest. In contrast, plant growth-promotion was unaffected 377 by the number of VOCs and maximized at low community richness levels when the relative amount 378 of produced plant growth-promoting VOCs was the highest. Interestingly, community productivity and evenness had contrasting effects on the VOC functioning in this study: productivity promoted 379 380 the pathogen suppression but constrained the plant growth-promotion, while evenness promoted the plant growth-promotion but constrained the pathogen suppression. Together these results 381 suggest that species interactions within communities can change VOC-mediated functioning by 382 affecting the amount and diversity of produced VOCs. VOC-mediated microbe-microbe and 383 microbe-plant functions are thus likely to be optimized with contrasting community structures due 384 to non-linear and contrasting relationships with community diversity, productivity and evenness. 385

Of all the detected VOCs, 41 VOCs (52%) showed pathogen suppression and their relative amount and numbers peaked at the intermediate community richness levels, which was highly correlated with VOC-mediated pathogen suppression. Moreover, compared to monocultures, 14 unique VOCs, including four pathogen-suppressing VOCs, were produced in more diverse bacterial communities including two to four strains. These results suggest that the addition of new species likely increased the metabolic potential of the community by stimulating the production of antimicrobial compounds with greater chemical diversity and activity [16, 27]. However, the 393 relative amount and number of pathogen-suppressing VOCs decreased at higher richness levels 394 and 26 VOCs including 10 pathogen-suppressing VOCs were not observed at 12 strain bacterial community. These results are in line with a previous study, which found a similar hump-shaped 395 396 pattern between toxin production and bacterial community richness [28]. Bacteria often sense and respond to the presence of competitors by turning more antagonistic by upregulating secondary 397 metabolism and by producing antimicrobial compounds like antibiotics [29, 30]. The secondary 398 399 metabolism is also the main driver of antimicrobial VOC production that has been shown to change in the presence of competitors [18, 31]. It is thus possible that the presence of other bacterial strains 400 401 promoted the production of pathogen-suppressing VOCs because they were also used in 402 interference competition between VOC-producing species [18]. Some previous studies have also reported a relationship between increased VOC-mediated suppression of fungal pathogens and 403 increasing microbial diversity [12, 32]. However, in this study, increasing community diversity 404 beyond four strains could have intensified interference competition to the extent that it led to a 405 decrease in the production of pathogen-suppressing VOCs. In addition, quorum sensing, cross-talk 406 between species, chemical cues from competitors (antibiotics), silence gene clustering or cross-407 feeding generating new metabolic pathways at community levels, etc. might also affect the 408 production of VOCs [16, 28, 30, 33]. While linking community effects on certain species is difficult, 409 410 we found that community evenness decreased with richness and that Paenibacillus genera dominated at the 12-strain community (Figure 3b-c). Interestingly, *Paenibacillus polymyxa* WR-2 411 strain had a strong negative effect on pathogen suppression in general, which suggests that it might 412 have played an important role in reducing VOC-mediated pathogen suppression at high richness 413 levels (Table S4). We also found that community productivity had a positive relationship with 414 pathogen suppression, indicative of a positive link between bacterial metabolic activity and VOC-415 mediated pathogen suppression. However, most pathogen-suppressing VOCs were produced at 416

intermediate richness levels when all genera were found to be at very similar abundances. As a
result, intra- and inter-bacterial species interactions might be more important for the expression of
pathogen-suppressing VOCs instead of bacterial growth and metabolic activity.

420 Of all detected 85 VOCs, only six showed plant growth-promoting activity (7% of all VOCs). Moreover, and in contrast to pathogen-suppressing VOCs, plant growth-promotion was 421 the highest in bacterial monocultures and steadily decreased with increasing community richness 422 423 turning into plant growth-inhibition at 12-strain community. While a clear positive correlation was found with the relative amount of VOCs and plant growth-promotion, the numbers or composition 424 425 of plant growth-promoting VOCs had no effect. This is likely explained by the low number of plant 426 growth-promoting VOCs produced in general and by the fact that all genera tended to emit them similarly. Moreover, some of the plant growth-promoting VOCs were not detected at higher 427 richness levels, which could also partly explain the reduction in VOC-mediated plant growth-428 promotion along the richness gradient. One potential explanation for this pattern is that the presence 429 of other bacteria triggered a switch from the expression of plant growth-promoting to pathogen-430 suppressing VOCs due to bacterial competition, which has previously shown to upregulate 431 antibacterial activity including VOC production [19, 30, 31]. Moreover, we found that the 432 community evenness and the abundance of all genera promoted, while community productivity 433 434 constrained the VOC-mediated plant growth-promotion.

These results clearly show that bacterial interactions within multi-species communities can affect the VOC production, which in turn can change VOC-mediated functioning in terms of pathogen suppression and plant growth-promotion. Furthermore, VOC-mediated microbepathogen and microbe-plant interactions were optimized with different community structures due to non-linear and contrasting relationships with community diversity, productivity and evenness. These results suggest that VOC-mediated interactions in communities cannot be predicted based

on VOC expression patterns observed in bacterial monocultures [34]. Our results are in contrast 441 with several previous studies. For example, Wagg et al. [11] and Hu et al. [35] have reported 442 positive relationships between microbial diversity and plant performance in communities 443 containing four and eight microbes, respectively. It is thus possible that diversity-functioning 444 relationships between soil bacteria and plants are less predictable, especially when mediated 445 through VOCs. Moreover, soil is a complex and heterogenous environment, and in reality, 446 447 rhizosphere bacterial communities are composed of thousands of interacting bacterial strains. Because analyzing this many interactions at the same time is practically impossible, we used small 448 449 model communities consisting of 12 bacterial strains belonging to three genera. Even though, our 450 model system does not reflect the natural soil conditions, it can help to understand how interspecies bacterial interactions can change the production and activity of VOCs. In the future, it would be 451 interesting to study the underlying ultimate mechanisms like quorum sensing, cross-talk, chemical 452 cues (antibiotics), silence gene clustering or cross-feeding, etc. driving the VOC production within 453 the communities. Moreover, it would be interesting to explore how the VOCs produced in the soil 454 affect the microbiota residing in the aerial parts of the plant for example in leaves and flowers, that 455 could affect pollination [36]. Our results also show that bacterial communities can interact with 456 plants and plant pathogens over long distances through VOCs, and crucially, that bacterial 457 458 interactions within communities change their effects on plants or pathogens in the absence of direct contact. Thus, it is important to move beyond plant rhizosphere microbiomes to explore microbe-459 microbe-plant interactions over larger spatial scales that also include VOC-mediated long-distance 460 interactions in porous soils [37]. For example, plant root VOCs were reported to disperse over 12 461 cm distances mediating long-distance belowground interactions in the soil [2] indicative of 462 interactions between microbial metapopulations. From the applied perspective, our study suggests 463 that VOC-mediated functions could potentially be employed to manipulate rhizosphere 464

465 microbiome composition to simultaneously improve multiple ecosystem functions including466 pathogen suppression and plant growth.

467 Authors' contributions

- 468 WR, JW, AJ, VF, WZ, MX, WS and SQ developed the ideas; WR, AJ, VF and WZ designed the
- study; WR, JW, MX, WS and WZ set up the experiment; WZ, JW and WR collected data; WR and
- WZ analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript; AJ, VF, WZ and SQ provided comments on themanuscript.

472 Data accessibility

All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this article and its supplementary
information files. The supplementary information data has also been submitted to Dryad
(https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.dbrv15dxn)

476 Competing interests

477 The authors declare no competing interest.

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Figure 1: Effect of bacterial community richness on volatile organic compound (VOC)-mediated 581 pathogen suppression (PS) and plant growth promotion (PGP) and on the relative amount and 582 number of produced pathogen-suppressing and plant growth-promoting VOCs. Top panels show 583 584 the effect of bacterial community richness on VOC-mediated pathogen suppression (A) and on the relative amount (B), and number (C) of pathogen-suppressing VOCs. Bottom panels show the 585 effect of bacterial community richness on VOC-mediated plant growth-promotion (D) and on the 586 587 relative amount (E) and number (F) of plant growth-promoting VOCs. The relative amount of VOCs shows the chromatographic peak area that was expressed relative to the peak area of (Z)-3-588 hexenyl acetate (internal standard) as an indirect approach to estimate the relative concentration of 589 590 each VOC, while number of VOCs means the total number of VOCs produced at each community richness level. In all panels, each observation shows the effect of each replicate of each bacterial 591 592 monoculture or community. The experiments were repeated twice in triplicate.

Figure 2: The relationship of volatile organic compound (VOC)-mediated pathogen suppression 593 (PS) and plant growth promotion (PGP) with the relative amount and numbers of pathogen-594 suppressing and plant growth-promoting VOCs, respectively, produced by bacterial communities 595 at different richness levels. Top panels show the relationship between VOC-mediated pathogen 596 suppression and the relative amount (A) and number (B) of pathogen-suppressing VOCs. Bottom 597 598 panels show the relationship between VOC-mediated plant growth-promotion and the relative amount (C) and number (D) of plant growth-promoting VOCs. The relative amount of VOCs shows 599 the chromatographic peak area that was expressed relative to the peak area of (Z)-3-hexenyl acetate 600 (internal standard) as an indirect approach to estimate the relative concentration of each VOC, 601 while number of VOCs means the total number of VOCs produced at each community richness 602 level. In all panels, each observation shows the effect of each replicate in each bacterial 603 monoculture or community. The experiments were repeated twice in triplicate. 604

Figure 3: Effect of bacterial community richness on community productivity (total bacterial 605 606 abundance), genera abundances and genera evenness. The relationships between bacterial community richness and total bacterial community productivity (A), genera abundances (B) and 607 community evenness based on bacterial genera abundances (C). In panels A and B, CFU denotes 608 for bacterial cell numbers per ml in terms of colony forming units. In panel B, black, dark grey and 609 light grey data points represent Paenibacillus, Bacillus and Paenibacillus genera, respectively. In 610 all panels, each observation shows the effect of each replicate in each bacterial monoculture or 611 community. The experiments were repeated twice in triplicate. 612



Effect of bacterial community richness on volatile organic compound (VOC)-mediated pathogen suppression and plant growth promotion and on the relative amount and number of produced pathogen-suppressing and plant growth-promoting VOCs.

80x56mm (300 x 300 DPI)



The relationship of volatile organic compound (VOC)-mediated pathogen suppression and plant growth promotion with the relative amount and numbers of pathogen-suppressing and plant growth-promoting VOCs, respectively, produced by bacterial communities at different richness levels.

75x76mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Effect of bacterial community richness on community productivity (total bacterial abundance), genera abundances and genera evenness.

84x26mm (300 x 300 DPI)