Three biofilm types produced by a model pseudomonad are differentiated by structural characteristics and fitness advantage

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- ² Three biofilm-types produced by a model pseudomonad are

3 differentiated by structural characteristics and fitness advantage

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- 8 evolution, microcosms, *Pseudomonas, P. fluorescens* SBW25, Wrinkly Spreader.

Abbreviations: A-L Interface, Air-liquid interface; CBFS, Complementary Biofilm–Forming Strain; VM,
Viscous Mass; WS, Wrinkly Spreader.

12 ABSTRACT

(249 words) Model bacterial biofilm systems suggest that bacteria produce one type of biofilm which is 13 then modified by environmental and physiological factors, though diversification of developing 14 populations might result in the appearance of adaptive mutants producing altered structures with 15 improved fitness advantage. Here we compare the air-liquid interface Viscous Mass (VM) biofilm 16 produced by Pseudomonas fluorescens SBW25 and the Wrinkly Spreader (WS) and Complementary 17 Biofilm-forming Strain (CBFS) biofilm-types produced by adaptive SBW25 mutants in order to better 18 19 understand the link between these physical structures and the fitness advantage they provide in experimental microcosms. Wrinkly Spreader, CBFS and VM biofilms can be differentiated by strength, 20 attachment levels and rheology, as well as by strain characteristics associated with biofilm-formation. 21 Competitive fitness assays demonstrate that they provide similar advantage under static growth 22 conditions but respond differently to increasing levels of physical disturbance. Pairwise competitions 23 24 between biofilms suggest that these strains must be competing for at least two growth-limiting resources at the air-liquid interface, most probably O₂ and nutrients, though VM and CBFS cells located 25 lower down in the liquid column might provide an additional fitness advantage through the colonisation 26 27 of a less competitive zone below the biofilm. Our comparison of different SBW25 biofilm-types illustrates more generally how varied biofilm characteristics and fitness advantage could become among 28 adaptive mutants arising from an ancestral biofilm-forming strain and raises the question of how 29 significant these changes might be in a range of medical, biotechnological and industrial contexts where 30 diversification and change may be problematic. 31

32

33 INTRODUCTION

Biofilms are a form of surface-associated microbial aggregation which are significant in both natural and 34 engineered environments, impacting on colonisation and infection, competitor, predator and host 35 interactions, community dynamics and function, etc. (reviewed by [1-3]). It is easy to get the impression 36 that there is a simple dichotomy between free-living and biofilm life-styles for most bacteria, but 37 adaptive radiation within developing biofilm populations is likely to lead to diversification unless 38 maintained by stabilizing selection [3]. As a result, it is interesting to ask whether bacteria produce a 39 40 single biofilm-type based on a linear genetic architecture involving a single sensory-regulatory system controlling one biofilm matrix or extracellular polymeric substance (EPS) biosynthesis pathway, or 41 whether they can produce a range of different structures which better suit the environmental based on 42 a more complex networked architecture involving multiple regulatory and biosynthesis pathways and 43

modified by adaptive mutation. This can be explored using the *Pseudomonas fluorescens* SBW25 model
system in which adaptive radiation has produced a number of biofilm-types and success can be
evaluated in the context of competing lineages in resource (O₂)-restricted environments (reviewed by
[4,5]).

48 In the SBW25 model system, the wild-type colonists of static microcosms rapidly modify their environment and differentiates the liquid column into a high–O₂ region at the top of the liquid column 49 and an O₂-depleted zone below [6] (this division is arbitrary; as growth continues and O₂ demand 50 increases, the high–O₂ region becomes shallower and the O₂ flux deeper into the liquid column is 51 reduced). As growth in these microcosms becomes increasingly O_2 -limited, the high- O_2 region 52 represents an ecological opportunity [7] for any adaptive lineage capable of colonising it, as cells located 53 here are capable of faster growth, higher final population numbers and a fitness advantage over other 54 competitors located lower down in the liquid column (the high-O2 region, which includes the A-L 55 interface, is also referred to as the Goldilocks zone of optimal growth [8,9]; see Supplementary Figure 56 **S1** for a schematic showing these regions and zones in static microcosms). 57

58 Adaptive lineages arise in developing or diversifying populations with key innovations that allow them to interact with their environment in a novel manner [7]. In diversifying SBW25 populations, Wrinkly 59 Spreader (WS) mutants [10] occur with mutations affecting cyclic diguanylate (c-di-GMP) homeostasis 60 and the over-production of cellulose which is the primary biofilm matrix (EPS) and a second poly-acetyl 61 glucosamine EPS which may also acting as an attachment factor [11-15]. This results in the formation of 62 63 a robust and well-attached physically cohesive-class biofilm [16] at the air-liquid (A-L) interface of static microcosms [10]. In contrast, wild-type SBW25, which does not form a biofilm under normal conditions 64 (but see [17]), relies instead on constant aerotaxis to oppose physical disturbance and random cell 65 diffusion, which constantly moves cells away from the high-O₂ region [9]. This, however, is not as 66 effective as biofilm-formation in terms of resource utilisation and growth gains and explains why 67 Wrinkly Spreaders often have fitness advantages over non-biofilm-forming competitors in static 68 microcosms [10,12,18]. The underlying basis of this might be a trade-off between the use of uridine-69 triphosphate (UTP) for fast growth (DNA/RNA and metabolism) and the formation of uridine-70 diphosphate glucose (UDP-glucose) which is the precursor for cellulose [19] that enables biofilm-71 formation (after [20]). 72

A-L biofilm–formation is commonplace amongst environmental pseudomonads [21-25] and other
 bacteria, suggesting that many aerobic bacteria can gain a competitive advantage by growing in the
 high–O₂ region of static microcosms if growth is not limited by some other resource, and in several

model systems, including Bacillus subtilis 3610 [26], P. aeruginosa PA01 and PA14 [27,28], P. putida 76 KT2440 [29] and SBW25, wild-type strains are known to produce multiple mutants with different biofilm 77 characteristics. In addition to the Wrinkly Spreader, SBW25 produces a range of other physically 78 cohesive-class biofilm-forming lineages with similar fitness advantage. These include the Fuzzy 79 Spreaders evolved from wild-type SBW25 [10] which produce biofilms as the result of changes in 80 lipopolysaccharide expression [30], and Poly-acetyl glucosamine-Wrinkly Spreader (PWS) and 81 Complementary Biofilm-forming Strain (CBFS) mutants that evolved from a cellulose-deficient SBW25 82 strain and over-produce poly-acetyl glucosamine [15,31]. Wild-type SBW25 can also produce a cellulose-83 based but fragile and poorly-attached viscous mass-class biofilm (VM) [16] when induced with 84 exogenous Fe³⁺ [17,32], similar to that produced by a genetically-engineered mutant using a strong 85 86 promoter to over-express the cellulose biosynthesis operon [11,13]. Although these lineages arose independently from the wild-type SBW25 strain or other intermediates, they can be considered to have 87 convergently evolved and adapted to the A-L interface of static microcosms with similar biofilms. 88

We are interested in comparing SBW25 biofilm-types, in particular the CBFS, VM and WS biofilms (see 89 90 Table 1 for key strain details including biofilm characteristics), in order to understand the link between environmental conditions, physical structure and the fitness advantage they provide. In this work, we 91 92 induce wild-type SBW25 to produce VM biofilms and use a CBFS mutant as proxies for naturallyoccurring SBW25 mutants which produce biofilms with similar physical characteristics and fitness 93 advantage, and use biofilm strength and attachment measurements, rheology and other assays to 94 quantitatively differentiate these structures and strains. We then compare CBFS, VM and WS biofilms 95 96 using competitive fitness assays to determine how well suited they are to static microcosms and 97 whether one biofilm-type is likely to be a more successful solution to the problem of colonising the A-L interface than the others. 98

99

100 MATERIALS AND METHODS

101 Experimental microcosms, bacteria and culturing

102 Biofilm-formation and fitness were investigated using wild-type *Pseudomonas fluorescens* SBW25

103 [33,34] that produces the VM biofilm (to avoid confusion we refer to this as the 'VM strain' throughout),

a CBFS mutant [31] and the archetypal Wrinkly Spreader (WS) mutant [11,14] (Table 1). SM-13 (SBW25

105 *wssB*::mini-*Tn*5, selected with 50 μg ml⁻¹ kanamycin [11]), was used as a non-biofilm–forming reference

strain when required. Microcosms were 30 ml universal glass vials containing 6 ml King's B liquid

107 medium supplemented with 1 μ M FeCl₃ required to induce the VM biofilm (KB-Fe [17]) and preliminary

- 108 experiments had shown that the growth and phenotypes of CBFS and WS were the same in KB-Fe as
- they had been reported for in KB. Inocula were obtained from shaken over-night KB-Fe cultures, and
- 110 microcosms were incubated at 18-20°C statically or with increasing levels of physical disturbance
- provided by a Stuart SSM1 shaker operating at 30 (low level of disturbance) and 80 rpm (intermediate),
- and a Stuart S150 incubator operating at 150 rpm (high, i.e. vigorous shaking).

113 Biofilm measurements and rheometry

Biofilms were qualitatively assessed by visual inspection in situ and after transferring to Petri dishes 114 [16]. Biofilm strength and attachment to the vial walls at the meniscus of static microcosms after 48 h 115 were determined using glass balls (strength, g; n = 8) and Crystal violet staining (attachment, A₅₇₀; n = 8) 116 [12,21]. Rheological parameters (G', G", G*, η_0 , and tan δ ; n = 10 - 17) of biofilm samples were measured 117 by controlled-stress amplitude sweep tests using a MARS rotational rheometer (Thermo Scientific, UK). 118 119 Measurements were made at 20 ± 0.1 °C, with the storage modulus (G'), loss modulus (G") and zeropoint viscosity (η_0) recorded. Representative data were examined graphically to determine the linear 120 viscoelastic region of the response to the applied stress, and to find the flow point when G' = G''. The 121 loss factor (tan δ) was calculated from G''/G' and the shear modulus (G*) from $V(G'^2 + G''^2)$. 122

123 Strain characterisation

Cell-surface adhesion (nN; pooled n = 50) was determined by Atomic force microscopy and force 124 Spectroscopy (AFM-FS). Biofilm samples first drained of excess liquid for 30 min before being imaged in 125 air at 20°C using a NanoWizard I Bio AFM Atomic Force microscope (JPK Instruments AG, Berlin, 126 Germany). Samples were scanned in contact mode using silicon nitride triangular cantilevers, with a 127 nominal spring constant of 0.01 N m⁻¹, scan speed of 0.5 µm s⁻¹ and at resolutions of 100 x 100 µm down 128 to 2.5 x 2.5 µm. In each sample, five cells were randomly selected, and cell-tip adhesion measured at ten 129 130 different points along the exposed surface of each cell. Relative cell hydrophobicity (H_r ; n = 5) was determined using a modification of the bacterial adherence to hydrocarbons (BATH) assay [35]. 1.2 ml of 131 culture was washed three times in PBS (pH 7.2) and the cells re-suspended to an initial optical density 132 (OD_{540}) of ~ 0.5. Samples were vortexed with 300 μ l of n-hexadecane for 1 min and the phases allowed 133 to separate for 30 min. The final OD₅₄₀ was determined for the lower aqueous phase, and H_r calculated 134 as 100 x ΔOD_{540} / initial OD_{540} . Maximum growth levels (OD_{600} 24 h⁻¹; n = 3) were determined in shaken 135 and static microcosms after 24 h. Liquid surface tension (mN m⁻¹; n = 5) was determined for cell-free 136 culture supernatants using a Krüss K100 Tensiometer (Krüss GmbH, Germany) at 20°C [17]; under these 137 conditions the surface tension of deionised water and sterile KB-Fe was 72.4 ± 0.1 and 49.8 ± 0.2 mN m⁻ 138 ¹, respectively. Recruitment to the surface (relative OD₆₀₀; n = 5) was measured after 2 h [13]. Cell 139

- distributions (relative OD_{600} , n = 5) were also assessed in microcosms inoculated with a pellet of cells
- placed at the bottom of the vial, after 24 and 72 h, by sequentially sampling 1 ml aliquots from the top
- to the bottom [9]. Swimming motility (radius, cm; n = 3) on and through soft agar (0.1x KB nutrients, 1
- 143 μ M FeCl₃ and 0.3 g L⁻¹ agar) was assessed after 24 h. Colony expansion (radius, cm; n = 12) on standard
- 144 KB-Fe plates containing 15 g L⁻¹ agar was assessed after 24 h [12].

145 Competitive fitness and productivity

The competitive fitness (W) of CBFS, VM and WS were determined relative to the non-biofilm-forming 146 SM-13 strain [18]. KB-Fe microcosms (n = 5) were inoculated with 100 µl of a 1:1 nominal mixture of 147 strains (produced by adding equal volumes of over-night KB-Fe cultures) and incubated for 48 h under 148 static or shaken conditions as required and these assays undertaken in batches for each level of 149 disturbance. The fitness of one strain (A) competing against a second (B) was determined as the ratio of 150 Malthusian parameters, In [A_{final} / A_{initial}] / In [B_{final} / B_{initial}] [36], and cell numbers per microcosm were 151 determined by enumeration of colonies on KB and KB-Kanamycin plates after vigorous mixing of 152 microcosms, sampling and serial dilution. Fitness was also determined for pair-wise combinations of 153 biofilm-types using 1000:1, 1:1 and 1:1000 nominal initial cell ratio mixtures (n = 5) under static 154 incubation conditions for 72 h with all assays undertaken as a single batch. In these assays, trains 155 differentiated by colony morphologies on KB plates, and actual strain ratios were determined from the 156 initial cell numbers (A_{initial} / B_{initial}). Total final numbers (A_{final} + B_{final}) were also used to determine 157 productivity (n = 5) in these microcosms. 158

159 Statistical analyses

- Assays were performed with replicates (*n*) and means and standard errors (SE) are provided where
- appropriate. Data was analysed by JMP 12 (SAS Institute Inc, USA) and parametric or non-parametric
- 162 approaches determined as required. Differences between means were determined using ANOVA
- 163 models followed by *post hoc* Tukey-Kramer HSD tests or paired t-tests. Where appropriate the Wilcoxon
- (Rank Sums) tests were undertaken instead. Data were further investigated by correlation and linear
- regression (r^2). See **Supplementary Information S2** for further details of the statistical approach used
- here and for additional analyses reported in the Supplementary Information.

167

168 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

169 CBFS, VM and WS biofilm-types are differentiable structures

The three biofilm-types studied here are readily distinguished by visual observation and we have 170 classified them as physically cohesive (CBFS and WS) and viscous mass (VM)-class biofilms [16] (Figure 1 171 (a)). Our qualitative impressions of CBFS and WS robustness and VM fragility were confirmed by 172 quantitative comparison of biofilm strength and attachment levels which clearly differentiates the three 173 174 biofilms (T-K HSD, α = 0.05; Figure 1 (b) and Table 2 (a)). We have extended our earlier rheological examination of VM biofilm samples [17] to include CBFS and WS samples (Table 2 (b)). This confirms 175 that all three were viscoelastic structures as determined by loss factors (tan δ) of less than one, although 176 other key rheological parameters differed significantly between biofilms (T-K HSD, α = 0.05; Wilcoxon, P 177 \leq 0.05; Table 2 (b)). Several other A-L interface biofilms, as well the VM biofilm produced by SBW25, 178 179 have been examined *in situ* by interfacial rheology which also conclude that these are viscoelastic structures [37,38] as is the case for the more often studied liquid-solid surface (L-S) interface biofilms in 180 which cells are similarly encased by a network of EPS fibres [39]. We interpret our results to suggest that 181 the WS biofilm is the more resilient structure and is less brittle than the CBFS biofilm, and that both are 182 stronger and better attached than the fragile VM biofilm. 183

Biofilm-formation also depends on a number of strain characteristics. These include swimming (and 184 twitching) motility, relative cell hydrophobicity and cell adhesion, and the expression of surface active 185 agents which are needed to approach, modify and successfully colonise a surface or interface. We 186 187 observed significant differences in swimming in soft agar, with CBFS and WS cells apparently retarded by the over-expression of poly-acetyl glucosamine (CBFS), and cellulose and poly-acetyl glucosamine (WS), 188 compared to VM cells (T-K HSD, α = 0.05; **Table 2 (c)**) which presumably produce lower levels of these 189 EPS or are not expressing them under these conditions. However, CBFS and VM cells swam at similar 190 rates on the surface of soft agar which suggests the CBFS phenotype might change, perhaps in response 191 192 to surface viscosity, other factors or interactions (the percentage of agar used in these assays is too low for swarming, although SBW25 is capable of this surface-associated motility [40]). Significant 193 differences were also observed in recruitment rates to the top of the liquid column, relative cell 194 hydrophobicity, and cell-surface adhesion, as well as in colony expansion which had previously been 195 used to characterise the WS phenotype [12,41,42] (T-K HSD, $\alpha = 0.05$; **Table 2 (c)**) (we know that 196 recruitment and adhesion of SBW25 and mutant cells are affected by EPS expression [9,13,43], and 197 198 other studies suggest that large amounts of EPS may promote cell adhesion, e.g. [44]; a similar range of cell hydrophobicities are seen for other pseudomonads, e.g. [45], though H_r varies with the hydrocarbon 199 tested [46]). However, no significant differences were seen in the surface tension of culture 200 supernatants suggesting that all three expressed the surfactant viscosin [47], or in growth rates which 201 suggests that they responded to O₂ levels in the same manner (T-K HSD, $\alpha = 0.05$; **Table 2 (c)**). However, 202 it is notable that, across all three strains, a 1.4x higher growth level was achieved in shaken microcosms 203

with higher levels of aeration than static microcosms with more limited O_2 access (paired t-test, P < 0.0001).

Thirteen of 15 quantitative measurements we have made of biofilm strength and attachment levels, 206 biofilm rheology and strain characteristics (Table 2) differentiate between CBFS, VM and WS biofilms. 207 208 More similarities were found between CBFS and VM biofilms than with the WS biofilm, as determined by HCA (Supplementary Figure S2), which differs from our early qualitative grouping of these biofilms 209 into physically cohesive and viscous mass-class biofilms [16] (Figure 1 (a)). Nonetheless, both the 210 qualitative and quantitative assessments of biofilm phenotypes demonstrate that the CBFS, VM and WS 211 biofilms can be differentiated by a number of characteristics and can be considered substantially 212 different structures (quantitative biofilm phenotypes have not been reported for collections of WS or 213 CBFS-like mutant isolates, e.g. in [10,14,15,48,49], so the range and overlap of biofilm-type phenotypes 214 is unknown). 215

Our findings add to the growing number of reports demonstrating that naturally-occurring and 216 engineered mutants are able to alter the physical characteristics of the biofilms produced by the wild-217 218 type strain, including KT2440, PA01 and PA14 which produce adaptive mutants similar to the Wrinkly Spreader in diversifying populations [27,28,29]. It would be interesting to know whether the variation in 219 biofilm characteristics between wild-type and mutant strains is similar to the variation between wild-220 type biofilms grown under a range of environmental conditions, as this would impact on the fitness 221 advantage biofilm mutants may have in diversifying populations and their ability to colonise new 222 223 environments. Finally, as we have no reason to suppose that CBFS and VM-like biofilm mutants could not arise directly from wild-type SBW25 in one or two mutations, our physical comparison of these 224 three proxy biofilm-types illustrates how adaptive radiation could result in multiple biofilm-based 225 solutions to colonising the high-O₂ region of liquid columns through parallel or convergent evolution 226 [50] (our use of the CBFS partially-engineered mutant and manipulation of wild-type SBW25 with 227 exogenous Fe³⁺ were required as natural mutants with CBFS and VM biofilm phenotypes were not 228 available). 229

230 Competitive fitness depends on the degree of physical disturbance

Although increased access to O_2 at the A-L interface underlies the fitness advantage of biofilm formation [5], these structures need to be sufficiently robust to withstand random physical disturbance yet still be cost-effective in terms of resource allocation for biofilm construction and growth. We therefor predict that as disturbance is increased, fitness should decline to the point where biofilm-formation provides no advantage or incurs a cost compared to non-biofilm–forming competitors. We tested competitive fitness at four levels of disturbance, from standard static incubation conditions where disturbance is
rare, low and intermediate levels of disturbance provided by a smooth-running orbital shaker, to high
levels of disturbance provided by a more vigorous shaking incubator. Under low disturbance conditions,
48 h old CBFS and WS biofilms remained at the A-L interface but the VM biofilm sank within an hour,
and under intermediate levels of disturbance all three biofilms sank within an hour.

Under static conditions the CBFS biofilm was found to provide the highest level of competitive fitness 241 compared to the non-biofilm-forming reference strain SM-13 (W for CBFS, 2.7 ± 0.1) and significant 242 differences in fitness were seen between all three strains (W for VM, 2.2 \pm 0.1; WS, 1.8 \pm 0.1; T-K HSD, α 243 = 0.05). Furthermore, under these conditions each of the biofilm–forming strains can be considered 244 adaptive lineages as fitness was greater than one (t-tests, P < 0.05), in agreement with earlier studies of 245 VM and WS biofilms [11,32], and therefor are examples of convergent evolution (some prefer the term 246 parallel evolution [48] but see [50]) (fitness or selection coefficients within WS and CBFS-like mutant 247 isolates is known to vary e.g. [14,15,30,48,49], but as experimental conditions and reference strains 248 249 differ, we cannot comment on the overlap of fitness ranges between biofilm-types). Our fitness assays also demonstrate that competitive fitness significantly declines with increasing levels of physical 250 disturbance (T-K HSD, $\alpha = 0.05$) (Figure 2) (in contrast, total productivity increases with disturbance, in 251 agreement with our understanding that growth is O₂-limited in these microcosms; see Supplementary 252 Figure S3). CBFS fitness fell the most, though only WS fitness was reduced to below one in the most 253 254 vigorous shaking conditions (t-test, P = 0.006) (see Supplementary Information S3 for further analysis of the fitness data confirming strain and disturbance effects). 255

These results clearly demonstrate that CBFS, VM and WS biofilm-forming lineages can out-compete a 256 257 non-biofilm-forming competitor in static microcosms, but that as physical disturbance increases, the adaptive value of biofilm-formation rapidly falls in a strain and disturbance-dependent manner. In 258 particular, we note that WS fitness did not change between static and low disturbance conditions, 259 whereas CBFS and VM fitness significantly decreased (T-K HSD, α = 0.05) (Figure 2), supporting our 260 earlier view that the WS biofilm was the more resilient structure and the VM biofilm the most fragile. 261 We therefore conclude that the WS biofilm is better suited to the range of physical disturbance static 262 microcosms are normally subject to than either the CBFS or VM biofilms. 263

264 Pair-wise competitions between CBFS, VM and WS

We undertook pair-wise competitive fitness assays with initial cell ratios of 1:1000, 1:1 and 1000:1 to determine which biofilm–former was likely to be successful if two mutants appeared at the same time in a radiating population, or if a second mutant appeared sometime after the first had become established (three-way assays with two biofilm–forming strains plus SM-13 pose too many technical difficulties to
be considered here). In these assays, both competitors are mixed uniformly throughout the liquid
column and cells have to move into the high–O₂ region before they can form biofilms (similar assays
have been undertaken before to determine relative fitness or selection coefficients within biofilm-types,
e.g. [14,30,48,49]).

At or near the initial cell ratio of 1:1, the competitive fitness of CBFS and VM was significantly greater 273 than WS fitness (**Figure 3**; T-K HSD, $\alpha = 0.05$), suggesting that these two strains can more rapidly 274 colonise and dominate the A-L interface by forming biofilms than the WS under the conditions used 275 276 here. However, across the range of initial cell ratios tested in these assays, fitness was found to be negative-frequency dependent for all pair-wise combinations and ranged between 0.52 \pm 0.03 and 1.9 \pm 277 0.1 for WS competing against VM when dominant and VM competing against WS when rare, 278 respectively (Figure 3; a linear fit was found between the fitness of each strain and the log initial cell 279 ratio, $r^2 = 0.77 - 0.98$; and fitness was also negatively correlated within strain pairs, $r^2 = -0.96 - -0.98$, P < -0.98280 281 0.0001) (see Supplementary Information S4 for further analysis of the fitness data confirming strain and ratio effects, and Supplementary Figure S4 and Supplementary Information S5 for an analysis of 282 productivity that also confirms strain effects). We interpret these findings to mean that the fitness of 283 CBFS, VM and WS biofilms is determined by strain characteristics and relative numbers, and to a lesser 284 extent, on the identity of the competitor. 285

Negative frequency-dependent fitness arises as the proportions of competing strains change and within-286 strain competition for at least one limiting resource becomes more important than between-strain 287 competition for the same resource (the suggestion that the increasing mass of the WS biofilm and 288 likelihood of it sinking explains WS fitness decrease [3] does not apply to our model system, as in our 289 two-day assays biofilms rarely sank). However, the reciprocal nature of the fitness within our pairwise 290 biofilm competitions suggest that two limiting resources are needed to differentiate between the three 291 strains. Although this will require further investigation, we suspect they are O₂ and nutrients; the 292 presence of an extreme O₂ gradient within WS biofilms has already been established [6] and it is 293 possible that a similar but inverted nutrient gradient is limiting growth at the very top layer of the 294 biofilm (when nutrient levels are sufficiently low, O₂ is no longer growth-limiting and the WS fitness 295 advantage is lost [8]; it would be intriguing to investigate cell distributions and fitness in microcosms 296 containing nitrate or nitrite as alternative terminal electron acceptors, though we do not know whether 297 SBW25 is capable of using these in anaerobic respiration). In the context of our model system, it is 298 possible that multiple biofilm types may appear and co-exist for various lengths of time within the 299 biofilm structure, where cell surface properties and EPS retain growing clonal populations and displace 300

competitors and diversity is maintained by multiple limiting resources allowing metabolic and growth
 trade-offs [2,3], even though the ready recognition of WS colonies on plates suggests that this is the
 most abundant and successful biofilm-type.

As substantial growth appears to occur in the liquid column below the VM biofilm compared to CBFS 304 and WS biofilms (Figure 1 (a)), it is possible that some of the VM fitness advantage might be due to the 305 colonisation of this region, as fitness is determined from total microcosm numbers rather than numbers 306 from the biofilm itself. We confirmed that CBFS, VM and WS cell localisation throughout the liquid 307 column varied with depth (T-K HSD, α = 0.05; Figure 4 (a-c)) and between the three strains, with CBFS 308 and WS having a higher proportion at the top than VM (Relative OD₆₀₀ after 24 h, CBFS, 3.87 ± 0.11 ; WS, 309 3.55 ± 0.06 ; VM, 1.89 ± 0.03 ; T-K HSD, $\alpha = 0.05$; Figure 4 (d)) (enrichment at the top of the liquid column 310 requires aerotaxis which has been demonstrated for both wild-type SBW25 and WS cells [9]). It is 311 interesting to note that although the proportion of VM cells at the top did not significantly increase 312 between 24 h and 72 hr, the proportion of WS cells increased (1.2x) as the WS biofilm became more 313 visually obvious and the proportion of CBFS cells decreased (0.8x) as the liquid column below the CBFS 314 biofilm became more turbid (T-K HSD, α = 0.05; Figure 4 (d)). The proportion of VM cells located in the 315 middle of the liquid column was significantly higher than CBFS and the proportion of WS cells the lowest 316 (Relative OD₆₀₀ after 24 h, CBFS, 0.60 ± 0.02; WS, 0.39 ± 0.02; VM, 0.78 ± 0.02; T-K HSD, α = 0.05; Figure 317 318 4 (e); see Supplementary Information S6 for an analysis of cell distributions confirming strain and depth effects). These differences in cell localisation may reflect how CBFS, VM and WS biofilm structures 319 develop over time and how efficiently each is able to retain their growing populations. However, 320 localisation at the top does not require biofilm-formation per se, as wild-type SBW25 cells inhibited 321 from forming a VM biofilm are also able to enrich in this region, though not as effectively as WS cells [9]. 322 323 Nonetheless, the ability to colonise both the A-L interface by biofilm-formation and the rest of the liquid column with free-swimming cells might also reflect might reflect a trade-off between growth and 324 competition, with cells near the A-L interface growing fast but subject to high levels of competition, and 325 cells located further down the liquid column growing more slowly but with less competition. 326

327

328 CONCLUSIONS

Although biofilm research now has many established model systems, SBW25 is one of only a few
 bacteria reported to form a variety of A-L interface biofilms produced by adaptive mutants arising in
 diversifying populations or by genetic engineering. Our work has shown that the CBFS, VM and WS
 biofilms can be differentiated on the basis of physical structure, strain characteristics and fitness

advantage, allowing a link to be made between environmental conditions in which biofilms form, the 333 structural resilience these must have in order to survive, and the fitness advantage they provide over 334 other competitors. Although we have used the CBFS and VM biofilms here as proxies for naturally-335 occurring adaptive mutants which might arise in diversifying SBW25 populations as the Wrinkly 336 Spreader did, our comparison of the three biofilm-types also illustrates how varied biofilm 337 characteristics and fitness advantage might become between adaptive mutants arising from an 338 ancestral biofilm-forming strain. It is possible that this variation may be greater than that seen between 339 biofilms produced by the ancestor under different environmental conditions, and both variation in 340 biofilm characteristics and the fitness advantage they provide may have significance in a range of 341 medical, biotechnological and industrial contexts where the success of prophylactic treatments or 342 343 continued productivity could be effected by unexpected diversity or change.

344

345 SUPPORTING INFORMATION AND DATA

346 Supporting information is available as a Supplementary Information file. This will be made available

347 from Mendeley Data on acceptance.

348 AUTHOR STATEMENTS

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- **350** Roles undertaken by the Authors: Anna Koza: Design, experimentation and analysis; Robyn Jerdan:
- 351 Design, experimentation, analysis and manuscript development; Scott Cameron: Manuscript
- development and supervision; Andrew Spiers: Design, experimentation, analysis, manuscript
- development and supervision. All authors contributed to the final manuscript preparation.

354 CONFLICTS OF INTERESTS

355 The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interests.

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366

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- 493
- 494

495 FIGURE LEGENDS

496

Figure 1. The three biofilms produced by SBW25 have different phenotypes. Shown here are images of
biofilms in situ and ex situ (a). Wild-type SBW25 (Ctrl) normally grows throughout the liquid column of
static microcosms and does not produce a biofilm at the A-L interface or lumps of material when
transferred to a Petri dish. In contrast, the CBFS and WS biofilms are robust-looking structures with a
dry-looking top surface, are well-attached to the vial walls and produce large fragments when

- transferred. The VM biofilm is a weak and poorly attached structure with a very wet-looking top surface
- and produces viscous strands of material when transferred. The control culture was grown in standard
- 504 KB media and the CBFS, VM and WS biofilms in KB-Fe media. Microcosms were incubated for 72 h
- before testing. The three biofilms can be further differentiated by quantitative measurements of biofilm
- strength (g) and attachment levels (A₅₇₀) (b). Microcosms were incubated for 48 h before assay and
- means \pm SE (n = 8) are shown. Means not connected by the same letter (normal text, strength; italics,
- attachment) are significantly different (T-K HSD, $\alpha = 0.05$).

509 Figure 2. The fitness advantage of biofilm–formation is reduced as physical disturbance increases.

- 510 Shown are the competitive fitness (W) of CBFS, VM and WS (a c) relative to the non-biofilm–forming
- reference strain SM-13 in microcosms incubated with increasing degrees of physical disturbance
- (indicated by the triangles at the bottom of each graph), ranging from static (1) to vigorous shaking (4)
- conditions. When W > 1 the biofilm–forming strain has a competitive advantage over SM-13; when W <
- 1 SM-13 has the advantage. Microcosms were inoculated with a 1:1 ratio of the biofilm-forming strain
- and SM-13 and were incubated for 48 h before assay. Means \pm SE (n = 5) are shown. Means not
- 516 connected by the same letter within panels are significantly different (T-K HSD, α = 0.05). The grey
- 517 background indicates W < 1. Dashed lines indicate trends only. Fitness under shaking conditions were
- further tested and means marked with an asterisk indicate where $W \neq 1$ (t-test, $P \leq 0.05$).

Figure 3. Pairwise competitions between CBFS, VM and WS biofilms in static microcosms. Shown are 519 520 the competitive fitness (W) of CBFS, VM and WS relative to one another in static microcosms inoculated 521 with different initial strain ratios ($\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{c}$). When W > 1 the first strain has a competitive advantage over 522 the second strain; when W < 1 the second strain has the advantage over the first strain. The small triangles indicate at what log ratio the strains are neutral (i.e. W = 1). Microcosms were inoculated with 523 nominal 1:1000, 1:1 and 1:1000 cell ratios of the first and second strains, but data are shown here using 524 the actual ratios determined from the initial cell number colony counts. Microcosms were incubated for 525 72 h before assay. Means \pm SE (n = 5) are shown. Means not connected by the same letter within panels 526 are significantly different (T-K HSD, α = 0.05). The grey background indicates W < 1. Dashed lines 527 indicate trends only. 528

Figure 4. Cells distributions vary through the liquid column. Shown are the cell densities (relative OD₆₀₀) in samples (1 - 6) taken serially down the liquid column of static microcosms (**a** – **c**, CBFS, VM and WS), from the top and including any biofilm material (1) to the bottom (6). Cell densities in the top and middle samples (2 - 5) are compared on the right (**d & e**). Microcosms were inoculated with a cell pellet placed at the bottom of the vial and then incubated for 24 h (white circles) or 72 h (grey circles) before

- assay. Means \pm SE (n = 5) are shown. Means not connected by the same letter within panels are
- significantly different (T-K HSD, α = 0.05). The grey background indicates where relative densities are
- 536 below one. Dashed lines indicate trends only.

537

539 TABLES

540 Table 1 : Biofilm-types produced by wild-type *P. fluorescens* SBW25 and mutants.

542 543 544		Biofilm-forming Strain (CBFS)	Viscous Mass (VM)		
543 544			VISCOUS IVIASS (VIVI)	Wrinkly Spreader (WS)	
544					
•••	Strain origin	Diversifying population of	Wild-type strain	Diversifying population of	
545		the cellulose-deficient		wild-type SBW25	
546		SBW25 wss mutant			
547					
548	Genotype	SBW25 <i>wss∆ awsX</i> (CBFS2.1 [31]) ^a	SBW25 (wild-type [33,34])	SBW25 wspF (archetypal strain	
549				[11,14])	
550					
551	Biofilm induction	Genetic (<i>awsX</i>),	Physiological,	Genetic (<i>wspF</i>),	
552		elevated c-di-GMP levels ^b	exogeneous Fe ³⁺	elevated c-di-GMP levels	
553					
554	Biofilm characteristics	Physically cohesive-class biofilm ^c	Viscous mass-class biofilm ^c	Physically cohesive-class biofilm ^c	
555		Robust and well attached	Fragile and poorly attached	Robust and well attached	
556		Dry-looking upper surface	Wet-looking upper surface	Dry-looking upper surface	
557					
558	Biofilm matrix / EPS	PGA ^b	Small amounts of cellulose, PGA	Higher levels of cellulose, PGA	
559					
560	Liquid column	Relatively little growth	More growth evident growth	Relatively little growth	
561					
562	Colony morphology	Intermediate, rough but	Smooth and rounded	Flattened and wrinkled	
563		rounded			
564					
565	a See Sunnlementary Ir	formation S1 for our identification	of the likely biofilm-activating mut	ation in $aws X$ h After similar	

570 Table 2 : Quantitative differentiation of CBFS, VM and WS biofilms and strains.

		CBFS	VM	WS
(a) Biofilm measurements	Attachment (A570)	1.79 ± 0.03ª	0.12 ± 0.01 ^c	0.27 ± 0.02 ^b
	Strength (g)	0.030 ± 0.002^{b}	0.009 ± 0.003°	0.208 ± 0.00
(b) Biofilm rheometry	Flow point ($G' = G''$) (Pa)	$0.014 \pm 0.001^*$	0.028 ± 0.004*	14 ± 2*
	Loss factor (tan δ)	0.52 ± 0.02ª	0.46 ± 0.01 ^a	0.28 ± 0.02^{b}
	Shear modulus ⁺ (G*) (Pa)	0.27 ± 0.02*	$0.8 \pm 0.2^{*}$	130 ± 36*
	Zero shear viscosity (η_0) (Pa s)	0.087 ± 0.005*	0.24 ± 0.05*	41 ± 11*
(c) Strain characteristics	Cell hydrophobicity (<i>H</i> _r)	0.44 ± 0.02ª	0.19 ± 0.02^{b}	0.08 ± 0.03 ^c
	Cell-surface adhesion (nN)	-13.2 ± 0.1 ^b	-12.1 ± 0.1ª	-15.2 ± 0.2°
	Colony expansion (cm 24 h ⁻¹)	0.38 ± 0.01^{b}	0.40 ± 0.01^{b}	0.75 ± 0.02ª
	Growth in shaken microcosms (OD $_{600}$ 24 $h^{\text{-}1})$	1.39 ± 0.04ª	1.38 ± 0.02ª	1.38 ± 0.03ª
	Growth in static microcosms (OD ₆₀₀ 24 h ⁻¹)	1.00 ± 0.01 ^{ab}	1.01 ± 0.03ª	0.91 ± 0.02^{b}
	Liquid surface tension (mN m ⁻¹)	25.6 ± 0.2ª	25.2 ± 0.2ª	25.8 ± 0.1ª
	Recruitment (relative OD ₆₀₀)	0.70 ± 0.02 ^b	0.77 ± 0.01ª	0.80 ± 0.02ª
	Swimming in soft agar (cm 24 h ⁻¹)	0.28 ± 0.03 ^b	0.93 ± 0.07ª	0.35 ± 0.08 ^b
	Swimming on soft agar (cm 24 h ⁻¹)	1.2 ± 0.05ª	1.08 + 0.08ª	0.53 + 0.06 ^b

591 Means ± SE are shown. Means not connected by the same letter are significantly different (T-K HSD, α = 0.05), and where

appropriate, * indicates where all pairwise combinations are significantly different (Wilcoxon, P ≤ 0.05). ⁺, Also known as the modulus of rigidity and sometimes denoted by S or μ. Biofilm rheometry for the VM biofilm was originally presented in [17].

(a) Biofilms in situ and ex situ

(b) Biofilm strength and attachment









SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

Three biofilm types produced by a model pseudomonad are differentiated by structural characteristics and fitness advantage

Anna Koza, Robyn Jerdan, Scott Cameron, and Andrew J. Spiers

SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION SECTIONS S1 – S6

S1: Identification of the *awsX* mutation in CBFS2.1

CBFS2.1 was an unknown biofilm-forming mutant isolated from a diversifying population of the cellulose-deficient SBW25 strain, SBW25 Δwss [1]. We determined the genome sequence of CBFS2.1 with the help of Robert Jackson (University of Reading) and David Studholme (University of Exeter) in which a mutation in *awsX* (PFLU5211) was identified involving the deletion of 11 amino acids (YTDDLIKGTTQ). AwsX is a regulator of the diguanylate cyclase (DGC) AwsR, and mutations in *awsX* in a wild-type SBW25 background result in the WS phenotype [2] through increased c-*di*-GMP levels and activation of the cellulose synthase complex. However, *awsX* mutations in a SBW25 Δwss background result in the over-expression of PGA instead (these are collectively known as the PWS mutants [3]). For this reason, we suggest that CBFS2.1 is similar to the PWS mutants and also expresses PGA to produce an A-L interface biofilm.

S1 References

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S2: Statistical analyses

Assays were performed with replicates (*n*) as a single batch unless otherwise indicated and means and standard errors (SE) are provided where appropriate. Data was analysed by JMP 12 (SAS Institute Inc, USA) using a parametric approach having first determined that the data or residuals had a Normal distribution. Where necessary, outlier analysis was used and data progressively removed until a Normal distribution was achieved, as determined by fitting a Normal distribution and using the Shapiro-Wilk W Test (P > 0.05) to check the goodness of fit. Differences between means were determined using ANOVA models followed by *post hoc* Tukey-Kramer HSD tests. Where necessary, a nonparametric comparison using the Wilcoxon method was employed instead. A paired t-test was used to investigate differences in growth in shaken and static microcosms, and further t-tests used to determine if competitive fitness was equal to one. Similarities between biofilms structure, rheology and strain characterisation data. General linear (mixed) modelling (GLM/GLMM with Summary of fit, RSquare) approaches with standard least squares personalities were used to model competitive fitness and productivity with *post hoc* differences between means determined using LSMeans Differences Student's t and Tukey HSD tests. Correlations between data were examined (r^2) and fits between fitness as the response and log [initial cell ratio] as the regressor were determined by linear regression.

S3: Further analysis of competitive fitness across a range of physical disturbance levels

Competitive fitness was modelled using a GLM approach with strain (CBFS, VM, WS; character, nominal), disturbance (four levels from static (1) to shaken (4); character, ordinal) and replicate (character, nominal) effects, and a strain x disturbance interaction effect (GLM summary statistics: RSquare = 0.89; ANOVA, $F_{15,40}$ = 21.85, P < 0.0001). This found significant strain, disturbance and strain x disturbance interaction effects (P < 0.0001, < 0.0001 and 0.0003), but no replicate effect (P = 0.53). Both strain and disturbance levels could be further differentiated, with CBFS having the highest over-all fitness of 1.85 across the range of disturbances, followed by WS (1.45) and then VM (1.41), and the static incubation conditions producing the highest fitness of 2.24 across the strains and the shaking incubation producing the lowest fitness of 0.97 as expected (LSMeans Differences T-HSD, $\alpha = 0.05$).

S4: Further analysis of competitive fitness from the pairwise competitions

Competitive fitness was first modelled using a GLMM approach for each pairwise competition, with first strain (CBFS, VM, WS; character, nominal), ratio (log of the actual initial cell ratio, calculated for the first strain) (numeric, continuous), and replicate effects and a first strain x ratio interaction effect. In the CBFS and VM competitions (GLMM summary statistics: RSquare = 0.98; ANOVA, $F_{7,17}$ = 150.03, P < 0.0001), first strain, ratio and first strain x ratio interaction effects (P < 0.0001, 0.02 and < 0.0001) were found, but no replicate effect (P = 0.96). However, no significant correlation was found between the pooled fitness and log ratio (P = 0.41). In the CBFS and WS competitions (GLMM summary statistics: RSquare = 0.88; ANOVA, $F_{7,21}$ = 21.11, P < 0.0001), significant first strain and first strain x ratio interaction effects (P < 0.0001) were found, but no replicate effect (P = 0.48). No correlation was found between the pooled fitness and log ratio (P = 0.19 and 0.99). No correlation was found between the pooled fitness and log ratio (P = 0.5). Finally, in the VM and WS competitions (GLMM summary statistics: RSquare = 0.97; ANOVA, $F_{7,15} = 65.88$, P < 0.0001), significant first strain x ratio interaction (P = 0.004 and < 0.0001) effects and a weak ratio effect (P = 0.48). However, no significant correlation was found between the pooled fitness and log ratio (P = 0.75). In all three models, both strains could be differentiated from one another (LSMeans Differences Student's t, $\alpha = 0.05$). These confirm that strain fitness is differentiated within pairwise assays, and that fitness is dependent on the initial cell ratios.

Competitive fitness was also modelled using a GLMM approach for all pairwise competitions, with first strain, strain pair (CBFS & VM, CBFS & WS, VM & WS; character, nominal), ratio and replicate (character, nominal) effects (GLMM summary statistics: RSquare = 0.91; ANOVA, $F_{9,67}$ = 74.96, P < 0.0001). This found significant first strain, strain pair and ratio effects (P < 0.0001, 0.005 and 0.0001) effects, but no replicate effect (P = 0.95). However, no significant correlation was found between the pooled fitness and log ratio (P = 0.49). This confirms the effect findings from the individual models and in addition shows that there are significant differences in fitness between each of the strain combinations tested in these pairwise assays.

S5: Further analysis of productivity from the pairwise competitions

Productivity was modelled using a GLMM approach with strains (CBFS & VM, CBFS & WS, VM & WS; character, nominal), ratio (log of the actual initial cell ratio, calculated for the first strain) (numeric, continuous), and replicate effects (GLMM summary statistics: RSquare = 0.36; ANOVA, $F_{7,37}$ = 2.96, P = 0.01). This found a significant strain effect (P = 0.003) and a weak ratio effect (P = 0.07), but no replicate effect (0.78). A weak correlation was also found between the pooled productivity and log ratio (r^2 = 0.30 P = 0.4). This confirms that productivity is affected by the strain combinations and initial cell ratios.

S6: Further analysis of cell distributions

Cell distributions were modelled using a GLM approach separately for the 24 and 72 h incubation experiments as a Normal distribution of residuals was not readily achieved for the combined data. For both experiments, cell distributions were modelled with strain (CBFS, VM, WS, character, nominal), depth (1-6, numeric, ordinal) and replicate (character, nominal)

effects (GLM summary statistics for the 24 h experiment: RSquare = 0.99; ANOVA, $F_{11,64}$ = 491.51, P < 0.0001; 48 h experiment: RSquare = 0.99; ANOVA, $F_{11,56}$ = 413.81, P < 0.0001). This found significant strain and depth effects (24 and 72 h, P < 0.0001) but no replicate effects (24 h, P = 0.24; 72 h, P = 0.40). In both experiments, CBFS, VM and WS could be differentiated from one another (LSMeans Differences T-HSD, $\alpha = 0.05$), and the top (1), middle-depth samples (2 – 5) and bottom (6) samples from one another (LSMeans Differences T-HSD, $\alpha = 0.05$).



SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION FIGURES S1 – S4

Figure S1. The static microcosm is divided into different regions. The metabolic activity of the initial SBW25 colonists randomly distributed through the liquid column rapidly establishes an O₂ gradient and divides the microcosm into a shallow high-O₂ region and a deeper O₂-depleted region. An air-liquid (A-L) interface biofilm can be formed at the liquid surface of the high-O₂ region, and both this and the remaining high-O₂ layer below it are also known as the Goldilocks zone. However, as the biofilm develops and deepens, O₂ flux through the biofilm is further reduced and the high-O₂ liquid layer becomes shallower (ultimately the division between high-O₂ and depleted-O₂ regions moves up into the biofilm).



Figure S2. Biofilms are differentiated by a range of quantifiable factors. Shown are the results of a two-way Hierarchical cluster analysis (HCA) using biofilm structure, rheology and strain characterisation data (n = 13). Biofilms are clustered according to similarity in (a) and factors according to similarity in (b).



Figure S3. Productivity in the physical disturbance assays. Shown are the productivities determined as the total final cell numbers ($\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{c}$, CBFS, VM or WS plus SM-13) per microcosm for the competitive fitness assays which were incubated with increasing degrees of physical disturbance (indicated by the triangles at the bottom of each graph), ranging from static (1) to vigorous shaking (4) conditions. Means ± SE (n = 5) are shown. Means not connected by the same letter within and across panels are significantly different (T-K HSD, $\alpha = 0.05$). Dashed lines indicate trends only.



Figure S4. Productivity in the pairwise competition assays. Shown are the productivities determined as the total final cell numbers ($\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{c}$, CBFS and VM, CBFS and WS, and VM and WS) per microcosm for the competitive fitness assays with nominal initial cell ratios of 0.001, 1 and 1000. Means ± SE (n = 5) are shown. Means not connected by the same letter within and across panels are significantly different (T-K HSD, $\alpha = 0.05$). Dashed lines indicate trends only.