



HAL
open science

Resident-disperser differences and genetic variability affect communities in microcosms

Allan Raffard, Julie Campana, Delphine Legrand, Nicolas Schtickzelle, Staffan
Jacob

► **To cite this version:**

Allan Raffard, Julie Campana, Delphine Legrand, Nicolas Schtickzelle, Staffan Jacob. Resident-disperser differences and genetic variability affect communities in microcosms. *The American Naturalist*, In press, 10.1086/722750 . hal-03827111

HAL Id: hal-03827111

<https://hal.science/hal-03827111>

Submitted on 24 Oct 2022

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution - NonCommercial 4.0 International License

Resident-disperser differences and genetic variability affect communities in microcosms

Allan Raffard¹, Julie L. M. Campana², Delphine Legrand², Nicolas Schtickzelle¹ & Staffan Jacob².

¹ *Université catholique de Louvain, Earth and Life Institute, Biodiversity Research Centre, Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgium*

² *CNRS, Station d'Écologie Théorique et Expérimentale du CNRS à Moulis, UAR-5321, F-09200 Moulis, France.*

Authors' ORCIDs:

Allan Raffard [0000-0003-0128-890X](https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0128-890X)

Julie L. M. Campana [0000-0001-8482-5699](https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8482-5699)

Delphine Legrand [0000-0003-4996-6730](https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4996-6730)

Nicolas Schtickzelle [0000-0001-7829-5361](https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7829-5361)

Staffan Jacob [0000-0003-1956-9646](https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1956-9646)

Abstract

Dispersal is a key process mediating ecological and evolutionary dynamics. Its effects on the dynamics of spatially-structured systems, population genetics or species range distribution can depend on phenotypic differences between dispersing and non-dispersing individuals. However, scaling up the importance of resident-disperser differences to communities and ecosystems has rarely been considered, in spite of intraspecific phenotypic variability being an important factor mediating community structure and productivity. Here, we used the ciliate *Tetrahymena thermophila*, in which phenotypic traits are known to differ between residents and dispersers, to test (i) whether these resident-disperser differences affect biomass and composition in competitive communities composed of four other *Tetrahymena* species, and (ii) whether these effects are genotype-dependent. We found that dispersers led to a lower community biomass compared to residents. This effect was highly consistent across the twenty *T. thermophila* genotypes used, despite intraspecific variability in resident-disperser phenotypic differences. We also found a significant genotypic effect on biomass production, showing that intraspecific variability has consequences for communities. Our study suggests that individual dispersal strategy can scale up to community productivity in a predictable way, opening new perspectives to the functioning of spatially structured ecosystems.

Keywords: dispersal, intraspecific variability, community, ecosystem, *Tetrahymena*.

Introduction

Dispersal is a complex and key process mediating ecological and evolutionary dynamics in spatially structured landscapes (Mouquet and Loreau 2003; Bowler and Benton 2005; Ronce 2007; Edelaar et al. 2008; Clobert et al. 2012; Edelaar and Bolnick 2012). Spatially structured communities and ecosystems strongly rely on dispersal rates (*i.e.*, the proportion of dispersing individuals, Loreau et al. 2003b) as dispersal mediates species interactions and nutrient fluxes, which in turn modifies community composition and ecosystem functions (Loreau et al. 2003a; Harvey et al. 2016). Although metacommunity and meta-ecosystem theories generally assume dispersing and non-dispersing individuals to be phenotypically similar, residents and dispersers are often found to strongly differ in multiple phenotypic traits (Bowler and Benton 2005; Clobert et al. 2009). The willingness and ability of organisms to disperse at each of the three dispersal phases (emigration, transience, and immigration) is indeed often associated with specific life histories, behaviors, morphologies or physiologies (Clobert et al. 2009). Such phenotypic differences between dispersers and residents have been described in many taxa (Clobert et al. 2009; Le Galliard et al. 2012; Stevens et al. 2014; Legrand et al. 2015). For example, it has been shown that dispersers are generally larger than residents in freshwater fish (Comte and Olden 2018), or more active in rodents (Le Galliard et al. 2012).

Dispersal-related traits can vary between (Stevens et al. 2014; MacLean and Beissinger 2017) and within species (Bowler and Benton 2005; Legrand et al. 2016; Cote et al. 2017a), and the origin of this variation can depend on both evolutionary and ecological factors. For instance, genetic covariances explain the link between dispersal and reproductive traits in wing-dimorphic crickets (reviews in Zera and Brisson 2012, Saastamoinen et al. 2018). In toads, the interaction between landscape matrix composition and predation risk shapes the phenotypic differences between residents and colonizers of empty patches (Winandy et al. 2019). Therefore, variability in genetic composition and/or local

environmental conditions (biotic or abiotic) can generate variability in resident-disperser differences among populations (Cote et al. 2017a). In turn, not only dispersal rate, but also the above-mentioned dispersal-related traits can have consequences on ecological dynamics (Jacob et al. 2019). Some studies showed that differences between residents and dispersers can affect metapopulation dynamics, species interactions, and phenotypic range distribution (Duckworth and Badyaev 2007; Phillips et al. 2010; Shine et al. 2011; Messenger and Olden 2019). In ciliate microcosms, dispersal-related traits involving morphological and demographic traits affect metapopulation size and stability (Jacob et al. 2019). The consequences of intraspecific differences between residents and dispersers at the scale of communities and ecosystems have however rarely been studied, despite the fact that phenotypic variability within species can affect multiple ecological processes, including predator-prey interactions or inter-specific competition (Harmon et al. 2009; Hart et al. 2016; Turcotte and Levine 2016; Hausch et al. 2018). For instance, increasing trait variability (*e.g.*, resource preferences) in weevil species (*Callosobruchus sp.*) affects species coexistence due to resource partitioning (Hausch et al. 2018). Importantly, such intraspecific variability can affect ecological processes as much as species richness (Des Roches et al. 2018; Raffard et al. 2019).

Phenotypic differences between residents and dispersers (and intraspecific variability in the intensity of these differences) could affect species interactions within communities in different ways (Raffard et al. 2022). First, residents and dispersers can differ from residents in their competitive abilities, for instance by displaying a higher aggressiveness (Duckworth and Badyaev 2007; Wolf and Weissing 2012), which may shape interspecific competition strength in colonized habitats, in turn modifying species coexistence (Hart et al. 2016; Turcotte and Levine 2016). Second, dispersing individuals can also differ in diet or trophic position (Cote et al. 2017b). For instance, in *Dikerogammarus villosus* -a freshwater amphipod decomposer-

dispersers consume more detritus than residents, increasing the decomposition rate of organic material in colonized habitats (Little et al. 2019). Interestingly, the effects can differ between species (Little et al. 2019), suggesting that the effects of dispersal-related traits on community and ecosystem functioning might be species dependent. On top of these examples, differences between residents and dispersers involving functional traits may shape spatial heterogeneity of community and ecosystem across landscape (Raffard et al. 2022).

Here, we tested whether differences between residents and dispersers, and intraspecific variability in these differences, affect biomass production and composition of communities, as expected if residents and dispersers differ in traits of functional importance for communities and ecosystems. We used laboratory microcosms to quantify the effects of dispersers compared to residents, in multiple clonally-reproducing isogenic strains (hereafter referred to as *genotypes*) of the ciliated protist *Tetrahymena thermophila*, on biomass production of communities composed of four competing species of the genus *Tetrahymena*. Miniaturized and simplified microcosms, including using *Tetrahymena* ciliates, are classical model systems for the study of ecological and evolutionary dynamics at different temporal and spatial scales (Jessup et al. 2004; Benton et al. 2007; Pennekamp et al. 2014; Altermatt et al. 2015; Jacob et al. 2017; Larsen and Hargreaves 2020). As a prerequisite to this study, we quantified resident-disperser phenotypic differences and their variability among twenty genotypes of *T. thermophila* for multiple traits: for each genotype, we measured morphological traits (cell size and shape) and demographic parameters (population growth and maximal density) of resident and disperser individuals. Morphology and demography are often found to be correlated with dispersal in this species (Fjerdingsstad et al. 2007; Pennekamp et al. 2014; Jacob et al. 2019). These traits are also generally important for species interactions in communities, determining for instance metabolic rate and resource uptake, with potential consequences for interspecific interactions and biomass productivity

(Brown et al. 2004; Gibert et al. 2017; Tabi et al. 2020). Then, we tested whether residents and dispersers differently affect communities (composition and biomass) in which they were added, while experimentally controlling for initial density. We tested whether the effects of these resident-disperser differences on communities can depend on intraspecific variability, by comparing 20 genotypes of *T. thermophila*.

Material and methods

Study species

Native from North America, *Tetrahymena thermophila* is a 30–50µm unicellular eukaryote living in freshwater ponds and streams (Collins 2012; Doerder and Brunk 2012). Twenty isogenic genotypes (strains D1 to D20, Table S1) were used to assess variability in dispersal-related traits. *T. thermophila* displays a particular genetic system where only the macronucleus is expressed and determines the phenotype variability among genotypes, the micronucleus being perfectly silent and only used to form the new macronucleus during sexual reproduction. Such particular genetic system makes genetic changes in the macronucleus alike to phenotypic plasticity by somatic selection during asexual phases (Verdonck et al. 2022). All genotypes displayed only clonal reproduction in our culture conditions, since sexual reproduction requires mixing cells with different mating types, *i.e.* from different genotypes, under strict starvation (Elliott and Hayes 1953; Bruns and Brussard 1974). Cells from different genotypes were kept isolated in standard conditions, propagating them every ~10 days by transferring a very small number of cells (~10-15 cells in average) to fresh media. Cells were maintained in axenic rich liquid growth medium (0.5% Difcopenone peptone, 0.06% yeast extract) at 23°C and all culture manipulations were performed in sterile conditions under a laminar flow hood.

Quantification of differences between residents and dispersers in multiple traits

Dispersal-related traits, and their dependency to genotypes, have already been described in microcosms of *T. thermophila* (e.g., Fjerdingsstad et al. 2007, Jacob et al. 2019, 2020). Dispersal rates and dispersal-related traits were quantified using standard two-patch systems (Schtickzelle et al. 2009; Pennekamp et al. 2014; Jacob et al. 2020). They consist of two habitats (1.5 ml microtubes) connected by a corridor (4 mm internal diameter, 2 cm long silicone tube) filled with growth medium. Before the quantification of dispersal, each genotype was grown for one week in a 100ml vial in order to obtain densities high enough to measure dispersal (Jacob et al. 2017, 2019, 2020). Cells from these cultures were used to inoculate five replicated dispersal systems for each genotype, in which we measured dispersal rate and characterized resident and disperser cells. To do so, cells were placed in one patch at a standardized density (40,000 cells/ml) during 30 minutes of acclimation, and the corridor was then opened to allow cells to disperse for 4 hours towards the initially empty neighbor patch. Population growth rate is low enough during such a 4-hour time frame in this species to avoid bias in the quantification of dispersal rates (Pennekamp et al. 2014; Jacob et al. 2018). Corridors were then closed to prevent further movements and a series of traits were quantified for each genotype describing (i) their dispersal rate, (ii) morphology and (iii) demography of both residents and dispersers.

Five samples of 10 μ l were pipetted from each of the two patches (for resident and disperser cells) and pictured under dark-field microscopy (Axio Zoom V16, Zeiss) to assess cell density and morphology (averaged over the five samples) using a procedure developed with the ImageJ[®] software (Pennekamp and Schtckzelle 2013). First, the dispersal rate for each genotype was calculated as $N_{disp}/(N_{resi} + N_{disp})$, where N_{disp} and N_{resi} are the abundance of dispersers and residents, respectively. Second, two morphological traits, *cell*

size (cell surface area on pictures) and *cell elongation* (aspect ratio, *i.e.*, ratio of cell major/minor axes) were estimated in both residents and dispersers of each genotype.

Third, demographic traits (*i.e.*, growth rate and maximal population density) of residents and dispersers of each genotype were measured. To do so, ~150 cells (mean volume \pm SE: $14.02 \pm 1.25\mu\text{l}$) of both residents and dispersers of each dispersal system were separately transferred into 96-well plates (250 μl wells) filled with growth medium, with two technical replicates (averaged in subsequent analyses). Absorbance at 450nm was recorded every two hours for two weeks using a microplate reader (Infinite 200, TECAN) to quantify population growth. We used a general additive model (R-package *gam*; R Core Team 2013, Hastie 2018) to smooth the observed absorbance measurements to avoid any bias due to slight variability in absorbance measures, and fitted logistic growth curves using the *grofit* package (gcfits function with spline fit; Kahm et al. 2010). *Growth rate* was then assessed as the maximum slope of population growth, and *maximal population density* as the density reached at the plateau of the growth curve (Jacob et al. 2017).

Experimental communities

Competitive communities were assembled using four competing *Tetrahymena* species to which residents or dispersers of each *T. thermophila* genotype obtained from the first part of the experiment were added (from each dispersal system). A single strain of each competing species was used (*T. americanis* A5, *T. borealis* B8, *T. pyriformis* P4, and *T. elliotti* E5; Table S1) to avoid potential differences of competitive interactions due to genetic variability. To assemble communities, we transferred ~150 cells of each of the four competing species (10 μl of cultures previously diluted to 15,000 cells/ml) into 96-well plates (250 μl wells filled with growth medium) and we introduced dispersers/residents from one specific *T. thermophila*

genotype (~150 cells, see above). In total, we assembled 200 communities with equal initial abundance of all species: 20 *T. thermophila* genotypes \times 2 dispersal status (resident and disperser) \times 5 replicates (the five dispersal systems used for each genotype; see above). For each replicate, we ran two technical replicates of community dynamics that were averaged for analyses. Absorbance at 450nm was recorded every two hours for two weeks to quantify the biomass productivity of the communities in the microcosms. Similar to the quantification of individual *T. thermophila* genotypes demographic growth (see above), we fitted logistic growth curves to absorbance data and computed *biomass production* as the maximum slope of community absorbance increase (*i.e.*, the maximal rate of biomass production), and the *maximal biomass* as the maximal absorbance reached by the community.

To quantify the abundance of the five species at the end of the experiment, we performed an one shot analysis of community composition (day 10, when communities reached the biomass plateau) using flow cytometry (FACS Canto 2, BD Sciences, Yi and Dean 2013, Bestion et al. 2018). Samples of 10 μ l of each culture were analyzed with fast flux settings (66 μ L.min⁻¹) to quantify morphological (*i.e.*, forward scatter and side scatter respectively quantifying size and granularity of cells) and fluorescence parameters (*i.e.*, FITC, PE, PerCP.Cy5, PE.Cy7, APC, APC.H7, V450 and V500). Preliminary data (unpublished) showed that natural variability among species in phenotypic traits and auto-fluorescence allows to differentiate species (Figure S1). Based on this result, the 10 metrics were used in a random forest algorithm using the *randomForest* R-package (Liaw and Wiener 2002) to determine species-identity for each cell. The random forest algorithm was trained on data obtained from monocultures (*i.e.*, isogenic cultures of each of the four competing species, and of residents and dispersers of each *T. thermophila* genotype, all cultured under the same conditions), and then applied to assign species identity to each particle detected by the flow cytometer (species were discriminated with low error rate (\pm SE): *T. thermophila*: 0.095 (\pm

0.030); *T. pyryformis* = 0.001 (\pm 0.000); *T. americanis* = 0.036 (\pm 0.006); *T. borealis* = 0.011 (\pm 0.001); *T. elliotti* = 0.018 (\pm 0.001)). The important phenotypic differences that permit this discrimination are illustrated in Figure S1. Importantly, the phenotypic characteristics of species might have changed in response to the inclusion in a community, which might affect the efficiency of species assignment. Although we cannot formally exclude this possibility, the distribution of traits in community samples is always comprised within the distribution expected given the distribution of species traits under isogenic conditions, with a lower variance of traits in communities (Figure S2). Due to a technical issue during cytometry reading, data on 16 communities were not available for analyses. At the end of the experiment, we quantified the richness (number of species present in the communities, S), the Shannon diversity (H) as $H = -\sum_i p_i \times \ln(p_i)$, where p_i is the relative abundance of species i in the community, and the evenness of species as $H/(\log(S))$ (Magurran 2004; Oksanen et al. 2005; Morris et al. 2014). While species richness quantifies the absolute number of species present, Shannon diversity is a measure of diversity weighted by relative abundances of the species present in a community, and evenness represents the regularity of abundance distribution.

Statistical analyses

We firstly aimed at confirming that morphological traits (*i.e.*, cell size and cell elongation) and demographic parameters (*i.e.*, growth rate and maximal density) differed between residents and dispersers in *T. thermophila* and that these differences varied among genotypes, as observed in previous studies (*e.g.*, Jacob et al. 2019, 2020). Firstly, variability within and among genotypes in population growth rate, maximal density, cell size and elongation were standardized and summarized in a Principal Component Analysis (PCA, *psych* R-package,

Revelle 2011). The axes from the PCA were rotated using the varimax rotation (using the function *principal* from the *psych* R- package) to obtain axes with simple interpretation. Secondly, we fitted two linear models (*lm* function, *stats* R-package) with the scores on the first two PCA axes (either PCA1 or PCA2) as dependent variables, and the dispersal status (*i.e.*, resident or disperser), genotype identity and their interaction as explanatory variables.

To test for the impact of differences between residents and dispersers, and their genotype identity on the biomass and composition of communities, we fitted linear models with biomass production, maximal biomass, Shannon diversity and evenness as dependent variables, and dispersal status (residents *vs.* dispersers, two levels factor), genotype identity, and their interaction as explanatory variables. Then, to test to what extent the functional traits we measured could explain the effects of dispersal status and genotype on the communities, we fitted similar models by replacing genotype identity and the dispersal status by the scores of PCA1 and PCA2 axes summarizing phenotypic traits of residents and dispersers of each genotype. Since species richness displayed only three modalities (3, 4 or 5 species), the effects of genotype identity, dispersal status (and the subsequently scores of PCA1 and PCA2) were tested using ordered logistic regression (*polr* function in the *MASS* R-package; Ripley et al. 2013). Finally, we tested whether dispersal status and genotypic identity have an effect on relative abundance of all five species using a multivariate analysis of variance with permutation (PERMANOVA, *adonis2* function in the *vegan* R-package, Oksanen et al. 2005). All statistical analyses were performed using R software (R Core Team 2013)

Results

The first two axes of the PCA on resident and disperser phenotypic traits explained 59% and 26% of phenotypic variation, respectively. The first axis (hereafter named *demographic axis*)

was positively associated with population growth rate (loading = 0.98) and maximal density (0.97), with high values on this axis referring to cells with high growth capacities (Figure 1). The second PCA axis (hereafter named *morphological axis*; Table S2) explained variance in cell size (0.84) and elongation (-0.81), with high values describing larger and rounder cells. The twenty genotypes of *T. thermophila* strongly differed in their position on the demographic or morphological axes or both (Table 1). Additionally, genotypes differed in the intensity and direction of the resident-disperser differences, both in terms of demography and morphology (significant genotype \times dispersal status interactions; Table 1). We also detected a small ($R^2 = 1\%$) difference of morphology between residents and dispersers independently of genotype identity, residents being slightly smaller overall (Table 1).

T. thermophila residents and dispersers differed in their impacts on biomass of communities (Figure 2). Specifically, introducing dispersers led to communities with lower maximal biomass and usually lower maximal rates of biomass production than introducing residents of the same genotype (Figure 2). This effect of dispersal status on maximal biomass was highly consistent regardless of the *T. thermophila* genotype added (dispersal status \times genotype interaction, $F_{19,160} = 0.615$, p -value = 0.891). Regarding biomass production, the dispersal status \times genotype interaction had a marginal effect (Table 2), reflecting the fact that the differences between residents and dispersers in some genotypes were negligible (Figure 2). Additionally, independently of being a resident or a disperser, cells from different *T. thermophila* genotypes affected biomass production and maximal biomass differently in communities, which shows an effect of intraspecific genetic variability on community dynamics (Figure 2 and Table 2).

Dispersal status further impacted community diversity indicators. First, introducing dispersers led to slightly richer communities than introducing residents (mean richness for dispersers = $4.14 \pm \text{SE} = 0.048$; for residents = $4.00 \pm \text{SE} = 0.068$; Table 2). Second, we found

that dispersal status further altered community evenness, residents leading to higher evenness than dispersers (Table 2, Figure 3). However, differences between dispersers and residents did not significantly affect Shannon diversity (Table 2, Figure 3). Genotypic identity significantly affected species richness, Shannon diversity and evenness (Table 2). The dispersal status \times genotype interaction did not significantly impact any of the three metrics describing community diversity (Table 2; see Table S3 for similar analyses while excluding *T. thermophila* from diversity estimations). Finally, the final relative abundances of the five species (including *T. thermophila*) did not differ between communities with residents compared to dispersers (PERMANOVA, $F_{1,163} = 1.704$, p-value = 0.173, $R^2 < 0.01$), but were strongly dependent upon genotype identity (PERMANOVA, $F_{19,163} = 14.503$, p-value = 0.001, $R^2 = 0.63$).

Then, we explored the mechanisms underlying the effects of dispersal status and genotypes on communities by quantifying the effects of the phenotypic traits differing between residents and dispersers and among genotypes, as summarized by the demographic and morphological PCA axes. Overall, the demographic and morphological traits were highly related to genotypic identity, and slightly to the dispersal status (Table 1). Therefore, they depicted mainly a genotype effect on communities (and to a lesser extent a dispersal status effect). Yet, these demographic and morphological traits explained much less variance than the genotype effect (Table 2 and 3). Moreover, the morphological axis was linked to maximal biomass, depicting a negative effect of cell size and elongation on maximal biomass (Table 3, Figure S3). More surprisingly, maximal biomass and production were negatively affected by demographic traits of *T. thermophila* (Table 3, Figure S3): the higher the growth rate and maximal density of *T. thermophila* cells, the lower the biomass in experimental communities. Demographic traits were also positively correlated Shannon diversity, and evenness (Table 3, Figure S3). Finally, morphological traits were correlated with species richness and evenness:

large and round cells slightly increased species richness and led to less even distribution of species in the community (Table 3, Figure S3).

Discussion

Dispersal is an important process affecting metacommunity and meta-ecosystem dynamics (Loreau et al. 2003a; Massol et al. 2017; Gounand et al. 2018), but the role of phenotypic and context-dependent dispersal in these dynamics is poorly understood (Edelaar et al. 2008; Jacob et al. 2015; Cote et al. 2017a; Raffard et al. 2022). In this study, we tested whether dispersers and residents from multiple genotypes affect competitive communities in ciliate microcosms. As previously shown in *T. thermophila*, residents and dispersers differed in multiple morphological and demographic traits, and these differences varied among genotypes (Fjerdingstad et al. 2007; Jacob et al. 2019, 2020). Using communities of five ciliate species (*T. thermophila* with four competing species), we found that differences between residents and dispersers have important consequences for the overall biomass productivity of community ($R^2 = 21$ to 26%), while the effects on community composition were weak when significant ($R^2 = 2\%$). Specifically, introducing dispersers consistently led to lower productivity and lower maximal biomass irrespective of genotypic differences in the measured morphological and demographic traits.

Differences in functional traits between residents and dispersers might have consequences for community biomass through altered interspecific interactions. Dispersal can indeed be associated with the development of specific phenotypic attributes and incur costs associated with energy and metabolic demands required for moving among habitats (Bonte et al. 2012; Cayuela et al. 2022). Potential costs of dispersal might make dispersers less competitive compared to individuals from other species in our communities where only *T.*

thermophila was exposed to the dispersal treatment. On the contrary, the decreased biomass in the presence of dispersers suggests that dispersers might generate stronger competitive interactions in communities. Competition can indeed lead to mutual inhibition among competing species resulting in low growth rate of individual species and eventually a low biomass production independently of the community composition (Mitri and Foster 2013; Ghoul and Mitri 2016). In microbial communities, competitive interactions can be caused indirectly through resource exploitation or directly through cell damages (*e.g.*, chemical toxin) (Ghoul and Mitri 2016). Here, we might for instance speculate that dispersers have higher efficiency of resource acquisition and assimilation, which evenly affects species in the community through decreased resource availability. This could be part of colonization strategies, where dispersers display features facilitating colonization success by overexploiting the environment and thus lowering the performance of other individuals, regardless of whether they belong to the same or a different species. For instance, higher aggressiveness of dispersers in passerine birds can give a competitive advantage and may help colonization, but entails reproductive costs for dispersers (Duckworth and Badyaev 2007). Importantly, these effects were detected after several generations. Although we cannot conclude on their origin, they were possibly due to two different mechanisms. First, the non-genetic inheritance of phenotypic differences between residents and dispersers across several generations, a pattern that has recently been shown in for cell velocity and shape in some genotypes of *T. thermophila* (Cayuela et al. 2022), could induce long-term community consequences. Second a founder effect of residents and dispersers might have occurred where initial conditions determine the fate of the community (Chase 2003). Interestingly, despite the relatively strong effect of resident-disperser differences on community biomass, the composition of the ciliate community was weakly affected by the dispersal status of *T. thermophila*. Importantly, assessments of community composition through flow cytometry as

performed in this study might be sensitive to potential changes of phenotypic characteristics of species when included in communities. The five *Tetrahymena* species however strongly differ phenotypically (Figure S1), and we found lower variance of traits in communities compared to isogenic conditions, as expected if not all species survive in the communities (Figure S2), making this method a good candidate to describe ciliate communities. Although it is important to keep this limit in mind, the weak effects of dispersal for community composition suggests that *T. thermophila* residents and dispersers did not overgrow or exclude other species, and competitive hierarchy among species was conserved regardless of the dispersal status of *T. thermophila* individuals. Importantly, it is likely that phenotypic variability within *T. thermophila* does impact community structure since genotypic variability (which determines at least in part phenotypic variability) had a significant effect on each component of community composition that we measured. Further investigations are however required to assess the competitive strength of residents and dispersers against each one of the other species.

Morphological and demographic traits quantified here markedly differed both among *T. thermophila* genotypes and between residents and dispersers. Moreover, whether dispersers display a phenotype specialized for long-distance movement (small and elongated) or on the contrary short distance (large and round cells) varies across genotypes, as previously found (Jacob et al. 2016). However, these traits poorly explained the differential effects that residents and dispersers have on community biomass (up to 5% when cumulating simple and interactive effects, see Table 1). Therefore, the investigated traits probably account solely for a small amount of the variance of community biomass explained by the dispersal status. Dispersal is a complex process that depends on many phenotypic traits (Clobert et al. 2012). It would then not be surprising that the four traits quantified in this study do not capture much of the phenotypic variance explaining the disperser/resident differences. For instance,

behavioral traits, such as activity or exploration, are important in shaping ecological interactions (Wolf and Weissing 2012), as well as in determining individual dispersal (*e.g.*, swimming capacities or ciliate numbers in *T. thermophila*, Nelsen and Debault 1978; Pennekamp et al. 2019; Junker et al. 2021). Also, cell metabolism and resource uptake could probably underline the general and consistent resident *vs.* disperser effects on the measured community. Alternatively, the phenotypic differentiation between residents and dispersers in a genotype is a plastic process (Jacob et al. 2020), which can involve energetic investment in movement or in changing morphology. Therefore, these energetic costs could also modify interactions among species in the communities altering subsequent biomass production. As many traits can be correlated to the dispersal capacities of individuals, other traits than those quantified here should explain the consistent effects of dispersal for community biomass we found here.

The rate of dispersal is important for the functioning of meta-ecosystems, metacommunities, and other ecological networks (Loreau et al. 2003*a*; Mouquet and Loreau 2003; Massol et al. 2011; Baguette et al. 2013; Thompson and Gonzalez 2017). Yet, resident and disperser individuals are often considered as (phenotypically) similar in those frameworks. We showed that this is not the case in our experiment where residents and dispersers differently affected biomass production independently of density. While dispersal is often seen to affect competition through changes in density (Thompson et al. 2020), our study suggests that differences of phenotypic traits or dispersal strategies are also at play. Such a result might be important for theoretical predictions regarding metacommunities and meta-ecosystems dynamics, as recently highlighted (Raffard et al. 2022). Especially, spatial and temporal heterogeneity of environmental conditions (*e.g.*, source-sink dynamics, environmental gradients) can favor asymmetric trait fluxes. Hence, spatial heterogeneity of ecosystem functioning might be altered (Raffard et al. 2022). For instance, in range expansion

areas, we could speculate that differences in competitive abilities between residents and dispersers might, independently of their growth capacities, alter species productivity in edge habitats. Subsequent diversity-productivity relationships might be altered (Thompson et al. 2020). Yet, these results might be species-dependent, since dispersers can be stronger or weaker competitors than residents depending on the species (Anholt 1990; Hanski et al. 1991; Bowler and Benton 2005; Cadotte et al. 2006; Duckworth and Badyaev 2007). Overall, further investigations in other species in different ecological networks are required, since understanding which species characteristics and dispersal-related traits (*e.g.*, trophic level, mode of dispersal) influence the effects of residents and dispersers on communities should ultimately benefit theories on meta-systems functioning (Massol et al. 2017; Raffard et al. 2022).

Finally, in addition to a consistent effect of disperser-resident differences across genotypes, we found evidence for an effect of intraspecific genetic variability in *T. thermophila* on community biomass and composition. This confirms the key role of intraspecific variability on ecological processes (Raffard et al. 2019). Importantly, while overall phenotypic differences between genotypes result from genetic effects, the differences between residents and dispersers we found here occur through phenotypic plasticity (Jacob et al. 2020). The combined effects of genotype and dispersal status on community biomass we demonstrated here are therefore the outcome of a combination of both genetic and plastic effects occurring during the dispersal process. Competition was likely a determinant process in the experimental communities we used, and our results suggest that genotypic differences within *T. thermophila* might modulate these competitive interactions. This result supports previous studies suggesting that genetic diversity is important for the assembly of communities (Hughes et al. 2008). Especially, some genotypes may be more efficient in outcompeting other species, modifying the competitive network of whole community (Hart et

al. 2016). The effects of genotypic variability were partly underlined by morphological and demographic traits, since 91% and 85% of their variance (Table 1), respectively, were explained by differences among genotypes. Accordingly, genetic variability in morphological and demographic traits have been previously found to affect metapopulations dynamics in *T. thermophila* (Jacob et al. 2019). Here, the higher the demographic parameters (*i.e.*, growth rate and maximal biomass in isogenic conditions) of the introduced *T. thermophila* cells, the lower the productivity (maximal biomass and the biomass production) and the higher the diversity (Shannon, evenness) in the communities. While this might seem contradictory, we speculate on a trade-off between growth parameters (*i.e.*, proxies of fitness without interspecific competition) and competitive abilities (Bohannan et al. 2002; Kneitel and Chase 2004; Mille-Lindblom et al. 2006). For instance, traits associated with competitive abilities, such as toxin resistance, could allow to face other species competing for the same resource (Mille-Lindblom et al. 2006). Interestingly, those effects were not due to density *per se* in the first stage of communities' growth as they were made of species with equal initial densities. We rather measured *per capita* effects on biomass productivity and community composition. Manipulating density in similar experiments will be a key step forward, to investigate whether density and phenotypic traits have additive or interactive effects on communities.

To conclude, we found that the differences between resident and disperser individuals affect communities' biomass, with dispersers decreasing productivity compared to residents. This effect was highly consistent across the twenty genotypes we used in this study. Differences between resident and disperser effects on community biomass productivity may have important repercussions for ecosystem dynamics (Raffard et al. 2022), since biomass is classically considered as a main component of ecosystem functioning (Loreau 2001; Loreau et al. 2003a; Harvey et al. 2016). Measuring other dispersal-related traits than those related to morphology or growth (*e.g.*, behavioral, physiological, structural) should help assessing more

precisely the mechanisms explaining the described effects of resident-disperser differences on community outcomes. An interesting perspective would be to integrate the ecological differences between residents and dispersers in spatially explicit meta-ecosystem models to test for the effects of dispersal-related traits on meta-ecosystem dynamics.

Acknowledgements

We warmly thank Michèle Huet for maintaining the cell cultures essential for this study. AR was supported by F.R.S-FNRS through a postdoc grant (CR 2021) and a research project (PDR T.0211.19) awarded to NS in collaboration with SJ. NS is Senior Research Associate of the F.R.S-FNRS and acknowledges financial support from an ARC grant (DIVERCE 18-23/095). SJ acknowledges financial support from the Agence Nationale de la Recherche for the project CHOOSE (ANR-19-CE02-0016). This work is part of TULIP (Laboratory of Excellence Grant ANR-10 LABX-41). This paper is contribution BRCXXX of the Biodiversity Research Center at UCLouvain.

Statement of authorship

A.R., D.L., N.S. and S.J. designed the study. S.J. and J.L.M.C. performed the experiment. A.R. performed statistical analyses with contributions from S.J. and N.S.. A.R., D.L., N.S., and S.J. interpreted and discussed the results. A.R. wrote the first draft of the paper. All authors corrected and improved the manuscript, and approved this version.

Data availability statement

Data and code are available at Dryad Digital Repository (<https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.mpg4f4r34>).

References

- Altermatt, F., E. A. Fronhofer, A. Garnier, A. Giometto, F. Hammes, J. Klecka, D. Legrand, et al. 2015. Big answers from small worlds: a user's guide for protist microcosms as a model system in ecology and evolution. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* 6:218–231.
- Anholt, B. R. 1990. Size-biased dispersal prior to breeding in a damselfly. *Oecologia* 83:385–387.
- Baguette, M., S. Blanchet, D. Legrand, V. M. Stevens, and C. Turlure. 2013. Individual dispersal, landscape connectivity and ecological networks. *Biological Reviews* 88:310–326.
- Benton, T. G., M. Solan, J. M. J. Travis, and S. M. Sait. 2007. Microcosm experiments can inform global ecological problems. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 22:516–521.
- Bestion, E., B. García-Carreras, C.-E. Schaum, S. Pawar, and G. Yvon-Durocher. 2018. Metabolic traits predict the effects of warming on phytoplankton competition. *Ecology Letters* 21:655–664.
- Bohannan, B. J. M., B. Kerr, C. M. Jessup, and J. B. Hughes. 2002. Trade-offs and coexistence in microbial microcosms 107–115.
- Bonte, D., H. Van Dyck, J. M. Bullock, A. Coulon, M. Delgado, M. Gibbs, V. Lehouck, et al. 2012. Costs of dispersal. *Biological Reviews* 87:290–312.
- Bowler, D. E., and T. G. Benton. 2005. Causes and consequences of animal dispersal strategies: relating individual behaviour to spatial dynamics. *Biological Reviews* 80:205–225.
- Brown, J. H., J. F. Gillooly, A. P. Allen, V. M. Savage, and G. B. West. 2004. Toward a metabolic theory of ecology. *Ecology* 85:1771–1789.
- Bruns, P. J., and T. B. Brussard. 1974. Pair formation in *Tetrahymena pyriformis*, an inducible developmental system. *Journal of Experimental Zoology* 188:337–344.
- Cadotte, M. W., D. V. Mai, S. Jantz, M. D. Collins, M. Keele, and J. A. Drake. 2006. On testing the competition-colonization trade-off in a multispecies assemblage. *The American Naturalist* 168:704–709.
- Cayuela, H., S. Jacob, N. Schtickzelle, R. Verdonck, H. Philippe, M. Laporte, M. Huet, et al. 2022. Transgenerational plasticity of dispersal-related traits in a ciliate: genotype-dependency and fitness consequences. *Oikos* oik.08846.
- Chase, J. M. 2003. Community assembly: when should history matter? *Oecologia* 136:489–498.
- Clobert, J., M. Baguette, and J. M. Bullock. 2012. *Dispersal ecology and evolution*. Oxford University Press., UK.
- Clobert, J., J.-F. Le Galliard, J. Cote, S. Meylan, and M. Massot. 2009. Informed dispersal, heterogeneity in animal dispersal syndromes and the dynamics of spatially structured populations. *Ecology Letters* 12:197–209.
- Collins, K. 2012. *Tetrahymena thermophila*. (Vol. 109). *Methods in Cell Biology* - Elsevier.
- Comte, L., and J. D. Olden. 2018. Evidence for dispersal syndromes in freshwater fishes. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 285:20172214.

- Cote, J., E. Bestion, S. Jacob, J. Travis, D. Legrand, and M. Baguette. 2017a. Evolution of dispersal strategies and dispersal syndromes in fragmented landscapes. *Ecography* 40:56–73.
- Cote, J., T. Brodin, S. Fogarty, and A. Sih. 2017b. Non-random dispersal mediates invader impacts on the invertebrate community. *Journal of Animal Ecology* 86:1298–1307.
- Des Roches, S., D. M. Post, N. E. Turley, J. K. Bailey, A. P. Hendry, M. T. Kinnison, J. A. Schweitzer, et al. 2018. The ecological importance of intraspecific variation. *Nature Ecology & Evolution* 2:57–64.
- Doerder, P., and C. Brunk. 2012. Chapter 9 - Natural populations and inbred strains of tetrahymena. *Tetrahymena thermophila*. *Method in Cell Biology* - Elsevier.
- Duckworth, R. A., and A. V. Badyaev. 2007. Coupling of dispersal and aggression facilitates the rapid range expansion of a passerine bird. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 104:15017–15022.
- Edelaar, P., and D. I. Bolnick. 2012. Non-random gene flow: an underappreciated force in evolution and ecology. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 27:659–665.
- Edelaar, P., A. M. Siepielski, and J. Clobert. 2008. Matching habitat choice causes directed gene flow: a neglected dimension in evolution and ecology. *Evolution* 62:2462–2472.
- Elliott, A. M., and R. E. Hayes. 1953. Mating types in Tetrahymena. *Biological Bulletin* 105:269–284.
- Fjerdingstad, E. J., N. Schtickzelle, P. Manhes, A. Gutierrez, and J. Clobert. 2007. Evolution of dispersal and life history strategies – Tetrahymena ciliates. *BMC Evolutionary Biology* 7:133.
- Ghoul, M., and S. Mitri. 2016. The ecology and evolution of microbial competition. *Trends in Microbiology* 24:833–845.
- Gibert, J. P., R. L. Allen, R. J. Hruska, and J. P. DeLong. 2017. The ecological consequences of environmentally induced phenotypic changes. *Ecology Letters* 20:997–1003.
- Gounand, I., E. Harvey, C. J. Little, and F. Altermatt. 2018. Meta-ecosystems 2.0: rooting the theory into the field. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 33:36–46.
- Hanski, I., A. Peltonen, and L. Kaski. 1991. Natal Dispersal and Social Dominance in the Common Shrew *Sorex araneus*. *Oikos* 62:48.
- Harmon, L. J., B. Matthews, S. Des Roches, J. M. Chase, J. B. Shurin, and D. Schluter. 2009. Evolutionary diversification in stickleback affects ecosystem functioning. *Nature* 458:1167–1170.
- Hart, S. P., S. J. Schreiber, and J. M. Levine. 2016. How variation between individuals affects species coexistence. *Ecology Letters* 19:825–838.
- Harvey, E., I. Gounand, P. Ganesanandamoorthy, and F. Altermatt. 2016. Spatially cascading effect of perturbations in experimental meta-ecosystems. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 283:20161496.
- Hastie, T. 2018. *gam: generalized additive models*. – R package ver. 1.16.
- Hausch, S., S. M. Vamosi, and J. W. Fox. 2018. Effects of intraspecific phenotypic variation on species coexistence. *Ecology* 99:1453–1462.
- Hughes, A. R., B. D. Inouye, M. T. J. Johnson, N. Underwood, and M. Vellend. 2008. Ecological consequences of genetic diversity. *Ecology Letters* 11:609–623.
- Jacob, S., E. Bestion, D. Legrand, J. Clobert, and J. Cote. 2015. Habitat matching and spatial heterogeneity of phenotypes: implications for metapopulation and metacommunity functioning. *Evolutionary Ecology* 29:851–871.
- Jacob, S., A. S. Chaine, M. Huet, J. Clobert, and D. Legrand. 2019. Variability in dispersal syndromes is a key driver of metapopulation dynamics in experimental microcosms. *The American Naturalist* 194:613–626.

- Jacob, S., E. Laurent, B. Haegeman, R. Bertrand, J. G. Prunier, D. Legrand, J. Cote, et al. 2018. Habitat choice meets thermal specialization: Competition with specialists may drive suboptimal habitat preferences in generalists. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 115:11988–11993.
- Jacob, S., E. Laurent, T. Morel-Journel, and N. Schtickzelle. 2020. Fragmentation and the context-dependence of dispersal syndromes: matrix harshness modifies resident-disperser phenotypic differences in microcosms. *Oikos* oik.06857.
- Jacob, S., D. Legrand, A. S. Chaine, D. Bonte, N. Schtickzelle, M. Huet, and J. Clobert. 2017. Gene flow favours local adaptation under habitat choice in ciliate microcosms. *Nature Ecology & Evolution* 1:1407–1410.
- Jacob, S., P. Wehi, J. Clobert, D. Legrand, N. Schtickzelle, M. Huet, and A. Chaine. 2016. Cooperation-mediated plasticity in dispersal and colonization. *Evolution* 70:2336–2345.
- Jessup, C. M., R. Kassen, S. E. Forde, B. Kerr, A. Buckling, P. B. Rainey, and B. J. M. Bohannan. 2004. Big questions, small worlds: microbial model systems in ecology. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 19:189–197.
- Junker, A. D., S. Jacob, H. Philippe, D. Legrand, and C. G. Pearson. 2021. Plastic cell morphology changes during dispersal. *iScience* 24:102915.
- Kahm, M., G. Hasenbrink, H. Lichtenberg-Frate, J. Ludwig, and M. Kschischo. 2010. Grofit: Fitting biological growth curves. *Nature Precedings*.
- Kneitel, J. M., and J. M. Chase. 2004. Trade-offs in community ecology: linking spatial scales and species coexistence. *Ecology Letters* 7:69–80.
- Larsen, C. D., and A. L. Hargreaves. 2020. Miniaturizing landscapes to understand species distributions. *Ecography* 43:1625–1638.
- Le Galliard, J.-F., A. Rémy, R. A. Ims, and X. Lambin. 2012. Patterns and processes of dispersal behaviour in arvicoline rodents: dispersal mechanisms in microtine rodents. *Molecular Ecology* 21:505–523.
- Legrand, D., N. Larranaga, R. Bertrand, S. Ducatez, O. Calvez, V. M. Stevens, and M. Baguette. 2016. Evolution of a butterfly dispersal syndrome. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 283:20161533.
- Legrand, D., A. Trochet, S. Moulherat, O. Calvez, V. M. Stevens, S. Ducatez, J. Clobert, et al. 2015. Ranking the ecological causes of dispersal in a butterfly. *Ecography* 38:822–831.
- Liaw, A., and M. Wiener. 2002. Classification and regression by random-Forest 18–22.
- Little, C. J., E. A. Fronhofer, and F. Altermatt. 2019. Dispersal syndromes can impact ecosystem functioning in spatially structured freshwater populations. *Biology Letters* 15:20180865.
- Loreau, M. 2001. Biodiversity and Ecosystem Functioning: Current Knowledge and Future Challenges. *Science* 294:804–808.
- Loreau, M., N. Mouquet, and A. Gonzalez. 2003a. Biodiversity as spatial insurance in heterogeneous landscapes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 100:12765–12770.
- Loreau, M., N. Mouquet, and R. D. Holt. 2003b. Meta-ecosystems: a theoretical framework for a spatial ecosystem ecology. *Ecology Letters* 6:673–679.
- MacLean, S. A., and S. R. Beissinger. 2017. Species' traits as predictors of range shifts under contemporary climate change: A review and meta-analysis. *Global Change Biology* 23:4094–4105.
- Magurran, A. E. 2004. *Measuring biological diversity*. Blackwell Science Ltd, Oxford, U.K.
- Massol, F., F. Altermatt, I. Gounand, D. Gravel, M. A. Leibold, and N. Mouquet. 2017. How life-history traits affect ecosystem properties: effects of dispersal in meta-ecosystems. *Oikos* 126:532–546.

- Massol, F., D. Gravel, N. Mouquet, M. W. Cadotte, T. Fukami, and M. A. Leibold. 2011. Linking community and ecosystem dynamics through spatial ecology: An integrative approach to spatial food webs. *Ecology Letters* 14:313–323.
- Messager, M. L., and J. D. Olden. 2019. Phenotypic variability of rusty crayfish (*Faxonius rusticus*) at the leading edge of its riverine invasion. *Freshwater Biology* 64:1196–1209.
- Mille-Lindblom, C., H. Fischer, and L. J. Tranvik. 2006. Antagonism between bacteria and fungi: substrate competition and a possible tradeoff between fungal growth and tolerance towards bacteria. *Oikos* 113:233–242.
- Mitri, S., and K. R. Foster. 2013. The genotypic view of social interactions in microbial communities. *Annual Review of Genetics* 47:247–273.
- Morris, E. K., T. Caruso, F. Buscot, M. Fischer, C. Hancock, T. S. Maier, T. Meiners, et al. 2014. Choosing and using diversity indices: insights for ecological applications from the German Biodiversity Exploratories. *Ecology and Evolution* 4:3514–3524.
- Mouquet, N., and M. Loreau. 2003. Community patterns in source-sink metacommunities. *The American Naturalist* 162:544–557.
- Nelsen, E. M., and L. E. Debault. 1978. Transformation in *Tetrahymena pyriformis*: description of an inducible phenotype. *The Journal of Protozoology* 25:113–119.
- Oksanen, J., R. Kindt, P. Legendre, and R. B. O’Hara. 2005. vegan: community ecology package. Version 1.7–81.
- Pennekamp, F., J. Clobert, and N. Schtickzelle. 2019. The interplay between movement, morphology and dispersal in *Tetrahymena* ciliates. *PeerJ* 7:e8197.
- Pennekamp, F., K. A. Mitchell, A. Chaine, and N. Schtickzelle. 2014. Dispersal propensity in *Tetrahymena thermophila* ciliates - a reaction norm perspective. *Evolution* 68:2319–2330.
- Pennekamp, F., and N. Schtickzelle. 2013. Implementing image analysis in laboratory-based experimental systems for ecology and evolution: a hands-on guide. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* 4:483–492.
- Phillips, B. L., G. P. Brown, and R. Shine. 2010. Life-history evolution in range-shifting populations. *Ecology* 91:1617–1627.
- R Core Team. 2013. R: a language and environment for statistical computing. Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing.
- Raffard, A., E. Bestion, J. Cote, B. Haegeman, N. Schtickzelle, and S. Jacob. 2022. Dispersal syndromes can link intraspecific trait variability and meta-ecosystem functioning. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* S0169534721003347.
- Raffard, A., F. Santoul, J. Cucherousset, and S. Blanchet. 2019. The community and ecosystem consequences of intraspecific diversity: a meta-analysis. *Biological Reviews* 94:648–661.
- Revelle, W. 2011. An overview of the psych package.
- Ripley, B., B. Venables, D. Bates, K. Hornik, A. Gebhardt, D. Firth, and M. B. Ripley. 2013. Package “mass”.
- Ronce, O. 2007. How does it feel to be like a rolling stone? Ten questions about dispersal evolution. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics* 38:231–253.
- Saastamoinen, M., G. Bocedi, J. Cote, D. Legrand, F. Guillaume, C. W. Wheat, E. A. Fronhofer, et al. 2018. Genetics of dispersal: Genetic of dispersal. *Biological Reviews* 93:574–599.
- Schtickzelle, N., E. J. Fjerdingstad, A. Chaine, and J. Clobert. 2009. Cooperative social clusters are not destroyed by dispersal in a ciliate. *BMC Evolutionary Biology* 9:251.
- Shine, R., G. P. Brown, and B. L. Phillips. 2011. An evolutionary process that assembles phenotypes through space rather than through time. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 108:5708–5711.

- Stevens, V. M., S. Whitmee, J.-F. Le Galliard, J. Clobert, K. Böhning-Gaese, D. Bonte, M. Brändle, et al. 2014. A comparative analysis of dispersal syndromes in terrestrial and semi-terrestrial animals. *Ecology Letters* 17:1039–1052.
- Tabi, A., F. Pennekamp, F. Altermatt, R. Alther, E. A. Fronhofer, K. Horgan, E. Mächler, et al. 2020. Species multidimensional effects explain idiosyncratic responses of communities to environmental change. *Nature Ecology & Evolution* 4:1036–1043.
- Thompson, P. L., and A. Gonzalez. 2017. Dispersal governs the reorganization of ecological networks under environmental change. *Nature Ecology & Evolution* 1:0162.
- Thompson, P. L., L. M. Guzman, L. De Meester, Z. Horváth, R. Ptacnik, B. Vanschoenwinkel, D. S. Viana, et al. 2020. A process-based metacommunity framework linking local and regional scale community ecology. *Ecology Letters* 23:1314–1329.
- Turcotte, M. M., and J. M. Levine. 2016. Phenotypic plasticity and species coexistence. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 31:803–813.
- Verdonck, R., D. Legrand, S. Jacob, and H. Philippe. 2022. Phenotypic plasticity through disposable genetic adaptation in ciliates. *Trends in Microbiology* 30:120–130.
- Winandy, L., J. Cote, L. Di Gesu, F. Pellerin, A. Trochet, and D. Legrand. 2019. Local predation risk and matrix permeability interact to shape movement strategy. *Oikos* 128:1402–1412.
- Wolf, M., and F. J. Weissing. 2012. Animal personalities: consequences for ecology and evolution. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 27:452–461.
- Yi, X., and A. M. Dean. 2013. Bounded population sizes, fluctuating selection and the tempo and mode of coexistence. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 110:16945–16950.
- Zera, A. J., and J. A. Brisson. 2012. Quantitative, physiological, and molecular genetics of dispersal/migration. Pages 63–82 *in* Dispersal: causes and consequences. Oxford Univ. Press, UK.

Table 1. Effect of dispersal status (resident vs. disperser) and *T. thermophila* genotype identity on the position in a varimax-rotated PCA space defining a demographic axis and a morphological axis.

Significant variables at the 0.05 level are in bold.

	Sum sq	df	F	<i>p</i> -value	R ²
Demographic axis					0.90
Dispersal status	0.4	1, 160	3.6	0.061	0.00
Genotype	175.4	19, 160	82.2	<0.001	0.88
Dispersal status × Genotype	5.2	19, 160	2.4	0.001	0.03
Morphological axis					0.93
Dispersal status	1.7	1, 160	23.1	<0.001	0.01
Genotype	177.2	19, 160	122.03	<0.001	0.89
Dispersal status × Genotype	7.8	19, 160	5.3	<0.001	0.04

Table 2. Effect of intraspecific variability and resident-disperser differences on maximal community biomass, biomass production, Shannon diversity, community evenness and species richness.

Note that ordered logistic regression were ran on species richness and that McFadden pseudo- R^2 are reported. Significant variables at the 0.05 level are in bold.

	Sum sq	df	F	<i>p</i> -value	R^2
Maximal biomass					0.69
Dispersal status	0.024	1, 160	140.8	< 0.001	0.26
Genotype	0.037	19, 160	11.6	< 0.001	0.41
Dispersal status × Genotype	0.002	19, 160	0.615	0.891	0.02
Biomass production					0.60
Dispersal status	4.2x10⁻⁶	1, 160	88.8	< 0.001	0.21
Genotype	6.2x10⁻⁶	19, 160	6.8	< 0.001	0.31
Dispersal status × Genotype	1.4x10 ⁻⁶	19, 160	1.6	0.063	0.07
Shannon diversity					0.54
Dispersal status	0.019	1, 144	1.1	0.308	< 0.01
Genotype	2.916	19, 144	8.4	< 0.001	0.50
Dispersal status × Genotype	0.171	19, 144	0.5	0.963	0.03
Evenness					0.45
Dispersal status	0.050	1, 144	4.7	0.031	0.02
Genotype	1.051	19, 144	5.2	< 0.001	0.38
Dispersal status × Genotype	0.145	19, 144	0.7	0.797	0.05
Species richness					0.26
Dispersal status	-	1	$\chi^2 = 4.77$	0.028	0.02
Genotype	-	19	$\chi^2 = 39.96$	0.003	0.15
Dispersal status × Genotype	-	19	$\chi^2 = 22.44$	0.262	0.09

Table 3. Effect of morphological and demographic traits (PCA axes) characterizing resident-disperser differences and intraspecific variability on maximal community biomass, biomass production, Shannon diversity, community evenness and species richness.

Ordered logistic regression were ran on species richness and McFadden pseudo-R² are reported. Significant variables at the 0.05 level are in bold.

	Estimate (\pm SE)	Sum sq	df	F	p-value	R ²
Maximal biomass						0.15
Demographic axis	-0.008 (\pm0.001)	0.012	1, 197	32.93	< 0.001	0.14
Morphological axis	0.001 (\pm 0.001)	< 0.001	1, 197	0.52	0.469	< 0.01
Biomass production						0.07
Demographic axis	-5.3x10⁻⁵ (\pm2.1 x10⁻⁵)	6x10⁻⁷	1, 197	6.06	0.014	0.03
Morphological axis	-6.4x10⁻⁵ (\pm2.1 x10⁻⁵)	8x10⁻⁷	1, 197	9.11	0.002	0.04
Shannon diversity						0.22
Demographic axis	0.082 (\pm0.011)	1.265	1, 181	51.06	< 0.001	0.22
Morphological axis	-0.007 (\pm 0.012)	0.010	1, 181	0.38	0.534	< 0.01
Evenness						0.17
Demographic axis	0.048 (\pm0.008)	0.437	1, 181	34.38	< 0.001	0.15
Morphological axis	-0.017 (\pm0.008)	0.053	1, 181	4.21	0.041	0.02
Species richness						0.04
Demographic axis	0.321 (\pm 0.177)	-	1	$\chi^2 = 3.329$	0.068	0.01
Morphological axis	0.431 (\pm 0.180)	-	1	$\chi^2 = 5.815$	0.016	0.02

Figure captions

Figure 1. Variability of phenotypic traits among the twenty genotypes of *Tetrahymena thermophila* plotted on the first two axes of a varimax-rotated PCA, expressing demography (population growth rate and maximal density; loadings: 0.98 and 0.97, respectively) and morphology (cell size and elongation; loadings: 0.84 and -0.81, respectively). % are proportions of explained variance by each axis. Mean values (\pm SE among 5 replicates) for residents and dispersers for each genotype are displayed.

Figure 2. Impact of dispersers and residents on community biomass: effects of introducing *T. thermophila* residents (grey) or dispersers (black) of each genotype in a ciliate community on its maximal biomass (*i.e.*, maximal density reached by the community; **a & b**) and biomass production (*i.e.*, maximal rate of biomass production; **c & d**). Left panels (**a & c**) are averaged effects overall 20 genotypes, whose individual results are presented on right panels (**b & d**).

Figure 3. Impact of dispersers and residents on community composition: effects of introducing *T. thermophila* residents (grey) or dispersers (black) of each genotype in a ciliate community on Shannon diversity (**a & b**), evenness (**c & d**), and species richness. Left panels (**a, c & e**) are averaged effects overall 20 genotypes, whose individual results are presented on right panels (**b, d & f**). Since species richness (**e & f**) only presents three modalities, the position of points was slightly shifted to allow their distinction.

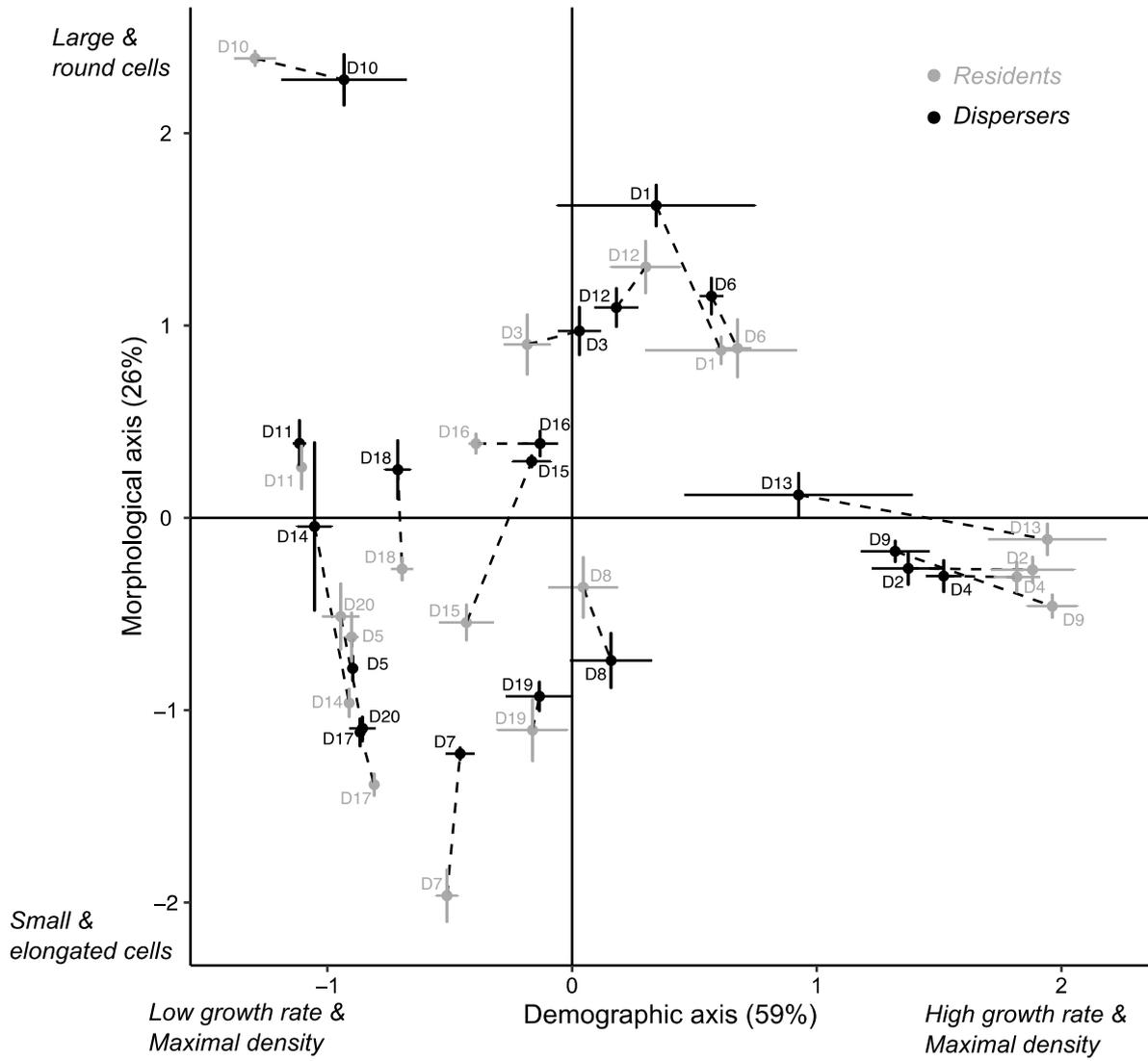


Figure 1

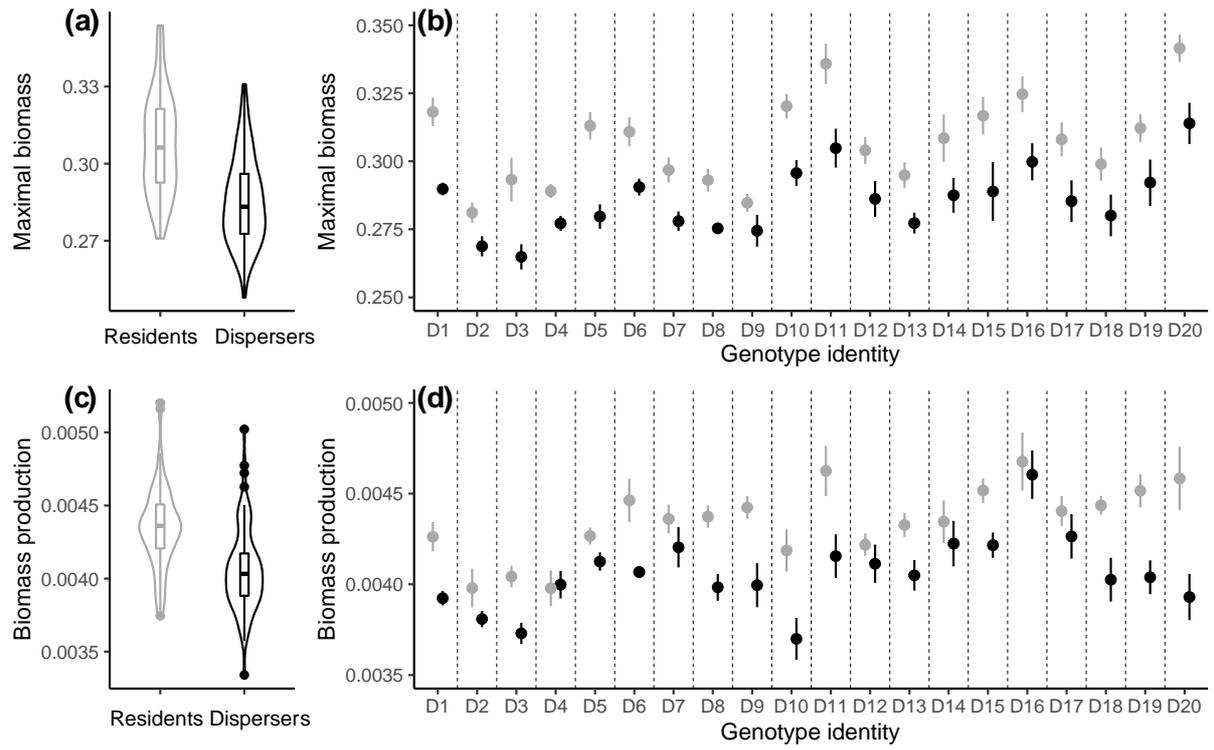


Figure 2

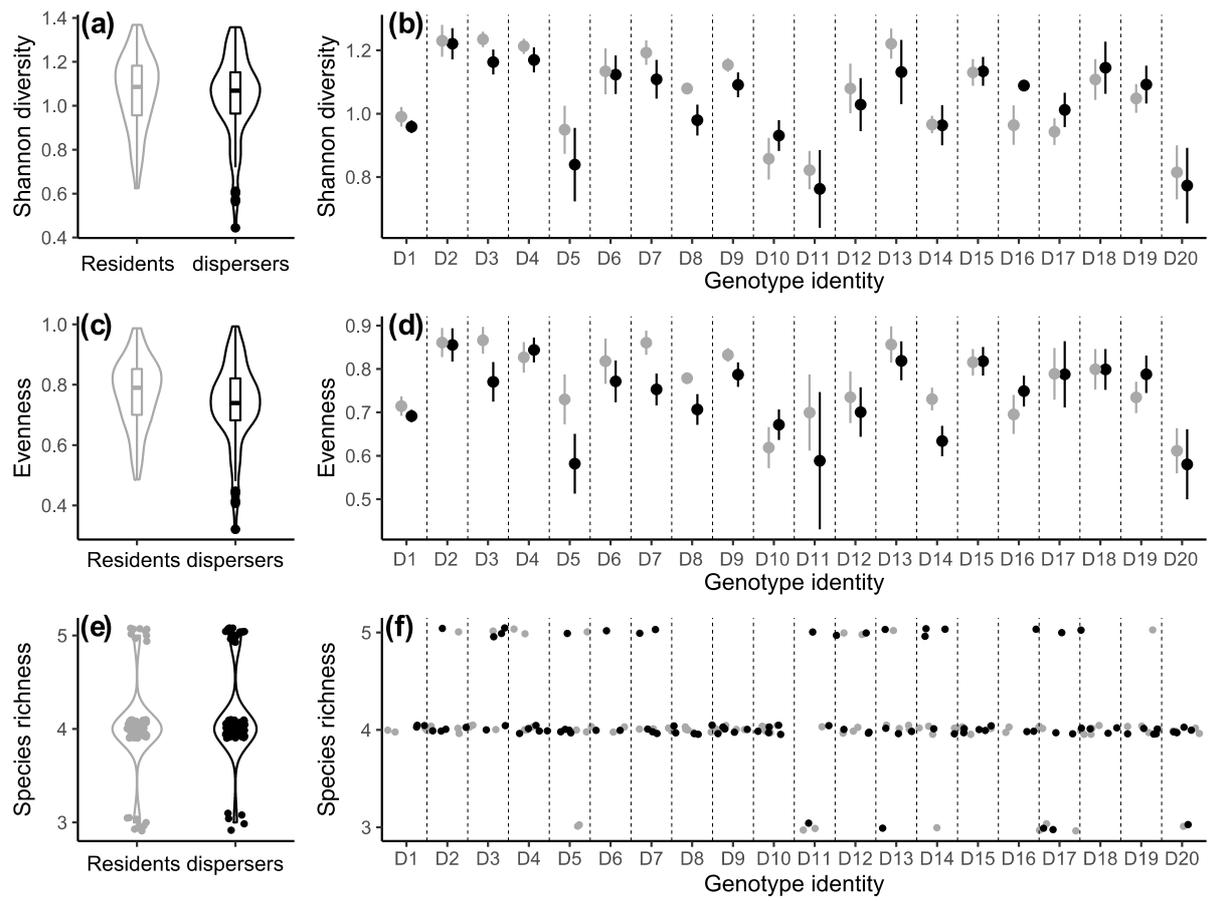


Figure 3

Supplementary information

Resident-disperser differences and genetic variability affect communities in microcosms

Allan Raffard¹, Julie L. M. Campana², Delphine Legrand², Nicolas Schtickzelle¹ & Staffan Jacob².

¹ *Université catholique de Louvain, Earth and Life Institute, Biodiversity Research Centre, Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgium*

² *CNRS, Station d'Écologie Théorique et Expérimentale du CNRS à Moulis, UPR-2029, F-09200 Moulis, France.*

Author for correspondence: Allan Raffard
E-mail: allan.raffard@inrae.fr

The American Naturalist

Table S1. Codes and Tetrahymena Stock Center (<https://tetrahymena.vet.cornell.edu>) identity (TSC ID) of the 20 genotypes of *Tetrahymena thermophila*, and the single genotype of the 4 competing *Tetrahymena* species used in the experiment.

Species	Code	TSC ID
<i>T. thermophila</i>	D1	SD01546
	D2	SD01547
	D3	SD01548
	D4	SD01549
	D5	SD01550
	D6	SD01551
	D7	AK III
	D8	SD01553
	D9	SD01552
	D10	SD01557
	D11	SD01558
	D12	SD01556
	D13	SD01555
	D14	SD01554
	D15	SD01560
	D16	SD01559
	D17	SD01561
	D18	SD01562
	D19	SD01564
	D20	SD01563
<i>T. americanis</i>	A5	SD03182
<i>T. borealis</i>	B8	SD03155
<i>T. pyriformis</i>	P4	SD01671
<i>T. ellioti</i>	E5	SD01674

Table S2. Loading of each trait after applying a varimax rotation on the first two axes of a PCA analysis performed on four traits measured on the 20 genotypes of *T. thermophila*.

	Axis 1	Axis 2
Maximal density	0.97	0.19
Growth rate	0.98	0.13
Cell size	0.13	0.84
Cell shape	-0.19	-0.81

Table S3. Effect of intraspecific variability and resident-disperser differences on maximal Shannon diversity, community evenness and species richness excluding *T. thermophila*. Note that ordered logistic regression were ran on species richness and that McFadden pseudo-R² are reported. Significant variables at the 0.05 level are in bold.

	Sum sq	df	F	<i>p</i> -value	R ²
Shannon diversity					
Dispersal status	0.046	1, 144	2.0	0.157	0.01
Genotype	1.310	19, 144	3.0	< 0.001	0.26
Dispersal status × Genotype	0.243	19, 144	0.6	0.927	0.05
Evenness					
Dispersal status	0.104	1, 144	5.7	0.018	0.03
Genotype	0.719	19, 144	2.1	0.007	0.19
Dispersal status × Genotype	0.212	19, 144	0.6	0.889	0.06
Species richness					
Dispersal status	-	1	$\chi^2 = 1.10$	0.294	0.02
Genotype	-	19	$\chi^2 = 25.15$	0.155	0.15
Dispersal status × Genotype	-	19	$\chi^2 = 19.02$	0.455	0.10

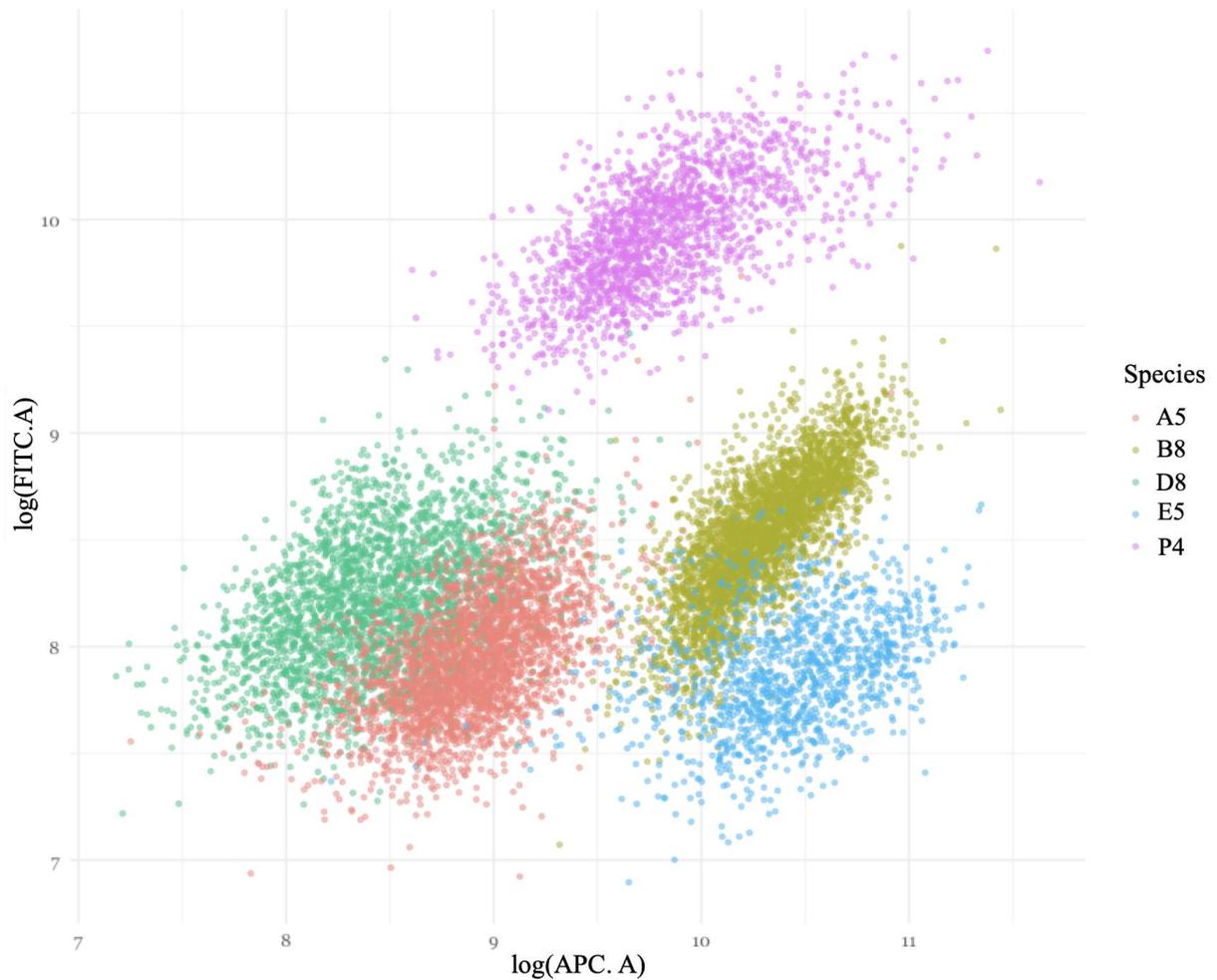


Figure S1. Distribution of the five *Tetrahymena* species along two traits quantified through flow cytometry: FITC. A and APC.A, respectively green and red autofluorescence, which are the two more discriminant traits. Data shows cells grown in monocultures. Overall traits used in the Random Forest analysis, species were discriminated with low error rate (\pm SE): *T. thermophila*: 0.095 (\pm 0.030); *T. pyriformis* = 0.001 (\pm 0.000); *T. americanis* = 0.036 (\pm 0.006); *T. borealis* = 0.011 (\pm 0.001); *T. elliotti* = 0.018 (\pm 0.001).

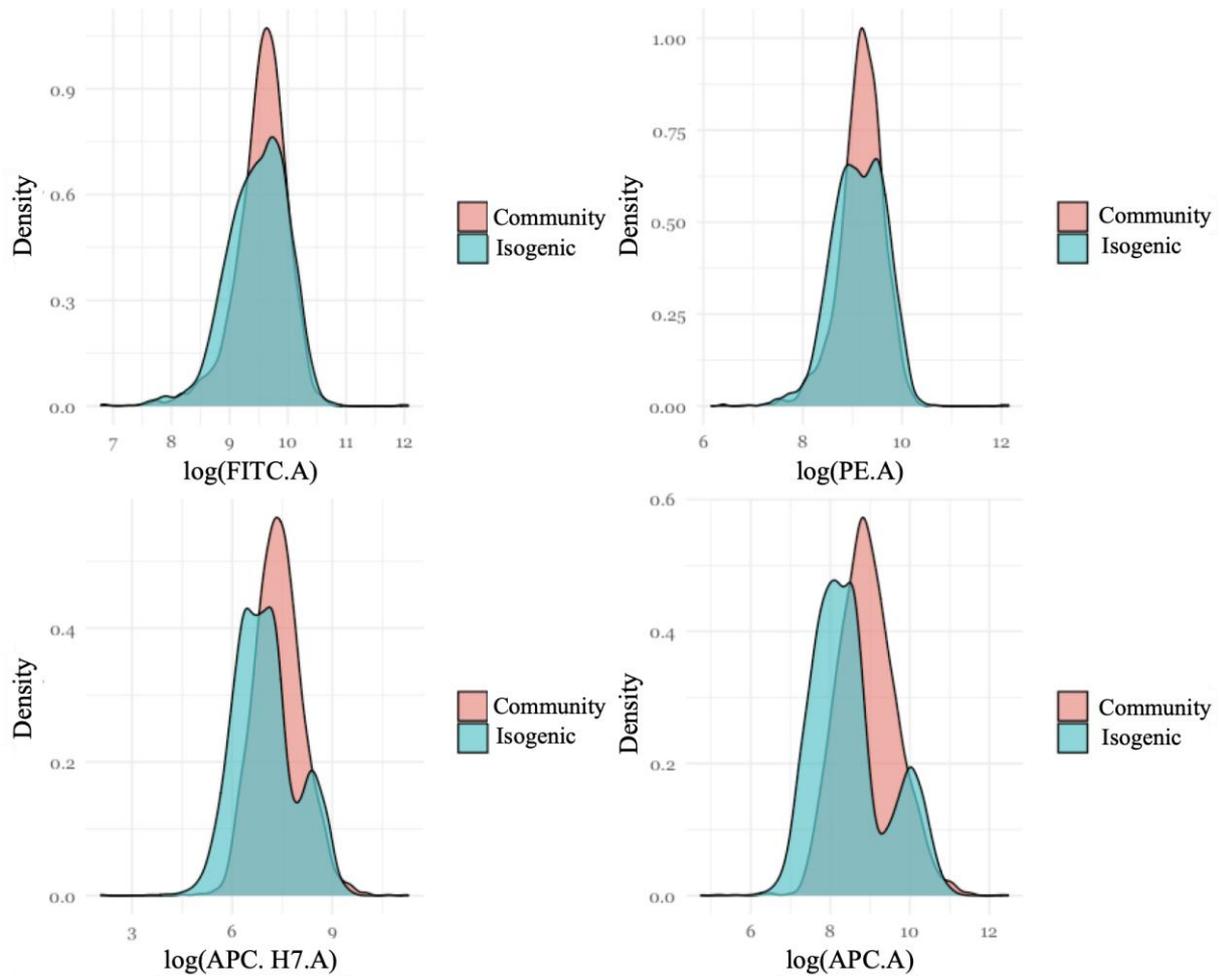


Figure S2. Distribution of traits obtained from flow cytometry for *Tetrahymena* cells grown in communities compared to isogenic monocultures (summed for all five species). For each parameter, the distribution of traits in community samples is always comprised within the distribution expected given the distribution of species traits under isogenic conditions, with a lower variance of traits in communities, as expected if all species did not always survive in the communities.

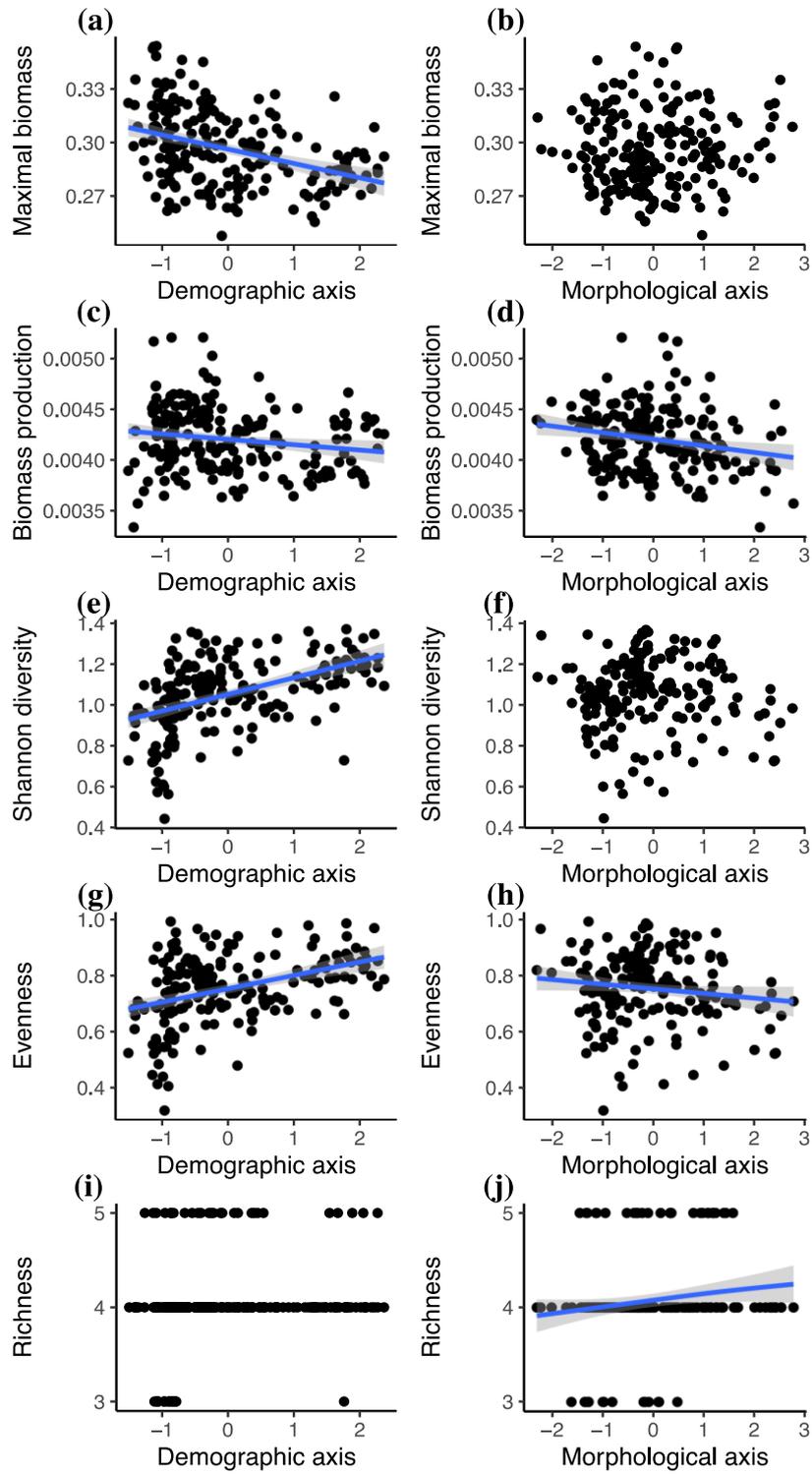


Figure S3. Relationships between demographic and morphological axes (PCA axes) with maximal biomass, biomass production, Shannon diversity, evenness, and species richness. Lines are displayed for significant relationships (see Table 3 in the main text) and grey shadows represent 95% confidence intervals.