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1 **Bacterial competition and quorum-sensing signalling shapes**  
2 **the eco-evolutionary outcomes of model *in vitro* phage therapy**

3

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16 **Running head:** Phage therapy in polymicrobial communities

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24 **ABSTRACT**

25 The rapid rise of antibiotic resistance has renewed interest in phage therapy – the use of bacteria-  
26 specific viruses (phages) to treat bacterial infections. Even though phages are often pathogen-  
27 specific, little is known about the efficiency and eco-evolutionary outcomes of phage therapy in  
28 polymicrobial infections. We studied this experimentally by exposing both quorum sensing (QS)  
29 signalling PAO1 and QS-deficient *lasR* *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* genotypes (differing in their  
30 ability to signal intra-specifically) to lytic PT7 phage in the presence and absence of two bacterial  
31 competitors: *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* – two bacteria commonly  
32 associated with *P. aeruginosa* in polymicrobial cystic fibrosis lung infections. Both the *P.*  
33 *aeruginosa* genotype and the presence of competitors had profound effects on bacteria and phage  
34 densities and bacterial resistance evolution. In general, competition reduced the *P. aeruginosa*  
35 frequencies leading to a lower rate of resistance evolution. This effect was clearer with QS-  
36 signalling PAO1 strain due to lower bacteria and phage densities and relatively larger pleiotropic  
37 growth cost imposed by both phage and competitors. Unexpectedly, phage selection decreased the  
38 total bacterial densities in the QS-deficient *lasR* pathogen communities, while an increase was  
39 observed in the QS-signalling PAO1 pathogen communities. Together these results suggest that  
40 bacterial competition can shape the eco-evolutionary outcomes of phage therapy.

41

42 **Keywords:** Competition, coevolution, cost of resistance, host-parasite interactions, phage therapy,  
43 polymicrobial infections, quorum sensing signalling, resistance

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48 **1. INTRODUCTION**

49 Growing concern for the evolution of antibiotic resistant bacteria and in particular for multi-  
50 resistant gram-negative bacteria (Levy and Marshall 2004), has led to renewed interest in alternative  
51 treatments including phage therapy (Rossolini et al. 2014). Phage therapy - the use of pathogen-  
52 specific parasitic viruses (bacteriophages) as a treatment for bacterial infections - is almost hundred  
53 years old and has been used for decades to treat bacterial infections in Eastern European countries  
54 such as Georgia and Poland (Alisky et al. 1998; Housby and Mann 2009; Abedon et al. 2011).  
55 While many studies have demonstrated the safety and benefits of phage therapy (Merabishvili et al.  
56 2009; Abedon et al. 2011; Rose et al. 2014) phages have not yet been incorporated into western  
57 medicine partly due to lack of proper clinical trials and historically inconsistent treatment results  
58 (Kutateladze and Adamia 2008). While large-scale clinical trials are currently under way (e.g.  
59 Phagoburn; (Expert round table on and re-implementation of bacteriophage 2016)), the evolutionary  
60 outcomes of phage therapy are relatively unknown. Recent studies have shown that bacteria and  
61 phages can rapidly coevolve during model phage-therapy treatments (Betts et al. 2013; Friman et al.  
62 2016) and that the diversity of phage communities can affect the bacterial resistance evolution (Hall  
63 et al. 2012; Betts et al. 2016). Besides rapid coevolution, further complications could arise from  
64 interspecific bacterial competition due to polymicrobial nature of bacterial infections: many human  
65 infections contain multiple different pathogenic bacterial and other microbial species (Peters et al.  
66 2012). Considerable genotypic variation also exists between different strains of a pathogen and this  
67 variation is known to differ between different patients and to affect the pathogen susceptibility to  
68 phages (Debarbieux et al. 2010; Essoh et al. 2013; Friman et al. 2013). Understanding the relative  
69 importance and interactive effects of these potentially complicating factors is thus crucial for  
70 developing reliable and consistent phage therapy treatments. Here we focused explicitly on the  
71 ecological and evolutionary outcomes of phage therapy in polymicrobial communities and asked  
72 how focal bacterial genotype and the competition with other bacterial pathogens affect the total  
73 bacterial loads and focal pathogen resistance evolution during *in vitro* model phage therapy.

74 The bacterium *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is an opportunistic pathogen that commonly infects many  
75 immunocompromised patients including cystic fibrosis (CF) and burn victim patients (Harrison  
76 2007; Turner et al. 2014). *P. aeruginosa* is often characterised by multi-drug resistance to  
77 conventional antibiotics (Strateva and Yordanov 2009), and hence, the development of novel phage  
78 therapy treatments could potentially help a large number of patients (Harper and Enright 2011).  
79 While *P. aeruginosa* can rapidly evolve resistance to various bacteriophages, which could decrease  
80 the feasibility and long-term benefits of phage therapy (Hall et al. 2012; Betts et al. 2013; Friman et  
81 al. 2013), it has also been shown that phages can counteract resistance evolution by coevolving to  
82 be more infective (Betts et al. 2016; Friman et al. 2016). However, it is less clear how important  
83 these coevolutionary dynamics are in more complex microbial communities. For example, lung and  
84 wound infections are often very diverse and consist of multiple different non-pathogenic and  
85 pathogenic bacterial species (Harrison 2007; Folkesson et al. 2012; Korgaonkar et al. 2013) that  
86 could modify phage effects indirectly via competition.

87 Competition could affect the evolution of phage resistance via demographic and genetic  
88 effects. Firstly, competition is likely to reduce focal pathogen population densities which could  
89 weaken the selection for resistance due to less frequent phage-bacteria encounter rates and lowered  
90 supply of resistance mutations (Levin and Bull 2004; Lopez-Pascua and Buckling 2008). These  
91 demographic effects could be occurring indirectly via competition for shared resources in the site of  
92 infection or directly via interference competition via bacteria-specific toxins such as bacteriocins  
93 (Inglis et al. 2009; Ghoul et al. 2015). Furthermore, *P. aeruginosa* has been shown to display greater  
94 virulence, antibiotic tolerance and growth when co-cultured with gram-positive *S. aureus* bacterium  
95 (Korgaonkar et al. 2013; Michelsen et al. 2014), which suggests that the presence of other bacterial  
96 species could also facilitate target pathogen coexistence in polymicrobial infections. Secondly, there  
97 might be trade-offs between evolving phage resistance and retaining competitive ability or virulence  
98 due to conflicting selection pressures (Friman and Buckling 2014). Such trade-offs are often  
99 manifested as antagonistic pleiotropy where a mutation in the gene that confers benefit in the

100 presence of phage has a negative effect on some other function such as uptake of nutrients (Lenski  
101 and Levin 1985). The magnitude of such trade-offs is often dependent on environmental conditions,  
102 being larger in nutrient-poor environments (Yoshida, Hairston, and Ellner 2004) or in the presence  
103 of competitors (Kassen 2002). Lastly, it has been shown that the presence of a phage can change the  
104 competitive interactions between different bacterial species and that this effect depends on which  
105 competing bacterial species is affected by the phage (Harcombe and Bull 2005).

106 The effect of competitors on focal pathogen fitness, and pathogen potential to evolve  
107 resistance to phages, could further depend on the focal pathogen genotype. For example, *P.*  
108 *aeruginosa* CF lung infections are genetically diverse and this heterogeneity is driven by both  
109 temporal (Marvig et al. 2014) and spatial variation (Jorth et al. 2015). It has been recently shown  
110 that phages can have a different effect on *P. aeruginosa* density and resistance evolution depending  
111 on the strain and the genotype; specifically, the time bacteria spent adapting to the lung environment  
112 seem to make bacteria more susceptible to phages (Friman et al. 2013; Friman et al. 2016). One  
113 notable adaptation to the CF lung environment is the loss of quorum sensing related traits (Marvig  
114 et al. 2014; Michelsen et al. 2014; Andersen et al. 2015). Quorum sensing (QS) is a means by which  
115 bacteria communicate through the release of signalling molecules allowing cells to carry out  
116 density-dependent gene expression (Miller and Bassler 2001). In *P. aeruginosa*, the ability to  
117 quorum sense is critical for controlling behaviours such as the production of virulence factors  
118 (Folkesson et al. 2012) and it is known that strains from acute infections (early colonisations) are  
119 more virulent compared to strains from chronic infections (long-term colonisations) (Smith et al.  
120 2006; Marvig et al. 2014). Interestingly, recent evidence suggests that QS-regulated genes can also  
121 affect bacterial resistance to phages. For example, with *E. coli*, QS genes regulate resistance to  
122 phage plastically via reduction of cell surface receptors (Hoyland-Kroghsbo, Maerkedahl, and  
123 Svenningsen 2013; Taj et al. 2014). Similarly, QS has been shown to be an important 'switch' for  
124 choosing between different anti-phage defence strategies in the bacterium *Vibrio anguillarum* (Tan,

125 Svennngsen, and Middelboe 2015). As a result, the decrease of phage resistance in *P. aeruginosa*  
126 QS-mutants could be due to the loss of functional QS-genes.

127 Here we used *in vitro* experimental evolution approach to study the eco-evolutionary  
128 outcomes of phage therapy with *P. aeruginosa* focal pathogen, that frequently co-infects the lungs  
129 of CF patients (Harrison 2007). We manipulated both the presence of *Staphylococcus aureus* and  
130 *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* competitors (one or two competitors present - our definition of a  
131 polymicrobial community from here on) and the PT7 phage, and used two *P. aeruginosa* pathogen  
132 genotypes: QS-signalling PAO1 strain and QS-deficient *lasR* mutant strain, which does not produce  
133 or respond to QS-signals (Diggle et al. 2007). These bacterial species were chosen because they  
134 commonly coexist and infect humans patients suffering from burn wounds or cystic fibrosis (CF)  
135 lung infections (Harrison 2007). We used fully factorial design where both *P. aeruginosa* genotypes  
136 were evolved in all possible combinations and measured bacterial and phage densities and  
137 coevolutionary changes between *P. aeruginosa* and PT7 phage at the end of the selection  
138 experiment. We hypothesised that the rate of phage resistance evolution could be negatively  
139 affected by competition via negative effects on population densities (lowered mutation supply rate  
140 and phage-bacteria encounter rates) and that the effect of competition could further depend on the  
141 focal pathogen genotype, the composition of competitor community, and the pleiotropic costs of  
142 adaptation.

143

## 144 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 145 ***Bacterial and phage strains***

146 In addition to *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (Diggle et al. 2007), we used *Staphylococcus aureus* subsp.  
147 *aureus* (DSM-20231) and *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* (DSM-50170) bacteria in our  
148 experiments. We chose *P. aeruginosa* as our focal species as it is one of the most common causes of  
149 morbidity for CF patients, while *S. aureus* and *S. maltophilia* often coexist with *P. aeruginosa*  
150 among *Haemophilus influenza*, *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, *Burkholderia cenocepacia*, *Ralstonia*

151 and *Achromobacter* (Jelsbak et al. 2007; Folkesson et al. 2012). To compare the effect of pathogen  
152 genotype, two strains of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* were used: QS-signalling PAO1 and QS-  
153 deficient PAO1 *lasR* mutant strains (Diggle et al. 2007). Apart from the mutation in QS-signalling  
154 pathway, the two isolates were otherwise isogenic (Fletcher et al. 2007). The *lasR* mutation is often  
155 associated with isolates from the later stages of long-term infections in CF patients (Marvig et al.  
156 2014; Andersen et al. 2015) and its weakened virulence is due to inability to detect and produce  
157 quorum sensing signalling molecules that activate the expression of *P. aeruginosa* virulence factors  
158 (Smith et al. 2006). A lytic bacteriophage, PT7, which obligately kills *P. aeruginosa*, was used as a  
159 phage (Friman et al. 2016). Relatively little is known about PT7 phage. Even though its genome has  
160 not been sequenced, previous studies suggest that it is not closely related to PB1-like or phiKMV-  
161 like phages (Merabishvili et al. 2007). Similarly, it is unclear which receptors it uses to infect *P.*  
162 *aruginosa*. Prior the experiment, we confirmed that phage PT7 was not able to infect *S. aureus* or *S.*  
163 *malophilia* (tested with streak assays), and that the presence of *S. aureus* or *S. malophilia* had no  
164 effect on phage densities during short-term co-cultivation (24h). Moreover, both the PAO1 and *lasR*  
165 strains were susceptible to phage PT7 in the beginning of the experiment (streak assays) yielding  
166 similar phage population densities (phage efficiency of plating with plaque essay:  $\sim 10^8$  phage  
167 particles mL<sup>-1</sup> from the same ancestral phage stock).

168

169 ***Experimental design, growth conditions and selection experiment***

170 We used a factorial design to independently manipulate bacterial community composition, the  
171 presence of phage and *P. aeruginosa* genotype. To this end, *P. aeruginosa* focal pathogen strains,  
172 PAO1 and *lasR*, were evolved in both the absence and presence of phage under four different  
173 competition treatments: alone, with *S. aureus*, with *S. malophilia* and with both *S. aureus* and *S.*  
174 *malophilia*. Each treatment (16 in total) was replicated five times.

175 The communities were grown in 1.5 mL of 10% nutrient broth (NB) media (containing 0.5g  
176 peptone and 0.3g beef extract per litre distilled water) in deep 96-well plates (Starlab; 2.2 mL of

177 total volume). All treatments were inoculated with approximately  $3.8 \times 10^5$  bacterial cells per mL,  
178 where two-competitor treatments were inoculated with 1:1 ratio of both bacteria and three-  
179 competitor treatments with 1:1:1 ratio of every bacteria. Approximately  $1.5 \times 10^8$  phage particles  
180 were added to all phage treatments. All populations were incubated as static cultures at 37°C to  
181 reflect human body temperature. The selection experiment was run for 16 days with transfers  
182 carried out every fourth day. At each transfer, the cultures were first mixed and homogenised using  
183 a pipette before an inoculum of 250  $\mu$ L was transferred to new deep-well plates containing 1.5 mL  
184 fresh media in each well, after 500  $\mu$ L of each microbial community was cryopreserved in 20% of  
185 glycerol at -80°C. Given nutrient broth concentration was chosen to allow prolonged growth during  
186 4-day transfer intervals and to reduce the *P. aeruginosa* biofilm and exopolymer production.

187

#### 188 ***Bacterial and phage density measurements***

189 Bacterial densities were measured only at the end of the experiment by serially diluting the samples  
190 isolated from the last time point and plating out 10 $\mu$ l of each dilution onto NB agar plates (100%  
191 NB media supplemented with 12g agar per litre). To determine *P. aeruginosa* densities in multi-  
192 species communities, community treatment samples were also plated on *Pseudomonas* selective  
193 agar plates (16g Peptic digest of animal tissue, 10g Casein enzymic hydrolysate, 10g K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 1.4g  
194 MgCl<sub>2</sub> • 6H<sub>2</sub>O, 10ml glycerol and 11g Agar per litre with 200mg C-N selective supplement  
195 dissolved in 4ml 1:1 ethanol:distilled water). Bacteria were incubated at 37°C for 48 hours before  
196 counting the colonies and calculating the number of colony forming units (CFU) per ml. At every  
197 transfer, phages were extracted by mixing with 10% chloroform to kill the bacteria. After vortexing  
198 and centrifugation, chloroform-free phage supernatants were stored at 4°C. Phage densities were  
199 estimated at every transfer with plaque assays where phage densities are defined as growth on a  
200 lawn of ancestral PAO1 bacterial strain. PAO1 ancestral strain was grown at 37°C for 24 hours and  
201 200 $\mu$ l of this culture was then mixed with 20ml of 50°C soft agar and poured in an even overlay  
202 over square NB agar plates. A 10 $\mu$ l of phage serial dilutions ( $10^{-4}$  –  $10^{-7}$ ) was then pipetted onto the

203 surface of the pseudomonas-agar overlay, plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 hours, and the  
204 number of phage plaques, i.e. phage particles, counted.

205

206 ***Phage resistance assays***

207 A streak assay methodology was used to estimate the evolution of bacterial resistance and phage  
208 infectivity (Buckling and Rainey 2002). 12 randomly chosen colonies per each *P. aeruginosa*  
209 population were isolated at the end of the experiment and grown in 96-well microplates at 37°C in  
210 150µl of NB media. After 24-hour growth, colonies were cryopreserved at -80°C as above for  
211 evolutionary analyses. Phage resistance was measured by pipetting 25µl of phage in a line across  
212 square NB plates. A sterilised 12-pin replicator (V&P Scientific) was then used to streak 12  
213 bacterial colonies across the dried line of phage. Plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 hours (or  
214 until the bacterial streak became visible). Colonies with a clear reduction in growth over the phage  
215 line were scored as susceptible (0) and with normal growth over the phage as resistant (1). Phage  
216 resistance was determined at the population level in terms of a proportion of resistant colonies per  
217 population. All *P. aeruginosa* colonies were tested against the ancestral PT7 phage and evolved PT7  
218 phages isolated from their own population (coevolved phage population isolated by the way of  
219 chloroforming as described above).

220

221 ***Measuring the pleiotropic cost of adaptation***

222 The pleiotropic cost of adaptation was measured as the final bacterial density at 48h by using the  
223 same colonies that were used in the phage resistance assays. Colonies were inoculated in 96-well  
224 microplates containing 200µl NB media per well by using a sterilised 96-pin replicator (Boenik).  
225 The plates were then grown at 37°C and optical density (OD<sub>600</sub>) measurements taken after 48 hours.  
226 The growth of the colonies, which had been subjected to competition and or phages in the selection  
227 experiment was compared to colonies that had evolved alone. A mean population density was  
228 calculated for all the colonies isolated from the same population. Even though this method results in

229 indirect fitness measures it was the only practical way to estimate the cost due to a high number of  
230 evolved clones (960 clones).

231

232 **Statistical analysis**

233 All models and test statistics are presented in the supplementary tables 1-5. For the bacterial density  
234 data, a linear model was fitted predicting square root transformed *P. aeruginosa* density as a  
235 function of phage treatment, competition and pathogen genotype. For the phage density data, a  
236 mixed model was used for log transformed phage density data as a function of competition and  
237 pathogen genotype with time set as a repeated factor. For the phage resistance data, a linear model  
238 was fitted predicting arsin transformed resistance data as a function of phage evolution (ancestral or  
239 coevolved), pathogen genotype, and competition. A similar model was used for data predicting the  
240 cost of adaptation with the exception that untransformed bacterial growth data was used for the  
241 analysis. Post hoc tukey honest significance difference tests were carried out to further investigate  
242 significant interactions between factor levels. All analyses were conducted in R, version 3.1.2.  
243 (Team. 2014).

244 **3. RESULTS**

245 ***Bacterial and phage densities during the selection experiment***

246 Both phages ( $F_{1, 64} = 8.67, p=0.005$ ) and competitors ( $F_{3, 64} = 48.80, p<0.001$ ) significantly reduced  
247 *P. aeruginosa* densities in the end of the selection experiment (Fig. 1a-b, Supplementary Table 1). In  
248 the absence of phages, both PAO1 and *lasR* monocultures had higher *P. aeruginosa* densities  
249 compared to all polymicrobial communities, and PAO1 strain reached higher population densities  
250 compared to *lasR* strain when evolving in the absence of a phage and competitors ( $p<0.001$  for all  
251 comparisons). However, the relative effect of competition was stronger for the PAO1 strain  
252 (genotype  $\times$  competition:  $F_{3, 64} = 5.02, p=0.003$ ). Moreover, phages reduced the densities of PAO1  
253 strain more compared to a *lasR* strain (phage  $\times$  competition:  $F_{3, 64} = 7.70, p<0.001$ ). The phage  
254 effect depended also on the type of competitive community: in general, phage had a negative effect

255 on *P. aeruginosa* in the presence of *S. aureus* regardless of the pathogen genotype, while phages had  
256 mainly non-significant effects in the other polymicrobial communities (and even a positive effect in  
257 the presence of *S. maltophilia*, Fig. 1a-b). Unexpectedly, phage selection also affected the total  
258 bacterial biomasses in the polymicrobial communities (Fig. 1c, supplementary table 2) by  
259 increasing the total bacterial densities in the PAO1 communities, and decreasing the total bacterial  
260 densities in the *lasR* communities in general (genotype  $\times$  phage:  $F_{1, 56} = 8.04$ ,  $p=0.006$ ; the effect  
261 varied depending on the community composition, supplementary figure 1).

262 Phage densities decreased during the selection experiment in general (Time:  $F_{3, 30.35} = 17.34$ ,  
263  $p<0.001$ , Fig. 2a-b, Supplementary table 3). While competition had no significant main effect on the  
264 phage densities, a significant interaction was found: even though competition had no effect in the  
265 weakly virulent pathogen communities, it reduced the phage densities in the PAO1 pathogen  
266 communities (genotype  $\times$  competition:  $F_{1, 32.1} = 2.96$ ,  $p=0.047$ , Fig. 2a-b). The number or type of  
267 competitors did not affect the phage densities with either PAO1 or *lasR* strain ( $p>0.05$  in all  
268 comparisons). Together these results suggest that competitors had stronger negative effects on both  
269 the bacteria and phages in the PAO1 compared to *lasR* pathogen communities.

270

### 271 ***Bacteria-phage coevolution in different communities***

272 Both initially susceptible PAO1 and *lasR* strains evolved increased levels of resistance to ancestral  
273 phage (Fig. 3a-b, supplementary table 4), while the *lasR* strain evolved higher levels of resistance  
274 compared to the PAO1 strain in general (genotype:  $F_{1, 62} = 35.94$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). While competitors had  
275 no effect on the *lasR* strain resistance evolution, they generally constrained PAO1 resistance  
276 evolution (phage origin  $\times$  competition:  $F_{1, 62} = 6.94$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) with all competitive communities  
277 having similar effects ( $p>0.05$  in all comparisons). We also found that phages coevolved to become  
278 more infective during the selection experiment (Fig. 3a-b): the resistance of evolved bacteria was  
279 lower when measured against evolved compared to ancestral phages (phage origin:  $F_{1, 62} = 25.38$   
280  $p<0.001$ ). Interestingly, PAO1 resistance was less affected by phage coevolutionary history

281 (ancestral vs. coevolved) compared to *lasR* strain (phage origin  $\times$  genotype:  $F_{1,62} = 4.15$ ,  $p=0.046$ ).  
282 Together these results suggest that competition altered the trajectory of bacteria–phage co-  
283 evolution.

284

285 ***Pleiotropic cost of adaptation***

286 Coevolutionary history with the phage led to reduced bacterial growth in the absence of phages ( $F_{1,$   
287  $71} = 13.36$ ,  $p<0.001$ , Fig. 4a-b, Supplementary table 5). While the focal pathogen genotype ( $F_{1,71} =$   
288  $2.34$ ,  $p=0.131$ ) or the presence of competitors ( $F_{1,71} = 1.88$ ,  $p=0.175$ ) had non-significant main  
289 effects on the pathogen growth, the growth cost imposed by phage selection was larger with the  
290 PAO1 strain (genotype  $\times$  phage:  $F_{1,71}=6.27$ ,  $p=0.015$ ). Moreover, already the presence of  
291 competitors led to reduced PAO1 strain growth in the absence of phage selection (genotype  
292  $\times$  competition:  $F_{1,71} = 7.08$ ,  $p=0.010$ ; all competitive communities had similar effects:  $F_{3,63} = 2.38$ ,  
293  $p=0.078$ ). Consistent with the population density data, the evolved PAO1 strain reached higher  
294 population densities compared to *lasR* strain when bacteria had evolved in the absence of a phage  
295 and competitors (genotype  $\times$  phage:  $F_{1,71}=6.27$ ,  $p=0.015$ ). These results suggest that even though  
296 both pathogen genotypes suffered from a reduced growth due to phage selection in monocultures,  
297 only the PAO1 strain was affected by the presence of competitors and hence suffered relatively  
298 higher pleiotropic cost of adaptation in polymicrobial communities.

299

300 **4. DISCUSSION**

301 Here we studied the role of bacterial competition for the efficiency and eco-evolutionary outcomes  
302 of phage therapy in model polymicrobial infections *in vitro*. We found that both phages and  
303 competitors reduced the focal pathogen densities. However, this effect was strongly dependent on  
304 the focal pathogen genotype with both competitors and phage having a more severe effect on the  
305 QS-signalling PAO1 strain. The negative effects of competition observed at the population level  
306 correlated with reduced rate of resistance evolution. Interestingly, phage presence decreased the

307 total bacterial densities in *lasR* pathogen communities demonstrating an unexplored potential  
308 benefit of phage therapy: indirect, community-wide reduction in pathogenic bacterial loads in  
309 polymicrobial infections. However, a converse pattern was observed in PAO1 communities, which  
310 suggest that phages could also indirectly worsen the polymicrobial infections by increasing the  
311 density of other pathogenic bacteria. Together these results suggest that phage-mediated effects  
312 depend on bacterial competition and the focal pathogen genotype pinpointing the need to  
313 understand eco-evolutionary consequences of phage therapy in the community context.

314 Both competitors and phage had a negative effect on *P. aeruginosa* densities while the effect  
315 of competition was relatively larger compared to the effect of a phage. While the number or the  
316 composition of competitive communities had no clear effects on *P. aeruginosa* densities, the effect  
317 of competition depended on the *P. aeruginosa* genotype being more severe for the PAO1 compared  
318 to *lasR* strain in general. This suggests that QS may play an important role for *P. aeruginosa*  
319 competition against other bacterial species. For example, the proportion of *lasR* mutants typically  
320 increases during chronic polymicrobial CF-infections (Smith et al. 2006; Marvig et al. 2014; Ghoul  
321 et al. 2015) and this could be potentially partly explained with QS-mediated competitive  
322 interactions with other bacteria (Harrison et al. 2008). There are several mutually nonexclusive  
323 explanations for reduced *P. aeruginosa* growth in the presence of competitors. First, competition for  
324 limited resources was likely stronger in the presence of other bacterial species leading to lower *P.*  
325 *aeruginosa* densities in polymicrobial pathogen communities. Second, interference competition  
326 could have directly reduced *P. aeruginosa* growth directly. For example, *S. maltophilia* has been  
327 observed to influence *P. aeruginosa* biofilm architecture and protein synthesis (Ryan et al. 2008),  
328 while *P. aeruginosa* has been shown to have negative effects on *S. aureus* due to upregulation of  
329 antistaphylococcal substances such as pyocyanin and phenazine (Michelsen et al. 2014). Even  
330 though *S. aureus* has not been shown to have direct negative effects on *P. aeruginosa*, the *S. aureus*  
331 presence has been shown to favour the increase in the frequency of QS-deficient mutants (Harrison  
332 et al. 2008). In line with this study, it has been found that a QS-positive PAO1 strain interacts more

333 negatively with *S. aureus* compared to a QS-negative *lasR* strain (Michelsen et al. 2014). Recent  
334 evidence suggests that reduced antagonism between *S. aureus* on *P. aeruginosa* *lasR* mutants could  
335 be due to metabolic divergence (Frydenlund Michelsen et al. 2015). However, more detailed  
336 community level experiments are needed to understand these dynamics more profoundly.

337 The negative effect of phage was clearest in PAO1 monoculture and generally in the  
338 presence of *S. aureus* with both pathogen genotypes. The presence of *S. maltophilia* did not affect  
339 phage efficiency with the PAO1 strain and even increased the *lasR* densities in the presence of  
340 phage (Fig. 1a-b), while phage had no effects on *P. aeruginosa* densities in the presence of both *S.*  
341 *maltophilia* and *S. aureus*. Together these results suggest that phages can reduce *P. aeruginosa*  
342 densities additively in the presence of competitors but that this effect depends on the strength of  
343 competition and the composition of the competing bacterial community. Interestingly, phage  
344 presence decreased and increased the total bacterial densities of polymicrobial *lasR* and PAO1  
345 communities, respectively. Reduction in PAO1 frequency by the phage could have led to a  
346 competitive release and increased the growth of *S. aureus*, *S. maltophilia* and total bacterial  
347 densities. Conversely, resource competition was likely more intense and more symmetric within  
348 *lasR* communities due to stronger levels of phage resistance evolution (and hence higher *P.*  
349 *aeruginosa* density). Lastly, it has been shown that phage selection can impose relatively higher  
350 competitive cost for the PAO1 compared to the *lasR* strain due to upregulation of siderophore  
351 production (Vasse, Torres-Barcelo, and Hochberg 2015). Such metabolic cost could also potentially  
352 explain relatively poorer PAO1 growth in the presence of competitors even in the non-social culture  
353 conditions used in this experiment. In addition to demographic explanations, the potential changes  
354 at the gene expression level warrant thus further investigation in the future.

355 In line with the bacterial density data, the phage abundances were also generally  
356 lower in the presence of competitors and this effect was clearer with the PAO1 strain that suffered  
357 more heavily from competition compared to the *lasR* strain. Competition-mediated reduction in  
358 bacterial and phage densities correlated with reduced levels of resistance evolution, and as a result,

359 PAO1 strain evolved lower levels of resistance compared to the *lasR* strain. Simple demographic  
360 effects that weaken the strength of selection via reduced bacteria and phage encounter rates and  
361 lowered mutation supply rate (Lopez-Pascua and Buckling 2008) could thus be important for the  
362 evolutionary outcomes of phage therapy in polymicrobial infections. We also found that phages  
363 coevolved to be more infective during the selection experiment as demonstrated by higher levels of  
364 resistance of evolved bacteria to the ancestral compared to evolved phage populations. In line with  
365 the population dynamics data, the coevolutionary signal was stronger in *lasR* pathogen communities  
366 where both bacterial and phage densities were also higher. Bacterial competition did not thus  
367 constrain only the bacterial resistance but also the phage infectivity evolution and the trajectory of  
368 phage-bacteria coevolution.

369 Also, some underlying genetic differences could have affected PAO1 and *lasR* strain  
370 response to phages. It has been shown that removing, altering and concealing cell surface receptors  
371 can prevent phage adsorption (Seed 2015) and that a functional QS system is important for  
372 regulating such phage defences (Hoyland-Kroghsbo, Maerkedahl, and Svenningsen 2013; Taj et al.  
373 2014; Tan, Svenningsen, and Middelboe 2015). In contrast to these findings, we found that QS-  
374 defective strains were able to evolve higher levels of resistance to phages especially in the presence  
375 of bacterial competitors. A similar pattern has been found before, where the loss of QS impaired  
376 bacterial twitching motility leading to elevated resistance to pili-specific phages (Glessner et al.  
377 1999). Even though the PT7 target receptor is unknown, both the PAO1 and *lasR* strains were  
378 equally susceptible to the phage in the beginning of the experiment. This suggests that initial  
379 differences in PAO1 and *lasR* strains' QS ability unlikely drove the long-term differences in the  
380 bacterial resistance and phage infectivity evolution. Phage receptors are also often important for  
381 other purposes including nutrient uptake (Lenski and Levin 1985), and hence, mutations in phage  
382 receptors often reduce bacterial competitive ability. In support for this, we found that both evolved  
383 PAO1 and *lasR* monoculture strains suffered reduced growth in the absence of phages and  
384 competitors if they had evolved in the presence of a phage during the selection experiment.

385 Interestingly, while competitors increased the magnitude of the growth cost with PAO1 strain,  
386 competitors had no effect or even a positive effect on *lasR* growth. One explanation for this is that  
387 less antagonistic interactions between the *lasR* and competitors allowed more rapid accumulation of  
388 compensatory mutations during the selection experiment due to relatively large population size and  
389 mutation supply rate compared to PAO1 strain. We also found that evolved PAO1 strain grew better  
390 in the growth media compared to *lasR* strain when the bacteria had evolved in the absence of a  
391 phage and competitors. This suggest that functional QS-system could help *P. aeruginosa* to adapt to  
392 abiotic environmental conditions potentially due to depressing of growth-limiting intracellular  
393 metabolism (Asfahl et al. 2015). In the community context our results suggest that even though both  
394 focal pathogen genotypes were able to evolve resistance to phage the PAO1 strain suffered more  
395 severe costs of adaptation due to both competition and phage.

396 Our results have important implications for the development of phage therapies in the  
397 context of polymicrobial infections. First, selection for phage resistance could be weaker in  
398 polymicrobial communities due to a competition-mediated reduction in the focal pathogen density  
399 and relatively higher pleiotropic costs of adaptation. Competition could thus enhance the phage  
400 efficacy when treating acute CF and burn infections that are commonly co-infected by QS-  
401 signalling *P. aeruginosa*, *S. aureus* and *S. maltophilia* (Harrison 2007; Turner et al. 2014). However,  
402 in contrary, *P. aeruginosa* resistance evolution to phages could be a more severe problem in chronic  
403 polymicrobial CF infections that are often dominated by *P. aeruginosa* mutants that have lost QS-  
404 signalling ability during the long-term adaptation (Smith et al. 2006; Marvig et al. 2014; Andersen  
405 et al. 2015). Interestingly, we found that higher levels of *lasR* strain resistance evolution were  
406 correlated with the higher rate of phage infectivity evolution, which could open up avenues for pre-  
407 adapting phages to be more infective before clinical phage therapy treatments (Betts et al. 2013;  
408 Friman et al. 2016). Moreover, it would be interesting to investigate if our results hold when  
409 multiple phage species are applied as a phage cocktail. We also want note that it is possible that  
410 both *S. aureus* and *S. maltophilia* strains evolved during the selection experiment. For example, it is

411 known that *P. aeruginosa* can promote the formation of small colony variants with *S. aureus* leading  
412 to changes in virulence and antibiotic resistance (Hoffman et al. 2006; Frydenlund Michelsen et al.  
413 2015). It is thus important to expand the study the evolutionary effects of competition and phage  
414 selection across the whole polymicrobial community in the future and also link these phenotypic  
415 changes with the changes at the genotypic level.

416 In conclusion, here we show that the presence of competitors can modulate the phage-  
417 mediated effects on a focal pathogen. Crucially, phage selection imposed weaker selection for  
418 resistance evolution when the effect of competition with the focal pathogen was strong. Moreover,  
419 while the phage presence indirectly reduced the total bacterial loads in weakly virulent *lasR*  
420 pathogen communities, phages increased the total bacterial densities in highly virulent PAO1  
421 pathogen communities. Bacterial competition is thus likely to be an important factor affecting both  
422 the ecological and evolutionary outcomes of phage therapy in polymicrobial infections. From a  
423 therapeutic perspective, the fact that overwhelming phage numbers were not able to eradicate  
424 *Pseudomonas* even in the presence of competitors reinforces the importance of studying phage-  
425 bacteria interactions in the polymicrobial context.

426

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431

#### 432 **Data Archiving Statement**

433 Data available from the Dryad Digital Repository: <http://dx.doi.org/xxxxx>

434

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585

586 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

587

588 **Figure 1.** The comparison of *P. aeruginosa* (panels a and b) and total bacterial population densities  
589 (panel c) in the end of the selection experiment between different treatments (CFU denotes for

590 colony forming units per mL). Panel c shows the mean over all competition treatments for PAO1  
591 and *lasR* strains, respectively. All bars show  $\pm 1$  s.e.m.

592

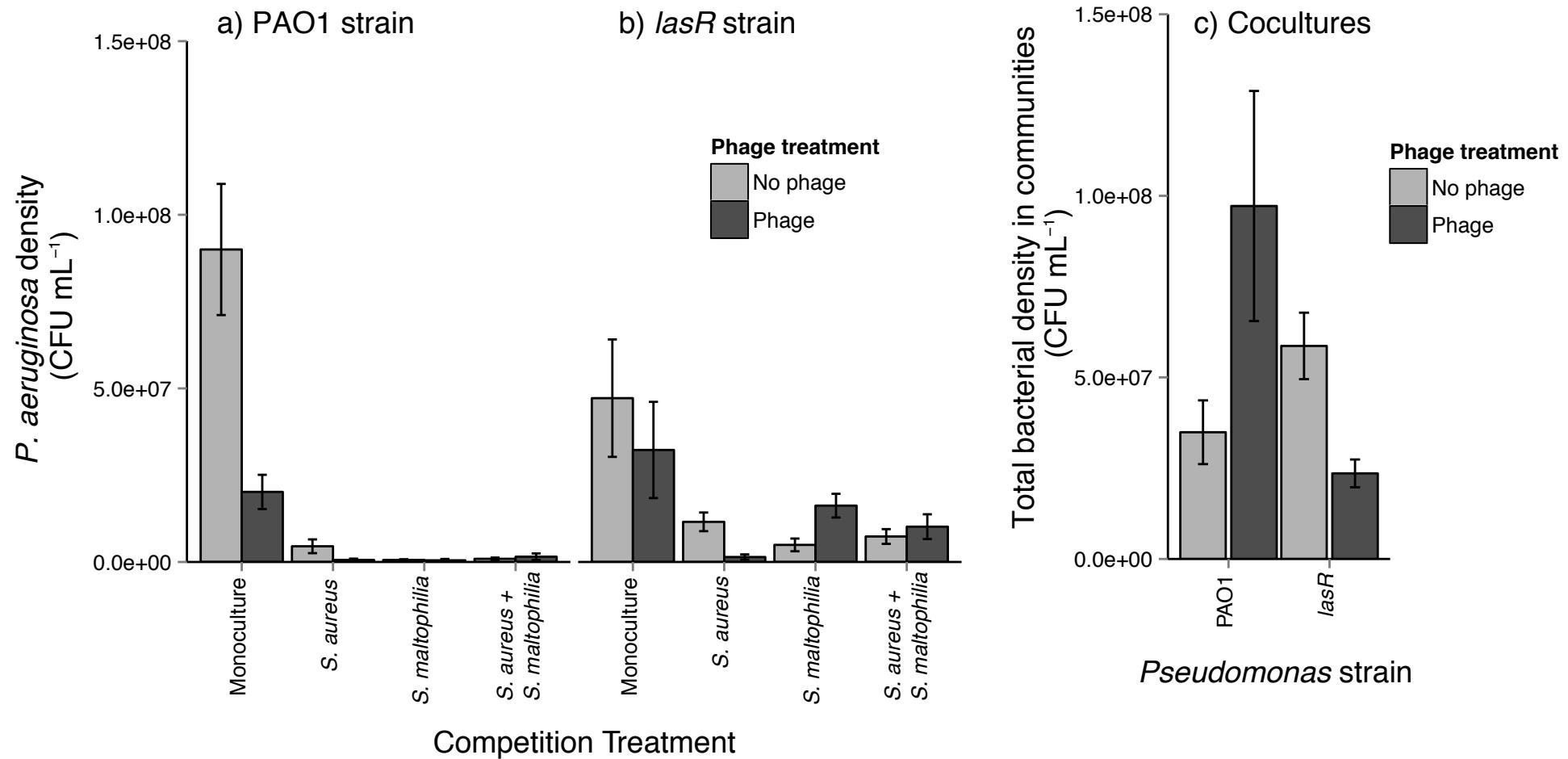
593 **Figure 2.** Phage population densities in PAO1 (panel a) and *lasR* (panel b) focal pathogen  
594 communities in the absence and presence of competitors (PFU denotes for plaque forming units,  
595 i.e., phage particles per mL). All bars show  $\pm 1$  s.e.m.

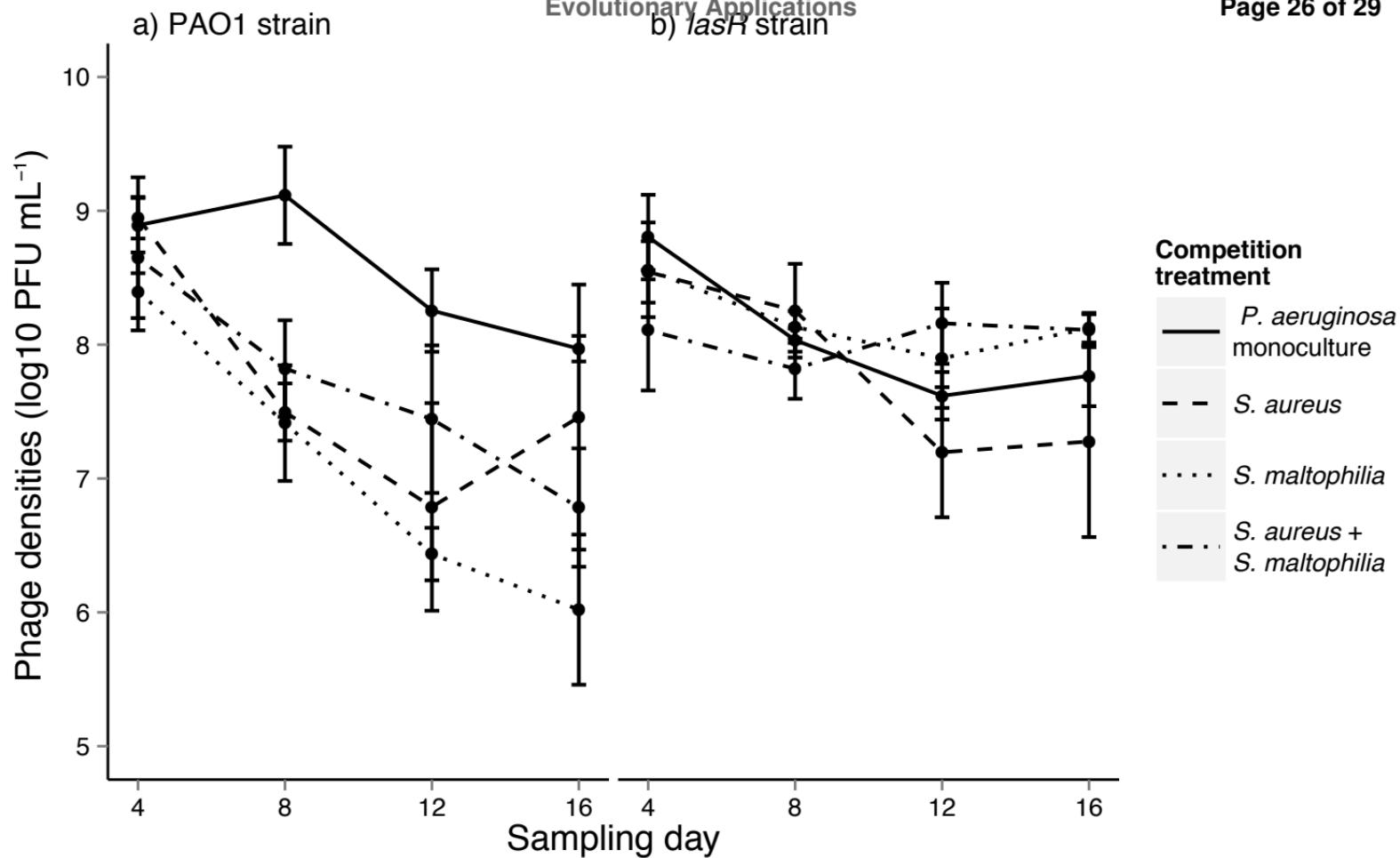
596

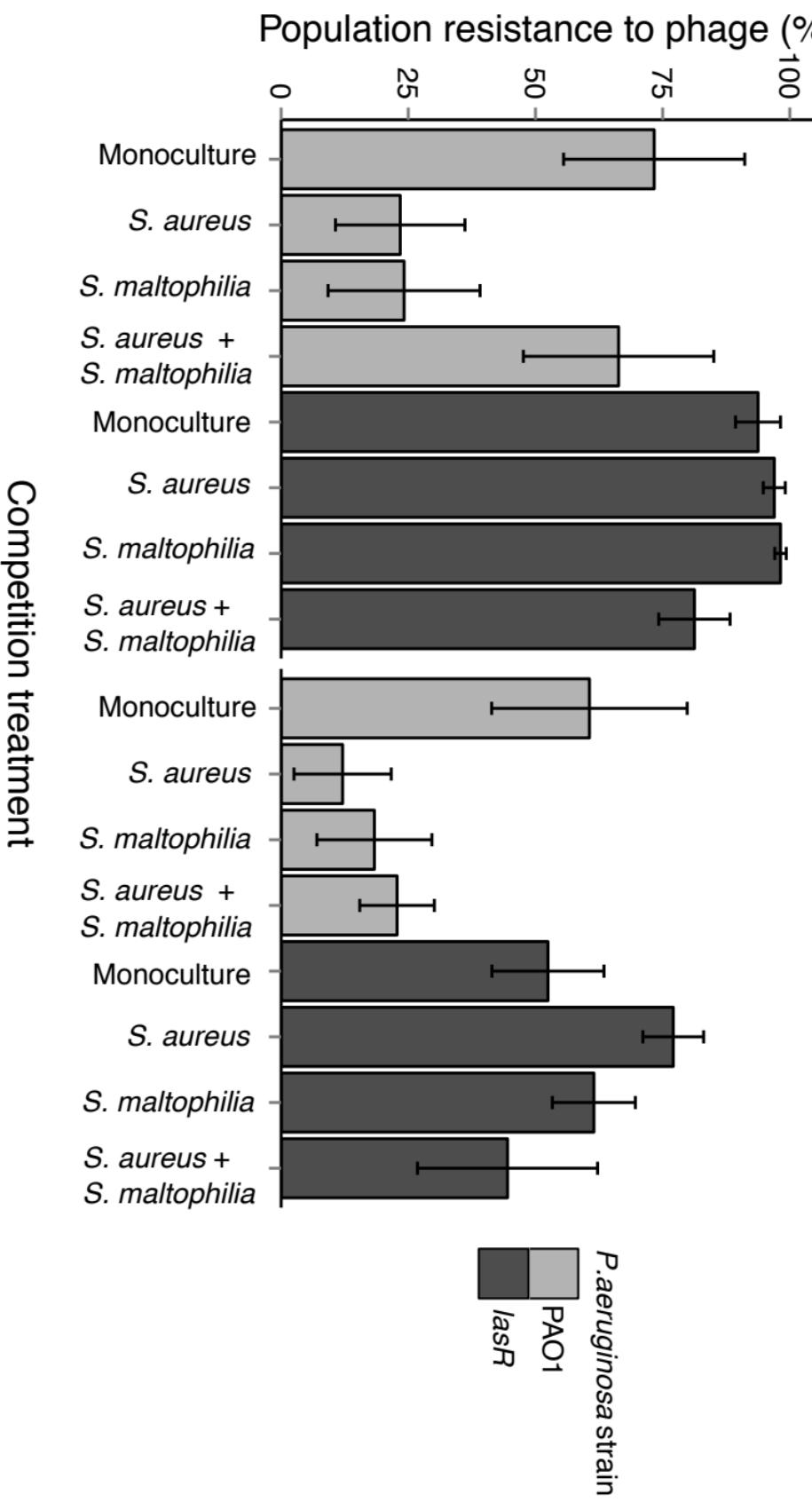
597 **Figure 3.** The resistance of evolved PAO1 (light grey) and *lasR* (dark grey) strains to ancestral and  
598 coevolved phages measured at the end of the experiment. Competition treatment shows the absence  
599 and presence of competitors during the selection experiment. Only populations that had evolved in  
600 the presence of phage were used for the analysis; all *P. aeruginosa* populations that had evolved in  
601 the absence of phage were susceptible to phages. All bars show  $\pm 1$  s.e.m.

602

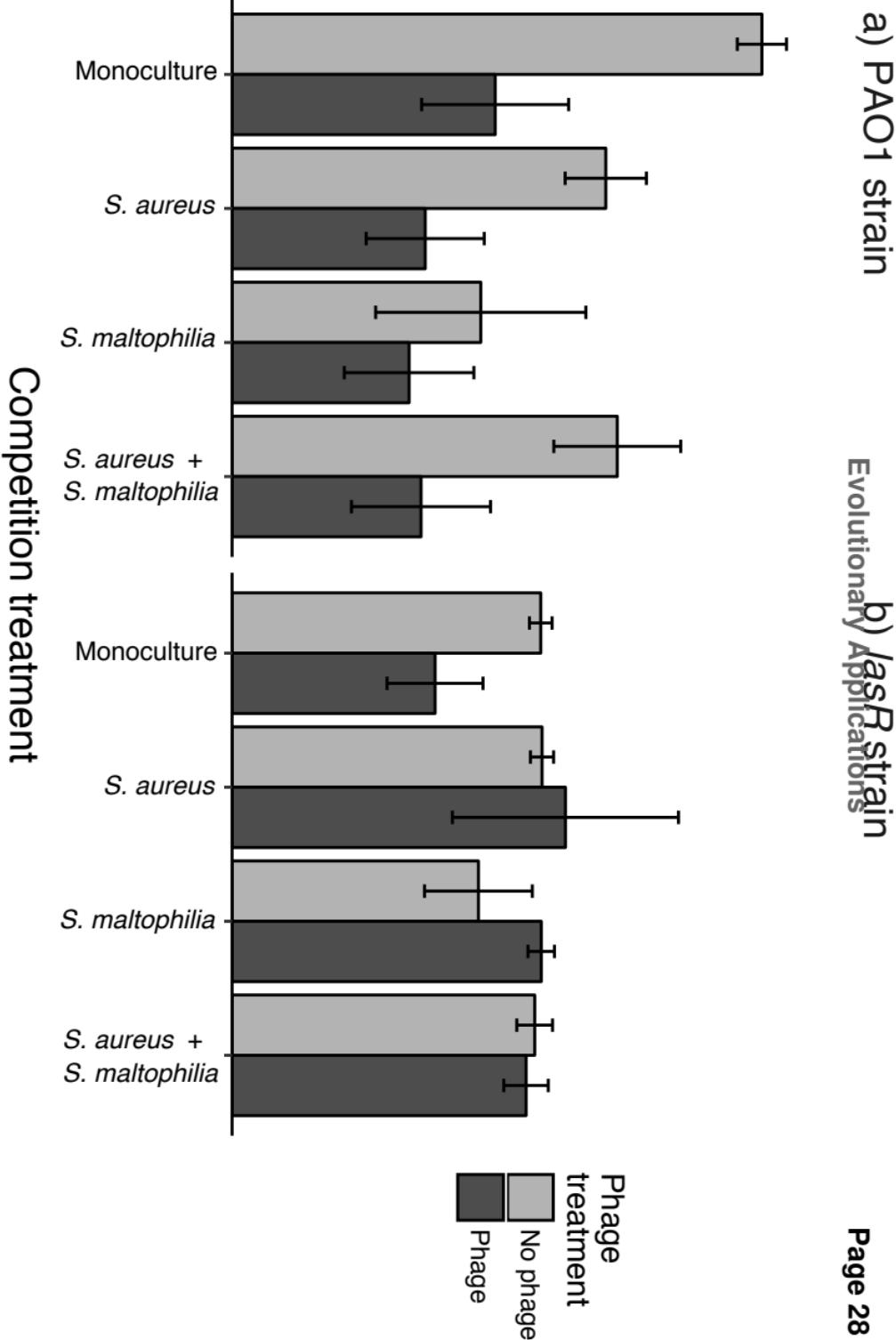
603 **Figure 4.** The cost of adaptation measured in terms of maximum population density after 48h of  
604 growth. Panel (a) shows the growth of evolved PAO1 and panel (b) the growth of evolved *lasR*  
605 strain in the absence of phage or competitors at the end of the selection experiment. Phage and  
606 competition treatments denote the absence and presence of a phage and competitors during the  
607 selection experiment. All bars show  $\pm 1$  s.e.m.







*P. aeruginosa* growth in the absence of phage or competitors (OD 600nm)



ID: EVA-2016-106-OA.R1

Title: Bacterial competition and quorum-sensing signalling shapes the eco-evolutionary outcomes of model in vitro phage therapy

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#### ASSOCIATE EDITOR COMMENTS

Associate Editor  
Comments to the Author:  
Thank you for your thoughtful and thorough revision. I think you've done an excellent job of incorporating the suggestions, and that the manuscript is greatly improved. I am confident that this work will make a nice contribution to the literature, and thank you for submitting your work to Evolutionary Applications.

***Response: We thank both Editor and Associate Editor for the acceptance of the manuscript***

***Best,***  
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