

1 **Population density affects the outcome of competition in co-cultures of *Gardnerella* species**
2 **isolated from the human vaginal microbiome**

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21 **Abstract**

22 Negative frequency-dependent selection is one possible mechanism for maintenance of rare
23 species in communities, but the selective advantage of rare species may be checked at lower
24 overall population densities where resources are abundant. *Gardnerella* spp. belonging to cpn60
25 subgroup D, are detected at low levels in vaginal microbiomes and are nutritional generalists
26 relative to other more abundant *Gardnerella* spp., making them good candidates for negative
27 frequency-dependent selection. The vaginal microbiome is a dynamic environment and the
28 resulting changes in density of the microbiota may explain why subgroup D never gains
29 dominance. To test this, we co-cultured subgroup D isolates with isolates from the more common
30 and abundant subgroup C. Deep amplicon sequencing of *rpoB* was used to determine
31 proportional abundance of each isolate at 0 h and 72 h in 152 co-cultures, and to calculate change
32 in proportion. D isolates had a positive change in proportional abundance in most co-cultures
33 regardless of initial proportion. Initial density affected the change in proportion of subgroup D
34 isolates either positively or negatively depending on the particular isolates combined, suggesting
35 that growth rate, population density and other intrinsic features of the isolates influenced the
36 outcome. Our results demonstrate that population density is an important factor influencing the
37 outcome of competition between *Gardnerella* spp. isolated from the human vaginal microbiome.

38

39 **Keywords:** *Gardnerella*, vaginal microbiome, negative frequency-dependent selection,

40 competition, *rpoB*, RNA polymerase subunit beta

41 **Introduction**

42 Negative frequency-dependent selection is an evolutionary phenomenon that maintains
43 rare genotypes (variants) in complex communities and occurs when the relative fitness of a
44 variant is higher when its relative abundance in the population is low [1, 2]. Resource
45 competition is a major force that can selectively benefit rare variants, contributing to negative
46 frequency-dependent selection. Slower growing variants that can utilize a wide range of nutrients
47 (nutritional generalists) have a selective advantage over faster growing nutritional specialists
48 once the availability of nutrients favoured by the specialists becomes limiting [3]. In a closed
49 system, negative frequency-dependent selection could lead to the initially rare variant increasing
50 in relative abundance in the population. In natural microbial communities, however, this process
51 may be checked by factors including the density of the population and the carrying capacity of
52 the environment since the benefits of negative frequency-dependent selection only come into
53 play when the more abundant members of the community experience a reduction in fitness [4].
54 Variants subject to negative frequency-dependent selection may be prevented from gaining
55 dominance due to environmental changes that introduce a fresh supply of nutrients for the
56 specialists or reduce overall population density, shifting the selective advantage to the more
57 common variants.

58 We have shown previously that resource-dependent, scramble competition is prevalent
59 among *Gardnerella* spp. isolated from the human vaginal microbiome [5]. Women with
60 *Gardnerella* dominated vaginal microbiomes are usually colonized by multiple species, with *G.*
61 *vaginalis* (cpn60 subgroup C), *G. leopoldii* and *G. swidsinskii* (subgroup A) being the most
62 common and abundant [6, 7]. *G. piovii* (subgroup B) and strains belonging to several currently
63 unnamed genome species (subgroup D) are less frequently detected and have not been observed

64 to dominate the microbiome [6, 7]. In *in vitro* co-culture experiments, isolates from subgroups A,
65 B and C had reduced fitness when co-cultured with isolates from other subgroups, but the growth
66 rates of subgroup D isolates increased with increasing number of competitors [5]. Subgroup D
67 isolates were subsequently shown to have a nutritional generalist lifestyle and limited niche
68 overlap with other *Gardnerella* spp. suggesting that these isolates persist in the vaginal
69 microbiome through negative frequency-dependent selection [8]. Vaginal microbiomes
70 dominated by subgroup D, however, have not been reported [6, 7]. While this potentially an
71 argument against negative frequency-dependent selection, another possibility is that the negative
72 frequency-dependent selection of rare *Gardnerella* spp. is density-dependent. Vaginal dynamics
73 affecting bacterial population density: turnover of epithelial cells, bacterial mortality rates, flow
74 of vaginal fluid, changing niche capacity, and interactions of microbial species in the vaginal
75 ecosystem, can reshuffle the densities of competing species [4, 9, 10]. As the vaginal ecosystem
76 changes, the advantage that slow growing, generalist species have over others may be diminished
77 because at lower population densities, the supply of nutrients available to fast-growing bacteria
78 will plentiful and thus they will out-compete slower growing species even if they are generalists
79 (Fig 1) [4].

80 Demonstrations of the influence of density on negative frequency-dependent selection *in*
81 *vitro* have been achieved by monitoring population dynamics of contrived microbial
82 communities over a range of dilutions to mimic the dynamics of a real-world environment [3, 4].
83 The objective of our current study was to apply this approach to determine if population density
84 affects the outcome of competitions involving *Gardnerella* subgroup D.

85

86 **Methods**

87 **Bacterial isolates**

88 Nine *Gardnerella* isolates (Subgroup C, $n = 2$, NR001, NR038; subgroup D, $n = 7$,
89 NR002, NR003, NR043, NR044, NR047, WP012, N160) were used for this experiment. All
90 isolates were revived from -80°C stocks by streaking on Columbia agar plates containing 5%
91 (v/v) defibrinated sheep blood. For broth cultures, up to 10 isolated colonies from blood agar
92 plates were picked and sub-cultured in brain heart infusion (BHI) broth supplemented with 10%
93 (v/v) heat inactivated horse serum and 0.25% maltose (w/v) and incubated anaerobically for 18h
94 (BD GasPak EZ Anaerobe Gas Generating Pouch System, NJ, USA).

95 **Co-culture experiment**

96 Freshly grown broth cultures were adjusted to an OD of 0.5, and a loopful of each was
97 streaked on Columbia blood agar to confirm viability. For each co-culture, an equal volume (250
98 μl) of one subgroup C and one subgroup D culture were mixed in 4.5 ml of BHI supplemented
99 with 0.25% maltose to make a 10^{-1} dilution. Ten-fold dilutions up to 10^{-4} were made. Each of the
100 two C isolates: NR001(C1) and NR038 (C2) were mixed with each of the seven D isolates:
101 NR002 (D1), NR043 (D2), NR044 (D3), NR003(D4), N160 (D5), NR047 (D6), and WP012
102 (D7) resulting in 14 combinations (set 1: C1D1, C1D2, C1D3, C1D4, C1D5, C1D6, C1D7; and
103 set 2: C2D1, C2D2, C2D3, C2D4, C2D5, C2D6, C2D7). Triplicate aliquots of 200 μl from each
104 dilution of every combination were transferred into individual wells of 96-wells plates, and an
105 additional aliquot was immediately pelleted and stored at -80°C (0 h). The total number of co-
106 cultures of subgroup C and D thus created in 96-well plates was 168 (14 combinations \times 4
107 dilutions \times 3 technical replicates = 168). All co-cultures were incubated anaerobically for 72 h
108 and OD₅₉₅ was measured at 48 h and 72 h.

109 All C and D isolates were also grown alone in eight wells each as technical replicates.
110 The OD₅₉₅ of the monocultures were measured at 24 h, 48 h and 72h. To quantify planktonic
111 growth of the monocultures, 72 h culture supernatant was transferred to a fresh 96-well plate and
112 the OD₅₉₅ was measured. The adhered biofilm remaining in the wells was quantified as described
113 previously using crystal violet staining [5].

114 **DNA extraction**

115 DNA was extracted from both initial mixtures (0 h incubation) and end point co-cultures
116 (72 h incubation) using the DNeasy Power Biofilm extraction kit (DNeasy PowerBiofilm,
117 Qiagen, Mississauga, ON) as described previously [5], except that both planktonic (i.e.
118 supernatant of each well) and biofilm fractions (scraped from the bottom of the 96-well plates)
119 were combined for DNA extraction. Extraction controls (reagents only) were included for all
120 batches of DNA extractions and these controls were carried through the PCR, library preparation
121 and sequencing process.

122 **Amplification of rpoB sequences**

123 Since cpn60 universal primers are degenerate and might introduce amplification bias, we
124 chose rpoB as a target for amplicon sequencing. The rpoB sequences of the nine isolates were
125 aligned using MUSCLE in MegaX, and primers were designed using SnapGene to anneal to
126 perfectly conserved sequences flanking a 353 bp region (corresponding to nucleotides 1441-1793
127 of the *G. vaginalis* NR001 rpoB gene) that included 29 bp differences between subgroup C and
128 D isolates. Primers were modified with the addition of Illumina adapter sequences (underlined):
129 M_G_RPOBF (5' - TCG TCG GCA GCG TCA GAT GTG TAA AGA CAG ATG TGC CCA ATC
130 GAA TCC - 3' and M_G_RPOBR: 5' - GTC TCG TGG GCT CGG AGA TGT GTA TAA GAG ACA
131 GTC GTG CTC CAA GAA TGG AAT - 3'). Specificity of the primers was confirmed by
132 amplification and sequencing of the target region from isolate NR001. Equal amounts of

133 genomic DNA extracts from all nine isolates were subsequently used as template in rpoB PCR.
134 The amplification products were resolved on an agarose gel and visually inspected to confirm
135 uniform amplification. All products were sequenced to confirm the rpoB sequence of each
136 isolate.

137 For creation of amplicon sequencing libraries, PCR reactions contained 2 μ L template
138 DNA, 1 \times PCR buffer (0.2 M Tris-HCl at pH 8.4, 0.5 M KCl), 2.5 mM MgCl₂, 200 μ M dNTP
139 mixture, 400 nM of primers M_G_RPOBF and M_G_RPOBR, 2 U high fidelity platinum Taq
140 DNA polymerase, and water to bring it to a final volume of 50 μ L. Control reactions containing
141 no template were included and carried through the library preparation and sequencing steps. PCR
142 was carried out with incubation at 94°C for 30 seconds, 25 cycles of 94°C 30 sec, 60°C for 30
143 sec, 72°C for 1 min, and final extension at 72°C for 10 min. Purification of the amplified rpoB
144 sequences was performed using NucleoMag magnetic beads (Machery-Nagel, Germany). A bead
145 volume of 40 μ l was added per sample to maximize yield of DNA. All samples were run on an
146 agarose gel after the purification step to confirm the size and purity of the PCR product.

147 **Library generation and amplicon sequencing**

148 Indexing of purified PCR products was performed using the Nextera XT Index kit v2 (Set
149 D) as per manufacturer's instruction (Illumina Inc, CA, USA). The libraries after indexing were
150 quantified using Qubit dsDNA BR assay kit (Invitrogen, Burlington, Ontario), and indexed
151 amplicons were pooled at an equimolar concentration. PhiX DNA (20% [vol/vol]) was added to
152 the indexed libraries before loading onto the flow cell. Paired-end (2 \times 250 bp) sequencing was
153 performed using MiSeq Reagent Nano kit v2 (500 cycles) on an Illumina MiSeq (Illumina Inc.,
154 CA, USA). DNA extraction controls and PCR no template controls were carried through library
155 preparation and sequencing.

156 **Bioinformatics**

157 Because the subgroup C and D rpoB sequences were so distinct, only the R1 data were
158 used in the analysis. Primer sequences were removed using cutadapt [11], and sequences were
159 trimmed for quality using Trimmomatic version 0.32 [12] with a minimum length of 150 bp and
160 quality score of 30. Amplicon sequence variants (ASV) were identified using DADA2 [13] in
161 QIIME 2 [14], which generated a frequency table. ASV sequences were identified by aligning
162 them to a database containing the rpoB sequences of the nine study isolates using watered-
163 BLAST [15].

164 The proportion of each D isolate in each co-culture was calculated at 0 hours and 72
165 hours using the equation: R_i/R_t , where R_i is the number of sequence reads corresponding to the D
166 isolate in the mixture and R_t is the total number of sequence reads obtained for that mixture. The
167 change of proportion of each D isolate in each mixture was calculated using the formula: $P_c =$
168 $P_f/P_i - 1$, where P_c is the change of proportions, P_i is the proportion of an isolate at 0 h and P_f is
169 the final proportion after 72 h. A positive value for P_c indicates that the proportional abundance
170 of the D isolate increased over the 72 h incubation period, while a negative value indicates that
171 its proportional abundance in the co-culture decreased. Change of proportion was calculated for
172 each replicate co-culture individually.

173 **Statistical analysis**

174 To detect differences in the numbers of co-cultures in which C or D had a positive change
175 in proportion, a chi-square test was performed. A chi-square test was performed to determine if
176 the number communities where there was a positive change in proportions for the D isolate was
177 different when its initial proportion was low ($P_i < 0.3$), medium ($0.3 < P_i < 0.5$), or high ($P_i >$
178 0.5). Change in proportion values for D isolates in co-cultures at different dilutions were

179 compared using Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn's multiple comparison. Statistical analyses were
180 performed in R version 4.0.1 and GraphPad Prism version 8.

181

182 **Results**

183 **Growth of co-cultures**

184 Viability of all isolates prior to mixing and inoculation of 96-well plates was confirmed
185 by observation of growth on blood agar plates. Growth was detected as an increase in OD₅₉₅ in
186 162/168 co-cultures. Co-cultures containing C2 (NR038) reached a maximum OD at 48 hrs,
187 while the OD of co-cultures containing C1 (NR001) increased between 48 and 72 h (Fig S1). In
188 most cases, as initial culture density decreased (from 10⁻¹ to 10⁻⁴ dilutions), the maximum OD
189 achieved also decreased.

190 Since the same seven D isolates were included in co-cultures with both C1 and C2, one
191 explanation for the different co-culture growth rates (Fig S1) was that C1 and C2 have different
192 growth rates. To investigate this possibility, C1 and C2 were grown as singletons with different
193 initial densities (Fig S2). C2 grew faster and achieved higher OD values than C1 at all dilutions,
194 reaching its maximum OD (0.2-0.3) by 48 h. The final OD for C2 was not obviously affected by
195 the density of the starter culture. C1, however, was affected by starting density with reduced 72 h
196 OD values with reduced initial density. No growth of C1 was detected in the culture with the
197 lowest initial density (10⁻⁴ dilution) (Fig S2). Both isolates grew almost exclusively in biofilm
198 (Fig S2).

199 The seven D isolates were also grown as singletons at varying initial population density
200 to test if the initial population density affects their growth, regardless of the presence of a
201 competitor. Although at the highest population density (10⁻¹) D5 and D1 outperformed all other

202 D isolates, D4 reached the highest OD₅₉₅ values in all subsequent dilutions (10⁻² – 10⁻⁴) (Fig S3).
203 The other four D isolates: D2, D3, D6 & D7 were consistent in all four dilutions (Fig S3). The
204 optical density of all seven isolates reached an OD₅₉₅ of 0.5 to 1.0 (Fig S3). Except for D5 and
205 D6 at 10⁻¹ (Fig S3a), the growth curve of all D isolates at all dilutions plateaued after 48 h. All
206 seven isolates grew exclusively as biofilm (Fig S3e, S3f). Although biofilm formation was
207 appreciably lower at the highest population density (i.e., 10⁻¹) compared to more dilute cultures
208 (10⁻² -10⁻⁴, Fig S3f), all subgroup D isolates, in general, formed more biofilm at all dilutions than
209 subgroup C isolates (Fig S2f, Fig S3f).

210 **rpoB amplicon sequencing**

211 After primer removal and trimming for quality, a total of 1,104,683 reads were available
212 for analysis (average 5225 reads per sample). One of the extraction controls ($n = 4$) yielded 7
213 reads. All other extraction controls and no template controls ($n = 4$) had 0 reads. Since the no
214 template controls and extraction controls were essentially clean and given the low initial
215 densities of the 10⁻⁴ dilutions, we decided to include any samples with ≥ 50 reads in the analysis.
216 After removal of samples with no growth based on OD₅₉₅ after 72 h and samples with fewer than
217 50 reads, 204 samples, including 52 0 h and 152 72 h co-cultures remained for analysis. DADA2
218 identified twelve ASV sequences, all of which were 98%-100% identical to one of the rpoB
219 sequences of the nine tested isolates.

220 **Effect of initial abundance of an isolate on the outcome of competition**

221 Read counts corresponding to C and D isolates in each co-culture rpoB amplicon library
222 were used to calculate initial (0 h) and final (72 h) proportions, and the change in proportion of D
223 for each co-culture replicate was calculated. Subgroup D isolates were dominant (>50% of
224 sequence reads) in only 6/52 (11.5%) of the 0 h co-cultures, but at 72 h nearly half (72/152, 47.4

225 %) were dominated by a D isolate (Fig 2a). Regardless of which isolate was initially more
226 abundant, there was a significantly higher number of co-cultures where proportional abundance
227 of D isolates increased ($n = 104/152$, 68%) compared to those where C isolates had a positive
228 change in proportions ($n = 48/152$, 32%, Chi-square test, $p < 0.0001$) (Fig 2b).

229 Since negative frequency-dependent selection favours rare variants, we tested if initial
230 proportional abundance had an impact on the outcome of D isolates in the competition assay
231 regardless of initial overall population density (dilution). Co-cultures were grouped according to
232 their initial proportions of D (<0.3 , $n = 45$; 0.3 to 0.5 , $n = 42$ or >0.5 , $n = 17$) (Fig 2c). A positive
233 change in proportion of D occurred in all cases where its initial proportional abundance was
234 >0.5 , which was significantly higher than when the initial proportional abundance of D was <0.3
235 or $0.3 - 0.5$ (Chi-square test, $p < 0.0001$), however, at all levels, the proportional abundance of D
236 increased in $>50\%$ of cases.

237 **Effect of starting population density on the outcome of competition**

238 Examination of overall co-culture results demonstrated that in most cases, D isolates
239 experienced an increase in proportion, consistent with negative frequency-dependent selection. If
240 negative frequency-dependent selection is density-dependent, change in proportion values should
241 differ between co-cultures with different initial densities. To determine if the initial population
242 density of co-cultures affects the outcome of competition, seven subgroup D isolates were co-
243 cultured with either of two subgroup C isolates at starting dilutions from 10^{-1} to 10^{-4} . All D
244 isolates (D1-D7) had a positive change in proportions at all dilutions when co-cultured with C1
245 (Fig 3). While D1 and D7 also had positive changes in proportion when co-cultured with C2, the
246 other D isolates had negative changes in proportion at all dilutions (except D6, which was a
247 positive change at the 10^{-1} and 10^{-2} dilutions) (Fig 4).

248 The change of proportion of D in eight of the fourteen tested combinations was affected
249 by decreasing density of the starting population either positively ($n = 4$, Fig 3a, 3c, 3d, 3f) or
250 negatively ($n = 4$, Fig 3b, Fig 4b, 4c, 4f) in a statistically significant manner. No effect of initial
251 density was observed for six combinations (Fig 3e, 3g, 4a, 4d, 4e, 4g). All cases where change of
252 proportion of D increased with decreasing density involved co-cultures with C1. In contrast,
253 most (3/4) cases of decreasing change of proportion with decreasing density occurred in co-
254 cultures with C2. These differences in outcomes of co-cultures with C1 and C2 are consistent
255 with the slower growth rate of C1 relative to C2 (Figure S2).

256

257 **Discussion**

258 Negative frequency-dependent selection favours rare genotypes [1, 2]. Factors like
259 generalist lifestyle, social cheating, and bet hedging, can contribute to the selection of rare
260 genotypes [8, 9, 16–20]. It has been shown that rarely abundant *Gardnerella* subgroup D are
261 nutritional generalists [8], which may help them to be favoured by negative frequency-dependent
262 selection. However, the fact that subgroup D has not been observed to dominate the vaginal
263 microbiome begs the question: if rare subgroup D is favoured by negative frequency-dependent
264 selection, why do not we see microbiomes dominated by subgroup D more often? The answer to
265 this question probably lies in the mechanisms of negative frequency-dependent selection and that
266 it may be density-dependent [4, 21]. When population density is high, abundant specialists will
267 quickly run out of resources, allowing initially rare generalist populations to expand; however, if
268 the density is lower there are relatively unlimited resources for the rapidly growing specialist,
269 allowing it to maintain numerical dominance (Fig 1). Dynamics of the vaginal microbiome can
270 affect the population density of the vaginal microbiota and the resources available, and hence,

271 may check the expansion of rare species. In this study, we have tested the impact of different
272 initial population densities the outcome of co-cultures of *Gardnerella* strains *in vitro*.

273 Fourteen combinations of two subgroup C and seven subgroup D isolates were tested.

274 The result of amplicon sequencing showed that in most co-cultures, D isolates had a positive
275 change in proportional abundance regardless of initial proportion (Fig 2), and that initial
276 population density did affect the degree of change in proportion of subgroup D isolates in most
277 cases (Fig 3 & 4). In some cases, we observed what would have been predicted for density-
278 dependent negative frequency-dependent selection of subgroup D isolates: a decrease in change
279 in proportion values with decreasing population density (Fig 3b, Fig 4a, 4b, 4c, 4d, 4f).

280 Increasing change in proportion values with decreasing population density, however, were also
281 observed (Fig 3a, 3c, 3d, 3f). These opposing trends were observed for most D isolates when co-
282 cultured with either C isolate, so it is clear that the effects of density on growth of an isolate in
283 co-culture are determined by both the intrinsic characteristics of the isolate itself but also its
284 competitor as has been reported for wound-colonizing bacteria [22]. Thus, the observed
285 variability of the impact of initial population density on co-cultured *Gardnerella* isolates is not
286 unexpected.

287 Differential growth rate is an obvious explanation for some of our observations. Our
288 experimental design was based on the premise that subgroup C isolates are faster growing than
289 the D isolates, but the singleton cultures (Fig S2, S3) showed that under the conditions used this
290 was not the case. Both C isolates grew to lower OD values than any of the D isolates, and C1
291 (NR001) was also negatively affected by the starting density when grown alone (Fig S2). All
292 seven D isolates, however, were fairly consistent when they were grown alone and were not
293 affected appreciably by the lowering of initial population density (Fig S3). It should be noted that

294 we used OD₅₉₅ of the entire well to measure growth and all isolates grew primarily in biofilm
295 (Fig S2f, Fig S3f) and so we cannot rule out the possibility that the higher OD₅₉₅ of the seven D
296 isolates can be partially attributed to greater biofilm biomass.

297 The relatively poor growth of C1 likely accounts for what was observed in co-cultures
298 since given increasingly more room to grow, the faster grower will have more opportunity to
299 gain in proportional abundance. When the D isolates were co-cultured with C2 with its greater
300 growth rate, the outcomes were markedly different and, in most cases, change of proportion
301 values for D isolates decreased with decreasing initial population density. Exceptions to this
302 pattern were isolates D2 and D7 (Fig 3b, 4b & Fig 3g, 4g) that showed the same results
303 (decreasing or increasing change in proportion values, respectively) when co-cultured with either
304 C isolate, demonstrating that growth rate alone does not determine the effects of population
305 density on co-culture outcome.

306 Differences of growth while competing for resources can also be affected by spatial
307 organization of the community [23]. Since all the competing species used in this experiment
308 grow almost exclusively as biofilms in the culture conditions used in our study (Fig S2f and Fig
309 S3f), it is probable that the success of each isolate was also influenced by competition for
310 gaining a foothold in biofilms [24].

311 In this study, the effect of initial population density on competing isolates were
312 conducted in a static culture system, which cannot recapitulate the dynamics of the vaginal
313 microbiome and does not include other members of the vaginal microbiota [6, 25], making it an
314 inadequate model for other mechanisms that may influence the maintenance of rare species.
315 Niche capacity is one such factor that may be important *in vivo* [10, 17, 26]. While one species is
316 the best competitor in its own niche, it may not fare well when invading a neighboring niche. As

317 a result, the numerical abundance of that species is limited to the capacity of its niche. We have
318 shown previously studies that the rare *Gardnerella* species (subgroup D) have minimal overlap
319 with the other *Gardnerella* spp. and are probably occupying a different niche in the vagina [8].
320 As a result, regardless of its competitive ability, if the capacity of subgroup D's niche is smaller
321 than one of the more common but less competitive subgroups, its abundance will be limited [9,
322 10, 26].

323 It would be naïve to imagine that one ecological mechanism alone can seal the fate of any
324 species in an ecosystem [1, 10]. Taken together, our current study shows that the abundance of
325 species in a mixed *Gardnerella* community can be affected by changing population density, but
326 also highlights the complexity of interacting factors and mechanisms at play. Further advances in
327 our understanding of vaginal microbial community dynamics will be possible with improved
328 model systems for longer-term or continuous culture of consortia in an easily manipulated
329 environment that also allow sufficient replication for robust experimental design.

330

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334

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339 **Competing interests**

340 None declared.

341 **Authors' contributions**

342 Conceived and designed the study: Salahuddin Khan and Janet E. Hill. Performed the
343 experiments: Salahuddin Khan. Analysed the data: Salahuddin Khan, Janet E. Hill. Wrote and
344 revised the manuscript: Salahuddin Khan, Janet E. Hill.

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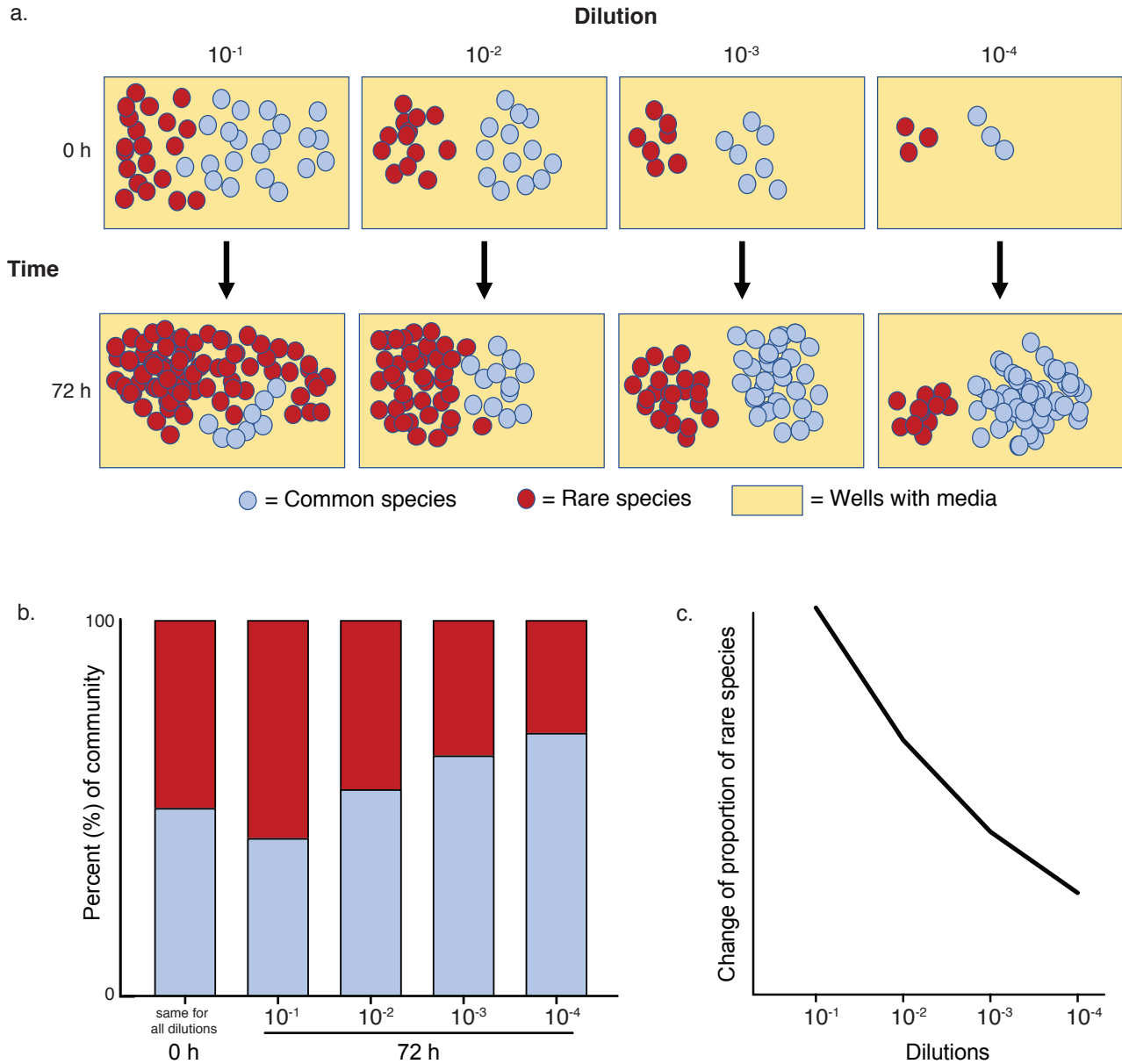
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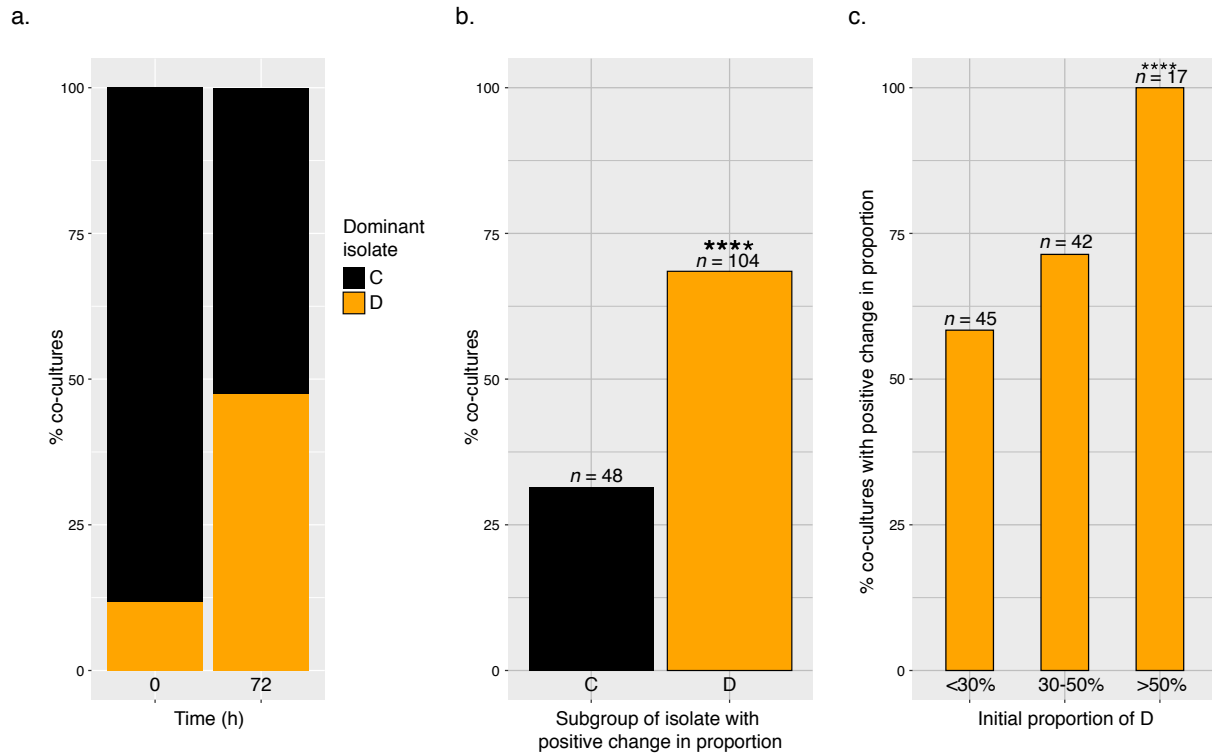
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420 **Fig 1** Effect of density on negative frequency-dependent selection. (a) If a common and a rare
 421 species are mixed at equal proportion at varying densities and grown for a fixed period of time,
 422 the selective advantage of the rare species will decrease with lower initial population densities.

423 (b) The proportional abundance outcomes of the experiment shown in (a). (c) Using the initial
 424 and final proportional abundances of each isolate at varying densities, change of proportion is
 425 calculated. The change of proportion value of a species subject to density-dependent negative
 426 frequency-dependent selection will decrease with decreasing initial population density.

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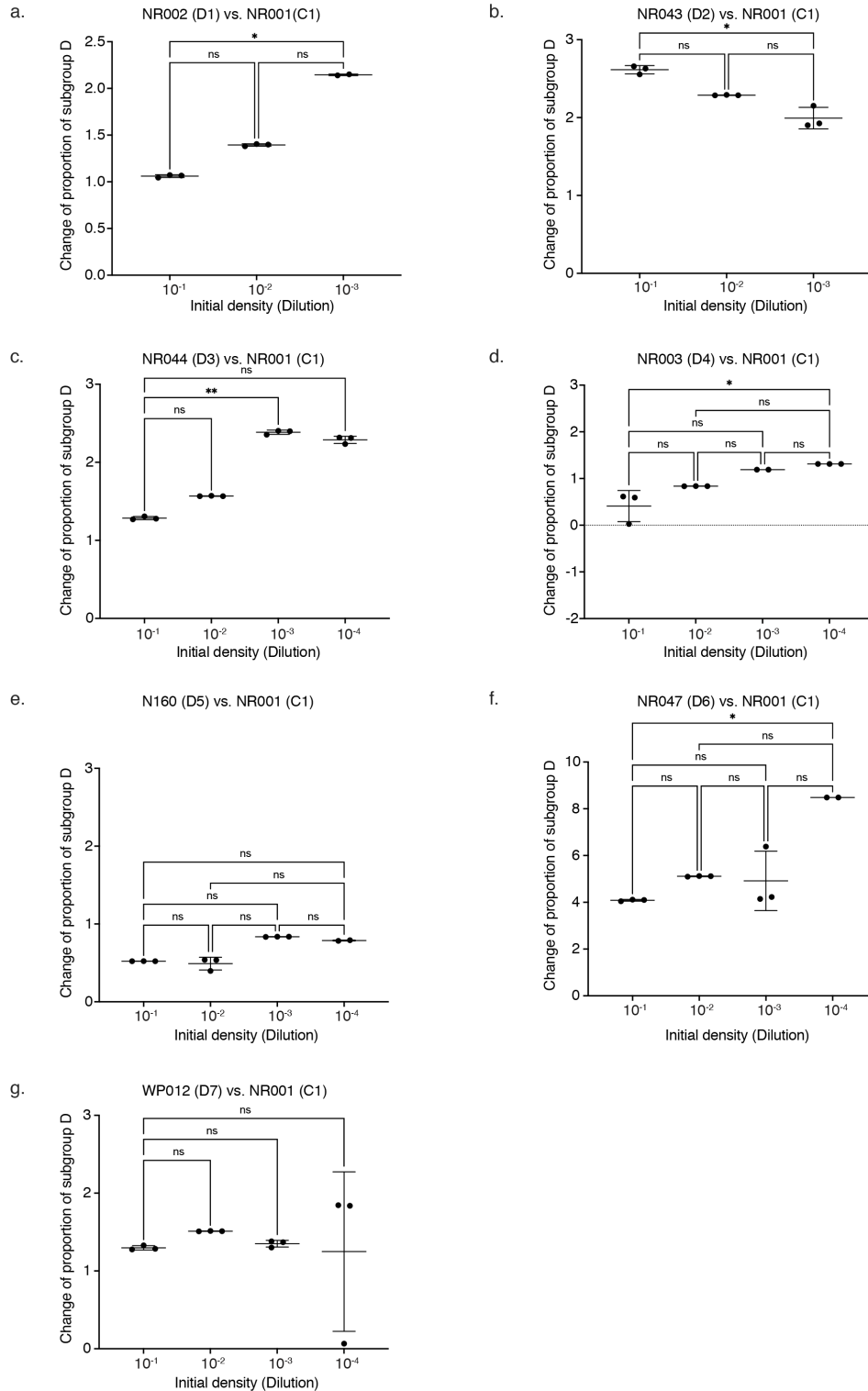
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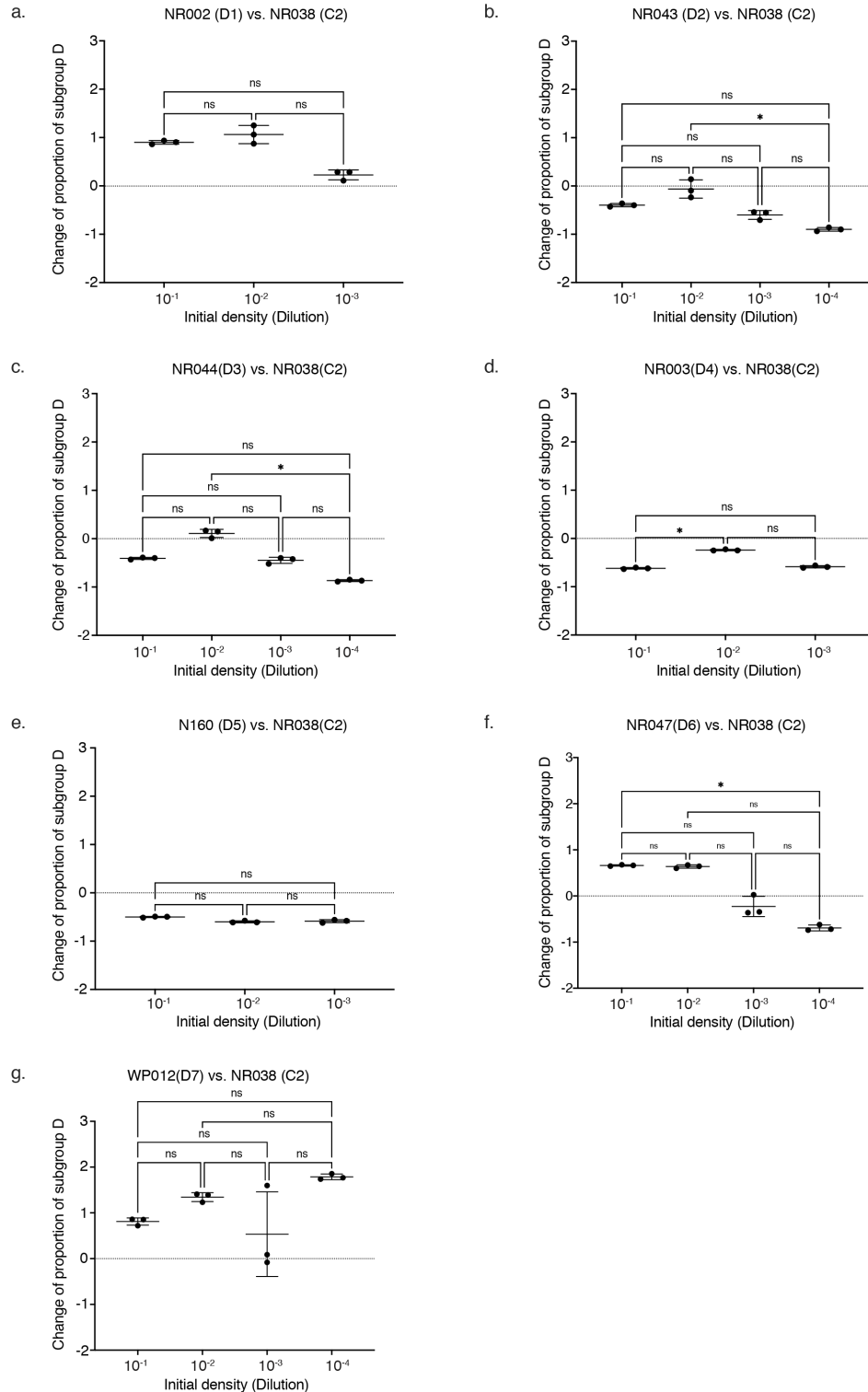
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Fig 2 Overall changes in proportion for co-cultures regardless of initial density (a) At 0h most co-cultures were dominated (>50% of sequence reads) by subgroup C, however, subgroup D was dominant in almost half of the 72h co-cultures. (b) Proportion of co-cultures in which C or D had a positive change in proportions. (c) Percent of co-cultures where D increased in proportion when initial proportional abundance was low (<0.3), medium (0.3-0.5) or high (>0.5). Significant effects on change of proportions at varying densities are denoted by asterisks (**** = <math><0.0001</math>)

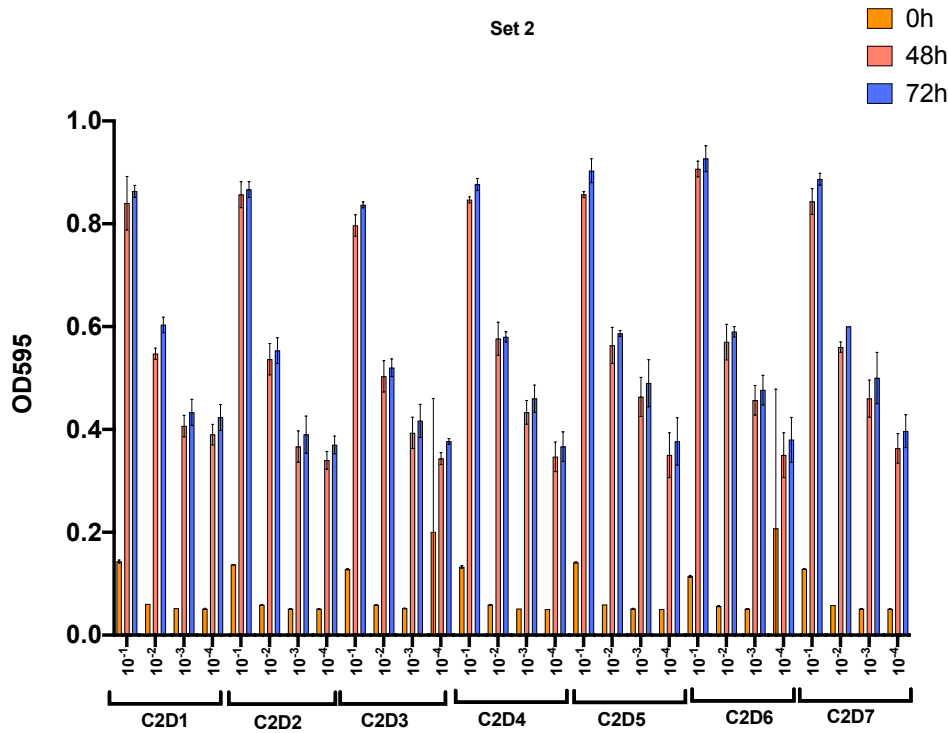
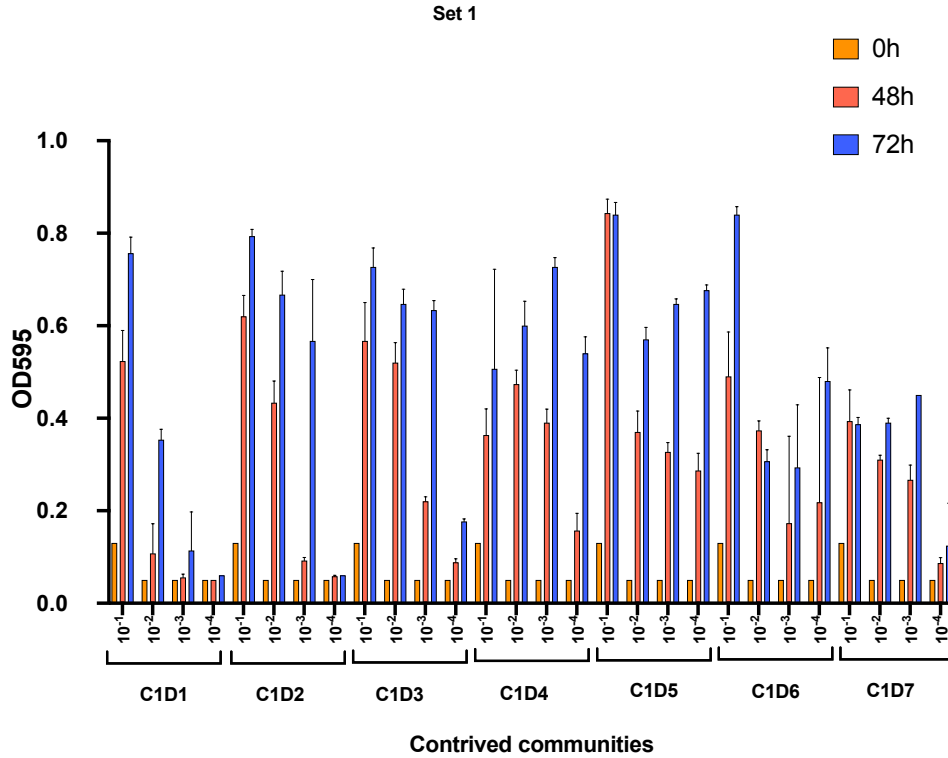


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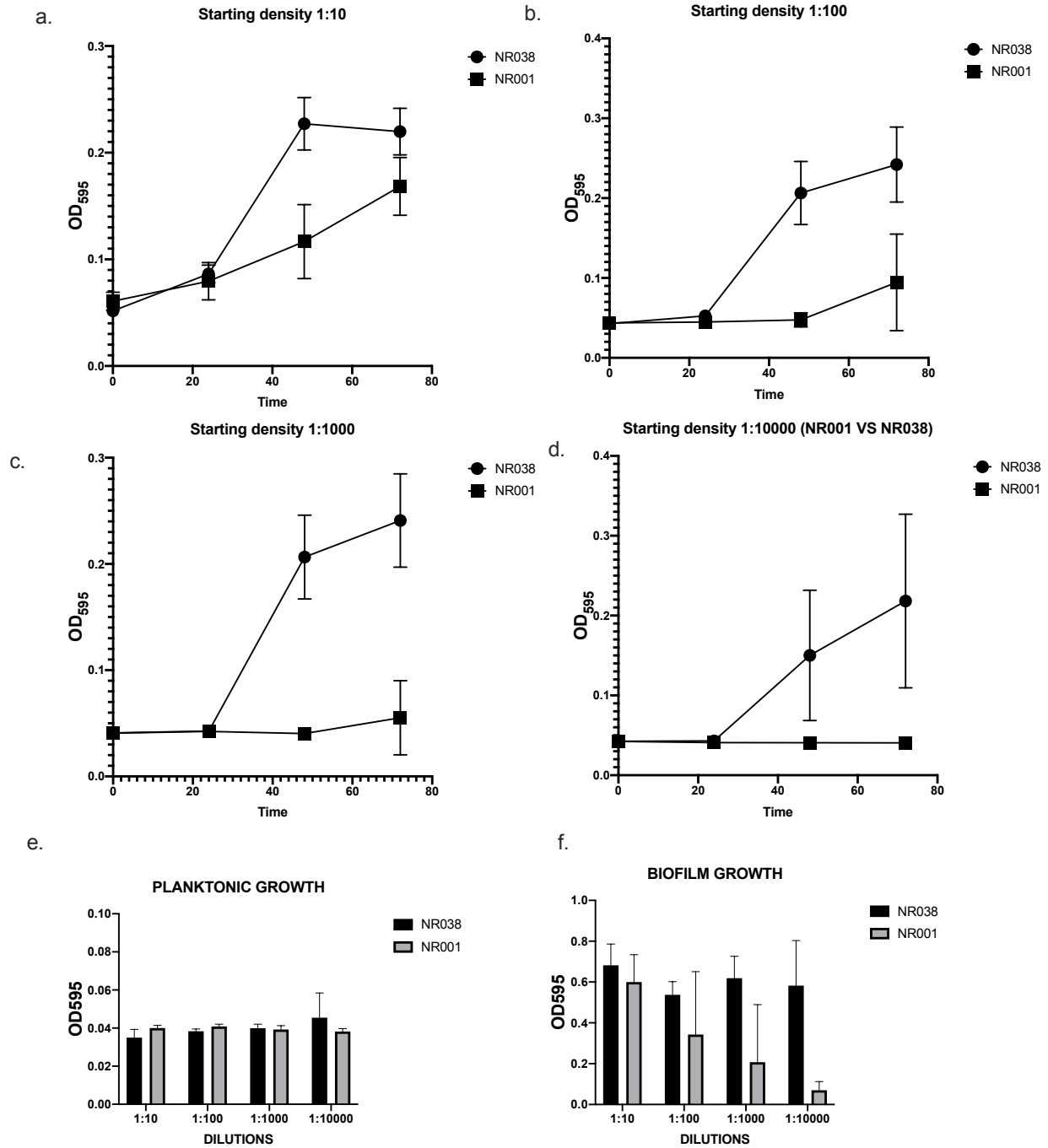
Fig 3 Change in proportion of D1-D7 when co-cultured with C1 at a range of dilutions. Experimental triplicates are plotted with the bars indicating mean with standard deviations. Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn's multiple comparison was performed to test if the differences of change of proportion at different densities are significant or not. Significant effects on change of proportions at varying densities are denoted by asterisks (* = <0.05, ** = <0.01, *** = <0.001).



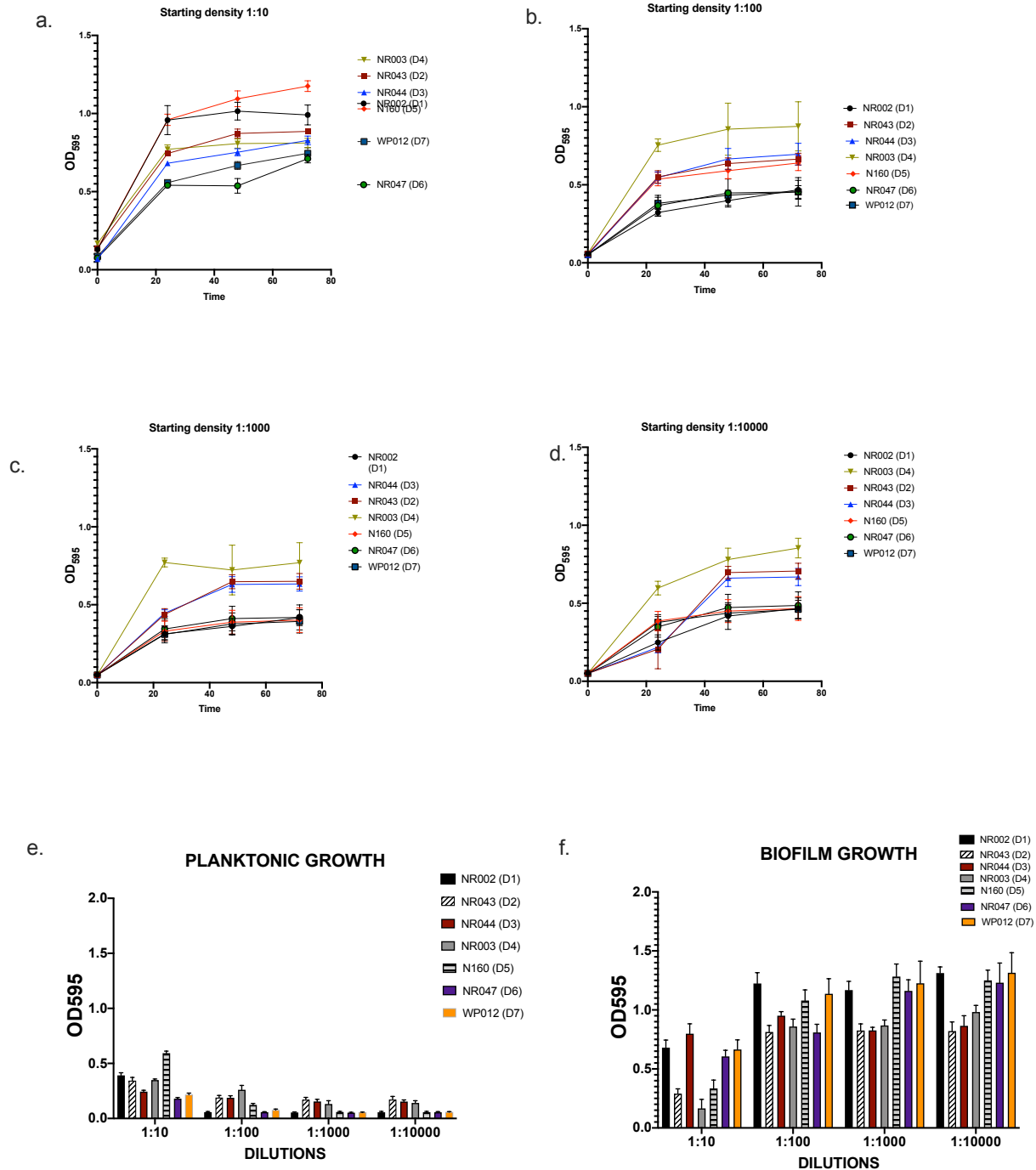
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 446 **Fig 4** Change in proportion of D1-D7 when co-cultured with C2 at a range of dilutions.
 447 Experimental triplicates are plotted with the bars indicating mean with standard deviations.
 448 Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn's multiple comparison was performed to test if the differences of
 449 change of proportion at different densities are significant or not. Significant effects on change of
 450 proportions at varying densities are denoted by asterisks (* = <0.05, ** = <0.01, *** = <0.001).



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452 **Fig S1** Growth of contrived *Gardnerella* communities at different starting densities based on
453 optical density at 595nm. Values at 48 and 72 h are average of triplicate readings, error bars
454 represent standard deviations of replicates.



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456 **Fig S2** Growth curves of subgroup C isolates NR001 (C1) and NR038 (C2). Subgroup C isolates
457 differ in their growth rate at varying starting density (a-d). Planktonic and biofilm growth of the
458 two isolates after 72h (e, f).
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Fig S3 Growth curves of subgroup D isolates. The growth rate of subgroup D is fairly consistent at varying population densities (a-d). All subgroup D isolates grew exclusively as biofilms (e-f).