

1 **Negative frequency-dependent selection maintains coexisting genotypes during fluctuating selection**

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3 **Running title:** Coexistence during fluctuating selection

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19 **Abstract:**

20 Natural environments are rarely static; rather selection can fluctuate on time scales ranging from
21 hours to centuries. However, it is unclear how adaptation to fluctuating environments differs from
22 adaptation to constant environments at the genetic level. For bacteria, one key axis of environmental
23 variation is selection for planktonic or biofilm modes of growth. We conducted an evolution experiment
24 with *Burkholderia cenocepacia*, comparing the evolutionary dynamics of populations evolving under
25 constant selection for either biofilm formation or planktonic growth with populations in which selection
26 fluctuated between the two environments on a weekly basis. Populations evolved in the fluctuating
27 environment shared many of the same genetic targets of selection as those evolved in constant biofilm
28 selection, but were genetically distinct from the constant planktonic populations. In the fluctuating
29 environment, mutations in the biofilm-regulating genes *wspA* and *rpfR* rose to high frequency in all
30 replicate populations. A mutation in *wspA* first rose rapidly and nearly fixed during the initial biofilm
31 phase but was subsequently displaced by a collection of *rpfR* mutants upon the shift to the planktonic
32 phase. The *wspA* and *rpfR* genotypes coexisted via negative frequency-dependent selection around an
33 equilibrium frequency that shifted between the environments. The maintenance of coexisting genotypes in
34 the fluctuating environment was unexpected. Under temporally fluctuating environments coexistence of
35 two genotypes is only predicted under a narrow range of conditions, but the frequency-dependent
36 interactions we observed provide a mechanism that can increase the likelihood of coexistence in
37 fluctuating environments.

38

39

40 **Introduction:**

41

42 Environmental variability is ubiquitous in the natural world: from daily fluctuations, to seasonal
43 changes, to climatic variability. In contrast, evolution experiments are most commonly conducted in
44 relatively constant environments (Lenski et al. 1991; Burke et al. 2010; Lang et al. 2013). Organisms can
45 adapt to environmental variability in a number of ways, depending on the frequency and predictability of
46 changes, the joint fitness landscape across environments, and genetic constraints (Beaumont et al. 2009;
47 Kassen 2014; Botero et al. 2015). One possible outcome is selection for a single generalist genotype. In
48 this case, selection favors genotypes with higher net fitness across the range of environmental variation.
49 The evolution of generalists is often observed in experiments with temporally fluctuating environments
50 (Reboud and Bell 1997; Weaver et al. 1999; Remold et al. 2008; Vasilakis et al. 2009). Generalists may be
51 successful across environments either by acquiring mutations that are beneficial across environments, by
52 acquiring mutations that are beneficial in one environment and have minimal cost in other environments,
53 or by the evolution of phenotypic plasticity (Kassen 2014; Karve et al. 2016). Theory predicts that
54 phenotypic plasticity is favored in environments where fluctuations are predictable and occur over a
55 relatively short time span. Longer time between changes in environment instead favor repeated adaptation
56 to the current environment (Botero et al. 2015).

57 Instead of a single generalist genotype, variable environments could alternatively favor the
58 maintenance of polymorphism. In this case, multiple genotypes would be maintained in the population
59 with each genotype having a fitness advantage in some subset of environments. Selection for multiple
60 specialists under fluctuating environmental conditions is a possible mechanism for the maintenance of
61 biodiversity. However, theory and experiments suggest that the conditions under which selection favors
62 the coexistence of multiple specialists are relatively narrow. Fluctuations must be rapid enough such that
63 neither specialist is driven extinct before the environment in which they are favored returns (Rodríguez-
64 Verdugo et al. 2019). Furthermore, the productivity over time of the different specialists must be roughly

65 equal so that populations of both specialists are maintained over time (Maynard Smith and Hoekstra 1980;
66 Van Tienderen 1997).

67 The study of factors that promote the origin and maintenance of genetic variation despite strong
68 selection represents an active area of research (Gloss et al. 2016; Huang et al. 2016; Edwards et al. 2018).
69 One important question is how the period of environmental variation influences genetic polymorphism.
70 For example, many evolution experiments are conducted by batch transfer wherein a small proportion of
71 organisms are transferred to fresh growth media at regular intervals. Although conditions remain constant
72 *between* growth cycles, many aspects of the environment including nutrient availability and population
73 density can differ dramatically *during* a growth cycle. These within-day fluctuations can lead to the
74 evolution of multiple coexisting genotypes, often via evolution of a genotype that specializes to consume
75 metabolic by-products (Rozen and Lenski 2000; Kinnersley et al. 2014; Turner et al. 2015). Coexisting
76 resistant and vulnerable genotypes also can emerge in predator-prey experiments where predator
77 frequency cycles over time (Bohannan et al. 2002; Becks et al. 2010). A number of experiments have
78 demonstrated coexistence between different pre-existing species in fluctuating environments (Legan et al.
79 1987; Brzezinski and Nelson 1988; Rodríguez-Verdugo et al. 2019). Outside of the evolution of cross-
80 feeding, we are not aware of the *de novo* evolution of multiple co-existing genotypes from an experiment
81 in which a single ancestral genotype was propagated under temporally fluctuating conditions. Indeed, even
82 in an experiment where spatial variation in light availability selected for the evolution of coexisting
83 genotypes, coexistence did not emerge when the environments varied temporally rather than spatially
84 (Reboud and Bell 1997). That experiment confirmed theoretical expectations that temporal variation is
85 less likely to promote coexistence than spatial variation (Kassen 2002).

86 Bacteria are useful organisms for studying the evolutionary response to fluctuating environments
87 due to their small size, rapid reproduction, and the ability to revive frozen samples (Lenski et al. 1991). In
88 this study, we focus on a key type of temporal variation in lifestyle for bacteria: surface-attached biofilm
89 growth versus free-living planktonic growth. Approximately 80% of bacteria on Earth's surface are found

90 in biofilms (Flemming and Wuertz 2019), but planktonic growth is an important means of dispersal and
91 allows for faster growth rates under favorable conditions. For example, during infection of the human gut,
92 *Vibrio cholerae* transitions from a gut-attached biofilm to planktonic growth when dispersing via induced
93 diarrhea and then back to biofilm growth upon attachment to zooplankton in water bodies (Hall-Stoodley
94 and Stoodley 2005). Bacteria have evolved a variety of regulatory mechanisms to facilitate the switch
95 between biofilm and planktonic modes of growth. However, growth in a constant environment may favor
96 mutations that inactivate these regulatory mechanisms, resulting in organisms which are specialized for a
97 particular mode of growth (Mann and Wozniak 2012; O'Rourke et al. 2015).

98 In this study, we report the genetic patterns of adaptation by the bacterium *Burkholderia*
99 *cenocepacia* to environments that impose fluctuating selection for biofilm and planktonic modes of
100 growth. *B. cenocepacia* is a Gram-negative bacterium typically found in agricultural soil and also an
101 opportunistic pathogen that causes chronic pulmonary infections in individuals with the inherited disorder
102 cystic fibrosis (Drevinek and Mahenthiralingam 2010). Replicate populations were propagated under one
103 of three different regimes: constant biofilm, constant planktonic, or fluctuating biofilm/planktonic at
104 weekly (~47-53 generation) intervals. We determined the identity and frequency over time of mutations in
105 the populations via periodic whole-population, whole-genome sequencing. These data enabled us to
106 address two main questions: 1. Does adaptation to fluctuating conditions occur via the evolution of one
107 ecological generalist that persisted throughout the experiments, or via multiple ecological specialists that
108 are favored during each phase of selection? 2. Does adaptation to fluctuating selection proceed by
109 mutations in a different set of genes than those selected in constant environments?

110

111 **Methods:**

112

113 *Evolution experiment*

114 We founded eight populations from a clone of *B. cenocepacia* strain HI2424, originally isolated
115 from an onion field as an environmental isolate of the PHDC strain type that has been recovered from
116 cystic fibrosis patients worldwide (LiPuma et al. 2002). The populations evolved for 28 days with daily
117 transfer in M9 minimal media with galactose (GMM, 0.37 mM CaCl₂, 8.7 mM MgSO₄, 42.2 mM
118 Na₂HPO₄, 22 mM KH₂PO₄, 21.7 mM NaCl, 18.7 mM NH₄Cl, and 145 mM galactose). Populations were
119 founded from an isolated colony grown overnight in 5 mL tryptic soy broth. Four populations were
120 propagated under constant biofilm selection (Poltak and Cooper 2011, Figure 1A). Concurrently, four
121 other populations evolved under a fluctuating environment regime consisting of seven days of biofilm
122 propagation alternating with seven days of planktonic propagation (Figure 1B and 1C). During planktonic
123 selection, 50 µL of culture was transferred to 5 mL of fresh media (6.67 generations/day). During biofilm
124 selection, a colonized polystyrene bead was transferred to 5 mL fresh media with two sterile beads (~7.5
125 generations/day, Traverse et al. 2013). Before transferring, the bead was rinsed in 1 mL of phosphate
126 buffered saline (PBS), a modification to our previously published protocol that removes residual
127 planktonic bacteria and was predicted to strengthen selection for attachment. Following transfer to a new
128 tube, this regime selects for bacteria that disperse from the transferred bead and attach to the new beads.
129 Populations were incubated for 24 hours at 37 °C in a roller drum rotating at 30 rpm.

130 In the fluctuating environment, we collected population samples at days 1, 4, and 7 of each phase.
131 In the constant biofilm environment, we collected population samples on days 1, 4, 7, 14, 21 and 28.
132 Genomic sequencing revealed that the day 28 samples for two of these populations were contaminated so
133 these samples were excluded from analysis. To collect biofilm population samples, one bead was rinsed in
134 PBS, then transferred to a cryovial containing 1 mL GMM and 100 µL DMSO. To remove the bacteria
135 from the bead, vials were vortexed before freezing at -80 °C. For planktonic samples, we transferred 50
136 µL of liquid culture to a cryovial containing 1 mL GMM and 100 µL DMSO and vortexed to mix.

137 Based on the results from the initial experiment, we additionally propagated four populations,
138 founded by the same ancestor, under constant planktonic conditions for 11 days. We chose to evolve these

139 populations for 11 days and compare their selected mutations with those that arose to high frequency by
140 day 11 in the fluctuating environment. Planktonic selection was maintained in the same manner as
141 described above for the planktonic phase of the fluctuating environment (Figure 1B). Evolution of the
142 constant planktonic populations was performed in a different laboratory. To account for differences in
143 trace metals in the water supply of the two labs, the following elements were added to the GMM media for
144 these experiments: 40 µg/L Ca, 0.3 µg/L Mn, 11 µg/L K, 25 µg/L Na, 50 µg/L Zn, 0.044 µg/L Co, 0.58
145 µg/L Cu.

146

147 *Genome sequencing*

148 Populations from all time points sampled were sequenced. For sequencing, populations were
149 revived from 50 µL of frozen culture and grown under the same conditions as the evolution experiment.
150 For biofilm samples, bacteria were removed from beads by vortexing in PBS prior to DNA extraction
151 using the Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). For planktonic samples,
152 DNA was extracted using the same kit with bacteria from liquid culture. All samples were sequenced to at
153 least 80-fold average coverage on either an Illumina HiSeq 2500 (University of New Hampshire Hubbard
154 Center for Genome Studies) or an Illumina NextSeq 500 (University of Pittsburgh Microbial Genome
155 Sequencing Center, University of Pittsburgh). Samples were trimmed using Trimmomatic (version 0.36,
156 Bolger et al. 2014) and evolved mutations were identified by comparison with the ancestral *B.*
157 *cenocepacia* HI2424 (GCF 000203955.1) using Breseq (version 0.28, Deatherage and Barrick 2014) with
158 the default settings in the polymorphism mode. The threshold for detection of mutations was 0.05. We
159 manually curated the mutations to remove false positives due to misaligned reads. We report only genes in
160 which at least one mutation rose to 0.10 frequency or higher in at least one population sample.

161

162 *Fitness Assays*

163 Fitness effects of evolved *wspA* F463L and *rpfR* D104G mutations were determined from clones
164 containing representative alleles isolated from fluctuating environment populations. We focused on these
165 two mutations because they were present at high frequency in many of our evolved populations. Whole
166 genome sequencing confirmed the otherwise isogenic nature of the clones.

167 Fitness of *wspA* and *rpfR* mutants compared to the ancestor and one another was measured in both
168 planktonic and biofilm conditions. Strains were revived from freezer stocks in 5 ml tryptic soy broth.
169 After overnight growth, 50 μ l of culture was transferred to 5 ml GMM to acclimate the strains to the
170 competition media. After acclimation, planktonic competitions were started by inoculating 5 ml GMM
171 with 25 μ l of each competitor. Biofilm competitions were started in an identical manner, with the
172 exception that 2 polystyrene beads were added at the time of inoculation. After 24 h, we transferred 50 μ l
173 culture to new GMM for planktonic competitions, or one bead to new GMM containing two sterile
174 marked beads for biofilm competitions. This experimental setup closely replicated evolution conditions.
175 Samples were collected from the competitions at day 0, 1, and 2, diluted in PBS, and plated on tryptic soy
176 agar. For biofilm competitions, bacteria were harvested from a single bead for enumeration. To compare
177 fitness between the *wspA* and *rpfR* mutants and the ancestor, we used a fitness-neutral, *lac*⁺ marked
178 version of the ancestor (Poltak and Cooper 2011) and plated on tryptic soy agar supplemented with X-gal
179 to differentiate between the *lac*⁺ and *lac*⁻ competitors. In competitions between the *wspA* and *rpfR* mutants,
180 genotypes were differentiated based on their distinctive colony morphologies (small and wrinkly vs. large
181 and smooth).

182 Fitness was calculated as selection rate per day:

$$183 \quad r = \frac{\ln A_{d=0}/A_{d=2} - \ln B_{d=0}/B_{d=2}}{2}$$

184 where *A* and *B* represent the densities of the two competitors and *d* indicates the timepoint. A selection
185 rate of zero indicates that the two competitors have equal fitness. A positive selection rate indicates that
186 competitor A is more fit, while a negative selection rate indicates that competitor B is more fit.

187 To measure frequency-dependent interactions between the *wspA* and *rpfR* mutants, we initiated
188 competitions at a range of starting frequencies (approximately 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7, 0.9) by altering the
189 volume of each competitor while maintaining total population size. We conducted these frequency-
190 dependence competitions between the *wspA* and *rpfR* mutants in both biofilm and planktonic conditions.

191 In the constant planktonic environments, mutations in *rpoC* evolved in three of four populations.
192 From one of these populations, we isolated a clone that contained only a *rpoC* mutation (T672R) and
193 competed this isogenic mutant against a *lac*⁺-marked ancestor. In parallel, we assayed the fitness of two
194 isogenic *rpfR* mutants (D104G and Y355D) against the *lac*⁺-marked ancestor. The *rpfR* Y355D mutation
195 has evolved independently in multiple experiments (Traverse et al. 2013; Turner et al. 2018) and was
196 included here as a “high fitness” *rpfR* allele. Each competition was founded with equal starting ratios of
197 each strain and propagated planktonically.

198

199 *Growth curves and pH effects*

200 We measured growth rate and pH tolerance to better understand the phenotypic differences
201 between the ancestral, *rpfR* D104G and *wspA* F463L genotypes that might underlie frequency dependence
202 between the *rpfR* and *wspA* mutants. We measured growth rate in 3% GMM in a 96-well plate on a
203 SpectraMax plate reader (Molecular Devices, San Jose, CA). Five replicates of each strain were grown at
204 37° C for 24 hours, with shaking and measurement of OD₆₀₀ every 10 minutes. Because growth in 3%
205 GMM lowers the pH of the media to 4.1 after 24 hours, we also measured the survival of these strains in
206 PBS at pH 4.1 and 7.0. We plated five replicate populations of each genotype at each pH on tryptic soy
207 agar to measure the population size at 24 hours.

208

209 **Results:**

210 An evolution experiment with an environmental isolate of *B. cenocepacia* was conducted for 28
211 days and analyzed by population-wide, whole-genomic sequencing. Four populations were propagated

212 under constant selection in a bead model of the biofilm life cycle (Poltak and Cooper 2011, Figure 1A),
213 and four other populations were propagated under fluctuating selection, with one week in the biofilm
214 model followed by one week of planktonic propagation (Figure 1B and 1C). We identified 295 mutations
215 in these eight populations, of which 219 were nonsynonymous and 20 were synonymous base-pair
216 substitutions. Despite the differences in selective conditions, we observed a high degree of parallel
217 evolution at the gene level both within and between populations in both regimes (Table 1). Of 70 total
218 genes with observed mutations, 16 had mutations at a detectable frequency in two or more biofilm-
219 selected and fluctuating-environment populations (Tables 1 and S1). Most notably, mutations in *rpfR* (also
220 denoted *yciR* or *pdeR* in other species), encoding a bi-functional diguanylate cyclase and
221 phosphodiesterase as well as a sensor domain, *wspA*, encoding a transmembrane surface receptor, and
222 *sucA*, encoding 2-oxoglutarate dehydrogenase (OGDH) were identified in all four fluctuating environment
223 populations as well as three or more constant biofilm populations. Mutations in these genes have also been
224 observed repeatedly in previous biofilm selection experiments with *B. cenocepacia* (Traverse et al. 2013;
225 Turner et al. 2018). The nonsynonymous mutations in *wspA* and *rpfR* increase biofilm production by
226 genetic de-repression, whereas mutations in *sucA* are metabolic adaptations (O'Rourke et al. 2015).
227 Contrary to our expectations, there was no indication that the genes in which mutations were selected
228 differed systematically between the biofilm and fluctuating environments.

229 Mutations in the biofilm-regulating genes *wspA* and *rpfR* rose to frequencies > 0.60 in all
230 fluctuating-environment populations in at least one sample. The same mutation in *wspA* (F463L) rose to
231 high frequency in all four constant biofilm populations and all four fluctuating environment populations
232 (Figure 2). Given the appearance of the same exact allele and its early rise in all eight populations, we
233 infer that the *wspA* F463L mutation was present at low frequency in the founding culture despite being
234 undetectable by whole-population genomic sequencing. The presence of a pre-existing mutation would
235 also help explain the rapid rise of *wspA* mutations to nearly 100% frequency in the populations. Several
236 *rpfR* mutations were detected in multiple populations, raising the possibility of their presence at low

237 frequency in the shared ancestral culture, though repeated independent mutations of the same *rpfR*
238 nucleotide have been observed in prior experiments (Turner et al. 2018). Other *rpfR* alleles, however, were
239 unique to individual populations and thus *de novo* mutations. The *rpfR* alleles ranged in identity from
240 missense point mutations to small and large indels (Table S1).

241 Remarkable parallelism also occurred in the evolutionary dynamics of the *wspA* and *rpfR*
242 genotypes during fluctuating selection (Figure 2). The *wspA* and *rpfR* genotypes oscillated in frequency
243 according to the environment, with *wspA* increasing during biofilm selection and *rpfR* increasing during
244 planktonic selection. In all populations, *wspA* F463L initially spread to high frequency during the biofilm
245 phase, but the shift to the planktonic phase selected for multiple *rpfR* genotypes that displaced the *wspA*
246 genotype and competed with one another by clonal interference. Following the first biofilm to planktonic
247 transition at day 7, a drastic shift in *wspA* and *rpfR* frequencies occurred in all four populations. In
248 contrast, the frequency shifts following the second biofilm-planktonic transition were more gradual in two
249 populations (Figure 2), possibly due to secondary mutations that were acquired on the *wspA* and *rpfR*
250 backgrounds.

251 In previous evolution experiments under very similar conditions (Traverse et al. 2013; Turner et
252 al. 2018), *rpfR* mutations were frequently selected in biofilm populations but rare in populations under
253 planktonic selection, in contrast to the patterns seen here. We hypothesized that *rpfR* mutants had been
254 selected during the initial biofilm phase of selection yet were outcompeted by *wspA*, and only upon
255 transfer to the planktonic environment were *rpfR* mutants enriched because of the selective disadvantage
256 of *wspA*. To better elucidate the selective advantages of *rpfR* mutants under planktonic selection, four
257 replicate populations were founded from the same ancestral clone and evolved under planktonic selection
258 for 11 days. Population sequencing failed to detect any mutations in *rpfR* above a minimum detection
259 threshold of 5% frequency. Instead, mutations in *rpoC* (encoding RNA polymerase β') were detected in
260 three of the four populations at frequencies ranging from 0.06 to 0.49. (Table 1). A clone containing only
261 a *rpoC* mutation (T762R) was isolated from a constant planktonic population. In competitions against the

262 ancestor, the *rpoC* mutation conferred a larger fitness benefit than both the evolved *rpfR* D104G and a
263 high fitness *rpfR* mutation that repeatedly evolved in previous experiments (Y355D, Fig. 3). This result
264 suggests that though *rpfR* is beneficial in planktonic conditions, its fitness effect is less than that of other
265 available mutations – such as *rpoC* – and thus it fails to rise to a detectable frequency during constant
266 planktonic selection.

267 Next, we explored the ecological basis of the observed coexistence between the *wspA* and *rpfR*
268 genotypes. Clones containing only the *wspA* (F463L) or the *rpfR* (D104G) mutation were isolated from
269 evolved fluctuating populations. From the observed evolutionary dynamics of the fluctuating environment
270 populations (Fig. 2A), we expected the *rpfR* mutant to have higher fitness in the planktonic environment
271 and the *wspA* mutant to have higher fitness in biofilms. Indeed, the ancestor was outcompeted by the *rpfR*
272 mutant in planktonic conditions and by the *wspA* mutant in biofilm conditions (Fig. 4A). The *wspA* mutant
273 exhibited a fitness tradeoff in planktonic conditions, consistent with the observed evolutionary dynamics.
274 Surprisingly, however, the *rpfR* mutant exhibited a significant fitness advantage over the ancestor in
275 biofilm conditions, to a similar extent as the *wspA* mutant. Further, when competed head-to-head in
276 biofilm conditions, the fitness of the *rpfR* mutant was indistinguishable from the *wspA* mutant. These data
277 suggest that the *rpfR* mutation provides a fitness advantage in both environments, prompting the question
278 of why *wspA* genotypes dominated the *rpfR* genotypes during the biofilm phase of the fluctuating
279 environment regime.

280 A potential explanation for mutant coexistence could involve frequency-dependent selection.
281 Whereas the original fitness assays of evolved mutants were performed by mixing strains in equal ratios,
282 we investigated whether starting ratios influenced fitness by combining mutants across a range of
283 frequencies. Negative frequency dependence – or advantage-when-rare -- is evident in competitions
284 between the *wspA* and *rpfR* mutants in both planktonic and biofilm conditions (Fig. 4B). However, the
285 equilibrium frequency – the frequency at which both strains are equally fit – shifted between

286 environments, with *rpfR* having a higher equilibrium frequency under planktonic conditions and a lower
287 equilibrium frequency under biofilm conditions.

288 A possible explanation for negative frequency dependence is ecological differentiation between
289 the strains. Under planktonic conditions, the *rpfR* D104G mutant grew more quickly and to a higher final
290 density than the ancestral genotype (Fig. S1A). In contrast, the *wspA* F463L mutant grew more slowly and
291 to a lower final density than either the ancestor or the *rpfR* mutant. However, the *wspA* mutant exhibited
292 increased survival at pH 4.1, which is the pH of GMM following 24 hours of growth and acidification of
293 the environment through metabolic by-products (Fig. S1B), whereas there was no difference in survival at
294 pH 7.0. This result suggests that broader niche breadth of the competitor with inferior growth rate may
295 maintain genotype coexistence.

296

297 **Discussion:**

298 Here we report the genetic basis of adaptation and evolutionary dynamics of replicate populations
299 of *B. cenocepacia* under fluctuating selection for biofilm and planktonic growth. Rather than favoring a
300 single genotype with the ability to succeed across both biofilm and planktonic conditions, the fluctuating
301 environment selected for two co-existing lineages, each of which had an advantage during a particular
302 phase of the experiment. In fluctuating populations, we observed repeated shifts in frequency between two
303 lineages (Fig. 2), each with a mutation in a different biofilm-regulatory gene (*wspA* and *rpfR*). When
304 competed against each other, *wspA* and *rpfR* isogenic mutants exhibited stable negative frequency-
305 dependence, such that both mutants were able to coexist in each environment (Fig. 4B). However, the
306 frequency of the stable equilibrium shifted depending on the environment. Under biofilm conditions *wspA*
307 genotypes dominated, forcing *rpfR* mutants below detection, whereas under planktonic selection
308 conditions the *rpfR* genotypes reached a higher frequency owing to the fitness cost of *wspA* in this
309 condition.

310 Frequency-dependent coexistence between the two mutants in planktonic conditions may be
311 driven in part by the acidification of the media during growth to a pH of 4.1. Despite an initial growth rate
312 advantage of the *rpfR* mutant, the *wspA* mutants exhibit greater survival in acidic conditions caused by
313 metabolic byproducts of growth in the galactose minimal medium (Fig. S1). The greater biofilm
314 production of *wsp* pathway mutants relative to *rpfR* mutants (Poltak and Cooper 2011; Traverse et al.
315 2013) may enable greater tolerance to the stress of low pH. Under biofilm conditions, *wspA* and *rpfR*
316 mutants have been shown to form distinct biofilm structures, with the *wspA* genotype attaching early,
317 tightly, and directly to the plastic bead during the biofilm phase while *rpfR* mutants tend to attach later and
318 adhere to both the plastic bead and to other adherent cells (Poltak and Cooper 2011; Ellis et al. 2015).
319 These distinctions provide physiological explanations for their frequency-dependent interactions in the
320 biofilm environment, which requires both biofilm growth and planktonic dispersal during each cycle.

321 Stable negative-frequency dependent coexistence with shifting proportions of *wspA* and *rpfR* can
322 broadly explain the dynamics observed in the evolution experiment, where *wspA* increased in frequency
323 during biofilm selection, while *rpfR* increased in frequency during planktonic selection. However, the
324 frequencies observed in the evolution experiment differed from those predicted by the competitions
325 between individual strains. Specifically, *rpfR* mutations were undetectable during biofilm selection
326 whereas the competition experiments suggested that *rpfR* should have an equilibrium frequency of more
327 than 20% in biofilm conditions. These differences could arise due to the “head start” of *wspA* mutations in
328 this experiment and later be influenced by additional adaptive mutations arising in *wspA* and *rpfR*
329 genotypes that improved lineage fitness. The evolutionary head start of the *wspA* mutations is partly due to
330 biofilm selection occurring first in our fluctuating environments. In addition, it appears likely that the
331 *wspA* mutation observed in our populations was present at a low frequency in the founder of our
332 experimental populations. This too could have contributed to an evolutionary head start for the *wspA*
333 lineage.

334 Our results suggest that coexistence between *rpfR* and *wspA* mutants is ecologically stable, with
335 the two genotypes coexisting under both biofilm and planktonic conditions. However, it is unclear if
336 coexistence would be stable over longer evolutionary time frames. In most populations, *wspA* genotypes
337 reached a higher frequency during the second week of planktonic selection than the first, leading us to
338 speculate whether a single genotype would eventually fix given enough time. The increased frequency of
339 *wspA* lineages may be explained by secondary mutations that compensated fitness under planktonic
340 conditions. Furthermore, epistatic effects of the initial beneficial mutations could increase or decrease
341 access to subsequent beneficial mutations, producing a scenario in which *wspA* mutants adapt more
342 rapidly to planktonic conditions than *rpfR* mutants adapt to biofilm conditions. Ultimately, however, the
343 success of the *wspA* genotypes may simply result from its presence in the standing variation of the
344 ancestral culture and its dominance in the early phase of the fluctuating regime, and hence its earlier
345 access to secondary, beneficial mutations.

346 Surprisingly, although the frequencies of mutations within populations differed, there was no clear
347 difference between fluctuating and constant biofilm environments in the identity of the genes in which
348 mutations were selected. This could be simply explained by the requirement that bacteria disperse and
349 attach to the new plastic bead in our biofilm model, essentially producing daily periodicity between
350 biofilm and planktonic growth. Somewhat related, an inconsistency in the strength of selection imposed
351 during each phase of the fluctuating environment may partially explain why the mutational spectra of the
352 constant biofilm and fluctuating environment populations appear indistinguishable. Assuming stringent
353 biofilm selection, a lineage must acquire a mutation that improves fitness in the biofilm phase in order to
354 reach the subsequent planktonic phase, at which point available mutations that also afford an advantage in
355 planktonic condition would begin to dominate. This appears to be the case for the *rpfR* mutations that
356 enable their lineages to survive the stringent biofilm selection and then thrive upon the shift to the milder
357 planktonic selection.

358 In contrast, no mutations were observed in common between the fluctuating populations and the
359 11-day constant planktonic populations. No mutations in *rpfR* were observed in any of the planktonic
360 populations, even though *rpfR* mutations rose to high frequencies by day 11 in all four fluctuating
361 environment populations. Although *rpfR* mutants are more fit than the ancestor in planktonic conditions
362 (Fig. 4), they are less fit than the *rpoC* mutations that were observed in the planktonic-selected
363 populations (Fig. 3). There are multiple examples of mutations in subunits of RNA polymerase selected
364 during bacterial evolution experiments selecting for rapid growth in minimal media, which provides
365 evidence of their specific advantages in planktonic, serially-diluted culture conditions (Barrick et al. 2010;
366 Conrad et al. 2010; Rodríguez-Verdugo et al. 2014). *rpfR* mutations were also rarely observed under
367 planktonic selection in previous similar evolution experiments (Traverse et al. 2013; Turner et al. 2018).
368 These results further support the conclusion that the prevalence of *rpfR* mutations in the planktonic phase
369 of the fluctuating environment was driven by their combined fitness across both biofilm and planktonic
370 environments, rather than solely by their advantage in planktonic environments.

371 Adaptation to variable environments can occur through evolution of generalists, phenotypic
372 plasticity, or coexistence of specialist genotypes. Here, the evolution of *B. cenocepacia* under fluctuating
373 planktonic or biofilm forms of growth selected for two coexisting genotypes, each having an advantage in
374 a different phase of the experiment. In contrast, previous evolution experiments involving temporally
375 fluctuating selection selected a single lineage of generalist mutants (Reboud and Bell 1997). Furthermore,
376 theory indicates that coexistence of genotypes in temporally fluctuating environments is less likely
377 because it requires equal productivity of genotypes over time (Maynard Smith and Hoekstra 1980; Van
378 Tienderen 1997). In the current experiment, coexistence was facilitated by negative frequency-dependent
379 interactions in which both genotypes were able to stably coexist (at least over ecological timescales) in
380 both environments. The environmental shifts simply altered the expected frequencies of each genotype.
381 Our results raise the possibility that frequency-dependent interactions could promote the likelihood and
382 stability of coexisting genotypes as an outcome of adaptation to non-constant environments. Recent work

383 in microbial experimental evolution has suggested that stable frequency-dependent coexistence may be a
384 more common than previously expected (Good et al. 2017), and population-genetic surveys of bacteria
385 colonizing humans also indicate that frequency-dependent dynamics may be common (Silva et al. 2016;
386 Zhao et al. 2019). This growing evidence suggests that it would be valuable to develop theory considering
387 the effects of frequency-dependent coexistence on adaptation to variable environments, as well as greater
388 investment in studies of standing genetic diversity in populations that could be maintained by
389 environmental periodicity (Corander et al. 2017).

390

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394

395 **Data accessibility statement:** All data and R scripts will be made available on Dryad. Raw sequencing
396 reads will be submitted to NCBI SRA.

397 .

398 Author contributions: SWB and VSC designed the research. SWB conducted the original experiment and
399 CBT conducted subsequent laboratory research. CBT and VSC wrote the manuscript with input from all
400 authors.

401 **Table:**

Locus tag:	Description:	Fluctuating environment populations			Constant biofilm populations			Constant planktonic populations		
BCEN2424_RS17655	<i>rpfR</i>									
BCEN2424_RS18785	<i>wspA</i>									
BCEN2424_RS07465	2-oxoglutarate dehydrogenase E1 component									
BCEN2424_RS12130	Phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase									
BCEN2424_RS12745	Adenylate kinase									
BCEN2424_RS13815	Exporter-like protein									
BCEN2424_RS01695	<i>rpoC</i>									
BCEN2424_RS07470	Dihydroipoamide succinyltransferase									
BCEN2424_RS08045	Fimbrial protein									
BCEN2424_RS08125	Lysine/ornithine N-monooxygenase									
BCEN2424_RS03605	LysR family transcriptional regulator									
BCEN2424_RS12245	Putative threonine-phosphate decarboxylase									
BCEN2424_RS08600	RND family efflux transporter MFP subunit									
BCEN2424_RS33835	Short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase SDR									
BCEN2424_RS08080	Taurine catabolism dioxygenase <i>tauD</i> / <i>ltdA</i>									
BCEN2424_RS06740	TonB-dependent siderophore receptor									

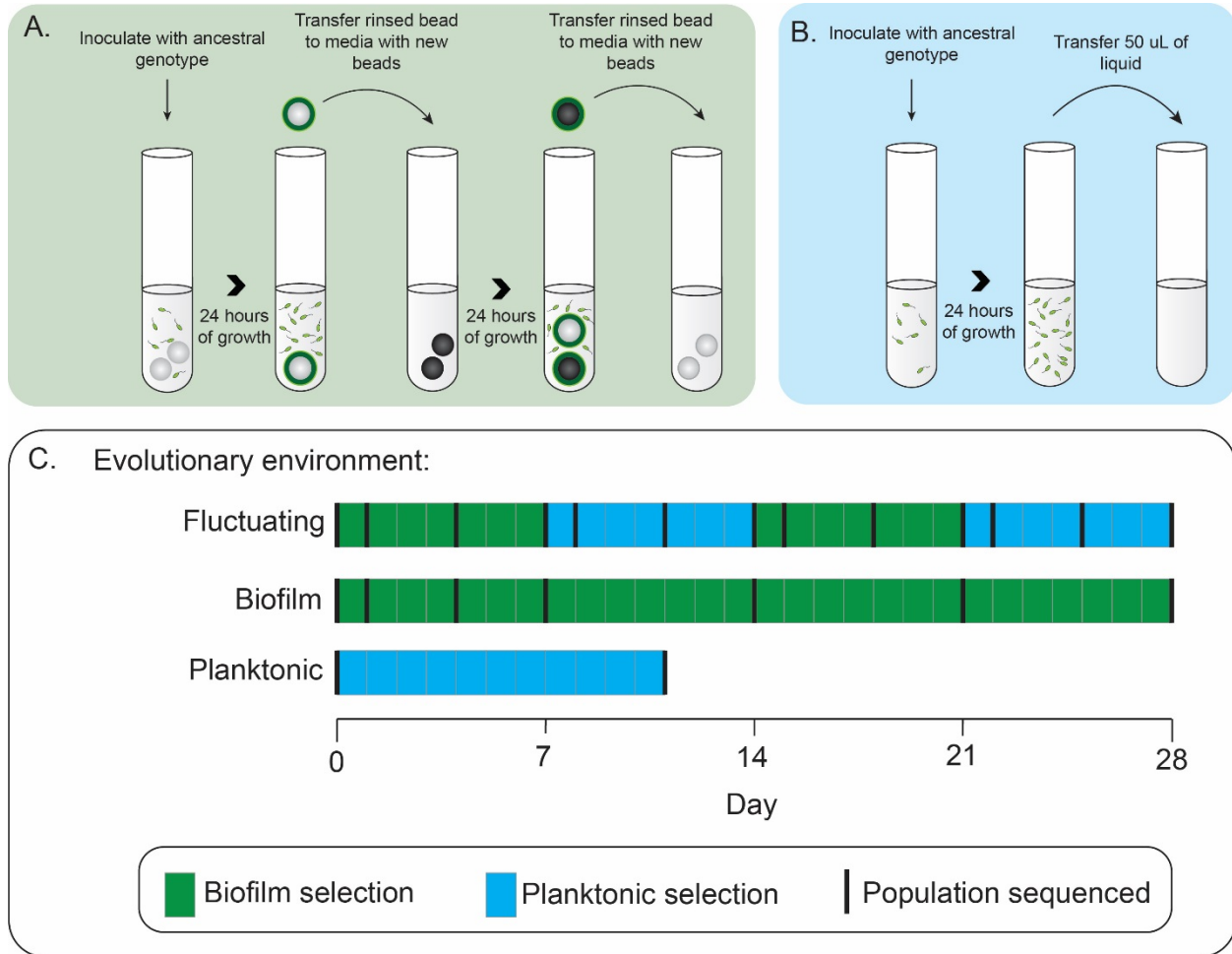
402

403 **Table 1:** Genes in which mutations were observed in two or more populations. Each column
 404 represents one replicate population. Note that constant planktonic populations evolved for only
 405 11 days and were sampled only at the final time point. A complete list of mutations that evolved
 406 in each population is given in Table S1.

407

408

409 **Figures:**

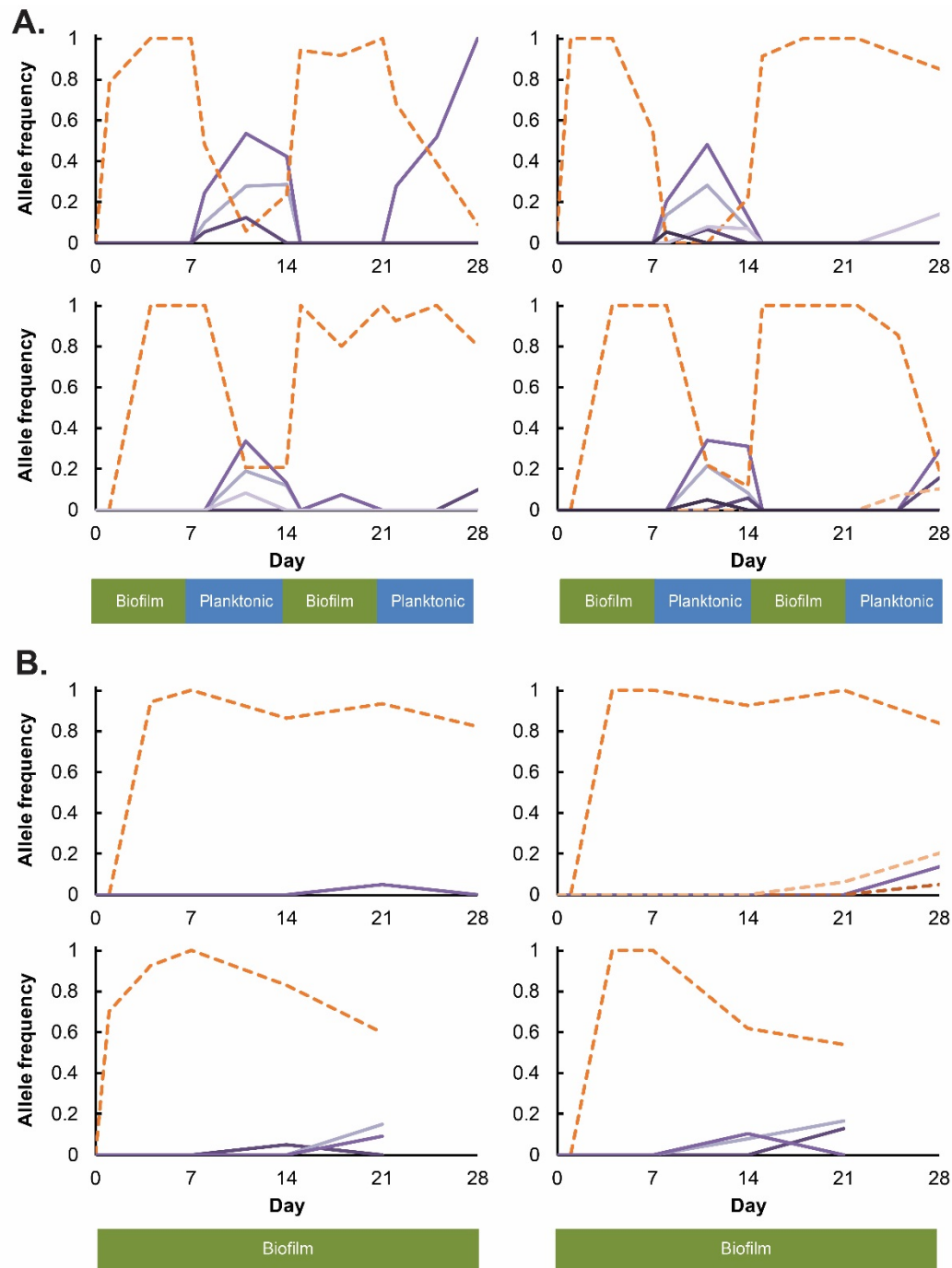


410

411 **Figure 1:** Design of evolution experiments. **A.** Under biofilm selection, a colonized bead was
412 transferred every 24 hours (diagram modified from Turner et al. 2018). **B.** Under planktonic
413 selection 50 μ L of liquid culture was transferred every 24 hours. **C.** Populations were propagated
414 in fluctuating biofilm and planktonic, constant biofilm, or constant planktonic environments and
415 sequenced at indicated time points.

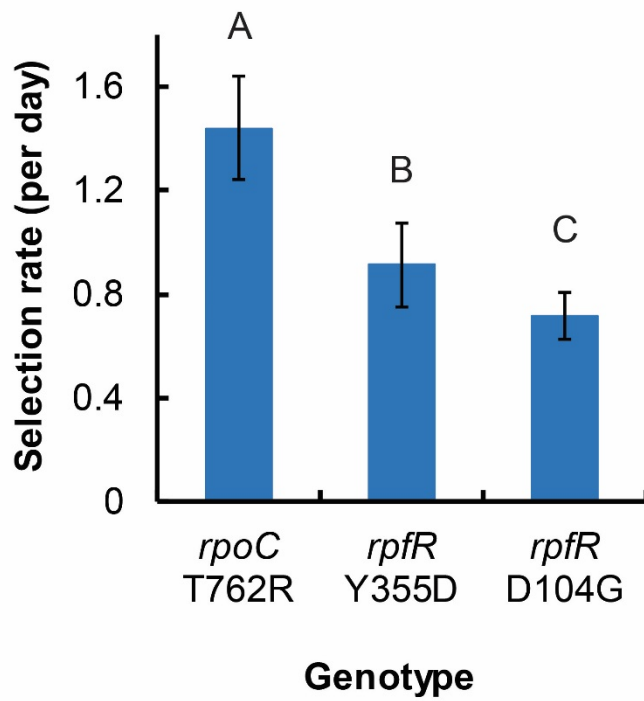
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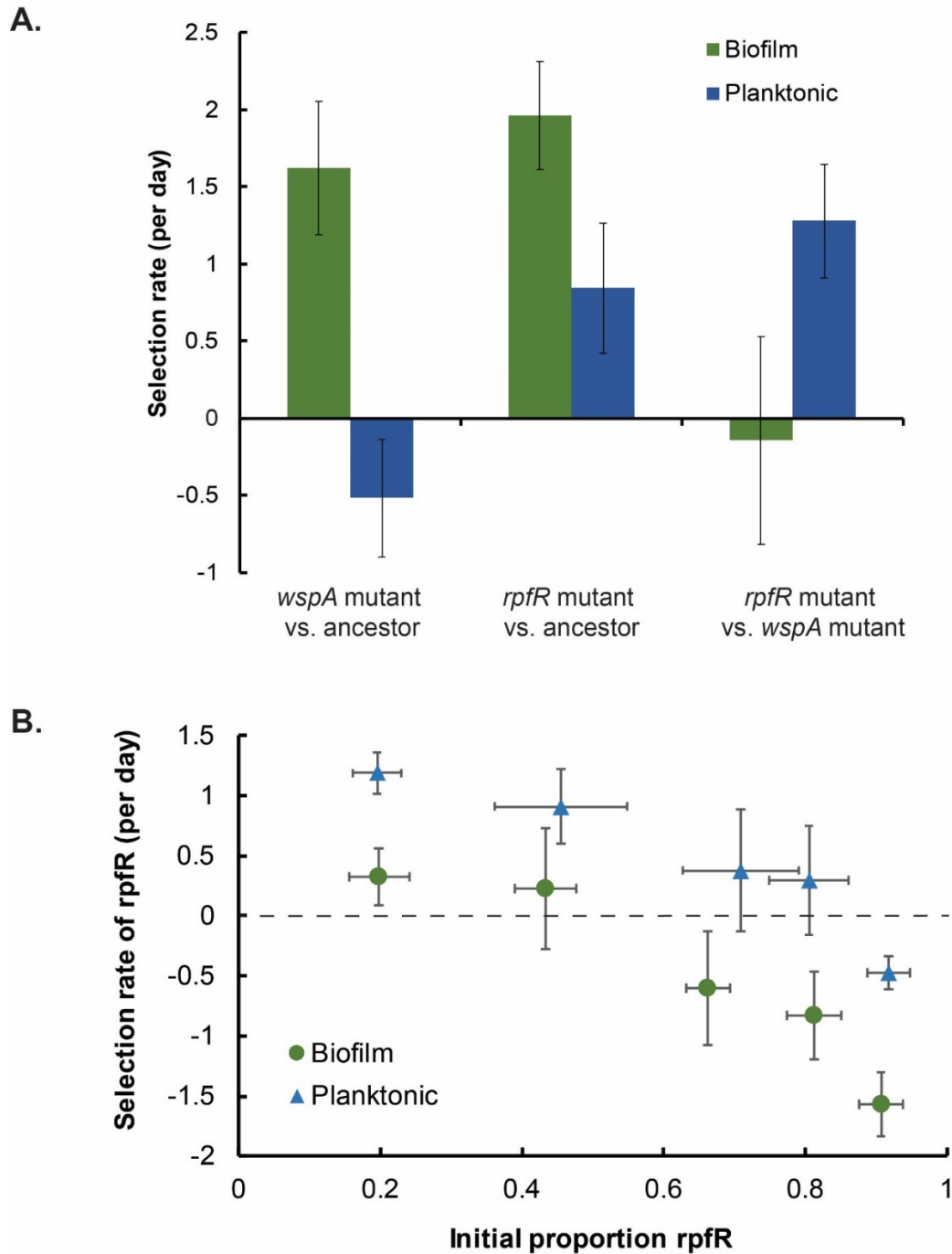
419 **Figure 2:** Evolutionary dynamics reveal the co-existence of *wspA* (dashed orange lines) and *rpfR*
420 (solid purple lines) mutant genotypes in **A.** fluctuating and **B.** constant biofilm environments.
421 Within each panel, different shades of orange and purple indicate different mutant alleles within
422 the *wspA* and *rpfR* genes.



423

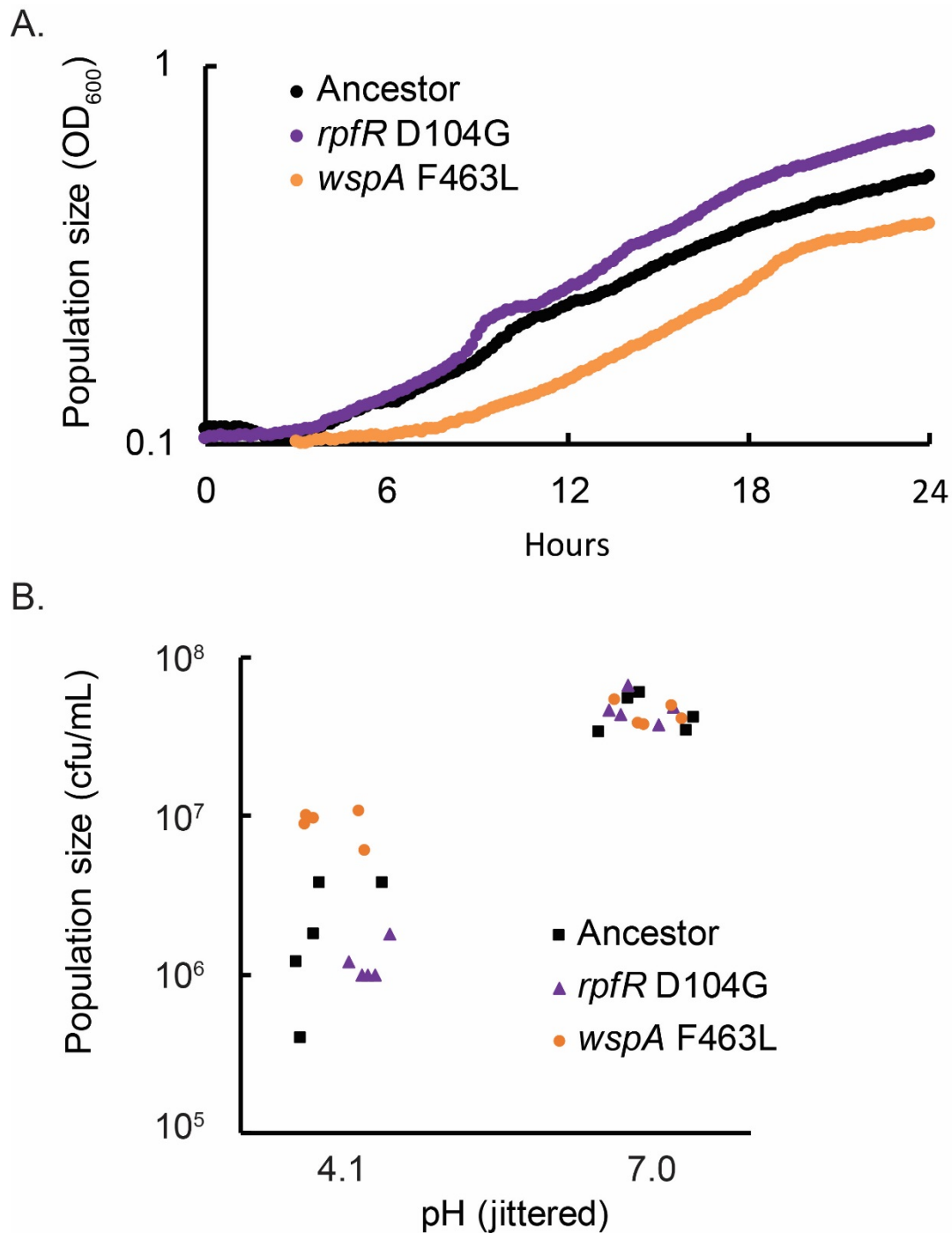
424 **Figure 3:** The planktonic fitness advantage of the *rpfR* mutants is less than that of the *rpoC*
425 T762R mutant isolated from a constant planktonic population (mean \pm 95% confidence interval,
426 ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test $F=47.8$, $p < 10^{-5}$, bars with different letters are significantly
427 different from each other).

428



429

430 **Figure 4:** The *rpfR* (D104G) and *wspA* (F463L) mutants exhibit negative frequency-dependence
431 under both biofilm (green) and planktonic (blue) conditions. **A.** Fitness (mean \pm 95% confidence
432 interval) of *wspA* F463L and *rpfR* D104G genotypes in pairwise competitions with equal starting
433 ratios. **B.** Fitness at a range of starting ratios.



434

435 **Figure S1:** Growth and survival differences between *rpfR* and *wspA* mutants. **A.** The *rpfR*
436 D104G mutant grew more quickly than the *wspA* F463L mutant in evolution media. **B.** The *wspA*
437 F463L mutant had higher survival in pH 4.1 PBS for 24 hours than the *rpfR* D104G mutant
438 (ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test $F=46.2$, $p < 10^{-5}$), while there were no differences between
439 genotypes in survival at pH 7 (ANOVA $F=0.3$, $p = 0.77$).

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