

1    **Title:**  
2    An experimental test of parasite adaptation to common vs. rare host genotypes  
3    **Running title:**  
4    Parasites on rare vs. common hosts  
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27 **Abstract**

28 In adapting to specifically infect common host genotypes, parasites impose negative frequency-  
29 dependent selection that favors rare host genotypes. This parasite-mediated advantage of rarity  
30 is key to the idea that parasites maintain genetic variation and select for outcrossing in host  
31 populations. Here, we report the results of an experimental test of parasite adaptation to  
32 common vs. rare host genotypes. We selected on the bacterial parasite *Serratia marcescens* to  
33 kill *C. elegans* hosts in uneven mixtures of host genotypes. To examine the effect of  
34 commonness itself, independent of host identity, each of four host genotypes was represented as  
35 common or rare in experimental host mixtures. After experimental selection, we evaluated a  
36 parasite line's change in virulence, the selected fitness trait, on its rare and common host  
37 genotypes. Our results were consistent with a slight advantage for rare host genotypes: on  
38 average, parasites lost virulence against rare genotypes, but not against common genotypes. The  
39 response varied substantially, however, with distinct patterns across host genotype mixtures.  
40 These findings support the potential for parasites to impose negative frequency-dependent  
41 selection, and they emphasize that the cost of being common may vary with host genotype.

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43 **Keywords:** coevolution, negative frequency-dependent selection, Red Queen hypothesis,  
44 experimental evolution, *Serratia marcescens*, *Caenorhabditis elegans*

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48 **Introduction**

49 Models of host-parasite coevolution often find, or assume, that parasites adapt to infect locally  
50 common host genotypes. It is an intuitive idea: selection to exploit frequently encountered  
51 resources should be much stronger than selection to exploit rare resources (Whitlock 1996). This  
52 process explains why parasites are thought to impose negative frequency-dependent selection:  
53 the fitness of a host genotype should decline as it becomes common, because it becomes more  
54 infected than the population mean. In contrast, parasites fare poorly against rare hosts, which  
55 should increase in frequency. Hence this targeting of common over rare host genotypes lies at  
56 the heart of major evolutionary hypotheses, including the Red Queen hypothesis and parasite-  
57 mediated maintenance of genetic diversity (Bell 1982; Haldane 1949; Hamilton 1980; Hamilton  
58 et al. 1990; Hutson and Law 1981; Jaenike 1978).

59 In strong support of this process, Chaboudez and Burdon (1995) found that, in 13 of 16  
60 populations, the most common clone of rush skeletonweed (*Chondrilla juncea*) was the only  
61 clone or one of just two clones infected by the rust fungus *Puccinia chondrillina*. Infection of  
62 the most common clone in a single population would be expected by random chance; what is  
63 remarkable is the replication of this finding across multiple populations with distinct clones.  
64 This study, however, is one of very few reported instances of frequency-dependent infection (see  
65 also Lively and Dybdahl 2000). Perhaps this dearth reflects the variety of possible  
66 manifestations of parasite adaptation in natural populations. With parasite-mediated changes in  
67 host genotype frequencies and time lags in parasite adaptation, ongoing parasite adaptation can  
68 generate different relationships between host frequency and infection or susceptibility over time  
69 (Wolinska and Spaak 2009).

70 Holding the host population constant reveals that parasites can rapidly specialize on  
71 individual host genotypes. Experimental evolution studies have clearly shown that parasites will  
72 adapt to specifically infect an individual host genotype after serial passage in homogeneous

73 populations of the host (e.g. Little et al. 2006; Nidelet and Kaltz 2007; Yourth and Schmid-  
74 Hempel 2005). There is limited evidence, however, that parasites target common host genotypes  
75 during serial passage in genetically heterogeneous host populations, like those parasites  
76 encounter in the wild. The results of Koskella and Lively (2009) are suggestive: over five  
77 generations of experimental coevolution, the trematode *Atriophallophorus winterbourni*  
78 (formerly *Microphallus* sp.: Blasco-Costa et al. 2019) evolved to specifically attack the most  
79 common clone in a diverse population of the snail *Potamopyrgus antipodarum*. The next critical  
80 step is to determine if this result is repeatable across different host genotypes: in heterogeneous  
81 host populations, parasites should evolve to attack common over rare host genotypes, regardless  
82 of the host genotypes in question.

83 Here, we used experimental evolution to compare adaptation of parasites to common and  
84 rare host genotypes in experimental host populations that varied in the identity and frequency of  
85 the common and rare host genotypes. We assembled genetically heterogeneous host populations  
86 by mixing two genotypes of the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* such that one genotype was  
87 common (90% or 75%) and one rare (10% or 25%). We repeated this across different  
88 combinations of genotypes, so four genotypes were represented as both rare and common in  
89 experimental populations. Beginning with a single genotype of the bacterial parasite *Serratia*  
90 *marcescens*, we selected for increased virulence (i.e. host mortality) against hosts in these mixed  
91 populations for 10 or 20 rounds of selection, accounting for several hundred bacterial  
92 generations. Our results suggest that parasites confer a slight advantage on rare host genotypes.

93 **Methods**

94 *Heterogeneous host populations*

95 We assembled heterogeneous host populations using four genotypes of *C. elegans*: the canonical  
96 divergent lab genotypes, N2 and CB4856, plus LTM1 and ewIR68 (Doroszuk et al. 2009;  
97 Gibson et al. 2020). The ancestral bacterial strain Sm2170 showed substantial variation in  
98 virulence against these genotypes, with mortality far higher for N2 and LTM1 than CB4856 and  
99 ewIR68 (Fig. S1) (Gibson et al. 2020; White et al. 2019). We established six host heterogeneity  
100 treatments (Fig. 1). In two treatments, N2 was common (90% or 75%) and LTM1 rare (10% or  
101 25%). Two additional treatments reversed these frequencies, with LTM common and N2 rare.  
102 The final two treatments paired CB4856 and ewIR68 at 75%:25% and 25%:75%. These  
103 experimental treatments are a subset of the treatments included in two larger experimental  
104 evolution studies (Gibson et al. 2020; White et al. 2019), which demonstrated that Sm2170 can  
105 adapt to specifically attack these host genotypes when selected in homogeneous host populations  
106 (Fig. S2). As a result, the LTM1/N2 treatments differ from the CB4856/ewIR68 treatments in  
107 the duration of experimental evolution and the number of technical replicates in mortality assays.  
108 For this study, we do not draw comparisons between treatments that differed in mixing  
109 frequency (90:10 vs. 75:25). For our purposes, these treatments served only as alternate  
110 approaches to establishing host mixtures with a rare and a common host genotype.

111 *Experimental evolution*

112 Our experimental design imposed selection for increased virulence (i.e. parasite-induced host  
113 mortality) in heterogeneous host populations by passaging those parasites that killed hosts  
114 rapidly (Fig. 1) (based on Morran et al. 2011; Morran et al. 2009). We established the ancestral  
115 parasite lineage from a single colony of Sm2170, a genotype of *S. marcescens* that is virulent to  
116 *C. elegans*. We then subjected this lineage to 10 (CB4856/ewIR68) or 20 (N2/LTM1) rounds of  
117 selection. Each round of selection, we added ~1000 (for CB4856 and ewIR68 mixtures) or ~500  
118 (for N2 and LTM1 mixtures) L4 larvae to the parasite lawn of a *Serratia* selection plate. After

119 24 hours, we selected 20-30 dead hosts from the parasite lawn and extracted their parasites. We  
120 cultured these bacteria and randomly selected 40 colony-forming units per experimental line to  
121 establish the parasite lawn for the next round of selection. The selection process was repeated by  
122 adding naive hosts to this lawn. We prevented evolution in the host lines by continually thawing  
123 stock collections archived at -80°C. Experimental selection produced 36 independent parasite  
124 lines (6 replicate lines x 6 heterogeneity treatments), which were frozen at -80°C.

125 *Mortality assays*

126 Our experimental evolution design selected for parasites that killed their hosts rapidly, so we  
127 measured the response to selection by assaying the mortality of hosts when paired with  
128 experimentally evolved parasites. Generation 10 parasite lines (for CB4856/ewIR68) and  
129 generation 20 parasite lines (for N2/LTM1) were tested against homogeneous groups of both the  
130 rare and the common host genotype with which they were evolved. The ancestral parasite  
131 population was also tested against homogeneous groups of each host genotype.

132 We constructed mortality assay plates as described for selection plates during  
133 experimental evolution (Fig. 1). A known number of hosts was added to the parasite lawn of a  
134 plate and incubated at 20°C. At 48 hours post exposure, we counted the number of surviving  
135 hosts on the plate and from this calculated the proportion of dead hosts (as in Gibson et al. 2020;  
136 Penley et al. 2017; White et al. 2019). For each of the 24 parasite lines in the N2/LTM1 pairing,  
137 ~500 hosts were added per mortality assay plate, with 8 technical replicates (four per each of two  
138 independent assays). For each of the 12 parasite lines in the CB4856/ewIR68 pairing, ~200  
139 hosts were added per mortality assay plate, with six technical replicates. Virulence of the  
140 ancestral parasite was assayed with six (CB4856/ewIR68) or twelve (N2/LTM1) technical

141 replicates. The difference in replication arose because these data were collected as part of two  
142 larger experimental evolution projects.

143 *Statistical analysis*

144 We conducted all statistical analyses in R v.3.6.0 (R Core Team 2013) and plotted data using  
145 ggplot2 (Wickham 2016). To compare adaptation of parasites to common vs. rare host  
146 genotypes, we examined the change in virulence (i.e. change in proportion of dead hosts) from  
147 the ancestral mean for each host genotype. Using the packages lme4 (Bates et al. 2015) and afex  
148 (Singmann et al. 2019), we fit a linear mixed model to the change in virulence for each mortality  
149 assay replicate. To account for the structure of the experiment, we specified random effects for  
150 mortality assay date (3 separate blocks), parasite line (1-6), and experimental treatment (six  
151 combinations of host genotypes and frequencies, Fig. 1), with line nested in treatment. The  
152 predictor variables were the host genotype assayed (N2, LTM1, ewIR68, or CB4856), the  
153 frequency of the assayed host during experimental evolution of the parasite line being tested  
154 (rare or common), and an interaction of frequency and assayed host genotype.

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159 **Results**

160 After experimental selection of parasites in uneven host mixtures, we evaluated adaptation to  
161 rare and common host genotypes by measuring change from the ancestor in the focal fitness trait,  
162 virulence. We found different patterns of virulence evolution across host mixtures. In two cases,

163 parasites lost virulence against rare host genotypes: averaged across replicate parasite lineages,  
164 parasite-induced mortality declined  $8.78 \pm 3.27\%$  (SEM) from the ancestor on rare genotype  
165 ewIR68 and  $3.86 \pm 3.85\%$  on rare genotype N2, with no change against the respective common  
166 genotypes CB4856 ( $1.00 \pm 1.70\%$ ) and LTM1 ( $1.35 \pm 1.87\%$ ) (Fig. 2A,2C). In another case,  
167 parasites gained virulence against the common host genotype: mortality increased  $4.71 \pm 1.80\%$   
168 from the ancestor on the common genotype N2, with no change against the rare genotype LTM1  
169 ( $0.36 \pm 2.62\%$ ) (Fig. 2D). In the final case, parasites lost virulence against both the rare  
170 (CB4856:  $-6.57 \pm 5.72\%$ ) and the common (ewIR68:  $-11.42 \pm 5.72\%$ ) host genotypes (Fig. 2B).

171 To test the focal hypothesis, we evaluated the effect of host frequency on virulence  
172 evolution independent of the host genotypes in question. We found that a host genotype's  
173 frequency (rare/common) during experimental selection of a parasite line was an important  
174 predictor of virulence evolution ( $F=9.547$ ,  $df=1$ ,  $p=0.002$ ) (Table S1B). Specifically, change in  
175 virulence from the ancestor was reduced on host genotypes that had been rare during selection,  
176 relative to host genotypes that had been common (coefficient:  $-0.031$ ,  $SE=0.010$ ,  $p=0.002$ )  
177 (Table S1C). In spite of the differences in virulence evolution noted above, we did not find that  
178 the effect of host genotype frequency varied significantly with the assayed host genotype  
179 (insignificant interaction:  $F=0.587$ ,  $df=3$ ,  $p=0.680$ ) (Table S1A), so we dropped this term from  
180 the model. The difference between rare and common hosts was slight: on average, the mortality  
181 of rare host genotypes declined  $-3.73 \pm 1.74\%$  from the ancestor, while mortality of common  
182 host genotypes was unchanged ( $0.28 \pm 1.55\%$ ).

183 **Discussion**

184 We set out to test the critical idea that parasites evolve to target common host genotypes over  
185 rare host genotypes. We aimed to test the effect of frequency itself, independent of host identity

186 and initial resistance level. Hence, we used multiple combinations of host genotypes that varied  
187 in their resistance to ancestral parasites. Host genotypes were represented as both rare and  
188 common across experimental host populations (Fig. 1). Overall, our results are consistent with a  
189 slight, parasite-mediated advantage of rare host genotypes (Fig. 2): the mean evolutionary  
190 change from the ancestor in the focal fitness trait, virulence, was lower when parasite lines were  
191 tested on their rare host genotype than on their common host genotype. On average, virulence  
192 was maintained against common host genotypes but declined against rare host genotypes.

193 This effect did not vary significantly with the host genotype in question: the interaction of  
194 assayed host genotype and frequency did not contribute to variation in virulence evolution (Table  
195 S1). Nonetheless, there is obvious variation in the relative performance of parasite lines on rare  
196 vs. common host genotypes (Fig. 2). Most notably, for the host mixture of CB4856 (rare) and  
197 ewIR68 (common), parasites evolved reduced virulence against both rare and common hosts  
198 (Fig. 2B). Among the genotypes tested, the CB485 and ewIR68 host genotypes are the most  
199 resistant to infection (Fig. S1), with the common genotype, ewIR68, the most resistant of the  
200 group. It is plausible that small parasite effective population sizes due to high host resistance  
201 and reduced efficacy of selection to attack a single host genotype resulted in the rapid fixation of  
202 deleterious mutations in these parasite populations. Parasites can substantially increase in  
203 virulence when selected in homogeneous populations of CB4856 and ewIR68 (Fig. S2), but  
204 mixing them at a range of frequencies severely limits the response to selection (White et al.  
205 2019). Regardless of the explanation, this outlier response suggests that host genetic  
206 background determines if, and to what extent, parasites evolve to target common vs. rare hosts.

207 Our results support the idea that, on average, rare genotypes have an advantage over  
208 common genotypes in the presence of parasites, but the differences we observed were small.  
209 The mean proportional change in virulence (i.e. change in host mortality from the ancestor)

210 against a common host genotype exceeded the change for its paired rare host genotype by only  
211 ~four percentage points. The Red Queen hypothesis and related ideas rest upon the idea that  
212 parasite adaptation to common host genotypes confers a fitness advantage on rare host genotypes  
213 that is substantial enough to drive rapid oscillations in host genotype frequency and  
214 counterbalance the cost of outcrossing (Howard and Lively 1994; May and Anderson 1983). In  
215 support of the Red Queen, coevolving *S. marcescens* prevents the invasion of selfing lineages  
216 into obligately outcrossing populations of *C. elegans* (Morran et al. 2011; Parrish et al. 2016;  
217 Slowinski et al. 2016). This consistent pattern suggests that *S. marcescens* targets common,  
218 selfed genotypes, giving rare, outcrossed genotypes a fitness advantage that outweighs the costs  
219 of outcrossing. Those studies used the same design and similar genetic backgrounds as ours.  
220 Yet, given that ancestral virulence was relatively even between paired host genotypes (Fig. S1),  
221 the average rare-common differential we observed here likely would not translate into substantial  
222 parasite-mediated variation in fitness.

223 Why might the advantage of being rare be so low in our experiment? We can rule out the  
224 possibility that insufficient genetic variation limited adaptation to common host genotypes -  
225 selection in homogeneous populations resulted in large changes from ancestral virulence, at least  
226 on CB4856 and ewIR68 (Fig. S2) (Gibson et al. 2020; White et al. 2019). We can also rule out  
227 insufficient time as a primary explanation – parasites were serially passaged for half as long on  
228 CB4856/ewIR68 mixtures relative to LTM1/N2 mixtures yet we observed the largest difference  
229 in performance on rare and common host genotypes for parasites selected in mixtures of ewIR68  
230 (rare) and CB4856 (common) (Fig. 2). It is possible that surveying the mean virulence of each  
231 parasite line masked relevant variation in the parasite population. According to this hypothesis,  
232 we would expect to find substantial variability in virulence between individual clones within  
233 each parasite line, with some showing especially high virulence against the common host

234 genotype or especially low virulence against the rare host genotype. Indeed, some individual  
235 parasite lines showed fairly large differences between proportional mean change from the  
236 ancestor on common vs. rare host genotypes, with an upper quartile ranging from 10.17 to 25.16  
237 percentage points. We also prevented coevolution in our experiment. Coevolution can generate  
238 and maintain more genetic variation in parasite populations than parasite evolution alone  
239 (Morran et al. 2011; Pal et al. 2007; Paterson et al. 2010; Schulte et al. 2013). Thus we expect  
240 that coevolution would accelerate virulence evolution and enhance the rare-common differential.

241 Coevolutionary models rest upon the process of adaptation by parasites to infect common  
242 host genotypes, at the expense of infection of rare host genotypes. Thus far, this theoretical  
243 finding lacked direct experimental support. Using an experimental evolution approach with fully  
244 reciprocal, uneven combinations of multiple host genotypes, we found that parasites targeted  
245 common over rare hosts. This resulted from a mean loss of virulence against rare genotypes.  
246 We also found suggestive evidence that the effect of host frequency may vary with host genotype  
247 (though this interaction was insignificant). The variation we observe across parasite lines  
248 emphasizes the value of complementing field studies, which survey ongoing adaptation, with  
249 controlled experiments, which can parse the contributions of host frequency and genotype to  
250 divergence in evolutionary trajectories. Finally, based on our findings, we hypothesize that  
251 coevolution, as opposed to parasite evolution alone, would strengthen the covariance of parasite  
252 fitness and host genotype frequency.

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262 **Data Accessibility Statement**

263 Data and analysis scripts associated with this study are provided as a supplemental file for  
264 review. Upon acceptance, we will make these files publicly available on the Dryad Digital  
265 Repository.

266 **Author contributions**

267 AKG conceived and directed the study, performed experimental evolution and assays, collected  
268 data, analyzed data, and wrote the manuscript. PSW contributed to experimental design,  
269 performed experimental evolution and assays, and collected data. MJP assisted in experimental  
270 evolution and collected data. JCdR contributed to developing and guiding the study and  
271 critically revised the manuscript. LTM conceived the study, provided guidance, collected data,  
272 and critically revised the manuscript. *All authors gave final approval for publication.*

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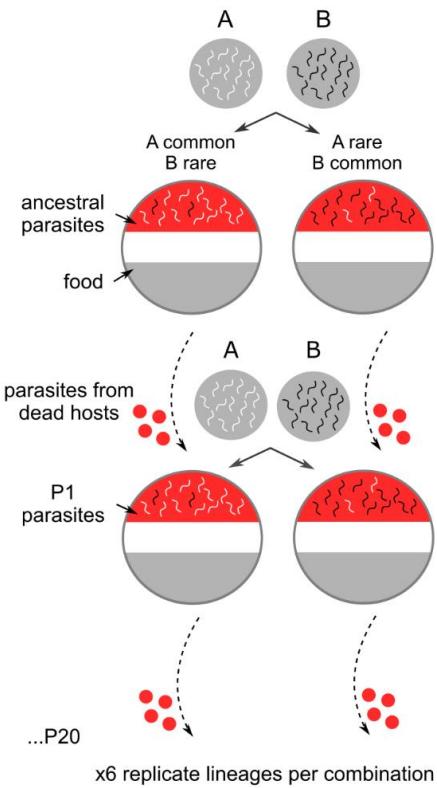
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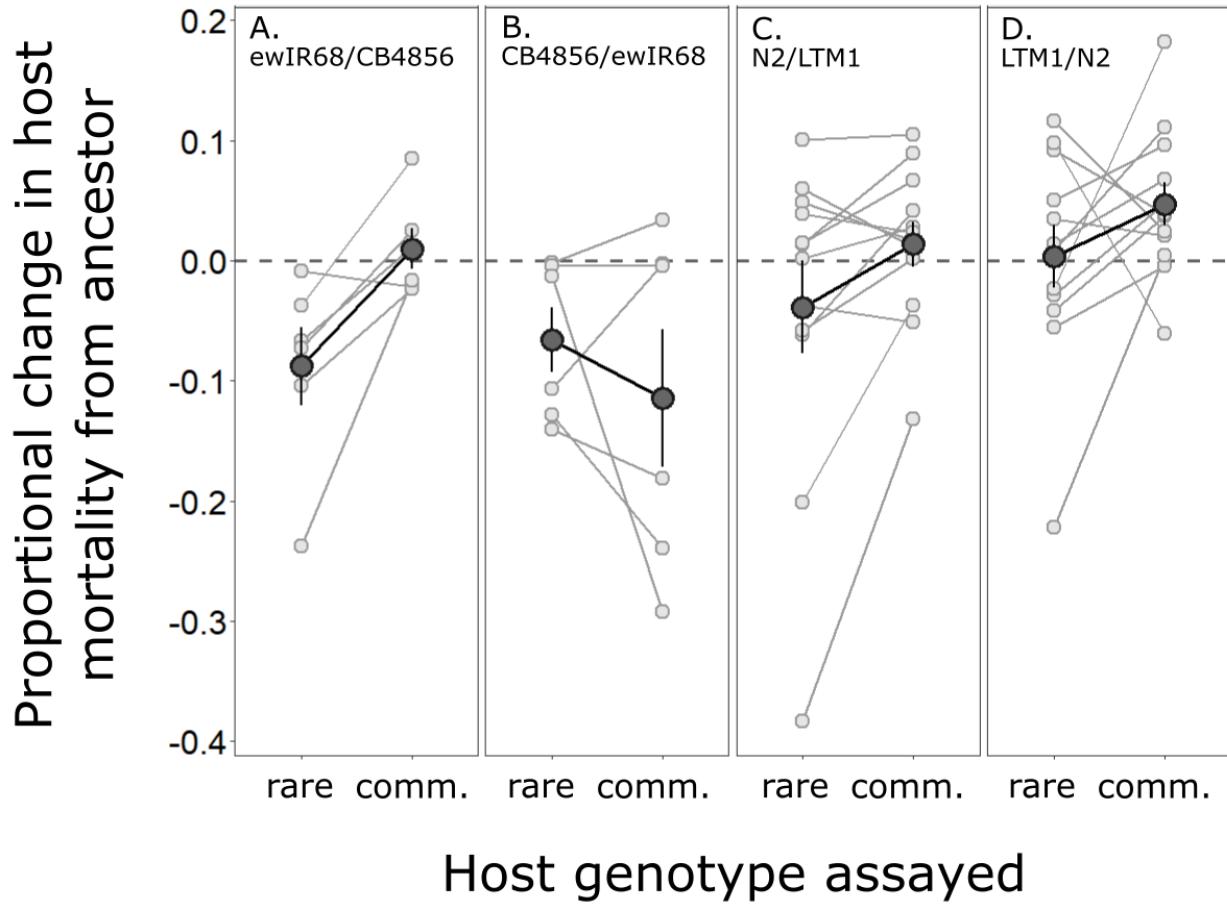
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371 **Figures**



Combinations	Rare	Common
9 N2: 1 LTM1	LTM1	N2
3 N2: 1 LTM1	LTM1	N2
1 N2: 3 LTM1	N2	LTM1
1 N2: 9 LTM1	N2	LTM1
3 CB4856: 1 ewlR68	ewlR68	CB4856
1 CB4856: 3 ewlR68	CB4856	ewlR68

**Figure 1: Experimental evolution design.** A single genotype of *Serratia marcescens* was used to initiate 36 independent parasite lines. These lines were selected for increased killing of hosts in heterogeneous host populations, in which one host genotype was common and one rare. Each round of selection, non-evolving hosts were added to a lawn of parasites, dead hosts were isolated at 24 hours, and parasites were extracted. These parasites - those that killed their hosts rapidly - were then passaged to the next round of selection. Four host genotypes were paired in different combinations and frequencies. There were six replicate parasite lines for each combination of host genotypes.



**Figure 2: Change in virulence against rare vs. common host genotypes.** We assayed the virulence (host mortality) of each parasite line against the rare (left) and common (right) host genotypes with which it was evolved. We used these estimates to calculate the proportional change from ancestral virulence (Fig. S1) against each host. The dashed line indicates no change from the ancestor. Each dark point represents the mean proportional change of 12 (N2/LTM1 combinations) or six (CB456/ewIR68 combinations) evolved parasite lines, with standard error of the mean. Shaded points show the mean estimates for each individual parasite line; these mean estimates were calculated from eight (N2/LTM1) or six (CB456/ewIR68) technical assay replicates per line.