

Title	Within-host interference competition can prevent invasion of rare parasites
Authors	Quigley, Benjamin J. Z.;Brown, Sam P.;Leggett, Helen C.;Scanlan, Pauline D.;Buckling, Angus
Publication date	2017-05-15
Original Citation	Quigley, B. J. Z., Brown, S. P., Leggett, H. C., Scanlan, P. D. and Buckling, A. (2017) 'Within-host interference competition can prevent invasion of rare parasites', Journal of Parasitology, 145(6), pp. 770-774. doi: 10.1017/S003118201700052X
Type of publication	Article (peer-reviewed)
Link to publisher's version	10.1017/S003118201700052X
Rights	© 2017, Cambridge University Press. All rights reserved.
Download date	2024-03-29 13:03:52
Item downloaded from	https://hdl.handle.net/10468/8569



# 1 Within-host interference competition can prevent invasion

2	of rare parasites
3	
4	Benjamin J.Z. Quigley <sup>1</sup> , Sam P. Brown <sup>2</sup> , Helen C. Leggett <sup>3</sup> , Pauline D. Scanlan <sup>4</sup> and
5	Angus Buckling <sup>5</sup> .
6	
7	<sup>1</sup> Department of Zoology, University of Oxford, South Parks Road, Oxford, OX1 3PS,
8	UK
9 10 11	<sup>2</sup> School of Biology, Georgia Institute of Technology, 311 Ferst Drive, Atlanta, Georgia 30332-0230, USA.
12 13	<sup>3</sup> Department of Genetics, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, CB2 3EH, UK
14 15	<sup>4</sup> APC Microbiome Institute, University College Cork, T12 YT20, Ireland.
16	<sup>5</sup> Biosciences, University of Exeter, Penryn, Cornwall, TR10 9EX, UK.
17	
18	
19	Keywords: Multiplicity of infection (MOI), interference competition, positive
20	frequency dependence, bacteria, phage.
21	
22	
23	
24	
25	
26	

## 1 Abstract

Competition between parasite species or genotypes can play an important role	•
in the establishment of parasites in new host populations. Here, we investigate a	
mechanism by which a rare parasite is unable to establish itself in a host population is	f
a common resident parasite is already present (a "priority effect'). We develop a	
simple epidemiological model and show that a rare parasite genotype is unable to	
invade if coinfecting parasite genotypes inhibit each others transmission more than	
expected from simple resource partitioning. This is because a rare parasite is more	
likely to be in multiply-infected hosts than the common genotype, and hence more	
likely to pay the cost of reduced transmission. Experiments competing interfering	
clones of bacteriophage infecting a bacterium support the model prediction that the	
clones are unable to invade each other from rare. We briefly discuss the implications	<u>,</u>
of these results for host-parasite ecology and (co)evolution	

#### Introduction

1

2 An important factor influencing the establishment of parasites in a host population is 3 the presence of other parasite species or genotypes (Read, 2001; Pedersen and Fenton, 4 2007). In some cases, interactions between parasites can be positive, such that the 5 presence of one species can facilitate the establishment of another (Cox 2001; Lello et 6 al. 2004; Graham, 2008; Telfer, 2010; Shrestha et al. 2013; Ramiro et al. 2016). 7 However, in many cases, particularly between-genotypes (Read 2001; Brown et al. 8 2002; Buckling & Brockhurst 2008), parasites display competitive interactions, such 9 that a resident parasite population is likely to reduce the likelihood of a focal parasite 10 becoming established (Onderdonk et al. 1981; Dittmar et al. 1982; Hart and Cloyd, 11 1990; Cox, 2001; Lello et al. 2004; Mideo, 2009; Telfer, 2010). 12 13 Assuming differences in infection order of the host, competitive interactions between 14 parasites can result in priority effects (Sutherland, 1974; Connell and Slatyer, 1977), 15 such that parasites that infect a host first can have a relative advantage (Eswarappa et 16 al. 2012; Hoverman et al. 2013). Mechanistically, such priority effects might arise 17 for a number of reasons, including ecological monopolization of host resources 18 (Sutherland, 1974), rapid adaptation to the specific host environments in the case of 19 microparasites (Gomez et al. 2016), and because anti-competitor toxins will increase 20 in concentration with parasite density (Inglis et al. 2009). Here, we develop a simple 21 model and carry out experiments using a bacterium-virus system to investigate the 22 potential for another type of a priority effect: one that occurs at the level of the host 23 population rather than the individual host. Specifically, we consider if such 24 population level priority effects might arise even when they don't occur at the level of 25 the individual host.

1 Why might a rare parasite be unable to invade a host population in the presence of an 2 endemic parasite, yet is able to outcompete the resident parasite within individual 3 hosts? A simple reason is that mixed infections often result in lower levels of 4 transmission than would be expected from single genotype/species infection based on 5 host resource partitioning, as a result of parasite anti-competitor mechanisms or host 6 immunity (Sugita et al. 1981; Dobson 1985; Gupta et al. 1994; Roberts & Dobson 7 1995; Cox, 2001; Read, 2001; Fenton 2008; Buckling and Brockhurst, 2008; Lello et 8 al. 2004; Balmer et al. 2009; Telfer, 2010). Assuming a resident parasite has infected 9 a high frequency of hosts, a rare invading parasite is more likely to find itself in a 10 mixed infection compared to the resident, and hence is more likely to pay the cost of 11 lower transmission to new hosts (Fenton 2008). 12 13 The basic building block of most micro-parasitic epidemiological models is the 14 compartmental SI model (Keeling and Rohani, 2008), and we use its classic 15 framework to asses the conditions when a parasite of a different type (genotype or 16 species) can invade from rare when there is lower total transmission from a mixed 17 infection. We then test the qualitative predictions with an experimental case study 18 using the bacterium Pseudomonas fluorescens SBW25 and its lytic virus, 19 bacteriophage \$\psi 2\$ (Buckling and Rainey, 2002). In a previous study (Leggett et al. 20 2013), viruses that were propagated over tens of generations under a high multiplicity 21 of infection (MOI; the ratio of virus to bacteria) evolved greater within-host 22 competiveness than those propagated under a low MOI. This increased 23 competitiveness was caused by a shorter latent period: competing viruses were unable 24 to fully assemble before host lysis occurred. This shorter lysis time however came at 25 the cost of a reduction in the total number of virions produced from a lysed cell.

- 1 Lysis time was phenotypically plastic, and was not shortened when high MOI-evolved
- 2 phages were propagated under low MOI; as consequence, transmission was lower
- 3 from mixed clone infections than single clone infections. We therefore determined if
- 4 the high and low MOI-evolved viruses could both be prevented from invading each
- 5 other from rare under high but not low MOI, despite the high MOI-evolved viruses
- 6 having a clear within-host advantage.

8

9

#### **Materials and Methods**

#### 10 **Theory Methods**

- 11 We begin with a classic SI model at an endemic equilibrium (Keeling and Rohani,
- 12 2008). We then augment the system by introducing a rare mutant, and explore the
- 13 conditions under which it can invade.

14

15

#### Classic SI Model

- 16 Consider a population subdivided into individuals susceptible to a particular disease
- 17 (S) and individuals infected with that same disease (I). Assuming a freely mixing
- 18 population, susceptible individuals (S) that encounter an infected individual (I), them-
- 19 selves become infected. The rate at which this happens is described by the force of
- 20 infection of the wild-type parasite  $\lambda w$  (=  $\beta I_w$ , where  $\beta$  represents parasite transmission
- 21 rate). S refers to numbers of susceptible hosts, and  $I_w$  refers to number of hosts
- 22 infected with a wild-type pathogen.

23

24 The dynamics can be described by the following set of differential equations:

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = b(S + I_w) - S(\lambda_w + \mu) + cI_w$$

$$\frac{dI_w}{dt} = S\lambda_w - (\mu + v + c)I_w$$

$$\frac{dI_w}{dt} = S\lambda_w - (\mu + v + c)I_w$$

2

- Where b= host birth rate,  $\mu=$  host death rate,  $\nu=$  extra mortality of host caused by
- 4 parasite infection, and c= rate of parasite clearance from the host. A stable
- 5 coexistence equilibrium containing both susceptible (S) and infected (Iw) hosts will be
- 6 established when:

$$S^* = \frac{\mu + v + c}{\beta}$$
 [2]

- $I_w^* = rac{(b-\mu)(\mu+v+c)}{eta(\mu+v-b)}$
- 10 These conditions are locally asymptotically stable when condition A is satisfied (see
- 11 SI for working):

12 
$$\mu < b < \mu + v$$
 (Condition A)

13

- 14 To these stable conditions, we now add a rare mutant parasite and assess whether or
- 15 not it can invade.

16

#### 17 <u>Introducing Rare Mutant</u>

- 18 If a mutant is introduced to the population, then a multiply-infected host can occur,
- i.e. a host can be simultaneously infected with both a wild-type and mutant parasite.
- This creates two new classes of individuals hosts infected with the mutant,  $I_m$ , and
- 21 hosts infected with both the mutant and the wild-type,  $I_{wm}$ . Note that infection is a
- symmetrical process, i.e. a host that is infected with a wild-type parasite can then be
- infected with a mutant parasite (and vice versa), creating a multiply-infected host.
- Multiply-infected hosts are likely to represent a reduced transmission opportunity for
- co-infecting parasites. The reduction in transmission is because of some sort of

- 1 competitive interaction that reduces transmission of each individual strain from a
- 2 single host to less than 50%, i.e. transmission is lower than expected from simply
- 3 passively partitioning host resources.

- 5 This effect can be captured by having a separate transmission term for multiply-
- 6 infected hosts  $(\beta_{wm})$ . The force of infection of the wild type  $(\lambda_w)$  and mutant  $(\lambda_m)$  now
- 7 becomes:

8

$$\lambda_w = \beta I_w + \beta_{wm} I_{wm}$$
 [3]

$$\lambda_m = \beta I_m + \beta_{wm} I_{wm}$$

With the full system represented by the following set of differential equations:

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = bS - S(\lambda_w + \lambda_m + \mu) + c(I_w + I_m)$$

$$\frac{dI_w}{dt} = S\lambda_w - I_w(\mu + v + c + \lambda_m) + cI_{wm}$$

$$\frac{dI_m}{dt} = S\lambda_m - I_w(\mu + v + c + \lambda_w) + cI_{wm}$$
[4]

$$\frac{dI_{wm}}{dt} = I_w \lambda_m + I_m \lambda_w - I_{wm} (2c + \mu + v)$$

18

16

- 19 Further variations and justifications on the model are explored in the supplementary
- 20 information.

- Given the classic SI endemic equilibrium conditions (see condition A), we are able to
- assess the stability of the augmented system on the introduction of a rare mutant
- 24 which transmits as well as the resident; i.e. we ask the question: under what

1 conditions can the rare mutant invade? See SI for working, and the Results section for

2 the mutant invasion condition.

3

4

8

9

10

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

### **Experimental Materials and Methods**

5 We tested our predictions using two different bacteriophage clones derived from the

6 lytic dsDNA phage SBW25Φ2and the susceptible bacterium *Pseudomonas* 

7 fluorescens SBW25 (Buckling and Rainey, 2002). The phage clones were isolated

from populations of SBW25Φ2 that had previously been evolved under conditions of

High multiplicity of infection (MOI; the ratio of phage to bacteria) and Low MOI

(subsequently termed H and L clones, respectively) (Leggett et al. 2013). Both clones

grew equally well under conditions of low MOI, however when H and L are found

together in a mixed infection, the output of both strains is reduced, and the H clone

has a competitive advantage (Leggett et al. 2013). In order to distinguish between the

two phage clones, the H clone was selected to grow on a mutant of *Pseudomonas* 

fluorescens SBW25 that was resistant to ancestral SBW25Φ2 (Scanlan et al. 2011)

and the L clone. The final densities of the H clone was determined by the plaque

forming units (PFU's) on lawns of resistant host, whilst the final densities of the L

clone was determined by the PFU's on wild-type host lawns minus the number of

PFU's on resistant host lawns.

20

21

22

23

24

25

and L strains at different starting ratios (H:L) 1000:1, 1:1 and 1:1000 under high (5 x 10<sup>7</sup> colony forming units (CFU's)/ml) and low (1 x 10<sup>4</sup> CFU's/ml) bacterial densities,

To determine whether a rare bacteriophage was prevented from invading, we mixed H

10 colony forming units (CFO s)/iii) and low (1 x 10 CFO s/iii) bacterial densities,

whilst fixing the total density of phage at 1 x 10<sup>5</sup> PFU's/ml. This enabled conditions

where the multiplicity of infection (MOI) was low (high bacterial densities) and high

1	(low bacterial densities). High MOI treatments were used to test whether within-host
2	competition was the mechanism preventing the invasion of rare parasites, with the
3	low MOI treatment acting as a control where we would not expect to see frequency
4	dependence.
5	
6	After inoculating the bacteria with the starting ratios of phage, they were grown in
7	wells containing 2ml of King's media B (KB), incubated at 28°C, static, for 8 hours.
8	Phage were then extracted from each replicate population by taking samples and
9	adding 10% v:v chloroform, vortexing and centrifuging at 13 000 g for 3 min. The
10	final densities of H and L clones were determined by serial plating onto bacterial
11	lawns of both susceptible and resistant hosts. Ten microlitres of supernatant
12	containing phage was spot plated onto growing lawns of each bacterial host (that had
13	been reconditioned from stock by growing for 24 hours in liquid KB at 28 °C) using
14	KB soft agar overlay plates. Plates were placed in a 28 °C incubator and checked for
15	phage plaques (zones of lysis that indicate parasite infectivity) after 8, 12, 24, 48 and
16	72 hours of incubation. Fitness of the phage was calculated using the estimated
17	Malthusian parameters (m), where $m = ln(N_{\rm f}/N_0)$ where $N_0$ is the starting density and
18	N <sub>f</sub> is the final density (Lenski et al. 1991). We then determined the selection of
19	coefficient of L strains in competition with H strains, (mL-mн)/mн, where mL and mн
20	are the Malthusian parameters of L and H strains respectively (Lenski et al. 1991.
21	
22	Results

### **Theoretical Results**

1 We were able to derive a simple analytical condition for the invasion of a rare mutant

parasite (see Theoretical Methods section), primarily as a function of the cost of

3 transmission associated with being in a mixed infection:

4

2

$$\frac{\beta_{wm}}{\beta} > \frac{(v+\mu)^2}{(c+\mu+v)(b+2v+\mu)}$$
 (Condition B)

7

8

10

11

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

6

When condition B is satisfied, the mutant can invade. When condition B is not

9 satisfied, the population remains at the classic SI equilibrium conditions described in

the Theory Methods, above. The  $\beta_{wm}/\beta$  term in condition B represents the relative

transmission rate from multiply-infected hosts. Under pure resource competition,

there is no reduction in total transmission of parasites from mixed versus single

infections, i.e.  $\beta_{wm} = \beta/2$ , and the rare mutant can invade. As the relative transmission

rate of multiply-infected hosts is reduced, the likelihood of a rare mutant invading the

population decreases. We show the invasion conditions for different ratios of  $\beta_{wm}/\beta$  as

a function of parasite-imposed host mortality (virulence; v) and rate of parasite

clearance from the host (c) in Figure 1. Note that this qualitative result is robust to a

range of model variations, including assuming that: all individuals give birth to

susceptible hosts (not just susceptible parents); it is harder for host to clear mixed

infections; and there is density dependent growth of hosts (see SI).

21

22

24

#### **Experimental Results**

We then tested our theoretical prediction that parasites are unable to invade from rare

when there are mixed infections by competing different starting ratios (1:1000, 1:1

and 1000:1) of two bacteriophage strains (H and L) under low and high MOI, on

1 bacterial hosts of *Pseudomonas fluorescens* SBW25. We have previously shown that

2 the presence of H clones under conditions of high MOI reduces phage population

3 growth rate, indicating that H clones reduce absolute between host transmission

4 (Leggett et al. 2013; 2017), as assumed in our model.

5

8

9

10

11

12

13

14

15

6 Crucially, we found a significant interaction between MOI and starting frequency

7 (Figure 2;  $F_{2,30} = 4.030$ , P = 0.028): while the relative growth rates of the two clones

was largely independent of starting frequency under conditions of low MOI, under

higher MOI the rare clone always had a fitness disadvantage. Note that at 1:1 ratios,

the L clones was fitter under low MOI, presumably as a result of the host range

phenotype that is costly in this system (Poullain et al. 2008; Scanlan et al. 2011)

while the H clone was fitter under high MOI, as reported in previous studies (Leggett

et al. 2013) (1 sample t-tests: P < 0.01 in both cases). Note that we found that there

was no main effect of starting frequency (Figure 2;  $F_{2,30} = 0.417$ , P = 0.663) on the

relative growth rate of the H and L strains, nor a main effect of whether phages were

16 cultured at high or low MOI (Figure 2;  $F_{1,30} = 1.586$ , P = 0.218).

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

#### **Discussion**

Here we investigated whether parasites that display strong anti-competitor behaviours in coinfected hosts suffer a fitness cost when rare, thus limiting the conditions under which parasites can become established in new host populations. Our simple epidemiological model confirmed findings implicit in previous models (e.g. Fenton 2008) that interference between coinfecting strains reduces total parasite transmission from hosts, the likelihood of a rare parasite invading an endemic parasite population is reduced. We subsequently find evidence for this reciprocal invasion

- 1 inhibition in competing bacteriophage genotypes (infecting bacteria) that experience
- 2 growth inhibition with coinfection. Crucially, this reciprocal invasion inhibition was
- 3 not observed when there was little coinfection, but instead one phage genotype
- 4 consistently outcompeted the other, demonstrating that coinfection was the driver of
- 5 the observed growth cost of being rare.
- 6 How important might this effect be? While we are not aware of any data from
- 7 natural populations that could provide direct evidence for its operation, the
- 8 assumptions required for this type of priority effect will frequently be met.
- 9 Specifically, mixed genotypes and species infections are common in nature (Read,
- 2001; Pedersen and Fenton, 2007), and many interactions between parasites are
- directly or indirectly, via the host immune system, inhibitory (Sugita et al. 1981; Cox,
- 12 2001; Read, 2001; Buckling and Brockhurst, 2008; Lello et al. 2004; Balmer et al.
- 13 2009; Mideo, 2009; Telfer, 2010).
- In addition to the clear epidemiological implications of the work, the
- population level priority effects reported here might have important evolutionary and
- 16 coevolutionary implications. First, it is likely to limit the evolution of generalist
- parasites. On the one hand, if parasites are limited in their interaction with novel host
- populations this will limit selection for generalism (Kawecki 1998). On the other,
- 19 generalist parasites may find themselves in mixed infections more frequently than
- specialist parasites, hence exposing them to this transmission cost (Leggett et al.
- 21 2013); although not in circumstances where generalists have unique access to certain
- hosts (Gandon et al. 2002). This may represent a novel cost of generalism over and
- above genetic tradeoffs and costs of using less productive hosts (Futuyma & Moreno
- 24 1988; Heineman et al. 2008; Benmayor et al. 2009), helping to explain host
- specialization of parasite species and genotypes. Second, limiting the invasion of new

1	parasite genotypes can have important implications for coevolutionary dynamics.
2	Specifically, high parasite diversity and density can increase parasite adaptation to
3	their local hosts and lead to more rapid and arms-race-like coevolution (Morgan et al.
4	2005; Gomez et al. 2015).
5	More generally, our results highlight the importance of considering priority
6	effects (i.e. an advantage of early colonisation) at different scales. Priority effects are
7	typically investigated within ecological patches (or hosts), but here we show a meta-
8	population (or community) - level priority effect, which may also be an important
9	consideration in a range of ecological systems. Precisely how priority effects at
10	different scales interact requires further exploration.
11	
12	Acknowledgements
13	This work was funded by NERC, BBSRC and AXA Research Fund. AB
14	acknowledges support from the Royal Society. HCL is funded by The Royal
15	Commission for the Exhibition of 1851. PDS is funded by a Royal Society-Science
16	Foundation Ireland University Research Fellowship.
17	
18	References
19	Balmer, O., Stearns, S.C., Schötzau, A. and Brun, R. (2009). Intraspecific
20	competition between co-infecting parasite strains enhances host survival in
21	African trypanosomes. Ecology 90, 3367–3378.
22	Benmayor, R., Hodgson, D. J., Perron, G. G., and Buckling, A. (2009). Host
23	Mixing and Disease Emergence. Current Biology 19, 764–767.
24	Buckling, A. and Brockhurst, M.A. (2008). Kin selection and the evolution of
25	virulence. <i>Heredity</i> <b>100</b> , 484–488.

- 1 **Buckling, A., and Rainey, P. B.** (2002). Antagonistic coevolution between a
- 2 bacterium and a bacteriophage. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B* **269**, 931–936.
- 3 **Brown, S., Hochberg, M. and Grenfell, B.** (2002). Does multiple infection select for
- 4 raised virulence? *Trends in Microbiology* **10**, 401–405.
- 5 Connell, J. H. and Slatyer, R. O. (1977). Mechanisms of succession in natural
- 6 communities and their role in community stability and organization. *The*
- 7 *American Naturalist* **111**, 1119 1144.
- 8 Cox, F. (2001). Concomitant infections, parasites and immune responses.
- 9 *Parasitology* **122**, S23–S38.
- 10 **Dittmar, D., Castro, A. and Haines, H.** (1982). Demonstration of interference
- between dengue virus types in cultured mosquito cells using monoclonal antibody
- probes. *Journal of General Virology* **59**, 273–282.
- 13 **Dobson, A. P.** (1985). The population dynamics of competition between parasites.
- 14 *Parasitology* **91**, 317-47.
- 15 Eswarappa, S. M., Estrela, S. and Brown, S. P. (2012). Within-Host Dynamics of
- Multi-Species Infections: Facilitation, Competition and Virulence. *PloS One* 7,
- 17 e38730.
- 18 **Fenton, A.** (2007). Worms and germs: the population dynamic consequences of
- microparasite-macroparasite co-infection. *Parasitology* **135**, 1545-1560.
- **Futuyma, D. and Moreno, G.** (1988). The evolution of ecological specialization.
- Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics 19, 207–233.
- 22 Gandon, S., van Baalen, M. and Jansen, V. A. A. (2002). The evolution of parasite
- virulence, superinfection, and host resistance. The American Naturalist 159, 658–
- 24 669.
- 25 Gómez, P., Paterson, S., De Meester, L., Liu, X., Lenzi, L., Sharma, M. D.,

- 1 McElroy, K. and Buckling, A. (2016) Local adaptation of a bacterium is as
- 2 important as its presence in structuring a natural microbial community. *Nature*
- 3 *Communications* **7**, 12453
- 4 Gomez, P., Ashby, B. and Buckling, A. (2015). Population mixing promotes arms
- 5 race host-parasite coevolution. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B* **282**, 2297
- 6 **Graham, A.L.** (2008) Ecological rules governing helminth-microparasite coinfection.
- 7 *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA* **105**, 566–570.
- 8 **Gupta, S., Swinton, J., & Anderson, R. M.** (1994). Theoretical studies of the effects
- 9 of heterogeneity in the parasite population on the transmission dynamics of
- malaria. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B* **256**, 231–238.
- Hart, A.R. and Cloyd, M.W. (1990). Interference patterns of human
- immunodeficiency viruses HIV-1 and HIV-2. *Virology* **177**, 1–10
- Heineman, R.H., Springman, R., and Bull, J.J. (2008). Optimal foraging by
- bacteriophages through host avoidance. *The American Naturalist* **171**, E149–
- 15 E157. SEP
- Hoverman, J. T., Hoye, B. J. and Johnson, P. T. J. (2013). Does timing matter?
- How priority effects influence the outcome of parasite interactions within hosts.
- 18 *Oecologia* **173**, 1471–1480.
- 19 Inglis, R. F., Gardner, A., Cornelis, P., and Buckling, A. (2009). Spite and
- virulence in the bacterium Pseudomonas aeruginosa *Proceedings of the National*
- Academy of Sciences of the United States of America **106**, 5703–5707.
- **Kawecki, T. J.** (1998). Red Queen meets Santa Rosalia: Arms Races and the
- evolution of host specialization in organisms with parasitic lifestyles. *The*
- 24 *American Naturalist* **152**, 635–651.
- Keeling, M.J. and Rohani, P. (2008). Modeling Infectious Diseases in Humans and

- 1 Animals. Princeton University Press.
- 2 Leggett, H. C., Benmayor, R., Hodgson, D. J., and Buckling, A. (2013).
- 3 Experimental evolution of adaptive phenotypic plasticity in a parasite. *Current*
- 4 *Biology* **23**, 139–142.
- 5 Leggett, H. C., Buckling, A., Long, G. H. and Boots, M. (2013). Generalism and
- 6 the evolution of parasite virulence. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* **28**, 592–596.
- 7 Leggett, H.C., Wild, G., West, S. and Buckling, A. (2017). Fast-killing parasites are
- 8 "prudent" in space. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B*, in press.
- 9 Lello, J., Boag. B., Fenton, A., Stevenson, I.R. and Hudson, P.J. (2004)
- 10 Competition and mutualism among the gut helminths of a mammalian host.
- 11 *Nature* **428**, 840–844.
- 12 Lenski, R., Rose, M., Simpson, S. and Tadler, S. (1991). Long-Term Experimental
- Evolution in *Escherichia Coli* .1. Adaptation and Divergence During 2,000
- Generations. *The American Naturalist* **138**, 1315–1341.
- 15 Mideo, N. (2009). Parasite adaptations to within-host competition. *Trends in*
- 16 *Parasitology* **25**, 261–268.
- Morgan, A. D., Gandon, S. and Buckling, A. (2005). The effect of migration on
- local adaptation in a coevolving host-parasite system *Nature* **437**253–256.
- 19 Onderdonk, A., Marshall, B., Cisneros, R. and Levy, S.B. (1981). Competition
- between congenic Escherichia coli K-12 strains in vivo. Infection and Immunity
- **32**, 74–79.
- Pedersen, A.B. and Fenton, A. (2007) Emphasizing the ecology in parasite
- community ecology. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* **22**, 133–139.
- Ramiro, R. S., Pollitt, L. C., Mideo, N. and Reece, S. E. (2016). Facilitation
- 25 through altered resource availability in a mixed-species rodent malaria infection.

1	Ecology letters 19, 1041–1050.
2	Read, A.F. (2001). The Ecology of Genetically Diverse Infections. Science 292,
3	1099–1102.
4	Roberts, M. & Dobson, A.P. (1995). The population dynamics of communities of
5	parasitic helminths. Mathematical Bioscience 126, 191-215.
6	Scanlan, P., Hall, A., Lopez Pascua, L.D.C. and Buckling, A. (2011). Genetic basis
7	of infectivity evolution in a bacteriophage. <i>Molecular ecology</i> <b>20</b> , 981–989.
8	Shrestha, S., Foxman, B., Weinberger, D.M., Steiner, C., Viboud, C. and Rohani,
9	P. (2013). Identifying the interaction between influenza and pneumococcal
10	pneumonia using incidence data. Science Translational Medicine 5, 191ra84
11	Sugita, K. (1981). Interference between virulent and avirulent strains of Sendai virus.
12	<b>55</b> , 95–107.
13	Sutherland, J. P. (1974). Multiple stable points in natural com- munities. <i>The</i>
14	American Naturalist 108, 859–873.
15	Telfer, S., Lambin, X., Birtles, R., Beldomenico, P., Burthe, S., Paterson, S. and
16	Begon, M. (2010). Species interactions in a parasite community drive infection
17	risk in a wildlife population Science 330, 243–246.
18	
19	
20	
21	
22	
23	
24	
25	

Figure 1: Plotting Condition B – Rare parasite less likely to invade as relative transmission rate of multiply-infected host  $(\beta_{wm}/\beta)$  is reduced. Phase plane diagram showing the value of  $\beta_{wm}/\beta$  required for the rare parasite to invade, as a function of virulence (v) and host recovery rate (c). For sensible values of  $\beta$  (<1), the mechanism preventing invasion of the rare parasite is a form of interference competition i.e.  $\beta_{wm}/\beta < \beta/2$ . Parameters; b=0.3,  $\mu=0.2$ . Figure 2: Positive frequency dependence prevents rare phage from invading. The relative growth rate (selection coefficient) of L phage strains, compared with H strains, is plotted for different starting ratios of H:L, under high and low MOI. Error bars are  $\pm 1$  standard error of the mean. 

**Figure Legends**