

Summary

Streptococcus pneumoniae becomes competent for genetic transformation when exposed to an autoinducer peptide named CSP. This peptide was originally described as a quorum-sensing (QS) signal, enabling individuals to regulate competence in response to population density. However, recent studies suggest that CSP may instead serve as a probe for sensing environmental cues, such as antibiotic stress or environmental diffusion. Here, we show that competence induction depends simultaneously on cell density, external pH, antibiotic-induced stress and cell history. Our experimental data is explained by a mathematical model where the environment and cell history modify how cells produce or sense CSP. Taken together, model and experiments indicate that autoinducer concentration can function as a reliable indicator of cell density across environmental conditions, while also incorporating information on environmental factors or cell history, allowing cells to integrate cues such as antibiotic stress into their QS response. This unifying perspective may also apply to other debated QS systems.

Introduction

Bacteria release small diffusible molecules in the extracellular medium known as autoinducers. These molecules induce the expression of particular functions including biofilm formation, luminescence and genetic competence as well as their own production^{1,2}. The most prevalent functional interpretation of the production and response to autoinducers is known as quorum sensing (QS). According to this view, the concentration of autoinducer molecules is a proxy for cell density, allowing bacteria to regulate the expression of those phenotypes that are only beneficial when

expressed by many cells^{1,2}. However, it is likely that the concentration of autoinducer molecules does not only reflect cell density, but that it is also affected by environmental factors, such as the diffusivity of the medium. In fact, alternative hypotheses state that bacteria release autoinducers to sense these environmental factors rather than to monitor cell density. The most well known hypothesis proposed by Redfield (2002) is that the function of autoinducers is diffusion sensing, allowing cells to avoid the secretion of costly molecules under conditions where they would quickly diffuse away³. Evidence for the role of environmental diffusion on the concentration of autoinducers comes from experiments showing that when diffusion is strongly limited, a small group of cells (or even a single cell) can upregulate gene expression by producing autoinducers⁴⁻⁶. Other potential roles suggested for autoinducer production are sensing local cell density together with diffusion⁷, the positioning of other cells during biofilm formation⁸ and temporal variations in pH⁹.

We study pneumococcal competence, a system classically used as an example of QS whose functional role has been recently debated in light of the previous controversies. Competence is a transient physiological state that is developed by *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, as well as other bacteria. Upon entry into competence, pneumococci upregulate the expression of genes required for uptake of exogenous DNA as well as bacteriocins and various genes involved in stress response¹⁰. In *S. pneumoniae*, competence is regulated by an autoinducer molecule known as the competence-stimulating peptide (CSP) in a two-component regulatory system formed by the histidine kinase ComD and the response regulator ComE^{11,12} (Figure 1). Despite the detailed understanding of the regulatory network of competence induction, little is known about why competence is controlled by an autoinducer peptide like CSP. Although CSP has been classically thought to be a QS signal¹³, competence can

be induced in response to environmental factors like pH, oxygen, phosphate and antibiotic stress¹⁴⁻¹⁷. For instance, under our experimental conditions, competence only naturally develops in alkaline growth medium with a pH > 7.4 (see below). Based on this evidence and the finding that competence initiates at the same time in pneumococcal cultures inoculated at different initial densities, it was suggested that CSP acts as a timing device that allows cells to mount a timed response to environmental stress independently of cell density^{18,19}. Since then, this hypothesis has established in the field as an alternative to the QS view of competence^{16,20,21,19}. Recently, Prudhomme et al. (2016) renamed the timing device mechanism as a growth-time dependent mechanism and proposed that a subpopulation of competent cells that originates stochastically spreads the competent state to the rest of the population by cell-cell contact²². Another alternative to QS is that pneumococcal competence is an instance of diffusion sensing. This was suggested by Yang et al. (2010) based on the observation that the quorum for competence induction is not fixed but decreases with more restrictive diffusion²³.

Here, we study the regulation of pneumococcal competence by cell density and two environmental factors, antibiotic stress and pH. Using both experiments and mathematical modeling we study the combined action of these factors on competence induction. We make predictions based on the model regarding the time and density at which competence initiates under different combinations of inoculation densities, cell histories and environmental conditions and show that they are confirmed by experimental data. A common observation across environmental contexts is that the concentration of CSP always increases with the number of cells, supporting the functional interpretation of competence as a QS system; however, we also find that the exact relationship between cell density and CSP concentration is determined by

environmental factors and cell history which modify the rate at which individual cells produce or sense CSP. Based on these findings, we advocate to keep using the term ‘quorum sensing’ but with a broader meaning to acknowledge that in addition to cell density, multiple factors regulate autoinducer production and detection. This perspective emphasizes the importance of considering the natural context where bacteria use QS when formulating hypotheses on the functional role of responding to any particular biotic or abiotic factor through QS.

Results

A mathematical model of pneumococcal competence development

We developed a mathematical model of pneumococcal competence based on the network of protein interactions known to regulate competence development (Figure 1) during growth in a well-mixed liquid medium. Briefly, the precursor of CSP, ComC, is cleaved and exported to the extracellular space by the membrane protein complex ComAB^{12,24}. Upon binding to CSP, ComD phosphorylates the response regulator ComE, which in its phosphorylated form upregulates transcription of the operons *comAB*, *comCDE* and *comX*^{12,25,26}. The latter encodes the sigma factor ComX, which controls transcription of genes required for uptake and processing of exogenous DNA^{10,27}. Our model uses ordinary differential equations (ODEs) and consists of two components. At the population-level it keeps track of the population density and the extracellular concentration of CSP; at the cell-level it keeps track of the intracellular concentrations of the proteins involved in competence regulation (Figure 1). All the cells export CSP to the medium at a rate determined by the intracellular concentrations of ComC and ComAB. The concentration of CSP then feeds back into the intracellular concentrations of all the proteins involved in competence since their transcription rates

depend on the ratio of ComE to ComE~P and thus on the rate at which ComD phosphorylates ComE. The model uses changes in competence gene expression and/or changes in the rate at which cells export CSP to simulate different environmental scenarios (see below). A detailed description of the model and the choice of parameter values is in the Supplementary Information.

We use the model to determine the effect of environmental factors and cell history on the relationship between cell density and CSP concentration. Crucially, the model assumes that all cells are homogeneous and that competence is only regulated by CSP, whose production increases with cell density. We are interested in determining whether these assumptions are sufficient to explain our experimental results or if additional mechanisms need to be incorporated (e.g. density-independent competence induction and stochastic induction of competence in a subpopulation of cells^{18,19,22}).

Competence is regulated by cell density and develops at a critical CSP concentration

It has been reported that competence develops at a fixed time after inoculation from acid to alkaline conditions (pH 6.8 → 7.9) regardless of the inoculum size^{18,22}. This observation has motivated the view that competence develops independently of cell density and rather acts as a timed response at the single cell level to the pH shift occurring at the moment of inoculation. We extended previous studies by exploring a wider range of inoculation densities (OD_{595nm} : $10^{-1} - 10^{-7}$) (approximately $10^7 - 10^1$ cells/ml) and preculturing conditions. We used the encapsulated serotype 2 strain *S. pneumoniae* D39²⁸ and cells were washed before inoculation to remove CSP produced

during the preculture (note that we verified that CSP is actually present in the supernatant of cultures of strain D39; see Figure S1). To monitor competence development, the ComX-dependent promoter of the late competence gene *ssbB* was fused to the firefly *luc* gene and inserted at the non-essential *bgaA* locus. Activation and expression of *ssbB* is a good reporter for competence development since SsbB expression strongly correlates with actual transformation with externally added DNA (e.g. ^{16,29} and data not shown).

As shown in Figure 2a, and in contrast to Claverys *et al.* (2006)¹⁸, we find that the inoculation density does have an effect on the time of competence development, with competence initiating later for lower inoculum sizes. For instance, for the lowest inoculation density, competence initiates more than 4 hours later than for the highest inoculation densities (Figures 2a and left panel of 2c). Importantly, the population density at competence initiation is not constant but positively related to the inoculation density (Figure 2c, right panel). Hence, the dependency of the time of competence initiation on the inoculation density is not a consequence of competence developing at a fixed critical cell density for every condition. Instead, our results are consistent with the mathematical model, which predicts that competence develops when the CSP concentration has reached a critical threshold. The model shows that competence will start faster for higher inoculation densities because the CSP concentration reaches the critical threshold for competence activation earlier if more cells are producing CSP (Figure 2d, left panel). Moreover, the model shows that populations inoculated at low densities initiate competence at a lower density than populations inoculated at high densities consistent with the experimental data (right panels of Figures 2c and 2d). This is because cells inoculated at low cell densities already had time to start transcribing competence regulatory genes and accumulate some CSP once they

reached the same cell density of cultures freshly inoculated at a higher cell density (Figure 2e). Thus, the critical CSP threshold is reached sooner for low-density inoculated cultures. Notably, a common misconception in the field is that in a QS system the critical concentration of autoinducer should always be attained at the same fixed cell density^{18,19,22,23}.

It is well known that the pH of the medium affects competence development, with natural competence being inhibited under acid conditions^{14,30}. So far we have studied competence with cells precultured in a non-permissive pH for competence development (pH 6.8). These preculture conditions were reflected in the model simulations by assuming that cells initially were in the competence-off state. We also simulated the alternative scenario that cells are already competent at inoculation. For this cell-history, the model predicts that the time of competence initiation is lower, but only for high inoculation densities (Figure 2d, left panel, Figure S2). This happens because when cells are competent initially and are inoculated at high density they can produce enough CSP to remain competent. However, when inoculation density is low, cells cannot produce enough CSP and initial competence switches off. The timing of the subsequent competence initiation is then the same as if cells were not competent when inoculated (Figure S3).

To verify the predicted effect of cell-history on the timing of competence initiation, we controlled the competence state of cells at inoculation by manipulating the pH during preculture. Specifically, we compared the time of competence initiation for cells coming from a non-permissive (pH 6.8) and a permissive (pH 7.9) pH history for competence development. For inoculation densities below OD_{595nm} 0.01, the pH of the preculture did not have an effect on the timing of competence initiation (Figures 2b and c). On the other hand, for inoculation densities above OD_{595nm} 0.01, there was a

time delay in competence initiation for cells with an acid history whereas cells with a non-acid history were competent when inoculated and remained competent afterwards as predicted by the model (Figures 2b and d). This suggests that when the inoculation density is high, there are enough cells to take the CSP concentration above the threshold for competence activation if they are already producing CSP – as is the case of cells coming from a non-acid history. By contrast, if cells come from a non-permissive pH for competence development, the machinery for CSP production needs to be activated even for the high cell densities. This causes a delay in competence initiation, which has been interpreted as evidence suggesting that competence acts as a timing device independently of cell density^{18,19}.

To further corroborate the effect of cell density on competence, we studied competence initiation at the single-cell level in populations inoculated at two different densities. The *ssbB* promoter was fused to GFP and competence initiation was followed using automated fluorescence time-lapse microscopy. In line with the results from liquid cultures, we find that competence initiated earlier for the highest inoculation density (Figure 3). Importantly, we observe little cell-to-cell variation in the time of competence initiation and found no evidence of strong phenotypic heterogeneity, as is for instance observed during competence development in *Bacillus subtilis* (where less than 20% of the population enters the competent state)^{31,32}. This justifies the model assumption that the population of cells is homogeneous and argues against the hypothesis that a competent subpopulation emerges before the entire population becomes competent²².

pH and competence development

In order to understand how environmental factors affect competence we quantified the effect of external pH on natural competence development. We studied competence at a fine-grained range of pH values from 6.8 to 9.0 and found a clear-cut value that separated permissive from non-permissive external pH values for natural competence development as reported before^{14,29}. For our media this was pH 7.4 (Figure 4a). However, not only competence always developed at pH higher than 7.4 but the critical cell density for competence initiation decreased with increasing pH (Figure 4a and b). Therefore, pH does not relate to competence as a binary permissive/non-permissive condition but competence development is more efficient in more alkaline media. The data suggests that for non-permissive pH conditions the cell density at which competence would initiate is above the carrying capacity of the medium, which was also previously proposed by Chen and Morrison (1987)¹⁴.

To test whether pH mainly affects CSP production or detection, we used a *comA*⁻ mutant that is unable to export CSP and therefore only develops competence in the presence of external CSP (Figure 1). We then performed experiments with medium at different initial pH values where we added various concentrations of synthetic CSP, using both the wild type and the *comA*⁻ mutant. We found that for the *comA*⁻ mutant competence was mainly dependent on the CSP concentration and only minor differences were found among media with different pH. For the wild type, in contrast, the minimum CSP concentration required for competence development varied with the pH (Figure S4). The finding that pH strongly affects competence initiation in the wild type but not in the *comA*⁻ mutant suggests that competence development is mediated mainly by pH-dependent CSP secretion rather than by pH-dependent CSP detection. As peptidase-containing ATP-binding cassette transporters such as ComAB require

ATP to transport substrates³³, it might be that the proton motive force influences its activity. Therefore, we incorporated the effect of pH in our model by changing the rate at which cells export CSP. In agreement with the experimental results, the modified model confirms that the density of competence initiation decreases with the rate of export of CSP and thus with higher pH. Also, the model predicts that for rates of CSP export below a certain threshold competence does not develop any more since cells never manage to accumulate enough CSP for competence to initiate (Figure 4c). Note however that this is a simplification of the effect of pH in competence regulation since pH might also affect ComD and/or the stability of CSP (as in other QS systems⁹) and as our data suggest it might also be involved in the shutdown of competence (Figure S4). However, regardless of the exact mechanism, as long as higher pH increases the rate at which single cells produce and/or sense CSP, our model predicts that the density at which the critical CSP concentration for competence activation is attained will decrease with increasing pH.

Finally, we assessed the joint effect of pH and cell density on competence regulation. We did this by studying competence initiation for cultures inoculated at different cell densities in media with different pH both experimentally and using the model. The model predicts that competence will initiate earlier both for higher inoculation densities and more alkaline pH (Figure 5a left panel): While higher inoculation densities mean that more cells will start producing CSP after inoculation, higher pH increases the rate at which individual cells produce CSP. The experimental data is consistent with this prediction (Figure 5b left panel). Therefore, the observation that pH affects competence development is not conflicting with regulation by cell density because the CSP concentration depends on both of these factors.

Induction of competence by antibiotics

The induction of pneumococcal competence is affected by the presence of certain classes of antibiotics^{16,29}, which has been considered additional evidence for the hypothesis that competence can be regulated independently of cell density^{16,18}. We evaluated this claim by studying the role of HPURa and streptomycin on competence regulation. We chose these antibiotics since the mechanisms by which they induce competence at the molecular level have been elucidated to some extent: HPURa stalls replication forks during DNA replication while initiation of DNA replication continues, thereby increasing the copy number of genes near the origin of replication (*oriC*). As a consequence, it up-regulates transcription of *comAB*, *comCDE* and *comX* as these operons are located proximal to *oriC*²⁹. Streptomycin causes mistranslation and is thought to regulate competence via the membrane protease HtrA which targets misfolded proteins and also represses competence possibly by degrading CSP³⁴ (also see Figure S5). By increasing the amount of misfolded proteins, streptomycin could reduce the rate at which CSP is degraded by HtrA leading to competence induction.

We reproduced the effect of HPURa and streptomycin on competence regulation in our model by increasing the transcription rate of *comAB*, *comCDE* and *comX* and by reducing the rate at which CSP degrades, respectively. Our model predicts that the presence of antibiotics lowers the pH threshold for competence development (Figure 5a) since antibiotics can counteract the effect of acidic pH to the point that cells can still accumulate enough CSP to become competent. They do this by increasing the rate at which single cells produce CSP (reducing the number of cells needed to reach the critical CSP concentration for competence initiation) or by increasing the rate at which they sense CSP (reducing the critical CSP concentration for competence initiation). Also, it predicts that for pH values where competence is already induced without

antibiotics, it will develop faster in the presence of antibiotics (Figure 5a). In agreement with previous studies^{16,29,34} and with the model predictions, we find that antibiotics can induce competence at pH values that are repressive for natural competence development (Figure 5b and c). We also find support for the second prediction of the model since for permissive pH values for natural competence development (above 7.4), competence is induced earlier in the presence of antibiotics (Figure 5b and d). Remarkably, both the model and the experiments show that the combined effect of pH and cell density in the presence of antibiotics remains the same as when no antibiotics are added (compare left panel with middle and right panels in Figures 5a and 5b): Competence induction still occurs earlier for high densities of inoculation and more alkaline pH values. In the case of HPUra at pH 7.3 it is even possible to see that competence does not develop for the highest inoculation density as the population probably reaches carrying capacity before enough CSP is produced.

Bistable region for competence development and the role of cell history

An important feature of the competence regulatory network is the presence of a positive feedback that couples CSP detection to CSP production (Figure 1). Signaling systems that contain positive feedback loops often exhibit switch-like responses resulting in the occurrence of alternative stable states³⁵. We varied the strength of the positive feedback loop in the model by changing the rate of CSP export and found that the competence regulatory network exhibits bistability for a range of intermediate CSP export rates. In this range, the model predicts the existence of two alternative states where competence switches ‘ON’ or ‘OFF’ depending on the initial conditions (Figure 6a).

Since in the model the rate of CSP export is positively correlated to the pH, we expected to find a region of pH values exhibiting similar bistability as an additional experimental corroboration of the model. Indeed, we found support for the existence of a bistable region at pH 7.4 where the wild type developed competence if CSP was externally added in concentrations above 4 ng mL⁻¹ (Figure 6b). Thus, whereas competence always switched on for pH values above 7.4 regardless of the initial CSP concentration, for pH 7.4 both ‘ON’ and ‘OFF’ states were observed depending on the initial CSP concentration. Moreover, at pH 7.4 competence developed for CSP concentrations that did not induce competence in the *comA*⁻ mutant (Figure S4), which indicates that CSP production in the wild type was kick-started by the initial addition of CSP resulting in enough overall CSP for competence induction.

Bistable systems usually exhibit hysteresis. For this reason, we expected that at pH 7.4 where both the ‘ON’ and ‘OFF’ states are attainable, past cell history would influence competence induction. From our previous experiments we determined that cells coming from acid precultures inoculated at pH 7.4 do not develop competence at any density of inoculation (Figure 5b left panel, second column). We then studied whether there is history-dependence by inoculating cells coming from non-acid precultures at pH 7.4. We found that cells coming from a non-acid preculture became competent at densities above OD_{595nm} 2.4 x 10⁻⁴, which demonstrates that cell history can influence competence development (Figure 6c). Past history has an effect on competence because it determines the state of the machinery for CSP production, which is ‘OFF’ when cells come from acid preculture but ‘ON’ when they come from non-acid conditions. This explains why the effect of non-acid cell history appears from a minimum inoculation density, since enough cells need to be inoculated in order for them to produce the amount of CSP necessary for the system to remain ‘ON’ (Figure

6a inset). We then hypothesized that at pH 7.3 the critical inoculation density of cells coming from non-acid history would have to be even higher than the one at pH 7.4 as the model predicted that higher initial concentration of CSP would be necessary for the system to remain ‘ON’ at lower pH. We confirmed this prediction experimentally by showing that at pH 7.3 competence does not develop for an inoculation density of OD_{595nm} 2.4×10^{-4} (as for pH 7.4) but from 7.4×10^{-4} upwards (Figure S6). Thus, our results show that, as a consequence of the positive feedback involved in CSP production, past cell history can determine whether competence is induced or not by modifying the state of the machinery for CSP production and/or sensing.

Discussion

Recently, the view that bacteria use autoinducers as QS signals has been debated since autoinducer concentration can change in response to the environment. Here, we show experimentally that cell density, pH and antibiotic stress simultaneously regulate competence development in *S. pneumoniae*, a system classically framed in the paradigm of QS (Figures 2-5). Using a mathematical model we show that this occurs because pH and antibiotics modify the rates at which single cells produce and sense CSP and therefore the strength of the positive feedback loop coupling CSP detection to CSP production (Figures 4 and 5). Importantly, this environmental dependency does not override regulation by cell density but rather modulates the relationship between the number of cells and the CSP concentration. Furthermore, we show that cell history can also regulate competence development by modifying the status of the machinery to produce and respond to CSP (Figure 6). Hysteresis in the competence response might

be particularly important in the natural niche of the pneumococcus, the human nasopharynx. In particular it is consistent with the observation that there is constitutive upregulation of competence in pneumococcal biofilms during nasopharyngeal colonization³⁶. In this context, once competence is triggered for the first time cells would be primed to rapidly initiate another round of competence.

Why is competence controlled by CSP? Our results provide evidence against the hypothesis that CSP is a timing device and in particular against the view that competence can develop in a cell-density independent manner^{18,19,22} (Figures 2 and 3). Regarding the hypothesis that CSP is a probe to test diffusion²³, our findings suggest that focusing on diffusion alone oversimplifies the information and functionality that cells can gather through CSP production. We hypothesize that by releasing and responding to CSP, bacteria can coordinate the development of competence and in particular the expression of fratricins and bacteriocins, which are under the control of the competent state. These proteins can lyse or inhibit the growth of surrounding cells that are not competent, increasing the efficiency of genetic transformation and mediating competition with other bacteria³⁷⁻⁴⁰. By coordinating competence expression via CSP, an isogenic bacterial population can increase the total concentration of secreted fratricins and bacteriocins, which likely translates into a higher amount of lysed cells and therefore potential DNA donors. Importantly, coordinating competence expression can also prevent the killing of clonal siblings since immunity to these proteins comes with the competent state.

What is the relevance of the information carried by CSP? As shown by our model, alkaline pH and antibiotic stress induce competence by increasing the rate at which single cells produce and sense CSP. We expect this to be a general mechanism by

which sources of stress that are alleviated through competence induce this state (e.g. mobile genetic elements as hypothesized by Croucher et al.⁴¹). Upregulating competence in the presence of antibiotics can increase survival by activating the expression of stress response genes^{10,21}, facilitating repair of damaged DNA and mediating acquisition of resistance^{21,42}. Our findings suggest that strategies to prevent competence development in response to antibiotics can focus on counteracting the effect of antibiotics on the rate at which cells produce or sense CSP. Regarding the benefits of upregulating competence with alkaline pH, these are less clear and could be an example of a non-adaptive response resulting from the inherent biochemical properties of ComAB and possibly ComD.

General insights on QS

Our findings support the view that functional hypotheses stressing individual factors like diffusion or population density underplay the complexity of information integrated by QS systems^{7,43–47}. Although the term ‘quorum sensing’ overemphasizes the role of population density, we advocate for keeping it due to its widespread use and the fact that density modifies autoinducer concentration in all autoinducer production systems. Crucially, QS should be used in a broad sense that acknowledges that bacteria integrate other factors in addition to population density into their QS responses. This view might be very useful for other autoinducer production systems like competence in *Vibrio cholerae*, where the synthesis of the autoinducer, CAI-1, depends on the intracellular levels of cAMP-CRP and therefore might incorporate information on the metabolic status of the cell^{48,49}. Also in other systems, clear links between signal production, quorum threshold and environmental conditions have been shown to affect QS^{50–54}.

Given that many biotic and abiotic factors can modify autoinducer concentrations

⁵⁵, future work should aim to study the relevance of such factors in the natural context where bacteria secrete autoinducers. Such work is crucial to assess whether upregulating QS in response to a particular factor provides a benefit for bacteria or is merely a result of the biochemical properties of the QS regulatory network. An interesting possibility is that, as in other biological systems ⁵⁶, bacteria could perform collective sensing of the environment through social interactions. In this context, by secreting autoinducers cells could share individual estimates of environmental conditions (e.g. antibiotic stress) for which upregulating QS is beneficial. Then, autoinducer secretion would provide a way to get a more reliable estimate of the environmental conditions by allowing a population to pool estimates made by individual cells. Importantly, such a role for autoinducer secretion would explain the dependency of QS on both cell density and the environment.

Methods

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

All pneumococcal strains used in this study are derivatives of the clinical isolate *S. pneumoniae* D39 ²⁸. In order to monitor competence development all strains contain a transcriptional fusion of the firefly *luc* and the *gfp* gene with the late competence gene *ssbB*. See Table S1 for a list of the strains used and the Supplemental information for details on the construction of the strains. *S. pneumoniae* was always grown in C+Y complex medium ²⁷ at 37°C.

Density and luminescence assays

Cells were pre-cultured either in acid C+Y (pH 6.8) or in non-acid C+Y (pH 7.9) at 37°C to an OD_{595nm} of 0.1. Right before inoculation, they were collected by centrifugation (8000 rpm for 3 minutes) and resuspended in fresh C+Y (pH 7.9). Luciferase assays were performed in 96-wells plates with a Tecan Infinite 200 PRO Illuminometer at 37°C as described before⁵⁷. Luciferin was added at a concentration of 0.5 mg/mL to monitor competence by means of luciferase activity. Optical density (OD_{595nm}) and luminescence (relative luminescence units [RLU]) were measured every 10 minutes. The time and density of competence initiation correspond to the first time point where the RLU signal is equal or above 200 units. RLU is used instead of RLU/OD because 1) when competence develops the rate at which the RLU signal increases is faster than the growth rate and 2) due to the very low inoculation densities used for Figure 2 the RLU/OD can be very high at the start (clearly before competence has developed). The value of 200 units was chosen because once this value is reached competence always developed. The effect of pH on competence development was studied by inoculating cells in C+Y at a range of pH values from 6.8 to 9. pH was adjusted by adding HCl and NaOH. The effect of antibiotics was studied by adding streptomycin (3 µg mL⁻¹) and HPUra (0.075 µg mL⁻¹) to C+Y.

Time-lapse fluorescence microscopy

Phase contrast and GFP images were obtained using a Deltavision Elite microscope (GE Healthcare, USA) with Trulight illumination for the GFP signal at 32% intensity output (filtered with a neutral density filter) and an exposure time of 0.3 sec. Time-lapse videos were recorded by taking images every 10 minutes. The polyacrylamide

gel used as semi-solid growth surface was prepared with C+Y (pH 7.9) and 10% acrylamide. Cells were pre-cultured in acid C+Y (pH 6.8) and right before inoculation on the slide they were resuspended in fresh C+Y (pH 7.9) as explained before. Microscopy images were analyzed using MicrobeTracker⁵⁸.

Mathematical model

A mathematical model of the network of competence regulation (Figure 1) was developed as a system of ODEs. The model incorporates the protein interactions involved in sensing CSP via the two-component system formed by ComD and ComE and exporting it via ComC and ComAB. Additionally, it explicitly models the interaction of ComE and ComE~P with the gene promoters of *comAB*, *comCDE* and *comX*. This is important since ComE~P binds these promoters as a dimer introducing non-linearity into the system, which underlies the observed bistability. Population growth is logistic and it is assumed that all the cells are homogeneous. See the Supplemental information for the equations and further description.

Author Contributions

SMG, RAS, MK, GSvD, and JWV designed research; SMG, RAS and MK performed experiments; SMG and GSvD developed the model; SM, RAS, MK, FJW, GSvD, and JWV analyzed data; and SMG, FJW, GSvD and JWV wrote the paper.

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Figures and Legends

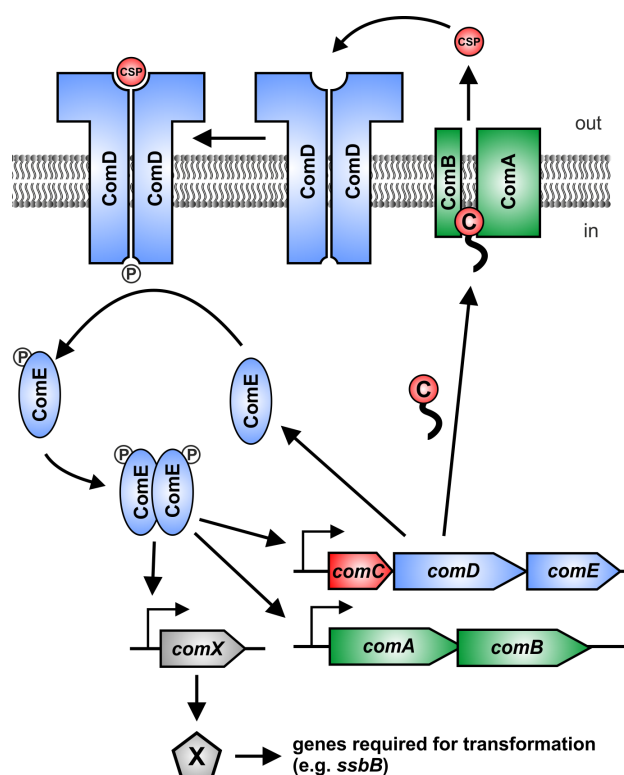


Figure 1. Network of competence regulation in *S. pneumoniae*. ComC (C) binds the membrane protein complex ComAB, and it is processed and exported as CSP to the extracellular space. CSP binds to the histidine kinase ComD, which is located in the membrane as a dimer. Upon CSP binding, ComD autophosphorylates and transfers the phosphate group to the response regulator ComE^{12,26}. The phosphorylated form of ComE (ComE~P) dimerizes and activates transcription of *comAB*, *comCDE* and *comX* by binding to their promoters^{11,12}. Unphosphorylated ComE can also bind these promoters, repressing their transcription^{26,59}. Synthesis of the alternative sigma factor ComX directs transcription of genes required for genetic transformation as well as other functions^{10,27}. Two key features of this network are the presence of a positive feedback loop (since increasing CSP detection leads to increasing CSP production) and of non-linearity (since ComE~P interacts with the gene promoters as a dimer).

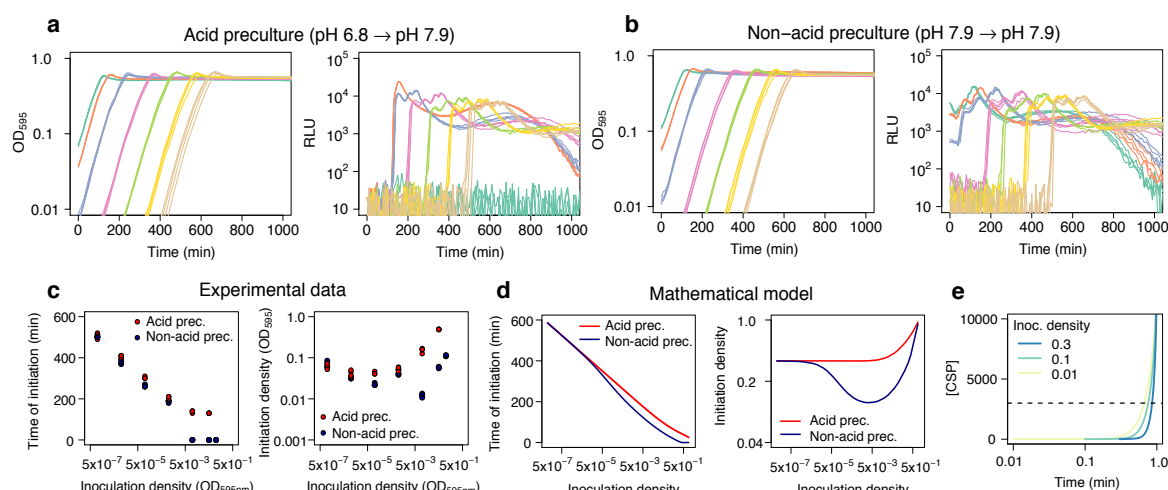
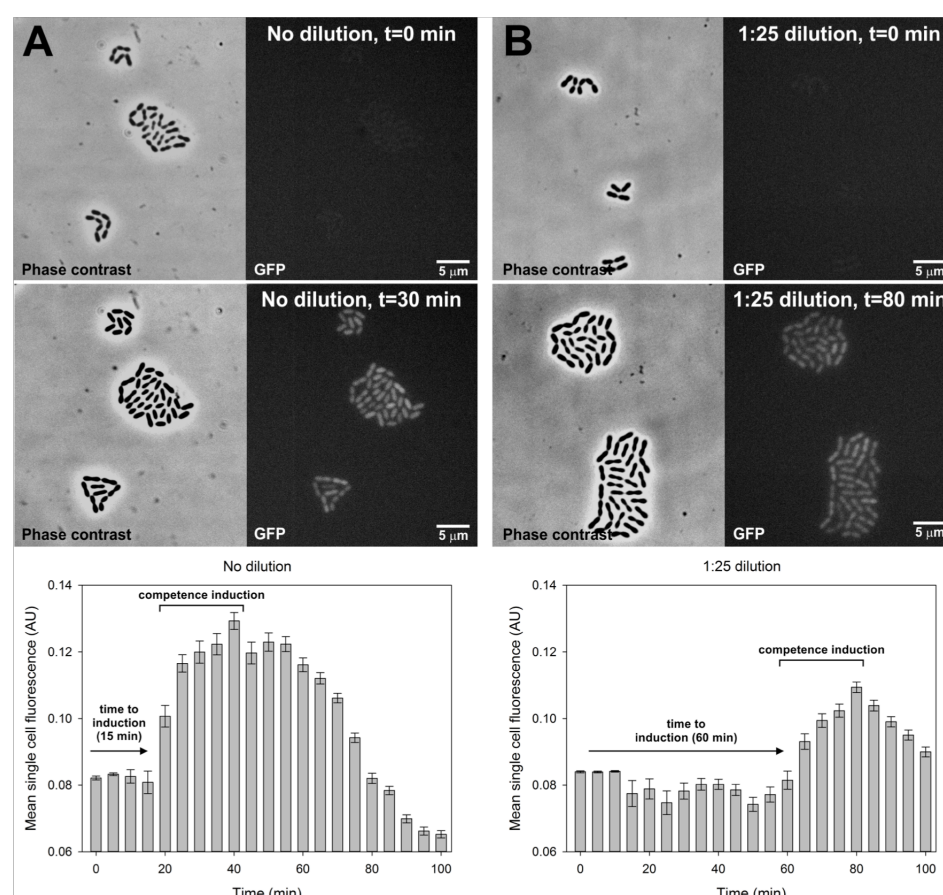


Figure 2. Competence is regulated by cell density. (a,b) Growth curves (OD_{595nm}) and competence expression measured as relative luminescence units (RLU) expressed from the promoter of the late competence gene *ssbB* for populations inoculated at a range of densities and grown at pH 7.9 in C+Y medium. In **a**, cells were precultured under acid conditions (pH 6.8), while cells were precultured under non-acid conditions (pH 7.9) in **b**. Four replicates are shown for each of seven inoculation densities (OD_{595nm}): 0.1 (Green), 0.05 (Red), 0.01 (Blue), 10⁻³ (Purple), 10⁻⁴ (Light green), 10⁻⁵ (Yellow) and 10⁻⁶ (Brown). Competence does not develop in cells coming from acid preculture and inoculated at a density of 0.1. **c**) Effect of inoculation density on the time until competence initiation (left panel) and the population density at which competence was initiated (right panel). Competence initiation was defined as the time where the RLU signal exceeded 200 units. **d**) Predictions of the mathematical model concerning the effect of inoculation density on the timing of competence initiation (left panel) and the density at which competence initiates (right panel). In the model, competence initiation was defined as the time where the total concentration of ComX times the population density exceeds 2000 units. Non-acid preculture is simulated in the model by setting the initial amount of all proteins in the competence regulatory network to the value they attain when cells are competent. **e**) The model predicts that populations inoculated at lower densities will reach a threshold CSP concentration (dotted line) at a lower density than populations inoculated at higher densities. The effect of inoculation density on the time of competence development is also observed in an unencapsulated mutant (Figure S2).



695

696 **Figure 3. The effect of initial cell density on the timing of competence**
697 **development is also observed by time-lapse fluorescence microscopy.** Phase
698 contrast and GFP images of cultures started at two different inoculation densities. In **a**
699 the slide containing C+Y medium at pH 7.8 was inoculated with 1.5 μL of cells pre-
700 cultured to OD₅₉₅ 0.1 at pH 6.8 whereas in **b** it was inoculated with 1.5 μL of a 1:25
701 dilution of the same preculture. The first images (t=0) were taken right after
702 inoculation and the second ones correspond to the time point where the GFP signal per
703 cell is maximum. Image analysis shows that competence starts after 15 min in cells
704 directly inoculated from the pre-culture, whereas it takes 60 min for cells coming from
705 the 1:25 dilution of the preculture. A typical outcome of such an experiment is shown.
706 The error bars correspond to the standard error of the mean.

707

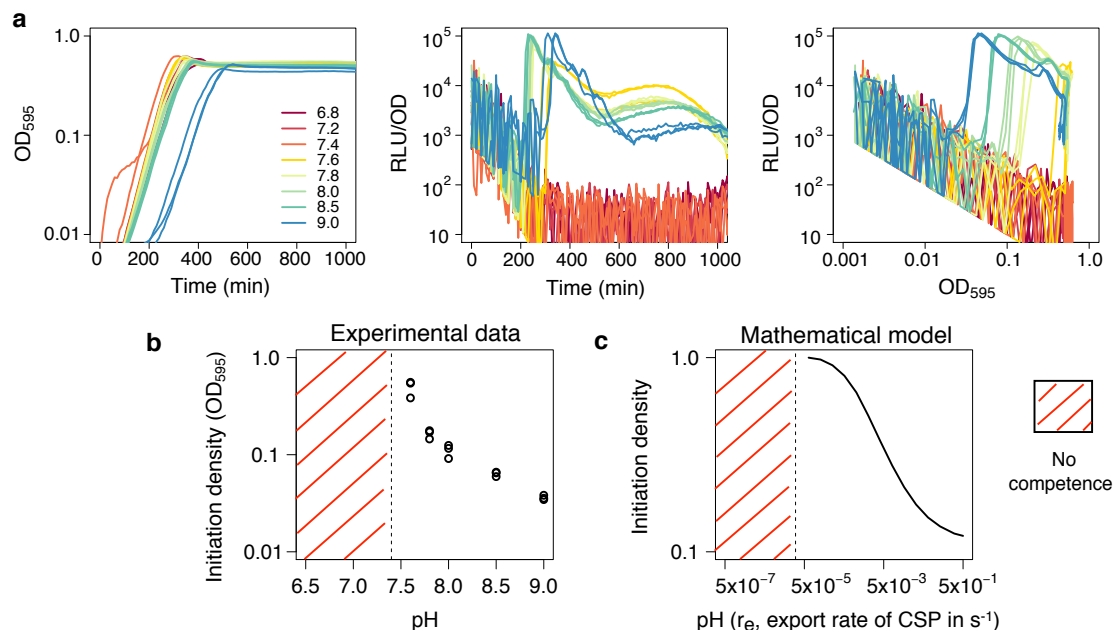


Figure 4. Competence is upregulated by higher pH. **a)** Effect of pH on growth curves (left panel) and the dynamics of competence expression (middle panel). Competence expression was quantified as relative luminescence units (RLU) normalized by cell density. In the right panel, competence expression is plotted in relation to cell density. All populations were grown at the indicated pH and inoculated at a density of OD_{595nm} 0.002. Three replicates are shown for each pH. **b)** Effect of pH on the population density at which competence was initiated (the density at which RLU exceeded 200 units). Competence did not develop at pH 7.4 and below. **c)** Predictions of the model on the effect of the rate of CSP export, r_e , and thus the pH, on the density of competence initiation. Competence does not develop anymore below a threshold rate of CSP export.

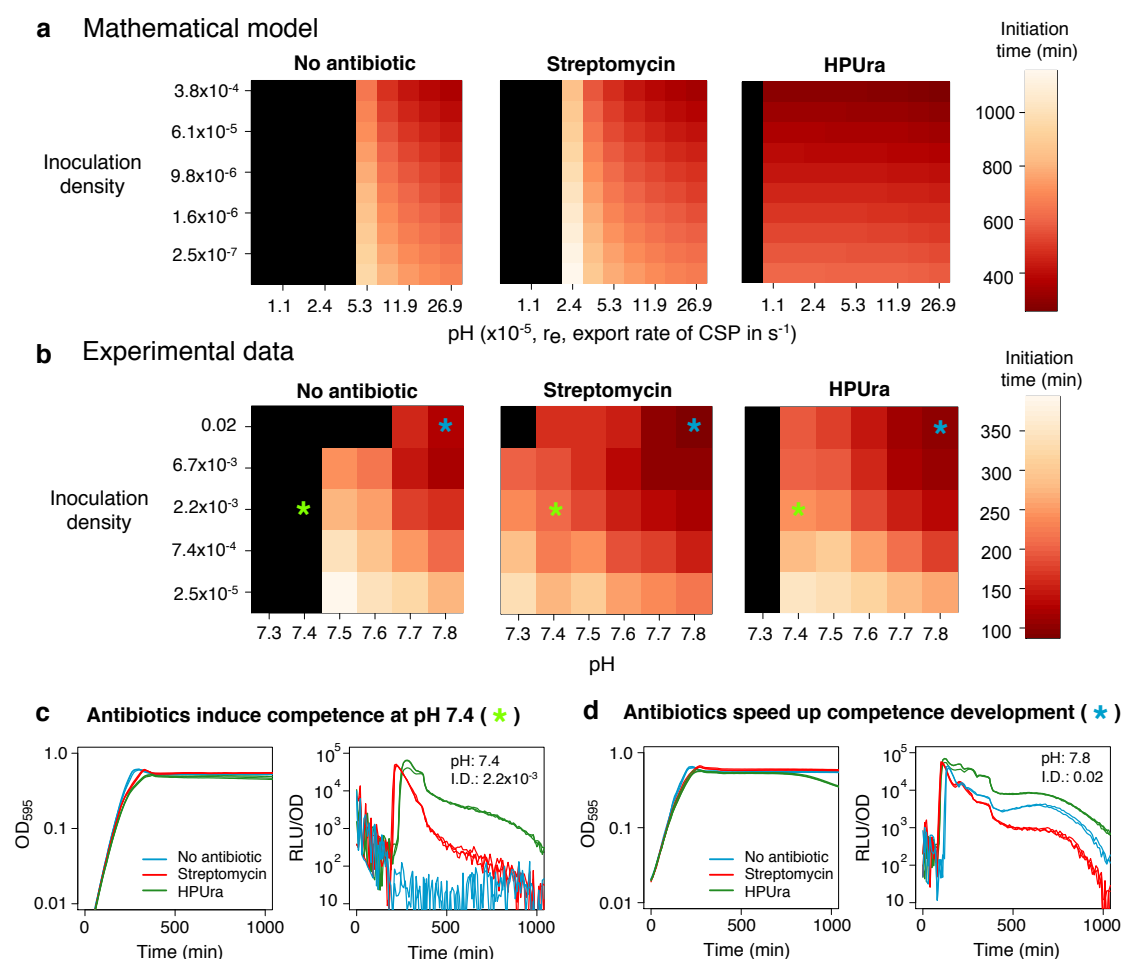


Figure 5. Competence is simultaneously regulated by cell density, pH and antibiotic stress. Predictions of the mathematical model (a) and experimental data (b) on the dependency of the time of competence initiation on inoculation density, pH and antibiotic stress. The x-axis in a corresponds to the rate of CSP export in the model, r_e , which is a proxy for pH. The color scales with the time of competence initiation with more intense red corresponding to faster development of competence. Black represents no competence development. In b each box corresponds to the average initiation time of three replicates. Both the model and the experimental data show that competence develops faster at higher pH and higher inoculation densities. c) Antibiotics induce competence at pH values that repress natural competence development. d) At pH values that are not repressive for competence development ($pH > 7.4$), competence develops faster in the presence of antibiotics. The stars indicate which conditions are plotted in c and d.

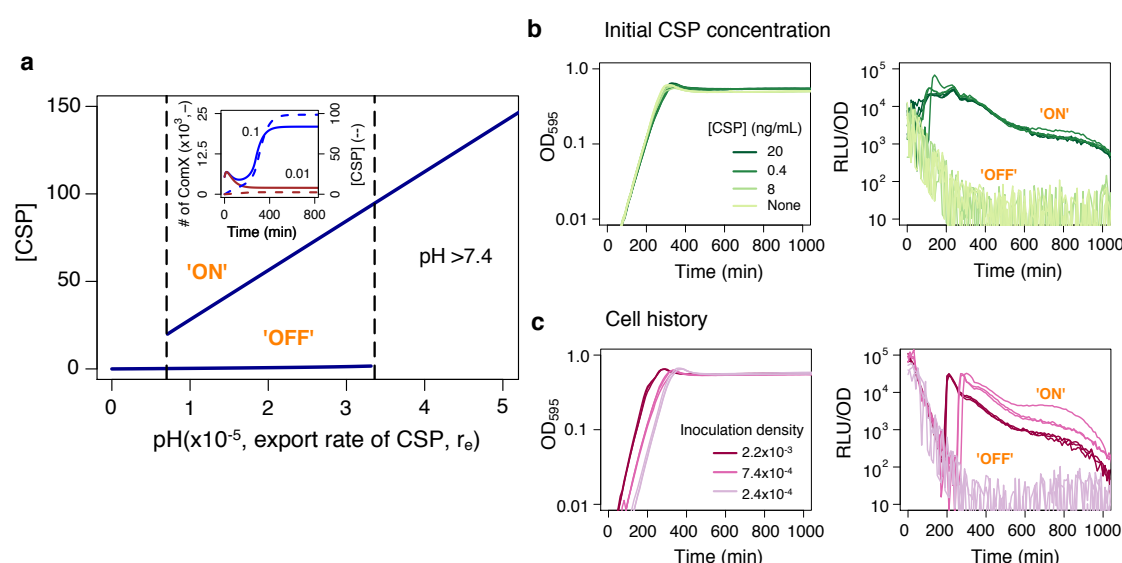


Figure 6. A bistable regime for competence development. **a)** Extracellular concentration of CSP in response to the rate of CSP export. The model predicts the existence of a region where competence always switches on regardless of the initial conditions (which would correspond to pH > 7.4) and of a bistable region (bordered by the dashed lines). In the latter, the initial conditions can either switch on or not CSP production and subsequently competence development. (Inset) In particular, the model predicts that in this region non-acid cell history can allow competence development if enough cells are inoculated since they can produce enough CSP to remain competent. The inoculation densities are 0.1 (Blue) and 0.01 (Brown) and both the number of ComX molecules (solid line) and the CSP concentration (dashed line) are shown. **b)** Growth curves and competence expression measured as RLU units normalized by density for cells coming from acid preculture (pH 6.8) and inoculated in medium at pH 7.4 with different initial concentrations of CSP. Three replicates are shown per treatment and all the cultures are inoculated at OD₅₉₅ 0.002. **c)** Growth curves and competence expression measured as RLU units normalized by density for cells coming from non-acid preculture (pH 7.9) and inoculated in medium at pH 7.4 at different initial densities. Three replicates are shown per inoculation density. Competence does not develop for cells inoculated at the same densities but coming from acid preculture (pH 6.8) (Figure 5b, left panel, second column).