Polygenic adaptation, clonal interference, and the evolution of mutators in experimental

Pseudomonas aeruginosa populations

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Abstract:

In bacterial populations, switches in lifestyle from motile, planktonic growth to surface-associated biofilm is associated with persistence both in the environment and infections. Studies have identified the first steps of adaptation to biofilm growth but have yet to replicate the extensive genetic diversity observed in chronic infections or in the natural environment. We conducted an evolution experiment with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* PA14 in growth media that promotes biofilm formation for 90 days in either planktonic culture or in a biofilm bead model. Surprisingly, all populations evolved extensive genetic diversity with hundreds of mutations maintained at intermediate frequencies, while fixation events were rare. Instead of the expected few beneficial mutations rising in frequency through successive sweeps, we observe a remarkable 40 genes with parallel mutations spanning both environments and often on coexisting genotypes within a population. Additionally, the evolution of mutator genotypes (*mutS* or *mutL* mutator alleles) that rise to high frequencies in as little as 25 days contribute to the extensive genetic variation and strong clonal interference. Parallelism in several transporters (including *pitA, pntB, nosD,* and *pchF*) indicate probable adaptation to the arginine media that becomes highly alkaline during growth, whereas genes involved in signal transduction (including *gacS*, *aer2, bdlA, and* PA14_71750) reflect likely adaptations to biofilm-inducing conditions. This experiment shows how extensive genetic and phenotypic diversity can arise and persist in microbial populations despite strong selection that would normally purge diversity.

Importance:

How biodiversity arises and is maintained in clonally reproducing organisms like

microbes remains unclear. Many models presume that beneficial genotypes will outgrow

others and purge variation via selective sweeps. Environmental structure like biofilms

may oppose this process and preserve variation. We tested this hypothesis by evolving

P. aeruginosa populations in biofilm-promoting media for three months and found that

adaptation and diversification were coupled and mostly uninterrupted by fixation events

that eliminate diversity. Genetic variation tended to be greater in lines grown using a

bead model of biofilm growth but many lineages also persisted in planktonic lines.

Convergent evolution affecting dozens of genes indicates that selection acted on a wide

variety of traits to improve fitness, causing many adapting lineages to co-occur and

persist. This result demonstrates that some environments may expose a large fraction

of the genome to selection and select for many adaptations at once, causing enduring

diversity.

Introduction:

Bacterial populations inhabit countless environments along a continuum of spatial structure, ranging from well-mixed liquid to clusters bound to surfaces. Growth on surfaces is associated with biofilm production that in turn generates nutrient and oxygen gradients[1], but so too does the metabolic activities of neighboring cells. Life in confined spaces results in varied levels of nutrients, wastes, and signaling molecules that may alter selective forces on parts of the population and create novel ecological opportunities[2]. These physical differences are hypothesized to select for genetic differences in biofilm populations distinct from well mixed cultures. Experimental microbial evolution (EME) studies have found that biofilm populations select for different mutations than those seen in planktonic growth, and the greater environmental structure of the biofilm produces increased genetic diversity[3,4,5,6,7,8,5,8,4,9]. Despite this process of diversification, replicate populations propagated in both biofilm and planktonic conditions exhibit high levels of both phenotypic and genetic parallelism, suggesting some measure of predictability within the same environment[10,7,11,12,13,14,15]. However, we still have much to learn about how the biofilm life cycle influences evolutionary dynamics and processes, including the relative roles of mutation and selection, and whether biofilm growth becomes the dominant selective force relative to other stresses like nutrient limitation or external toxins.

Pseudomonas aeruginosa is an opportunistic pathogen found in soil and water and is known for its ability to thrive in numerous environments. *P. aeruginosa* is a highly studied pathogen due to its association with poor outcomes in clinical settings when it forms biofilm infections within patients[16,17,18,19,4,20] Adaptation to biofilm growth has been

indicated as a cause of infection persistence in numerous studies[21,22,23] and manifests

as important colony phenotypes such as mucoidy and rugose small colony variants

(RSCVs) as well as the loss of virulence factor production and altered cell surface

virulence determinants[24,25]. Several studies have been performed to identify some of the

first steps of adaptation to a biofilm environment but these studies have yet to replicate

the high levels of genetic diversity often seen in chronic biofilm-associated infections,

such as those of the airways of cystic fibrosis patients[26,19,18,27,17,28].

We designed a long-term evolution experiment over 90 days of propagation

(~600 generations) to explore how the population-genetic dynamics of *P. aeruginosa*

adaptation differ in a model of the biofilm life cycle compared to a well-mixed

environment. We previously reported findings of greater phenotypic and ecological

diversity in biofilm populations in comparison with those passaged by serial dilution,

where planktonic growth predominates. This diversity was linked to traits that enhance

biofilm growth and thus likely adaptations. Further, the relative fitness of each

population was greater when all colony types were present, suggesting a process of

niche partitioning and facilitation among lineages[6]. Surprisingly, these putatively

adaptive phenotypes differed among replicate populations and changed over time as

opposed to the parallelism observed in previous studies[5,3]. A preliminary survey of the

genomes of these lineages revealed that this diversity was in part caused by the

evolution of *mutS* and *mutL* genotypes that increased mutation rate, a genotype also

observed in many chronic infections of *P. aeruginosa*[29,30,31,32]. Here, we use longitudinal

whole-population genome sequencing (WPGS) to study the underlying evolutionary

dynamics of this experiment at high resolution. Some genes that experienced

mutational parallelism contribute to arginine metabolism, the sole carbon and nitrogen

source in these experiments. More surprising, in light of the duration of the experiment

and the strength of selection in these populations, few mutations actually fixed in any of

the six populations and much more genetic diversity was preserved than has been seen

in previous evolution experiments. We discuss potential evolutionary and phenotypic

causes for this maintenance of such levels of high genetic diversity.

Results:

Experimental evolution

102     Six populations of *P. aeruginosa* strain PA14 (PA), a strain already proficient in

forming biofilm, were propagated for 90 days (approximately 600 generations, or ~6.6

generations per day) to examine the population-genetic dynamics of prolonged growth

in a biofilm life cycle, where bacteria that attach to a polystyrene bead are transferred

daily to a new tube containing a fresh bead (populations B1, B2, B3), or during serial

1:100 dilutions (planktonic populations P1, P2, P3) as described previously[2,6] (Figure

S1). The culture medium was M63 media containing arginine as the sole carbon and

nitrogen source and supplemented with 25 μM iron (see methods), a combination which

has been shown to promote biofilm production in *Pseudomonas* species[33]. We also

sought to identify adaptations to these environments at both phenotypic and genetic

levels.

113     After 90 days, all six populations became vastly more fit than ancestral PA14,

with selective coefficients 10-fold greater (*r* between 3 and 5) than the fitness gains

observed in other evolution experiments of similar duration[34,35,3,36,7] (Figure S2, Table

S1). Five populations increased their maximum growth rate (Vmax; Figure S3a) and five

populations evolved to become less motile than the ancestor (Figure S3b). Interestingly,

despite selection to attach to a plastic bead each day presumably by producing biofilm,

only the B3 population evolved higher biofilm production than the ancestor as measured

by the standard crystal violet assay, while four populations, including bead populations

B1 and B2, evolved lower biofilm production (Figure S3c). This result may reflect the

high starting biofilm production of PA14 in these conditions being difficult to improve. To

merge these three phenotypes, we performed a principal component analysis (Figure

1a) and found that evolved populations were distinguished from the ancestor but not

clearly separated by treatment.

Figure 1. Divergent phenotypes linked to fitness and genotypes distinguish each

evolved population after 90 days of passage. (A) PCA of evolved phenotypes

including biofilm production, maximum growth rate (Vmax), and swimming motility. Blue

squares are biofilm populations, red circles are planktonic populations, and the ancestor

is indicated by black diamond(s). The first three components explain 51.58%, 40.23%,

and 8.19% of variance. (B) PCA of mutation identities and frequencies at Days 17, 25,

44, 66, 75, and 90. Replicate data points for each population are indicated in color.

Colors are the same as in A, but shape indicates time through the experiment. The top

four components explain 19.78%, 13.36%, 9.31%, and 6.5% of the variance.

High genetic diversity arose and persisted in all populations

We used longitudinal WPGS to characterize the genetic diversity and

evolutionary dynamics of each lineage with an average depth of 617.1 ± 142.3 reads per

sample. A total of 145.7 ± 55 mutations were detected per population over the course of

the 90-day time period (see methods for filtering criteria). This number of mutations is

remarkable in comparison to previous evolution experiments including those performed

on *Burkholderia cenocepacia* using the same bead model, in which 37 mutations were

identified in the best-studied population[5] over twice the transfer days. Biofilm

populations accumulated more mutations (535, with 382 found at day 90) over the 90

days than planktonic populations (339, with 201 found at day 90; Table 1).

Total cumulative mutations	**874**
Biofilm only	535
Planktonic only	339
Total mutations at day 90	**583**
Biofilm only	382
Planktonic only	201
Total fixed mutations	**53**
Biofilm only	48
Planktonic only	5
Total fixation events	**10**

Table 1. Summarized mutation statistics from all six populations following 90 days of

experimental evolution.

A characteristic known to be associated with positive selection is the increase in

nonsynonymous (NS) mutations over synonymous (S) mutations[37,27]. In following with

this trend, the normalized NS/S ratio for planktonic populations averaged 1.73 and for

biofilm populations 2.34. A total of 31 indels were also identified in the six evolved

populations (Table S2, Table S3) while, interestingly, no large structural variants were

detected. A large number of intergenic mutations were also identified (233 mutations, or

27.5%), many in likely promoter or terminator regions. The importance of intergenic

mutations still remains unclear, however recent work has implicated intergenic

regulatory regions as critical in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* evolution in the laboratory

and during infections[20,38].

We hypothesized that the structured biofilm environment would maintain greater

genetic diversity than mixed liquid culture, but this ecological process is potentially at

odds with the diversity-purging effect of selection on beneficial mutations. For example,

a mutation that generally improves growth would be expected to sweep and eliminate

genetic variation, even though the biofilm phase of growth is predicted to increase the

probability that mutations become established within various subpopulations[5,39,40].

Planktonic populations would also be subject to similar effects of selective sweeps but

their admixture might limit the cooccurrence of contending mutations[41]. To summarize,

comparing populations at a given time point might not adequately capture the

longitudinal ecological and evolutionary dynamics affecting diversity. For this reason, we

sampled biofilm populations at six time points (17, 25, 44, 66, 75, and 90 days) and

planktonic populations at four time points (17, 44, 66, and 90 days) and focused on

temporal changes in all mutations supported by three reads on each of both strands.

As predicted, the nucleotide diversity of biofilm populations tended to be greater

at the end of the experiment than after only 17 transfers (day 17 vs day 90: p = 0.0478, t

= 2.821, df = 4 via two tailed t-test). Planktonic populations continued to select on new

mutations throughout the experiment, but they did not become more diverse by day 90

than at day 17 (p = 0.239, t = 1.384, df = 4 via two tailed t-test), indicating a process

where new mutations were displacing older ones. Biofilm populations also tended

toward greater diversity than planktonic populations later in the experiment, albeit not

significantly (planktonic vs biofilm, day 90, p = 0.0749, t = 2.394, df = 4 via two tailed t-

test; Figure S4a). These findings are consistent with the greater morphological variation

in biofilm populations than planktonic ones that we reported previously[6].

A major cause of the high genetic diversity is the prevalence of mutator alleles,

mutations that cause a genome-wide increase in mutation rate, in four populations. In all

biofilm populations and one planktonic population (P3) NS mutations in the DNA

mismatch repair (MMR) genes *mutS* and *mutL* became frequent or fixed. Two

populations, B1 and B2, independently evolved the same *mutS* mutation (T112P) that

has been shown to lower affinity for heteroduplex DNA in *E. coli*[42] and results in a 116-

fold increase in mutation rate in isogenic mutants (Figure S5). Genotypes containing

these mutations fix in populations B1 and B2 by days 44 and 25, respectively (Figure 2,

red trajectories). A premature stop mutation (W307*) in *mutS* also rose to intermediate

frequency (53%) in the P3 population by day 90. While we did not create an isogenic

mutant of this mutator allele, we predict that it acts as other *mutS* mutations with a

roughly 100-fold increase in mutation rate. The rise of *mutS* alleles caused these

populations to diverge genetically from the others, as seen from PCA analysis of

mutational frequency data (Figure 1B). A fourth mutator genotype evolved in the B3

population by a mutation in *mutL* (D467G) that caused a 16-fold increase in mutation

rate and rose to 83% frequency by day 90 (Figure 2; Figure S5). Consequently, each of

these mutator populations became enriched for transition and single-base indel

mutations, signatures typical of defects in mismatch repair[43,44,45] (Table S2).

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203   **Figure 2.** Evolutionary trajectories of inferred genotypes within six PA populations under
204   biofilm (B) or planktonic (P) selection. Genotypes containing mutator alleles are colored
205   red. Triangles indicate timing of the ten fixation events observed throughout the study.
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High diversity is a byproduct of clonal interference

While mutator alleles are not beneficial themselves[44] and their dominant effect is

to introduce neutral or deleterious mutations, they can facilitate the acquisition of

combinations of beneficial mutations. A more beneficial genotype that has acquired

several beneficial mutations may be able to outcompete less fit lineages with fewer

mutations, overcoming competition among adaptive lineages that slows their rate of

increase. This dynamic is known as clonal interference or more generally as the Hill-

Robertson effect[46,47,48]. The ability to acquire many beneficial mutations and escape

clonal interference may be particularly advantageous when beneficial genetic variation

is limiting or, more likely in these populations, saturating[49,50].

As described above, hundreds of mutations rose to detectable frequencies in

these populations within ~200 generations and persisted. We used software recently

developed by our lab to group mutations into genotypes on the basis of shared, nested

frequency-trajectories[51]. Remarkably, between 30 and 47 genotypes each composed of

multiple mutations accumulated within each population throughout the experiment

(figure 2). The number of genotypes present at a given sampled timepoint continuously

increase in biofilm populations, whereas the maximum diversity in planktonic

populations occurred at day 44 (supplemental figure 4). Yet despite extensive variation

at both nucleotide and genotype levels, only 10 fixation events were observed involving

a total of 53 mutations. These selective sweeps involved genotypes with more

mutations in biofilm populations than in planktonic lines (Table 1), and two sweeps were

linked to mutator alleles in which 24 mutations fixed (Table S3). These results suggest

that the biofilm environment selected larger mutational cohorts, which could involve

more differentiated genotypes, to fix, whereas planktonic populations selected one or

few mutations to fix. One cause of this pattern was the superiority of mutator genotypes

containing more linked mutations, which were more common in biofilm lines. Combined,

these findings suggest that the rapid rise of mutator alleles may have enabled escape

from clonal interference, especially in biofilms.

To better understand the evolutionary processes within these populations, we

visualized genotype frequencies over time by constructing Muller plots[5,52]. These figures

demonstrate, for example, how new mutations within genotypes enable the spread of

that lineage by outcompeting others and giving rise to new daughter lineages. The most

conspicuous genotype invasions were the mutator genotypes in populations B1 and B2

containing 11 or 13 mutations (Figure 3; mutator ancestry depicted in color and fixation

events depicted by vertical lines). These figures also illustrate effects of particularly

consequential mutations that overtake others or give rise to further diversity as well as

genotypes that arise simultaneously and coexist for hundreds of generations. This latter

dynamic is consistent with either clonal interference or genotypes adapting to inhabit

discrete niches, possibilities we evaluate below.

Figure 3. Genealogy and genotype frequencies over time. Each shade or color represents a different genotype and vertical area corresponds to genotype frequency, inferred by LOLIPop[51]. Shades of grey indicate genotypes not on a mutator background, whereas colors indicate genotypes on a mutator background. Dashed lines indicate timing of fixation events predicted by genotype trajectories (Figure 2). Biofilm populations are on the top row and planktonic populations are on the bottom row.

To test the genotype prediction algorithm producing these Muller plots and to

identify other mutations undetected due to their low frequencies or sequencing

coverage, we sequenced 26 clones from population B1 and 10 from population P1. B1

clones contained 48- 138 mutations per clone whereas clones from the P1 population

only contained between 14- 28 mutations, results consistent with population sequencing

results. However, many of these mutations were previously undetected in the

metagenomes, indicating much greater genetic variation at frequencies below our

detection limits from population sequencing (Figure 4) [53]. The 26 B1 clones belonged to

a total of nine competing genotypes at day 90 (Figure S6), whereas the 10 planktonic

clones only belonged to two distinct genotypes (Figure S7). This finding confirms that

the biofilm population maintained greater genetic diversity than the planktonic

population at the end of the experiment.

Figure 4. Clonal sequencing identifies more mutational variation than population level
sequencing. Collector's curve of total mutations identified by both population and clonal
sequencing. To enable comparison results are plotted by the percentage of samples
obtained (6 populations or 36 clones).
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Another goal of sequencing these clones was to determine the genetic causes of

the distinct colony morphologies that we previously showed to associate with distinct

niches and phenotypes within the B1 biofilm population.[6] Each of the seven

morphotypes (Figure 5a) represented a different long-lived genetic lineage (Figure 5b)

that was separated by at least five mutations. This indicates the previous study that was

based solely on colony morphotypes captured a good representation of the population

diversity as it included seven of nine identified genotypes. We examined mutations

unique to each genotype in an effort to identify those responsible for their unique

phenotypes, which included the ability to form more productive biofilm communities in

mixture (Table 2).

Figure 5. Clones representing different colony morphologies from the B1 population are
all at different points on the evolutionary trajectory of the B1 population. (A) Seven
colony morphologies were identified at day 90 and their phenotypes and ecological
interactions were characterized previously[6]. (B) Ancestry was inferred using LOLIPop[51].
Genotypes of named are shown in blue.

For five morphotypes we can predict a genetic cause of the high biofilm formation

and the related high c-di-GMP levels. Morphotypes A and H each independently

acquired mutations in *gacS*, a sensor kinase known to be associated with high biofilm

production[54], and which will be discussed more below. The additional three evolved

mutations in separate genes that have all been linked to *Pseudomonas* biofilm

production previously: mutant D acquired a mutation in the sensor histidine kinase

rcsC[55], M acquired a mutation in the type III secretion system gene *pscQ*[56], and V

acquired a mutation in the two component response regulator PA14_52250[57,58] (Table

2). While these are not the only mutations that distinguish the morphotypes from one

another, these are leading candidates that could produce their varied biofilm

phenotypes.

Clone	Gene	PA01 ortholog	Pseudocap function
A	bkdA1	bdkA1	
	flgB	flgB	Motility & Attachment
	oprC	oprC	Transport of small molecules
	oprC	oprC	Transport of small molecules
	PA14_06960	PA0534	Putative enzymes
	PA14_10830	no PA01 ortholog	Transcriptional regulators
	PA14_14530>/>PA14_14540		
	gacS	gacS	Two-component regulatory systems
	PA14_52760	PA0891	Transport of small molecules
	PA14_72320	PA5478	Membrane proteins
	ppc	ppc	Central intermediary metabolism
	thrB>/<PA14_72520		
	TrpB	TrpB	Amino acid biosynthesis and metabolism
D	oprH</>napE	oprH</>napE	
	PA14_04050	PA0227	Biosynthesis of cofactors, prosthetic groups and carriers
	PA14_06030	PA0461	Fatty acid and phospholipid metabolism
	PA14_10910	PA4096	Transport of small molecules
	PA14_19450	PA3453	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
	PA14_23670	PA3127	Antibiotic resistance and susceptibility
	PA14_29260	PA2696	Transcriptional regulators
	PA14_31470	PA2557	Fatty acid and phospholipid metabolism
	PA14_48210	PA1239	Putative enzymes
	PA14_55380</<PA14_55390		
	magD	magD	Adaptation, Protection
	PA14_66380	PA5021	Membrane proteins
	pauR	pauR	Carbon compound catabolism
	PA14_71750	PA5437	Transcriptional regulators
	pvdJ	pvdJ	Adaptation, Protection
H	algU</>nadB	algU</>nadB	
	dsbA2	dsbA2	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
	gbuR	gbuR	Transcriptional regulators
	PA14_19190	PA3471	Central intermediary metabolism
	prkA	prkA	
	fliT	fliT	Motility & Attachment
	gacS	gacS	Two-component regulatory systems
	PA14_58960	no PA01 ortholog	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
	PA14_71750	PA5437	Transcriptional regulators
	rpoB	rpoB	Transcription, RNA processing and degradation
M	flhA	flhA	Motility & Attachment
	PA14_07810	PA0599	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
	PA14_13150	PA3921	Transcriptional regulators
	PA14_43150</>PA14_43160		
	pscQ	pscQ	Protein secretion/export apparatus
O	PA14_12160	PA3992	Putative enzymes
	PA14_14390</>PA14_14400		
	PA14_27610>/>PA14_27620		
	PA14_27770	PA2812	Transport of small molecules
	PA14_51510	PA0988	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
	pstA	pstA	Transport of small molecules
	spuF	spuF	Transport of small molecules
	str	str	Antibiotic resistance and susceptibility
	trbL	trbL	
P	lpxC	lpxC	Cell wall / LPS / capsule
	mdoH	mdoH	Cell wall / LPS / capsule
	PA14_03000	PA0242	Putative enzymes
	PA14_13140>/>PA14_13150		
	PA14_1340>/<PA14_13350		
	PA14_18760	PA3523	Transport of small molecules
	PA14_43150	PA1652	Membrane proteins
	pilF	pilF	Motility & Attachment
	purB	purB	Amino acid biosynthesis and metabolism
	rep	rep	DNA replication, recombination, modification and repair
V	rsmE	rsmE	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
	pqiB	no PA01 ortholog	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
	PA14_52250	PA0929	Two-component regulatory systems
	rsmI	rsmI	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
	thrB>/<PA14_72520		
	til5a>/>pldA		

303   Table 2. Unique mutations found in seven clones from an experimentally evolved biofilm

304   populations with distinct ecological roles[6].

Targets of selection

Evolution in large populations ($>10^8$) over a few hundred generations greatly

empowers selection relative to the effect of drift, even when mutation rates increase.

This allows us to predict that genotypes that rise to a detectable frequency in an evolve-

and-resequence experiment like this one are fitter than their ancestor. Further, parallel,

nonsynonymous mutations affecting the same gene provides strong evidence of an

adaptation[59]. Across all six populations, 53 mutations reach 100% frequency, as part of

the 10 genotype sweeps (Table 1), and each affected a unique gene except for two

each in *mutS*, *pitA*, and *rpoB* (Table S3). However, the population dynamics depicted in

Figure 3 and the clonal genomes summarized in Figure 5 demonstrate substantial

genetic variation that did not fix, so a more appropriate screen for parallelism might

involve a lower frequency threshold. At 80% frequency, eight genes were mutated more

than once: *lysC, mutS*, the intergenic region *fabI/ppiD*, PA14_23670*, pitA*, PA14_69980,

PA14_71750, and *rpoB*, and all six populations are represented. Mutations affecting

these genes were either small indels or nonsynonymous substitutions predicted to alter

or eliminate function. Because these genes were mutated in both planktonic and biofilm

environments, they likely enable adaptation to the growth medium, temperature, and

dilution timing. However, these represent only 17 of the 116 mutations that reach 80%

frequency, a remarkably flat distribution of high-frequency genotypes that suggests

many loci may provide a benefit under these conditions.

We next analyzed the complete set of parallel mutations found at all frequencies

for those passing a statistical threshold of expected random co-occurrence and

identified 153 genes or intergenic regions. Forty genes were mutated three or more

times, more than would be expected by chance, accounting for 179 mutations (21.1% of

all mutations; Table 3). Most mutations are nonsynonymous, as expected from positive

selection, and many suggest possible adaptive phenotypes.

The gene with the most independent mutations, *rluB* (PA14_23110) with 10 (8

nonsynonymous; Table 3, Table S3) found in four populations at frequencies of 12.1-

17.7%, is difficult to understand as an adaptation. *RluB* encodes a 23s rRNA

pseudouridine synthase responsible for modifying this rRNA at position 2605 during

maturation[60]. This gene was mutated in both biofilm and planktonic populations,

indicating it is not specific to lifestyle, but all mutations clustered in residues 313 and

323 found in the disordered C-terminus of this protein. In addition, one mutation in *rluC*,

another pseudouridine synthase, was detected. The literature remains vague about the

specific phenotypic roles of these 23S rRNA modifications and effects of disrupting

these genes are difficult to detect *in vitro*, but a recent study implicated these

modifications as important for growth under anoxia[61,62].

Fortunately, a wealth of literature has identified genes involved in the transition

from planktonic to biofilm growth in *P. aeruginosa*[16,9]. These genes are often well

annotated at http://pseudomonas.com for the PA14 genome or in related strains[63]. For

example, five mutations in PA14_02220, encoding the aerotaxis transducer Aer2, were

selected in two biofilm and one planktonic population, and may alter the response to low

oxygen that is common in biofilms[64]. In addition, three independent V334G mutations

were selected in each biofilm population in PA14_46030, encoding the ortholog of

biofilm dispersion locus BdlA[65],[66]. This cytoplasmic protein contains two sensory PAS

domains and a chemoreceptor domain that has been shown to sense and mediate

responses to oxygen levels[67]. Two-component regulatory systems are also commonly

implicated in this lifestyle transition, and in agreement with this model, 19 mutations in

14 genes encoding sensor kinases, response regulators, or hybrid complexes were

identified (Table 3, Table S3). Likewise, nine different nonsynonymous or indel

mutations affecting motility and attachment (e.g. *flgB/G, fliC/H/M, pilB/pilQ,* and *cupB3*)

were selected in both biofilm and planktonic populations, indicating advantages of

disrupting these processes in both lifestyles.

More surprising, the most common functional classification of mutated genes was

transporters. Nine transporters were mutated repeatedly including: *pitA, pntB, nosD,*

pchF, PA14_09300, PA14_22650, PA14_45060, PA14_46110, and PA14_47900, and

account for 24% (43) cases of parallelism (Table3, Table S3). These transporters

include genes with known function including inorganic phosphate transporter *pitA* and

copper transporter *nosD*, as well as those with unknown substrates including

PA14_46110 and PA14_45060. Of all transporters identified, *pitA* was the only one to

reach frequencies above 50% in any population. This led us to identify an additional

stressor acting on these populations as a byproduct of growth on arginine as a sole

carbon source, which is an alkaline pH (pH = 9.2 at 24 hr) caused by the release of

ammonia through deamination[68]. It remains unclear how these mutated transporters

produce adaptations, but they could be acting to balance pH or compensate for redox

imbalances or changes in proton motive force. In addition, 18 mutations affected genes

involved in various metabolic processes, including *argJ*, a key component of arginine

biosynthesis expected to be no longer required due to abundant arginine in the growth

media, *soxA*, encoding sarcosine oxidase[69], and *cobG*, involved in the aerobic pathway

of cobalmin (Vitamin B12) biosynthesis[70]. Further, three mutations are observed in each

of *napF*, *nqrE*, and *nuoG* potentially altering the energy conserving respiratory NADH

dehydrogenase chain[71]. We suspect that many of these nonsynonymous or indel

mutations are partial loss of function mutations in metabolic pathways that are

extraneous in the M63+arginine medium, though an exact mechanism is unknown.

There are four notable cases of mutated genes that are lifestyle specific. Four

genes (*rpoB, gacS*, PA14_71750, and PA14_13150) are only mutated in biofilm

populations, and in all cases, mutations rise to greater than 90% in at least one

population (Table 3, Table S3). Mutations in *rpoB* and other RNA polymerase genes

(*rpoACD*) have been frequently identified as adaptations during evolution

experiments[72,73]. One explanation in *Escherichia coli* suggests they are adaptive for

growth in minimal media by redistributing RNA polymerase from small RNA promoters

(i.e. rRNA) to rate-limited promoters required for anabolic processes from a limited set

of carbon sources, such as arginine in the case of this study[74]. GacS is a

sensor/regulator hybrid known to govern a broad range of traits involved in virulence,

secondary metabolism and biofilm formation through the regulation of small rRNA's[75].

Further, *gacS* has been shown to be involved in the switch from a hyperadherent small

colony phenotype back to a wild type phenotype indicating that loss of GacS function is

beneficial in biofilms[54]. The additional two biofilm specific loci, PA14_13150 and

PA14_71750, are less understood transcriptional regulators, however PA14_71750 has

been previously associated with biofilm adaptation in *Pseudomonas*[76].

The rarity of fixation events and the high numbers of genes with parallelism

throughout the experiment provides further evidence of competition between adaptive

lineages in a population, or clonal interference[41]. Given a set of genes in which

mutations are adaptive, we would expect each competing genotype to contain different

combinations of these mutations, with the most beneficial of them repeatedly evolving

on different genetic backgrounds. As predicted, we identified 55 cases of within-

population gene level parallelism (4 – 16 cases per population), with most (87%)

predicted to be on different genotypes. This result also demonstrates the polygenic

capacity for adaptation by *P. aeruginosa* growing in minimal arginine medium.

Gene	Total cases	Type			Biofilm	Planktonic	Highest frequency						Function
		NS	S	Indel			B1	B2	B3	P1	P2	P3	
argJ	3	3	0	0	2	1		13.5	10.5			11.4	Arginine biosynthesis
soxA	3	2	1	0	1	2			10.6		14.7	11.4	Carbon compound catabolism
aer2	5	3	2	0	3	2		9.6	10.9	10.2		14.2	Chemotaxis
bdlA	3	3	0	0	3	0	14.4	14.7	13.5				Chemotaxis
cobG	3	2	0	1	1	2		61.8			13.6	13.1	Cofactor biosynthesis
mutS	3	3	0	0	2	1	100	100				52.6	DNA replication
napF	3	3	0	0	2	1	13.8		10.9			10.7	Energy metabolism
nqrE	3	3	0	0	1	2		11.7			10.4	11.2	Energy metabolism
nuoG	3	3	0	0	1	2	12.9			12.1	13.9		Energy metabolism
PA14_53110	7	7	0	0	2	5		14.8	12.8	12.9	14.4	12.1	Putative enzymes
pslI	7	7	0	0	3	4	16.7	16.4	14.6	16	14.7		Putative enzymes
algF	3	3	0	0	2	1	13.1			10.6			Secreted Factors
fha1	4	4	0	0	3	1	27.6		25.1	35.8			Secreted Factors
rpoB	4	4	0	0	4	0	100	66	100				Transcription
PA14_13150	3	3	0	0	3	0	46.3	17.8	100				Transcriptional regulators
PA14_18200	6	6	0	0	5	1	22.3	22.1		12.8			Transcriptional regulators
PA14_51840	3	3	0	0	0	3					12	16.6	Transcriptional regulators
PA14_58510	5	3	2	0	4	1	23	15.7		15.5			Transcriptional regulators
PA14_71750	3	3	0	0	3	0	93.9	89.7					Transcriptional regulators
dsbA2	4	2	2	0	3	1	17.1	11.4	20.8			10.5	Translation
rluB	10	8	2	0	4	6	10.8	17.7			14.7	13.2	Translation
nosD	5	4	1	0	1	4	14.1				15.3	12.9	Transporter
PA14_09300	3	3	0	0	2	1	16		15.2	18.6			Transporter
PA14_22650	7	7	0	0	3	4	43.2	24		40	28	37.8	Transporter
PA14_45060	6	6	0	0	2	4	24.4	19.1		19.5	14.1	13.6	Transporter
PA14_46110	7	7	0	0	1	6			15.5	13.7	13.6	10.7	Transporter
PA14_47900	3	3	0	0	0	3						19.9	Transporter
pchF	3	3	0	0	3	0	18.4		19				Transporter
pitA	4	2	0	2	2	3		91.1		100	75.8	100	Transporter
pntB	5	3	2	0	1	4	11.3				13.9	15.6	Transporter
PA14_10770	3	2	1	0	1	2		100			12.2	26.3	Two-component regulatory systems
PA14_32300	3	3	0	0	2	1	17.1					15.3	Two-component regulatory systems
gacS	3	3	0	0	3	0	85.2	92.2					Two-component regulatory systems
PA14_01160	3	3	0	0	1	2	14.3				13.8		Unknown
PA14_20510	6	6	0	0	3	3	9.6	11.5		11	11.9	11.1	Unknown
PA14_31070	10	5	5	0	4	6	19.3	16.9		16.2	16.9		Unknown
PA14_32830	6	6	0	0	2	4		13.8	12.7	12.1	13.5	12.1	Unknown
PA14_54810	3	3	0	0	3	0	11.7		7.5				Unknown
PA14_58070	6	6	0	0	5	1	13.6	17.5	12.9		20.8		Unknown
PA14_69010	5	5	0	0	3	2	20.1	12.2	13	12.5		12.4	Unknown

Table 2. Genes (n=40) with 3 or more evolved mutations. NS: nonsynonymous, S: synonymous, indel: insertion/deletion. Shading corresponds to frequency. Function from PseudoCap via pseudomonas.com.

Selected genotypes are adapted to both growth conditions and lifestyle

Most cases of gene-level parallelism were shared between biofilm and planktonic conditions and indicate adaptations to the common growth media. However, minority variants could include environment specific adaptations. For example, our bead transfer model simulates the complete life cycle of the biofilm – attachment, assembly, dispersal, and reattachment – each of which could select for discrete phenotypes. To distinguish

genotypes adapted to either biofilm or planktonic growth, we grew 90-day samples of

evolved populations B1, B2, P1, and P2 for two days in each of these conditions

independently (Figure 6). We hypothesized that these treatments would enrich

genotypes adapted to either condition that we could resolve by resequencing treated

populations and correlating their relative frequencies. Mutation frequencies that depart

from the diagonal of equivalency could represent genotypes that are adapted to biofilm

or planktonic growth.

Figure
interacti...
environments for
either planktonic
model. After the s
beads were used
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In all four po,

planktonic environments

had more biofilm enriched mutations than planktonic enriched (37 and 55 biofilm

enriched compared to 4 and 2 planktonic enriched), though planktonic populations had

roughly equal numbers of biofilm and planktonic enriched mutations (8 and 10 biofilm

enriched versus 10 and 11 planktonic enriched; Table S4). Upon closer examination,

the B2 population appears to contain a set of 36 mutations belonging to 4 genotypes

enriched for biofilm fitness (Table S4). These genotypes also rose in frequency between

days 75 to 90 in the evolution environment and appear to be generally adaptive.

However, these experiments did not generally cause large (>10%) shifts in genotype

frequency, which suggests that they correspond to adaptations to the overall

experimental conditions and not just these growth phases.

Discussion:

We used experimental evolution to examine how the opportunistic pathogen

Pseudomonas aeruginosa (PA) adapts in laboratory culture in a medium known to

promote biofilm formation[68], comparing simple serial dilution with a model simulating the

biofilm life cycle[2]. After 90 propagations (~600 generations) we observe more

mutations, fewer fixation events, and earlier prevalence of mutator genotypes than

observed in other evolution experiments. These findings are consistent with two

potentially overlapping processes: 1) the existence of many different niches in the form

of metabolic or ecological strategies within the laboratory environment that select for a

variety of specialized genotypes or 2) high clonal interference, involving many

genotypes with roughly the same fitness competing against one another in the same

niche. The repeated evolution of mutations in the same gene in the same population

provides the clearest evidence of this clonal interference, because such mutants are

likely to share similar phenotypes. For example, within the B1 population mutations in

gacS evolve independently in two genotypes (Table S3). We confirmed this finding

through clonal sequencing, finding clones H and A to each contain a *gacS* mutation in

their distinguishing genotypes (Table 2), and further, these clones were previously

shown to compete for a common niche[6]. While clonal interference likely contributes to

the high genetic variation observed in these populations, we also predict that multiple

niches exist within each population as our previous study indicated[6]. As further

evidence, most cases of gene-level parallel mutations reached only 20-30% frequency

within their respective populations (Table 3). We hypothesize that this results from

multiple coexisting ecotypes within each population, a phenomenon that has been

shown in previous evolution studies, particularly with biofilms[5,50,77].

To identify selected traits during evolution in a minimal medium containing

arginine as sole energy source, we focused on the 40 loci mutated most frequently

(Table 2). This medium was selected because it had previously been shown to induce

high biofilm production by *Pseudomonas*,[68] more specifically by increasing intracellular

levels of the secondary messenger molecule c-di-GMP through the two diguanylate

cyclase proteins RoeA and SadC. Further, arginine was the only amino acid to

completely repress swarming motility, indicating this carbon source could be a cue to

enter an attached lifestyle[33]. As we were interested in seeing how *P. aeruginosa*

continues to evolve under conditions where it is already proficient for biofilm, this media

choice was suitable. However, it is a naturally stressful environment because arginine

catabolism by arginine deiminase produces ammonia as a byproduct and hence an

alkaline environment[78,79]. These conditions are opposed to previous evolution

experiments with *P. aeruginosa* in which media with multiple carbon sources are used

to mimic an infection, and the medium often becomes acidic[7,68,33,52]. The exact effects

of arginine as the sole carbon and nitrogen source on the metabolic evolution of *P.*

aeruginosa are unclear and the topic of a future study, however it is likely that arginine

as a sole carbon and nitrogen source produced strong selection and may have been the

dominant pressure.

The remarkable, unexpected consequence of this experimental design was a

lack of convergent evolution affecting a small subset of mutated genes in replicate

populations. Rather, dozens or even hundreds of mutations in nearly as many genes

appear to have been selected, suggesting polygenic adaptation involving many

metabolic and regulatory systems (Figure 3). Such polygenic selection in large

populations increases the probability of clonal interference, whereby each lineage

acquires its own combination of adaptations, but any given genotype would struggle to

become dominant. Consequently, according to this model, fixation events were rare,

with only ten across all six replicate populations over 600 generations. Further, one of

the most commonly mutated pathways was DNA mismatch repair, which increased

mutation rates of linked genotypes in the four populations in which they evolved. We

hypothesize these mutator genotypes provided the means to escape clonal interference

because they had a higher probability of producing multiple, linked beneficial mutations

that could outcompete other genotypes.

Our previous study of these populations predicted that the different colony

morphotypes represented lineages that had evolved to occupy distinct ecological niches

within a biofilm population and interact with one another[6]. This genomic study confirms

that these genotypes indeed represent different long-lived lineages within the B1

population. Each clone possesses different mutations that are candidates for the causes

of their varied fitness versus the ancestral PA14 strain, levels of cyclic-di-GMP, and

biofilm-associated traits[6]. However, considerably more variation was detected by

population sequencing than these lineages could explain, and likewise, sequencing

additional clones led to an ever-increasing census of new mutations (Figure 4). These

results reinforce the polygenic model of adaptation to the biofilm-inducing arginine

medium and the diversity of genotypes that can generally improve growth and survival

or inhabit the niches illustrated in our prior study[80,6]. More generally, this work has

implications for understanding processes underpinning the evolution and maintenance

of high levels of genetic diversity, including how different nutrient sources influence this

process. Although differences in the mode of growth have been shown to influence

genetic diversity[81,82,9,83], the metabolic environment may be equally or even more

important by exposing varied fractions of the genome to selection. Further, this study

provides a concrete example of how microbial populations evolving in a new

environment can adapt and diversify without the periodic losses of genetic variation

caused by selective sweeps. This dynamic was demonstrated in the Long-Term

Evolution Experiment with *E. coli* after many thousands of generations had passed and

the rate of adaptation had slowed[43,77]. Yet here, populations amassed extreme fitness

gains over only hundreds of generations while maintaining many lineages, suggesting

that the *P. aeruginosa* genome encodes vast potential to meet new environmental

challenges.

Materials and methods

Experimental evolution

Replicate populations were experimentally evolved as previously reported (Flynn et al, 2016). Briefly, the ancestral *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (PA14; NC_008463) strain was reconstituted from a freezer stock in Luria-Bertani broth (LB; 1.0% w/v tryptone, 0.5% w/v yeast extract, 1.0% w/v NaCl). Six replicate populations were started with 1:100 dilutions of an overnight growth into 5 mL M63 media (15 mM $(NH_4)_2SO_4$, 22 mM KH_2PO_4, 40 mM K_2HPO_4, 40 mM galactose, 1 mM $MgSO_4$, 25 μM $FeCl_2$, and 0.4% w/v L-arginine[33]). Three populations were propagated under liquid grown, planktonic, selection (P1, P2, P3), while three populations were propagated, concurrently, under constant biofilm selection[5,2,6] (B1, B2, B3). Planktonic selection consisted of daily 1:100 liquid dilutions into 5 mL M63 media, while biofilm selection consisted of the transfer of one 7 mm polystyrene bead every 24 hours to a new tube of 5mL M63 media containing one clean bead. This biofilm selection method requires the entire biofilm lifecycle of dispersal, attachment, and growth between every transfer. All six populations were propagated for 90 days (~600 generations) in 18x150 mm test tubes at 37 °C on a roller drum at 30 rpm.

Archives were made for all populations at days 17, 25, 33, 45, 66, 75, and 90 in 8% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) at -80 °C. Planktonic populations were archived by freezing a 1 ml aliquot of the 24-hour culture, whereas biofilm populations were archived by sonicating 48 hr beads in 1 ml PBS, and then freezing the PBS with 8% DMSO.

Phenotypic characterization of evolved populations

All populations were revived from freezer stocks for characterization by adding

50 μl of freezer stock to a culture of 4:1 M63 media to LB media, with trace elements to

recreate previous water mineral content (110.764 g/L $CaCl_2$, 0.824 g/L $MnSO_4$, 33.48

g/L KBr, 132.737 g/L Na_2SiO_3, 123.485 $ZnSO_4$, 0.178 g/L $CoCl_2$ *$6H_2O$, 1.458 g/L

$CuSO_4$). This media combination was used to minimize selection effects of growing in a

fully complex medium, while providing enough nutrients for the frozen cells to revive.

Resurrected populations were grown for 24 hr at 37 °C on a roller drum before being

vortexed for 10 seconds, twice, to ensure biofilm growth was disrupted from the sides of

the glass tube.

Growth curves were measured for resurrected populations in 96 well plates, at 37

°C. All growth curves were started at an OD_{600} of 0.01 and growth was measured every

10 min following 9 min of shaking for 24 hr in M63 media with trace elements. Maximum

growth rate was determined for the average of all replicates, by using the following

equation:

563
$$\mu = \frac{\Delta \log (OD600)}{\Delta t}$$

Census population size was calculated by diluting resurrected populations 1:100

in 5 mL M63 media with trace elements. One 7 mm polystyrene bead was added to

each biofilm culture at time zero. After 24 hr growth, all populations were vortexed for 30

seconds and then diluted and plated in triplicate on tryptic soy agar and grown at 37 °C

for 48 hrs. Average colony counts of the three technical replicates were reported for

each population. Additionally, populations plated for census population size were also

used for pH measurements as they were complete replications of experimental

conditions. Average pH of triplicate readings are reported.

Biofilm assays were performed on resurrected populations diluted to an OD_{600} of

0.01 in M63 media and grown in a 96 well plate under static conditions for 24 hr at 37

°C. Media was discarded and the plate was washed twice with deionized H_2O, which

was also discarded. Wells were then stained with the addition of 250 µl 0.1% crystal

violet solution for 15 minutes. Plates were rinsed to remove excess dye and the plate

was allowed to dry for 24 hours. A de-stain solution (95% ethanol, 4.95% dH_2O, and

0.05% Triton X-100 (fisher bioreagents)) was added to wells (250 µl per well), and, after

a 15-minute incubation, was transferred to a new 96 well plate. Crystal violet

absorbance readings were measured at 590 nm. Reported values are the average of 21

replicates, done across three plates (7 technical replicates per plate). Data were

analyzed with a one-way ANOVA with post hoc Tukey test.

Motility assays were performed as described previously (Ha, et al 2014). Briefly,

pipet tips were dipped into resurrected populations and stabbed into motility agar (0.3%

agar, 6 g/L Na_2HPO_4, 3 g/L KH_2PO_4, 0.5 g/L NaCl, 0.2% glucose, 0.5% casamino acids,

1 mM $MgSO_4$). Increased or decreased motility was determined for all day 90 evolved

populations as the diameter of bacterial growth after 24 hr growth at 37 °C compared to

the clonal ancestor. Reported values are the average of 5 replicates. Results were

analyzed by one-way ANOVA with post hoc Tukey test.

Mutation rate estimate

Isogenic mutants of biofilm evolved mutator alleles *mutS* T112P and *mutL*

D467G were used as reported previously[6]. Briefly, the two mutator strains and the PA14

ancestor were revived from freezer stocks by streaking on ½ trypic soy agar. After 24

hrs growth individual colonies were used to start 30 replicate 5-ml cultures for each

strain. After 24 hrs growth at 37° F on a rollerdrum, populations were diluted and plated

on ½ tryptic soy agar both with and without 1mg/ml Ciprofloxacin as a selective agent.

Colonies were counted after a 24 hour incubation period on both the antibiotic and non-

antibiotic plate. We then calculated the fold change in mutation rate using the maximum

likelihood ethod of Gerrish (2008). We performed measurements for all strains

simultaneously to minimize variation. Reported values are the average fold change of all

replicates.

Genomic sequencing of evolved metagenomes

DNA was isolated from biofilm populations at 113, 167, 293, 440, 500, and 600

generations (17, 25, 44, 66, 75, and 90 days) and from planktonic populations at 113,

293, 500, and 600 generations (17, 44, 66, and 90 days). Culture media for DNA

isolation was composed of 4:1 M63 to LB media. DNA was isolated from 1 mL

resurrected populations using Qiagen's DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit. Library construction

was done using the Illumina Nextera kit as described previously (Baym 2015). Libraries

were sequenced on Illumina's NextSeq 500 platform by the Microbial Genome

Sequencing Center at the University of Pittsburgh. Between 13,545,344 and 46,890,487

reads were obtained for each sample, resulting in coverage of 265x - 860x per sample.

Determining mutational frequencies from sequencing data

Initial metagenomics sequencing efforts of the six populations resulted in 121.2

gbps of 2x151 bp sequencing reads, that we trimmed and quality filtered with

trimmomatic v0.36 using default parameters[84]. The breseq software package v0.31.0

was used to align the filtered reads to the reference PA14 genome (NCBI's RefSeq

database: NC_008463.1) and make polymorphism calls[85]. All populations were run

using the polymorphism mode of breseq with a sliding window of 5 bp and a quality

score cutoff of 10. This analysis was done for every population and every time point

sequenced. The genome of the ancestral strain differed from the reference by 435

mutations, which were removed from all evolved population samples before any

downstream analysis to remove mutations that did not evolve over the course of the

evolution.

All 12,250 resulting mutation calls were filtered in R (v3.5.1, [5]) to require a

mutation to be called by at least 3 reads on each strand (positive and negative). Finally,

mutations were filtered to remove regions of high polymorphism. Due to the abundance

of repetitive regions in the PA14 genome the false positive rate is high. We therefore

examined each call using the alignments produced by breseq and excluded mutations

with high sequence variation within the 15 bases both upstream and downstream of the

called mutation. Mutations were also filtered for known regions of misalignment such as

repeat regions before consolidation into time-series tables containing all real mutated

loci for each evolved population (Table S1). The resulting 874 mutations were then used

as input in the software package LOLIPop Version 0.8.1. using –similarity-cutoff value of

0.1 for P1, P2, P3, and B1 and a --similarity-cutoff of 0.2 for populations B2 and B3.

Increased similarity cutoffs increased the amount of mutations that were grouped into a

genotype. Types of mutations were broken down by both nucleotide and amino acid

mutation for all evolved populations in R. All scripts for the R filtering and analysis are

available on github at: https://github.com/KatrinaHarris23/PALTEanalysis

Calculating dN/dS ratios

To determine the dN/dS ratios, first the dN/dS ratio for each of the 64 codons was

calculated. The codon usage for the ancestral, PA14, genome was obtained from

(http://www.kazusa.or.jp/codon/). The two resulting matrices were multiplied to obtain a

neutral ratio of nonsynonymous to synonymous substitutions (dN/dS ratio) of 2.96 for

the ancestral UCBPP-PA14 genome (script for calculating this can be found on github

here https://github.com/KatrinaHarris23/PALTEanalysis/blob/master/dnds_calculator).

All reported dN/dS ratios are standardized according to this number with the final

number reported being a result of the following equation:

648
$$dN/dS = \frac{\frac{\#nonsynonymous}{\#synonymous}}{2.96}$$

Experimentally determining ecologically enriched mutations

To determine if mutations were specific to the biofilm lifestyle steps of swimming

or attaching, we isolated DNA from evolved populations after additional strong selection

in two distinct environments (Figure 5). Populations were resurrected from day 90

archives for the B1, B2, P1, and P2 populations by using 50 ul of the frozen stock into 5

ml resurrection media. After 24 hr growth at 37°C each culture was used to inoculate 2

identical 5 ml M63 arginine media cultures. Two 8mm polystyrene beads were added to

one replicate, creating movable biofilm, before both inoculated cultures were placed at

37°C. One transfer was performed for all populations at 24 hr. Swimming was selected

for by transferring liquid phase growth form replicates with no beads to a new tube with

5 ml M63 arginine media. Additionally, one bead from replicates with beads was rinsed

with PBS and subsequently transferred to a fresh tube of 5 ml M63 media with two

differently colored beads. After a final 24 hr incubation at 37°C "planktonically enriched"

DNA samples were isolated from 0.5 ml liquid phase from replicates without beads.

Growth from the two colored beads, first rinsed in PBS, then sonicated in 1 ml PBS was

used in total for our "biofilm enriched" DNA sample. DNA was isolated using the

Quiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit.

Between 328 - 410x coverage was obtained for all eight samples. Mutations were

filtered by removing all ancestral mutations, and only mutations detected by both biofilm

and planktonic samples for a given population were considered. This sequencing effort

resulted in 979, 1021, 879, and 876 mutations in the B1, B2, P1 and P2 populations

respectively. Relative frequencies of mutations in the two environments were plotted in

R using the ggplot2 package (Figure S8; code used in this analysis is found on github

https://github.com/KatrinaHarris23/PALTEanalysis/blob/master/201020_ecological_inter

actions.R).

Clonal sequencing

To acquire clonal DNA, populations were resurrected in 4ml M63 arginine media

with 1ml LB and grown for 24 hr at 37 on a roller drum. Populations were then plated on

½ Tsoy plates down to the -6 dilution to isolate individual colonies. After 24 hr growth

and 37 followed by 48 hr room temperature growth clones were selected ensuring that

all visible colony morphologies were sampled. Colony growth was picked up and used

as inoculum for 5 ml LB cultures. After 24 hr at 37 on a roller drum 1 ml of culture was

used for archiving (9% DMSO) and 0.5 ml was used for DNA isolation using the DNeasy

Blood and tissue kit. Named clones that were reported previously[6] were already

archived and archives were used for resurrection directly into 5 ml LB.

DNA sequencing was performed as with population sequencing, but only

requiring 30x coverage per sample. All reads were trimmed with trimmomatic, as

populations were, and variant calling was performed using Breseq software default

settings. As clonal samples are only looking for mutations that fix in each sample,

filtering was only performed to remove ancestral mutations before analysis.

Statistical testing

Alpha diversity was calculated for all detected mutations in each population at

each time point. We used the "shannon", "simpson" and "invsimpson", modes of the

diversity function in R. Populations were grouped by growth environment, biofilm (n = 3)

and planktonic (n = 3), and by mutator allele presence (n = 4) or absence (n = 2). T-

tests were performed in Prism (version 8, www.graphpad.com, Figure S4).

To perform the Fisher's exact test, a table of loci observed mutated 2 or more

times was generated from the final mutation calls. Loci lengths were determined using

http://pseudomonas.com as either gene lengths of the distance between surrounding

genes in intergenic cases. Fisher's exact test was performed using this compiled list:

the numbers of mutations per loci, the total number of mutations observed (624), and

the PA14 genome length (6537648). Testing was performed using the fisher.test()

function in R and only loci with p-values lower than 0.05 were used for parallelism

analysis. 153 loci were tested for parallelism and then the number of false positives

were reduced using the Benjamini-Hochberg correction with a false discovery rate of

5%. The equation used was (i/m)Q where i is the p-value's rank, m is the total number

of tests, and Q is the false discovery rate.

Finally, ecological enrichment significance was calculated in R by using cooks

distance. First, a linear regression was calculated for each population using planktonic

versus biofilm frequencies using the lm() function. Cooks distance was then calculated

for each point, using cooks.distance() function. A mutation was considered significantly

enriched if it's cooks distance was four times the mean distance or more.

Principal component analysis (PCA)

All PCA calculations and plotting were performed in R. Principal components

were computed from the biofilm production, swimming motility, and maximum growth

rate (Vmax) data, and from the mutational frequency data at each sampled day using

the prcomp() function. Plotting was done using the autoplot() function that is part of the

ggfortify package.

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