Rapid adaptation of a complex trait during experimental evolution of *Mycobacterium*

tuberculosis

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Abstract

Tuberculosis (TB), caused by *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*M. tb*), is a leading cause of death due to

infectious disease. TB is not traditionally associated with biofilms, but *M. tb* biofilms are linked with drug

and immune tolerance and there is increasing recognition of their contribution to the recalcitrance of TB

infections. Here we used *M. tb* experimental evolution to investigate this complex phenotype and

identify candidate loci controlling biofilm formation. We identified novel candidate loci, adding to our

understanding of the genetic architecture underlying *M. tb* biofilm development. Under selective

pressure to grow as a biofilm, regulatory mutations rapidly swept to fixation and were associated with

changes in multiple traits including extracellular matrix production, cell size, and growth rate. Genetic

and phenotypic paths to enhanced biofilm growth varied according to the genetic background of the

parent strain, suggesting that epistatic interactions are important in *M. tb* adaptation to changing

environments.

Introduction

In 2019 an estimated 10 million people fell ill with tuberculosis (TB), and one quarter of the world's population is estimated to be infected with its causative agent *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*M. tb*) (Global Tuberculosis Report 2019, WHO). New strategies for diagnosis, treatment and control of TB are urgently needed. From an evolutionary perspective, *M. tb* stands out among bacterial pathogens for its strict association with human hosts, limited genetic diversity and clonal evolution (Eldholm and Balloux, 2016). We might expect these features to constrain adaptation of *M. tb*, yet TB remains a challenging infection to treat due to the bacterium's ability to persist in the face of antibiotic and immune pressure and to acquire novel drug resistances. In order to better treat and control TB, we need to understand the sources of *M. tb*'s robustness and to identify its vulnerabilities. Experimental evolution is a powerful tool for illuminating these strengths and vulnerabilities and has led to important insights into the fundamental processes guiding microbial adaptation.

Biofilms are increasingly recognized as a relevant growth form for bacteria in their natural environments (Costerton et al., 1999). TB is not traditionally thought of as a biofilm infection. However, *M. tb* cells spontaneously aggregate and secrete extracellular matrix when grown *in vitro* (Dubos and Davis, 1946; Bacon et al., 2014), suggesting they are naturally inclined to grow as biofilms. Autopsy studies have long identified *M. tb* aggregates in human tissues during TB infection (Canetti, 1955; Nyka, 1977, 1967, 1963; Nyka and O'Neill, 1970). More recent research has demonstrated specific biomarkers of *M. tb* biofilms in human autopsy specimens and animal models of TB (Chakraborty et al., 2021). The presence of *M. tb* biofilms during TB infection is of major practical significance as growth within a biofilm allows *M. tb* cells to survive otherwise lethal concentrations of antibiotics and to evade immune responses (Ojha et al., 2008; Ackart et al., 2014; Trivedi et al., 2016; Chakraborty et al., 2021). Identifying the mechanisms of biofilm development by *M. tb* can thus aid the development of new, more effective therapies for TB (Wang et al., 2013; Ackart et al., 2014; Richards et al., 2019; Chakraborty et al., 2021).

The genetic determinants of *M. tb* biofilm formation have been investigated with candidate gene approaches and phenotypic characterization of knockout, knockdown and overexpression mutants (Ojha et al., 2008; Pang et al., 2012; Sambandan et al., 2013; Wolff et al., 2015; Rastogi et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2017; Richards et al., 2019; Hegde, 2020, p. 20; Bharti et al., 2021; Chakraborty et al., 2021). Here, we use a complementary approach based on serial passaging of *M. tb* clinical isolates under selective pressure to grow as a biofilm. This approach has the advantage of maintaining the integrity of complex networks of genes and their regulators while enabling discovery of subtle genetic

changes with an impact on biofilm phenotype. It is also unbiased with respect to the choice of candidate

loci. During experimental evolution of six closely related *M. tb* isolates passaged over months to years

we find: 1) Rapid adaptation in response to selection imposed in our system, with development of more

robust biofilm growth in all strains, 2) Changes in a range of *M. tb* phenotypes in association with few,

presumably pleiotropic mutations, 3) Predominant impacts on gene dosage among mutations that

emerged during the experiment, 4) Implication of *M. tb* loci not previously known to be involved in

biofilm development, and 5) Apparent effects of strain genetic background in shaping the adaptive path

to the phenotype under selection.

Results

Sample

Pellicles are a specific type of biofilm in which bacteria form aggregates at air-liquid interfaces

(Kobayashi, 2007); *M. tb* has been shown to form pellicle biofilms *in vitro* (Kerns et al., 2014). For our

study, we chose six closely related isolates of *M. tb*, from three sub-clades of the Euro-American

lineage L4 (4.9, 4.4.1.2, and 4.4.1.1 shown in Figure 1). The study design enabled us to identify the

impacts of genetic background over multiple scales, including comparisons between sub-lineages (4.9

and 4.4), sub-sub-lineages (4.4.1.2 and 4.4.1.1) and individual strains. In addition, the strain selection

encompassed a variety of biofilm phenotypes such that we could identify impacts of ancestral

phenotype on bacterial adaptation in our passaging system. The strains were grown as pellicles

following a published protocol (Kulka et al., 2012). We passaged these six populations in pellicle form

every 5-7 weeks as described in the Methods. Each pellicle population was passaged at least eight

times over a period of two years (Supplementary Figure 1; Supplementary Table 1). To investigate the

specificity of adaptations observed during pellicle passaging, we also passaged the six strains in

planktonic culture: we passaged three independently evolving populations per strain, and each

population was passaged four times.

Phenotypic changes of pellicles

At each passage we photographed the pellicle and described its growth according to the following

criteria: proportion of liquid surface covered, presence of climbing (attachment to and growth up the

sides of the flask), thickness of growth and continuity of growth (versus discontinuous patches).

Although the *M. tb* strains were closely related (i.e., separated by 100s of SNPs), differences in biofilm

phenotype were evident prior to passaging (Figure 1). During the initial few passages, phenotypes

changed for all strains and then stabilized between passages 2 and 8 (Figure 1). We performed

extended passaging for four strains, which were carried out to passage 16 or 20; we did not observe

any further phenotypic changes during this extended passaging (Supplementary Figure 1).

Over the course of the experiment all populations evolved more robust biofilms characterized by an

increase in surface coverage and thicker, reticulating growth (Figure 1). MT72 was an exception, as it

developed a typical confluent biofilm after two passages, but then evolved discontinuous, thick growth

covering only a small fraction of the surface. This contrasts with the other evolved pellicles, which cover

the entire surface of the liquid, climb up the side of the flask, and are more confluent (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Whole genome sequence phylogeny of ancestral populations used for passaging and photos of pellicles throughout the experiment. Populations fall into three clades with SNP distances given for each sub-lineage and strain. Pellicle photos show rapid change in phenotype, followed by stabilization through the rest of the experiment. The star indicates the passage at which point we determined the pellicle phenotype to be stabilized for each population. Photos of pellicles were taken after 5-7 weeks of growth.

To further characterize *M. tb* biofilm phenotypes we performed scanning electron microscopy (SEM) of

biofilm samples from ancestral strains and paired evolved strains that had undergone eight rounds of

passaging. The appearance of extracellular matrix (ECM) was variable among strains at baseline, but

all strains exhibited increased production of ECM after serial passaging (Figure 2). We observed

changes in ECM appearance including increased webbing (MT55, MT540) and increased production of

globules (MT31, MT345, MT72, MT49) (Figure 2). Bacterial cell shape has been documented to have

direct fitness consequences in many species (Yang et al., 2016). We measured bacilli length of

ancestral and evolved strains and found that three strains (MT55, MT72, MT345) had significant

118 changes in cell length (Figure 2). The direction of the change varied among strains: MT55 and MT72

119 evolved longer bacilli whereas MT345 evolved shorter bacilli (Figure 2).

Figure 2: SEM images of ancestral and evolved biofilms show changes in extracellular matrix (A) and cell length (B). SEMs were taken after 5 weeks of biofilm growth, shown alongside photo of pellicle from that passage. Cell lengths were measured across two biological replicates for each strain, except MT540-0 for which only one replicate was available. Each dot represents a single cell length measurement. Significant differences in cell length between ancestral and evolved pairs shown across the top of panel B (Mann-Whitney U test with Benjamini-Hochberg correction). *P*-value legend: *: <0.05, **: <0.01, ***: <0.001.

Wet weights

To obtain another quantitative measure of phenotypic adaptation to biofilm growth, we developed a

protocol for measuring the wet weight of a pellicle biofilm. Wet weights of ancestral biofilms were similar

except for MT345, which was heavier in keeping with its confluent morphotype (Figures 1 and 3). We

observed a significant (Mann-Whitney U test, *P*-value = 1.5e-06) increase in wet weight for all

populations after eight passages (Figure 3). Of note, we observed a substantial increase in wet weight

in MT345, which formed a robust pellicle at baseline, suggesting that the potential to increase pellicle

biomass remains among high biofilm forming isolates of *M. tb*. Indeed, MT345 along with MT55 had

 particularly dramatic increases in pellicle biomass: an average of 2.3g and 3.5g, respectively. We also

131 observed a trend towards increased variability of wet weights between replicate cultures of the evolved

132 biofilms (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Pellicle wet weights measured in triplicate after 5 weeks of growth, for ancestral populations and populations after eight passages. Pellicle wet weights increased for all genetic backgrounds following passaging (Mann-Whitney U test, *P*-value = 1.5e-06). The magnitude of this change varied, with two genetic backgrounds (MT55 & MT345) showing relatively dramatic increases in pellicle weight. We also observed a trend toward increased variability in wet weights after passaging as a pellicle. Error bars represent range of wet weights across replicates.

Planktonic growth trade-offs during pellicle adaptation

To investigate whether adaptation to pellicle growth involved trade-offs with fitness in planktonic culture,

we compared planktonic growth rates of ancestral and evolved populations. Some evolved strains grew

faster in planktonic culture following pellicle passaging (MT31, MT345, MT49) whereas other strains

exhibited similar growth rates – if slightly different kinetics – when compared to their ancestral strains

(MT55, MT72; Figure 4). One evolved strain (MT540) had a slower growth rate than its ancestor (Figure

4C; E).

Figure 4: Planktonic growth (A, B, C) and relative fitness (D, E) curves comparing the growth of strains after 8 pellicle passages, to the ancestral strains. Growth curves were performed in triplicate, and the mean OD_{600} value is plotted with error bars representing +/- 1 standard deviation. Relative fitness was calculated at each timepoint as OD_{600} Passage 8 / OD_{600} Passage 0. Panel E shows boxed region from panel D in more detail.

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Candidate loci involved in biofilm formation

Genomic DNA (gDNA) was extracted from whole biofilm communities for (pooled) sequencing every 4

passages (except MT31 and MT49 which were first sequenced at passage 8; Supplementary Table 1).

To identify loci potentially responsible for the observed changes in pellicle phenotype, we identified

mutations that rose to fixation (variant at 100% in the population) or disappeared (variant at 0%,

reference allele at 100%) over the course of our experiment. After filtering and manual curation of the

results, we identified 14 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), 2 duplications and 2 deletions that

met these criteria (Table 1). The starting frequency of these alleles varied from 0-55% and fixation

occurred by the 8th passage for all but two of these variants (position 4,115,505 in MT31 and position

1,416,232 in MT72) (Table 1). Candidate genes are annotated with a range of functions with regulation

(*regX3, phoP, embR, Rv2488c*) and lipid metabolism (*Rv2186c, mgtA, fadE22*) being the most common

(Table 1). A search of ~40,000 isolates from a global dataset (see Methods), revealed these mutations

to be exceedingly rare or completely absent from the dataset (Table 1). The most commonly identified

SNP was at position 3,690,947 upstream of *lpdA* (identified in our study in strain MT49), at a frequency

of 0.0015 in this dataset (Table 1). One caveat is that genes in repetitive families (PE, PPE, PE-PGRS)

were excluded from our analysis due to difficulties accurately resolving these regions with short-read

sequencing data. It is possible that variants contributing to enhanced biofilm formation lie undetected in

these regions.

Table 1: Small number of variants which became fixed (>95% or <5% frequency) throughout the course of the experiment. Including both SNPs and INDELs identified by Popoolation2, Breseq and/or Pilon. Highlighted in bold are two instances of convergent adaptation we observed in the L4.9 and L4.4.1.1 sub-lineages. These mutations are exclusive to strains passaged as pellicles, see Supplementary Table 2 for mutations arising in strains passaged planktonically.

					Fixed Mutations by Strain			
Strain	Position*	Proportion at passage 0	Fixed at Passage	Type	Mutation	Gene	Product	Proportion in Global Dataset
L4.9								
MT31	2279599	40%	8†	Synonymous	D157D (GAT-GAC)	acg	conserved hypothetical, possible nitroreductase	0
MT31	2447977	39%	8	Synonymous	I6I (ATC-ATT)	Rv2186c	conserved hypothetical	0.000025
MT31	**3553976**	**–**	**8**	**~120 kb DUP**	**–**	**Rv3188 [. . .] Rv3296**	**–**	**–**
MT31	4115505	49%	20†	Synonymous	P116P (CCG-CCT)	nth	endonuclease III	0.00010
MT55	**3589531**	**–**	**4**	**~120 kb DUP**	**–**	**Rv3212 [. . .] Rv3324c**	**–**	**–**
L4.4.1.2								
MT345	580968	1.5%	4	Non-synonymous	M54V (ATG-GTG)	regX3	two component sensory transduction protein RegX	0
MT345	852317	<1%	4	Non-synonymous	R237L (CGC-CTC)	phoP	two component system response transcriptional positive regulator PhoP	0
MT345	3876836	0%	8	Intergenic	-14/+54 (C-A)	truA / rplQ	tRNA pseudouridine synthase A / 50S ribosomal protein L17	0
MT72	499768	5.7%	4	1 bp DEL - frameshift	pos. 56/654	renU (mutT3)	nudix hydrolase	0
MT72	652668	9.1%	4	Non-synonymous	R30S (CGC-AGC)	Rv0561c	oxidoreductase	0.000025
MT72	1416232	30%	16†	Synonymous	C372C (TGT-TGC)	embR	transcriptional regulator	0
MT72	4168394	0%	4	1 bp DEL-noncoding	pos. 50/86	serV	tRNA-Ser (GGA)	0
L4.4.1.1								
MT49	1939638	55%	8†	Non-synonymous	P14T (CCG-ACG)	cmk	cytidylate kinase	0
MT49	2799039	0%	8	Synonymous	G614G (GGC-GGT)	Rv2488c	LuxR family transcriptional regulator	0.000025
MT49	**3690947**	**0%**	**8**	**Intergenic**	**-9/-194 (A-G)**	**lpdA / Rv3304**	**NAD(P)H quinone reductase / hypothetical**	**0.0015**
MT540	648780	6.0%	4	Non-synonymous	F82S (TTC-TCC)	mgtA	GDP-mannose-dependent alpha-mannosyltransferase	0
MT540	3423753	0%	4	Non-synonymous	D559Y (GAT-TAT)	fadE22	acyl-CoA dehydrogenase FadE22	0
MT540	**3690952**	**0%**	**8‡**	**Intergenic**	**-14/-189 (G-C)**	**lpdA / Rv3304**	**NAD(P)H quinone reductase / hypothetical**	**0.00010**

* Coordinates in H37Rv genome

† Mutation fell out of population, fixed = 0%

‡ At 85% frequency at passage 8

167 We did not identify any overlap in mutations that arose following pellicle and planktonic passaging,

168 either in specific SNPs or genes containing SNPs (Table 1, Supplementary Table 2). This suggests that

169 the candidate variants for pellicle adaptation are unlikely to represent generalized lab adaptations.

Figure 5: Trajectories of mutations that changed >=30% over the course of the experiment show few mutations arose during passaging. The mutations that became fixed almost always did so in the first or second sequenced passage, and we identified very few mutations with substantial declines in frequency. Mutation frequency data were calculated with Popoolation2 and plots were made using Lolipop (see Methods).

Allele frequency dynamics for all variants that changed >30% over the course of pellicle passaging are

shown in Figure 5. In most populations (MT31, MT345, MT72, MT540) we observed secondary

mutations arising on the background of the first fixed mutations (Figure 5). Some secondary mutations

reached high frequencies (>95%) but did not remain at high frequency for the duration of the

experiment (Figure 5B). We identified a single mutation in the evolved pellicles (Figure 5A, P286L

Rv2319c) with a moderate change in frequency (>30%) that did not become fixed. Allele frequency

trajectories were otherwise characterized by rare variants that remained rare. Few changes in allele

frequency were observed for MT55. Aside from the large duplication that reached fixation we did not

identify any other mutations in this strain with >= 30% change in frequency.

We calculated genome-wide measures of diversity (Tajima's D and nucleotide diversity pi) for sequence

data at each timepoint (Supplementary Figure 3). Our values concur with previously estimated values

for *M. tb* (O'Neill et al., 2015) and are consistent with genome-wide purifying selection (Pepperell et al.,

2010, 2013). Bacterial populations within pellicles were more diverse (characterized by higher values of

pi) and exhibited a stronger skew to rare variants (lower Tajima's D) than those found in planktonically

grown communities (Supplementary Figure 3). This observation points to the complexity of biofilm

communities and distinct demographic and/or selective forces associated with pellicle versus planktonic

growth.

Convergent adaptation

We observed two instances of convergent adaptation, i.e. the same locus being subject to repeated

mutation during pellicle adaptation. Interestingly each pair of convergent mutations appeared in the

same sub-lineage. A large (~120kb) duplication fixed in populations MT31 and MT55, which both

belong to sub-lineage L4.9. The second convergent mutation, an intergenic SNP upstream of NAD(P)H

quinone reductase *lpdA,* within a transcription factor binding site (TFBS) and a non-coding RNA,

occurred in MT49 and MT540 that both belong to sub-lineage L4.4.1.1 (Table 1). Similar patterns were

evident in the planktonically passaged populations of bacteria. We identified convergence in these

experiments, with mutations arising repeatedly at the same loci (Supplementary Table 2,

Supplementary Figure 2). We also observed a likely impact of genetic background on adaptation, with

loci subject to repeated mutation in an apparently strain- or sub-lineage specific manner

(Supplementary Table 2, Supplementary Figure 2).

Figure 6: (A) Diagram of convergent adaptation in L4.4.1.1 strains MT540 and MT49 in the region upstream of *lpdA* within a TFBS and ncRNA. **(B)** Expression of *lpdA* differed significantly between sample groups (Kruskal-Wallis test, *P*-value = 1.89e-04). Pairwise comparisons between groups (Mann-Whitney U test with Benjamini-Hochberg correction) revealed significantly increased expression in evolved (E) strains when compared to ancestral (A) strains, as well as during biofilm (B) growth when compared to planktonic (P) growth. **(C)** Overexpression of *lpdA* in H37Rv results in significantly increased biofilm wet weights (*n*=3 for each construct). *P*-value legend: *: <0.05, **: <0.01.

Convergent adaptation affecting expression of lpdA

We identified convergent adaptation in evolved pellicles of strains MT49 and MT540 (both of lineage L4.4.1.1) in the region upstream of NAD(P)H quinone reductase *lpdA* (Table 1). These intergenic SNPs are five base pairs apart and lie within the transcription factor binding site (TFBS) for *Rv1719,* which is known to downregulate *lpdA* (Rustad et al., 2014)*.* We hypothesized that a SNP within the TFBS would affect TF binding and therefore expression of *lpdA.* We sought to quantify *lpdA* expression by qPCR in ancestral populations and compare that to expression in evolved populations containing the SNP of

interest. Evolved populations had significantly higher (*P*-value <0.05, Mann-Whitney U-test) expression

of *lpdA* (Figure 6). Additionally, we observed significantly increased expression of *lpdA* during biofilm

growth when compared to planktonic growth, suggesting a role for this gene in biofilm formation (Figure

6). In addition to being within a TFBS affecting expression of *lpdA*, these SNPs also lie within a non-

coding RNA (ncRNA) that is expressed from the opposite strand of *lpdA* (Figure 6). This ncRNA was

identified by RNA-sequencing (Arnvig et al., 2011; Gerrick et al., 2018) but has yet to be characterized.

In order to further investigate the role of *lpdA* in pellicle growth, we measured pellicle phenotypes in

H37Rv after introducing a second copy of the gene with an integrative, constitutive overexpression

plasmid. Pellicles from bacteria with the additional copy of *lpdA* had significantly higher mass than

those from bacteria transformed with an empty vector (Figure 6C), with no change in gross phenotype

(Supplementary Figure 4).

Figure 7: Convergent evolution of a large duplication in L4.9 strains MT31 and MT55, within the same genomic region flanked by mycobacterial IS6110 insertion sequences. Sliding window coverage plots show the increase in coverage in this region, and a chromosome plot shows the duplications' coordinates and overall stability in both populations over multiple passages.

Convergent evolution of large duplication

We discovered a large (~120kb) duplication in pellicles of both strains from lineage L4.9 (MT31 and

MT55, Table 1) following pellicle passaging. The duplications were initially identified with Pilon (Walker

et al., 2014), and to confirm their coordinates and absence in the ancestral populations, we made

sliding window coverage plots in this region and confirmed ~ 2X coverage indicating the presence of a

duplication (Figure 7). The coordinates of the duplication appear to be slightly different in the two

populations with the duplication in MT55 starting about 3kb after the duplication in MT31 (Figure 7). We

determined that the duplication was fixed after the first sequenced passage in each population

(passage 4 and 8 for MT55 and MT31, respectively; Supplementary Table 1). After fixation, the

duplication appears to have remained stable in both populations, as far out as 20 passages in MT31, as

we do not see any reduction in coverage across or within the duplicated region at these later passages

(Figure 7). This duplication did not emerge in planktonically passaged isolates of MT31 and MT55,

suggesting it has some specificity for pellicle adaptation of these strains (Supplementary Figure 5).

There are a total of 172 genes within the duplicated regions in MT31 and MT55 (*metU* through *folD*). To

identify a possible functional enrichment within these genes we performed a GO term enrichment

analysis and compared our results to the results from randomly selected groups of contiguous genes

from throughout the genome (see Methods). While the initial analysis identified significant enrichment of

genes involved in nucleotide metabolism within the duplication (Supplementary Table 3), this

enrichment does not appear significant when compared with randomly selected gene sets

(Supplementary Figure 6).

Figure 8: Interconnected regulation of our genes of interest (GOI; outlined in black) by common transcription factors (TF; purple) with the number of genes regulated by each TF listed under gene name. TF identified as having significant overlap with our GOI (i.e. the number of GOI regulated by the TF is higher than expected by chance) using the Mtb Network Portal (see Methods). Edges between nodes indicate >0.5 log2-fold absolute change in expression in a transcription factor overexpression (TFOE) strain, black lines show statistically significant (*P*-value <0.05) differential expression.

Regulatory pathways involved in biofilm formation

Having identified two instances of convergent evolution at the level of individual loci, we investigated

further for evidence of convergent evolution at the regulatory pathway level. We identified fourteen

genes of interest (GOI) in association with variants that rose to fixation during the passaging

experiment (Table 1). Using the MTB Network Portal v2 database of transcription factor overexpression

(TFOE) and ChIP-Seq data (http://networks.systemsbiology.net/mtb/) we identified regulatory pathways

that contained GOI. In Figure 8 we show the transcription factors (TFs) that are predicted to affect

expression of multiple GOI. Of our GOI, *acg*, is the most highly regulated, with seven TFs predicted to

affect its expression. The function of *acg* is unknown: it is annotated as a conserved hypothetical, but

according to *in vivo* studies may play an important role in infection (Hu and Coates, 2011; Singh et al.,

2019). Additionally, we used these data to determine if GOI annotated as regulators (*regX3, phoP,*

Rv2488c and *embR*) regulated other GOI (Figure 8). We found again that *acg* appears to be highly

regulated, and that *phoP* also regulates *mgtA* and *fadE22*, which are both hypothesized to have a role

in cell-wall processes. Taken together these results indicate that *M. tb* has a highly complex and tightly

regulated network and suggests that biofilm formation involves a complex network of interacting loci.

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Discussion

Variation within the Mycobacterium tuberculosis Complex (MTBC)

It has long been recognized that the MTBC is divided into well differentiated, globally circulating lineages (Hirsh et al., 2004). As an obligate human pathogen, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*M. tb*) is subject to the vagaries of human behavior, and this behavior has had a prominent role in structuring *M. tb* populations (Pepperell et al., 2011; Brynildsrud et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2018; Mulholland et al., 2019; O'Neill et al., 2019). In addition to genetic variation, phenotypic differences have been described among strains of *M. tb*. Differences have been observed in a range of phenotypes including metabolism (Øyås et al., 2020), gene expression (Domenech et al., 2017), DNA methylation (Modlin et al., 2020), *in vitro* stress responses (Tizzano et al., 2021), and biofilm morphotype (Pang et al., 2012).

We have shown previously that *M. tb* populations are genetically sub-divided over fine scales as a result of neutral genetic drift (Pepperell et al., 2010). Here, we find that *M. tb* strains from within a single lineage (lineage 4, 'Euro-American'), separated by few genetic differences (Figure 1), exhibit variation across a range of phenotypes. Prior to the imposition of selection pressures *in vitro*, differences among strains were evident in pellicle morphotype (Figure 1), cell length (Figure 2), pellicle wet weight (Figure 3) and planktonic growth rate (Figure 4). In some cases, phenotypic clustering occurred at the sub-lineage scale – e.g., planktonic growth curves of L4.9 isolates – and in others sub-lineage strain pairs exhibited marked differences – e.g., planktonic growth rate and pellicle wet weight of the L.4.1.1.2 strains MT345 and MT72.

Genetic and phenotypic responses to selection for biofilm growth

Regardless of phenotypic starting point, all strains of *M. tb* in our study showed evidence of adaptation in response to selection for pellicle growth. The gross morphology of *M. tb* pellicles changed over the course of the experiment (Figure 1), pellicle wet weights increased for all strains (Figure 3) and increases in the amount of extracellular matrix were evident in scanning electron micrographs (SEM) for all strains (Figure 2). MT345 formed robust pellicles at baseline yet manifested a dramatic increase in wet weight following pellicle passaging, indicating that adaptive capacity remains even among high biofilm forming clinical isolates (Figure 3). Collectively, these results demonstrate that our method was effective in exerting selection for pellicle growth. More broadly, it shows that experimental evolutionary approaches can be applied successfully to complex phenotypes and fastidious, slow growing, non-model organisms.

During our experiment pellicle phenotypes stabilized between passage 2 and 8 (Figure 1); extended

passaging beyond 8 passages did not produce further phenotypic changes (Supplementary Figure 1).

Fixation of novel and previously segregating mutations occurred over the same time frame (Table 1;

Figure 5), and we did not observe any further sweeps over the course of the experiment. Within 8

passages we thus saw phenotypic and genotypic stabilization across all populations. This phenomenon

is frequently observed during experimental evolution, where rapid adaptation is followed by diminishing

returns after continued passaging (Barrick et al., 2009; Khan et al., 2011; Philippe et al., 2007).

We observed few mutations over the course of the experiment (Table 1), and some of these are likely

to be hitchhikers linked to advantageous alleles that swept to fixation (Table 1, Figure 5). These few

mutations appeared to have pleiotropic effects, as we observed changes in phenotypes other than the

one under selection. 'Off target' phenotypes, such as planktonic growth rate and cell length, varied

among strains. Experimentally evolved populations generally manifest first-pass, large-effect mutations

during initial adaptation; our results suggest that these mutations in *M. tb* are broad in their scope and

variable in their effects. The latter phenomenon may be due to a large genetic target for biofilm growth,

the impacts of hitchhiking mutations and/or genetic background of the strains.

Candidate single nucleotide polymorphisms and deletions mediating pellicle adaptation were either

exceedingly rare or absent in our search of a database of almost 40,000 *M. tb* genomes. This suggests

that the loci hit in our experiment are under strong purifying selection in *M. tb*'s natural environment:

that is, the mutations we observed are associated with substantial fitness costs to the bacterium during

human infection. This is not to suggest that biofilm growth is irrelevant to natural infection; as discussed

above, *M. tb* biofilms and biofilm biomarkers have been identified in clinical specimens (Canetti, 1955;

Nyka, 1977, 1967, 1963; Nyka and O'Neill, 1970; Chakraborty et al., 2021). Rather, we hypothesize

that the mutations we observed are selected against because they interfere with regulatory pathways

that normally constrain biofilm growth to specific environmental conditions. Regulatory constraints

would limit potential drawbacks of biofilm formation, such as the metabolic costs of matrix production

and immunostimulation. Another, not mutually exclusive, explanation is that fitness costs associated

with mutations observed here are due to effects on off-target traits such as planktonic growth rate, cell

size changes, and/or phenotypes unmeasured here. Experiments such as this one can illuminate

impermissible paths in *M. tb* adaptation and reveal specific vulnerabilities with the potential to be

exploited in TB therapeutics.

Two strains in our study evolved a large (~120kb) duplication in the same genomic region, which fixed

by passage 8 (Table 1, Figure 7). The duplication persisted without evidence of decay in extended

passaging in our study (up to passage 20 in MT31). Duplications in this region of the genome have

been identified previously in isolates from Lineages 2 and 4 (Domenech et al., 2010, 2014a; Weiner et

al., 2012). Duplications at this site are likely facilitated by flanking *IS6110* elements (Figure 7C) which

can induce unequal homologous recombination. Prior research has shown that the duplication confers

a fitness disadvantage *in vivo* (as measured in a mouse model) and can be selected during axenic

culture (Domenech et al., 2014a).

Here we find this lab adaptation to be associated with enhanced pellicle formation. Interestingly, while

the duplication was associated with increases in planktonic growth rate, we did not identify it in

planktonically passaged populations (Figure 4, Supplementary Figure 5). Domenech *et al* found

previously that emergence of a similar duplication was variable among strains and culture conditions

(Domenech et al., 2014b). Together, these data suggest that while the duplication is observed

commonly in the lab, it is selected on specific genetic backgrounds and in response to specific

environmental conditions. Large-scale genome rearrangements including duplications have previously

been identified as a rough adaptive 'first draft' followed by further refinement during experimental

evolution (Lynch and Conery, 2000; Zhang, 2003). The duplication was the only mutation that fixed in

MT55, which exhibited a dramatic increase in pellicle weight (Figure 3) and increased production of

ECM (Figure 2) following passaging, suggesting that it is indeed this seemingly multipurpose mutation

that is responsible for pellicle adaptation. The apparent impacts of the duplication were not limited to

pellicle growth, as MT55 also exhibited an increase in cell length (Figure 2) and a faster rate of growth

during planktonic culture, as did its sister strain MT31 also encoding the mutation (Figure 4). Taken

together, our findings suggest that the production of ECM and other aspects of biofilm growth are tightly

regulated during natural infection, and that first pass mutations outside of this environment result in de-

repression of biofilm production. Our findings further suggest that biofilm formation is co-regulated with

a range of phenotypes, consistent with prior research on biofilms, persistence and drug tolerance

(Richards et al., 2019).

Epistasis

The 120kb duplication occurred on two strains from the same sub-lineage (MT31 and MT49 from L4.9)

and did not occur in any other genetic background. A similar phenomenon emerged in association with

sub-lineage L4.4.1.1, where both strains underwent mutation at a transcription factor binding site

upstream of *lpdA*, with attendant impacts on gene expression. While our strains are all very closely

related, there are still distinct genetic variants for each sub-lineage that may affect the evolutionary

trajectory and lead to convergent adaptation of strains within (Supplementary Data 1). We observed

similar patterns in the planktonically passaged populations, for example in repeated mutations

occurring in an apparently sub-lineage- (*tuf*, L4.1.1.2) or strain-specific manner (Supplementary Table

2, Supplementary Figure 2). Repeated mutation at these loci provides strong support for their

involvement in the trait under selection. In addition, the association of candidate adaptive mutations

with specific sub-lineages suggests that *M. tb* strains' genetic backgrounds played a role in shaping the

adaptive path to enhanced biofilm growth.

Epistasis, which refers to the phenotypic impact of interactions among mutations at distinct loci, has

been observed previously during experimental evolution of microbes [e.g. (Fisher et al., 2019)]. Sign

epistasis is a form of epistasis in which a mutation is advantageous on one genetic background and

deleterious on another (Weinreich et al., 2005). The presence of sign epistasis can hinder access to a

fitness optimum, and thus it represents a constraint on adaptation (Weinreich et al., 2005; Poelwijk et

al., 2007). Our identification of mutations only in association with specific sub-lineages is consistent

with sign epistasis, as is the observation of parallel adaptation in this small sample of strains: it

suggests, for example, that mutations upstream of *lpdA* may be deleterious on some genetic

backgrounds, and/or that alternatives are deleterious on the L.4.1.1.1 background. A careful review of

the existing literature reveals additional evidence of sign epistasis in *M. tb*. For example, we and others

have found evidence suggesting that *M. tb* lineage affects the mutational path to drug resistance

(Mortimer et al., 2018; Farhat et al., 2019; Castro et al., 2019). Even more striking, Manson *et al*

identified a stereotypic order of resistance mutation acquisition in a large survey of drug resistant *M. tb*

isolates, a finding that was subsequently replicated (Manson et al., 2017; Ektefaie et al., 2021). This

suggests that the acquisition of an initial resistance mutation alters the fitness associated with

subsequent mutations, as has been observed in other settings (Silva et al., 2011). More direct evidence

for sign epistasis comes from mutagenesis experiments, in which the lethality of gene knockouts has

been shown to vary according to *M. tb* strain genetic background (Maksymiuk et al., 2015; Carey et al.,

2018).

Upregulation of lpdA during biofilm growth

As noted above, we identified convergent adaptation in the region upstream of *lpdA* (*Rv3303c*) on

L.4.1.1.1 backgrounds. *lpdA* is annotated as a NAD(P)H quinone reductase, which is known to be

expressed *in vivo* (Deb et al., 2002) and to contribute to virulence in mice (Akhtar et al., 2006). It has

not previously been linked with biofilm formation. The mechanism of its contribution to virulence *in vivo*

is thought to be by protection against oxidative stress (Akhtar et al., 2006). The strains in our study

evolved variants 5 bp apart, both of which lie within the TFBS for *Rv1719* (Figure 6A). These SNPs also

lie within ncRNA *ncRv13303c*, which was originally identified by RNA sequencing (Arnvig et al., 2011;

DeJesus et al., 2017) but is yet uncharacterized. Previous work characterizing variable-number tandem

repeats (VNTR) in this intergenic region have proposed a possible hairpin structure that lies within

ncRv13303c and could affect its function (Zheng et al., 2008). Differences in VNTR copy number and

promoter sequence in this region have been observed between different strains of mycobacteria, and

even linked to differences in expression of *lpdA* (Akhtar et al., 2009; Pérez-Lago et al., 2013; Zheng et

al., 2008)*.

We hypothesized that SNPs in the TFBS upstream of *lpdA* would affect TF binding and expression of

lpdA. This was indeed the case, as evolved strains had significantly higher expression of *lpdA* (Figure

6B). Additionally, we found expression of this gene to be higher during biofilm growth when compared

to planktonic growth. Further support for a link between increased expression of *lpdA* and enhanced

pellicle growth comes from our data showing an increase in pellicle wet weight following introduction of

a second copy of the gene via an integrative plasmid (Figure 6C). Interestingly, *lpdA* is within the

bounds of the large duplications we identified in strains MT31 and MT55, which may affect the dosage

of this gene in those evolved strains.

The two SNPs upstream of *lpdA* were exceedingly rare among clinical isolates of *M. tb*: in a search of

almost 40,000 *M. tb* genomes, we identified the MT49 SNP in just 61 genomes and the MT540 SNP

was found in 4 genomes (Table 1). Interestingly, the MT49 mutation was shown to sweep to fixation in

a deep sequencing study of serial sputum samples chronicling *M. tb* within host dynamics (Trauner et

al., 2017). This supports the hypothesis that biofilms are important at a specific phase of TB infection,

and that enhanced biofilm growth can also occur *in vivo* through increased expression of *lpdA* and

genes co-regulated with it. Taken together, these observations suggest that variants at the TFBS

upstream of *lpdA* can be transiently selected during infection but are otherwise deleterious, possibly

due to fitness costs associated with biofilm growth that is timed inappropriately.

The regulatory system as a target of selection in M. tb

The L4.9 duplication and SNPs upstream of *lpdA* presumably act via regulation/gene dosage.

Regulatory activity was also common among the other loci that accumulated mutations in our

experiment, including phosphorelay signal transduction and DNA binding activity (Table 1). We

identified fixed SNPs in four transcriptional regulators: *regX3, phoP, embR* and *Rv2488c* (Table 1).

These genes in turn regulate other candidate genes identified in our study (Figure 8). *regX3* and *phoP*

belong to two-component regulatory systems (2CRS), whereas *embR* and *Rv2488c* are of the ompB

and luxR families, respectively. Many of *M. tb*'s 2CRS have been implicated in virulence and survival in

host conditions (Li et al., 2019) and this is true of *regX3*, which with its partner *senX3* is required for

virulence in mice (Li et al., 2019; Parish et al., 2003). Of note, *regX3* regulates genes that are known to

be involved in *M. tb* biofilm development (Richards et al., 2019). Similarly, while *Rv2488c* has not

previously been directly implicated in *M. tb* biofilm growth, *luxR* regulators are involved in quorum

sensing in gram negative bacteria and have been hypothesized to play a similar role in mycobacteria

(Chen and Xie, 2011; Sharma et al., 2014). Our results provide support for further investigation of

quorum sensing in *M. tb* and its relationship to biofilm development.

Several studies have demonstrated that clinical isolates of *M. tb* vary in their methylation patterns, and

methylome phenotypes have been linked with allelic variants in cognate methyltransferases (Modlin et

al., 2020; Phelan et al., 2018; Shell et al., 2013; Zhu et al., 2015). Methyltransferase motifs are

associated with regulatory elements such as promoters, and variation in methylation patterns has been

associated with differences in gene expression in some cases (Chiner-Oms et al., 2019; Gomez-

Gonzalez et al., 2019; Modlin et al., 2020). We did not observe any mutations at loci known to encode

methyltransferase genes, but it is possible that adaptation to pellicle growth was accompanied by

epigenomic changes, or that epigenomic changes occurring by an unknown mechanism contributed to

the phenotypic changes we observed. Such epigenomic changes would have to be relatively stable, as

the phenotypic changes we observed persisted following growth under standard planktonic conditions.

Broadly speaking, our results show that selection in our system appears to have targeted genes that

regulate many other genes (hubs, e.g. *phoP*), and genes under regulation by many genes (e.g. *acg*),

whose expression is likely responsive to a broad range of conditions. This reflects general features of

M. tb's regulatory network, which exhibits a high degree of connectivity between regulatory pathways

(Chauhan et al., 2016; Galagan et al., 2013) as well as a hierarchical structure in which master

regulators can rapidly calibrate global patterns of gene expression (Chauhan et al., 2016; Parvati Sai

Arun et al., 2018). Similar findings have also been obtained in other systems, where experimentally

evolved populations have shown adaptation in transcription factors and other global regulators, with

global impacts on gene expression (Ali and Seshasayee, 2020; Conrad et al., 2010; Philippe et al.,

2007; Rodríguez-Verdugo et al., 2016; Saxer et al., 2014). These mutations occur quickly to enable

rapid adaptation to new environments, and it is hypothesized that secondary selection may act to refine

gene expression after the initial burst of adaptation (Ali and Seshasayee, 2020; Rodríguez-Verdugo et

al., 2016). Thorpe et al previously found evidence of positive selection at promoter sites in natural

populations of *M. tb*, suggesting that adaptation in natural as well as experimental populations is

facilitated by regulatory mutations (Thorpe et al., 2017). The broad potential impacts of regulators such

as *regX3, phoP, embR* and *Rv2488c* and large-scale duplications likely helps to explain the wide range

of phenotypic changes we observed. Further passaging of our isolates will reveal whether these

adaptations can be further refined or whether pellicle growth remains inextricably linked to a range of

phenotypes.

Of note, none of the genes identified in our study have previously been implicated in biofilm

development, except for *renU/mutT3*. Interestingly, previous research (Wolff et al., 2015) found that

renU knockouts were defective in pellicle growth, whereas, in our study, a frameshift mutation in *renU*

was associated with enhanced biofilm growth (MT72). The novelty of our findings highlights the

potential for experimental evolution to complement more traditional approaches of interrogating

important pathogen phenotypes, particularly in elucidating complex interactions and the phenotypic

impacts of subtle genetic changes.

From some perspectives, the adaptation of *M. tb* seems impossibly constrained: subject to genetic drift

imposed by its host's unpredictable behavior, subject to the limitations of a fully linked genome,

navigating a fitness landscape rendered complex by powerful epistatic interactions. Yet *M. tb* adapts

rapidly in both natural and experimental settings. *M. tb*'s complex regulatory architecture exhibits many

of the features that characterize robust systems – such as redundancy, modularity, and multiple

feedback mechanisms (Kitano, 2004) – and we hypothesize that it is among the reasons *M. tb*

continues to persist and thrive across the globe.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains and growth conditions.

Clinical strains were initially isolated from sputum
samples. Briefly, sputum samples were decontaminated
and struck on Löwenstein–Jensen slants. *Mycobacterium*
tuberculosis growth was inoculated into Middlebrook 7H9
broth (HiMedia) containing 0.2% w/v glycerol, 10% v/v
OADC supplement (oleic acid, albumin, D-glucose,
catalase; Becton Dickinson) and 0.05% w/v Tween-80
(7H9OTG) and incubated at 37^0C with 5% CO_2 for 3-5
weeks. Cultures were sub-cultured in 7H9OTG prior to
the start of this experiment. Six clinical strains were
selected for experimental passage (MT31, MT49, MT55,
MT72, MT345, and MT540). The terminal culture
(Passage 0) of each strain was grown to an OD_{600} ~1 in

Figure 9: Protocol for serial passage of *M. tb*
pellicles

planktonic culture and inoculated into media for biofilm growth (Passage 1; Figure 9). Aliquots of
passage 0 were frozen, and genomic DNA was isolated for sequencing. For planktonic growth, 250µL
was inoculated into 5 mL 7H9OTG, in duplicate, and incubated at 37^0C with shaking, until grown to an
OD_{600} ~1. For biofilm growth, 250µL of planktonic culture was inoculated into 25mL Sauton's medium
(for 1L: 0.5g KH_2PO_4, 0.5g $MgSO_4$, 4g L-Asparagine, 2g Citric acid, 0.05g Ammonium Iron (III) citrate,
60mL glycerol, adjust pH to 7.0 with NaOH) containing 0.1% w/v $ZnSO_4$, in duplicate, and incubated at
37^0C, with 5% CO_2, without shaking for 5-7 weeks. Biofilms were grown as previously described (Kulka
et al., 2012): 250mL bottles (Corning, 430281) were incubated with a tight-fitting cap for 3 weeks, and
then with a loose-fitting cap for the remainder of growth.

Experimental evolution of pellicles

As illustrated in Figure 9, duplicate populations of 6 clinical strains were grown as a biofilm. After 5-7
weeks, the more robust of the two pellicles was selected for passage. 0.3 g (wet weight) of pellicle was
inoculated into 25mL Sauton's in duplicate and grown as previously described. The pellicle not selected
for passage was discarded. Between 8 and 20 total pellicle passages per strain were performed. Every
4 passages culture were frozen at -80^0C and gDNA was extracted for sequencing (excluding MT31 and
MT49, for whom the first passage that was frozen and had gDNA extracted was Passage 8;
Supplementary Table 1).

Experimental evolution of planktonic cultures

Starter cultures of ancestral strains were made from frozen cryovial stocks and sequenced to get an

ancestral baseline for the planktonic passages. Each strain was inoculated in triplicate to form 3

independently evolving populations: A, B and C. For each passage, 25mL of 7H9OTG was inoculated

with 500μL of culture at OD_{600} = 1. Cultures were grown at 37^0C with shaking until an OD_{600} ~1, before

freezing cryovials, extracting gDNA for sequencing, and seeding the next passage. A total of 15/18 of

the populations were passaged 4 times, while 3/18 were only passaged 3 times due to the presence of

contamination.

Pellicle phenotypes and wet weights

Pellicle growth was photo documented and phenotyped after 5-7 weeks of growth during the course of

the experiment. Wet weights were taken after regrowing both ancestral and Passage 8 strains from

cryovial stocks, as described above, inoculating first into 7H9OTG and then into Sauton's either in

duplicate or triplicate. Wet weight measurements were taken after 5 weeks of pellicle growth by

removing the spent media beneath the pellicle and weighing. Then, the tare weight of the empty bottle

was subtracted.

SEM

For scanning electron microscopy experiments, samples were taken from *M. tb* pellicle cultures after 5

weeks of growth and placed on poly-L-lysine-treated plastic coverslips (13 mm, Thermonax plastic for

cell culture). Samples were then fixed overnight in a 4% formaldehyde, 2% glutaraldehyde solution in

Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline (-calcium, -magnesium) (DPBS) (Hyclone Laboratories Inc.,

Logan, UT). Following fixation, samples were washed with DPBS, then treated with 1% osmium

tetroxide for 1 hour. Following osmium tetroxide treatment, samples were washed with DPBS. Next,

cells underwent ethanol dehydration, which was followed by critical point drying. Following that,

samples were then placed on aluminum stubs and sputter-coated with 20 nm platinum. The samples

were imaged at 3 kV by a Zeiss GeminiSEM 450 scanning electron microscope.

To measure cell length via scanning electron microscopy, SEM images taken at 10,000X were opened

on ImageJ. The pixel length of the scale bar was measured with the "straight" tool. Next, the image was

cropped to remove any area without *M. tb* cells. Six frames per image were selected using the

"unbiased frames" macro in ImageJ. The cell length in pixels of a fully exposed *M. tb* cells was

measured in each frame using the "straight" tool. A random number generator was used to select

frames for the remaining four cell lengths. After all cell lengths were measured, pixel length was

converted to µm using the scale bar prior to analysis. Cell lengths were measured across two biological

replicates (two independent cultures) for all strains except SK540-0, where only one replicate was

available.

Planktonic growth curves

To compare rates of growth between ancestral and evolved populations, we inoculated 5 mL 7H9OTG

with 250 µL thawed culture from a previously frozen cryovial for each of the ancestral strains and

passage 8 of each of the pellicle evolved strains. Cultures were incubated at 37^0C with shaking, until

grown to an OD_{600} ~ 1. 15mL fresh 7H9OTG was seeded at a starting OD_{600} of 0.02 in triplicate and

incubated at 37^0C with shaking. OD_{600} measurements were taken every day for 10 days (starting at day

2).

DNA extraction

gDNA for whole genome sequencing was isolated by following a modified Qiagen DNeasy Blood and

Tissue Kit protocol. Briefly, cultures were pelleted and resuspended in TE buffer in 2 mL screw-cap

tubes containing ~250µg of 0.1mm glass beads. The samples were heated to 80^0C for 50 minutes to

sterilize the suspensions, then frozen at -80^0C for at least 1 hour to aid cellular lysis. Tubes were

vortexed for 3 minutes for mechanical lysis. Suspensions were then incubated with 3% w/v mutanolysin

(Sigma-Aldrich, M9901) for 1 hour at 37^0C. Beads and cellular debris were pelleted, and supernatants

were transferred to tubes for DNA purification following the protocol detailed in the Qiagen DNeasy

Blood and Tissue Handbook, starting with step 4 of "Protocol: Pretreatment for Gram-Positive Bacteria."

Library preparation and sequencing

Library preparation was performed using a modified Nextera protocol as described by (Baym et al.,

2015) with a reconditioning PCR with fresh primers and polymerase for an additional 5 PCR cycles to

minimize chimeras and a two-step bead based size selection with target fragment size of 650 bp.

Libraries were submitted to the University of Wisconsin-Madison Biotechnology Center (UWBC).

Quality and quantity of the finished libraries were assessed using an Agilent DNA High Sensitivity chip

(Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA) and Qubit dsDNA HS Assay Kit, respectively. Libraries were

standardized to 2 µM. Samples were sequenced generating paired end reads using Illumina HiSeq

2000. The majority of samples (87/101) were sequenced using the above protocol, however for a small

number of samples that needed resequencing, gDNA was submitted to the UWBC and to the Microbial

Genome Sequencing Center (MiGS) for both library prep and sequencing using Illumina NovaSeq 6000

and Illumina NextSeq 2000, respectively.

Reference guided assembly and variant calling.

Genome assemblies were performed using an in-house reference-guided assembly pipeline

(https://github.com/pepperell-lab/RGAPepPipe). Briefly, raw data was checked for quality with FastQC

v0.11.8 (http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc) and trimmed using TrimGalore

v0.6.4 (http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/trim_galore). Reads were mapped to the

H37Rv reference genome using BWA-MEM v0.7.12 (Li, 2013), and Samtools v1.11 (Li et al., 2009)

view and sort were used to process SAM and BAM files. Picard v1.183

(http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/) was used to remove duplicates and add read information. Reads

were locally re-aligned using GATK v3.5 (DePristo et al., 2011) and variants were identified using Pilon

v1.16 (Walker et al., 2014). Finally, assembly quality was determined using Qualimap BamQC

(Okonechnikov et al., 2016).

Lineage Typing and Phylogenetic tree

We used SNP-IT (Lipworth et al., 2019) to identify the lineages of our ancestral strains. To identify the

sub-lineage of our ancestral strains we obtained an alignment of known L4 isolates from a collaborator.

We created a SNP alignment of the assemblies from the RGAPepPipe using Snp-sites v 2.4.1 (Page et

al., 2016) and constructed a maximum likelihood phylogeny using RAxML v8.2.3 (Stamatakis, 2014).

Next, we visualized the phylogeny using Dendroscope (Huson and Scornavacca, 2012) and lineage

typed our isolates by comparing their location in the phylogeny to known L4 subtypes. The phylogenetic

tree in Figure 1 was plotted and colored in R using ggtree (Yu et al., 2017).

Identification of fixed SNPs

To identify genetic changes occurring after repeated passaging as a pellicle or planktonic culture, we

used Popoolation2 v1.201 (Kofler et al., 2011b) and breseq v0.35.0 (Deatherage and Barrick, 2014).

BAM files from RGAPepPipe (see above) were filtered for quality and used with Samtools mpileup (Li et

al., 2009) to tabulate mutation frequencies across sequenced timepoints. The mpileup file was

converted to a sync file using Popoolation2 and finally converted the sync file to a format suitable for

downstream analysis using Python (code available at https://github.com/myoungblom/mtb_ExpEvo).

Variants were filtered for quality by minimum coverage of 20X, minimum alternate allele count of 5 and

a minimum allele frequency of 5%. We also removed variants in repetitive families of genes (PE, PPE,

and PE-PGRS gene families) from analysis. Sequence data were also assembled and variants called

and annotated using breseq v0.35.0 (Deatherage and Barrick, 2014) to confirm variants called using

Popoolation2. Breseq was run in population mode for each sequenced timepoint, with all default

parameters except one: "polymorphism-minimum-total-coverage-each-strand" was set to 4. Then the

mutational frequencies of each timepoint were compared using gdtools (Deatherage and Barrick, 2014)

compare run with default parameters. To identify mutations that had significant frequency changes

throughout the experiment we looked for variants that were at a low starting frequency and rose to

fixation (>95% frequency) or conversely, started at intermediate frequency and disappeared from the

population (<5% frequency).

Structural variant detection

To identify potential insertions, deletions, and duplications of interest in our genomic sequence data, we

called structural variants using Pilon v1.16 as a part of RGAPepPipe. We removed all insertions,

deletions, and duplications that were located entirely in regions annotated as repetitive genes (PE,

PPE, and PE-PGRS gene families). We also removed variants that were identified in ancestral strains

and/or that did not remain fixed in subsequent passages. Additionally, we manually curated potential

variants by visually inspecting the alignments in IGV (Robinson et al., 2011; Thorvaldsdóttir et al., 2013)

and removed variants that appeared to be mis-mappings or in regions of poor coverage. Sliding window

coverage plots to visualize duplications were made using Samtools bedcov (Li et al., 2009) using in-

house scripts (code available at https://github.com/myoungblom/mtb_ExpEvo). Relative coverage was

calculated by dividing each window coverage by the average coverage across the assembly – as given

by BamQC (Okonechnikov et al., 2016) – and plotted in R.

GO term enrichment analysis

To identify possible functional enrichments in the genes within the large duplication that evolved in

MT31 and MT55 pellicles (Table 1), we performed a GO term enrichment analysis. GO terms for all *M.*

tb genes were downloaded from Quick GO (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/QuickGO/). We used the R package

topGO (https://bioconductor.org/packages/release/bioc/html/topGO.html) to perform an enrichment

analysis of the genes present in one or both duplications (a total of 172 genes). We calculated

significance using a Fisher's exact test and filtering for *P*-values < 0.01 (Supplementary Table 3). We

performed the same enrichment analysis on 100 randomly selected, contiguous sets of 172 genes to

test the greater significance of our results (Supplementary Figure 6).

Genotype plots

To better understand the structure of the population over passaging we created genotypes by clustering

variants with similar trajectories throughout the experiment. Output from Popoolation2 as described

above, was filtered for based on >= 30% frequency change between the final passage and ancestral

populations, as well as filtering out all mutations within 1000bp of each other (we identified that these

mutations are often the result of repetitive regions and/or poor mapping). Lolipop

(https://github.com/cdeitrick/Lolipop) was used with default parameters to cluster mutations into

genotypes and create plots.

Population genetics statistics

Population genetics estimates (Tajima's D, pi and theta) were calculated as previously described

(O'Neill et al., 2015). Briefly, we used Popoolation (Kofler et al., 2011a) to estimate these parameters in

sliding windows across the genome. To reduce biases caused by variable coverage we randomly sub-

sampled read data without replacement to uniform coverage of 50X; we repeated this process 9 times

to further reduce biases. Genome-wide averages were calculated by averaging all windows across the

genome, across all replicate sub-sampled data. Scripts available at

https://github.com/myoungblom/mtb_ExpEvo.

Network analysis

Genes of interest (GOI) were defined as coding genes containing or just downstream of the fixed

mutations, we identified in populations passaged as pellicles (Table 1). Network analysis of GOI was

performed by accessing the transcription factor overexpression data available in the MTB Network

Portal (http://networks.systemsbiology.net/mtb/content/TFOE-Searchable-Data-File). Transcription

factors identified as significantly contributing to regulation of more than one of our GOIs were included

in Figure 8. We also used this same dataset to identify GOIs which are themselves regulators and

affect expression of other GOIs.

Fixed SNPs in global datasets

We searched for the presence of mutations identified in our study in publicly available sequencing data

using a searchable COBS index of bacterial genomes curated from the European Nucleotide Archive

(Blackwell et al., 2021). We used the Python interface to search the COBS index (Bingmann et al.,

2019). Our query sequences included 50bp in either direction of the SNP of interest, with a k-mer

matching threshold of 1. To determine the frequency of isolates in the COBS index with each SNP of

interest, we needed to determine the number of *M. tb* genomes in the database: we searched the

database using the full H37Rv 16S rRNA sequence (accession: NR_102810.2) which returned 39,941

results – this total number of *M. tb* isolates was used to calculate frequency of our SNPs of interest

(Table 1).

RNA isolation

Frozen cryovials of ancestral populations (MT540-0, MT49-0) and evolved populations (MT540-4,

MT49-12) were thawed, and 250 µl of each was inoculated into 25 ml 7H9OTG and incubated at 37^0C

with shaking and grown to an OD_{600} of ~1. 250 µl of culture was used to inoculate 25 ml Sauton's for

biofilm growth. The remaining culture was pelleted, resuspended in 3 ml RNAprotect Bacteria Reagent

(Qiagen), divided into 3 x 1 ml aliquots (3 technical replicates), and frozen at -80^0C until RNA

extraction. Biofilm cultures were grown as previously described, and pellicles were harvested at 5

weeks. Pellicles were broken up and suspended in 3 ml RNAprotect, divided into 3 x 1 ml aliquots (3

technical replicates), and frozen at -80^0C until RNA extraction. RNA was extracted from each 1 ml

aliquot (three technical replicates per sample), using the illustra RNAspin Mini RNA Isolation Kit (GE

Healthcare) following the "Protocol for total RNA purification from up to 10^9 bacterial cells," which

includes a 15-minute room-temperature incubation with RNase-free DNase I. RNA integrity was

assessed by bleach gel electrophoresis (O'Neill et al., 2018) and quantified using a NanoDrop ND-1000

spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies Inc).

711   *RNA isolation*

712   Frozen cryovials of ancestral populations (MT540-0, MT49-0) and evolved populations (MT540-4,

713   MT49-12) were thawed, and 250 µl of each was inoculated into 25 ml 7H9OTG and incubated at 37^0C

RT-qPCR

~100 ng of each RNA sample was used for cDNA synthesis with random hexamer primers using the

RevertAid First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo Scientific) and included a 5-minute incubation at

65^0C and a reaction temperature of 44^0C for GC-rich templates. Real-time quantitative PCR was

performed in EU Fast Cycler PCR 96-well plates (BIOplastics) using the StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR

System (v. 2.3, Applied Biosystems). We used sets of primers previously published and verified (Akhtar

et al., 2009) to measure the expression of *lpdA* normalized to the expression of the endogenous

control, *sigA.* All real-time PCR assays were run in a total reaction volume of 20 µl comprised of 2X

Fast SYBR Green Master Mix (Applied Biosystems), 200 nM of both forward and reverse primers

(Integrated DNA Technologies, Coralville, IA, USA), and 3 µl of cDNA. RT-qPCR cycling parameters

were set as follows: an initial AmpliTaq Fast DNA Polymerase, UP Activation step of 20 seconds at

95^0C, followed by 40 cycles of 3 seconds at 95^0C and 30 seconds at 60^0C. Each reaction was repeated

three times with three independent cDNA samples. Negative controls consisting of no-template reaction

mixtures were run with all reactions. Melting-curve analysis was carried out to confirm the specificity of

the amplified product. After baseline correction and determination of the threshold settings, the Factor-

qPCR ratio method (Ruijter et al., 2015) was used to remove between-run variation due to the

experiment including multiple plates. The factor corrected ∆CT values of the three technical replicates

(MT540-EB has only 2 replicates) were then averaged and the ∆∆CTs were calculated by subtracting a

reference value (MT540-AP) from each sample. The expression fold change was calculated using the

$2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001), as PCR efficiencies had previously been found to be

similar. Low and high fold changes were calculated by adding or subtracting the standard deviation

from the fold change. The results are expressed as log2 of the fold changes. Kruskal-Wallis test was

used to determine the presence of significant log2 fold differences in the dataset (P-value = 1.89e-04).

Then, a Wilcox test was performed to compare log2 fold changes between sample types (AP, AB, EP,

EB) to identify significant differences between pairs. A P-value less than 0.05 was considered

significant.

lpdA overexpression mutant

The *lpdA* gene was overexpressed in *M. tb* H37Rv at the L5 site using the integrative, constitutive

overexpression plasmid pCT94 provided by Sarah Fortune's lab (Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public

Health). *lpdA* was amplified and modified to include *NdeI* and *HindIII* digestion sites using forward

primer CCGCATGCTTAATTAAGAAGGAGATATACA-CCGCCGTCTAAGCTTTCCCCC and reverse

primer GACCTCTAGGGTCCCCAATTAATTAGCTAA-TAGCCTGGGCGCTCGCGATAA. After

amplification with Platinum SuperFi Green PCR Master Mix (Invitrogen, Waltham, MA), the PCR

product was digested with *NdeI* and *HindIII* (NEB, Ipswich, MA). The digested product was then ligated

with a *NdeI* and *HindIII* cut pCT94 using Gibson assembly (NEB, Ipswich, MA). The assembly product

(CT94-*lpdA*) was then heat-shock transformed into DH5α *E. coli* cells and selected for on LB plates

with 50 ug/ml kanamycin overnight. Plasmid integration was verified via *NdeI* and *HindIII* digestion.

CT94-*lpdA* and an empty vector control (CT94) were electroporated into electrocompetent *M. tb* H37Rv

and transformants were recovered in 2 ml of fresh 7H9 for 24-48 h at 37°C, and then struck on 7H10

plates containing 25 ug/ml kanamycin. Both control and *lpdA* overexpression strains were grown as

pellicles in triplicate and wet weight measurements taken as described above.

Data Availability

Raw sequence data for ancestral and evolved isolates has been submitted to NCBI under the project

accession PRJNA720149.

Author contributions

TMS and CSP conceived of the study. TMS, MAY, JFK, SSF and TDM conducted experiments. TMS

and JFK performed SEM and image analysis. TMS, MAY, MAM, LLB, MBO and CSP performed data

analysis. TMS, MAY and CSP drafted the manuscript. All authors provided feedback and contributed to

manuscript revision.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Supplement

Supplementary Figure 1: All photos from pellicle passaging experiment. Photos taken at time of passaging, between 5 and 7 weeks of growth.

Supplementary Table 1: Outline of data collection for each strain at each passage point.

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	P0	P4	P8	P12	P16	P20
MT31	sequencing wet weight growth curve SEM		sequencing wet weight growth curve SEM	sequencing	sequencing	sequencing
MT49	sequencing wet weight growth curve SEM		sequencing wet weight growth curve SEM	sequencing	sequencing	sequencing
MT72	sequencing wet weight growth curve SEM	sequencing	sequencing wet weight growth curve SEM	sequencing	sequencing	
MT345	sequencing wet weight growth curve SEM	sequencing	sequencing wet weight growth curve SEM	sequencing	sequencing	
MT55	sequencing wet weight growth curve SEM	sequencing	sequencing wet weight growth curve SEM			
MT540	sequencing wet weight growth curve SEM	sequencing	sequencing wet weight growth curve SEM			

1205 **Supplementary Table 2:** Variants with a >= 30% frequency change over the course of four planktonic passages.
1206 Grouped by mutations within the same gene and sorted by genes that acquired the most independent SNPs
1207 across replicates and strains.

Gene	Strain(s)	Num. mutations	Position(s)	Frequency change(s)	Type(s)	Mutation(s)	Product	Proportion in global dataset
tuf	72, 345	3	784878, 785931	31, 49, 52%	Non-synonymous	H20D (CAC-GAC), M371V (ATG-GTG)	elongation factor Tu	0, 0
Rv2177c	55, 345	3	2439519	30, 31, 34%	Synonymous	R143R (CGC-CGA)	transposase	0.26
amt / ftsY	345, 540	3	3232703, 3232759	33, 38, 42%	Intergenic	-197 / +168 (G-A), -253 / +112 (G-A)	ammonium transport integral membrane protein / cell division protein signal recognition particle receptor	0.63, 0.63
grcC1	540	2	653223	41, 85%	Non-synonymous	F151L (TTC - TTA)	polyprenyl-diphosphate synthase	6.7E-05
Rv3401 / Rv3402c	72	2	3820545	30, 32%	Intergenic	+143 / +108 (A-G)	conserved enzyme / conserved hypothetical	0.77
Rv0378	540	1	455737	42%	Synonymous	A34G (GCC-GGC)	conserved hypothetical	0.00024
Rv0435c	540	1	524164	31%	Non-synonymous	G124S (GGC-AGC)	ATPase	0
aldA	345	1	860984	39%	Non-synonymous	F25V (TTC-GTC)	aldehyde dehydrogenase	0
kdpB	72	1	1154704	100%	Synonymous	G327G (GGC-GGT)	potassium transporting ATPase subunit B	0
narH / narJ	540	1	1292786	41%	Intergenic	+45 / -617 (A-G)	nitrate reductase subunit beta / nitrate reductase subunit delta	0
Rv2407	540	1	2704886	31%	Non-synonymous	G64S (GGC-AGC)	conserved hypothetical	0
clpX	540	1	2758927	31%	Non-synonymous	V188I (GTC-ATC)	ATP dependent CLP protease ATP-binding subunit	0
ppsC	72	1	3258368	30%	Non-synonymous	H895P (CAC-CCC)	Phenolpthiocerol synthesis type-I polyketide synthase	0.0018
icd1	72	1	3725179	100%	Nonsense	Y222* (TAC-TAA)	isocitrate dehydrogenase	4.4E-05
Rv3736	345	1	4186898	33%	Non-synonymous	A89P (GCC-CCC)	araC/xylS family transcriptional regulator	0.00027
Rv3762c	345	1	4207642	53%	Non-synonymous	P412R (CCG-CGC)	hydrolase	0

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1210 **Supplementary Figure 2**: Population genetics statistics calculated from Pool-seq data from all strains at all
1211 sequenced passage points. Range of values across all sequenced passage points given for each statistic.
1212 Boxplots are colored by strains passaged as biofilms (red) or passaged as planktonic cultures (blue).
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1215 **SupplementaryData_1:** Mutations present in ancestral pairs of strains which went on to develop convergent
1216 mutations in response to biofilm growth (MT31/MT55 and MT49/MT540). 'Ref' and 'alt' refer to the alleles present
1217 in the reference strain (H37Rv) and the clinical isolate, respectively. Mutations without an annotation exist in
1218 intergenic regions.
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1221 **Supplementary Figure 3:** Trajectories of mutations that changed =>30% over the course of planktonic
1222 passaging. In contrast to strains evolved under biofilm conditions, only 2 mutations became fixed (both in MT72-
1223 C).
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H37Rv + CT94   H37Rv + CT94-lpdA

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1229 **Supplementary Figure 4:** H37Rv pellicles with empty vector (left) and extra copy of *lpdA* (right) introduced into
1230 the chromosome using pCT94. Qualitative pellicle phenotypes remain the same after introduction of additional
1231 *lpdA*.

Supplementary Figure 5: Sliding-window plots showing relative sequencing coverage of planktonically passaged isolates (3 independently evolving replicates per strain). The region in which a convergent ~120kb duplication was identified in strains MT31 and MT55 after passaging as pellicles doesn't appear to have been replicated in strains evolved under these conditions. The one exception is MT345 passage 0, which acquired a duplication in this region during regular laboratory handling. This duplication is even larger than that in MT31 and MT55 (~700kb) and exists at intermediate frequency in the ancestral strain, before disappearing in 2/3 evolved replicates. In the final replicate, the duplication fluctuates but remains at intermediate frequency after four passages.

1249 **Supplementary Table 3**: Significantly (*P*-value <0.01) enriched GO terms within the large duplication that arose
1250 in L4.9 strains. Of note is enrichment of nucleotide biosynthesis/metabolic processes.
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GO.ID	Term	Annotated	Observed	Expected	classicFisher
GO:0009116	nucleoside metabolic process	31	6	1.29	0.0014
GO:1901657	glycosyl compound metabolic process	43	7	1.79	0.0017
GO:0034404	nucleobase-containing small molecule biosynthetic process	25	5	1.04	0.0031
GO:1901136	carbohydrate derivative catabolic process	26	5	1.08	0.0037
GO:0055086	nucleobase-containing small molecule metabolic process	170	15	7.08	0.0037
GO:0034654	nucleobase-containing compound biosynthetic process	352	25	14.66	0.0038
GO:0018130	heterocycle biosynthetic process	454	29	18.91	0.0083
GO:0000725	recombinational repair	11	3	0.46	0.0091
GO:0052646	alditol phosphate metabolic process	11	3	0.46	0.0091

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1256 **Supplementary Figure 6**: Results of 100 permutations of random GO term enrichment analysis (see Methods).
1257 Histograms depicting the number of significantly (*P*-value <0.01) enriched GO terms (A) as well as the number of
1258 enriched terms involving nucleotide metabolism processes (B).