FULL TITLE: The transcriptomic and proteomic ramifications of segmental amplification

SHORT TITLE: Consequences of segmental amplification

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Abstract

Gene duplication and subsequent amplification can drive adaptation by rapidly

increasing the cellular dosage of critical gene products. Gene duplication events often

encompass large genomic segments surrounding the gene(s) under selection for higher

dosage. Overexpression of co-amplified genes imposes a significant metabolic burden.

While compensatory mutations can decrease inappropriate overexpression of co-

amplified genes, it takes time for such mutations to arise. The extent to which intrinsic

regulatory mechanisms can modulate the expression of co-amplified genes in the

immediate aftermath of segmental amplification is largely unknown. To address the

collateral effects of segmental amplification, we evolved replicate cultures of an

Escherichia coli mutant under conditions that select for higher dosage of an inefficient

enzyme whose weak activity limits growth rate. Segmental amplifications encompassing

the gene encoding the weak-link enzyme were detected in all populations. These

amplifications ranged in size, from 9 to 125 kb, and copy number, from 2 to 12 copies.

We performed RNA-seq and label-free quantitative proteomics to quantify the

expression of amplified genes present at 2, 6, and 12 copies. mRNA expression

generally scales with gene copy number, but protein expression scales poorly with both

gene copy number and mRNA expression. We propose mechanisms to explain these

discrepancies for several cases in which expression is either higher or lower than

expected based on gene copy number. We also show that segmental amplifications can

have system-wide consequences by indirectly altering expression of non-amplified

genes. Overall, our findings indicate that the fitness benefit derived from segmental

36   amplification depends on the combined effects of amplicon size, copy number, and

37   gene content.

Introduction

Organisms frequently encounter new and/or changing environments. Successful adaptation to a new niche may require an increase in the expression of particularly important gene products. Gene amplification allows organisms to rapidly increase the cellular dosage of newly needed proteins. Gene amplification has been shown to be adaptive under various contexts for bacteria [1–9] and eukaryotes [10–16] and is implicated in the development of cancer cells [17–19].

Beyond serving as a mechanism for rapidly increasing the dosage of a gene product, gene amplification can also be the starting point for evolution of new molecular functions. The Innovation-Amplification-Divergence (IAD) model describes an evolutionary scenario by which a gene encoding a new function can arise [2,20] (Fig. 1A). Most, if not all, proteins have weak side activities, termed promiscuous activities, in addition to their native activities. If a promiscuous activity becomes important for fitness (innovation), natural selection for increased expression often leads to gene amplification. Following amplification, mutations in a new gene copy can improve the weak newly advantageous activity while the ancestral function is maintained in another gene copy (divergence). This process has been responsible for the evolution of vast superfamilies of enzymes, transporters, transcriptional regulators, and signaling proteins [21–24].

Gene amplification does not neatly increase the copy number of a single gene under selection for higher expression. Rather, segmental amplifications often amplify large genomic regions containing dozens to hundreds of genes surrounding the gene(s) under selection for higher dosage. Segmental amplifications in bacteria and yeast often

reach above 10 copies and can span over 100 kb during adaptation to stresses such as

starvation or antibiotic exposure [4–9,13,25,26]. Despite the importance of segmental

amplification, little attention has been given to the consequences of co-amplifying

neighboring genes (Fig 1B). Co-amplification of neighboring genes would be expected

to inappropriately increase levels of the encoded proteins and cause physiological

perturbations and/or energetic burdens. These collateral effects could have important

effects on population dynamics in communities of organisms that are competing to

adapt in the face of an environmental challenge or opportunity.

Fig 1. The expression and function of co-amplified neighboring genes can affect the

fitness benefit derived from segmental amplification**.** (A) The Innovation-Amplification-

Divergence (IAD) model. A, native function; b, promiscuous function. (B) The

expression of all amplified genes determines the fitness benefit gained in the immediate

aftermath of segmental amplification.

Previous investigations of the levels of mRNAs and proteins produced from co-

amplified genes in aneuploid yeast strains with one or two extra copies of whole

chromosomes [27–31] and in cancer cells [32,33] have shown that mRNA and protein

levels often, but not always, scale with gene copy number. Alterations in expression of

co-amplified genes in these settings may be due to either intrinsic regulatory

mechanisms that counteract inappropriate gene expression or to compensatory

mutations that arose over many generations. A study of the expression of individually

duplicated yeast genes found that protein levels were attenuated in some cases,

although the precise molecular mechanisms that dampened protein expression were

not clear [34]. The expression of high-copy-number co-amplified genes in the immediate

aftermath of segmental amplification has not been addressed. Consequently, we lack

an understanding of the intrinsic capacity of regulatory mechanisms to buffer against the

collateral effects of segmental amplification.

We have developed a model system in *Escherichia coli* to characterize the

immediate ramifications of segmental amplification on the transcriptome and proteome.

The *E. coli* enzymes ArgC and ProA are nonhomologous dehydrogenases that catalyze

similar reactions in arginine and proline biosynthesis, respectively (Fig 2). We previously

deleted *argC* from the *E. coli* genome and selected for recruitment of another enzyme to

replace the missing ArgC activity during growth on minimal medium [35]. A strain with a

point mutation in *proA*, causing substitution of Glu383 to Ala near the active site of

ProA, was able to restore arginine production. E383A ProA (ProA*) catalyzes both its

compromised native reaction in proline synthesis and the weak promiscuous activity

required for arginine synthesis (Fig 2). The poor activity of ProA* compromises growth

in minimal media in which synthesis of proline and arginine is required for growth,

leading to strong selective pressure for amplification of *proA**. We previously observed

segmental amplifications encompassing *proA** ranging in size from 5-165 kb and

reaching copy numbers between 3-20 copies in experimentally evolved *E. coli*

populations [4,36,37].

Fig 2. Reactions catalyzed by the dehydrogenases ArgC and ProA in *E. coli*. The acetyl group of *N*-acetylglutamylphosphate (red) is the only difference between the two substrates.

Many of the genes neighboring the *proBA** operon are pseudogenes or uncharacterized cryptic prophage genes. Thus, amplification of *proBA** in its native locus does not provide an ideal system for probing the effects of co-amplification of genes near the gene under selection for higher copy number. For this work, we relocated the *proBA** operon to a new site neighboring a gene that we hypothesized might cause physiological perturbations if overexpressed following segmental amplification. We evolved replicate populations of this *E. coli* strain for 145-200 generations in a turbidostat. Whole genome sequencing revealed that all populations contained segmental amplifications of differing sizes and copy numbers. We examined the transcriptomes and proteomes of the two fastest-growing populations to determine the collateral effects of segmental amplification. The expression of many amplified genes scales with gene copy number at the mRNA and protein levels. However, in several cases, mRNA and protein levels either exceed or fall short of the level expected based solely upon gene copy number. We discuss possible mechanisms for several cases in which such discrepancies exist. We also found significant changes in levels of hundreds of non-amplified genes, demonstrating the profound impact of segmental amplification on cellular physiology.

Results and Discussion

Segmental amplification increases the growth rate of an *E. coli* strain with the

proBA* operon relocated next to rpoS

We deleted the *proBA** operon from its native locus and relocated it next to *rpoS,*

which encodes the alternative sigma factor RpoS/σS (also known as σ38) (Fig 3A). We

included the upstream region containing a C to T promoter mutation 45 bp upstream of

proB that increases transcription of *proBA** [36]. The *proBA** operon was oriented

convergently to *rpoS* so that transcriptional read-through from *proBA** would not

increase *rpoS* expression. A dual *rrnB* T1/T7 TE transcriptional terminator was placed

immediately after *proA**. As an alternative sigma factor, RpoS serves as a global

regulator by interacting with RNA polymerase to activate transcription of numerous

genes important for redirecting cellular resources from growth toward survival [38,39].

Consequently, expression of RpoS is typically associated with a slowing of growth

during stressful conditions or limited nutrient availability. Elevated expression of genes

that make up the RpoS regulon confers improved resistance to starvation, high

temperatures, low pH, oxidative stress and osmotic shock [38,39]. We hypothesized

that overexpression of RpoS following co-amplification with *proA** might perturb cellular

physiology because it would shift cells toward a transcriptional profile intended as a

stress response to halt growth while the cells are growing exponentially with adequate

nutrients.

We used a single founder colony of the Δ*argC proBA** relocation strain to start

eight replicate populations in a turbidostat. The cultures were grown in M9 minimal

medium with glucose as the sole carbon source to impose strong selection for

mutations that increase ProA* dosage. After 30-60 generations, we observed

improvements in growth rate for all populations (Fig 3B). Populations 3 and 8 showed

an additional slight increase in growth rate around generation 180. We ended the

experiment after 145-200 generations to limit the opportunity for compensatory

mutations that might alleviate harmful effects of segmental amplification to arise.

Similarly, we wanted to limit the chance for amplicon remodeling to remove

unnecessary copies of amplified genes [37].

Fig 3. Evolution of an *E. coli* strain with the *proBA** operon relocated next to *rpoS*. (A)

The *proBA** operon with a mutant constitutive promoter was deleted from its native

locus and relocated directly next to the *rpoS* gene. (B) Growth rate increased during

laboratory evolution of the *proBA*-rpoS* relocation strain in M9/glucose in a turbidostat.

We sequenced genomic DNA (gDNA) isolated from each population at end of the

evolution experiment. All populations had segmental amplifications encompassing

*proBA** and *rpoS.* The amplicons ranged in size from 9-125 kb and in copy number from

2-12 copies (Fig 4A and 4B). Copy numbers were confirmed by quantitative PCR

(qPCR) using primers targeting *proA**. Most of the segmental amplifications were

mediated by the transposable insertion sequence (IS) elements IS186 and IS1, leading

to similar amplification junctions across populations. IS186 transposition into *serV*

served as an upstream junction point in 7 of the 8 populations, while IS186 transposition

into the intergenic region between *ygcE* and *queE* served as a downstream junction in 6

of the 8 populations (Fig 4A and Table A in S1 Text). IS1 transposition was detected at

amplification junctions in populations 3 and 7 (Table A in S1 Text). As neither IS

element was present at these sites in the ancestral strain, it appears that these sites

may be hotspots for IS element insertion.

We detected two amplicons at frequencies ≥5% in 6 of the 8 populations based

on the read coverage data (Fig 4A). The presence of two amplicons could be due to two

clades with distinct amplicons in the population or to an amplicon nested inside a larger

amplicon in a single clade. In populations 1 and 7, we suspect that low-frequency

clades with ~88 kb amplicons are being outcompeted by clades with smaller amplicons

(~56 and ~33 kb). In populations 4 and 8, low-frequency clades with ~9 and ~67 kb

amplicons, respectively, might have arisen more recently than the clades with larger

amplicons (~88 and 125 kb) and thus might still represent a small fraction of the

population. Alternatively, the ~9 and ~67 kb amplicons might have arisen by remodeling

of the larger amplicons in clades that are in the process of overtaking the original

clades.

Fig 4. Segmental amplifications occurred during evolution of all *proBA*-rpoS* relocation

populations. (A) Sizes and copy numbers of amplicons detected in the eight

populations. In populations with two amplicons, dark gray bars represent the higher-

frequency amplicon and light gray bars represent the lower-frequency amplicon. Only

amplicons estimated to be present at population frequencies of ≥5% are shown. (B)

Growth rate, *proA** copy number, and amplification size for each population at the end

of the evolution experiment. Only the most abundant amplicon is shown for each

population for simplicity. (C) The nested amplicons in population 3. (D) The 125 kb

amplicon in population 8.

For populations 2 and 3, which contain two amplicons with frequencies at or

above 20%, we sought to determine whether there were nested amplicons or competing

clades with different amplicons. To distinguish between these possibilities, we carried

out PCR reactions designed to amplify products that span putative amplification

junctions (S1 and S2 Figs). Population 2 had two distinct clades; almost all colonies (19

out of 20) had either the ~54 or the ~88 kb amplicon (S1 Fig). In contrast, the majority of

colonies isolated from population 3 (13 out of 20) showed PCR products for both the

~40 and ~76 kb amplicons, indicating that most cells contained a smaller 12-copy

amplification nested inside a larger duplication (Fig 4C and S2 Fig). Of the remaining

isolates tested from population 3, four had the ~40 kb amplicon and three had the ~76

kb amplicon.

The growth rate of a cell with a particular segmental amplification is a complex

function of amplicon size, copy number and the nature of the amplified genes. While co-

amplification of most genes would be expected to impose a fitness cost unless

expression is attenuated by some regulatory mechanism, in rare cases co-amplification

of a gene might be beneficial. Despite having the largest amplicon (~125 kb) at the

lowest copy number (~6), population 8 has the second-fastest growth rate. It is possible

that one or more co-amplified genes in population 8 provide a fitness benefit when

overexpressed. One of the co-amplified genes unique to population 8 is *eno*, which

encodes enolase. In addition to its roles in glycolysis and gluconeogenesis, enolase is

part of the RNA degradosome [40,41]. An increase in the expression of enolase upon

co-amplification could provide a modest fitness benefit due to its roles in glycolysis

and/or RNA degradation. Another unique aspect of population 8 is the insertion of IS186

into *rlmM,* generating the downstream amplification junction (Table A in S1 Text). High-

throughput growth assays of an *E. coli* transposon mutant library indicate that

insertional disruption of *rlmM,* which encodes 23S rRNA 2'-*O*-ribose C2498

methyltransferase, provides a slight fitness benefit in M9 minimal medium with single

carbon sources [42].

Populations 4 and 6 contain very similar amplicons with *proA** at nearly the same

copy number, yet population 4 grows faster. Although population 4 has a slightly higher

*proA** copy number, other factors may also contribute to the difference in growth rate.

Population 4 has a 9 kb amplicon at a frequency of ~5% (Fig 4A). This was the smallest

amplicon we detected across all populations and it contains only five co-amplified

genes. The small fitness burden imposed by this small amplicon should allow this clade

to grow faster than the rest of the population, potentially contributing to the elevated

growth rate observed for population 4.

The slower growth rate of population 6 relative to that of population 4 may also

be due to a slow-growing clade in the population. Population 6 is the only population in

which we identified an additional amplification elsewhere in the genome. Population

genome sequencing data show that population 6 has a 6.5 kb amplification containing

argE, Δ*argC*::*kan^R* and *argB* present at ~3 copies (S3 Fig). Identical 8 bp sequences in

the flanking genes *ppc* and *argH* appear to have mediated this amplification. Because

ArgB (*N*-acetylglutamate kinase) produces *N*-acetylglutamylphosphate, a substrate for

ProA* in the Δ*argC proA** strain, amplification of *argB* might help push material through

the bottleneck in the arginine synthesis pathway caused by the inefficiency of ProA*. In

addition, amplification of *argE,* which encodes an enzyme downstream of the

bottleneck, might help pull material through the pathway. We speculate that the small

6.5 kb amplicon might have arisen first in the population and enhanced arginine

synthesis due to the increased copy number of *argB,* but that this amplification was less

beneficial than amplification of *proA*.* Later amplification of *proBA** might have occurred

in either the same clade or in a different clade. The presence of a slower-growing clade

that has only the small amplicon containing *argE* and *argB* may contribute to the

relatively low growth rate of population 6.

We focused on populations 3 and 8 for transcriptomic and proteomic analysis

because they are the fastest-growing populations and are two of the most disparate

populations in terms of amplification size and copy number (Fig 4C and D). Most cells in

population 3 appear to have a 39.6 kb amplification present at 12 copies nested inside a

75.7 kb duplication (Fig 4C), while population 8 primarily consists of a clade with a 6-

fold amplification of a 125 kb region, the largest amplicon we detected (Fig 4D). We

detected a 7 bp duplication in *prlF*, which encodes the antitoxin of the PrlF-YhaV toxin-

antitoxin system in population 8 at the end of the experiment. This mutation, which was

fixed in the population, has been reported to alleviate toxic overexpression of fusion

proteins by hyperactivating the Lon protease [43,44]. While the molecular mechanism

underlying this effect is not clear, this mutation might compensate for protein

overexpression, as Lon protease plays an important role in global protein homeostasis

by degrading misfolded proteins in addition to particular client proteins. Because our

goal was to characterize the immediate effects of segmental amplification on the

transcriptome and proteome in the absence of compensatory mutations, we sequenced

prlF from population 8 samples at earlier timepoints and determined that the mutation

was not detected in isolates screened at generation 125. This finding suggests that the

prlF mutation is highly beneficial, as it swept to fixation in approximately 60 generations.

qPCR on genomic DNA isolated from population 8 at generation 125 indicated that

proA* was amplified to 5.2 copies, compared to 5.8 copies at generation 186 (S4 Fig).

Expression of most amplified genes is elevated in the aftermath of segmental

amplification

We performed RNA-seq and label-free quantitative proteomics on replicate

cultures started from single colonies isolated from population 3 at generation 199 and

from population 8 at generation 125 (i.e. prior to the *prlF* mutation). We verified that the

population 3 isolate contained the nested ~40 kb amplification inside a larger ~76 kb

duplication by PCR using primers near the amplification junctions. Transcriptomic and

proteomic analyses on the population 3 isolate with a nested duplication allowed us to

characterize how mRNA and proteins levels changed at two different amplification

levels, 2 and 12 copies, within the same genome. The ancestral *rpoS-proBA** relocation

strain was used as the reference strain for determining expression fold changes.

Levels of mRNAs and small regulatory RNAs (sRNAs) expressed from amplified

genes generally scale linearly with gene copy number (Fig 5A and S5 Fig, R^2 = 0.63).

On average, RNA levels increased 2.1±0.1-, 5.2±0.2-, and 10.0±0.6-fold (mean ± SEM)

for genes present at 2, 6 and 12 copies, respectively (Fig 5A). Protein levels increased

on average by 2.3±0.1-, 5.0±0.2-, and 10.5±1.3-fold for genes present at 2, 6, and 12

copies, respectively (Fig 5B). However, protein fold-change values varied widely,

especially for 6- and 12-copy genes. Levels of proteins expressed from amplified genes

correlate relatively weakly with both gene copy number (R^2 = 0.47) and mRNA level (R^2

= 0.35) (S5 Fig). Similar results have been observed in aneuploid yeast [31]. To some

extent the poor correlation may be because estimation of protein abundance by mass

spectrometry is less precise than estimation of RNA levels by RNA-Seq. However, in

many cases, posttranscriptional and posttranslational regulatory mechanisms likely

modulate RNA stability, translation and protein degradation in ways that attenuate the

impact of increased gene copy number.

Fig 5. Effect of segmental amplification on expression of RNA and protein from

amplified genes. (A) RNA fold-change for amplified genes. (B) Protein fold-change for

amplified genes. (C) Protein-fold change as a function of mRNA fold change for

amplified genes. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences between groups

based on non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparisons test (***

p <0.001; **** *p* <0.001). Amplified genes that are discussed in the main text are

indicated by different colors.

Expression of *rpoS* is attenuated in both populations 3 and 8

The most glaring discrepancy between gene copy number and mRNA and

protein levels in our dataset is the minimal change in *rpoS* mRNA and RpoS protein

when *rpoS* is present at 12 copies in population 3 (Fig 5A and 5B). The junction

between the smaller amplicon and the larger duplicated region in population 3 (Fig 4C)

lies between *rpoS* and *nlpD*; the nested amplification separates *rpoS* from six of seven

potential promoters by moving them hundreds of kb upstream of the *rpoS* start codon

(Fig 6A). Thus, population 3 avoids problematic overexpression of *rpoS* even when the

gene copy number is very high. The expression of *rpoS* is also not proportional to the 6

copies of the gene in population 8 (Fig 5C). RpoS levels are tightly regulated by a

combination of multiple transcriptional regulators, sRNAs and an adaptor-mediated

proteolysis pathway [38]. The combined activity of these regulatory mechanisms may

keep RpoS levels in check in the absence of the canonical stresses to which it normally

responds.

Fig 6. Mechanisms that lead to discrepancies between gene copy number and

transcript or protein levels. (A) The nested amplification junction present in population 3

separates *rpoS* from 6 of 7 potential promoters. (B) Levels of the transcriptional

activator CysB, which is encoded by an unamplified gene, may not be sufficient to

activate transcription at all copies of the amplified *cysJIH* and *cysDNC* operons. (C)

Lower-than-expected FtsB levels might result from misfolding and degradation of

excess protein in the absence of enough of its interaction partners FtsQ and FtsL. (D)

Disproportionate expression of genes involved in the Csr system results from both

amplification of some but not all genes and complex interactions between RNA and

protein components of the circuit.

Amplification of *cysJIH-DNC* may outstrip the availability of the transcriptional

activator CysB

The *cysJIH* and *cysDNC* operons, which encode proteins involved in assimilatory

sulfate reduction, were amplified to 6 copies in population 8, but levels of the encoded

mRNAs increased by an average of only 3.6-fold (Fig 5C and S1 Dataset). Expression

of these operons requires the transcriptional activator CysB, which is encoded outside

the amplified region and is thus present at only a single copy (Fig 6B). The relatively

modest transcriptional response to amplification of the *cysJIH* and *cysDNC* operons

may be due to insufficient CysB to initiate transcription at all of the extra copies of the

cysJIH and *cysDNC* operons.

Dosage imbalance may lead to degradation of a protein produced at a higher level

than its interaction partners

FtsB is an essential cell division protein that forms a 1:1:1 complex with FtsQ and FtsL

[45]. *ftsB* is located within the amplified region in population 8 and is present at ~6

copies, but *ftsQ* and *ftsL* are ~2.8 Mb away from *ftsB* and are not amplified. While *ftsB*

expression increased 5.5-fold at the transcript level, it increased only 1.9-fold at the

protein level (Fig 5C and S1 Dataset). Proteins that form complexes are often unstable

in the absence of their interaction partners due to improper folding and subsequent

degradation by proteases [46–49]. The imbalance between the levels of FtsB and FtsQL

may result in misfolding and degradation of excess FtsB (Fig 6C).

The structure of the Csr circuit seems to buffer it against dosage imbalances

following segmental amplification

In population 8, *csrA*, *csrB* and *barA* are present within the 6-copy amplicon. The

levels of CsrA and BarA proteins are increased by 5.6- and 5.2-fold, respectively.

However, the level of the sRNA CsrB is disproportionally increased by 16-fold. These

genes are components of the carbon storage regulator (Csr) system, a complex

regulatory circuit consisting of both proteins and sRNAs that coordinates expression of

genes involved in diverse processes such as glycogen synthesis, glycolysis and

flagellar motility [50]. *csrC*, *csrD* and *uvrY*, which are also part of the Csr system, were

not amplified, but the levels of the sRNA CsrC and the protein UvrY are increased by

3.4- and 1.9, fold respectively, and the level of CsrD is modestly decreased by 40% (Fig

6D and S1 Dataset).

The striking increases in the levels of the CsrB and CsrC sRNAs in population 8

are likely due to a combination of effects mediated by the intricate network of regulatory

interactions in the Csr circuit (Fig 6D). The 5.2-fold increase in the level of the histidine

kinase BarA and the 1.9-fold increase in the level of the downstream response

regulation UvrY would be expected to increase transcription of *csrB* and *csrC.* In

addition, the decreased expression of CsrD, which recruits RNase E to degrade CsrB

and CsrC sRNAs, should also contribute to increased levels of CsrB and CsrC.

The substantial perturbations to sRNA and protein levels in this complex

regulatory circuit have only modest effects on expression of genes regulated by CsrA.

CsrA blocks translation of *glgCAP* mRNAs, which encode glycogen synthesis enzymes.

However, we see little change in GlgCAP protein levels (S2 Dataset). Conversely, CsrA

promotes translation of *flhDC* mRNAs, which encode the master regulator of flagellar

synthesis genes. We did not detect FlhDC proteins in our proteomics data, despite their

elevated transcript levels (S2 Dataset). The effect of the elevated expression of CsrA is

likely blunted by the elevated levels of both CsrB and CsrC, which sequester CsrA in an

inactive conformation. In addition, the effect of a modestly elevated level of active CsrA

may be insignificant in the context of other forms of regulation that influence *glgCAP*

and *flhDC* expression [51]. Overall, the intricate wiring of the Csr regulatory circuit,

replete with different forms of activation and inhibition, seems to buffer it against

stoichiometric imbalances between interacting sRNAs and proteins. This intrinsic

buffering capacity should be useful for acclimating to environmental changes while

avoiding dysregulation, but it also seems to have the incidental effect of limiting severe

physiological perturbations following segmental amplification.

Segmental amplification has system-wide effects

The segmental amplifications in populations 3 and 8 resulted in significant

changes hundreds of transcripts (Fig 7), including mRNAs and sRNAs encoded by

genes that were not present in the amplified regions. Expression of four classes of non-

amplified genes was increased in both populations 3 and 8: colanic acid capsular

polysaccharide synthesis and export genes; ribosomal RNA (rRNA) and ribosomal

protein genes; sugar transport/uptake genes; and flagellar synthesis and assembly

genes (S3 Dataset).

Fig 7. The global transcriptomic consequences of segmental amplification in population

3 (A) and population 8 (B). Dashed red lines indicate $\log_2$ fold change in RNA

expression of ≥1 or ≤-1 and $-\log_{10}$ adjusted *p*-values ≥2 (*p*-values <0.01). Amplified

genes that are differentially expressed (log$_2$ fold-change of ≥1) in populations 3 and 8

are indicated by blue and pink points, respectively. Amplified genes *proA** and *rpoS* and

classes of non-amplified genes are indicated by different colors.

The increased expression of rRNA and ribosomal protein genes is likely an

indirect effect of the amplification of *proA**, which alleviates the shortage of proline and

arginine in the ancestral strain and should dampen the stringent response that

diminishes transcription of ribosomal genes [52]. The increased expression of colanic

acid polysaccharide synthesis genes appears to be caused by overexpression of the

transcriptional activator RcsA. Although *rcsA* is not among the co-amplified genes, *rcsA*

transcript levels are increased by 2.6- and 4-fold and protein levels are increased by

8.2- and 4.6-fold in populations 3 and 8, respectively (S2 Dataset and S3 Dataset).

RcsA forms a heterodimer with RscB that activates transcription of colanic acid

synthesis genes and of *rcsA* itself (S6 Fig) [53,54]. Degradation of RcsA by Lon and

HslUV proteases prevents excess accumulation of RcsA [53–56]. Inappropriate

overexpression of co-amplified genes following segmental amplification may divert

proteases away from client proteins like RcsA and toward overexpressed and potentially

misfolded proteins. The resulting higher level of RcsA would then increase transcription

of colanic acid synthesis genes as well as *rcsA* itself. As mentioned above, a mutation

that is known to hyperactivate Lon protease arose in population 8 after generation 125

and quickly rose to fixation. The highly beneficial nature of this mutation supports the

notion that increasing protein degradation alleviates the fitness cost associated with

improper overexpression of amplified genes.

The reasons for increased transcription of sugar transport genes and flagellar

genes following segmental amplification are less obvious. Amplification of *proA**

improves production of arginine and proline, allowing the cells to grow faster. The

increased transcription of sugar transport genes and flagellar genes may reflect the shift

in physiology associated with increased growth rate.

Summary

The strong selection for increased ProA* activity in our evolving populations

resulted in rapid segmental amplification encompassing *proA** and many neighboring

genes. Transcription of most amplified genes correlates well with copy number.

However, there are notable exceptions. Expression of *rpoS* is attenuated in population 3

by loss of several of its promoters. Excessive RpoS would be expected to be

problematic because RpoS promotes a transcriptional program that slows growth and

alters resource allocation when cells are starving or stressed. This response would be

inappropriate when glucose is abundant and proline and arginine synthesis have been

improved due to amplification of *proA*.* It is tempting to speculate that the loss of *rpoS*

promoters allowed the small amplicon nested within the originally duplicated region to

rise to 12 copies.

We also observed other mechanisms for attenuation of mRNA expression that do

not rely on a fortuitous amplification junction. Transcription of amplified genes in two

operons encoding sulfate assimilation genes is likely attenuated due to inadequate

levels of a transcriptional activator encoded by a gene that was not amplified. Such a

mismatch could occur in many situations when only some genes in a regulon are

amplified. Regulons often include operons that are scattered across the genome and

are controlled by transcriptional activators that may not be in close proximity to the

operons they control. While attenuation in this case appears to be due to outstripping

the capacity of a transcriptional activator, we expect that the opposite situation might

also arise; i.e. expression of amplified genes could be exacerbated if the capacity of a

transcriptional repressor is outstripped.

The complex regulation of many genes in *E. coli* may contribute to attenuation of

expression of amplified genes. *rpoS* expression is regulated by multiple transcription

factors and sRNAs, which allows integration of multiple signals in the decision to

activate the stress response. Likewise, the Csr system integrates multiple inputs in a

complex regulatory circuit in order to appropriately regulate expression of downstream

genes. While these systems evolved to enable *E. coli* to respond appropriately to

changing environments, a propitious side effect is the ability to buffer the effects of

segmental amplification.

Post-transcriptional mechanisms also appear to contribute to attenuation of

protein levels produced from amplified genes. For example, it is well accepted that

subunits of protein complexes that are produced in excess are often degraded, probably

because they misfold due to exposure of surfaces that are normally involved in protein-

protein interactions [34,46–49]. For example, excess FtsB might be degraded due to

insufficient levels of its interacting partner proteins FtsQ and FtsL. Some proteins such

as RpoS are subject to multiple layers of post-transcriptional regulation by sRNAs and

RNA-binding proteins that modulate translation and adaptor-mediated proteolysis and

collectively prevent inopportune overexpression.

Finally, we note that segmental amplification can have global consequences.

Approximately 84% and 43% of genes whose expression is increased by ≥2-fold at the

transcript level in populations 3 and 8, respectively, are not amplified. While co-

amplification of genes neighboring a gene under selection for increased copy number

has previously been recognized to contribute to fitness, our work adds a previously

unappreciated nuance; segmental amplification can also alter expression of mRNAs

and proteins from hundreds of unamplified genes. Thus, the fitness effects of

segmental amplification are due to the combination of the desirable effect of amplifying

the gene under selection for increase dosage and the collateral effects (both detrimental

and beneficial) of altered expression of co-amplified genes within the amplicon as well

as genes elsewhere in the genome.

Materials and Methods

Strains and growth conditions

E. coli strains, plasmids and primers used in this work are listed in Tables B-D in

S1 Text. *E. coli* strains were routinely cultured in lysogeny broth (LB) or on LB agar

plates containing 1.5% agar at 37 °C. M9 salts minimal medium (12.8 g/L

$Na_2HPO_2 \cdot 7H_2O$, 3 g/L KH_2PO_4, 0.5 g/L NaCl, 1 g/L NH_4Cl) was supplemented with

glucose at a final concentration of 0.2% (v/v). Antibiotics were used at the following final

concentrations unless otherwise indicated: ampicillin, 100-150 µg/mL; kanamycin, 20

µg/mL; chloroamphenicol, 20 µg/mL; and gentamicin, 15 µg/ml.

Strain construction

All strains used in this work are derived from *E. coli* BW25113. The Δ*argC*::*kan^R*

M2-*proBA*-yfp* Δ*fimAICDFGH* Δ*csgBAC* Δ82 bp *rph-pyrE E. coli* strain AM327 was

previously constructed from the Keio collection Δ*argC*::*kan^R E. coli* BW25113 strain as

described in [4]. The Δ*fimAICDFGH* Δ*csgBAC* deletions help prevent biofilm formation

during laboratory evolution in a turbidostat. The 82 bp deletion in *rph* and upstream of

pyrE fixes a defect in pyrimidine synthesis due to a frameshift in *rph* in *E. coli* BW25113

and other K-12 strains [57,58]. The M2 promotor mutation is a C > T point mutation 45

bp upstream of *proB* that increases transcription of the *proBA* operon as described in

[59]. The AM187 strain (GenBank accession number CP037857.2) and its derivative

AM327 contain a 1.8-Mb inversion in the genome that occurred between two IS3

elements [37].

For this study, we deleted the M2-*proBA*-yfp* region in the *E. coli* AM327

genome using λ-Red recombineering [60]. We transformed the temperature-sensitive

plasmid pSIM6 [61] containing the λ-Red recombinase genes (*exo*, *beta* and *gam*)

under control of a heat-inducible promoter into AM327 by electroporation. After recovery

in super optimal broth with catabolite repression medium (SOC) for ~3 h at 30 °C, cells

were plated on LB ampicillin and incubated at 30 °C to select for transformants. We

replaced *proBA** and *yfp* in AM327 with a *sacB-gtm^R* selection-counterselection

cassette amplified from the plasmid pJQ200SK [56]. We amplified ~1 kb fragments from

the regions upstream and downstream of the *proBA* operon using primers that

introduced ~20 bp ends complementary to the ends of the *sacB-gtm^R* cassette. We

assembled a linear *proBA*-yfp* replacement fragment from these three fragments using

splicing by overlap extension (SOE) PCR. The AM327 strain harboring pSIM6 was

inoculated into LB ampicillin, grown to an OD_{600} of 0.2-0.6 at 30 °C and then incubated

at 42 °C for 15 min to induce expression of the λ Red genes. Cells were then

centrifuged at 4,500 x g at 4 °C, washed with ice-cold deionized water and immediately

electroporated with ~0.5-2.0 μg of the *proBA** replacement linear fragment. Following

electroporation, cells were inoculated into fresh SOC and allowed to recover at 30 °C for

~3 h before being spread onto LB gentamicin. Gentamicin-resistant colonies were

screened for integration of *sacB-gtm^R* into the *proBA* locus by colony PCR.

We constructed a fragment to delete the *sacB-gtm^R* cassette by amplifying ~1 kb

regions upstream and downstream of the *proBA* operon with overlapping ends. The two

PCR products were assembled together using SOE PCR. Cells containing the *sacB-*

gtm^R selection-counterselection marker in place of *proBA** and pSIM6 were inoculated

into LB ampicillin, grown to an OD_{600} of 0.2-0.6 at 30 °C and subjected to a second

round of λ-Red recombineering as described above. Cells were electroporated with

~0.5-2.0 μg of the *sacB-gtm^R* replacement fragment. Following electroporation, cells

were inoculated into fresh SOC and allowed to recover at 30 °C for ~3 h before being

spread onto salt-free (i.e. no NaCl) LB plates containing 10% (w/v) sucrose and

incubated at 30 °C for counterselection. Colonies that grew on salt-free LB sucrose

plates were patched onto LB gentamicin plates to confirm gentamicin sensitivity due to

loss of the *sacB-gtm^R* cassette and screened for markerless deletion of *proBA** by

colony PCR and Sanger sequencing.

To relocate the M2-*proBA** operon next to *rpoS* in the *E. coli* genome, we first

introduced a *tetR-ccdB-cat* selection-counterselection cassette at the target site

between *rpoS* and *ygbN.* We amplified the *tetR-ccdB-cat* cassette from pDLM3 [62]. We

amplified ~1 kb fragments upstream and downstream of the target site using primers

that introduced ~20 bp ends complementary to the ends of the *tetR-ccdB-cat* cassette.

These three fragments were assembled together using SOE PCR. The Δ*proBA** strain

RF72 harboring pSIM6 was inoculated into LB ampicillin, grown to an OD_{600} of 0.2-0.6

at 30 °C and subjected to λ-Red recombineering as described above. Cells were

electroporated with ~0.5-2.0 µg of the *tetR-ccdB-cat* integration fragment. Following

electroporation, cells were inoculated into fresh SOC and allowed to recover at 30 °C for

~3 h or at room temperature overnight before being spread onto LB chloramphenicol

plates. The plates were incubated at 30 °C for 1-2 days. Chloramphenicol-resistant

colonies were screened for integration of *tetR-ccdB-cat* between *ygbN* and *rpoS* by

colony PCR. The *tetR-ccdB-cat* cassette was then replaced with M2-*proBA*.* We

amplified the M2-*proBA** operon (without *yfp*) from AM187 gDNA and ~1 kb fragments

upstream and downstream of the intergenic site between *rpoS* and *ygbN* from RF72

gDNA by PCR. These three fragments were assembled using SOE-PCR to generate

the *tetR-ccdB-cat* replacement cassette. The *ygbN-tetR-ccdB-cat-rpoS* strain harboring

pSIM6 was inoculated into LB ampicillin, grown to an OD_{600} of 0.2-0.6 at 30 °C and

subjected to λ-Red recombineering as described above. Cells were electroporated with

~0.5-2.0 µg of the *tetR-ccdB-cat* replacement cassette. Following electroporation, cells

were inoculated into fresh SOC and allowed to recover at 30 °C for ~3 h or at room

temperature overnight before being spread onto LB anhydrotetracycline (2-6 ug/mL)

plates for counterselection. The plates were incubated at 30 °C overnight. Colonies that

grew on LB anhydrotetracycline plates were patched onto LB chloramphenicol plates to

confirm chloramphenicol sensitivity and screened for integration of M2-*proBA** into the

intergenic site between *ygbN* and *rpoS.* The resulting M2-*proBA*-rpoS* strain was

streaked onto LB anhydrotetracycline plates and incubated at 40 °C overnight to cure

the temperature-sensitive pSIM6 plasmid. Colonies were patched onto fresh LB

anhydrotetracycline and LB ampicillin plates to confirm ampicillin sensitivity due to loss

of pSIM6. Genomic integration of M2-*proBA** next to *rpoS* was confirmed by Sanger

sequencing.

Laboratory Evolution

To initiate laboratory evolution of the *proBA*-rpoS* relocation strain (RF90), cells

from a frozen glycerol stock were streaked onto LB kanamycin plates and the plates

were incubated at 37 °C overnight. A single founder colony was inoculated into LB

kanamycin and incubated at 37 °C overnight. The overnight culture was centrifuged at

8,000 x g at room temperature and the cells were washed and resuspended in M9

medium without glucose. A 125 µL aliquot of cells was inoculated into each of eight

glass vials containing 25 mL (1:200 dilution) of M9 minimal medium containing 0.2%

glucose and kanamycin (20 µg/mL). The vials were placed into the vial sleeves of an

eVOLVER turbidostat (FynchBio). Each vial contained a micro-flea magnetic stir bar (10

mm x 3 mm). The eVOLVER was set in 'turbidostat' operation mode at 37 °C with a stir

rate of 8, a lower OD_{600} threshold of 0.15, an upper OD_{600} threshold of 0.25 and a vial

volume of 25 mL. When cultures reached the upper OD_{600} threshold of 0.25, ~7-10 ml of

fresh M9 + glucose medium was pumped into vials and an equivalent volume of culture

was removed so that cultures were diluted to an OD_{600} of ~0.15. Cultures were evolved

in this manner for 145-200 generations (~14 days). Approximately every 40-60 h, ~7-10

ml samples of cultures expelled from the vials during dilution were collected and

centrifuged at 4,500 x g at room temperature. The cell pellets were resuspended in 1

mL of M9 medium without glucose. Aliquots (0.5 mL) of concentrated cells from each

population were mixed 1:1 with 50% glycerol and stored at -70 °C. The remaining 0.5 ml

cell suspensions were centrifuged at 8,000 x g at room temperature, the supernatants

were removed and the cell pellets were stored at -20 °C for extraction of genomic DNA

(gDNA).

Whole Genome Sequencing and Analysis

Cell pellets were thawed and gDNA was extracted using the PureLink™ Genomic DNA

Mini Kit (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's protocol for Gram-negative

bacteria. Purified gDNA samples were stored at -20 °C. Whole genome sequencing was

performed at SeqCenter (formerly the Microbial Genome Sequencing Center;

Pittsburgh, PA). Sample libraries were prepared with the Illumina DNA Prep kit and IDT

10 bp UDI indices and sequenced on an Illumina NextSeq 2000, producing 2x151 bp

paired-end reads. Demultiplexing, quality control, and adapter trimming was performed

with Illumina BCL Convert v3.9.1. The resulting fastq files were further processed using

fastp v0.20.1 [63] to trim and remove low quality reads with the following settings: -q 15

-u 20 -t 1. Mutations in evolved populations were identified using breseq v0.37.1 [64,65]

in polymorphism mode with bowtie 2.5.0 [66] and R 4.2.2 by mapping processed fastq

reads to the genome of the *E. coli proBA*-rpoS* strain. To visualize read coverage depth

of segmental amplifications encompassing *proBA**, read coverage depth for every 50 bp

for a 300 kb genome window was exported using the breseq BAM2COV subcommand:

-a seq id:2700000-3000000 -t -1 --resolution 6000.

Quantitative PCR for measurement of *proA** copy number

proA* copy number was measured using qPCR of purified gDNA as described in

[4] with slight modifications. Briefly, PowerSYBR Green PCR master mix (Applied

Biosytems by Thermo Scientific) was combined with primers and gDNA in 48-well plates

(Thermo Scientific) and samples were analyzed using a StepOne Real-Time PCR

System (Applied Biosystems). The genes *gyrB* and *icd*, which remained at one copy in

evolved populations, were used as internal reference genes for quantification of *proA**

copy number. Threshold cycle (C_T) measurements for duplicate technical replicates of

each gDNA sample were averaged. The ΔC_T values for *proA** and single copy reference

genes were calculated by subtracting the C_T for gDNA from the ancestral *proBA*-rpoS*

strain from the C_T for gDNA from the evolved populations. The ΔC_T values of reference

genes *gyrB* and *icd* were averaged for each sample and $\Delta\Delta C_T$ values were then

calculated by subtracting the mean reference ΔC_T from *proA** ΔC_T for each sample.

proA* copy number was calculated as $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ for each sample. Primer sets used for

qPCR are listed in Table D in S1 Text.

RNA extraction

Glycerol stocks of ancestral *proBA*-rpoS E. coli* and evolved populations 3 (at

generation ~199) and 8 (at generation ~125) were streaked onto M9 plates containing

0.4% glucose. Single colonies of each strain were inoculated into 4 ml M9 containing

0.2% glucose and the cultures were grown at 37 °C overnight with shaking. The

overnight cultures were inoculated into fresh 25 ml M9 containing 0.2% glucose in 25

mL flasks at a 1:50 dilution for the ancestral strain and a 1:100 dilution for the evolved

populations. Four replicate cultures of each strain were grown at 37 ºC with shaking for

~7 h to an OD$_{600}$ of ~0.2-0.5. Cultures were centrifuged at 4,500 x g for 10 min at 4 °C.

Cell pellets were resuspended in 5 mL M9 salts without glucose. Four mL of each cell

suspension were flash frozen in a dry ice-ethanol (95%) bath and stored at -70 °C prior

to RNA extraction. The remaining 1 mL of each cell suspension was centrifuged at

8,000 x g for 2 min. The supernatant was removed and the cell pellets were flash frozen

in a dry ice-ethanol (95%) bath and stored at -20 °C prior to sample preparation for

proteomics.

Total RNA was extracted from cells using RNAprotect Bacteria Reagent and

RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen). Frozen 4-mL cell suspensions were thawed on ice, mixed 2:1

with RNAprotect Bacteria Reagent, incubated for 5 min at room temperature and

centrifuged at 4,500 x g for 10 min at room temperature. Cell pellets were resuspended

in TE buffer with lysozyme (1 mg/ml) to lyse the cells. RNA was purified using RNeasy

Mini Kits according to the manufacturer's instructions except that optional on-column

DNase digestion was performed by mixing 10 µL TURBO™ DNase (Invitrogen) with 70

µL buffer RDD (Qiagen), adding 80 µL of DNase solution directly to the spin column

membrane of each sample and incubating at room temperature for 15 min. RNA

samples were stored at -20 °C.

RNA sequencing and differential expression analysis

RNA sequencing was performed at SeqCenter (formerly the Microbial Genome

Sequencing Center; Pittsburgh, PA). Three replicate RNA samples were sequenced for

each strain. RNA samples were treated with DNase (Invitrogen). Sample libraries were

prepared with the Illumina Stranded Total RNA Prep Ligation with Ribo-Zerp Plus kit

and 10 bp IDT for Illumina indices and sequenced on a NextSeq 2000, producing 2x51

bp paired-end reads. Demultiplexing, quality control, and adapter trimming was

performed with Illumina BCL Convert v3.9.1.

To map reads to the *E. coli* genome to generate read counts for each gene, fastq

files were processed with fastp v0.20.1 [63] to trim and remove low quality reads with

the following settings: -q 15 -u 20. Processed reads were aligned to the *E. coli* reference

genome using bowtie2 [66]. Read alignment files were converted into sorted.bam files

using samtools [67,68]. Aligned reads were mapped to *E. coli* genes using HTSeq [69]

to generate read counts with the settings: htseq-count -f bam –r pos -s no -t gene -i

Name -m intersection-nonempty --nonunique all.

Differential expression analysis was performed in R v4.3.1/RStudio (Posit team;

Boston, MA) with the following Bioconductor/R packages: edgeR [70,71], limma [72],

glimma, gplots, RColorBrewer and NFM. Read counts generated from HTSeq were

filtered to remove lowly expressed genes and normalized using trimmed mean of M

values with edgeR. Read counts were transformed into log counts per million (CPM)

with the voom function of limma for each sample. Differential expression analysis of

transformed logCPM data was performed with the contrasts.fit and eBayes functions in

limma. Differential expression data were exported and plotted in GraphPad Prism

v10.0.2 (GraphPad Software; Boston, MA)

Label-free proteomics and differential expression analysis

Frozen cell pellets were lysed in 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.5 containing 5% (w/v)

sodium dodecyl sulfate, 10 mM tris(2-carboxyethylphosphine) and 40 mM

chloroacetamide by boiling for 10 minutes at 95 °C followed by probe sonication (1 sec

on, 1 sec off) for 1 minute. Each sample was digested using the SP3 method described

in [73]. Carboxylate-functionalized SpeedBeads (GE Life Sciences) were added to the

lysates. Addition of acetonitrile to 80% (v/v) caused proteins to bind to the beads. The

beads were washed twice with 80% (v/v) ethanol and twice with 100% acetonitrile.

Proteins were digested with Lys-C/Trypsin (Promega) at 37 °C overnight with rotation.

SpeedBeads were collected by centrifugation and placed on a magnet to hold the

SpeedBead pellet together so that the digested peptides in the supernatant could be

extracted. The peptides were then desalted using an Oasis HLB cartridge (Waters)

according to the manufacturer's instructions and dried in a SpeedVac.

The dried peptide samples were suspended in 3% (v/v) acetonitrile/0.1% (v/v)

trifluoroacetic acid and 1 µg was directly injected onto a C18 1.7 µm, 130 Å, 75 µm X

250 mm M-class column (Waters) using a Thermo Ultimate 3000 RSLCnano UPLC.

Peptides were eluted at 300 nL/minute using a gradient from 2% to 20% acetonitrile

over 100 min into a Q-Exactive HF-X mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific). Precursor

mass spectra (MS1) were acquired at a resolution of 120,000 from 350 to 1550 m/z with

an automatic gain control (AGC) target of 3E6 and a maximum injection time of 50

milliseconds. Precursor peptide ion isolation width for MS2 fragment scans was 1.4 m/z,

and the top 12 most intense ions were sequenced. All MS2 spectra were acquired at a

resolution of 15,000 with higher energy collision dissociation (HCD) at 27% normalized

collision energy. An AGC target of 1E5 and 100 milliseconds maximum injection time

was used. Raw files were searched against the Uniprot *Escherichia coli* databases

UP000002032 and UP000000625 using Maxquant version 2.0.3.0 with cysteine

carbamidomethylation as a fixed modification. Methionine oxidation and protein N-

terminal acetylation were searched as variable modifications. All peptides and proteins

were thresholded at a 1% false discovery rate (FDR). Statistical analysis was performed

on $\log_2$-transformed iBAQ and LFQ intensities using limma [72].

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Supporting Information

S1 Fig. Population 2 contains two clades with distinct amplifications. (A) Read

coverage map for population 2 shows 88 and 54 kb amplifications. Red arrows indicate

binding sites for primers used to interrogate potential amplification junctions. (B) Colony

PCR results for 20 evolved isolates using primers RF133 and RF135. (C) Colony PCR

results for 20 evolved isolates using primers RF133 and RF136.

S2 Fig. The majority of cells in population 3 have an amplification nested inside a

duplication. (A) Read coverage map for population 3 shows 76 and 40 kb

amplifications. Red arrows indicate binding sites for primers used to interrogate

potential amplification junctions. (B) Colony PCR results for 20 evolved isolates using

primers RF134 and RF135. (C) Colony PCR results for 20 evolved isolates using

primers RF134 and RF137.

S3 Fig. Second amplification present in population 6. The 6.5 kb amplification in

population 6, which encompasses genes for arginine biosynthesis enzymes and

argC::*kan^R*, was mediated by identical 8 bp sequences in *ppc* and *argH.* Read coverage

depth is mapped to genome coordinates of the ancestral *proBA*-rpoS* strain (RF90).

S4 Fig. *proA** copy number in populations 3 and 8 during laboratory evolution.

proA* copy number was quantified by qPCR with gDNA isolated from populations 3 and

8.

S5 Fig. Relationship between gene copy number and expression at the RNA and

protein levels. (A) Correlation between mRNA fold change and gene copy number. (B)

Correlation between protein fold change and gene copy number. (C) Correlation

between protein fold change and mRNA fold change. R^2 values were calculated by

simple linear regression. Shaded areas indicate 95% confidence intervals. Data points

for *hycB* (<5 read counts/replicate) and HycE (<1 peptide/replicate) were removed from

graphs and not included in linear regression analysis because their levels in the

reference strain were very low and thus their foldchanges were not reliable.

S6 Fig. Regulation of RcsA and colanic acid polysaccharide synthesis genes is

altered by segmental amplification. (A) RcsAB heterodimers activate transcription of

rcsA (but not *rcsB*) and the colanic acid capsular polysaccharide operon. Lon and

HslUV proteases degrade RcsA. The ratio of *rcsA* to *rcsB* transcripts is 1:4 in the

ancestral strain. (B) After segmental amplification, overexpression and misfolding of

proteins expressed from amplified genes may divert proteases away from degrading

RcsA, leading to higher RcsA levels and elevated transcription of colanic acid synthesis

genes.

S1 Text.

Table A. Amplicons present in evolved populations.

Table B. *E. coli* strains used in this work.

Table C. Plasmids used in this work.

Table D. Primers used in this work.

1000

1001   **S1 Dataset. mRNA and protein fold change data for amplified genes in evolved**

1002   **populations 3 and 8**

1003

1004   **S2 Dataset. Label-free proteomics data and differential expression analysis for all**

1005   **genes in evolved populations 3 and 8.**

1006

1007   **S3 Dataset. RNA-sequencing transcriptomic data and expression analysis for all**

1008   **genes in evolved populations 3 and 8**

1009

1010 <div style="text-align:center">Supporting Text for</div>
1011
1012 **The transcriptomic and proteomic ramifications of segmental amplification**
1013
1014

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1017

1018 S1 Text contains Tables A-D

1019

1020 **Table A. Amplicons present in evolved populations.**
1021

pop.	gen.	upstream junction position[a] (gene)	downstream junction position[a] (gene)	IS element involved	amplicon size (kb)	*proA** copy number
1	155	2808170 (*serV*)	2864360 (*ispD*)	*insL1* (IS186)	56.2	7.8
			2896344 (*ygcE/queE*)		88.2	
2	146	2808170 (*serV*)	2862506 (*umpG*)	*insL1* (IS186)	54.3	8.8
			2896283 (*ygcE/queE*)		88.1	
3	198	2820227 (*srlQ*)	2859849 (*nlpD*)	*insAB1* (IS1)	39.6	11.8
			2859931(*nlpD*)		39.7	
			2895963 (*ygcE/queE*)		75.7	
4	182	2851868 (*ygbJ*)	2860822 (*nlpD*)	none	9.0	7.7
		2808170 (*serV*)	2896344 (*ygcE/queE*)	*insL1* (IS186)	88.2	
5	157	2808170 (*serV*)	2861262 (*pcm*)	*insL1* (IS186)	53.1	7.2
6	159	2808170 (*serV*)	2896283 (*ygcE/queE*)	*insL1* (IS186)	88.1	7.0
7	172	2835653 (*hycE*)	2868717 (*cysD/iap*)	*insAB1* (IS1)	33.1	8.5
		2808170 (*serV*)	2896283 (*ygcE/queE*)	*insL1* (IS186)	88.1	
8	186	2808170 (*serV*)	2874835 (*casB*)	none	66.7	5.8
			2933283 (*rlmM*)	*insL1* (IS186)	125.1	

1022 [a]Position numbers based on reference genome for ancestral *proBA**-*rpoS* strain (RF90).
1023

1024 **Table B. *E. coli* strains used in this work.**

1025

Strain	Genotype/description	Source/reference
JW3930 (AM008)	Δ*argC*::*kan^R* Keio collection strain; derived from *E. coli* BW25113	[1]
AM187	-45 C > T *proB* promoter mutation (M2)*, proA** (E383A), +*yfp* inserted 282 bp downstream *proA*, ΔfimAICDFGH, ΔcsgBAC;* derived from JW3930/AM008	[2,3]; Genbank accession number CP037857.2; M2 promoter mutation described in [4]
AM327	Δ82 bp of *rph* 90 bp upstream of *pyrE*, derived from AM187	[2]
RF70	Δ*proBA*-yfp*::*sacB-gtm^R*; derived from AM327	this study
RF72	Δ*proBA*-yfp;* derived from RF70	this study
RF83	Δ*proBA*-yfp, ygbN-tetR-ccdB-cat-rpoS*; derived from RF72	this study
RF90	Δ*proBA*-yfp,* M2-*proBA*-rpoS;* derived from RF83; ancestral strain for laboratory evolution	this study

1026

1027 **Table C. Plasmids used in this work.**

1028

Plasmid	Description	Source/reference
pJQ200SK	suicide vector containing sucrose-inducible *sacB* and constitutive *gtm^R* selection-counterselection cassette	[5]
pDLM3	plasmid containing anhydrotetracycline-inducible *tetR-ccdB-cat* selection-counterselection cassette	[6]
pSIM6	temperature-sensitive plasmid containing heat-inducible λ-Red genes (*exo*, *bet*, *gam*) for recombineering; *amp^R*	[7]

1029

1030 **Table D. Primers used in this work.**

Name	Sequence (5' → 3')[a]	Use
RF35-fwd	CATTACGGATTCACTGGCCG	amplifying *tetR-ccdB-cat* cassette
RF36-rvs	CGGTAAATAGCTTGCCTGCTC	amplifying *tetR-ccdB-cat* cassette
RF61-fwd	CGATCGACTCTAGCTAGAGGATC	amplifying *sacB-gtm^R* cassette
RF62-rvs	GAAACGGATGAAGGCACGAAC	amplifying *sacB-gtm^R* cassette
RF71-fwd	GGCGTCATTTTGCGTGTTTCAG	amplifying region upstream of *proBA*
R72-rvs	cctctagctagagtcgatcgCAACCATCTGCGAGCAAAGC	amplifying region upstream of *proBA*
RF73-fwd	ttcgtgccttcatccgtttcGGCATGGACGAGCTGTACAAG	amplifying region downstream of *proBA*
RF74-rvs	CCACTCAGCGTTAATTACCTACACG	amplifying region downstream of *proBA*
RF81-rvs	ttgtacagctcgtccatgccCAACCATCTGCGAGCAAAGC	amplifying region upstream of *proBA* to replace *sacB-gtm^R* with markerless deletion of *proBA*
RF82-fwd	gctttgctcgcagatggttgGGCATGGACGAGCTGTACAAG	amplifying region upstream of *proBA* to replace *sacB-gtm^R* with markerless deletion of *proBA*
RF88-fwd	GCAACAAAACGCCATGCTTT	amplifying *proBA** with mutant M2 promoter
RF89-rvs	TGGCCTTGTGAATTATAAACGC	amplifying *proBA** with mutant M2 promoter
RF91-fwd	GTCGGCTTTATTATTCTTGCGCC	amplifying region upstream of the target site between *rpoS* and *ygbN*
RF97-rvs	cggccagtgaatccgtaatgGGCTGGCCTTTTCTGTGCAC	amplifying region upstream of the target site between *rpoS* and *ygbN*
RF94-fwd	GAAGATGCGGAATTTGATGAGAACG	amplifying region downstream of the target site between *rpoS* and *ygbN*
RF98-rvs	gagcaggcaagctatttaccgTCGCTTGAGACTGGCCTTTCTG	amplifying region downstream of the target site between *rpoS* and *ygbN*
RF99-rvs	aaagcatggcgttttgttgcGGCTGGCCTTTTCTGTGCAC	amplifying region upstream of the target site between *rpoS* and *ygbN* to replace *tetR-ccdB-cat* with M2-*proBA**
RF100-	cgtttataattcacaaggccaTCGCTTGAGAC	amplifying region downstream

fwd	TGGCCTTTCTG	of the target site between *rpoS* and *ygbN* to replace *tetR-ccdB-cat* with M2-*proBA**
RF133-rvs	CCGCGTCTCATCTTTATCGGTG	checking presence of 54/88 kb amplification in evolved clones from population 2 (binds near upstream junction)
RF134-rvs	GGCGCTATCAGTAATCGCAGC	checking presence of 39/76 kb amplification in evolved clones from population 3 (binds near upstream junction)
RF135-fwd	TCGTATGAAGTGATGCATGGGG	checking presence of 88 kb or 76 kb amplification in evolved clones from populations 2 or 3, respectively (binds near downstream junction)
RF136-fwd	CGTCACGCGAATACCTTTGATTTG	checking presence of 54 kb amplification in evolved clones from population 2 (binds near downstream junction)
RF137-fwd	CACCAGGTTGCGTATGTTGAGAAG	checking presence of 39 kb amplification in evolved clones from population 3 (binds near downstream junction)
RF138-fwd	GCAAACGTGGTAGAGAAGGCAC	amplifying *prlF-yhaV*
RF139-rvs	GTCAGTCGAGCCATCAGTGGAAG	amplifying *prlF-yhaV*
RF140-fwd	GGCTGTAAAAGGACAGTGAATCATG	sequencing *prlF*
RF141-rvs	GCTGAATACGGTATAGGCATCTG	sequencing *prlF*
1357-fwd	CGTGCAGGCGATTGATAA	quantifying *proA** copy number by qPCR
1358-rvs	CTGTTCACGGCACAGTTT	quantifying *proA** copy number by qPCR
1359-fwd	CGTAGATCTGACGGTGAATTT	quantifying *gyrB* copy number by qPCR
1360-rvs	CGTTGGTGTTTCGGTAGTA	quantifying *gyrB* copy number by qPCR
1361-fwd	CCCGTGGCTGAAAGTTAAA	quantifying *icd* copy number by qPCR
1362-rvs	CAGGTTCATACAGGCGATAAC	quantifying *icd* copy number by qPCR

1031 ^alowercase letters indicate non-annealing sequence overlaps used for splicing by
1032 overlap extension PCR

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Figure

N-acetylglutamylphosphate   N-acetylglutamate 5-semialdehyde   γ-glutamylphosphate   γ-glutamate 5-semialdehyde

Figure

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