Experimental evolution of *Escherichia coli* on solid silver, copper, stainless steel, and glass surfaces

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Abstract

To study bacterial adaptation to antimicrobial metal surfaces in application-relevant semi-dry
environmental conditions, *Escherichia coli* ATCC 8739 was exposed to copper, silver, stainless steel, and
glass surfaces for thirty consecutive cycles in exposure conditions designed to select for either survival
or growth. Subsequent mutation analysis did not find changes in overall mutation frequency that could
lead to enhanced adaptation potential nor mutations in *cop, cus, cue, sil, pco* or general efflux genes
known to actively maintain copper/silver homeostasis in copper or silver exposed populations compared
to populations evolved on steel and glass control surfaces. However, mutations in *silS* rapidly activated
the cryptic *sil* efflux locus during silver ion challenge in liquid assay with the evolved populations and
caused collateral increase in ampicillin and ciprofloxacin tolerance, indicating that efflux might be
specific to granting heavy metal tolerance in liquid but not surface exposure format. Instead, during
cyclic surface exposure mutations in genes related to cellular barrier functions and sulfur metabolism
were enriched on copper and silver surfaces. This increased metal surface tolerance but had less to no
protective effect in subsequent conventional MBC and MIC tests indicating that reducing bioavailability
and passively restricting uptake of the toxic metals rather than active efflux contributes to increased
viability on copper and silver surfaces compared to liquid format. Our findings highlight the critical
importance of appropriate exposure conditions not only in efficacy assessment but also risk assessment
of antimicrobial surfaces rendering results acquired via liquid tests not applicable for dry-use surfaces.

Importance

This study examines the evolutionary adaptations of *Escherichia coli* under sublethal exposure to copper
and silver surfaces, revealing a moderate increase in surface tolerance but no heightened mutation
frequency or enhanced metal ion tolerance in standard tests. Notably, enriched mutations indicate a
shift toward more energy-passive mechanisms of metal tolerance. Additionally, while enhanced silver
efflux—with a collateral increase in antibiotic tolerance—was rapidly selected in a single round of silver
exposure in liquid tests and substantially increased copper and silver ion tolerance in conventional test
formats, the causal mutations did not improve viability on silver and copper surfaces, underscoring the
different fitness dynamics of tolerance mechanisms dependent on exposure conditions. These findings
emphasize the need for appropriate exposure conditions in evaluating of both efficacy and the potential
risks of using antimicrobial surfaces, as the results from conventional liquid-based tests may not apply in
solid contexts.

Introduction

Antimicrobial surfaces are expected to passively reduce bioburden on surfaces with elevated risk of
pathogen transmission. Among the materials used, silver and copper based applications have the
longest application history as well as wide commercial use [1]. Despite challenges in efficacy assessment

of such materials in environmentally exposed conditions there is a wide range of environmentally
directed efficacy scenarios with highly variable proportions of microbial survivors from quick killing of
most microbes to effectively no biocidal activity [2]. That raises a concern that prolonged or repeated
sublethal exposure to antimicrobial surfaces could not only increase biocide tolerance but also cause
antibiotic resistance in these microbes.

Increased risk of antibiotic resistance could arise from co-selection, cross-selection or co-regulation of
molecular mechanisms that increase both antimicrobial metal as well as antibiotic tolerance. The risk of
co-selection of metal tolerance and antibiotic resistance is obvious and inevitable in the case of large
multiresistance plasmids [3], [4] but in case of cross-resistance and co-regulation, test conditions might
substantially affect selection. Although cross-selection of mutations in efflux systems and outer
membrane proteins has been well described in decreased sensitivity to metals and antibiotics (*e.g.* [5],
[6], [7]) the risk of *de novo* resistance development, potential cross-selection of beneficial traits in
multistress exposure, and effect of non-genetic co-regulation are more challenging to study.

Mutation rate of an evolving population can naturally fluctuate in time due to the fixation of various
hypermutator and antimutator alleles [8], [9], [10] as also demonstrated in the Lenski long-term
evolution experiment (LTEE) with *Escherichia coli* [11]. At the same time, presence of the hypermutator
phenotype has been associated with increased pathogenicity [12], [13], [14], [15], [16], [17] and
antibiotic resistance development [18], [19], [20], [21]. As shown previously, in growth-supporting
exposure media subinhibitory copper and silver could increase mutation rate [22], [23] and heavy metals
could thereby lead to antibiotic resistance development [24]. However, the role of metal-based biocides
in *de novo* antibiotic resistance development or their effect on mutation rate is controversial, especially
in lethal and/or low-organic conditions. Similarly to antimicrobial surface efficacy, molecular defense
mechanisms potentially leading to cross-resistance or coregulation are possibly highly dependent on
biotic and abiotic environment as well as the resources available to the bacteria. While it has been
feared that antimicrobial agents that increase mutation frequency could collaterally enhance antibiotic
resistance development and increase pathogenicity there are also examples where the contrary is
demonstrated and some metal ions such as copper and zinc can suppress not only hypermutation but
also conjugative gene transfer possibly by blocking the SOS response [25], [26], [27]. In addition, one
must keep in mind that majority of the published data is acquired from homogenous liquid environment
which do not necessarily resemble surface properties other than release of the active ingredient.
Instead, the antimicrobial effect on *e.g.*, copper-based surfaces is rather dependent on physical
properties of the surface material such as its copper content of the alloy and direct surface-microbe
contact not the amount copper released from the surface[28]. It has also been shown that the speed of
contact-killing on copper surfaces is linked to bacterial cell surface components and their interactions
with the metal surface indicating limited ability to evolve resistance to metallic copper [29]. On air-
exposed solid surfaces, bacteria are not only exposed to the biocide incorporated into the surface
material but also several other environmental stressors such as desiccation, light exposure, osmotic
shock, starvation etc. The specific stress responses mechanistically overlap with response to metal ions
(Fig 1) highlighting possible co-regulational toll or benefit associated with combined exposure. In
contrast to subinhibitory copper concentrations in liquid growth medium, transient exposure to copper
surfaces in environmentally exposed non-growth supporting conditions has been shown not to increase
mutation frequency of *E. coli* [30].

Evolution of antimicrobial tolerance on solid surfaces is a rather novel topic with two articles recently
published on the matter. Those studies by Bleichert *et al.* [31] and Xu *et al.* [32], investigated evolution
only on copper surfaces using different approaches to controls, exposure and growth conditions. With
the current study we aimed to illustrate the importance of environmental conditions on different
evolutionary scenarios in bacteriostatic and bactericidal conditions, more specifically to adaptation on
copper and silver surfaces in either high-organic humid (HH) or low-organic dry (LD) conditions. The use
of *Escherichia coli* strain ATCC 8739 harboring a pathogenicity-associated [33] cryptic chromosomal
copper and silver tolerance island [34], [35] with mutational activation [35], [36] in laboratory evolution
experiments was expected to offer a good model for additionally assessing the role of efflux in metal
detoxification.

107 **Figure 1.** Known and predicted interactions of the *E. coli* genes with relevant Gene Onthology (GO)
108 functional annotations [37] retrieved from EMBL STRING [38], default settings. Interactions of the genes
109 belonging to the GO term "response to metal ion" (GO:0010038). Overlapping genes with the GO term
110 "response to stress" (GO:0006950) and "stress response to metal ion (GO:0097501) are marked in red and
111 blue, respectively. Line thickness indicates the strength of data support for the interaction.

Materials and Methods

Strains and media

Escherichia coli strain routinely used for efficacy testing of antibacterial agents was used in all experiments. *E. coli* DSM 1576 (ATCC 8739, NCIB 8545, WDCM 00012, Crooks strain) was freshly ordered from the DSMZ (German Collection of Microorganisms and Cell Cultures GmbH). 2nd subculture of the received strain on LB agar medium (Table 1) was used for the evolution experiments. Here onwards, the more widely used synonymous ATCC 8739 strain number is used.

Surface treatment

99% copper (Metroprint OY, Estonia) and 99.95% silver (Surepure Chemetals, USA) were used as historically well-known antimicrobial materials. Stainless steel (AISI 304 SS, incl. 18% Cr, 8% Ni, 1.4% Mn; 2B finish; Aperam-Stainless, France) is a widely used metallic surface and has been frequently suggested as a control surface in studies involving metal alloys as well as standard biocide testing methods. 18x18 mm borosilicate glass microscopy cover slips were used as a biologically inert control surface (Corning Inc., USA). Steel, copper, and silver metal sheets were laser-cut to Ø 2 cm coupons and reused in evolution experiments. After each exposure the metal coupons were collected by type and inactivated in 70% ethanol for 15 minutes. The cleaning cycle consisted of 3 sequential solution steps (5% citric acid, acetone, 70% EtOH) with glass beads and 2 rinsing steps without glass beads. Solutions steps included ultrasonication in water bath for 15 minutes followed by shaking for 2 minutes manually before and after ultrasonication. Between each solution step the coupons were rinsed in distilled water by shaking. After cleaning the coupons were dried in a biosafety cabinet and stored in sterile Petri dishes. Glass surfaces were rinsed with 70% EtOH, dried and exposed to UV-C radiation for 15 min on both sides.

Evolution experiments

The two evolution experiments (Table 1) each consisted of three parts: (re-)inoculation, exposure in the climate chamber and harvesting of cells for plating and reinoculation repeated in 30 cycles. In each cycle, a sample from each inoculum was preserved in glycerol stock at -80°C to prevent loss of lineages due to contamination and/or lethal exposure. After the 30th cycle the collected colony suspension was also stored at –20° C for DNA extraction.

For cyclic exposure sterile test surfaces were placed into the wells of a 6-well plate. In case of humid exposure, a sterile 3D printed plastic grid was used to suspend each test surface above 3 ml of sterile water pipetted below the suspension grid to preserve moisture in the system.
For the first cycle of each experiment *E. coli* ATCC 8739 was inoculated on LB agar plates from glycerol stock culture and incubated for 24 h at 37° C from which a single colony was further inoculated on LB agar for 20 h 37° C. From the resulting second subculture all colonies were collected by suspending with 5 ml of phosphate buffered saline (PBS). 500 µl of that suspension was preserved in glycerol stock and sequenced as the "ancestor". For 2nd to 30th exposure cycle, inoculum was made from resuspended colonies from the previous cycle plate-out. Prior to inoculation, the cell density was spectrophotometrically adjusted to $3.3x10^8$ CFU/ml or $1.6x10^9$ CFU/ml [39] for exposure with EPA soil load (SL, [40]) or 500-fold diluted nutrient broth (NB, [41]), respectively (Table 1). The inoculum was diluted 1:1 with 2x SL or with 250-fold diluted NB resulting in final target cell count of $8.1x10^6$ CFU/surface in both evolution experiments. Surfaces were inoculated with 50 µl droplet of inoculum in

case of SL and 5x2 µl droplets of inoculum in case of diluted NB (Table 1). Inoculated surfaces were
transferred into a climate chamber (Climacell EVO, Memmert, USA)) and exposed for a defined time at
defined climatic conditions (Table 1). Exposure was stopped by submerging each test surface to a 50 ml
centrifuge tube containing 10 ml soy casein digest lecithin polysorbate broth (SCDLP, [41]) and vortexing
for 30 seconds at full speed. 500 µl of the harvested suspension and its 10^{-1} and 10^{-2} dilutions were
bead-plated on LB agar and incubated for 40-50 h at 37°C. Lowest dilution with non-confluent colony
growth was used to prepare the next inoculum.

Mutants carrying mutations of interest were isolated from evolved populations and colonies that
tolerated substantially higher silver salt concentration in the minimal biocidal concentration (MBC)
assays after the evolution experiment. Those isolates were subjected to whole genome sequencing as
described below and included in the metal and antibiotic tolerance testing.

Table 1. Experimental conditions used in the evolution experiments.

	Experiment 1: **High-organic humid (HH) conditions**				Experiment 2: **Low-organic dry (LD) conditions**			
Organism	*Escherichia coli* ATCC 8739							
Inoculum cell count	8.1×10^6 CFU per surface							
Exposure temperature	22°C							
Exposure medium	Organic proportion of EPA soil load [40](6.8 g/l organics): bovine serum albumin 2.5 g/l yeast extract 3.5 g/l mucin 0.8 g/l				500-fold diluted nutrient broth [41] (0.026 g/l organics): 0.006 g/l meat extract 0.02 g/l peptone 0.01 g/l NaCl			
Inoculum volume	1 x 50 µl				5 x 2 µl			
Relative humidity	90%				50%			
Surface material	Copper	Silver	Steel	Glass	Copper	Silver	Steel	Glass
Exposure duration	1 h	6 h	6 h	6 h	20-25 min	2 h	2 h	2 h
Toxicity-neutralizing harvesting medium	Soy casein digest lecithin polysorbate broth (SCDLP [41]): 17 g/l casein peptone, 3 g/l soybean peptone, 5 g/l NaCl, 2.5 g/l Na_2HPO_4, 2.5 g/l glucose, 1.0 g/l lecithin, 7.0 g/l Tween80							
Medium for clonal growth between exposures	LB agar medium: 5 g/l yeast extract, 10 g/l tryptone, 5 g/l NaCl, 15 g/l agar							
Time of clonal growth between exposures	~40 h				~45 h			
Harvesting medium for populations from clonal growth plates for reinoculation	Phosphate-buffered saline (PBS): 10-fold diluted stock of: 8 g/l NaCl, 0.2 g/l KCl, 1.44 g/l Na_2HPO_4, 0.2 g/l KH_2PO_4; pH 7.1							

Copper, silver and antibiotic tolerance

In the test formats described below bacterial endurance of silver, copper or antibiotic challenge was
assessed in the context of which the terms resistance and tolerance need to be clarified. Antibiotic
resistance is well defined by change of minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) exceeding epidemiologic
cut-off values for general microbiology or clinical breakpoints for susceptibility testing in clinical context
[42], [43]. However, use of the term in the context of other antimicrobials, including antimicrobial
metals, is often confusing. For biocidal antimicrobials, killing of the microbes measured by minimal
biocidal concentration (MBC) is a more relevant parameter than MIC. By this definition, metal resistance
is rare, possibly due to multiple mechanisms of action as opposed to limited mode of action of most
antibiotics more easily counteracted by specific defense/resistance mechanisms. To ease understanding,
hereafter resistance is used for large increases in MIC values and tolerance for substantial increases
primarily in MBC values without the MIC necessarily changing.

Changes in **silver and copper surface tolerance** of the evolved populations and selected mutants were
tested similarly to exposures in evolution experiments. Surfaces used and exposure times for testing
populations were identical to respective evolution experiments. For testing mutants unused metal
surfaces were employed to reduce variability but as the unused surfaces are less efficient than
repeatedly used and cleaned ones, exposure times were changed to: 6 h on copper and silver in high-
organic humid conditions, 35 min on copper and 4 h on silver in low-organic dry conditions.
190
To determine **minimal inhibitory concentrations (MIC)** of ionic silver and copper as well as selected
antibiotics of the evolved populations and selected mutants compared to the ancestral strain of *E. coli*
ATCC 8739 a modified standard agar dilution method [44] was used . Briefly, stock dilutions of
respective soluble metal salts or antibiotics were suspended in 50°C Mueller-Hinton agar (MHA; Biolife
MH Agar II #4017402; Biolife Italiana, Milan, Italy) in 10x10 cm square Petri dishes. To prepare the
inoculum by least hindering mutant proportions in the evolved populations and avoiding competition in
liquid culture, the evolved populations and the ancestral inoculum material were streaked onto LB agar
from glycerol stock and incubated at 37°C for 24 h. The resulting biomass was suspended in 5 ml PBS
and pipetted into clear 96-well plate in triplicates. All the suspensions were adjusted to 10^7 CFU/ml
photometrically after which 3 µl spots ($3x10^4$ CFU) of each suspension was inoculated onto MHA plates
supplemented with different target substance concentrations. The results were registered as presence
or absence of visible growth after 24, 48, 72 and 168 h of growth to account for possible mutants with
higher tolerance but lower growth rate. Only data from 24 and 48 time points are demonstrated as the
results did not change with longer incubations.
205
To determine **minimal biocidal concentration (MBC)** of ionic silver and copper of the populations
evolved on the respective metal surfaces, a drop test protocol from Suppi et al. [45] was used with
minor modifications. Shortly, bacterial suspensions in deionized water or organic soil load were exposed
to 2x dilution series of silver and copper salts at room temperature in static conditions 5 µl of which was
drop plated to non-selective solid LB for MBC determination after 2 h and 24 h of liquid exposure. In the
tests with evolved populations, bacterial suspensions from plate cultures (as described for evolution
experiments) were used instead of liquid culture to least affect the mutation frequency pattern of the
population. In the tests with selected mutants, an exponential liquid LB culture was used as described in
Suppi *et al.* [45].

Assessment of dihydrogen sulfide production

To assess H_2S production in the SL medium from the high-organic humid exposure conditions (Table 1), colorimetric test based on formation of dark insoluble metal sulfides was used. For that SL was supplemented with 0,5 g/l $(NH_4)_5[Fe(C_6H_4O_7)_2]$ as the metal ion source, 4 g/l K_2HPO_4 as a buffering agent, and 1,94 g/l L-cysteine as the sulfur source. Formation of dark insoluble sulfides was registered qualitatively by visual inspection after incubation at 37°C for up to 24 h.

Sequencing and data analysis

The initial inoculum from the 1st cycle and harvested biomass from the 30th cycle of both evolution experiments was frozen at -20°C until DNA extraction with Invitrogen™ PureLink™ Microbiome DNA Purification Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific; #A29790). DNA samples were sequenced by Novogene Co. Ltd using Illumina NovaSeq 6000 resulting in 150 nt paired end reads with ~368±167-fold genomic coverage for *E. coli* ATCC8739 out of which >98% of the sequences per sample mapped to the reference genome (GenBank: CP000946.1). Raw reads were deposited to the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA), accession PRJEB75034. Breseq analysis pipeline was used for mutation analysis in polymorphism mode [46], [47]. Mobile genetic elements in the reference sequence of the ancestor strain were detected by ISfinder [48].

Statistical analysis

In GraphPad Prism 9 software one-way or multifactorial ANOVA with multiple comparisons at α=0.05 was used to determine statistical significance of the quantitative results. CFU values were $\log_{10}$ transformed prior to analysis.

Results and discussion

Experimental system

The evolution experiments consisted of 30 cycles of exposure of *E. coli* ATCC 8739 on copper, silver, steel or glass surfaces in 5 parallel lineages for exposure durations shown on Fig. 2. Between exposures the survivors were clonally grown on solid medium to accumulate mutations and prevent selection for growth rate in liquid medium as mutations that increase copper surface tolerance have been shown to cause slower growth[32].

To address the variable efficacy of copper and silver surfaces in different application-relevant conditions [2], growth supporting high-organic humid (HH) and non growth supporting bactericidal low-organic dry (LD) exposure conditions were selected for the cyclic exposure experiments as detailed in Table 1. Due to different efficacy of copper and silver surfaces in LD and HH conditions, different exposure duration had to be determined. Exposure time on control surfaces was selected according to longest exposure on antimicrobial surfaces in the same exposure conditions to maximally reflect selection due to exposure conditions. The conditions selected for LD experiment aimed for an about 2 $\log_{10}$ reduction in viable counts compared to initial inoculum on antimicrobial copper and silver surfaces which also caused a 1.5 $\log_{10}$ reduction on glass and steel control surfaces (Fig 2A). In pilot experiments, larger reduction on

antimicrobial surfaces achieved by longer exposures further increased variability of viable counts and by
that could have complicated assessment of changes in surface tolerance as well as led to loss of lineages
in evolution experiments. The conditions in the HH experiment allowed up to 320% growth on glass
surfaces during 6 h, less on steel and no growth on silver surfaces (Fig 2B). Copper surfaces
demonstrated substantial antibacterial activity already after 1 h exposure. Therefore, shorter exposure
was used on copper in HH conditions.

Figure 2. Initial antibacterial activity of the surfaces in low-organic dry (LD) conditions (A) and
bacteriostatic effect of metal surfaces in high-organic humid (HH) conditions (B) against the ancestral *E.*
coli ATCC 8739 strain in evolution experiment conditions. Mean values from 3 independent experiments
of antibacterial activity (log_{10}CFU/surface in inoculum – log_{10}CFU/surface post-exposure) (A) and % growth
from the inoculum (B) ±SD are presented on respective bars on graph.

Figure 3. Types of mutations detected in the evolved populations. A - total number of single nucleotide variations (SNVs); B – total number of larger genomic rearrangements (new junctions); C – proportion of transitions (Ti) to transversions (Tv) among the detected SNVs; D – guanine to thymine substitution proportion among the SNVs detected in the WGS data of the evolved populations from high-organic humid (HH) and low-organic dry (LD) exposure conditions at ≥0.05 frequency after removing mutations present in the ancestor. There were no significant differences in the number of SNVs (A), junctions (B) or transitions to transversions ratio (C) accumulated during the evolution on metal surfaces compared to the control evolved on glass in the same conditions. Significantly higher number of SNVs were detected in LD exposure conditions compared to HH in general with the exposure environment explaining 23% of total variation in SNV counts and 49% of total variation in transitions to transversions ratio based on two-way ANOVA with post-hoc testing for multiple comparisons. The environment of the evolution experiments did not contribute to variation of G->T substitutions (D) but compared to glass more G->T transversions were accumulated on copper in HH conditions. Several larger genomic arrangements were detected (B), usually involving IS element mobility and rDNA reorganization, but as not all such events could be fully annotated using short-read data, total number of new junctions detected is presented. Significantly higher number of junctions were detected in HH exposure conditions compared to LD in general with the exposure environment explaining 41% of total variation in junction counts based on two-way ANOVA with post-hoc testing for multiple comparisons. The ancestral inoculum of the HH experiment also contained more rDNA reorganization events compared to the reference genome than the one of the LD experiment and could lead to a random bias. However, the same association held after removing all rDNA reorganizations from the comparison, with exposure environment still explaining 20% of total variation (Supplemetaty Fig. S1). * P< 0.05; ** P< 0.01; *** P< 0.001; **** P< 0.0001

Mutation frequency and single nucleotide variations

In whole genome sequences of populations evolved on copper, silver or steel surfaces no significant differences in the number of accumulated single nucleotide variants (SNVs) compared to populations evolved on glass were found (Fig 3A). This result opposes the finding by Xu et al. [32] that demonstrated elevated mutation accumulation in *Pseudomonas fluorescens* on copper surfaces. Although Xu et al. explained the high mutation frequency with mutated *mutL* in copper-exposed lines, they also had a mutated *mutS* in LB-passaged controls indicating that the evolution experiment might have been carried out with a mismatch-repair impaired inoculum inherently elevating mutation rate. There were no mismatch-repair system mutations present in copper or silver exposed lineages in our results. The conflicting results highlight the need to sample and sequence the material from the first inoculum of the evolution experiment.

Among the detected SNVs, there were no significant differences in the ratio of transitions to transversions in the populations evolved on metal surfaces compared to glass (Fig 3C). However, general higher than the expected(*e.g.* 44% transversions in wild-type *E. coli* MG1655 [49]) transversion accumulation not contributable to oxidation-prone G>T substitution (Fig 3D) but rather A:T>T:A (Supplementary Fig. S2) was unexpected. Similar tendency on all surface types suggests a strain-specific effect. Unexpectedly high presence of transversions and even higher transversion proportion in LD conditions than HH conditions could indicate nutrient limitation [50] and stronger purifying selection [51]. High level of T:A>A:T substitutions is scarcely described in previous studies but has been indicated in highly transcribed regions [52] or in case of specific mutations *e.g. recA*730 (E38K) [53]. Higher proportion of G->T substitutions was found on copper compared to glass in high-organic humid conditions (Fig 3D) possibly indicating oxidative damage of guanine [54], [55]. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) damage on copper surfaces is an expected mechanism due to copper [56] and iron [57] producing Fenton-like reactions unlike silver and glass.

Genomic rearrangements

Larger genomic rearrangements (Fig. 3B), especially IS1-mediated deletion enrichment was abundantly observed after exposure to control surfaces in high-organic humid conditions where bacteria were proliferating also during surface exposure and were much less frequent, but not missing, on antimicrobial surfaces in low-organic dry conditions (Fig 3B, Table 2, Supplementary Table S1). The initial inoculum of the high-organic humid experiment also contained more rRNA reorganizations than the one for LD experiment. The cause of this variation as well as its possible effect on evolutionary scenarios remains unknown.

IS element presence in "safe strains" is well known [58]. In the genome of *E. coli* ATCC 8739 forty-eight IS elements from eight IS families were detected with IS1 elements being the most abundant (Supplementary Fig. S3).

Deletions directly adjacent to existing IS1 elements could possibly be explained by abortive transposition of the IS resulting in flanking deletions of variable length [59]. Similar phenomenon has been recorded for example in previous *E. coli* evolution experiments that have resulted in loss of motility due to

deletions in flagellar genes next to an IS1 element [60] and in case of deletions next to IS1X2 element
causing adaptive nitrofurantoin resistance in pathogenic *E. coli* [61]. Although higher IS mobility in *E. coli*
ATCC 8739 has not been experimentally proven, such deletions could be more frequent in the presence
of insertion sequence-excision enhancer (*iee*) protein [62], [63] with the helicase domain highly similar
to *EcolC_1463* (annotated as *radD*) of *E. coli* ATCC 8739. Furthermore, *E. coli* ATCC8739 has an IS1X2
insertion into *clpA* (substrate-specifying adapter for the ClpAP protease complex) reading frame and
disrupted protein degradation has been shown to lead to more frequent IS excision [64]. IS1X2 is also
found to be significantly associated with antibiotic resistance genes (within 10 ORF distance) in
metagenomic datasets [65].

Our results showed that IS1X2 located at *EcolC_2714* in the reference genome seems to be especially
prone to cause deletions of variable length starting with *EcolC_2715.* These deletions were detected in
different exposure conditions all spanning at least the reading frames of *EcolC_2715*(*clpS*) and
EcolC_2716(*cspD*) with the longest deletion extending to *EcolC_2749*. Deletions with different lengths
can be present in the same evolved population at high frequencies. Universal benefit of the deletions is
not directly clear but could be speculated to be associated with *cspD* replication inhibitor inactivation
rather than *clpS* because the *EcolC_2714* IS1 itself is an insertion into *EcolC_2713*(*clpA*) expected to
inactivate the ClpSAP-dependent protein degradation pathway. Excess of CspD is toxic to cells [66]. *CspD*
is regulated by the MsqRA toxin-antitoxin system [67] which responds to stress with antitoxin MsqA
degradation by ClpXP followed by *cspD* derepression. *CspD* deletion could avoid its increased toxic levels
independently from stress-responsive regulation. CspD has also been associated with persister
formation [68]. Deletion of *cspD* and its next neighbor efflux system encoding *macAB* could therefore
indirectly be considered decreasing the probability of antimicrobial resistance development and spread
but are clearly dependent on strain specific IS1 location.

Position	Annotation	Affected loci	Affected genes by similarity	Ag_LD					Ag_HH					Cu_LD					Cu_HH				
				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1,584,799	Y343* (TAC→TAG)	EcolC_1435	ompC	1.0																			
4,430,894	E145D (GAA→GAT)	EcolC_4022	zraS (hydH)	0.3																			
825,348	F231V (TTT→GTT)	EcolC_0772	metK	0.3	0.3	0.3			0.2				0.2				0.2		0.2		0.2		
3,450,094	Q19K (CAG→AAG)	EcolC_3147	apt		0.4																		
2,196,802	intergenic A→T (-3)	EcolC_1988	slyB			0.9																	
2,196,802	intergenic A→T (-271)	EcolC_1989	anmK			0.9																	
2,629,020	::IS1 (1714-1723/2676 nt)	EcolC_2387	adhE			0.6																	
2,774,065	A97P (GCG→CCG)	EcolC_2521	flgH				0.5																
1,472,947	intergenic C→T (-185)	EcolC_1342	argT					0.5															
1,755,361	intergenic T→A (-47)	EcolC_1578	yegH					0.8															
1,755,361	intergenic T→A (-612)	EcolC_1579	wza					0.8															
2,987,581	Δ 2,440 bp	EcolC_2715-EcolC_2717	clpS,cspD,...											0.9									
3,551,945	::IS1 (271-279/678 nt)	EcolC_3242	aroM												0.9								
2,634,829	V120F (GTT→TTT)	EcolC_2392	rssB													1.0							
3,111,116	G13R (GGG→AGG)	EcolC_2843	ybiB													1.0							
2,987,583	Δ 32,016 bp	EcolC_2715-EcolC_2745	clpS,cspD,...														1.0						
784,740	::IS1 (167-174/645 nt)	EcolC_0730	nemR-like														0.9						
1,263,419	T986I (ACA→ATA)	EcolC_1157	yfhM														1.0						
1,049,782	Q440* (CAG→TAG)	EcolC_0961	cysN															1.0					
4,265,419	::IS1 (269-277/3360 nt)	EcolC_3887	EcolC_3887															1.0					
4,740,468	M266I (ATG→ATT)	EcolC_4286	tnaA						0.4	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.1										
2,105,539	::IS1 (209-217/1392 nt)	EcolC_1903	ydjN (tcyP)						0.2														
2,105,625	G44D (GGC→GAC)	EcolC_1903	ydjN (tcyP)						0.1														
2,666,933	intergenic T→C (-117)	EcolC_2421	ychH							0.2													
2,666,933	intergenic T→C (-161)	EcolC_2422	pth							0.2													
2,987,582	Δ 1,037 bp	EcolC_2715-EcolC_2716	clpS,cspD											0.1									
2,987,583	Δ 8,906 bp	EcolC_2715-EcolC_2722	clpS,cspD,...											0.2									
2,987,583	Δ 7,339 bp	EcolC_2715-EcolC_2720	clpS,cspD,...													0.4							
2,987,583	Δ 6,100 bp	EcolC_2715-EcolC_2720	clpS,cspD,...																	0.2			
88,398	S245C (AGT→TGT)	EcolC_0083	rfaJ																	0.2			
465,883	intergenic 53 bp→54 bp (-189)	EcolC_0434	yrdA																0.3				

Figure 4. Functional annotation of genes potentially affected by mutations accumulated with ≥0.2 frequency in population evolved on silver, copper, stainless steel (SS) and glass (G) in low-organic dry (LD) and high-organic humid (HH) exposure conditions. Number of parallel lineages where mutations with shared GOslim_prokaryote annotations are presented in green gradient (left panel) and presence of more specific GO terms is presented as dark squares (right panel). QuickGO [69] was used to filter Gene Ontology database [37]. For copper and silver, occasionally occurring IS1-mediated deletions (*EcolC_2715-*…) also abundantly present on control surfaces were excluded from the analysis.

Specific mutation accumulated on silver and copper surfaces at over 0.2 frequency in evolved populations are presented in Table 2. While trying to connect functional annotations (Fig. 4) of the mutated genes in the populations to their role in (metal) stress tolerance, one must keep in mind that not all mutations in a population might have been selected for. Random mutations in the same genome with a beneficial mutation enrich in frequency just by genetic linkage ("hitchhiking").

Mutations: metal sensing and heavy metal homeostasis

E. coli ATCC 8739 contains chromosomal ***pco*** (*EcolC_3410-3417*) copper resistance and acquisition [70], [71], [72] as well as ***sil*** (*EcolC_3420-3428*) silver resistance [36], [73], [74] gene clusters forming a heavy metal homeostasis/resistance island [34]. The whole *EcolC_3410-EcolC_3428* region shows 97% sequence similarity to the historical metal resistance plasmid pMG101 (GenBank: NZ_JAFFIC010000003.1) and could be of possible plasmid origin via an independent transposition event [75], [76]. Surprisingly, no changes in the *sil* genes of the silver-exposed lines were detected after the evolution experiment although importance of such mutations in increased silver tolerance in addition to the mere presence of the *sil* genes have been described [35], [77]. No mutations in known copper

uptake or resistance genes were also detected in populations evolved on neither copper nor silver
surfaces.

ZraS E145D in histidine kinase of the ZraSR two-component envelope stress signaling pathway that was
enriched in Ag1_LD population could be a hitchhiker to a fixed OmpC Y343* in the same population but
could also plausibly contribute to metal tolerance. The observed amino acid substitution occurs in the
periplasmic sensor-like domain (InterPro: P14377 [78]), not the kinase domain. Mutations in sensory
domain of ZraS might change sensor affinity to other metals besides the already known Zn and Cu [79].
ZraS is a member of the atypical two-component regulatory system ZraSR. ZraS functions as a
membrane-associated protein kinase that phosphorylates ZraR in response to high concentrations of
zinc or lead in the medium resulting in expression of periplasmic metal-binding chaperon ZraP which
simultaneously acts as a repressor of ZraPSR [79], [80]. ZraR can also regulate expression of other stress
response genes important in maintaining membrane integrity in the presence of biocides targeting the
envelope [81]. Surprisingly, also *e.g.* similarly to PspF, CpxR and sigma E in mutant studies [82] in the
presence of Zn^{2+} ZraR strongly downregulate expression of the indole and H_2S producing tryptophanase,
tnaA [81]. However, tryptophanase activity might be protective in the presence of silver (see below).
The exact role of the metal responsive ZraPSR in copper and silver response is not clear while the main
role might be associated with envelope stress response similarly to the Cpx system and not metal
homeostasis.

Mutations: cell surface and membrane transport

The outer membrane proteins **OmpC** and OmpF, are the two major porins of *E. coli*. Although cross-
membrane transport and tolerance mechanisms of silver and copper ions in bacteria partly overlap, it is
known for decades that conditions selecting for silver tolerance might not by default also grant
increased copper tolerance [5]. Similarly to *zraS* carrying mutation in the same silver-exposed
population, OmpC is also indicated in the Gram-negative envelope stress response via CpxAR-regulation
[83].

The role of outer membrane porins in metal tolerance is somewhat unclear. For example, it has been
demonstrated that the lack of *ompC* and/or *ompF* alone does not seem to grant significantly increased
silver and/or copper salt MICs in *E. coli* laboratory strains [5] while deletion of one or both of the genes
from *E. coli* MC 4100 increased tolerance to both silver ions and nanoparticles [84]. It can also be that
while defective porin function alone is not enough then mutations in both passive influx by Omp porins
and active efflux by Cus can increase silver tolerance of *E. coli* [33], [36], [73]. Complexity and
differences in transcriptional regulation and presence or absence of functional homologues in different
E. coli strains might influence individual porin role in metal tolerance.

There seems to be confusion about the *ompC* genes in the published *E. coli* genomes. The *ompC* gene
seems to have undergone substantial mosaic evolution [85] and *ompC* of *E. coli* ATCC 8739 has been
previously described to be disrupted by an IS1 insertion [86]. Surprisingly, neither o*mpC* (*EcolC_1435*) of
the *E. coli* ATCC 8739 reference genome (CP000946.1)[86] nor respective genes in other accessible ATCC
8739 genomes (CP022959.1; CP033020.1) had a truncated *ompC* and instead showed 91.17% similarity
with 100% query coverage when BLASTed against full length *ompC* (*b2215*) of the *E. coli* K-12
(U00096.3). *E. coli* ATCC 8739 sequence CP043852.1 seemed to have a 100% similar *ompC* to K-12,
lacked the *pco* and *sil* gene clusters and the genome might be wrongly designated to ATCC 8739 strain.
The reference genome also contains an unannotated intact *micF* regulatory RNA sequence. Genomic

sequences of several *E. coli* B strains, however, did present a truncated *ompC* as has also been reported
in the literature [87], [88]. Resequencing of *the E. coli* ATCC 8739 ancestor strain revealed no deletions
or IS insertions in *ompC*. Therefore, we expected *E. coli* ATCC 8739 to have a full length functional *ompC*.
Furthermore, we detected a fixed mutation of a premature stop codon (Y343*) in *ompC* in the silver-
exposed Ag1_LD line indicating selective pressure towards *ompC* inactivation.

YfhM with a fixed mutation in Cu4_LD is a colonization factor, an α_2-macroglobulin that traps host
proteases and works in close association with peptidoglycan glycosyltransferase acting as a as a defense
and repair mechanism [89], [90]. The biological effect of substitution T986I is located between the bait-
region and thioester domains in one of the several macroglobulin-type domains remains unclear but
could be associated with cell wall repair. Copper toxicity, indeed, has been associated with envelope
stress, impaired lipoprotein maturations and peptidoglycan cross-linking [91].

Other enriched mutations potentially affecting outer barrier of the cell were between the genes *slyB* (-3)
and *anmK* (-271) in Ag3_LD, between *yegH* (-47) and *wza* (-612) in Ag5_LD and *rfaJ* S245C in Cu3_HH.
SlyB is a stress-induced PhoPQ-regulated outer membrane lipoprotein that is essential in outer
membrane stabilization [92] and is associated with antimicrobial peptide and polymyxin B tolerance
[93], [94], [95] while **AnmK** participates in peptidoglycan recycling [96]. **YegH** encodes a putative inner
membrane transporter immediately neighboring the colonic acid transport and synthesis genes starting
with **wza** in the opposite direction[97]. **RfaJ** participates in LPS synthesis [98].

However, the potentially cellular barrier function affecting mutations alone were generally not enough
to substantially increase copper surface tolerance of the evolved populations carrying the mutations (Fig
5).

Mutations: sulfur metabolism

Mutation in several genes associated to sulfur metabolism or sulfur amino acid transport and
metabolism were detected in copper and silver exposed populations mostly in high-organic humid
conditions.

M266I substitution in tryptophanase (*EcolC_4286, **tnaA***) was enriched in all silver-exposed lineages
(frequency 0.13-0.70) in high-organic humid exposure conditions and not on any other surface or in low-
organic dry conditions. Contribution of adaptive *tnaA* mutations to increased stress tolerance has been
described *e.g.* for heat shock but the underlying mechanisms can be challenging to interpret [99]. TnaA
and OmpC from soluble fraction of *E. coli* proteome have been shown to be bound to and TnaA also
inactivated by AgNPs [100]. AgNPs are well known to act via release of ionic Ag similarly to silver
surfaces. In the case of M266I, the conserved Ag-vulnerable methionine is substituted with structurally
similar but less vulnerable isoleucine in close proximity of pyridoxal-phosphate modified K270 in the
active center of the tetrameric enzyme [101]. Therefore, we assume that the mutation could protect the
enzyme function under silver stress. Tryptophanase is best known for degrading exogenic L-tryptophan
resulting in production of indole (L-tryptophan + H_2O => Indole + Pyruvate + NH_3) but participates in
detoxifying excess amounts of exogenous L-cysteine, is highly inducible by L-cysteine and well known to
catalyze reactions leading to hydrogen sulfide production (L-cysteine + H_2O => Pyruvate + NH_3 + H_2S and
Indole + L-cysteine => L-tryptophan + H_2S) [102], [103], [104]. Furthermore, out of the several enzymes
capable of H_2S production in *E. coli* [103], [105], [106], TnaA can be the main producer in rich medium
[107]. Signaling and stress-related role of H_2S in bacteria is poorly described but increased H_2S

production has been previously associated with increased silver tolerance of *E. coli* [108], alleviating
heavy metal toxicity to fungi [109] and offering protection against oxidative stress and antibiotics [110].
Similarly, periplasmic H_2S-dependent biomineralization of cadmium has been demonstrated in *E. coli*
[111]. *E. coli* ATCC 8739 indeed produces both indole[112] and hydrogen sulfide (Supplementary Fig.
S4). While indole can play a role in stress signaling inside and between bacterial cells hydrogen sulfide
can freely cross bacterial membranes by passive diffusion and potentially directly detoxify intracellular
and extracellular silver ions by forming insoluble silver sulfide. TnaA expression is downregulated by
glucose and metal (II) ions and upregulated by oxidative stress, high pH and temperature [113]. On the
other hand, inactivation of TnaA and thereby at least partially blocking L-cysteine degradation could
theoretically direct cysteine to glutathione production by GshF [114] and help with intracellular, but not
extracellular Ag detoxification.

In Ag2_HH lineage with relatively lower TnaA M266I frequency (0.29) we also observed IS1X2 insertion
into EcolC_1903 (**ydiN**; 0.21) reading frame and G44D substitution in the same gene (0.12) possibly
indicating competition of beneficial mutations in the population. *YdjN* encodes one of the two cystine
importers in *E. coli* [115], [116] which can import cystine in oxic conditions. YdjN is required by *E. coli* for
growth on S-sulfocysteine as a sulfur source [117], has been demonstrated to contribute to oxidative
stress tolerance [118], and its expression can be upregulated by silver nanoparticle exposure [119].
However, defective YdjN -mediated transport has been observed in case of *E. coli* resistant to toxic
selenocystine [115]. In our case possible *ydjN* inactivation could avoid uptake of Ag-cysteine complexes
in high-organic conditions in the presence of peptides and amino acids free to react with silver in the
extracellular space.

The Cu4_LD population with a fixed mutation in **cysN** (Q440*) also carries an IS insertion into
EcolC_3887 with unknown function. Up-regulation of cysteine biosynthesis genes, including *cysN*, has
been indicated in response to metal ions above physiological concentrations, *e.g.* zinc [120] and copper
[121]. Counterintuitively, we observed a fixed premature stop codon in *cysN* in the population evolved
on copper in low-organic dry conditions. CysN is one of the first enzymes in cysteine biosynthesis
pathway by activating sulfate in sulfur assimilation process. CysN upregulation in response to heavy
metal exposure could be an indirect result of elevated sulfide levels triggering sulfide detoxification to
sulfite and sulfate [122], [123]. In the presence of organic sulfur sources, interruption of this
detoxification process by affecting sulfide-sulfate balance could theoretically lead to toxic levels of
intracellular sulfide that could, although at a price, detoxify the metal ions. However, emergence of the
mutation in low-organic dry conditions complicates the logic.

Finally, **yrdA** with an upstream (-189) mutation in Cu2_HH seems to be encoding a cytosolic Zn^{2+}-binding
hexapeptide repeat acetyltransferase, gamma carbonic anhydrase like protein with unknown function
that is induced by polyamine and azide [124], [125], [126]. Interestingly, *yrdA* shared expression pattern
with *tnaA* in polyamine exposure conditions [125] and in *Bacillus subtilis yrdA* is possibly associated with
assimilatory sulfate reduction [127].

The environment of the high-organic humid experiment could explain some of the context of mutations
accumulated that were associated with sulfur and amino acid metabolism. The high-organic soil load
(2.5 g/L BSA, 3.5 g/L yeast extract, 0.8 g/L mucin) is rich in protein with strong overrepresentation of
sulfur-containing amino acid cysteine, the substrate of TnaA for H_2S production and transport target for
YdjN. There are 35 cysteines out of 607 amino acids (5.8%) in BSA (Uniprot: P02769) and 118 cysteines

out of 1390 amino acids (8.5%) in mucin (Uniprot: A0A5G2QSD1) compared to around 1% in *E. coli* in
general [128]. Serum albumins are also well known to bind metal ions, metal complexes and metallic
nanoparticles, including those of copper and silver [129], [130], [131] which causes structural changes in
the protein and Cu(II) specifically causes BSA to aggregate [130]. Mucin is also known to act as a copper
chaperone that binds copper in both its Cu(I) and Cu(II) forms [132]. The high cysteine content of the
organic soiling medium could partly explain enrichment of sulfur metabolism mutations and should be
considered while comparing the results to other exposure media.

Mutations: motility and biofilm

Unfortunately, due to presumably isogenic single-colony origin of the ancestral culture of the HH and LD
evolution experiments individually we ended up having a fixed (0.90) mutation in the ancestor of the HH
experiment rendering the bacteria non-motile by introducing an early stop codon (W8*; TGG→TGA) in
fliI (*EcolC_1701*) gene that codes an ATPase involved in flagellar assembly. As other motility-impairing
mutations were also detected on control surfaces and there seemed to be no selection against the FliI
W8* we concluded that the mutation did not substantially affect metal tolerance. Motility is highly
energy-expensive [133] and loss of the function could be energetically beneficial in clearly resource-
limited conditions. Additionally, the loss of function by an immature stop codon proved to be easily
reversable as we repeatedly saw in the motility assay (data not shown).

Other high-frequency mutations

Cu3_LD population carried stress response associated fixed mutations of V12F in response regulator
domain of *rssB* and G13R in glycosyl transferase domain of *ybiB*. **RssB** is a σ^S stability modulator in *E. coli*
[134] absence of which increases σ^S stability and bacterial osmotic, oxidative and heat stress tolerance
[135]. **YbiB** is a poorly characterized LexA-regulated DNA-binding protein that might be involved in SOS
response and persistence [136] interruption of which is associated with decreased fitness in response to
metal toxicity (ROS-active CrO_4^{2-}) of metal tolerant *Pantoea sp*. MT58[137].

It is not immediately clear how mutations in adenine phosphoribosyltransferase *(apt)* could increase
silver surface tolerance, but Q19K substitution N-terminal from the phosphoribosyltransferase domain
of the encoded protein seems to increase viability of Ag2_LD population on silver surface (Fig 5). If the
mutation impairs purine salvage and adenine is not converted to AMP by apt or the reaction is less
efficient, one could suspect that as adenine has high affinity towards silver ions [138], [139], some of the
adenine that is not recycled or is processed by Apt less efficiently could in theory participate in silver
detoxification intracellularly and possibly also extracellularly. Disruption of *apt* has also been shown to
cause reprogramming of nucleotide metabolism, adenine accumulation and increased copper tolerance
while not affecting intracellular copper accumulation in *S. aureus* [140]. Furthermore, overexpression of
not only *apt* but also other enzymes that use phosphoribosyl diphosphate (PRPP), sensitized *cop*⁻ strain
of *S. aureus* to Cu^{2+} indicating a more general involvement of Cu^{1+} induced blocking of the pentose
phosphate pathway and sparing of PRPP protecting against Cu^{2+} toxicity. As toxicity, transport and
detoxification of Ag^{1+} largely overlap with Cu^{1+} it is plausible that possible impairment of *apt* offers
protection against both.

Phenotypic characterization of evolved populations: metal surface tolerance

To best describe the adaptational benefits of the accumulated mutation patterns in the evolved
populations, silver-exposed populations were exposed to silver surfaces and copper-exposed
populations to copper surfaces in the evolution experiment conditions (Fig 5). In high-organic humid
conditions the populations harboring higher frequency of mutated *tnaA* tended to have a slight
advantage over the ancestor (Fig 5A). However, as this advantage is growth-limited in already sub-
optimal growth conditions (Fig. 2B), which means that compared to potentially large changes in
mortality in bactericidal conditions (Fig. 2A) the potential growth benefit is expected to be small. Despite
methodological challenges in detecting small changes in phenotypic traits, even a slight advantage in
fitness may become biologically relevant. No changes in metal surface tolerance were observed in the
case of copper-exposed surfaces in high-organic humid conditions, probably due to low biocidal and/or
growth-related selection pressure.

Figure 5. Silver and copper surface tolerance of the evolved communities. Communities evolved in high-organic humid (A,B) or low-organic dry (C,D) environments exposed to copper (B, D) or silver (A,C) surfaces were tested against the ancestral strain in the same conditions as in the corresponding evolution experiment. In growth-supporting HH exposure conditions (A,B) relative change in post-exposure viable counts compared to ancestor is presented. Black dotted line indicates ancestral baseline. In bactericidal LD exposure conditions (C,D) post-exposure viable counts are presented with a reference to initial viable count in the inoculum (black dotted line. Values from three independent experiments are presented with mean ±SD. Statistical significance of the difference from the ancestor

exposed in the same conditions is marked with * P< 0.05; ** P< 0.01; *** P< 0.001; ****P< 0.0001 based
on ANOVA followed by *post-hoc* testing for multiple comparisons.

In low-organic dry conditions the Ag1_LD and Ag2_LD populations survived better than the ancestor
possibly due to carrying mutations in *ompC*, *zraS* and *apt*. The mutations carried by Ag3_LD – Ag5_LD,
although some of them in genes involved in stress responses (*argT*), possibly affecting cell surface
properties (*wza*, *anmK*, *slyB*) or transport function (*yegH*), do not measurably change metal surface

tolerance which does not rule out possible benefit, but multiple mutations could be needed to achieve a
substantially more tolerant phenotype.

Cu1_LD and Cu2_LD populations presented no survival benefit over the ancestor, at least partly due to
extremely high variability of viable counts. Significantly better survival of Cu3_LD-C5_LD could be
explained by possibly beneficial mutations in *rssB (*and/or *ybiB)*, *yfhM (*and/or IS-mediated deletion of
EcolC2715-EcolC_2745), and *cysN* (and/or IS-interrupted *EcolC_3887)*, respectively.

Phenotypic characterization of evolved populations: metal salt and antibiotic tolerance

Release of metal ions is considered to be one of the main biocidal mechanisms of antimicrobial metal
surfaces [141], [142]. To evaluate copper and silver ion tolerance of the evolved populations and isolates
carrying mutations of interest two approaches were used, agar microdilution assay with copper and
silver salts to assess minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) [44] and a modified minimal biocidal
concentration (MBC) assay [45]. Evolutionary changes in growth (assessed as MIC) and survival (assessed
by MBC) in the presence of an antimicrobial substance might occur independently of each other and
increased survival might be detected in case of unchanged MIC [143]. Furthermore, survival of metal-
exposed bacteria is heavily dependent on organic content of exposure media [45], [144] and can cause
up to 1000-fold differences in MBC value [45]. Evolution of tolerance can be difficult to interpret due to
involvement of multiple bacterial defense mechanisms, affected by genomic and transcriptomic changes
or even global stereotypic transcriptome expression patterns [145].

**Figure 6. Minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) of copper and silver of the evolved populations and
their respective ancestors**. Copper and silver salts were used as a source of respective metal ions for MIC
assay on Mueller-Hinton agar Values from three biological replicates and two technical replicates are
presented with median and range. Statistical significance of the difference from the ancestor exposed in
the same conditions is marked with * P< 0.05.

Figure 7. Minimal biocidal concentration (MBC) of copper and silver of the evolved populations and
their respective ancestors. Populations evolved on copper surfaces were tested against copper (left
panel) and lines evolved on silver against silver (right panel). Values from three independent experiments
(6 data points) are presented with median and range. Statistical significance of the difference from the
ancestor exposed in the same conditions is marked with ** P< 0.01; *** P<0.001.

No changes in the respective Cu and Ag salt MIC values of the copper- and silver-exposed evolved
populations compared to ancestor were observed (Fig 6). Changes in MBC values were small and rather
explained by the environmental parameters of the evolution experiment not by the enriched mutations
(Fig 7) possibly indicating a non-genetic acclimatization effect. For example, populations evolved on
copper in LD conditions tolerated higher Cu ion concentration in MBC assay in water and populations
evolved in LD conditions on silver tolerated higher Ag ion concentration in high-organic medium. That
could be due to copper but not silver acidifying the high-organic medium causing additional stress as
compared to high organic content offering more energy resources to counteract silver toxicity without
the additional acid stress. Copper-exposed populations not being more tolerant to ionic copper is in
good agreement with Bleichert *et al*. [31] who also found no increase in ionic copper tolerance of the
bacteria evolved on copper surfaces despite demonstrating increased copper surface tolerance. Also,
copper tolerant bacteria isolated from dry copper alloy surfaces have demonstrated no increase in
copper ion tolerance in liquid conditions [146].

Slightly lower Ag MIC (Fig 6) and higher Ag MBC (Fig 7) of the ancestor of the HH evolution experiment
compared to ancestor of the LD experiment might arise from mutations in *fliI* and *oppA* present in the
HH ancestor (Supplementary table S2) rendering the initial inoculum and resulting populations immotile
and possibly interfere with periplasmic oligopeptide sequestering and transport. The mutations had no
effect on copper (Fig 6 and 7) nor antibiotic tolerance (Fig 8). This could indicate that differently from
copper and tested antibiotics, *E. coli* slightly benefits from either motility or periplasmic oligopeptide
sequestering while growing on silver-supplemented agar medium and potential disruption of the same
functions increases survival in the presence of higher silver concentrations in liquid environment. One

could expect immotility to affect both silver and copper tolerance the same way by being able to move
away from the toxicant, especially form solid surfaces releasing high local concentrations of toxic ions
closer to the metal surface. Alternatively, energy saved at the expense of motility could be used for
active defense mechanisms. On the other hand, silver has higher affinity to proteins then copper,
especially at their cysteine residues [147], [148] and in that context the *oppA* mutation could affect
silver-bound oligopeptide uptake which makes *oppA* a better causal candidate of the ancestral tolerance
difference in MIC and MBC assays of the evolved populations. Interestingly, neither of the mutation in
HH ancestor significantly affected survival or growth on silver and copper surfaces (Supplementary
Figure S5) highlighting exposure-specific employment of defensive strategies. However, different genetic
context of HH and LD ancestors could have affected the evolutionary scenarios observed during the
evolution experiment.

From post-evolution MIC and MBC tests single colonies with seemingly substantially higher Cu or Ag
tolerance were isolated and retested to detect colonies with reproducibly increased metal ion tolerance.
Secondary isolates from $AgNO_3$ MBC tests in high-organic exposure medium demonstrating persistent
increase in copper and silver ion tolerance carried independent *silS* mutations (full mutational profiles
described in Supplementary Table S2) not detected in their population of origin (Ag5_LD and Ag4_HH).
Different *silS* point mutations emerging from silver-exposed populations not detectable before the liquid
silver challenge in MBC assay indicated rapid selection of *silS* mutants in liquid, but not surface format.

Antibiotic tolerance of the evolved populations did not change substantially compared to ancestors and
no newly acquired resistances were observed. Detected changes in antibiotic tolerance compared to
ancestors were not easily explained by genetic background and were not bigger than 2-fold compared to
ancestor (Fig 8).

Figure 8. Antibiotic tolerance of the evolved populations and their respective ancestors, minimal
inhibitory concentration (MIC). Values of at least 6 data points are presented with median and range.
Statistical significance of the difference of a single evolved lineage from the ancestor exposed in the same
conditions is marked with * P< 0.05.

Phenotypic characterization of selected mutants

Isolates from evolved populations carrying mutations of interest (*tnaA* M266I, *ydjN*::IS1) associated with
sulfur amino acid metabolism, and secondary isolates from metal tolerance assays of the evolved
populations with increased copper and silver ion tolerance carrying *silS* point mutations (described in
Supplementary Table S2) were characterized separately to reduce the variability generated by

heterogeneity in the evolved populations. The secondary isolates carrying *silS* mutations did not
demonstrate substantial advantage in surface format (Fig 9). However*, silS* mutants presented higher
tolerance of copper and silver exposure and were at least 8 times more resistant to silver (grew at
highest tested MIC concentration; Fig. 10) in liquid MBC and MIC tests highlighting the critical
importance of exposure conditions not only in antimicrobial surface efficacy testing but also in tolerance
mechanisms and risk assessment. Interestingly, out of the tested bacteria, the *silS* mutants were also
less sensitive to ampicillin and ciprofloxacin than the wild type (Fig 11). *Sil* mutants have also previously
been demonstrated to be less susceptible to ampicillin and ciprofloxacin [35]. Interrupted *ydjN* on the
other hand enhanced growth on both copper (Fig 9B) and silver (Fig 9D) surfaces in high-organic humid
conditions but also increased survival in liquid silver and copper exposures (Fig 10B). Although reaching
higher mean CFU/surface values than wild type, mutant *tnaA* isolate did not demonstrate any
statistically significant advantage over wild type in surface tolerance, MBC or MIC tests (Fig 9 and 10).
This could be either due to small effect size or the negative effect of an additional IS1-mediated
multigene deletion in the *tnaA* M266I isolate (Supplementary Table S2).

Figure 9. Silver (A,C) and copper (B, D) surface tolerance of the selected mutants and wild-type(WT) in high-organic humid (A,B) and low-organic dry (C,D) and conditions. Values from three independent experiments (6 surface exposures per condition) are presented with mean ±SD. Ancestral viability (A,B) or pre-exposure inoculum baseline (C,D) is marked with a dotted line. Statistical significance of the difference from the ancestor exposed in the same conditions is marked with * P< 0.05; ** P< 0.01 based on non-parametric ANOVA followed by *post-hoc* testing for multiple comparisons.

Figure 10. MBC and MIC values of copper (A-D, orange) and silver (E-H, blue) salts of selected mutants and wild-type (WT). MBC in water (A, E) and organic soil load (B, F) and MIC values at 24 h (C, G) and 48 h (D, H) are presented. On panels G and H MIC is ≥ 64 mg Ag/l as the detected value was the highest silver concentration tested in MIC assay. Values from three independent experiments with 6 data points are presented with median and range. Statistical significance of the difference from the ancestor exposed in the same conditions is marked with * P< 0.05; ** P< 0.01; *** P<0.001 based on non-parametric ANOVA followed by *post-hoc* testing for multiple comparisons.

Figure 11. Ampicillin (A), ciprofloxacin (B), gentamicin (C) and colistin (D) tolerance of the selected mutants and wild type (WT). Values from three independent experiments with 6 data points are presented with median and range. Statistical significance of the difference from wild-type exposed in the same conditions is marked with * P< 0.05; ** P< 0.01 based on non-parametric ANOVA followed by *post-hoc* testing for multiple comparisons.

Conclusion

- Repeated exposure of *E. coli* ATCC 8739 to copper and silver surfaces in environmentally exposed conditions did not increase the number of mutations accumulated in the exposed populations indicating reduced risk of pathogenicity-associated hypermutator emergence on antimicrobial copper and silver surfaces compared to steel and glass in application-relevant semidry conditions.
- Enriched mutations on copper and silver surfaces indicate a shift toward more energy-passive mechanisms of metal tolerance in surface exposure while active efflux is rapidly selected for in a single round of liquid silver challenge.
- Cryptic copper and silver tolerance loci *pco* and *sil* were not activated during cyclic surface exposure but mutations in *silS*, activating the *sil*-encoded copper/silver efflux system was rapidly selected for in the following conventional MBC assay indicating decreased risk of *sil* activation in surface exposure conditions compared to copper and silver salts in liquid medium. The *sil* mutants demonstrated substantial growth and survival benefit in MIC and MBC assays with copper and silver salts, but not a clear beneficial effect in copper or silver surface exposure. This

indicates reduced risk of activation of the tolerance loci and possible co-selection of antibiotic
resistance in case of extrachromosomal genetic elements carrying such metal tolerance loci.

• Mutations in several known metal tolerance (*ompC*, *zraS*, *cysN*) and stress response (*rssB*)
associated genes were detected in copper or silver exposed populations compared to steel and
glass. The abundance of mutations in sulfur and sulfur amino acid metabolism genes (*tnaA,*
ydjN, cysN) offering slight survival or growth benefit on copper and silver surfaces was surprising
but could be plausibly explained by reduced metal uptake and increased metal detoxification by
sulfidation. Co-incidentally the high-organic soiling medium used was exceptionally high in
cysteine and mutations in other sulfur metabolism genes (*dcyD* in high-organic and *metK* in both
exposure conditions) were also accumulated on control surfaces. Therefore, we propose that
the benefit of the sulfur metabolism associated mutation in silver and copper exposed
populations was probably dependent on both the exposure medium and specific environmental
stresses as the benefit was generally not reproduced in liquid exposure.

• Several IS1-mediated multigene deletions of variable length were detected irrespective of
surface type with clear deletional hotspots possibly indicating strain-specific genomic instability
rather than selection of the accumulated deletions. The role of such deletions as well as strain
specificity remains to be studied.

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Availability of data

Sequencing data is made available in European Nucleotide Archive (ENA), accession PRJEB75034. Raw
numerical data is included figure by figure in Supplementary Data file. Any other inquiries can be
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Author contribution

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	Ag LD	Cu LD	Ag HH	Cu HH	SS LD	G LD	SS HH	G HH
Amino acid metabolic process		1	5				2	1
Carbohydrate derivative metabolic process	3			1	1			
Carbohydrate metabolic process	2			1	1		2	5
Cell adhesion							2	5
Cell motility	1					2		
Cell projection organization						1		
Chromosome segregation					1			
Cytokinesis					1			
DNA recombination							2	
DNA repair							1	1
DNA replication							2	5
Generation of precursor metabolites and energy	1				1		1	
Lipid metabolic process				1	1			
Nucleobase-containing small molecule metabolic process	1				1			
Protein catabolic process							5	5
Protein folding	1				1			
Protein-containing complex assembly	1				1		1	1
Regulation of DNA-templated transcription		2			1		5	5
Response to stimulus	4	1	2		2	1	5	5
RNA metabolic process							2	5
Signaling	1	1						
Small molecule biosynthetic process	2	1			1		1	1
Sulfur compound metabolic process		1			1		2	3
Translation		1	1					
Transport	2		1		2	1	3	5

Response to stress

	Ag LD	Cu LD	Ag HH	Cu HH	SS LD	G LD	SS HH	G HH
Cellular response to cell envelope stress	■							
Response to osmotic stress	■					■		
Cellular response to starvation	■						■	■
Response to starvation							■	■
DNA damage response	■						■	■
Response to oxidative stress			■		■			
Cellular response to chemical stress			■				■	
Response to heat					■		■	■

Response to inorganic substance and metal ion

	Ag LD	Cu LD	Ag HH	Cu HH	SS LD	G LD	SS HH	G HH
Cellular response to metal ion	■		■					
Response to zinc ion	■							
Response to lead ion	■							
Response to cadmium ion			■					
Response to hydrogen peroxide								

Sulfur metabolism

	Ag LD	Cu LD	Ag HH	Cu HH	SS LD	G LD	SS HH	G HH
Hydrogen sulfide biosynthetic process		■						
Sulfur compound metabolic process		■			■			
Sulfate assimilation		■						
Sulfur utilization			■				■	■
Sulfur amino acid transport			■					
Sulfur compound biosynthetic process					■		■	■
Sulfur amino acid catabolic process							■	■
Sulfur compound metabolic process							■	■
Cellular response to sulfur starvation							■	■

Barriers (cell wall, LPS, slime capsule, biofilm)

	Ag LD	Cu LD	Ag HH	Cu HH	SS LD	G LD	SS HH	G HH
Colanic acid metabolic process	■							
Peptidoglycan metabolic process	■							
Biofilm formation			■				■	■
Lipopolysaccharide biosynthetic process				■				