Title: Experimental evolution of gene essentiality in bacteria

Authors: Liang Bao[1, *], Zan Zhu[1], Ahmed Ismail[1], Bin Zhu[2], Vysakh Anandan[1], Marvin Whiteley[3], Todd Kitten[1], Ping Xu[1, *]

Affiliations:
1, Department of Oral and Craniofacial Molecular Biology, Philips Institute for Oral Health Research, School of Dentistry, Virginia Commonwealth University, Virginia, USA.
2, Massey Cancer Center, Virginia Commonwealth University, Virginia, USA.
3, School of Biological Sciences, Center for Microbial Dynamics and Infection, Georgia Institute of Technology, Georgia, USA.

Correspondence:

pxu@vcu.edu (P.X.), baol@vcu.edu (L.B.)

Abstract

Essential gene products carry out fundamental cellular activities in interaction with other components. However, the lack of essential gene mutants and appropriate methodologies to link essential gene functions with their partners poses significant challenges. Here, we have generated deletion mutants in 32 genes previously identified as essential, with 23 mutants showing extremely slow growth in the SK36 strain of *Streptococcus sanguinis*. The 23 genes corresponding to these mutants encode components of diverse pathways, are widely conserved among bacteria, and are essential in many other bacterial species. Whole-genome sequencing of 243 independently evolved populations of these mutants has identified >1000 spontaneous suppressor mutations in experimental evolution. Many of these mutations define new gene and pathway relationships, such as F1Fo-ATPase/V1Vo-ATPase/TrkA1-H1 that were demonstrated across multiple *Streptococcus* species. Patterns of spontaneous mutations occurring in essential gene mutants differed from those found in wildtype. While gene duplications occurred rarely and appeared most often at later stages of evolution, substitutions, deletions, and insertions were prevalent in evolved populations. These essential gene deletion mutants and spontaneous mutations fixed in the mutant populations during evolution establish a foundation for understanding gene essentiality and the interaction of essential genes in networks.

Significance

Identifying genes that interact with essential genes offers profound theoretical insights into the basic cellular processes of life and practical benefits for fields such as synthetic biology and the fight against drug resistance. Despite its importance, this task is challenging due to the difficulties in creating essential-gene deletion mutants and linking essential gene functions with their interacting partners. In our study, we changed the transformation system to create viable mutants with deletions in genes previously identified as essential in *Streptococcus sanguinis*.

Fortunately, we obtained dozens of essential gene knockout mutants for the first time. These
genes, involved in various pathways, are conserved as core components of the essential genome
across many bacterial species. Furthermore, through the experimental evolution of 243
independent populations with deletions in these genes, we identified over 1,000 spontaneous
suppressor mutations that affect gene essentiality. This collection of spontaneous suppressor
mutations, combined with our essential gene deletion mutants, provides a crucial foundation for
elucidating gene essentiality and the interactions of essential genes within cellular networks.

Keywords

Gene essentiality; Experimental evolution; Spontaneous mutations; Whole-genome sequencing;
Streptococcus; F1Fo-ATPase/V1Vo-ATPase/TrkA1-H1 gene pathway.

Introduction

All living organisms require certain physical properties and biochemical capacities encoded by
"essential" genes to sustain basic cellular activities. Essential genes are indispensable for an
organism to survive or reproduce, and their essentiality is highly dependent on the environment
in which the organism lives. [1-6] *In vivo*, essential gene products carry out these tasks by
interacting with other components. Therefore, the essentiality of genes can also depend on the
genetic context provided by the additional genes present. [2,7,8] Relationships may be characterized
by negative epistasis when the essentiality of a gene is dependent on the absence or impairment
of another gene's function, such as synthetic lethality [7,9] or positive epistasis interactions, where
an individual with two genes mutated is fitter than a strain possessing a mutant version of only
one of the two genes. [7,10,11] In contrast to binary classification, it is increasingly acknowledged
that essential genes exhibit a quantitative spectrum, displaying a gradient of essentiality [2,12], and
a conditional nature. [13] For some essential genes, under optimal controlled conditions, deletion
can still result in viable, albeit severely compromised individuals. [14,15] The loss of essential genes
produces intense selective pressure for the fixation of genomic suppressor mutations in the
descendants of the original mutants during subsequent generations, including aneuploidy of
chromosomes. [14,15] Furthermore, essential genes can lose their essentiality during long-term
evolution and acquire novel functions. [16-18] For instance, unlike the essential characteristics of
the critical cell cycle regulator *CDK1* in yeasts and animals, [19] plant PSTAIRE-type cyclin-
dependent kinases, known as *CDKAs* (plant homologs of *CDK1*), play a role in environmental
responses that is independent of the cell cycle, [16] likely after the acquisition of the plant-specific
cyclin-dependent kinases, *CDKBs*. [20]

Identifying genes that interact with essential genes can produce many potential benefits, both
from a theoretical perspective, such as understanding the basic principles of cellular life, [21,22] and
from a practical standpoint, such as addressing various challenges in synthetic biology [23] and
combating drug resistance of infectious diseases. [22] Experimental evolution or laboratory
evolution imposes a natural selective pressure on a population to redirect the evolution towards
fitness-improving phenotypes in a controlled laboratory setting. [14,15,24-30] This methodology has
been applied to identify spontaneous mutations associated with fitness-improving phenotypes,
such as multicellularity, [24] novel metabolic capacity, [25] restoration of flagellar mobility, [31] and

fitness of minimal cells. [26] Recently, experimental evolution using mutants deleted of essential
genes in the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* revealed a rapid growth phenotype after passages.
[14,15] However, aneuploidy of chromosomes was prevalent among evolved populations deleted of
essential genes, which hindered the identification of causal suppressors. [14,15] Here, we have
established a transformation system to obtain numerous essential gene knockout mutants,
including *obgE*, *pfkA*, components of Type-II fatty acid synthesis (FAS II) and subunits of F1Fo-
ATPase genes that have been identified as essential in most bacterial species, including all
species of *Streptococcus* examined (http://www.essentialgene.org/). Therefore, most of these
mutants represent the first of their kind in the entire streptococcal field. For the 23 essential
genes whose deletion resulted in a slow-growing phenotype, we performed experimental
evolution of their corresponding mutants. After allowing for short-term adaptation, we have
identified >1000 spontaneous suppressor mutations in 243 evolved populations deleted of
essential genes, most of which are substitutions, deletions, and insertions. This feature enabled us
to map virtually all mutations to distinct genomic segments of individual ORFs or intergenic
regions. As a proof of concept, we have demonstrated the *f1fo* genes within the F1Fo-
ATPase/V1Vo-ATPase/TrkA1-H1 gene pathway across multiple Streptococcus species. For
comparison, we also evaluated the twelve mutations that arose in six evolved populations in the
wild-type (WT) cells. The mutations that occurred in essential gene mutants displayed several
characteristics that distinguished them from those that evolved in WT cells during short-term
evolution.

Results

Isolating essential gene mutants and analysis of short-term evolution

The genome of *Streptococcus sanguinis* SK36 comprises over 2000 ORFs, [32] of which 218 have
been experimentally identified as essential for the organism's survival when cells are grown on a
rich medium—brain heart infusion (BHI) broth or plates—under microaerobic conditions. [1] To
isolate viable essential-gene deletion mutants, we have modified our transformation procedure to
minimize stress (see Materials and Methods). Although we still employed homologous
recombination (Fig. 1a and Supplementary Fig.1a), we replaced our conventional 1-hour aerobic
transformation with an anaerobic incubation and a duration of up to 24 hours. [1] Additionally, we
optimized the selection conditions by covering the transformants with a thin layer of agar
medium and extending the selection period for the transformants to four to six days, all
conducted under anaerobic conditions. (See Materials and Methods.)

Using this procedure, we observed an interesting phenomenon. Specifically, for 23 of the
essential genes, the transformants produced two types of colonies: large and small (Fig. 1B, and
Supplementary Fig.2a). As expected, genotyping of the small colonies revealed a complete
replacement of the corresponding ORF with a kanamycin resistance (*kan*) gene (Supplementary
Fig.1b). In contrast, genotyping of the large colonies showed that some mutants displayed a
"double band" genotype due to duplication of the target gene prior to the replacement of one
copy by the *kan* gene (Supplementary Fig.1c, Supplemental Table 1). This finding suggests that
S. sanguinis SK36 regularly undergoes gene duplications, particularly between two copies of a
multi-copy gene or locus, such as the rRNA operons. Alternatively, some large colonies lacked a

kan gene, but contained point mutations in different genes, with the majority of isolates acquiring
mutations in translational machinery genes that may confer resistance to kanamycin, [33] such as
fusA, rpsL or *rplF* (Supplemental Table 1). Among fifty-four large colonies genotyped, fifteen
showed the double-band genotype. The remaining thirty-nine did not contain the *kan* gene, but
thirty-eight, or 97.4% contained mutations in *fusA, rpsL* or *rplF* (Supplemental Table 1). In
contrast, for nine essential genes, the deletion mutants exhibited robust growth (Supplementary
Fig.2b). These nine genes included *nrdE, nrdF, nrdH,* and *nrdI* which were previously reported
as non-essential under anaerobic conditions but essential in the presence of O_2, [34] along with
rexB for ATP-dependent nuclease subunit B, *rpsA* for 30S ribosomal protein S1, *pdf* for peptide
deformylase, and *g6pD* for glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (Supplementary Fig.2b).
140
We, therefore, directed our attention to the twenty-three essential genes that, when deleted, led to
severe growth defects in the resultant mutants. These twenty-three genes encoding components
of diverse pathways, include the eight subunit genes encoding the F1Fo-ATPase (*uncE*, *uncB*,
uncF, *uncH*, *uncA*, *uncG*, *uncD*, and *uncC*); *ftsX,* encoding a permease-like cell division protein;
five *fab* genes (*fabH*, *fabK*, *fabG*, *fabF*, and *fabZ*) that are involved in Type-II fatty acid
synthesis (FAS II); two ribosomal protein genes (*rplV* and *rpmH*); two GTPase genes (*obgE* and
yihA); *yqeG,* encoding a YqeG-family phosphatase; *pfkA*, encoding 6-phosphofructokinase,
involved in glycolysis; *pngM*, encoding phosphoglucomutase; *dpcK* (also called *coaE*), encoding
diphospho-CoA kinase, involved in CoA synthesis; and *dnaK*, encoding a heat shock protein
chaperone. These genes are widely distributed and are essential in various genera and species
(http://www.essentialgene.org/). [35] In total, we have created 23 essential gene mutants, each with
an individual gene deletion, along with one mutant deleted for the entire *f1fo* region encoding the
eight F1Fo-ATPase subunits, which we have named Δ*f1fo* (Supplementary Fig.1 and S2a.1-a.2).
Although the deletion mutants of the 23 genes were initially generated under anaerobic
conditions in this study, we have confirmed the viability of mutants under both anaerobic
(Supplementary Fig.3a) and microaerobic (Supplementary Fig.3b) conditions, as utilized
previously for identification of essential genes in *S. sanguinis* SK36. [1] To further verify that the
viability of these 24 gene deletion mutants was not due to the absence of oxygen, we randomly
selected three essential gene deletions—*pfkA*, *dpcK*, and the entire *f1fo* region—and confirmed
that we were able to obtain viable, though extremely slow-growing, target gene deletion mutants
under microaerobic conditions as well (data not shown).
162
In order to study the evolution of gene essentiality, we conducted passage experiments using
multiple independently evolved populations of the 24 essential gene mutants. To form a
population, we selected three to five colonies from the selection medium, combined them into a
single inoculum, and subjected them to passage in BHI by 1:20 serial transfer. To ensure a
comparable number of generations, we closely monitored the growth of mutants during each
passage. We proceeded to the following passage only when the cell cultures had reached an
OD_{600} within the range of 0.1-0.5. As a control, WT cells, which reached an OD_{600} of
approximately 1.0 within 24 hours of growth, or 2-10 times more cells compared to the mutants
in each passage, were passaged daily for a total of nine times (Fig. 1c). This method was applied
to maintain consistency throughout the experimental process (Fig. 1d, Supplementary Fig.3c, and
Supplemental Table 2). While all mutants exhibited significant growth defects compared to WT,
we observed variations in their growth phenotypes. Notably, mutants lacking *pfkA, fabK, fabG,*
fabF, and *fabZ* displayed the most severe growth defects. In contrast, the growth of others,

including another *fab* mutant, *fabH,* was less severe, as evidenced by the OD_{600} measurements of
the evolved mutants (Fig. 1c and Supplementary Fig.3c, Supplemental Table 2). In our passage
experiments, we observed that the mutants in passage 6 (P6, "P" for passage) exhibited enhanced
fitness compared to those in early passages. For example, the time required for cultures to reach
an OD_{600} of 0.1-0.5 in P0 compared to P6 (Fig. 1d, Supplemental Table 3) indicated faster
growth at P6, reflecting improved fitness.
182
183 **Identification of suppressor loci in evolved populations deleted of essential genes and in**
184 **WT**
185
To identify suppressor mutations in the evolved populations deleted of essential genes, we
performed whole-genome sequencing at P6 (Fig. 1c). Specifically, we sequenced between two
and twenty-five independently evolved populations for each of the twenty-four essential gene
mutants, resulting in a total of 243 populations (Fig. 2a and Supplemental Table 4). As controls,
we also sequenced six populations of WT, which were generated by aliquoting into six separate
tubes and passaging nine times, as well as the original WT (Fig. 2a and Supplemental Table 4).
192
We first considered mutations related to duplications of genes other than the essential gene
targeted for mutagenesis. Of the 243 evolved mutant populations, we found that twelve (4.9%)
displayed gene duplications of various sizes, ranging from 10 kb to 310 kb. By comparison, none
of the six evolved WT populations in P9 nor the original parental WT contained a gene
duplication (Supplementary Fig.4a). For the twelve evolved mutant populations with gene
duplications, two were from Δ*f1fo* (*#107* and *#109*) (Fig. 2a and Supplementary Fig.4b), one
from Δ*uncE* (*#2*) (Supplementary Fig.4c), one from Δ*uncH* (*#7*) (Fig. 2c)*,* three from Δ*fabH* (#4,
#6 and #14) (Fig. 2d and Supplementary Fig.4d and S4e), one from Δ*fabF (#4)* (Fig. 2e)*,* two
from Δ*fabZ* (*#1 and #3*) (Fig. 2f and 2c), one from Δ*obgE* (*#5*) (Fig. 2h) and one from Δ*dpcK*
(*#17*) (Fig. 2i). The duplicated regions found in populations of Δ*f1fo,* Δ*uncE,* Δ*uncH,* Δ*fabH* and
Δ*fabF* mutants encompassed the same ~103 kb region (coordinate: 22,738-125,834) that is
flanked by two directly repeated rRNA operons (Fig. 2b-e). The above-duplicated region of ~103
kb contains 113 ORFs, including nine ORFs encoding the entire V1Vo-ATPase operon that is
related to the proton pump function of F1Fo-ATPase, [36] one ORF encoding acyl carrier protein
and one ORF encoding acyltransferase that is related to lipid biosynthesis. [37] The duplicated
region found in Δ*fabZ#1* spans approximately 143 kb (coordinate: 1,053,488-1,197,391). The
10.1-kb duplication in Δ*fabZ#3* (coordinate: 1,093,824-1,103,958) is within the duplicated 143
kb in Δ*fabZ#1.* This 10.1-kb region contains ten ORFs, including one ORF annotated as acyl-
acyl carrier protein thioesterase, which catalyzes the terminal reaction of fatty acid biosynthesis
(Jing, et al., 2011). In the case of Δ*obgE#5*, a 37-kb duplication is present (coordinate:
1,775,394-1,812,805), encompassing thirty ORFs, including one ORF encoding der GTPase. In
Δ*dpcK#17,* a ~310-kb duplication occurred (coordinate: 385,678-697,581), encompassing 305
ORFs. The flanking sequences of the duplicated regions in Δ*fabZ#1,* Δ*fabZ#3,* Δ*obgE#5* and
Δ*dpcK#17* possessed no notable repeated sequences.
217
218 Next, we assessed substitutions, deletions, and insertions of less than 10 kb in the evolved
219 populations. The genome of *S. sanguinis* can be divided into 4,283 segments—2,340 ORFs and
220 1,943 intergenic regions (Supplemental Table 5). [38] We defined a segment as mutated if any
221 mutation within that segment was present in at least 30% of the sequence reads (see Materials

and Methods section). We selected 30% as the threshold based on our finding that confirmed suppressor mutations, such as *trkA1-H1*, ranged from 34.8% to 100% in the evolved Δ*f1fo* populations in P6 (Fig. 4d and Supplemental Table 4). There were six mutations (two substitution mutations and four deletion mutations from the six evolved populations), where two to four ORFs were affected by each mutation. For example, the C to T (at coordinate 1,313,563) mutation in Δ*fabF#10* caused amino substitutions of two overlapping ORFs encoding two hypothetical proteins (Supplemental Table 4). The remaining mutations fell within single segments of ORFs or intergenic regions. In total, we detected 1,272 mutated segments (Supplemental Table 4), with 1,260 from evolved populations lacking essential genes and twelve from the evolved WT populations (Supplemental Table 4). Our analysis revealed that each of the 243 (100%) evolved mutant populations contained at least one mutated segment, with the majority containing from 2 to 10 (Fig. 2j and Supplemental Table 4-6). In contrast, among the six evolved WT populations, four had at least one segment containing a mutation in at least 30% of the sequence reads, while the remaining two, as well as the parental WT population, had none (Fig. 2j and Supplemental Table 4). Furthermore, when we set the threshold to 50%, 241 evolved mutant populations, or 99.2%, had mutated segments, whereas none of the six evolved WT populations contained mutated segments (Fig. 2k and Supplemental Table 7) ($\chi 2=154.69$, df=1, n=249 populations, p=2.2e-16).

We then analyzed the presence of mutated segments belonging to essential ORFs (in each case, excluding the ORF that was intentionally deleted in each mutant, as well as the nine conditionally essential genes). We found that suppressor mutations belonging to essential segments were present in at least one evolved population from each essential gene mutant (Fig. 2l and Supplemental Table 8-9). In contrast, none of the twelve mutated segments from the evolved WT populations were found to be within an essential ORF (Fig. 2l and Supplemental Table 8-9) ($\chi 2=5.74$, df=1, n=25 groups, p=0.017). To illustrate this further, we compared the frequency of mutated segments in P1 and P6 for two specific cases: mutations of *ftsZ* (an essential segment encoding a structural homolog of tubulin in prokaryotes) in the evolved Δ*f1fo#107* and *uncH* (an essential segment, encoding delta subunit of F1Fo-ATPase) in the evolved Δ*uncC#1*. The *uncH* gene is located 3.9 kb upstream of *uncC*, both of which are within the *f1fo* operon. The evolved Δ*uncC#1* population of P1 did not have any *uncH* mutations using 30% as the cutoff, although an *uncH* mutation was present in 12% of the sequence reads (Supplementary Fig.5a-c). In contrast, the Δ*uncC#1* population of P6 contained 86% *uncH* mutation (Supplementary Fig.5d-f) The resultant mutation replaced a 207-bp segment that was 51 bp downstream of the *uncH* start codon with an 82-bp fragment, causing early truncation (Supplementary Fig.5g). For the second case, the *ftsZ* gene is located approximately 126 kb upstream of the *f1fo* operon. In the evolved Δ*f1fo#107* population in P1, we did not detect any mutations in the *ftsZ* segment using 30% abundance as cutoff, although 27% of the sequence reads contained a *ftsZ* mutation (Supplementary Fig.5g-h). In comparison, the evolved population of P6 contained 100% mutated *ftsZ*—a 248 bp insertion located 1015 bp downstream of the start codon (Supplementary Fig.5I-J), leading to the truncation of the FtsZ protein (Supplementary Fig.5k). These findings demonstrate an increase of mutated essential segments in the essential gene deletion mutant due to selection during passage.

Multi-drug resistance across ESKAPE pathogens (i.e., *Enterococcus faecium*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Acinetobacter baumannii*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, and

Enterobacter spp.) has been found to be commonly associated with mutations in six genes—
namely, *rrs, gyrA, gyrB, rpoB, rpsL* and *rsmG* (also known as *gidB*). [39] We therefore asked
whether mutations in the typical set of multi-drug resistance-associated genes [39] could appear in
the evolved populations deleted of essential genes. Apart from the 16S rRNA gene, which is
present in four copies (*rrs1* to *rrs4*), *S. sanguinis* has one copy of each of these genes. Among
the 243 evolved populations deleted of essential genes, mutations of multi-drug resistance genes
were present in *rrs2*, *rpoB*, *gyrB,* and *rspL* in a variety of populations derived from different
essential gene mutants, while no mutations were detected in *rrs1*, *rrs3*, *rrs4*, *gyrA* or *rsmG*.
Moreover, no mutation was detected within this set of multi-drug resistance-associated genes in
the evolved WT populations (Fig. 2m and Supplemental Table 10). These results showed that
missense mutations in four of the same genes that promote multi-drug resistance also improve
the fitness of mutants deleted of these particular essential genes.
280
281 In summary, compared to the evolved WT populations, mutants deleted for essential genes
282 exclusively evolve gene duplications of greater than 10 kb, mutations in essential genes, and
283 mutations of genes associated with multi-drug resistance. In addition, once mutations are
284 observed, they are more quickly fixed in the population (Fig. 2k).
285
286 **Construction of a network using WT and essential gene deletion mutants and their**
287 **suppressors**
288
To explore the relationships of suppressor mutations from the evolved populations, we
established a network of 25 groups, comprising the 24 mutants deleted for essential genes, along
with SK36, and their respective evolved suppressors across 249 populations (243 populations
from mutants and six populations from SK36). In these 249 populations, 1,272 mutations
occurred in 592 distinct segments, with 503 segments belonging to ORFs and 89 belonging to
intergenic regions (Fig. 3a, Supplemental Table 4, and Supplemental Table 11-13). This network
also encompasses a total of 914 edges connecting these 617 nodes (Fig. 3a and Supplemental
Table 11-13).
297
Some mutations discovered in the evolved WT also appeared in evolved mutant populations. The
twelve mutations occurred in ten distinctive segments, with 5 segments specific to WT and 5
shared with populations derived from essential gene mutants. Notably, the ORF J1C87_09360,
annotated as PTS mannose/fructose/sorbose transporter family subunit IID, exhibited mutations
in two of the six evolved WT populations. This result is consistent with a previous study in
SK36, where fitness improvement was associated with mutations in three ORFs of the same
operon (J1C87_09355, J1C87_09360, and J1C87_09365). [40] In the current study, mutations in
the three OFRs were also observed in mutant populations of Δ*uncH*, Δ*fabG*, Δ*fabK*, Δ*fabF,*
Δ*fabZ, and* Δ*pfkA* (Supplementary Fig.6a-b and Supplemental Table 14). Interestingly, most of
the evolved populations that contain suppressor mutations in the three PTS
mannose/fructose/sorbose transporter subunits are also those that showed the most severe growth
defects, such as Δ*fabG*, Δ*fabK*, Δ*fabF*, Δ*fabZ, and* Δ*pfkA* (Fig. 1d and Supplementary Fig.3c).
These results demonstrate that mutations in some segments that apparently improved fitness in
WT could also contribute to the fitness improvement of essential gene mutants.
312

Mutations in some segments that were present in evolved populations deleted of one essential
gene also appeared in evolved populations of other mutants deleted of another essential gene. For
example, most populations of the mutant deleted for the entire *f1fo* region (*Δf1fo*) and the eight
F1Fo subunits deletion mutants (Δ*uncE*, Δ*uncB*, Δ*uncF*, Δ*uncH*, Δ*uncA*, Δ*uncG*, Δ*uncD* and
Δ*uncC*) contain suppressor mutations in J1C87_08610 (*trkA1*) and J1C87_08615 (*trkH1*) (Fig.
3a). Mutations in many F1Fo subunits are shared among the evolved populations of various other
subunit deletion mutants (Fig. 3a and Supplemental Table 4). Furthermore, many of the
suppressor mutations in type II fatty acid synthesis (FAS II) gene mutants, such as Δ*fabZ*, Δ*fabF*,
Δ*fabG*, Δ*fabK* and Δ*fabH* and those in the CoA biosynthesis mutant Δ*dpcK*, occur in the same
ORFs related to fatty acid biosynthesis, including essential genes like acetyl-CoA carboxylase
carboxyl transferase subunit alpha (J1C87_09410: *accA*) and acetyl-CoA carboxylase biotin
carboxylase subunit (J1C87_09420: *accC*) (Fig. 3a). Similarly, the suppressors identified in the
populations of two ribosomal protein mutants *(ΔrpmH* and Δ*rplV*) and two GTPase mutants
(Δ*yihA* and Δ*obgE*) include mutations in 50S ribosomal protein gene *rplB* (J1C87_00620) and
RNA biosynthesis genes, such as *rpoB* (J1C87_01040) (Fig. 3a and Supplemental Table 4).
These findings indicate that mutated segments shared across multiple evolved mutants can confer
fitness benefits to mutants deleted of different essential genes.
330
We also observed mutual suppressors, where an evolved population deleted of the first essential
ORF contained a mutated segment within a second essential ORF, while an evolved population
deleted of the second essential ORF contained a mutated segment within the first essential ORF.
For example, in the *obgE* deletion mutant *(ΔobgE)*, a mutation in *dnaK* occurred (Fig. 3a and
Supplemental Table 4); conversely, in Δ*dnaK*, a mutated segment of *obgE* was detected (Fig. 3a
and Supplemental Table 4). Similarly, in the F1Fo subunit deletion mutant Δ*uncF*, a mutation of
dpcK was also present (Fig. 3a and Supplemental Table 4). In Δ*dpcK*, mutated segments were
detected within *uncA* and *uncD* (Fig. 3a and Supplemental Table 4). Other mutual suppressor
pairs include those between subunits of F1Fo (Fig. 3a and Supplemental Table 4) and between
components of the FASII system (Fig. 3a and Supplemental Table 4). These results suggest the
presence of positive epistasis interactions between different essential gene(s), where strains
containing mutations in both essential genes are fitter than those containing mutations in either of
the essential genes.
344
345   **Possible explanations for parallel suppressor evolution in mutants deleted for particular**
346   **essential genes**
347
Given the potential role of parallel evolution for fitness improvement,[41-43] we next sought to
identify the most commonly mutated segments for each essential gene mutant and those
clustered in a particular operon. Utilizing these highly occurring suppressors (Supplemental
Table 4 and Supplemental Table 16), along with candidate genes within duplicated regions (Fig.
2b-h), we aimed to elucidate the mechanisms by which they improved the growth of mutants
deleted for essential genes.
354
Δf1fo suppressors
F1Fo is proposed to function as an ATP-dependent proton pump in streptococci, including *S.*
mutans and *S. sanguinis*.[44] Mutations in *trkA1* or *trkH1* are present in all thirteen evolved
populations of Δ*f1fo*, with twelve populations containing *trkH1* mutations and one containing a

trkA1 mutation (Fig. 3b and Supplementary Fig.7, Supplemental Table 4 and Supplemental
Table 16). Similarly, mutations in *trkA1*, *trkH1*, or a one base pair (bp) insertion mutation
located 38 bp upstream of the *trkA1-H1* operon (P_trkA1-H1, "P" for promoter) are found in
twenty-five out of twenty-six (96.2%) of the evolved populations deleted of single F1Fo subunits
(Fig. 3b and Supplementary Fig.7, Supplemental Table 4 and Supplemental Table 16). Among
the twenty-three mutations in the ORFs of *trkA1-H1*, sixteen populations have *trkH1* mutations,
and eight have *trkA1* mutations. Given the comparable length of *trkA1* (1350 bp) and *trkH1*
(1440 bp), it appears that mutations in the *trkH1* gene are more likely than mutations in *trkA1* to
improve the fitness of mutants deleted for F_1F_o subunits.
368
We also observed that gene duplications occurred in the same region across populations deleted
of all F1Fo subunits or single subunits, i.e., Δ*flfo#107* and *#109* (Fig. 2b and Supplementary
Fig.4b), Δ*uncE#2* (Supplementary Fig.4c) and Δ*uncH#7* (Fig. 2c). This region of approximately
103 kb (coordinates: 22,738-125,834) contains the *v1vo* operon encoding the V1Vo-ATPase,
which has been proposed to function as a proton pump [36] and may compensate for the loss of
flfo. It is interesting to note that Δ*uncH#7* is the only evolved population listed above that lacks
mutations in the flanking upstream regions or the ORFs of *trkA1* or *trkH1* (Fig. 2c). More
interestingly, among the evolved populations deleted of F_1F_o subunits (thirteen Δ*flfo* and twenty-
six mutants deleted for single *unc* subunit genes), Δ*uncE#2* and Δ*uncH#7* are the only two
populations that contain amino acid substitution mutations of V-type ATP synthase subunits
(Supplemental Table 4 and Supplemental Table 16).
380
381   Suppressor mutations appeared in other F1Fo subunits or intergenic regions of *flfo* in many
382   evolved populations deleted of a single subunit (Fig. 3b and Supplementary Fig.7). This result
383   suggests that for the F_1F_o complex, when one subunit is absent, other subunits cannot function
384   properly and their presence is detrimental to the mutant.
385
386   Given that V1Vo may also function as an ATP-dependent proton pump [36] and the Trk system
387   works as a symporter (K+/Na+ or K+/H+), [45] we hypothesize that *v1vo* can partially compensate
388   for the loss of *flfo*, that TrkA1-H1 is the major contributor to acidification of the cytosol when
389   pumping in K+, and that the function of TrkA1-H1 must therefore be inhibited when F1Fo is not
390   present (Supplementary Fig.11).
391
ΔftsX suppressors
FtsEX is crucial in regulating divisome assembly and activation at the plasma membrane and cell
wall. [46] In the evolved *ΔftsX* populations, mutations in the *ftsE* gene of the *ftsEX* operon and the
vicRK (vicK/walK and vicR/walR) two-component system (TCS) frequently occurred (Fig. 3b
and Supplementary Fig.7). Mutations in *ftsE* were present in eight out of nineteen evolved *ΔftsX*
populations (42.1%); in one of these populations, *ΔftsX#13*, a deletion mutation at 51 bp of the
693 bp *ftsE* ORF leads to a frameshift in the N-terminal region (Fig. 3b and Supplementary
Fig.7). This observation suggests that in the absence of *ftsX*, *ftsE* does not function properly and
is deleterious to the cell. Although *vicR* and *vicK* compose a TCS, *vicK* is not essential, while
vicR is essential. [1,47] Fifteen populations contained *vicK* mutations (with one frameshift and one
truncation), and one population contained a *vicR* mutation (an amino acid substitution, M54V),
collectively representing 89.5% of the evolved populations (Fig. 3b and Supplementary Fig.7,
Supplemental Table 4 and Supplemental Table 16). It was reported that FtsEX interacts with the

cell wall component peptidoglycan hydrolase, PcsB, which is positively regulated by the
vicRK/walRK two-component regulatory system. [48] Therefore, we hypothesize that when FtsEX
is absent and PcsB cannot function properly, there is a need to inhibit the activity of PcsB's
upstream regulatory factor, VicRK.
409
fab operon suppressors
The *fabH, fabF, fabG, fabZ, and fabK* genes belong to a FASII operon containing thirteen ORFs
in total, with a MarR family transcriptional regulator gene (*fabT*) upstream and seven other
genes. In the evolved populations of Δ*fabZ,* Δ*fabF,* Δ*fabG,* Δ*fabK,* and Δ*fabH*, we observed a
significant enrichment of mutations in genes encoding components of the FASII system (Fig. 3b
and Supplementary Fig.7, Supplemental Table 4, and Supplemental Table 16). This result
suggests that when one component of the FASII system is deleted, this can trigger genome
changes in other FASII components, leading to fitness improvement.
418
There is a notable number of populations containing a duplication of approximately 103 kb
(coordinate: 22,738-125,834) in the Δ*fabH,* Δ*fabF,* and Δ*fabG* mutants, which includes one ORF
encoding an acyltransferase and one ORF encoding acyl carrier protein. Additionally, a
duplicated region of 10.1 kb (coordinate: 1,093,824-1,103,958) is shared by Δ*fabZ #1* and Δ*fabZ*
#3 and contains acyl-acyl carrier protein thioesterase. We hypothesize that these duplications
may enhance fatty acid synthesis when *fabK, fabZ, fabH, fabF, or fabG* is defective.
425
Δ*dpcK suppressors*
DPCK is the final enzyme in the five-step pathway for CoA biosynthesis. [49] In the evolved
Δ*dpcK* populations, mutations ≤100 bp upstream of *acpS* (encoding holo-ACP synthase) are
present in eleven of the seventeen Δ*dpcK* populations. Holo-ACP synthase, responsible for
covalent attachment of CoA to acyl carrier protein, uses CoA as a substrate for fatty acid
biosynthesis. [50] Among the seventeen populations, one population, Δ*dpcK#17,* contained a gene
duplication; we were not able to identify the gene(s) responsible for improved growth due to the
large size of the duplication (>300 kb, containing 305 ORFs; Fig. 2i). We hypothesize that holo-
ACP synthase is a significant contributor to the use of CoA, and when there is a shortage of
CoA, fatty acid production needs to be reduced by lessening the expression of *acpS* (Fig. 3b and
Supplementary Fig.7, Supplemental Table 4 and Supplemental Table 15). Consistent with the
fitness improvement of Δ*dpcK* by reducing CoA usage, seven out of the seventeen Δ*dpcK*
populations contain mutations in the FASII operon (Fig. 3b and Supplementary Fig.7;
Supplemental Table 15).
440
Δ*pfkA suppressors*
pfkA encodes 6-phosphofructokinase (PFK), responsible for catalyzing the phosphorylation of
fructose-6-phosphate to fructose-1,6-bisphosphate, a committing step in glycolysis. [51] In the
evolved Δ*pfkA* populations, we observed an enrichment of mutations in *fruR, fruB,* and *glck*.
Among the ten Δ*pfkA* evolved populations (Fig. 3b and Supplementary Fig.7; Supplemental
Table 4, and Supplemental Table 15), six populations contained mutations in *fruR*, five
populations had mutations in *fruB*, and nine populations had mutations in *glcK*. The *glcK* gene
encodes an ROK domain-containing glucokinase, which phosphorylates glucose to produce
glucose-6-phosphate, a progenitor of fructose-6-phosphate. [52] The *fruR* gene encodes a
transcriptional repressor of the *fruBA* operon, while *fruB* (also known as *pfkB*) has been

demonstrated to function as a 1-phosphofructokinase in multiple bacterial species, [53] including
streptococci. [54] Interestingly, the nature of the mutations differed according to the gene; three of
the eleven *glcK* mutations were truncations, and four of the seven *fruR* mutations were
truncations or frameshift mutations, while none of the seven *fruB* mutations were truncations or
frameshifts (Supplemental Table 4 and Supplemental Table 15).
456
We hypothesize that in the absence of *pfkA*, accumulated fructose-6-phosphate becomes toxic, as
has been shown previously in other bacterial species. [53] Elimination of GlcK activity would
reduce fructose-6-phosphate production. We further hypothesize that FruB possesses low levels
of fructose-6-phosphate kinase activity, thus replacing PfkA, but only when the expression of
fruB is increased due to *fruR* mutation or the fructose-6-phosphate kinase activity of FruB is
increased due to alteration of its sequence. This mechanism would be similar to findings in *E.*
coli, where a mutation that increased *fruB* expression was found to suppress the phenotype of
Δ*pfkA* mutants. [55,56]
465
ΔobgE suppressors
ObgE belongs to the TRAFAC (Translation Factor Association) class of P-loop GTPases, which
is highly conserved and essential in bacteria. [57] The ObgE GTPase is known to play a wide range
of functions, with some of the most significant roles including sporulation initiation in *Bacillus*
subtilis, [58] aerial mycelium formation in *Streptomyces*, [59,60] bacterial persistence in *E. coli* and
Pseudomonas aeruginosa, [61] involvement in ribosome biogenesis, [62,63] participation in DNA
replication, [64-66] and contributions to chromosome segregation and cell division. [67]
473
Among the fourteen evolved Δ*obgE* populations, eight populations had substitution mutations
upstream of *rpoB* (seven were an A to T mutation 321 bp upstream of the start codon, and the
other was an A to G mutation 24 bp upstream), and two populations contained substitution
mutations within the *rpoB* ORF (one at 905 bp and the other at 1058 bp from the start of the
3567 bp ORF). In total, 71.4% of the populations had mutations within or upstream of *rpoB* (Fig.
3b and Supplementary Fig.7; Supplemental Table 4 and Supplemental Table 15). The *rpoB* gene
codes for the beta-subunit of RNA polymerase I. In one of these populations, Δ*obgE#5*, a 37 kb
gene duplication was observed (coordinate: 1,775,394-1,812,805), encompassing thirty ORFs,
including one annotated as Der GTPase. It was reported that overexpression of *der* or *obgE* can
suppress growth defects of a mutant lacking *rrmJ* that encodes the methyltransferase for U2552
of the 23S rRNA. [68] From this, we hypothesize that the duplication may partially compensate for
the loss of ObgE function by increasing *der* copy numbers, and a reduction in RNA synthesis is a
significant fitness adaptation when ObgE is defective.
487
488 *WT and other mutant suppressors*
489 Suppressor mutations in the evolved populations of Δ*pngM, ΔyqeG, ΔdnaK, ΔyihA, ΔrpmH,*
490 *ΔrplV,* and WT are less easily explained, and further study is required to identify possible
491 mechanisms (Supplementary Fig.7 and Supplemental Table 15).
492
493 **Testing the working model involving *f1fo, v1vo, trkA1-H1* and *trkA2-H2***
494

495   To test the hypotheses proposed above, we have chosen F1Fo-ATPase, an evolutionarily ancient
496   enzyme complex that is highly conserved across virtually all forms of cellular life [69] and has
497   been reported as essential for entire genus of the streptococcal species. [35]
498
We began by testing whether increasing copy numbers of *v1vo* contributes to the fitness
improvement of the mutant deleted for the entire F1Fo complex or single subunits. To explore
this, we examined the gene duplication of the *v1vo* region at the early stage, P1 in the four
populations that contain gene duplications at P6 (Fig. 2b-c, Supplementary Fig.4b-c, and
Supplementary Fig.8a). Among these four populations, one had the gene duplication at P1, while
the other three acquired the duplication during subsequent passages (Figure 4a and
Supplementary Fig.8a). This observation indicates that gene duplications of the *v1vo* region
evolved in these populations after initial passages.
507
508   To further confirm the increased fitness of *v1vo* region duplications in populations lacking *f1fo*,
509   we subcultured five *Δf1fo#4* populations from the P6 stage, which did not initially contain gene
510   duplications in the *v1vo* region. After nine additional passages (P15), we observed that two out
511   of the five evolved populations had *v1vo* region duplications in P15 (Fig. 4b and Supplementary
512   Fig.8a).
513
To ascertain the fitness improvement by increasing *v1vo* copy numbers in mutants lacking *f1fo*,
we tested whether *v1vo* could be deleted in *Δf1fo*. We first deleted the entire *v1vo*, which consists
of nine subunits, to generate the *Δv1vo* mutant in the WT background. This *Δv1vo* mutant grew
indistinguishably from the wild type in a rich medium (data not shown), demonstrating that *v1vo*
can be deleted when *f1fo* is intact (Fig. 4c). However, when we attempted to delete *v1vo* in
Δf1fo#4, where *f1fo* was removed, it resulted in a double-band genotype in all five *Δv1vo-*
DB/Δf1fo#4 ("DB" for double-band) lines tested (Fig. 4c and Supplementary Fig.9). Consistent
with these findings, Δ*uncE#2* and Δ*uncH#7*, which contain amino acid substitution mutations of
V1Vo ATP synthase subunit A and K in the *v1vo* operon, respectively, also contain *v1vo* region
duplications (Supplemental Table 4). This finding indicates that increased copy numbers of the
v1vo genes compensated for the loss of F1Fo function. Overall, these results suggest that
increasing the copy numbers of *v1vo* contributes to the fitness improvement of mutants lacking
f1fo.
527
We then investigated the impact of inhibiting *trkA1-H1* on enhancing the fitness of *Δf1fo*.
Initially, we compared the occurrence of *trkA1-H1* mutations between P1 and P6 stages across
twelve independently evolved populations of *Δf1fo* (*#101* to *#112*). While mutations in the *trkA1*
or *trkH1* segments were not detected in P1 using a 30% threshold in nine of the twelve
populations, we observed *trkA1-H1* mutations in all populations, with the mutation frequency
increasing during passage in all six independently evolved populations (Fig. 4d and Table S17).
These mutations resulted in at least one frameshift and various substitutions in the translation of
TrkA1 or TrkH1 in six populations, while in the remaining populations, they led to a histidine
insertion or various substitutions in the TrkH1 protein (Supplemental Table 16). This data
indicates the fixation of *trkA1-H1* mutations during passage.
538
To further investigate the impact of *trkA1-H1*, we compared the growth of *Δf1fo* in the presence
and absence of *trkA1-H1*. *S. sanguinis* SK36 has two Trk systems, *trkA1-H1* and *trkA2-H2*. The

growth of *trkH2*, or double-gene deletion mutants of *trkA1-H1* or *trkA2-H2,* were
indistinguishable from that of WT (Fig. 4e, Supplementary Fig.10a-f and Supplemental Table
17). However, combined deletion of either *trkA1* or *trkH1* along with *trkH2* resulted in growth
defects (Fig. 5e-g, Supplementary Fig.10g-h, and Supplemental Table 17), indicating that *trkA1-*
H1 and *trkA2-H2* are redundant for growth. In order to determine the effect of mutating the two
Trk systems on the fitness of *Δf1fo*, we transformed the *Δf1fo* construct into the backgrounds of
*ΔtrkA1-H1*or *ΔtrkA2-H2*, and compared the growth of the *Δf1fo/ ΔtrkA1-H1* mutant and that of
Δf1fo/ΔtrkA2-H2. As controls, we also included *Δf1fo#4*, which contains a frameshift mutation of
ΔtrkH1 in the *Δf1fo* background (Supplemental Table 4). It showed that while the growth of
Δf1fo#4 and *Δf1fo/ΔtrkA1-H1* were comparable to each other, the growth of *Δf1fo/ΔtrkA2-H2*
was significantly inhibited compared to that of *Δf1fo#4* and *Δf1fo/ΔtrkA1-H1*. (Fig. 4f-g and
Supplemental Table18). These findings suggest that inhibiting *trkA1-H1*, but not *trkA2-H2*,
contributes to the fitness improvement of evolved mutants deleted for *f1fo*.
554
In lactic acid bacteria, F1Fo-ATPase is believed to function by pumping out protons to alkalinize
the cytosol or to build negative internal and positive external membrane potentials. [70] To test
whether the growth defects in the *S. sanguinis Δf1fo* mutant are due to impaired function in
alkalinizing the cytosol or building a membrane potential, we compared the growth of *Δf1fo#4* in
a rich medium supplemented with lactic acid (which increases membrane potential and cytosolic
proton concentration) or NaOH (which lowers membrane potential and cytosolic proton
concentration). We observed that *Δf1fo#4* is susceptible to lactic acid treatment compared to WT
(Fig. 4h and Supplemental Table 18). Conversely, the growth defect of *Δf1fo#4* can be partially
rescued by NaOH within a certain range (Fig. 4i and Supplemental Table 18). These results
suggest that *f1fo* in *S. sanguinis* functions by pumping out protons to alkalinize the cytosol.
565
We therefore suggest the following model for the relationship of *f1fo* with *v1vo, trkA1-H1,* and
trkA2-H2 (Supplementary Fig.11). For streptococci, which do not contain the tricarboxylic acid
cycle or electron transport chain, energy production is mainly through lactic acid fermentation. [71]
The lactate from fermentation creates highly acidic cytosol, which would be toxic if H+ were not
exported. F1Fo pumps out H+ from the cytosol using ATP. Both TrkA1-H1 and TrkA2-H2 are
potassium transporters and functionally redundant for that purpose. TrkA1-H1 pumps in
potassium together with H+, acidifying the cytosol when H+ is not exported. In contrast, TrkA2-
H2 does not pump protons into the cytosol when pumping in potassium (likely instead pumping
in Na+). Therefore, the function of TrkA1-H1 must be inhibited if F1Fo is not functional.
575
576 **Conserved functional relationships of *f1fo*, *trkA1-H1*, *trkA2-H2* and *v1vo* in different**
577 **streptococci**
578
To generalize the *f1fo* working model and assess F1Fo's essentiality in other strains and species,
we conducted essentiality evaluations in three other streptococci: *S. mutans* UA159, *S. sanguinis*
SK405, and *S. sanguinis* SK1058. Genomic sequencing of *S. mutans* UA159, [72] *S. sanguinis*
SK405 [38,] and *S. sanguinis* SK1058 [38] showed that *f1fo* and *trkA1-H1* are present in all three
strains, as in SK36, while *v1vo* is present in the *S. sanguinis* strains only. *TrkA2-H2* is present in
both *S. sanguinis* SK36 and SK405 but not in *S. sanguinis* SK1058 or *S. mutans* UA159 (Fig.
5a).
586

To assess whether *v1vo* could serve as a partial backup in cases of F1Fo loss-of-function, we
attempted to delete *f1fo* in *S. mutans* UA159, which lacks *v1vo*. Despite multiple attempts and a
total of 64 independent genotyping analyses, none of the transformants were deleted for *f1fo*,
instead producing a double band indicative of gene duplication prior to allelic exchange
(Supplementary Fig.12a-b). This result highlights that in *S. mutans* UA159, lacking *v1vo, f1fo*
cannot be deleted in our conditions. This observation supports the evolutionarily conserved
relationship between *f1fo* and *v1vo* observed in other streptococcal species.
594
We then investigated the impact of deleting *trkA1-H1* in the other two strains: *S. sanguinis*
SK1058, which only possesses *trkA1-H1*, and *S. sanguinis* SK405, which has both *trkA1-H1* and
trkA2-H2. Our findings showed that *trkA1-H1* mutants exhibited severe growth defects in the
SK1058 background compared to the SK405 background (Fig. 5d-e; Supplementary Fig.13a-c).
This result demonstrates the requirements of the *Trk* system for growth within the species of *S.*
sanguinis.
601
Next, we investigated the possibility of deleting *f1fo* in *S. sanguinis* SK1058 and SK405, both of
which contain *v1vo* and *trkA1-H1*. We could generate *f1fo* whole-region deletion mutants (*Δf1fo*)
in both SK1058 and SK405 backgrounds (Fig. 5b, 5c, Supplementary Fig.14). Furthermore, the
growth of mutants with *f1fo* deletions in SK405 was notably better than in SK1058 (Fig. 5b, 5d-
f; Supplemental Table 19). To explore the potential emergence of *trkA1-H1* suppressor mutations
during evolution, we conducted passage experiments using independently evolved populations
with *f1fo* deletions in SK405 (Supplementary Fig.14a: three populations) and in SK1058
(Supplementary Fig.14b: two populations). It was observed that, after six passages, *trkA1-H1*
suppressor mutations appeared in all evolved *Δf1fo* populations in SK405 and SK1058 (Fig. 5e).
At least one population each in the SK405 and SK1058 backgrounds are frameshift or truncation
mutations of *trkA1-H1* (Fig. 5g and Supplemental Table 20). This result underscores the
evolutionarily conserved occurrence of *trkA1-H1* suppressor mutations in evolved populations
with *f1fo* deletions.
615
616 **Discussion**
617
While identifying genes that interact with essential genes or compensate for their loss provides a
great benefit, [4] this task remains challenging, primarily due to the unavailability of essential-gene
deletion mutants and systematic methodologies to connect the function of essential genes with
their partners. Traditional approaches, such as conditional promoter-shutoff[73,74], antisense RNA
knockdowns [48] and CRISPR interference, [75,76] while valuable, may exhibit limitations, including
incomplete target gene silencing and suboptimal design efficacy, [76] thereby potentially
compromising the reliability of essential gene functional analyses. Our study successfully
established a system to generate viable mutants with deletions in essential genes (Fig. 1 and
Supplementary Fig.1-S2). We observed that small colonies likely represent the deletion mutants,
while large colonies often exhibit the "double-band" genotype or kanamycin resistance due to
mutations in translational machinery.
629
With these observations, we have generated essential gene deletion mutants, many of which are
also essential across multiple species (http://www.essentialgene.org/). These essential gene
mutants provide an invaluable resource for dissecting the functions of essential genes. Using

these twenty-four essential gene mutants and WT as controls, we identified over 1000
spontaneous suppressor mutations in passage experiments (Fig. 2). Leveraging these essential
gene mutants and distinct mutated segments, we constructed a functional network (Fig. 3a).
Within this network, we made several noteworthy observations. 1) Mutated segments that
appeared in the evolved WT population can also appear in the evolved populations of mutants
with deletions of essential genes, such as mutations in the PTS mannose/fructose/sorbose
transporter family subunit. 2) Suppressor mutations in certain genes, such as *rpoB* and *rpsL,* that
are found in the evolved populations of one deletion mutant can also be present in the evolved
populations of other mutants (Supplemental Table 4). 3) Mutual essential gene suppressor
mutations were discovered, where mutations in the first essential gene were found within a
mutant population deleted for the second essential gene, and vice versa.
644
As expected, our findings support the notion that mutants with deletions of essential genes face
stronger selective pressures when compared to that of the WT. These mutants are more likely to
undergo the following significant evolutionary changes. 1) Gene duplications of greater than 10
kb: Our data revealed large-scale gene duplications exclusively were present in mutants deleted
of essential genes (Fig. 2b-h). 2) Substitutions, insertions, and deletions of less than 10 kb:
Small-scale mutations, especially those of >50% of sequence reads, were more common in
mutants deleted for essential genes (Fig. 2i). 3) Mutations in essential genes: Mutations in other
essential genes were observed more exclusively in mutants deleted for an essential gene (Fig.
2k). 4) Mutations in multi-drug resistance genes: mutations of multi-drug resistance-associated
genes, such as *rpoB* and *rpsL,* are present in several evolved populations deleted for essential
genes, suggesting a shared selective pressure resulting from drug treatment and deletion of
essential genes (Supplemental Table 4). The suppressor mutations identified in our evolved
populations deleted of essential genes may reflect the differential gene essentiality over
evolutionary time in the pan-genome [11] and reproducibly changing gene essentiality across
independently evolving populations. [18]
660
Unexpectedly, as discussed above, for every essential gene mutated, we identified at least one
population containing a suppressor mutation in another essential gene (Fig. 2l). Notably, the
essential genes were inactivated by the suppressor mutation in some of the evolved populations,
such as the >200bp insertion mutation in *ftsZ* in the evolved population of *Δf1fo #107*, the >200
bp deletion mutation of *uncH* in *ΔuncC#1*, and the 1 bp deletion mutation of *ftsE* in *ΔftsX#13*
(Supplemental Table 4). In contrast, for other essential gene mutation suppressors, the mutations
were not within the open reading frame (ORF) but were found within 400 base pairs upstream of
the start codons, likely affecting expression rather than inactivating function. For instance, in the
evolved *ΔdpcK* populations, the suppressors with the highest mutation frequency were located
upstream of the holo-ACP synthase gene, *acpS* (Supplementary Fig.5). Similarly, in the evolved
ΔobgE populations, the majority of mutation suppressors were found upstream of *rpoB*
(Supplementary Fig.5).
673
Essential genes represent ideal drug targets for controlling infectious diseases and cancers. In
traditional medical treatment, the focus has primarily been on targeting a single essential gene
product. However, it's crucial to consider the evolution of gene essentiality during drug treatment
and the development of drug resistance over short-term evolution. We have observed that in
multiple populations deleted of essential genes, mutations in multiple segments appeared within

six passages, including those belonging to multi-drug resistance-associated genes (Fig. 2m).
Considering that some of the suppressor mutations were gene duplications that presumably
confer fitness benefits by increasing gene copy numbers, a promising approach is to target not
only the essential gene itself but also the backup gene. This strategy can help prevent or reduce
the development of drug resistance.
684
To understand the relationships between the structure and function of a protein, it is of great
interest to know which amino acids or domains of the proteins are sensitive to mutations. In this
study, we have observed numerous mutations of *trkA1* and *trkH1* in *Δf1fo* or *f1fo* single subunit
deletion mutants, *vicK* in *ΔftsX*, *fruR* and *glcK* in *ΔpfkA*, as well as *fusA*, *rpsL* and *rplF* in
kanamycin-resistant mutants lacking the *kan* gene (Supplemental Table 1-2). These mutations
represent fitness-related protein sequence changes that improve the growth of resultant mutants
in a particular selective condition.
692
In this work, we have demonstrated the efficacy of the methodology developed for generating
deletion mutants of numerous essential genes in *S. sanguinis* SK36. Furthermore, we have
highlighted the potency of experimental evolution [29,30] in unraveling the mechanisms of gene
essentiality, with a particular focus on *f1fo* in *S. sanguinis* and *S. mutans*. It would be interesting
to test the conservation or divergence of mechanisms governing gene essentiality of other genes,
as well as across different *Streptococcus* species and other genera. While extracting valuable
information by identifying spontaneous suppressor mutations in populations lacking essential
genes is possible, conducting experimental evolution requires caution. First and foremost, the
choice of an appropriate organism is crucial. Ideally, the selected organism should have a single
chromosome, a small genome size, and a rapid cell division rate. Streptococci represent an ideal
candidate in this regard. They possess a single circular genome with a relatively modest size,
typically ranging from 2.0 to 3.0 megabases. [77] This choice contrasts with a previous study that
employed budding yeast with multiple chromosomes [4] where most mutations in populations
lacking essential genes were related to changes in ploidy, which could hinder the identification
of causal suppressors. On the other hand, the identification of mechanisms of genetic suppression
requires caution. For the suppressor mutations of low frequency or these substitution mutations
where we were unable to determine whether the evolved suppressor mutations increase or
decrease the activity of the gene product, further evidence is needed to understand the
mechanisms underlying the evolution of gene essentiality.
712
In general, essential genes tend to be more conserved and evolutionarily ancient compared to
non-essential genes. [54] It is intriguing to consider when genes emerge within a biological system
over time. The suppressor mutations in essential gene mutants, particularly the loss-of-function
mutations, can provide valuable insights into dependency relationships. For instance, the absence
of *f1fo* in a system may hinder the emergence of the *trkA1-H1* system. In cases where essential
genes function as a complex, such as *f1fo* or *ftsEX*, our findings indicate that deletion of one
component may result in additional deleterious effects caused by the remaining subunit(s)
(Supplemental Table 4). This suggests that all subunits of the complex need to be integrated into
the system, at least for these cases. Moreover, understanding the timelines of gene emergence in
a system is also crucial for guiding decisions in synthetic biology, determining which genes, as
well as the order of genes, to be introduced into a system.
724

Materials and Methods

Strains Used and Growth Conditions:
In this study, we primarily utilized *Streptococcus sanguinis* strain SK36. [32] *S. sanguinis* SK405
and SK1058 strains were described previously. [38] *S. mutans* UA159 was obtained from Ann
Progulske-Fox (University of Florida). All bacterial cultures were routinely maintained in a BHI
medium at 37°C under anaerobic conditions, using a Coy anaerobic chamber, or stored at -80 °C
for long-term storage.

Transformation and Mutant Isolation:
To prepare competent cells, *S. sanguinis* was cultured in 1 mL of Todd-Hewitt + HS medium [10]
and incubated overnight in anaerobic conditions at 37°C. The following day, a 5 µL aliquot of
the overnight culture was added to 1 mL of fresh TS+HS medium and incubated for an additional
3 hours.

For creating knockout constructs, we employed 1 kb of homologous 3' and 5' end sequences
flanking the coding sequence (CDS) and resistance genes, *kan* or *Erm*[r], in overlapping extension
PCR (for primers used, see Supplemental Table 21). [32] For transformation, we mixed 50 ng to
500 ng of PCR product DNA with 200 ng of CSP and 300 µL of competent cells. The reactions
continued for 24 hours under anaerobic conditions at 37°C. Subsequently, transformation
reaction mixtures were plated on BHI-agar containing appropriate antibiotics (Kanamycin: 500
µg/mL or Erythromycin: 10 µg/mL) for selection. Once the plates had dried, the cells were
overlaid with a thin layer of agar by adding 1 mL of cooled BHI-agar with antibiotics. The plates
were incubated at 37°C under anaerobic conditions to select transformants for 4 to 5 days.

For genotyping, genomic DNA (gDNA) was isolated from 2 mL of saturated cultures. In brief,
cells were precipitated by centrifugation at 10,000 rpm for 10 minutes at room temperature. They
were then resuspended in 200 µL of resuspension buffer (20 mM EDTA, 200 mM Tris-HCl, and
2% Triton-X 100) and lysed with 200 µL of AL lysis buffer (Qiagen, 19075). DNA was
precipitated by adding 1 mL of 100% ethanol supplemented with 100 mM of sodium acetate.
Following washing and drying, the DNA was dissolved in 100 µL of water and used for PCR
and/or whole-genome sequencing.

To generate deletion mutants *Δf1fo* in *ΔtrkA1-H1* and *ΔtrkA2-H2*, the *ΔtrkA1-H1* and *ΔtrkA2-H2*
mutants were first generated using *Erm*[r] (Supplementary Fig.10). After confirmation of deletion
of *ΔtrkA1-H1* and *ΔtrkA2-H2, Δf1fo* of *kan* resistance construct was subsequentially transformed
into *ΔtrkA1-H1* or *ΔtrkA2-H2.* To generate deletion mutants of both *trkA1-H1* and *trkA2-H2*,
trkA1, trkH1, or *ΔtrkA1-H1* of erythromycin resistance constructs were transformed into a
ΔtrkH2 mutant of kan resistance background (Xu, et al., 2011). To isolate *Δf1fo* and *ΔtrkA1-H1*
mutants in the SK405 and SK1058 strains, we employed the same PCR construct used for
deleting *f1fo* and *trkA1-H1* in SK36, as there is >90% identity at the flanking regions between
SK36, SK1058, and SK405.

Strain Passage:
Antibiotic-resistant colonies from selection plates were transferred to 1 mL of BHI containing
antibiotics and grown for 2 to 8 days under anaerobic conditions at 37°C. The duration depended

on when the OD_{600} reached 0.1-0.5, which was referred to as P0. A 300 μL aliquot of the cell
culture was then transferred to 3 mL of BHI containing antibiotics, and growth continued until
saturation, resulting in P1. P1 was mixed by pipetting five times with a P-1000 pipette, and 50
μL of the mixed P1 was transferred to 1 mL of BHI containing antibiotics. Growth proceeded
until the cell culture reached an OD_{600} of 0.1 to 0.5, producing P2. The latter process was
repeated sequentially from P3 to P6, where the volume of P2 to P5 was 1 mL and the final
passage, P6 was 3 mL. Cell cultures of P1 and P6 were stored at -80°C in glycerol at the final
concentration of 20%. DNA extractions and genome sequencing were conducted in P6 and/or P1
when indicated.
780
781 For passages involving WT, glycerol stocks from -80°C were transferred to 1 mL of BHI and
782 grown for 24 hours, resulting in T0 (see Supplementary Fig.4a). A 50 μL aliquot of T0 cell
783 culture was aliquoted into six 1.5 mL tubes, each containing 1 mL of BHI, and grown for 24
784 hours, resulting in T1. A 50 μL aliquot of T1 cell culture was inoculated into 1 mL of BHI and
785 grown for 24 hours, leading to T2. This process was repeated for T3 to T9.
786
787 *Whole-Genome Sequencing and Variant Calling:*
788 Whole-genome sequencing was carried out by the Genome Core at Virginia Commonwealth
789 University or by SeqCenter (https://www.seqcenter.com/) using the shotgun method with 2x150
790 paired-end sequencing. Whole-genome sequences with an average coverage of ≥200 were used
791 for subsequent analysis.
792
Fastq files were aligned to the SK36 reference genome [16] using Geneious Prime software
(https://www.geneious.com/) after trimming via the BBDuk method. Variations in the genome
were exported from Geneious Prime. To identify the mutated segment, the frequencies
(percentages) of all mutations belonging to a certain segment were assessed and the greatest
value of percentages were assigned to that segment. For the deletions, the read coverages were
calculated by averaging the base coverages that were 100 bp from the flanking sequence. For
network analysis, the software Cytoscape was used.[78]
800
801 **Data and materials availability**
802 All data needed to evaluate the conclusions in the paper are present in the paper and/or the
803 Supplementary files. The genome sequence data will be deposited to BioProject
804 (PRJNA1146876). All the transgenic materials, including the essential gene deletion mutants are
805 available from the authors upon request.
806
807
808 **Contributions**
809
810 L.B. and P.X. conceived the project. L.B., T.K. and P.X. designed the experiments. L.B.
811 constructed all the essential gene mutants and performed all experimental evolution studies. L.B.,
812 T.K., and P.X. analyzed the data with the help of Z.Z., A.I., B.Z., V.A. and M.W. The
813 manuscript was written and revised by L.B., T.K., and P.X.
814
815
816 **Acknowledgments**

817
The authors would like to thank Dr. Mark Running at the Department of Biology, University of
Louisville, Dr. Tomomichi Fujita at the Department of Biological Sciences, Hokkaido
University, Dr. Tim van Opijnen at Broad Institute, MIT and Harvard, and Dr. Yan Bao at the
School of Agriculture and Biology, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, for discussions regarding
experimental design and critical reading of the manuscript. We also thank Dr. Junling Ren at the
Philips Institute for Oral Health Research, Virginia Commonwealth University for help with
network analysis and Ms. Ayana Wyche at Virginia Commonwealth University for assistance
with the culturing of bacteria. We are grateful to Vladimir Lee and Kalyan Maliempati for
genomic sequencing services. This work was funded by grants from the National Institutes of
Health R01DE030121 (P.X. and T.K.) and the CCTR Endowment Fund (P.X.).
828

Declaration of generative AI in scientific writing

During the preparation of this work the authors used ChatGPT-3 in order to improve readability
and language. After using it, the authors reviewed and edited the content as needed and took full
responsibility for the content of the publication.

Declaration of interests

A patent application has been submitted by P.X. and L.B. and the Virginia Commonwealth
University based on these results.

References

1.   Xu, P., Ge, X., Chen, L., Wang, X., Dou, Y., Xu, J.Z., Patel, J.R., Stone, V., Trinh, M.,
Evans, K., et al. (2011). Genome-wide essential gene identification in *Streptococcus*
sanguinis. Scientific reports *1*, 125. 10.1038/srep00125.
2.   Rancati, G., Moffat, J., Typas, A., and Pavelka, N. (2018). Emerging and evolving
concepts in gene essentiality. Nat Rev Genet *19*, 34-49. 10.1038/nrg.2017.74.
3.   Zhang, Z., and Ren, Q. (2015). Why are essential genes essential? - The essentiality of
Saccharomyces genes. Microb Cell *2*, 280-287. 10.15698/mic2015.08.218.
4.   D'Elia, M.A., Pereira, M.P., and Brown, E.D. (2009). Are essential genes really essential?
Trends Microbiol *17*, 433-438. 10.1016/j.tim.2009.08.005.
5.   Brown, E.D., and Wright, G.D. (2016). Antibacterial drug discovery in the resistance era.
Nature *529*, 336-343. 10.1038/nature17042.
6.   Hogan, A.M., and Cardona, S.T. (2022). Gradients in gene essentiality reshape
antibacterial research. FEMS Microbiol Rev *46*. 10.1093/femsre/fuac005.
7.   Costanzo, M., VanderSluis, B., Koch, E.N., Baryshnikova, A., Pons, C., Tan, G., Wang,
W., Usaj, M., Hanchard, J., Lee, S.D., et al. (2016). A global genetic interaction network
maps a wiring diagram of cellular function. Science *353*. 10.1126/science.aaf1420.
8.   Jana, B., Liu, X., Dénéréaz, J., Park, H., Leshchiner, D., Liu, B., Gallay, C., Veening,
J.W., and van Opijnen, T. (2023). CRISPRi-TnSeq: A genome-wide high-throughput tool
for bacterial essential-nonessential genetic interaction mapping. bioRxiv.
10.1101/2023.05.31.543074.

9.   Nijman, S.M. (2011). Synthetic lethality: general principles, utility and detection using
genetic screens in human cells. FEBS Lett *585*, 1-6. 10.1016/j.febslet.2010.11.024.
10.   Leaver, M., Domínguez-Cuevas, P., Coxhead, J.M., Daniel, R.A., and Errington, J.
(2009). Life without a wall or division machine in *Bacillus subtilis*. Nature *457*, 849-853.
10.1038/nature07742.
11.   Mutschler, H., Gebhardt, M., Shoeman, R.L., and Meinhart, A. (2011). A novel
mechanism of programmed cell death in bacteria by toxin-antitoxin systems corrupts
peptidoglycan synthesis. PLoS Biol *9*, e1001033. 10.1371/journal.pbio.1001033.
12.   Li, J., Wang, H.T., Wang, W.T., Zhang, X.R., Suo, F., Ren, J.Y., Bi, Y., Xue, Y.X., Hu,
W., Dong, M.Q., and Du, L.L. (2019). Systematic analysis reveals the prevalence and
principles of bypassable gene essentiality. Nat Commun *10*, 1002. 10.1038/s41467-019-
08928-1.
13.   Larrimore, K.E., and Rancati, G. (2019). The conditional nature of gene essentiality in
Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Curr Opin Genet Dev *58-59*, 55-61.
10.1016/j.gde.2019.07.015.
14.   Liu, G., Yong, M.Y., Yurieva, M., Srinivasan, K.G., Liu, J., Lim, J.S., Poidinger, M.,
Wright, G.D., Zolezzi, F., Choi, H., et al. (2015). Gene Essentiality Is a Quantitative
Property Linked to Cellular Evolvability. Cell *163*, 1388-1399.
10.1016/j.cell.2015.10.069.
15.   Rancati, G., Pavelka, N., Fleharty, B., Noll, A., Trimble, R., Walton, K., Perera, A.,
Staehling-Hampton, K., Seidel, C.W., and Li, R. (2008). Aneuploidy underlies rapid
adaptive evolution of yeast cells deprived of a conserved cytokinesis motor. Cell *135*,
879-893. 10.1016/j.cell.2008.09.039.
16.   Bao, L., Inoue, N., Ishikawa, M., Gotoh, E., Teh, O.K., Higa, T., Morimoto, T., Ginanjar,
E.F., Harashima, H., Noda, N., et al. (2022). A PSTAIRE-type cyclin-dependent kinase
controls light responses in land plants. Sci Adv *8*, eabk2116. 10.1126/sciadv.abk2116.
17.   Rosconi, F., Rudmann, E., Li, J., Surujon, D., Anthony, J., Frank, M., Jones, D.S., Rock,
C., Rosch, J.W., Johnston, C.D., and van Opijnen, T. (2022). A bacterial pan-genome
makes gene essentiality strain-dependent and evolvable. Nat Microbiol *7*, 1580-1592.
10.1038/s41564-022-01208-7.
18.   Couce, A., Limdi, A., Magnan, M., Owen, S.V., Herren, C.M., Lenski, R.E., Tenaillon,
O., and Baym, M. (2024). Changing fitness effects of mutations through long-term
bacterial evolution. Science *383*, eadd1417. 10.1126/science.add1417.
19.   Santamaría, D., Barrière, C., Cerqueira, A., Hunt, S., Tardy, C., Newton, K., Cáceres,
J.F., Dubus, P., Malumbres, M., and Barbacid, M. (2007). Cdk1 is sufficient to drive the
mammalian cell cycle. Nature *448*, 811-815. 10.1038/nature06046.
20.   Nowack, M.K., Harashima, H., Dissmeyer, N., Zhao, X.A., Bouyer, D., Weimer, A.K.,
De Winter, F., Yang, F., and Schnittger, A. (2012). Genetic framework of cyclin-
dependent kinase function in *Arabidopsis*. Dev. Cell *22*, 1030-1040.
10.1016/j.devcel.2012.02.015.
21.   Glass, J.I., Merryman, C., Wise, K.S., Hutchison, C.A., and Smith, H.O. (2017). Minimal
Cells-Real and Imagined. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol *9*.
10.1101/cshperspect.a023861.
22.   Juhas, M., Eberl, L., and Church, G.M. (2012). Essential genes as antimicrobial targets
and cornerstones of synthetic biology. Trends Biotechnol *30*, 601-607.
10.1016/j.tibtech.2012.08.002.

23.　Hutchison, C.A., Chuang, R.Y., Noskov, V.N., Assad-Garcia, N., Deerinck, T.J.,
Ellisman, M.H., Gill, J., Kannan, K., Karas, B.J., Ma, L., et al. (2016). Design and
synthesis of a minimal bacterial genome. Science *351*, aad6253.
10.1126/science.aad6253.
24.　Ratcliff, W.C., Denison, R.F., Borrello, M., and Travisano, M. (2012). Experimental
evolution of multicellularity. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *109*, 1595-1600.
10.1073/pnas.1115323109.
25.　Blount, Z.D., Borland, C.Z., and Lenski, R.E. (2008). Historical contingency and the
evolution of a key innovation in an experimental population of Escherichia coli. Proc
Natl Acad Sci U S A *105*, 7899-7906. 10.1073/pnas.0803151105.
26.　Moger-Reischer, R.Z., Glass, J.I., Wise, K.S., Sun, L., Bittencourt, D.M.C., Lehmkuhl,
B.K., Schoolmaster, D.R., Lynch, M., and Lennon, J.T. (2023). Evolution of a minimal
cell. Nature *620*, 122-127. 10.1038/s41586-023-06288-x.
27.　Kawecki, T.J., Lenski, R.E., Ebert, D., Hollis, B., Olivieri, I., and Whitlock, M.C. (2012).
Experimental evolution. Trends Ecol Evol *27*, 547-560. 10.1016/j.tree.2012.06.001.
28.　Barrick, J.E., and Lenski, R.E. (2013). Genome dynamics during experimental evolution.
Nat Rev Genet *14*, 827-839. 10.1038/nrg3564.
29.　McDonald, M.J. (2019). Microbial Experimental Evolution - a proving ground for
evolutionary theory and a tool for discovery. EMBO Rep *20*, e46992.
10.15252/embr.201846992.
30.　Van den Bergh, B., Swings, T., Fauvart, M., and Michiels, J. (2018). Experimental
Design, Population Dynamics, and Diversity in Microbial Experimental Evolution.
Microbiol Mol Biol Rev *82*. 10.1128/MMBR.00008-18.
31.　Taylor, T.B., Mulley, G., Dills, A.H., Alsohim, A.S., McGuffin, L.J., Studholme, D.J.,
Silby, M.W., Brockhurst, M.A., Johnson, L.J., and Jackson, R.W. (2015). Evolutionary
resurrection of flagellar motility via rewiring of the nitrogen regulation system. Science
347, 1014-1017. 10.1126/science.1259145.
32.　Xu, P., Alves, J.M., Kitten, T., Brown, A., Chen, Z., Ozaki, L.S., Manque, P., Ge, X.,
Serrano, M.G., Puiu, D., et al. (2007). Genome of the opportunistic pathogen
Streptococcus sanguinis. J Bacteriol *189*, 3166-3175. 10.1128/JB.01808-06.
33.　Lázár, V., Pal Singh, G., Spohn, R., Nagy, I., Horváth, B., Hrtyan, M., Busa-Fekete, R.,
Bogos, B., Méhi, O., Csörgő, B., et al. (2013). Bacterial evolution of antibiotic
hypersensitivity. Mol Syst Biol *9*, 700. 10.1038/msb.2013.57.
34.　Rhodes, D.V., Crump, K.E., Makhlynets, O., Snyder, M., Ge, X., Xu, P., Stubbe, J., and
Kitten, T. (2014). Genetic characterization and role in virulence of the ribonucleotide
reductases of Streptococcus sanguinis. J Biol Chem *289*, 6273-6287.
10.1074/jbc.M113.533620.
35.　Luo, H., Lin, Y., Gao, F., Zhang, C.T., and Zhang, R. (2014). DEG 10, an update of the
database of essential genes that includes both protein-coding genes and noncoding
genomic elements. Nucleic Acids Res *42*, D574-580. 10.1093/nar/gkt1131.
36.　Nelson, N., Perzov, N., Cohen, A., Hagai, K., Padler, V., and Nelson, H. (2000). The
cellular biology of proton-motive force generation by V-ATPases. J Exp Biol *203*, 89-95.
10.1242/jeb.203.1.89.
37.　Röttig, A., and Steinbüchel, A. (2013). Acyltransferases in bacteria. Microbiol Mol Biol
Rev *77*, 277-321. 10.1128/MMBR.00010-13.

38.   Baker, S.P., Nulton, T.J., and Kitten, T. (2019). Genomic, Phenotypic, and Virulence
954   Analysis of Streptococcus sanguinis Oral and Infective-Endocarditis Isolates. Infect
955   Immun *87*. 10.1128/IAI.00703-18.
956   39.   Ghosh, A., N, S., and Saha, S. (2020). Survey of drug resistance associated gene
957   mutations in Mycobacterium tuberculosis, ESKAPE and other bacterial species.
958   Scientific reports *10*, 8957. 10.1038/s41598-020-65766-8.
959   40.   Zeng, L., Walker, A.R., Lee, K., Taylor, Z.A., and Burne, R.A. (2021). Spontaneous
960   Mutants of Streptococcus sanguinis with Defects in the Glucose-Phosphotransferase
961   System Show Enhanced Post-Exponential-Phase Fitness. J Bacteriol *203*, e0037521.
962   10.1128/JB.00375-21.
963   41.   Chevin, L.M., Martin, G., and Lenormand, T. (2010). Fisher's model and the genomics of
964   adaptation: restricted pleiotropy, heterogenous mutation, and parallel evolution.
965   Evolution *64*, 3213-3231. 10.1111/j.1558-5646.2010.01058.x.
966   42.   Wichman, H.A., Badgett, M.R., Scott, L.A., Boulianne, C.M., and Bull, J.J. (1999).
967   Different trajectories of parallel evolution during viral adaptation. Science *285*, 422-424.
968   10.1126/science.285.5426.422.
969   43.   Stern, D.L. (2013). The genetic causes of convergent evolution. Nat Rev Genet *14*, 751-
970   764. 10.1038/nrg3483.
971   44.   Sheng, J., and Marquis, R.E. (2006). Enhanced acid resistance of oral streptococci at
972   lethal pH values associated with acid-tolerant catabolism and with ATP synthase activity.
973   FEMS Microbiol Lett *262*, 93-98. 10.1111/j.1574-6968.2006.00374.x.
974   45.   Corratgé-Faillie, C., Jabnoune, M., Zimmermann, S., Véry, A.A., Fizames, C., and
975   Sentenac, H. (2010). Potassium and sodium transport in non-animal cells: the
976   Trk/Ktr/HKT transporter family. Cell Mol Life Sci *67*, 2511-2532. 10.1007/s00018-010-
977   0317-7.
978   46.   Du, S., Pichoff, S., and Lutkenhaus, J. (2016). FtsEX acts on FtsA to regulate divisome
979   assembly and activity. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *113*, E5052-5061.
980   10.1073/pnas.1606656113.
981   47.   Moraes, J.J., Stipp, R.N., Harth-Chu, E.N., Camargo, T.M., Höfling, J.F., and Mattos-
982   Graner, R.O. (2014). Two-component system VicRK regulates functions associated with
983   establishment of Streptococcus sanguinis in biofilms. Infect Immun *82*, 4941-4951.
984   10.1128/IAI.01850-14.
985   48.   Sham, L.T., Barendt, S.M., Kopecky, K.E., and Winkler, M.E. (2011). Essential PcsB
986   putative peptidoglycan hydrolase interacts with the essential FtsXSpn cell division
987   protein in *Streptococcus pneumoniae* D39. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *108*, E1061-1069.
988   10.1073/pnas.1108323108.
989   49.   Gupta, A., Singh, P.K., Sharma, P., Kaur, P., Sharma, S., and Singh, T.P. (2020).
990   Structural and biochemical studies of phosphopantetheine adenylyltransferase from
991   *Acinetobacter baumannii* with dephospho-coenzyme A and coenzyme A. Int J Biol
992   Macromol *142*, 181-190. 10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2019.09.090.
993   50.   Heath, R.J., and Rock, C.O. (1996). Inhibition of beta-ketoacyl-acyl carrier protein
994   synthase III (FabH) by acyl-acyl carrier protein in Escherichia coli. The Journal of
995   biological chemistry *271*, 10996-11000. 10.1074/jbc.271.18.10996.
996   51.   Phong, W.Y., Lin, W., Rao, S.P., Dick, T., Alonso, S., and Pethe, K. (2013).
997   Characterization of phosphofructokinase activity in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* reveals
998   that a functional glycolytic carbon flow is necessary to limit the accumulation of toxic

metabolic intermediates under hypoxia. PLoS One *8*, e56037.
10.1371/journal.pone.0056037.

52. Skarlatos, P., and Dahl, M.K. (1998). The glucose kinase of Bacillus subtilis. J Bacteriol
180, 3222-3226. 10.1128/JB.180.12.3222-3226.1998.

53. Boulanger, E.F., Sabag-Daigle, A., Thirugnanasambantham, P., Gopalan, V., and Ahmer,
B.M.M. (2021). Sugar-Phosphate Toxicities. Microbiol Mol Biol Rev *85*, e0012321.
10.1128/MMBR.00123-21.

54. Zeng, L., and Burne, R.A. (2021). Molecular mechanisms controlling fructose-specific
memory and catabolite repression in lactose metabolism by Streptococcus mutans. Mol
Microbiol *115*, 70-83. 10.1111/mmi.14597.

55. Morrissey, A.T., and Fraenkel, D.G. (1972). Suppressor of phosphofructokinase
mutations of Escherichia coli. J Bacteriol *112*, 183-187. 10.1128/jb.112.1.183-187.1972.

56. Babul, J. (1978). Phosphofructokinases from Escherichia coli. Purification and
characterization of the nonallosteric isozyme. The Journal of biological chemistry *253*,
4350-4355.

57. Deckers, B., Vercauteren, S., De Kock, V., Martin, C., Lazar, T., Herpels, P., Dewachter,
L., Verstraeten, N., Peeters, E., Ballet, S., et al. (2023). YbiB: a novel interactor of the
GTPase ObgE. Nucleic Acids Res *51*, 3420-3435. 10.1093/nar/gkad127.

58. Vidwans, S.J., Ireton, K., and Grossman, A.D. (1995). Possible role for the essential
GTP-binding protein Obg in regulating the initiation of sporulation in Bacillus subtilis. J
Bacteriol *177*, 3308-3311. 10.1128/jb.177.11.3308-3311.1995.

59. Okamoto, S., Itoh, M., and Ochi, K. (1997). Molecular cloning and characterization of
the obg gene of Streptomyces griseus in relation to the onset of morphological
differentiation. J Bacteriol *179*, 170-179. 10.1128/jb.179.1.170-179.1997.

60. Okamoto, S., and Ochi, K. (1998). An essential GTP-binding protein functions as a
regulator for differentiation in Streptomyces coelicolor. Mol Microbiol *30*, 107-119.
10.1046/j.1365-2958.1998.01042.x.

61. Verstraeten, N., Knapen, W.J., Kint, C.I., Liebens, V., Van den Bergh, B., Dewachter, L.,
Michiels, J.E., Fu, Q., David, C.C., Fierro, A.C., et al. (2015). Obg and Membrane
Depolarization Are Part of a Microbial Bet-Hedging Strategy that Leads to Antibiotic
Tolerance. Molecular cell *59*, 9-21. 10.1016/j.molcel.2015.05.011.

62. Feng, B., Mandava, C.S., Guo, Q., Wang, J., Cao, W., Li, N., Zhang, Y., Wang, Z., Wu,
J., Sanyal, S., et al. (2014). Structural and functional insights into the mode of action of a
universally conserved Obg GTPase. PLoS Biol *12*, e1001866.
10.1371/journal.pbio.1001866.

63. Murti, K.G., Webster, R.G., and Jones, I.M. (1988). Localization of RNA polymerases on
influenza viral ribonucleoproteins by immunogold labeling. Virology *164*, 562-566.
10.1016/0042-6822(88)90574-0.

64. Zielke, R., Sikora, A., Dutkiewicz, R., Wegrzyn, G., and Czyż, A. (2003). Involvement of
the cgtA gene function in stimulation of DNA repair in Escherichia coli and Vibrio
harveyi. Microbiology (Reading) *149*, 1763-1770. 10.1099/mic.0.26292-0.

65. Czyz, A., Zielke, R., Konopa, G., and Wegrzyn, G. (2001). A Vibrio harveyi insertional
mutant in the cgtA (obg, yhbZ) gene, whose homologues are present in diverse organisms
ranging from bacteria to humans and are essential genes in many bacterial species.
Microbiology (Reading) *147*, 183-191. 10.1099/00221287-147-1-183.

66. Courcelle, J., Khodursky, A., Peter, B., Brown, P.O., and Hanawalt, P.C. (2001).
Comparative gene expression profiles following UV exposure in wild-type and SOS-
deficient Escherichia coli. Genetics *158*, 41-64. 10.1093/genetics/158.1.41.
67. Foti, J.J., Persky, N.S., Ferullo, D.J., and Lovett, S.T. (2007). Chromosome segregation
control by Escherichia coli ObgE GTPase. Mol Microbiol *65*, 569-581. 10.1111/j.1365-
2958.2007.05811.x.
68. Tan, J., Jakob, U., and Bardwell, J.C. (2002). Overexpression of two different GTPases
rescues a null mutation in a heat-induced rRNA methyltransferase. J Bacteriol *184*, 2692-
2698. 10.1128/JB.184.10.2692-2698.2002.
69. Nirody, J.A., Budin, I., and Rangamani, P. (2020). ATP synthase: Evolution, energetics,
and membrane interactions. J Gen Physiol *152*. 10.1085/jgp.201912475.
70. Lund, P., Tramonti, A., and De Biase, D. (2014). Coping with low pH: molecular
strategies in neutralophilic bacteria. FEMS Microbiol Rev *38*, 1091-1125. 10.1111/1574-
6976.12076.
71. Wang, Y., Wu, J., Lv, M., Shao, Z., Hungwe, M., Wang, J., Bai, X., Xie, J., and Geng,
W. (2021). Metabolism Characteristics of Lactic Acid Bacteria and the Expanding
Applications in Food Industry. Front Bioeng Biotechnol *9*, 612285.
10.3389/fbioe.2021.612285.
72. Ajdic, D., McShan, W.M., McLaughlin, R.E., Savic, G., Chang, J., Carson, M.B.,
Primeaux, C., Tian, R., Kenton, S., Jia, H., et al. (2002). Genome sequence of
Streptococcus mutans UA159, a cariogenic dental pathogen. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A
99, 14434-14439. 10.1073/pnas.172501299.
73. Chen, P., Wang, D., Chen, H., Zhou, Z., and He, X. (2016). The nonessentiality of
essential genes in yeast provides therapeutic insights into a human disease. Genome Res
26, 1355-1362. 10.1101/gr.205955.116.
74. Mnaimneh, S., Davierwala, A.P., Haynes, J., Moffat, J., Peng, W.T., Zhang, W., Yang,
X., Pootoolal, J., Chua, G., Lopez, A., et al. (2004). Exploration of essential gene
functions via titratable promoter alleles. Cell *118*, 31-44. 10.1016/j.cell.2004.06.013.
75. Peters, J.M., Colavin, A., Shi, H., Czarny, T.L., Larson, M.H., Wong, S., Hawkins, J.S.,
Lu, C.H.S., Koo, B.M., Marta, E., et al. (2016). A Comprehensive, CRISPR-based
Functional Analysis of Essential Genes in Bacteria. Cell *165*, 1493-1506.
10.1016/j.cell.2016.05.003.
76. Shields, R.C., Walker, A.R., Maricic, N., Chakraborty, B., Underhill, S.A.M., and Burne,
R.A. (2020). Repurposing the Streptococcus mutans CRISPR-Cas9 System to Understand
Essential Gene Function. PLoS Pathog *16*, e1008344. 10.1371/journal.ppat.1008344.
77. Yother, J., Trieu-Cuot, P., Klaenhammer, T.R., and De Vos, W.M. (2002). Genetics of
streptococci, lactococci, and enterococci: review of the sixth international conference. J
Bacteriol *184*, 6085-6092. 10.1128/JB.184.22.6085-6092.2002.
78. Otasek, D., Morris, J.H., Bouças, J., Pico, A.R., and Demchak, B. (2019). Cytoscape
Automation: empowering workflow-based network analysis. Genome Biol *20*, 185.
10.1186/s13059-019-1758-4.

1085

1086 **Figures and legends**

1087

1088 **Figure 1. Evolution of mutants deleted for essential genes in passage experiments.**

1089

1090

(a) Two types of colonies, small and large, as demonstrated for *f1fo* deletion, appear on selection
plates after 5 days of growth. Only the small colonies represent true deletions, denoted as Δ*f1fo*
(red circle). The large colonies are "double-band mutants," containing both the replacement of
the original *f1fo* with a *kan* gene and a wild-type *f1fo* copy, or they are mutants that did not
contain a *kan* gene, but contained point mutations in other genes, denoted as Δ*f1fo-DB* (black
circle, 'DB' for double-band).

1097

1098 (b) Schematic representation of the passage experiments (see Materials and Methods). The
1099 numbers on the arrows indicate the dilution ratios for each passage. Images inserted below the
1100 passages show genome alignments to the reference at P1 or P6, with mismatches marked by a
1101 star (demonstrated using the *trkH1* mutation in the *Δf1fo#104* population shown in Figure 3d).

1102

1103 (c) Incubation time (days) required for P0 and P6 mutants to reach an OD_{600} of 0.1 to 0.5.

1104
1105

1106 **Figure 2. Identification of suppressors in mutants deleted for essential genes.**

1107

1108 (a) Number of independently evolved populations of different mutants.

1109

1110 (b-i) Evolved populations containing large-scale duplications. Red arrow, site of original
1111 essential gene deletion; Y axis indicates number of sequence reads mapped to the
1112 reference sequence at the coordinates shown on X axis.

1113

1114 (j) Boxplot of mutated segments (≥30% abundance) in the independently evolved populations of
1115 mutants deleted for essential genes or WT. Open circles indicate outliers.

1116

1117 (k) Stacked proportions of populations containing mutated segments comprising >50% (blue) or
1118 30%-50% (red) of sequence reads.

1119

1120 (l) Stacked proportions of mutated segments belonging to intergenic regions, non-essential
1121 ORFs, or essential ORFs.

1122

1123 (m) Stacked proportions of evolved populations with/without mutations in the multi-drug
1124 resistance genes (DRGs: *rpsL*, *gyrB*, *rpoB* and *rrs2*) shown.

1125
1126

1127 **Figure 3. Networks derived from the mutations in the evolved populations.**

1128

(**a**) A network was built from the lists of suppressor mutants derived from each essential gene
mutant and WT. Yellow-highlighted labels indicate the names of the essential genes mutated and
the blue-highlighted label indicates the passaged WT. In total, there are twenty-five groups. Gene
names without any marks, mutated segments belonging to essential genes; gene names with an
asterisk (*) on the left, conditional essential genes; gene name with two asterisks on the left, non-
essential genes; P_ followed by gene names and an asterisk, promoters; In_ followed by gene

names and an asterisk and int_ followed by number, intergenic regions; _ followed by number, gene locus.

(b) Most commonly mutated segments in the evolved populations deleted of essential genes. Red cross on the rectangle boxes indicates evolved populations deleted of essential genes. Labels within the rectangle boxes indicate the segments with mutations. Numbers on top of the rectangle boxes indicate number of populations with mutations in the segments out of the total populations. Arrows indicate the flow of biochemical reactions.

Figure 4. Increasing *v1vo* copy number and inhibition of *trkA1-H1* independently contribute to the fitness improvement of evolved *Δf1fo* populations.

(a) Gene duplication of *v1vo* region does not occur in P1 population (upper) and appeared in P6 (lower) population of *Δf1fo#109.* Yellow arrows indicate passaging process. The black box indicates the *f1fo* region.

(b) Population of *Δf1fo#4* at P6 that does not contain gene duplication of *v1vo* region (upper). *v1vo* region duplication was observed in P15 (lower). (Two out of sixed evolved populations; see S7). Arrows indicate passaging process.

(c) *v1vo* region deleted in WT (upper). Duplication of *v1vo* region *Δf1fo#4, denoted as v1vo-DB/ Δf1fo#4.* The black box indicates the *f1fo* region. The red box indicates *v1vo* region.

(d) Mutation frequency in *trkH1* increased with passage in P6 compared to P1 in population *Δf1f#104.*

(e) Growth of strains indicated. 0.1 OD_{600} of cells in a volume of 2 µl were spotted directly (first column) or diluted 20-fold (column 2), or 400-fold (column 3) and grown on BHI-agar for two days.

(f) Growth of the strains indicated. 0.1 OD_{600} of cells in a volume of 2 µl were spotted directly (first column) or diluted 10-fold (column 2), or 100-fold (column 3), or 1000-fold (column 4), and grown for four days.

(g) Quantitative growth measurements of WT, *ΔtrkA1-H1, ΔtrkA2-H2, Δf1fo* in *ΔtrkA1-H1* and *Δf1fo* in *ΔtrkA2-H2.* Culture is in BHI for 24 hr in anaerobic conditions. Data are shown as means ± SD from three replicate cultures. Different letters indicate statistically significant differences (P≤0.05), determined by one -way ANOVA with Tukey multiple comparisons test.

(h) Sensitivity of *Δf1fo#4* and WT to low pH (lactic acid: LA). The values are relative OD_{600} to that of WT grown in plain BHI. X-axis denotes the vol (µL) of 90% LA in 25 mL of BHI. Data are shown as means ± SD from three replicate cultures.

1179 (i) Sensitivity of *Δf1fo#4* and WT to high pH (NaOH). The values are relative OD_{600} to that of
1180 WT grown in plain BHI. X-axis denotes the vol (μL) of 5 M NaOH in 25 mL of BHI. Data are
1181 shown as means ± SD from three replicate cultures.
1182
1183
1184
1185
1186 **Figure 5 Essentiality of *f1fo* in *S. mutans* UA159, *S. sanguinis* SK36, SK405 and SK1058.**
1187
1188 (a) Distribution of the genes indicated in *S. mutans* UA159, *S. sanguinis* SK36, SK405 and
1189 SK1058.
1190
1191 (b) Growth of *Δf1fo* transformants in *S. sanguinis* SK405 (upper) and SK1058 (lower) on same
1192 BHI agar medium for five days. Enlarged images of the transformants are shown. Red circles
1193 indicate small colonies, *Δf1fo*. Black circles indicate big colonies, *Δf1fo-DB*.
1194
1195 (c) Deletion of *f1fo* in SK405 or SK1058 shown by whole genome sequencing. Black box
1196 indicates the location of *f1fo* region.
1197
1198 (d) Quantitative measurements of growth in wild-type SK36, SK405 or SK1058, *ΔtrkA1-H1* or
1199 *Δf1fo* mutants in the backgrounds of SK36, SK405 or SK1058. Cells were grown in BHI for 24
1200 hours. Data are shown as means ± SD from three replicate cultures. Different letters indicate
1201 statistically significant differences (P≤0.05), determined by one -way ANOVA with Tukey
1202 multiple comparisons test.
1203
1204 (e) Growth of SK36, SK405 or SK1058, *ΔtrkA1-H1* mutant in the backgrounds of SK36, SK405
1205 or SK1058. 0.1 OD_{600} of cells in a volume of 2 μl were spotted directly (first column) or diluted
1206 10-fold (column 2), or 100-fold (column 3), or 1000-fold (column 4). Growth of Cells were
1207 grown on BHI-agar for two days.
1208
1209 (f) Growth of SK36, SK405 or SK1058, *Δf1fo* mutant in the backgrounds of SK36, SK405 or
1210 SK1058. Cells were diluted as in Fig. E and grown on BHI-agar for four days.
1211
1212 (g) Location of *trkA1-H1* suppressor mutations in SK405 and SK1058. Mutation of *trkA1-H1*
1213 appeared in all evolved *Δf1fo* populations, three in SK405 and two in SK1058. X-axis indicates
1214 the genome coordinates.
1215
1216
1217 **Supplemental Figures, Tables and legends**
1218
1219
1220 **Supplementary Fig.1. Genotyping and complementation of mutants deleted of *f1fo*.**
1221
1222 (a) Gene knockout strategy to delete entire region of eight *f1fo* subunits by homologous
1223 recombination. The yellow blocks indicate the eight F1Fo subunit genes in WT (upper). The blue
1224 block indicates the *kan* gene in Δ*f1fo* mutants (lower).

1225

(b) Whole-genome sequencing to confirm the genotypes of the small colonies for Δ*flfo* mutants.
Black box indicates the location of deleted *flfo* region. Enlarged image showed alignment of
sequencing reads to the reference genome of *S. sanguinis* SK36. The blue graphic above the
sequence coordinates (indicated by a red arrow) indicates the extent of coverage, the yellow bars
indicate the mismatches (indicated by a star), and the bracket indicates the aligned sequence
reads.

1232

1233   (c) Whole-genome sequencing of the big colonies, Δ*flfo*-DB. Black box indicates the location of
1234   *flfo* region. Red arrows indicate the two directly repeated *ugpC* genes, encoding glycerol-3-
1235   phosphate ABC transporter.

1236
1237

1238   **Supplementary Fig.2. Isolation of viable mutants deleted essential genes and genotyping by**
1239   **whole-genome sequencing.**

1240

(a-b) Colonies of transformants (left) and whole-genome sequencing of colonies (right). Red
circles indicate the colonies picked for whole-genome sequencing (left). For genome sequencing
(right), the blue graphic above the sequence coordinates (indicated by a red arrow in the top
panel of a.1) indicates the extent of coverage, the yellow bars indicate the mismatches, and the
bracket indicates the aligned sequence reads. Bacterial colonies on selective agar plate for five
days. (a.1-a.2) Gene deletion mutants with severe growth defects. (b) Gene deletion mutants with
robust growth. Scale bar: 1 mm. The image of Δ*flfo* transformation is a duplicate of Figure 1B to
demonstrate the transformants in selection medium Δ*flfo* alignment is a duplication of Fig.S1c.

1249
1250

1251   **Supplementary Fig.3. Growth of mutants deleted of essential genes, relative to that of WT.**

1252

1253   (a-b) Growth mutants deleted of 23 essential genes under anaerobic condition (a) and
1254   microaerobic condition (b). 0.1 OD_{600} of cells in a volume of 2 μl were spotted directly (first
1255   column) or diluted 20-fold (column 2), or 400-fold (column 3) and grown on BHI-agar for two
1256   days. Scale bar is 1 cm.

1257

1258   (c) Comparison of the growth of the twenty-four evolved mutants and that of WT. The values are
1259   relative OD_{600} after 24 hr of growth in BHI liquid medium.

1260
1261

1262   **Supplementary Fig.4. Large scale gene duplication present in the evolved populations of**
1263   **the mutants deleted essential genes but not in WT populations.**

1264

1265   (a) Whole-genome sequencing of parental WT and the six evolved WT populations after nine
1266   passages. The yellow arrow indicates the passage procedure.

1267

1268   (b-e) Evolved populations that contain gene duplication of greater than 10 kb in Δ*uncE#3* (b)*,*
1269   Δ*flfo#107* (c)*, *Δ*fabH#4* (d) *and* Δ*fabH#6* (e). Red arrows (b-e) indicate the location of the gene

1270 intentionally deleted. The insert image (c) is an enlarged segments of *uncE* region, shown as a
1271 black box.
1272
1273
1274 **Supplementary Fig.S5. Appearance of mutations in essential genes in the evolved**
1275 **populations of strains intentionally deleted for different essential genes.**
1276
1277 (a-f) Aligned sequence reads from *ΔuncC#1* of P1 population (a-c) and P6 population (d-f). Red
1278 arrows indicate the deleted *uncC* in the genome (a and d) in the *ΔuncC#1* strain. Red box
1279 indicates mutation of *uncH* in *ΔuncC#1* (a and d). Enlarged mutated *uncH* region of aligned
1280 sequence reads in *ΔuncC#1* of P1 population (b-c) and P6 population (e-f). The yellow arrow
1281 indicates the passage procedure.
1282
1283 (g) Sequencing of the mutated *uncH* gene in *ΔuncC#1* in P6. Red letters indicate a fragment (82
1284 bp) that was present in mutated *uncH* gene (upper). Asterisk (*) indicates the stop codon that was
1285 highlighted. Vertical bars indicate the coordinates of the *uncH* ORF (lower). The coordinates
1286 between two red bars indicate replaced region.
1287
(h-k) Aligned sequence reads from *Δf1fo#107* of P1 population (h-i) and P6 population (j-k). Red
arrows indicate the deleted *f1fo* in the genome (h and j) in the *Δf1fo#107*. Red box indicates
mutation of *ftsZ* in *Δf1fo#107* (h and j). Enlarged mutated *ftsZ* region of aligned sequence reads
in *Δf1fo#107* of P1 population (h) and P6 population (i). The yellow arrow indicates the passage
procedure. Supplementary Fig.5J is a duplicate of Supplementary Fig.4B to show a genome
alignment of *Δf1fo#107* of P6.
1294
1295 (l) Sequencing of the mutated *ftsZ* in *Δf1fo#107* in P6. Red letters indicate a fragment (248 bp)
1296 that was present in mutated *Δf1fo#107* (upper). Asterisk (*) indicates the stop codon that was
1297 highlighted. Vertical bars indicated the coordinates of the *uncH* ORF (lower). The red bar
1298 indicates the coordinate where insertion occurred.
1299
1300
1301 **Supplementary Fig.6. Populations with and without mutations in three PTS**
1302 **mannose/fructose/sorbose transporter subunits.**
1303
1304 (a-b) Number (a) and percentage (b) of populations that have mutations in any of three PTS
1305 mannose/fructose/sorbose transporter subunits, namely J1C87_09355, J1C87_09360, and
1306 J1C87_09365.
1307
1308 **Supplementary Fig.7. The most frequent suppressors identified in mutants deleted of**
1309 **essential genes.**
1310 The percentage of mutated segments in evolved populations in *Δf1fo*, mutants deleted of single
1311 *unc* subunit genes, denoted as *Δf1fo.s*, the other single mutants indicated, and WT. The names
1312 with an asterisk (*) indicate the intergenic regions.
1313
1314

Supplementary Fig.8. Appearance of *v1vo* region gene duplication during passage. (Related to Figure 4a and 4b)

(a-b) Alignment of sequence reads in populations of *Δf1fo#107, Δf1fo#109, uncE#2* and *uncH#7* at P1 (A) and P6 (B). The black box indicates the deleted *f1fo* region and the red arrows indicate the deleted *uncE* or *uncH*.

(c) Alignment of sequence reads of the P6 population in *Δf1fo#4* (upper) and five derived populations from P15 (lower). Rectangles represent the deleted *f1fo* region. Asterisks (*) indicate the two populations with *v1vo* region gene duplications.

Supplementary Fig.9. Gene duplication in *Δv1vo-DB/Δf1fo#4* populations (related to Figure 4c).

Alignment of sequence reads of five additional *Δv1vo-DB/Δf1fo#4* populations. The black box indicates the deleted *f1fo*. The red box indicates the gene duplication of *v1vo* region when one copy of *v1vo* was deleted.

Supplementary Fig.10. Alignment of sequence reads of *trk* mutants with and without *f1fo* deletion.

(a-k) Alignment of sequence reads of *ΔtrkA1* (a), *ΔtrkH1* (b), *ΔtrkA1-H1* (c), *ΔtrkA2* (d), *ΔtrkH2* (e), *ΔtrkA2-H2* (f), *ΔtrkA1/ΔtrkH2* (g), *ΔtrkH1/ΔtrkH2* (h), *ΔtrkA1-H1/ΔtrkH2* (i), *Δf1fo/ΔtrkA1-H1* (j), and *Δf1fo/ΔtrkA2-H2* (k). Red arrows indicated intended gene deletion. The block box indicates the deleted *f1fo region.* (related to Figure 4f).

Supplementary Fig.11. Working model for F1Fo, V1Vo, TrkA1-H1 and TrkA2-H2.

For streptococci, which do not contain a complete tricarboxylic acid cycle (TCA: shaded) or electron transport chain (ETC: shaded), energy production is mainly through lactic acid fermentation. The lactate from fermentation creates acidic conditions in the cytosol, which becomes toxic if H+ is not exported. F1Fo pumps out H+ from the cytosol using ATP, and V1Vo supplements or replaces the function of F1Fo when the F1Fo is inhibited/inactivated. Both TrkA1-H1 and TrkA2-H1 are potassium transporters, and functionally redundant. TrkA1-H1 pumps in potassium together with H+, acidifying the cytosol when H+ is not exported. In contrast, TrkA2-H2 does not pump protons into the cytosol when pumping in potassium (likely instead pumping in Na+). Therefore, the function of TrkA1-H1 must be inhibited if F1Fo is not functional. Solid lines indicate presence of reactions. Dashed lines indicate absence of reactions.

Supplementary Fig.12. *f1fo* cannot be deleted in *S. mutans* UA159.

(a) Gene knockout strategy to delete entire region of eight *f1fo* subunits by homologous recombination. The purple blocks indicate the eight F1Fo subunit genes in WT (upper). The blue

1360   block indicates the *kan* gene in Δ*f1fo* mutants (lower). The two arrows indicate the primer set for
1361   the PCR amplicon of the region in (B).
1362
1363   (b) Genotyping the presence of wild-type *f1fo* colonies from selection medium. P: positive
1364   control using DNA template from wild-type. N: negative control using water as a template. The
1365   size of amplicons is about 1300 bp.
1366
1367
1368   **Supplementary Fig.13. Deletion** *of trkA1-H1* **in** *S. sanguinis* **SK1058 and S. sanguinis**
1369   **SK405 (related to Figure 5c).**
1370
1371   (a-b) Alignment of sequence reads of *ΔtrkA1-H1* populations in SK405 (a) and in SK1058 (b)
1372   backgrounds.
1373
1374
1375   **Supplementary Fig.14. Deletion** *of f1fo* **in** *S. sanguinis* **SK1058 and SK405 (related to**
1376   **Figure 5c).**
1377   Alignment of sequence reads of three *Δf1fo* populations in SK405 backgrounds (a) and two in
1378   SK1058 backgrounds (b) (related to Figure 5c). Rectangles represent the deleted *f1fo* region.

Fig.1

a

Δf1fo

Δf1fo-DB

1 mm

b

P0   P1   P2   P3   P4   P5   P6

1:10   1:20   1:20   1:20   1:20   1:20

P1
Δf1fo#104

P6

c

Fig.2

Fig.3

a

b

13/13
trkA1-H1   H+

H+ H+
H+

19/22 10/22 11/22 4/22
fabZ *accC* *accB* *fabF* *fabG*

24/25 12/25
fabG *fabD* *fabF*

4/13 4/13 1/13 2/13
fabF *accB* *fabD* *fabH* *fabG*

1/13 4/13 1/13 13/13 1/13
fabK *acpP* *fabH* *fabF* *fabD* *fabG*

2/18 4/18 3/18 1/18 2/18
fabH *accA* *accC* *fabD* *fabK* *acpP*

Pantothenate

4'-Phosphopantothenate

4'-Phospho-N-pantothenoylcysteine

4'-Phosphopantetheine

Dephospho-CoA

dpcK

CoA → Holo-ACP → Fatty acid

11/17   7/17
P_acpS   *FASII genes*

H+ 2/13
f1fo   *v1vo*

H+ H+
H+

8/19
ftsX
ftsE

1/19 15/19
vicR *vicK*

Glucose
9/10
glcK
Glucose-6-P

Fructose-6-P   6/10
fruR

5/10
pfkA   *fruB*

Fructose-1, 6-P

10/14
P_rpoB   *obgE*

2/14   rRNA
rpoB   Ribosome

DNA   1/14
der

Fig.4

a P1 *Δf1fo#109* P6

b P6 *Δf1fo#4* P15

c *Δv1vo#10* *Δv1vo-C/Δf1fo#4*

d

Mutation frequency of *trkH1*

- ● *substitution* ----- *30%*
- ▲ *frameshift* ········· *100%*

P1 *Δf1fo#104*
P6

1 100 200 300 400 479 (aa)

e

WT
ΔtrkA1-H1
ΔtrkA2H2
ΔtrkH2
ΔtrkA1-H1/ΔtrkH2
ΔtrkA1/ΔtrkH2
ΔtrkH1/ΔtrkH2
Δf1fo#4

1 cm

f

WT
ΔtrkA1-H1
ΔtrkA2H2
Δf1fo/ΔtrkA1-H1
Δf1fo/ΔtrkA2-H2
Δf1fo#4

1 cm

g

OD 600

a a a b c

WT ΔtrkA1-H1 ΔtrkA2-H2 Δf1fo/ΔtrkA1-H1 Δf1fo/ΔtrkA2-H2

h

Relative OD600 in lactic acid

■ *WT* ■ *f1fo#4*

0 10 20 30 40
μL in 25 mL medium

i

Relative OD600 in NaOH

■ *WT* ■ *f1fo#4*

0 25 50 100 200
μL in 25 mL medium

Fig.5

Fig S1

a

b

c

Fig.S2

Fig S3

a

b

c

Fig S4

Fig S5

g

GAGGACCTCTTTTATGAGATTGTGCTGGAGAGTCAGCACCAAAGCAATATGCAATCAT**TGA(*)**GAAATATGCTTTGCCTTTTGT

82 (bp)

ATG   TAG

1 **uncH** 51   258   537 (bp)

l

AAAGAACGGATGCGCCTAAAGGTTCAGCCTTTGGTGATTGGGATCTTCGCCGCGAAGCGATTGTTCGTCAGGCTGAAC
CAAGTTCGTCAGCCCGCGTGGAACGCTATGCAGAAACTAATGAAGATGATGATGAATTGGAAACACCTCCATTCTTCA
GAAATCGT**TAA(*)**TCTAAATCATGAATTTGCTGGTGTCCGTCAGGACAAGGTTGAAAAGGTCAGCGGCATTCGTCAGAC
ACCACAACCTACTAG

248 (bp)

ATG   TAA

ftsZ

1   1015   1278 (bp)

Fig S6

a

b

Fig S7

Fig S8

Fig S9

Δv1vo-DB/Δf1fo#4

#1

#11

#13

#15

#17

Fig S10

Fig S11   Working model for F1Fo, V1Vo, TrkA1-H1 and TrkA2-H2

a

WT (*S. mutans,*UA159)

Δ*f1fo*

1000 bp

b

Δ*f1fo-DB*

N   P

1500 —
1000 —
(bp)

Fig S13

a

b

Fig S14

a

$\Delta f1fo$ (SK405)

b

$\Delta f1fo$ (SK1058)