Chance and pleiotropy dominate genetic diversity in complex bacterial environments

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Abstract

How does environmental complexity affect the evolution of single genes? Here, we measured the effects of a set of mutants of *Bacillus subtilis* glutamate dehydrogenase across 19 different environments – from homogenous single cell populations in liquid media to heterogeneous biofilms, plant roots and soil communities. The effects of individual gene mutations on organismal fitness were highly reproducible in liquid cultures. Strikingly, however, 84% of the tested alleles showed opposing fitness effects under different carbon and nitrogen sources (antagonistic pleiotropy). In biofilms and soil samples, different alleles dominated in parallel replica experiments. Accordingly, we found that in these heterogeneous bacterial communities the fate of mutations was dictated by a combination of selection and drift. The latter was driven by programmed prophage excisions that occurred along biofilm development. Overall, per individual condition, by the combined action of selection, pleiotropy and chance, a wide range of glutamate dehydrogenase mutations persisted and sometimes fixated. However, across longer periods and multiple environments nearly all this diversity would be lost – indeed, considering all environments and conditions we have tested, wild-type is the fittest allele.

The function of most genes may be essential in some conditions, but only marginally contributing, or even redundant, in other conditions [1-4]. The effects of mutations on organismal fitness are therefore environment-dependent, giving rise to complex, pleiotropic genotype-by-environment interactions [5,6]. Moreover, bacterial populations often do not comprise single cells, but rather have a structure as in biofilms. Under this complexity: changing environments and heterogeneous bacterial communities, the fate of mutations could also be dictated by population bottlenecks (drift) or rapid takeover of beneficial mutations in other genes (selective sweeps) [7-9].Consequently, the frequency of a given gene allele may change dramatically (from perishing to fixation) with no relation to its molecular function [10,11].

We aimed at an experimental setup would examine how complex bacterial growth states and environments might shape protein evolution. Previous systematic mappings were based on a direct linkage between protein stability and function and organismal survival, thus enabling measurements of effects of mutations at the protein level [5,12-15]. However, how mutations in a single gene-protein affect organismal fitness under varying environments and conditions is largely unexplored [16]. We thus chose as our model *Bacillus subtilis* NCIB 3610, a non-domesticated strain capable of growing in diverse aquatic and terrestrial environments [17]. We explored the effects of mutations in different conditions: in dispersed cells in liquid, but also in biofilms where phenotypic and genetic variability prevails [18]. We also mapped the effects of mutations during spore formation and germination [19] and in more complex and close to natural environments including soil, rhizosphere and plant roots.

62   A catabolic glutamate dehydrogenase (GDH) was our model protein. This

63 enzyme is essential when amino acids such as proline serve as sole carbon-

64 nitrogen sources [20]. However, in the presence of ammonia and glycolytic sugars,

65 GDH activity is redundant as glutamate must be synthesized rather than

66 catabolized. GDHs therefore respond to changes in carbon-nitrogen sources, and

67 as regulators of glutamate homeostasis, are also associated with biofilm

68 development [21,22]. *B. subtilis* has two catabolic GDHs, RocG and GudB. The latter

69 is constitutively expressed, and is regulated via association of its hexameric form

70 [23]. GudB has also regulatory roles [24,25] via interactions with the transcriptional

71 activator of glutamate synthase [25] and with an essential transcription

72 termination factor, NusA, that also modulates the stringent response [26-28]. We

73 explored mutations in the oligomeric interface of GudB, aiming at multilateral

74 effects on GudB's enzymatic and regulatory functions.

75   Altogether, these choices of organism and enzyme allowed us to readily

76 examine and quantify the fate of GudB alleles in a range of different growth

77 conditions and environments, also mimicking natural habitats where strong

78 evolutionary forces act [11].

80 **Experimental setup and data processing**

81 We anticipated that the effects of the explored mutations would be complex and

82 condition-dependent. We thus opted for high rather than broad coverage and

83 mapped 10 positions within a single ~150 base pairs segment that resides at

84 GudB's oligomeric interface while choosing highly conserved (D58) as well as

85 highly diverged positions (M48, or S61; **Table S1**). Positions were diversified

86 using NNS (whereby N represents any of the 4 bases, and S, G or C). The resulting

GudB library contained in total 320 single mutant alleles (including wild-type),

whose genomes differ, in principle, by a single mutation: 200 different amino

acid alleles and 10 stop-codons. The library therefore included synonymous

alleles whereby the same amino acid was encoded by 2 or 3 different codons.

This allele library was incorporated into the chromosome of *B. subtilis* NCIB

3610 under *gudB*'s original promoter and terminator.

This starting population (the initial mix, hereafter) was used to inoculate

cultures grown in an array of different conditions. We tested 7 different growth

states where the population complexity varies from single cells to community:

liquid, pellicles (air-liquid biofilms), spores, germinated spores, biofilms grown

on agar including on carbon-nitrogen gradients, and soil colonization. Up to 5

different carbon-nitrogen sources were used that, at least as far as the

phenotypes of the GudB knockout indicate, inflict different levels of selection on

GudB: Glutamate *plus* ammonia (GA), where ΔGudB has no growth effect;

glutamate *plus* glycerol (GG), arginine (A), and arginine *plus* proline (PA), where

ΔGudB exhibits a slight growth defect, and proline (P), where ΔGudB exhibits the

strongest growth defect (**Fig. S1**). Thus, in total, we tested 19 conditions. At each

condition, three to five biological replicas were performed by inoculating from

the same initial mix. The cultures were grown in parallel, and individually

analyzed. Illumina sequencing was applied to determine the frequency of each of

the *gudB* alleles in the initial mix and after growth. Following filtering (see

Methods), we obtained data for 244 up to 269 individual alleles per experiment

(**Data S1** & **Fig. S2)**.

The ratio between an allele's frequency at the end of growth and in the

initial mix was derived, and this ratio is referred to as the frequency coefficient

(FC; **Data S2**). Given the experimental error in determining FC values, values

between 0.8 and 1.2 were classified as 'neutral', FC ≤0.8 assigned a mutation as

'deleterious', and FC >1.2 as 'beneficial'. Mutations with FC ≤0.1 were classified

as 'highly deleterious', and similarly, FC ≥10 as 'highly beneficial' (see Methods).

Note that the number of generations in liquid growth (~50 generations) and

spores (a dormant non-replicative form of *B. subtilis*), for example, differs

fundamentally. Moreover, in pellicles and biofilms, the number of generations

cannot be readily determined –different cell types having different growth rates

[29]. So, while we could not calculate selection coefficients (*s*), one should keep in

mind that an FC value of 0.8 in the spores is in effect equivalent to extinction

across 50 generations in liquid ($0.8^{50} = 10^{-5}$).

Irreproducibility – selection *versus* drift

Our first observations indicate two contrasting scenarios. In liquid cultures, for

example, we observed highly reproducible FC values in biological replicas (**Fig.**

1a). Given the small sample numbers (3 replicas, 5 in few cases like the

rhizosphere), the observed variance may underestimate the actual variance.

However, the repetitively low variance levels in a range of different liquid

conditions, and in other replica measurements in liquid [30], supports high

reproducibility. In biofilms, however, despite the fact that we did not bottleneck

any population upon inoculum, the correlation between replicas was very low

(Fig. 1b). The reproducibility between biological replicas indicates selection,

thus indicating that that protein and organismal fitness are tightly coupled. In

biofilms however, the lack of reproducibility indicates the dominance of drift, i.e.,

random sampling of GudB alleles.

To quantify the contribution of selection versus drift in different

conditions, we used two criteria. Firstly, we compared the variability in FC

values between replicas by calculating the standard deviation (SD) per allele

(using the logarithm of the FC values; see Methods). The average SD value for all

alleles in each experiment ($\overline{SD}$) is given for 7 general growth states (**Fig. 1c; Fig. S3a**

& **Table S2**). As can be seen, in liquid, pellicles and spores, the $\overline{SD}$ values

between biological replicas were low (< 0.06). In biofilms and bulk soil, however,

the $\overline{SD}$ values were > 0.25 indicating low reproducibility.

Secondly, if drift dictates the fate of GudB alleles, codons of the same

amino acid would exhibit very different FC values. The deviations between

synonymous codons of the same amino acid alleles were calculated, averaged for

all alleles in the same experiment, and then for all replica experiments per

condition ($\overline{SD}$syn, in log values; **Fig. 1d; Fig. S3b** & **Table S3**). Note that the

$\overline{SD}$ syn criterion holds within individual replica experiments and is thus

independent of the comparison of $\overline{SD}$ between biological replicas. Nonetheless,

these criteria are clearly correlated (**Fig. 1c** & **d**). Overall, it appears that in

liquid, pellicles and spores, the FC values report the outcome of selection acting

on GudB alleles at the amino acid level as expected (in few alleles, selection also

acted reproducibly at the codon level, **Fig. S4**). In contrast, in biofilms and bulk

soil we consistently observed higher $\overline{SD}$ and $\overline{SD}$syn values. In some biofilm

experiments, the $\overline{SD}$syn values exceeded 3 (*i.e.*, > 10^3 SD values on a liner scale).

Thus, in effect, a single codon had taken over.

Given that some conditions were selection-dominated and others are

subject to chance, we divided our analysis in two. Firstly, we analyzed selection

dominated conditions (liquid, pellicles and spores) to examine whether and how

the fate of GudB mutations change under different environments. Secondly,

conditions where drift prevailed (germination, biofilms and soil colonization)

were analyzed to reveal the relative contributions of selection *versus* chance and

the molecular mechanisms of drift.

Pleiotropy - fitness-effects of mutations are condition-dependent

While the FC values, and hence the fitness effects of mutations, were

reproducible under many conditions, their distribution varied widely between

conditions, including between carbon-nitrogen sources (**Fig. S5**). This indicates

pleiotropy – individual GudB alleles have different fitness effects in different

conditions. To quantify the level of pleiotropy, we compared the FC values of the

same GudB mutation across the 9 individual selection-dominated conditions.

Because the number of generations differs from one condition to another, we

focused on shift from beneficial to deleterious, and vice versa (sign, or

antagonistic pleiotropy) as the sign of the FC values of mutations indicates their

fitness sign irrespective of generation numbers. Representative dot plots

comparing the FC values across 3 different liquid conditions are shown (**Fig. 2a**).

These indicate that pleiotropy is common, even when comparing liquid cultures

with overlapping carbon-nitrogen sources. In particular, a significant number of

GudB mutations show antagonistic pleiotropy (dashed squares, **Fig. 2a**). Indeed,

the Pearson correlation values for the 36 possible pair-wise comparisons of 9

conditions were below 0.7 (**Fig. 2b**). Across all selection-dominated conditions,

up to 84% of alleles showed antagonistic pleiotropy in one or more of the 36 pair

wise comparisons, and 70% of alleles showed mild or strong antagonistic

pleiotropy. These pleiotropic effects are far beyond experimental noise, as

indicated by comparison to a control sample (**Fig. 2c**).

Overall, the dominance of pleiotropy meant that across all protein –

organismal fitness coupled conditions, 86% of the alleles were beneficial in at

least one condition. However, not a single mutation was beneficial across all

conditions. Further, if a mutation were to be considered deleterious if it was

purged in at least one condition, then 98% of the tested GudB mutations were

deleterious. To our knowledge, the degree of pleiotropy in protein mutations

across multiple environments has not been measured so far. The exceedingly

high degree of pleiotropy we found may relate to GudB's multiple roles, as an

enzyme and regulator, and also to the chosen mutated positions (oligomer

interface), but it may well be a general characteristic of proteins with key

physiological roles. In some samples, only two alleles were present at >1%

frequency, one being wild-type (**Fig. 3** & **Data S1**). The near-fixation of relatively

few alleles could indicate very strong selection acting on GudB. However, the

high $\overline{SD}$ and exceedingly high $\overline{SD}$syn values suggest fixation by chance (**Fig. 1c** &

d). What is then the nature of these few GudB 'winners', are they merely lucky?

Combined action of selection and drift in heterogeneous environments

While drift dominated in biofilms and soil colonization, curiously, wild type

GudB was enriched in up to 85% of these experiments suggesting that selection

does play a role (**Fig. 3**). To assess the action of selection, we compared the three

biofilm areas. There appears a systematic trend, whereby enriched alleles in the

edge are more likely to arise from alleles that persisted or even enriched in the

center (**Fig. 4a**). Similarly, although gradient biofilms were clearly dominated by

drift, 75% of the enriched alleles were neutral or beneficial under liquid growth

with proline, a condition under which GudB experiences the strongest selection

(**Fig. 4b**). This suggested that GudB is under selection at the early stages of

biofilm development. Accordingly, we found that in biofilm centers, the FC values

are less skewed and more reproducible (**Fig. S5**), and also, the center $\overline{SD}$syn

values are half than in the edge or wrinkles (**Table S3** & **Fig. S3b**). The $\overline{SD}$syn

values are obviously higher in the biofilms' center compared to liquid cultures,

but the trend suggests that at the onset of the biofilm's development, selection

acts on GudB (**Table S3** & **Fig. S3b**).

Similarly, we tested for signatures of selection in soil colonization. As in

biofilms, there is a statistically significant trend, whereby enriched alleles in the

root are more likely to arise from alleles that were enriched in the soil (**Fig. 4c**).

Further, 19 amino acid substitutions were enriched in at least 10 out of the 15

sequenced populations, suggesting reproducibility. Of these, in two amino acid

alleles, both synonymous codons enriched (D59A and D59V; $\overline{SD}$syn = 0.42 and

0.35; **Table S4**) thus indicating selection. Selection during soil colonization is

also manifested in the variation between biological replicas ($\overline{SD}$ values) of alleles

that were enriched in root populations being on average 20 % smaller than those

that were not (**Fig. 4d**). Finally, stop codons were purged in all biofilms and soil

populations, indicating, as expected, that GudB's activity is required for *B.*

subtilis' survival under these conditions [22,23].

Altogether, as expected [11], in biofilms, and particularly in soil colonization,

both drift and selection determine the fate of GudB alleles. The drivers of drift in

biofilms were further unraveled as described in the next section.

Drift in biofilms is driven by programmed prophage excisions

Mutagenic rates in biofilms are high and mutations with a selective advantage rapidly take over (genetic sweeps) [31]. Growth in biofilms is also spatially defined, giving rise to segregated lineages whereby an entire segment of the biofilm's edge stems from a single cell in which a beneficial mutation had first emerged [11]. GudB mutations that happen to be in these 'founder' cells might therefore fixate along these lineages. To examine this hypothesis, we sequenced samples for which enough genomic DNA was available (6 ordinary and 12 gradient biofilms, and for comparison, 2 Initial Mixes, 6 liquid and 4 pellicle samples). A range of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in various loci was identified across these samples (**Data S3**). We focused, however, on identifying genomic mutations that were not, or scarcely observed in the Initial Mix and/or in liquid samples and were thus emerged and enriched in the biofilms.

Foremost, we observed two large genome deletions that occurred in all biofilms with a frequency approaching 100% (**Figs. 5a** & **5b**). These deletions correspond to the excision of two mobile genetic elements, or prophages, *skin* and SP-β [32-34]. Excision of *skin* generates a functional protein: sigK - a sporulation-specific transcription factor essential for cell differentiation in *B. subtilis* [35]. The excision of SP-β generates a functional CapD – an enzyme mediating production of poly-γ-glutamate, an essential component in capsule formation and biofilm development [36,37]. Nearly all biofilm cells carried one of these variations, and most cells carried both (**Fig. 5a & b**; **Table S5** & **Data S3**). Given their dominance [38], these structural variations are likely to be the primary cause of genetic sweeps and of GudB's drift (**Fig. 5c**). These prophage excisions

are also likely to occur in the soil, but the DNA recovered from these samples

was insufficient to allow genome sequencing.

Exclusively in biofilms, we also detected 59 enriched SNPs in a conserved

region of 16S rRNA (**Table S5** & **Data S3**). However, *B. subtilis* has ten 16S rRNA

gene copies. Since these are essentially identical, we could not determine which

of these 10 paralogues carried mutations. However, per population, 98% of the

16S rRNA mutations occurred in the same Illumina read suggesting that one

paralogue was highly mutated while others remained intact (**Fig. S6**). At this

stage, the mechanism of inactivation by multiple proximal 16S mutations, and

how inactivation affects biofilm development, remains unclear. Large differences

in expression levels of 16S rRNA genes were identified *in P. aeruginosa* biofilms

[39], and ribosomal heterogeneity has been linked to biofilm development in *B.*

subtilis [40]. However, to our knowledge, mutations in the 16S rRNA genes have not

been reported in biofilms.

Overall, the 16S rRNA SNPs, and the structural variations in particular,

seem to have a key role in biofilm development in *B. subtilis*. Accordingly, most of

these genetic variations were reproducible between replica experiments (**Table**

S5) suggesting that they arose during biofilm growth, and then enriched due to

their adaptive potential [11]. Thus, although selection dictated the fate of GudB

mutations in the early stages of biofilm development, once biofilm promoting

mutations appeared and rapidly took over, they drove the fixation of any GudB

that happened to be present in the mutated cell.

Concluding remarks

Pleiotropy of mutations is assumed but not at the magnitude unraveled here.

Environmental changes, including minute ones like addition of arginine to a

proline medium, completely revert the effect of up to 84% of the tested GudB

mutations. Pleiotropy severely restricts protein sequence space –if all tested

conditions are considered, only 2% of the tested GudB mutations are neutral in

the 9 reproducible conditions -when selection strongly acts on GudB. This

suggests that wild-type GudB's sequence is in fact unique in being shaped under

multiple constrains and environments, as also indicated by its dominance in

many conditions. Together, pleiotropy and drift dictate the evolution of short-

term polymorphism (micro-evolution), but also the evolution of protein

sequences along long evolutionary times and across species (macro-evolution).

The correlation between the effects of mutations in laboratory mappings under

one specific condition and the natural sequence diversity is therefore limited [12].

Merging of data from multiple reproducible conditions does not seem to improve

correlation, also when applying a number of machine learning techniques

(stochastic gradient descent classifier, support vector machines, or random

forest classifier; **Fig. S7**).

Thus, along short evolutionary periods, proteins experience variable and

opposing selection pressures. Additionally, drift may lead to rapid fixation of

alleles that are marginally fit or even deleterious. The effects of drift have been

extensively studied initiated by Kimura's neutral theory [10]. Our results quantify

its effects in bacterial populations and the potential effect of drift in combination

with selection across different environments. For example, nearly 80% of the

tested mutations survived or enriched sporulation, and a single spore can start a

whole new population. However, once the environment changes, such alleles will

be rapidly lost unless compensated by other mutations. Indeed, along macro-

evolutionary time scales, epistasis dominates gene and genome sequences [41].

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Authors Contribution

L.N.G. and D.S.T. designed experiments and wrote the manuscript. L.N.G., D.D.

and D.S.T. analysed the data. L.N.G. performed all experiments, except selection

in soil colonization that was performed in collaboration with E.K. and A.A. D.D.

and A.E. wrote the scripts used for data analysis and visualization. E.P. applied

machine learning classification.

Fig. 1. Selection *versus* chance-dominated conditions. (A) Dot-plot indicating
reproducible measurements of frequency coefficients of individual mutations
(FC values) in three parallel replica liquid cultures with proline as carbon-
nitrogen source. $\overline{SD}$ is the average standard deviation between biological
replicas. The S.D. values were calculated per each amino acid allele based on
logFC values and averaged for all alleles in a given condition. **(B)** The same
analysis of three parallel biofilms with arginine as carbon-nitrogen source
indicates low reproducibility. **(C)** The $\overline{SD}$ values categorized by the 7 general
growth states tested here. Each point represents the $\overline{SD}$ value between replicas
of the same experiment (the distributions of SD values per each condition are
shown in **Fig. S3a**). **(D)** $\overline{SD}$syn represents the standard deviation between the
logFC values of synonymous codons. The standard deviations per allele were
averaged for all synonymous alleles in the same replica experiment, and then
averaged across the 3 replica experiments in a given condition (the distributions
of SD*syn* values per experiment are shown in **Fig. S3b**).
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Fig. 2. The pleiotropic effects of alleles across different conditions. (**A**) A
dot-blot correlation of FC values of individual alleles in three different liquid
carbon-nitrogen sources. The red squares encompass alleles that show sign
pleiotropy – i.e., a change from beneficial to deleterious, or vice versa. (**B**)
Pairwise correlation of the FC values in all 9 different reproducible conditions
(average FC values of all alleles and replicas). Colors indicate the Pearson
correlation values (-1, negative correlation; 0, no correlation; 1, positive
correlation). The strongest anti-correlation was found with arginine as carbon-
nitrogen source (black square). **(C)** The distribution of alleles by their level of
sign pleiotropy. From pale to dark): (*i*) Weak sign pleiotropy (changes between
deleterious and beneficial); (*ii*) Mild sign pleiotropy (changes from highly
deleterious to beneficial, or from highly beneficial to deleterious); and (*iii*)
Strong sign pleiotropy (changes from highly deleterious to highly beneficial, or
vice versa). The fraction of alleles showing mild or strong sign pleiotropy is
shown above the bars. The control dataset comprises 4 completely independent
growth experiments in liquid proline, each inoculated from a different initial mix
and grown on separate occasions (**Fig. S8**). Nonetheless, none of the alleles in
this control set exhibited strong pleiotropy.
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Fig. 3. Genetic sweeps in biofilms and soil. Photographs of: **(A)** normal
biofilms; **(B)** gradient biofilms; **(C)** a scheme of soil colonization (shown biofilms
with proline as carbon-nitrogen source). **(D)** The distribution of frequency of
individual alleles for different growth states with proline as carbon-nitrogen
source. Bar widths represent allele frequency from raw read counts (Rf values**;**
Data S1). Magenta corresponds to wild type GudB. **(E)** Alleles with Rf ≥ 1% were
identified and their number and sum of frequencies are shown (averages and
standard deviations for all experiments in a given condition). Blue designates
selection-dominated conditions and red drift-dominated ones, as in **Fig. 1**.
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Fig. 4. The combined action of selection and chance in biofilms (red) and soil colonization (green). (A) Alleles that enriched in the edge of the biofilms are more likely to arise from alleles that were neutral or enriched in the center. The distribution of categorized FC values from all biofilm centers (grey) compared to the distribution of FC values of center alleles that were enriched in the edge (red). **(B)** The distribution of categorized FC values of all alleles in all liquid conditions (grey) compared to the distribution of FC values of liquid alleles that were enriched in the edge of biofilms (red). **(C)** Alleles enriched in the root are more likely to arise from alleles that were enriched in the bulk soil. The distribution of categorized allele FC values in all soil samples (grey) compared to the distribution of FC values of soil alleles that were enriched in the root (green). T-tests were computed per each FC category. One, two or three asterisks indicate a p-value < 0.05, <0.001, or < 0.005, respectively. **(D)** The distribution of SD values (variability between replica experiments, as in **Fig. 1c**) of alleles enriched in one or more root populations compared to alleles that were never enriched in the roots.

Fig. 5. Programmed genomic excisions drive GudB's drift in biofilms.
Schematic representation of *B. subtilis* genomic organization before and after the
excision of the prophage mobile elements SP-β (**A**) and *skin* (**B**) and their
position in the genome. (**C**) These excisions were absent in the initial mix yet
dominated biofilms and went to near fixation in the edge of gradient biofilms (for
frequencies in individual experiments see **Table S5**). Excision of the mobile
elements occurred in two different genomic locations within the same
experiment. The values were summed and averaged according to the general
condition shown. The details of the excisions (location and frequency) per
experiment are shown in **Data S3**.
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Materials and Methods

Strains

B. subtilis NCIB 3610 DS7187 (gently gifted by Dr. Daniel B. Kearns [42]) that lacks the ComI peptide and has high competence capacity similar to domesticated *B. subtilis* strains was recruited to this study. *Bacillus subtilis* NCIB 3610 *gudB::tet* strain [23] genomic DNA was transformed into *B. subtilis* NCIB 3610 DS7187. *B. subtilis* NCIB 3610 *ΔcomI gudB::tet* was thus isolated, and was phenotypically and genetically tested.

GudB allele library construction

We performed site directed mutagenesis in 10 codons (amino acids: M46, L48, K52, D58, D59, S61, K63, T66, Y68, S75) of the *gudB* gene cloned in the pDG_GudB plasmid [23]. The codons were mutated to NNS (N = all bases & S = C or G) whereby the 20 standard amino acids and 1 stop codon is encoded. The codon mutagenesis was done in one step PCR protocol and independently for each position. Thus, we created 10 libraries, each containing 20 different amino acid alleles (non-synonymous, missense mutations), 1 stop-codon (nonsense), and 11 synonymous alleles (alternative codons encoding the same amino acid). All mutagenic PCRs were performed with Kapa HiFi HotStart Ready Mix (Kapa Biosystems) following manufacturers conditions (**Table S6** shows the sequence of all primers). The 10 PCR products were purified and used to transform the *E. coli* T10 strain (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Clones were pulled together after an overnight growth on LB + Ampicillin (100 µg/ml) agar plates at 37°C. At this stage, 4 to 6 clones per library were isolated and analyzed by sequencing. Total plasmid DNA from these library transformations was extracted and also analyzed by sequencing. Each of the 10 libraries contained, after transformation, at least 10^5 clones, corresponding to ≥ 1000-fold coverage per allele. Approximately 10 µg of plasmid DNA, from each library, was linearized (XhoI, New England Biolabs, following manufactures conditions), purified, and used to transform the *B. subtilis* NCIB 3610 *gudB::tet ΔcomI* strain. Transformations were performed as described [23]. After transformation, overnight growth on in + Spectinomycin (100µg/ml) + Glucose (0.5 mg/ml) agar plates was used as selection. The resulting cells were pulled together and kept at -20°C in 50%

glycerol. In total, 10 *B. subtilis* libraries were constructed in parallel and each
contained, after transformation, at least 10^4 clones (≥100-fold coverage per
allele). Genomic DNA extraction of each library was performed (GenElute -
Sigma). The integrity of the mutagenic process was verified by sanger
sequencing the *amyE::gudB* locus indicating that mutations were observed only
in the diversified codon.
566
Selection and growth conditions
10 ml of LB with Glucose (0.5%), ammonium sulfate (0.5%) and spectinomycin
(100 µg/ml) cultures were inoculated with 1 ml of each library stock. The
cultures were grown overnight at 37°C with shaking. 500 µl of the overnight
culture was used to inoculate 3 ml of LB plus glucose (0.5%) and ammonium
sulfate (0.5%). The cultures were incubated at 37°C with shaking and once the
O.D.$_{600}$ reached 0.8 they were mixed equally and used as the starting population
(Initial Mix). A fraction of the cells at this stage were harvested by centrifugation
and stored for genomic DNA purification. In total, three different initial mixes
were used for the experiments described here. Initial Mix #1 was used to
inoculate most liquid conditions (4 carbon-nitrogen sources), pellicles and
gradient biofilms. Initial Mix #2 was used to inoculate 1 liquid condition, spores,
germination and biofilms, and Initial Mix #3 was used to inoculate bulk soil
(**Data S1**). Detailed selection conditions are listed below:
For selection under liquid serial passages 100 ul of the Initial Mix was used to
inoculate 10 ml cultures of MS medium [23] with glucose (0.5%) plus ammonium
sulfate (0.5%), glutamate (0.5%) plus glycerol (0.5%), proline (0.5%), arginine
(0.5%) or proline (0.25%) plus arginine (0.25%). The cultures were incubated at
37°C with shaking until O.D.$_{600}$ reached 1 – 1.5, after which 100 µl was used to
inoculate 10 mL of fresh medium. The serial passages were done every 24 hours
when proline (0.5%), arginine (0.5%) or proline (0.25%) plus arginine (0.25%)
where used as carbon-nitrogen sources, and every 12 hours when glucose
(0.5%) plus ammonium sulfate (0.5%), or Glutamate (0.5%) plus glycerol
(0.5%), were applied. In total, all liquid passages were maintained for
approximately 50 generations.

For selection in pellicles, 100 ml of media (b), (c) and (d) were inoculated with
100 µl of the initial mix cells. The culture was incubated at 30°C without shaking,
for 5 days.

For selection of spores and germinated spores, three ml of the Initial Mix was
used to inoculate 25 ml of Difco Sporulation Medium (DSM) in 250 ml flasks and
incubated at 37°C with 150 rpm shaking until O.D.600 reached 0.4. This culture
was used to inoculate 250 ml of fresh DSM in 1L flasks. The cultures were
incubated 48h at 37°C with 150 rpm shaking. Cells were subsequently harvested
by centrifugation and stored at 4°C over night. After, cells were re-suspended
with 200 ml of cold deionized sterile water (dW) and incubated for 30 min at
4°C. Cells were harvested and re-suspended with 200 ml of cold distilled water
(dW) and incubated overnight at 4°C with slow orbital agitation, to kill all
planktonic of vegetative cells. The culture was harvested, re-suspended in 30 ml
of dW and heated to 80°C for 20 min. Finally, spores were harvested, re-
suspended in 10 ml of dW, and stored at -20°C. To germinate these spores, they
were diluted 1000 times in phosphate-buffered saline solution and 100 µl of this
suspension was used to inoculate LB plus glucose (0.5%) agar plates (10 plates).
Approximately 10,000 colonies were obtained and pulled together.

For selection in biofilms, MS agar (1.5%) plates supplemented with different
carbon-nitrogen sources were prepared. For gradient biofilms, gradient agar
plates were prepared. First, square plates (12x12 cm) with MS agar (1.5%)
medium were poured. After the agar solidified, an area of 2x14 cm was removed
from the top of the plate. In this area, a solution of either Proline 5%, Arginine
5%, monosodium glutamate 5% or Glycerol 5% in 1.5% agar was poured into
the removed section. For the glutamate plus glycerol gradient biofilm, two
opposite areas of the agar plate were removed. Into one, a solution of
monosodium glutamate (5%) in 1.5% agar was poured, and into the other,
glycerol (5%) plus 1.5% agar solution (see **Fig. S9a** for a graphic representation
of the agar plates preparation). All gradient agar plates were incubated for 24 h
at room temperature before use. We also calibrated the place in the gradient
plate where we inoculated the cells such that we observed growth after 1 night
incubation at 30°C (**Fig. S9b**). For growth in biofilms and gradient biofilms, 5 µl
of the Initial Mix were used as inoculum. Plates were incubated for 4 days at

30°C and 2 more days at room temperature. The colony was then dissected in 3

areas (center, wrinkle and edge) for normal biofilms, and in 2 areas (center and

upper) for gradient biofilms (illustrated in **Fig. S9c-g**). After selection in all the

above-mentioned conditions the biomass was harvested and storage at -20°C. All

growth experiments were performed in triplicate by inoculating with the same

Initial Mix.

For selection in soil and plant roots, the Initial Mix was generated as above-

mentioned except that the process was scaled up (instead of 3 ml, 10 ml of

culture was prepared per library). In total, 200 ml of the Initial Mix (O.D.$_{600}$ = 0.8)

was applied. This LB culture was washed three times (by means of centrifugation

and re-suspension) with 100 ml half strength Hoagland solution [43]. Since

Hoagland's solution is not isotonic, the washes resulted in death of about a third

of the *B. subtilis* cells. Thus, handling the samples at this stage was performed as

fast as possible. After the final wash, the cells were re-suspended in half strength

Hoagland solution to a final O.D.$_{600}$ of 0.1. Natural soil was collected at the Ha-

Masrek Reserve, Israel (31.793 N, 35.042 E), sifted through 2 mm sieve and

autoclaved three times for 30 min at 121°C. A total of five pots (size 10 x 8 x 5

cm) with autoclaved natural soil were drenched with the Initial Mix suspended

in half strength Hoagland Solution [43]. These potted soils drenched with bacterial

suspensions were used to plant tomato seedlings grown first in sterile

conditions. Seeds of tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum L.*; cv. Micro-Tom) were

surface-sterilized with 70% ethanol for 5 minutes and, 10 minutes with 3%

bleach with 0.01% Tween 20. Surface-sterile seeds were germinated on sterile

filter paper (Whatman, catalog # 1001-085) saturated with half strength

Hoagland Solution for 7 days (23°C and 16 hours photoperiod). Six tomato

seedlings were transferred to each pot and grown for one month (21°C, 16h

light, 8h dark) with drenching with half strength Hoagland twice a week. Plants

were subsequently harvested from the five pots. Roots and rhizosphere samples

were collected for each replica experiment consisting a pool of six roots. First,

the plants were carefully removed from the soil. Roots were then cut out from

the plants and vortexed in 20 ml of washing solution (0.85% NaCl) for 30 s. This

step was repeated one more time with a fresh washing solution. The combined

root washing solutions (40 ml) was centrifuged for 30 min at 3000 rpm and the

resulted pelleted samples corresponding to the rhizosphere were frozen in liquid
nitrogen and stored at -80°C. The washed roots were blotted in filter paper and
stored at −80°C until further use. Finally, bulk soil without roots was also stored
at −80°C.

Genomic DNA extraction

All samples, including pellicle, spores, biofilm and gradient biofilm samples, were
defrosted and re-suspended in 10 ml of dW. The samples were sonicated at 40%
power, VibraCell, Sonics, for 10 min at 60 s intervals. Cells debris was harvested
by centrifugation (13,000 g for 20 min). Genomic DNA from all samples was
extracted using the GenElute Bacterial Genomic DNA Kit (Sigma-Aldrich)
generally following the manufacturer's instructions, with the exception of the
soil, rhizosphere soil and plant roots samples. For these samples, the PowerSoil
DNA Isolation kit of Mo Bio was used, following its manufacturer's instructions.

Illumina sample preparations

The mutagenized *gudB* fragment (from amino acids 45 to 81) was amplified
using   the   primers   GudB_In_For   (5'-
CTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTnnnnnnCCCGAAGAGGTATACGAATTGT
TAAAAGAG),   and   GudB_In_Rev   (5'-
CTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGCTCTTCCGATCTCGCCTTTCGTTGGACCGAC).   To   the
GudB_In_For primer, 6 N's were added to increase the sequence variability
between amplicons. PCRs were performed with the KapaHiFi HotStart Ready Mix
(Kapa Biosystems) using approximately 100 ng of genomic DNA as template and
following manufacturer's instructions. Using 10 µl of the PCR as template, a
second PCR was performed to add the Illumina adaptor sequence, using primers
GudB_Out_For   (5'-
AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGC)   and
GudB_Out_Rev   (5'-
CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGAT<u>TGTTATAC</u>GTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGC).
The Illumina index (underlined) was changed in the GudB_Out_Rev primer to
different Illumina indexes. Each condition was differently barcoded. All PCRs
were   purified   using   the   Agencourt   AMPure   XP   (Beckman   Coulter).   The

concentration of PCR products was verified using Qu-bit assay (Life
Technologies).

Analysis of the Illumina reads

DNA samples were run using the Illumina NextSeq 150-bp paired-end kit. The
FASTQ sequence files were obtained for each run and customized using MatLab
8.0 and Python 3.6 scripts designed to count the number of each individual allele
in each sequenced sample. We filtered the reads to exclude any reads that have
mutations outside the mutagenized codons. All codons encoding for the wild-
type amino acid were summed in one and assigned as WT. All other codons were
counted independently. The unprocessed read counts are shown in **Data S1**.
Further filtering excluded alleles with < 100 counts in the Initial mix to avoid
statistical uncertainty with respect to FC values. In total, we obtained data for up
to 269 individual alleles per condition out of the originally introduced 320
alleles. Per condition, a minimum of 380,000 reads was obtained. Thus, in
average, we obtained 1500 reads per allele.

Data Analysis

The frequency of each allele (f_i) was calculated as the ratio between the number
of reads for allele i divided by the total number of reads. The allele frequency
coefficient (FC_i) was subsequently calculated as the ratio of after selection (f_j)
divided by the frequency of the same allele in the initial mix (**Fig. S2** & **Data S2**).
Normalization by the number of wild-type reads rather than by the total number
of reads gave essentially identical FC values for the majority of samples.
However, in the few samples where wild-type frequency was significantly
reduced after selection, normalization by wild-type reads resulted in high noise
and large biases including large changes in sign (higher sign pleiotropy). FC
values relate to fitness logarithmically, and thus logFC values were compared. To
this end, all FC's equal to zero had to be changed, and we opted for a tenth of the
minimum FC value found amongst all experiments. For the liquid, pellicles,
biofilms, spores and germinated spores experiments (**Data S2, sheet 1**) the
zeros were changed to 4.2×10^{-6}. For the bulk soil experiments (**Data S2, sheet
2**) zeros were changed to 1.14×10^{-5}. The logarithm of all FC values was
calculated and was also used to derive mean FC values. The logFC values were

then used to calculate: (i) the standard deviation for all alleles across conditions
($\overline{SD}$; the standard deviation between logFC values observed per each allele in
replica experiments were averaged for all alleles measured in a given condition);
(ii) the standard deviation between synonymous codons within the same replica
experiment (deviations between logFC values of synonymous codons of the same
amino acid allele were calculated, averaged for all alleles in the same experiment,
and then for all replica experiments per condition).
731
Defining the limits of neutrality
From all conditions tested here, only in glucose plus ammonia the GudB
knockout had no growth effect (**Fig. S1**). Hence, this condition is largely neutral,
and the variation observed in FC values would primarily be the outcome of noise.
The standard deviation between 3 biological replicas was calculated per allele,
and these values spanned over the range of 0.002 to 0.199. We rounded this
number to 0.2. Thus, by the strictest measure, FC values between 0.8 and 1.2
were classified as 'neutral'. Accordingly, FC ≤0.8 unambiguously assigned a
mutation as 'deleterious', and FC >1.2 as 'beneficial'.
741
Genome sequencing
We sequenced the genomic DNA of all biofilm populations for which we had ≥ 1
μg of DNA after extraction (6 normal and 12 gradient biofilm). For comparison,
we also sequenced Initial mix populations 1 and 2, 6 Liquid and 4 pellicle
populations. The Illumina HiSeq2500 platform was used, with 2x125 base pairs
read length. We obtained a total of 300 million reads. The reads were assembled
using as reference the *B. subtilis* NCIB 3610 genome (NCBI Accession number:
CP020102). Overall, 95% of all reads were successfully mapped to the reference
genome with minimal coverage of x300 for all samples analyzed. The Breseq
program was used to identify genomic variants, including single nucleotide
polymorphisms (SNPs) and insertion-deletion polymorphisms (INDELs) [44] (**Data**
S3 & **Table S5**).
754
Comparison of FC values and to GudB's natural sequence variability

We examined whether the FC values for individual mutations, in individual

conditions, might predict whether or not a certain sequence exchange is

observed, or not, amongst the sequences of extant GDHs. To this end, we

constructed a number of different support vector machines (SVM) classification

models with a variety of kernels (such as linear, Gaussian, polynomial etc.). The

feature vector of each GudB allele was composed from the normalized FC values

from specific condition. The values from replica experiments of the highly

reproducible liquid conditions were averaged prior to training. Based on the

multiple sequence alignment containing 1013 GDH sequences, we divided the

GudB mutations in our dataset into 3 categories, which were then utilized as the

prediction labels: (1) mutations seen in less than 5 natural GDH sequences

(classified as 'not present', 66% of mutations), (2) mutations observed in 5 - 49

sequences ('rare', 19%) and (3) mutations present in ≥50 sequences ('frequent',

15%). Introducing class weights into the loss function compensated the

unbalanced nature of the dataset. For each feature combination of a varied

length, we built an SVM classification model and assessed its accuracy using 3-

fold cross validation. Additionally, in order to reduce noise, assuming that our

data belong to linear space, we extracted the first ten principal components of

the feature matrix and used them as the new feature vectors for a model

construction. To examine if our relatively high (>0.6) model accuracy was

distributed uniformly across different classes, for each model and genotype, we

recorded the predicted values during 3-fold cross-validation. Moreover, for each

condition combination, and for each kernel, we built 100 different models and

recorded the number of times each of the genotypes was predicted correctly.