High-throughput experimental evolution using barcoded strains of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*

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13   ABSTRACT

Experimental evolution of microbes can be used to empirically address a wide range of

questions about evolution. Because fitness assays are a central component of experimental

evolution, they can limit the scope and throughput of such studies. We created an experimental

evolution system in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* that utilizes genetic barcoding to overcome this

challenge. We confirm that barcode insertions do not alter fitness and can be used to detect

fitness differences of 2%. Using this system, we examine here the effects of ploidy, stress, and

population bottleneck size on the evolutionary dynamics and fitness gains in a total of 76

experimentally evolving populations by conducting 2,136 fitness assays and analyzing 532

longitudinal-evolutionary samples collected from evolving populations. Our experimental

treatments generated distinct fitness effects and evolutionary dynamics quantified via

multiplexed fitness assays and barcode lineage tracking, respectively, demonstrating the utility

of this new resource for designing and improving high-throughput studies of experimental

evolution. The approach described here provides a framework for future studies using this

experimental system.

30   INTRODUCTION

Experimental evolution in microorganisms such as yeast, bacteria, and viruses has been used to

answer evolutionary questions that are experimentally intractable in organisms with longer

generation times (de Varigny 1892; Garland and Rose 2009; Kassen 2014; Van den Bergh et al.

2018). A central benefit of most experimental evolution systems is the ability to replicate and

repeat evolution as well as the ability to store and compete evolved, intermediate, and

ancestral strains (Van den Bergh et al. 2018). Indeed, if there is a single unifying theme to what

we have learned from experimental evolution it is that adaptation is universal and often

repeatable due to parallel changes down to the molecular level (Burke, Liti, and Long 2014;

Kohn and Anderson 2014; Bailey et al. 2017; Graves et al. 2017; Bailey, Guo, and Bataillon

2018). The power of this approach has led to numerous investigations of the effects of

population size (Schoustra et al. 2009; A. C. Gerstein et al. 2011; Bailey et al. 2017) and

structure (Bell and Gonzalez 2011; Kryazhimskiy, Rice, and Desai 2012; Low-Décarie et al. 2015),

mutation rate (Lenski, Sniegowski, and Gerrish 1997; Loewe, Textor, and Scherer 2003; Perfeito

et al. 2007; Swings et al. 2017), and various environmental treatments (B. S. Hughes, Cullum,

and Bennett 2007; R. Dhar et al. 2011; Riddhiman Dhar et al. 2013; Zhou et al. 2013; Horinouchi

et al. 2015; Huang et al. 2018).

Measuring adaptation by changes in fitness is a core requirement of experimental evolution

that often limits its implementation. Fitness assays involve direct competition of individuals or

populations against one another or a common reference, and traditionally have been calculated

using neutral markers scored by plating assays. For example, the long-term experimental

evolution conducted by Lenski and colleagues is scored by counting colonies that can ferment

arabinose based on colony color (Lenski et al. 1991). Many recent studies use fluorescently

marked strains such that co-cultured strains can be counted by flow-cytometry (Gresham et al.

2008; A. C. Gerstein et al. 2011; Selmecki et al. 2015). However, the number of fitness assays,

and thereby the resolution of those assays remain limited, which poses a challenge for large-

scale projects. The primary constraint limiting the scale of these studies is that measuring

fitness requires replicate assays, often under a variety of conditions. For example, an

experiment with 100 strains evolved in a single environment would require 600 fitness assays if

one were to measure, in triplicate, the fitness of each ancestral strain and each evolved strain

in relation to a common reference. Additionally, each of these assays would require measuring

the frequency of the two strains at the beginning and end of the competition. Equally important

is the ability to detect small changes in fitness, which is directly related to the number of

replicate assays per strain and the noise of the assay itself.

Genetic barcodes can vastly increase the throughput of these analyses through pooled-fitness

assay designs. In a barcoding approach, each strain is marked by insertion of a unique neutral

DNA sequence into its genome (i.e., its barcode), enabling the easy quantification of the relative

abundance of multiple strains when they are simultaneously competed against a common

reference. Microarrays (Roth et al. 2009) and more recently, direct sequencing of barcodes

(Giaever and Nislow 2014), have been used to measure the effects of thousands of single gene

deletions using this approach. Barcodes have also been used in experimental evolution. A pool

of half a million barcoded yeast strains made it possible to detect and track the fate of each

barcoded lineage (Blundell and Levy 2014; Levy et al. 2015). Other research with these

barcoded strains has focused on isolating strains with adaptive mutations, tracking lineages

during evolution and quantifying fitness via competition-based fitness assays (Venkataram et al.

2016; Li et al. 2018).

In this study we describe a novel set of barcoded yeast strains and characterize their utility for

experimental evolution. The system is composed of a collection of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*

strains, individually barcoded with unique 20 bp sequences inserted upstream of the *HO* locus;

this barcoding strategy offers a number of advantages for experimental evolution. First, cross-

contamination between populations with different barcodes can be detected and monitored.

Second, populations can be initiated with mixtures of multiple barcodes for tracking adaptive

dynamics (Kao and Sherlock 2008; Selmecki et al. 2015). Finally, fitness can be measured from

the entire set of strains in a single pooled fitness assay, which dramatically increases efficiency

relative to earlier methods. To demonstrate the capabilities of this system we began by

conducting a series of proof-of-concept fitness assays and subsequently applied what we

learned in a short, 25-day (~250-generation) experimental evolution. These analyses confirm

that barcode insertions (1) do not alter the fitness of our source strains, (2) enable the

detection of fitness differences as small as 2%, and (3) provide a means of measuring fitness

differences and evolutionary dynamics for individual lineages from pooled samples obtained at

different stages of experimental evolution. We highlight the advantages of multiplexing

samples with indexing and the importance of limiting molecular contamination between initial

sampling and library construction. Taken together, this system represents a new resource for

designing and improving high-throughput studies in experimental evolution.

99   MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains, media and culture methods

Barcoded yeast strains were constructed using two haploid derivatives of a diploid strain

collected from an Oak tree in Pennsylvania (YPS163) (Sniegowski, Dombrowski, and Fingerman

2002): YJF153 (MATa, *HO*::dsdAMX4) and YJF154 (MATalpha, *HO*::dsdAMX4). Barcoded kanMX

deletion cassettes were amplified from the MoBY plasmid collection (Magtanong et al. 2009)

with primers containing homology to the promoter region (-1,129 to -1,959) of *HO*. A set of 92

barcoded cassettes were selected based on confirmation of correct barcodes by sequencing

(Table S1), then transformed into YJF153 and confirmed by PCR. Barcoded diploid strains were

made by mating barcoded haploids (YJF153) to YJF154, and confirming diploids by mating-type

PCR (Huxley, Green, and Dunbam 1990). Strains were stored at -80°C as 15% glycerol stocks.

All evolution and fitness assays were conducted in complete minimal medium (CM;2% dextrose,

0.17% yeast nitrogen base without amino acid and ammonium sulfate, 0.5% ammonium

sulfate, 0.13% dropout mix complete without yeast nitrogen base) with or without additional

stresses in 96-deep well plates (2.2-ml poly-propylene plates, square well, v-conical bottom;

Abgene AB-0932) covered with rayon acrylate breathable membranes (Thermo Scientific,

1256705). Growth plates were incubated at 30°C for 24 hours inside an incubator (VWR, Forced

Air Incubator, basic, 120v, 7 cu. ft.) with agitation using a horizontal electromagnetic microplate

shaker (Union Scientific LLC, 9779-TC). Saturated 24-hour culture was diluted (1:1000) into

fresh medium at the same time each day to initialize the next round of growth for all evolution

and fitness assays.

Starting material for all evolution and fitness assays originated from -80°C freezer stocks of the

barcoded yeast strains. Yeast were revived from -80°C freezer stocks via a single round of

growth (1 day, 10 generations) under standard culture conditions for these assays. Samples

collected during our experiments were stored as both (1) 15% glycerol stocks at -80°C to

maintain viable freezer stocks of yeast populations, and (2) pelleted samples at -20°C for DNA

extraction.

Experimental design

Proof-of-concept fitness assays: The design of this new system for experimental evolution

began with a proof-of-concept analysis in which (1) methods were optimized, and (2) it was

confirmed that the fitness of multiple strains in pooled samples could be simultaneously and

accurately measured by sequencing-based competition assay methods. This initial step involved

measuring the fitness of 91 barcoded yeast strains relative to an ancestral reference strain

simultaneously using a sequencing-based fitness assay (Figure 1, A.). Ten replicate fitness assays

were conducted under standard culture conditions. Briefly, 92 yeast strains were revived from -

80°C freezer stocks, mixed in equal proportions (i.e., such that each strain comprised 1/92 of

the pooled population), and diluted (1:1000) into fresh medium to initialize the two-day proof-

of-concept fitness assays. Samples were obtained from the undiluted initial mixtures and, 20

generations later, from the final overnight population cultures. Fitness was measured by the

change in barcode abundance relative to a 'reference' strain (d1H10) from 10 replicates over

the two-day period of approximately 20 generations, for a total of 920 fitness assays (92

barcodes x 10 replicates). See "Fitness Calculations", below for a full description of the

competition-based fitness assay methodology and for calculations of fitness from barcode

abundance data. DNA was isolated separately for each sample using a ZR Fungal/Bacterial DNA

Kit (Zymo Research D6005) in individual 2.0 mL screw-cap tubes following the manufacturer's

instructions. Physical cell disruption by bead-beating was carried out in a mixer mill (Retsch,

MM 300) at 30 Hz (1800 min^{-1}) for ten minutes (1-minute on, 1-minute off, times ten cycles).

Following extraction, DNA was amplified with forward/reverse primers containing a 9-12 bp

index for multiplex sequencing. PCR products were quantified, pooled and purified to form a

single multiplexed library for sequencing. Additional control samples were also included in the

library to track barcode cross-contamination. See "Library Construction and Sequencing",

below, for a detailed description of the library preparation protocol used for these and all other

samples.

250-Generation evolution experiment: After establishment of the feasibility of the analysis

strategy and optimization of the culture, assay, and processing methods, yeast strains were

evolved for 25 days (i.e., ca. 250 generations at 9.97 generations per day) under different

scenarios of selection in a second set of experiments. Specifically, 152 yeast strains were

evolved by serial dilution in one of six different treatments (Figure 1, B1.; See Table S2 for

treatment descriptions). Evolutionary treatments involved growth in either complete media

(CM), CM with ethanol (8% by volume) or CM with NaCl (0.342 M). Serial transfers were

achieved either through standard dilution (1:1000), reduced dilution (1:250), or increased

dilution (1:4000). Haploid and diploid yeast were evolved under standard conditions to assess

the effects of ploidy. To initialize the evolution experiment, barcoded yeast strains were revived

from -80°C freezer stocks. Barcoded yeast pairs slated to evolve in sympatry were then mixed in

equal proportions and diluted in fresh medium, according to the experimental design, to begin

the 250 generations of evolution.

Samples were obtained from the initial undiluted mixtures and on day 25 (ca. 250 generations

later), from the final overnight population cultures to serve as the starting material for the

Generation-0 fitness assays and Generation-250 fitness assays, respectively (See: *End-point*

assay of relative fitness change). Additional Samples were obtained at generations 0, 100, 150,

200, 220, 240, and 250 for evolutionary dynamics analysis (See: *Evolutionary Dynamics*). Two

assays, evolutionary dynamics and end-point relative fitness, were developed to characterize

the evolutionary processes and fitness change outcomes observed in the 250-generation

evolution experiment:

Evolutionary Dynamics: Relative proportions of pairs of barcoded yeast strains evolved in

sympatry were quantified at generations 0, 100, 150, 200, 220, 240, and 250 from a total of 532

evolutionary dynamics samples collected from the evolving populations. Briefly, evolutionary

dynamics samples were pooled for DNA extraction such that there was no barcode overlap

within pools. DNA was subsequently extracted (see the "Proof-of-concept fitness assays"

section, above, for details). Libraries were constructed for sequencing as described in the

"Library construction and sequencing" section, below. From these evolutionary dynamics data,

the time-point (t-max) and magnitude (m-max) of the maximum change in relative abundance

in comparison to the starting conditions, the time-point (t-max-rate) and magnitude (m-max-

rate) of the maximum rate of change between adjacent time-points, the time-point (t-max-diff)

max difference (m-max-diff) in BC proportions, and the total cumulative change in sympatric

barcode relative abundance across all time-points were quantified. Barcodes approaching

fixation (hereafter referred to as "fixed barcodes") were also noted and were defined as cases

in which a single barcode from the sympatric barcode pair obtained (and maintained) a

proportion of 0.95 or greater by (through) generation 250 of the evolution experiment.

End-point assays of relative fitness: The second assay type, the "end-point assay of relative

fitness", was designed to assess the fitness of a given focal strain relative to a reference via

barcoded competition-based fitness assay; these measures, if taken at the start and end of an

experimental evolution, provide a means of measuring fitness change. In this case, the assay

involved quantifying barcode fitness using pooled samples from generation 0 (Figure 1, B2.)

and generation 250 (Figure 1, B3.) from the 250-generation evolution experiment (Figure 1,

B1.). Briefly, Generation-0 and Generation-250 yeast strains were revived and samples from

each time point were pooled such that there was no overlap in barcoded yeast strain identity

within each pool. Pools of revived generation-0 and generation-250 yeast were independently

combined in equal proportion (50 pooled-yeast : 50 ancestral reference) with an ancestral

reference strain (re: an 'unevolved' barcoded yeast strain); these pooled samples were then

diluted into fresh medium to initialize the fitness assays. Four replicate Fitness assays were

conducted for each pool of generation-0 and generation-250 yeast. Fitness assays employed a

standard 1:1000 transfer dilution across all samples. Samples evolved in CM plus additional

stresses were assayed in the same media type that they were evolved in. Diploid yeast were

competed against a diploid reference strain (strain ID: d1H10), while haploid yeast were

competed against the haploid version of this same reference (strain ID: h1H10). In these assays,

yeast samples for DNA extraction were obtained from the undiluted initial mixtures (fitness

assay starting material), and, 20 generations later, from the final overnight population cultures

(fitness assay end) to assess fitness of generation-0 and generation-250 yeast strains. See

"Fitness Calculations", below, for a full description of fitness assay methodology and for

calculations of fitness from fitness assay barcode abundance data. Libraries were constructed

for sequencing as described in the "Library construction and sequencing section", below.

Library construction and sequencing: Barcode sequencing libraries for the proof-of-concept

fitness assays and all samples from both components of the 250-generation evolution

experiment were constructed by amplification of the MoBY barcodes (Magtanong et al. 2009)

with primers containing Ion Torrent adaptors with indexes to distinguish samples from one

another (Table S3).

PCR products for library construction were initially generated using 25 cycles and quantified

(Qubit 3.0 Flourometer, high sensitivity assay kit). These products were subsequently combined

at equimolar concentrations and purified using a Zymo DNA Clean & Concentrator kit (Zymo

Research D4014) to create a single library for sequencing. The extraction and PCR steps were

repeated for samples that did not attain sufficient DNA concentrations.

DNA libraries were sequenced using an Ion Torrent sequencer (Ion Proton System, Ion Torrent)

at the Genomics Core Facility at Saint Louis University with a customized parameter to assess

polyclonality after 31bp (the start position of the forward Ion Torrent adapter index sequence).

A single sequencing run was used for each pooled library (library 1 – proof-of-concept fitness

assays, library 2 – evolution experiment: evolutionary dynamics samples, Generation-0 fitness

assays, and Generation-250 fitness assays). An additional library was constructed for a set of

samples from library 2 with elevated barcode contamination rates.

Sequence data processing & calculations

Sequence datasets: Sequence data in FASTQ format were parsed and demultiplexed using

custom scripts in R (See Code and Data Availability statement, below) A total of 142,243,245

raw reads that matched the forward Ion Torrent adapter indices included in our experiment

(omitting reads that matched no forward adapter, polyclonal reads, low quality reads, and

adapter dimer reads) were recovered across the three sequenced libraries. 104,365,740 reads

(73.4%) were retained for analysis that perfectly matched a forward sequencing adapter index

(9-12 bp), reverse sequencing adapter index (9-12 bp) pair, and a MOBY genetic barcode (20

bp) included in the full experimental design.

Barcode contamination rate: The barcoded yeast experimental evolution system has an innate

ability to detect and track barcode contamination that could arise during evolution, over the

course of short-term fitness assays, or during DNA library preparation. Barcode contamination

rate was defined as the mean number of counts mapping to any given barcoded yeast strain

included in the full experimental design (sequenced library), but not expected to be present in

the given sample (pair of forward and reverse IonTorrent adapter Indices). Barcode

contamination rates were calculated separately for each unique forward-reverse index pair

included in each sequencing library and are essentially a measure of how much noise an

average contaminating barcode strain contributes to each sample. The barcode contamination

rate of sample (primer pair) j, B_j, was measured as,

Equation 1.

$$B_j = \frac{\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m} C_i}{T_j}$$

where m is the number of barcoded strains that could potentially contribute to barcode

contamination in experiment j (i.e., the number of unique strain IDs included in the full library,

but not expected in sample j), C_i is the number of barcoded yeast strain counts recovered for

contaminating barcode i, and T_j is the total number of counts recovered in sample j across all

barcoded yeast strains included in the full experimental design.

Contamination rate summaries are reported, separately, for the proof-of-concept fitness

assays, and the evolution experiment (the latter containing evolutionary dynamics, generation-

0 fitness assay and generation-250 fitness assays samples). For the subset of evolution

experiment samples that were sequenced in two separate libraries, only the replicate with a

lower contamination rate was retained for contamination rate summary reporting and all

downstream analyses. In all statistical analyses reported below, contamination rate is initially

included as a potential predictor; it is removed via model reduction if deemed nonsignificant.

Fitness calculations: Fitness was evaluated via sequencing-based assays that involved

competing barcoded yeast strains against a common ancestral reference strain for 2 days (20

generations) at each timepoint in evolution for which fitness metrics were desired. All reported

fitness values for the yeast strains in all fitness assays are relative to the same barcoded

ancestral reference strain (strain ID: d1H10 for diploids; strain ID: h1H10 for haploids). Briefly,

the relative fitness of barcoded yeast strain i at generation gn, $w_{i\,gn}$, was measured as,

Equation 2.

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$$w_{i_{gn}} = \left(\left(ln\frac{Ci_{20}}{R_{20}} - ln\frac{Ci_0}{R_0}\right)/20\right)^e$$

where Ci and R refer to barcode counts for the focal barcode and reference barcode at fitness

assay generation 0 (initial mixtures; fitness assay initial measurement) and fitness assay

generation 20 (final overnight cultures; fitness assay final measurement), and *20* is the number

of generations between measurement at fitness assay generation 0 and fitness assay

generation 20 (Hartl and Clark 1997). The change in fitness of strain i in the endpoint assays for

our 250-generation evolution experiment, Δw_i, we therefore computed as,

Equation 3.

$$\Delta w_i = w_{i_{g250}} - w_{i_{g0}},$$

where $w_{i g0}$ and $w_{i g250}$ are the strain's fitness at generation 0 and 250 as measured from

Equation 2.

Statistical analysis

Analysis & visualization tools: All Analyses and statistical test were conducted in R version 3.5.2

(R Core Team 2012) using the RStudio IDE version 1.1.456 (RStudio Team 2016). Data

processing uses almost entirely base-R functionality; the plyr package (Hadley Wickham 2011) is

used in some cases for data frame manipulation. All Statistical models with linear mixed effects

were generated using the lme4 (Bates et al. 2015), and lmerTest (Kuznetsova, Brockhoff, and

Christensen 2017) packages. Weighted t-tests were assessed with the weights package (Pasek

2018). Finally, figures and tables were generated with the ggplot2 (Wikham 2009) and sjPlot

(Ludecke 2019) packages, respectively; multi-panel figures were built using the gridExtra

package (Auguie 2017). Raw p-values are reported unless otherwise noted; the tables included

in the supplement report raw and corrected p-values for these instances.

Reads: Analysis of multiplex barcode sequencing data requires careful consideration of sample

size. Because counts data are ultimately handled as relative frequencies (proportions), it was

necessary to consider underlying sample size or "confidence" in each piece of data within the

full dataset for all calculations and analyses. That is, entries with more reads were explicitly

assumed to contribute more to summary calculations and statistical analyses. Variation in

sample size was thus controlled for by weighting all calculations by the read sample size and by

including such weights in downstream statistical models. This sample size metric considers both

the total counts recovered for a multiplexed sample (unique forward and reverse index

sequence adapter pair) and the number of counts recovered for the focal barcoded yeast

strain(s) for that entry. In the analyses presented here, read calculations utilize harmonic means

rather than arithmetic means when data for multiple entries was summarized. Harmonic means

were used because they are sensitive to the small values that were typically associated with low

focal barcoded strain reads in the dataset.

Proof-of-concept fitness assays: Fitness differences among 92 constructed barcoded yeast

strains used for proof-of-concept were assessed using a linear model with mean-corrected

fitness as the response variable and yeast strain ID as the predictor variable.

Multiplex barcode sequencing and cross-contamination: Barcode contamination rate was

assessed (Equation 2.) and summarized, separately for the proof-of-concept fitness assay and

the 250-generation experiment. The effects of barcode contamination rate change in fitness

were assessed using a linear mixed effects model with barcode cross-contamination rate as the

predictor variable and change in fitness as the response variable. Strain identifier (evolutionary

treatment plus yeast strain barcode ID) was included as a random effect nested within

evolutionary treatment and was applied only to the intercepts for these models. Additionally, a

weighted 1-tailed t-test was utilized to assess whether barcode cross-contamination rates for

samples collected in either the fitness assay or the evolution experiment decreased after re-

extracting DNA and resequencing.

Fitness change in 250 generations of experimental evolution: Barcoded yeast strains that

exhibited increases in fitness over the 250-generation fitness experiment were identified using

a linear model with change in fitness as the response variable and a strain identifier (treatment

plus yeast strain Barcode ID) as the predictor variable.

The effects of evolutionary treatment (medium type, ploidy, and transfer dilution) on change in

fitness over 250 generations of experimental evolution were assessed using a linear mixed

effects model with change in fitness (Δw) as the response variable, and treatment and barcode

cross-contamination rate as predictor variables. Additionally, a random effect of a strain

identifier (treatment plus yeast strain Barcode ID) was placed on the model intercept.

Evolutionary dynamics: For all analyses of evolutionary dynamics, only the first barcoded yeast

strain from each well (sympatric pair) was included to ensure that data were not 'double-

counted'. Linear models, with treatment as the predictor variable and either (1) t-max, (2) m-

max, (3) t-max-rate, (4) m-max-rate, (5) t-max-diff, (6) m-max-diff, or (7) total cumulative

change in barcoded relative abundance across all time-points as the dependent variable were

employed to assess treatment differences in evolutionary dynamics. Full models also included

initial barcode abundance as a predictor term (in addition to contamination rate) because initial

barcode abundance could impact subsequent dynamics. Initial barcode abundance was

subsequently removed from models when nonsignificant, resulting in removal from all but one

model (t-max-diff). Barcode fixation rate was not assessed statistically due to the small number

of fixation events observed (n=7/76 populations).

Code & data availability

Raw sequence data are available from NCBI's Sequence Read Archive (SRA BioProject ID

PRJNA555990). Data formatted for analysis, intermediate data frames, as well as the custom R

scripts utilized for all data processing, statistical analysis, and figure generation are available

from GitHub (github.com/VinceFasanello/MM_Code_Supplement). A readme file is available in

the GitHub repository with the instructions necessary to reproduce the analyses and to confirm

the results presented in this article. Supplementary figures, tables, and files are described

throughout the main text; detailed descriptions of all supplemental files can be found in File S1.

Strains are available upon request.

377   RESULTS

Proof-of-concept fitness assays

We constructed 92 diploid yeast strains, each with a unique 20 bp barcode inserted upstream

of the deleted *HO* gene. We conducted Proof-of-Concept fitness assays to measure any fitness

differences among these constructed "barcoded" strains, to estimate our power to detect small

fitness differences, and to assess our ability to measure fitness using multiplexed barcode

sequencing. We measured fitness simultaneously for our pool of 92 barcodes by the change in

barcode abundance relative to a 'reference' strain (barcode ID: d1H10) in 10 replicates over a

two-day period of approximately 20 generations, for a total of 920 fitness assays (92 barcodes x

10 replicates).

A few of the barcoded strains showed significant differences in fitness (3/92 at a 5% FDR, 1/92

at a 1% FDR) (Figure 2, Table S4). The root mean squared error (rMSE) among replicated

measures of fitness was 0.0176, indicating good power to detect a 2% fitness difference at

nominal significance of 0.05 and a 5% fitness difference at a more stringent cutoff of 0.01 with

four replicates (Table S5). With these promising results, we proceeded to conduct a more

comprehensive test of the utility of barcoded strains in a practical experimental evolution

context.

Experimental evolution

To evaluate the strengths of this barcoded-strain system for studies of experimental evolution,

we conducted a 25 day, approximately 250 generation, evolution experiment. Our design

included 76 populations, each initiated with two sympatric barcodes. Samples spanned six

treatments, which varied in yeast strain ploidy, growth medium, and daily transfer dilution

(Table S2). To measure any changes in fitness we competed the evolved generation-250 strains

and their generation-0 ancestors against a common reference strain over a two-day period of

approximately 20 generations. With four replicate fitness assays for each barcode, this

amounted to 1,216 fitness assays (2 barcodes * 2 time-points * 76 populations * 4 replicates).

We also measured the change in barcode frequency of sympatric barcoded strains within each

evolving population from 532 longitudinal-evolutionary dynamics samples (76 barcoded pairs *

7 timepoints). From these samples we quantified the magnitude and timing of changes in

barcode frequency, which should be influenced by changes in the fitness of the evolving,

sympatric barcoded strains present within each population.

Multiplex barcode sequencing: We utilized a two-step multiplexed design to obtain high

throughput estimates of fitness based on barcode sequencing in our fitness assays. In the first

step we leveraged the strain-identifying barcodes by pooling multiple strains together and

simultaneously competing them against an ancestral reference strain to estimate relative

fitness. In our second multiplexing step we PCR amplified each fitness assay sample with unique

forward and reverse indexed sequencing adaptors. This latter step enabled us to assign

sequencing reads to the appropriate fitness assay after sequencing many samples in concert as

a single library. We constructed one library for each experiment (Library 1 – Proof-of-Concept

fitness assays; Library 2 – 250-generation evolution experiment evolutionary dynamics and

fitness assays samples).

From 84,776,627 demultiplexed reads, we obtained a median of 2,961 reads per barcode in

each sample. However, we also detected cross-contamination, defined as strain barcodes with

sample indexes that shouldn't exist in our sequenced libraries. The average rate of cross

contamination per sample was low, 0.04%, and consistently present in nearly all of our samples

(Figure S1 A, B.). Contamination could occur during culturing of yeast strains, liquid handling

during preparation of libraries (Lenski et al. 1991; Van den Bergh et al. 2018), or via index

switching during sequencing procedures (Illumina 2017; Sinha et al. 2017; Costello et al. 2018).

The low but uniform rate of cross contamination we observe is more consistent with library

preparation and sequencing than yeast contamination. Additionally, no growth was observed in

culture blanks during any fitness assays nor during the 25-day experimental evolution

experiment.

To test whether the cross-contamination rate depends on liquid handling during library

preparation, we reprocessed a subset of samples with high cross contamination rates using

identical starting material (multiple sample aliquots were created at the time of sample

collection). Cross contamination rates decreased significantly in these reprocessed samples (t =

22.3, df = 65, p < 10e-6), but a low level of background contamination remained (Original

Samples: mean = 0.75%; reprocessed samples: mean = 0.05%) (Figure S2).

In our analyses, the presence of low abundance cross contamination was removed from all

samples in which a barcode is not expected to occur. However, this doesn't eliminate

contamination in samples where a barcode is expected to occur. In such cases, error in

estimates of barcode frequency is highest when a barcode's frequency is low and approaches

the cross-contamination rate. Although results did not greatly change using cross-

contamination as a covariate, we included cross-contamination rate in our models (when

significant) because it was negatively associated with fitness (P < 10e-6) between generation 0

and generation 250 in the fitness assays data from the 250-generation experimental evolution

(Figure S3; Table S6).

End-point fitness assays: We assessed fitness in the 154 evolved strains (evolution experiment

generation-250 strains) as well as their ancestors (evolution experiment generation-0 strains).

For each strain and timepoint, fitness was measured in comparison to a common ancestral

reference strain via a two-day competition-based fitness assay in the same conditions under

which the strain had been evolved.

Twenty three percent (35/154) of the strains showed significant increases in fitness between

generation 0 and generation 250 at a 1% FDR (Figure 3, Table S7). Within this subset, the

average fitness increase was 6.80% with a range of 2.75% to 23.5%. Relatively few strains with

significant increases in fitness were found in the CM treatment (3/42; 7.14%) and ethanol stress

treatment (2/22; 9.09%). A higher proportion of strains exhibited significant increases in fitness

in the lower 1:250 dilution treatment (9/22; 40.9%), the salt stress treatment (11/22; 50.0%),

and the haploid treatment (10/22; 45.5%). No strains in the 1:4000 dilution treatment (0/22)

exhibited increases in fitness. None of strains (0/154) across all of our treatments exhibited a

significant overall decrease in fitness in the course of our experiments.

Next, we evaluated the effect of evolutionary treatment on fitness change. We found

significant variation in fitness among treatments (P < 10e-6). Relative to our standard culture

conditions -- diploids in CM ("no stress") with 1:1000 transfer dilution, we found greater (more

positive) fitness change in diploid strains evolved in salt stress (P < 10e-6), in haploid strains

evolved in standard culture conditions (p = 1.13e-2), and in diploid strains evolved with a

reduced (1:250) daily transfer dilution (p = 9.49e-4). Relative to the CM ("no stress") diploid

treatment (our standard culture conditions), we found less (less positive) fitness change in

diploid strains evolved in ethanol stress (p = 3.99e-3). We found no significant effect of a more

extreme daily transfer dilution (1:4000) on fitness change (p=0.39). Contamination rate had a

significantly negative effect on fitness (P < 10e-6) (Figure 4, Table S8), which is consistent with

the idea that cross-contamination can reduce the power to detect fitness differences.

Evolutionary dynamics: In experimental evolution, adaptation can influence the relative

abundance of barcodes evolving in sympatry (Kao and Sherlock 2008; Selmecki et al. 2015). We

tracked the relative proportions of 76 barcoded-yeast pairs evolving in sympatry at seven

timepoints during our 250-generation evolution experiment (days 0, 10, 15, 20, 22, 24, and 25)

to examine the evolutionary dynamics generated by adaptation and other processes (e.g.,

drift). We collected 8 measurements from these 532 evolutionary dynamics samples (76

populations * 7 timepoints): (1) barcode fixation, (2) the time-point and (3) magnitude of the

maximum change in relative abundance in comparison to the starting conditions, (4) the time-

point and (5) magnitude of the maximum rate of change between adjacent time-points, (6) the

time-point and (7) magnitude of the maximum difference in BC proportions, and (8) the total

cumulative change in barcoded relative abundance summed across all time-points.

Out of the seven measures of adaptive dynamics that were amenable to statistical testing, six

significantly differed by treatment (Table 1; see supplemental figures S4:S10 and supplemental

tables S9:S15 for individual adaptive dynamics plots and results tables). Relative to the CM-

diploid treatment (our standard culture conditions) both the salt and haploid treatments were

associated with a larger maximum change in relative abundance in comparison to the start (p =

5.24e-5, p = 5.85e-3, respectively) and a more extreme maximum difference in BC proportion (p

= 2.77e-4, p = 6.01e-6, respectively). The salt treatment was also associated with an earlier

time-point of the maximum change in abundance relative to the start (p = 0.01), and the

haploid treatment was associated with an earlier maximum rate of change (p = 1.35e-5). The

total cumulative change in barcode abundance was greater for the 1:4000 dilution treatment

than the 1:1000 dilution treatment (p = 1.77e-3). Total cumulative change in barcode

abundance was significantly less for haploids than diploids (p = 4.9e-2), and significantly less in

the ethanol stress treatment than in the CM with no stress treatment (p = 2.98e-2). Finally, we

observed barcodes that approached fixation in eleven percent (9/76) of our sympatric

populations. Most near-fixation events were in the sympatric populations from the salt (3/11;

27.3%) and haploid (5/11; 45.5%) treatments, one instance was observed in the CM-diploid

treatment and no instances of near-fixation were observed in the ethanol 1:4000 dilution, nor

1:250 dilution treatments.

511   DISCUSSION

Experimental evolution has proven to be a valuable approach for studying a range of

evolutionary questions. In this study we implemented a genetic barcoding system in *S.*

cerevisiae to increase the efficiency and throughput of these types of studies. The premise of

our system is that barcoding microbial strains allows us to engage in increasingly complex

experimental designs by enabling multiplexing of independent samples, which increases the

throughput of fitness assays, and by providing a relatively simple means to track barcode

lineage dynamics. Accordingly, we have demonstrated our system's potential for detecting

fitness differences in six experimental evolution treatments and have shown that while the

typically low levels of barcode cross-contamination we observe cannot be completely

eliminated, their effects on inference can be minimized through simple statistical procedures.

Below we discuss the merits and drawbacks of our system, and its capabilities to increase

efficiency and throughput in experimental evolution research.

One potential caveat of a barcoding system like the one we propose here, is that barcoded

strains are not necessarily identical to one another at the beginning of an experiment even if all

barcoded variants are produced from a single ancestral clone. Although we found no significant

fitness differences among the majority of barcoded strains, we note that we did indeed observe

a few strains with significant deviations from the population mean fitness. Given the location of

our barcode insertions (i.e., a currently non-functional region of the genome) it is unlikely that

the barcodes themselves generated these fitness differences. A perhaps more likely explanation

is that these differences arose from mutations that occurred during transformation (Giaever

and Nislow 2014) or shortly thereafter. Regardless of the reason, future users of our

experimental approach could either remove strains with fitness differences entirely from their

analyses or could instead quantify initial fitness differentials and include them as a covariate in

downstream analyses or fitness assays. We note that initial fitness differentials may be of

interest themselves, given that they can potentially impact evolutionary outcomes (Barrick et

al. 2010; Kryazhimskiy et al. 2014; Jerison et al. 2017) and the types of mutations that

successfully spread through an experimental population (MacLean, Perron, and Gardner 2010).

An ideal experimental evolution system must be able to detect changes in fitness with

confidence. Studies are typically designed to carefully measure large fitness effects; these

studies commonly report significant fitness changes or advantages in the range of 5-25% (De

Visser and Rozen 2006; B. S. Hughes, Cullum, and Bennett 2007; Gresham et al. 2008; R. Dhar et

al. 2011; Selmecki et al. 2015). (De Visser and Rozen 2006)(B. S. Hughes, Cullum, and Bennett

2007)(Gresham et al. 2008)(R. Dhar et al. 2011)(Selmecki et al. 2015)Some studies are able to

detect fitness effects of ~2%; these typically rely on a large amount of replication and/or

sequencing-based census techniques to detect small effect sizes. We show that our

experimental evolution system can detect fitness effects of 2% with high power using a

relatively small number of replicates (n = 4). The high-throughput nature of this system makes it

amenable for studies in which either expected fitness changes are small or replication is

difficult due to complex experimental designs that require assaying fitness in multiple contexts;

the system is particularly advantageous when many strains (tens to hundreds) are included in

each treatment.

Another important consideration when designing an experimental evolution system is that it

must be fairly robust to contamination. While culture contamination is rare in experimental

evolution (Lenski et al. 1991; T. F. Cooper and Lenski 2010), barcode (or cross-), contamination

is possible. Our results are consistent with prior work on this topic. Specifically, while we found

no evidence of culture contamination in blank cultures, we detected a uniformly low level of

barcode contamination in multiplexed fitness assays and evolutionary dynamics samples.

Because there was no conspicuous pattern of cross-contamination, we suggest that the

observed contamination was likely to be introduced in our system during sample preparation

for DNA sequencing. DNA extraction is a likely source of cross-contamination in samples

processed in strip-tubes or 96-well plate formats that prioritize throughput. However, we

minimized the chance for contamination in the DNA isolation step in our experiments by

isolating DNA with individual reaction tubes for each sample. Still, other sources of

contamination are possible, these include primer contamination during the index addition via

PCR (Lo, Mehal, and Fleming 1988) and index switching during library construction or

sequencing (Illumina 2017; Sinha et al. 2017; Costello et al. 2018). The latter possibility seems

nevertheless unlikely because all PCR steps were performed separately prior to pooling of

libraries.

The strength and efficiency of our system is further evidenced by its numbers. A barcode

system enabled us to evolve a large number of strains (176) for 250 generations across six

treatments, and to conduct a total of 532 evolutionary dynamics measurements and 1,216

fitness assays related to these manipulations in a relatively short amount of time. Reassuringly,

our results are largely consistent with prior work. We find greater fitness increases, i.e., a

greater rate of adaptation, in haploids than diploids. This finding agrees with another study that

found faster rates of adaptation and larger effective population sizes in haploids relative to

diploids (A. C. Gerstein et al. 2011). In a related study, Selmecki et al., (Selmecki et al. 2015)

found faster adaptation in tetraploids than diploids, but no difference in rate of adaptation

between haploids and diploids, potentially suggesting a trend opposite to ours of increasing

adaptive rate with increasing ploidy. However, differences between haploids and diploids must

be treated with caution because there is mounting evidence that haploid yeast evolves towards

diploidy under experimental evolution conditions (Aleeza C. Gerstein and Otto 2011; R. Dhar et

al. 2011; Selmecki et al. 2015). We also find greater fitness increase in complete medium (CM)

plus NaCl stress than in CM alone, which was not surprising given what is known about

adaptation to NaCl stress in *S. cerevisiae* (Blomberg 1995; R. Dhar et al. 2011; Park, Yang, and

Kim 2015; Tekarslan-Sahin, Alkim, and Sezgin 2018). In contrast, we were surprised to detect

less fitness increase in CM plus EtOH stress than in CM alone. There are several non-mutually

exclusive explanations for this result: It is possible that ethanol did not present a significant

stress (selective pressure) to the cells once they had attained physiological adaptation to the

medium, i.e., acclimation (Huang et al. 2018). It is also possible that adaptations to CM and

adaptations to ethanol exhibit antagonistic pleiotropy, similar to what has been found in

experiments contrasting rich and poor media (Minty et al. 2011) or exploring adaptation to

other chemical stressors (Reyes, Abdelaal, and Kao 2013). Pleiotropy could also shed light on

the marked adaptation observed in the NaCl treatment given that adaptation to CM and NaCl

stress may exhibit complementarity via synergistic or positive pleiotropy (Ostman, Hintze, and

Adami 2012; Riddhiman Dhar et al. 2013; McGee et al. 2016; K. A. Hughes and Leips 2017).

Finally, we find no difference between the 1:1000 and 1:4000 daily dilution treatments, but we

find a greater increase in fitness when a 1:250 transfer dilution was used instead of the

standard 1:1000 dilution. While this finding is not necessarily expected (Gerrish and Lenski

1998; De Visser et al. 1999; De Visser and Rozen 2006; Kryazhimskiy, Rice, and Desai 2012), it

nevertheless supports earlier findings that less extreme bottlenecks may favor the maintenance

of adaptive mutants (Wahl, Gerrish, and Saika-Voivod 2002), and is consistent with evidence for

greater mean fitness increase in wide vs. narrow bottleneck populations (Schoustra et al. 2009).

It is also consistent with earlier observations that large populations are less adaptively

constrained than small ones in simple environments (Rozen et al. 2008).

In addition to high-throughput fitness assays, barcoding enabled us to track sympatric barcoded

lineages during the course of experimental evolution (Blundell and Levy 2014; Levy et al. 2015;

V. S. Cooper 2018). As expected, we found general agreement between the evolutionary

dynamics results and endpoint fitness assay results in our six experimental treatments. For

example, the haploid and NaCl stress treatments both displayed dynamics consistent with more

extreme increases in fitness, including greater change in barcode abundance relative to the

starting conditions and a greater maximum difference in sympatric barcode abundance than

diploids in CM. Interestingly, haploids also showed signs of earlier adaptation than diploid

strains in similar conditions, as evidenced by an earlier generation of maximum rate of change

in barcode abundance (Blundell and Levy 2014; Levy et al. 2015; Selmecki et al. 2015) and a

lower total change in barcode abundance over 250 generations. Although this latter result

seem paradoxical, it is consistent with the observation that haploids adapt earlier than diploid

strains (A. C. Gerstein et al. 2011), and is expected if a greater proportion of the total change in

barcode abundance of haploids in our experiments happened in the first 100 generations.

Despite significant differences in barcode dynamics, there are some limitations to interpreting

these results. Because we mostly assessed abundance every 50 generations, it is possible that

we missed some of the adaptive dynamics. Furthermore, barcode frequencies over time were

not measured in replicate. Finally, changes in barcode abundance may not be related to final

fitness. For example, the 1:4000 transfer dilution bottleneck treatment had elevated rates of

change in barcode abundance and a high amount of total change in barcode abundance

without a concomitant increase in fitness. We therefore suggest that future studies employ a

denser and more even longitudinal-evolutionary dynamics sampling scheme, with replication,

to maximize the value of this type of lineage tracking data.

In summary, we conclude that the barcoded yeast system that we describe here greatly

increases the throughput of fitness measurements and provides a relatively simple means for

lineage tracking, thereby enabling more complex and potentially more useful experimental

evolution designs. We observe that although barcode contamination imposes some limitations

on the implementation of this system, it is possible to track the origin and rates of such

contamination and, therefore, consider its effects on experimental outcomes. Overall, our

findings indicate that this system represents a significant step forward toward the design and

implementation of high throughput studies in this field.

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AUTHORS CONTRIBUTIONS

865   AUTHORS CONTRIBUTIONS

866   J.C.F., C.A.B., P.L., and V.J.F conceived of and designed the study. P.L., and V.J.F. conducted the

867   lab work. V.J.F. processed the data, performed the statistical analysis., and created

868   visualizations. V.J.F., J.C.F., and C.A.B. drafted and edited the manuscript.

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FIGURES

Figure 1

Overview of experimental design. Barcoded yeast strains were used for proof-of-concept fitness

assays (A, 2 days) and experimental evolution (B, 25 days) with gray boxes indicating one day

(10 generations). During the 25-day, 250-generation, experimental evolution (B1), evolutionary

dynamics samples were collected at generations 0, 100, 150, 200, 220, 240, and 250 (cyan

arrows). Fitness of the ancestral (B2) and evolved (B3) strains were quantified via (2-day, 20-

generation) fitness assays (red arrows).

Figure 2

Histogram of fitness from 92 barcoded yeast strains. Fitness is the deviation from the

population mean and was quantified by competition against a common reference strain via

Proof-of-concept fitness assay. Orange and cyan bars indicate yeast strains with fitness values

significantly and not significantly different from the population mean at a false discovery rate of

5%, respectively.

Figure 3

Change in fitness over 250 generations of experimental evolution. Histogram depicts fitness

increase quantified by competition against a common reference strain. Fitness increase is

generation-250 fitness minus generation-0 fitness. Orange and cyan bars indicate strains with

fitness values significantly greater or not significantly greater than their own fitness at

generation 0 at a false discovery rate of 1%, respectively. No strains significantly decreased in

fitness.

Figure 4

Change in fitness across six treatments in 250 generations of experimental evolution. Violin

plots show the density of 152 yeast strains' change in fitness with treatment labels indicating

the medium, ploidy and dilution rate. Points indicate individual barcodes with sizes reflecting

the number of reads underlying each datapoint and colors indicate evolutionary treatments.

Treatment mean fitness changes are depicted as heavy black crossbars. Treatments significantly

different from the control treatment are marked with an asterisk. The treatment with diploid

yeast evolved under a standard 1:1000 transfer dilution in CM is the reference level in this

model.

	Treatment				
	CM + ETOH	CM + NaCl	1:4000 dil.	1:250 dil.	Haploid
t-max	N.S.	-48.702 **	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
m-max	N.S.	0.292 ***	N.S.	N.S.	0.178 **
t-max-rate	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	-52.717 ***
m-max-rate	N.S.	N.S.	0.006 *	N.S.	N.S.
t-max-diff	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
m-max-diff	N.S.	0.175 ***	N.S.	N.S.	0.204 ***
total change	-0.007 *	N.S.	0.018 *	N.S.	-0.007 *

930 **Table 1**

931 Associations between evolutionary dynamics and evolutionary treatments. Estimates for

932 significant differences between each evolutionary treatment and the control (CM-diploid,

933 1:1000 transfer) are shown for seven different measures of barcoded dynamics (t-max, m-max,

934 t-max-rate, m-max-rate, t-max-diff, m-max-diff, and total change).