Nov 25, 2019

Antagonism in Evolutionary Opportunities Results in Non-Monotonic Evolution Across an Environmental Gradient

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Evolutionary outcomes are dictated by both deterministic (e.g., natural selection) and stochastic (e.g., genetic drift or environmental uncertainty) forces[1-8]. The repeated finding of similar phenotypes or genotypes across multiple natural or experimental populations in analogous environments suggest that deterministic forces are strong enough for reinforcing some predictability[8-12]. However, the extent to which the phenotypes discovered in two extreme environments can be interpolated to an intermediate environment remains largely unknown, as increased stochastic forces at intermediate environments cannot be ruled out. Experimental evolution can help uncover the constraints of evolutionary predictability and reveal whether there are non-monotonic patterns of deterministic or stochastic forces across environmental gradients. Here, we perform experimental evolution of *Escherichia coli* under three nutritional transfer periods (TP): every day, every 10 days, and every 100 days, representing different levels of starvation. After 900 days of experimental evolution, intermediately starved cells had evolved a distinct lower growth rate and higher mutation rate, neither of which were found in the other extreme treatments. Because the intermediately starved populations exhibit significantly high molecular parallelism, their distinct phenotypes are likely due to non-monotonic deterministic forces instead of stronger stochastic forces. Our results demonstrate novel complexities associated with evolutionary predictability across environmental gradients.

Natural microbial populations, including facultative pathogens with clinical or agricultural importance, frequently encounter environments with scarce resources[13,14]. As an opportunistic pathogen, *E. coli*'s habitat is broad, ranging from soil and wastewater to the lower gut, often oscillating between feast and famine[15-17]. Further, some *E. coli* are capable of surviving during periods of prolonged starvation, accumulating mutations in the genes *rpoS*[18] and *lrp*[19] that confer

a phenotype known as growth advantage in stationary phase (GASP)[20-22]. Other phenotypes

observed in *E. coli* during resource limitation involve increased mutation rates[23,24], as populations

experiencing repeated exposure to resource limitation have exhibited the evolution of trade-offs

between maximum growth rate and sustainable growth[25]. Although these studies and others report

genetic and phenotypic responses to resource limitation, there has been a lack of replication across

parallel treatments or varying timescales. As such, conclusions that the phenotypic response to

starvation, or any selective pressure, scales progressively is premature. To address this issue, we

surveyed the evolutionary response of populations along a selective gradient to determine if there

are any constraints on the genotypes and phenotypes associated with long-term starvation.

To establish the evolution experiment, we used ancestral lines with two different genetic

backgrounds (GB): a wild-type strain (WT) and a WT-derived strain with impaired methyl-

directed mismatch repair (MMR-) wherein an engineered deletion of *mutL* yields a ~150× increase

in the single nucleotide mutation rate[26]. With three TPs (one day, 10 days, and 100-days), each

TP/GB combination was replicated in eight parallel experiments, resulting in 48 experimental

populations (8×3×2), allowing us to examine the parallelism within each treatment combination.

After 900 days of experimental evolution, we quantified the growth behaviours. Notably, 10-day

populations take significantly longer to reach their maximum growth rate (T_{max}) when assayed in

96-well plates than ancestral, 1- and 100-day populations (**Fig. 1a**, WT: $t_{anc} = 14.91$, $P_{anc} = 4.5$ x

10^{-10}; $t_{1-day} = 11.65$, $P_{1-day} = 4.6$ x 10^{-10}; $t_{100-day} = 1.99$, $P_{100-day} = 0.057$; MMR-: $t_{anc} = 7.24$, $P_{anc} = 2.5$

x 10^{-5}; $t_{1-day} = 7.81$, $P_{1-day} = 8.4$ x 10^{-6}; $t_{100-day} = 1.87$, $P_{100-day} = 0.073$; pairwise Welch's t-test, two-

sided, adjusted by FDR). In addition, 10-day populations present significantly smaller colonies on

LB agar than ancestral, 1- and 100-day populations (**Fig. 1b-e**, WT: $t_{anc} = 44.99$, $P_{anc} < 1$ x10^{-16};

$t_{1-day} = 5.56$, $P_{1-day} = 3.3$ x 10^{-4}; $t_{100-day} = 4.85$, $P_{100-day} = 5.6$ x 10^{-4}; MMR-: $t_{anc} = 16.10$, $P_{anc} = 5.4$

x 10^{-10}; $t_{1\text{-}day}$ = 6.16, $P_{1\text{-}day}$ = 4.5 x 10^{-5}; $t_{100\text{-}day}$ = 2.22, $P_{100\text{-}day}$ = 0.039; pairwise Welch's t-test, two-

sided, adjusted by FDR). This severe reduction in growth rate in the 10-day populations illustrates

just one of the non-monotonically evolving phenotypes observed in response to repeated resource

limitation.

51   To further study the underlying molecular mechanisms for phenotypic evolution and

determine if the rate of genomic evolution in each of the TP/GB conditions follows the same

discordant pattern as growth rate, we performed high-throughput metagenomic sequencing every

100 days (mean coverage > 100×, **Supplementary Table 1.1**) and estimated genomic divergence

by summing the derived allele frequencies (DAFs) for all single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs)

at each time point. The rate of genomic evolution is then defined as the slope in the linear

regression of summed DAFs against the number of generations. We found that in both the WT and

MMR- backgrounds, the rates in 10-day populations are the highest followed by the rates in 100-

day populations (**Fig. 2a**). This increased rate of genomic evolution is still observed when other

measurements for genomic divergence are used (**Extended Data Fig. 1**). Nonetheless, when

comparing the probability of fixation in nonsynonymous, intergenic, and synonymous mutations,

we found no evidence suggesting that stronger positive selection drives the elevated rate of genome

evolution in 10-day populations (**Extended Data Fig. 2**). Therefore, below we will examine two

other candidate factors: mutation rates and subpopulation structure.

65   Previous studies have illustrated that *E. coli* can experience increased mutation rates during

stationary phase[23]. Thus, we performed fluctuation tests[27] to determine how resource limitation

had affected the mutation rate and if more resource-depleted conditions had selected for newly

arising mutators or anti-mutators. We observed significant effects of TP in both genetic

backgrounds (WT: P = 1.4 x 10^{-5}; MMR-: P = 0.014; Kruskal-Wallis test, **Fig. 2b**). Ten-day clones

surprisingly evolved significantly higher mutation rates than daily clones (WT: $P = 8.9$ x 10^{-6};

MMR-: $P = 5.6$ x 10^{-3}, Mann-Whitney U test) but 100-day clones did not (WT: $P = 0.48$; MMR-:

$P = 0.068$, Mann-Whitney U test), once more depicting a non-monotonic pattern in phenotypic

evolution as the intermediate, 10-day environment produced the most extreme mutation rate.

Another candidate factor that may increase evolutionary rates is subpopulation structure[28].

As it has previously been shown that our culture environment supports subpopulation structure in

daily-transferred populations[29], we wanted to determine how TP affected genetic diversity. We

used a clade-aware hidden Markov chain (caHMM) which assumes the coexistence of two clades

(major and minor) to infer which mutations belong to the basal clade (i.e., mutations that sweep

through the entire population before the establishment of subpopulations) and which belong to

either the major or minor clade[30] (**Fig. 3a**). caHMM revealed that TP ($P = 6.1$ x 10^{-6}, Scheirer-

Ray-Hare test) affects the stability of subpopulation structure (measured by the duration that two

clades are observed to coexist; **Fig. 3b**) and that subpopulation structure in 100-day populations is

significantly less stable than in daily populations ($P = 3.1$ x 10^{-5}, Mann-Whitney U test) and 10-

day populations ($P = 4.2$ x 10^{-5}, Mann-Whitney U test). Consistently, the proportion of fixed

mutations inferred to belong to the basal clade in a population is negatively correlated with the

stability of subpopulation structure (**Extended Data Fig. 3**) and is greatest in 100-day populations

(**Extended Data Fig. 4**). Plotting the temporal distribution of DAFs reveals that mutations with

intermediate DAFs (0.3-0.7) are less abundant in 100-day populations (**Extended Data Fig. 5**),

consistent with a lower tendency to form subpopulation structure. This lower tendency is unlikely

due to insufficient evolutionary time. For example, by 300 days, daily-transferred lines have

experienced enough genomic evolution to promote subpopulation structure in 13 of 16 populations.

However, by 500 days (calculated based on **Fig. 2a**), the same amount of genomic evolution only

results in 2 of 16, 100-day populations exhibiting subpopulation structure. Therefore, TP

contributes to the increased rate of genomic evolution, but the extremely long nutrient-replenishing

time experienced by 100-day populations reduces the likelihood of establishing stable

subpopulation structure.

We previously observed that biofilm formation was one of the major phenotypes emerging

in our culture conditions and was generally indicative of the evolution of subpopulation structure[29].

Here, we observed that while daily and 10-day populations produce visible biofilms at the surface-

air interface, 100-day populations do not (**Fig. 3c**). If biofilm formation is essential to the

establishment of stable subpopulation structure in our culture tube environment, then the absence

of biofilm formation in 100-day populations is consistent with the inability of the caHMM to detect

the stable coexistence of multiple clades within 100-day populations. Further, the thickness of the

biofilms appears greater in 10-day populations, revealing another non-monotonically evolving

phenotype.

Lastly, to seek evidence for positive selection and distinguish which mutations are likely

adaptive across the nutrient-limitation gradient from those promoted to fixation due to genetic

draft[31], we focused on the nonsynonymous mutations and calculated for each gene a G-score

indicating the degree to which parallel mutations are overrepresented[32].A higher sum of all G-

scores indicates that observed mutations tend to be found in a smaller subset of genes within a

TP/GB combination. Compared to the simulated null distribution, the observed sum of all G-scores

is higher in all TP/GB combinations (**Fig. 4a-b; Supplementary Table 1.2**), revealing a

significant amount of parallel mutation and suggesting that positive selection is shaping these

populations. Interestingly, the statistical significance of G-scores for 10-day and 100-day

populations is much greater than for daily populations, suggesting that the pool of adaptive

mutations for 10-day and 100-day populations is more limited, possibly due to their environmental

harshness. A similar analysis also reveals significant overrepresentation of genes affected by

parallel indels or IS-element insertions (**Fig. 4c; Supplementary Table 1.3**) highlighting

parallelism in likely loss-of-function mutations. In addition to genic-level parallelism, we

identified a set of 115 nonsynonymous mutations that arose in at least two experimental

populations in a TP/GB combination (**Extended Data Fig. 6; Supplementary Table 1.4**). Such

nucleotide-level parallelism again suggests positive selection in action.

By determining the functional implications of genes under positive selection, we can begin

to understand the cellular processes that must be altered in order to sustain repeated starvation. GO

analysis of the list of genes overrepresented for nonsynonymous SNPs revealed that populations

subjected to extended resource limitation (10- and 100-day) are enriched for mutations in genes

related to global gene expression (regulation, termination, and fidelity of transcription and

translation) as well as resource import and metabolism (**Supplementary Table 1.5-7**). Of the

genes associated with gene expression and metabolism, we notably observe mutations in genes

that regulate or are regulated by the stringent response including *crp* and *sspA*. We also observed

mutations in essential genes involved in gene expression: a nonsynonymous mutation in the

transcription terminator *rho* that arose in four 100-day populations; and two mutations in the

translation elongation and ribosome recycling factor, *fusA*, that arose across five 10-day

populations (**Supplementary Table 1.4**). We additionally focused on candidate mutations with

the potential to influence the observed changes in mutation rates (GO:0006281 - DNA Repair or

GO:0006260 - DNA replication) and found more parallel mutations in 10-day populations than in

1- or 100-day populations (**Supplementary Table 1.8**). This finding is consistent with the non-

monotonic pattern in mutation-rate evolution. Further studies are needed to understand how

alteration of genes responsible for basic molecular processes, such as replication, transcription,

and translation benefit populations experiencing repeated starvation.

Several implications can be drawn from the reported results. First, if the evolution of

cooperation is key to the emergence of population substructure[29], our findings suggest cooperation

is harder to evolve in extremely resource-limited environments, possibly due to a combination of

low mutation rates and limited pool of beneficial mutations. This echoes the findings that resource-

deficient environments promote detachment of biofilm formers[33] or metastasis of cancer cells[34].

Second, genes involved in global gene expression and resource import/metabolism are

targets for adaptive mutations in starved populations. However, despite our 100-day populations

spending the vast majority of their time in long-term stationary phase, we strikingly observed a

lack of mutations affecting genes commonly associated with the growth advantage in stationary

phase (GASP) phenotype , such as *rpoS*[18,35] and *lrp*[19]. Further investigation is needed to determine

if the absence of these mutations is due to strain specific/culture environment differences or

because these mutations are transient, with benefits that are no longer realized after repeated

exposure to extreme starvation.

Third, while elevated mutation rates are often found associated with stressful

environments[36] and are observed in 10-day populations, the extremely long nutrient-replenishment

cycles of the 100-day populations lowered the tendency towards elevated mutation rates.

Population-genetic models have suggested that higher mutation rates can be tolerated in

populations experiencing constant environmental fluctuations[37-39]. Our experimental results of 10-

day populations suggest that, when environmental fluctuations are neither too rapid nor too

infrequent, mutator alleles are best tolerated and able to fix. Consistent with a reduced tolerance

for increased mutation rates, in both 1-day and 100-day populations, it is common to observe a

reduction in mutation rate across individuals with MMR- backgrounds (**Fig. 2**), although the

genetic source of this reduction is not apparent. Clearly, these changes in the evolved mutation

rate are determined by a multiplicity of factors requiring more detailed study.

Finally, we observed that the responses of many molecular and phenotypic traits are non-

monotonic across an environmental gradient of nutrient limitation. One possible reason for the

deceleration of trait evolution in 100-day populations may be related to an economic theory known

as 'the maximization principle' (**Fig. 4d**). Although populations may experience an increase in

evolutionary opportunity with more extreme levels of resource limitation (e.g., increases in

beneficial mutation rates, distance from fitness optima), they also experience increases in

evolutionary constraints (e.g., increases in deleterious mutation rates, and decreases in effective

population sizes, resource availability, and accessible mutational trajectories). If both the total

evolutionary opportunity and evolutionary constraint increase such that their curves recede and

then approach, then the greatest net evolutionary opportunity will exist in an intermediate

environment. Consequently, the largest magnitude of adaptation will not exist at the most extreme

environments, leading to non-monotonic trait evolution. These results raise questions about the

predictability of evolution and advocate a need for more investigation into molecular and

phenotypic evolution along environmental gradients.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1 Phenotypic divergence of evolved lines after 900 days. (a) Growth curves of ancestor

(black) and evolved 1- (orange), 10- (blue), and 100-day (green) populations cultured in LB

broth at 37 °C. Circles denote average absorbance at 600 nm measured every 15 minutes for 14

hours. Error bars represent ± s.e.m.. Nested table displays the averages ± s.e.m. for growth

parameters, r_{max} and T_{max}. T_{max} is presented in units of time (hours:minutes). **(b)** Average colony

sizes of evolved populations and ancestors after 24 h of growth on LB agar. Error bars represent

± s.e.m. Photos of **(c)** 1-day (Population 108), **(d)** 10-day (Population 408), and **(e)** 100-day

(Population 508) populations co-cultured with the WT ancestor on TA agar and incubated at

37°C for 24 h to show variation in colony size. Colonies from evolved populations appear red

while WT ancestor colonies appear beige. Inset in **d** provides a magnified look at ancestor and

10-day colonies. The black arrow points to a 10-day population colony, highlighting the evolved

extreme reduction in colony size.

Figure 2 Evolutionary dynamics of evolved populations. (a) Each panel shows the mean rate

of genomic evolution among the parallel experimental populations for each transfer period (1,

10, or 100 days) in MMR- (mismatch repair defective) or WT (wild-type) genetic backgrounds.

At each time point, the circle and the bar represent the mean and the standard error. From left to

right represent the sequencing profiles sampled at days 0, 90, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800,

and 900. Note that the data for populations with 100-day transfer periods are missing at day 500.

The line represents the linear regression against the number of generations. The estimated slope

(*b*) and corresponding standard error are also shown in each panel. **(b)** Each panel shows

mutation rates of populations after 900 days of experimental evolution in different combinations

of transfer period (1, 10, or 100-days) and genetic background (MMR- for mismatch repair

defective or WT for wild-type). In each combination, four evolved lines were tested, and two or

four clones per evolved line were isolated and measured. The open circle and error bar represent

the mean and the 95% confidence interval for each clone. The grey dashed line represents the

mutation-rate measurement of the corresponding ancestor.

Figure 3 Ecological dynamics in experimental evolution. Muller plots of major (yellow) and

minor (pink) clade abundance for (**a**) Population 101 (1-day, WT) and Population 503 (100-day,

WT). Black arrows denote the maximum duration that two clades co-exist. (**b**)The distribution

of durations of coexistence of major and minor clades as determined by the caHMM among the

parallel experimental populations for each transfer period/genetic background combination. (**c**)

Presence/absence of biofilm at the surface area of evolved cultures after 24 h. Surface biofilm

can be observed in daily and 10-day populations but is absent in 100-day populations and the

ancestor.

Figure 4 Evolutionary parallelism as evidence for positive selection. (a) The arrow and

vertical dashed line show the observed sum of G-scores, representing the extent of parallel

mutation for a particular TP/GB combination. The histogram shows the distribution of 20,000

simulated sums of G-scores. The significance of the observed sums can be evaluated by z-scores

($z > 1.65$ for one-tailed $P < 0.05$). **(b)** List of genes with at least one nonsynonymous mutation

that are likely under positive selection. Significance levels (simulated P-values with Bonferroni

correction) are shown by the different non-black colours of tiles. Genes with no such hits in a

particular TP/GB combination are shown by black tiles. **(c)** List of genes significantly

overrepresented for structural mutations that are likely under positive selection. Yellow tiles

highlight genes observed in at least two populations and yielding simulated P-values < 0.05 after

Bonferroni correction. **(d)** A hypothetical model describing the non-monotonic evolution of traits

observed across environmental gradients. For example, if the environmental gradient represents

environmental changes that range from 'more similar' to 'more different' from the ancestral

environment (x-axis, black), then factors such as increased beneficial mutation rates due to stress

induced mutagenesis or phenotypic distance from fitness optima may contribute to evolutionary

opportunity (left y-axis, blue). However, this evolutionary opportunity may be bounded by

factors including increased deleterious mutation rates due to stress induced mutagenesis, lower

effective population sizes due to more severe bottlenecks and higher lethality, or deep fitness

valleys across the adaptive landscape, contributing to evolutionary constraints (right y-axis, red).

If along the environmental gradient, evolutionary opportunities increase in a concave-down or

linear fashion while evolutionary constraints increase in a concave-up or linear fashion and both

are non-parallel, then the maximum net-evolutionary opportunity (dotted lines, purple) may be

greatest in intermediate environments resulting in non-monotonic evolution.

a

MMR −

	r_{max}	T_{max}
Ancestor	6.45 ± 0.33	3:22 ± 0:42
1 − day	4.74 ± 0.17	1:49 ± 0:05
10 − day	2.55 ± 0.46	6:42 ± 0:57
100 − day	2.53 ± 0.05	5:39 ± 0:22

WT

	r_{max}	T_{max}
Ancestor	7.06 ± 0.06	2:40 ± 0:02
1 − day	3.25 ± 0.14	3:11 ± 0:06
10 − day	3.36 ± 0.17	5:52 ± 0:13
100 − day	3.71 ± 0.14	4:56 ± 0:25

Absorbtion (OD600)

Time (hours)

b

MMR −   WT

Colony area (mm²)

Populations

c   **d**   **e**

Fig.1

Fig.2

Fig.3

Fig.4

 Materials and Methods

Source of starting cell lines

Experimental populations originated from one of four ancestral strains. Populations

denoted as WT are descendants of PMF2, a prototrophic derivative of *E. coli* K-12 str. MG1655,

while populations denoted as MMR- are descendants of PMF5 (PMF2, Δ*mutL*) provided by the

Foster Lab. To introduce a neutral marker that would allow for the periodic screening of

contamination between populations, lambda red recombineering was used to introduce a 3513 bp

deletion removing the *araBAD* operon from one-half of both the WT and MMR-starting strains.

This deletion was confirmed by the appearance of red colonies after plating on TA agar (1%

Arabinose, 1%Tryptone, 0.5% NaCl, 0.1% Yeast Extract, 0.005% TTC (Sigma T8877)) and next-

generation sequencing.

Experimental evolution

Long-term cultures were established by inoculating 10 mL of LB-Miller broth (BD Difco)

with a single-isolated progenitor colony cultivated overnight at 37 °C on LB agar plates. Resulting

cultures were maintained in 16- × 100 mm glass culture tubes containing 10 mL LB broth shaking

at 175 rpm at 37°C. Selection conditions involved subjecting cultures to varying degrees of

repeated starvation in which 1 mL of thoroughly-vortexed culture was transferred into 10 mL of

fresh LB broth every day, every 10-days, or every 100-days. To maintain an historical record of

the populations and to revive populations in the case of contamination or extinction, 1 mL of

culture was collected pretransfer every 30 days from daily and 10-day populations, frozen with

liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C. In order to not disrupt any potential ecological structure in

100-day populations, copies of these cultures were only collected pretransfer every 100-days. In

addition, 100-day populations were maintained in triplicate (1 main culture and 2 backup cultures)

with only the main culture being used to seed new triplicate cultures every 100 days. In the case

of a whole population extinction, one backup culture would replace the main culture and the

experiment would continue. This practice was only necessary during the first 200-days as past this

time point, no additional whole-population extinction events occurred. Populations were screened

for cross-contamination on days 90, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, and 900 by streaking on

MacConkey Agar (BD Difco) supplemented with 0.4% Arabinose.

Evaluation of growth phenotypes

Growth curves were measured using an Epoch2 Microplate Spectrophotometer (Biolog).

To prepare cultures for growth rate measurement, 900-day populations and day-0 progenitor

strains were revived frozen -80°C stock by transferring a scrape of ice to 16- x 100 mm culture

tubes containing 10 mL of LB broth. Cultures were incubated overnight at 37°C and shaking at

175 rpm. Following overnight culture, 1.5 μL of each revived population or progenitor were

transferred into a well in a 96-well flat bottom culture plate (Corning/Falcon, 353072) containing

150 μL of LB broth. Evolved populations were measured as an average of eight replicates and

progenitor strains were measured as an average of 16 replicates, with an additional eight wells

dedicated to negative controls consisting solely of LB broth. After inoculation, lids were placed

on 96-well plates and were sealed with parafilm before placement in the spectrophotometer.

Throughout the duration of growth curve measurement, cultures were maintained at 37°C, with

double orbital shaking at 548 cpm. Growth measurements were taken every 15m over the course

of 16h at an OD of 600 nm. Maximum growth rate (r_{max}) was calculated for all measurable

replicates (WT: $n_{ans} = 32$, $n_{1-day} = 16$, $n_{10-day} = 16$, $n_{100-day} = 16$; MMR: $n_{ans} = 29$, $n_{1-day} = 16$, n_{10-day}

$= 12$, $n_{100\text{-}day}=16$) using the Gen5 software (Biotek) as the maximum slope between two timepoints

and time to $r_{\max}$ ($T_{\max}$) was recorded as the midpoint between $r_{\max}$ determining timepoints. For

daily lines experiencing diauxic growth, calculations of $r_{\max}$ and $T_{\max}$ were restricted to the first

logistic growth phase.

To measure colony size, revived 900-day populations and day-0 progenitor strains were

grown overnight at 37°C and shaking at 175 rpm in 16- x 100 mm culture tubes containing 10 mL

of LB broth. Following overnight incubation, serial dilutions of 100 μL of culture in 900 μL of

phosphate buffered saline were made down to dilutions of 10^{-5}, before plating 100 μL of diluted

culture on to TA agar (1.6% agar, 1% arabinose, 1% tryptone, 0.5% NaCl, 0.1% yeast extract,

0.0005% TTC) and incubating for 24h at 37°C. TA plates were then photographed with a 20 mm

scale in frame using an iPhone XS. Photos were then analysed with ImageJ (NIH,

https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/), by first setting the pixel to distance ratio using the in-frame scale before

flatting the photo to 8-bit black and white, setting the threshold to highlight the colonies, and using

the 'measure particles' tool. Measurements for six arbitrary colonies per analysed population were

recorded.

Presence and absence of biofilm at the surface-air interface was determined by reviving

900-day populations and day-0 progenitor strains in 16- x 100 mm culture tubes containing 10 mL

of LB broth overnight at 37°C and shaking at 175 rpm. Following incubation, culture tubes were

visually examined for the presence of biofilm attached to the culture tube at the surface-air

interface.

DNA isolation and high-throughput sequencing

High resolution population tracking was conducted by collecting 1 mL of culture at day 90, 200,

300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, and 900 of experimental evolution. DNA was extracted using the

DNeasy UltraClean Microbial Kit (Qiagen 12224; formerly MO BIO UltraClean Microbial DNA

Kit) and submitted to either the Hubbard Center for Genomic Analysis at the University of New

Hampshire, the Center for Genomics and Bioinformatics at Indiana University, or the CLAS

Genomics Facility at Arizona State University for library preparation and sequencing. Libraries

were generated with the Nextera DNA Library Preparation Kit (Illumina, FC-121-1030) following

an augmented protocol for optimization of reagent use[40] before being pooled and sequenced as

paired-end reads to a target depth of 100x on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 (UNH) or an Illumina

NextSeq 500 (Indiana; ASU).

Sequencing analysis

Sequencing analysis was performed on the Mason and Carbonate high-performance computing

clusters at Indiana University. Sequencing reads were quality controlled using Cutadapt v.1.9.1[41]

to remove residual adapters and trim low quality sequences. QCed sequences were then mapped

to the *Escherichia coli* K-12 substr. MG1655 reference genome (NC_000913.3) and all mutations

and their frequencies were identified using Breseq v.0.30.2 with the predict-polymorphisms

parameter setting[42]. All mutations that were identified to previously exist in ancestral lines were

discarded from the following analysis. Further, our analysis only included the samples which

passed the following additional four quality checks: 1) we required mean sequencing depths > 10;

2) any WT sample identified to contain the 1,830 bp deletion in *mutL* from the PMF5 progenitor

strain was discarded; 3) regions lacking sequencing coverage (i.e. depth = 0) must be smaller than

5% of the genome; and 4) the sequencing result should reflect the correct genetic background in

terms of *ara* markers, including a nonsynonymous SNP at position 66528, an intergenic SNP at

position 70289, and a multiple base substitution mutation (SUB) at position 66533. For an *ara+*

line, we required either of two SNPs showing DAF < 0.2. For an *ara-* line, we required either of

two SNPs showing DAF > 0.8 or the SUB is detected. In the end, 395 genomic profiles passed QC

and were included in the following analysis (**Supplementary Table 1.1**).

In order to remove the mutations that originated from the starting clone before experimental

evolution, we discarded any mutations with a DAF = 100% at one time point for at least 11

experimental populations with the same genetic background from the analysis. In addition, as the

highly repetitive sequences in *rsx* genes are known to cause errors in SNP calling[43], they were also

removed from the analysis.

Guaranteed generations

The calculation of guaranteed number of generations is based on the following two observations.

First, pre-transfer population density in the culture tube was measured at day 200, 300, 400, 500,

600, 700, 800, 900, by serial dilution in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) before plating on LB agar

for CFU counts and revealed that the population density does not significantly change throughout

experimental evolution (**Extended Data Fig. 7**). This suggests the carrying capacity of

experimental populations is recovered within a transfer period after 1:10 dilution and the

populations must have experienced at least 3.3 ($\log_2 10$) generations between transfer periods.

Therefore, the first estimate of guaranteed generations (g_1) per day equals 3.3, 0.33, and 0.033

when the transfer period is one day, 10 days, and 100 days, respectively. Second, we found that

between transfer periods novel mutations arise and are able to be fixed within one sequencing

interval. Therefore, given the carrying capacity K, the population should at minimum experience

$\log_2 K$ cell divisions in 100 days. Using estimated $K = 1.21 \times 10^{10}$, 2.13×10^8, and 3.71×10^7

(**Extended Data Fig. 7**), the second estimate of guaranteed generations (g_2) per day equals 0.30,

0.28, and 0.25 when transfer period is one day, 10 days, and 100 days, respectively. The final

number of guaranteed generations (g) for each transfer period is then determined as the larger

value between the corresponding g_1 and g_2.

446   Given that K was only estimated pre-transfer, when the feeding cycle is long it is possible

that populations have reached to a density K^* higher than K and decreased back to K within one

feeding cycle. If this is true, the first estimated guaranteed generations ($g_1{}'$) per day should be

$[\log_2(K^*/K) + 3.3]/TP$, where TP is the transfer period. While $g_1{}'$ is likely to be larger than g, the

observed fold-changes in the genomic evolutionary rates between in longer transfer periods cannot

be fully explained by this possibility. For example, if the 9.4-fold change in 10-day lines compared

to daily lines were entirely due to this possible underestimation, $g_1{}'$ needs to be 9.4-fold higher

than g_1, which requires an implausible $K^* = 4.7 \times 10^{16}$. Similarly, if the 8.8-fold changes in 100-

day lines compared to daily lines were entirely due to this possible underestimation, $g_1{}'$ needs to

be 8.8-fold higher than g, which also requires an implausible $K^* = 7.2 \times 10^{64}$. Therefore, even if

we had tracked the population density throughout the entire experimental evolution, it is likely that

we still could not find substantial effects of changing population densities on our observations.

Rate of genomic evolution

460   We quantified the level of genomic divergence for each experimental population at each

time point by summing all DAFs of detected mutations. Then we calculated the mean genomic

divergence across all eligible experimental populations in each TP/GB combination

(**Supplementary Table 1.1**). When estimating the rate of genomic evolution, the linear regression

was performed by the function "lm" in R with formula "mean genomic divergence ~ guaranteed

generations + 0" (linear model), which enforces the y-intercept as 0.

To explore the possibility of nonlinear relationship between the genomic divergence and

time, we also performed regression using the formula "mean genomic divergence ~ guaranteed

generations + square root of guaranteed generations + 0" (nonlinear model), which was previously

proposed to catch the trend of diminishing returns[32]. However, the results of nested ANOVA test

suggest no strong evidence supporting that the nonlinear model is substantially better than the

linear model (**Extended Data Fig. 8**).

Fluctuation test and mutation rate estimation

To quantify the genetic mutation rate of our evolved populations and their ancestors, we performed

fluctuation tests as described[22] on clones isolated from each evolved population at 900 days.

Briefly, fluctuation tests measure the rate of resistance to the antimicrobial rifampicin which is

conferred by mutations to *rpoB*. For each TP/GB combination, the four *ara*- populations were

assayed. For the first two populations with smaller population numbers, four independent clones

were picked; for the last two populations with larger population numbers; two independent clones

were picked. For the WT or MMR- ancestor, five independent clones were used. For each clone,

40 replicate experiments were performed. Number of mutants as determined by CFU counts/mL

were converted to an estimated mutation rate by the function "newton.LD" function in the R

package "rSalvador"[44] for each clone.

486 **Clade-aware hidden Markov chain analysis (caHMM) and longest coexistence time**

487 To test coexistence time in each experimental population, we performed clade-aware

488 hidden Markov model (caHMM) using a modified version of previously released code[30]. Our

489 modifications included: 1) modifying the code in "calculate_clade_hmm_wrapper.py," in order to

490 continue the iteration of experimental populations, even when the major clade frequency of all

491 time points for an experimental population cannot be estimated; 2) removing the original cut-off

492 for minimum coexistence time, as that parameter is too long for our experiments; and 3) increasing

493 the iteration number for hidden Markov chain from 5 to 50. When performing caHMM, we

494 constructed an annotated time course of mutations using the original format. If a mutation is a

495 structural mutation (DEL, INS, and MOB), the sequencing depth is determined by the mean

496 sequencing depth across the mapped adjacent nucleotide ("coverage_plus" or "coverage_minus")

497 of associated junction candidates (JCs) in breseq annotated file. The sequencing depth of time 0

498 was set as 100.

499 Using the major clade frequency (f_M) and minor clade frequency (f_m) estimated by caHMM,

500 we calculated the longest coexistence time as follows: if there is no time point showing $0.2 < f_M$

501 <0.8 and $0.2 < f_m < 0.8$, its longest length of coexistence is defined as zero; otherwise, we found

502 the longest time intervals within which every time point shows $0.01 < f_M < 0.99$ or $0.01 < f_m < 0.99$.

503 After calculating the longest length of coexistence for each population, to test whether TP

504 and GB affects the longest length of coexistence, we performed a Scheirer-Ray-Hare test,

505 (nonparametric version of two-way ANOVA) using the function "scheirerRayHare" in the R

506 package "rcompanion"[45]. The sample size for each TP/GB combination is eight. The succeeding

507 *post hoc* analysis is done by Mann-Whitney *U* test with the function "wilcox.test" in R.

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Identification of candidate mutations for positive selection

For the populations where caHMM does not finish, we instead performed well-mixed hidden Markov chain (wmHMM) using the code "calculate_well_mixed_hmm_wrapper.py," which also infers the fixation status of a mutation under a one-clade model. The single clade in wmHMM is defined as the basal clade. Candidate mutations for adaptation are then defined as mutations that satisfy either of the following two criteria: (1) the mutations recognized as fixed mutations in any of the basal, major, or minor clade in the output file from caHMM; (2) the mutations that show DAF > 0.5 in at least two time points.

Calculation of *G*-scores and GO term enrichment

To test whether the set of candidate nonsynonymous mutations in a TP/GB combination were influenced by positive selection, we calculated *G*-score for each gene[32]. A larger *G*-score means more overrepresentation for a gene. To calculate *G*-scores, we first counted the observed number of fixed nonsynonymous mutations in gene i per TP/GB combination (O_i), and the expected number for gene i (E_i) was calculated by $O_{tot}(L_i/L_{tot})$, where $O_{tot} = \Sigma_i O_i$, L_i is the number of nonsynonymous sites for gene i, and $L_{tot} = \Sigma_i L_i$. The *G*-score for gene i (G_i) was then calculated by $2O_i\ln(O_i/E_i)$ or defined as zero when $O_i = 0$. Note that $2O_i\ln(O_i/E_i)$ could be smaller than zero when $0 < O_i < E_i$. This can lead to a paradox that G_i is smaller when a gene was hit by a few times compared to the situation that the same gene was not hit at all. Therefore, we also defined $G_i = 0$ when $2O_i\ln(O_i/E_i) < 0$ in the following analysis.

Because the null expectation of *G*-scores varies with total number of fixed nonsynonymous mutations (**Extended Data Fig. 9**), we performed 20,000 simulations in each of which O_{tot} hits are randomly distributed among all L_{tot} sites across all genes in the genome. To evaluate the

significance of the sum of G-scores (**Fig. 3a**), we calculated the corresponding z score by (the

observed sum - mean of simulated sums) / (standard deviation of simulated sums). To evaluate the

significance of G-score for gene i, we directly compared the G_i to the distribution of 20,000

simulated G_i. The P-value was determined by the proportion of simulated G_i larger or equal to the

observed G_i. The multiple test correction was performed by multiply each gene's P-value by the

number of genes with at least one hit by the set of fixed nonsynonymous mutations (Bonferroni

correction). Only the genes with Bonferroni corrected P-value < 0.05 are called significant. Using

this set of significant genes for each TP/GB combination, we performed enrichment tests of gene

ontology biological processes (BP) terms using the function "enrichGO", the organismal database

org.EcK12.eg.db, and a q-value cut-off $= 0.05$ in R package "DOSE"[46].

Overrepresentation of the genes affected by structural mutations

To test whether the set of genes that were affected by structural mutations (indels and IS-

element insertions) in a TP/GB combination were influenced by positive selection, we also

calculated a G-score for each gene[32]. To calculate G-scores, we first counted the observed number

of populations with any structural mutations in gene i per TP/GB combination (O_i), and the

expected number for gene i (E_i) was calculated by $O_{tot}(L_i/L_{tot})$, where $O_{tot} = \Sigma_i O_i$, L_i is the gene

length for gene i, and $L_{tot} = \Sigma_i L_i$. The G-score for gene i (G_i) was then calculated by $2O_i\ln(O_i/E_i)$,

following the methods described in the above section.

We also performed 20,000 simulations and determined the Bonferroni corrected P-value

for each gene i following the methods described in the above section. As a result, we found all the

genes with $O_i \geq 2$ show Bonferroni corrected P-value < 0.05.

Data Availability

All resulting sequences have been deposited to NCBI's short read archive as BioProject: PRJNA532905. All non-sequencing derived data needed to make figures 1A, 1B, and 2B can be found on GitHub (https://github.com/LynchLab/ECEE_Starvation).

Code Availability

All custom scripts and R code utilized to analyse data are deposited on GitHub (https://github.com/LynchLab/ECEE_Starvation).

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Acknowledgements

We thank B. Choi, T. Doak, D.A. Drummond, P. Foster, W. Guo, J. T. Lennon, H. Long, J. McKinlay, S. Snyder, E. Thorley, A. Urquidez, S. Vidrios, and S. Walls for their assistance and helpful comments. High Performance Computing Resources were provided and maintained by the National Center for Genome Analysis Support at Indiana University. This work was supported by Army Research Office Grants ARO65308-LS-MU and W911NF-14-1-0411 and National Institutes of Health Grant F32GM123703 and R35GM122566.

Author Contributions

M.G.B., W-C.H., and M.L. designed research; M.G.B., W-C.H., S.F.M., G.F.B., J.C.M., performed experiments; M.G.B, W-C.H. and G.F.B. conducted bioinformatic analyses; M.G.B., and W-C.H., and S.F.M, analysed data; and M.G.B., W-C.H., and M.L. wrote the paper.

Ethics declarations

The authors declare no competing financial interests

Additional Information

Supplemental Information data is available for this paper.

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598 **a**

600 **c**

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Extended Data Figure 1. Temporal dynamics in various measurements of genomic

diversity. Genomic diversity is measured by (**a**) number of SNPs, (**b**) nucleotide diversity, and

(**c**) synonymous nucleotide diversity, respectively. The y-axis shows mean results among the

parallel populations in a combination of one transfer period (1 day, 10 days, or 100 days) and

one genetic background (MMR- for mismatch repair defected or WT for wild-type). From left to

right represent the sequencing profiles sampled at day 90, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, and

900 (the data of populations with transfer periods = 100days at day 500 are missing). At each

time point, the circle and the bar represent the mean +/- standard error of mean. The dashed lines

represent the linear regression lines of number of SNPs against guaranteed generations, and the

estimated slopes (*b*) and corresponding standard errors are also shown.

a   **b**   **c**

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Extended Data Figure 2. No evidence for stronger positive selection in any transfer period.

(a) Similar probabilities of synonymous, nonsynonymous, and intergenic mutations fixed in any

clade were found in populations with larger transfer periods. The dot and error bar represent

mean probability and its 95% confidence interval (estimated by 1.96 times of standard errors)

across parallel experimental populations. The fixed probably here is conditioning on the

detectability of mutations. **(b-c)** Populations with longer transfer periods do not show significant

higher fixation rate of nonsynonymous mutations and intergenic mutations compared to the

fixation rate of synonymous mutations. If positive selection is strong, one would expect to see

that mutations with a greater potential to change protein functionality or levels (e.g.

nonsynonymous mutations and intergenic mutations) are more likely to be fixed within a clade

than mutations with lesser potential (e.g. synonymous mutations). Therefore, higher ratios of the

number of nonsynonymous mutations fixed in any clade (F_N) to the number of synonymous

mutations fixed in any clade (F_S), or higher ratios of the number of integenic mutations fixed in

any clade (F_I) to F_S, is expected. **(b)** A cross is calculated by the summed F_N and F_S of all

parallel experimental populations with a specific transfer period and genetic background. A dot

is calculated by the F_N and F_S in each parallel experimental population. The dots with $F_S = 0$ are

not shown. The dashed lines show the ratio of the number of nonsynonymous mutations to the

number of synonymous mutations detected in mutation accumulation experiments. **(c)** A cross is

calculated by the summed F_I and F_S of all parallel experimental populations with a specific

transfer period and genetic background. A dot is calculated by the F_I and F_S in each parallel

experimental population. The dots with $F_S = 0$ are not shown. The dashed lines show the ratio of

the number of intergenic mutations to the number of synonymous mutations detected in mutation

accumulation experiments.

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Extended Data Figure 3. Negative correlation between the proportion of fixation occurred

in basal clade and the longest length of coexistence across all experimental populations.

Each dot is an experimental population. ρ : Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. *P*: *p*-value

of Spearman's rank correlation.

Extended Data Figure 4. The distribution of proportion of fixation occurred in basal clades

for each transfer period/genetic background combination. We found TP significantly affects

the proportion of fixation occurred in basal clades ($P = 2.5$ x 10^{-4}, Scheirer-Ray-Hare test). The

difference is significant between daily and 100-day populations ($P = 5.5$ x 10^{-5}, Mann-Whitney

U test), 10-day and 100-day populations ($P = 0.016$, Mann-Whitney U test), and daily and 10-

day populations ($P = 1.6$ x 10^{-3}, Mann-Whitney U test).

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659 **Extended Data Figure 5. Temporal distribution of mean derive allele frequencies (DAF) in**

660 **evolved populations.** Each dot shows a mean fraction of genome showing a range of DAF with

661 bin size 0.1 in different time point of experimental evolution. The different time points of

662 experimental evolution are shown by colors.

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Extended Data Figure 6. Distribution of number of parallel experiments where the same

fixed nonsynonymous SNPs are identified. All six combinations of one transfer periods (1 day,

10 days, or 100days) and in one genetic background (MMR- for mismatch repair defected or WT

for wild-type) are shown. Because of a very low probability that any one nucleotide is mutated at

least twice ($< 10^{-4}$ by simulation with a random sample of 10^4 mutations), our observed

nucleotide-level parallelism again suggests positive selection in action.

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675 **Extended Data Figure 7. Density measurement of experimental populations during**

676 **experimental evolution.** Pre-transfer population density of 1- (orange), 10- (blue) and 100-day

677 (green) populations as determined by CFU counts. Bars represent mean population density of

678 WT and MMR- populations after 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, and 900 days of evolution

679 and error bars represent ±s.e.m.

Extended Data Figure 8. Linear and nonlinear regression between total frequency of SNPs and days. Each panel shows the results in one of transfer periods (TP: 1, 10, or 100 days) and in MMR- (mismatch repair defected) or WT (wild-type) genetic background. At each time point, a circle represents the number of SNPs per clone in a parallel population. Sequencing profiles were sampled at days 90, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, and 900. Note that the data of populations with 100-day transfer periods are missing at day 500. The solid line represents the result of linear regression ($y \sim 0 + x$); The dotted line represents the result of nonlinear regression ($y \sim 0 + x + x^{0.5}$). Model comparison were performed by nested ANOVA: $P = 0.028$, 0.69, and 0.23 for TP = 1, 10, and 100, respectively in MMR- background; $P = 0.40$, 0.063, and 0.40 for TP = 1, 10, and 100, respectively in WT background. The nested ANOVA test was performed by the function "anova" in R.

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695 **Extended Data Figure 9. Null expectation of *G*-scores vary with total number of mutations**

696 **considered.** The dashed line and dotted lines summarize the mean and 95% range across 1000

697 simulations of hypothetical number of fixed nonsynonymous mutations = 1, 50, 100, 500, 1000,

698 1500, 2000, 2500, 3000, 4000, 5000, 6000, 7000, 8000, 9000, 10000.