

1 **The fitness effects of spontaneous mutations nearly unseen by selection in a**
2 **bacterium with multiple chromosomes**

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24

ABSTRACT

25 Mutation accumulation (MA) experiments employ the strategy of minimizing the
26 population size of evolving lineages to greatly reduce effects of selection on newly
27 arising mutations. Thus, most mutations fix within MA lines independently of their fitness
28 effects. This approach, more recently combined with genome sequencing, has detailed
29 the rates, spectra, and biases of different mutational processes. However, a quantitative
30 understanding of the fitness effects of mutations virtually unseen by selection has
31 remained an untapped opportunity. Here, we analyzed the fitness of 43 sequenced MA
32 lines of the multi-chromosome bacterium *Burkholderia cenocepacia* that had each
33 undergone 5554 generations of MA and accumulated an average of 6.73 spontaneous
34 mutations. Most lineages exhibited either neutral or deleterious fitness in three different
35 environments in comparison with their common ancestor. The only mutational class that
36 was significantly overrepresented in lineages with reduced fitness was the loss of the
37 plasmid, though nonsense mutations, missense mutations, and coding insertion-
38 deletion mutations were also overrepresented in MA lineages whose fitness had
39 significantly declined. Although the overall distribution of fitness effects was similar
40 between the three environments, the magnitude and even the sign of the fitness of a
41 number of lineages changed with the environment, demonstrating that the fitness of
42 some genotypes was environmentally dependent. These results present an
43 unprecedented picture of the fitness effects of spontaneous mutations in a bacterium
44 with multiple chromosomes and provide greater quantitative support of the theory that
45 the vast majority of spontaneous mutations are neutral or deleterious.

46

INTRODUCTION

47 The extent to which spontaneous mutations contribute to evolutionary change
48 largely depends on their rates and fitness effects. Both parameters are fundamental to
49 several evolutionary problems, including the preservation of genetic variation
50 (Charlesworth *et al.* 1993, 2009; Charlesworth and Charlesworth 1998), the evolution of
51 recombination (Muller 1964; Kondrashov 1988; Otto and Lenormand 2002; Roze and
52 Blanckaert 2014), the evolution of mutator alleles (Sniegowski *et al.* 1997; Tenaillon *et*
53 *al.* 1999), and deleterious mutation accumulation in small populations (Lande 1994;
54 Lynch *et al.* 1995, 1999; Schwander and Crespi 2009). Many studies have now
55 obtained direct and robust estimates of mutation rates and spectra across diverse
56 organisms, but our understanding of the fitness effects of spontaneous mutations
57 remains limited to mostly indirect estimates in classic model organisms (Eyre-Walker
58 and Keightley 2007).

59 Mutation accumulation (MA) experiments provide the opportunity to quantify
60 properties of the fitness of spontaneous mutations that have not been exposed to the
61 sieve of natural selection. Specifically, MA experiments limit the efficiency of natural
62 selection by passaging replicate lineages through repeated single cell bottlenecks.
63 These lineages accumulate mutations independently over several thousand
64 generations, and the magnitude and variance in fitness between lineages can be used
65 to estimate several properties of the distribution of fitness effects (Halligan and
66 Keightley 2009). MA studies have been used to characterize the fitness effects of
67 spontaneous mutations in *Drosophila melanogaster* (Bateman 1959; Mukai 1964;
68 Keightley 1994; Fry *et al.* 1999), *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Schultz *et al.* 1999; Shaw *et al.*

69 2000, 2002), *Caenorhabditis elegans* (Keightley and Caballero 1997; Vassilieva *et al.*
70 2000; Estes *et al.* 2004; Katju *et al.* 2015), *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Wloch *et al.*
71 2001; Zeyl and de Visser 2001; Dickinson 2008; Jasmin and Lenormand 2015),
72 *Escherichia coli* (Kibota and Lynch 1996; Trindade *et al.* 2010), and other microbes
73 (Heilbron *et al.* 2014; Kraemer *et al.* 2015). Results from these studies have
74 occasionally been inconsistent, but the majority of results suggest that most
75 spontaneous mutations have mild effects (Eyre-Walker and Keightley 2007; Halligan
76 and Keightley 2009; Agrawal and Whitlock 2012; Heilbron *et al.* 2014), that deleterious
77 mutations far outnumber beneficial mutations (Keightley and Lynch 2003; Silander *et al.*
78 2007; Eyre-Walker and Keightley 2007), and that the distribution of effects of
79 deleterious mutations is complex and multimodal (Zeyl and de Visser 2001; Eyre-
80 Walker and Keightley 2007).

81 A more powerful approach for studying the fitness effects of spontaneous
82 mutations is to pair MA experiments with whole-genome sequencing (MA-WGS), so that
83 both the genetic basis and fitness effects of a collection of mutations can be known.
84 MA-WGS studies have been conducted in a diverse array of bacteria, generating a
85 growing database of naturally accumulated mutations that has dramatically improved
86 estimates of mutation rates and spectra (Lee *et al.* 2012; Sung *et al.* 2012, 2015;
87 Heilbron *et al.* 2014; Long *et al.* 2014, 2015; Dillon *et al.* 2015; Foster *et al.* 2015;
88 Dettman *et al.* 2016). Yet, only one of these studies has also characterized the fitness of
89 MA-WGS lines (Heilbron *et al.* 2014), and this study was conducted with mutator
90 lineages, which have altered base-substitution and indel biases (Lee *et al.* 2012; Sung
91 *et al.* 2015), and produce hundreds of mutations per line. Our understanding of the

92 fitness effects of spontaneous mutations would benefit greatly from more direct
93 estimates of fitness derived from MA lineages that harbor fewer known mutations.

94 Here, we measured the relative fitness of 43 fully sequenced MA lineages
95 derived from *B. cenocepacia* HI2424 in three laboratory environments after they had
96 been evolved in the near absence of natural selection for 5554 generations. Following
97 the MA experiment, each lineage harbored a total mutational load of 2 to 14
98 spontaneous mutations, including base-substitution mutations (bpsms), insertion-
99 deletion mutations (indels), and whole-plasmid deletions. By correlating the relative
100 fitness of these MA lineages with the particular mutations that they harbor, we present a
101 detailed picture of the fitness effects of spontaneous mutations, and precise estimates
102 of deleterious mutation rates and fitness effects in a clinically important gamma-
103 proteobacterium with multiple chromosomes.

104

105

MATERIALS AND METHODS

106 **Bacterial strains and culture conditions.** All mutation accumulation experiments were
107 founded from a single colony of *Burkholderia cenocepacia* HI2424, which was isolated
108 from the soil and only passaged in the laboratory during isolation (Coenye and LiPuma
109 2003). As a member of the diverse *B. cepacia* complex, *Burkholderia cenocepacia* can
110 form highly resistant biofilms and has been associated with persistent lung infections in
111 patients with cystic fibrosis (Mahenthiralingam *et al.* 2005; Traverse *et al.* 2013). The
112 genome of *B. cenocepacia* HI2424 has been fully sequenced and is composed of three
113 chromosomes (Chr1: 3.48-Mb, 3253 genes; Chr2: 3.00-Mb, 2709 genes; Chr3: 1.06-
114 Mb, 929 genes) and a plasmid (0.164-Mb, 159 genes), though the third chromosome

115 can be eliminated under some conditions in some strains (Agnoli *et al.* 2012). To
116 facilitate relative fitness assays, we competed all *B. cenocepacia* HI2424 strains derived
117 from the MA experiment with a *B. cenocepacia* HI2424 Lac⁺ strain, which is isogenic to
118 *B. cenocepacia* HI2424, except for the introduction of the *lacZ* gene at the *attTn7* site,
119 which causes colonies to turn blue when exposed to 5-bromo-4-chloro-indolyl- β -
120 galactopyranoside (X-gal) (Choi *et al.* 2005).

121 MA experiments were conducted on tryptic soy agar plates (TSA) (30 g/liter
122 tryptic soy broth powder, 15 g/liter agar) and were incubated at 37°. At the conclusion of
123 the MA experiment, frozen stocks were prepared by growing a single colony from each
124 lineage overnight in 5ml of tryptic soy broth (TSOY) (30 g/liter tryptic soy broth powder)
125 at 37° and freezing at -80° in 8% DMSO. All relative fitness assays were conducted in
126 18 x 150mm glass capped tubes with 5ml of liquid medium and were maintained at 37°
127 in a roller drum (30 rpm). Relative fitness of each lineage was assayed in three different
128 environments. First, we conducted relative fitness assays in TSOY, a medium that
129 mimics the conditions of the MA experiment and is expected to be very permissive.
130 Second, we conducted relative fitness assays in M9 Minimal Medium supplemented
131 with 0.3% casamino acids (M9MM+CAA) (3 g/liter casamino acid powder, 1 g/liter
132 glucose, 6 g/liter sodium phosphate dibasic anhydrous, 3 g/liter potassium phosphate
133 monobasic, 1 g/liter ammonium chloride, 0.5 g/liter sodium chloride, 0.1204 g/liter
134 magnesium sulfate, 0.0147 g/liter calcium chloride), a medium that is more nutrient
135 restrictive than TSOY, but contains all essential amino acids except tryptophan. Lastly,
136 we conducted relative fitness assays in M9 Minimal Medium (M9MM) (1 g/liter glucose,
137 6 g/liter sodium phosphate dibasic anhydrous, 3 g/liter potassium phosphate

138 monobasic, 1 g/liter ammonium chloride, 0.5 g/liter sodium chloride, 0.1204 g/liter
139 magnesium sulfate, 0.0147 g/liter calcium chloride), which is a fully defined medium that
140 is more restrictive than either TSOY or M9MM+CAA. Serial passaging during fitness
141 assays was performed using 100-fold dilutions, so all relative fitness assays were
142 conducted over the same number of generations, despite the moderate different
143 carrying capacities in these mediums. All dilutions were performed using phosphate
144 buffer saline (PBS) (80 g/liter NaCl, 2 g/liter KCl, 14.4 g/liter Na₂HPO₄ • 2H₂O, 2.4
145 g/liter KH₂PO₄) in 96-well plates.

146
147 **MA-WGS process.** The mutation accumulation experiment that generated the
148 mutational load for this study has been reported previously (Dillon *et al.* 2015). Briefly,
149 seventy-five independent lineages were founded from a single colony of *B. cenocepacia*
150 HI2424 and independently propagated every 24 hours onto a fresh TSA plate for 217
151 days. Daily generations were estimated monthly by taking a single representative
152 colony from each lineage following 24 hours of growth, placing it in 2 ml of PBS, then
153 serially diluting and spread plating it on TSA. The number of viable cells in each colony
154 was then used to calculate the number of generations elapsed between each transfer,
155 and the average number of generations across all lineages was used as the number of
156 generations per day for that entire month. By multiplying the number of generations per
157 day for each month by the number of days in that month, then summing these totals
158 over the course of the whole experiment, we calculated the total number of generations
159 elapsed per MA lineage over the course of the MA-experiment.

160 As we have described previously, genomic DNA was extracted from 1 ml of
161 overnight TSB culture founded by 47 of the *B. cenocepacia* isolates that were stored at
162 the conclusion of the MA experiment (Dillon *et al.* 2015). We used the Wizard Genomic
163 DNA Purification kit for DNA extraction (Promega), all libraries were prepared using a
164 modified Illumina Nextera protocol (Baym *et al.* 2015), and sequencing was performed
165 with the 151-bp paired end platform on the Illumina HiSeq at the Hubbard Center for
166 Genomic Studies at the University of New Hampshire. Following fastQC analysis, all
167 reads were mapped to the *B. cenocepacia* HI2424 reference genome (LiPuma *et al.*
168 2002) with both the Burrows-Wheeler aligner (BWA) (Li and Durbin 2009) and
169 Novoalign (www.novocraft.com). The average depth of coverage across all 47 lines was
170 43x, but the average depth of coverage in the 43 lines used in this study was 46x.

171
172 **Spontaneous mutation identification.** All bpsms were identified as described
173 previously (Dillon *et al.* 2015). Briefly, after using a combination of SAMtools and in
174 house perl scripts to produce all read alignments for each position in each line (Li *et al.*
175 2009), a three step process was used to detect putative bpsms. First, pooled reads
176 across all lines were used to generate an ancestral consensus base at each site in the
177 reference genome, allowing us to correct differences between the published reference
178 genome and the ancestral colony of our MA experiment. Second, reads from the
179 individual lines were used to generate a lineage specific consensus base at each site in
180 the reference genome for each lineage, as long as the site was covered by at least two
181 forward and two reverse reads, and at least 80% of the reads identified the same base.
182 Sites that did not meet these criteria were not analyzed in the respective lineage. Third,

183 lineage specific consensus bases for each lineage were compared to the ancestral
184 consensus base at each site, and a putative bpsm was identified if they differed. This
185 three-step process was carried out independently using both the BWA and Novoalign
186 alignments, and putative bpsms were considered genuine only if both pipelines
187 independently identified the bpsm. Despite these lenient criteria, all of the bpsms that
188 were identified at analyzed sites in this study had considerably greater coverage and
189 consensus than the minimal criteria (see File S1), demonstrating that these bpsms are
190 not merely false positives in low coverage regions. The frequency of sites that were not
191 analyzed in each lineage varied from 0.005 to 0.177. Putative bpsms in these regions
192 were estimated by multiplying the number of unanalyzed sites in each lineage by the
193 overall bpsm rate calculated in this study ($1.31 (0.08) \cdot 10^{-10}$ /bp/generation) and the
194 number of generations of mutation accumulation in each lineage (5554) (see Table S1).

195 Indels and large structural variants are inherently more difficult to identify than
196 bpsms because gaps and simple sequence repeats (SSRs) reduce the accuracy of
197 short-read alignment algorithms. To overcome these issues, we extracted all putative
198 indels if at least 30% of the reads that covered the site identified the exact same indel
199 (size and motif), and the site was covered by at least two forward and two reverse reads
200 (Dillon *et al.* 2015). These putative indels were then subject to a series of more
201 strenuous filters based on the complexity of the region in which they were identified and
202 the consensus between the BWA and Novoalign alignments (see File S1). Specifically,
203 all putative indels where more than 80% of the reads identified the exact same indel in
204 both the BWA and Novoalign alignments were considered genuine indels. For putative
205 indels where only 30-80% of the reads identified the exact same indel, we parsed out

206 only reads that had bases covering both the upstream and downstream region of the
207 indel (if it was not in an SSR), and both the upstream and downstream region of the
208 SSR (if it was in an SSR). Using this subset of reads, we reassessed the frequency of
209 reads that identified the exact same indel, allowing us to more accurately identify indels
210 involving the gain or loss of a single repeat within a SSR. These indels were considered
211 genuine if more than 80% of the parsed reads identified the exact same indel and were
212 discarded if they did not. Putative indels and other structural variants were also
213 extracted using PINDEL, which uses paired-end information to identify insertions,
214 deletions, inversions, tandem duplications and other structural variants (Ye *et al.* 2009).
215 Here, indels were considered genuine if they were covered by at least six forward and
216 six reverse reads, and at least 80% of the reads identified the exact same indel. Lastly,
217 we analyzed the distribution of coverage between chromosomes and the 0.164-Mb
218 plasmid to detect any chromosomal copy number variants. As with bpsms, putative
219 indels in regions that were not analyzed were estimated by multiplying the number of
220 unanalyzed sites in each lineage by the overall indel rate calculated in this study (2.39
221 $(0.34) \cdot 10^{-11}$ /bp/generation) and the number of generations of mutation accumulation in
222 each lineage (5554) (see Table S1).

223

224 **Quantifying relative fitness.** To quantify the selection coefficients of each of the 43
225 derived MA lineages, we conducted three-day competitions (over ≈ 19.93 generations)
226 between each MA lineage and our *B. cenocepacia* HI2424 Lac⁺ strain. These
227 competitions were carried out independently in TSOY, M9MM+CAA, and M9MM, with
228 four replicates being conducted for each lineage in each environment. Our MA ancestral

229 *B. cenocepacia* HI2424 strain was also competed against *B. cenocepacia* HI2424 Lac+
230 as a control, with four replicates for each environment. Selection coefficients were
231 estimated as described previously, using the relative growth of the focal MA lineage and
232 the *B. cenocepacia* HI2424 Lac+ reference strain, normalized by the number of
233 generations elapsed by the reference strain (G) (Chevin 2011; Perfeito *et al.* 2014).
234 First, the difference in growth (Δr_{ab}) between the two strains was estimated as:

$$\Delta r_{ab} = \ln \left(\frac{N_{fa}}{N_{ia}} \right) - \ln \left(\frac{N_{fb}}{N_{ib}} \right)$$

235 where N_{ia} and N_{ib} were the initial numbers of test and reference bacteria, respectively,
236 and N_{fa} and N_{fb} were the final numbers of test and reference bacteria, respectively.
237 Selection coefficients (s_{ab}) were then calculated as:

$$238 \quad s_{ab} = \Delta r_{ab} / G$$

239 where G , generations elapsed by the reference strain, is equal to:

$$G = \log_2 \left(\frac{N_{fb}}{N_{ib}} \right)$$

240 For each replicate, all 43 derived MA lineages, *B. cenocepacia* HI2424, and *B.*
241 *cenocepacia* Lac+ were resurrected from frozen culture by inoculating them into 5 ml of
242 TSOY broth and incubating overnight in a roller drum at 30 rpm. Depending on which
243 environment was being assayed, each strain was then transferred to fresh TSOY,
244 M9MM+CAA, or M9MM via a 10,000-fold dilution and acclimated for 24 hours at 37°
245 and 30 rpm. Following acclimation, 44 competitions (43 MA lineages + control) were
246 generated in the appropriate fresh medium at a 1:1 ratio via 100-fold dilution, and 30 μ l
247 from each was extracted to quantify the initial frequency of each competitor (N_{ia} , N_{ib}).
248 Competitions were then incubated for 72 hours at 37° and 30 rpm, being transferred to

249 fresh media every 24 hours via a 100-fold dilution. At the conclusion of the 72 hour
250 competition, 30 μ l of the final culture was extracted to quantify the final frequency of
251 each competitor (N_{fa} , N_{fb}).

252 To measure the initial frequency of each competitor, the extracted culture was
253 diluted in PBS and 100 μ l of the diluted sample was plated on a TSA + X-Gal plate.
254 Specifically, in the TSOY competitions the samples were diluted 30,000-fold, in the
255 M9MM+CAA competitions the samples were diluted to 20,000-fold, and in the M9MM
256 competitions the samples were diluted to 10,000-fold. Following a 48-hr incubation, the
257 number of white and blue colonies were quantified and used to calculate N_{ia} and N_{ib} ,
258 respectively, after accounting for the dilutions. Final frequencies were measured in the
259 same way, except that an additional 100-fold dilution was required for each competition
260 because the cultures were at carrying capacity. In addition, to calculate N_{fa} and N_{fb} , we
261 had to account for the dilutions that were conducted prior to plating and the two 100-fold
262 dilutions that were conducted during the three-day competition. Importantly, the
263 selection coefficient of the *B. cenocepacia* HI2424 MA ancestor was not significantly
264 different from 0 in any of environments (TSOY: $s = -0.0002$ (0.0020), M9MM+CAA: $s =$
265 $+0.0075$ (0.0030), M9MM: $s = -0.0016$ (0.0034) (SEM)).

266
267 **Statistical analysis.** All statistical analyses were performed in R Version 0.98.1091
268 using the Stats analysis package (R Development Core Team 2013). For independent
269 two-tailed t-tests, all p-values were corrected for multiple comparisons using a
270 Benjamini-Hochberg correction (Table S2), which ensures that our false positive rate
271 remains below 5%, despite testing whether the selection coefficient differed significantly

272 from 0 for 43 lineages in each environment (Benjamini and Hochberg 1995). Corrected
273 p-values that were below a threshold of 0.05 were considered significant. Linear
274 regressions were used to evaluate the correlation between the number of mutations in a
275 lineage and its selection coefficient, as well as the correlation between the selection
276 coefficients of lineages in different environments. Lastly, to test for effects of replicate,
277 genotype, environment, and genotype*environment interaction on the fitness of each
278 lineage, we performed an analysis of variance (ANOVA) on the cumulative dataset.

279

280 **Data Availability.** Illumina DNA sequences for the *B. cenocepacia* MA lines used in this
281 study are available under the PRJNA326274 bioproject. File S1 contains all
282 supplementary tables and figures referenced in text. File S2 contains all the information
283 on the location and criteria used to identify each base-substitution and insertion-deletion
284 mutation identified in this study. All strains are available upon request.

285

286

RESULTS

287 We previously reported the rate and molecular spectrum of spontaneous
288 mutations in wild-type *B. cenocepacia*, as determined from the cumulative results of a
289 MA-WGS experiment involving 47 replicate lineages derived from *B. cenocepacia*
290 HI2424 (Dillon *et al.* 2015). Each lineage was passaged through daily single-cell
291 bottlenecks for 217 days, resulting in approximately 5554 generations of MA per
292 lineage. The average number of generations of growth per day within a colony declined
293 from 26.16 (0.06) to 24.92 (0.07) (SEM) over the course of the experiment, suggesting
294 that some of the accumulated mutations had deleterious fitness effects. Here, we

295 present a detailed picture of the fitness effects of the spontaneous mutations
296 accumulated at the conclusion of this MA-WGS experiment using 43 replicate lineages,
297 as the remaining four lineages were discarded because of a lack of sufficient coverage
298 in the WGS data.

299 The properties of the mutations found in these 43 lineages are consistent with
300 constant mutation rates and limited selection over the course of our experiment. Neither
301 the distribution of bpsms or indels across lineages differed significantly from a Poisson
302 distribution (bpsms: $\chi^2 = 3.46$, $p = 0.94$; indels: $\chi^2 = 0.28$, $p = 0.96$), signifying that
303 mutation rates did not vary across the lineages. The ratio of synonymous to
304 nonsynonymous bpsms also did not differ from the expected ratio based on the codon-
305 usage and %GC content at synonymous and nonsynonymous sites in *B. cenocepacia*
306 HI2424 ($\chi^2 = 0.78$, d.f. = 1, $p = 0.38$), which suggests minimal purifying selection.
307 Further, the lack of genetic parallelism in the bpsm spectra across lineages (see File
308 S1) is inconsistent with positive selection acting on these lines. Although both bpsms
309 and indels were observed more frequently than expected in non-coding DNA (bpsms: χ^2
310 = 2.19, d.f. = 1, $p = 0.14$; indels: $\chi^2 = 45.816$, d.f. = 1, $p < 0.0001$), a pattern consistent
311 with purifying selection, this pattern could be generated by selection against coding
312 mutations, preferential mismatch repair in coding regions, or the mutation prone nature
313 of repetitive DNA in non-coding regions (Lee *et al.* 2012; Heilbron *et al.* 2014; Dillon *et*
314 *al.* 2015). In any event, we estimate that the threshold selection coefficient below which
315 genetic drift will overpower natural selection, as determined by $N_E \times s = 1$ in haploid
316 organisms, is 0.08 (Dillon *et al.* 2015). Thus, while a small class of adaptive or
317 deleterious mutations with effects in excess of $s = 0.08$ will be subject to the biases of

318 natural selection (Kimura 1983; Elena *et al.* 1998; Zeyl and de Visser 2001; Hall *et al.*
319 2008), the vast majority of mutations that were observed in this study likely fixed
320 irrespective of their fitness effects.

321
322 **Genetic basis of spontaneous mutations.** The spontaneous bpsms and indels
323 reported here are similar to those reported previously (Dillon *et al.* 2015), with a few
324 exceptions. First, we allowed for bpsms to be called in more than one lineage, resulting
325 in the addition of two bpsms. These bpsms are assumed to have occurred in the
326 ancestral colony, but their presence in each lineage must be documented to accurately
327 quantify the relationship between the fitness of each lineage and its mutational load.
328 Second, we were able to confidently identify nine additional indels that occurred in
329 simple sequence repeats by using an approach that considers only reads anchored on
330 both sides of the repeat (see Methods; File S1). These indels may contribute
331 substantively to the mutational load of the lineages in which they occur, so they were
332 important to include in this study. Lastly, we did not analyze four of the lineages from
333 the previous study because less than 80% of their genomes had sufficient coverage to
334 be analyzed for the presence of bpsms and indels (see Methods). This low coverage
335 would render us blind to a considerable portion of the mutational load in these lineages,
336 which warranted their exclusion.

337 Among the 43 MA lineages, 233 bpsms, 42 short indels, and 4 plasmid-loss
338 events were identified. The most common class of bpsms was missense bpsms (141),
339 followed by synonymous bpsms (49), intergenic bpsms (37), and nonsense bpsms (6).
340 Among indels, coding indels involving only a single gene (22) were slightly more

341 common than intergenic indels (20), while loss of the 0.16-Mb plasmid, which encodes
342 157 genes, was observed in 4 lineages (see Figure 1). False-negative rates were
343 estimated in each lineage as the number of sites that were not analyzed for mutations,
344 multiplied by the product of experiment-wide bpsm and indel rates per base-pair per
345 generation and the number of generations experienced by each lineage. Given that an
346 average of 95.20 % (0.01) of each genome was sequenced to sufficient depth to
347 analyze both bpsms and indels, we estimate that an average of only 0.25 (0.03)
348 additional bpsms and 0.05 (0.01) additional indels would have been identified per
349 lineage if the entire genome was analyzed (SEM) (see Table S1). Overall, mutations
350 were not uniformly distributed across the 43 MA lineages, allowing us to analyze which
351 mutation types are most likely to have fitness effects.

352

353 **Fitness effects of spontaneous mutations.** Fitness of the final isolate from each
354 lineage was measured by direct competition with the ancestral *B. cenocepacia* HI2424
355 strain in three different broth culture conditions. TSOY broth is a very permissive
356 medium used to mimic the conditions of the MA experiment, M9MM+CAA is an amino-
357 acid supplemented minimal medium that is less permissive than TSOY but more
358 permissive than a strictly minimal medium, and M9MM is a fully defined minimal
359 medium that is the least permissive of the three environments. In TSOY, 17 lineages
360 had significantly reduced fitness and no lineages had significantly increased fitness (see
361 Figure 2A). The average fitness across all MA lineages in TSOY was -0.024 (0.005)
362 (SEM), with a range of -0.111 to +0.037. Similarly, 13 lineages had significantly reduced
363 fitness in M9MM+CAA and none had significantly increased fitness (see Figure 2B). The

364 average fitness decline and the range across all MA lineages in M9MM+CAA were
365 similar to those observed in TSOY (Average: -0.020 (0.005) (SEM); Range: -0.116 to
366 +0.006). Lastly, we observed 13 lineages with significantly reduced fitness in M9MM,
367 but here, 4 other lineages had significantly increased in fitness (see Figure 2C). Thus,
368 the average fitness decline of the MA lineages in M9MM was only -0.013 (0.005) (SEM),
369 and the range across all lineages was shifted to the right (-0.090 to +0.026). Because
370 each lineage harbors multiple mutations, the distributions presented in Figure 2 cannot
371 be used directly to elucidate the distribution of effects of individual spontaneous
372 mutations. However, it is notable that all of the distributions are significantly non-normal
373 (Shapiro Wilk's Test; TSOY: $W = 0.95$, $p = 0.04$; M9MM+CAA: $W = 0.68$, $p = 2.02 \cdot 10^{-8}$;
374 M9MM: $W = 0.73$, $p = 1.44 \cdot 10^{-7}$) and the basic properties of the distributions outlined
375 above are similar across environments. Specifically, the majority of lineages have
376 neutral or moderately deleterious fitness and all three distributions have an extended
377 left tail including lineages whose fitnesses have declined more dramatically.

378 Significant positive correlations between the selection coefficients of individual
379 MA lineages across environments suggest that effects of experiment-wide mutational
380 load interacted with these external environments only modestly (see Figure 3).
381 Specifically, linear regressions between the selection coefficients of each lineage in
382 TSOY and both M9MM+CAA and M9MM produced significantly positive relationships
383 (TSOY-M9MM+CAA: $F = 17.18$, $df = 41$, $p = 0.0002$, $r^2 = 0.30$; TSOY-M9MM: $F = 8.61$,
384 $df = 41$, $p = 0.0054$, $r^2 = 0.17$). Selection coefficients in M9MM+CAA and M9MM were
385 also significantly correlated and explained a greater fraction of the variance than either
386 of the TSOY regressions ($F = 124.00$, $df = 41$, $p < 0.0001$, $r^2 = 0.75$), which was

387 expected given that these environments are more similar to each other than either is to
388 TSOY (see Figure 3). However, the fitness of certain MA lineages declined significantly
389 in one environment but not others, suggesting that some mutations in these lineages
390 produced environment-dependent effects. A total of nine lineages were significantly less
391 fit in a single environment (four TSOY, two M9MM+CAA, three M9MM), eight MA
392 lineages were significantly less fit in two of the environments, and six MA lineages were
393 significantly less fit in all three environments. Overall, fitness was significantly influenced
394 by replicate, genotype, environment, and genotype-by-environment interaction (see
395 Table 1). Yet, as noted above, the general properties of the distribution of fitness effects
396 of these MA lineages remained similar across the three tested environments (see
397 Figure 2).

398 Despite acquiring multiple mutations, a number of MA lineages did not have
399 significant fitness differences from the ancestral strain. Further, the number of
400 spontaneous mutations in a line did not correlate with their absolute selection
401 coefficients in any environment (TSOY: $F = 1.40$, $df = 41$, $p = 0.2434$, $r^2 = 0.03$;
402 M9MM+CAA: $F = 1.35$, $df = 41$, $p = 0.2513$, $r^2 = 0.03$; M9MM: $F = 2.96$, $df = 41$, $p =$
403 0.0930 , $r^2 = 0.07$) (see Figure S1). After adding the 11 additional mutations presumed to
404 have been missed in the unanalyzed genomic regions across all lines, we estimate that
405 a total of 290 spontaneous mutations occurred in the experiment, with an average of
406 6.73 (0.36) (SEM) mutations per lineage. In combination, these results suggest that the
407 fitness effects of a majority of spontaneous mutations were near neutral, or at least
408 undetectable with plate-based laboratory fitness assays. Given the average selection
409 coefficient of each line and the number of mutations that it harbors, we can estimate

410 that the average fitness effect (s) of a single mutation was -0.0040 (0.0008) in TSOY, -
411 0.0031 (0.0007) in M9MM+CAA, and -0.0017 (0.0007) (SEM) in M9MM.

412 Because the fitness of many lineages with multiple mutations did not significantly
413 differ from the ancestor, and because mutation number and fitness were not correlated,
414 this study suggests that most of the significant losses and gains in fitness were caused
415 by rare, single mutations with large fitness effects. Based on this conjecture, we can use
416 the number of lineages that experienced significantly reduced fitness (17 in TSOY, 13 in
417 M9MM+CAA, and 13 in M9MM) divided by the total generations of MA across all lines to
418 estimate the deleterious mutation rate per genome per generation (U_D) in each
419 environment. Estimates of U_D based on this approach are 7.12×10^{-5}
420 /genome/generation in TSOY, 5.44×10^{-5} /genome/generation in M9MM+CAA, and
421 5.44×10^{-5} /genome/generation in M9MM. The fitness effects of these single
422 deleterious mutations (s_D) in some lineages can also be estimated directly from the
423 fitness of these select lineages relative to the *B. cenocepacia* HI2424 ancestor, and
424 suggest an average s_D of -0.048 (0.007) in TSOY, -0.053 (0.011) in M9MM+CAA, and -
425 0.048 (0.009) in M9MM (SEM). Although we observe no significantly beneficial
426 mutations in TSOY or M9MM+CAA, our data suggest that the beneficial mutation rate
427 (U_B) is 1.68×10^{-5} /genome/generation and the average significantly beneficial mutation
428 has a selection coefficient (s_B) of 0.013 (0.005) in M9MM. The primary caveats to these
429 estimates are that they assume that only one of the mutations in each lineage
430 determines its fitness, that none of the lineages that are statistically indistinguishable
431 from the ancestral strain harbor deleterious mutations, and that they do not account for
432 epistasis between the mutations accumulated in each lineage. To attain more precise

433 estimates of U_D , s_D , U_B , and s_B , studying spontaneous mutations in different
434 combinations and using more precise fitness assays based on flow-cytometry and/or
435 barcoded sequencing will be especially valuable.

436

437 **Genetic basis of deleterious load.** Without sequencing and measuring fitness at
438 intermediate time-points or genetically engineering *B. cenocepacia* HI2424 strains that
439 harbor only single spontaneous mutations, it is difficult to pinpoint which mutations
440 generate the fitness declines in our MA lineages. However, we can examine
441 relationships between the forms of mutational load harbored by each lineage and the
442 fitness of those lineages (Figure 1). The only mutation type that was significantly
443 overrepresented in lineages with reduced fitness in TSOY was the loss of the 0.164-Mb
444 plasmid ($\chi^2 = 6.12$, d.f. = 1, $p = 0.0130$). All four lineages that lost the plasmid were
445 significantly less fit in TSOY, with an average selection coefficient of -0.060 (0.007)
446 (SEM). These same four lineages were also less fit in M9MM ($\chi^2 = 9.23$, d.f. = 1, $p =$
447 0.0020; mean $s = -0.043$ (0.018)), but the deleterious effects of plasmid loss appear to
448 be mitigated in M9MM+CAA, where only one of these lineages had significantly reduced
449 fitness.

450 Although no other mutation types were significantly overrepresented among
451 lineages that had reduced fitness, we note that there were more coding indels,
452 nonsense bpsms, and missense bpsms than expected in the lineages with reduced
453 fitness in all three environments, with the exception of coding indels in M9MM+CAA
454 (see Table 2). In contrast, intergenic bpsms and indels appear to be evenly distributed
455 between lineages with significantly reduced fitness and those where s was not

456 significantly different from 0, suggesting that few if any intergenic mutations from this
457 study have deleterious fitness effects. Similarly, the synonymous bpsms observed in
458 this study do not appear to have deleterious effects, as they are less frequent than
459 expected in lineages with reduced fitness in TSOY and are evenly distributed between
460 neutral and reduced fitness lineages in M9MM+CAA and M9MM (see Table 2). Overall,
461 these results support the expectation that coding indels, nonsense bpsms, and
462 missense bpsms are more likely to have deleterious effects than intergenic and
463 synonymous bpsms.

464

465

DISCUSSION

466 Nearly all prior research on the fitness effects of mutations has studied mutants
467 that have been screened by selection, which presumably purged deleterious variants
468 and enriched beneficial ones. MA experiments are designed to minimize effects of
469 selection to the greatest extent possible, thus capturing most mutations independent of
470 the biases of natural selection. Combining this MA approach with whole genome
471 sequencing and fitness measurements provides the potential to dramatically advance
472 our understanding of the fitness effects of spontaneous mutations in diverse organisms.
473 Here we analyzed the fitness effects of 43 lineages of *B. cenocepacia* that underwent 7
474 months or >5500 generations of evolution under greatly limited selection. Direct
475 competitions with the common ancestor were conducted in three environments to
476 quantify effects of different forms of mutational load. Despite the duration of MA, many
477 lineages evidently suffered no fitness decline, as they had selection coefficients that did
478 not significantly differ from $s = 0$. Given that each lineage accumulated between 2-14

479 mutations, the most likely explanation for these findings is that the vast majority of
480 spontaneous mutations have minimal effects on fitness across this range of
481 environments. Under the assumption that the significant reductions in lineage fitness
482 were driven mostly by single deleterious mutations (Davies *et al.* 1999; Heilbron *et al.*
483 2014), we also obtain new estimates of the deleterious mutation rate (U_D) and the
484 average effect of deleterious mutations (s_D) in all three environments. These measures
485 reveal that the general features of the distribution of fitness effects are similar between
486 these conditions. The most consistently deleterious mutational event involved loss of
487 the 0.164-Mb plasmid, which reduced fitness in TSOY and M9MM but not M9MM+CAA.
488 Further, nonsense bpsms, missense bpsms, and coding indels were more likely to have
489 contributed to the deleterious mutational load than synonymous bpsms, intergenic
490 bpsms, and intergenic indels.

491 Although a few select studies have claimed that a substantial fraction of
492 spontaneous mutations are beneficial under certain conditions (Shaw *et al.* 2002;
493 Silander *et al.* 2007; Dickinson 2008), evidence from diverse sources strongly suggests
494 that the effect of most spontaneous mutations is to reduce fitness (Kibota and Lynch
495 1996; Keightley and Caballero 1997; Fry *et al.* 1999; Vassilieva *et al.* 2000; Wloch *et al.*
496 2001; Zeyl and de Visser 2001; Keightley and Lynch 2003; Trindade *et al.* 2010;
497 Heilbron *et al.* 2014). Our measurements of selection coefficients in TSOY also suggest
498 that most spontaneous mutations are neutral or deleterious because all lineages whose
499 fitness differs significantly from the ancestor are less fit ($s = -0.112$ to -0.014). The
500 overall distribution of selection coefficients of our lineages in TSOY also has a clear
501 mode near $s = 0$ and among lineages whose selection coefficients cannot be statistically

502 distinguished from $s = 0$, most are clearly negative (Chi-square test; $\chi^2 = 7.54$, $df = 1$, p
503 $= 0.0060$) (see Figure 2). However, whether this is the only mode in the distribution, or
504 stems from the inability of our MA experiments to fix deleterious mutations with fitness
505 effects below the selection threshold of $s = -0.078$ remains uncertain.

506 Whether the environment affects the fitness effects of spontaneous mutations
507 has also been the subject of considerable debate. Specifically, some studies have
508 shown that larger declines in fitness are experienced in harsher environments, while
509 others have not (Martin and Lenormand 2006; Halligan and Keightley 2009; Kraemer *et*
510 *al.* 2015). In M9MM+CAA and M9MM, we can statistically distinguish fitness effects
511 from $s = 0$ with greater precision ($s < -0.03$ in M9MM+CAA and $s < -0.01$ or $s > 0.01$ in
512 M9MM) likely because the formulations for these media are more defined. These media
513 are also expected to be more stringent for growth than TSOY because nutrients are
514 more limited. Yet, a similar distribution of fitness effects was observed across our MA
515 lineages in these environments as we observed in TSOY (see Figure 2). Again, most
516 lineages whose selection coefficients are statistically different from 0 in M9MM+CAA
517 and M9MM have reduced fitness, and the only clear mode in the distribution of fitness
518 effects occurs near $s = 0$. However, in M9MM there are four lineages that are
519 significantly more fit than the ancestor, and unlike in TSOY and M9MM+CAA, lineages
520 whose selection coefficients are not significantly different from 0 in M9MM are no more
521 likely to be negative than they are to be positive (Chi-square test; $\chi^2 = 0$, $df = 1$, $p = 1$)
522 (see Figure 2). This suggests that fewer spontaneous mutations are deleterious for
523 fitness in M9MM, possibly because a greater proportion of genes are unused when
524 metabolizing only a single carbon substrate. Furthermore, a number of lineages whose

525 selection coefficients were significantly different from $s = 0$ in one environment, were
526 near neutral in other environments. Overall, these data suggest that the fitness effects
527 of some individual spontaneous mutations interact with the growth environment, despite
528 the minimal differences in the properties of the distribution of fitness effects among the
529 three environments assayed in this study (see Figure 2; Figure 3).

530 Quantitative estimates of the rates and fitness effects of spontaneous mutations
531 have received considerable interest because of their fundamental importance for the
532 population genetics of evolving systems (Keightley and Lynch 2003; Eyre-Walker and
533 Keightley 2007; Lynch 2008a; b, 2010; Halligan and Keightley 2009). Specifically, in an
534 effort to unveil some general properties of the distribution of fitness effects of
535 spontaneous mutations, estimates of the average selection coefficient of spontaneous
536 mutations (s) (Lynch *et al.* 2008; Halligan and Keightley 2009; Trindade *et al.* 2010;
537 Heilbron *et al.* 2014), the rate of deleterious mutations (U_D) (Kibota and Lynch 1996;
538 Trindade *et al.* 2010), and the average selection coefficient of deleterious mutations (s_D)
539 (Kibota and Lynch 1996; Trindade *et al.* 2010; Heilbron *et al.* 2014) have been derived
540 using both direct and indirect approaches. Here, we estimate that $s \cong 0$ in all three
541 environments, largely because the vast majority of mutations appear to have near
542 neutral effects on fitness. These estimates are remarkably similar to estimates from
543 studies of MA lines with fully characterized mutational load in *P. aeruginosa* and *S.*
544 *cerevisiae* (Lynch *et al.* 2008; Heilbron *et al.* 2014), but are lower than estimates
545 derived from unsequenced MA lineages (Halligan and Keightley 2009; Trindade *et al.*
546 2010). However, it is important to consider that while our data suggest that the vast
547 majority of spontaneous mutations in *B. cenocepacia* have very low selection

548 coefficients in the laboratory, it should not imply that all of these mutations are
549 effectively neutral in natural conditions. In fact, sequence analyses in enteric bacteria
550 have revealed that fewer than 2.8% of amino-acid changing mutations are evolving
551 neutrally, and this may be an overestimate due to the presence of adaptive mutations
552 (Charlesworth and Eyre-Walker 2006; Eyre-Walker and Keightley 2007).

553 From this study, we were also able to estimate the deleterious mutation rates
554 (U_D) and the mean fitness effects of deleterious mutations (s_D) in each environment
555 under the presumption that only one mutation is responsible for the fitness declines
556 experienced by a subset of our lineages. This assumption is warranted given that more
557 than 5000 generations of MA had no significant effects on lineage fitness in the majority
558 of our lineages, and that there was no significant correlation between the number of
559 mutations in a lineage and its fitness. Further, time-series data from prior studies have
560 supported that single, large-effect mutations disproportionately dictate the realized
561 fitness in the majority of MA lineages (Davies *et al.* 1999; Heilbron *et al.* 2014). As was
562 the case with our estimates of s , our estimates of U_D and s_D in all three environments
563 are similar to prior estimates in *E. coli* (Kibota and Lynch 1996; Trindade *et al.* 2010)
564 (TSOY: $U_D = 7.12 \times 10^{-5}$ /genome/generation, $s_D = -0.048$; M9MM+CAA: $U_D = 5.44 \times$
565 10^{-5} , $s_D = -0.053$; M9MM: $U_D = 5.44 \times 10^{-5}$, $s_D = -0.048$). Interestingly, our U_D estimates
566 are all slightly lower than the estimates from previous studies and our s_D estimates are
567 somewhat greater, which is consistent with a failure to differentiate some moderately
568 deleterious mutations from $s = 0$ in this study. It is likely that both the difficulty of
569 resolving the fitness of mutations of small effects and the effects of selection in our MA
570 experiments on mutations with $s > 0.078$ interfere with our estimates of U_D and s_D .

571 While the latter selective bias is an inevitable consequence of the MA approach, future
572 studies can enhance resolution of subtle fitness effects by employing flow-cytometry
573 and/or barcoding techniques (Gallet *et al.* 2012; Levy *et al.* 2015; Dillon *et al.* 2016).
574 Furthermore, by extending these methods to a growing database of archived MA-WGS
575 studies in diverse organisms and analyzing the effects of spontaneous mutations in
576 different combinations, we will soon be able to evaluate the extent to which properties of
577 the distribution of fitness effects vary between species and the epistatic deviation
578 associated with mutations in different genetic backgrounds (Elena and Lenski 1997;
579 Silander *et al.* 2007; Dickinson 2008; Schaack *et al.* 2013; Jasmin and Lenormand
580 2015; Behringer and Hall 2016).

581 Significantly beneficial mutations were only observed in M9MM and in no lineage
582 did the selective coefficient exceed $s = +0.03$. These limited observations prevent us
583 from performing any detailed analyses on the rate and distribution of effects of
584 beneficial mutations, but they support the notion that beneficial mutations are rare
585 relative to deleterious mutations (Keightley and Lynch 2003). Furthermore, they suggest
586 that most beneficial mutations likely provide only moderate benefits, even though the
587 beneficial mutations that often fix in experimental populations can have large beneficial
588 effects (Lenski *et al.* 1991; Ostrowski *et al.* 2005; Lang *et al.* 2013; Levy *et al.* 2015). As
589 was the case for deleterious mutations, the number and average effects of beneficial
590 mutations observed in this study are likely to be downwardly biased due to the impacts
591 of other mutations in the same MA background that are mostly deleterious, which will
592 further increase the value of sequencing and measuring the fitness of our lineages at
593 intermediate time-points in future studies.

594 It is a well-established dogma in evolutionary biology that mutations that disrupt
595 coding sequences are most likely to affect fitness, but this has never been quantitatively
596 tested with naturally accumulated mutations. Specifically, mutations that frequently
597 generate non-functional proteins, like nonsense bpsms or coding indels, are expected to
598 have the most deleterious effects, followed by missense bpsms that mostly generate
599 modified proteins, then synonymous and non-coding mutations that do not alter protein
600 sequences. The fitness effects of plasmid gain and loss are less certain, as the size and
601 genetic content of plasmids vary, but they may be energetically expensive to maintain
602 (Smith and Bidochka 1998). Consequently, plasmids may be selectively lost in
603 permissive laboratory environments where maintenance of the plasmid has a fitness
604 cost (Lenski and Bouma 1987; Smith and Bidochka 1998). Our data suggest that
605 although loss of the 0.164-Mb plasmid in *B. cenocepacia* occurs at an appreciable rate
606 in the absence of selection during our MA experiments, it is universally deleterious to
607 lose the plasmid in TSOY and M9MM. However, these effects appear to be mitigated in
608 M9MM+CAA, suggesting that these fitness losses are related to amino acid synthesis.
609 Therefore, these data suggest that in permissive laboratory conditions, the loss of some
610 plasmids can be deleterious and not just advantageous for growth as is widely
611 presumed. Other mutation types were not significantly overrepresented in lineages with
612 significantly reduced fitness (see Table 2), but we do find that there are slightly more
613 nonsense bpsms, missense bpsms, and coding indels than expected in lineages with
614 significantly reduced fitness. This supports expectations that protein-modifying
615 mutations are more likely to affect fitness than synonymous or intergenic mutations, and
616 that most synonymous and intergenic mutations do not measurably affect fitness, even

617 though some synonymous and intergenic mutations can be under selective constraints
618 (Eyre-Walker and Keightley 2007; Bailey *et al.* 2014).

619 The rate and fitness effects of spontaneous mutations are fundamental quantities
620 that will help explain a number of evolutionary phenomena, including the origin and
621 maintenance of genetic variation in natural populations (Charlesworth *et al.* 1993, 2009;
622 Charlesworth and Charlesworth 1998), the evolution of recombination (Muller 1964;
623 Kondrashov 1988; Otto and Lenormand 2002; Roze and Blanckaert 2014), the evolution
624 of mutator alleles (Sniegowski *et al.* 1997; Tenaillon *et al.* 1999), and the mutational
625 meltdown of small populations (Lande 1994; Lynch *et al.* 1995, 1999; Schwander and
626 Crespi 2009). Although our methods show that the majority of spontaneous mutations in
627 *B. cenocepacia* do not produce detectable fitness effects in any of three laboratory
628 environments, natural selection may be operating on many of these sites in natural
629 populations (Charlesworth and Eyre-Walker 2006). Still, our data suggest that purifying
630 selection may act weakly on much of the variation generated by spontaneous mutation,
631 allowing mutation pressure to substantively influence the genetic variation in natural
632 populations under some conditions. The low frequencies of highly deleterious or
633 beneficial alleles observed in this study may also have implications for our
634 understanding of the evolution of recombination and mutation rates. Specifically, the
635 benefits of reassorting genomes to separate deleterious and beneficial mutations (to
636 avoid Muller's ratchet), or to combine beneficial mutations and accelerate adaptation
637 (the Fisher-Muller hypothesis) might be reduced under conditions where both
638 deleterious and beneficial mutations are rare (Zeyl and Bell 1997; Otto and Lenormand
639 2002; de Visser and Elena 2007), like those observed in this study. Mutator alleles may

640 also be tolerated for longer periods if they fail to produce detectable deleterious load,
641 thereby giving them more time to hitchhike to fixation by producing a highly beneficial
642 allele. Indeed, mutator alleles have been frequently observed in experimental
643 (Sniegowski *et al.* 1997), clinical (Mena *et al.* 2008; Oliver 2010; Silva *et al.* 2016), and
644 environmental studies (Hall and Henderson-Begg 2006; Hazen *et al.* 2009). Lastly, the
645 bias for spontaneous mutations to be deleterious rather than beneficial in *B.*
646 *cenocepacia* is consistent with studies in a number of species (Kibota and Lynch 1996;
647 Keightley and Caballero 1997; Fry *et al.* 1999; Vassilieva *et al.* 2000; Wloch *et al.* 2001;
648 Zeyl and de Visser 2001; Keightley and Lynch 2003; Trindade *et al.* 2010; Heilbron *et*
649 *al.* 2014), suggesting that gradual mutational meltdown may be inevitable for
650 populations where the efficiency of natural selection is reduced (Sniegowski and Lenski
651 1995; Lynch *et al.* 1999).

652 By measuring the fitness effects of MA lineages with fully characterized
653 mutational load, we have performed a uniquely systematic study of the rate and fitness
654 effects of spontaneous mutations with known genetic bases, demonstrating that the vast
655 majority of mutations accumulated in *B. cenocepacia* MA lines are neutral or deleterious
656 for fitness, and that the fitness of individual mutations can be environmentally
657 dependent, even though the general features of the distribution of fitness effects are
658 similar in different environments. Furthermore, we have provided new estimates for
659 several parameters of the distribution of fitness effects of spontaneous mutations
660 derived from genotypes with known mutational load. Although considerable uncertainty
661 remains with respect to the shape and parameters that define the distribution of fitness
662 effects, by extending these methods to a growing database of MA studies, many of

663 which have archived time-series data, we are now poised to dramatically enhance our
664 understanding of the true nature of the distribution of fitness effects of spontaneous
665 mutations.

666

667

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TABLES

Table 1. An experiment-wide ANOVA of the fitness of the 43 final mutation accumulation lines in each of 3 environments, measured in 4 replicates per treatment.

Effect	df	SS	F	p
Replicate	3	0.0037	10.02	< 0.0001
Line	42	0.3302	63.72	< 0.0001
Environment	2	0.0190	76.90	< 0.0001
Genotype • Environment	84	0.1166	11.25	< 0.0001

Table 2. Chi-tests comparing the observed number of mutations in lineages with significantly reduced fitness, relative to the expected amounts given the proportion of the total lineages that had significantly reduced fitness.

Mutation Type	Environment	Observed	Expected	χ^2	df	p
Intergenic Bpsm	TSOY	13	14.63	0.2996	1	0.5841
Synonymous Bpsm	TSOY	16	19.37	0.9708	1	0.3245
Missense Bpsm	TSOY	60	55.74	0.5374	1	0.4635
Nonsense Bpsm	TSOY	4	2.37	1.8477	1	0.1741
Intergenic Indel	TSOY	8	7.91	0.0018	1	0.9661
Coding Indel	TSOY	12	8.70	2.0736	1	0.1499
Plasmid Loss	TSOY	4	1.58	6.1176	1	0.0134
Total Mutations	TSOY	117	110.30	0.6726	1	0.4121
Intergenic Bpsm	M9MM+CAA	12	11.19	0.0849	1	0.7708
Synonymous Bpsm	M9MM+CAA	15	14.81	0.0033	1	0.9539
Missense Bpsm	M9MM+CAA	47	42.63	0.6427	1	0.4227
Nonsense Bpsm	M9MM+CAA	3	1.81	1.1115	1	0.2917
Intergenic Indel	M9MM+CAA	6	6.05	0.0005	1	0.9819
Coding Indel	M9MM+CAA	6	6.65	0.0914	1	0.7624
Plasmid Loss	M9MM+CAA	1	1.21	0.0519	1	0.8198
Total Mutations	M9MM+CAA	90	84.35	0.5427	1	0.4613
Intergenic Bpsm	M9MM	10	11.19	0.1803	1	0.6712
Synonymous Bpsm	M9MM	15	14.81	0.0033	1	0.9539
Missense Bpsm	M9MM	50	42.63	1.8274	1	0.1764
Nonsense Bpsm	M9MM	2	1.81	0.0274	1	0.8686
Intergenic Indel	M9MM	6	6.05	0.0005	1	0.9819
Coding Indel	M9MM	8	6.65	0.3921	1	0.5312
Plasmid Loss	M9MM	4	1.21	9.2308	1	0.0024
Total Mutations	M9MM	95	84.35	1.9278	1	0.1650

FIGURE LEGENDS

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Figure 1. Distribution of base-substitution mutations (bpsms) and insertion-deletion mutations (indels) across the 43 mutation accumulation lineages derived from *Burkholderia cenocepacia* HI2424 analyzed in this study.

Figure 2. Distribution of the selection coefficients of each *Burkholderia cenocepacia* MA lineage relative to the ancestral *B. cenocepacia* HI2424 strain in tryptic soy broth (A), M9 minimal medium supplemented with casamino acids (B), and M9 minimal medium (C). Significance was determined from independent two-tailed t-tests on four replicate fitness assays for each lineage. P-values were corrected for multiple comparisons using a Benjamini-Hochberg correction, and corrected p-values that remained below 0.05 were considered significant.

Figure 3. Relationship between selection coefficients of all MA lineages in each of the different pairs of environments. All linear regressions are significant, but much of the variance is unexplained (A: $F = 17.18$, $df = 41$, $p = 0.0002$, $r^2 = 0.2953$; B: $F = 8.613$, $df = 41$, $p = 0.0054$, $r^2 = 0.1736$; C: $F = 124.00$, $df = 41$, $p < 0.0001$, $r^2 = 0.7515$).

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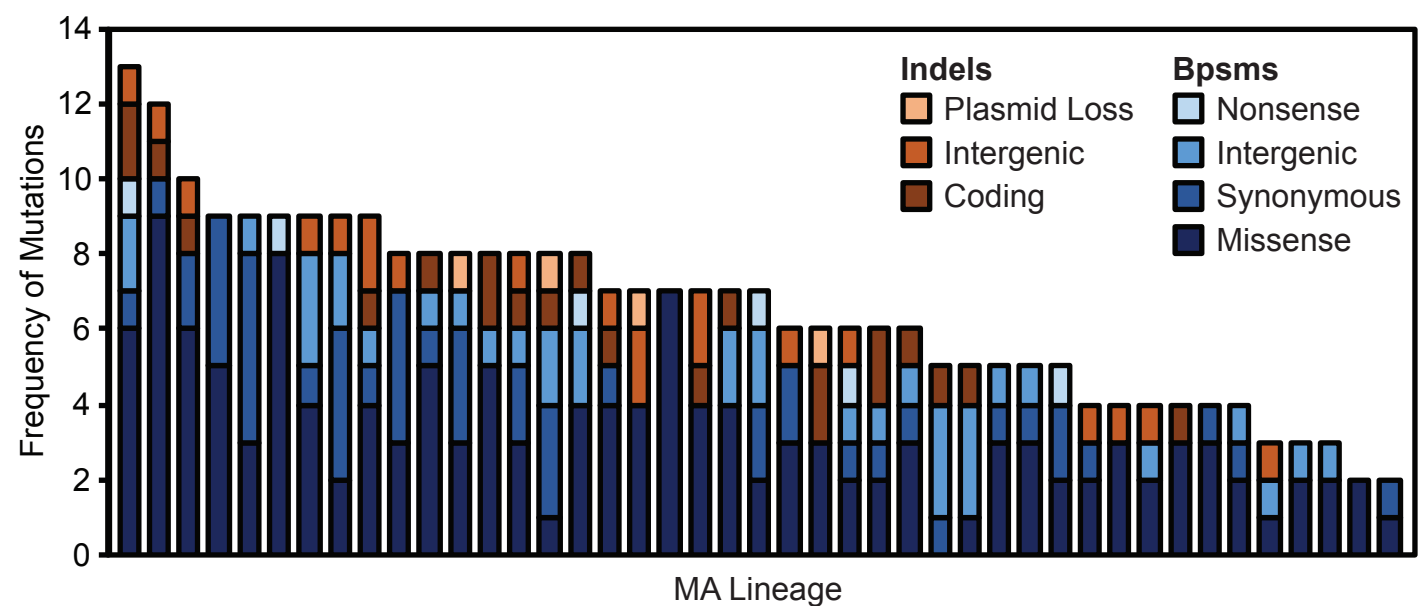


Figure 1. Distribution of base-substitution mutations (bpsms) and insertion-deletion mutations (indels) across the forty-three mutation accumulation lineages derived from *Burkholderia cenocepacia* HI2424 analyzed in this study.

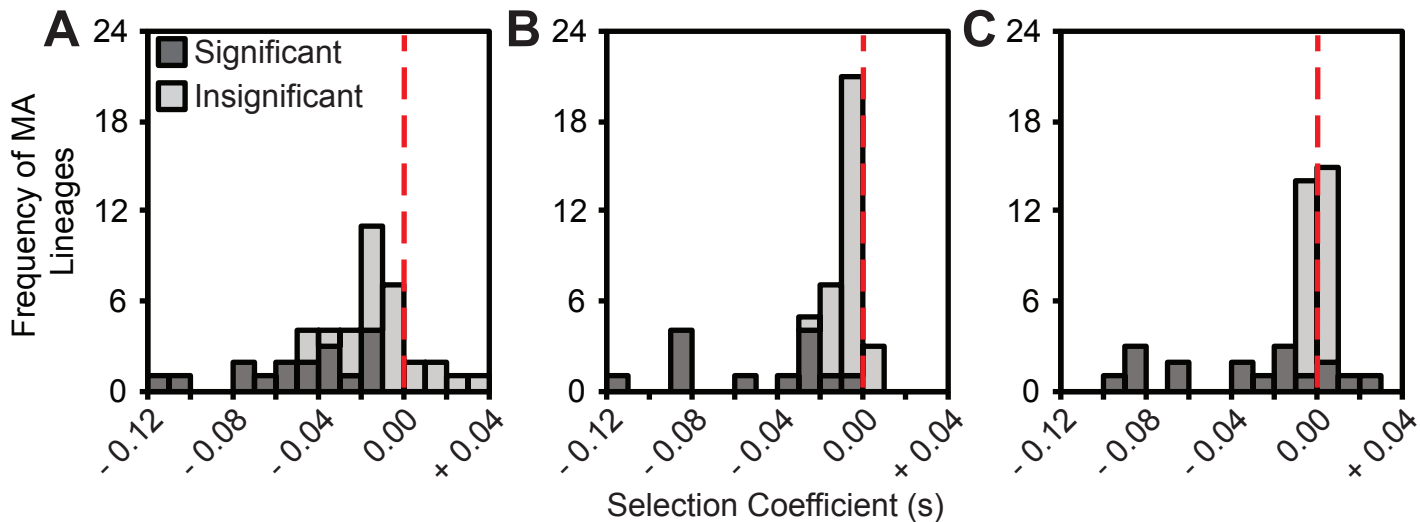


Figure 2. Distribution of the selection coefficients of each *Burkholderia cenocepacia* MA lineage relative to the ancestral *B. cenocepacia* HI2424 strain in tryptic soy broth (A), M9 minimal medium supplemented with casamino acids (B), and M9 minimal medium (C). Significance was determined from independent two-tailed t-tests on four replicate fitness assays for each lineage. P-values were corrected for multiple comparisons using a Benjamini-Hochberg correction, and corrected p-values that remained below 0.05 were considered significant.

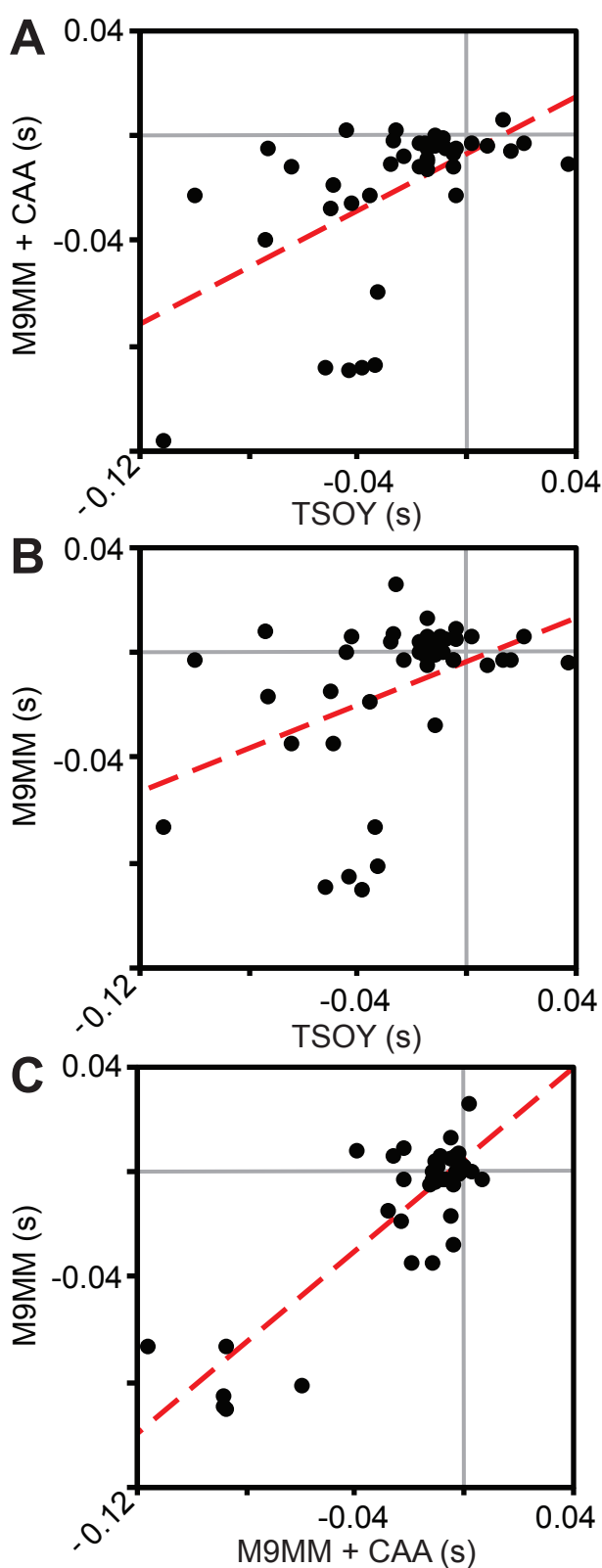


Figure 3. Relationship between selection coefficients of all MA lineages in each of the different pairs of environments. All linear regressions are significant, but much of the variance is unexplained (A: $F = 17.18$, $df = 41$, $p = 0.0002$, $r^2 = 0.2953$; B: $F = 8.613$, $df = 41$, $p = 0.0054$, $r^2 = 0.1736$; C: $F = 124.00$, $df = 41$, $p < 0.0001$, $r^2 = 0.7515$).