Molecular Ecology June 2013, Volume 22, Issue 12, pages 3292–3303 http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/mec.12312 © 2013 John Wiley & Sons Ltd



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Evolutionary history and genetic parallelism affect correlated responses to evolution

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Abstract:

We investigated the relationship between genomic and phenotypic evolution among replicate populations of *Escherichia coli* evolved for 1000 generations in four different environments. By resequencing evolved genomes, we identified parallel changes in genes encoding transcription regulators within and between environments. Depending on both the environment and the altered gene, genetic parallelism at the gene level involved mutations that affected identical codons, protein domains or were widely distributed across the gene. Evolved clones were characterized by parallel phenotypic changes in their respective evolution environments but also in the three alternative environments. Phenotypic parallelism was high for clones that evolved in the same environment, even in the absence of genetic parallelism. By contrast, clones that evolved in different environments revealed a higher parallelism in correlated responses when they shared mutated genes. Altogether, this work shows that after an environmental change or the colonization of a new habitat, similar ecological performance might be expected from individuals that share mutated genes or that experienced similar past selective pressures.

Keywords: adaptation; Epistasis; experimental evolution; genome sequencing; parallelism

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Introduction

39	Next-generation sequencing (NGS) technologies are revolutionizing our understanding of the
40	genetics of adaptation. From evolution studies focusing on specific candidate genes,
41	investigations have now switched to the genome scale. Applied to experimental evolution of
42	microorganisms, genome comparisons of ancestral and evolved clones enable the
43	identification of virtually all the mutations associated with experimental adaptation (reviewed
44	in Brockhurst et al. 2011; Conrad et al. 2011; Dettman et al. 2012; Hindré et al. 2012). A
45	prominent finding has been that adaptation of independent replicate populations to a given
46	environment often involves genetic parallelism, characterized by mutations that affect
47	identical genes, operons, or functional operational units (Herring et al. 2006; Barrick et al.
48	2009; Conrad et al. 2009; Tenaillon et al. 2012). However, the precise mutations altering
49	these genetic loci are often different in replicate bacterial populations (Woods et al. 2006;
50	Tenaillon et al. 2012).
51	Consideration of the genes that are repeatedly mutated during evolution experiments finds
52	that many are global regulators of gene expression, highlighting the involvement of regulatory
53	network rewiring in adaptation (Philippe et al. 2007; Wang et al. 2010; Conrad et al. 2011;
54	Hindré et al. 2012). The same global regulator-encoding genes are often mutated in distinct
55	experimental settings indicating that identical regulatory hubs may provide adaptation to
56	contrasting environments (Conrad et al. 2011). Moreover, non-additive, i.e. epistatic,
57	interactions between mutations have been shown to be of primary importance in explaining
58	both the evolutionary trajectory of a population and the phenotypes of evolved individuals
59	(Bull et al. 2000; Remold & Lenski 2004; Weinreich et al. 2005; 2006; Poelwijk et al. 2007;
60	Cooper et al. 2008; Almahmoud et al. 2009; Le Gac & Doebeli 2010). Beneficial mutations in
61	global regulator-encoding genes likely reorganize the architecture of the cellular regulatory
62	networks, potentially contributing to the influence of epistasis (Khan et al. 2011; Tenaillon et

al. 2012), and to complex phenotypic changes in environmental conditions distinct from the evolution environment (i.e., correlated responses). In the present study, we investigated the effect of beneficial mutations on correlated responses to evolution. Replicate populations evolving in identical environments are often characterized by having high phenotypic parallelism. The extent to which this parallelism applies to correlated phenotypic responses is, however, less well studied. At one extreme, replicate populations may display parallel correlated responses in many alternative environments. At the other, they may display varied phenotypes under alternative conditions and phenotypic parallelism only in the evolution environment. These phenotypic outcomes have important ecological implications since they dictate how ecologically similar populations will cope with environmental challenges such as the colonization of new habitats/hosts or the modification of ecosystems at both the biotic and abiotic levels. Only few studies using model bacteria have investigated the correlated phenotypic responses to evolution, including some that revealed parallel losses of catabolic abilities and growth phenotypes on alternative resources (Cooper & Lenski 2000; Barrett et al. 2005; Fong et al. 2005). However, in other studies using the same bacterial species, populations have been found to be more variable when assayed for growth on alternative resources than on the resource on which they first evolved (Travisano et al. 1995; Travisano & Lenski 1996; MacLean & Bell 2003; Ostrowski et al. 2005; 2008). The genetic changes associated with adaptation to a given evolution environment have only rarely been investigated for their effects on correlated responses in alternative environments. Intuitively, one may expect the correlated responses to be more similar for clones sharing mutated genes, but the relationship between genetic parallelism and phenotypic performance in alternative environments may be complex. For example, different mutations affecting a given gene may have similar phenotypic effect in the evolution environment but not necessarily in another one, especially in the case of global regulator-encoding genes.

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Conversely, even if replicate populations adapt through mutations in different genes, the phenotypic consequences of these mutations could be similar not only in the evolution environment, but also under alternative environmental conditions. Here, we propagated four replicate populations of *Escherichia coli* for 1000 generations in each of four different environments. We sequenced the genome of one evolved clone isolated from each of the 16 populations, allowing us to identify mutations associated with evolution in each environment. We assayed the phenotype of isolated clones in their evolution environment as well as in the three alternative ones to provide a measure of the direct and correlated phenotypic responses to evolution in all four environments. Using this experimental design, we investigated first, the level of genetic parallelism associated with evolution in several environments and second, the respective effect of genetic parallelism and evolutionary history on the correlated responses to evolution. In particular, we tested whether phenotypes in alternative environments (correlated responses to evolution) were more similar for clones sharing mutations in identical genes or genetic loci (genetic parallelism) irrespective of the environment in which they evolved (evolutionary history) or for clones that evolved in the same environment irrespective of genetic parallelism.

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Material and methods

Experimental evolution

E. coli B REL606 (Lederberg 1966; Jeong *et al.* 2009) was used as the ancestor to found four replicate populations that were propagated by daily serial transfer in each of four different environments for 1000 generations at 37 °C. Population samples were collected at 100-generation intervals and frozen at -80 °C as glycerol suspensions in the same conditions as the ancestor. All four environments are based on Davis minimal (DM) medium (Lenski *et al.* 1991). The first environment, named Ace, comprised 15 mL DM supplemented with 2 g/L

sodium acetate trihydrate in 50-mL flasks shaken at 200 rpm. The second, named Gly, comprised 15 mL DM supplemented with 1 g/L glycerol in static Petri dishes. The third, named Glc, comprised 15 mL DM supplemented with 1 g/L D-gluconate in test tubes shaken at 200 rpm. The fourth, named Glu, comprised 600 uL DM supplemented with 1 g/L Dglucose in 1 mL x 96-well plates shaken at 200 rpm. These four environments were chosen in order to apply a combination of parameters impacting bacterial growth and adaptation due to contrasting carbon sources, and homogenization and oxygenation levels. This choice was made a priori to allow a wide range of mutational targets, including genes associated with metabolic pathways, such as the catabolism of a specific carbon source, but also regulatory genes that influence a combination of growth aspects such as carbon source consumption and better oxygen use. This strategy should also favor the selection of mutations with large correlated phenotypic effects in alternative environments. Every day (24 +/-2 hours), populations were diluted 300-fold into the same fresh medium, allowing ~8.2 [log₂ (300)] generations per day. Populations therefore experience every day a lag phase with no detectable growth, followed by an exponential phase characterized by the optimal consumption of the available carbon source, and finally a stationary phase when the carbon source has been exhausted (except in the Ace environment, see below), before being diluted again in fresh medium. The bottleneck at each daily transfer was never fewer than $\sim 4 \times 10^6$ cells in any environment. After 1000 generations, each of the 16 populations was streaked on LB agar plates that were incubated overnight at 37 °C. A single colony was randomly chosen from each plate and frozen at -80 °C as a glycerol suspension.

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Growth profile assays

Growth profiles were measured first for population samples collected every 200 generations, in triplicate and in their respective evolution environments, and second for the ancestor and

individual evolved clones with five-fold replication and in the four different environments. For each experiment, a physiological pre-acclimation was performed in the assay environment, consisting of an overnight culture of bacterial cells followed by a 300-fold dilution and a 24-h incubation. This pre-acclimation step differed slightly for the growth profiles in the Ace environment, in which populations that evolved in the three other environments, as well as the ancestor, grew slowly and were still in exponential phase after 24 hours of incubation. In this particular case, the initial overnight cultures were performed in Glu. For all experiments and after a 300-fold dilution, pre-acclimated cultures were incubated in the relevant assay environment. Growth profiles were determined by measuring the optical density for each culture at 600 nm (OD_{600}) at regular intervals during 24 h of incubation. We used the resulting growth curves to calculate the maximum growth rate (μ_{max}) of each evolved culture (populations and individual clones) relative to the ancestor. For the Gly, Glc and Glu environments, maximum growth rates were measured between 0.2 and 0.8 of the maximal ancestral OD_{600} . In the Ace environment, the ancestor was still in exponential phase after 24 h of culture, and growth rates were measured between 0.5 and 1 times the OD_{600} reached by the ancestor following 24 h of growth.

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Fitness assays

Fitness assays were performed for the populations sampled at 300, 600 and 1000 generations in their respective evolution environments, and for the individual evolved clones in all four environments. All assays were replicated five-fold. Competitions were performed as previously described (Lenski *et al.* 1991). Briefly, all competitors including the REL606 ancestor and a marked phenotypic variant called REL607 were pre-acclimated in the assay environment. The ancestor REL606 and all derived evolved clones are unable to use

arabinose as a carbon source (Ara), while REL607 is a REL606 spontaneous revertant that recovered this catabolic ability (Ara⁺). After pre-acclimation, each evolved sample (population and individual clones) and the REL606 ancestral strain as a control were mixed separately with REL607 at a 1:1 ratio. Mixtures were then diluted 300-fold in fresh medium and incubated for 24 h at 37 °C in the assay environment. At days 0 (when the two competitors are mixed) and 1 (after 24 h of incubation) of each competition experiment, cells were diluted and plated on indicator tetrazolium arabinose (TA) plates, on which Ara⁺ or Ara⁻ colonies appear pink or red, respectively (Lenski et al. 1991). Plates were incubated 24 h at 37 °C and each of the competitors was scored. Using the initial and final cell counts we calculated the realized (net) population growth of each competitor, according to the following formula: $G_i = ln(C_{t1}*300/C_{t0})$, where C_{t0} and C_{t1} are the number of colonies at the beginning and after 24 hours of competition, respectively, and 300 the 300-fold higher dilution factor required for C_{t1} compared to C_{t0} . The fitness of one competitor relative to the other was then calculated as the ratio of their net growth rates during the competition experiment according to the formula: Fitness = G_{Ara} -/ G_{Ara} +, where G_{Ara} - and G_{Ara} + are the realized population growth of the Ara ancestor and evolved clones and of the Ara REL607 clone, respectively (Lenski et al. 1991).

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181 Genome sequencing

The genome of each of the 16 clones isolated after 1000 generations of evolution was resequenced on the Illumina HiSeq2000 platform (GATC Biotech, Germany) using one lane of single-end 35-bp reads. Barcodes were used for each genome so that reads were clone-specific. Candidate point mutations were identified in comparison to the ancestral genome of REL606 (Jeong *et al.* 2009) using the SNiPer pipeline (Wielgoss *et al.* 2011). The existence of a mutational event was inferred when it was identified in more than 75% of the reads

covering a given site and in more than 20 reads. We identified a total of 54 mutations of which 25 were randomly chosen and confirmed by PCR and sequencing of the obtained products. Short read single-end re-sequencing reliably detects SNPs but may miss large indels and mutational events associated with mobile genetic elements (recombination and transposition). To minimize this potential bias, we checked the eight genes that had a mutation in more than one clone, *i.e.* mutated in parallel, for gene size polymorphism by PCR amplification. Using this approach, we identified two additional mutations in the *glpR* gene: one IS1 insertion 30 bp upstream of its start codon and one 125-bp deletion in its coding region. Re-sequencing the genome of one single evolved clone sampled from each population allowed us to directly link phenotypic changes in different environments to specific combinations of mutations. This approach is not appropriate for analyzing genomic evolution at the level of the entire populations which is beyond the scope of our study and would imply re-sequencing genomes from either multiple evolved clones or mixtures of populations (Barrick & Lenski 2009; Herron & Doebeli 2013).

Statistical analyses

As the same global regulator-encoding genes were mutated in more than one environment, we used a generalized linear model (GLM) to test if the correlated responses were more similar for clones that shared mutated genes and/or that evolved in the same environments. To build the model, we measured the variability of the phenotypes (average μ_{max} and fitness values) between clones in their alternative environments. For pairs of clones that evolved in the same environment we considered the three alternative environments, while for those that evolved in two different environments we considered the two shared alternative ones. The variability of the correlated responses was calculated as the mean squares among clones (MSS), as for an ANOVA, but we did not compare the MSS to the mean squares error (MSE) using F statistics.

Instead, MSS were ranked within each alternative environment and used as an ordinal response variable in the GLM. By doing this, we could consider as the units of interest the pairs of clones instead of the clones themselves, allowing for the choice of two explanatory variables. The first distinguished the pairs of clones sharing or not a mutated gene (nominal explanatory variable) and the second the pairs of clones that evolved or not in the same environment (nominal explanatory variable). Details of the input data used for the GLM are given in a Dryad file (doi:10.5061/dryad.n2582). Likelihood ratio χ^2 values were used to test for significance of ordinal logistic regressions as implemented in JMP version 3.1.5 (SAS Institute).

Results

Phenotypic changes in the evolution environments

Four replicate populations of *E. coli* B were propagated for 1000 generations in each of four evolution environments that differed in carbon source, oxygenation and degree of spatial structure. We quantified the phenotypic evolution of each population in its respective evolution environment by measuring its maximum growth rate relative to the ancestor at 200-generation intervals (μ_{max} ; Fig. 1a), and its fitness relative to the ancestor at 300, 600 and 1000 generations (Fig. 1b). Compared to their common ancestor all populations increased in fitness and all except those evolved in Glu increased their μ_{max} after 1000 generations, indicating that they adapted to their environments (Table S1, Supporting information, Fig. 1). After 1000 generations of evolution, we isolated one evolved clone from each replicate population and measured μ_{max} and fitness in its evolution environment (Table S2, Supporting information, Fig. 2). Phenotypic evolution of the clones and their source populations was correlated (μ_{max} : Spearman Rho = 0.93, p < 0.0001; fitness: Spearman Rho = 0.60, p = 0.0144). However, the clones isolated from the Glu environment tended to display a higher

239 lineages that may not be representative of the entire populations. This has however no impact 240 on our results since our main goal here is to relate phenotypes to specific combinations of 241 mutations, a task that could not be achieved by focusing on entire populations. Therefore, all 242 the following analyses focus on comparisons between phenotypes and genomes of clones and 243 not populations. 244 Clones sampled from the four environments had quantitative differences in their divergence 245 from the ancestor (Kruskal–Wallis one-way analysis of variance: μ_{max} , $\chi^2 = 12.71$, p = 0.0053; fitness, $\chi^2 = 11.59$, p = 0.0089), indicating different magnitudes of phenotypic evolution in the 246 247 four environments (Table S2, Supporting information, Fig. 2). 248 249 Genome sequencing 250 Re-sequencing the genomes of the 16 evolved clones revealed a total of 54 mutations 251 compared to the ancestor, with one to six mutations for each clone. These mutations affected a 252 total of 25 genes and included 53 SNPs and one 1-bp insertion (Table 1). Most SNPs (51) 253 occurred within genes, including 49 non-synonymous and only 2 synonymous changes. Only 254 three mutations affected intergenic regions, including two SNPs and the 1-bp insertion. Two 255 additional indels were subsequently identified (see Material and methods), one IS1 insertion 256 and one 125-bp deletion, both affecting the *glpR* gene (Table 1). 257 258 Genetic parallelism within and between evolution environments 259 Defining genetic parallelism as a mutational change occurring in identical genes, operons or

functional units (Tenaillon et al. 2012) in at least two clones, ~60 % (34/56) of the identified

mutations occurred in parallel (Fig. 3, Table 1). The proportion of parallel to total mutations

was 7/12, 13/19, 9/16, and 6/9 in the Ace, Gly, Glc, and Glu environments, respectively. This

 μ_{max} than their entire source populations, indicating that they probably belong to specific sub-

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parallelism involved eight genes or operons (Fig. 3, Table 1), including four specific to a single environment (mreBC in Ace, glpR and glpK in Gly, and lldR in Glc), and four across multiple environments (argR, spoT, rho, and nadR). In all cases genes that changed in parallel within a single environment reflected a greater degree of environmental clustering than expected if the mutations were distributed randomly over the evolved clones (Fisher's exact test, for all genes mutated in parallel $p \le 0.05$). These data are consistent with the changes in these genes conferring environment-specific adaptations. The four evolved clones sampled from the Ace environment had a total of 12 mutations affecting nine different genes that can be grouped into eight loci. Three of these loci were targeted by mutations in more than one clone: the mreBC genetic locus, mreB and mreC being part of the same operon (Wachi et al. 2006), had mutations in two clones, while rho and argR were mutated in three and two clones, respectively (Fig. 3, Table 1). The four clones sampled from the Gly environment had a total of 19 mutations affecting ten different genes. Seven mutations occurred in glpR and glpK, which were mutated in four and three clones, respectively, while six occurred in spoT and rho, which were mutated in four and two clones, respectively (Fig. 3, Table 1). The four evolved clones sampled from the Glc environment had a total of 16 mutations affecting ten different genes, among which three (argR, lldR and spoT) had mutations in three clones (Fig. 3, Table 1). Finally, the four evolved clones sampled from the Glu environment had 9 mutations affecting a total of 5 different genes including spoT and nadR that were mutated in four and two clones, respectively (Fig. 3, Table 1). Despite the high overall level of genetic parallelism, the number of parallel changes found in individual clones was quite variable (Fig. 3, Table 1), ranging from one (Ace_4, Glc_2 and Glu_2) to four (Gly_3, Glc_4, Glu_1 and Glu_4).

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Four genes were mutated repeatedly in different environments—argR (Ace and Glc environments), spoT (Gly, Glc and Glu environments), rho (Ace and Gly environments), and nadR (Gly and Glu). Therefore, evolved clones from all pairs of environments, except Ace/Glu, shared mutated genes, but the combinations of shared mutated genes were environment-specific (Fig. 3, Table 1). The highest level of genetic parallelism was detected for spoT, which was modified in 3/4 environments and 11/16 clones, further emphasizing previous observations of repeated spoT mutations (see below; Cooper $et\ al.\ 2003$; Cooper $et\ al.\ 2008$; Woods $et\ al.\ 2011$).

Functions of mutated genes and distribution of mutations within repeatedly modified genes. We investigated the function of the mutated genes by considering their Gene Ontology categories (Riley et al. 2006). Seven (rpoA, rho, argR, lldR, glpR, flhD, and nadR) of the 25 mutated genes are categorized as transcription regulators, which is more than expected by chance alone (Fisher one tail exact test p=0.01). Although not classified in the GO transcription category, other mutated genes are also involved in transcription regulation: fabR encodes a transcription regulator, and relA and spoT are involved in the metabolism of ppGpp, which reprograms the entire transcription machinery in bacterial cells (Srivatsan & Wang 2008). Therefore, 10 of the 25 genetic loci that were modified during evolution are involved in transcription regulation. Strikingly, six of them (rho, argR, lldR, glpR, nadR, and spoT) are among the eight that were mutated in parallel, emphasizing the importance of changes in transcription regulation for adaptation.

Two sub-groups can be distinguished among these six genes. The first comprises glpR and lldR, which are local transcription regulators (Zeng et al. 1996; Aguilera et al. 2008) affecting the expression of a small number of genes involved in the consumption of a single carbon

source (glycerol or lactate, respectively). Parallel changes occurred in these two genes only

within specific environments (Gly or Glc, respectively). The second sub-group comprises argR, which regulates a large set of target genes (Caldara et al. 2006), spoT and rho, which are involved in global gene regulation (Srivatsan & Wang 2008; Epshtein et al. 2010), and nadR, which regulates global cell physiology by integrating multiple environmental signals to control the synthesis of NAD, a central co-factor in many bacterial metabolic pathways (Grose et al. 2005). Interestingly, it is precisely this second group of transcription regulatorencoding genes that had parallel changes between, as well as within, environments. The genetic parallelism observed at the gene level was associated with mutations affecting different codons largely distributed within these genes, with however two notable exceptions (Table 1). First, specific regions of the same genes were affected by independent mutations, including the 5' end of argR and glpK. Second, nearby codons were affected by independent non-synonymous mutations in *rho* (codons 322 and 324), and *spoT* (codons 207 and 209). In addition, the exact same codons of *rho* (codons 322 and 324) and *spoT* (codon 393) were repeatedly affected by independent mutations, leading to either the same or different aminoacid changes in the corresponding proteins (Table 1). For both exceptions, similar mutations occurred in more than one environment.

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Correlated phenotypic responses to evolution in the alternative environments $Next, we investigated how adaptation to a given evolution environment affected μ_{max} and fitness in alternative conditions. The correlated response to selection of each of the 16 evolved clones was compared to the common ancestor in each of the three environments in which it did not evolve (hereafter called alternative environments). As an example, the four evolved clones sampled from the populations that were propagated in Ace were assayed in the alternative environments Gly, Glc and Glu. <math display="block"> P(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2$

Growth profiles and competition assays indicated that adaptation to a given environment was often associated with improvements in the alternative environments (Table S2, Supporting information, Fig. 4). Phenotypic evolution in a given environment is constrained by selective pressures that need not to apply in alternative environments. Therefore, we expected the correlated phenotypic responses in the alternative environments to be more variable than the direct response in the evolution environment. Surprisingly, this was not the case (Wilcoxon rank-sum test on the coefficient of variation; μ_{max} : $\chi^2 = 1.9$, p = 0.17; fitness: $\chi^2 = 0.2$, p =0.69; Table S3, Supporting information). Next, we tested whether genetic parallelism (i.e., whether clones shared or not mutated genes) and evolutionary history (i.e., whether clones evolved or not in the same evolution environment) affected the correlated responses. Correlated responses to evolution may be expected to be more similar for clones with mutations in identical genes, even if they evolved in different environments, as long as the phenotypic effects of individual mutations affecting a given gene are similar and epistatic interactions between mutations in the different genes do not entirely mask the effect of individual mutations. Similarly, correlated responses to evolution may be expected to be more similar for clones that evolved in identical environments, even if they had mutations in different genes, if the evolved mutational pathways resulted in phenotypic parallelism not only in the evolution environment but also under a wider range of environments. We measured the variability of the correlated responses in each alternative environment for all pairs of clones and used a GLM to distinguish the contribution of genetic parallelism and evolutionary history to the correlated responses to evolution. For pairs of clones that evolved in the same evolution environment we considered the three alternative environments, while for pairs of clones that evolved in two different evolution environments we considered the two shared alternative environments. We tested whether sharing or not mutated genes and evolving or not in identical evolution environments

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influenced the phenotypic variability between clone pairs (Table 2). The interaction between the two factors was significant for both μ_{max} and fitness phenotypes (Table 2), indicating that the impact of genetic parallelism on phenotypic variability was different whether the clones evolved in identical or different evolution environments. The variability of the correlated responses was lower for pairs of clones that evolved in the same environment (Fig. 5). Moreover, clones with different evolutionary history had more similar correlated responses when they shared mutated genes (Fig. 5a, b). However, for clones that evolved in identical evolution environments, the variability of correlated responses was unrelated to the level of genetic parallelism (Fig. 5c, d).

Discussion

We propagated four replicate populations of *E. coli* B in each of four different environments for 1000 generations. During this time all populations adapted to their evolution environment. Adaptation involved a high level of genetic parallelism, and 60 % of the identified mutations affected eight genes that were modified in parallel in at least two populations. Four of these genes, *argR*, *spoT*, *rho*, and *nadR*, were modified repeatedly across environments, although no single gene was mutated in all environments. This result suggests distinct, but overlapping, selective pressures in the different environments. Moreover, the combination of mutated genes was different in the evolved clones sampled from the various environments. Finally, we found that evolution in each environment was associated with improved correlated phenotypic responses in alternative environments and that evolved clones from different evolution environments revealed a higher level of parallel correlated responses when displaying genetic parallelism.

Evolution was associated with parallel genetic changes in genes specifically involved in the catabolism of the available carbon source (glpR) and glpK in only one of the four environments (Gly). Adaptive evolution may therefore involve improvements of substrate specific catabolic pathways, but this not a general trend. Consistent with this, other evolution experiments have found mutations in genes specifically involved in the catabolic pathways of the available carbon sources in populations propagated in the presence of glycerol (Herring et al. 2006) and L-1,2-propanediol (Lee & Palsson 2010), but not in the presence of lactate (Conrad et al. 2009) or glucose (Barrick et al. 2009). We found that genes involved in global transcription regulation were targets of mutations in all four evolution environments, as observed in most evolution experiments (Cooper et al. 2003; Crozat et al. 2005; Herring et al. 2006; Bantinaki et al. 2007; Conrad et al. 2009; Le Gac & Doebeli 2010; Maharjan et al. 2010; Wang et al. 2010; Yu et al. 2010; Conrad et al. 2011; Tenaillon et al. 2012), reflecting the importance of restructuring regulatory networks during evolution (Philippe et al. 2007; Hindré et al. 2012). Even more strikingly, all genes that were mutated in more than one environment encoded global regulators of gene transcription. Six of the eight genetic loci that were repeatedly changed have also been modified by mutations in other evolution experiments, including glpK, glpR, spoT, nadR, mreBC and rho (Cooper et al. 2003; Raghunathan & Palsson 2003; Herring et al. 2006; Woods et al. 2006; Ostrowski et al. 2008; Woods et al. 2011; Tenaillon et al. 2012; Herron and Doebeli 2013). Genetic parallelism is commonly observed among replicate independent populations that are propagated in similar environments. The nature of the mutations affecting target genes is diverse, from identical nucleotide changes being repeatedly substituted in independent viral

populations (Wichman et al. 1999) to different types of mutations distributed at various

positions within a given gene in replicate bacterial populations (Woods et al. 2006; Bantinaki

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et al. 2007; Crozat et al. 2010). A recent analysis of 115 replicate populations of E. coli B adapted to high temperature revealed few identical mutations among populations, although high genetic parallelism at the gene level was detected (Tenaillon et al. 2012). In our study, genetic parallelism at the gene level was associated with different mutations occurring at different positions within genes. For example, glpR was affected by two different nonsynonymous mutations, a 125-bp deletion in its coding region, and the insertion of an IS1 element in its promoter region. This profile suggests that the mutations inactivated glpR. However, there were two notable exceptions to this pattern. First, different mutations occurred in specific regions of two of the altered genes. All argR mutations were localized in the 5' gene region encoding the DNA-binding domain of ArgR (Sunnerhagen et al. 1997) and all glpK mutations mapped in a ~80-bp region at the 5' end of the gene. Mutations in this glpK region have been shown to increase fitness on glycerol-containing medium by reducing the affinity of GlpK for its allosteric inhibitor fructose-1,6-bisphosphate and inhibiting the formation of the GlpK tetramer (Applebee et al. 2011). Based on these observations, we hypothesize that mutations in argR and glpK modulated specific activities of the encoded proteins. Second, we detected an even higher level of specificity for the mutations that occurred in *rho* and *spoT*, which were repeatedly modified both within and between environments. Hence, not only were independently substituted mutations localized to nearby codons (322 and 324 in rho, 207 and 209 in spoT), but identical codons were changed in clones evolved in different environments, including codons 322 and 324 for *rho* in Ace and Gly and codon 393 for spoT in Gly and Glu. In the Gly environment, codon 393 of spoT was changed in all four clones, and in 3 out of 4 in Glu. Cross contamination between replicate populations can be excluded since four different SNPs affected codon 393. Such an extreme level of parallelism, extending to the level of the substituted mutations, has also been reported in bacterial evolution experiments for glpK (Applebee et al. 2011), rho (Tenaillon et al.

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2012), and genes that are the targets for antibiotic resistance (Martinez *et al.* 2011). Therefore, depending on the environment, selection may act either at precise identical codons (in Gly and Glu), leading or not to identical amino-acid changes, or at the level of the entire gene (Glc). In our evolution experiment, *spoT* was the most commonly mutated gene, being modified in 3/4 environments and 11/16 clones. It has already been observed as being frequently modified during adaptation to glucose environments. In a commonly-used glucose environment, *spoT* has been affected by a total of 32 non-synonymous mutations, 28 of which involved a unique amino-acid substitution (Cooper *et al.* 2003; Cooper 2007; Ostrowski *et al.* 2008; Woods *et al.* 2011). In contrast, in two environments in this study, seven out of eight clones had mutations affecting the exact same *spoT* codon. This suggests that the number of potential beneficial mutations in a given gene may vary from one environment to the other. So far, very little is known about the variability of phenotypic effects associated with different beneficial mutations affecting the same gene. Such studies would undoubtedly increase our comprehension of the relationships between genotypes, phenotypes and fitness.

We have shown that populations evolving in identical evolution environments may display parallel phenotypic evolution in alternative environments, as was previously described (Cooper & Lenski 2000; Barrett *et al.* 2005; Fong *et al.* 2005). Moreover, we showed that the correlated phenotypic responses were related to both the evolutionary history of the sampled clones, *i.e.* whether or not they evolved in identical evolution environments, and the genetic parallelism, *i.e.* whether or not they shared mutated genes. Our results therefore have two implications. First, individuals that have been subjected to similar historical selective pressures tend to occupy similar ecological niches not only in the environment in which they evolved, but also under a wider range of conditions, even without genetic parallelism. Second, when evolutionary history was different, *i.e.* for clones that evolved in different evolution

environments, correlated phenotypic responses were related to the level of genetic parallelism. It therefore suggests that the mutations of the repeatedly modified genes had similar beneficial effects even in different genomic contexts. This finding indicates that although epistatic interactions between mutations are known to considerably alter the effect of individual mutations, they evidently did not entirely mask the individual effects of the mutations under our environmental conditions.

In summary, notwithstanding the relatively small number of genes mutated in more than one environment, our results provide a way to experimentally disentangle the relative contribution of evolutionary history and genetic parallelism on the phenotypic performance in naïve environmental conditions. Taken together, our results indicate that populations sharing historical selective pressures could react similarly to the modification of environmental conditions, even if they do not share mutations in specific genes. To a lesser extent, they also indicate that populations with different evolutionary histories may perform more similarly when facing a new environment if they share mutated genes.

Acknowledgements

This research was supported by the French Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique (CNRS), the University Joseph Fourier Grenoble and by a grant from the Agence Nationale de la Recherche (ANR, Program Blanc, Grant ANR-08-BLAN-0283-01 to D. Schneider) and the NSF (DEB0844355 to T. F. Cooper). M. Le Gac thanks the ANR for a post-doctoral fellowship.

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Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article.

Weinreich DM, Delaney NF, Depristo MA, Hartl DL (2006) Darwinian evolution can follow

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628 **Table S1** Phenotypic traits (μ_{max} and fitness) of the 16 populations during evolutionary time 629 in their respective evolution environments. 630 **Table S2** Phenotypic traits (μ_{max} and fitness) of the evolved clones sampled from each of the 631 16 populations in the four environments. 632 Table S3 Among-clone coefficient of variation in the four environments for the two 633 phenotypic traits μ_{max} and fitness. 634 Figure Legends 635 636 Fig. 1 Phenotypic trajectories of 16 evolving populations during 1000 generations in their respective evolution environments. Average μ_{max} (a) and fitness (b) (+/- SEM) are indicated 637 638 at, respectively, 200-generation intervals, and 300, 600 and 1000 generations for the replicate 639 populations that evolved in the environments Ace ($-\cdot$ O-), Gly ($-\Delta$ ---), Glc ($-\Box$ ----), and Glu (--♦--). 640 641 642 Fig. 2 Phenotypic traits of the evolved clones sampled from the replicate populations that 643 were propagated in the environments Ace (O), Gly (Δ), Glc (\square), and Glu (\diamondsuit). The fitness 644 and growth rate (μ_{max}) values were measured for one evolved clone, sampled from each 645 population after 1000 generations, in its respective evolution environment. Values were log-646 transformed and given in the two-dimensional phenotypic space. Each experiment was 647 performed with five-fold replication and values are given +/-SEM. The phenotypic values for 648 the ancestor are (0;0). 649 650 Fig. 3 Venn diagrams showing the mutated genes identified in the 16 evolved clones. Each of 651 the 16 ellipses represents one evolved clone sampled from each of the 16 populations. Red, 652 blue, green, and purple ellipses indicate the environments Ace, Gly, Glc, and Glu,

respectively. Overlaps indicate mutated genes shared between clones. Names of genes are written in different colours whether they are affected by mutations in at least two different environments (white), or in only one environment either in a single (black) or in different clones in that environment (colour corresponding to the specific environment).

Fig. 4 Phenotypic traits of the evolved clones sampled from each replicate population both in their respective evolution environment (O) and in the three alternative ones (\bullet). The μ_{max} (a to d) and fitness (e to h) values (+/- SEM) of each evolved clone are given in each of the Ace, Gly, Glc, and Glu environments (indicated from left to right on the x-axes). The evolution environment from which each set of four clones was sampled is indicated at the top of each panel: Ace (a, e), Gly (b, f), Glc (c, g), and Glu (d, h). Note that y-axis scales vary.

Fig. 5 Among-clone phenotypic variability in the alternative environments. Each small hollow symbol (O) corresponds to a comparison between a pair of clones in one of the alternative environments. The y-axis shows the phenotypic variability (mean squares) ranked within each alternative environment, a high rank value indicating that the pair of clones displays very different phenotypes (due to tied ranks, not all of them are seen on the figure). Phenotypic variability is given for μ_{max} (a, c) and fitness (b, d) values for pairs of clones that evolved in different (a, b), and identical (c, d) environments. Median ranks (\bullet) as well as first and third quartiles (_____) are indicated.

Tables

Table 1 Mutations identified in the 16 evolved clones sampled after 1000 generations of evolution in four different environments.

Population	environment																
Population Gene name*	Chviron																
name*	\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\			.ce			Gly	_			Gl	1-		1		lu	
ECB "Me*		Ace_1	Ace_2	Ace_ 3	Ace_4	Gly_1	Gly_2	Gly_3	Gly_4	Glc_1	Glc_2	Glc_3	Glc_4	Glu_1	Glu_2	Glu_3	Glu_4
ECB_00549	entD	Acc_i	Acc_2	Acc_ 3	Acc_4	Gly_1	A55T	Gly_5	Gly_4	GIC_I	GIC_2	GIC_5	GIC_4	Giu_i	Glu_2	Giu_5	Glu_4
ECB 00601	dacA										L285Q						
ECB 01027	ycdT									P162A							
ECB_01091	fabF															A280V	
ECB_01166	cvrA		A61S														
ECB_01453	yddB											F306L					
ECB 01477	yneE														A168T		
ECB 01609	vdhA								V98V								
ECB_01863	flhD											L21V					
ECB_02323	cysW								F191Y								
ECB_02629	relA														G318R		
ECB_02686/7	lysA/lysR				G/T												
ECB_02832						S138S											
ECB 03097	argR		R2L	K45T						A55S		K15N	N60D				
ECB_03109	mreC				P230S												
ECB_03110	mreB		S10P														
ECB_03146	rpoA				E273K												
ECB_03274	glpR					IS1	125bp del	R6C	I49N								
ECB_03462	lldR									V191A		R244C	W78C				
ECB_03507	spoT					P393S	P393A	P393L	P393L		R209H	T442P	R571L	P393T	P393L	P393L	G207D
ECB_03661	rho	G324C	D322Y	M219T			D322Y	G324C									
ECB_03811	glpK					Q38P		A55S	S32L								
ECB_03848	fabR									T30N							
ECB_03885/6	metA/aceB			+T													
ECB_04113	pyrB										A128V						
ECB_04120/1	argI/yjgD	C/A															
ECB_04132	idnO									T213P							
ECB_04235	yjjN								H62N								
ECB_04266	nadR						I211N							Q19*		P228L	

* The name of the genes carrying mutations are given, together with their ECB numbers (Jeong *et al.* 2009). For intergenic mutations, the name of the two surrounding genes is given.

Table 2 Variability of the correlated phenotypic responses for each pair of clones in the alternative environments as a function of genetic parallelism (shared mutated genes or not) and evolutionary history (same evolution environment or not). Likelihood ratio χ^2 tests on ordinal logistic regressions (GLM, Material and methods) were performed with the amongclone variability (Mean square among clones) of the μ_{max} and fitness values (ranked within each alternative environment) taken as ordinal response variables. Evolution in identical environments and level of genetic parallelism among clones were taken as explanatory variables.

Source	DF	χ^2	<i>P</i> -value
$\mu_{ ext{max}}$			
Whole model*	3	73.07	< 0.0001
Evolutionary history	1	33.88	< 0.0001

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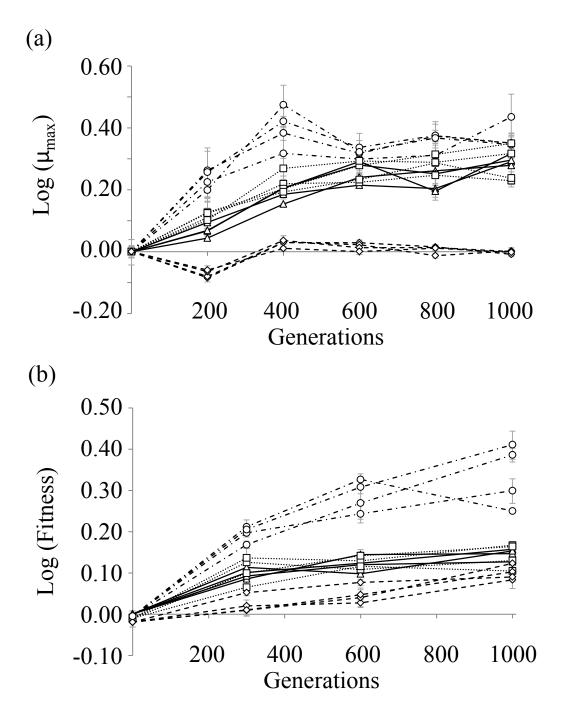
Genetic parallelism	1	3.55	0.0596
Environment X Parallelism	1	14.61	0.0001
Fitness			
Whole model*	3	24.56	< 0.0001
Evolutionary history	1	14.60	0.0001
Genetic parallelism	1	0.08	0.7809
Environment X Parallelism	1	4.60	0.0320

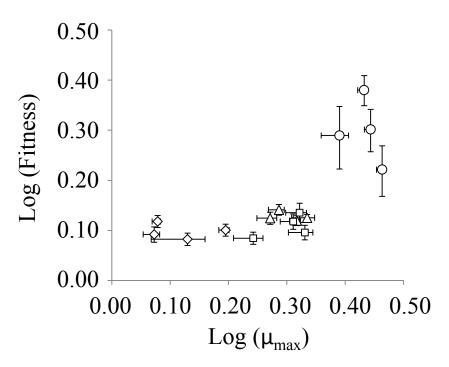
^{*} Indicates whether the model based on the two explanatory variables as well as their

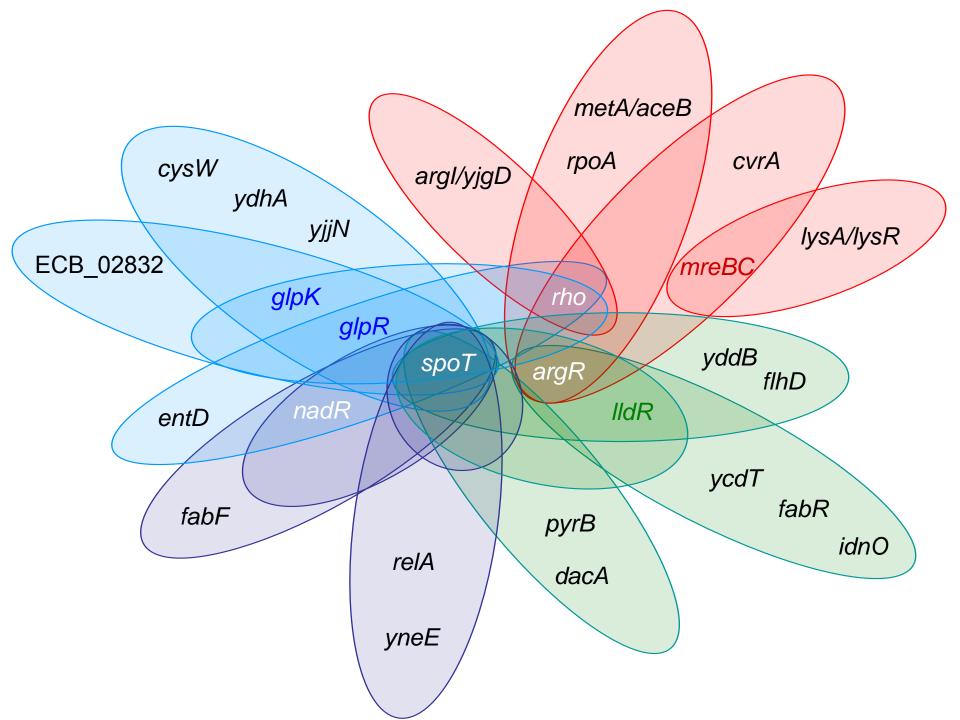
interaction significantly explained the among clone variability.

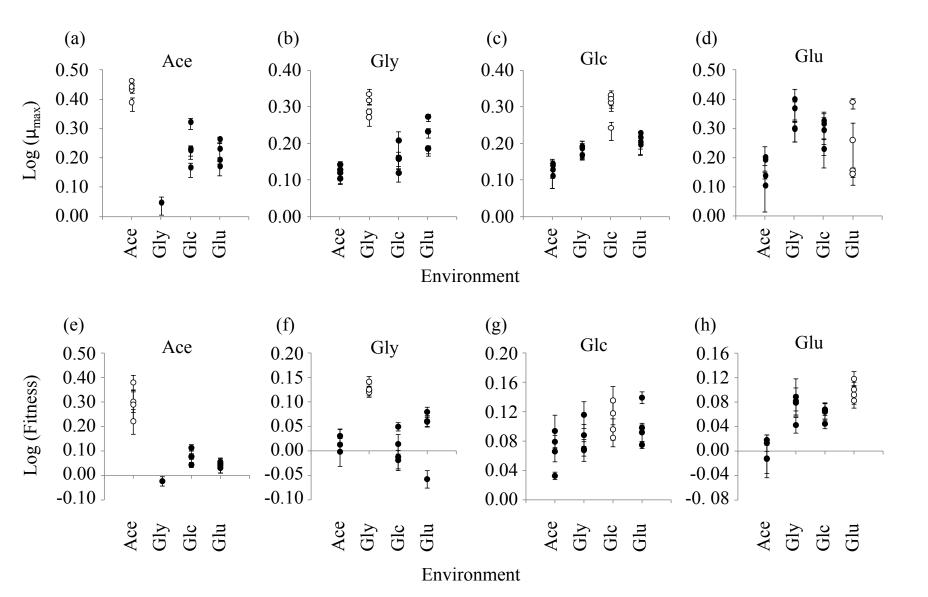
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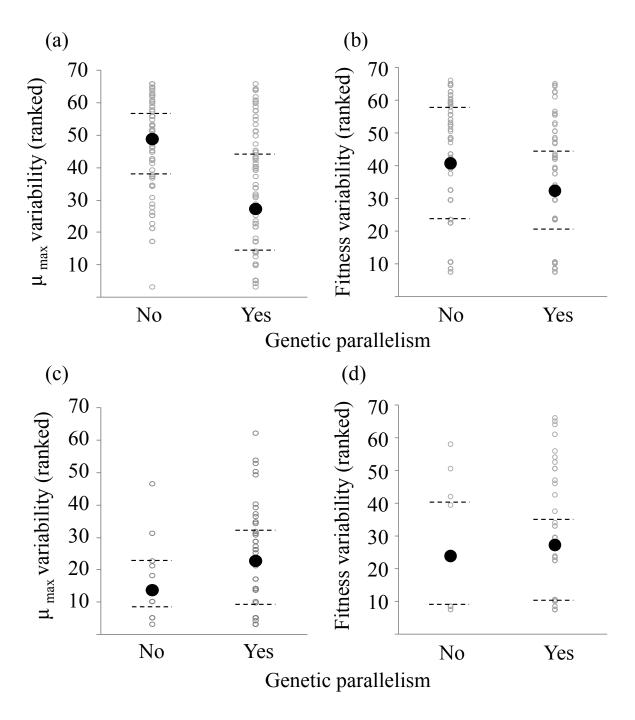
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Supporting information

Evolutionary history and genetic parallelism affect correlated responses to evolution

Mickael Le Gac, Tim Cooper, Stéphane Cruveiller, Claudine Médigue, and Dominique Schneider

This file includes:

Table S1 Phenotypic traits (μ_{max} and fitness) of the 16 populations during evolutionary time in their respective evolution environments.

Table S2 Phenotypic traits (μ_{max} and fitness) of the evolved clones sampled from each of the 16 populations in the four environments.

Table S3 Among-clone coefficient of variation in the four environments for the two phenotypic traits μ_{max} and fitness.

Table S1 Phenotypic traits (μ_{max} and fitness) of the 16 populations during evolutionary time in their respective evolution environments

Population	$\mu_{ m max}^*$						fitness*				
Population	0	200	400	600	800	1000	0	300	600	1000	
Ace 1		1.68+/-0.10	2.08+/-0.32	1.99+/-0.09	2.05+/-0.22	2.73+/-0.50		2.11+/-0.10	1.77+/-0.06	1.39+/-0.05	
Ace_2	1.00 - / 0.00	1.83+/-0.33	2.42+/-0.13	2.08+/-0.21	2.36+/-0.10	2.24+/-0.18	0.071/0.06	1.94+/-0.05	1.87+/-0.19	2.40+/-0.22	
Ace_3	1.00+/-0.09	1.81+/-0.30	2.64+/-0.10	2.17+/-0.02	2.37+/-0.21	2.24+/-0.13	0.97+/-0.06	2.28+/-0.14	1.73+/-0.14	1.41+/-0.03	
Ace 4		1.58+/-0.08	2.98+/-0.47	2.10+/-0.31	2.33+/-0.30	2.22+/-0.18		1.79+/-0.11	1.48+/-0.08	1.38+/-0.07	
Gly_1		1.24+/-0.01	1.53+/-0.08	1.64+/-0.07	1.60+/-0.06	1.95+/-0.21		1.55+/-0.10	1.95+/-0.15	2.15+/-0.10	
Gly_2	1.00./0.02	1.11+/-0.02	1.43+/-0.01	1.74+/-0.06	1.83+/-0.18	1.90+/-0.13	1.00+/-0.05	1.47+/-0.08	1.71+/-0.05	1.81+/-0.06	
Gly_3	1.00+/-0.02	1.17+/-0.02	1.61+/-0.05	1.91+/-0.03	1.79+/-0.15	1.98+/-0.09		1.51+/-0.05	1.84+/-0.05	1.68+/-0.10	
Gly_4		1.17+/-0.01	1.60+/-0.01	1.95+/-0.20	1.57+/-0.07	2.08+/-0.08		1.56+/-0.09	1.61+/-0.09	1.94+/-0.22	
Glc_1		1.29+/-0.17	1.66+/-0.04	1.68+/-0.05	1.76+/-0.02	1.70+/-0.08		1.63+/-0.12	1.56+/-0.09	1.74+/-0.14	
Glc_2	1.00./0.04	1.34+/-0.04	1.60+/-0.08	1.90+/-0.11	2.06+/-0.18	2.24+/-0.11	0.061/0.02	1.58+/-0.12	1.69+/-0.05	2.12+/-0.17	
Glc 3	1.00+/-0.04	1.33+/-0.15	1.56+/-0.04	1.71+/-0.07	1.94+/-0.27	1.73+/-0.08	0.96+/-0.03	1.52+/-0.06	1.78+/-0.14	2.12+/-0.00	
Glc_4		1.26+/-0.18	1.86+/-0.15	1.96+/-0.14	1.94+/-0.16	2.08+/-0.12		1.32+/-0.05	1.50+/-0.06	1.53+/-0.05	
Glu_1		0.82 + / -0.03	1.07+/-0.06	1.07+/-0.02	1.04+/-0.01	0.98 + / -0.02		1.14+/-0.12	1.13+/-0.04	1.39+/-0.14	
Glu_2	1.00+/-0.04	0.83 + / -0.01	1.07+/-0.02	1.05+/-0.01	0.97+/-0.02	1.01+/-0.01	0.01./.0.06	1.03+/-0.06	1.21+/-0.13	1.41+/-0.07	
Glu 3		0.86 + / -0.00	1.09+/-0.01	1.03+/-0.00	1.03+/-0.02	1.00+/-0.03	0.91+/-0.06	1.06+/-0.07	1.21+/-0.03	1.39+/-0.08	
Glu 4		0.87 + / -0.03	1.02+/-0.02	1.00+/-0.02	1.03+/-0.01	1.00+/-0.01		1.28+/-0.03	1.45+/-0.08	1.52+/-0.02	

 $^{^*\}mu_{\text{max}}$ and fitness values are presented as log-transformed in Figure 1 but not in Table S1.

Table S2 Phenotypic traits (μ_{max} and fitness) of the evolved clones sampled from each of the 16 populations in the four environments

Environnent	Population	$\mu_{ ext{max}}^*$	fitness*
	Ace 1	2.71+/-0.07	1.36+/-0.06
	Ace 2	2.78+/-0.07	1.27+/-0.04
	Ace 3	2.46+/-0.17	1.31+/-0.06
	Ace 4	2.91+/-0.06	1.34+/-0.08
-	Gly_1	Very slow growth**	Very slow growth
	Gly 2	Very slow growth	Very slow growth
	Gly_3	Very slow growth	Very slow growth
	Gly_4	1.12+/-0.11	0.90+/-0.07
Ace -	Glc 1	2.10+/-0.12	1.22+/-0.02
	Gle 2	1.70+/-0.09	1.17+/-0.07
	Glc_3	1.68+/-0.11	1.22+/-0.03
	Glc 4	1.47+/-0.11	1.15+/-0.05
-	Glu_1	1.56+/-0.05	1.11+/-0.08
	Glu 2	1.70+/-0.16	1.06+/-0.04
	Glu 3	1.49+/-0.11	1.14+/-0.04
	Glu 4	1.84+/-0.06	1.10+/-0.04
	Ace 1	1.39+/-0.06	1.19+/-0.13
	Ace 2	1.27+/-0.04	1.19+/-0.10
	Ace 3	1.34+/-0.06	1.05+/-0.14
	Ace 4	1.32+/-0.08	1.03+/-0.05
-	Gly_1	1.87+/-0.10	2.09+/-0.26
	Gly_2	1.93+/-0.08	1.97+/-0.12
	Gly_3	2.08+/-0.06	1.61+/-0.06
	Gly_4	2.16+/-0.13	1.94+/-0.08
Gly -	Glc_1	1.45+/-0.10	0.98+/-0.06
	Glc 2	1.61+/-0.19	1.00+/-0.05
	Glc 3	1.44+/-0.06	1.09+/-0.06
	Glc 4	1.32+/-0.07	1.28+/-0.08
-	Glu_1	1.71+/-0.07	1.37+/-0.13
	Glu 2	1.54+/-0.05	0.80+/-0.05
	Glu_3	1.87+/-0.05	1.43+/-0.10
	Glu 4	1.53+/-0.06	1.26+/-0.07
	Ace 1	1.29+/-0.10	1.34+/-0.07
	Ace 2	1.34+/-0.15	1.54+/-0.12
	Ace 3	1.39+/-0.13	1.39+/-0.12
	Ace 4	1.38+/-0.11	1.25+/-0.05
-		1.56+/-0.10	1.42+/-0.07
	Gly_1 Gly_2	1.54+/-0.09	1.79+/-0.10
	Gly_3	1.47+/-0.04	1.42+/-0.10
	Gly_3 Gly_4	1.55+/-0.11	1.42+/-0.10
Glc -	Glc_1	2.05+/-0.10	1.62+/-0.11
	Glc_1 Glc_2	2.14+/-0.14	1.51+/-0.09
	Glc_3	1.75+/-0.13	1.39+/-0.06
	Glc_3 Glc_4	2.10+/-0.11	1.54+/-0.06
-			
	Glu_1 Glu_2	1.64+/- 0.11 1.60+/-0.13	1.53+/-0.04
	Glu_2 Glu_3	1.69+/-0.13	1.43+/-0.04 1.63+/-0.04
	-		
	Glu_4	1.57+/-0.09	1.32+/-0.02
	Ace_1	1.16+/-0.11	0.95+/-0.17 1.10+/-0.09
	Ace_2	1.25+/-0.03	
Glu	Ace_3	1.26+/-0.10	1.09+/-0.05
-	Ace_4	1.17+/-0.04	0.97+/-0.19
	Gly_1	1.41+/-0.07	2.14+/-0.50
	Gly_2	1.53+/-0.08	1.55+/-0.17

Gly_3	1.59+/-0.13	1.86+/-0.24
Gly_4	1.42+/-0.07	1.86+/-0.18
Glc_1	1.30+/-0.10	1.45+/-0.14
Glc_2	1.41+/-0.14	1.44+/-0.07
Glc_3	1.44+/-0.12	1.46+/-0.13
Glc_4	1.46+/-0.10	1.30+/-0.05
Glu_1	1.20+/-0.03	2.28+/-0.15
Glu_2	1.57+/-0.04	2.12+/-0.20
Glu_3	1.35+/-0.19	2.00+/-0.19
Glu 4	1.18+/-0.05	2.00+/-0.27

The μ_{max} and fitness values are given (+/-SEM) for each evolved clone sampled from each of the 16 evolving populations in each of the four different environments.

 $^{^*\}mu_{\text{max}}$ values are presented as log-transformed in Figure 2 but not in Table S2.

^{**}As no quantitative values could be obtained for these measures, they were not included in the statistical analyses.

Table S3 Among-clone coefficient of variation in the four environments for the two phenotypic traits μ_{max} and fitness

E-valuation amazinamanant	Alternative	Coefficient	of variation
Evolution environment	environment	$\mu_{ ext{max}}$	fitness
	Ace	0.07	0.15
Ace	Gly	0.04	0.04
Ace	Glc	0.03	0.06
	Glu	0.05	0.04
	Ace	Very slow	w growth*
Gly	Gly	0.07	0.02
Gly	Glc	0.03	0.05
	Glu	0.06	0.05
	Ace	0.15	0.07
Glc	Gly	0.08	0.07
Gic	Glc	0.09	0.05
	Glu	0.05	0.02
	Ace	0.09	0.02
Glu	Gly	0.10	0.13
Giu	Glc	0.03	0.06
	Glu	0.13	0.03

^{*}As no quantitative values could be obtained for these measures, they were not included in the statistical analyses.