

Pathoadaptation of a Human Pathogen Through Non-Coding Intergenic Mutations

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Pathoadaptation of a Human Pathogen Through Non-Coding Intergenic Mutations

PhD Thesis

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Infection Microbiology Group

Department of Biotechnology and Biomedicine

Technical University of Denmark

March 2017



Preface

This thesis is written as a partial fulfillment of the requirements to obtain a PhD degree at the Technical University of Denmark (DTU). The work presented in this thesis was carried out from October 2013 to March 2017 at the Infection Microbiology Group (IMG), Department of Biotechnology and Biomedicine at DTU under the supervision of Professor MSO Lars Jelsbak.



Seyed Mohammad Hossein Khademi

Mashhad, Iran, March 2017

Abstract

Most knowledge gained from evolutionary studies of bacteria in natural and experimental settings center around contribution of intragenic mutations on bacterial evolution. While cases of adaptive intergenic mutations have sometimes been reported or explored, none of these studies consider intergenic mutations in broader context as key players in evolutionary adaptation of bacteria.

The focus of this thesis has been to provide novel insights on contributions of non-coding intergenic mutations in natural evolution of bacteria. The model system used for these investigations is adaptation of opportunistic pathogen *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in long-term chronic airway infections of Cystic fibrosis (CF) patients. Using sequenced genomes of *P. aeruginosa* isolated from this setting, 88 intergenic regions under positive selection for adaptive mutations within and across isolates of different *P. aeruginosa* lineages were identified. Mutations within core promoter are more frequently found than other elements in these intergenic regions and intergenic mutations made a larger numerical contribution to selection of adaptive genes than intragenic. Several genes present within these regions had established roles in CF adaptation of *P. aeruginosa* and their expressions are altered by the mutation. It was established that mutations upstream *ampR* increased tolerance of *P. aeruginosa* to some β -lactam antibiotics.

Mutations in promoter of *phuR*, encoding receptor of *pseudomonas* heme uptake system, conferred growth advantage in the presence of hemoglobin demonstrating that *P. aeruginosa* has adapted towards utilization of iron from hemoglobin. Further investigation of *phuR* promoter mutation revealed pleiotropic effects on expression of many other genes. The pleiotropic effect by this mutation was contingent on epistatic effects of other mutations in CF adapted genotype of *P. aeruginosa*. It was also established that this mutation leads increased inhibition of *S. aureus* and decreased fitness of *P. aeruginosa* during anoxic growth.

The findings presented in this thesis provide a new dimension for bacterial evolution through intergenic mutations. The knowledge gained here can be applied to future treatment of patients suffering from chronic bacterial infection. Moreover, direct evolution or genetic manipulation of intergenic region offer ample opportunities for better outcomes in biotechnological applications of bacteria.

Resumé

Den meste viden fra evolutionære studier i bakterier i natur- og forsøgsomgivelser er centreret omkring bidraget af intragenetiske mutationer på bakterieevolution. Mens tilfælde af adaptive intergenetiske mutationer nogle gange bliver rapporteret eller undersøgt, så er der ingen af disse studier der betragter intergenetiske mutationer i en bredere kontekst som centrale aktører i den evolutionær tilpasning af bakterier.

Denne afhandlings fokus har været at give nye indsigter i ikke-kodende intergenetiske mutationers bidrag på bakteriers naturlige evolution. Det modelsystem der er blevet brugt i disse undersøgelser har været den opportunistiske bakterie *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* i langvarige kroniske luftvejsinfektioner i cystisk fibrose (CF) patienter. Ved at bruge sekvenserede genomer af *P. aeruginosa* isoleret fra disse omgivelser, identificerede vi 88 intergenetiske regioner under positiv selektion for adaptive mutationer inden for og på tværs af forskellige isolater. Mutationer inde i indre promotorregioner findes hyppigere end andre elementer i disse intergenetiske regioner og intergenetiske mutationer bidrog i større antal med selektering af adaptive gener end intragenetiske mutationer. Flere gener i disse regioner havde etablerede roller i CF tilpasning af *P. aeruginosa* og havde deres ekspression ændret af mutationen. Det blev fastslået at opstrømsmutationer af *ampR* forøgede tolerancen af *P. aeruginosa* mod nogle β -lactam antibiotika.

Mutationer i promotoren for *phuR*, kodningsreceptor for *pseudomonas* hæmaoptagelsessystem, gav vækstfordel ved tilstedeværelsen af hæmoglobin, hvilket viser at *P. aeruginosa* har tilpasset sig til at udnytte jern fra hæmoglobin. Yderligere undersøgelser af *phuR* promotor mutationer afslørede pleiotropiske effekter på mange andre genes ekspression. Den pleiotropiske effekt fra denne mutation var betinget af epistatiske effekter fra andre mutationer i CF tilpassede genotyper af *P. aeruginosa*. Det blev også vist at denne mutation ledte til forøget inhibering af *S. aureus* og nedsatte *P. aeruginosa*'s fitness under anoksisk vækst.

Resultaterne i denne afhandling giver en ny vinkel på bakterieevolution gennem intergenetiske mutationer. Den viden der er opnået kan blive anvendt til fremtidig behandling af patienter der lider af kroniske bakterieinfektioner. Derudover giver direkte evolution eller genetisk manipulation af intergenetiske regioner rigeligt med muligheder for et bedre udbytte i bioteknologiske anvendelser af bakterier.

Acknowledgements

During the past 3.5 years of my PhD, I have enjoyed acquaintance and company of many individuals that made outstanding contributions to accomplishment of this work. First and foremost, I would like to acknowledge Lars Jelsbak for trusting in my abilities and daring me to become better at what I do. He taught me how to become resilient during hard and hopeless times. His unending support and inspirational guidance was very valuable during my time as a PhD student. So, thank you Lars! In addition, I would like to thank all past and present members of the Infection Microbiology Group, including: Rasmus L. Marvig, Søren Damkiær, Vinoth Wigneswaran, Charlotte F. Michelsen, Cristina I. A. Hierro, Grith M. M. Hermansen, Trine M. Markussen, Eva K. Andresen, Juliane C. Thøgersen, Anders Norman, Sandra W. Thrane and Anne-Mette Christensen. Thanks to Claus Sternberg for good discussions and offering me an opportunity to teach at his courses.

I should give a special acknowledgement to administrative and technical staff at building 301 including Susanne (Søs) Koefoed, Lisse St. Clair-Norton, Brian, Anna Joensen and Lone Hansen for their remarkable support during my times as a PhD student. I also like to thank all students I have supervised during my PhD.

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List of publications

Research articles included in this thesis

Marvig RL*, Damkiær S*, **Khademi SMH***, Markussen TM, Molin S, Jelsbak L. (2014) Within-Host Evolution of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* Reveals Adaptation Towards Iron Acquisition from Hemoglobin. *mBio* 5(3):e00966-14. doi:10.1128/mBio.00966-14.

Khademi SMH, Jelsbak L. (2017) Contribution of non-coding intergenic mutations on within-host evolution of a human pathogen. *Manuscript submitted to Nature Microbiology*.

Khademi SMH, Wassermann T, Kvich LA, Bjarnsholt T, Ciofu O, Jelsbak L. (2017) Adaptive mutation in a bacterial intergenic region cause pleiotropic effects on gene expressions. *Manuscript in preparation*.

Published works that are not part of this thesis

Michelsen CF, **Khademi SMH**, Johansen H, Ingmer H, Dorrestein P, Jelsbak L. (2015) Evolution of metabolic divergence in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* facilitates a mutualistic interspecies interaction. *ISME J*. doi:10.1038/ismej.2015.220.

Wassermann T, Jørgensen KM, Ivanyshyn K, Bjarnsholt T, **Khademi SMH**, Jelsbak L, Høiby N, Ciofu O. (2016) The phenotypic evolution of *P. aeruginosa* populations changes in the presence of sub-inhibitory concentrations of ciprofloxacin. *Microbiology*. doi: 10.1099/mic.0.000273.

* Denotes equal contribution

Abbreviations

HIV	Human immunodeficiency virus
WGS	Whole genome sequencing
RNA-seq	RNA sequencing
CF	Cystic fibrosis
sRNA	small RNA
UPEC	Uropathogenic <i>E. coli</i>
UTI	Urinary tract infection
HGT	Horizontal gene transfer
SNP	Single nucleotide polymorphism
NS	Non-synonymous
CRE	<i>cis</i> -regulatory
TAF	<i>trans</i> -acting factors
TRE	<i>trans</i> -regulatory element
RNAP	RNA polymerase
ncRNA	Non-coding RNA
NTP	Nucleoside triphosphate
mRNA	messenger RNA
NGS	Next generation sequencing
PMN	Polymorphonuclear neutrophils
LPS	Lipopolysaccharide
ROS	Reactive oxygen species
TTSS	Type III secretion system
Phu	<i>Pseudomonas</i> heme utilization
WT	Wild type
LB	Luria-bertani
MM	Minimal medium
MIC	Minimum inhibitory concentration
ChIP-seq	Chromatin immunoprecipitation sequencing
EMSA	Electrophoretic mobility shift assay

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Chapter 1

“Nothing is as it seems, but something is everything it is made out to be.”

- Carroll Bryant

Introduction

Understanding how organisms evolve is not only essential to comprehend development of life on earth but to tackle modern day challenges of antibiotic resistance, hereditary diseases in human, and emergence of rapid evolving viruses like HIV. The on-going process of evolution has honed the ability of organisms to adapt to new environments. With modern day technologies like WGS, RNA-seq and metagenomics, we can unravel detailed changes that we were unable to detect before. The more we discover the more we realize that a molecular and mechanistic knowledge of evolution is vital for solutions to modern day challenges.

Bacterial species have incredible capacity to evolve and genetically adapt to different environments. This unique feature not only offers ample opportunities to use bacteria in industrial applications but also makes them potentially aggressive infectious agents. Experimental and natural studies of bacterial evolution have endowed a wealth of knowledge to their evolutionary dynamics and genetic basis of adaptation. While the greater emphasis of these studies are on genetic changes in transcriptional regulators or genes, the role of mutations in non-coding intergenic regions is surprisingly neglected.

The focus of this thesis is to uncover the function of non-coding intergenic mutations on natural evolution of bacteria. The model we selected for this investigation is within-host evolution of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in long-term chronic airway infection of Cystic Fibrosis (CF) patients.

1.1 Thesis outline

This thesis is organized into eight chapters. While this chapter introduces the thesis, **chapter 2** briefly describes phenotypic acclimation and genetic adaptation, two main routes by which adaptation to novel environments are facilitated. This chapter sets

the stage for the proceeding two chapters where detailed mechanisms of phenotypic acclimation and natural evolution of bacteria are discussed. **Chapter 3** outlines detailed mechanisms of prokaryotic gene regulation where phenotypic acclimation can play a role. The chapter mainly elucidates gene regulation at the transcriptional and post-transcriptional level with a description of sigma factors, promoter recognition, transcription factor regulation, termination of transcription and post-transcriptional regulation by sRNA. The main aim of this chapter is to describe involvement of non-coding *cis*-regulatory intergenic elements in prokaryotic gene regulation. **Chapter 4** introduces *P. aeruginosa* within-host evolution of CF host, a well characterized natural model of genetic adaptation of bacteria. It begins by describing the CF environment and infection, continues with description of *P. aeruginosa* and concludes with genetic adaptation of *P. aeruginosa* in CF host where I describe how routine sampling of this bacterium from CF patients provide opportunities to study molecular mechanisms of evolution and genetic adaptation in natural systems. **Chapter 5** describes cases of evolutionary changes that integrate genetic adaptation and phenotypic acclimation. It mainly highlights examples of genetic changes in transcriptional regulators leading to gene expression changes and phenotypic acclimation in bacteria. **Chapter 6** presents investigations conducted as part of the PhD project. It provides background information and objectives of the studies and summaries of each of three individual research papers. The full length of published articles or prepared manuscripts are provided in **Chapter 8**. Finally **chapter 7** discusses conclusions and futures perspectives of this PhD thesis.

Chapter 2

Bacterial adaptation to new environments

Based on fossil records isolated from submarine-hydrothermal environments, bacteria began evolving on earth from at least 3.7 billion years ago¹. From extreme conditions of seabed to gut of mammalian species, from depths inside earth crust to ice glaciers of snow in South Pole, bacteria have displayed remarkable survival instincts in hostile and lethal conditions^{2,3}. What distinguishes these intriguing micro-organisms from other life-forms is their extraordinary ability to evolve and adapt to new environments. Smaller genome size and faster reproduction pace allow bacteria to adapt at far greater speeds than many other organisms. Bacterial adaptation to new environments is facilitated through two different mechanisms: (i) phenotypic acclimation and (ii) genetic adaptation. While the former involves phenotypic changes through altered regulation of genes, the latter is rise of adaptive phenotypes through inheritable genetic changes⁴. The following section (2.1) briefly describes phenotypic acclimation by demonstrating two examples of metabolism and morphological acclimation. The second section (2.2) describes the basic principles of genetic adaptation in bacteria.

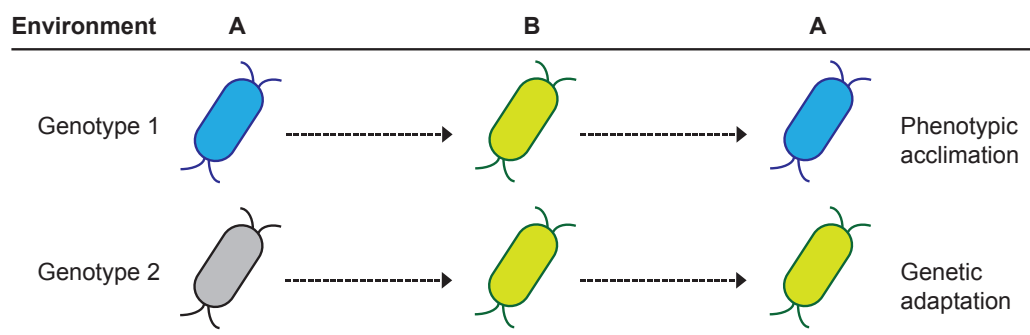


Figure 1 | Differences of phenotypic acclimation and genetic adaptation. Two distinct genotypes of A and B are grown in environment A and exhibit different phenotypes (blue and grey). Both genotypes are then grown in the new environment B with changed properties than A and they now exhibit similar adaptive phenotype in environment B (green). To find out if the presence of new phenotype was from phenotypic acclimation or genetic adaptation, both genotypes are transferred back to ancestral environment A. Genotype 1 reverts to its ancestor phenotype (blue) whereas genotype B exhibits the same phenotype it presented in environment B. Therefore the reversible phenotype genotype 1 exhibited in environment B was due to phenotypic acclimation, while genotype 2 exhibited permanent inherited phenotype due to genetic adaptation. Figure adapted from Rainey 2004⁴.

2.1 Phenotypic acclimation

Bacterial species respond to environmental cues by altering their behavior, morphology or metabolism related phenotypes. These reversible responses are not due to any inheritable genetic changes but essentially controlled by built-in complex regulatory networks where signal transduction and the consequent effects on gene expression plays a central role in formation of new phenotypes^{4,5}.

Historically, the *lac* operon in *Escherichia coli* was the first characterized bacterial regulatory system and it is a typical case of metabolism involved phenotypic acclimation. The discovery of this regulatory system was instrumental for progress of gene regulation theory in bacteria. While glucose is the preferred carbon source in many bacteria, it is absent in some conditions where the *lac* operon product effectively utilizes available lactose. In such conditions, the *lac* operon initiates transcription of genes necessary for breakdown of present lactose as an alternative carbon source. The operon is strongly repressed by the constitutively expressed LacI protein when lactose is absent. This prevents unnecessary fitness costs associated with expression of β -galactosidase enzyme⁶.

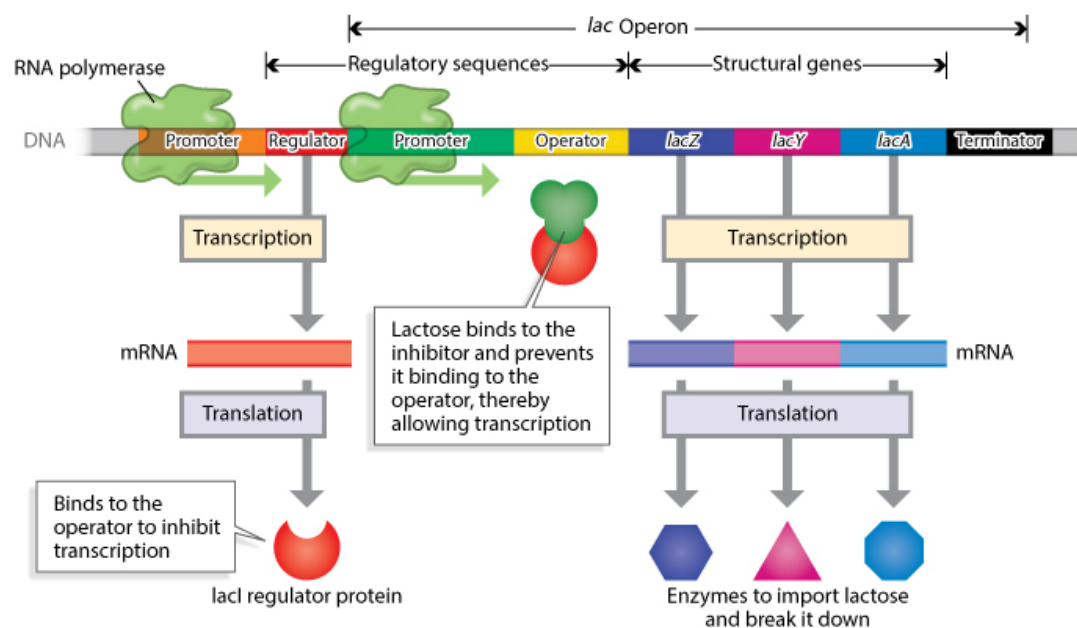


Figure 2 | Overview of the lactose operon in *E. coli*. The *lac* operon contains three genes *lacZ*, *lacY* and *lacA*. *lacZ* expresses β -galactosidase enzyme that cleaves lactose into glucose and galactose. *lacY* expresses β -galactosidase permease that facilitates import of lactose into the cell through cytoplasmic membrane. *lacA* encodes β -galactosidase transacetylase. In the absence of lactose, the *lac* operon is heavily repressed by the constitutively expressed LacI that blocks the binding of RNAP to the promoter of the operon. Repression of the promoter is only lifted when lactose binds to LacI and cAMP-bound CAP protein aids the binding of RNAP to the promoter. Figure adapted from Ralston 2008⁶.

One clear example of morphological phenotypic acclimation is filament development of bacteria in stressful conditions such as presence of host effectors, eukaryotic protist predators and antibiotics⁷⁻¹⁰. Filamentation occurs when cell growth continues while divisions is arrested and the lengths of filaments are between 10-50 times longer than bacillary cells. Interestingly, size is among the most controlled properties of bacteria and its variation is seldom observed in bacteria grown under similar conditions¹¹. In one example, UPEC bacteria in UTI respond to host immune effectors within bladder epithelial cells by forming filaments. Upon epithelial cell death and exposure of filamentous and bacillary UPEC to the surface, neutrophil phagocytosis kills bacillary cells but filamentous UPEC survive the innate immune system¹². In another example, marine bacterial *Flectobacillus spp.* evade invasion threat of protists by filamentation and this provides a competitive advantage compared to other marine bacteria lacking filamentation tactic and being consumed by protists⁷. Filamentous bacteria are also commonly isolated in samples taken from patients undergoing antibiotic therapy. In one study, exposure to β -lactams induced SOS response in *E. coli* leading to filamentous phenotype through arrest of cell-wall synthesis and cell division⁹. Presence of filamentous phenotype provides another reversible acclimation tactic whereby morphological plasticity offers survival advantage in the presence of environmental stress.

2.2 Genetic adaptation

As discussed in previous section, bacteria have complex built-in regulatory system to adjust against environmental changes through phenotypic acclimation. But while it provides far-reaching effects in response to subtle temporary fluctuations, phenotypic acclimation can function within certain limits and it is unable to provide the peak of phenotypic states essential for effective long-term adaptation in new environments with permanent changes¹³. Inheritable genetic changes through natural selection offer permanent beneficial phenotypes that are necessary for survival in response to permanent condition of new environments. Adaptive mutations chosen by natural selection improve the fitness and reproductive success

of bacteria in new environments. The process of genetic adaptation is especially fruitful in bacteria because of their shorter generation times.

Generally, genetic changes arise from two different mechanisms: (i) horizontal gene transfer (HGT) and (ii) *de novo* mutation in present coding or non-coding intergenic regions. *De novo* mutation can include single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP), indels (insertion or deletion) and rearrangements like duplication, inversion or translocation^{14,15}. These type of mutations occur at stochastically low rates. Based on experimental evolution studies, the incidence rate of mutations in *E. coli* and other related bacteria is around 10^{-10} per base pair per generation¹⁶. Furthermore, many mutations are neutral in terms of fitness or even detrimental to the reproductive success of an organism in its environment. These mutations can also become fixed in a population through genetic drift or hitchhiking.

Genetic drift occurs when neutral mutations drift to high frequencies in the population. This can either happen randomly or due to bottlenecks where population size is significantly reduced and odds of survival of any individual within the population is purely random and independent of any specific inherent genetic advantage¹⁴. Hitchhiking is propagation of neutral or detrimental mutations through genetic links to beneficial mutations in another locus. This phenomenon is particularly dominant in asexual populations where the whole genome acts as a single linkage group^{14,17}.

In addition to hitchhiking and genetic drift, the real phenotypic effect of some mutations may be contingent upon their interactions with other mutations in a process known as epistasis. To dissect the real effect of these mutations they will have to be constructed in ancestor backgrounds and the fitness effect of the resulting strain is measured against its isogenic parent. If the mutation by itself confers no effect on fitness of the strain, it could also be classified as non-adaptive¹⁸. It can therefore be difficult to tease apart carrier adaptive mutations from passenger non-adaptive mutations. To begin this process, researchers measure the ratio between number of non-synonymous (NS) and synonymous mutations fixed in the population. In this simple approach, NS mutations changing protein function are inferred as those with radical consequences and therefore more likely to have fitness

effects. Therefore a larger ratio depicts signs of adaptive evolution through natural selection whereas a smaller ratio indicates neutral evolution^{19,20}.

Ultimately, neutral mutations are always present in a population but they seldom become dominant because they lack reproductive advantage. In contrast, beneficial mutations with increased reproductive potential of an individual become more frequent by substitution of neutral alleles and finally get fixed in the population. In this process known as selective sweep, variants with most advantageous mutation or combination of mutations overtake all less fit variants and become the dominant genotype by sweeping all genetic variations in the population^{21,22}.

Permanent changes in gene expression are common products of adaptation to new environments. These changes are usually established through *cis*- and *trans*-regulatory element mutations. Mutations in non-coding *cis*-regulatory elements (CRE) target binding sites of transacting factor (TAF) and they often induce major adaptive phenotypes in higher eukaryotes^{23–25} and bacteria^{26–29}. On the other hand, NS mutations in *trans*-regulatory elements (TRE) can alter their function by rewiring their binding to promoters and changing their affinity for the core RNA polymerase³⁰. Given their more conservative nature, CRE mutations are suggested to occur more frequently than TRE mutations as they do not pose deleterious effects by altering protein structure and function^{23,31,32}. In contrast, TRE mutations putatively provide more radical phenotype advances necessary for fast adaptation in new environments³³. In agreement with this theory, adaptive mutations in global regulators of gene expression are commonly found in artificial and natural evolution studies of bacteria^{31,34,35}.

Interestingly, the studies conducted as part of this PhD project demonstrate that non-coding intergenic mutations targeting potential *cis*-regulatory elements make a significant contribution to adaptation of bacteria in complex natural environments. It is of utmost importance to consider these types of adaptive mutations with intragenic mutations to grasp the full evolutionary pathway of bacterial populations.

Chapter 3

Prokaryotic gene regulation

As mentioned in previous chapter, phenotypic acclimation is defined by regulation of gene expression in response to environmental changes. Evolution has shaped a complex and organized regulatory system in bacteria that can perceive signals and translate them into controlled changes in gene expression. All steps of this highly organized process from transcription initiation to RNA processing and translation can be fine-tuned by regulatory elements such as sigma factors, transcription factors, small non-coding RNA, etc. In the following sections, I will briefly describe regulatory mechanisms of gene expression at the transcriptional and post-transcriptional levels.

3.1 Transcription

The process of transcription in bacteria is contingent upon promoter recognition and transcription initiation by RNA polymerase (RNAP). However, RNAP core enzyme composing of $\beta\beta'\alpha_2\omega$ subunits is only competent for DNA-dependent RNA synthesis and unable to initiate transcription without the sigma factors. The formed complex of sigma factor and the core enzyme known as RNA polymerase holoenzyme can facilitate transcription from specific promoters³⁶. The sigma subunit facilitates specific recognition of promoters, positions the core RNAP at the promoter and triggers unwinding of DNA duplex near transcription start site^{37,38}. Sigma factors are categorized by two different phylogenetic families: σ^{70} and σ^{54} . While most bacteria have more than one sigma factor of the σ^{70} family, they usually contain one from σ^{54} ³⁸⁻⁴¹. The primary sigma factor in *E. coli* and many other bacteria responsible for transcription of most genes under normal conditions is σ^{70} (RpoD). This sigma factor is commonly referred to as the housekeeping sigma factor. Alternative sigma factors modulating expression of specific genes in response to stress conditions are σ^E (RpoE), σ^S (RpoS), σ^{32} (RpoH), σ^F (FlhA), and σ^N (RpoN)⁴². The expression profile and phenotypic picture of bacteria is determined by competition of a pool of different sigma factors for limited number of RNAPs in the cell^{39,40}. Different regulatory

mechanisms are triggered by specific physiological factors to facilitate association of alternative sigma factors for the core RNAP.

These regulatory mechanisms include concentration of different sigma factors, anti-sigma factors, small molecule secondary messenger such as ppGpp, small non-coding RNA (ncRNA) and sigma factor affinity for different promoter sites^{39,40,43,44}.

The process starts by RNAP holoenzyme interacting with the promoter at a specific location and unwinding the DNA duplex at the transcription start site. Positions +1 and +2 within uncoiled template strand enter the active site of RNAP holoenzyme to form the open complex. The subsequent transcription cycles continues with escape of the associated sigma factor, elongation and termination of transcription⁴⁵⁻⁴⁸.

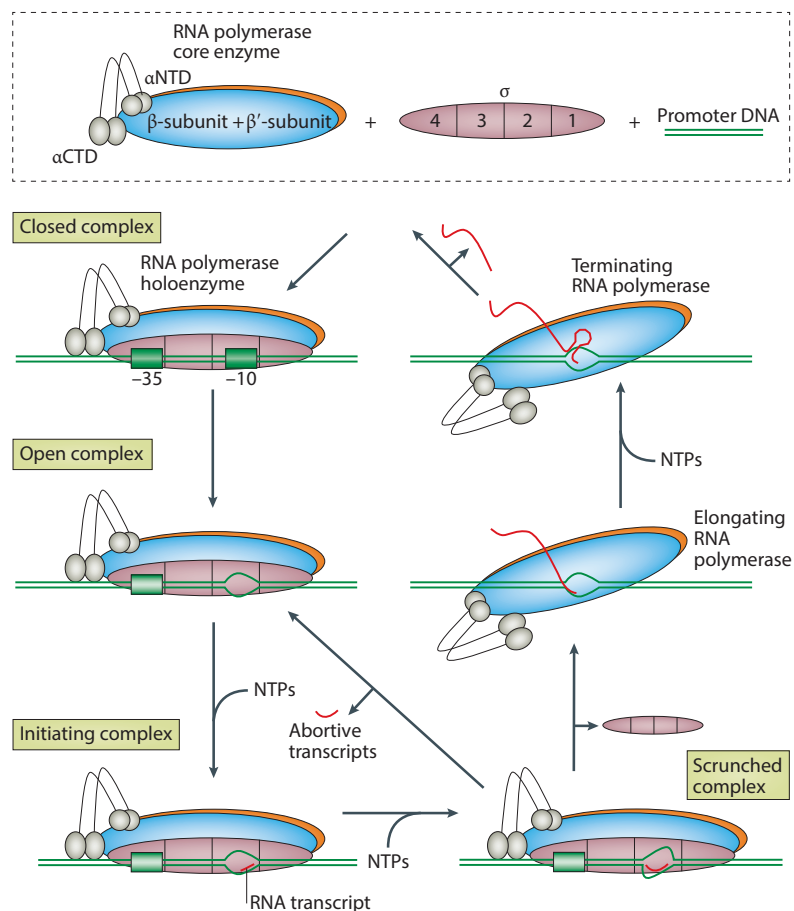


Figure 3 | Overview of transcription cycle in bacteria. RNAP holoenzyme interacts with specific promoter to form the closed complex. Unwinding of DNA duplex in the transcription start site leads to formation of open complex. Transition to the initiating complex is driven by addition of nucleoside triphosphates (NTPs). The template strand is pulled into the initiating complex to abort (scrunch) transcription. The cycle leading to scrunched complex can alternatively be directed to elongation of the RNA transcript by escape of the sigma factor and addition of NTPs. Transcription is stopped when RNAP meets a transcriptional terminator and the polymerase is released to bind another sigma factor. Figure modified from Browning and Busby 2016⁴⁹.

Two different methods are currently proposed for termination of transcription in bacteria: Rho-dependent and Rho-independent termination. Rho-dependent termination is destabilization of template and messenger RNA (mRNA) interaction by Rho protein releasing the newly formed mRNA from the elongation complex. Rho-independent termination is when RNA transcription is paused because mRNA forms a G-C- hairpin loop followed by several U's. Upon the formation of this structure, the mechanical stress breaks the mRNA bond with the template and releases the poly-U transcript region out of the elongation complex⁵⁰.

3.2 Regulation by transcription factors

In addition to sigma factors, transcription factors (TF) also regulate gene expression by targeting promoters. The expressions of these proteins are regulated by environmental cues and they coordinate environmental signals with specific promoter activities. TFs are generally composed of two units of sensor and regulator domains. The sensor domain receives signals through binding of small ligands or proteins or covalent modification and enables regulator domain to bind specific target sites in the DNA³⁸. Two-component systems are another type of TF, where a kinase protein located on inner cell membrane responds to extracellular signal by phosphorylating itself and a cognate response regulator protein. Thereafter, the phosphorylated response regulator binds specific target in DNA⁵¹. Most TFs regulate more than promoter and most promoters in *E. coli* are regulated by more than one TF. Furthermore, expressions of many genes encoding TFs are regulated by other TFs providing a diverse transcriptional regulatory network capable of robust acclimation to different environments⁵²⁻⁵⁵.

Interaction of TFs with promoter can be mediated through operators containing direct or invert repeats of specific sequence of 4-5 base pairs. Generally, homo- or multi dimerized structures of TFs containing specific motifs bind to target promoter operators and either repress or activate transcription of specific genes⁴⁹. The repressive or activating function is dependent on where TF binds with regards to transcription start site of the target gene. Additionally, some TFs have dual repressor and activator functions depending on target promoter. While activators increase

transcription by a promoter through improving its association with RNAP, repressors prevent transcription by steric hindrance of RNAP binding or by cooperation with other repressors to decrease promoter affinity for RNAP^{30,38}.

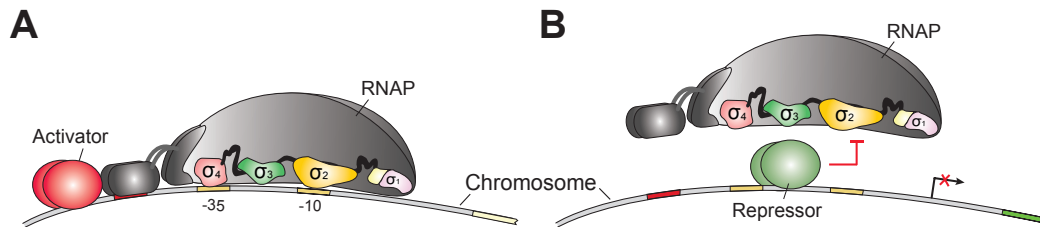


Figure 4 | Activator or repressor function of transcriptional factors. **A)** Dimerized TF containing special motif structures binds to operator in upstream of the promoter and interacts with α CTD of the RNA polymerase to facilitate its binding to promoter region. **B)** Dimerized repressor containing special motifs blocks binding of the RNAP within the core promoter through steric hindrance. Figure modified from Browning and Busby 2004³⁸.

3.3 Regulation by small non-coding RNA

Small non-coding RNA (sRNA), ranging between 70-500 bp, are a group of highly structured RNAs containing several stem loops that regulate gene expression in bacteria. Through interaction with mRNA, they either control mRNA stability; affect transcription termination or translation initiation. *cis*-encoded sRNA are positioned in overlap with their target genes whereas *trans*-encoded sRNA are separated by a distance from their target gene. The inherent ability of sRNA to modulate gene expression in response to environmental cues allows them to participate in a diverse set of adaptation processes such as coordination of virulence, carbon metabolism, cell envelope homeostasis, transcriptional reprogramming and iron homeostasis^{56,57}.

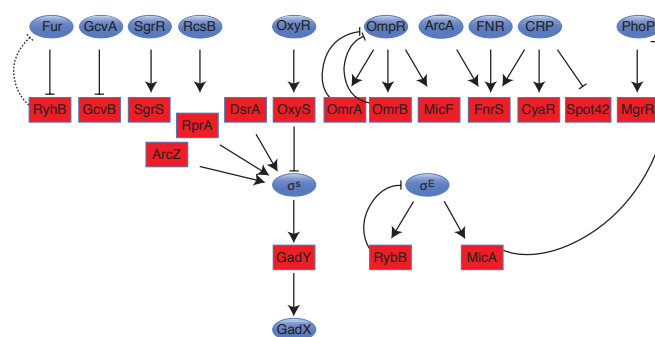
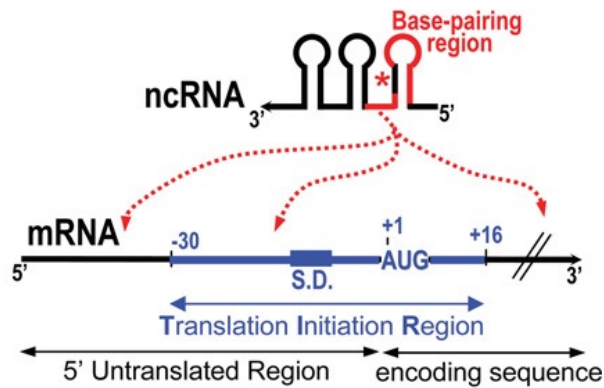
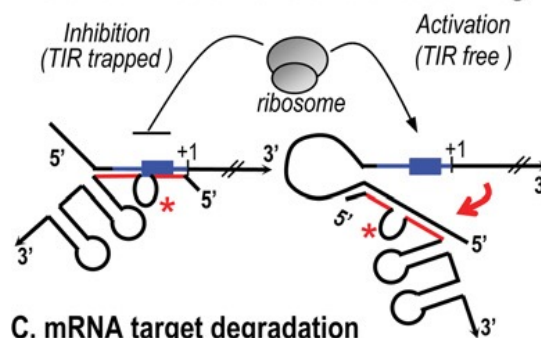


Figure 5 | Regulatory circuit of major known sRNAs in bacteria. Transcription factors (blue ovals) regulate expression of sRNA shown in red boxes. Some sRNA feedback regulate their transcription factors levels. The complex regulatory circuit depicts fundamental involvements of sRNAs in prokaryotic gene regulation. Figure adapted from Gottesman and Storz 2011⁵⁸.

A. mRNA regions targeted by a ncRNA



B. General mechanisms of translation regulation



C. mRNA target degradation

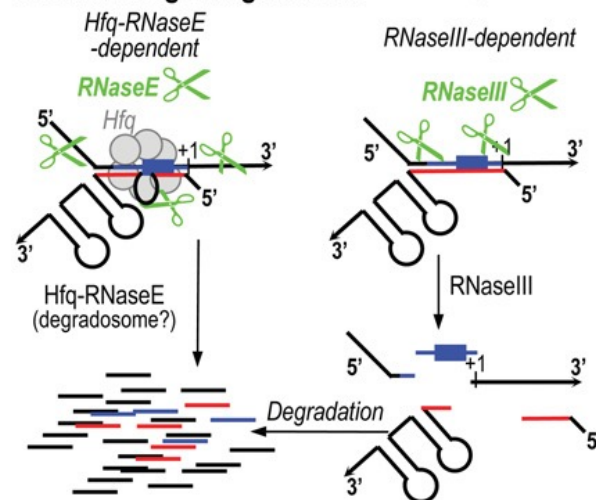


Figure 6 | Properties and regulatory mechanisms of sRNA. **A)** sRNA can target different sections of mRNA. The interacting region within non-coding sRNA is marked by red and named 'base-pairing' region. Parts of sRNA not interacting with target mRNA are marked by red asterisk. sRNA may interact with Translation Initiation Region (TIR) of mRNA normally bound by 30S subunit of ribosome to initiate transcription. Alternatively, sRNA can also interact with upstream of TIR or within the coding sequence of the gene. **B)** sRNA can both function as repressor or activator of target mRNA. On the right, sRNA binds to the TIR of mRNA thereby blocking recognition by ribosome and initiation of translation. On the left, sRNA binds to another region within mRNA that was base-paired with TIR and blocked access of ribosome, therefore the sRNA is activating translation by ribosome. **C)** mechanisms of mRNA target degradation by RNaseE. On the left, RNaseE interacts with Hfq protein to facilitate degradation of target mRNA. On the right, RNaseE recognition of cleavage sites within mRNA facilitates its degradation. Figure adapted from Repoila and Darfeuille 2009⁵⁷.

Chapter 4

Evolution in natural environments

Whole genome sequencing (WGS) is the most applicable tool to study relatedness of organisms. Until recently, the high cost of sequencing entire genomes discouraged sequencing of related organism to study their phylogenomics. With the advent of WGS and next generation sequencing (NGS) techniques, analysis of detailed changes in related isolates of bacteria is no longer a dream. More than hundred thousand bacterial isolates have been sequenced⁵⁹ and evolutionary biologist can easily discover genome alternations to understand the evolutionary pathways of bacteria. Evolutionary biologists have performed experimental evolution studies to provide novel insights to comprehension of bacterial adaptive evolution^{4,14}. However in real life, natural evolution of bacterial species occurs under much more complex conditions than in laboratory. The more limited number of studies on natural evolution of bacteria reflects difficulties related to systematic sampling within those populations. Sampling habitats are difficult to define and target population is often too small. Despite such limitations, sampling pathogenic bacteria from chronic human infections provide more fruitful results on their within-host evolution because of well-defined boundaries of the host^{20,35}.

Studying microevolution of organisms is instrumental in grasping the underlying basis of their genetic adaptation. With information deriving from experimental and natural evolution studies, researchers can genetically engineer organisms to improve their fitness in industrial application or identify mechanisms of their pathogenic manners in host infections.

4.1 Cystic fibrosis model

Chronic airway infections in cystic fibrosis patients provide monumental opportunities to study natural evolution of bacteria in clinical settings. CF environment contains a complex repertoire of selection pressures that can shape adaptation of colonizing pathogens. Routine samplings of expectorated sputum and nasal lavage from CF patients in different countries have produced a goldmine of

bacterial isolates that can be used in longitudinal studies of bacterial evolution in chronic infections^{20,60–64}. In addition, there are real values in any contribution to potential treatment of patients suffering from this condition.

The following sections will present an overview of cystic fibrosis genetic condition, its clinical manifestation, its environmental habitat, involved selection pressures, colonizing pathogens and their adaptation in CF.

4.1.1 Cystic fibrosis

CF is a human recessive genetic disorder caused by the combination of two mutant alleles in cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) gene. There are at least 1500 possible mutations targeting CFTR gene but the most dominant mutation affecting 70% of CF patients is $\Delta F508$. The disease is mostly affecting Caucasian population with 1 in 2500 live birth incidence rate and approximately 70 thousand people have been diagnosed with CF worldwide⁶⁵. The mutations lead to loss-of-function or malfunction of CFTR, a cyclic-AMP regulated transporter of chloride ion and water across epithelial membranes. Loss of CFTR function impairs electrolyte transport and results in production of viscous mucus in the airways. The thick and dehydrated layer of mucus in CF airways intrudes with mucociliary clearance of inhaled microbes and makes CF patients particularly vulnerable to infections by different microbes^{66,67}. If left untreated, CF patients succumb to airway infection at a young age. The life-expectancy of CF patients in 1974 was 8 years old but in recent years with intensive antibiotic treatments, a CF diagnosed patient can live to a median age of 40 years⁶⁸.

4.1.2 Cystic fibrosis airway environment

There are three compartments in the human airway. The upper part of the airway contains paranasal sinuses extending to nasal cavities. The conductive zone comprising of trachea, bronchi and terminal bronchioles is located in the lower airway. These two compartments are more prone to bacterial colonization because of the thick mucus production providing optimal conditions for bacterial growth. The last sector of the airway is also located in the lower part of the respiratory zone and

it includes respiratory bronchioles and the alveoli^{68,69}. This part is usually immune to infections except in cases of severe lung damage⁷⁰.

The spatially separated compartments of the CF airway generate environmental heterogeneity and induce diversification of bacterial populations. In two separate studies on within-host evolution of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* colonizing CF airways, related clones of this bacterium from different locations of the airways demonstrated diverse phenotypes and genotypes. These results demonstrate that clones of the same ancestor evolved to the properties of their environmental niches^{71,72}.

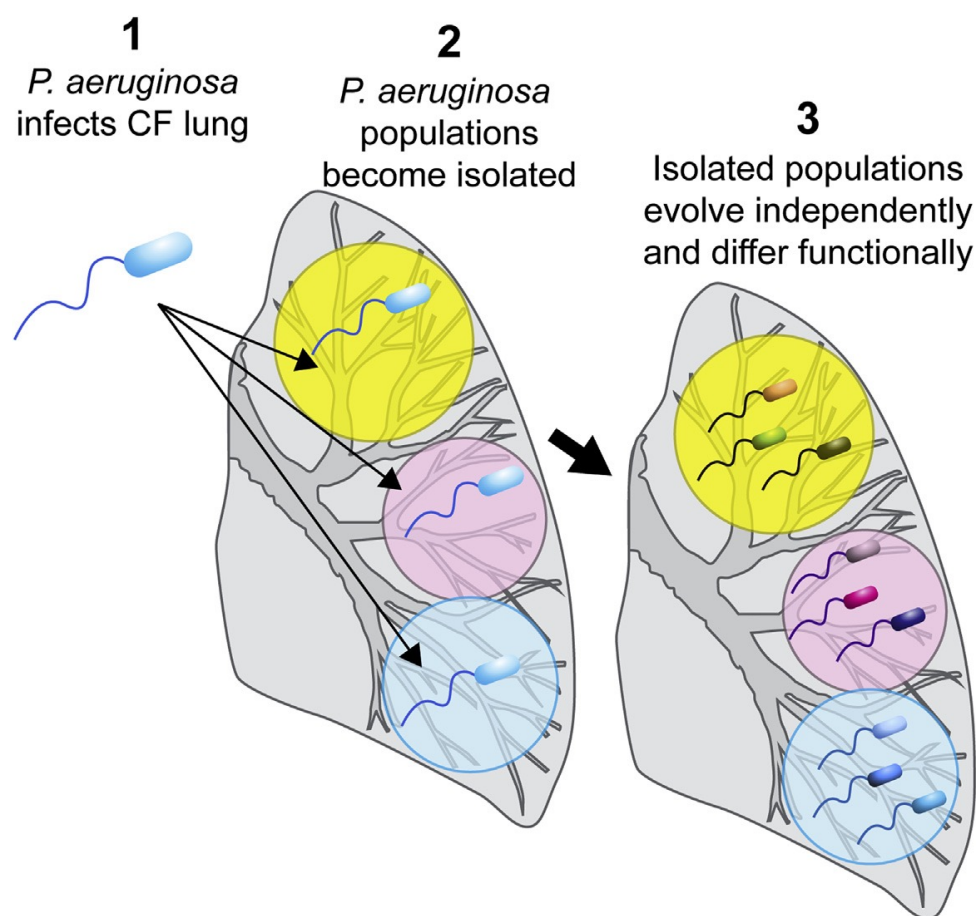


Figure 7 | Diversification of *P. aeruginosa* genotypes in different compartments of CF airway. Bacteria of the same ancestor clone colonizing spatially isolated compartments diversify independently within CF airways. Environmental heterogeneity of different locations offer various selection factors and colonizing *P. aeruginosa* adapts to optimal phenotypes to survive in each compartment. Figure adapted from Jorth *et al.* 2015⁷¹.

In addition to environmental heterogeneity within different locations of the airways, the open system of CF environment is subject to several known selection pressures that vary in both time and space⁷³. In the following sections an overview of most obvious selection pressure are provided.

Antibiotics are regularly administered to CF patients to inhibit and eradicate bacterial pathogens, depending on the present condition. Aminoglycosides, β -lactams, antimicrobial peptides, macrolides and fluoroquinolones are the different classes of antibiotic often present within compartments of the CF airways. While antibiotics are administered both orally and intravenously, different outcomes are expected on population organization and evolution. For example, intravenous administration of antibiotics results in higher concentration in mucus of respiratory zones, but lower concentration in that of the conductive zones. In contrast, oral inhalation of antibiotics will have the opposite effect^{69,73}. Additionally, mucus accumulation blocks access to sinus cavities and pathogens within this region are less susceptible to antibiotic treatments⁷⁴. Antibiotics selection pressure in CF environment leads to adaptive resistance phenotypes in colonizing pathogens^{64,75}.

The Immune system is another challenging selection pressure on pathogens of the CF environment. Failure of the mucociliary clearance prompts early recruitment of inflammatory polymorphonuclear neutrophils (PMN)⁷⁶. Additional components of the immune system including defensins, macrophages and secretory IgA are also activated in response to infection but their site of action depends on the compartment of the airway. For example, PMN attachment to colonizing microbes, facilitated through microbial lipopolysaccharide (LPS) and flagellin structures, is more predominant in the lower airways whereas secretion of IgA antibody is more common in the sinuses⁷⁷. Activated PMNs or macrophages trigger phagocytosis and liberation of reactive oxygen species (ROS). The release of ROS provides oxidative stress in lower airway conditions for pathogens but also deteriorates lung tissue damage overtime⁷⁸. In response to recognition by the immune system, colonizing pathogens adapt by reducing their immunogenicity⁷⁹.

Oxygen availability is another limiting factor for bacterial pathogens of CF airways. While lung is presumed to contain an abundance of oxygen, there are really different levels of oxygen in different CF compartments. Gas exchanges occur in the respiratory zone and oxygen level is sufficient in this compartment. On the other hand, mucus enriched regions vary between aerobic to micro-aerobic and strictly anaerobic^{69,74,80}. Oxygen is poorly dissolved deep inside the mucus matrix. Here,

facultative aerobes take advantage of sufficient amounts of alternative electron acceptors like nitrate or phenazines to exploit anaerobic respiration^{81–84}.

Nutrients such as free amino acids, glucose, lactate and different types of fats are richly found in the CF environment⁸⁵. Nonetheless, the distribution and abundance of different nutrients varies from one compartment to another and pathogens adapt by optimizing differently to varying presence of nutrients⁸⁶.

Iron presence is a limiting factor for pathogens colonizing CF airways because the host withholds iron reserves by binding to proteins like ferritin, transferrin and lactoferrin⁸⁷. This makes colonizing pathogens like *P. aeruginosa* to utilize iron through heme and siderophore uptake systems⁸⁸.

Salts such as Na^+ , K^+ and Cl^- are abundantly found in CF airways because of the impaired function of CFTR in transport of electrolytes and water across epithelial membrane^{89,90}. In response, pathogens need to adapt to high osmotic pressures to survive in CF airways³⁵.

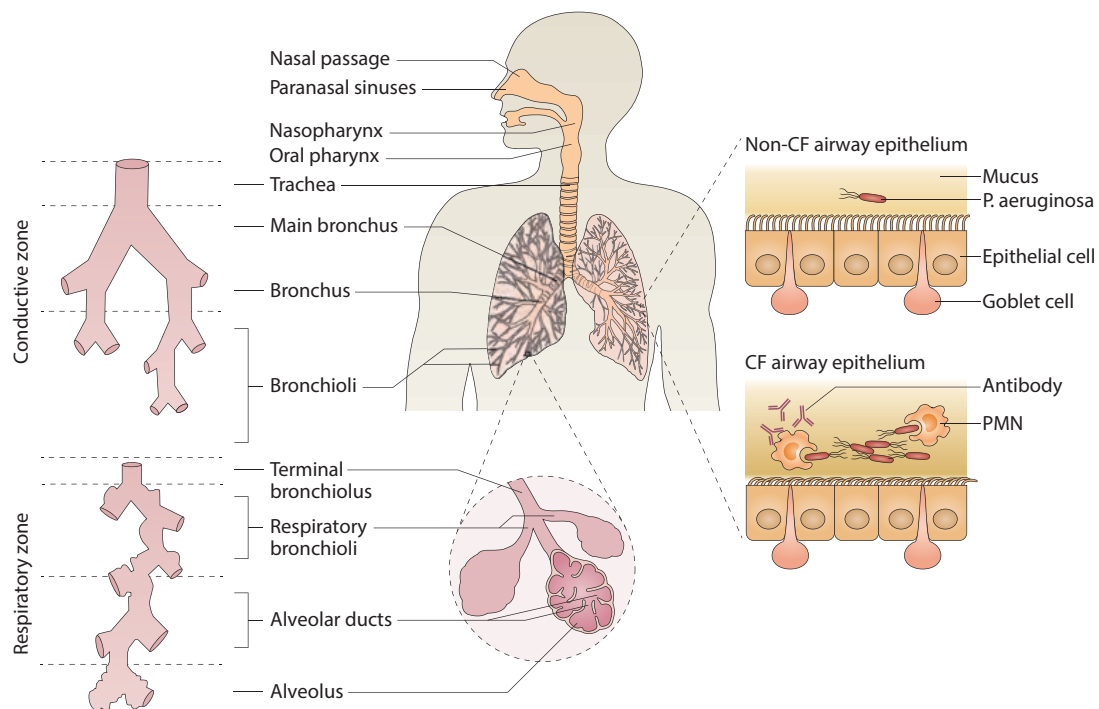


Figure 8 | Compartments of the CF airways. There are three distinct anatomical regions in human respiratory system: the paranasal sinuses, the conductive zone and the respiratory zone. Due to mutations in CFTR, transport of electrolyte and water across epithelium is interrupted leading to impair physical removal of inhaled microbes. The thick dehydrated mucus within sinuses and the conductive zone provides an optimal reservoir for growth of CF pathogens. Increased concentration of microbes such as *P. aeruginosa* initiates an immune response by the host with recruitment of inflammatory PMN agent and antibodies leading to impaired lung function and exacerbated lung tissue. Figure adapted from Folkesson *et al.* 2012⁶⁸.

4.1.3 Ecology of the CF airway

The microbial habitat of CF airway is composed of a highly complex and mixed ecosystem where multispecies of microbial communities coexist⁹¹. It is proposed that from 100 to 1000 different species colonize CF airways and 10^9 CFU per ml of bacteria are present in CF sputum^{92,93}. However, a range of organisms including *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Haemophilus influenzae*, *Burkholderia cepacia* complex, *Staphylococcus aureus* are found to be more frequently isolated from CF patients than others. The emergence of these bacteria in CF patients is proposed to be dependent on age⁶⁸. While *H. influenzae* and *S. aureus* dominate in infections of early childhood, *P. aeruginosa* eventually overtakes others and become the main infectious agent in the CF host. In this context, around 60-70% of adult CF patients have chronic *P. aeruginosa* infection demonstrating that this opportunistic pathogen is main agent causing morbidity and mortality in CF hosts⁹⁴.

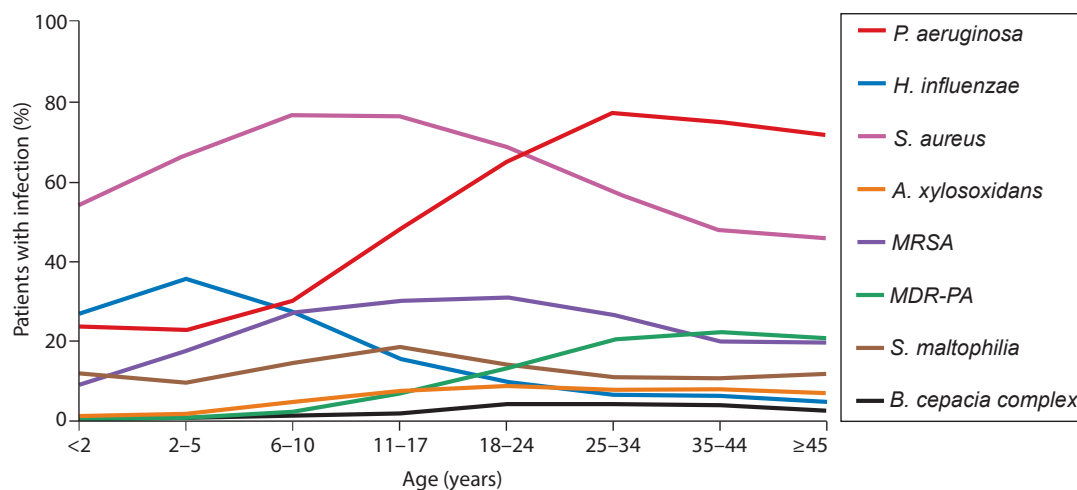


Figure 9 | Development of different species prevalence in CF patients as a function of age. *A. xylosoxidans*, *Achromobacter xylosoxidans*; *B. cepacia*, *Burkholderia cepacia*; *H. influenzae*, *Haemophilus influenzae*; MDR-PA, multidrug-resistant *P. aeruginosa*; MRSA, methicillin resistant *S. aureus*; *S. aureus*, *Staphylococcus aureus*; *S. maltophilia*, *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia*. *S. aureus* and *H. influenzae* are the predominant agents colonizing CF patients at early childhood. As age of patients progress, *P. aeruginosa* dominates against all other pathogens in CF patients and become the main cause of mortality and morbidity. Figure adapted from Folkesson *et al.* 2012⁶⁸.

4.1.4 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*

The gram-negative bacillus *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is a motile, aerobic bacterium inhabiting a variety of environmental niches like soil, water, plants, animals and humans. This opportunistic pathogen seldom infects healthy humans but it has received particular attention due to its ability to cause bloodstream infections, UTI,

ulcerative keratitis and nosocomial pneumonias while being very infective in immune-compromised patients (e.g. HIV and cancer) and those with CF disorders⁹⁵. The most extensively annotated reference genome of *P. aeruginosa* is laboratory strain of PAO1⁹⁶⁻⁹⁸. The chromosome size of *P. aeruginosa* ranges from 6.2 to 6.9 million base pairs and the GC content is around 66%. The relative large genome of *P. aeruginosa* contains a large repertoire of regulatory proteins potentiating its extraordinary ability to thrive in different environment⁹⁶. This built-in versatility is augmented with fast growth rate and inherent resistance to toxic and antimicrobial agents enabling this pathogen to survive in extreme conditions of CF airways^{99,100}.

4.1.5 *P. aeruginosa* adaptation in CF

The pattern of *P. aeruginosa* settlement in the CF host commences with a period of intermittent colonization. During this period, recurrent cycles of colonization and eradication are observed¹⁰¹. Eradication and delay of chronic infection onset can be established by intensive antibiotic treatments⁷⁶. *P. aeruginosa* strains colonizing patients during this period exhibit typical phenotypes of environmental strains such as fast doubling time, non-mucoid morphology and being susceptible to antibiotics. Indeed, genetic analysis has also verified that these unique strains trace back to unidentified environmental niches¹⁰². The intermittent colonization by *P. aeruginosa* may last from a few months to a few years in early lives of CF patients depending on treatment and adaptive status of the infecting strains¹⁰². Most patients acquire new genotypes after eradication of earlier ones, however in some cases recolonization with a previously eradicated genotype is also observed demonstrating a persistent environmental source or protected host location, e. g. the sinuses, difficult to reach by common treatments^{68,103}.

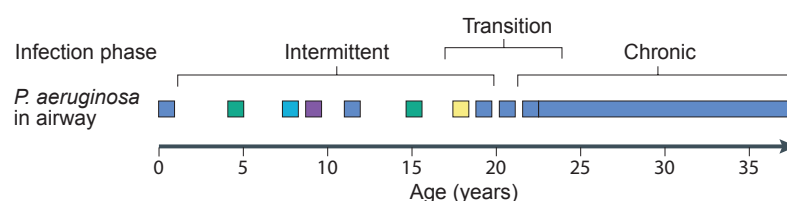


Figure 10 | Development of *P. aeruginosa* infection in CF patients. Phylogenetically distinct clones of *P. aeruginosa* (different colors) colonize CF patients and are eradicated by antibiotic treatments. Periods of *P. aeruginosa* absence are also observed until when chronic infection by a persistent clone is established. Figure adapted from Folkesson *et al.* 2012⁶⁸

Inevitably sooner or later, due to unknown reasons, a chronic infection with *P. aeruginosa* happens in CF patients¹⁰². In 60-70% of cases, patients are colonized by chronic infection before reaching 20⁹⁴. Signs of this type of infection include uninterrupted presence of one *P. aeruginosa* genotype for more than six months, elevated inflammatory response and development of antibodies specific to *P. aeruginosa*⁷⁶. The persistence of *P. aeruginosa* in chronically infected CF airways results in immune complex-mediated chronic inflammation that worsens lung tissue destruction on top of the damage already caused by the bacteria¹⁰⁴. Despite vigorous antibiotic treatment and the inflammatory response of the host, most persistent chronic infections lead to respiratory failure and complete lung tissue destruction requiring lung transplantation or result in death of patients¹⁰⁵. All causes of transition from intermittent to chronic infection in CF patients have not been discovered yet, but multiple studies point to genetic adaptation of *P. aeruginosa* to the CF environment as a key factor^{20,35,60-62,106-109}. Several reasons have been proposed for genetic adaptation of *P. aeruginosa* in CF airways. To begin with, chronic infections are often induced by total dominance of a unique clone type that can colonize for many years until demise of the CF patient. As this clone type is capable of outcompeting all other invading *P. aeruginosa* clones, it must have gained advantageous mutations increasing its fitness in the CF environment^{79,103}. Furthermore, phenotypes observed in chronically infecting *P. aeruginosa* clones differ significantly from those presented during intermittent colonization, which exhibited phenotypes of environmental strains⁶⁸. Finally, these typical phenotypes are observed in multiple strains of *P. aeruginosa* isolated from unrelated chronically infected CF patients across the world. Therefore, this parallel evolution of adaptive traits in independent settings indicates natural selection¹⁸. The following describes some of the adaptive phenotypes of *P. aeruginosa* in chronically infected patients.

Mucoidity is a typical and perhaps most characterized phenotype of chronically infected isolates of *P. aeruginosa* in CF patients. It is presented by exopolysaccharide alginate overproduction leading to slimy colony morphology of *P. aeruginosa*. Alginate production is proposed to shield *P. aeruginosa* from immune system response and antibiotics¹¹⁰⁻¹¹² emphasizing its significance in chronic infection scenario where alginate production is associated with poor outcomes for

CF patients¹¹³. In majority of cases, the mucoid phenotype arises from loss of function mutation in *mucA*, expressing anti-sigma factor that represses AlgT¹¹⁴. AlgT is an alternative sigma factor controlling stress response genes in *P. aeruginosa* including those of alginate production expressed by *algD* gene cluster⁶⁸.

Antibiotic resistance is another commonly observed phenotype in chronically infected isolates of *P. aeruginosa*. It is predictable to observe antibiotic resistance trait due to regular administration of antibiotics to CF patients providing strong selection pressures on *P. aeruginosa* to genetically adapt to resistance mechanisms. *P. aeruginosa* is inherently resistant against multiple classes of antibiotics through low outer membrane permeability, function of several outer membrane multidrug resistance (MDR) efflux pumps and expression of an AmpC β -lactamase¹¹⁵. Commonly observed mechanisms of resistance are: A) mutations affecting regulation of MDR efflux pumps^{116,117}. B) Mutations modifying topoisomerase IV and DNA gyrase structures^{118,119}. C) Mutations that increase expression and specificity of β -lactamases¹²⁰. D) Deleterious mutations in membrane OprD leading to decreased import of carbapenems¹²¹. E) Mutations increasing resistance to cationic antimicrobial peptides through changing the composition of LPS¹²².

Loss of **virulence factors** is commonly observed in late stage chronic infection isolates *P. aeruginosa*. It is logical that manifestation of virulence factors draws attention and lowering expression of immunogenic agents⁷⁹ provides evasion of the immune system. Loss of virulence factors is commonly facilitated through structural mutations affecting global regulators and sigma factor such as Vfr, LasR, RpoN, AlgT and PvdS^{35,60,72,106,123,124}. Lost virulence factors include flagella, LPS, type IV pili, proteases, phenazines, pyoverdines, pyocins, siderophores and TTSS factors^{123,125–129}.

Hypermutation has been frequently observed in several adapted strains of *P. aeruginosa* isolated from chronic infections^{20,106,130,131}. It remains to be elucidated how the hypermutator phenotype is advantageous for *P. aeruginosa* but higher rate of mutations may increase chances of rapid genetic adaptation and survival in CF airways¹³⁰. Loss-of-function mutations in *mutS* and *mutL*, encoding DNA mismatch repair system factors, are the most frequent cause of this phenotype¹³².

Chapter 5

The interplay of phenotypic acclimation and genetic adaptation

In chapter 2, I presented a brief introduction on phenotypic acclimation and genetic adaptation, two main pathways by which bacteria and more generally all organisms adapt to new environments. The principle of phenotypic acclimation relies on gene regulation, a topic that was presented in chapter 3. In chapter 4, I presented an example of bacterial genetic adaptation in natural systems, *P. aeruginosa* evolution in airways of CF patients. Here, I will present putative cases where genetic adaptation has modulated phenotypic acclimation response in bacteria.

Remodeling of regulatory systems through genetic adaptation ensures adaptation to highest average performance under different conditions. In essence, the occurrence of these mutations reshapes the pre-existing regulatory networks in place for phenotypic acclimation to environmental cues. The immense pleiotropic effect associated with such changes is because of regulatory effects of targeted proteins controlling expression of many genes.

In a study by Yang *et al.* in 2011, it was discovered that strains of *P. aeruginosa* DK2 isolated from chronic CF patients over a period of 200,000 bacterial generation were more affected by mutations within regulatory genes at the start of their adaptive history. NS mutations in global regulators such as *mucA*, *lasR* and *rpoN* are responsible for half of later expression changes of all genes confirming the extreme pleiotropic effect caused by these type of mutations. Furthermore, early establishment of many phenotypes necessary for initial colonization in the CF airways are established through these types of mutations. As an outcome, isolate DK2-CF30-1979 containing all of these mutations acquired the peak of adaptive phenotypes and all later evolved isolates were mostly similar in phenotypes to this ancestor¹⁰⁶. In a later study by Damkiær *et al.* in 2013, the detailed contribution of each DK2 global regulatory mutations on adaptive phenotypes were investigated. Through construction of each global regulatory mutation in laboratory strain of PAO1, the authors show that global regulatory mutations change the way *P. aeruginosa* DK2 responds to the CF environment by becoming mucoid or non-

mucoïd at different stages of its adaptive history. Furthermore, epistatic interactions of all these mutations significantly increase tolerance to antibiotics³⁵.

Additionally, studies on experimental evolution of bacteria also report importance of regulatory network alterations in evolution of adaptive phenotypes. In controlled evolution of bacterial populations in laboratory, global regulators of gene expression are commonly targeted by adaptive mutations and establish fundamental phenotypic changes in bacterial species^{31,133–135}.

In conclusion, it is clear that genetic adaptation targets regulatory systems to accommodate different phenotypic acclimation patterns in response to these environments. The consequent changes are not optimal for one condition but accommodate highest average performance in different conditions. Hence, the adaptive nature of global regulator mutations accommodate increased fitness through altered phenotypic acclimation pattern.

In addition to changes of regulatory systems, intergenic mutations in non-coding regions can also have potential effects on regulatory systems facilitating phenotypic acclimation. This is because the bacterial transcription machinery is composed of regulators of gene expressions controlling expression of genes through binding to *cis*-regulatory intergenic elements. Genetic changes within these elements affect binding of regulatory proteins causing changes in expression of downstream genes. Changes in binding of a global regulator to one region may also cause pleiotropic effects on expression of other related genes. Two separate studies have investigated evolution of *cis*-regulatory elements through horizontal gene transfer¹³⁶ and *de novo* mutations²⁷ where pathogen adaptive phenotypes emerge as a consequence of such changes. Furthermore, experimental evolution studies also emphasize the importance of mutations in *cis*-regulatory elements in functional innovation and adaptation of bacteria^{28,137}.

Chapter 6

Present investigations

This PhD thesis builds on previous studies of *P. aeruginosa* evolution in natural system of CF airways. Before I begin, I have to acknowledge that the collection of *P. aeruginosa* isolates from CF patients paved the path for conducting all these investigations including those of this thesis. In this context, professor Niels Høiby and his colleagues at the Danish Copenhagen CF center in Rigshospitalet collected and stored clinical isolates of *P. aeruginosa* from Danish CF patients since 1973. Similar comprehensive programs of *P. aeruginosa* collection from CF patients were also carried out elsewhere across the world. The depth of knowledge gained from these valuable resources of clinical isolates may have been limited when the programs started years ago but with recent advances in technology several studies have dissected the phylogeny, evolutionary dynamics and important adaptive stages of *P. aeruginosa* evolution in the CF environment.

6.1 Background

The majority of studies on evolution of bacteria in natural systems focus on the following major themes:

- Evolution of bacteria in natural systems and correlations of findings with those of experimental evolution settings
- Remodeling of global regulatory networks and its effect on emergence of major adaptive phenotypes
- Identification of genes under selection for adaptive mutations
- Adaptive phenotypes caused by gene mutations
- Role of hypermutation in evolution of bacteria

While these studies embark on major discoveries that can be utilized in understanding bacterial evolution in natural setting, they still neglect the extent of knowledge that can be gained from their collected data. One common alarming notion is following the intuition that all adaptive changes occur only through intragenic mutations. Recent studies document that regulatory intergenic mutations

are contributors to bacterial adaptation in natural^{26,27} and experimental setting^{28,29}. In this thesis, I have made an effort to study the role of intergenic mutations on evolution of *P. aeruginosa* in CF airways.

6.2 Aim of study

The following thesis uses adaptation of *P. aeruginosa* in CF airway environments as a model to reach the following objective:

- *To provide novel insights on evolution of bacteria in natural setting through non-coding intergenic mutations.*

The aims of research articles included in this thesis are the following:

- *To investigate the qualitative and quantitative contributions of non-coding intergenic mutations on within-host evolution of *P. aeruginosa* in CF airways.*
- *To investigate local and pleiotropic consequences of mutations in one intergenic region (*phuS//phuR*) mutated across different genotypes of CF adapted *P. aeruginosa*.*

6.3 Results and discussion

The following sections present summaries of three research articles included in this thesis. Detailed description of methods and figures can be found in chapter 8 where full-length published articles or prepared manuscripts are provided.

Article 1 | Within-host evolution of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* reveals adaptation toward iron acquisition from hemoglobin

In this paper, we investigated the most densely mutated intergenic region in *P. aeruginosa* DK2 genotype. A total of 13 mutations were found in a 180 bp region upstream of *phuR* and *phuRSTUVW* encoding the receptor and other components of *Pseudomonas* heme uptake system (*phu*). These mutations occurred in the genome of independently evolved isolates of DK2 in different patients. In addition, we also

found isolates of two distinct CF adapted genotypes of *P. aeruginosa* DK1 and Clone C with mutations within the same region confirming that this observation is not unique to DK2 genotype. In all three genotypes, loss of pyoverdine production through NS mutations preceded the occurrence of *phuR* intergenic mutation. We sought to investigate the effect of these mutations on local transcription of *phuR* gene. For this purpose, we cloned the mutated region from nine genomes upstream of luciferase reporter on a plasmid and integrated the plasmid on the genome of *P. aeruginosa* laboratory PAO1 strain. Measurements of *lux* normalized by the cell density at a specific point demonstrated that almost all of the mutated regions increased promoter activity of *phuR*. Mutation from two DK2 isolates increase *phuR* promoter activity by 93 and 112 folds compared to that of the wild type (WT). We also inspected available transcription data from these isolates and found out that the expressions of *phuR* and *phuRSTUVW* genes were significantly increased compared to isolates without the mutation.

To demonstrate the phenotypic effect of these mutations, we engineered the mutation conferring highest expression change (112 folds) in a CF adapted DK2 background without the mutation. We measured the doubling time of isogenic strains of *P. aeruginosa* with and without the mutation in rich Luria-bertani (LB) and minimal medium (MM) with abundance of iron and demonstrated that there was no significant change. Interestingly the doubling time of the strain with *phuR* mutation was significantly shorter than its isogenic WT in MM with hemoglobin showing that the overexpression of the *phu* system confers a growth advantage in the presence of hemoglobin.

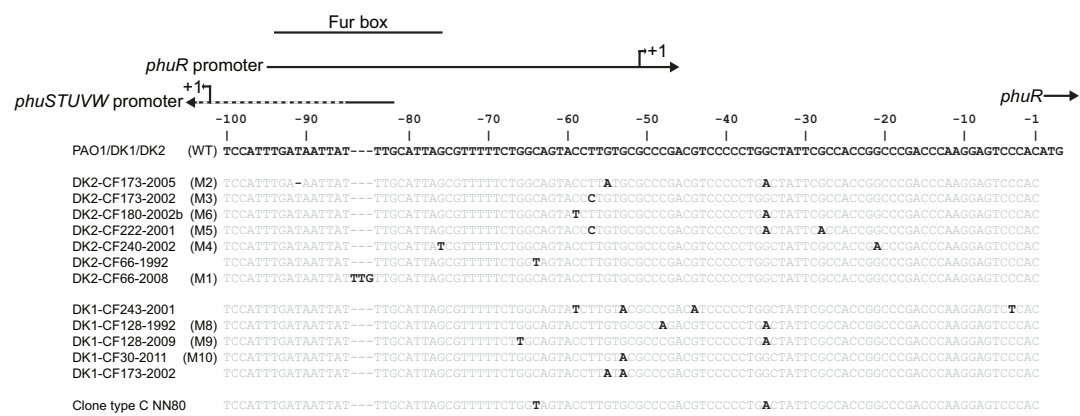


Figure 11: Overview of the intergenic region upstream of *phuR*. The alignment shows sequences from different isolates with genetic variation in the region. Figure adapted from Marvig *et al.* 2013²⁷

Articles 2 | Contribution of non-coding intergenic mutations on within-host evolution of a human pathogen

In research article 1, we discovered a novel adaptive mechanism with important implications of *P. aeruginosa* survival in the CF airway. This mechanism was activated through nothing more than intergenic mutations. For this reason, we hypothesized that this specific example can be the tip of the iceberg. *P. aeruginosa* and any other bacteria evolving in a natural or experimental condition may evolve through acquisition of mutations in intergenic regions. This hypothesis inspired us to perform a comprehensive analysis of intergenic mutations in *P. aeruginosa* sequenced genomes isolated from chronic CF patients. We utilized available data from several longitudinal studies investigating evolution of *P. aeruginosa* in CF airways where intergenic and intragenic variants between genome-sequenced isolates of the study have been detected. In total, our study consisted of 534 genome sequenced isolates belonging to 44 genotypes of *P. aeruginosa* isolated from CF patients. To discover intergenic regions under positive selection for adaptive mutations (pathoadaptive regions), we defined our selection criteria based on the occurrence of intergenic mutations within all 534 genomes (see methods). We identified a total of 88 intergenic regions under positive selection for mutations within and across isolates of different genotypes.

We then sought to map the position of mutations in putative intergenic elements within these regions. Interestingly we found that in 33% of regions, the mutations occurred in putative intergenic elements and the most targeted element within this portion was the core promoter. This result confirms a high number of actual pathoadaptive regions in our initial list despite limitation such as low annotation of elements in all regions.

To provide additional evidence for effectiveness of mutations within pathoadaptive regions, we randomly selected 25 regions and tested the activity of 32 genes downstream of mutations through construction of *lux* reporter fusions. Comparing the expression of fusions from these regions to their isogenic WT demonstrated that 15 fusions have significantly altered expression in at least one of LB or MM. Looking at the list of 15 genes, we identified PA4837, *exsC*, *cerN*, *motY*, *pyrC* and *ampR* with associated CF airway adaptive phenotypes in *P. aeruginosa*.

We finally investigated adaptive phenotype of mutation upstream *ampR* in *P. aeruginosa* through replacement of the mutation in *P. aeruginosa* PAO1. We established that this mutation significantly increased minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of β -lactams imipenem and ampicillin in *P. aeruginosa*. In conclusion of this study, we identified several genes associate with fitness in CF airways affected by intergenic mutations in *P. aeruginosa*. Furthermore, we showed that intergenic mutations make a numerically larger contribution to adaptation in *P. aeruginosa* DK2 (2:1). This was in accordance with expectations that CRE intergenic mutations occur more frequently than TRE because of their less deleterious potentials^{23,31,32}. A recent study in experimental evolution of bacteria also suggests that 'regulatory' intergenic mutations were more strongly overrepresented than expected²⁸.

Article 3 | Adaptive mutations in an intergenic region cause pleiotropic effects on gene expressions

In this study, we tried to investigate whether intergenic mutations really confer local and subtle regulatory effects on expression of immediate genes. For this purpose, we chose the *phuR* promoter mutation that we investigated in research article 1. We hypothesized that overexpression of the *phu* system confers additional effects than the *phu* system. To test this hypothesis, we examined transcriptional changes caused by *phuR* promoter mutation using DNA genechip microarray in LB. Interestingly, in *P. aeruginosa* DK2-CF30-1979 isolate the expressions of 118 genes were significantly altered as a result of *phuR* promoter mutation (> 2 or $-2 <$ fold changes). We repeated the microarray for *P. aeruginosa* PAO1, where only transcriptions of *phu* system and two additional genes were affected by the *phuR* promoter mutation. This confirmed that epistatic effects and genetic variations between DK2 and PAO1 genotypes play an important role for induction of the pleiotropic effect. However, one particular gene PA4711 located right after *phuR* was consistently upregulated in both PAO1 and DK2 genotypes with the mutation. In addition, we also performed microarray experiments with DK2-CF30-1979 strains in MM. Interestingly again only expression of *phu* system and two other genes were significantly altered because of

the mutation. Nonetheless, PA4711 was still upregulated and unlike the rest of pleiotropic effects, this upregulation was independent of environmental context. Since PA4711, encoding a Rieske-like iron-sulfur protein of unknown function, was upregulated in all tested conditions and genotypes with the *phuR* promoter mutation, we sought to investigate its expression in original isolates where *phuR* promoter mutation was detected. Interestingly, previous microarray experiments from these isolates showed that PA4711 was also upregulated in these isolates compared to ancestor isolate lacking *phuR* promoter mutation.

As *nark1* and *nark2* were two genes most downregulated in DK2 genotype with *phuR* promoter mutation in LB, we tested the growth of this strain and its isogenic WT during anoxic conditions. We were able to show that the strain with *phuR* promoter mutation grew slightly but significantly slower than its isogenic WT. To investigate additional phenotypes developing through *phuR* promoter mutation, we spotted the DK2 genotype strains in different solid surface agar plates alone or in combination with *S. aureus* JE2 WT. Interestingly; we observed a change in pigmentation from white to green/yellow along with increased inhibition of *S. aureus* in MM agar plates.

In conclusion, we demonstrate that overexpression of the *phu* system through an intergenic mutation leads to pleiotropic effect on expression of other genes. The effect was most dominant in adapted DK2 genotype and highly contingent on the environmental context. Furthermore, expression of PA4711, a gene located downstream of *phuR* is constantly upregulated along with the *phu* system genes. As this gene encodes an iron-sulfur protein possibly involved in energy metabolism of the cell, we propose that its upregulation leads to imbalance of the normal redox state of *P. aeruginosa*. Possible evidence for this hypothesis is enriched presence of 'energy metabolism' class of genes among those affected by the pleiotropic effects. Furthermore, we showed that *P. aeruginosa* isolate with the pleiotropic effect is slightly less fit to grow under anoxic conditions and this is possibly related to imbalance of the energy metabolism and redox state. We also propose that the pigmentation and increased inhibition of *S. aureus* are due to increased production of phenazines because phenazines are putative electron carriers involved in respiration under anaerobic conditions.

Chapter 7

Conclusions and perspectives

Investigations of bacterial genetic adaptation require a depth of knowledge on molecular mechanisms of evolution. All apparent pieces of the puzzle have to be considered in order to study bacterial evolution in new environments. With remarkable advances of NGS in recent years, a new chapter in the history of bacterial evolution has started. Evolutionary biologists have been able to reproduce evolution in controlled laboratory conditions and utilize sequencing technology to map patterns of genetic adaptation across genomes of related bacteria.

Furthermore, feasible models of natural evolution have also been exploited to study evolution of bacteria in natural environments. The main variable considered in these investigations is evolution of bacteria through acquisition of intragenic mutations.

The critical role of global regulators in phenotypic acclimation makes them common target of adaptive mutations facilitating large phenotypic changes in new environments. While intergenic regions are also frequently targeted by mutations in evolving isolates of bacteria, the potential adaptive role of these mutations have been ignored. Many of the assumption about evolutionary dynamics of bacteria and systems under positive selection in an environment are based on intragenic mutations leading to partial consideration of facts to draw important conclusions.

The work presented in this thesis reveals significant contributions by intergenic mutations to natural evolution of bacteria. We have considered natural evolution of bacteria in the CF airways and taken advantage of *P. aeruginosa* sequenced genomes isolated from this environment. The first study demonstrated that mutations in the promoter region of *phuR* encoding receptor for the *phu* system confer a growth advantage in presence of hemoglobin. As access to free iron is limited in CF airways, this intergenic mutation increased fitness in that environment. The observation of such pathoadaptive intergenic mutation acted as an inspiration to perform the second study. Here a comprehensive analysis was performed to

identify intergenic regions under positive selection for evolution in 534 genomes of *P. aeruginosa* isolated from 68 patients with chronic CF airway infection.

By performing this study, we established higher numerical contribution of intergenic mutations on within-host evolution of this *P. aeruginosa* in CF airways. Furthermore, we identified several genes and systems with previous established role in adaptation of *P. aeruginosa* in CF environment. Modulation of these genes through intergenic mutations should be considered for future studies of pathoadaptive systems in *P. aeruginosa*. We also provided a long list of hypothetical genes in regions under positive selection by intergenic mutations and the potential function of these genes on within-host evolution of *P. aeruginosa* remains to be elucidated by future studies. Functional investigation of these genes will unravel new details regarding their role in *P. aeruginosa* adaptation in CF environment. Testing the effect of remaining pathoadaptive mutations within our list through construction of reporter fusions and allelic replacement provides new paths for discovery of genes important for pathoadaptation of *P. aeruginosa* in CF airway.

We demonstrated that the core promoter is the main target by intergenic mutations and mutating this element leads to downregulation or upregulation of genes. Nonetheless, a number of mutations occur in unidentified intergenic elements but they significantly alter transcription of downstream genes. Future studies may identify presence of additional CRE or post-transcriptional regulatory element such as sRNA and define molecular mechanisms by which intergenic mutations target these elements. For this purpose, researchers can use RNA-seq, ChIP-seq, DNase footprinting, primer extension, EMSA and promoter probe experiments.

Intuitively, one can hypothesize that intergenic mutations confer more local and subtle regulatory changes in expression of downstream genes compared to intragenic mutations causing more deleterious effects on their targets. This can explain the larger numerical contribution of intergenic mutations on selection of pathoadaptive genes. In this way, intergenic mutations allow essential genes to become target of evolutionary changes. With a few exceptions, we also observed subtle changes in expression of genes affected by intergenic mutations.

In the third study, we sought to investigate this hypothesis on *phuR* intergenic mutation. We selected this mutation because it conferred more radical expression

changes on local genes. Interestingly, we discovered that the mutation upstream of *phuR* triggers extreme pleiotropic effects on expression of several other genes. This surprise finding goes against the hypothesis that intergenic mutations confer local effects. The *phuR* intergenic mutation conferred additional phenotypes such as increased inhibition of *S. aureus* through possible production of phenazines. Presence of additional microbial organisms such as *S. aureus* have previously been proposed to drive evolution of *P. aeruginosa* in CF airways^{138,139}. Nonetheless, there is little evidence for interaction of microbial species in CF airways and how that affects evolutionary dynamics of *P. aeruginosa*. Our study suggests that inclusion of intergenic mutations may provide new paths for investigations of microbial interactions in the CF environment.

The findings of the third study raise interesting perspectives for pleiotropic effects of intergenic mutations where major adaptive phenotypes can be established through acquisition of an intergenic mutation. Previous studies demonstrated roles for hypermutation and global regulatory mutations in rapid and permanent adaptation of *P. aeruginosa* in the CF environment^{20,35}. With results of this study, intergenic mutations with pleiotropic effects can be added to the list of important adaptive changes in this pathogen. However, it is unknown how widespread these pleiotropic effects are caused by intergenic mutations and whether they follow similar patterns. This can be investigated by allelic replacement of other mutations in laboratory strains or reversion of natural mutations to WT in adapted strain and further application of high-throughput RNA-seq or microarray to study pleiotropic effects.

While intergenic mutations confer independent roles in expression of genes, we identified multiple cases where presence of additional mutations was necessary for induction of the effect. In this context, the pleiotropic effect of *phuR* mutation was mostly present in adapted isolate of DK2-CF30-1979. This isolate contains all global regulatory mutations essential for rapid adaptation to the CF airway. We therefore propose that epistatic interactions are vital for induction of intergenic mutations effect. While intergenic mutations may confer independent effects on expression of downstream genes, the occurrence and contribution of intergenic mutations are largely intertwined with intragenic mutations. In essence, targets of intergenic mutations are components of regulatory network involved in phenotypic

acclimation and regulation of genes. Therefore in reality adaptation occurs through interaction of changes in both intergenic and intragenic regions.

One related limitation of our study is that we tested the effect of intergenic mutations in neutral laboratory backgrounds because it is easier to genetically manipulate and grow such strains in phenotype experiments. Although, we observe independent localized effects for many intergenic mutations in laboratory background, this compromise has to be considered when extrapolating results to actual conditions in CF airways. The same argument goes for testing mutations under controlled conditions of rich or minimal media. We demonstrated in all three studies that local or global effects of intergenic mutations are highly contingent on environmental context. Therefore it is difficult to extrapolate these results to actual condition of CF airways. To overcome these limitations, intergenic mutations can be tested in their naturally occurring isolates and be screened in *in vitro* models mimicking *in vivo* CF environment¹⁴⁰. Alternatively feasible animal models like mouse lung can be utilized for *in vivo* analysis of intergenic mutations¹⁴¹. Intergenic mutations affecting biofilm developments can be tested in flow-chamber biofilms¹⁴².

Studying evolution of bacteria through intergenic mutations is vital for comprehension of their pathogenic behavior in infections. When considering infection caused bacteria, major issues such as antibiotic resistance are common emerging threats posed by pathogens. With diminishing success in production of new antibiotics, alternative novel strategies have to be designed for control and eradication of bacterial infections. Investigating molecular mechanisms of resistance evolution is critical for design of these strategies. In our study, we demonstrated that genes related to antibiotic resistance and susceptibility are common targets by adaptive intergenic mutations. Considering interactions of intergenic and intragenic mutations is a new dimension in evolution of resistance. For example, we observed frequent co-occurrence of mutations upstream of *ampC* and within its coding regions where expression and activity of this β -lactamase can be controlled by intergenic and intragenic mutations.

Investigations of bacterial adaptation through intergenic mutations should not be limited to *P. aeruginosa* in the CF environment. Adaptive intergenic mutations have been observed in experimental or natural evolution of other

bacteria^{28,136}, therefore one can anticipate that this type of mutation is a major mediator of adaptation in bacteria. Nonetheless, while general results such as higher numerical contribution of intergenic mutations can be extrapolated to adaptation of other bacteria, considering intergenic mutations is critical for comprehension of evolutionary dynamics and adaptive systems in other bacteria. The methods and objectives of this thesis can serve an inspiration for future investigations of intergenic mutations in other bacteria.

Modulating expression of genes can be a key factor in biotechnology where productions of important life-saving molecules are carried out in bacterial cell factories. Fine-tuning of promoters in prokaryotic systems can increase expression of a desired protein¹⁴³. Directed evolution of genes lead to selection of desired proteins for production of molecules¹⁴⁴. Alternatively, evolution of *cis*-regulatory elements potentiates greater success for overexpression of products. Studying evolution provides critical knowledge for manipulation of bacteria because natural selection favors beneficial traits important for fitness. By experimental evolution, bacteria are forced to genetically adapt in new environments. Harnessing this knowledge can be applied for genetic manipulation of *cis*-regulatory elements in bacteria to improve yields of desired products or induce production of new novel products.

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Chapter 8

Research papers

The following chapter consists of full-length published articles or manuscripts prepared as part of my PhD project. The articles are enclosed in the following order:

Article 1

Marvig RL*, Damkiær S*, **Khademi SMH***, Markussen TM, Molin S, Jelsbak L. (2014) Within-Host Evolution of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* Reveals Adaptation Towards Iron Acquisition from Hemoglobin. *mBio* 5(3):e00966-14. doi:10.1128/mBio.00966-14.

Article 2

Khademi SMH, Jelsbak L. (2017) Contribution of non-coding intergenic mutations on within-host evolution of a human pathogen. *Manuscript submitted to Nature Microbiology*.

Article 3

Khademi SMH, Wassermann T, Kvich LA, Bjarnsholt T, Ciofu O, Jelsbak L. (2017) Adaptive mutation in a bacterial intergenic region cause pleiotropic effects on gene expressions. *Manuscript in preparation*.

* Denotes equal contribution

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Within-Host Evolution of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* Reveals Adaptation toward Iron Acquisition from Hemoglobin

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ABSTRACT *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* airway infections are a major cause of mortality and morbidity of cystic fibrosis (CF) patients. In order to persist, *P. aeruginosa* depends on acquiring iron from its host, and multiple different iron acquisition systems may be active during infection. This includes the pyoverdine siderophore and the *Pseudomonas* heme utilization (*phu*) system. While the regulation and mechanisms of several iron-scavenging systems are well described, it is not clear whether such systems are targets for selection during adaptation of *P. aeruginosa* to the host environment. Here we investigated the within-host evolution of the transmissible *P. aeruginosa* DK2 lineage. We found positive selection for promoter mutations leading to increased expression of the *phu* system. By mimicking conditions of the CF airways *in vitro*, we experimentally demonstrate that increased expression of *phuR* confers a growth advantage in the presence of hemoglobin, thus suggesting that *P. aeruginosa* evolves toward iron acquisition from hemoglobin. To rule out that this adaptive trait is specific to the DK2 lineage, we inspected the genomes of additional *P. aeruginosa* lineages isolated from CF airways and found similar adaptive evolution in two distinct lineages (DK1 and PA clone C). Furthermore, in all three lineages, *phuR* promoter mutations coincided with the loss of pyoverdine production, suggesting that within-host adaptation toward heme utilization is triggered by the loss of pyoverdine production. Targeting heme utilization might therefore be a promising strategy for the treatment of *P. aeruginosa* infections in CF patients.

IMPORTANCE Most bacterial pathogens depend on scavenging iron within their hosts, which makes the battle for iron between pathogens and hosts a hallmark of infection. Accordingly, the ability of the opportunistic pathogen *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* to cause chronic infections in cystic fibrosis (CF) patients also depends on iron-scavenging systems. While the regulation and mechanisms of several such iron-scavenging systems have been well described, not much is known about how the within-host selection pressures act on the pathogens' ability to acquire iron. Here, we investigated the within-host evolution of *P. aeruginosa*, and we found evidence that *P. aeruginosa* during long-term infections evolves toward iron acquisition from hemoglobin. This adaptive strategy might be due to a selective loss of other iron-scavenging mechanisms and/or an increase in the availability of hemoglobin at the site of infection. This information is relevant to the design of novel CF therapeutics and the development of models of chronic CF infections.

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Iron is an essential component for virtually all forms of life. This includes bacterial pathogens that depend on acquiring iron from their hosts in order to replicate and cause disease (1). A general defensive mechanism of the host is therefore to withhold iron from invading bacteria to prevent their growth, but this defense is countered by bacterial pathogens since they possess specific systems to scavenge iron from their hosts. While the regulation and mechanisms of several of such iron-scavenging systems are well described (1), not much is known about how the within-host selection pressures act on the pathogens' ability to acquire iron. This is especially relevant in relation to long-term chronic infections in which invading bacteria acquire adaptive mutations in response to the selective pressures encountered in the host.

The opportunistic pathogen *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is a common environmental inhabitant which is capable of causing long-

term chronic infections in the airways of patients with cystic fibrosis (CF), and *P. aeruginosa* infections are directly associated with the morbidity and mortality of CF patients. Chronic infections in CF patients provide an opportunity for long-term monitoring of the battle between the infecting bacteria and the host (2–6) and thus offer an opportunity for observing evolutionary adaptation of *P. aeruginosa* to the human host environment.

Most iron in the human body is bound in hemoglobin, which is an oxygen transport protein in red blood cells (1). If not bound by essential proteins, such as hemoglobin, iron is withheld and stored by binding to proteins like transferrin, lactoferrin, and ferritin. *P. aeruginosa* is known to scavenge iron from the human host by both siderophore-based systems and heme acquisition systems (7).

Siderophores are low-molecular-weight molecules secreted by

bacteria. The strong association of iron to siderophores enables them to remove iron from the human iron storage proteins, whereupon the siderophore-iron complex can be taken up by cognate receptors at the bacterial surface. The major siderophores secreted by *P. aeruginosa* are pyoverdine and pyochelin (7), and iron-loaded pyoverdine and pyochelin are taken up by the outer membrane receptors FpvA and FptA, respectively (8–10).

Alternatively, iron contained in the heme group of hemoglobin can be taken up by either of two heme uptake systems in *P. aeruginosa*. The two systems are the *Pseudomonas* heme utilization (*phu*) system and the heme assimilation system (*has*) (11). The two systems are different in the sense that the *phu* system is dependent on the direct uptake of heme by the outer membrane receptor PhuR, whereas the *has* system encodes a secreted hemophore, HasA, that returns heme to an outer membrane receptor, HasR.

Furthermore, *P. aeruginosa* can take up ferrous iron through the *feo* system (12) or ferric citrate through the *fec* system (13).

It is not clear in which way the different iron uptake systems in *P. aeruginosa* play a role for survival in the lungs of CF patients. Detection of pyoverdine in the sputa of some CF patients has led to the suggestion that pyoverdine plays a key role in the infection process (14, 15). On the other hand, measurements of the transcription levels of iron uptake systems in sputum samples have suggested that multiple systems are active and that siderophore-mediated uptake may not be the dominant iron acquisition mechanism in all patients (16, 17).

In an effort to understand the genetic adaptation of *P. aeruginosa* to the CF airways, we recently mapped all mutational changes in the *P. aeruginosa* DK2 lineage as it spread among 21 Danish CF patients by interpatient transmission (2). The study showed that the selective forces driving the evolution of *P. aeruginosa* in the CF airways could be inferred from convergent evolution of DK2 sublineages evolving in parallel in separate hosts. Here we further analyzed the genomic data, and we provide evidence that within-host evolution of *P. aeruginosa* is characterized by adaptation toward iron acquisition from hemoglobin.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Parallel evolution of mutations in the promoter regions of the *phu* system. It is known that *P. aeruginosa* undergoes genetic adaptation to CF patients during long-term chronic infections, and several studies have sequenced the genomes of *P. aeruginosa* isolates sampled longitudinally from the airways of CF patients to map the mutations that accumulate during infection (2–6). In one such study, we mapped all the mutations that had occurred in the *P. aeruginosa* DK2 lineage during 36 years of infection (2). Whole-genome analysis of 55 DK2 isolates enabled a fine-grained reconstruction of the evolutionary relationship of the DK2 lineage, and the study identified several genes to be targeted by mutation to optimize pathogen fitness within the host environment (pathoadaptation). Nonetheless, only intragenic mutations (i.e., mutations within genes) were examined to identify such pathoadaptive patterns of mutation. Here, we therefore reanalyzed the data with respect to intergenic regions, since selection might also act on such sequences due to their role in regulation and transcription of neighboring genes.

The 6,402,658-bp genome of the *P. aeruginosa* DK2 strain contains 4,883 intergenic regions with an average size of 146 bp, and the intergenic regions constitute a total of 714,368 bp. Marvig et al. (2) found 1,365 intergenic mutations, meaning that one would

expect an average-length intergenic region to be hit by 0.3 mutations (or 0.0019 mutation/bp). Searching for recurrent patterns of mutation of the same genetic loci makes it possible to identify positive selection for mutations affecting genes important for host adaptation (2, 18, 19). We therefore focused on the intergenic regions with the highest densities of mutations and interestingly found the 180-bp intergenic region containing the promoters of the *phu* system to be the most frequently mutated, with a total of 13 mutations (0.072 mutation/bp) (Fig. 1). This number of mutations is 38-fold higher than what would be expected by chance and represents a significant increase in mutation density [$P(X \geq 13) \sim \text{pois}(X; 0.342) = 2.22e-16$, where $P(X \geq 13)$ is the probability of observing ≥ 13 mutations given a Poisson distribution with a mean of 0.342 mutations (0.0019 mutation/bp * 180 bp)].

All of the 13 mutations are located within a narrow region from position -91 to -21 relative to the start codon of *phuR*, and eight of the mutations are within the annotated promoter regions of the *phu* system (Fig. 2). Furthermore, two positions (positions -35 and -57) were subject to convergent evolution, since they were independently mutated in parallel evolving DK2 sublineages.

Correlation between promoter mutations and *phu* transcription in isolates DK2-CF173-2005 and DK2-CF66-2008. Using Affymetrix GeneChips, we have previously measured the full transcriptomes of six of the 11 DK2 isolates listed in Fig. 1 (4), including four early DK2 isolates without *phu* promoter mutations and two isolates, DK2-CF173-2005 and DK2-CF66-2008, with *phu* promoter mutations. We hypothesized that the mutations, due to their location immediately upstream of *phuR* and *phuSTUVW*, could cause an effect on the transcription of the *phu* system. Accordingly, we found the transcription of the *phuRSTUVW* genes to be upregulated in both of the mutated isolates (DK2-CF173-2005 and DK2-CF66-2008) relative to that for their ancestors and a laboratory reference strain PAO1 (Fig. 3). Most highly upregulated was *phuR*, showing 116- and 25-fold upregulation, respectively, but also, the genes of the *phuSTUVW* operon were on average upregulated 8- and 4-fold, respectively.

The *phu* system is negatively regulated by the ferric uptake regulator (Fur) (11). As an alternative hypothesis, we therefore speculated that the increased transcription of the *phu* system in DK2-CF173-2005 and DK2-CF66-2008 might be due to a decreased level or activity of the Fur protein. Nonetheless, no mutations or changes in transcription of the *fur* gene were found (Table 1) (2).

Furthermore, in order to determine if iron acquisition systems in general were subject to evolutionary changes in transcription, we searched the transcriptomes for other iron acquisition systems to be differentially transcribed. This search revealed that the *feo* operon, encoding a ferrous iron uptake system (12), was upregulated in DK2-CF66-1973 and the four isolates sampled after 1973 (Table 1), indicating that several iron acquisition systems might play a role in adaptation of *P. aeruginosa* to the human host airways.

Effect of intergenic mutations on activities of *phu* system promoters. To further investigate the effect of the *phu* promoter mutations on the activity of the *phuR* promoter, we cloned the *phuR* promoter region from six of the mutated DK2 clones in front of a luciferase reporter (*luxCDABE*) and chromosomally integrated the transcriptional fusion into *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 at the *attB* site by use of the mini-CTX2-derived plasmid pHK-CTX-lux. The transcriptional fusions enabled us to compare *phuR::lux*

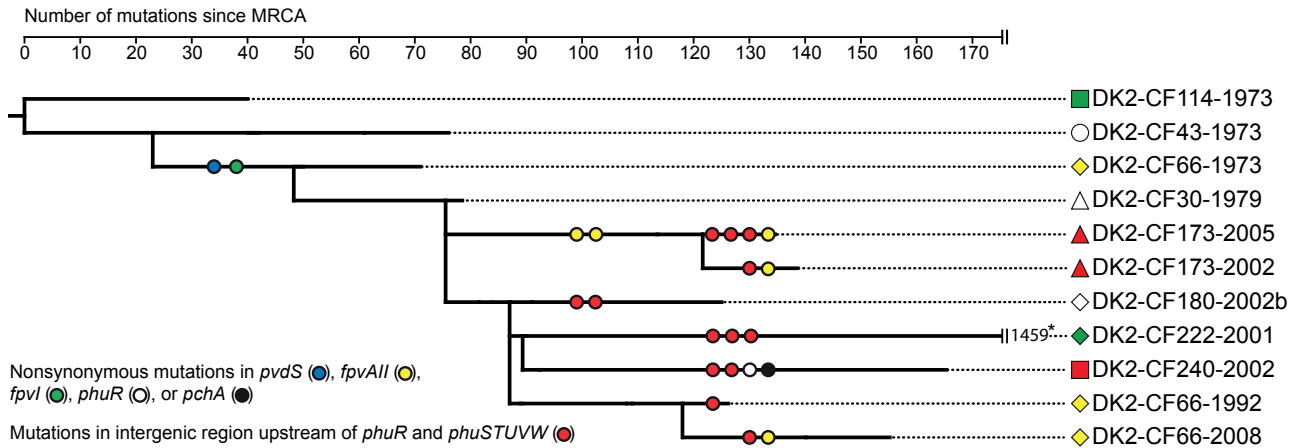


FIG 1 Maximum-parsimony phylogenetic tree showing the genetic relationship of the 11 DK2 clones included in this study. The phylogenetic tree is a subset of a phylogenetic tree from the work of Marvig et al. (2), who recently reported the genome sequences of 55 DK2 isolates. The shown tree depicts the genetic relationship of the 11 DK2 isolates included in this study, and it represents a total of 1,827 mutations (1,486 SNPs and 311 insertion/deletions) identified from whole-genome sequencing. Lengths of branches are proportional to the numbers of mutations except in the case of the truncated branch leading to isolate DK2-CF222-2001. For this hypermutator isolate, the large number of mutations is indicated at the end of the truncated branch. We searched the genomes for nonsynonymous mutations within genes encoding components of the pyoverdine, pyochelin, *phu*, *has*, *feo*, and *fec* iron acquisition systems (7, 11–13), and circles on the evolutionary branches denote that the specified gene is mutated in the branch. Due to the large number of mutations in the branch leading to the hypermutable isolate DK2-CF222-2001, only *phuR* and *phuSTUVW* intergenic mutations are specified. *, in addition to the three *phuR* and *phuSTUVW* intergenic mutations, this branch also contains nonsynonymous mutations in *pvdS*, *pvdI*, *fpvI*, the FpvAII gene, *fpvR*, *phuR*, *fptA*, *pchH*, *pchG*, *pchF*, *pchE*, and *pchD* (2).

expression from the mutated promoter regions (M1 to M6) (Fig. 2) relative to the expression from a construct with a wild type promoter region (WT) (Fig. 2). A construct without an inserted promoter region was used to correct for background expression from *lux* gene cassette integration.

Measurements of *phuR::lux* expression at exponential growth (optical density at 600 nm [OD₆₀₀] = 0.15) in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium revealed that all six mutant alleles (M1 to M6) caused a significant increase in promoter activity, with changes in expression from 5- to 112-fold (Table 2). The largest increases in expressions (93- and 112-fold) were observed for the alleles M1 and M2,

originating with clones DK2-CF66-2008 and DK2-CF173-2005, respectively. The M1 and M2 alleles contain a 3-bp insertion and a 1-bp deletion, respectively, in the repressor-binding site (Fur box) of the Fur regulator, known to control the expression of the *phuR* promoter (11). Since Fur mediates strong repression of *phuR* under iron-rich conditions (11), we find it likely that the indels in the M1- and M2-derived *phuR* promoters alleviate Fur repression (if there is any repression from Fur).

Using the same cloning strategy, we tested a *phuS::lux* reporter fusion to compare the expression from the mutated promoter region of DK2-CF173-2005 to the expression from a construct

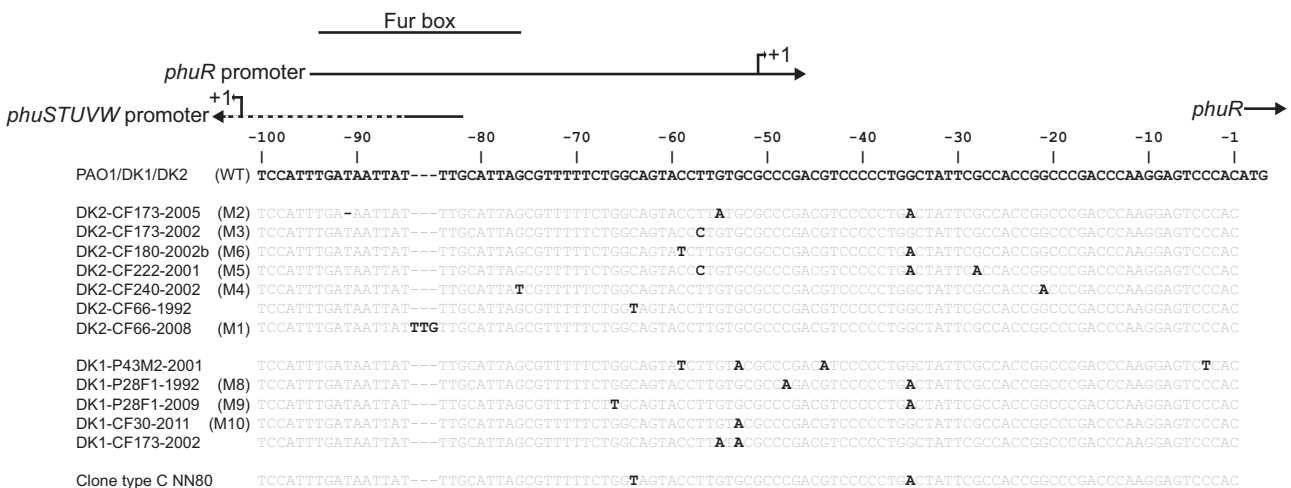


FIG 2 Overview of the intergenic region upstream of *phuR*. The alignment shows homologue sequences from different isolates with genetic variants highlighted in bold. Wild-type sequences of *P. aeruginosa* strains PAO1, DK1, DK2, and C are shown at the top of the alignment. Abbreviations of sequence alleles from different isolates are indicated in parentheses (WT and M1 to M10). Positions of promoters and a Fur box are indicated with black lines above the alignment (the *phuSTUVW* promoter is only partially shown). Positions are relative to the start codon of *phuR*.

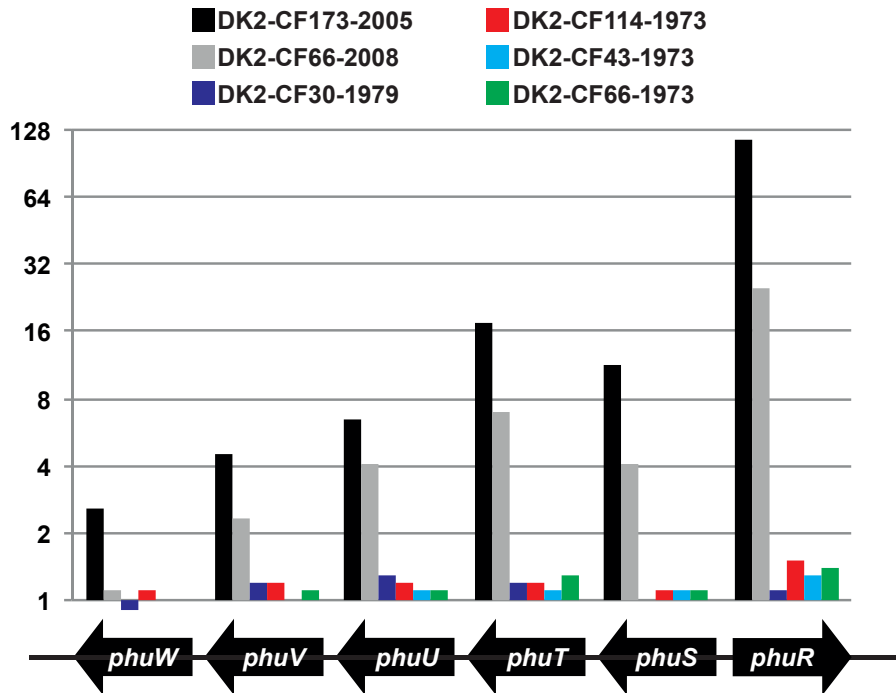


FIG 3 Relative transcriptional levels of genes encoding the *phu* system. The transcriptomes of six of the DK2 isolates included in this study have previously been measured at exponential growth phase in LB medium (4). The expression of the *phu* genes is shown for each of the six clinical isolates relative to that for laboratory reference strain PAO1. Values are averages for three replicates, and the values are normalized relative to the transcription of the respective gene in strain PAO1.

with a wild-type promoter region. Similar to the results for the *phuR* promoter, we observed that the mutations also resulted in a significant ($P = 0.01$) increase in *phuS* promoter activity (Table 2), albeit the mutations had a larger effect on the activity of the *phuR* promoter.

***phuR* promoter mutations confer a growth advantage in the presence of hemoglobin.** The increased expression from the mutated *phu* promoters suggested that there has been positive selection in the CF airways toward iron acquisition from hemoglobin. To test this hypothesis, we replaced the wild-type *phu* promoters of isolate DK2-CF30-1979 with the mutated *phu* promoters of isolate DK2-CF173-2005 by allelic replacement and tested whether the constructed mutant strain, DK2-CF30-1979-M2, had a growth advantage relative to the isogenic wild-type strain, DK2-CF30-1979. We chose to test the consequence of the *phu* promoter mutations in the genetic background of isolate DK2-CF30-1979 because this isolate is an immediate ancestor of isolate DK2-CF173-2005 (4). For the growth experiment, we used FeCl_3 -free

ABTGC minimal medium (which contains glucose and Casamino Acids), supplemented with hemoglobin and apotransferrin.

Confirming our hypothesis, we found that the allelic replacement mutant DK2-CF30-1979-M2 grew significantly faster than its isogenic wild-type counterpart when hemoglobin was present as the sole iron source (Table 3), while no difference was observed for rich medium and medium supplemented with Fe^{3+} as the sole iron source. We suggest that the growth advantage of the mutant is facilitated by an enhanced uptake of iron derived from hemoglobin.

Adaptation toward heme utilization is a general adaptive mechanism. Our results demonstrate parallel adaptation of the DK2 lineage toward hemoglobin utilization in five different CF patients. This indicates that similar selective conditions for heme utilization exist across different patients. Next, we speculated on whether the acquisition of *phu* promoter mutations is an adaptive mechanism specific to the DK2 lineage or if *phuR* promoter mutations constitute a general adaptive genetic mechanism of

TABLE 1 Relative transcriptional levels of *fur* and genes encoding the *feo* iron acquisition pathway^a

Gene	Relative transcription in strain:						
	PAO1	DK2-CF114-1973	DK2-CF43-1973	DK2-CF66-1973	DK2-CF30-1979	DK2-CF173-2005	DK2-CF66-2008
<i>feoA</i>	1	2.9	1.6	16.7	21.2	21.6	28.1
<i>feoB</i>	1	2	1.6	5.1	6	6.8	13.4
<i>feoC</i>	1	1.3	1.5	2.3	2.8	2.4	4.4
<i>fur</i>	1	1.1	1.5	1.4	0.9	1.1	1

^a The transcriptomes of six DK2 isolates included in this study have previously been measured at exponential growth phase in LB medium (4). We searched the transcriptomes for genes encoding components of the pyoverdine, pyochelin, *phu*, *has*, *feo*, and *fec* iron acquisition systems (7, 11–13), and the table lists the transcription profiles of those systems in which at least one gene showed differential expression (>3 -fold change) in the post-1973 isolates relative to that in the 1973 isolates or strain PAO1. Also, the transcription of the *fur* gene is shown. Values are averages for three replicates, and the values are normalized relative to the transcription of the respective gene in reference strain PAO1.

TABLE 2 Activities of the *phuR* and *phuS* promoters originating with different clinical isolates of *P. aeruginosa*^a

Strain	Promoter	Origin of promoter	Allele	Mean luminescence (± SD)	Fold change	<i>P</i> value
PAO1	<i>phuR</i>	PAO1	WT	365 (±1,018)	1	
PAO1	<i>phuR</i>	DK2-CF66-2008	M1	34,111 (±3,379)	93	0.00021
PAO1	<i>phuR</i>	DK2-CF173-2005	M2	40,726 (±3,422)	112	0.00004
PAO1	<i>phuR</i>	DK2-CF173-2002	M3	1,879 (±3,422)	5	0.16
PAO1	<i>phuR</i>	DK2-CF240-2002	M4	7,584 (±496)	21	0.00038
PAO1	<i>phuR</i>	DK2-CF222-2001	M5	8,968 (±610)	25	0.00023
PAO1	<i>phuR</i>	DK2-CF180-2002	M6	6,723 (±701)	18	0.00088
PAO1	<i>phuR</i>	DK1-P28F1-1992	M8	13,329 (±1,482)	37	0.00024
PAO1	<i>phuR</i>	DK1-P28F1-2009	M9	12,205 (±603)	33	0.00007
PAO1	<i>phuR</i>	DK1-CF30-2011	M10	9,563 (±1,586)	26	0.0011
PAO1	<i>phuS</i>	PAO1	WT	7,444 (±1,777)	1	
PAO1	<i>phuS</i>	DK2-CF173-2005	M2	12,030 (±3,191)	1.6	0.01

^a Luminescence production from laboratory reference strain PAO1 (37) with *phuR::lux* reporter fusions was measured at exponential growth (OD₆₀₀ = 0.15) in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium and normalized for differences in cell density. Mean luminescence production and standard deviations (SD) were calculated for three biological replicates. Statistical analysis concerning the difference between two means was done using a Student *t* test, and the *P* values denote the probability of the mutated alleles having expression equal to that of the wild type (WT).

P. aeruginosa toward heme utilization in the CF airways. To further investigate the generality, we compared our findings to other lineages of *P. aeruginosa* isolated from CF infections.

In addition to the DK2 lineage, our previous investigations have revealed another distinct clone type, known as the DK1 clone type, which has also spread among Danish CF patients (21). We sequenced and analyzed the *phuR* promoter region of five DK1 isolates sampled in the years 1992 to 2011 in addition to an ancestral DK1 isolate from 1973. Whereas the sequence of the *phuR* promoter of the ancestral 1973 isolate (DK1-P33F0-1973) was identical to the wild-type sequence of strains PAO1 and DK2, all five evolved DK1 isolates had accumulated 1 to 4 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in the promoter region, and three of the DK1 SNPs were identical to SNPs found in the evolved DK2 isolates (Fig. 2). We tested the activities of three of the mutated promoters from the DK1 isolates (M8 to M10) and found that all three mutated promoters resulted in increased levels of transcription, similar to what has been observed for mutated DK2 alleles (Table 2). Our results provide strong evidence for convergent adaptive evolution of different lineages of *P. aeruginosa* toward iron acquisition from hemoglobin.

To rule out that the adaptive trait was specific for *P. aeruginosa* CF infections at the Copenhagen CF Center, we analyzed the available public data for the genomic evolution of the *P. aeruginosa* C lineage, which was isolated from a patient attending the CF clinic at Hannover Medical School, Germany (6). Interestingly, the C lineage, which has colonized this patient for a period of more than 20 years, also accumulated two SNPs in the *phuR* promoter region (Fig. 2). Remarkably, the two SNPs are identical to SNPs found in

the DK1 and DK2 lineages, and this observation suggests that these mutations were also positively selected for in the host environment.

The research team at Hannover Medical School also investigated the microevolution of a PA14 lineage as it infected a patient over 14 years. Nonetheless, the PA14 lineage did not accumulate SNPs in any iron acquisition systems. Likewise, a lineage investigated by Smith et al. (5) over an infection course of 90 months also did not reveal any mutations in iron acquisition systems, except for a nonsynonymous mutation in *pvdS* (which correlated with the loss of pyoverdine production) and an intergenic SNP upstream of *fptA* (5). We therefore conclude that despite an apparent selection for *phu* promoter mutations in three independent *P. aeruginosa* lineages, not all lineages accumulate *phu* promoter mutations during CF infections.

Selection against pyoverdine secretion might lead to a shift in iron source. The siderophore pyoverdine has previously been found in sputum of CF patients, and thus pyoverdine-mediated uptake of iron has been considered important for the survival of *P. aeruginosa* in the CF airways (14). Nonetheless, we observed that all three lineages (DK1, DK2, and C) had accumulated nonsynonymous mutations in the alternative sigma factor PvdS, which is required for pyoverdine synthesis (Fig. 1 and Fig. 4). Accordingly, the evolved C clone NN80 was observed to have lost its ability to produce pyoverdine, in contrast to its predecessors (C clones NN2 and NN11) (6).

This led us to examine the production of pyoverdine in the DK1 and DK2 isolates, and we observed a negative correlation between pyoverdine production and mutations in PvdS (Fig. 5).

TABLE 3 Growth rates of strains DK2-CF30-1979 and DK2-CF30-1979-M2 at exponential growth phase in different media^a

Growth medium	Doubling time (h)		<i>P</i> value
	DK2-CF30-1979	DK2-CF30-1979-M2	
LB	1.27 ± 0.05	1.35 ± 0.07	0.16
ABTGC + 10 μM Fe ³⁺	2.74 ± 0.02	2.69 ± 0.03	0.23
ABTGC + 10 μM Fe ³⁺ + 100 μg/ml apo-TF	3.08 ± 0.10	3.07 ± 0.04	0.91
ABTGC + 2.5 μM Hb + 100 μg/ml apo-TF	2.76 ± 0.24	2.13 ± 0.09	0.01

^a The abbreviations Hb and apo-TF are used for hemoglobin and apotransferrin, respectively. Note that the ABTGC minimal medium standard recipe was modified so that no iron source other than the one stated in the table was added to the growth medium. Mean doubling times were calculated from three biological replicates. Statistical analysis concerning difference between two means was done using a Student *t* test, and the *P* values denote the probability of the two strains having equal means.

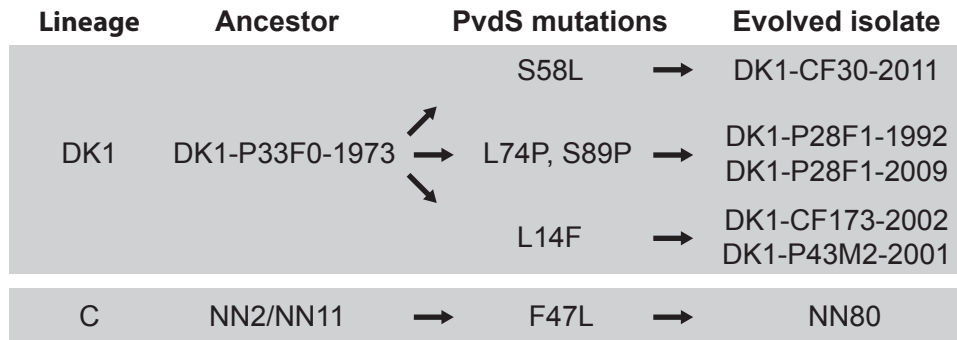


FIG 4 Overview of *pvdS* mutations in the DK1 and C lineages. Mutations that have accumulated in evolved isolates relative to sequences of their ancestor are shown. The *pvdS* mutation found in the DK2 lineage is shown in Fig. 1.

Accordingly, only the ancestral DK1 and DK2 isolates carrying wild-type alleles of *pvdS* were able to produce pyoverdine, whereas all isolates carrying mutated alleles of *pvdS* were unable to produce pyoverdine (DK1-CF173F-2002 was not tested).

Siderophores are generally regarded as highly immunogenic (22), and selection against pyoverdine production might have driven the accumulation of *pvdS* mutations, leading to a loss of pyoverdine production in the evolved isolates. At the same time, we observed a positive selection for *phuR* promoter mutations in the CF airways, leading to a bacterial growth advantage when acquiring iron from hemoglobin. We therefore propose a model in which the CF airways impose selective pressure on the invading bacteria, forcing them to adapt toward a shift to hemoglobin as an alternative iron source. This is of particular interest because in-

flammation may cause microbleeds, which lead to the presence of hemoglobin at the delicate CF lung epithelia in the presence of both host and bacterial proteases (23). Also, hemoglobin is reported to be expressed by alveolar epithelial cells (24).

Other iron acquisition systems might be affected by mutations. Several iron acquisition systems and mutations other than the ones that we have investigated in detail here might play a role in survival of *P. aeruginosa* in the lungs of CF patients. Accordingly, we also found nonsynonymous mutations in the FpvAII gene and the genes *fpvI*, *fpvR*, *phuR*, *pchA*, *pchDEFGH*, and *fptA* when searching for mutations in genes of the pyoverdine, pyochelin, *phu*, *has*, *feo*, and *fec* iron acquisition systems (Fig. 1). We anticipate that the identification of such mutations can facilitate further investigations of the adaptation of *P. aeruginosa* to human

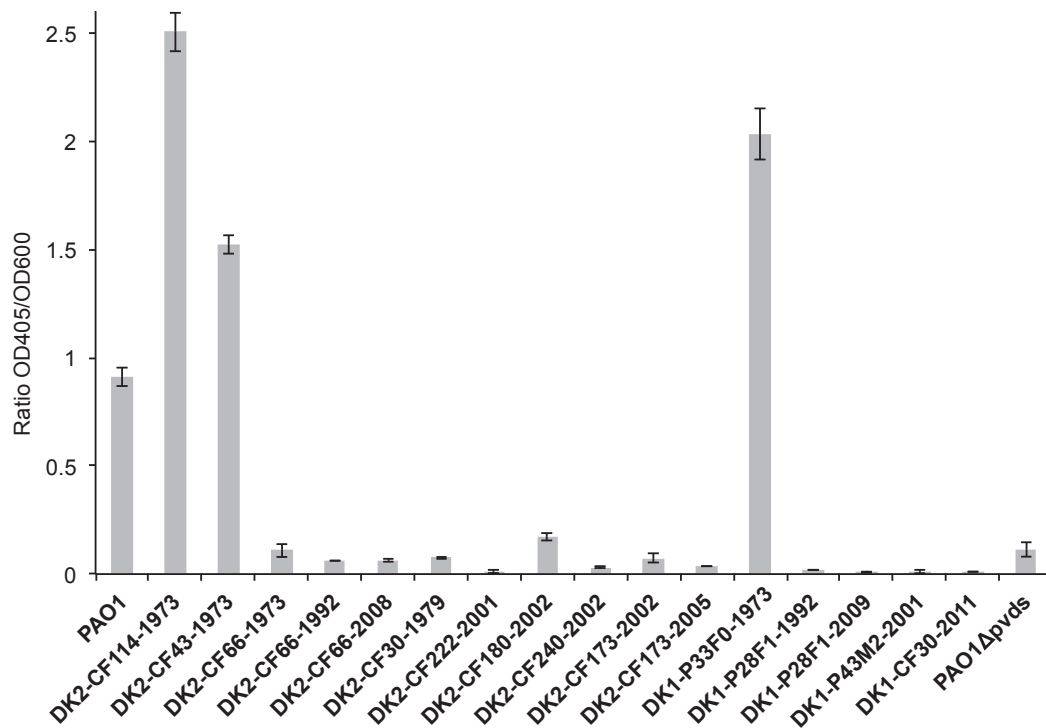


FIG 5 Pyoverdine production in isolates of *P. aeruginosa*. The presence of pyoverdine secreted into the supernatant of bacterial cultures grown in pyoverdine-inducing medium was quantified by measurement of the absorbance at OD₄₀₅ and normalized against the cell density (OD₆₀₀). The means and standard deviations calculated from three biological replicates are shown in the bar plot.

host airways. For example, it remains to be elucidated whether the mutations in the *pch* and *fptA* genes affect the function of the pyochelin iron uptake system in the DK2 lineage and if isolates with mutations in the pyoverdine system are unable to cheat on other pyoverdine producers.

Conclusions and implications. Our results provide evidence that the selective conditions by which evolution is directed in the CF airways can result in acquisition of *phu* promoter mutations in *P. aeruginosa* during chronic CF infections and that such mutations provide a growth advantage in relation to acquisition of iron from hemoglobin. This adaptive trait may be directly selected for due to an abundance of heme-bound iron in the CF lung. Furthermore, we also observed that *phu* promoter mutations coincided with the loss of pyoverdine production, suggesting that selection for increased heme utilization may be secondary to the loss of the pyoverdine iron uptake system. Therefore, targeting heme utilization might be a promising strategy for the treatment of CF infections.

CF patients commonly experience iron deficiency, and *P. aeruginosa* possibly contributes to iron deficiency by depletion of the host iron storage and by causing inflammation (25, 26). In this regard, expanding our knowledge of adaptation of *P. aeruginosa* to the CF lung may help to lessen the impact of *P. aeruginosa* infection and improve the condition of patients.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and media. Isolates of the *P. aeruginosa* DK1 and DK2 clone types were sampled from Danish CF patients attending the Copenhagen Cystic Fibrosis Clinic. Isolation and identification of *P. aeruginosa* from sputum were done as previously described (27). The isolates are named according to their clone type, the patient from whom they were isolated, and their isolation year (e.g., isolate DK2-CF30-1979). Luria-Bertani (LB) broth was used for routine preparations of bacterial cultures. ABTGC minimal medium was composed of 2 g/liter (NH₄)₂SO₄, 6 g/liter Na₂HPO₄, 3 g/liter KH₂PO₄, 3 g/liter NaCl, 1 mM MgCl₂, 0.1 mM CaCl₂, 0.01 mM FeCl₃, 2.5 mg/liter thiamine supplemented with 1% glucose, and 0.5% Casamino Acids. For the growth rate experiments (Table 3), no FeCl₃ was added to ABTGC minimal medium unless otherwise stated. Human hemoglobin (Sigma-Aldrich) and human apotransferrin (Sigma-Aldrich) were added to concentrations of 2.5 μM and 100 μg/ml, respectively. Pyoverdine-inducing medium was composed of ABTGC minimal medium with 50 μM iron chelator 2,2'-dipyridyl (DIPY). *Escherichia coli* strain CC118(Δ*pir*) was used for maintenance of recombinant plasmids (28) in medium supplemented with 8 μg/ml of tetracycline. Allelic replacement constructs were transferred to *P. aeruginosa* by triparental mating using the helper strain *E. coli* HB101/pRK600 (29). For marker selection in *P. aeruginosa*, 50 μg/ml of tetracycline was used. Genetic techniques were performed using standard methods, and Sanger sequencing was used for verification of genetic construct and allelic replacement mutants.

Sequencing of *phuR* promoter region and *pvdS* gene in DK1 isolates. Sequencing of DK1 isolates was performed as described earlier (4). Accordingly, genomic DNA was purified from *P. aeruginosa* isolates using a Wizard Genomic DNA purification kit (Promega, Madison, WI) and sequenced on Illumina's GAIIx or HiSeq2000 platform. Reads were mapped against the reference genome sequence using the software program Novoalign (Novocraft Technologies, Selangor, Malaysia) (30), and pileups of read alignments were produced by the software program SAMtools, release 0.1.7 (31).

Construction of reporter fusions and luminescence measurements. The *lux* gene cassette (*luxCDABE*) was subcloned from the plasmid pUC18-mini-Tn7T-Gm-*lux* (32) fragment into mini-CTX2 (33) using the restriction sites XhoI and PstI to produce pHK-CTX2-*lux*, used for the

transcriptional fusion experiments. For *phuR::lux* reporter fusions, a 220-bp fragment containing the intergenic region upstream of *phuR* was amplified from genomic DNA using Phusion polymerase (Thermo Scientific) with the primers PhuR_F-PstI (5' GAGACTGCAGAGGCTGGGAG TGCTGCTCAT 3') and PhuR_R-XhoI (5' ACATCTCGAGAAGGGCGG GGAGAGCGGCAT 3') and ligated with T4 DNA ligase into pHK-CTX2-*lux* after double digestion of the PCR fragment and vector with the restriction enzymes XhoI and PstI. For *phuS::lux* reporter fusions, a 220-bp fragment containing the intergenic region upstream of *phuS* was amplified with the primers PhuS_F-XhoI (5' ACATCTCGAGAGGCTG GGAGTGCTGCTCAT 3') and PhuS_R-PstI (5' GAGACTGCAGAAGG GCGGGGAGAGCGGCAT 3') and ligated into pHK-CTX2-*lux* after double digestion of the PCR fragment and vector with the restriction enzymes XhoI and PstI. The resulting plasmids were introduced into *P. aeruginosa* strain PAO1 by transformation as previously described (32).

Allelic replacement of *phuR* promoter region in DK2-CF30-1979. A 1,296-bp fragment containing the intergenic region upstream of *phuR* was amplified from genomic DNA of DK2-CF173-2005 using Phusion polymerase (Thermo Scientific) with the primers PhuSi_F-XbaI (5'-ACATT CTAGACGGACGTCGCTGGCCTCG-3') and PhuRi_R-SacI (5'-GAGA GAGCTCTCTCGTGGCCCTGGCGGTAG-3'). The PCR fragment was ligated into the vector pNJ1 (34) after digestion with the restriction enzymes XbaI and SacI. The allelic replacement construct was transferred into strain DK2-CF30-1979 by triparental mating, and merodiploid mutants were selected by plating the conjugation mixture on LB agar plates with tetracycline. Colonies were restreaked on selective plates before being streaked on 8% (wt/vol) sucrose-LB plates without NaCl. Sucrose-resistant and tetracycline-sensitive colonies were restreaked on sucrose-LB plates and screened for the presence of mutated alleles by PCR followed by restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) analysis. Positive mutants were finally sequenced by Sanger sequencing at LGC genomics (Germany).

Measurement of growth and luminescence in reporter fusion strains. Overnight cultures of the reporter fusion strains were diluted 40 times in fresh LB, and aliquots of 100 μl were transferred to a black (clear-bottom) 96-well microtiter plate (Nunc). Three technical replicates were used for each strain, and measurements of growth (OD₆₀₀) and luminescence were recorded in a Synergy Hybrid H1 reader (Bio-Tek) with 6-min intervals for 10 h and under shaking conditions (200 rpm) at 37°C. Data were analyzed using a custom-made script in the R software environment, version 2.15.2 (35). The experiment was repeated three times to obtain biological replicates.

Growth rate measurements. Growth rate experiments were carried out in 250 ml baffled shake flasks containing 50 ml of growth medium under shaking (200 rpm) at 37°C. Culture flasks were inoculated to a starting OD₆₀₀ of 0.005 in 50-ml minimal medium, and measurements of OD₆₀₀ were started 9 h after the inoculation and recorded every 30 min. In the experiment where the cells were cultivated in LB, the measurements were started after 2 h. The experiment was stopped when the cells reached stationary growth phase, typically after around 23 h of growth in minimal medium. Growth experiments were repeated three times for each strain under each condition to obtain biological replicates.

Pyoverdine quantification assay. Pyoverdine concentrations were quantified as previously described (36). All strains were grown in pyoverdine inducing medium for up to an OD₆₀₀ of >1.5. Cultures were moved into 2-ml microcentrifuge tubes and centrifuged at 16,000 × g for 2 min. The supernatants were diluted in 100 mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH 8), and pyoverdine concentrations were quantified by measurement of the absorbance at OD₄₀₅. Finally, the values of absorbance at OD₄₀₅ were normalized against the cell densities (OD₆₀₀) for each strain. The procedure was repeated for three independent biological replicates.

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1 **Contribution of non-coding intergenic mutations on within-host evolution of a**
2 **human pathogen**

3

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12 Bacterial pathogens evolve during the course of infection as they adapt to the
13 different selective pressures that confront them inside the host. The evolutionary
14 mechanisms that operate *in vivo* are not fully understood and determining the
15 molecular basis of beneficial changes that underlies host adaptation remains a
16 central challenge. Broadly defined, adaptive mutations can be divided into two
17 functionally distinct types: Mutations that change protein structure and function (*i.e.*
18 mutations within coding regions) or mutations that modify protein expression levels
19 (*i.e.* mutations in intergenic *cis*-regulatory elements). Studies of pathogen adaptation
20 have focused predominantly on molecular evolution within coding regions whereas
21 the role of adaptive mutations in intergenic regions has received comparably less
22 attention. As a consequence, the extent to which intergenic mutations contribute to
23 bacterial host adaptation remains unclear.

24 Here, we analyze recurrence of evolution in intergenic regions in 44 clonal lineages
25 of the opportunistic pathogen *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* as they adapt to their
26 human hosts. We identify 88 intergenic regions in which parallel molecular evolution
27 occur in multiple lineages or isolates. At the genetic level, we find that mutations in
28 these regions under selection are most often located upstream of transcriptional
29 start sites, and within regulatory elements. At the functional level, we show that
30 these mutations may both create or destroy regulatory interactions in connection to
31 transcriptional processes, and that they are directly responsible for the evolution of
32 important pathogenic phenotypes such as reduced sensitivity to antibiotics.
33 Importantly, our results show that intergenic mutations are more likely to be
34 selected than coding region mutations, and thus contribute more to this pathogen's
35 host adaptation than previously realized.

36 **Results**

37 *Parallel evolution in intergenic regions in P. aeruginosa.*

38 To investigate the contribution of intergenic mutations to bacterial adaptation to the
39 selective pressures in the host, we considered data from seven studies¹⁻⁷ in which
40 multiple clonal *P. aeruginosa* isolates have been sampled and sequenced during the
41 course of infection in subjects with cystic fibrosis (CF). We focused our analysis
42 exclusively on intergenic regions in which mutations were acquired during infection,
43 and included only intergenic regions also present in the PAO1 reference genome⁸. In
44 total, we identified 3,489 mutations (2,025 SNPS and 1,464 indels) in the intergenic
45 regions of the 44 different *P. aeruginosa* clone types included in our data set
46 (Supplementary Table 1). Since the majority of regulatory elements in the bacterial
47 genome range between 5-30 bp in length⁹, we considered an intergenic mutation
48 within a region as potentially beneficial only when at least two additional distinct
49 clone types contained a mutation in the same intergenic region and when these
50 mutations would all be clustered in a narrow region of less than 30 bp. Furthermore,
51 we imposed the criteria that this cluster of mutations should be positioned less than
52 200 bp from at least one of the neighboring genes. The probability of finding three
53 distinct clone type mutations within a narrow cluster of 30 bp in an intergenic region
54 within our dataset is 23 folds higher than what would be expected by chance and a
55 significant increase in mutation density (Online Methods, Poisson, $P = 1.07e-5$).
56 Applying these criteria, we identified 62 intergenic regions in which mutations have
57 accumulated in parallel in different clone types (Figure 1).
58 Since certain *P. aeruginosa* clone types are transmissible and can form clinic-specific
59 outbreaks among patients^{4,10,11}, we also analyzed if distinct intergenic mutations had

60 accumulated in parallel among clonal isolates within each of the 44 clone type. We
61 identified 41 intergenic regions in which three or more distinct mutations (less than
62 30 bp apart) had accumulated in isolates of the same clone type (Figure 1).
63 Interestingly, 15 of these regions are also represented among the 62 regions
64 identified in our analysis of parallel mutations between clone types providing further
65 support for the importance of these mutations in adaptation of *P. aeruginosa* to the
66 CF environment (Figure 1). In total, we identify 88 intergenic regions that evolved
67 under the pressure of natural selection within the hosts. The connection between
68 these 'pathoadaptive' regions and their flanking genes identify genetic systems with
69 importance for pathogen adaptation and provide insight into the selective forces that
70 operate on the pathogen.

71

72 *Pathoadaptive intergenic mutations target distinct cellular functions.*

73 To investigate cellular functions that were potentially affected by pathoadaptive
74 intergenic mutations, we recorded the PseudoCap functional class¹² of the two genes
75 flanking each of the 62 intergenic regions that had acquired mutations in parallel in
76 different clone types (Supplementary Table 4). This analysis revealed an over-
77 representation of the classes '*antibiotic resistance and susceptibility*' and '*energy*
78 *metabolism*' (Binomial, $P < 0.05$, $n = 124$, Supplementary Table 5).

79 Successful bacterial pathogenesis depends on both metabolic adaptation to exploit
80 the available nutrients for growth¹³ as well as mechanisms to tolerate antibiotics and
81 other inhibitors in the host¹⁴. In the case of *P. aeruginosa*, our data show that these
82 two critical processes are targets of molecular evolution in intergenic regions during
83 CF infection. Similar functional targets have been found in several other studies

84 focusing on pathoadaptive coding regions^{15,16,1,4,6}, which suggest that little if any
85 qualitative difference exist between adaptive mutations in intergenic and coding
86 region sequences at this level of analysis. We also note that our data revealed a
87 substantial level of interaction between intergenic and coding sequence mutations,
88 suggesting that these mutational processes are not completely disconnected. The
89 average frequency of co-occurrence between intergenic mutations and mutations in
90 the flanking coding sequence was 11% among the 62 pathoadaptive regions selected
91 across clone type (Supplementary Table 6). For example, 36% of the isolates that
92 contain adaptive mutations in the intergenic region of *phuR-phuSTUVW* genes
93 (which result in increased expression of the *phuR* and *phuSTUVW* encoded heme
94 uptake system)¹⁷, also contain mutations in the outer membrane heme receptor
95 *phuR* gene (Supplementary Table 6). Regulatory mutations can potentiate evolution
96 of complex phenotypes by increasing the effect of other (structural) mutations¹⁸, and
97 it is possible that the co-occurrences of intergenic and coding sequence mutations
98 discovered here exemplify related interplays between regulatory and structural
99 mutations.

100

101 *Intergenic mutations frequently target promoter sequences.*

102 We next analyzed the genomic distribution of intergenic mutations. Non-coding
103 intergenic regions are distributed across the genome in three possible orientations:
104 1) upstream of two genes, 2) downstream of two genes and 3) upstream of one gene
105 and downstream of one gene (Figure 2a). We found an over-representation of
106 mutations upstream of two genes among the pathoadaptive regions selected across
107 clone types (Binomial, $P = 0.003$, $n = 62$, Figure 2b). This bias towards selection of

108 intergenic mutations upstream of genes suggest that the majority of intergenic
109 mutations target potential *cis*-regulatory elements such as the core promoter,
110 transcription factor binding sites, ribo-regulators, or translational elements, and
111 consequently influence protein expression levels by affecting transcriptional or
112 posttranscriptional processes.

113 To further explore this hypothesis, we analyzed the complete set of 88
114 pathoadaptive regions for the presence of known regulatory elements (Online
115 Methods), and mapped the overlap between these putative regulatory sites and the
116 identified adaptive mutations. While bacterial intergenic regions are home to a wide
117 range of regulatory elements many of which are not well characterized, we
118 nevertheless observed 28 regions (32%), in which the cluster of adaptive mutations
119 was positioned within one or several putative regulatory elements. The majority of
120 mutations within these 28 regions target the putative core promoter alone or in
121 combination with other elements (Figure 2c), suggesting that intergenic mutations
122 frequently target sequences important for transcriptional processes. In support of
123 this, we observed that intergenic mutations were more frequently located upstream
124 of known transcriptional start sites (TSS) (37 cases) than downstream (10 cases)
125 (Supplementary Table 7).

126

127 *Pathoadaptive intergenic mutations change transcriptional activity of genes involved*
128 *in host interaction, metabolism, and antibiotic susceptibility.*

129 To further explore this potential relationship between intergenic mutations and
130 transcription, we quantified the effects of a subset of intergenic mutations on
131 transcription of downstream genes. To this end, we constructed transcriptional

132 fusions of both wild-type and mutant intergenic alleles with the luciferase reporter
133 (*luxCDABE*) genes and integrated single copies of the fusions at the neutral *attB*
134 site¹⁷ in the chromosome of *P. aeruginosa* PAO1. The DK2 clone type contains a large
135 proportion of the 88 pathoadaptive intergenic regions (Figure 1), and we measured
136 the transcriptional activity of DK2-specific alleles of 25 randomly selected regions in
137 which pathoadaptive mutations were located upstream of either one or two genes.
138 This selection resulted in a total of 32 transcriptional fusions, which represent 33% of
139 all possible fusions within the complete set of 88 pathoadaptive regions. In addition,
140 for one of the intergenic regions (*ampR//ampC*), we tested two alleles each with
141 different mutations (Supplementary Table 9 and Supplementary Figure 1).
142 Measurements of *lux* expression during exponential growth in Luria-Bertani (LB)
143 medium and ABTGC minimal medium¹⁹ revealed significantly altered expressions in
144 16 of 34 tested fusions in at least one of the two conditions (Student t test, $P < 0.05$)
145 (Figure 3). Altered expression was in most cases moderate (<3-fold change) and
146 ranged between -3.1 to 22.1 fold changes for the mutant allele compared to that of
147 wild type (Figure 3). Interestingly, ten of these 16 fusions exhibited altered
148 expressions only in either LB or ABTGC minimal medium¹⁹, but not in both
149 conditions, which suggest that many adaptive intergenic mutations alter
150 transcriptional levels while not interfering with conditional control mechanisms.
151 Overall, our results reveal that a substantial fraction of the intergenic mutations are
152 associated with functional (transcriptional) effects despite the fact that we recorded
153 these effects in the non-native PAO1 genetic background (*i.e.* with removal of
154 potential epistatic effects from the additional mutations found in DK2) and in a

155 narrow range of conditions, which most likely mean that we are not capturing the
156 full spectrum of functional effects connected to the intergenic mutations.

157 Several of the 16 fusions with altered expression relate to genes that encode
158 proteins with known functions in bacteria-host interactions, cellular metabolism, and
159 antibiotic resistance. For example, *cerN* expresses a ceramidase involved in
160 utilization of host produced sphingolipids²⁰, *exsC* expresses a protein involved in
161 positive regulation of the type III secretion system²¹, and PA4837 is the first gene in
162 an operon (PA4837-34) involved in expression of a siderophore system essential for
163 survival in airway mucus secretions²². Other genes are known to play a role in
164 pyrimidine and aromatic amino acid metabolism (*pyrC* and *hmgA*, respectively).
165 Finally, two genes are linked to antibiotic resistance *rluC*²³ and *ampR*²⁴. Seven genes
166 encode proteins of unknown functions and their role in relation to host adaptation
167 remains unclear.

168 Interestingly, expression changes were observed in both directions (seven mutant
169 alleles resulted in increased expression, and nine mutant alleles resulted in
170 decreased expression) (Figure 3), suggesting that pathoadaptive intergenic
171 mutations may equally well either create or destroy regulatory interactions.

172

173 *Mutations upstream of ampR and ampC enhance resistance to several antibiotics*

174 Finally, we explored the direct effects of intergenic mutations on the physiology of
175 the pathogen. As resistance towards antibiotics is a common phenotype that
176 emerges during CF infections, we selected the mutations found in the two alleles of
177 the *ampR//ampC* intergenic region for further study. Mutations in this intergenic
178 region resulted in enhanced expression of the global antibiotic resistance regulator

179 AmpR, but had no direct effect on expression of the AmpC β -lactamase (Figure 3). To
180 this end, we introduced these mutations in the genome of *P. aeruginosa* PAO1
181 through allelic replacement (Online Methods). Since a SNP mutation (G7A) was
182 present at the start of *ampC* gene in one of the alleles, we also made an allelic
183 replacement of this mutation alone in the PAO1 genome to separate the effects
184 caused by the intergenic mutations (supplementary Figure 1). For each strain and
185 their isogenic wild type, we measured the Minimal Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) of
186 various β -lactam antibiotics such as imipenem, ceftazidime and ampicillin from
187 carbapenem, cephalosporin, and penicillin classes of β -lactams respectively. For both
188 intergenic alleles, we observed a small but significant increase in the MIC of to
189 imipenem and ampicillin (Student t test, $P < 0.01$, Figure 5), but not ceftazidime.
190 AmpR regulates β -lactam resistance both through direct activation of AmpC
191 expression as well as via an AmpC-independent manner²⁴. Irrespectively of the
192 mechanism, our results show that acquisition of intergenic mutations between *ampR*
193 and *ampC* is directly linked to a relevant phenotypic alteration (*i.e.* reduced β -lactam
194 susceptibility).

195

196 **Discussion**

197 It is now possible to begin to assess the relative contribution of intergenic and coding
198 region mutations to pathogen adaptation. Focusing on the DK2 lineage, previous
199 work documented parallel molecular evolution in 65 genes in this lineage⁴, and here
200 we have identified 15 intergenic regions with convergent evolution within DK2
201 (Figure 1). Although coding region mutations are numerically dominant over
202 intergenic mutations, normalization to the mutational targets available for intergenic

203 and coding region mutations (89.8% of the *P. aeruginosa* genome contains coding
204 regions), reveal that the ratio of adaptive intergenic to coding region mutations is
205 close to 2:1. In other words, intergenic mutations are more likely to be selected than
206 coding region mutations, and thus play a quantitatively more prominent role in
207 relation to this pathogen's host adaptation. The factors that influence the relative
208 contribution of intergenic versus coding region mutation are difficult to disentangle,
209 but may be related to the composition of the adaptive environment. The CF host
210 niche is characterized by a complex combination of multiple stressors that must be
211 mitigated for successful bacterial colonization. As such, our result resonates well
212 with recent results showing that adaptive intergenic mutations underlie the
213 innovation of novel functions in laboratory-evolving *Escherichia coli*^{25,26}.

214 At the functional level, our data demonstrate that the transcriptional process is the
215 primary target of adaptive intergenic mutations. Combined with previous reports
216 documenting that mutations in transcription factors leading to systemic remodeling
217 of transcriptional network is frequently observed in *P. aeruginosa* CF isolates²⁷, our
218 results suggest that mutations that either locally or globally change transcriptional
219 regulatory interactions to change protein expression levels are a major mediator of
220 *P. aeruginosa* host adaptation.

221 Determination of the quantitative and qualitative contributions of different
222 categories of mutations is crucial for predictions of evolutionary trajectories during
223 host colonization, and may inspire new therapeutic directions.

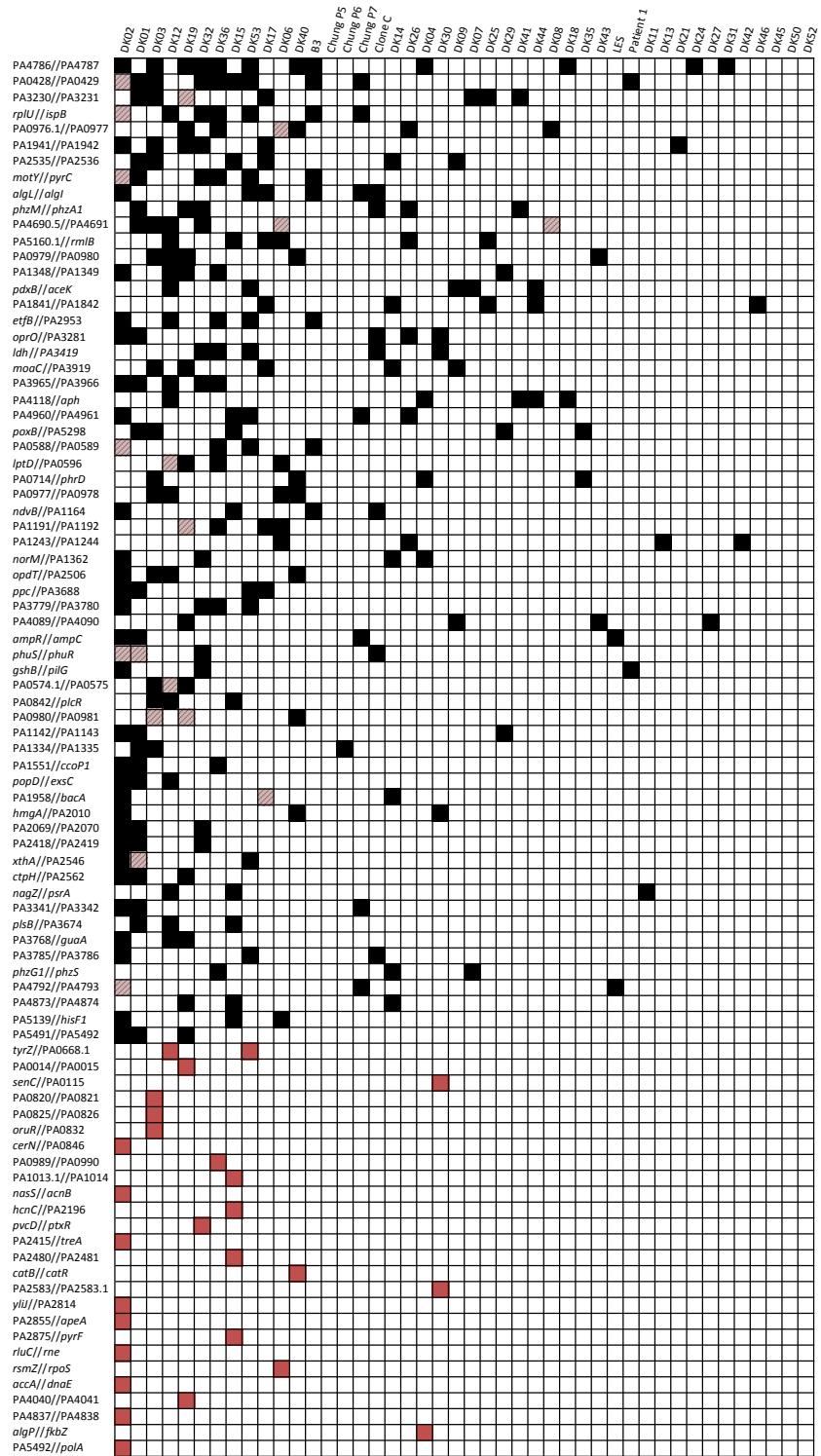
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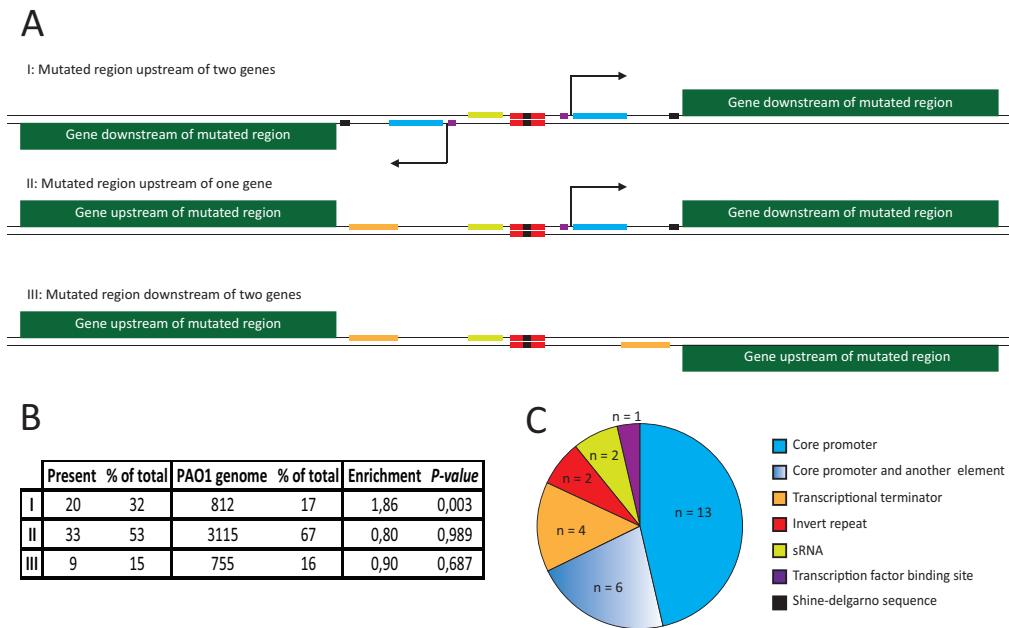
231 **Author contributions**

232 S.M.H.K and L.J. conceived study and designed research. S.M.H.K. performed
233 research. S.M.H.K and L.J. analyzed data and wrote the manuscript.



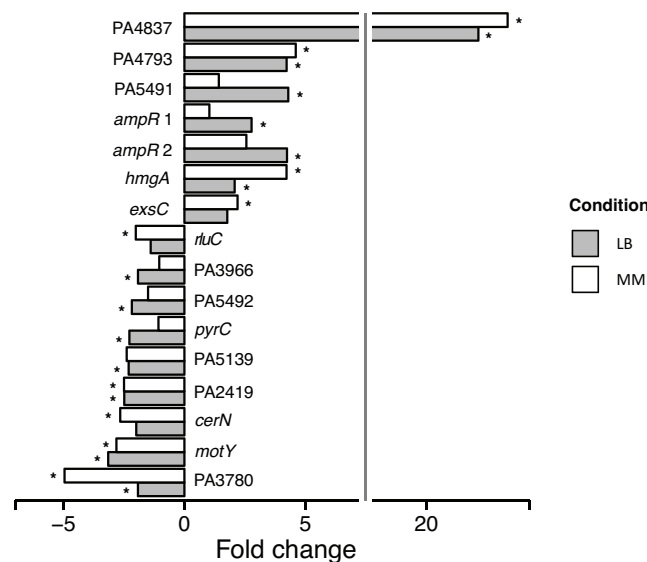
234

235 **Figure 1** Pathoadaptive intergenic regions. Regions targeted by mutations involved in host adaptation through
 236 parallel evolution across or within clone types. The black squares in the matrix demonstrate whether the
 237 intergenic region acquired mutations in isolates of the respective clone type. The red squares in the matrix show
 238 that the intergenic region has been selected for mutations within isolates of a distinct clone type alone. Squares
 239 with striped red color indicate regions that have been selected by mutations within isolates of that distinct clone
 240 type in addition to being selected by intergenic mutation across other clone type.



241

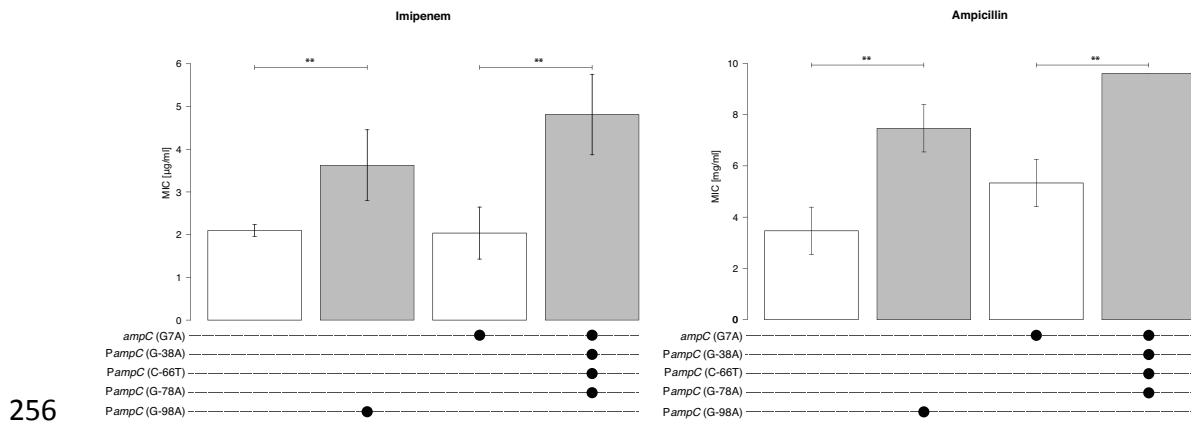
242 **Figure 2** A) Overview of the three different orientations of intergenic regions and the possible location of
 243 potential elements within each type. B) Distribution of different orientations of intergenic regions (I-III) within
 244 PAO1 genome and the pathoadaptive regions selected across clone types (n = 62). C) pie chart demonstrating the
 245 distribution of putative intergenic elements targeted by pathoadaptive intergenic mutations among regions
 246 where the mutation cluster was within any known element (n = 28).



247

248 **Figure 3** Overview of transcriptional fusion results. Expression of *lux* from transcriptional fusions with selected
 249 mutated regions were measured at OD₆₀₀ = 0.15 and normalized by cell density. Transcriptional fusions are
 250 examined under two different condition of Luria-Bertani (LB) and ABTGC minimal media¹⁹. Mean luminescence
 251 was calculated for three biological replicates of fusions with mutated and wild type regions and the relative fold

252 change caused by the mutation was consequently calculated. Statistical analysis of the difference between two
 253 means was performed by a two-tailed student t test and the asterisk denotes $P < 0.05$. Detailed description of the
 254 results with origin of the mutated regions, mutations not causing a significant change and presence of mutations
 255 within putative intergenic elements can be found in Supplementary Table 9.



257 **Figure 4** Mutations in the intergenic region between *ampC* and *ampR* cause an increased tolerance towards
 258 imipenem and ampicillin. The values for Minimal Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) and the constructed mutations
 259 in each strain of PAO1 are shown. Mutation G-98A upstream *ampC* derives from isolate DK2-CF173-1995. Three
 260 mutations G-38A, C-66T and G-78A upstream of *ampC* originate from DK1-P43-M2-2002. A SNP mutation at the
 261 start of *ampC* (G7A) in DK1-P43-M2-2002 was also constructed in laboratory strain PAO1 to isolate the effect of
 262 this mutation and the effect of intergenic mutations from DK1-P43-M2-2002. Error bars indicate standard
 263 deviation from three different biological replicates. Double asterisk indicate significant difference between mean
 264 MIC of the strains (Student t test, $P < 0.01$).

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416

417 **Online Methods**

418

419 *Assembly of the dataset used for identification pathoadaptive intergenic regions*

420 We imported called variants in the intergenic regions of CF adapted *P. aeruginosa*
421 isolates from six longitudinal studies¹⁻⁶. To have all variants against one common
422 reference genome, we only considered those with coverage in *P. aeruginosa* PAO1
423 reference⁸ genome and omitted all other variants. In addition, Marvig *et al.* 2013⁷
424 reported the draft genome sequence of four *P. aeruginosa* B3 strains isolated from a
425 chronically infected Danish CF patient that underwent antibiotic chemotherapy, over
426 a period of 4 years. Here, we called for the variants in the genomes of these isolates
427 and identified a total of 315 mutations (237 SNPs and 78 indels) when mapping the
428 reads to the reference PAO1 genome.

429 In total we identified 3,489 intergenic mutations across 44 different clone types.
430 Detailed description of the dataset can be found in Supplementary Table 1 and 2.

431

432 *Definition of clone types*

433 To establish existing genetic variation between all 44 recognized clones of *P.*
434 *aeruginosa* used in this study and avoid parallel observation of identical clones, we
435 performed MLST analysis on genome of each clone. Briefly, available whole genome
436 sequence or assembled contigs of DK1, DK2, B3, PACS2, LES were used as source
437 material for query of MLST profile by the *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* MLST website³⁶.
438 For all remaining clones, sequence reads from one isolate of each clone were
439 retrieved from the sequence read archives database and *de novo* assembled in
440 Geneious 7.1.7³⁷ using Velvet assembly 7.0.3³⁸ plugin with Velvet optimizer defined

441 parameters. Sequence reads from Chung P5, Chung P6 and Chung P7 clones were
442 unavailable and the determined ST are reported by the publication itself³. Assembled
443 contigs were analyzed for MLST allele profiles using *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* MLST
444 website³⁶. Overview of MLST results can be found on Supplementary Table 3.

445

446 *Identification of pathoadaptive regions*

447 We defined a clone type mutation as one mutation within an intergenic region when
448 one or multiple mutations within that region are observed in isolates of that clone
449 type. Using this definition, we observed a total of 2,715 clone type mutations.
450 Pathoadaptive intergenic regions are characterized as regions important for
451 adaptation to the host environment. They are therefore expected to be targeted by
452 multiple mutations acquired in parallel by different isolates. In order to distinguish
453 such mutations from random mutations introduced by genetic drift, we defined an
454 intergenic region as pathoadaptive when it is targeted by 3 or more distinct clone
455 type mutations occurring in a cluster of less than 30 bp apart from each other.
456 Furthermore, the cluster has to be less than 200 bp away from at least one of the
457 flanking genes to have a potential effect on that gene. We also included regions
458 targeted by multiple similar clusters each containing two distinct clone type
459 mutations. To rule out the contribution of any sequencing artifact in intergenic
460 mutations, identical mutations among different isolates from the same study were
461 counted as one clone type mutation. As *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 genome has 4,682
462 intergenic regions constituting a total of 631,498 bp, we expect 0.0043 clone type
463 mutation/bp rate (2,715 distinct clone type mutations in total) for intergenic regions.
464 However observing three distinct clone type mutations in a 30 bp intergenic region

465 cluster (0.1 mutation/bp) is 23 folds higher than what would be expected by chance
466 and a significant increase in mutation density [$P(X \geq 3) \sim \text{pois}(X; 0.13) = 1.07e-5$,
467 where $P(X \geq 3)$ is the probability of observing ≥ 3 mutations given a Poisson
468 distribution with a mean of 0.13 mutations (0.0043 mutation/bp * 30 bp)]. We
469 applied these criteria for identification of pathoadaptive regions selected across
470 clone types. Furthermore, for identification of pathoadaptive regions selected within
471 each clone type, we applied the same criteria but only looked for 3 distinct isolate
472 type mutations within a narrow cluster of less than 30 bp.

473

474 *Identification of putative intergenic elements*

475 The position of putative intergenic elements including the core promoter,
476 transcription factor binding site, transcriptional terminator, invert repeat, small RNA
477 (sRNA) and shine-delgarno sequence were mapped within pathoadaptive regions.
478 We used BPROM³⁹, CollecTF⁴⁰, PRODORIC⁴¹, RegTransBase⁴² and the Pseudomonas
479 Genome Database (PGD)¹² to map putative promoters, transcription factor binding
480 sites, shine-delgarno sequences and invert repeats. To increase the number of
481 annotated promoters in *P. aeruginosa*, we utilized the findings of a recent study that
482 validated putative binding sites of sigma factors in *P. aeruginosa* genome with RNA
483 and/or ChIP-seq. A detailed description of present promoters and whether they have
484 been targeted by intergenic mutations are available in Supplementary Table 8. We
485 also used ARnold and PGD^{12,43-46} for identification of putative transcriptional
486 terminators. Presence of sRNAs within pathoadaptive intergenic regions were
487 confirmed by a recent study reporting over 500 novel sRNAs within intergenic

488 regions of *P. aeruginosa* genome⁴⁷. We mapped the position of mutations to the
489 identified putative elements (Supplementary Table 7).

490

491 *Construction of reporter fusions*

492 Twenty five intergenic regions upstream of 32 genes were randomly selected from
493 isolates of DK2 with mutations represented in the cluster. We also included regions
494 upstream of *ampC* and *ampR* from DK1-P43-M2-2002⁴⁸. Mutated intergenic regions
495 upstream of 32 genes were amplified from genomic DNA of corresponding isolates
496 (Supplementary Table 9) using Phusion polymerase and primers described in
497 Supplementary Table 10. The PCR fragments and the pHK-CTX2-*lux*¹⁷ plasmid were
498 double digested with restriction enzymes *XhoI* and *PstI* and ligated together with T4
499 DNA ligase (Thermo Scientific). Similarly, wild type region upstream of all 32 genes
500 were also amplified from DK2-CF30-1979 and cloned upstream of *lux* in pHK-CTX2-
501 *lux*. The presence of mutations and the intergenic regions in resulting plasmids were
502 verified using Sanger sequencing at LGC Genomics. The plasmids were introduced
503 into *P. aeruginosa* strain PAO1 by transformation as previously described⁴⁹.

504

505 *Measurements of growth and luminescence in reporter fusion strains*

506 Overnight cultures of reporter fusions strains were diluted 200 times in fresh Luria-
507 Bertani (LB) medium and aliquots of 100 µl were transferred to black clear bottom
508 96-well microtiter plate (Greiner). Three biological replicates were prepared for each
509 fusion on the same day and measurements of growth (OD₆₀₀) and luminescence
510 were recorded by Cytation 5 multimode reader (BioTek) every 6 minutes for 8 hours
511 at 200 rpm shaking condition and 37 C temperature. The luminescence values at

512 OD₆₀₀ = 0.15 were normalized by cell density and recorded for all fusions.
513 Background luminescence from a PAO1 strain containing the promoterless *lux*
514 cassette was measured in the same way and it was corrected for on luminescence
515 expressions of all strains. Data were analyzed using a custom-made script in the R
516 software environment, version 3.1.3⁵⁰. Student t test was performed to examine the
517 statistical difference between the mean of three biological replicates.

518

519 *Allelic replacement of intergenic region upstream ampC and ampR in PAO1*

520 A 1,361 bp fragment containing the intergenic region upstream of *ampC* and *ampR*
521 was amplified from genomic DNA of DK1-P43-M2-2002 and DK2-CF173-1995 using
522 Phusion polymerase and primers *ampRi-F-XbaI* and *ampCi-R-SacI* (Supplementary
523 Table 10). The PCR fragments and vector pNJ1⁵¹ were double digested with *XbaI*
524 and *SacI* and ligated together using T4 DNA ligase. As the sequence of *ampC* gene
525 from laboratory strain PAO1 differed from that of DK2 and DK1 isolates, we
526 amplified the 1,361 bp fragment from DK2-CF30-1979 to obtain a pNJ1 plasmid with
527 wild type copy of the *ampR//ampC* intergenic region. Moreover, an additional
528 mutation (G7A) was found at the start of *ampC* in DK1-P43-M2-2002. To isolate the
529 effect of *ampR//ampC* intergenic mutations from this isolate, we created the *ampC*
530 mutation (G7A) in the pNJ1 plasmid containing wild type region using QuickChange
531 Lightning Multi site directed mutagenesis kit (Agilent Technologies). All ligation
532 mixes were electroporated into *E. coli* CC118λpir⁵² and transferred into strain PAO1⁵³
533 by triparental mating using helper strain *E. coli* HB101/pRK600⁵⁴. After incubation
534 overnight, merodiploid mutants were selected by plating the conjugation mixture on
535 LB agar plate with 50 µg/ml tetracycline. Colonies were streaked on 6% (wt/vol)

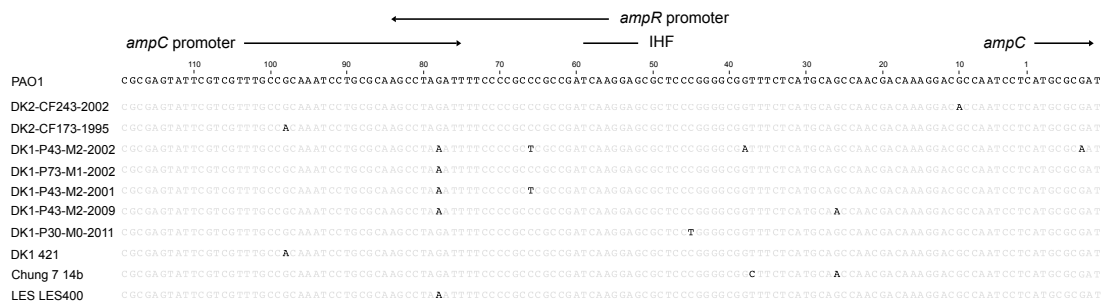
536 sucrose-LB plates without NaCl for several times until when they became sensitive to
537 tetracycline. Sucrose-resistant/tetracycline sensitive colonies were finally streaked
538 on sucrose-LB plates and allelic replacement mutants were verified by Sanger
539 sequencing at LGC Genomics.

540

541 *Minimal Inhibitory Concentrations*

542 MICs were determined using two ways. For MICs of imipenem and ampicillin
543 standard broth microdilution. Overnight cultures of PAO1 strains with and without
544 intergenic mutations upstream *ampR* and *ampC* were diluted in Mueller-Hinton
545 (MH) broth to an $OD_{600} = 0.02$. Serial dilutions were performed in clear 96-well
546 microtiter plates (Greiner) to obtain gradient concentrations of imipenem and
547 ampicillin in MH broth. Aliquots of 100 μ l were inoculated in each well containing
548 100 μ l of MH broth with different concentrations of imipenem and ampicillin. We
549 inoculated two technical replicates of each strain on each microtiter plate. Microtiter
550 plates were incubated overnight at 37 C with 200 rpm shaking condition. Minimal
551 Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) was defined as the lowest concentration of antibiotic
552 where visible growth was observed. We repeated the experiment five times to
553 obtain five biological replicates. For ceftazidime, MIC was determined using E-test
554 provided by manufacturer protocols (BioMerieux). Briefly, cultures of strains grown
555 overnight in MH broth were diluted to $OD_{600} = 0.5$, 100 μ l was spread on MH agar
556 plates and a sterile strip of ceftazidime E-test was placed on the plate. The values
557 were measured after 22 hours incubation of the plates at 37 C and the E-test was
558 performed in triplicate.

559 **Supplementary Information**



560

561 **Supplementary Figure 1** Overview of the intergenic mutations upstream of *ampR* and *ampC*. The alignment
 562 shows similar sequences of this region from different isolates of four clone types where genetic variants are
 563 highlighted in bold. Position of putative elements identified (Online Methods) and the start codon of *ampC* are
 564 demonstrated (IHF: Integration Host Factor). Positions are relative to the start codon of *ampC*. Wild type
 565 sequence of the region from reference genome PAO1⁸ is shown at the top of the alignment.

Supplementary Table 1: Overview of the dataset used in this study to identify pathoadaptive intergenic regions. Intergenic mutations from seven longitudinal studies of *P. aeruginosa* adaptation to the CF environment were imported and mapped against reference strain PAO1 genome. Pathoadaptive intergenic regions selected across clone types (interclonal) or within clone types (intraclonal) were identified using certain criteria (Online Methods). Detailed description of the dataset is available at Supplementary Table 2.

Isolates	534
Patients	68
Clone types	44
Total mutations	22.491
Intergenic SNPs	2.024
Intergenic indels	1.465
Total Intergenic mutations	3.489
Intergenic clone type mutations	2.715
Total mutated intergenic regions	1.610
Intergenic mutations frequency (mut/bp)	0,0043
Pathoadaptive regions selected intraclonally	26
Pathoadaptive regions selected interclonally	47
Pathoadaptive regions selected both intraclonally and interclonally	15
Interclonal pathoadaptive regions shared by different geographical locations	24%

Supplementary Table 2: Overview of the dataset used in this study. The identified MLST type, number of patients, isolates and description of mutations representing 44 clones. ND: not determined

	MLST	Patients	Isolates	Total SNPs	Intergenic SNPs	Total indels	Intergenic indels	Total mutations	Total intergenic mutations	Number of intergenic regions mutated
B3	ST-17	1	4	237	23	78	26	315	49	47
DK01	ST-387	1	10	3271	333	353	132	3624	465	393
DK2	ST-386	21	55	6785	686	1085	301	7870	987	685
DK03	ST-560	2	26	864	124	134	58	998	182	108
DK04	ST-2238	1	18	32	4	61	31	93	35	27
DK06	ST-845	4	35	319	52	158	45	477	97	72
DK07	ND	1	6	9	1	25	11	34	12	11
DK08	ST-1068	2	14	274	42	60	25	334	67	52
DK09	ST-1822	1	20	40	3	104	43	144	46	40
DK11	ST-160	1	2	3	2	3	2	6	4	3
DK12	ST-443	2	23	577	90	180	64	757	154	122
DK13	ST-381	1	15	58	4	56	16	114	20	17
DK14	ND	1	14	17	0	78	32	95	32	29
DK15	ND	2	23	648	68	247	109	895	177	150
DK17	ST-2192	1	28	35	2	125	54	160	56	41
DK18	ST-389	1	7	8	1	12	7	20	8	7
DK19	ST-253	4	36	184	20	142	73	326	93	67
DK21	ST-379	1	5	15	0	13	6	28	6	6
DK24	ND	1	6	8	2	11	6	19	8	7
DK25	ST-207	1	6	15	2	18	9	33	11	11
DK26	ST-27	3	14	218	35	73	27	291	62	58
DK27	ST-709	1	8	21	4	24	12	45	16	12
DK29	ST-676	1	13	9	2	50	19	59	21	18
DK30	ST-235	2	2	161	23	16	6	177	29	23
DK31	ND	1	7	9	2	21	10	30	12	10
DK32	ST-132	1	18	462	53	176	60	638	113	96
DK35	ST-179	1	14	28	3	47	15	75	18	17
DK36	ST-395	3	33	1329	150	321	110	1650	260	209
DK40	ST-252	2	3	400	70	22	10	422	80	45
DK41	ND	1	18	15	2	103	30	118	32	28
DK42	ST-1455	1	2		0	2	2	2	2	2
DK43	ND	1	2	14	0	6	3	20	3	3
DK44	ND	1	7	3	1	19	12	22	13	13
DK45	ND	1	4	3	0	9	7	12	7	6
DK46	ST-926	1	2	1	0	5	1	6	1	1
DK50	ND	1	2	0	0	2	2	2	2	2
DK52	ST-1677	1	2	3	1	0	0	3	1	1
DK53	ST-809	1	12	464	59	131	45	595	104	80
Chung P5	ND	1	2	51	2	38	8	89	10	10
Chung P6	ST-245	1	2	1	0	8	5	9	5	4
Chung P7	ND	1	2	342	22	93	19	435	41	40
Clone C	ND	1	3	916	87			916	87	85
PACS2	ST-1394	1	2	46	5	22	3	68	8	8
LES	ST-146	7	7	416	44	49	9	465	53	49
Total		68	534	18311	2024	4180	1465	22491	3489	2715
Average		2	12	426	46	97	34	511	79	62
Median		1	7	40	4	49	15	105	31	25

Supplementary Table 3: Description of the identified MLST pattern in isolates of each clone type. ND: the full MLST pattern is not determined and only recognized partially with some of the alleles recognized. NR: all 7 alleles of MLST pattern are recognized but the pattern has not been reported before. NA: the MLST pattern is not available either due to lack or low quality of isolate sequences

	MLST	acs	aro	gua	mut	nuo	pps	trp
B3	ST-17	11	5	1	7	9	4	7
DK01	ST-387	28	5	11	11	4	12	3
DK2	ST-386	17	5	11	18	4	10	3
DK03	ST-560	5	5	57	13	1	40	3
DK04	ST-2238	6	10	1	3	27	4	7
DK06	ST-845	11	5	1	7	4	4	7
DK07	ND	15		36	11	64	13	1
DK08	ST-1068	23	5	11	7	1	12	137
DK09	ST-1822	142	14	25	6	1	1	8
DK11	ST-160	11	5	6	32	4	6	26
DK12	ST-443	15	5	5	5	50	4	1
DK13	ST-381	11	20	1	65	4	4	10
DK14	NR	5	43	109	6	1	16	131
DK15	ND	140		42		48		32
DK17	ST-2192	35	8	27	3	15	7	3
DK18	ST-389	17	22	5	3	1	14	3
DK19	ST-253	4	4	16	12	1	6	3
DK21	ST-379	39	5	11	28	4	4	63
DK24	NR	11	5	11	5	3	4	3
DK25	ST-207	47	4	5	33	1	6	40
DK26	ST-27	6	5	6	7	4	6	7
DK27	ST-709	40	6	19	11	4	15	9
DK29	ST-676	28	5	11	77	3	4	92
DK30	ST-235	38	11	3	13	1	2	4
DK31	NR	11	5	11	3	1	4	7
DK32	ST-132	6	20	1	3	4	4	2
DK35	ST-179	36	27	28	3	4	13	7
DK36	ST-395	6	5	1	1	1	12	1
DK40	ST-252	6	28	4	3	3	4	7
DK41	NR	40	5	17	2	4	14	7
DK42	ST-1455	15	5	11	3	58	42	9
DK43	ND		8	7	6	8	11	40
DK44	NR	19	5	11	34	4	15	26
DK45	NR	23	5	7	30	1	4	10
DK46	ST-926	29	1	97	99	24	20	87
DK50	ND	11		3	98	1	6	80
DK52	ST-1677	32	8	57	3	1	15	25
DK53	ST-809	36	3	6	13	3	6	26
Chung P5	NA							
Chung P6	ST-245	39	6	12	11	3	15	2
Chung P7	NA							
Clone C	NA							
PACS2	ST-1394	11	5	6	3	74	13	7
LES	ST-146	6	5	11	3	4	23	1

Supplementary Table 5: Distribution of flanking genes PseudoCap function class enrichment among pathoadaptive intergenic selected across clone type (n=62). $P(X \geq x) \sim \text{binom}(X; p)$, where $P(X \geq x)$ is the probability of observing $\geq x$ of the 124 genes to belong to a functional class of genes.

	Total genes	% of total no. of genes (p)	Genes present (x)	% of genes	Fold enrichment	$P(X \geq x) \sim \text{binom}(X; p)$
Antibiotic resistance and susceptibility	74	1,3	5	4,0	3,1	0,024
Secreted Factors (toxins, enzymes, alginate)	104	1,8	5	4,0	2,2	0,078
Non-coding RNA gene	111	2,0	5	4,0	2,1	0,096
Energy metabolism	206	3,6	9	7,3	2,0	0,037
Central intermediary metabolism	108	1,9	4	3,2	1,7	0,211
Nucleotide biosynthesis and metabolism	86	1,5	3	2,4	1,6	0,289
Chemotaxis	64	1,1	2	1,6	1,4	0,407
Fatty acid and phospholipid metabolism	64	1,1	2	1,6	1,4	0,407
Related to phage, transposon, or plasmid	65	1,1	2	1,6	1,4	0,415
Putative enzymes	472	8,3	14	11,3	1,4	0,148
Adaptation, Protection	208	3,7	6	4,8	1,3	0,301
Amino acid biosynthesis and metabolism	246	4,3	7	5,6	1,3	0,290
Biosynthesis of cofactors, prosthetic groups and carriers	160	2,8	4	3,2	1,1	0,462
Two-component regulatory systems	123	2,2	3	2,4	1,1	0,504
Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown	1923	33,8	44	35,5	1,0	0,379
Cell wall / LPS / capsule	193	3,4	4	3,2	1,0	0,610
Transcription, RNA processing and degradation	55	1,0	1	0,8	0,8	0,700
Chaperones & heat shock proteins	56	1,0	1	0,8	0,8	0,707
Membrane proteins	675	11,9	12	9,7	0,8	0,812
Transcriptional regulators	487	8,6	8	6,5	0,8	0,842
Carbon compound catabolism	193	3,4	3	2,4	0,7	0,796
Protein secretion/export apparatus	142	2,5	2	1,6	0,6	0,818
DNA replication, recombination, modification and repair	88	1,5	1	0,8	0,5	0,855
Translation, post-translational modification, degradation	198	3,5	2	1,6	0,5	0,932
Transport of small molecules	607	10,7	5	4,0	0,4	0,998
Motility & attachment	140	2,5	1	0,8	0,3	0,955

Supplementary Table 6: Analysis of co-occurrence of intergenic mutations with mutations in the flanking genes.

Region	Genes	Isolates with the intergenic mutation	Isolates with the intergenic mutation and mutation in the upstream gene	% of isolates with intergenic mutation occurring together with mutation in the upstream gene	Isolates with the intergenic mutation and mutation in the downstream gene	% of isolates with intergenic mutation occurring together with mutation in the downstream gene	% of isolates with intergenic mutation occurring together with mutation in at least one of the flanking genes	Frequency of intergenic mutations co-occurring with gene mutations
PA4109//PA4110	<i>ampR//ampC</i>	6	3	50	3	50	100	1,00
PA0976.1//PA0977		104			80	77	77	0,77
PA0428//PA0429		4			3	75	75	0,75
PA0977//PA0978		54	35	65			65	0,65
PA0979//PA0980		61			25	41	41	0,41
PA2505//PA2506	<i>opdT//</i>	8	3	38			38	0,38
PA4709//PA4710	<i>phuS//phuR</i>	14			5	36	36	0,36
PA0842//PA0843	<i>//plcR</i>	48	17	35	17	35	35	0,35
PA1163//PA1164	<i>ndvB//</i>	6	1	17	1	17	33	0,33
PA1709//PA1710	<i>popD//exsC</i>	3			1	33	33	0,33
PA1243//PA1244		57			16	28	28	0,28
PA4786//PA4787		116	29	25	1	1	26	0,26
PA0588//PA0589		20	4	20			20	0,20
PA0574.1//PA0575		54			9	17	17	0,17
PA5160.1//PA5161	<i>//rrmB</i>	119	18	15			15	0,15
PA1551//PA1552	<i>//ccoP1</i>	18	1	6	1	6	11	0,11
PA2952//PA2953	<i>etfB//</i>	10	1	10			10	0,10
PA3687//PA3688	<i>ppc//</i>	36	3	8			8	0,08
PA3341//PA3342		13			1	8	8	0,08
PA3526//PA3527	<i>//pyrC</i>	40	2	5	1	3	8	0,08
PA0980//PA0981		17	1	6	1	6	6	0,06
PA1361//PA1362	<i>norM//</i>	28	1	4	1	4	4	0,04
PA5297//PA5298	<i>poxB//</i>	65	2	3			3	0,03
PA4568//PA4569	<i>rpIU//ispB</i>	34			1	3	3	0,03
PA1958//PA1959	<i>//bacA</i>	37			1	3	3	0,03
PA3547//PA3548	<i>algL//algI</i>	38	1	3			3	0,03
PA4690.5//PA4691		62			1	2	2	0,02
PA1191//PA1192		100			1	1	1	0,01

Average
Average including regions with no
flanking gene mutations

0,25

0,11

Supplementary Table 9: Activities of the lux transcriptional fusions with the intergenic mutations relative to that of their wild type. Luminescence production of each transcriptional fusion in PAO1 laboratory reference strain was measured at exponential growth (OD600 = 0.15) in Luria-Bertani (LB) and ABTGC minimal media and normalized by the cell density. Mean luminescence was calculated for three biological replicates of fusions with mutated and wild type regions and the relative fold change caused by the mutation was accordingly calculated. Statistical analysis of the difference between two means was performed by a two-tailed student t test and the * denotes p-value < 0.05.

Region no.	Fusion no.	Downstream gene	Origin	Fold Change LB	Fold change MM	Mutation within putative element	Mutation not in putative element	No known element
1	1	PA1349	DK2-CF211-2006b	1,2	1,0		1	
2	2	<i>ppC</i>	DK2-CF211-2006b	-1,0	-2,3		1	
2	3	PA3688	DK2-CF211-2006b	1,2	-1,3		1	
3	4	<i>rplU</i>	DK2-CF211-2006b	1,3	1,1		1	
3	5	<i>ispB</i>	DK2-CF211-2006b	-1,2	-1,3	1		
4	6	PA0428	DK2-CF211-1997a	1,6	1,5			1
5	7	PA1958	DK2-CF211-1997a	1,5	1,1		1	
5	8	<i>bacA</i>	DK2-CF211-1997a	1,3	-1,4		1	
6	9	PA5491	DK2-CF211-1997a	4,2 *	2,6		1	
6	10	PA5492	DK2-CF211-1997a	-2,2 *	-1,5		1	
7	11	PA2069	DK2-CF222-2001	1,0	1,2		1	
8	12	PA1142	DK2-CF222-2001	1,8	1,2		1	
9	13	PA2419	DK2-CF222-2001	-2,5 *	-2,5 *			1
10	14	<i>ndvB</i>	DK2-CF222-2001	-1,5	-1,7	1		
11	15	<i>etfB</i>	DK2-CF206-2002	-1,2	1,0		1	
11	16	PA2953	DK2-CF206-2002	-1,3	-1,1		1	
12	17	<i>cerN</i>	DK2-CF206-2002	-2,0	-2,7 *		1	
13	18	<i>exsC</i>	DK2-CF224-2002b	1,8	2,2 *	1		
14	19	PA3780	DK2-CF240-2002	-1,9 *	-5,0 *			1
15	20	PA3966	DK2-CF243-2002	-1,9 *	-1,0		1	
16	21	PA0588	DK2-CF243-2002	1,2	-1,1		1	
17	22	PA1551	DK2-CF243-2002	-1,4	-1,0		1	
18	23	PA5139	DK2-CF243-2002	-2,3 *	-2,4		1	
19	24	<i>motY</i>	DK2-CF243-2002	-3,1 *	-2,8 *		1	
19	25	<i>pyrC</i>	DK2-CF243-2002	-2,3 *	-1,1	1		
20	26	<i>norM</i>	DK2-CF243-2002	-1,1	-1,3		1	
21	27	<i>hmgA</i>	DK2-CF243-2002	2,1 *	4,2 *		1	
22	28	<i>rluC</i>	DK2-CF66-2008	-1,4	-2,0 *		1	
23	29	PA4793	DK2-CF66-2008	4,2 *	4,6 *		1	
24	30	PA4837	DK2-CF173-2002	22,1 *	23,4 *	1		
25	31	<i>ampC</i> 1	DK2-CF173-1995	1,6	1,1	1		
25	32	<i>ampC</i> 2	DK1-CF243-2002	1,6	-1,3	1		
25	33	<i>ampR</i> 1	DK2-CF173-1995	2,8 *	1,0		1	
25	34	<i>ampR</i> 2	DK1-CF243-2002	4,3 *	1,4	1		
Sum						8	23	3

Supplementary Table 10: Primers used in this study

Name	Sequence
<i>ampRi-F-XbaI</i>	5'-ATATTCTAGATAGGAGCGCAGCAGGGTGT-3'
<i>ampCi-F-SacI</i>	5'-GCTAGAGCTCGAACACTTGCTGCTCCATGAG-3'
PA1349-F-PstI	5'-TCAACTGCAGCCTGAATCCCTACGCACC-3'
PA1349-R-XhoI	5'-TAATCTCGAGCAGCTTCGCTTCGTCGAA-3'
<i>ppC-F-PstI</i>	5'-TAATCTGCAGGCGGACAAGCTCACGGAT-3'
<i>ppC-R-XhoI</i>	5'-TAATCTCGAGAGTTGGTGGACGTCTCTCG-3'
PA3688-F-PstI	5'-TAATCTGCAGCGCATCGATCTCCGGCAT-3'
PA3688-R-XhoI	5'-TAATCTCGAGGCGGACAAGCTCACGGAT-3'
<i>rplU-F-PstI</i>	5'-GATTCTGCAGTGAAATCTTCCGCCACCA-3'
<i>rplU-R-XhoI</i>	5'-TAATCTCGAGGCTGCCACCGGTAACAA-3'
<i>ispB-F-PstI</i>	5'-TTATCTGCAGGCTTGCCACCGGTAACAA-3'
<i>ispB-R-XhoI</i>	5'-TAATCTCGAGTGAAATCTTCCGCCACCA-3'
PA0428-F-PstI	5'-GATTCTGCAGGAGATCCGCCAGCATTG-3'
PA0428-R-XhoI	5'-TAATCTCGAGTAGCCCGCAGCCTCCAC-3'
PA1958-F-PstI	5'-TAATCTGCAGCAGCAGCGCCAGGATGAA-3'
PA1958-R-XhoI	5'-TAATCTCGAGGCGGCGAAGAGTTCAAGG-3'
<i>bacA-F-PstI</i>	5'-TAATCTGCAGGCGGCGAAGAGTTCAAGG-3'
<i>bacA-R-XhoI</i>	5'-TAATCTCGAGCAGCAGCGCCAGGATGAA-3'
PA5491-F-PstI	5'-TAATCTGCAGGCGGACGATGGGGTCTT-3'
PA5491-R-XhoI	5'-TAATCTCGAGCTGCTTCCGGGTCTGC-3'
PA5492-F-PstI	5'-TAATCTCGAGCTGCTTCCGGGTCTGC-3'
PA5492-R-XhoI	5'-TAATCTCGAGGCGGACGATGGGGTCTT-3'
PA2069-F-PstI	5'-ATATCTGCAGCTGTTCCGGCCGCTCAG-3'
PA2069-R-XhoI	5'-ATATCTCGAGGGCCAGGTCGTTGTTGGT-3'
PA1142-F-PstI	5'-ATCCCTGCAGGCGCGCTCGAACCGAAG-3'
PA1142-R-XhoI	5'-TAATCTCGAGCGAGGTCGAAGAGGGCAA-3'
PA2419-F-PstI	5'-AAATCTGCAGAGAACGGGCGCTTCATCC-3'
PA2419-R-XhoI	5'-TAATCTCGAGGCTTGAAGTTGGCGGGAG-3'
<i>etfB-F-PstI</i>	5'-TAATCTGCAGGCATGCGGCGGACAGAC-3'
<i>etfB-R-XhoI</i>	5'-TAATCTCGAGCGGGACCTTGACGTTG-3'
PA2953-F-PstI	5'-TAATCTGCAGCGCGGACCTTGACGTTG-3'
PA2953-R-XhoI	5'-TAATCTCGAGCATGCGGCGGACAGACC-3'
<i>cerN-F-PstI</i>	5'-TTCAGTGCAGGCGAGGAAGGGCGAGAAGG-3'
<i>cerN-R-XhoI</i>	5'-TAATCTCGAGGCAAGAGCGCGGTGAATG-3'
<i>excS-F-PstI</i>	5'-ATATCTGCAGGAGGACGACTGGGAGGAC-3'
<i>excS-R-XhoI</i>	5'-TAATCTCGAGACCACGGAAGCGCTCATC-3'
PA3780-F-PstI	5'-TTAACTGCAGCTGGACCGAGATGGCCTT-3'
PA3780-R-XhoI	5'-TAATCTCGAGCCCTTGAGCAATGACGGC-3'
PA3966-F-PstI	5'-TTTTCTGCAGGTGCTGGCGAGTACCGAA-3'
PA3966-R-XhoI	5'-TAATCTCGAGGACCGGTTCATCATCCACT-3'
PA0588-F-PstI	5'-TACCCTGCAGCCCGGATACAGCAG-3'
PA0588-R-XhoI	5'-TAATCTCGAGCGAAGCGTTCCTGGAAGT-3'
PA1551-F-PstI	5'-TATACTGCAGATACAGCCTGTCGCACGG-3'
PA1551-R-XhoI	5'-TAATCTCGAGGCGGGGTGACGTCTTG-3'
PA5139-F-PstI	5'-ATATCTGCAGGTATCGTGGTGCCTGA-3'
PA5139-R-XhoI	5'-ATATCTCGAGCGCATAGCAGGGCCAGG-3'
<i>motY-F-PstI</i>	5'-TATACTGCAGGGGTGAGACGGTCCGGACA-3'
<i>motY-R-XhoI</i>	5'-TAGTCTCGAGTAATAGAAGAAGCGCGG-3'
<i>pyrC-F-PstI</i>	5'-CATTCTGCAGTAATAGAAGAAGCGCGG-3'
<i>pyrC-R-XhoI</i>	5'-TTTTCTCGAGGGGTGAGACGGTCCGGACA-3'
<i>norM-F-PstI</i>	5'-TAATCTGCAGTGTGCGGTTATTGCGGGA-3'
<i>norM-R-XhoI</i>	5'-TAATCTCGAGCAAGCCACGGGAAAGGGG-3'
PA2975-F-PstI	5'-ATATCTGCAGTCCGGTTGAGTCCGTTGAT-3'
PA2975-R-XhoI	5'-ATATCTCGAGACGTTGACCAGCCAGTTCCG-3'
PA4837-F-PstI	5'-ATATCTGCAGTCTCGCGGACATGGTCGAGC-3'
PA4837-R-XhoI	5'-ATATCTCGAGGAGGACAAGCGACACACTGA-3'
<i>ndvB-F-PstI</i>	5'-TATACTGCAGGAAGCGCTGTTTCATCCACC-3'
<i>ndvB-R-XhoI</i>	5'-GGGCTCGAGATCTGCGTGAAGACATAGA-3'
PA4793-F-PstI	5'-GGGACTGCAGGGATCGCAATACTTCGATTC-3'
PA4793-R-XhoI	5'-ATTACTCGAGAGCGGACGAGCAGGATT-3'
PA2009-F-PstI	5'-GTTCTGCAGCCTTGAGGATATCGGTAC-3'
PA2009-R-XhoI	5'-TTATCTCGAGGATTGATAGGCGAGGGCAGT-3'
<i>ampC-F-PstI</i>	5'-ATATCTGCAGCAGCGGCAAATGGGGTCGAA-3'
<i>ampC-R-XhoI</i>	5'-ATATCTCGAGGACAGGCGAGGGGAATCTGG-3'
<i>ampR-F-PstI</i>	5'-ATATCTGCAGTGCACAGTGCCTTCAGGCG-3'
<i>ampR-R-XhoI</i>	5'-AGATCTGCAGCAGCGGCAAATGGGGTCGAA-3'

1 **Adaptive mutation in a bacterial intergenic region cause pleiotropic effects on gene**
2 **expressions**

3

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17

18 Keywords: Pseudomonas aeruginosa, intergenic mutations, microarray, pleiotropic
19 effects

20 **Abstract**

21 Bacterial adaptation to natural environments may be established through different
22 genetic changes. While rewiring global regulatory networks through structural
23 mutations within transacting factors leads to systemic remodeling of transcriptional
24 networks, mutations within *cis*-regulatory elements are proposed to locally
25 modulate transcription of genes. However, the global effects of these mutations in
26 transcription of other genes are unknown. Here we analyze pleiotropic effects of a
27 promoter mutation in *Pseudomonas* heme uptake receptor (*phuR*) selected during
28 long-term adaptation of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in chronic airway infections. We
29 had previously shown that this mutation confers a growth advantage for *P.*
30 *aeruginosa* in the presence of hemoglobin through overexpression of *phu* system
31 genes. Microarray analysis revealed significantly altered expression for 118 genes in
32 adapted *P. aeruginosa* DK2-CF30-1979-M2 strain with the mutation in LB medium.
33 The effect was absent in *P. aeruginosa* laboratory PAO1 strain containing the
34 mutation demonstrating that epistatic interaction with other mutations is essential.
35 Nonetheless, PA4711 a gene located downstream of *phuR* with a separated operon
36 was consistently upregulated in strain with the mutation in all genetic backgrounds
37 and tested conditions. Moreover, the mutation conferred three additional
38 phenotypes for *P. aeruginosa* DK2-CF30-1979-M2 including slower growth rate
39 during anoxic condition, changed pigmentation in minimal medium surface agar and
40 increased inhibition of *S. aureus*. Our results propose that *cis*-regulatory intergenic
41 mutations confer pleiotropic effects to optimize bacterial adaptation in highly
42 selective environments such as the CF airways.

43 **Introduction**

44 Understanding the molecular mechanism of adaptation to the human host is critical
45 for invention of treatment strategies against infections caused by bacterial
46 pathogens. Adaptation is defined as transition of an organism towards advantageous
47 phenotypes in the present environment¹. Its success leads to enhanced fitness or
48 reproductive success of the individuals in the new environment. Changes in
49 metabolic performance, growth rate, stress resistance, production of biofilm-like
50 structure are among major phenotypic alterations associated with bacterial fitness².
51 By natural selection, organisms acquire and spread adaptive mutations essential for
52 fitness in the environment³. Adaptation to unique environments is dependent on
53 changes in gene expression. Such changes may be established through mutations
54 targeting *cis*- and *trans*- regulatory elements. *cis*-regulatory (CRE) mutations target
55 binding sites of transacting factors (TAF) in intergenic regions and they are
56 recognized as a frequent cause of phenotype divergence in higher eukaryotes⁴⁻⁶. CRE
57 mutations have also been shown to contribute to adaptive traits in bacteria⁷⁻¹¹. Non-
58 synonymous mutations in *trans*-regulatory elements (TRE) can modify the
59 functionality of TAF and affect their pairing with binding sites in promoters or change
60 their affinity with the core RNA polymerase¹².
61 CRE mutations are presumed to occur more frequently than TRE mutations as they
62 do not pose deleterious effects by altering protein structure and function^{1,2,4}.
63 However, mutations in TRE may accommodate for more radical phenotype advances
64 essential for quick adaptation in response to environmental changes¹³. Accordingly,
65 adaptive mutations in global regulators of gene expression are frequently discovered
66 in both experimentally and naturally evolved isolates of bacteria^{2,14,15}.

67 Cystic fibrosis (CF) is a recessive genetic disorder prompted by polymorphisms in
68 Cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) gene¹⁶. As a
69 consequence of loss of CFTR function, the lungs can no longer eradicate inhaled
70 microorganisms through mucociliar clearance¹⁷. The opportunistic pathogen
71 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is the prevalent culprit behind airway infections leading to
72 mortality and morbidity in CF patients¹⁸. Regular sampling of *P. aeruginosa* from CF
73 patients provides unique prospects to study bacterial within-host evolution.

74 In a previous study on adaptation of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* to the CF host
75 environment, we observed a series of mutations within the intergenic region
76 upstream of *phuR* and *phuSTUVW*⁸. These genes encode proteins of the
77 *Pseudomonas* heme utilization system (*phu*). The mutations significantly increased
78 the transcription of all these genes, and we furthermore demonstrated that the
79 presence of this mutation confers a growth advantage in the presence of
80 hemoglobin. As *phuR* intergenic mutations altered the transcription of genes from
81 the *phu* system, the simple conclusion was that the primary selection factor for this
82 mutation was the expression of the *phu* system⁸. However, given the constitutive
83 expression of the *phu* system and the relative high expression of the *phuR* receptor
84 gene (112 folds compared to the wild type), the presence of pleiotropic effects on
85 other systems is conceivable. Here we have investigated this scenario and found that
86 this intergenic mutation leads to pleiotropic effects on expression of many other
87 genes and emergence of new phenotypes in *P. aeruginosa*. Our results indicate that
88 CRE mutations can potentiate considerable pleiotropic effects on expression of other
89 genes and intergenic regions can be target for radical evolutionary changes.

90 Understanding the role of intergenic mutations with pleiotropic effects is vital for
91 design of treatment strategies against bacterial pathogens.

92

93 **Results**

94 *phuR promoter mutation result in pleiotropic effects on global gene expression*

95 To investigate the effects of *phuR* promoter mutations on global gene expression
96 patterns in *P. aeruginosa*, we used a CF adapted isolate of the epidemic DK2
97 lineage¹⁹ in which we engineered a *phuR* promoter mutation (strain DK2-CF30-1979-
98 M2)⁸, and an isogenic “wild-type” strain without the mutation (strain DK2-CF30-
99 1979). Microarray analysis of the two strains grown in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium
100 demonstrated that the expression of all six genes of the *phu* system (*phuRSTUVW*) is
101 significantly upregulated as a result of the mutation (*Benjamini-Hochberg*, $P < 0.05$).
102 This was in accordance with our previous results using luciferase reporter gene
103 fusions⁸. Surprisingly, our microarray expression study also revealed significant
104 altered expressions of 1507 additional genes in the strain with the mutation
105 compared to wild type (Supplementary Table 1, *Benjamini-Hochberg*, $P < 0.05$). Since
106 these pleiotropic effects were mostly subtle in terms of expression fold changes (FC)
107 between mutant and wild type strain, we considered only fold changes below -2 or
108 above 2 as biologically meaningful and the focus of further study. Introducing this
109 criterion, we identified a total of 118 differentially expressed genes (including those
110 of the *phu* system) of which 70 genes were upregulated and 38 were downregulated
111 in the mutant compared to the wild type (Supplementary Table 2). To identify
112 possible patterns among genes with expression changes, we categorized the list of
113 118 genes by their associated PseudoCap functions²⁰. We found an enrichment of

114 genes from 'translation, post-translational modification, degradation', 'central
115 intermediary metabolism', 'energy metabolism' and 'fatty acid and phospholipid
116 metabolism' (Binomial, $P < 0.05$, $n = 118$, Supplementary Table 3).

117 To elucidate whether the pleiotropic effects on global gene expression was only
118 present in the particular CF adapted DK2 isolate, we constructed the *phuR* promoter
119 mutation in the common laboratory reference strain PAO1²¹. Microarray analysis of
120 PAO1 containing the mutation and the isogenic wild type PAO1 strain showed that
121 only 2 genes in addition to the six *phu* genes were differentially expressed as a
122 consequence of the mutation (Supplementary Table 4, *Benjamini-Hochberg*, $P <$
123 0.05 , $FC > 2$ or < -2). The highly diminished pleiotropic effect observed in PAO1
124 relative to the DK2 strain suggests that the global gene expression effects of the
125 promoter mutation is highly dependent on the genetic differences between these
126 two strains. Nevertheless, in both strains we observed a consistent higher expression
127 of PA4711 as a result of *phuR* promoter mutation. PA4711 is located downstream of
128 *phuR* and encodes a Rieske-like iron-sulfur protein of unknown function. PA4711 and
129 *phuR* genes are separated by 102 nt in which a predicted Rho-independent
130 transcriptional terminator is located, suggesting that the two genes are not part of
131 the same operon (Figure 1).

132

133 *PA4711 is co-expressed with phuR*

134 To determine if upregulation of PA4711 was consistent with *phuR* overexpression,
135 we looked at the transcriptomes of two additional isolates of DK2 lineage DK2-
136 CF173-2005 and DK2-CF66-2008²². Both isolates had acquired *phuR* promoter
137 mutation leading to largest overexpression of *phuR* promoter^{8,22}. In both isolates,

138 the expression of PA4711 was significantly upregulated compared to their common
139 ancestor isolate (DK2-CF30-1979), which has no *phuR* promoter mutation. In
140 conclusion, it is clear that the *phuR* promoter mutation leads to overexpression of
141 *phuR* promoter and increased expression of PA4711.

142

143 *Presence of the entire pleiotropic effect is independent of heme import*

144 As the primary function of the *phu* system is import of heme, we speculated that the
145 pleiotropic effects could be a result of the import and subsequent breakdown of
146 heme which is present in LB medium²³. To test this hypothesis, gene expression
147 analysis of DK2-CF30-1979 with and without *phuR* promoter was performed in
148 ABTGC minimal medium⁸ where heme is absent. In this experiment only 8 genes
149 were differentially expressed (Supplementary Table 5, *Benjamini-Hochberg*, $P < 0.05$,
150 $FC > 2$ or < -2) suggesting that the pleiotropic effect is highly dependent on the
151 environmental context. Nonetheless, while the pleiotropic effects were much less
152 pronounced in minimal medium compared to LB medium, PA4711 was still
153 upregulated in the mutant in both conditions. We therefore confirmed that the
154 upregulation of PA4711 occurs even in the absence of heme.

155

156 *phuR promoter mutation leads to impaired growth during anoxic conditions*

157 Given that *nark1* and *nark2* which encode nitrite/nitrate transport proteins²⁴ were
158 among the most downregulated genes in DK2-CF30-1979-M2 isolate with *phuR*
159 promoter mutation, we hypothesized that there is decreased activity for anaerobic
160 metabolism through nitrogen assimilation. To test this hypothesis, we developed an
161 assay to measure growth under anaerobic conditions. Briefly, we inoculated starting

162 cultures of two isogenic strains of DK2-CF30-1979 and PAO1 in LB medium
163 containing 10 mM nitrate. Cultures were grown in vials sealed off with a lid to avoid
164 introduction of oxygen. Vials were left to incubate at 37 °C, with 200 rpm shaking
165 and OD₆₀₀ measurements were performed continually as an indicator of growth. We
166 found no significant difference for growth rates of PAO1 strains with and without
167 *phuR* promoter mutation. However, there was a small yet significant increase in
168 doubling time of DK2-CF30-1979 strain with *phuR* promoter mutation compared to
169 the wild type (Table 1, Student t-test, $P < 0.05$). This indicates that *phuR* promoter
170 mutation decreases the fitness of *P. aeruginosa* during anaerobic conditions.

171

172 *phuR* promoter mutation leads to change in colony pigmentation and interaction
173 with *Staphylococcus aureus*

174 While we correlated downregulation of *narK1* and *narK2* with decreased fitness in
175 the presence of nitrate, we still observed hundreds of genes being differentially
176 expressed as a result of this promoter mutation. We therefore hypothesized that
177 other key physiological changes are possibly caused by this mutation but we cannot
178 directly detect them from microarray results. To investigate possible additional
179 phenotypes caused by the *phuR* promoter mutation, we spotted cultures of the
180 strains with and without *phuR* promoter mutation on a range of surface agar plates
181 and incubated them at 37 °C for 48 hours. Interestingly, DK2-CF30-1979 with *phuR*
182 promoter mutation exhibited a yellow/green colony pigment on ABT minimal
183 medium agar plate whereas the isogenic wild type strain remained white (Figure 3).
184 The change in pigment was absent in PAO1 strain with the mutation (data not
185 shown), possibly because PAO1 already has a green pigment from pyoverdine

186 production that masks the new pigment. Furthermore, the pleiotropic effects by
187 *phuR* promoter mutation in PAO1 were far less than that of CF adapted DK2-CF30-
188 1979 isolate and perhaps such clear changes in phenotypes are absent in this strain.
189 Additionally both strain of DK2-CF30-1979 exhibited similar pigment on LB agar
190 plate. The second phenotype we sought to investigate was interaction of *P.*
191 *aeruginosa* with other bacteria. For this purpose we selected *Staphylococcus aureus*
192 because previous observations have highlighted synergistic interactions between CF
193 adapted isolates of *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus*^{25,26}. Similar to previous
194 observations²⁵, *S. aureus* JE2 WT altered growth activity of *P. aeruginosa* DK2-CF30-
195 1979 strains with and without *phuR* promoter mutation on LB agar plate (data not
196 shown). However, when spotting *P. aeruginosa* strains next to *S. aureus* on
197 Staphylococcal minimal medium²⁷ agar plate, we saw a seemingly increased
198 inhibition of *S. aureus* by DK2-CF30-1979 with *phuR* promoter mutation. The change
199 in pigment by presence of *phuR* promoter mutation was also confirmed in this
200 minimal medium agar plate (Figure 2). We therefore have shown two additional
201 phenotypes associated with *phuR* promoter mutation.

202

203 Discussion

204 We had previously investigated a series of recurrent mutations in the intergenic
205 region upstream of *phuR* and *phuS* and verified that mutations in this region increase
206 the expression of the *phu* system in *P. aeruginosa*. Furthermore, they confer a
207 growth advantage in the presence of hemoglobin. In this study, we demonstrated
208 that the overexpression of the *phu* system by promoter mutation result in
209 pleiotropic effects on expression of many genes. The effect was most predominant

210 in a CF adapted background of *P. aeruginosa* and highly dependent on the
211 environmental context. Looking at genes where expression was more radically
212 changed (*Benjamini-Hochberg*, $P < 0.05$, $FC > 2$ or < -2), we found an enrichment of
213 five functional classes of genes. Interestingly nine genes belonging to '*translation,*
214 *post-translational modification, degradation*' were upregulated as a result of *phuR*
215 promoter mutation. Moreover, expression of several ribosomal proteins such as
216 *rpmE*, *rpsI*, *rpsU*, *rplM* and *rpsT* is also increased in the strain with the mutation. We
217 hypothesize that the constitutive expression of *phu* system proteins at high levels
218 overloads the translation machinery leading to upregulation of ribosomal proteins
219 and proteins within the same functional class. However, whether the induction of
220 pleiotropic effect on expression of all other genes is exclusively because of the
221 translational stress remains unknown. In both transcriptomes of DK2 and PAO1
222 strains with *phuR* promoter mutation, the most upregulated gene after those of the
223 *phu* system was PA4711, a gene located right after *phuR* in *P. aeruginosa*
224 chromosome. PA4711 was also found to be upregulated in two clinical isolates (DK2-
225 CF66-2008 and DK2-CF173-2005) where *phuR* promoter mutation occurred
226 naturally. As PA4711 was also upregulated in other genetic backgrounds with *phuR*
227 promoter mutation and in minimal media, we hypothesize the pleiotropic effects on
228 expression of other genes may be partly or completely initiated by upregulation of
229 PA4711. This gene encodes a hypothetical protein proposed to function as a
230 ferredoxin and have oxidoreductase activity^{20,28}. Oxidoreductases mediate electron
231 transfer between molecules and are part of energy metabolism systems in bacteria.
232 Interestingly, genes of '*energy metabolism*' class were also among those with
233 radically changed expression. We therefore propose that the overexpression of

234 PA4711 may trigger a shift in natural redox stability of *P. aeruginosa*. This can explain
235 change in expression of other players in energy metabolism. Moreover, *narK1* and
236 *narK2* encoding key players of nitrogen assimilation pathway were the most
237 downregulated genes in the strain with *phuR* promoter mutation. This led us to
238 come up with a model where overexpression of PA4711 shifts the redox balance of
239 the cell that ultimately results in reduction of anaerobic metabolism activity. We
240 tested this hypothesis and measured the fitness of isogenic strains with and without
241 *phuR* promoter mutation under nitrate limited anoxic condition. Our results
242 demonstrated that CF adapted strain of *P. aeruginosa* with the mutation is slightly
243 less fit to grow in anoxic condition. There is however conflicting data on primary
244 mode of *P. aeruginosa* growth in the CF environment. Some studies suggest that the
245 primary mode of growth is aerobic^{29,30}, while others suggest that it is anaerobic³¹. In
246 agreement with both models, we have only highlighted a possible reduction in
247 anaerobic activity where it is still active and the cell potentially functions under both
248 conditions. In an effort to discover additional physiological changes to *P. aeruginosa*
249 by *phuR* promoter mutation, we spotted it on surface agar plates alone and next to
250 *S. aureus*. We observed changes in colony pigmentation towards yellow/green and
251 increased inhibition of *S. aureus*. These two phenotypes can also be linked to
252 changes in redox balance and decreased anaerobic activity. In this model, decrease
253 in flux of anaerobic metabolism through nitrogen assimilation can be compensated
254 by other mechanism. Namely *P. aeruginosa* excretes redox active phenazines to
255 react with oxidants and be taken back by the bacteria, thereby acting as electron
256 shuttles. This helps to rebalance the cellular redox state and support survival in
257 anaerobic conditions^{32,33}. We found no support for expression of phenazine genes in

258 transcriptomes of strain with *phuR* promoter mutation. Phenazine production may
259 be affected at the post-transcriptional level by the *phu* mutation through an
260 unknown mechanism. Regulation of phenazine production is immensely complex,
261 including regulation at the post-transcriptional level by sRNA molecules³⁴.
262 Phenazines have various effects on gene expression, biofilm formation and
263 maintenance³⁵ and act as virulence factors affecting host tissues of CF airways³⁶.
264 Moreover, phenazines have antibacterial activity against other bacteria such as
265 *Staphylococcus aureus*³⁷. Increased inhibition of *S. aureus* may be through increased
266 production of phenazines or through unknown mechanisms such as interspecies
267 competition with *P. aeruginosa*.

268 Until recently, *cis*-regulatory intergenic mutations were suggested to have possible
269 local effects on expression of genes in bacteria. This study illustrates a new
270 dimension for effect of these mutations on divergence of new phenotypes. These
271 type of mutations can affect the expression of all genes while mutations within
272 coding region are less likely to affect essential genes because of their deleterious
273 nature. Furthermore, to have an intergenic mutation with pleiotropic effect is a
274 complex scenario where additional beneficial phenotypes arise from the same
275 mutation. However, rise of antagonistic pleiotropy where expression of a gene is now
276 detrimental calls for accumulation of additional mutations. Our study is limited in its
277 focus on only one *cis*-regulatory intergenic mutation with pleiotropic effect and it
278 remains to be elucidated on how widespread these types of intergenic mutations are
279 occurring in evolution of bacteria. Nonetheless, the contribution of these specific
280 mutations on adaptive phenotypes calls for considering them as missing piece of the
281 puzzle in investigation of bacterial evolution.

282 **Materials and methods**

283 *Bacterial strains and media*

284 Isolates of *P. aeruginosa* DK2-CF30-1979 wild type and with *phuR* promoter
285 mutation derive from a previous study⁸. The *phuR* promoter mutation was
286 constructed in *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 by allelic exchange using pNJ1-*phuR*(CF173-2005)
287 construct⁸. The construct was transferred to PAO1 by triparental mating using *E. coli*
288 HB101/pRK600. Merodiploid isolates were selected on Pseudomonas isolation agar
289 with tetracyclin. Colonies were restreaked on selective plates before being streaked
290 on 6% (wt/vol) sucrose-no salt LB agar plates. Sucrose-resistant tetracycline sensitive
291 colonies were restreaked on 6% sucrose no-salt LB plates, screened for the presence
292 of the mutated allele by PCR verified by sequencing at LGC Genomics. Luria- Bertani
293 (LB) broth was used for routine preparations of bacterial cultures. ABTGC and
294 Staphylococcal minimal media (SMM) were prepared as previously described^{8,27}.

295

296 *Gene expression analysis*

297 All *P. aeruginosa* strains were grown at 37 °C 180 rpm in LB or ABTGC medium
298 starting from OD₆₀₀=0.01 until OD₆₀₀=0.5. Bacterial cells were immediately mixed
299 with RNAprotect Bacteria Reagent (Qiagen) and RNA was extracted using RNeasy
300 Mini Kit (Qiagen). RNA extraction, processing of cDNA preparation, labeling and
301 hybridization were done as previously described¹⁵. The raw CEL files were obtained
302 using Affymetrix GeneChip operating system 1.4 and analyzed by BioConductor tools
303 in the R environment³⁸. Microarray expression data were normalized using the
304 robust multichip average (*rma*)³⁹ algorithm and analysis of gene fold change

305 between wild type and mutant strains were performed using the *limma* package⁴⁰.

306 Strains were tested in triplicates.

307

308 *Anoxic growth rate measurements*

309 To examine difference in doubling time *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 and DK2-CF30-1979 with

310 and without *phuR* promoter mutation were propagated overnight in LB media at

311 37°C, 180 rpm. The overnight cultures were adjusted to an optical density (OD₆₀₀) of

312 0.1 and followed until exponential growth to assure that the cultures were in an

313 optimal condition. Subsequently, cultures were adjusted to an optical density (OD₆₀₀)

314 of 0.05 in glass vials (Schuett Biotec, Germany) with a final volume of 2 mL LB medium

315 containing 10 mM nitrate as alternative electron acceptor. Preparation of cultures in

316 vials was performed inside an anaerobic chamber (Concept 400 Anaerobic

317 Workstation, Ruskinn Technology Ltd, UK) to avoid introduction of oxygen.

318 Furthermore, to create an anoxic environment during growth vials were sealed off

319 with a lid before they were left to incubate at 37°C, 180 rpm. Optical density (OD₆₀₀)

320 was continually measured as an expression of growth. All media applied for

321 preparation of the vials were equilibrated in the anaerobic chamber 3 days prior to

322 experiment to remove traces of oxygen.

323

324 *Spot inoculation of Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Staphylococcus aureus*

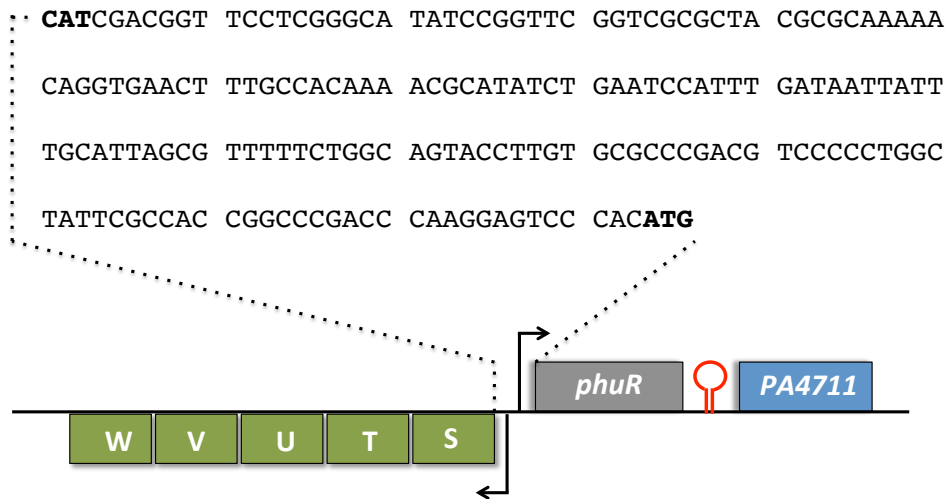
325 ABTGC and SMM agar plates were made by adding 2% (wt/vol) of agar. Cultures of *P.*

326 *aeruginosa* PAO1 and DK2-CF30-1979 with and without *phuR* promoter mutation

327 were grown overnight in LB. Cultures were washed with 0.9% NaCl solution three

328 times and the optical density at 600 nm [OD₆₀₀] was adjusted at 1.0. Five microliters

329 of each suspension was spotted on ABTGC agar plate and incubated for 48 hours at
330 37 °C. The morphology and pigment of spots were inspected to observe phenotypes
331 caused by *phuR* promoter mutation. Three biological replicates of each strain were
332 spotted on ABTGC agar plate. To study the interaction of *P. aeruginosa* with *S.*
333 *aureus*, cell suspensions of *P. aeruginosa* strains and *S. aureus* JE2 WT⁴¹ were
334 prepared similarly and spotted alone or next to each other on SMM agar plate. The
335 interaction zone was inspected after 48 hours growth at 37 °C. The interaction
336 experiment was repeated three times.



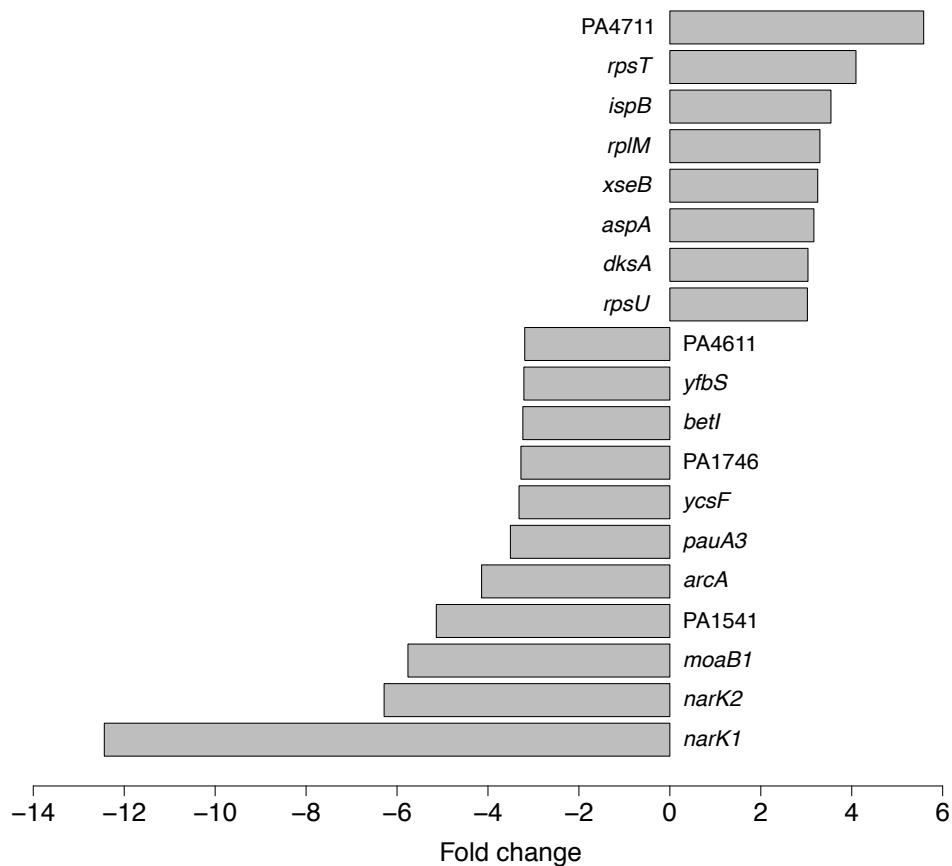
337

338 **Figure 1** Intergenic region between *phuR* and *phuSTUVW* consists of 180 bp. PA4711 is located right downstream

339 of *phuR* following an intergenic region of 102 bp. A Rho-independent transcriptional terminator is present within

340 this region separating operons of *phuR* and PA4711.

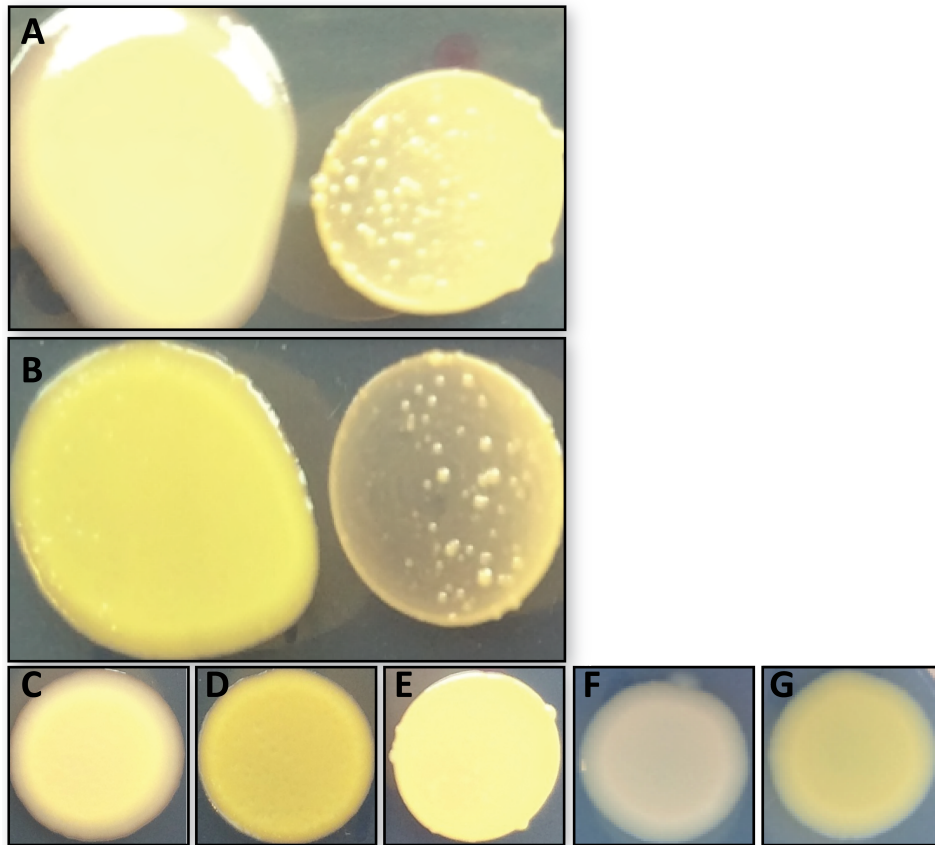
Most down/up regulated genes



341

342 **Figure 2** Genes most up/down regulated in DK2-CF30-1979-M2 compared to the wild type in LB medium. Eight

343 genes are down-regulated and eleven are up-regulated (FC > 3 or < - 3). The list excludes the *phu* operon genes.



344

345 **Figure 3 A)** Spot inoculation of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* DK2-CF30-1979 (left) next to *Staphylococcus aureus* JE2
 346 WT (right) on SMM agar plate. **B)** Spot inoculation of *P. aeruginosa* DK2-CF30-1979-M2 containing *phuR*
 347 promoter mutation (left) next to the same *S. aureus* strain on the same plate. **C)** Mono spot inoculation of *P.*
 348 *aeruginosa* DK2-CF30-1979 on SMM agar plate **D)** Mono spot inoculation of *P. aeruginosa* DK2-CF30-1979-M2 on
 349 the same plate **E)** Mono spot inoculation of *S. aureus* JE2 WT on the same plate. **F)** Mono spot inoculation of *P.*
 350 *aeruginosa* DK2-CF30-1979 on ABTGC agar plate. **G)** Mono spot inoculation of *P. aeruginosa* DK2-CF30-1979-M2
 351 on the same plate as **F**.

352 **Table 1** measurements of doubling time (h) for PAO1 and DK2-CF30-1979 strains with (M2) and without *phuR*
 353 promoter mutation (WT) during anoxic growth in LB medium containing 10 mM nitrate.

	Doubling time (h)		<i>P</i> value
	WT	M2	
DK2-CF30-1979	2.92 ± 0.04	3.11 ± 0.08	0.02
PAO1	1.15 ± 0.04	1.09 ± 0.04	0.12

354

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- 465

PA1041_at	PA1041	0,47	1,38	0,00654461	0,03020835	Membrane proteins; Transport of small molecules
PA2953_at	PA2953	0,47	1,38	0,001317042	0,010164489	Energy metabolism
PA2952_at	PA2952	0,47	1,38	0,000418988	0,005204095	Energy metabolism
PA4971_at	aspP	0,47	1,38	0,004605207	0,02363785	Energy metabolism
PA0066_at	yiiE	0,47	1,38	0,000140507	0,002835185	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA2115_at	PA2115	0,47	1,38	0,007162936	0,032209995	Transcriptional regulators
PA4673_at	yehF	0,47	1,39	0,000357526	0,004603038	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0929_at	pirR	0,47	1,39	0,01038779	0,041987585	Transport of small molecules; Two-component regulatory systems
PA2560_at	PA2560	0,47	1,39	0,001504847	0,011045496	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4030_at	yeel	0,47	1,39	0,006909044	0,031450601	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA2659_at	PA2659	0,47	1,39	0,000454481	0,005289818	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3603_dgkA_at	dgkA	0,47	1,39	0,00218933	0,01360035	Fatty acid and phospholipid metabolism
PA1157_at	PA1157	0,48	1,39	0,010881137	0,043128165	Transcriptional regulators; Two-component regulatory systems
PA2989_at	PA2989	0,48	1,39	0,000483199	0,005537774	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3453_at	PA3453	0,48	1,39	0,01063426	0,00902377	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA2968_fabD_at	fabD	0,48	1,39	0,000313371	0,004358129	Fatty acid and phospholipid metabolism
PA4568_rpiU_at	rpiU	0,48	1,39	0,000797924	0,040178595	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA4356_at	PA4356	0,48	1,39	0,001588816	0,013445062	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA1398_at	PA1398	0,48	1,39	0,002193353	0,014369121	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0128_at	phnA	0,48	1,39	0,002163797	0,01424307	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0019_def_at	def	0,48	1,40	0,006675646	0,030577507	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA2946_at	PA2946	0,48	1,40	0,000799468	0,007654611	Membrane proteins
PA2966_irp_at	irp	0,48	1,40	0,00057235	0,004603038	Central intermediary metabolism; Transcriptional regulators
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PA2764_at	PA2764	0,48	1,40	0,000228813	0,003724319	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
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PA4445_at	ybgl	0,49	1,40	0,002673979	0,016277223	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4640_mqoB_at	mqoB	0,49	1,40	0,002390088	0,015157256	Central intermediary metabolism; Energy metabolism
PA2966_acpP_at	acpP	0,49	1,40	0,002326234	0,015034801	Fatty acid and phospholipid metabolism
PA5262_algZ_at	algZ	0,49	1,41	0,001568216	0,011330767	Two-component regulatory systems; Motility & Attachment
PA0540_tkxA_at	tkxA	0,49	1,41	0,00979796	0,02393615	Energy metabolism
PA0121_at	PA0121	0,50	1,41	0,004905577	0,024764008	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA1442_at	filL	0,50	1,41	0,00515575	0,025589673	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown; Membrane proteins
PA3699_at	PA3699	0,50	1,41	6,58E-05	0,002047415	Transcriptional regulators
PA0120_at	PA0120	0,50	1,41	0,000911418	0,008277344	Transcriptional regulators
PA3685_at	PA3685	0,50	1,41	0,007140056	0,032180111	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4679_at	PA4679	0,50	1,41	0,007272111	0,034083816	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5304_dadA_at	dadA	0,50	1,41	0,000700667	0,002492719	Energy metabolism; Amino acid biosynthesis and metabolism
PA3057_at	PA3057	0,50	1,41	0,001949824	0,01307561	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5461_at	PA5461	0,50	1,41	0,000524345	0,005842549	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA1840_at	PA1840	0,50	1,41	0,004300243	0,02252622	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA2039_at	PA2039	0,50	1,41	0,002508299	0,015674047	Membrane proteins
PA5371_at	PA5371	0,50	1,41	0,007188431	0,032282629	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA1008_bcp_at	bcp	0,50	1,42	0,000280325	0,00409373	Adaptation, Protection
PA1996_ppiC1_at	ppiC1	0,50	1,42	0,00010067	0,002927	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation; Chaperones & heat shock proteins
PA0902_at	PA0902	0,50	1,42	0,000704709	0,007058337	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA1640_at	PA1640	0,50	1,42	0,00186219	0,012852355	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5107_bic_at	bic	0,50	1,42	0,000786005	0,007568922	Membrane proteins
PA0290_at	PA0290	0,50	1,42	0,001177169	0,009549871	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0318_at	hpcE	0,50	1,42	0,002173572	0,014290354	Putative enzymes
PA1744_at	PA1744	0,51	1,42	0,000839319	0,00789387	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0400_at	metC, metB	0,51	1,42	0,005269559	0,026108328	Amino acid biosynthesis and metabolism
PA2270_at	PA2270	0,51	1,42	0,001272638	0,009974394	Transcriptional regulators
PA2749_endA_at	endA	0,51	1,42	0,002873909	0,017110859	DNA replication, recombination, modification and repair
PA3887_nhaP_at	nhaP	0,51	1,42	0,001363544	0,010393274	Membrane proteins; Transport of small molecules
PA4874_at	PA4874	0,51	1,42	4,30E-05	0,001278886	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA1476_ccmB_at	ccmB	0,51	1,42	0,00978351	0,004178955	Membrane proteins; Transport of small molecules
PA1294_rnd_at	rnd	0,51	1,43	0,000324128	0,018520014	Transcription, RNA processing and degradation
PA4401_at	PA4401	0,51	1,43	0,002695147	0,010595374	Putative enzymes
PA4268_rpsL_at	rpsL	0,51	1,43	0,001351532	0,010331676	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA1554_at	ccnN	0,51	1,43	0,005503672	0,026860049	Energy metabolism; Central intermediary metabolism
PA5108_at	PA5108	0,51	1,43	0,0010608	0,009083921	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5039_aroK_at	aroK	0,52	1,43	6,34E-05	0,002047415	Amino acid biosynthesis and metabolism
PA1206_at	PA1206	0,52	1,43	0,003544387	0,019608974	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA750_at	PA750	0,52	1,43	0,000618218	0,006436196	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA2771_at	PA2771	0,52	1,43	0,000454703	0,005289818	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4359_foA_at	foaA	0,52	1,43	0,000609279	0,02863796	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4762_grpE_at	grpE	0,52	1,43	0,012420663	0,047142488	DNA replication, recombination, modification and repair; Chaperones & heat shock proteins
PA4340_at	PA4340	0,52	1,43	0,000116189	0,002648935	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0160_at	PA0160	0,52	1,43	0,000325426	0,004447754	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3671_at	PA3671	0,52	1,44	0,009397744	0,039178996	Membrane proteins; Transport of small molecules
PA296_gacA_at	gacA	0,52	1,44	0,000234764	0,00447754	Transcriptional regulators
PA0379_at	ygdD	0,52	1,44	0,000965127	0,009282517	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3489_at	rnfA	0,52	1,44	0,000747336	0,007352777	Membrane proteins
PA5533_at	PA5533	0,53	1,44	0,00113264	0,009394647	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3029_moaB2_at	moaB2	0,53	1,44	0,00375196	0,020590434	Biosynthesis of cofactors, prosthetic groups and carriers
PA0950_at	PA0950	0,53	1,44	0,001012495	0,00884777	Transport of small molecules; Adaptation, Protection
PA5334_rph_at	rph	0,53	1,44	0,000209928	0,003541528	Transcription, RNA processing and degradation
PA523_at	PA523	0,53	1,44	5,22E-05	0,001916594	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4377_at	PA4377	0,53	1,44	0,000645511	0,03984802	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5569_rnpA_at	rnpA	0,53	1,44	0,001987794	0,013500942	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA4392_at	ybaZ	0,53	1,45	0,00407624	0,021749094	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA2766_at	PA2766	0,53	1,45	0,002515925	0,015697042	Transcriptional regulators
PA4135_at	PA4135	0,53	1,45	0,002361072	0,015034801	Transcriptional regulators
PA4600_nfxB_at	nfxB	0,54	1,45	0,005128085	0,025526937	Transcriptional regulators
PA5337_rpoZ_at	rpoZ	0,54	1,45	0,000308435	0,004297295	Transcription, RNA processing and degradation
PA0553_at	yhfA	0,54	1,46	0,001172129	0,009523799	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3131_at	edaB	0,54	1,46	0,011375539	0,044333104	Central intermediary metabolism; Carbon compound catabolism
PA4623_r_at	PA4623	0,54	1,46	0,000571573	0,006204226	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3675_at	PA3675	0,55	1,46	0,001280643	0,009994781	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0780_at	pruR	0,55	1,46	0,005155661	0,025589673	Transcriptional regulators
PA3722_at	PA3722	0,55	1,46	0,000720059	0,007135016	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0538_dsbB_at	dsbB	0,55	1,46	0,004107251	0,01830592	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation; Chaperones & heat shock proteins
PA0890_aotQ_at	aotQ	0,55	1,46	0,004884996	0,024650906	Membrane proteins; Transport of small molecules
PA4643_at	PA4643	0,55	1,46	6,43E-05	0,002047415	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA2281_at	PA2281	0,55	1,47	0,000151735	0,002923527	Transcriptional regulators
PA2937_at	PA2937	0,55	1,47	0,00274603	0,01652738	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA2830_htpX_at	htpX	0,55	1,47	0,000713326	0,007093633	Adaptation, Protection
PA3831_pepA_at	pepA	0,55	1,47	0,004404333	0,022948023	Transcription, RNA processing and degradation; Secreted Factors (toxins, enzymes, alginate); Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA0947_at	PA0947	0,55	1,47	0,000608736	0,006361347	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3637_pyrG_at	pyrG	0,55	1,47	0,010452191	0,042115975	Nucleotide biosynthesis and metabolism
PA1315_at	PA1315	0,55	1,47	0,00064797	0,006604048	Transcriptional regulators
PA3262_at	PA3262	0,55	1,47	0,000426519	0,00503565	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation; Chaperones & heat shock proteins
PA1741_at	PA1741	0,56	1,47	0,000311692	0,004356622	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5196_at	PA5196	0,56	1,47	0,000276603	0,004065746	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4512_at	lpxO1	0,56	1,47	0,007326046	0,032784054	Putative enzymes; Cell wall / LPS / capsule
PA2817_at	PA2817	0,56	1,47	0,003265101	0,0184878	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0544_at	PA0544	0,56	1,47	0,001425334	0,010688077	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4872_at	PA4872	0,56	1,47	0,001513779	0,011081745	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA2780_at	PA2780	0,56	1,47	0,001007314	0,008816382	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA1745_at	PA1745	0,57	1,48	0,004999125	0,025058849	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA2955_at	PA2955	0,57	1,48	0,001606637	0,011533285	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4748_tpiA_at	tpiA	0,57	1,48	0,009077747	0,038335174	Central intermediary metabolism; Energy metabolism
PA2985_at	PA2985	0,57	1,49	0,001164739	0,009309441	Membrane proteins
PA5351_at	rubA1	0,57	1,48	0,0036204	0,019905120	Carbon compound catabolism
PA5214_gcvH1_at	gcvH1	0,57	1,48	0,000295996	0,004243507	Central intermediary metabolism; Amino acid biosynthesis and metabolism
PA1296_at	PA1296	0,57	1,48	0,000805841	0,007683186	Putative enzymes
PA3664_at	yfbB	0,57	1,48	0,00038065	0,004778793	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5183_at	PA5183	0,57	1,48	0,000413757	0,005024095	Membrane proteins
PA0195_pntA_at	pntA	0,57	1,49	0,000930497	0,008423043	Energy metabolism; Transport of small molecules
PA2857_at	PA2857	0,57	1,49	0,001163427	0,01134132	Transport of small molecules
PA3639_acrA_at	acrA	0,57	1,49	0,000254509	0,003914118	Fatty acid and phospholipid metabolism
PA0867_at	micC	0,57	1,49	0,000339947	0,004534537	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown; Adaptation, Protection
PA1440_at	PA1440	0,57	1,49	1,89E-05	0,001425199	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA2422_at	PA2422	0,57	1,49	0,000803158	0,007670777	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5182_at	PA5182	0,58	1,49	2,52E-05	0,001564423	Membrane proteins
PA1593_at	PA1593	0,58	1,49	0,001732502	0,012121448	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA2660_at	PA2660	0,58	1,49	0,00725698	0,03283882	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3308_hepA_at	hepA	0,58	1,49	0,000145146	0,002856074	Transcription, RNA processing and degradation
PA3435_at	PA3435	0,58	1,49	0,000883796	0,008106094	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3270_at	PA3270	0,58	1,49	5,05E-05	0,001879573	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA2720_at	PA2720	0,58	1,49	0,000246883	0,003850919	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA2668_at	PA2668	0,58	1,49	0,004211808	0,02217393	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5330_at	PA5330	0,58	1,49	0,000334008	0,0049857	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3069_at	PA3069	0,58	1,50	0,000149247	0,002905857	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown

PA1788_at	PA1788	0.74	1.67	0.00698519	0.031719167	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA2464_at	PA2464	0.75	1.68	0.000200431	0.003471951	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5256_dhbH_at	PA5256	0.75	1.68	8.44E-05	0.002273521	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation; Chaperones & heat shock proteins
PA3743_rrmD_at	PA3743	0.75	1.68	1.75E-05	0.002545793	Transcription, RNA processing and degradation
PA0381_rhig	PA0381	0.75	1.68	0.00005704	0.006361347	Biosynthesis of cofactors, prosthetic groups and carriers
PA3246_rluA	PA3246	0.75	1.68	0.001732325	0.01210402	Transcription, RNA processing and degradation
PA3770_guaB_at	PA3770	0.75	1.69	1.71E-05	0.001389481	Nucleotide biosynthesis and metabolism
PA4451_at	PA4451	0.75	1.69	0.000815206	0.007745849	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA1363_at	PA1363	0.76	1.69	0.000599373	0.006359312	Transcriptional regulators
PA5268_corA	PA5268	0.76	1.69	4.29E-05	0.001728886	Membrane proteins; Transport of small molecules
PA1675_at	PA1675	0.76	1.70	0.00060439	0.00061347	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4058_at	PA4058	0.76	1.70	1.02E-05	0.00198882	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0775_at	PA0775	0.76	1.70	0.008798946	0.037271259	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5143_hisB_at	PA5143	0.77	1.70	0.000548328	0.00609494	Amino acid biosynthesis and metabolism
PA0888_aotJ_at	PA0888	0.77	1.70	0.000363081	0.004662003	Transport of small molecules
PA3050_pyrD_at	PA3050	0.77	1.70	0.00092643	0.00839939	Nucleotide biosynthesis and metabolism
PA1159_at	PA1159	0.77	1.70	0.007560346	0.033670029	Transcriptional regulators; Adaptation, Protection
PA1831_at	PA1831	0.77	1.71	2.60E-05	0.00156423	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3001_at	PA3001	0.77	1.71	0.000363786	0.004662003	Putative enzymes
PA0667_at	PA0667	0.78	1.71	0.005020815	0.025144858	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4574_at	PA4574	0.78	1.71	0.002432172	0.015301723	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3645_fabZ_at	PA3645	0.78	1.72	0.000187645	0.003316062	Cell wall / LPS / capsule; Fatty acid and phospholipid metabolism
PA2492_mexT_at	PA2492	0.78	1.72	0.000173246	0.003215193	Transcriptional regulators
PA4473_at	PA4473	0.78	1.72	0.000296717	0.004245507	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5271_rnk_at	PA5271	0.78	1.73	2.16E-06	0.000578763	Transcriptional regulators
PA2622_cspD_at	PA2622	0.79	1.73	0.001497036	0.011002716	Transcriptional regulators; Adaptation, Protection
PA3055_at	PA3055	0.79	1.73	0.000302402	0.004280686	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5570_rpmH_at	PA5570	0.79	1.73	0.000817687	0.007745864	Central intermediary metabolism; Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA2702_at	PA2702	0.79	1.73	0.001141917	0.009437831	Secreted Factors (toxins, enzymes, alginate)
PA4666_hemA	PA4666	0.79	1.73	0.002878083	0.017117346	Biosynthesis of cofactors, prosthetic groups and carriers; Amino acid biosynthesis and metabolism; Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA0202_qor_at	PA0202	0.80	1.74	4.41E-05	0.001745766	Energy metabolism
PA5463_at	PA5463	0.80	1.75	9.32E-05	0.002433075	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4438_at	PA4438	0.81	1.75	0.001084479	0.009206318	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4035_at	PA4035	0.82	1.76	0.002825617	0.016932342	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4850_prmA_at	PA4850	0.82	1.76	9.23E-05	0.002426102	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA5129_grx_at	PA5129	0.82	1.76	0.000136646	0.002801888	Energy metabolism; Nucleotide biosynthesis and metabolism
PA2629_purB	PA2629	0.82	1.77	6.17E-05	0.002047415	Amino acid biosynthesis and metabolism; Nucleotide biosynthesis and metabolism
PA4563_at	PA4563	0.82	1.77	0.001376909	0.01324112	Energy metabolism
PA3480_at	PA3480	0.82	1.77	0.000244099	0.003859019	Nucleotide biosynthesis and metabolism
PA1676_at	PA1676	0.83	1.77	5.08E-06	0.000825616	Membrane proteins
PA5286_at	PA5286	0.83	1.78	0.002652666	0.016228935	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0082_at	PA0082	0.83	1.78	0.000585691	0.006286266	Protein secretion/export apparatus
PA0202_at	PA0202	0.83	1.78	4.08E-05	0.001714063	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5289_at	PA5289	0.84	1.79	2.51E-05	0.00156423	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4389_at	PA4389	0.84	1.79	3.33E-06	0.00089323	Putative enzymes; Amino acid biosynthesis and metabolism
PA1591_at	PA1591	0.84	1.79	0.002920354	0.01726165	Membrane proteins
PA4765_omlA_at	PA4765	0.84	1.79	5.88E-06	0.00084537	Membrane proteins; Transport of small molecules
PA1959_bacA	PA1959	0.85	1.80	0.00013421	0.002796363	Cell wall / LPS / capsule; Adaptation, Protection; Antibiotic resistance and susceptibility
PA1774_at	PA1774	0.85	1.80	0.000401157	0.004924819	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5479_gltP	PA5479	0.85	1.80	0.00018774	0.003041892	Membrane proteins; Transport of small molecules
PA4276_secE	PA4276	0.85	1.81	0.000119572	0.000268468	Protein secretion/export apparatus
PA4607_at	PA4607	0.85	1.81	8.13E-06	0.000890823	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0945_purM	PA0945	0.86	1.81	0.000636039	0.006543734	Nucleotide biosynthesis and metabolism
PA3313_at	PA3313	0.86	1.81	2.82E-05	0.001580082	Transport of small molecules
PA4325_at	PA4325	0.86	1.82	0.001881002	0.012949977	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0062_at	PA0062	0.87	1.82	0.000283947	0.004124667	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4043_ispA	PA4043	0.87	1.83	0.002108915	0.014082275	Biosynthesis of cofactors, prosthetic groups and carriers
PA2957_at	PA2957	0.87	1.83	7.33E-05	0.002164253	Transcriptional regulators
PA2667_at	PA2667	0.87	1.83	2.96E-05	0.001580082	Transcriptional regulators
PA3139_at	PA3139	0.87	1.83	4.12E-05	0.001718084	Amino acid biosynthesis and metabolism; Putative enzymes
PA4852_at	PA4852	0.87	1.83	0.001085048	0.009206318	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA1475_ccmA	PA1475	0.88	1.85	0.000848143	0.007923143	Transport of small molecules
PA4645_at	PA4645	0.88	1.85	2.54E-05	0.00156423	Nucleotide biosynthesis and metabolism
PA5217_at	PA5217	0.90	1.87	0.000374019	0.004706191	Transport of small molecules
PA4642_at	PA4642	0.90	1.87	7.70E-07	0.000528758	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4768_smpB	PA4768	0.91	1.88	0.00129221	0.00240095	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA3955_at	PA3955	0.91	1.88	0.00026053	0.003953439	Membrane proteins
PA3745_rpsP	PA3745	0.92	1.89	5.36E-05	0.001949826	DNA replication, recombination, modification and repair; Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA0209_at	PA0209	0.92	1.90	0.000443324	0.005178956	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA1106_at	PA1106	0.93	1.90	2.44E-06	0.000614944	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3161_himD	PA3161	0.93	1.91	5.41E-05	0.001949826	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation; Transcription, RNA processing and degradation; DNA replication, recombination, modification and repair
PA3824_queA	PA3824	0.94	1.91	0.001626799	0.011617896	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA2556_tsaA	PA2556	0.94	1.92	0.00117654	0.001113331	Fatty acid and phospholipid metabolism
PA2569_at	PA2569	0.94	1.92	8.25E-05	0.002254587	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3049_rmf	PA3049	0.94	1.92	7.19E-05	0.002135025	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA4481_mreB	PA4481	0.94	1.92	0.000873718	0.008053586	Cell wall / LPS / capsule; Cell division
PA4545_cmlA	PA4545	0.94	1.92	9.96E-05	0.002492719	Cell wall / LPS / capsule
PA2851_elfp	PA2851	0.94	1.92	0.000127815	0.002770426	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA3818_at	PA3818	0.95	1.93	0.000912464	0.03894731	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation; Adaptation, Protection
PA1596_htpG	PA1596	0.95	1.93	0.001199147	0.005907953	Chaperones & heat shock proteins
PA0094_at	PA0094	0.96	1.94	0.000169862	0.003173608	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA1189_at	PA1189	0.97	1.96	0.00026009	0.003953439	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3244_minD	PA3244	0.97	1.96	0.000183939	0.003292502	Cell division
PA3744_rimM	PA3744	0.98	1.98	0.000880709	0.008118536	Transcription, RNA processing and degradation
PA0055_at	PA0055	0.98	1.98	2.07E-05	0.001438517	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4354_at	PA4354	0.99	1.98	0.000140347	0.000153372	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0422_at	PA0422	1.00	2.00	5.94E-06	0.00084537	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3967_at	PA3967	1.00	2.00	6.99E-07	0.000323296	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4974_at	PA4974	1.01	2.01	0.00012454	0.002720758	Protein secretion/export apparatus
PA1852_at	PA1852	1.01	2.01	3.37E-06	0.000695253	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5300_cycB	PA5300	1.02	2.02	0.000364928	0.004665861	Energy metabolism
PA2800_at	PA2800	1.02	2.03	9.46E-05	0.002441172	Antibiotic resistance and susceptibility
PA3975_thiD	PA3975	1.02	2.03	0.000102377	0.002492719	Biosynthesis of cofactors, prosthetic groups and carriers
PA5276_ippL	PA5276	1.02	2.03	9.34E-07	0.000370132	Cell wall / LPS / capsule
PA3056_at	PA3056	1.02	2.03	6.42E-05	0.002047415	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5028_at	PA5028	1.03	2.04	0.000143568	0.002839872	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0706_cat	PA0706	1.03	2.04	0.000130463	0.002783815	Antibiotic resistance and susceptibility
PA5298_at	PA5298	1.04	2.06	0.000872392	0.008053586	Nucleotide biosynthesis and metabolism
PA4672_at	PA4672	1.04	2.06	1.86E-05	0.001425199	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA4853_rfc	PA4853	1.04	2.07	7.66E-05	0.002190488	Transcriptional regulators; DNA replication, recombination, modification and repair; Transcription, RNA processing and degradation
PA1796_foI	PA1796	1.05	2.07	3.23E-05	0.001636633	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation; Nucleotide biosynthesis and metabolism; Biosynthesis of cofactors, prosthetic groups and carriers
PA2755_eco	PA2755	1.07	2.10	1.92E-06	0.000578762	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA1354_at	PA1354	1.08	2.11	0.001056103	0.009069778	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA1750_at	PA1750	1.09	2.13	8.99E-05	0.002378021	Amino acid biosynthesis and metabolism
PA3612_at	PA3612	1.09	2.14	1.56E-05	0.001321518	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4784_at	PA4784	1.10	2.14	0.000181389	0.003286646	Transcriptional regulators
PA2936_at	PA2936	1.10	2.14	0.000222817	0.003659944	Membrane proteins
PA1064_at	PA1064	1.11	2.16	1.32E-05	0.001221855	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA1006_at	PA1006	1.11	2.16	8.90E-05	0.002374416	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4881_at	PA4881	1.12	2.17	0.000204124	0.003475817	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0421_at	PA0421	1.12	2.18	1.89E-06	0.000578762	Putative enzymes
PA4317_at	PA4317	1.12	2.18	0.000341486	0.004543023	Membrane proteins
PA0433_at	PA0433	1.13	2.18	6.58E-05	0.002047415	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4693_pssA	PA4693	1.13	2.19	0.000244854	0.003895919	Fatty acid and phospholipid metabolism
PA0362_fdxI	PA0362	1.14	2.21	5.90E-06	0.00084537	Energy metabolism
PA2666	PA2666	1.15	2.21	0.000472719	0.005459771	Biosynthesis of cofactors, prosthetic groups and carriers
PA1198_at	PA1198	1.16	2.23	1.21E-05	0.001169601	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA1035_at	PA1035	1.16	2.24	3.86E-06	0.000737709	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5192_pckA	PA5192	1.16	2.24	2.66E-05	0.00156423	Carbon compound catabolism; Energy metabolism
PA3611_at	PA3611	1.17	2.25	8.50E-06	0.001002984	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0385_at	PA0385	1.17	2.25	0.000133561	0.002796363	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA1192_at	PA1192	1.17	2.26	0.002588503	0.015977312	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3295_at	PA3295	1.18	2.26	0.000216905	0.003617049	Putative enzymes
PA3245_minE	PA3245	1.18	2.27	6.79E-05	0.002058865	Cell division
PA1009_at	PA1009	1.19	2.28	2.93E-05	0.001580082	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0167_at	PA0167	1.19	2.29	5.08E-06	0.000825616	Transcriptional regulators
PA2971_at	PA2971	1.20	2.29	4.67E-05	0.001791314	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5040_rpmE	PA5040	1.20	2.30	0.000478866	0.004543023	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA4031_ppa	PA4031	1.21	2.31	6.49E-06	0.000887606	Central intermediary metabolism
PA0005_at	PA0005	1.22	2.33	4.32E-06	0.000799407	Fatty acid and phospholipid metabolism
PA3223_acyD	PA3223	1.22	2.33	0.000249209	0.003873553	Fatty acid and phospholipid metabolism
PA2491_at	PA2491	1.23	2.34	1.15E-06	0.000426744	Putative enzymes; Transcriptional regulators
PA5491_at	PA5491	1.23	2.34	5.57E-05	0.001962587	Energy metabolism
PA5462_at	PA5462	1.24	2.36	6.64E-05	0.002048484	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3177_at	PA3177	1.25	2.37	1.99E-06	0.000578762	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown

PA3686_adk_at	PA3686	adk	1.25	2.37	5.54E-05	0.001962587	Nucleotide biosynthesis and metabolism
PA0578_at	PA0578		1.25	2.38	0.000103941	0.002492719	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0380_1_at	PA0380		1.25	2.38	0.000104195	0.002492719	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4632_at	PA4632		1.26	2.39	0.000262109	0.003937974	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4432_rpsL_at	PA4432	rpsL	1.27	2.40	0.000424616	0.005024095	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA4636_at	PA4636		1.27	2.41	0.001483625	0.010964942	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA1504_at	PA1504		1.28	2.43	1.22E-05	0.001169601	Transcriptional regulators
PA4670_prs_at	PA4670	prs prsA	1.28	2.43	0.000175147	0.003218181	Carbon compound catabolism; Nucleotide biosynthesis and metabolism
PA4441_at	PA4441		1.31	2.49	1.47E-07	0.000101985	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3243_minC_at	PA3243	minC	1.32	2.50	3.14E-05	0.001614521	Cell division
PA5130_at	PA5130	yibN	1.34	2.52	1.90E-05	0.001425199	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0363_coaD_at	PA0363	coaD	1.34	2.54	2.19E-06	0.000578762	Central intermediary metabolism
PA3684_1_at	PA3684		1.37	2.58	0.00114505	0.009437831	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3472_at	PA3472		1.39	2.61	2.62E-05	0.001564423	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4602_glyA3_at	PA4602	glyA3	1.42	2.67	9.50E-05	0.002441172	Amino acid biosynthesis and metabolism
PA1674_folE2_at	PA1674	folE2	1.47	2.76	0.002371788	0.015058411	Biosynthesis of cofactors, prosthetic groups and carriers
PA3229_at	PA3229		1.51	2.86	5.84E-06	0.000837751	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA2619_infA_at	PA2619	infA	1.54	2.90	0.000540126	0.005958569	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA0579_rpsU_at	PA0579	rpsU	1.60	3.03	3.80E-05	0.00168556	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA4723_dksA_at	PA4723	dksA	1.60	3.04	4.32E-07	0.000239941	Transcriptional regulators; Adaptation, Protection; DNA replication, recombination, modification and repair
PA5429_aspA_at	PA5429	aspA	1.66	3.17	1.56E-05	0.001332158	Amino acid biosynthesis and metabolism
PA4042_xseB_at	PA4042	xseB	1.70	3.25	5.50E-05	0.001962587	DNA replication, recombination, modification and repair
PA4433_rplM_at	PA4433	rplM	1.72	3.30	2.32E-05	0.001534556	Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA4705_phuW_at	PA4705	phuW	1.74	3.33	8.93E-09	1.24E-05	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4569_ispB_at	PA4569	ispB	1.82	3.54	1.87E-05	0.001425199	Energy metabolism; Biosynthesis of cofactors, prosthetic groups and carriers
PA4563_rpsT_at	PA4563	rpsT	2.03	4.09	4.54E-06	0.000812775	Central intermediary metabolism; Translation, post-translational modification, degradation
PA4711_at	PA4711		2.48	5.58	4.83E-06	0.000825616	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4706_at	PA4706	phuV	2.63	6.19	5.32E-10	1.47E-06	Transport of small molecules
PA4707_at	PA4707	phuU	2.79	6.91	4.62E-08	3.67E-05	Membrane proteins; Transport of small molecules
PA4709_at	PA4709	phuS	3.96	15.60	1.23E-08	1.36E-05	Putative enzymes; Transport of small molecules
PA4708_at	PA4708	phuT	4.11	17.22	4.35E-09	8.05E-06	Transport of small molecules
PA4710_at	PA4710	phuR	7.26	152.95	1.81E-10	1.00E-06	Transport of small molecules

PA5232_at	PA5232	yhil	-1,59	-3,01	0,071344675	0,163456483	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3278_at	PA3278		-1,73	-3,31	0,081187903	0,181210739	Membrane proteins
PA3309_at	PA3309	uspK	-1,60	-3,03	0,08197465	0,182242522	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA1789_at	PA1789		-1,34	-2,54	0,086152759	0,188264004	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5170_arcD_at	PA5170	arcD	-2,26	-4,79	0,087501297	0,190488385	Membrane proteins; Amino acid biosynthesis and metabolism; Transport of small molecules
PA2567_at	PA2567		-1,04	-2,06	0,095212577	0,202427045	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0141_at	PA0141		-1,25	-2,37	0,09815526	0,20669972	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5475_at	PA5475		-1,92	-3,79	0,10666369	0,219946792	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0200_i_at	PA0200		-1,67	-3,18	0,130634923	0,252400135	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA1196_at	PA1196		-1,38	-2,61	0,134292556	0,25708033	Transcriptional regulators
PA4610_at	PA4610		-1,04	-2,06	0,138813398	0,263883366	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4352_at	PA4352		-1,02	-2,03	0,150254553	0,279831017	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA2119_at	PA2119	adh	-1,31	-2,48	0,190540738	0,328357316	Putative enzymes
PA4577_at	PA4577		-1,01	-2,02	0,194157736	0,32832383	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA5427_adhA_at	PA5427	adhA	-1,17	-2,25	0,207817231	0,348588385	Energy metabolism; Carbon compound catabolism
PA1673_at	PA1673		-1,27	-2,41	0,234067529	0,379189526	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown

Supplementary Table 3: Analysis of PseudoCap function class enrichment among genes from Supplementary Table 2 (n=118). $P(X \geq x) \sim \text{binom}(X; p)$, where $P(X \geq x)$ is the probability of observing $\geq x$ of the 118 genes to belong to a functional class of genes.

	Total genes	% of total no. of genes (<i>p</i>)	Genes present (<i>x</i>)	% of genes	Fold enrichment	$P(X \geq x) \sim \text{binom}(X; p)$
Translation, post-translational modification, degradation	198	3,6	9	7,6	2,1	0,0259
Central intermediary metabolism	108	1,9	6	5,1	2,6	0,0284
Energy metabolism	206	3,7	9	7,6	2,1	0,0321
Fatty acid and phospholipid metabolism	64	1,2	4	3,4	2,9	0,0484
Carbon compound catabolism	193	3,5	8	6,8	1,9	0,0543
Amino acid biosynthesis and metabolism	246	4,4	9	7,6	1,7	0,0796
Nucleotide biosynthesis and metabolism	86	1,5	4	3,4	2,2	0,1119
Biosynthesis of cofactors, prosthetic groups and carriers	160	2,9	6	5,1	1,8	0,1268
Cell division	30	0,5	2	1,7	3,1	0,1342
DNA replication, recombination, modification and repair	88	1,6	3	2,5	1,6	0,2883
Putative enzymes	472	8,5	11	9,3	1,1	0,4217
Antibiotic resistance and susceptibility	74	1,3	2	1,7	1,3	0,4678
Transcription, RNA processing and degradation	55	1,0	1	0,8	0,9	0,6913
Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown	1923	34,7	37	31,4	0,9	0,8015
Protein secretion/export apparatus	142	2,6	2	1,7	0,7	0,8076
Transcriptional regulators	487	8,8	8	6,8	0,8	0,8225
Adaptation, Protection	208	3,7	3	2,5	0,7	0,8230
Transport of small molecules	607	10,9	10	8,5	0,8	0,8432
Secreted Factors (toxins, enzymes, alginate)	104	1,9	1	0,8	0,5	0,8927
Membrane proteins	675	12,2	9	7,6	0,6	0,9580
Cell wall / LPS / capsule	193	3,5	1	0,8	0,2	0,9847

Supplementary Table 4: Overview of significantly altered expressions (adj.p.Val < 0.05) between PAO1-M2 and PAO1 in LB medium. Locus ID, Loc tag, name, synonyms and PseudoCAP function class of each gene is described. Calculations of log fold changes and p-values are done using the *limma* package in R.

Locus ID	Locus Tag	Name	Synonyms	log Fold Change	Fold Change	P.Value	adj.P.Val	PseudoCAP Function Class
PA4710_at	PA4710	phuR		6,96	124,89	8,07E-12	4,48E-08	Transport of small molecules
PA4705_at	PA4705	phuW	phuW	3,36	10,27	4,38E-10	8,10E-07	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4706_at	PA4706	phuV	phuV	3,78	13,75	4,28E-10	8,10E-07	Transport of small molecules
PA4711_at	PA4711			3,50	11,34	8,50E-10	1,18E-06	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4709_at	PA4709	phuS	phuS	4,40	21,08	2,34E-09	2,59E-06	Putative enzymes; Transport of small molecules
PA4708_at	PA4708	phuT	phuT	4,27	19,24	3,52E-09	3,26E-06	Transport of small molecules
PA4707_at	PA4707	phuU	phuU	3,85	14,46	3,20E-08	2,54E-05	Membrane proteins; Transport of small molecules
PA4712_at	PA4712			2,55	5,87	1,55E-07	0,00010741	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA0091_at	PA0091	vgrG1	vgrG1a	0,99	1,99	1,69E-06	0,00104354	Protein secretion/export apparatus
PA0075_at	PA0075	pppA	tagG1	0,59	1,51	1,56E-05	0,00865313	Putative enzymes; Protein secretion/export apparatus
PA3908_at	PA3908			0,58	1,50	3,51E-05	0,01768733	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3877_narK1_at	PA3877	narK1		-0,74	-1,67	4,87E-05	0,0225392	Membrane proteins; Transport of small molecules
PA1920_at	PA1920	nrdD	nrdD	-0,51	-1,43	8,07E-05	0,02983554	Nucleotide biosynthesis and metabolism
PA3615_at	PA3615			-0,45	-1,37	7,56E-05	0,02983554	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4713_at	PA4713			0,76	1,70	7,25E-05	0,02983554	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA1197_at	PA1197			-0,62	-1,54	0,0001384	0,0452694	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4577_at	PA4577			-0,45	-1,37	0,00013869	0,0452694	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA3914_moeA1_at	PA3914	moeA1		-0,95	-1,93	0,00014802	0,04563217	Biosynthesis of cofactors, prosthetic groups and carriers

Supplementary Table 5: Overview of significantly altered expressions (adj.p.Val < 0.05) between DK2-CF30-1979-M2 and DK2-CF30-1979 in ABTGC medium. Locus ID, Loc tag, name, synonyms and PseudoCAP function class of each gene is described. Calculations of log fold changes and p-values are done using the *limma* package in R.

Locus ID	Locus Tag	Name	Synonyms	log Fold Change	Fold Change	P.Value	adj.P.Val	PseudoCAP Function Class
PA1632_kdpF_at	PA1632	kdpF		-1,03	-2,04	2,75E-05	0,01905455	Transport of small molecules
PA4220_i_at	PA4220		fptB	-0,91	-1,88	7,59E-05	0,04209642	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA1911_at	PA1911	femR		-0,60	-1,52	0,00010625	0,04670253	Membrane proteins; Transcriptional regulators
PA4223_at	PA4223		pchH	-0,56	-1,47	0,00011812	0,04681751	Membrane proteins; Transport of small molecules
PA1634_kdpB_at	PA1634	kdpB	atkB	-0,51	-1,42	0,00010941	0,04670253	Transport of small molecules
PA3126_ibpA_at	PA3126	ibpA	hsIT	0,54	1,46	0,00010122	0,04670253	Chaperones & heat shock proteins
PA1546_hemN_at	PA1546	hemN		0,60	1,51	5,36E-05	0,03304577	Biosynthesis of cofactors, prosthetic groups and carriers
PA4705_at	PA4705	phuW	phuW	1,20	2,30	8,56E-07	0,00079172	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4706_at	PA4706	phuV	phuV	1,32	2,50	1,18E-06	0,00093482	Transport of small molecules
PA4707_at	PA4707	phuU	phuU	1,58	2,98	6,33E-07	0,00070303	Membrane proteins; Transport of small molecules
PA4708_at	PA4708	phuT	phuT	1,89	3,71	1,44E-07	0,00026672	Transport of small molecules
PA4709_at	PA4709	phuS	phuS	2,24	4,73	2,37E-08	8,73E-05	Putative enzymes; Transport of small molecules
PA4711_at	PA4711			2,60	6,06	2,03E-07	0,00028104	Hypothetical, unclassified, unknown
PA4710_at	PA4710	phuR		4,24	18,88	3,15E-08	8,73E-05	Transport of small molecules