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Host-specific adaptation of *Legionella pneumophila* to single and multiple hosts

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18 Abstract

Legionella pneumophila is an endosymbiotic bacterial species able to infect and 19 reproduce in various protist and human hosts. Upon entry in human lungs, they may 20 infect lung macrophages, causing Legionnaires' disease (LD), an atypical 21 pneumonia, using similar mechanisms as in their protozoan hosts, despite the two 22 hosts being separated by a billion years of evolution. In this study, we used 23 experimental evolution to identify genes conferring host-specificity to L. 24 pneumophila. To this end, we passaged L. pneumophila in two different hosts -25 Acanthamoeba castellanii and the human macrophage-like cells U937 - separately 26 and by switching between the hosts twice a week for a year. In total, we identified 27 1518 mutations present in at least 5% of the population at the time of sampling. Half 28 of these were localized in five groups of repeated sequences, likely to be 29 recombination hotspots. Forty-nine mutations were fixed in the 18 populations at 30 the end of the experiment, representing four different groups. The first two groups 31 involve adaptation to the specific selection conditions, including (i) two specific 32 mutations in the 30S ribosomal protein S12 (RpsL) that conferred resistance to 33 streptomycin, to which the bacteria were unexpectedly exposed to during serial 34 passage and (ii) two mutations, one in the 30S ribosomal protein S4 (RpsD), and one 35 in the chaperonin GroES, both of which are likely to be fitness-restoring 36 compensatory mutations to the original RpsL mutations. Two more interesting 37 groups of mutations included (iii) mutations in 4 different strain-specific genes 38 involved in LPS synthesis, found only in the lineages passaged with A. castellanii and 39 (iv) mutations in the gene coding for LerC, a key regulator of protein effector 40 expression, which was independently mutated in 6 lineages grown in presence of 41 the U937 cells. We propose that the mutations degrading the function of the 42 regulator LerC improve the fitness of L. pneumophila in human-derived cells, and 43 that modifications in the LPS are beneficial for growth in A. castellanii. This study is 44 a first step in further investigating determinants of host specificity in L. 45 46 pneumophila.

48 Introduction

To date, 65 species of *Legionella* have been discovered, half of which can cause 49 disease in humans. Globally, 85% of cases of legionellosis are caused by Legionella 50 pneumophila - with the exception of Australia and New Zealand where 30% of cases 51 are caused by Legionella longbeachae (Fields et al. 2002; Den Boer and Yzerman 52 2004). Legionella causes two forms of legionellosis in humans – Legionnaires' 53 disease (LD) and Pontiac fever. LD is presented as a severe pneumonia, with 54 55 mortality of up to 15%, whilst Pontiac fever induces a milder flu-like illness. The worldwide occurrence of LD is difficult to calculate due to misdiagnosis and 56 underreporting, but it has been established as a major contributor to both 57 community- and hospital-acquired pneumonia (Falcó et al. 1991; Diederen 2008; 58 59 Lau and Ashbolt 2009).

60

Legionella has a long history of adaptation to eukaryotes. The order encompassing 61 Legionella and the related pathogen Coxiella, among others, is believed to have 62 started colonizing eukaryotes almost 2 billions years ago (Hugoson et al. 2022). The 63 ability of Legionella to infect humans has been associated with its long history of co-64 evolution with protozoans. *Legionella* is able to control its host's cellular processes, 65 such as vesicle trafficking. However, beyond the processes that are shared and 66 67 highly conserved among all eukaryotes, Legionella can also control others that are absent in the protists it frequently encounters (Park et al. 2020). It is unlikely that 68 Legionella has evolved these abilities simply from accidental transmission to 69 humans and man-made aquatic environments in the past century, especially 70 because humans are presumably evolutionary dead-ends for Legionella, as it doesn't 71 72 spread from patient to patient. The human host is not frequently met by *Legionella*, and specific in-patient mutations occur, despite the short infection cycle (Leenheer 73 et al. 2023). This leads to a hypothesis where metazoan species are also natural hosts 74 75 of Legionella, and these have been instrumental in furthering the evolution of 76 Legionella to infect human macrophages (Best and Abu Kwaik 2019).

77

The life cycle of *Legionella* replication is similar in all eukaryotic cells, despite some 78 host-specific differences. It is characterized by two distinct phases, replicative and 79 transmissive (Oliva et al. 2018). Upon entry into the host cell, Legionella evades 80 phagosome-lysosome fusion by forming a Legionella-containing vacuole (LCV). 81 Shortly after the LCV is formed, it recruits host mitochondria and rough 82 endoplasmic reticulum to surround its surface. In the LCV, Legionella undergoes 83 exponential growth - the replicative stage. When the host's nutrients are exhausted, 84 a new stage is triggered – the transmissive stage. There, *Legionella* is released from 85 the LCV to the host's cytosol, before exiting the cell using several mechanisms. In 86 this transmissive state *Legionella* is able to infect alveolar macrophages and cause 87 88 disease in humans. In laboratory conditions, Legionella also displays these replicative and transmissive characteristics, during the exponential and stationary 89 phases, respectively (Richards et al. 2013; Oliva et al. 2018). 90

91

The capacity of *Legionella* to evade lysosomes and modulate cellular processes in the 92 host is conferred by the Dot/Icm system (Isberg et al. 2009). The latter is classified 93 as a type IVB secretion system (T4BSS), and has two groups of loci - the *dot* (defect 94 in organelle trafficking) and the *icm* (intracellular multiplication). In *Legionella* this 95 secretion system injects over 300 effector proteins into the host cell. These effectors 96 play a role in entry of *Legionella* into the host cell, formation of LCV, and exit from 97 the host (Ensminger 2016). They also manipulate various cellular processes such as 98 vesicle trafficking, protein translation, and ubiquitination pathways. About 10% of 99 the coding capacity of Legionella pneumophila is used to express these effector 100 proteins (Richards et al. 2013). 101

102

A large number of effector proteins are functionally redundant. This has been 103 104 illustrated by experiments where deleting 31% of the effectors did not cause significant impairment of intracellular replication of Legionella in mouse 105 macrophages (O'Connor et al. 2011). Many effector proteins contain eukaryotic 106 domains which are thought to facilitate modulation of host cells (Hubber and Roy 107 108 2010). These domains can combine to make new effectors, which could be one of the reasons why Legionella can infect such a wide range of hosts (Gomez-Valero et al. 109 2019). 110

111

An important part of *Legionella*'s infection cycle is the coordination and regulation
of effector expression where four two-component systems (TCS) are central (Segal
2014). Together, they regulate the expression of over 100 genes (Feldheim et al.
2018) by sensing environmental stimuli and transducing the signal into the cell,
often via an autophosphorylation mechanism. By timing the expression of the right
effectors at the right time, they probably play an important role in host specificity.

118

The broad host-range of Legionella is thought to have arisen from its lifestyle of host 119 cycling, which selects against mutations that may decrease its fitness in the many 120 protozoans it naturally infects. This was tested in an experimental evolution set-up, 121 where Legionella was passaged in mouse macrophages for a year. The results showed 122 123 rapid parallel evolution of Legionella, and adaptive mutations that resulted in improved replication in macrophages when compared to ancestral strains 124 125 (Ensminger et al. 2012). Another evolution experiment involving Legionella and amoebae is the spontaneous endosymbiosis discovered by Jeon and Lorch (1967). 126 Following an unexpected infection of one of their cultures of Amoeba proteus by an 127 unknown bacterium (X-bacterium, now renamed 'Ca. Legionella jeonii'), a few 128 amoebae survived, but kept the bacterium, which turned out to be essential for the 129 amoeba upon subsequent cultivation. 130

131

132 In this study, we aimed at exploring the selective pressures imposed on the multi-

133 host endosymbiont *L. pneumophila*. By using experimental evolution, we sought to

- identify genetic determinants of host-specificity in this bacterium. We cycled *L*.
- 135 *pneumophila* in two different hosts separately and by repeated host switching. After
- one year of biweekly passaging, we sequenced the evolved lineages at population
- 137 levels and tested the fitness effects of the most frequent genotypes.
- 138 Results
- 139 Distribution of mutations

Each of the six lineages for all three hosts were passaged in their hosts for up to one
year and sequenced at population level at two or three time points (Supplementary
Table 1). All lineages passaged with human macrophage-derived cells (U937 cells,
abbreviated as Mac) were sequenced at all three timepoints, while for the other two
conditions, passaged with *A. castellanii* (Acas) and switching between the two hosts
(alternation, Alt), only one population was sequenced at one of the two later time
points.

147

We identified in total 1518 mutations that exceeded a 5% frequency in any 148 population, after removing low-frequency mutations (<20%) in one sample (Alt D, 149 t1) which was contaminated with another strain of *L. pneumophila*. The number of 150 mutations reaching 5% frequency ranged from 4 to 102 per population and time 151 point, with a median of 28.5 (Supplementary Figure 1). The number of mutations 152 153 appeared more variable and on average slightly higher at time point 1 than 3 (Supplementary Figure 2A). The fraction of non-fixed mutations is also higher at 154 time point 1 than 3 (Supplementary Figure 2B). Small indels accounted for only 4% 155 156 of the mutations (n = 62). As expected, among SNPs, transitions (987, 68%) were more frequent than transversions (468, 32%). The number of AT -> GC mutations 157 158 (N = 599, 50.4%) was very similar to the reverse (GC -> AT; N = 589, 49.6%). The numbers were also very similar when excluding repeated regions and recombination 159 hotspots prone to recombination (GC->AT: 270, 50.6%; AT->GC: 264, 49.4%). Very 160 few mutations (15) were found on the *L. pneumophila* Paris pLPP plasmid. All of them 161 162 appeared with frequencies < 15%. All further analysis focused on the chromosomal 163 mutations.

164

165 Mutational hotspots

166 Mutations were not uniformly distributed along the chromosome, and many 167 clustered around several hotspots (Supplementary Figure 3). In total, mutations in 168 these hotspots accounted for 751 or 49.4% of all mutations, but notably none of them were fixed. Eleven of these hotspots corresponded to intergenic regions 169 upstream or downstream of GIY-YIG nuclease family protein, which is a homing 170 endonuclease/mobile element (Dunin-Horkawicz et al. 2006). In total, 97 171 mutations occurred in these 11 hotspots. A second hotspot for mutations was a gene 172 corresponding to locus tag lpp1100, coding for an ankyrin repeat-containing 173 protein, which displayed 142 mutations. The ankyrin repeats (19 repeats of 35 174 residues, Supplementary Figure 4) are presumably different enough so that the 175

variants that were called by BRESEQ represent true mutations and not mapping
errors. The third hotspot for mutations was one of the five tetratricopeptide repeat
(TPR; 19 mutations) proteins present in *L. pneumophila* str. Paris, lpp2912. The
fourth hotspot was a repeated protein containing a domain of unknown function
(DUF1566; 36 mutations) which is widely present in *Gammaproteobacteria*. Finally,

- 181 the fifth group of hotspots was constituted of three occurrences of a larger segment
- 182 containing a transposase and a type II-like restriction endonuclease (DUF559; 457
- 183 mutations).
- 184
- 185 Frequent and fixed mutations

The frequency of variants varied greatly, but in total 20, 35 and 36 mutations appeared fixed after t1, t2 and t3, respectively; this corresponded to 1.2, 2.7 and 2.8 mutations per population. After the last time point (t3 for Acas and Mac, and t2 for most of the Alt populations), 10, 22, and 15 mutations were fixed in Acas, Mac, and Alt conditions, respectively. In some populations (e.g. Mac_A and Alt_D at t1, Acas_D and Mac_C at t3; **Supplementary Figure 2**), groups of variants were found

- 192 at a higher frequency but were not fixed, suggesting two sub-populations with
- 193 distinct mutations co-existing in the same culture.
- 194

In addition to the recombination hot-spots regions mentioned above, other genes 195 were also mutated several times with higher frequencies (Figure 1). Most fixed 196 mutations (92.3%) were small indels or non-synonymous mutations, while 197 198 intergenic or synonymous mutations were more common at lower frequencies (Table 1), as expected if genetic drift is not prevalent. Remarkably, the number of 199 synonymous mutations dropped from 20.1% among all mutations to only 2.2% (n = 200 2) among fixed mutations. Many non-synonymous mutations occurred 201 202 independently in the same gene (e.g. *rpsL*, *lerC*, lpp0832) (Figure 1).





Figure 1: Frequency of mutations appearing at least once within a gene or an intergenic space, with a frequency in the population of at least 25%. Mutations occurring within a gene are labeled with the locus tag or the gene name (if available). Mutations occurring in an intergenic space are labeled with the two bordering gene names or locus tags. If a gene/intergenic space is mutated several times, with different types of mutations (e.g. *lerC*), the different symbols are stapled on top of each other. The shape of the points corresponds to the type of mutation. The color

of each point corresponds to the frequency of the mutation. Yellow dots are fixed
 mutations. Mutations occurring in non-repetitive regions are shown at the top, and
 repetitive regions at the bottom.

214

215 Table 1: Number and frequency of mutations per category. Mutations were counted

for all three time points. The three pairs of columns represent the number andpercentage of mutations with frequency over 5%, with frequency over 25%, and

218 fixed in the population, respectively.

219

Mutation category	N (>5%)	%	N (> 25%)	%	N (fixed)	%
Small indel	62	4.1	29	3.7	23	25.3
SNP intergenic	611	40.4	404	52.1	3	3.3
SNP nonsense	42	2.8	21	2.7	2	2.2
SNP non-synonymous	492	32.6	240	30.9	61	67.0
SNP synonymous	304	20.1	82	10.6	2	2.2
Total	1511	100.0	776	100.0	91	100.0

220

221 In total, 48 mutations (representing 13 distinct mutations in 11 different genes) were

fixed in the population after the last time point (Table 2). This corresponds to about

a year of passaging in the three conditions: ~450 generations in U937 cells (Mac, t3),

~480 generations in the switching condition (Alt, t2), and ~800 generations in *A*.

- 225 castellanii (Acas, t3) (Supplementary Table 1).
- 226

Table 2: Fixed mutations. Mutations shown are those fixed at the last time point foreach lineage.

Gene	Product	Position ¹	Category ²	Pos ³	N fixed ⁴
lpp0833	N-acetylneuraminate synthase family protein	933 165	Small indel	182	8
groES	co-chaperone GroES	822 976	SNP nonsyn	45	7
rpsL	30S ribosomal protein S12	451 837	SNP nonsyn	43	7
		451 972	SNP nonsyn	88	7
rpsD	30S ribosomal protein S4	467 982	SNP nonsyn	205	7
lerC	response regulator LerC	119 826	Small indel	61	4
		119 903	SNP nonsense	46	1
rsmD	16S rRNA (guanine(966)-N(2))-methyltransferase RsmD	3 107 822	Small indel	42	2
lpp0831	hypothetical protein	930 446	Small indel	808	1
lpp0832	phosphotransferase	931 503	SNP nonsense	203	1

lpp0835	hypothetical protein	935 076	SNP nonsyn	228	1
lpp2016/	hypothetical protein/cation diffusion facilitator family	2 283 953	SNP intergenic	162	1
lpp2574	HAMP domain-containing histidine kinase	2 928 346	Small indel	594	1

230

231 ¹ Position along the *L. pneumophila* Paris chromosome (NC_006368).

232 ² SNP: single-nucleotide polymorphism; (non-)syn: (non-)synonymous.

- ³Position along the protein sequence, or the nucleotide sequence (for indels and intergenic sequences).
- 234 ⁴Number of fixed mutations across populations
- 235

As expected, most fixed mutations were non-synonymous or nonsense mutations, 236 237 or small intragenic indels (Figure 2). Two synonymous mutations (in *acpP* and *nuolL*, Figure 1) appeared to be fixed in the Mac B population but were absent at the 238 third time point. One intergenic mutation was found, 162 respectively 187 239 nucleotides upstream of two genes, lpp2016 and lpp2017 (Figure 2). The latter gene 240 is, according to in-silico predictions (Price et al. 2005), the first in a two-gene 241 operon (lpp2017 and lpp2018), both involved in ion transport. The former gene, 242 lpp2016, has no described function, and appears to be strain-specific in L. 243 pneumophila: it is present in subspecies pascullei and in strains Paris, Alcoy and 244 245 Corby but absent in Philadelphia (Altschul et al. 1997).





Figure 2: Genes with fixed mutations at the last sequenced time point under the 249 250 three conditions. Mutations occurring within a gene are labeled with the locus tag or the gene name (if available) on the right side of the figure; mutations occurring 251 in the same gene at different positions (*rpsL*, *lerC*) are shown on different lines, and 252 the position of the mutation is shown on the left side of the panel. For in-gene SNP 253 mutations, the position of the amino-acid whose codon has been mutated is 254 indicated. For the intergenic mutation, the position is the number of nucleotides 255 256 after the upstream gene; for the small indels, the position refers to the nucleotide position within the gene for the start of the indel. Mutations occurring in an 257 intergenic space are labeled with the two bordering gene names or locus tags. The 258 shape of the points corresponds to the type of mutation. The lerC 51 mutation is a 259 260 double mutation in the same codon, at the second and third codon position, resulting in a non-synonymous mutation. The color of each point corresponds to 261 262 the frequency of the mutation. Yellow points are fixed mutations.

263

264 Two pairs of mutations in ribosomal protein and chaperonin genes are mutually

265 exclusive

266 The distribution of mutations showed two distinct patterns of mutations, both of which were present under all three conditions (Figure 2). In one (referred to as 267 RpsL43/RpsD), the 30S ribosomal protein S12 RpsL was mutated at position 43, 268 where the lysine is replaced by a threonine (K43T), while the 30S ribosomal protein 269 S4 RpsD is mutated at position 205, where a serine replaces a tyrosine (S205Y). In 270 the other pattern (RpsL88/GroES), RpsL has another mutation, where the lysine at 271 position 88 is replaced by an arginine (K88R), while the co-chaperone GroES has a 272 mutation at position 45 (A45T). Every population harbored one or the other pair of 273 mutations, or a mix of both, at the last time point. Strikingly, these two pairs of 274 mutations were never seen together on a single isolate. In the four cases where both 275 patterns were present (Acas D, Acas F, Alt A, and Alt C; Figure 2), the 276 frequencies of the two mutations within the pattern were very similar, and the sum 277 of the two patterns roughly equals one. An inspection of the reads spanning both 278 279 positions in the *rpsL* gene revealed that no single read displayed both mutations, but 280 that all reads carried one.

281

The two mutations in RpsL (K43T and K88R) have previously been shown to provide resistance to streptomycin in *L. pneumophila* (Rao et al. 2013). We determined the minimal inhibitory concentration to be over 1024 μ g/ml in both cases. For both mutations, a halo zone was observed on plates (**Supplementary Figure 5**) but the halo was larger in the K88R-carrying mutant (down to ~96 μ g/ml) than in the K43T-carrying mutation (down to ~768 μ g/ml).

289 Mutations in the LPS synthesis gene cluster

290 Four linked genes were harboring fixed mutations: lpp0831 (a small indel), lpp0832 291 (one fixed nonsense mutation and four non-fixed mutations: one small indel and three non-synonymous mutations), lpp0833 (one fixed small indel in many 292 populations, as well as a non-fixed nonsense mutation in Acas B), and lpp0835 293 (one non-synonymous mutation) (Figure 2). These four genes belong to the variable 294 295 segment of the lipopolysaccharide (LPS) synthesis gene cluster. The mutation in lpp0833 was fixed in 8 out of 18 lineages, and only found in populations which 296 harbored the RpsL88/GroES genotype. In two of these lineages (Alt A and Alt D), 297 though, the lpp0833 mutation was found in 100% of the population whereas the two 298 299 genotypes RpsL88/GroES and Rpsl43/RpsD coexisted. Thus, the lpp0833 was found also in the Rpsl43/RpsD background in these two lineages. The other mutations in 300 the LPS synthesis operon were found exclusively in the lineages passaged in Acas or 301 during switching conditions. 302

- 303
- 304 Mutations in LerC, a response regulator of the effector regulatory network

Four distinct mutations in LerC were found at the last time point: a A13D nonsynonymous change (lerC_13), a 13-nt insertion after nucleotide position 61 in the gene (codon position 21; lerC_61), a C46* nonsense mutation (lerC_46), and a double SNP, resulting in a non-synonymous V51G mutation (lerC_51). All Mac lineages harbored one LerC mutation, and it was fixed in four of them; two of the Alt lineages harbored one (B and C, fixed in B), but none was found in the Acas lineages (Figure 1, 2). All these mutations were absent at the first time point.

312

The two non-synonymous lerC 13 and lerC 51 mutations seemed to have little 313 effect on the structure of the LerC protein (Supplementary Figure 6A and D). The 314 lerC 46 and lerC 61 mutations yielded a short peptide at the N-terminal (45 and 315 316 20 residues, respectively). However, longer proteins (88 and 122 residues, respectively) can presumably be translated from alternative start codons, to the end 317 of the protein. The lerC 61 mutant protein lacks the first two β-strands and the first 318 α -helix (Supplementary Figure 6B), while the lerC 46 mutant protein lacks an 319 320 additional α -helix and the conserved aspartic acid residue at position 53 (Supplementary Figure 6D), which is essential for the phosphorylation and function 321 of LerC (Feldheim et al. 2018). 322

- 323
- 324 Other mutations

Three other regions harbored fixed mutations at the last time point (Table 2; Figure 2). The first one was an intergenic region, upstream of both lpp2016 and lpp2017, in a location where the mutation could play a role in the regulation of either or both genes. The second was the gene lpp2574, which encodes a HAMP domaincontaining histidine kinase. Two different mutations were found in this gene, a 1-nt

insertion in the middle of the gene (lpp2574_594), fixed in Alt_F, and a non-

synonymous R196S (lpp2574_196), present in 86% of the Alt_E population. The
third one was the gene coding for the rRNA methyltransferase RsmD (Figure 3),
which methylates the guanine 66 of the 16S ribosomal RNA during ribosome
assembly. The effect of this mutation (rsmD_42) is unclear but is likely to result in
a loss-of-function mutation, as the mutation consists in a 1-nt deletion early in the
gene.

- 337
- 338 Fitness effects

To estimate the fitness effects of the mutations occurring in the experiment, clones 339 were isolated from populations and whole-genome sequenced. Their growth was 340 341 compared to their ancestors' growth, in both host cell types (U937 cells or A. castellanii). Since the two fluorescent markers (SYFP2 and dTomato) differ in many 342 aspects (intrinsic effect on organism fitness, brightness, folding time, half-life, 343 etc.), it is not possible to infer fitness differences between two clones carrying 344 different fluorescent markers directly from competition experiments. To correct for 345 this, a parallel experiment was run, competing the two ancestors, isogenic except 346 for the fluorescent marker. The fitness of the evolved clone, competed against the 347 ancestor with the other marker, can be compared to the fitness of the ancestor with 348 349 the same marker, competed against the ancestor with the other marker. Two methods to estimate fitness were evaluated: the first one assessed growth rates by 350 fitting splines to the growth curves, the second one estimated total growth by 351 comparing the fluorescence in stationary phase to the fluorescence early in the 352 experiment. The first method proved difficult to reproduce consistently, and the 353 second method, which calculates a Competition Index (CI), similar to the method 354 used by Ensminger et al. (2012), was preferred. 355

356

357 CI were calculated between the beginning of incubation (0h) and 64h of infection. 358 This timeframe represented the beginning and end of infections in our experimental setup (see Supplementary Figure 7). Since a MOI of 10 was used, representing 10 359 bacterial CFUs for 1 host cell, it allowed for only one replication cycle. A CI of 1 is 360 equivalent to a neutral effect in terms of fitness between the evolved and the 361 362 ancestral strain. CI measures the total production of cells during one cycle of replication of *Legionella* within its host. It captures the growth rate only indirectly, 363 and it does not capture differences in how bacteria exit the host cell. The results of 364 365 competition experiments are shown in Figure 3.

366

The gene *rpsL*, encoding the 30S ribosomal protein S12, was mutated in all populations, conferring streptomycin resistance to *L. pneumophila*. Two distinct mutations (at position 43 and 88) were identified, and each was accompanied by another mutation. The RpsL43/RpsD double mutation is found in 11 out of 18 lineages, and is fixed in 7 out of them. The other double mutation conferring streptomycin resistance, RpsL88/GroES, is equally widespread, found in 11 out 18 lineages, and fixed in 7. One isolate with the second genotype (Rpsl88/GroES;

DA75302) showed a strong advantage in competitions in amoebae, but a slight 374 375 disadvantage in macrophages (CIs of 2.34 and 0.76, respectively) (Figure 3A). None of our isolates had only the RpsL43/RpsD genotype, but one (DA76739) had these 376 two mutations and an extra G241V non-synonymous mutation in the IolE protein, 377 involved in myo-inositol metabolism. This isolate showed a similar trend, but not 378 379 as pronounced, as the RpsL88/GroES mutant: it grew slightly better than the wild type in amoebae but worse in macrophages (CI values of 1.11 and 0.73, respectively) 380 381 (Figure 3B).





383

Figure 3: Competition index (CI) of different isolated strains evolved during the evolution experiment. Evolved strains of *L. pneumophila* Paris were competed in the U937-like macrophage cells and the amoeba *A. castellanii* against the ancestral strain. Each replicate is represented by a grey dot and the average is shown as a red bar. The blue dashed line is set at CI=1 (evolved clones grow as much as the ancestors).

390

Another gene with several independent mutations was lerC, which encodes a single-391 domain response regulator, involved in modulating the expression of the protein 392 effectors translocated into the host cytoplasm (Feldheim et al. 2018). Four isolates 393 contained mutations in their lerC gene: DA75291i with a nonsense mutation 394 (lerC 46, C46*); DA75299i with a non-synonymous double mutation (lerC 51, 395 V51G); LG300i with another non-synonymous mutation (lerC 13, A13D), and 396 397 DA76737 with a 13-bp deletion (lerC_61). The results of the competition with the 398 ancestors are shown in Figure 3B, while the predicted structure of the mutants is shown in Supplementary Figure 6. All these isolates also contained streptomycin 399 resistance-conferring mutations: DA75291i (lerC 46, C46*) and LG300i (lerC 13, 400 A13D) also harbor the double mutation RpsL43/RpsD, while DA75299i (lerC_51, 401 402 V51G) and DA76737 (lerC 61, 13-bp deletion) harbor the other double mutation RpsL88/GroES. The latter two isolates, DA75299i and DA76737, also harbor an extra 403

404 mutation in lpp0833, involved in LPS synthesis. The effects of the mutations are405 thus compounded in the fitness experiments.

406

In A. castellanii cells, the RpsL88/GroES mutations provided the largest fitness gain 407 (DA75302; CI = 2.34). Adding a mutation in the lpp0833 (involved in LPS synthesis), 408 409 the fitness was larger than for the wild type, but slightly lower than the latter mutant (DA75735; CI = 2.08). The further addition of the 13-bp deletion in LerC (lerC_61) 410 results in a fitness similar to the wild type (DA75737; CI = 0.91) while the addition of 411 the non-synonymous lerC 51 mutation resulted in a very large fitness drop 412 (DA75299i; CI = 0.40), suggesting that the net effect of both LerC mutations is a 413 large fitness loss. On the other hand, the RpsL43/RpsD (accompanied by the IolE 414 mutation) yielded a very slight fitness gain (DA76739; CI = 1.11). Removing the IolE 415 mutation but adding the non-synonymous lerC 13 mutation resulted in a very 416 417 similar fitness (LG300i; CI = 1.19), while the addition of the nonsense lerC 46 mutation resulted in a large fitness drop (DA75291i; CI = 0.49) (Figure 3). 418 Unexpectedly, although mutations in the LPS synthesis cluster were widespread in 419 populations exposed to A. castellanii, the largest fitness increase seem to be provided 420 421 by the RpsL88/GroES mutations.

422

In macrophages, the mutations had in general a weaker effect, and most tested 423 mutations resulted in a slight fitness drop. The CI values were on average between 424 425 0.75 and 1 (with one exception), and showed a greater variance than in amoebae, making comparisons less reliable. One isolate, DA76737, which has the four 426 mutations (in RpsL88/GroES, in lpp0833, and in lerC 61) that are fixed in two 427 lineages (Mac A and Mac E) had a markedly lower fitness compared to the 428 ancestral type, with an average CI of 0.52. This value can be compared to the CI of 429 430 DA76735, which has the same mutations but lacks the non-synonymous lerC 61 mutation (CI = 0.85). Despite the ubiquity of mutated LerC sequences in populations 431 exposed to macrophages, no LerC mutants seemed to show an increased fitness in 432 433 macrophages, at least in the experimental setting used here.

434

435 Mutation rates and diversity of streptomycin resistance-conferring mutations

436 To investigate the likelihood that the same mutations (in particular the ones conferring resistance to streptomycin) occur many times in parallel, we measured 437 438 mutation rates to streptomycin using fluctuation assays for the three ancestral 439 strains (L. pneumophila Paris, and both SYFP2- and dTomato-marked descendants). 440 The results indicated that the mutation rates were low for all three strains (see Supplementary Table 2), ranging from 5.5×10^{-10} to 7.6×10^{-10} . Considering an 441 average mutation rate of 6.5×10^{-10} and that the bacterial population size is 5×10^{5} 442 and 5×10^6 for the experiments with A. castellanii and U937 cells, respectively, there 443 is a 3.3×10^{-4} and 3.3×10^{-3} probability that a mutation conferring resistance to 444 streptomycin will appear in one cell at each generation. At t1, which corresponds to 445

446 128 and 113 generations (Supplementary Table 1), the probability that streptomycin

resistance would have occurred at least once in any given Acas and Mac population
reaches 4% and 30%, respectively. At t3 (798 and 444 generations) the probabilities
were 23% and 76%, respectively. However, the streptomycin resistance was present
in half the Acas and 5 out of 6 Mac populations at t1, and in all populations at t3,
exceeding the calculated likelihoods, indicating that streptomycin resistance might
have introduced by contamination.

453

To investigate whether the only two RpsL mutations we obtained in our evolution experiment (K43T and K88R) were representative of all streptomycin-resistance conferring mutations, we sequenced the *rpsL* gene of 40 streptomycin-resistant isolates obtained from the fluctuation assays. Although six other mutations were identified, K43T (11 mutations) and K88R (21 mutations) accounted together for 80% of the mutations found in these isolates (n = 40) (Supplementary Figure 8).

- 460
- 461

462 Discussion

463 In this study, we experimentally evolved *Legionella pneumophila* in presence of one of its natural hosts, the amoeba Acanthamoeba castellanii, and of the human 464 macrophage-derived cell line U937, to identify host-specific genetic adaptations. 465 466 We passaged *L. pneumophila* separately in each host and switching between them, twice a week for a year. In the populations exposed to the amoebal host, we found 467 that the LPS-synthesis cluster was probably under selection whereas in the 468 populations exposed to the human macrophage-derived cell lines, LerC, a protein 469 playing a major role in regulating the temporal expression of protein effectors, 470 harbored potential adaptive mutations. We also found that most mutations occur in 471 mutational hotspots, presumably as a result of the high recombination rates in L. 472 pneumophila. 473

474

475 Host-specific adaptations in the LPS-synthesis cluster and in the LerC response

476 regulator

Most L. pneumophila populations exposed to A. castellanii displayed mutations in 477 genes of the LPS synthesis cluster. The Legionella LPS synthesis cluster contains ca. 478 479 30 genes (lpg0779-lpg0746 in the Philadelphia strain; lpp0812-lpp843 in Paris) 480 (Thürmer et al.). The genes that were mutated in our evolution experiment (lpp0831, lpp0832, lpp0833 and lpp0835) correspond to ORF 11, 10, 9 and 7, respectively, and 481 482 belong to the serogroup 1 (SG1)-specific region of the LPS gene cluster (Mérault et 483 al. 2011; Petzold et al. 2013). Whereas lpp0831, lpp0832 and lpp0833 have homologs in other serogroups (albeit with low similarity), lpp0835 is found only in SG1, and 484 has been proposed as a marker for that group (Mérault et al. 2011). The function of 485 486 the heavily mutated lpp0833 (lpg0768) is not fully understood, but it is homologous to a sialic acid synthetase function (neuAc, neuB family), and is presumably involved 487 488 in late modifications of the O-antigen (Petzold et al. 2013). The 1-nt deletion in 489 lpp0833 (lpp0833_182) results in an out-of-frame mutation after 182 nucleotides
490 (of >1000), resulting in a very truncated protein. Although functional studies would
491 be required to firmly establish the effect of the truncation, it is likely that it results
492 in a non-functional protein.

493

The fact that 8 distinct mutations were found in the LPS operon, affecting only the 494 populations in contact with amoebae, strongly suggest that these are adaptive, and 495 beneficial for Legionella when infecting the A. castellanii strain used in this 496 experiment. One isolate with the 1-nt deletion (lpp0833_182) indeed showed a very 497 strong advantage in competitions inside A. castellanii. However, this isolate also 498 carries the RpsL88/GroES genotype, which itself provides an important advantage. 499 500 It is thus difficult to separate the effect of the two genotypes. Further research in the function of these genes in different hosts might uncover the relationships between 501 502 LPS and host-specificity, but a reasonable hypothesis is that the LPS obtained in the evolved *L. pneumophila* clones is different to the one in the wild-type. The modified 503 LPS thus potentially lowers the immune response of A. castellanii, providing an 504 advantage for this particular Legionella strain. 505

506

The response regulator LerC is another gene carrying multiple distinct mutations, 507 (namely four), two of which are fixed in 5 populations after the last time point. LerC 508 is involved in the network of regulation of effector proteins (Feldheim et al. 2018). 509 Primary regulation of the expression happens mainly through four distinct two-510 component systems (TCS), which together regulate over 100 effectors (Segal 2014). 511 Among these, PmrAB regulates directly over 40 effectors (Al-Khodor et al. 2009), 512 while LetAS regulates another set of effectors, via the small RNAs RsmY and RsmZ 513 (Sahr et al. 2009). LerC was found to be a connector between these two systems: it is 514 activated by PmrAB, and inhibits LetAS (Feldheim et al. 2018). The repression of 515 LetAS seems to be growth-phase dependent, as PmrAB is activated under the 516 exponential growth phase, favoring cell divisions inside the Legionella-containing 517 vacuole (LCV). At some point, late in the exponential phase, the activation of LerC by 518 519 PrmAB decreases, which in turn relieves the repression on LetAS, which triggers the cells to enter stationary phase (Feldheim et al. 2018). 520

521

In the study describing the function of LerC (Feldheim et al. 2018), the authors 522 523 noticed that knock-out mutants of *lerC* resulted in various colony types where one of the types took over after a few passages. Sequencing the new dominant type 524 revealed, in addition to the *lerC* mutation, mutations in either *letA* or *letS* that 525 resulted in non-functional versions of the proteins. Although we found several non-526 functional versions of LerC in our experiment, *letA* and *letS* were not mutated in any 527 of our strains. However, *lerC* mutants were grown on solid medium by Feldheim et 528 al., while our lineages were grown in presence of their hosts only. This indicates that 529 repression of LetAS might be important for growth on solid medium. It should also 530 531 be noted that Feldheim et al. used L. pneumophila JR32, derived from Philadelphia1, which are separated by ca. 70 000 SNPs from the Paris strain used here (David et
al. 2016; Wee et al. 2021): the regulation of effector secretion might be different
between the two strains, and could explain why we were able to obtain LerC mutants
without the compensating *letAS* mutations.

536

537 Mutations in LerC appeared to be generally deleterious in A. castellanii, as evidenced by the absence of any LerC mutant in the populations exposed to this host only. This 538 is further supported by competition experiments: compared to the strain with the 539 same background except LerC, the LerC mutants had a lower CI. One strain with the 540 wild-type LerC (DA76735) had a CI of 2, while two other strains, harboring two 541 different LerC mutations (DA76737 with the lerC 61 deletion; DA75299i with the 542 non-synonymous V51G mutation) had much lower CIs, under 1 and under 0.4, 543 respectively. The comparisons for the other two mutants are more complicated to 544 545 interpret, as there were no isolates with exactly the same background, but the mutant with the lerC 46 nonsense mutation (DA75291i) had a CI of 0.49, more than 546 half than the counterpart (DA76739) which had the wild-type LerC (CI = 1.11) but 547 also another mutation in IolE. The last lerC mutant (LG300i), carrying lerC 13, a 548 549 nonsynonymous mutation (A13D), had actually a slightly higher CI (1.19) than DA76739 (1.11). In summary, both the distribution, diversity and competition results 550 show that mutations affecting LerC are deleterious for the survival and reproduction 551 of L. pneumophila in A. castellanii. 552

553

On the other hand, the mutations in LerC are likely to be adaptive in human 554 macrophage-derived cells: all six populations passaged in U937 cells only acquired 555 a mutation in the *lerC* gene, which got fixed in four of them. Two populations 556 passaged in alternation in U937 and A. castellanii cells showed mutations in LerC, of 557 558 which one got fixed. The expected advantage in macrophages was only partially confirmed by our competition experiments. The comparison with the wild-type 559 strain is complicated by the fact that the LerC mutants in our collection of isolates 560 all have additional mutations. The most widespread mutation (lerC 61) had a lower 561 562 CI(0.52) than its counterpart without (0.82), which is quite unexpected. Conversely, the isolate with the lerC 51 mutation (DA75299i), present in the majority of both 563 564 the Mac C and Mac D populations, had a higher CI than its counterpart without (DA7535). The fitness for the other two LerC isolates (lerC 46, and lerC 13; also 565 566 harboring the RpsL43/RpsD mutations) is again difficult to evaluate, as there are no 567 isolates with only the RpsL43/RpsD mutations. However, compared to the RpsL43/RpsD isolate that also has an IolE mutation, the lerC 46 and lerC 13 568 569 isolates have a slightly higher CI. In summary, the pervasive presence of LerC 570 mutants in the populations passaged in human macrophage-derived cells strongly suggests that the wild-type LerC protein is deleterious to *L. pneumophila* Paris when 571 infecting these cells. 572

574 In summary, although the results of the competition experiments are somewhat 575 inconclusive, the pervasive presence of LerC mutations in populations exposed to 576 macrophages-like cells but not in populations exposed to A. castellanii only, suggests that most LerC mutations are deleterious for growth in A. castellanii, while 577 578 they are likely advantageous for growth in human macrophage-like cells. The 579 variety of mutations found in the lineages exposed to macrophage-like cells, including two that significantly shorten the protein, suggests that a loss or 580 reduction of the LerC function would be beneficial in the human host. The fact that 581 582 the LerC mutants are also found in lineages where Legionella was alternated between 583 the two hosts suggests that the positive selective value in macrophage-like cells is large enough that it overcomes the negative selective values in *A. castellanii*. Thus, 584 585 LerC is a good candidate for a gene that confers a host-specific advantage, in this case in human cells. 586

587

588 Adaptation to experimental growth conditions

In addition to the potentially host-specific adaptations, we identified groups of 589 mutations involved in adaptation to the specific growth conditions of our 590 experiment. Among them are two mutations in the ribosomal protein S12 RpsL 591 592 (K43T and K88R), known to provide resistance to streptomycin (Funatsu and Wittmann 1972). Spontaneous resistance to streptomycin resistance in *Legionella* is 593 a common phenomenon, e.g. in L. dumoffii (Hubber et al. 2017) or in many laboratory 594 descendants of the L. pneumophila Philadelphia (Berger and Isberg 1993; Rao et al. 595 596 2013). Single-step resistance to streptomycin through mutation of *rpsL* has been 597 documented, among others, in Escherichia coli (Funatsu and Wittmann 1972) and in 598 *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Nair et al. 1993). In both organisms, mutation of codon 43 (42 in *E. coli*) provides resistance to streptomycin, while mutations in codon 88 599 600 (87) is found mostly in E. coli (Timms et al. 1992). Both mutations have been 601 identified in spontaneous streptomycin mutants in *L. pneumophila* (Rao et al. 2013). 602 Our Legionella lineages were never directly exposed to streptomycin, but early in the 603 experiment, both host cell lines were grown in the presence of penicillinstreptomycin, to avoid contaminations. The host cells were thoroughly washed 604 before being infected with the Legionella lineages, precisely to prevent exposing 605 606 Legionella to the antibiotic. A possible explanation is that, despite washing, 607 streptomycin could accumulate in the host cytoplasm, where it gets in contact with bacteria and increase the selective pressure for streptomycin resistance. Although it 608 609 is unlikely that the concentrations inside the washed host cells reached the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC), sub-MIC levels of antibiotic have been 610 611 shown to select for resistant mutants (Gullberg et al. 2011).

612

613 Each of the two RpsL mutations described above are almost in all cases accompanied

- 614 by another mutation. RpsL43 is paired with a mutation in the ribosomal protein S4,
- 615 RpsD, while RpsL88 is paired with a mutation in the co-chaperonin GroES. The
- 616 specific mutation found in RpsD is a known compensatory mutation, which, in *E*.

617 coli, restores an efficient translation to cells which also harbor the K43T mutation in 618 RpsL (Björkman et al. 1999). The specific role of the co-chaperonin GroES (also referred to as HtpA in Legionella) in Legionella is not fully understood, but 619 chaperonins in Legionella have been shown to play very different roles in the 620 621 different phases of Legionella lifestyles. The chaperonin itself (GroEL/HtpB) appears 622 to be exposed on the surface of the bacterial cell during infection and can trigger phagocytosis in non-phagocytosing cells, while it can redirect vesicular and 623 organelle trafficking in the host cytoplasm when inside cells (Garduno et al. 2011). 624 The function of the co-chaperonin GroES is less understood, but it is reasonable to 625 assume that it co-translocates with GroEL. That specific mutation might also simply 626 be compensatory, e.g. by helping to fold a potentially destabilized mutant RpsL 627 628 protein.

629

630 RpsL, besides its function as a ribosomal protein, might trigger macrophage death, 631 suggesting an adaptive role in host infection. Through pattern recognition receptors (PRRs), mammalian cells recognize bacterial invaders, and trigger both cellular 632 apoptosis and inflammatory response (Akira et al. 2006). Many PRRs have known 633 634 ligands (e.g. flagellin, needle of the type III secretion system) but some are still 635 evasive. Experiments with mouse bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDMs), 636 Zhu et al. (2015) suggests that RpsL is responsible for macrophage death caused by 637 L. pneumophila. Strikingly, in that study, only one of the two RpsL mutations found in our experiment (K88R) did not trigger cell death, allowing Legionella to replicate. 638 639 Although we do not know how conserved this interaction is and whether human cells 640 or amoebae possess a similar mechanism, it is interesting to note that 4 out of 6 of the Mac lineages display a fixed RpsL K88R mutation, while it is fixed in 2 Acas and 641 642 1 Alt lineages (other Acas lineages have two subpopulations with each one RpsL 643 mutation). This suggests that, even in human macrophages, the K88R RpsL mutant might be less prone to trigger cell death. However, competition experiments do not 644 645 seem to corroborate this observation: the RspL88/GroES genotype provides an 646 important advantage in A. castellanii cells, but a slight disadvantage in U937 cells 647 (Figure 3).

648

649 The RpsL43/RpsD mutation occurred twice in the lineages exposed to macrophages. 650 We could not test the fitness of that genotype alone, since all the isolates we 651 collected had one or more extra mutations. An isolate with an extra IolE mutation showed an increased fitness in A. castellanii cells but a decreased one in macrophages 652 (Figure 3), a pattern similar to the RpsL88/GroES genotype. It is counterintuitive 653 654 that a mutation with a fitness cost (in macrophages) would be fixed in all 655 populations. A potential explanation is that the *Legionella* populations might have been exposed to streptomycin during the evolution experiment, setting a strong 656 657 evolutionary pressure, but streptomycin (and thus the pressure) was not present at 658 all during the competition experiment. These discordant results might be the result 659 of the RpsL mutations being always beneficial in presence of (even traces of)

streptomycin, and being beneficial in amoebae but detrimental in macrophages inthe absence of streptomycin.

662

663 An intergenic mutation in-between an ion-transport operon and a strain-specific

664 gene

665 One single intergenic mutation was found to be fixed, upstream of two genes, 666 lpp2016 and lpp2017 (Figure 1). The former gene, lpp2016, has no described function, and appears to be strain-specific in *L. pneumophila*, while the latter is 667 668 involved in ion transport. From sequence analysis only it is not possible to 669 determine whether this mutation would yield a selective advantage. However, it is 670 possible that this mutation interferes with the regulation of one or both of the 671 downstream genes. It is also possible that this intergenic space, unusually large (ca. 350 nt) might encode a small, non-coding RNA (ncRNA), which might have 672 regulatory or even virulence functions. To the best of our knowledge, this specific 673 674 intergenic region has not been shown to contain a ncRNA (Sahr et al. 2012). Recently, 675 L. pneumophila has been shown to express and translocate sRNAs into its eukaryotic 676 host, where it regulates the host innate immune response (Sahr et al. 2022).

677

678 Recombination hotspots account for a large part of the mutations

679 *Legionella* genomes are known to experience extensive homologous recombination 680 (David et al. 2017). Early studies estimated that the recombination (r) and mutation (m) rates should be similar (r/m = 0.9) (Coscollá and González-Candelas 2007; Vos 681 682 and Didelot 2008). However, later estimates based on larger datasets suggest a much 683 higher rate of recombination, with the vast majority of SNPs (96–99%, depending on the groups) arising from recombination (David et al. 2017). In our study, we 684 685 identified five groups of homologous regions which harbor clusters of mutations. 686 These regions are likely to represent hotspots of intra-genomic recombinations: 687 eleven homing endonucleases, an ankyrin repeat-containing protein (lpp1100), one 688 tetratricopeptide repeat (TPR) protein, a repeated protein containing a domain of 689 unknown function (DUF1566), and three occurrences of a larger segment containing 690 a transposase and a restriction endonuclease type II-like (DUF559). It should be 691 noted that our experiment obviously excludes inter-genomic recombination, and 692 that intra-genomic recombination among identical chromosomes yield no 693 mutations. Only recombination between similar (but not identical) regions yields mutations, leading to an underestimation of the recombination rates. 694

695

The first group of recombination hotspots consists of homing endonucleases – found in all domains of life and in viruses – which are known to cause gene conversions between mobile genetic elements (Dunin-Horkawicz et al. 2006). This group of genes has been found to be enriched for in clinical sporadic strains (when compared to environmental strains) in *L. pneumophila* sequence type (ST) 1, suggesting that they contribute to the genetic diversity of ST1, the most prevalent

702 ST (Mercante et al. 2018). The second group is an ankyrin repeat-containing protein 703 (ANK). ANK motifs are typically eukaryotic motifs, and are found on many of the Legionella effectors (Habyarimana et al. 2008). This specific protein is not 704 widespread in *Legionellales*, and is absent from most *L. pneumophila* strains, as well 705 706 as from *L. longbeachae* (Gomez-Valero et al. 2011). It has been shown to be highly upregulated in transmission phase (Brüggemann et al. 2006; Jules and Buchrieser 707 2007). A distant homolog is however found in *L. drancourtii* LLAP12 (Supplementary 708 Figure 9). TPR motifs, the third group of recombination hotspots, are known to be 709 involved in protein-protein interactions in both eukaryotes and bacteria, and have 710 been shown to be involved in virulence in *L. pneumophila* (Bandyopadhyay et al. 711 2012). The fourth hotspot is a non-repeated protein containing a domain of 712 unknown function (DUF1566) which is widely present in Gammaproteobacteria. 713 Finally, the fifth group of hotspots is constituted of three occurrences of a larger 714 715 segment containing a transposase and a restriction endonuclease type II-like (DUF559). The first and fifth groups were recognized as repeated regions (David et 716 al. 2017), and excluded from their recombination analysis. As for the other single-717 718 protein hotspots, they were not deemed repeated but were not detected as 719 recombination hotspots.

720

About half (49.4%) of the mutations identified in our study occur in these five groups of mutational hotspots, but none of them got fixed. The majority of them occurred only at low frequency, and only mutations in three of the hotspot groups (lpp1100, GIY-YIG homing endonucleases, transposase/DUF559) reached 25% in frequency. However, the large number of intra-genomic recombination events that can be detected probably provides variation in the genome architecture and potentially contributes to the adaptability of *Legionella* genome.

728

The mutational patterns identified in this study follow the general principles of 729 molecular evolution, for example displaying about twice as many transitions than 730 transversions. Single-nucleotide polymorphisms are generally lowering the general 731 732 G+C content of bacterial genomes (e.g. Hershberg and Petrov 2010; Ely 2021), while higher G+C content is generally believed to occur through GC-biased gene 733 734 conversion (gBGC) (Lassalle et al. 2015). However, in our study, the AT to GC mutations unexpectedly accounted for almost half (49.4%) of the mutations 735 736 altering the GC content, even after removing mutations occurring in recombination 737 hotspots.

738

The pLPP plasmid found in *L. pneumophila* strain Paris (Cazalet et al. 2004) is
sparsely found in ST1-strains (Durieux et al. 2019). Strikingly, although the plasmid

741 is not essential, it has been retained in all of our lineages. This may be due to the

- 742 presence of a toxin/antitoxin (TA) system on the pLPP plasmid: at least one PHD-
- RelE type TA system on the pLPP plasmid, according to the TADB (Shao et al. 2011)
- 744 and TAsmania (Akarsu et al. 2019).

745

746 Fitness of evolved strains

747 A puzzling observation in the fitness measurements performed is the discordance between our finding in the serial passage experiments of parallel and fixed 748 mutations, which indicates a strong selective advantage, versus the lack of an 749 advantage of the evolved clones (observed CI < 1) in competition experiments with 750 751 the ancestral strains. At present we do not understand the underlying reason(s) for this discordance, but it should be noted that measuring fitness is a complex matter 752 and in an experiment like the one described here, selection is acting at different 753 levels. Compared to experiments in pure culture like the LTEE (Lenski 2017) where 754 755 the maximum growth rate in exponential phase is paramount, other aspects of the life cycle of *Legionella* play a role. The time necessary to find a host, the ability to 756 trigger endocytosis, the ability to resist digestion and the efficiency to recruit 757 nutrients to the *Legionella*-containing vacuoles, the time required to exit lag phase 758 and enter exponential phase, the efficiency to exit the host cells, are important in 759 how many of each genotype make it to the next passage. Thus, the CI method used 760 761 here is probably too crude to capture all these aspects, which might explain the sometimes-discordant results presented above. It is also possible that the fitness 762 763 changes are non-transitive, and that competition experiments of the evolved strains versus the ancestral strain are not properly capturing such dynamics. 764 Additional measures of fitness might help better understand the phenotypic effects 765 of the mutations. 766

767

768 Comparisons with other studies

769 Other studies have identified mutations specifically occurring within-host. In the first and - to our knowledge - only published evolution experiment with L. 770 pneumophila, Ensminger et al. (2012) passage L. pneumophila in mouse macrophages 771 for a year. This study identified, among others, mutations in the lysine synthesis 772 pathway and in the flagellar regulation gene *fleN*. Surprisingly, there was no overlap 773 between the mutations found in this study and ours. This might however also reflect 774 the differences between the hosts and *Legionella* strains used in the two studies: 775 776 while we used human cell lines and *A. castellanii* as hosts and *L. pneumophila* Paris, the other study cycled L. pneumophila LP01, derived from the Philadelphia strain, 777 cycled in mouse-derived macrophages. A comparison with another study 778 779 identifying mutation occurring in-patient (Leenheer et al. 2023) yielded one single 780 match: in this study, the gene *lidB* (lpp2223/lpg2269) was found to be mutated twice 781 independently in different outbreaks, while this gene is mutated in 13% of the ATP-dependent population protein 782 Mac A The is an at t2. helicase/deoxyribonuclease, possibly involved in replication. However, the evidence 783 in both studies is too sheer to conclude a possible selective advantage of a mutated 784 785 version of this protein without further functional studies.

787 Early fixed mutations

An unexpected finding was the presence of multiple, apparently fixed mutations at the first time point (i.e. after 10-15 passages), some of which subsequently disappeared (Figure 1). We first discuss the probabilities of the same mutations appearing independently in various lineages, and then the fact that some of them disappeared, despite being apparently fixed.

793

The analysis of mutation rates and population sizes shows that parallel evolution in 794 our setup is not unlikely. The mutation rates to streptomycin (mutations per cell per 795 796 generation) measured by fluctuation assays on our ancestral strains (L. pneumophila Paris and the two fluorescently labeled strains) were in the range of 6.5×10^{-10} . In 797 comparison, mutation rates for bacteria range from 6×10^{-11} to 3×10^{-8} (Lynch et al. 798 2023), putting our isolates in the middle of the range. We calculated the probability 799 800 of the appearance of a mutation providing resistance to streptomycin, given the number of generations and the mutation rates above, assuming no selection. 801 Considering that streptomycin resistance is provided in most cases by two single 802 803 RpsL mutations (K88R and K43T), the probability of gaining any given mutation is close to the probability of gaining a streptomycin resistance mutation. For an 804 805 amoeba-exposed or a human cell-exposed population, the probability was 4% and 39% at the first time point (t1), while it reached 23% and 76% at the last time point 806 (t3), respectively. This shows that it is not unlikely that single, identical mutations 807 808 would appear parallelly in different populations. Given a strong enough selection, these mutations could have been quickly fixed in the population. 809 810

However, although other recurring mutations (e.g. in LerC or in lpp0833) are very 811 likely to have occurred independently in different lines, the two paired mutations 812 813 (Rpsl43/RpsD and Rpsl88/GroES), which always occurred together and in the same 814 genetic background (SYFP2 and dTomato, respectively), have a higher likelihood to be the result of a spread of these two genotypes very early in the experiment. We had 815 816 established very rigorous procedures to minimize the risks of cross contaminations: bacteria were grown in separate flasks and manipulated individually, always in a 817 818 laminar flow cabinet, using filter tips when pipetting, and applying general sterility precautions when manipulating the strains. These two genotypes have rapidly taken 819 820 over most of the populations, emphasizing their probable high selective value. Although a possible early contamination across lineages might have caused the 821 822 spread of the RpsL mutants, we believe that the latter would be the only ones to be spread that way, and thus that the conclusions of the paper would not be affected. 823

824

To explain the fact that a few apparently fixed mutations disappeared at a later time point, we consider three possible explanations: contaminations across lineages, reversions, or not deep-enough sequencing. As mentioned above, we have established very rigorous procedures to minimize the risks of cross contaminations and thus favor the latter two hypotheses, either that the mutations reverted or that

830 the sequencing missed the presence of the original allele. The apparently high 831 selective value of some of the later mutations might explain these reversions or re-832 emergence of low-frequency wild-type alleles. An analysis of the reads mapping to the genes encoding the fluorescent markers (SYFP2 and dTomato) shows that in the 833 834 populations harboring mutations considered fixed, and which therefore should 835 contain only the reads mapping to only one of the fluorescent genes, a few reads of the other gene can be found (Supplementary Figure 10, see e.g. Acas D or Alt E). 836 This suggests that the population still contains at least low frequencies of both 837 838 populations, which might explain how apparently fixed mutations might disappear, should a more favorable mutation appear on the genome of the low-frequency 839 genotype. It should be noted, however, that this later hypothesis is not particularly 840 probable, as these favorable mutations are more likely to occur on the high-841 frequency genomes. 842

- 843
- 844 Conclusion

845 In summary, the exact role, fate and histories of the mutations that occurred in the 846 18 lineages of *L. pneumophila* investigated here remains to be established. However, 847 for both basts we identified notantial adentive bast specific mutations. Lineages

- for both hosts, we identified potential adaptive, host-specific mutations. Lineages exposed to the amoebal host *A. castellanii* harbored mutations in the host-specific part of the LPS synthesis cluster. Lineages exposed to the human macrophagederived cells displayed mutations in the LerC protein, a protein regulating the expression of protein effectors, potentially highlighting the different temporal regulation of protein effector secretion in the human host compared to *L. pneumophila*'s natural hosts. These results also show that experimental evolution
- 854 can reveal bacterial genes specifically involved in the adaptation to certain hosts.
- 855
- 856 Material and Methods
- 857 Bacterial strains, host cell culture and media

858 Legionella pneumophila Paris was cultured in charcoal yeast extract (CYE) (1% ACES,

859 1% yeast extract, 0.2% charcoal, 1.5% agar, 0.025% Iron (III) pyrophosphate, 0.04%

860 L-cysteine, pH 6.9) plates or ACES yeast extract (AYE) (1% ACES, 1% yeast extract,

- 861 0.025% Iron (III) pyrophosphate, 0.04% L-cysteine, pH 6.9) broth at 37°C, unless
- 862 otherwise stated. When necessary, *Legionella* GVPC selective supplement (Oxoid) or
- 863 0.5 mM IPTG were also added to the media. The *L. pneumophila* strains used were
- tagged with a SYFP2 or dTomato fluorescence gene, under an IPTG-inducible promoter. A *L. pneumophila* Paris mutant harboring a deletion in the *dot*A gene was
- used as a negative control in infection experiments, as this strain is not able to
- 867 replicate in host cells. The $\Delta dotA$ mutant was kindly gifted to us by Elizabeth Kay.
- Acanthamoeba castellanii strain Neff (ATCC 30010) was cultured in Peptone Yeast
 Glucose (PYG) medium (ATCC 712 medium) in culture flasks at 30°C. For infections,

A. castellanii was harvested, pelleted, and resuspended in LoFlo medium
(Formedium, Norfolk, UK), which does not support *Legionella* growth.

Human monocyte-like U937 cells (ATCC-CRL-3253) were maintained in 872 873 RPMI1640+GlutaMAX[™] (Gibco) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Gibco) and 1% Penicillin-Streptomycin (Pen-Strep; Gibco), in 874 a 37°C incubator with 5% CO₂. To induce differentiation into macrophage-like cells, 875 876 the U937 culture was centrifuged at 200 \times q for 5 min, resuspended in growth 877 medium containing 50 ng ml⁻¹ of phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) and 878 incubated for 48h. The medium was replaced and cells were incubated for a further 48h. Before infection, cells were resuspended in RPMI 1640 without phenol red 879 880 (Gibco) supplemented with 10% heat inactivated FBS and 1% GlutaMAX[™] (Gibco). 881 This medium also does not support Legionella growth.

- 882
- 883 Passaging

884 *L. pneumophila* SYFP2 and dTomato patched on CYE for 48h, were resuspended in dH_2O , the OD_{600} was measured and the cultures were diluted, before being mixed in 885 886 equal proportion. Host cells were prepared as above, 2×10^6 cells of *A. castellanii* or 887 U937 were seeded in six T25 flasks, and challenged at an MOI of 0.25 (A. castellanii) and 2.5 (U937 macrophages). After inoculation, flasks were incubated at 30°C, or 888 37°C for 3 days. At the end of the infection period, flasks were vortexed, and an 889 aliquot of the culture was collected. These aliquots were centrifuged for 5 min at 200 890 × g to pellet the host cells. The endpoint concentration of *L. pneumophila* for each 891 892 infection was estimated by measuring the OD₆₀₀, and calculating the CFU based on a standard curve (OD₆₀₀ vs CFU/ml) made for this purpose. The volume of bacteria 893 needed to infect the hosts at the same MOIs was used to inoculate fresh host 894 cultures. Thus, each new passage of *A. castellanii* was inoculated with 5×10^5 CFUs, 895 896 whereas the macrophages lineages were inoculated with 5×10^6 CFUs. To confirm 897 there was no contamination of the cultures, 10 µL of the cultures were plated on LB 898 agar and CYE plates. L. pneumophila was passaged in this manner every 3-4 days, 899 and at every 5th passage glycerol stocks were made by collecting all the infection supernatant (after pelleting the hosts) and centrifuging at $7000 \times g$ for 15 minutes 900 to pellet the bacteria. The resulting pellet was resuspended in AYE with 50% 901 902 glycerol, and kept at -80°C.

- 903
- 904 Measure of growth rates

To isolate individual clones, frozen stocks of the selected populations were streaked on CYE+GVPC plates and incubated for 72h. The bacterial lawn was scraped, resuspended in ultrapure water, and serial dilutions were made and plated on CYE+IPTG plates to obtain single colonies. Two colonies of each population were restreaked, and glycerol stocks were made.

- 910 Fitness assays of the ancestor and evolved strains were performed both in AYE broth
- and in hosts. For growth in broth, a 24h patch of each colony was resuspended in

912 AYE, the density (OD_{600}) was measured and adjusted to 0.1 (ca. 2 × 10⁸ CFU/ml) with 913 AYE+IPTG. Each culture was aliquoted in triplicate into a black 96 well plate, the growth rate was tracked by measuring the OD_{600} , and fluorescence of SYFP2 914 (excitation: 508 nm, emission: 555 nm) or dTomato (excitation: 554 nm, emission: 915 916 635 nm) every 30 minutes for 24h hours using a Tecan Spark[™] equipped with a monochromator. For in-host growth assays, bacteria and hosts were prepared as 917 before, but here the 1×10^5 host cells were seeded per well in a black 96-well plate 918 and challenged at an MOI of 50. The infection media was supplemented with 0.5 mM 919 IPTG. Intracellular replication was tracked by measuring the fluorescence every 30 920 mins, for 72h, as described above. 921

922

923 Competition assays

Competition assays were performed in human monocyte-like cells (U937) and A. 924 castellanii amoebae using a similar protocol to the one used by Ensminger et al. 925 (2012). For in-amoeba competitions, evolved strains to be assaved were streaked 926 onto CYE plates with IPTG (1 mM) and incubated at 37°C for three days. Biomass was 927 taken from the lawn created by each strain and resuspended into either LoFlo 928 medium (Formedium, Norfolk, UK) with 1mM IPTG (for infections in amoebae) or 929 930 in RPMI without phenol red and with 1mM of IPTG (for infections in U937 cells). These solutions were diluted to an OD_{600} of 0.50 (around 5 × 10⁸ CFU/ml) with a Tecan 931 Spark[™] 10M plate reader. Each tested strain was mixed in equal parts with the 932 ancestral strain (L. pneumophila Paris) with the other fluorescent tag: dTomato-933 tagged ancestral strain with SYFP2-tagged evolved strains, and SYFP2-tagged 934 ancestral strains with dTomato-tagged evolved strain. The solutions were serially 935 diluted down to 1/10th and a volume, depending on host species, was transferred to 936 corresponding wells of 24-well plates containing either A. castellanii or U937 cells. 937 938

- For competitions in amoebae, 200 μ l of the mix of bacteria were incubated with 5 × 10⁵ *A. castellanii* cells in 2 ml of LoFlo medium with 1 mM of IPTG, to reach a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 10. This MOI was chosen as it exceeds the minimal level of fluorescence detectable by the plate reader at the beginning of the assay. The plates were incubated at 30°C.
- 944

For competitions in macrophages, the U937 differentiated macrophages-like cells were seeded in the wells at 2.5×10^5 cells per well, adding 100 µl of mixed evolved/ancestral bacterial strain solution to reach a MOI of 10. RPMI without phenol red but with 1mM of IPTG was used as medium for the infection of the bacterial inoculum solutions. Finally, the 24-well plates were incubated at 37°C with 5% CO₂.

951

For both competitions, the ancestral dTomato- and SYFP2-tagged *L. pneumophila* were also competed on each plate, as a reference. All competitions were done in 5 replicates, for each pair of strains tested. The following controls were also

955 performed on each plate: growing amoebae or U937 cells only (blank control), 956 ancestral SYFP2-tagged strain and amoeba (SYFP2 positive control), ancestral 957 dTomato-tagged strain and amoeba (dTomato positive control), and $\Delta dotA$ mutant 958 (infection negative control, infection-defective). The $\Delta dotA$ was used as infection-959 negative control, CFU/ml counts were measured at the beginning and at the end of 960 the competition experiment.

961

962 The fluorescence was measured with the Tecan 10M spark spectrofluorometer at an excitation/emission wavelength of 508/555 nm and 554/635 nm to measure SYFP2 963 and dTomato fluorescence, respectively. Fluorescence was measured at 0 hours, 40 964 hours, and 64 hours post infection. These time points correspond to the beginning 965 966 of the infection, to the beginning of the exponential phase, and the beginning of the post-exponential phase of growth, respectively, in our experimental setup. The time 967 968 points were determined by measuring growth curves and optimizing the conditions (see Supplementary Figure 7). Fluorescence data was used to calculate a 969 competition index (Ensminger et al. 2012). The fluorescence measurements were 970 blanked with the fluorescence values of the amoeba-LoFlo or U937-RPMI control 971 972 wells. Competition index (CI) is calculated as the ratio of the fluorescence of the mutant (evolved) strain to the fluorescence of the wild type (ancestor) strain at t1, 973 divided by the same ratio at to: 974

975

976 $CI = [F(mut)_{t_1}/F(WT)_{t_1}]/[F(mut)_{t_0}/F(WT)_{t_0}]$

977

978 Where:

979 $F(mut)_{t1}$ = Fluorescence of mutant at end time point (t1)

980 $F(WT)_{t1}$ = Fluorescence of wildtype at end time point (t1)

981 $F(mut)_{to}$ = Fluorescence of mutant at beginning time point (to)

982 $F(WT)_{to}$ = Fluorescence of wildtype at beginning time point (to)

983

We normalized the CI data of each strain tested by dividing their CIs by the average
CI of the SYFP2-tagged ancestor against the dTomato-tagged ancestor. This
allowed us to compare CIs across plates. The competition index reflects the ratio of
the number of mutant cells to the number of ancestral cells, produced between to
and t1.

989

990 Fluctuation assays to determine mutation rates

991 Fluctuation assays were carried out according to the recommendations of Lang 992 (2018) and Rosche and Foster (2000). Briefly, the tested strains (*L. pneumophila* 993 Paris WT and the two SYFP2 and dTomato-tagged mutants) were inoculated in AYE 994 broth and diluted to reach an OD_{600} of 0.50, corresponding to ca. 5×10^8 CFU/ml. The 995 solutions were diluted 1/1000, by adding 5 µl of this solution to 5 ml of fresh AYE, 996 and vortexed. From these, 100 µl were used to inoculate 2 ml of AYE into 50-ml 997 Falcon tubes. This was repeated 72 times for each strain tested. The tubes were

incubated at 37°C for three days. After growth, 150 µl of the solution was used to 998 999 count CFU/ml numbers using the serial-dilution spot plate method (Wang et al. 2017). The rest of the solution was centrifuged at 6000 \times *q* and most of the 1000 supernatant removed. The bacterial pellet was resuspended in the remaining 1001 supernatant and plated on CYE containing 6 µg/ml streptomycin, which is around 1002 1003 8x the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC). The plates were incubated for 3-4 days and total and resistant colonies were counted. Mutation rates were calculated 1004 using the web-based Fluctuation AnaLysis CalculatOR (FALCOR) (Hall et al. 2009). 1005 The MSS Maximum Likelihood Method was used to calculate mutation rates using 1006 the "Group all data" option. 1007

1008

1009 Identification of *rpsL* mutations in streptomycin-resistant strains

To survey the various mutations contributing to streptomycin resistance, we picked 1010 a total of 40 streptomycin-resistant colonies from the fluctuation assay and 1011 1012 sequenced their *rpsL* gene, known to confer resistance mutations to streptomycin (Zhu et al. 2015). This was done by amplifying a 300-bp segment of the *rpsL* gene 1013 using the following primers: forward 5'-AAGAAAGCCTCGTGTGGACG-3 and reverse 1014 5'-TCGGTCGTTCACTCCTGAAG-3'. The DreamTAg Green PCR Master mix 1015 1016 (ThermoFisher Scientific) was used to amplify the gene and the manufacturer's instructions were used for PCR reactions with an annealing temperature of 59.6°C 1017 and 25 cycles. PCR reactions were checked on 1% agarose gel, and then purified using 1018 the GeneJET DNA Cleanup Micro kit (ThermoScientific[™]). The purified fragments 1019 1020 were sent for Sanger sequencing to identify mutations.

- 1021
- 1022 Streptomycin susceptibility testing

1023 The level of streptomycin resistance of the ancestral strains and evolved isolates was 1024 evaluated using an E-test on CYE+IPTG agar plates. The minimum inhibitory 1025 concentration (MIC) was recorded as the lowest antibiotic concentration at which 1026 the zone of inhibition intersected the E-test strip; for many isolates there was a zone 1027 with haze of growth around the strip, here the MIC was read the same way, but the

- 1028 MIC at the start at the hazy zone was also recorded (Supplementary Figure 5).
- 1029

1030 The selected *Legionella* strains were grown on CYE+GVPC plates for 48-72h; a loop 1031 of bacteria was suspended in dH₂O, and the density was adjusted to OD₆₀₀= 0.05 (ca.

1032 1 × 10⁸ CFU). Then 1 ml of the *Legionella* suspension was added to 5 ml of 0.5% (soft)

agar solution, the mixture was gently vortexed, to avoid the formation of bubbles,

and poured onto a CYE+IPTG agar plate. The plates were left to solidify for 10–15 min

1035 before applying the streptomycin E-test strip (AB-BIODISK, bioMérieux). The

1036 plates were then incubated at 37°C, and the results were taken at 48h.

1038 Population and clone sequencing

In order to identify the mutations that arose from the evolution experiment in the different lineages, we sequenced populations at passages 10 and 65 for the *A. castellanii* lineage, passages 10 and 49 for the alternating lineage, and passages 15 and 38 for the macrophage (U937) lineage (Supplementary Table 1). All replicates from each lineage were sequenced. All clones involved in competition experiments were also sequenced, to confirm that other mutations did not occur (Supplementary Table 3).

1046

Briefly, the frozen stocks of the different lineages were plated on CYE agar plates 1047 and incubated at 37°C for 3 days. After incubation, the bacterial growth was scraped 1048 off from the plate and suspended in 5 ml of distilled water. The cultures were 1049 centrifuged at 6000 \times q for 5 minutes and the supernatant was removed. 1050 Centrifugation and supernatant removal were repeated. The DNA was extracted 1051 using the DNeasy blood and tissue kit (Oiagen), using the pretreatment for Gram-1052 negative bacteria, following the manufacturer's instructions, with the following 1053 exceptions: the lysis incubation period was increased to three hours, 4 µl of 10 1054 mg/ml of RNase A were used, and the DNA was eluted in water. Next, the DNA 1055 1056 samples were prepared for barcoding and sequencing using the Nextera XT kit from Illumina. The manufacturer's instructions were followed to prepare the libraries. 1057

1058

1059 Variant calling

1060 Reads were processed for quality using fastp version 0.23.2 (Chen et al. 2018). 1061 Adapters were trimmed from the reads using the --detect adapter for pe option and the --overrepresentation analysis, --correction, and --cut right options 1062 were used for quality trimming. Trimmed reads were deposited at ENA under study 1063 accession number PRJEB82630. Variant calling using the clean and processed reads 1064 1065 was done using breseq version 0.36.1 (Deatherage and Barrick 2014). In brief, breseq 1066 calculates a Bayesian score that all disagreements with the consensus at each position derive from sequencing errors only. It also filters out potential mutations 1067 where there is a strand bias, a quality bias, and positions in homopolymeric 1068 1069 stretches. Finally, it only calls variants with at least 5% frequency in the population. For population sequencing, the --polymorphisms-prediction option was used for 1070 variant calling. 1071

1072

One population where the hosts were alternated (Alt_D) displayed a large excess of
mutations at passage 10 (t1): while the median number of mutations is 28.5 per
population, Alt_D displayed 989 mutations. A transient contamination from
another *L. pneumophila* strain could be identified in this population. The distribution
of the mutation frequency showed a clear peak around 6% (Supplementary Figure
In this population only, all mutations with a frequency lower than 20% were
filtered out, thus retaining only 15 mutations, of which none were fixed.

- 1081 Mutations occurring in regions containing many tandem repeats were filtered out. 1082
- 1083 For coverage analysis of the reads mapping to the genes encoding fluorescent genes,
- the trimmed reads were mapped to the sequence of either gene using bowtie2 v2.4.4
- 1085 (Langmead and Salzberg 2012), removing bad reads with --qc-filter.
- 1086
- 1087 Statistical analysis and visualization

All statistics and most figures in this contribution were performed in R (R Development Core Team 2024), using the tidyverse (Wickham et al. 2019) and, in particular, the ggplot2 package (Wickham 2009: 2).

- 1091
- 1092 Structure prediction of the LerC mutants

Alternative gene prediction of the *lerC* mutants (lerC_46 and lerC_61) was performed by inputting the mutant sequence of the gene in prodigal 2.6.3 (Hyatt et al. 2010), with default options. Structures were predicted using AlphaFold3 (Abramson et al. 2024) then superimposed using PyMol v2.5.4 (Schrödinger, LLC 2015).

1098

1099 Competing interest

- 1100 The authors declare no competing interest.
- 1101 Data availability
- Population sequencing data is available at ENA under Study accession numberPRJEB82630.
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- 1330 1331
- 1332 Supplementary Material
- 1333 Supplementary Tables
- 1334

1335 Supplementary Table 1: Population sequencing and number of generations in the

- 1336 different hosts.
- 1337

Host	Abbrev.	t1		t2		t3	
		Passages	N generations	Passages	N generations	Passages	N generations
A. castellanii	Acas	p10	128 +/- 7	p40	517 +/- 9	p65	798 +/- 9
Alternation	Alt	p10	124 +/- 5	_ p49	481 +/- 13	p85	799 +/- 13
U937 cells	Mac	_ p15	113 +/- 5	_ p38	270 +/- 10	_ p65	444 +/- 40

1338

Supplementary Table 2: Mutation rates (mutations per cell per cell division or generation) measured for *L. pneumophila* Paris, dTomato-, and SYFP2-labeled
strains. Mutation rates were measured using streptomycin as the selection antibiotic and then calculated using MSS Maximum Likelihood method. Mutations
rates are expressed per cell per generation per billion. CI, Confidence Interval.

Strain	Mutation rate × 10 ⁻¹⁰	95% CI range × 10 ⁻¹⁰		
		Upper Bound	Lower Bound	
L. pneumophila Paris	6.5	8.5	4.7	
dTomato	7.6	9.9	5.5	
SYFP	5.5	7.3	3.8	

- 1345
- 1346
- 1347 Supplementary Table 3: Clones and mutations involved in competition experiments.
- 1348 Genes and mutations are color-coded.
- 1349

Ctrain	Constras
Strain	Genotype
DA75302	RpsL(K88R)/GroES(A45T)
DA76735	RpsL(K88R)/GroES(A45T) + lpp0833(∆1bp_1092nt)
DA76737	RpsL(K88R)/GroES(A45T) + lpp0833(∆1bp_1092nt) + LerC_61(∆13bp_61-73/453nt)
DA75299i	RpsL(K88R)/GroES(A45T) + lpp0833(∆1bp_1092nt) + LerC_51(V51G)
DA76739	RpsL(K43T)/RpsD(S205Y) + IolE(G241V)
DA75291i	$RpsL(K43T)/RpsD(S205Y) + LerC_46(C46*)$

LG300i RpsL(K43T)/RpsD(S205Y) + LerC_13(A13D)

1350

- 1351 Supplementary Figures
- 1352 Supplementary Figure 1



1353

Supplementary Figure 1: Distribution of mutations per host and time point. Each
point is a lineage. Only one Acas population and was sequenced at t2, and only one
Alt population was sequenced at t3.

- 1357
- 1358 Supplementary Figure 2



1360

1361 Supplementary Figure 2: Distribution of mutation numbers and frequencies. (A):

Number of mutations with frequency > 5% per host (Acas, red; Alt, green; Mac, 1362 blue), lineage (A-F, x-axis) and time point (t1-t3). The median number of mutations

1363

per population (32.5) is shown with a dashed black line. 1364

(B): Frequency (y-axis) of mutations per host, lineage and time point. Each dot 1365 represents a mutation, and its position on the y-axis represents its frequency. Violin 1366

- plots are superimposed on the dots to provide a representation of the distribution. 1367
- 1368



1369 Supplementary Figure 3

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Supplementary Figure 3: Distribution of mutations along the *L. pneumophila*genome. Each line corresponds to a separate population. The host and timepoint is
indicated on the right, the lineage on the left. The position of genes containing
repeats or being present in different parts of the genome are indicated with lines.

1376 Supplementary Figure 4

No. of	Repea	ats Total	Score L	ength Di	agonal	BW-From	BW-To	Level
		19 1	211.97	35	35	1075	1109	1
			·			·	·	
630-	664	(54.25/3	0.86)	LGALSV	EQRVELL	.VVQDQHRN7	VLHKTLS.R	PELLK
667-	701	(60.83/3	5.53)	LEGLSL	EQRVELL	KVKGSDGN]	VLHTVAS.H	PKPLK
704-	738	(66.27/3	9.39)	LEGLSV	EQRVELL	KVKGSDGN1	LLHFAAS.N	PKSLK
741-	776	(51.78/2	9.11)	LEGLPE	ESRVELL	TLRRKDGAS	SVLDFAAT.H	PKSLK
779-	813	(62.56/3	6.76)	WESLSE	EKRIEVL	. EMNDEHGNT	VLHWAVS.R	PKSLE
816-	850	(59.21/3	4.38)	LERLSD	EQRFKLL	WMKVQFGNT	VLHLAAN.S	PETLK
853-	887	(59.88/3	4.86)	LEGLPE	EKRIEVL	.TILNQYGD7	VIHRAAH.F	PASLK
890-	924	(67.66/4	0.37)	WEGLPE	EKRIELL.	RMKGNYNNI	LLHNAAS.H	PESLK
927-	961	(58.64/3	3.97)	LEGLSE	QQRAELL	RINGSIGNT	VLHCALG.Y	LESLK
964-	998	(72.67/4	3.93)	LEGLSE	ESRFQLL	.GMKNQDDN7	VLYLAAS.R	PESLK
1001-	1035	(70.30/4	2.25)	LEDLSV	ENRVQLL	.GMKNQYGN1	VLHEALS.Q	PKSLK
1038-	1072	(73.90/4	4.81)	LEGLSE	ESRFQLL	RMKNQYGD	VLHEALS.Q	PKSLK
1075-	1109	(75.50/4	5.94)	LEGLSE	ESRVQLL	.GMKNQDGY1	VLHKALS.L	PESLK
1112-	1146	(75.50/4	5.94)	LEGLSE	ESRVQLL	.GMKNQDGY1	VLHKALS.L	PESLK
1149-	1183	(73.09/4	4.23)	LEGLSE	ESRVQLL	.GMKDYHGN7	LLHEALS.R	PKSLK
1186-	1220	(75.46/4	5.91)	LEGLSE	ESRFQLL	.GMKNQDGN7	VLYLAAS.R	PESLK
1223-	1257	(66.54/3	9.58)	LEGLSE	ESRVQLL	.GMKDKYGN7	TALRCAVP.H	PASLK
1260-	1295	(60.00/3	4.94)	LEGLSE	EKRLELL	SAKNQHGDS	VLHRALSCY	PESLG
1298-	1329	(27.93/1	2.17)	LEMLCE	TTQRQVLe	DLGCLRGN	FLGK	PEILE

1377

1378 Supplementary Figure 4: Repeats in ankyrin-repeat containing protein lpp1100. The

- 1379 analysis was performed using RADAR (Heger and Holm 2000).
- 1380



1381 Supplementary Figure 5

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Supplementary Figure 5: Resistance to streptomycin of two Legionella clones
bearing different mutations in the rpsL gene. (A) L. pneumophila with the
Rpsl43/RpsD genotype, in a SYFP2 background. (B) L. pneumophila with the
Rpsl88/GroES genotype, in a dTomato background. Although the bacteria grow on the whole plate,
including at the maximum streptomycin concentration (1024 μg/ml), a larger halo zone can be
observed in B (to ~96 µg/ml) than in A (to ~768 µg/ml).

- 1389
- 1390 Supplementary Figure 6
- 1391



- 1392
- 1393 Supplementary Figure 6: Structure of the *lerC* mutants, as predicted by AlphaFold3.
- 1394 The predicted wild-type LerC protein is shown in grey on all panels, lerC_13 in
- 1395 yellow (A, E), lerC_61 in red (B, E), lerC_46 in teal (C, E), and lerC_51 in blue (D, E).
- 1396 The location of the conserved aspartic acid (D53) is shown in green.
- 1397

1398 Supplementary Figure 7

Supplementary Figure 8



Supplementary Figure 7: Competition experiments between selected isolates.
Competitions of *L. pneumophila* strain Paris marked with dTomato (Red) and SYFP2
(Yellow) in an amoeba infection model at MOI 1 and MOI 10.



1405



Mutations
Supplementary Figure 8: Distribution and diversity of non-synonymous mutations
in the *rpsL* gene for the three ancestral strains (*L. pneumophila* Paris, SYFP, and
dTomato). The x-axis represents the amino acid residues switched through the
mutation and their position in the RpsL sequence.

14111412 Supplementary Figure 9



- 1413 MC_011527
 1414 Supplementary Figure 9: Synteny plot of Legionella and Coxiella species, centered
- around lpp1100 (LPP_RS05510) in *L. pneumophila* Paris (upper row). The other rows
- 1416 Colors indicate groups of genes colocalized in a specific genome. Figure obtained
- 1417 with MAGE (Vallenet et al. 2006).



1419 Supplementary Figure 10

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Supplementary Figure 10: Proportion of SYFP2- and dTomato-marked *L. pneumophila* in each lineage at the 3 time points. At to, each population consisted of an equal mix of each ancestor. The proportion at the other time points was estimated by mapping the reads obtained from population sequencing to the genes encoding the two fluorescent proteins (dTemate and SYFP2- and stream)

- 1425 the two fluorescent proteins (dTomato, red; SYFP2, green).
- 1426

1427 Supplementary Figure 11



Supplementary Figure 11: Distribution of mutation frequencies in the Alt D
population, which counted 991 mutations. The black vertical line marks the
maximum of the density curve, at 5.7%, while the red line marks the chosen 20%
cut-off, under which mutations were discarded.

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- 1434