Transcriptional responses of *Escherichia coli* during recovery from

inorganic or organic mercury exposure

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ABSTRACT

Background: The protean chemical properties of mercury have long made it attractive for diverse applications, but its toxicity requires great care in its use, disposal, and recycling. Mercury occurs in multiple chemical forms, and the molecular basis for the distinct toxicity of its various forms is only partly understood. Global transcriptomics applied over time can reveal how a cell recognizes a toxicant and what cellular subsystems it marshals to repair and recover from the damage. The longitudinal effects on the transcriptome of exponential phase *E. coli* were compared during sub-acute exposure to mercuric chloride ($HgCl_2$) or to phenylmercuric acetate (PMA) using RNA-Seq.

Results: Differential gene expression revealed common and distinct responses to the mercurials throughout recovery. Cultures exhibited growth stasis immediately after each mercurial exposure but returned to normal growth more quickly after PMA exposure than after $HgCl_2$ exposure. Correspondingly, PMA rapidly elicited up-regulation of a large number of genes which continued for 30 min, whereas fewer genes were up-regulated early after $HgCl_2$ exposure only some of which overlapped with PMA up-regulated genes. By 60 min gene expression in PMA-exposed cells was almost indistinguishable from unexposed cells, but $HgCl_2$ exposed cells still had many differentially expressed genes. Relative expression of energy production and most metabolite uptake pathways declined with both compounds, but nearly all stress response systems were up-regulated by one or the other mercurial during recovery.

Conclusions: Sub-acute exposure influenced expression of ~45% of all genes with many distinct responses for each compound, reflecting differential biochemical damage

by each mercurial and the corresponding resources available for repair. This study is

the first global, high-resolution view of the transcriptional responses to any common

toxicant in a prokaryotic model system from exposure to recovery of active growth.

Many genes encoding the responses provoked by these two mercurials are highly

conserved evolutionarily, affording insights about how higher organisms may respond to

these ubiquitous metal toxicants.

BACKGROUND

The common metallic element mercury (Hg) has no beneficial biological function

but its chemical similarities to essential transition metals such as zinc, copper, and iron

make it highly toxic to all living systems. Global mercury emissions range from 6500 to

8500 Mg annually with estimates of 50% [1, 2] and even two-thirds [3] being

anthropogenic and the rest from volcanism. Mercury exists in multiple chemical forms

that are readily susceptible to abiotic and biotic inter-conversions [4]. Mercury occurs

naturally as the insoluble HgS ore (cinnabar), as inorganic complexes of Hg^{+2}, Hg^{+1}, or

$(Hg_2)^{2+}$ of varying solubility depending on available ligands, and as organomercurials

generated by microbial and anthropogenic processes.

Major sources of chronic mercury exposure in humans include dental amalgam

fillings [5, 6], consumption of fish containing methylmercury [7], and artisanal gold

mining operations [8]. Organomercurials, like phenylmercury, methylmercury, and

merthiolate (ethylmercury) have historically been used in medical, industrial and

agricultural applications as antimicrobial or fungicidal agents [9-11]. The toxic effects of

mercury exposure in humans are associated with neurological, kidney, liver,

gastrointestinal, and developmental disorders [9, 12-15].

Like other common electrophilic toxic metals such as arsenic, cadmium, and

lead, there is no single biochemical target for mercury damage. Mercury has a strong

affinity for sulfur and selenium [16, 17] and therefore targets the cellular thiol pool,

composed of glutathione and cysteine thiol groups of proteins [9] and selenocysteine, a

rare but critical amino acid in proteins involved in redox defense and thyroid function

[18]. Depletion of the cellular thiol pool and disruption of the cellular membrane potential

by mercury can induce oxidative stress and apoptosis pathways in mitochondria [19,

20]. However, there is no evidence that mercury itself undergoes Fenton-type chemistry

to generate reactive oxygen species like iron and copper [21].

In earlier work we used global proteomics to identify stable mercury-protein

binding sites in growing *E. coli* cells exposed to acute levels of organic or inorganic Hg

[22]. We found cysteine sites in several hundred proteins, many highly conserved

evolutionarily, that formed stable adducts with one or more of these mercurials,

consequently disrupting many cellular processes such as iron homeostasis and the

electrolyte balance [23]. Importantly, we found that organic and inorganic mercurials

had distinct effects on these cellular processes and distinct protein structural

preferences. Although the pathobiology of organic and inorganic mercurials has been

known for decades to differ, with methyl- and ethyl-mercury recognized as neurotoxic

and inorganic mercury as neurotoxic, nephrotoxic, hepatotoxic, and immunotoxic, no

previous studies at that time had assessed the biochemical underpinnings of these

distinctions on a global scale in any model system.

Motivated by our proteomics observations and by microarray data from *C.*

elegans showing distinct transcriptional single end point response and toxicity for

inorganic and organic mercurials [24], we applied RNA-Seq to examine the

transcriptional effects of $HgCl_2$ and phenylmercuric acetate (PMA) exposure on *E. coli*

K-12 MG1655 over time. This is the first study to examine the transcriptional response

to mercury exposure in a microorganism and the only study to compare directly the

effects of different compounds over time through recovery. The changes in gene

expression were idiosyncratic for each compound, confirming and extending the idea

that the cell suffers overlapping but distinct biochemical damage and marshals both

distinct and overlapping recovery processes in response to these chemically distinct

mercurials. Although our work was in a bacterium, the high evolutionary conservation of

many of the proteins we identified as mercury-vulnerable offers insights for the

toxicology of mercury compounds in higher organisms.

METHODS

Cell cultures.

For each biological RNA-Seq replicate *E coli* K-12 MG1655 was subcultured from

cryostorage on Luria-Bertani (LB) agar overnight at 37°C. A half-dozen well-isolated

colonies were used to inoculate a 20 ml starter culture in Neidhardt MOPS Minimal

Medium (NM3) [25] (0.2% final glucose concentration) supplemented with 20 mg/L

uracil and 500 μg/L thiamine, which was incubated at 37°C with shaking at 250 rpm

overnight (~18 hr). The overnight starter culture was diluted 1:30 to initiate the

experimental culture and divided into three 500 ml flasks with 100 ml NM3 in each,

which were incubated at 37°C with shaking at 250 rpm. When cultures reached $OD_{595} \approx$

0.470 (~ 200 min), two cultures were made 3 μM mercuric chloride ($HgCl_2$) or 3 μM

phenylmercuric acetate (PMA) and the third was left as an unexposed control. Mercury

stocks were prepared fresh for each growth experiment: 10 mM $HgCl_2$ (Fisher) in water

and 5 mM PMA (Sigma) in 25% dimethyl sulfoxide DMSO (Fisher), which is 2.1 mM or

0.015% v/v final concentration DMSO in culture. These mercurial exposures were

chosen from prior pilot experiments to find exposure conditions (OD_{595}, mercurial

concentration and sampling times) that displayed a marked decrease in growth rate

relative to the unexposed control but allowed subsequent restoration of rapid growth

rate (i.e. recovery) within 1 hr (approximately one generation in NM3) after mercurial

exposure. Duplicate 1-ml aliquots of each culture were collected at 0 (unexposed

control only), 10, 30, 60 min after mercurial exposure and immediately centrifuged at

20,800 $x\ g$ for 3 min at 4°C. Spent medium was aspirated and cell pellets were frozen at

-70°C within 5 min after collection. Seven biological replicates were prepared following

this protocol and the average variance for all replicates in culture optical density over

each 90-min experiment ranged from 0.0019 – 0.0073. The three biological replicates

with the lowest variance between growth curves (range from 0.0007 – 0.0017 for all

time points) were prepared for RNA-Seq.

Purification of mRNA

One cell pellet from each condition and sampling time was thawed on ice; total

RNA was isolated by RNA*snap*™ [26] and stored at -70°C. DNA contamination was

removed by two treatments with Turbo-DNase (Ambion; Life Technologies). RNA

concentrations and A_{260}/A_{280} ratios were determined using a Nanodrop™ 1000

spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific). Ribosomal RNA depletion was performed with

the Ribo-Zero™ rRNA removal kit for Gram-negative bacteria (Epicentre) and

concentrated using RNA Clean and Concentrator™ -5 columns (Zymo Research)

following the manufacturer's instructions. Purified mRNA was quantified using the

Nanodrop™ and stored at -70°C.

Library Preparation and Next-generation Sequencing

The quality and quantity of rRNA-depleted RNA was assessed on a 2100

Bioanalyzer RNA pico chip (Agilent Technologies) using the manufacturer's

recommendations. Next-generation sequencing (NGS) libraries were prepared using the

Kapa biosystems NGS stranded library prep kit for RNA-Seq with dual indexed Illumina

adapters. Library insert size was ~150 bp, as determined by high-sensitivity NGS

fragment analysis kit for Fragment Analyzer™ (Advanced Analytical Technologies) using

the manufacturer's instructions. Quantification of each library was done by qPCR and all

30 libraries were pooled in equal concentrations. The library preparation, quality

analysis, and pooling were performed by the Georgia Genomics Facility

(http://dna.uga.edu). Paired-end (2 x 50 bp) sequencing of the pooled libraries using the

Illumina HiSeq 2000 platform was performed by the HudsonAlpha Institute for

Biotechnology Genomic Services Laboratory (http://gsl.hudsonalpha.org). See Table S1

for index and filename information for data uploaded to NCBI Gene Expression

Omnibus database (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/) with accession ID: GSE95575.

Data Processing and Differential Expression Analysis

Quality control processing of sequence data was performed using Galaxy

(https://galaxyproject.org) on the Georgia Advanced Computing Resource Center at the

University of Georgia. The FASTX tools in Galaxy

(http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx_toolkit) were used for filtering by quality (80% of

sequence ≥ quality score of 20), then reads were trimmed at both 5' and 3' ends using a

window and step size of 1 with quality score ≥ 20. Forward- and reverse-read mate-

pairs were assembled and aligned to the *Escherichia coli* MG1655 K-12 genome using

Bowtie2 [27]. SAMtools [28] was used to convert Bowtie2 output (.bam file) to SAM

format. The number of sequence reads that aligned to features in the annotation file

(Escherichia_coli_str_k_12_substr_mg1655.GCA_000005845.2.24.gtf from

http://bacteria.ensembl.org) were tabulated from the resulting SAM alignment files using

the HTSeq-count program [29] with intersection non-empty mode. Mapped read counts

were analyzed for differential expression (false discovery rate of ≤ 0.01, fold-change ≥

2) using the baySeq package in R [30]. Within baySeq, two-way comparisons using

quantile normalization were made for all three biological replicate transcriptomes over

time for $HgCl_2$ exposure or PMA exposure versus the unexposed control. We also

examined changes over time in the unexposed control culture itself.

RESULTS

Effects of sub-acute mercury exposure on growth of MG1655.

We defined sub-acute exposure as the concentration of mercury that clearly

inhibited growth relative to the unexposed control but allowed cells to resume growth

within 1 hour or approximately one generation in this medium (Figure 1a, Figure S1).

Based on pilot experiments the appropriate dose proved to be 3 µM for both mercurials.

Exposure to 4 - 5 µM $HgCl_2$ prevented growth resumption during 1 hr and the effects of

PMA exposure were similar at 3 and 5 µM; exposure to 2.5 µM of either mercurial did

not consistently retard growth (data not shown).

Cell-associated Hg (Table S2 and Supp Info Methods) declined slowly as has

been reported previously for low level $HgCl_2$ exposure of Hg sensitive cells and was

attributed to non-specific endogenous reductants [31-33]. Bound Hg in cells exposed

either to $HgCl_2$ or to PMA declined similarly from ~50% of total Hg added to culture at

10 min to ~20% at 30 min, after which Hg loss from PMA-exposed cells continued to

decline to 11% of input at 60 min. In contrast, cell-associated Hg in cells exposed to

$HgCl_2$ increased from 24% at 30 to 47% at 60 min. Presently, we have no simple

explanation for this unexpected difference in cell-bound Hg in late exponential phase

cultures, however it does echo our finding that cultures acutely exposed to 40µM or 80

µM PMA or $HgCl_2$ bound 24% or 208% more Hg(II) than PhHg, respectively [23]. Also

notable was a brief drop in the culture optical density immediately after PMA exposure

consistent with some cell lysis as has been reported [34]. The lack of apparent lysis

after divalent $HgCl_2$ exposure may be due to its ability to cross-link cell envelope

proteins via their cysteines, which is not possible for monovalent PMA.

Transcriptome benchmarks

Paired-end libraries averaged over 9.5 million reads and mapped reads provided

an average of 143X coverage (Figure S2). The sequencing data were of high quality,

requiring removal of only 11% as low-quality reads. Of the high-quality reads, 97% of

reads mate-paired, 99.4% of paired reads mapped to the genome and 82% of reads

mapped to an annotated genome feature on average from all libraries.

Overall 89% of annotated mapped reads were to coding regions (CDS) based on

raw un-normalized read counts per gene output from HTseq-count program [29](Figure

S3, Table S3, Table S4). Pearson correlations of raw read counts confirmed that no

strong biases were introduced in biological replicates for each condition (Figures S4-

S6). That dispersion is slightly greater in both mercury exposure conditions than in

unexposed cultures, especially at later time points, is consistent with perturbations of

multiple cellular processes.

Mapped reads to rRNA constituted only 0.3% of total reads (std. dev. = 0.425) on

average for all libraries (Table S3) consistent with effective Ribo-Zero™ rRNA removal.

In the unexposed culture non-coding RNA's (ncRNA) were 4% of total reads over all

time points, but their percentage increased in mercury exposure conditions indicating

greater differential expression of some ncRNA genes (details below). The very

abundant tmRNA (*ssrA*) needed for rescuing stalled ribosomes [35] was 6% of total

reads in the unexposed condition and although this percentage increased for mercury

exposure conditions, the tmRNA gene (*ssrA*) was not differentially expressed under any

condition. Pseudogenes accounted for less than 1% of total reads, but up to 35%

($HgCl_2$) and 13% (PMA) of them were significantly up-regulated. The tRNA's were less

than 1% of total reads because the library preparation method we used was not

optimized for such small RNAs. However, approximately 35% of these observed tRNA

genes were significantly down-regulated during the first 30 min after exposure to either

mercurial.

HgCl₂ and PMA transcriptional responses are not the same.

We expected that differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in the mercury exposure

conditions (compared to the unexposed cells) would change over time as the cells

transitioned from initial growth stasis back into a normal growth rate. We also expected

that some DEG responses would be similar because both mercurials are thiophilic and

will bind to the cellular thiol redox buffer, glutathione (GSH), and to protein cysteine

residues. However, since there are physiological differences and protein site

preferences for each compound in acute Hg(II)- or PMA-exposure [23 and Zink et. al. in

preparation] we aimed here at a low exposure using a longitudinal protocol to discern

more subtle distinctions between these mercurials as the cells experienced stasis and

then recovered their growth rate. In the following sections, we first describe the bulk

measures of gene expression over time and then describe differences in specific

functional pathways.

Differentially expressed genes: the view from 30,000 feet.

a. Differentially expressed genes (DEG) for each condition and time point

DEGs were determined by pairwise comparisons of mercury exposure conditions

relative to the unexposed culture at the corresponding time point (Figure 1b and Table

S5). Ten minutes after exposure, expression of 41% or 49% of the 4,472 non-rRNA

genes changed significantly for HgCl₂ or PMA-exposed cells, respectively (Figure 1b).

At 30 min with growth still arrested, 32% of genes in the HgCl$_2$-exposed cells were

differentially expressed (Figure 1b), (Figure 1a, red). In contrast, PMA-exposed cells at

30 min began to recover their prior growth rate (Figure 1a, green), but 45% of their

genes remained differentially expressed (Figure 1b). By 60 min, the PMA-exposed cells

were growing at nearly their pre-exposure rate and only 1.5% of genes were

differentially expressed, whereas the HgCl$_2$-exposed cells were still growing more

slowly than pre-exposure with 13% of their genes still differentially expressed compared

to the unexposed cells (Figure 1b).

b. Shared and unique genes at each time point for each exposure.

The total distinct DEGs across all time points was slightly lower for HgCl$_2$ (2,327)

than for PMA (2,541) exposure (Figure 1b and Figure S7). More striking were the

differences in DEGs at each time point; PMA-exposed cells modulated 20% more genes

at 10 min (2,181 vs 1,821) and 40% more at 30 min (2,007 vs 1,422) than HgCl$_2$

exposed cells. This trend completely reversed by 60 min when DEGs declined in both

exposure conditions but HgCl$_2$ exposed cells were still modulating ~9-fold more genes

(563) than PMA-exposed cells (65), consistent with the latter recovering normal growth

sooner (Figure 1a). Also notable is the carryover of DEGs from one time point to the

next where HgCl$_2$ exposed cells have 1,001 DEGs in common at 10 and 30 min after

exposure but that number is 65% greater in PMA-exposed cells (1,650) (Figure S7).

However, HgCl$_2$ exposed cells have 52% more DEGs that are unique at 10 min

compared to PMA-exposed cells (804 vs 529), i.e. more HgCl$_2$ provoked DEGs occur

sooner after exposure than later. HgCl$_2$ exposure also yields more DEGs that occur at

all time points compared to PMA (Figure S7) since there are very few DEGs at 60 min

for PMA exposure.

c. *Up-regulated vs. down-regulated genes for each exposure*

Sorting expression simply into genes up-regulated or down-regulated by $HgCl_2$ or

PMA at each time point (Figure 2) revealed additional quantitative distinctions between

them. For up-regulated genes, PMA-provoked more unique DEGs than DEGs in

common with $HgCl_2$ exposure at all time points, in contrast to $HgCl_2$ which had more

DEGs in common than unique at all but the last time point. This trend was not continued

for down-regulated genes where more genes were in common for both compounds than

unique at all time points.

Thus, early in exposure the cell reduced expression of a similar number of genes

for both mercurials, but up-regulated expression of many more genes in response to

PMA than to $HgCl_2$, and these distinct trends persisted to the middle time point. By 60

min, gene expression of PMA-exposed cells closely resembled that of unexposed cells,

but $HgCl_2$ exposed cells still have many up- and down-DEGs, consistent with slower

growth rate recovery by $HgCl_2$ exposed compared to PMA-exposed cells (Figure 1a).

d. *Differentially expressed genes grouped by functional category.*

To sort our observations from a different perspective, the DEGs for each

condition were grouped by Clusters of Orthologous Groups (COGs) to identify

expression differences based on gene functions (Figure 3 and Table S6). For most

COGs, both mercurials elicited the strongest response, up or down, within the first 10

min of exposure (Figure 3); in most cases, the responses were of similar magnitude. At

30 min, the PMA (green) responses remained nearly the same, up or down, but $HgCl_2$

provoked responses (red) generally diminished, often sharply. By 60 min, expression in

PMA-exposed cells was barely distinguishable from the unexposed cells in all COG

categories, whereas $HgCl_2$ exposed cells had notable differential expression in most

COG categories.

The four well-defined COG categories with the most DEGs were energy

production (C), amino acid metabolism (E), carbohydrate metabolism (G), and

transcription (K), which are also categories with a large number of genes (284, 355,

381, and 294 respectively) in *E. coli* (Figure 3 legend). COG categories R and S

encoding poorly defined (261) or non-defined (203) genes were also represented

proportionally. These data suggest both mercurials broadly affect most metabolic

categories, albeit to different degrees and at different rates. However, four well-defined

COG categories have strikingly different responses to $HgCl_2$ and PMA. COG categories

for nucleotide metabolism (F), translation (J), motility (N), and intracellular trafficking (U)

have much less up-regulation in $HgCl_2$ exposed cells than in PMA-exposed cells. There

are relatively few DEGs involved in cell division (D), extracellular structures (W), and

mobile genetic elements (X) and genes within these categories responded similarly to

both mercurials. Thus, grouping DEGs by COGs emphasizes the broad functional

differences and similarities between $HgCl_2$ and PMA exposure. Furthermore, this

approach highlights that DEGs occur in all functional categories for both compounds,

but still display distinct differences in transcriptional response to each compound. We

provide gene-level detail on several of these functional groups below. Note that the

COG database only includes functional annotations for 3,398 of *E. coli's* 4,497 genes,

but functional categories discussed below in more detail are not limited to COG-

annotated genes.

A heat map of the DEGs log-fold changes (Figure 4) provides a more granular

look at all DEGs for both compounds across all time points. The heat map, using Ward's

minimum variance clustering method [36], shows considerable uniformity of up- and

down-regulated expression during the 30 min after PMA exposure. In contrast, although

$HgCl_2$ exposed cells grossly shared many DEGs with PMA-exposed cells (Figure 2), the

heat map reveals a more variegated response to Hg(II) in which different genes are up-

or down-regulated at all time points, in contrast to the relatively consistent response of

PMA during recovery. Overall, 34% of DEGs are unique to only one mercurial and ~3%

of all DEGs had an opposite response to each compound (Table S5). The most

dramatic differences were at 60 min when $HgCl_2$ exposed cells were still modulating

many genes but PMA-exposed cells had only minor differences with unexposed cells,

consistent with their faster recovery of normal growth (Figure 1a). We dissect some of

these differences in function-specific heat maps below.

We also used STRING (version 10.0) [37, 38] for unsupervised network analysis

to identify gene clusters that were up-regulated in response to each compound (Figure

S8 and Table S7). We focused on up-regulated genes on the working assumption that

they are more likely to contribute to recovery than genes whose expression is turned

down. Gene clusters were generated by STRING based on organism specific data

mining to identify genes with a functional association, such as a common biological

purpose, location within the same operon, or shared regulatory mechanism. Note that

this network algorithm does not consider fold-change intensity of response; it

enumerates only whether an up-regulated gene is present at a given time point. The up-

regulated DEGs (nodes) of $HgCl_2$ exposed cells formed several tight clusters

encompassing 16 gene-ontology functions (GOFs) at 10 min, nine GOFs at 30 min, and

seven GOFs at 60 min (Figure S8 and Table S7). In contrast, although there were more

nodes for PMA-exposure at 10 and 30 min, there were fewer edges yielding no well-

defined clusters at 10 min and only two GOFs at 30 min. This network analysis

suggests that, although PMA provokes more DEGs than Hg(II) does, there is less

functional congruence between the genes involved in the response to PMA. Specific

gene and function changes are discussed further in the next section.

Lastly, as a control for using RNA-Seq in a longitudinal experiment, we observed

DEGs at sequential time points in the unexposed control culture (Figure S9 and Table

S8). As expected, changes were gradual over time with no more than 5% of the

genome being differentially expressed from one time point to the next. At the 60 min

time point, as the cells approached stationary phase 815 genes were differentially

expressed compared to mid-log (time 0). Sorting these DEGs by COGs (Figure S9) and

by STRING network analysis (Figure S10 and Table S7) showed, as expected, many

DEGs were consistent with normal transitioning from mid-log to early stationary phase

[39, 40].

Higher resolution view of expression differences in specific functional groups

during recovery from exposure to HgCl₂ or PMA

Taking the perspective that a toxicant is a kind of signaling molecule, we

considered differences in gene expression for the two Hg compounds to reflect how the

cell senses the biochemically distinct damage produced by these two metallo-

electrophiles as manifest by what tools the cell calls upon to restore its viability. A quick

snapshot of the great extent of these compound-specific differences can be seen in the

genes with a >20-fold increase in differential expression after $HgCl_2$ exposure (Table 1)

or PMA exposure (Table 2). Here we emphasize up-regulated genes on the working

assumption they could contribute directly or indirectly to repairing damage caused by

mercurial exposure. The 25 genes highly up-regulated by $HgCl_2$ (Table 1) are involved

in altering the cell surface, oxidative stress response and repair, protein chaperones,

metals homeostasis, and ribonucleotide reductase. The vestigial prophage genes likely

play no rescue role for the cell and were simply activated by generalized stress

responses. The corresponding PMA response echoed only 8 of these 25 $HgCl_2$ high-

responders, and notably did not include the vestigial phage genes.

For PMA, the highly up-regulated genes are a distinct contrast to those for $HgCl_2$.

First, the maximum amplitude of the PMA-provoked differential expression is generally

much less than for Hg(II)-provoked high differential expression (Table 1), which could

reflect the lower uptake of PMA. Secondly, while 11 of the 17 PMA-provoked genes

were also on the $HgCl_2$ highly differential expression list, ion transport and antibiotic

resistance loci were more prominent with PMA and prophage genes were absent.

These two snapshot tables make the points that both mercurials generate broad,

but idiosyncratic, cellular responses. To place these "tips of many icebergs" in their

larger cellular context, we used heat maps and tables of subsets of functionally related

genes to discuss the differential effects of $HgCl_2$ and PMA on twelve canonical cellular

systems in the following sections.

i. INFORMATIONAL MACROMOLECULES

(a) DNA replication, recombination and repair

Of the 24 genes for initiation and maintenance, and termination of chromosome

replication, there were more genes down-regulated (8) than up-regulated (3) in

response to $HgCl_2$ and an equal number up- or down-regulated genes (7) in response to

PMA (Table S9). Of the 14 genes encoding the replicative polymerase holoenzyme, four

genes capable of translesion synthesis (*polB*, *dinB*, *umuCD*) were up-regulated more by

$HgCl_2$ exposure (Table S9), suggesting a greater degree of direct or indirect DNA

damage by $HgCl_2$ exposure. Of the 45 genes for repair and recombination proteins the

transcriptional response to each mercurial was very similar (11 up-regulated and 16

down-regulated for $HgCl_2$; 9 up-regulated and 18 down-regulated for PMA). But there

were repair genes unique to each compound: *xthA*, *uvrAB*, *mutM,* and *recN* were only

up-regulated by $HgCl_2$; and *mutH* and *mutY* were only up-regulated by PMA.

The *recA, recN,* and *xthA* DNA repair genes were the most highly up-regulated

(≥10 fold) in response only to $HgCl_2$. The *recA* gene, induced by double-strand DNA

breaks, serves multiple roles in DNA repair [41, 42]. Curiously, expression of *recBCD,*

which is needed for break repair, either did not change or declined compared to

unexposed cells for both mercurials. Expression of several genes involved in repair

(*recG*, *nth*, *hsdS*, and *mcrC*) were down-regulated by both compounds, but with much

larger negative fold-changes for PMA than $HgCl_2$. Thus, the cells responded quickly to

both mercurials, but some distinct responses suggest these two compounds directly or

indirectly yield different kinds of DNA damage.

(b)Transcription

Of the core RNA polymerase (RNAP) genes only PMA-exposure increased

expression of a single gene *rpoZ* (ω subunit), but expression decreased in the

remaining *rpoABC* core genes (Table S10). $HgCl_2$ exposure did not change expression

of any RNAP core genes except for a transient 3-fold drop in *rpoA* at 30 min. Only one

of the five termination factors, the Rho-directed anti-terminator, *rof,* increased and did

so for both mercurials with PMA again provoking a greater response.

Genes for three sigma factors displayed increased expression upon exposure to

either mercurial, with *rpoH* (heat shock sigma factor) and *rpoS* (stationary phase and

stress response sigma factor) increasing more following PMA-exposure and *rpoD*

(housekeeping sigma factor) only increasing after $HgCl_2$ exposure. The effects of $HgCl_2$

or PMA exposure on the regulation of genes within each regulon controlled by *E. coli's*

seven sigma factors are tabulated in Table S11. Many genes are modulated

differentially by $HgCl_2$ or PMA-exposure, but no single sigma factor is uniquely

responsible for increases or decreases in responses to these two compounds.

Many of the 203 transcriptional regulators annotated in the RegulonDB (Table 3)

[43, 44] and the 1,723 genes they control were expressed differently with the two

mercurials (Table S12). PMA provoked up-regulation of significantly more transcription

factor genes at 10 and 30 min than $HgCl_2$ exposure, but slightly fewer down-regulated

regulators (Table 3). Of all COG categories, transcription had the most up-regulated

genes for both mercurials (Figure 3 and Table S6). PMA up-regulated ~40% more

transcription related genes at 10 min and ~80% more genes at 30 min than $HgCl_2$. Six

activators (*mhpR, glcC, gadX, soxS, mlrA, phoB*) and three repressors (*mcbR, iscR,*

betI) were up at all times for $HgCl_2$, but *gadX* was the only activator gene up-regulated

at all times for both mercurials (Table S12). GadX is part of the RpoS regulon [45] and

activates the acid resistance system and multidrug efflux [46, 47]. Details of

transcription factors and their regulons are provided in Table S12.

Lastly*, E. coli* has 65 currently annotated (ASM584v2), small non-coding RNAs.

Although our RNA purification and library preparation methods were not optimized for

their enrichment, we observed differential expression for a number of them (Table S5,

feature type "ncRNA"). ncRNAs up-regulated for both mercurials are involved in

regulation of acid resistance (*gadY*), oxidative stress (*oxyS*)*,* and multiple transporters

(*gcvB* and *sgrS*). In contrast, adhesion and motility (*cyaR*), and anaerobic metabolism

shift (*fnrS*) were down-regulated by both compounds.

(c)Translation

Upon $HgCl_2$ exposure 83% and 74% of ribosomal proteins (r-proteins) were

down-regulated at 10 and 30 min, respectively, versus only 4% and 41% for PMA at the

corresponding times (Figures 5 and S9; data for all functional group heat maps are

shown in Table S13 and Table S14). Transcription of r-proteins is repressed directly by

binding of the nutritional stress-induced nucleotide ppGpp and DksA protein to RNAP

[48]. The ppGpp synthase genes, *spoT* and *relA*, were down-regulated or unchanged,

but expression of *dksA* was up-regulated for both $HgCl_2$ and PMA exposure. R-protein

expression can also be inhibited by excess r-proteins binding to and inhibiting

translation of their own mRNAs [49, 50].

Translation initiation and elongation factors were largely unchanged, but

expression of all three peptide chain release factor genes were down for PMA and the

ribosome recycling factor (*frr*) was up only for PMA, consistent with interruption of

translation. Eight tRNA-synthase genes declined with $HgCl_2$ but PMA caused only four

tRNA-synthase genes to decline and two to increase in expression (Table S14). Both

mercurials caused a relative decline in tRNA expression for most amino acids,

especially arginine, lysine, methionine, tyrosine, and valine tRNAs. With very few

exceptions ribosome assembly and translation were shut down for up to 30 min by both

compounds but returned to normal levels by 60 min.

(d) Macromolecular turnover and chaperones

Divalent inorganic mercury can stably crosslink proteins and their subdomains

via cysteines, disrupting 3-dimensional structures and allosteric movements [51-53].

Although monovalent PMA cannot cross-link, it forms a bulky adduct with cysteines

(LaVoie, 2015), which may compromise protein folding. The proteases and chaperones

of the heat shock response degrade or repair misfolded proteins [54] and we found their

expression was increased by both mercurials (Figures 6 and S12 and Table S13). At 10

min, expression of protease genes *lon, clpXP* and *ftsH* had risen 4- to 6-fold with $HgCl_2$

and *lon* and *clpXP* were up 3-fold with PMA. $HgCl_2$ provoked up-regulation of all 12 heat

shock protein (HSP) and chaperone genes by 10 min, but only chaperones *clpB* and

ybbN mRNAs remained elevated at 30 min. Two other HSP genes, Hsp15 (*hslR*)

involved in stalled ribosome recycling and Hsp31 (*hchA*) an amino acid deglycase, were

further up-regulated by $HgCl_2$ at 60 min. In contrast, at 10 min PMA had up-regulated

only five HSPs, increasing to six by 30 min and declining to three by 60 min. The *ibpA*

and *ibpB* chaperone genes were among the most highly up-regulated genes for both

$HgCl_2$ and PMA and persisted throughout recovery*.*

Of the 16 RNases and RNA processing enzymes only 3 increased: RNase R (3-

fold for $HgCl_2$ and 5-fold for PMA) for both compounds during first 30 min; RNase III

two-fold for PMA at 30 min; and RNase T two-fold for $HgCl_2$ at 60 min. The

degradasome complex subunit genes (*rne, eno, rhlB, pnp, ppk*) [55] were all down-

regulated for PMA during the first 30 min following exposure, except the helicase (*rhlB*),

but only enolase was down-regulated for $HgCl_2$ (Figures 6 and S12 and Table S13).

Expression of RNase II (*rnb)* was also down-regulated for both compounds, but with

greater fold-changes observed for PMA. It is unclear what effect these changes in gene

expression could have on RNA turnover and message decay rates while under mercury

stress. As with the DNA metabolism genes, expression of the transcriptional apparatus

shows that sufficient PMA was taken up to elicit both positive and negative responses

distinct from $HgCl_2$.

ii. ENERGY PRODUCTION

(a) Electron transport chain

Expression of approximately 50% of all electron transport chain (ETC) genes was

down-regulated during the first 30 min for $HgCl_2$ and PMA, with individual gene

responses being very similar for both compounds (Figures 7 and S13 and Table S13).

By 60 min, only 26% of these genes were down-regulated for $HgCl_2$, and none were

down-regulated for PMA. Expression of NADH:unbiquinone oxidoreductase genes was

down-regulated by both compounds, with 77% and 100% of these genes being down-

regulated at 10 and 30 min, respectively. The ATP-synthase subunit genes were also

strongly down-regulated by both mercurials at 10 and 30 min, but normal expression

was restored at 60 min.

The *torCAD* locus that encodes the trimethylamine N-oxide anaerobic respiratory

system was strongly up-regulated only by PMA exposure. This is likely an artifact of the

dimethyl sulfoxide used to dissolve PMA, although the final DMSO concentration,

0.015% vol/vol (2.1 mM), was not expected to have any biological effect [56] and the

anaerobic DMSO reductase genes (*dmsABC*) were down-regulated. It is unlikely that

either the *tor* or *dms* responses significantly affect growth rate [57] or afford protection

against either mercurial since over-expressed heme-dependent *torC* may be in the

apoprotein form [58].

(b) Carbon metabolism

Expression of genes for carbon metabolism decreased generally, but there were

more up-regulated genes in response to $HgCl_2$ and not all steps were affected equally

by both mercurials (Figure S14). Expression of five genes of the pentose-phosphate

pathway rose in at least one time point for $HgCl_2$, but only *pgl* increased for PMA at 10

min. The ribose-5-phosphate isomerase gene (*rpiB*), which is a backup enzyme for the

gene product of *rpiA* [59], was up-regulated 40-fold for $HgCl_2$ at 10 min; although

expression of *rpiA* did not differ from the unexposed cells for either mercurial at any

time. Glycolysis responded similarly to both mercurials, with the greatest number of

these genes being down-regulated at 30 min. The expression changes in TCA cycle

genes were distinct for $HgCl_2$ and PMA; six genes were up-regulated in at least one

time point for $HgCl_2$ and only one was up-regulated for PMA. Expression of several

carbohydrate transport genes was down-regulated by both mercurials (Table S6).

(c) Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD)

Expression of genes for nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD) and NAD-

phosphate (NADP) synthesis and turnover pathways was repressed by mercury

exposure (Figure S15). The biosynthesis genes were moderately down-regulated, with

nadB being the only gene down for both mercurials at all times and *nadA* decreasing for

$HgCl_2$ at 30 and 60 min and for PMA at 30 min. Expression of the *pncABC* salvage

pathway did not change. The NAD reduction pathways were more affected than the

NADP reduction pathways, with only *pgi* down for both mercurials and *edd* down only

for $HgCl_2$. The transhydrogenase (*pntAB*) was down only for PMA at 10 and 30 min.

Expression of other genes for NAD to NADH reduction in glycolysis and the TCA cycle

were also down for both mercurials, which reflects the overall decrease in metabolism

and energy production pathways.

Globally, redox metabolism declined immediately after exposure and normal

gene expression levels were not restored until growth recovered to the pre-exposure

rate. KEGG maps created using iPath [60] depict system-wide metabolism changes

over time (Figures S16-S18 for $HgCl_2$ and Figures S19-S21 for PMA).

iii. CENTRAL METABOLISM

(a) Amino acid metabolism and transport

The two mercurials had distinct effects on expression of genes for biosynthesis of

amino acids (Figure 8 and S22). Since mercury targets cysteine thiol groups and will

deplete the cellular reduced thiol pool, we expected an increase in cysteine and

glutathione biosynthesis. Surprisingly, most genes for biosynthesis of these biothiols

and for general sulfur metabolism were down-regulated or no different from the

unexposed cells, with the exception of up-regulation of *cysE*, which is the first step in

the biosynthesis pathway from serine.

Methionine biosynthesis gene expression increased for 7 genes with $HgCl_2$, but

11 genes were down-regulated with PMA, especially *metE* dropping 187-fold with PMA

at 30 min (Figure 8 and S22). Expression of genes for histidine synthesis also

responded differently to each mercurial, rising dramatically with $HgCl_2$ at 30 to 60 min.

In contrast, all *his* genes expression dropped with PMA from 10 to 30 min. Genes for

the synthesis of leucine, isoleucine, and valine had the opposite response, with most

going down with $HgCl_2$ but increasing with PMA. Expression of other amino acid

biosynthetic pathways was largely unchanged or declined with both mercurials.

Branched-chain (*livKHMGF*), dipeptide (*dppABCDF*), and oligopeptide (*oppABCDF*)

transporters were also down for both mercurials, with greater negative fold-changes for

PMA (Table S5).

(b) Inorganic ion transport and metallochaperones

Inorganic Hg(II) can displace beneficial thiophilic metals from their native binding

sites in proteins, potentially affecting transport and disrupting transition metal

homeostasis [23], leading to expression changes for non-ferrous metal cation and

oxoanion transporters (Figures 9 and S23 and Table S13), iron homeostasis (Figures

10 and S24 and Table S13) and metal-binding proteins and enzymes (Table S15).

Inorganic mercury exposure releases labile iron, which could itself increase

oxidative stress via Fenton chemistry under aerobic growth [23, 61]. Most iron uptake

pathways declined early for both mercurials, consistent with the observed increase in

expression of the Fur repressor. The cytochrome *c* maturation genes that transport

heme to the periplasm (*ccmABCDE*) were also down for both mercurials. The putative

ferrous iron and zinc efflux pump, *fieF* [62] increased 2-fold for $HgCl_2$ at 10 min only,

suggesting it may have a brief role in restoring one or both of these homeostases.

There are two iron-sulfur (Fe-S) cluster assembly pathways in *E. coli* [63, 64].

Expression of the primary Isc system (*iscRSUA*, *hscBA*, and *fdx*) increased strongly for

both mercurials, but with greater changes for $HgCl_2$ (Figures 10 and S24 and Table

S13). The secondary Fe-S cluster assembly system *sufABCDSE*, which activates under

oxidative stress or iron limiting conditions also increased greatly, but only for $HgCl_2$.

These transcriptional responses confirm and extend biochemical findings [23] that Fe-S

clusters are more vulnerable to inorganic mercury than to organomercurials and the cell

quickly tries to repair this damage.

Zinc uptake via expression of *zupT* increased modestly from 3 to 5-fold for both

mercurials during the first 30 minutes (Figures 9 and S23 and Table S13). In contrast,

expression of the P-type ATPase zinc efflux pump, *zntA* [65], increased 20- to 40-fold

for both mercurials at 10 and 30 min and the periplasmic binding protein ZraP was up

throughout recovery. *E. coli* has two copper/silver efflux systems, Cue and Cus [66].

Surprisingly, the Cus system genes (*cusRS, cusCFBA)* primarily used under anaerobic

conditions were among the most down-regulated genes under PMA exposure. The Cue

system consists of the multi-copper oxidase, CueO, and a P-type ATPase, CopA, both

regulated by the MerR homolog, CueR. Both *cueO* and *copA* were up over 20-fold with

$HgCl_2$ at 10 and 30 min, but only 5-fold with PMA briefly at 10 min. The nickel uptake

system [67] (*nikABCDER*) was also very strongly down-regulated under PMA exposure

conditions through all times although expression of repressor NikR was unchanged,

except for a 3-fold increase with $HgCl_2$ at 10 min. Expression of the nickel and cobalt

efflux gene, *rcnA*, increased with $HgCl_2$ or PMA. Manganese (*mntH*), and magnesium

(*mgtA, corA*) uptake genes increased with both mercurials.

Inorganic anions used by *E. coli* include phosphate, sulfate, and molybdate and

genes for defense against arsenate, a phosphate mimic (Figures 9 and S23 and Table

S13). Expression of the ABC phosphate transport system (*pstSCAB*) genes increased

greatly for both mercurials, with PMA-provoked changes up to 165-fold for the

phosphate binding protein, *pstS*. The two-component phosphate regulatory system,

PhoBR increased 22-fold with $HgCl_2$ and 105-fold with PMA for *phoB*. Sulfate and

thiosulfate uptake by the ABC transporter (*cysPUWA*) decreased strongly with $HgCl_2$ at

30 min and PMA at 10 and 30 min. Expression of molybdate uptake (*modABC*)

increased with PMA during the first 30 min but only at 10 min with $HgCl_2$. The arsenate

resistance operon cannot effect Hg(II) resistance, but was highly induced by both

mercurials, perhaps through interacting with the three-cysteine metal-binding site of the

ArsR repressor [68].

iv. SURFACE FUNCTIONS

(a) Cell wall biogenesis, porins, lps, efflux systems, and electrolyte balance

The transcriptional response of peptidoglycan, membrane biosynthesis, and cell

division genes was similar for both mercurials (Figure S25 and Table S13). Expression

increased for roughly 20% of lipid biosynthesis genes, including those for cardiolipin,

and expression decreased for 20-30% of other lipid-related genes. Transcription of

genes for murein synthesis (*murCDEFGIJ*) in particular declined for both mercurials

during the first 30 min*.*

E. coli encodes several antibiotic resistance efflux systems that are up-regulated

by mercury exposure (Figures 11 and S26 and Table S13). The multiple antibiotic

resistance locus (*marRAB*), which increases drug efflux and also limits passive uptake

by decreasing porin expression [69], was strongly up-regulated by both mercurials with

greater changes observed for PMA. Though expression of some porin genes (*ompC,*

ompF, ompT, ompW) was repressed, three non-specific porins (*ompG, ompL, ompN*)

were up-regulated only by PMA. Genes from several TolC-dependent antibiotic efflux

systems were up-regulated by both mercurials as well, including *acrEF, emrD, emrKY,*

and several *mdt* genes [70]. $HgCl_2$ exposure alone also up-regulated two-component

sensor genes (*phoQP* at 10 min and *basSR* at 60 min) that regulate genes involved in

modification of the cell surface and increase polymyxin resistance [71], but most of

these genes were down-regulated or unchanged for PMA.

The response to osmotic stress and maintenance of electrolyte balance are

important membrane functions requiring adaptation in dynamic natural environments.

During $HgCl_2$ exposure the expression of the sodium antiporter, NhaA, increased 4-fold

at 10 min and the calcium/potassium antiporter, ChaA, was up 3-fold at 10 and 30 min

(Figures 9 and S23 and Table S13). In contrast, expression of genes for transport of the

major electrolyte, potassium, changed only modestly in some subunits of the *kdp, kef*,

and *trk* systems, without an obvious response pattern. However, transcription of genes

for defense against osmotic stress was uniformly up-regulated; betaine genes (*betABIT*

and proP), *osmBCEFY, and* mechanosensitive channel proteins (*mscL* and *mscS*)

increased for both mercurials, as did a putative osmoprotectant ABC permease

(yehYXW) [72] only with $HgCl_2$ at 30 and 60 min (Table S5).

(b) Motility and biofilm

Nearly all flagellar component genes were strongly down-regulated for both

mercurials, with negative changes being much greater for PMA than for $HgCl_2$ exposure

(Figures 12 and S27). Only PMA increased expression of fimbriae and curli fiber genes,

which alter motility and increase adhesion (Figure 13 and S28) [73]. Fifteen genes up-

regulated by PMA exposure were annotated as homologs of FimA, but with unknown

function. FimA is the major structural component of fimbriae, but these genes may serve

other functions. Motility genes whose expression dropped remained low until 60 min,

indicating that the structurally and energetically intensive motility systems are very slow

to recover.

HgCl$_2$ and PMA also provoked expression of several biofilm-related genes

(Figures 13 and S28 and Table S13). The *bhsA* and *bdcA* loci were among the most

highly up-regulated genes during HgCl$_2$ exposure, with much higher fold-changes than

observed for PMA (Tables 2 and 3). Neither gene is well characterized, but

independently each has been found to decrease biofilm formation and increase

resistance to external stressors [74, 75]. Only PMA increased expression of genes for

poly-β-1,6-N-acetyl-glucosamine (PGA) polysaccharide production [76] and biofilm

related genes, *ycgZ, ymgA, ariA, ymgC* [77]. Thus, PMA elicits a broader response that

potentially alters the cell surface and may increase adhesion and biofilm formation; in

contrast HgCl$_2$ only inhibits motility and does not activate adhesion pathways. It is

possible that some changes observed for motility and biofilm related genes following

PMA-exposure are an artifact of the DMSO, but other studies suggest that solvent

would have no effect or that much higher concentrations than used here would be

required to induce these changes [56, 78].

v. STRESS RESPONSES

(a) Oxidative stress response and repair

There are two oxidative stress response pathways in *E. coli*, the *oxyRS* and

soxRS regulons [61, 79]. OxyR, a LysR-family transcriptional regulator, uses a cysteine-

pair to sense oxidative damage and regulates 49 genes when oxidized [80]. HgCl$_2$

exposure increased expression of 22 OxyR regulon genes at 10 min; these then

declined to 13 genes by 60 min (Table S16). In contrast, PMA provoked expression of

16 OxyR regulon genes at 10 and 30 min, but none at 60 min. *OxyS*, a small non-

coding RNA regulated by OxyR, represses *rpoS*, *fhlACD* and other genes to prevent

redundant induction of stress response genes [81]. The *oxyS* gene was among the most

highly expressed genes with over a 1,000 fold-change with $HgCl_2$ at 10 and 30 min, and

a more modest change of 10-fold at 10 min and 6 fold at 30 min with PMA.

The SoxRS regulon is the other oxidative stress response system in *E. coli*.

SoxR, a MerR-family repressor-activator, uses the oxidation state of 2Fe-2S clusters to

respond to superoxide (O_2^-) stress and induce transcription of *SoxS* [82-85], which then

transcriptionally regulates 53 genes [79, 86] (Table S16). $HgCl_2$ or PMA exposure up-

regulated 22 or 25 genes, respectively, at 10 min and these had declined to 13 or 0

genes, respectively by 60 min.

Key genes in these oxidative stress regulons differentially expressed upon

mercury exposure include the ROS scavengers: catalase (*katG*), alkyl hydroperoxide

reductase (*ahpCF*), and superoxide dismutase (*sodA*) (Figures 14 and S29 and Table

S13). Thiol homeostasis genes included *gor*, *grxA,* and *trxC* (Figures 14 and S29 and

Table S13). Iron homeostasis and the Fe-S cluster assembly and repair genes (*fur, dps,*

fldA, fpr, hemH, sufABCDES, and *yggX*) were also up-regulated. PMA provoked

comparatively lower fold-changes than $HgCl_2$ for *grxA, trxC, ahpC, dps, fldA, hemH, and*

yggx. The manganese uptake protein, *mntH*, plays an important role in ROS resistance

[87] and was up for both mercurials. Oxidation-resistant dehydratase isozymes, *acnA*

and *fumC* [88, 89] also increased, but only for $HgCl_2$ exposure. Thus, both mercurials

triggered the Oxy and Sox oxidative stress responses, but $HgCl_2$ elicited greater fold-

changes overall than PMA compared to unexposed cells.

Because mercury poisons the cellular thiol pool [23], we expected that regulation

of redox homeostasis proteins such as glutaredoxins, thioredoxins and glutathione-

related genes would respond to mercury exposure (Figure 14 and S29). Glutaredoxin 1

(*grxA*) expression was up for both mercurials with a greater fold-change for $HgCl_2$, but

glutaredoxin 2 (*grxB*) was down for both mercurials, while glutaredoxin 3 (*grxC*) and

glutaredoxin 4 (*grxD*) were up only for PMA. Thioredoxin reductase (*trxB*) increased

two-fold with PMA (30 min only), but was up with $HgCl_2$ 8-fold (10 min) and 4-fold (30

min). Thioredoxin 1 (*trxA*) expression increased two-fold only with PMA (10 min), in

contrast to thioredoxin 2 (*trxC*), which was up for both mercurials, but much higher with

$HgCl_2$ than with PMA. However, the thiol peroxidase (*tpx*) was up modestly for PMA, but

did not change for $HgCl_2$. Thus, while each mercurial stresses the cell to maintain redox

homeostasis, a greater burden is created by $HgCl_2$ exposure.

Glutathione (GSH) serves as the cell's redox buffer and as a scavenger of

mercurials (Figures 14 and S29 and Table S13). Surprisingly, expression of GSH

biosynthesis and utilization genes increased only modestly. The γ-

glutamyltranspeptidase (*ggt*) increased late (60 min) by 4-fold only with $HgCl_2$. GSH

synthase (*gshA*) did not change and *gshB* was up 2-3 fold for both mercurials only at 10

min. The GSH importer (*gsiABCD*) may be a salvage pathway to recover GSH and

cysteine leaked into the periplasm by CydCD [90, 91], but it was down-regulated by

$HgCl_2$ or PMA through 30 min. The GSH reductase (*gor*) increased only with $HgCl_2$ at

10 min and several GSH S-transferase genes involved in detoxification [92] (*gstA, gstB,*

yfcF, yqjG, yibF, yncG) increased with both mercurials. Since all of these proteins have

Hg(II)-vulnerable cysteines in their active sites, it is surprising that neither Hg(II) nor

PMA-challenged cells provoked increased expression and suggests that their normal

mRNA levels are sufficient to replenish them.

(b). Genes with delayed up-regulation

Genes unchanged at 10 min but differentially expressed at both 30 and 60 min or

60 min alone may be those needed as cells transition out of stasis and towards normal

growth (Table S17). For $HgCl_2$ exposure, 95 genes were up-regulated and 140 genes

were down-regulated that display this delayed response pattern. Approximately half of

the up-regulated genes are involved in energy production, transport and metabolism

pathways based on COG annotations. Roughly 45% of these delayed $HgCl_2$ provoked,

up-regulated genes are the same as genes that were differentially expressed during the

first 30 min of PMA exposure. This overlap is consistent with slower recovery of growth

in $HgCl_2$ exposed cells and that some of the same pathways are used for recovery by

both compounds. In contrast, for the more quickly recovering PMA exposure, of the

genes that showed no change at 10 min only six were up-regulated at 60 min (Table

S17). Only two of these delayed-response genes for PMA exposure overlapped with up-

regulated genes for $HgCl_2$ exposure.

DISCUSSION

Mercury is a ubiquitous toxicant that serves no biologically beneficial role.

Exposure to any form of mercury negatively impacts the health of organisms from

microbes to humans. The biological effects of different forms of mercury are often

conflated and methylmercury is assumed to be the most toxic form. However, the

systemic biochemical and molecular differences between inorganic and organic mercury

compounds have yet to be well characterized from exposure through recovery in a

single model system.

BULK DIFFERENTIAL EFFECTS ON GROWTH AND GENE EXPRESSION

The sub-acute mercury exposure conditions used in this study were chosen by

identifying a mercury concentration high enough to stop cells from doubling, but low

enough to allow restoration of the pre-exposure growth rate within one-hour (~1

generation period) after exposure (Figure 1a). Concentrations below 3 µM of either

compound did not consistently inhibit growth and higher concentrations of $HgCl_2$ did not

allow recovery within the desired time frame. Three micromolar Hg is well within the

range that bacteria can experience chronically from dental amalgam fillings [93] and in

highly contaminated environments, such as artisanal gold mining operations [8].

Mercury in tuna is 0.386 ppm compared to the proxy organomercurial, PMA, used here

at 3 µM or 0.6 ppm [94].

PMA-exposed cells recovered exponential growth faster (Figure 1) than those

with equimolar exposure to $HgCl_2$, perhaps owing to lower uptake of PMA (Table S2).

However, PMA-exposed cells differentially expressed more genes than $HgCl_2$ exposed

cells during the first 30 min of exposure (Figure 1b). These results agree with

observations in *C. elegans,* where MeHg exposure resulted in four times more DEGs

than did $HgCl_2$ for all concentrations tested [95]. However, in contrast to *E. coli,* whose

growth was inhibited more by inorganic $HgCl_2$, in *C. elegans* the effective toxic

concentration of methylmercuric chloride was lower than for $HgCl_2$ [95].

We found that most DEGs peaked at 10 min after exposure for both compounds

with HgCl$_2$ provoking more down-regulation and PMA yielding more up-regulated genes

throughout the exposure period (Figure 1b). Even though the optical density (OD) of the

HgCl$_2$ exposed culture showed no growth recovery from 10 min to 30 min, DEGs

decreased by 22%, while PMA-exposed cells over the same period had a moderate

increase in OD, but only an 8% decrease in DEGs (Figure 1). In contrast in a eukaryotic

system, the livers of HgCl$_2$ exposed zebrafish continuously increased in DEGs

throughout the observed 96 hour exposure period as mercury accumulated in their cells

[96].

In *E. coli,* during the first 30 min post-exposure, 50-70% of both up- and down-

regulated genes were the same for both compounds (Figure 2), but at the level of

individual genes there were both qualitative and quantitative differences in expression

(Table S5), consistent with idiosyncratic transcriptional responses to each compound.

The nematode *C. elegans* also manifested distinct and even some opposite

transcriptional responses to inorganic and organic mercury exposure in a single end-

point microarray experiment [24].

As there are not yet other studies of the transcriptional response of a bacterium

to mercury exposure, on the basis of the findings in eukaryotes and our proteomic work

[23] we have organized our observations here into those we had expected and those we

did not expect from any yet published work.

EXPECTED AND UNEXPECTED GENE-SPECIFIC CHANGES

Expected transcriptional changes:

(a) Thiol homeostasis. The millimolar cytosolic pool of glutathione (GSH) can sequester

mercurials and thereby protect protein thiols from binding strongly to these soft metal

toxicants. However, if the GSH pool becomes depleted by mercury complexation, the

cell loses this primary defense mechanism. Since proteins of the stress response and

repair pathways all contain active site thiols, often as part of Hg(II)-vulnerable Fe-S

centers, it is not obvious how a cell that has lost much of its available thiols to Hg(II)

chelation can restore its metabolism. Given this, we expected cysteine and glutathione

biosynthesis pathways to be up-regulated. However, cysteine biosynthesis was down

(Figures 8 and S22 and Table S13) and GSH biosynthesis was mostly unchanged

(Figures 14 and S29 and Table S13) for both compounds, in contrast to the eukaryotic

response to mercury [96-98] and H_2O_2 exposure [99], which increase GSH and

metallothionein production. However, although thiol biosynthesis did not increase,

genes involved in maintaining cellular thiol homeostasis did increase (Figures 14 and

S29 and Table S13); thioredoxin (*trxC*) and glutaredoxin (*grxA*) were among the most

highly up-regulated genes with $HgCl_2$ and PMA exposure. Others have also found in *E.*

coli that glutathione reductase increased with $HgCl_2$ and both compounds increased

expression of glutathione oxidoreductase and S-transferase genes, which protect

against oxidative stress and xenobiotics [100].

(b) Iron homeostasis. We also expected inorganic mercury to disrupt iron-sulfur clusters

with consequent effects on Fe homeostasis generally [23, 101]. Iron uptake was down-

regulated with both mercurials, consistent with excess intracellular free Fe(II) and

general oxidative stress, but expression of the uptake repressor (*fur*) was only up for

HgCl$_2$ (Figure 10 and S24). *Fur* expression is activated by either OxyR or SoxS [99,

102] and Fur represses Fe uptake pathways with ferrous iron as a co-repressor [103].

Fur can also bind other divalent metals [104], so Hg(II)-Fur might mimic Fe-Fur as an

iron uptake repressor under these conditions to limit Fenton-mediated damage from

excess iron. Although both mercurials increased expression of the primary Fe-S cluster

assembly and repair system (*isc*), only HgCl$_2$ induced the secondary system (*suf*),

which is normally induced under oxidative stress or iron limiting conditions [63, 105]

(Figures 10 and S24 and Table S13). Also, only HgCl$_2$ exposure increased expression

of iron storage proteins: ferritin, bacterioferritin, and Dps (Figure 10 and S24). The DNA

binding protein Dps which binds free iron to protect DNA from ROS damage [106] was

one of the most highly up-regulated genes with HgCl$_2$ exposure (Table 1).

(c) <u>Oxidative stress response.</u> The known close link between iron homeostasis and

oxidative stress [61] explains the high fold-changes upon HgCl$_2$ exposure in genes that

respond to oxidative stress (Table S16) and echoes mercury's long known stimulation of

oxidative damage in rat kidney mitochondria [107]. The small non-coding RNA *oxyS*

was the second most highly up-regulated gene upon HgCl$_2$ exposure with differential

expression more than 100-fold greater than observed for PMA (Table 1). The ROS

scavenger *ahpF* was also highly up-regulated, along with *katG* (early) and *sodA*

(delayed) but only for HgCl$_2$ (Figures 14 and S29 and Table S16). Other ROS resistant

enzymes, aconitase A [89] and fumarase C [108] (Table S16) also increased only for

HgCl$_2$, as did the manganese-dependent alternative ribonucleotide reductase genes

(*nrdHIEF*) [109]. The glutaredoxin-like protein that functions like thioredoxin, *nrdH* [110],

was highly up-regulated by $HgCl_2$ and might support other thioredoxin and glutaredoxin

proteins. These striking differences in gene expression illuminate how *E. coli* modulates

expression of specific genes not only to deal with compromised function of specific

$HgCl_2$ modified proteins, but also to manage the consequent cascade of reactive oxygen

species.

(d) Heat shock response. Mercurials bound to protein cysteines could disrupt protein

folding, subunit assembly, and allosteric movements [52, 111] and inorganic mercury

can crosslink neighboring cysteines leading to aggregation [51]. Increased expression

of heat shock response genes was expected as a consequence of such anticipated

protein misfolding problems [112]. Indeed, expression of heat shock chaperonins and

protease genes increased for both mercurials, with more genes up early in response to

$HgCl_2$ than to PMA (Figures 6 and S12 and Table S13). Genes for the small chaperone-

like proteins, *ibpA* and *ibpB*, were among the most highly increased for both

compounds, especially for $HgCl_2$ (Table 1), consistent with their role in aiding Lon

protease in the degradation of misfolded proteins [113-115].

(e) Translational apparatus. Thiophilic Cd^{2+} exposure in *E. coli* has been shown to

decrease expression of ribosomal proteins [116]. In our proteomics work (Zink et al. in

preparation) we observed fourteen r-proteins (7 for each ribosomal subunit) that formed

stable adducts with either PMA or Hg(II), so it was reasonable to expect this to be

reflected in transcription of r-proteins. Indeed, $HgCl_2$ exposure repressed expression of

up to 83% of r-protein genes at 10 min and 74% at 30 min (Figure 5, S11, and Table

S14), whereas PMA only briefly repressed expression of 41% of r-proteins at 30 min.

Divalent inorganic mercury's ability to cross-link proteins may interfere with ribosome

assembly resulting in translational feedback and repression of r-proteins transcription.

Disruption of ribosome assembly could also contribute to the slower recovery of growth

after inorganic Hg(II) exposure.

(f) Energy production. The dependence of most energy production pathways on redox-

active transition metals and redox-active sulfur compounds made them obvious targets

of mercurial disruption, e.g. three ATP-synthase subunits form stable adducts after in

vivo exposure to Hg(II) or PMA (Zink et al. in preparation). Intriguingly, expression of

genes within this functional category was largely down-regulated early in exposure, with

all nine ATPase subunits down for $HgCl_2$ (10 min) and eight down for PMA (30 min)

(Figure 7 and S13). Although others have found that Cd exposure in *E. coli* repressed

aerobic energy metabolism genes and induced anaerobic pathways [116], we found that

both aerobic and anaerobic energy metabolism were repressed by $HgCl_2$ and PMA.

Even though expression of the oxygen-sensing *fnr* [117] and *aer* [118, 119] activators of

the anaerobic shift were moderately up for PMA and unchanged for $HgCl_2$ (Table S5).

Similarly, glucose metabolism genes were also predominantly down during early

periods for both compounds, especially with PMA exposure (Figure S14). Thus, with

severely compromised energy production systems, it is not surprising that amino acid,

carbohydrate and nucleotide metabolism genes, and the energy-dependent transport of

these molecules (Figure 3 and Table S6), are also largely depressed initially.

(g) <u>Homeostases of non-ferrous metals</u>. We expected mercurials to disrupt electrolyte

balance [23], but expression of the potassium efflux pumps' subunit genes (*kcpABC,*

kefBC, and trkAGH) were not uniformly up-regulated, although the need to restore the

pH balance was indicated by briefly increased expression of the H^+/Na^+ antiporter

(*nhaA*) for both compounds (Figures 9, S23 and Table S5). It may be that normal levels

of the proteins involved in maintaining cellular electrolyte balance are sufficient to

respond to mercury exposure and a significant change in transcriptional expression is

not required for these genes.

Mercury is also expected to disrupt non-ferrous metal homeostasis because it

can displace other metals, such as zinc and copper, as enzyme cofactors [120, 121].

Expression of metal uptake genes decreased and of metal efflux genes increased for

zinc, copper, nickel and cobalt, with generally greater fold-changes for $HgCl_2$. Zinc efflux

by ZntA is regulated by the MerR homolog ZntR, which can respond to Hg(II) [122], but

has not been shown to confer resistance to Hg(II) exposure. Indeed, *in vitro* the ATPase

activity of the ZntA efflux pump is stimulated by Hg-thiolate complexes [65, 123]. This

could be a possible source for the decline in inorganic Hg content observed over time

(Table S2) once bound by glutathione or cysteine, but would not explain the increase at

60 min or decline in PMA, unless other efflux systems such as antibiotic resistance

systems are effective as well. Manganese may protect iron metalloenzymes under

oxidative stress conditions [87] and Mn uptake by *mntH,* as part of the OxyR regulon,

was correspondingly up-regulated for both compounds in response to mercury-induced

oxidative stress.

Unexpected transcriptional changes:

(a) <u>Motility and chemotaxis</u>. Energetically costly flagellar motility and chemotaxis were

strongly down-regulated by both mercurials and were among the slowest to recover

normal transcription levels (Figures 12 and S27 and Table S13). Motility gene

expression is regulated by σ^{28} (*fliA*) and FlhDC [124] and the expression of these two

regulatory genes declined with $HgCl_2$ but was unchanged with PMA. Repression of

motility may occur through sigma factor competition for binding to RNAP between σ^{28}

and increased expression of σ^S [125] and/or through repression of the flagellar

transcriptional activator FlhDC by increased expression of the small ncRNAs *oxyS* and

gadY [126]. Interestingly, $HgCl_2$ exposure impaired locomotion in *C. elegans* [24],

although through a very different mechanism of motility from *E. coli*.

(b) <u>Surface appendages and biofilm synthesis</u>. Surprisingly, there were large increases

in expression of genes involved in biofilm formation and adhesion or dispersal (Figures

13 and S28 and Tables S13). Expression of *bhsA* and *bdcA,* which function in biofilm

dispersal or reduced biofilm formation [74, 75]*,* were the first and third, respectively,

most up-regulated genes by $HgCl_2$ (Table 1) and were also up for PMA, but with much

lower fold-changes (Table 2). Expression of *bhsA* is also up-regulated by other diverse

stressors and may decrease cell permeability [75, 127]. PMA exposure especially

increased expression of genes for the polysaccharide PGA, which aids in adhesion in

biofilm formation [76], and other biofilm formation (*ycgZ, ymgA, ariA, ymgC*) genes [77]

(Figures 13 and S28 and Table S13).

Expression of fimbriae (*fim)* and curli fibers (*csg*), important for adhesion in

biofilm formation [73] were also up-regulated only by PMA (Figure 13 and S28), as were

15 of 22 FimA homologs of unknown function. Outer membrane vesicle formation

(OMVs) could also play a role in detoxification, since an increase in formation of these

vesicles has been associated with heat shock, oxidative stress response, and biofilm

formation [128], which are responses up-regulated to varying degrees by both

mercurials. These are distinct differences between PMA and HgCl$_2$ response. PMA

provocation of biofilm formation and adhesion genes might be an artifact of its DMSO

solvent, but it is not obvious why HgCl$_2$ induces such high increases in biofilm dispersal

genes.

(c) Phosphate metabolism. Phosphate uptake genes were among the most highly up-

regulated genes for PMA exposure (Figure 9, S23, and Table 2). The PhoBR two-

component system controls expression of phosphate transport genes, as well as some

genes that increase virulence including those for fimbriae and biofilm formation [129].

Since expression of PhoBR and its regulon increases under phosphate limiting

conditions [130], it may be that PMA inhibits phosphate uptake by an unknown

mechanism, possibly through direct interaction with highly up-regulated PstS or this

could be an artifact of DMSO.

(d) Amino acid biosynthesis. Expression of most amino acid pathways was turned down

by both compounds, but a few responded uniquely to each mercurial (Figures 8 and

S22 and Table S13). Since methionine auxotrophy occurs under oxidative stress due to

ROS susceptibility of methionine synthase (MetE) [131], expression of methionine

biosynthesis genes may have been increased by $HgCl_2$, which provoked a stronger

oxidative stress response than PMA. However, since PMA did provoke some oxidative

stress response, it is curious that Met operon expression was strongly down under PMA

exposure. Next to its affinity for cysteine sulfur, Hg(II) binds the imino nitrogen of

histidine very strongly [132], so it was intriguing that histidine biosynthesis genes were

also up-regulated by $HgCl_2$ but down-regulated by PMA. It remains unclear how these

differences or the opposite responses for leucine, isoleucine and valine biosynthesis

help the cell survive mercurial exposure.

(e) Miscellaneous genes. Multiple antibiotic efflux systems and polymyxin resistance

surface modifications were up-regulated by $HgCl_2$ exposure, and even more so by PMA

(Figures 11 and S26 and Table S13). Chronic mercury exposure contributes to the

spread of multiple antibiotic resistant bacteria through co-selection of plasmid-borne

antibiotic and mercury resistance genes [133, 134]. Increased expression of antibiotic

resistance and surface components hint that low-level mercury exposure could prime

cells for increased antibiotic resistance. However, the ubiquity of plasmid- and

transposon-borne Hg resistance loci suggests that expression of these chromosomal

genes offers insufficient protection against the antibiotic or mercurial levels encountered

in clinical practice.

A handful of vestigial e14 or CPS-53 prophage genes were up-regulated by

$HgCl_2$ (Table 1) or PMA (Table S5), respectively. Some are known to increase

resistance to osmotic, oxidative, and acid stressors [135, 136], but their roles and

mechanisms have not been well defined.

(f) <u>Differential expression of genes required for the same functional protein complex</u>.

In many instances we observed that transcripts for subunits of the same enzyme,

protein complex, or component of a tightly articulated pathway were differentially

expressed. In some cases these proteins lie in distinct transcripts, which may

experience different turnover rates and in other cases the differences could be due to

transcriptional polarity. We have chosen not to deal explicitly with such paradoxes in

this work, which is sufficiently complex as it is, but will address them in future work.

CONCLUSIONS

The effects of mercury exposure in multicellular organisms have long been

studied at the physiological level but a global, fine grained understanding of the

differences in the precise biochemical sequelae of inorganic and organic mercury

exposure has been lacking. This study is the first to examine not only the transcriptional

response differences between inorganic mercury ($HgCl_2$) and an organomercurial

(phenylmercuric acetate) in a model microorganism, but also first to examine

longitudinally how the cell recovers from these chemically distinct compounds. Taken

together with global identification of vulnerable protein targets (Zink et al. in preparation)

and of damage to thiol and metal ion homeostasis upon acute mercurial exposure [23],

the current work provides a quantitative systems-level description of the effects of *in*

vivo mercury exposure in *E. coli*. What was striking and most challenging with this study

was the breadth and diversity of the systems whose expression was affected by these

two chemically distinct mercurials. Sub-acute exposure influenced expression of ~45%

of all genes with many distinct responses for each compound, reflecting differential

biochemical damage by each mercurial and the corresponding resources available for

repair. Energy production, intermediary metabolism and most uptake pathways were

initially down-regulated by both mercurials, but nearly all stress response systems were

up-regulated early by at least one compound. These results echo the wide functional

variety of proteins stably modified by these mercurials owing to the widespread

occurrence of cysteines found in nearly all *E. coli* proteins. Microbiome studies are

rapidly unveiling the importance of commensal bacteria to the health of all higher

organisms. Our findings in this model commensal organism provide insights into how

chronic mercury exposure might affect such complex microbial communities and,

consequently, the health of the host. This work also serves as a foundation for studies

now underway of how the widely found mobile Hg resistance (*mer*) locus assists the cell

in recovery from Hg exposure.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS:

Hg = mercury

$HgCl_2$ = mercuric chloride

PMA = phenylmercuric acetate

PhHg = phenylmercury

DMSO = dimethyl sulfoxide

LB = Luria-Bertani medium

NM3 = Neidhardt MOPS minimal medium

NGS = next generation sequencing

DEGs = differentially expressed genes

CVAA = cold vapor atomic absorption

GSH = glutathione

Cys = cysteine

MDR = multidrug resistance

ncRNA = non-coding RNA

COGs = clusters of orthologous groups

GOFs = gene-ontology functions

RNAP = RNA polymerase

HSP = heat shock protein

ETC = electron transport chain

PGA = poly-β-1,6-N-acetyl-glucosamine

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DECLARATIONS

Ethics approval and consent to participate: Not applicable

Consent for publication: Not applicable

Availability of data and materials: The tabulated datasets supporting the conclusions

of this article are included as additional files. The read counts and raw sequence data

(.fastq) are stored in the Gene Expression Omnibus database

(http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/) with accession ID: GSE95575; they are available to

reviewers upon request and will be open to the public when the manuscript has

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Authors' contributions: SL conceived and designed experiments, prepared biological

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     Table 1: Genes with ≥ 20 fold-change for at least two time points after HgCl$_2$ exposure (n = 25).

Gene ID	Gene Name	Product Description	Hg t10	Hg t30	Hg t60	PMA t10	PMA t30	PMA t60
b1112	**bhsA**	Biofilm, cell surface and signaling defects, YhcN family	**1949**	**563**	**94**	**46**	**21**	n.s.
b4458	oxyS	OxyS sRNA activates genes that detoxify oxidative damage	**1524**	**1292**	**150**	10	6	n.s.
b4249	bdcA	c-di-GMP-binding biofilm dispersal mediator protein	**596**	**79**	7	16	2	n.s.
b3686	**ibpB**	Chaperone, heat-inducible protein of HSP20 family	**402**	**124**	**281**	**37**	**211**	9
b0812	dps	Stress-induced Fe-binding and storage protein	**339**	**52**	n.s.	4	2	n.s.
b4248	yjgH	Putative reactive intermediate deaminase, UPF0076 family	**296**	**24**	3	6	2	n.s.
b0849	grxA	Glutaredoxin 1	**246**	**33**	n.s.	14	4	n.s.
b1144	ymfJ	Function unknown, e14 prophage	**185**	**39**	n.s.	3	3	n.s.
b2582	**trxC**	Thioredoxin 2, zinc-binding; Trx2	**134**	**50**	7	**24**	**24**	n.s.
b1147	ymfL	Function unknown, e14 prophage	**95**	**29**	n.s.	n.s.	3	n.s.
b1146	croE	Cro-like repressor, e14 prophage	**90**	**40**	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
b3687	**ibpA**	Chaperone, heat-inducible protein of HSP20 family	**86**	19	**41**	10	**28**	4
b2531	iscR	Transcriptional repressor for isc operon; contains Fe-S cluster	**62**	**48**	9	12	18	n.s.
b1148	ymfM	Function unknown, e14 prophage	**49**	**21**	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
b4599	yneM	function unknown, membrane-associated; regulated by PhoPQ	**38**	**36**	n.s.	3	3	n.s.
b2673	nrdH	NrdH-redoxin reducing oxidized NrdEF	**35**	**127**	**21**	7	14	n.s.
b4030	**psiE**	Pho regulon, regulated by phoB and cAMP	**35**	**64**	17	**38**	**59**	n.s.
b1684	sufA	Scaffold protein for assembly of iron-sulfur clusters	**32**	**39**	5	n.s.	3	n.s.
b1748	**astC**	Succinylornithine transaminase; carbon starvation protein	**30**	**31**	**25**	**34**	**36**	n.s.
b4663	**azuC**	Function unknown; membrane-associated	**27**	**25**	**36**	**41**	**49**	n.s.
b0484	copA	Copper-, silver-translocating P-type ATPase efflux pump	**25**	**20**	n.s.	5	n.s.	-10
b2674	nrdI	Flavodoxin required for NrdEF cluster assembly	**21**	**73**	**22**	4	7	n.s.
b1747	astA	Arginine succinyltransferase, arginine catabolism	10	**20**	**29**	9	14	n.s.
b1020	**phoH**	ATP-binding protein, function unknown	8	**71**	**221**	**61**	**365**	n.s.
b4002	zraP	Zn-dependent periplasmic chaperone	3	**27**	**43**	n.s.	n.s.	-3

1454   Table is sorted by Hg at 10 min column. n.s. = not significantly different from unexposed culture and boldface highlights actual values

1455   ≥ 20-fold. Gene names in boldface have a ≥ 20 differential expression response to both Hg and PMA in at least one time point (n =

1456   8).

1457   **Table 2: Genes with ≥ 20 fold-change in at least two time points for PMA exposure (n= 17).**

Gene ID	Gene Name	Product Description	Hg t10	Hg t30	Hg t60	PMA t10	PMA t30	PMA t60
b3728	pstS	ABC phosphate transport system; periplasmic binding protein	n.s.	16	8	**86**	**165**	n.s.
b1020	**phoH**	ATP-binding protein, function unknown	8	**71**	**221**	**61**	**365**	n.s.
b0996	torC	c-Type cytochrome	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	**55**	**65**	**77**
b4060	**yjcB**	Function unknown	**33**	11	12	**52**	**35**	n.s.
b0399	**phoB**	Positive response regulator for pho regulon	4	**22**	3	**51**	**105**	n.s.
b1530	**marR**	Transcription repressor of multiple antibiotic resistance	**26**	7	n.s.	**48**	**29**	n.s.
b1531	marA	Transcriptional activator for multiple antibiotic resistance;	15	9	n.s.	**46**	**31**	n.s.
b1112	**bhsA**	Biofilm, cell surface and signaling defects, YhcN family	**1949**	**563**	**94**	**46**	**21**	n.s.
b1532	marB	marRAB multiple antibiotic resistance operon	16	8	n.s.	**45**	**27**	n.s.
b4663	**azuC**	Function unknown; membrane-associated	**27**	**25**	**36**	**41**	**49**	n.s.
b4030	**psiE**	Pho regulon, regulated by phoB and cAMP	**35**	**64**	17	**38**	**59**	n.s.
b3686	**ibpB**	Chaperone, heat-inducible protein of HSP20 family	**402**	**124**	**281**	**37**	**211**	9
b1748	**astC**	Succinylornithine transaminase; carbon starvation protein	**30**	**31**	**25**	**34**	**36**	n.s.
b3469	**zntA**	Zn(II), Cd(II), and Pb(II) translocating P-type ATPase	**40**	19	8	**29**	**22**	n.s.
b2582	**trxC**	Thioredoxin 2, zinc-binding; Trx2	**134**	**50**	7	**24**	**24**	n.s.
b4354	yjiY	Predicted transporter, function unknown	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	**20**	**77**	n.s.
b1625	cnu	OriC-binding complex H-NS/Cnu	n.s.	10	n.s.	**20**	**24**	n.s.

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1459   Table is sorted by PMA at 10 min column. n.s. = not significantly different from unexposed culture and boldface highlights actual

1460   values ≥ 20-fold. Gene names in boldface have a ≥ 20 differential expression response to both Hg and PMA in at least one time point

1461   (n = 11).

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1465 **Table 3: Changes in transcription factor gene expression.** The sum of transcription

1466 factor genes either up-regulated or down-regulated is shown with the percentage of the

1467 total transcription factor genes in parenthesis; percent's do not total 100 because genes

1468 with no change compared to unexposed cells are not tabulated here. See details in

1469 Table S12.

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Transcription Factors (n = 203)						
	Hg_t10	**Hg_t30**	**Hg_t60**	**PMA_t10**	**PMA_t30**	**PMA_t60**
up	63 (31)	46 (23)	14 (7)	86 (42)	78 (38)	1 (0.5)
down	28 (14)	28 (14)	13 (6)	22 (11)	23 (11)	2 (1)

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Figures:

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	t10	t30	t60
3µM HgCl$_2$	1,821 (894↑927↓)	1,422 (637↑785↓)	563 (259↑304↓)
3µM PMA	2,181 (1,261↑920↓)	2,009 (1,156↑853↓)	65 (36↑29↓)

Figure 1: Effects of sub-acute mercury exposure on growth of MG1655. (a) *E. coli* K12 MG1655 grown in MOPS minimal medium, unexposed (blue) or exposed to 3 µM HgCl$_2$ (red) or 3 µM PMA (green) during mid-log phase. Asterisks indicate sampling times for RNA-seq. Error bars are standard error (SEM) of 3 biological replicates for each culture condition. See Figure S1 for full growth curve. **(b)** Differentially expressed genes (DEG) counts (up or down) for HgCl$_2$ and PMA relative to unexposed control culture at each time point.

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1522 **Figure 2: Overlap between differentially expressed genes at each sampling time**

1523 The 3 µM HgCl$_2$ exposure is in red and the 3 µM PMA exposure in green. Ovals are to

1524 scale only at each time point, but not between between time points in a panel nor

1525 between left and right panels.

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Figure 3: Counts of differentially expressed genes for each condition grouped by COG functional category. Genes with a log$_2$ fold-change ≥ 1 for each condition were grouped by COG group. Positive counts represent observed up-regulated genes and negative counts represent observed down-regulated genes. COG code, number of proteins encoded by genome and category description: (A, 2) RNA processing and modification; (C, 284) Energy production and conversion; (D, 39) Cell cycle control, cell division, chromosome partitioning; (E, 355) Amino acid transport and metabolism; (F, 107) Nucleotide transport and metabolism; (G, 381) Carbohydrate transport and metabolism; (H, 179) Coenzyme transport and metabolism; (I, 121) Lipid transport and metabolism; (J, 236) Translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis; (K, 294)

Transcription; (L, 139) Replication, recombination and repair; (M, 242) Cell wall,

membrane and envelope biogenesis; (N, 102) Cell motility; (O, 156) Post-translational

modification, protein turnover, chaperones; (P, 223) Inorganic ion transport and

metabolism; (Q, 68) Secondary metabolites biosynthesis, transport and catabolism; (R,

261) General function prediction only; (S, 203) Function unknown; (T, 191) Signal

transduction mechanisms; (U, 50) Intracellular trafficking, secretion, and vesicular

transport; (V, 91) Defense mechanisms; (W, 31) Extracellular structures; (X, 60)

Mobilome, prophages, transposons.

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1577 **Figure 4: Differentially expressed genes at each RNA sampling time.** Heat map of

1578 all genes that were differentially expressed in at least one mercury exposure condition

1579 (n = 3,149). Genes were clustered by row using Ward's minimum variance method [36]

1580 with non-squared log_2 fold-change input values.

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1600 **Figure 5: Ribosomal subunit protein genes.** Genes are grouped and colored by

1601 operon (see larger Figure S11 and Table S13 for details).

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1623 **Figure 6: Protein and RNA turnover and repair**. (see larger Figure S12 and Table

1624 S13 for details).

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1646 **Figure 7: Electron transport chain and ATP-synthase.** (see larger Figure S13 and

1647 Table S13 for details).

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1670   **Figure 8: Amino acid biosynthesis.** (see larger Figure S22 and Table S13 for details).

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Figure 9: Non-ferrous metals homeostasis. (see larger Figure S23 and Table S13 for

details).

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Figure 10: Iron homeostasis. (see larger Figure S24 and Table S13 for details).

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Figure 11: Antibiotic resistance and outer membrane porins. (see larger Figure S26 and Table S13 for details).

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1762 **Figure 12: Flagella components and chemotaxis.** (see larger Figure S27 and Table

1763 S13 for details).

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1785 **Figure 13: Biofilm formation and fimbriae.** (see larger Figure S28 and Table S13 for

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1808 **Figure 14: Oxidative stress defense and thiol homeostasis.** (see larger Figure S29

1809 and Table S13).

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