Inverted Regulation of Multidrug Efflux Pumps, Acid Resistance and Porins in

Benzoate-Evolved *Escherichia coli* K-12

by

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ABSTRACT

Benzoic acid, a partial uncoupler of the proton motive force (PMF), selects for sensitivity to

chloramphenicol and tetracycline during experimental evolution of *Escherichia coli* K-12.

Transcriptomes of *E. coli* isolates evolved with benzoate showed reversal of benzoate-dependent

regulation, including downregulation of multi-drug efflux pumps; the Gad acid resistance

regulon; the nitrate reductase *narHJ*; and the acid-consuming hydrogenase Hyd-3. However, the

benzoate-evolved strains had <u>increased</u> expression of OmpF and other large-hole porins that

admit fermentable substrates and antibiotics. Candidate genes identified from benzoate-evolved

strains were tested for their roles in benzoate tolerance and in chloramphenicol sensitivity.

Benzoate or salicylate tolerance was increased by deletion of the Gad activator *ariR*, or of the

slp-gadX acid fitness island encoding Gad regulators and the multi-drug pump *mdtEF*. Benzoate

tolerance was also increased by deletion of multi-drug component *emrA*, RpoS post-

transcriptional regulator *cspC*, adenosine deaminase *add*, hydrogenase *hyc* (Hyd-3), and the

RNA chaperone/DNA-binding regulator *hfq*. Chloramphenicol resistance was decreased by

mutations in global regulators, such as RNA polymerase alpha-subunit *rpoA*, Mar activator *rob*,

and *hfq*. Deletion of lipopolysaccharide biosynthetic kinase *rfaY* decreased the rate of growth in

chloramphenicol. Isolates from experimental evolution with benzoate had many mutations

affecting aromatic biosynthesis and catabolism such as *aroF* (tyrosine biosynthesis) and *apt*

(adenine phosphoribosyltransferase). Overall, benzoate or salicylate exposure selects for loss of

multi-drug efflux pumps and of hydrogenases that generate a futile cycle of PMF; and

upregulates porins that admit fermentable nutrients and antibiotics.

IMPORTANCE

Benzoic acid is a common food preservative, and salicylic acid (2-hydroxybenzoic acid) is the

active form of aspirin. At high concentration, benzoic acid conducts a proton across the

membrane, depleting the proton motive force. In the absence of antibiotics, benzoate exposure

selects against proton-driven multidrug efflux pumps and upregulates porins that admit

fermentable substrates but also allow entry of antibiotics. Thus, evolution with benzoate, and

related molecules such as salicylates, requires a tradeoff for antibiotic sensitivity—a tradeoff that

could help define a stable gut microbiome. Benzoate and salicylate are naturally occurring plant

signal molecules that may modulate the microbiomes of plants and animal digestive tracts so as

to favor fermenters and exclude drug-resistant pathogens.

INTRODUCTION

Escherichia coli and other enteric bacteria face high concentrations of organic acids, such as short-chain fatty acids that permeate bacterial cell membranes and acidify the cytoplasm (1, 2) and drive the accumulation of toxic anions (3, 4). Acids that cross the membrane in the unprotonated form can uncouple the proton motive force (PMF) (5–8). Benzoic acid and salicylic acid (2-hydroxybenzoic acid, the active form of aspirin) act as permeant acids and as partial uncouplers. These molecules are abundant in in the plant rhizosphere (9) and in human diets in the form of food preservatives, pharmaceutical products, and natural plant secondary metabolites (10–13). We are investigating the molecular effects of benzoate derivatives on bacteria.

Benzoate and salicylate induce low-level resistance to antibiotics, via the Mar regulon (14) as well as mar-independent pathways that are poorly understood (15). The Mar regulon intersects with the Gad acid resistance regulon (16, 17) which includes a major region of acid-stress regulators and multidrug efflux pumps (MDR) (**Fig. 1**). Surprisingly, however, experimental evolution in the presence of benzoate leads to deletion of acid resistance systems, and decreased resistance to the antibiotics tetracycline and chloramphenicol (18). Isolates from populations serially cultured for 2,000 generations show loss of MDR pumps and regulators such as *emrA*, *emrY*, and *marRAB*. Similarly, experimental evolution in the presence of the strong uncoupler, carbonyl cyanide m-chlorophenyl hydrazone (CCCP), yields isolates that have lost MDR pumps and regulators, with the exception of the EmrAB-TolC pump which directly exports CCCP (19, 20). These results suggest a hypothesis that aromatic acid uncouplers can amplify the fitness cost of MDR in the absence of antibiotics. The concept of reversing antibiotic resistance is of great interest for the gut microbiome as well as contaminated environments,

where antibiotic-resistant strains may show a minimum selective concentration (MSC) as much

as 100-fold lower than the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) (21).

We considered several mechanisms that might explain benzoate selection against drug

resistance. When a partial uncoupler depletes PMF, the cell incurs energy stress, which selects

against MDR pumps that spend PMF. Additionally, constitutive induction of stress response

pathways carries a heavy energetic penalty; thus, deletion or downregulation of constitutively

expressed pathways confers an energetic advantage. The penalty could arise from the cost of

protein production, which increases non-linearly with additional transcription (22). In the case of

acid stress, experimental evolution leads to loss of three acid-inducible amino-acid

decarboxylase systems (23, 24). Also, PMF expenditure in itself has a fitness cost, as in the *lac*

operon, where the major fitness cost of expression is the activity of LacY permease, driven by

PMF (25). The depletion of PMF might favor expression of large-hole porins that increase

uptake of fermentable substrates, with the tradeoff of increased uptake of antibiotics (26–28).

Most benzoate-tolerant isolates from the evolution experiment (18) acquired a mutation

affecting the *slp-gad* (Gad) acid fitness island (16, 29–31). The Gad island includes acid-

resistance regulators *gadE*, *gadW*, *gadX* (32); periplasmic acid chaperones *hdeA* and *hdeB*; and

the MDR efflux components *mdtE*, *mdtF* (33, 34) (**Fig. 1**). The major regulator GadE

upregulates several acid-tolerance genes, including two glutamate decarboxylase isoforms (*gadA*

and *gadB*), whose activity increases cytoplasmic pH by consuming protons via decarboxylation

of glutamate (16, 31, 35, 36). The MdtEF-TolC complex exports antibiotics from the cytoplasm,

driven by PMF. Our benzoate-evolved isolates (18) have acquired point mutations or deletions

throughout *slp-gad*, as well as knock-out or point mutations in *emrA*, the membrane-fusion

protein component of the EmrAB-TolC MDR pump (37, 38); *mdtA* (39, 40); and *emrY* (41).

Other mutations affect MDR regulators such as *cpxA* (42), *ariR* (43), *arcA* (44), and *rob* (45).

In one population, exposure to benzoate has selected for deletion of *marRAB*, a multi-

drug resistance operon which is induced by MarR binding salicylate or benzoate (15, 45).

MarRAB has homologs throughout bacteria and archaea, including many drug-resistant clinical

isolates (46). In *E. coli*, salicylate or benzoate relieves repression of MarA, which regulates over

60 genes involved in antibiotic resistance such as AcrAB-TolC MDR pump (14, 47) as well as

hdeAB within the *slp-gad* island (17). MarA downregulates the large porin OmpF, which admits

nutrients and antibiotics (48). Many targets of MarA are also subject to MarA homolog Rob (45,

46), which had a mutation in one benzoate-evolved isolate (18). Additionally, one strain acquired

a mutation in the alpha subunit of RNA-polymerase which could affect the regulation of a wide

array of genes. RNAP mutations lead to unexpected phenotypes, such as the downregulation of

arginine decarboxylase caused by an *rpoC* mutation in an acid-evolved strain (23).

We sought to reveal the genetic mechanisms of benzoate tolerance found in the 2,000-

generation strains, and to determine how these mechanisms intersect with antibiotic resistance.

Here we report transcriptomic analysis of four 2,000-generation strains that showed a surprising

long-term reversal of the short-term benzoate stress response. To dissect this response, and the

mechanisms of antibiotic resistance reversal, we resequenced earlier populations from the

benzoate evolution experiment with fewer mutations so as to reveal the order in which mutations

were acquired. We report the effects of several candidate gene deletions and mutations on fitness

in the presence of benzoate and of the antibiotic chloramphenicol. Our findings indicate several

processes that mediate the antibiotic sensitivity of benzoate-evolved strains.

RESULTS

Early benzoate-selected mutations affect Gad, Mar and aromatic metabolism. The

large number of mutations in the 2,000 generation strains made it difficult to assess which

genetic changes were most likely to affect benzoate tolerance (18). As such, we decided to

isolate and sequence strains from earlier generations that were more likely to contain fewer

mutations. We isolated clones from frozen populations ancestral to those published for

generation 2,000 (**Table 1**). Colonies were obtained on LBK agar from frozen populations

corresponding to generations 900 and 1,400, for the microplate well populations A1, A5, C3, and

G5. These populations at generation 2,000 had produced isolates A1-1, A5-1, C3-1, G5-1, and

G5-2; these key strains are benzoate-tolerant, and all except G5-1 are more sensitive to

chloramphenicol than the ancestral strain W3110 (18). Selected strains were sequenced (**Table**

S1), and mutations were detected using *breseq* (49). Mutations for selected strains are listed in

Table 2, alongside the mutations from generation 2,000 clones (18). All mutations for all clones

sequenced are compiled in **Table S2**.

The early-generation clones (900 or 1,400) were tested for adaptation to growth in 20

mM benzoate (**Fig. 2**; for all eight individual replicate curves, see **Fig. S1**). At this benzoate

concentration, the ancestral strain W3110 stops growing and enters death phase by 12 h, whereas

the 2,000-generation evolved strains grow more rapidly and reach stationary phase at about

$OD_{600} = 0.25$ (18). All the A1 population isolates from generation 900 or 1,400 grew in 20 mM

benzoate to a stable stationary phase. From the A5 population, only the A5-5 strain (generation

1,400) achieved a sustained endpoint. In population G5, all the early isolates grew well (G5-3,

G5-4, G5-5); but in population C3, the generation 900 strains grew only slightly better than

W3110. Overall, the various early-generation isolates showed differing rates of adaptation to

benzoate.

Clones frozen before generation 1,000 had several mutations that persisted in the 2,000-

generation strains (**Table 2**). Three of these mutations affected Gad-island regulation: the partial

Gad island deletion *ΔmdtE-slp* (all isolates from population A1), the Gad activator *ariR*

(population A1) (50), and GadE-activator *gadX* (population A5). In fact, more than half the

isolates sequenced had one of seven different mutations within the *slp-gad* island (**Table S1**).

Large deletions were likely mediated by upstream insertion sequences, a common finding in

stress evolution experiments (18, 23). Thus our early-generation sequences confirmed that loss of

Gad acid resistance was strongly selected by benzoate.

Loss of the Gad regulon, either by deletion or downregulation, includes loss of the

MdtEF-TolC efflux pump, which is specifically upregulated by GadX (34). MdtEF-TolC exports

a variety of antibiotics and toxic metabolites, including chloramphenicol (44, 51, 52). It is one of

a number of MDR pumps and regulators reported to be lost or mutated in genomes evolved with

benzoate (18) or with CCCP (20). Note that while *mdtEF* mutations did appear early, sensitivity

to chloramphenicol was not detected before generation 1,400 or 2,000 (**Table 2**). This suggests

that multiple mutations accumulate over generations contributing to the phenotype.

Various isolates had mutations affecting metabolism of nucleotides and aromatic amino

acids; that is, structures with similarity to benzoate or salicylate (**Table S2**). Genes with early,

persistent mutations include *folD* (5,10-methylene-tetrahydrofolate

dehydrogenase/cyclohydrolase, for thymidine biosynthesis) (53) in population A1; and upstream

of *apt* (adenosine phosphoribosyltransferase, for purine salvage) (54) in population A5. The 6-bp

insertion upstream of *apt* was found by generation 500 in strain A5-6 and persisted through

generation 2,000; and a frameshift in *apt* coding sequence was in strain E1-5 (**Table S2**). Strain

E1-5, generation 1,000, had a mutation in *yeaS* (*leuE*) whose product effluxes leucine and toxic

analogues. Biosynthetic genes with mutations included *aroF* (3-deoxy-d-arabino-heptulosonate

7-phosphate synthase; first step of tyrosine biosynthesis) (55) and *hisG* (ATP-

phosphoribosyltransferase, first step of histidine biosynthesis) (56). Other mutations affected

genes for aromatic catabolism and salvage: *add* (adenosine deaminase) (57); *deoD* (PNP, purine

nucleoside phosphorylase) (58); *rihA* (ribonucleoside hydrolase) (59); *paaE* (phenylacetate

degradation) (60); and *nupG* (nucleoside uptake transporter, PMF-driven) (61). These mutations

in aromatic metabolism may represent responses to the benzoate uptake in the cytoplasm. Their

effects might be associated with the induction of Mar regulon by intracellular aromatic

intermediates that retard growth (62, 63).

Transcriptomes of benzoate-evolved isolates show reversal of benzoate regulation in

the ancestor W3110. In our report of acid evolution, transcriptomes of evolved clones reveal the

surprising reversal of acid stress responses (23). We therefore conducted a similar transcriptome

analysis of our strains evolved in the presence of benzoate (18). Four of the 2000-generation

strains were selected (A1-1, C3-1, G5-1, and G5-2) for comparison with the ancestral strain

W3110. RNA was extracted during logarithmic growth from cultures supplemented with a

relatively modest benzoate stress (5 mM benzoate) in order to sustain comparable growth of the

ancestral strain. In addition, strain W3110 was cultured in medium with no benzoate, in order to

identify genes responding to benzoate stress before the generations of benzoate selection.

Figure 3 plots the $\log_2$ expression ratios (versus ancestor) for each benzoate-evolved

2000-generation strain against the $\log_2$ ratios for expression in W3110, with benzoate versus

without. Across the genome, genes that were regulated up or down by benzoate in the ancestor

showed reversal (by deletion or by down-regulation) in the four independently evolved isolates.

In some cases, the reversal involved deletion of several genes or a major regulator, such as the

deletion of nearly the entire Gad island *slp*-[*gadW*] in A1-1, or loss of the *gadX* activator in G5-1

and in G5-2. These strains showed the loss or down-regulation of most of the Gad regulon (blue

symbols in **Figure 3**). Surprisingly, C3-1 had lost Gad expression, despite the presence of known

regulators. Thus, the genotype of C3-1 may reveal novel means of Gad regulation. Overall,

reversing the transcriptomic effects of benzoate appeared to be a general property of the evolved

strains, and not limited to a few major systems.

The $\log_2$ fold change in expression for individual genes of strain W3110 in the presence

or absence of benzoate are presented in **Table S3A**. Genes were deemed significantly

differentially expressed if the $\log_2$ fold change was greater than 1, and p-value less than 0.01

Expression changes are also shown for the 2,000-generation strains versus W3110, all cultured in

5 mM benzoate. Selected differentially expressed genes are shown in **Table 3B-E**.

In W3110, benzoate upregulated much of the Gad regulon including both glutamate

decarboxylases (*gadA*, *gadB*) and glutamate transporter *gadC*, the regulator *gadE*, and the Gad-

associated multidrug efflux pump *mdtEF*. The *hdeABD* portion of the Gad island showed less

induction, likely because *hdeAB* is repressed by MarA (**Fig. 1**) which is induced by benzoate

(**Table 3**). Benzoate induction of glutamate decarboxylase would be consistent with Foster's

model that cytoplasmic pH depression induces Gad (64). However, the cytoplasmic pH

depression caused by benzoate uptake does not involve extreme acidification of the periplasm,

since the media are buffered to pH 6.5. Thus, the cell has less need of the periplasmic chaperones

HdeA and HdeB.

While MarA is induced by benzoate in the ancestor, the benzoate-evolved strains show

loss of various Mar regulon components, either by *marRAB* deletion (strain A5-1, **Table 2**) or by

loss of another regulator such as *rob* (strain G5-2). MarA downregulates the large outer

membrane porin *ompF* (**Fig. 1**). The downregulation of *ompF* helps exclude toxins and

antibiotics (28).

No *ompF* mutations appear in our evolved strains, yet in transcriptomes (**Table** 3) two of

the four benzoate-evolved strains (A1-1 and G5-2) showed upregulation of *ompF*. Strain C3-1

upregulated other large porins, *ompG* (65), *phoE* (66), and *ompL* (67). Similarly, strain G5-1

upregulated porins *phoE* and *ompL*. Thus, under long-term exposure to benzoate, with

concomitant PMF depletion, all four strains upregulated porins that could enhance fitness by

admitting more carbon sources for substrate-level phosphorylation and fermentation. The

upregulation of porins could also increase admittance of antibiotics in the benzoate-evolved

strains (26, 28).

In strain W3110, benzoate also induced expression of oligopeptide transport operons

dppBC (68) and *oppABCD* (69). Like the porins, these transporters could increase access to

fermentable substrates. These transporters retained expression in the benzoate-evolved strains.

W3110 genes induced by benzoate also included several components of electron

transport, including cytochrome bo_3 ubiquinol oxidase (*cyoABCDE*), cytochrome oxidase *bd-II*

(*appBC*) (70, 71), nitrate reductase (*narHJ*) (72), and hydrogenase-3 (Hyd-3, *hycABCDEFG*)

(73). Hyd-3 converts H^+ ions to H_2, and associates with the formate-hydrogenlyase complex

(FHL); it includes HycA regulator of FHL (74). The acceleration of electron transport is

consistent with the effect of uncouplers on respiration, generating a futile cycle during stationary

phase (75). The energy loss during stationary phase could explain why strain W3110 enters death

phase after several hours in culture with 20 mM benzoate (18).

The FHL/Hyd-3 components (*hyc* genes) were downregulated in all four benzoate-

evolved strains. Strain A1-1 had lower expression of *appBC* cytochrome oxidase *bd-II*. All these

complexes--Hyd-3, FHL-3, and the *bd-II* oxidase--are generally expressed under low-oxygen

conditions (73, 76). Hyd-3 converts $2H^+$ to H_2, as part of the formate-hydrogen lyase complex

which oxidizes formate to CO_2 (77). Hydrogen production by Hyd-3 is induced by external acid,

and is required for extreme-acid survival in low oxygen (78). Thus the benzoate-associated loss

of acid-inducible hydrogenase (and of formate-hydrogen lyase) parallels the loss of the acid-

inducible Gad system.

No hydrogenases had mutations in our resequenced genomes, although three different

mutations appear affecting the nitrate-inducible formate dehydrogenase (*fdnG* and *fdnI*) (79).

Also in A1-1, the *narHIJ* quinol-nitrate oxidoreductase (80) is down-regulated (**Table 3**; **Table**

S3B). Thus some kinds of reregulation have occurred that decrease the wasteful expenditure of

electrons. These changes most likely enable benzoate adaptation during the low-oxygen period

of stationary phase, the period in which the ancestral strain declines (**Fig. 2**).

Deletion of *slp-gadX*, *mdtE*, *mdtF*, or *ariR* confers benzoate tolerance. Our

resequenced genomes of benzoate-evolved strains offered candidate genes for mechanisms of

benzoate tolerance. We selected candidate gene *kanR* replacements from the Keio collection to

run batch growth curves that approximate the daily experience of serial dilution. Growth curves

can reveal fitness differences of several types: duration of lag phase, rate of log-phase growth,

end-point reached at stationary phase, and post-stationary death rate.

We started with the isolates from population A1, which suggests a progression of

acquired mutations that contribute to benzoate tolerance (**Table S2**). The early-generation

isolates do not necessarily represent direct ancestors of the later strains, yet the *slp-gadX* deletion

was present in all A1 strains sequenced, and this region encompasses most early mutations found

in other populations (**Table 2**). We constructed, by recombineering (81), a strain with a deletion

spanning the start of *slp* to the end of *gadX* (*slp-gadX* strain).

Strains were cultured in microtiter plates with 15 mM benzoate, as described under

Methods (**Fig. 4**). The OD_{600} value was measured at 16 h to evaluate the endpoint; and for each

condition, we show a replicate curve with median 16-h OD_{600}. All eight replicate curves are

shown in **Fig. S2.** The *slp-gadX* strain had higher 16-h growth relative to W3110, and nearly as

high as that of the benzoate-evolved strain A1-1 (**Fig. 4A**). W3110 mutants deleted for *gadE* or

gadX did not show a consistent effect on growth, although their regulation of the Gad island (64)

might have fitness effects detectable by direct competition.

Salicylate has a similar effect to benzoate on the growth of W3110 and the benzoate-

evolved strains, and its effect starts at a lower concentration (18). An experiment similar to that

of Figure 4B was conducted using chloramphenicol with 2 mM sodium salicylate instead of 5

mM benzoate; similar results were obtained. **Figure S3** presents salicylate experiments

comparable to all the chloramphenicol-benzoate experiments in Figures 4, 5, 6, 7.

We then tested the benzoate tolerance of strains deleted for the *mdtE* and *mdtF*

components of the MdtEF-TolC MDR efflux pump, which is included in the acid fitness island

deletion (29). Knockout strains *mdtE*::*kanR* and *mdtF*::*kanR* each reached a higher 16-h density

relative to W3110 in 15 mM benzoate at pH 6.5 (**Fig. 4C**). However the increase was

significantly less than that found for strain A1-1 and the *slp-gadX* strain. This suggests that

various genes of the Gad island make additive partial contributions to benzoate tolerance.

Another mutation in A1-1 that had the potential to affect benzoate tolerance was a

transposon-mediated knockout of *ariR* (18, 43). AriR (YmgB) regulates both Gad acid resistance

and biofilm formation (43) possibly mediated by RpoS (82). A knockout strain *ariR::kanR* had

increased endpoint growth compared to wild-type. We then tested whether an *ariR* deletion

interacted with the acid fitness island deletion in an additive manner, or whether its function was

made redundant by the the *slp-gadX* deletion. We transduced *ariR::kanR* into the *slp-gadX* strain

(**Fig. 4E**). This strain grew identically to the *slp-gadX* strain in 15 mM benzoate, suggesting the

ariR single deletion increases benzoate tolerance through regulation of the Gad island.

Chloramphenicol sensitivity is conferred by *rpoA* K271Q but not by *slp-gadX*

deletion. Benzoate tolerance of our benzoate-evolved strains is associated with a tradeoff of

sensitivity to chloramphenicol, as seen for strains A1-1, A5-1, C3-1, G5-1, and G5-2 (18). We

sought to clarify how benzoate tolerance is connected with antibiotic sensitivity. Our new

isolates from the early generations confirmed that chloramphenicol sensitivity emerged later than

benzoate tolerance; only one generation 1,400 isolate (A1-5) and none of the earlier isolates

showed measurable decrease in growth with chloramphenicol relative to W3110, at 4 µg/ml or at

8 µg/ml (**Table 2**, second row). The *slp-gadX* deletion and deletions of individual genes were

also tested for their effects on chloramphenicol resistance (**Fig. 4B, D, F**). Chloramphenicol

resistance was tested in a medium containing a low level of benzoate (5 mM) in order to induce

any Mar and non-Mar MDR systems. None of the mutations affected chloramphenicol

resistance, despite the known chloramphenicol efflux by MdtEF-TolC (52). This could occur

because chloramphenicol is exported by redundant systems outside *slp-gad*, including AcrAB-

TolC.

For strain A1-1, we hypothesized that its chloramphenicol sensitivity required an

additional mutation acquired relatively late in the evolution experiment, perhaps between

generations 900 and 1,400. An interesting candidate was the *rpoA* (RNA-polymerase alpha

subunit) mutation that appeared in strain A1-5 (generation 1,400, chloramphenicol sensitive) and

persisted in A1-1. The *rpoA* gene encodes the α-subunit of RNA polymerase. The carboxy-

terminal domain of this subunit regulates gene expression by interacting with upstream promoter

elements, and transcription factors such as CRP.

Our *rpoA* mutation K271Q is nearly the same as that of a well-studied *rpoA* allele,

rpoA341 K271E (83, 84). The *rpoA341* allele downregulates certain positively-controlled

regulons, such as *mel*, *ara*, and *cys*; but not all positive regulators are affected. The *rpoA341*

allele may also upregulate loci such as *ompF* (83). We found *ompF* upregulated in strain A1-1

(**Table 3, Table S3B**). Strain A1-1 also had decreased expression of *araBAD* and of *cysA*, as

reported for the *rpoA341* allele (83).

We sought to test the contribution of *rpoA* K271Q in strain A1-1 with respect to benzoate

tolerance and chloramphenicol sensitivity. To do this, we replaced the mutant allele with *rpoA$^+$*

by co-transduction from W3110 into A1-1 using the linked marker Δ*yhdN*::*kanR*. The

yhdN::*kanR* marker had no effect on growth of strain A1-1, with or without chloramphenicol

(**Fig. S4**). Strain JLS1616 (A1-1 Δ*yhdN rpoA$^+$*) was cultured in parallel with strain A1-1 and the

parent W3110 (**Fig. 5**; replicate curves are shown in **Fig. S5**). In 15 mM benzoate, the A1-1

rpoA$^+$ strain grew similarly to the parent A1-1, with no significant difference at any time point

(panel A). However, with chloramphenicol and low benzoate (5 mM) the A1-1 *rpoA$^+$* showed

growth comparable to that of W3110, whereas A1-1 with the original *rpoA* mutation was

sensitive to chloramphenicol. Thus, *rpoA* K271Q is responsible for the loss of chloramphenicol

resistance associated with benzoate evolution of A1-1.

cspC deletion confers benzoate tolerance, and _rfaY_ deletion decreases growth rate in

chloramphenicol. The C3-1 strain has two transposon-mediated deletions that might affect

growth in benzoate, affecting a post-transcriptional regulator *cspC* and the LPS kinase *rfaY* (18).

The sequence of *cspC* is similar to that of other cold-shock proteins, and the CspC protein has

been shown to upregulate genes under RpoS control by stabilizing the *rpoS* mRNA (85–87).

A Δ*cspC*::*kanR* knockout strain showed increased growth relative to strain W3110 in 15

mM benzoate (**Fig. 6A**; replicate curves, **Fig. S6**). However, in media with 4 µg/mL

chloramphenicol, there was no significant difference in growth (**Fig. 6B**). Thus, we found

evidence for a contribution of Δ*cspC* to benzoate tolerance of C3-1 but not to chloramphenicol

sensitivity.

An Δ*rfaY*::*kanR* strain showed no phenotype in 15 mM benzoate (**Fig. 6A**). The double

mutant W3110 Δ*cspC*::*kanR* Δ*rfaY*::*frt* grew identically to W3110 Δ*cspC*. In chloramphenicol

however, W3110 Δ*rfaY*::*kanR* had a mean growth rate of 0.12 ± 0.01 doublings per hour in early

log phase, which was less than the mean W3110 growth rate of 0.39 ± 0.02 doublings per hour

(**Fig. 6C**). A t-test comparison gave a p-value of $p < 0.01$. The double mutant also showed a

significant decrease of growth rate in chloramphenicol, compared to the single mutant

Δ*cspC*::*kanR*. Thus, the double mutant showed the *cspC* phenotype cultured in 15 mM benzoate

but the Δ*rfaY* phenotype cultured with chloramphenicol (5 mM benzoate).

The C3 population isolates has no mutations within *slp-gadX*, except for a 76-bp deletion

of *gadX* found in C3-5. Yet, the C3-1 transcriptome showed lower expression of *gadABC* (**Fig.**

3) so its genome must have altered regulation of acid-tolerance pathways. Given that *cspC* is

implicated in the stabilization of the *rpoS* mRNA (86, 88), and RpoS regulates Gad (**Fig. 1**) it is

possible that *cspC* deletion downregulates Gad via decreased RpoS concentration.

**   *emrA* and *add* deletions confer benzoate tolerance, while *rob* and *hfq* confer**

chloramphenicol sensitivity. From population G5 (**Table 2**), strains G5-5 and G5-1 have a

knockout mutation in *emrA,* which normally encodes part of the EmrAB-TolC pump (19). The

emrA gene acquires point mutations--but not knockouts--under evolution with the uncoupler

CCCP, which is expelled by EmrAB-TolC (20). We found that deletion of *emrA* conferred a

degree of tolerance to benzoate (**Fig. 7A;** replicate curves, **Fig. S7**). The *emrA* deletion confers

added benzoate tolerance even in the presence of chloramphenicol (**Fig. 7B**).

Another strain from G5 population, G5-2, shows the greatest sensitivity to

chloramphenicol and tetracycline, of all 2,000-generation strains tested (18). G5-2 contains a

frameshift in *add*, a gene encoding adenosine deaminase which catalyzes a proton-consuming

reaction of purine catabolism that protects the cell from acid by a mechanism analogous to that

of GadA (89). Deletion of *add* conferred partial tolerance to benzoate (**Fig. 7C**). This result is yet

another example of benzoate selection against an external-acid protection mechanism. G5-2 also

contains a point mutation in *rob* encoding a MarA-type regulator that enhances chloramphenicol

resistance (45). Deletion of *rob* did not significantly enhance growth in 15 mM benzoate (**Fig.**

7C) but did decrease the log-phase growth rate in chloramphenicol, from an average W3110

growth rate of 0.63 ± 0.01 doublings per hour to an average growth rate of 0.59 ± 0.02 doublings

per hour for W3110 *Δrob*::*kanR* (**Fig. 7E**). A t-test comparison gave a p-value of $p < 0.01$.

Replicates for the log-phage growth region are shown for W3110 *Δrob*::*kanR* and W3110 in 4

µg/ml chloramphenicol (**Fig. 7E**).

G5-2 also contains a missense mutation in *hfq*, which encodes a pleiotropic regulator that

functions as an RNA chaperone (90) and DNA-binding protein (91). Hfq is associated with

antibiotic resistance and is a target for antimicrobial chemotherapy (92, 93). We found that an

hfq deletion confers partial tolerance to 15 mM benzoate (**Fig. 8A**) and sensitivity to

chloramphenicol (**Fig. 8B**). In chloramphenicol, the growth curve of W3110 *Δhfq*::*kanR* was

indistinguishable from that of G5-2. Thus, *hfq* mutation could contribute a major part of the G5-2

phenotype of benzoate tolerance associated with antibiotic sensitivity.

Hydrogenase 3 deletion enhances late growth. Our transcriptomes showed that

benzoate induces hydrogenase 3 in W3110, but that all four benzoate-evolved strains lose

expression of *hycEFG* (**Table 3**). We tested the growth of W3110 strains deleted for *hycE*

(encoding the hydrogenase activity, $2H^+ \rightarrow H_2$) and for *hycF* (subunit of formate hydrogenlyase

complex) (94). Both *ΔhycE*::*kanR* and *ΔhycF*::*kanR* strains grew similarly to W3110 until

stationary phase. At 16 hr, there was no significant difference between the ancestral and mutant

OD_{600}. However, after 20 hr, when hydrogenase would be active, the mutants achieved a higher

OD_{600} than did W3110 (**Fig. 9**). These results confirm that although benzoate exposure induces

consumption of cytoplasmic protons via hydrogenase 3, as part of formate breakdown, this

activity decreases long-term relative fitness in benzoate. By contrast, the hydrogenase 1 (*hya*)

consumes H_2, producing $2H^+$ (73).

Other genes tested. KanR knockout strains were tested for other genes that had mutant

alleles in our benzoate-evolved isolates, but no significant difference from the ancestor was

detected for growth with benzoate or with chloramphenicol. As noted, such differences might

emerge under extended direct competition. The genes tested by 22 h culture with 15 mM

benzoate include: *acnA*, *chbC*, *cpxA*, *deaD*, *fucA*, *mdtA*, *gltP*, *hdeD*, *pepN*, *rnb*, *yhfM*, *uxaA*, and

yhiD.

DISCUSSION

Here we combined genomic, transcriptomic, and genetic approaches to study how *E. coli*

evolve in the presence of benzoate and salicylate. Our work extends the picture of known MDR-

related genes mutated under exposure to partial or full uncouplers (18)(20) and suggests

additional mechanisms for the increased sensitivity to antibiotics, such as the upregulation of

porins and pleiotropic regulators. This subject has implications beyond *E. coli*, because the

microbiomes of soil and rhizosphere (95) as well as human and animal digestive tracts (96) are

exposed to benzoate and related molecules.

Evolution in the presence of benzoate reverses short-term benzoate stress response.

We confirmed by analysis of candidate gene deletions that despite short-term benzoate

upregulation of Gad genes (**Table 3**) the presence of benzoate actually selects against the Gad

island (*slp-gadX*) and against Gad components *mdtE* and *mdtF*, which encode a multidrug efflux

pump (**Fig. 4**). Our transcriptomes reveal a striking pattern of repression of Gad as well as other

benzoate-inducible gene products in the benzoate-evolved strains (**Table 3**). Even a strain with

no mutations in the fitness island (C3-1) had downregulated Gad, possibly by mutation of the

RpoS post-transcriptional activator CspC. Similarly, strain G5-2 could have downregulated Gad

via deletion of *rob* or of *hfq* (which activates RpoS). Collectively, these results show a pattern of

convergent evolution achieved via one of several possible genetic mechanisms.

Our transcriptomes also showed that evolution with benzoate increased the expression of

several large-hole porins (OmpF, OmpG, PhoE, OmpL). These porins amplify access to

fermentable carbon sources for substrate-level phosphorylation, thus decreasing dependence on

PMF. But OmpF is normally downregulated by benzoate derivatives via MarA, in order to

exclude antibiotics (26). It is interesting that benzoate induced short peptide transporters *opp*

and *dpp* (**Table 3)** which offer another means of access to fermentable carbon sources; this

expression of peptide transporters was maintained in benzoate-evolved strains. For *opp*, there is

controversial evidence that increased peptide transport coincides with antibiotic sensitivity (97–

99).

Another form of reversal of benzoate regulation was the downregulation of hydrogenase

3 (**Table 3, Fig. 9**). The Hyd-3 substrate, formate, arises from *E. coli* fermentation, increasing in

stationary phase. Hyd-3 as part of formate hydrogenlyase complex normally converts formate to

CO_2 and H_2. Yet we show that in the presence of benzoate, Hyd-3 deletion enhances fitness

during late stationary phase, the period where we would expect FHL/Hyd-3 to be active (76).

There is evidence that FHL activity exports protons (100). If so, this could be yet another system

that wastes energy as exported protons drive more benzoate into the cell—and thus decreases

relative fitness over long-term subculturing. The possible effects of benzoate and other partial

uncouplers could be relevant to the biotechnology of hydrogen production (94).

In strain A1-1, several alternative terminal oxidases were downregulated. Antibiotic

resistance is linked to bacterial respiration, as several bactericidal antibiotics are shown to

increase respiratory rates, while most bacteriostatic compounds decrease respiration (101). One

means of adaptation to high benzoate concentration could be to limit respiration by down-

regulating unneeded components of electron transport, including anaerobic respiration. This

would limit the energy wasted by uncoupling respiration from ATP synthase. Introduction of

antibiotics to a respiration-compromised cell could amplify the phenotype, and lead to benzoate-

induced antibiotic sensitivity.

Reversal of short-term stress response following long-term serial culture has been seen in

other evolution experiments as a tendency to restore global pre-stress conditions. After heat-

stress evolution of *E. coli*, resulting strains show loss of heat shock gene expression (102). The

fitness cost of stress response could involve either the cost of stress-induced gene expression,

when it fails to provide a benefit (22); or the cost of excess PMF expenditure by a transporter or

an efflux pump (25).

Growth of candidate-gene deletant strains reveals contributions to benzoate

tolerance and chloramphenicol sensitivity. The loss of MdtEF-TolC drug efflux system

directly increases benzoate tolerance. This efflux pump couples drug efflux to PMF (31, 33,

103). Theoretically, benzoate decreases PMF by shuttling protons through the membrane. Thus,

the presence of other proteins that utilize PMF further depletes the pool of extracellular protons

available for core cell processes. It is possible that deleting drug efflux systems decreases proton

flux through systems depleted by benzoate; thus the fitness cost of drug pumps is amplified by

benzoate.

We showed four candidate alleles associated with antibiotic sensitivity, three of which

have global or pleiotropic effects: *rpoA* mutation in A1-1; the *rob* mutation in G5-2; and *hfq*,

whose deletion conferred both tolerance to benzoate and sensitivity to chloramphenicol. Hfq

deletion is a known source of drug sensitivity (92, 93).

Since the mutation in *rpoA* is in the carboxy-terminal domain, which interacts with UP-

elements and certain transcription factors, it is possible that this allele downregulates a large set

of genes (104, 105). This downregulation could free up resources for response to benzoate stress,

which could include a large number of PMF-driven antibiotic resistance genes. In fact, there is

previous evidence suggesting that an interaction between the CTD of RpoA and MarA is

necessary for MarA to induce the Mar regulon (105). Mutation of the RpoA CTD could block

MarA activation of drug resistance despite *marA* transcription.

The *rfaY* gene (which is mutated in strain C3-1) encodes a membrane-bound enzyme that

phosphorylates the inner core of lipopolysaccharide (LPS), a function that has been implicated in

membrane stability (106). Decreased membrane stability caused by the *rfaY* mutation may

increase the permeability of certain antibiotics, thereby decreasing antibiotic resistance of strain

C3-1.

Another surprising finding was the pervasive occurrence of small mutations in genes for

aromatic biosynthesis and catabolism, such as a point mutation were found in *folD* and 1 base-

pair deletion was detected in *add.* The *folD* gene is essential (53) and could not be deleted, but

deletion of *add* was shown to enhance benzoate tolerance. The evidence points to further

exploration of the role of benzoate and salicylate in modulating efflux of aromatic intermediates

of metabolism (62) especially given the benzoate-evolved enhancement of substrate influx via

porins (**Table 3).**

Note that the relative fitness advantage of a given allele can accrue by various means at

different phases of the growth cycle. For most of the candidate genes we tested, such as *gadE*,

mdtE, and *cspC*, deletion enabled cells to grow to a higher optical density than the parent

W3110. However, the chloramphenicol sensitivity associated with some alleles, such as *rfaY*,

was caused by slower rate of growth during log phase. While the bacteria grew to an optical

density comparable to that of W3110, had the two strains been competing in co-culture, the

mutant strain would have soon lost out to the parent.

Overall, we reveal genetic mechanisms by which multigenerational exposure to benzoate

leads to increased tolerance of benzoate or salicylate, with the tradeoff of sensitivity to certain

antibiotics. Our findings have implications for the roles of benzoate as a food preservative, and

for salicylate as a plant defense signal and as a therapeutic agent.

METHODS

Bacterial strains and culture conditions. *E. coli* K12 W3110 (Laboratory stock D13)

was the parent for all genetic analysis. The strain was resequenced for analysis (18). Unless

otherwise specified, bacteria were cultured in LBK (10 g/L tryptone, 5 g/L yeast extract, 7.45

g/L KCL) with a pH buffer, at 37 °C. Growth media were supplemented with benzoate,

salicylate, kanamycin (50 µg/ml), or chloramphenicol (4 or 8 µg/ml) as necessary. For growth

curves, media was buffered to pH 7.0 with 100 mM (3-(*N*-morpholino)propanesulfonic acid)

(MOPS; pKa = 7.01) or to pH 6.5 with 100 mM piperazine-N,N′-bis(2-ethanesulfonic acid)

(PIPES; pKa = 6.66), containing 70 mM Na^+. The media pH was adjusted with either 5 M HCL

or 5 M KOH. Cultures were incubated at 37˚C unless otherwise specified. Strains with *kanR*

insertions were obtained from the Keio collection (107). The XTL241 strain containing the *cat-*

sacB fusion was obtained from the Court lab at NCI (81). All other strains used in this study are

derived from W3110 and listed in **Table 1**, and in **Table S1** (new isolates with resequenced

genomes).

Growth Curves. For growth curves in 15 mM benzoate, strains were cultured overnight

in LBK 100 mM PIPES pH 6.5 supplemented with 5 mM benzoate. These cultures were diluted

1:200 in a 96-well plate into fresh LBK buffered to pH 6.5 with 100 mM PIPES supplemented

with 15 mM benzoate. OD_{600} was read in a Spectramax spectrophotometer every 15 min for 22

h. For growth curves in chloramphenicol, strains were cultured overnight in LBK 100 mM

MOPS pH 7 supplemented with 5 mM benzoate as needed. These cultures were diluted 1:200

into fresh media supplemented with 4 µg/mL chloramphenicol, unless stated otherwise. Endpoint

OD_{600} was defined as the cell density after 16 h. Significance tests included ANOVA with

Tukey's post-hoc test (R software). Each data figure represents three experiments in each of

which 8 replicate cultures were tested, unless stated otherwise.

Genome sequencing of early generation evolved-strains. Genomic DNA from early-

generation clones and from the ancestral stock W3110 was extracted with a DNeasy DNA

extraction kit (Qiagen) and a MasterPure Complete DNA and RNA purification kit (Epicentre,

WI). Purity was determined by Nanodrop 2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific),

and concentration was determined by Qubit 3.0 fluorometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Genomic DNA was sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq platform, at the Michigan State

University Research Technology Support Facility Genomics Core. Libraries were prepared with

an Illumina TruSeq Nano DNA library preparation kit. After library validation and quantitation,

libraries were pooled and loaded on an Illumina MiSeq flow cell. Sequencing was performed in a

2 by 250-bp paired-end format with an Illumina 500 cycle V2 reagent cartridge. Base calling was

performed by Illumina Real Time Analysis v1.18.54, and the output of RTA was demultiplexed

and converved to FastQ format with Illumina Bcl2fastq v1.8.4. Mutations were called by

alignment to the *E. coli* W3110 reference NC_007779.1 using the *breseq* computational pipeline

(49).

Strain construction. *E. coli* W3110 strains were constructed by P1 transduction and by

recombineering. P1 transduction was performed by standard methods (108). Strains carrying

kanR resistance cassettes in genes of interest were acquired from the Keio collection (107).

Insertions were verified by PCR-amplification of the interface between the kanR allele and the

area surrounding the insertion.

The *slp-gadX* strain (JLS1732) was constructed using lambda-red recombineering

according to the protocol by Thomason (81). Generation of the acid fitness island knockout

strain, JLS1732, was performed using λ recombineering with the protocol described by

Thomason *et al,* 2014. Overnight cultures of E. coli with the pSIM6::*ampR* plasmid were diluted

1 to 70 in LB (5 g/L NaCl) and grown to mid log-phase (OD$_{600}$ between 0.4 and 0.6) in a shaker

flask at 32°C. A 15 mL aliquot of this subculture was transferred to a fresh flask and shaken at

42 °C for 15 min. Cells were made electro-competent and electroporated with a DNA

oligonucleotide. Cells were outgrown at 32°C for 3 to 5 hours, and plated onto selective media.

For construction of JLS1732 (Δ*slp*-Δ*gadX*), a dsDNA oligo containing a cat-sacB

(chloramphenicol resistance – sucrose sensitivity selection/counter-selection marker) with 50 bp

of homology to *slp* and 50 bp of homology to *gadX* was constructed using the *cat-sacB* hybrid

primers listed in Table 2.Then, this region was replaced with the 70-bp oligo,

aaacagtaatatgtttatgtaatattaagtcaactaatagatatttctttatagttttcatctgattctg, to produce a strain with a

clean break at the start of *slp* and end of *gadX*.

Transcriptome analysis. The transcriptomes of evolved isolates in comparison with

ancestor were obtained as for Ref (23). For RNA extraction, bacteria were cultured to stationary

phase in LBK buffered to pH 6.5 with 100 mM PIPES at 37°C. Cultures were diluted 1:50 into

fresh medium supplemented with 5 mM potassium benzoate, and grown to early log phase

(determined by OD$_{600}$ of 0.4). At mid-log phase (OD$_{600}$ between 0.4 and 0.6), cultures were

diluted 6:1 into 5% phenol-ethanol solution and pelleted. The pellet was resuspended in TE

buffer (100 µL) with 3 mg/mL lysozyme, as described by He *et al* (23). A Qiagen RNeasy

minikit was used to further purify RNA. An additional DNase treatment (MoBio DNase-Max)

was conducted.

Illumina RNA-Seq libraries were constructed for sequencing. An enrichment of

messenger RNA was achieved by depleting ribosomal RNA (rRNA) by following the guidelines

of the Ribo-Zero rRNA Removal Kit (Illumina)(23, 109). The RNA-Seq library was prepared via

the ScriptSeq v2 RNA-Seq library preparation kit (Epicenter, WI) with a starting concentration

of 15 ng rRNA depleted RNA for each library. The resulting random-primed cDNA was purified

with the MinElute PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen) before the 12 PCR cycle amplification step

using the FailSafe PCR enzyme kit (Epicenter,WI) and selected ScriptSeq Index primers as

reverse primers. The Agencourt AMPure XP system (BeckmanCoulter, NJ) purified the libraries

and thereby size selected for > 200 bp. Each library's size and quality was assessed on the

Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer and a High Sensitivity DNA Chip (Agilent Technologies, Wilmington,

DE) and quantified with the NEBNext Library Quant Kit Protocol (New England BioLabs). The

NextSeq 500/550 High Output Kit (300 cycles) was used for sequencing using the The Illumina

NextSeq 500.

Sequences were initially analyzed using CLC Genomics software, version 6.0. Sequences

with a quality score of less than 30 were discarded, the remaining sequences were trimmed, and

sequences of less than 36 bp were discarded. Sequences were mapped to the *E. coli* W3110

genome, (NCBI accession number NC_007779.1) using the following CLC genomics mapping

parameters: mismatch, 1; insertion, 3; deletion, 3; length, 0.9; similarity, 0.95; auto-detect paired

distances on and map randomly. CLC RNA-seq was performed using the following parameters:

mismatch, 2; length fraction, 0.9; similarity fraction, 0.95; strand specific selected; maximum 3

hits, 3; paired settings, 36 to 500; broken pairs counting selected. Only unique counts generated

for individual genes were used as the starting data for all subsequent analyses.

Differential expression analysis was performed using the R package DESeq2. Reported

log-fold-changes represent difference in expression of each gene in the evolved strains in 5 mM

benzoate relative to the ancestor in the same condition. We also performed a control comparing

the ancestor in 5 mM benzoate to the ancestor without benzoate. A gene was said to be

differentially expressed if it had a log-fold-change greater than 1, and p-value < 0.01.

Accession numbers for resequenced genomes and for RNAseq. The SRA accession

number for RNAseq files is: PRJNA491479.

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TABLES

Table 1. Strains of *Escherichia coli* used in this study[1]

Name	Genotype	Source
W3110	*Escherichia coli* K-12	(110)
JLSK0001	W3110 benzoate-evolved A1-1	(18)
JLSK0014	W3110 benzoate-evolved C3-1	(18)
JLSK0030	W3110 benzoate-evolved G5-1	(18)
JLSK0031	W3110 benzoate-evolved G5-2	(18)
JLS0903	W3110 Δ*hyaB*::*kanR*	(78)
JLS0905	W3110 Δ*hycE*::*kanR*	(78)
JLS1010	W3110 Δ*mdtE*::*kanR*	This work
JLS1025	W3110 Δ*mdtF*::*kanR*	This work
JLS1517	W3110 Δ*gadX*::*kanR*	This work
JLS1631	W3110 Δ*cspC*::*kanR*	This work
JLS1632	W3110 Δ*gadE*::*kanR*	This work
JLS1633	W3110 Δ*rfaY*::*kanR*	This work
JLS1706	W3110 Δ*emrA*::*kanR*	(20)
JLS1732	W3110 Δ*(slp-gadX)*	This work
JLS1771	W3110 Δ*(slp-gadX)* Δ*ariR*::*kanR*	This work

JLS1777	W3110 Δ*cspC*::*kanR* Δ*rfaY*::*frt*	This work
JLS1789	W3110 Δ*add*::*kanR*	This work
JLS1820	W3110 Δ*rob*::*kanR*	This work
JLS1823	W3110 Δ*ariR*::*kanR*	This work
JLS1828	W3110 Δ*hycF*::*kanR*	This work
JLS1616	A1-1 Δ*yhdN*::*kanR rpoA+*	This work
JLS1617	A1-1 Δ*yhdN*::frt	This work
JLS1791	W3110 Δ*hfq*::*kanR*	This work
JLS1908	W3110 Δ*yhdN*::*kanR*	This work
JLS1909	A1-1 Δ*yhdN*::*kanR*	This work

909 [1]Newly isolated strains from benzoate-evolved populations (18) are listed in Supplementary

910 Table S1.

Table 2. Mutations found in selected benzoate-evolved strains*

Colored cell codes: b = blue, r = red, g = green, t = tan/brown, x = gray (indicates the mutation is present in that strain).

Position	A1-3	A1-4	A1-5	A1-1	A5-3	A5-4	A5-5	A5-1	C3-3	C3-4	C3-5	C3-1	G5-3	G5-4	G5-5	G5-1	G5-2	Mutation	Annotation	Gene
Generation:	900	900	1400	2000	900	900	1400	2000	900	900	1400	2000	900	900	1400	2000	2000			
Cam:			S	S				S				S			S	S	S			
13,291													t	t				G→T	V377F (GTT→TTT)	dnaK →
56,273				b														G→A	L279L (CTC→CTT)	lptD (imp)←
62,682							r											+G	coding (583/2907 nt)	hepA →
156,056																t		T→G	N49T (AAT→ACT)	ecpD ←
237,555						r												Δ1 bp::repeat(−) +9 bp::Δ1 bp	coding (221‑229/786 nt)	yafT →
310,704											g							(T)8→7	intergenic (−144/−632)	ykgK ← / → ykgL
490,544					r	r	r	r										Δ6 bp	intergenic (+61/−87)	ybaN → / → apt
556,778	b	b	b	b								g						A→C	F63V (TTC→GTC)	folD ←
573,671					r	r	r	r										T→A	intergenic (+109/+289)	ybcQ → / ← insH
666,783													t	t				A→T	D619E (GAT→GAA)	mrdA ←
683,143														t		t		Δ5,116 bp	insH-3 IS5‑mediated	[hscC]–gltI
755,210													t	t				IS5 +8bp	intergenic (+147/−374)	gltA ← / sdhC →
907,373										g	g							Δ1 bp	coding (1332/1431 nt)	ybjT ←
909,411																t		G→A	P102P (CCC→CCT)	ltaE ←
991,031												g						insH (−) +4 bp::Δ7	intergenic (−253/−10)	pncB ← / → pepN
1,213,665		b		b														(C)8→9	intergenic (−85/+615)	elbA ← / ← ycgX
1,218,024																t		IS5 (+) +4 bp	coding (79‑82/267 nt)	ariR (ymgB) ← / ← insH
1,337,160																t		G→A	intergenic (+617/−385)	cysB → / → acnA
1,349,606				b														IS5 +5 bp	coding (1021/1935 nt)	rnb ←
1,372,264												g				t		A→G	E112G (GAG→GGG)	ycjM →
1,459,205																t		G→A	G354G (GGG→GGA)	paaE →
1,471,097							r											A→G	E9G (GAA→GGA)	insI →
1,485,978																t		C→A	R402S (CGT→AGT)	hrpA ←
1,549,542							r											IS5 (−) +4 bp	coding (428‑431/3048 nt)	fdnG →
1,553,926																t		T→C	intergenic (+221/+186)	fdnI → / ← yddM
1,574,188																t		IS5 (+) +4 bp	coding (2726‑2729/2796 nt)	pqqL ←
1,592,479																t		C→A	intergenic (−229/+89)	yneL ← / ← hipA
1,618,943							r											Δ6,115 bp	coding deletion	[ydeA]–[ydeH]
1,704,037																t		Δ1 bp	coding (91/1002 nt)	add →
1,822,769							r											IS5 +4 bp	coding (160/1359 nt)	chbC ←
1,855,048													t					repeat(−) +9 bp	coding (638‑646/1359 nt)	ydjE →
1,881,543																t		IS186/IS421 (+) +6 bp	coding (115‑120/360 nt)	yeaR →
1,901,989						r												G→T	G437G (GGC→GGA)	yoaE ←
1,908,956												g						Δ5::insH-4 IS5 (−) +4 bp::Δ4	coding (191‑194/210 nt)	cspC ←
1,909,258							r											IS1 (+) +9 bp	coding (40‑48/144 nt)	yobF ←
2,093,067													t	t				G→A	G247S (GGT→AGT)	hisG →
2,093,073						r	r											G→A	E249K (GAA→AAA)	hisG →
2,156,723																t		C→A	L191M (CTG→ATG)	mdtA →
2,447,095																t		C→T	intergenic (−44/−115)	fabB ← / → trmC
2,646,569				b														C→A	E1459* (GAG→TAG)	yfhM ←
2,739,952													t	t				C→A	intergenic (−146/−64)	aroF ← / → yfiL
2,810,717													t	t				IS2 (−) +5 bp	coding (635‑639/1173 nt)	emrA ←
2,865,825													t					A→T	I89N (ATC→AAC)	rpoS ←
2,931,775			b	b														C→A	P190P (CCG→CCT)	fucA ←
3,104,794																t		G→A	G142D (GGC→GAC)	nupG →
3,169,126													t	t				A→C	T215P (ACA→CCA)	qseB →
3,187,655												g						Δ6::insH-9 IS5 (−) +4 bp::Δ5	coding (1600‑1603/2466 nt)	yqiG →
3,188,360																t		IS5 (−) +4 bp	coding (2305‑2308/2466 nt)	yqiG →
3,189,138																t		IS5 (+) +4 bp	coding (602‑605/750 nt)	yqiH →
3,212,340																t		A→C	D213A (GAC→GCC)	rpoD →
3,241,721								r										G→T	L84M (CTG→ATG)	uxaA →
3,277,113								r										INDEL +5 bp	coding (257/336 nt)	prlF →
3,277,128													t	t				(TTCAACA)2→3	coding (272/336 nt)	sohA →
3,305,846							r											Δ141 bp	coding (1730‑1870/1890 nt)	deaD →
3,454,320			b	b														C→T	G373S (GGC→AGC)	rpoB →
3,532,025			b	b														A→G	N107S (AAC→AGC)	cpxA →
3,840,032												g						Δ4::insH IS5 (−) +4 bp::Δ4	coding (583‑586/699 nt)	rfaY →
3,909,304											g							Δ6::insH-11 IS5 (+) +4 bp::Δ6	intergenic (−20/−343)	xylF ← / → xylA
3,948,766	x	b	b	b														G→A	R320H (CGT→CAT)	bcsB ←
3,967,563	b																	C→A	A171S (GCG→TCG)	yhjC ←
3,974,646											g					t		Δ78 bp	coding (42‑119/825 nt)	gadX →
3,975,201																t		G→T	L199F (TTG→TTT)	gadX →
3,975,230					r	r	r	r										IS5 (+) +4 bp	coding (626‑629/825 nt)	gadX →
3,976,435	b	b	b	b														Δ10,738 bp	insH‑mediated	[gadW]–slp
3,981,163													t	t				Δ6,012 bp	repeat‑mediated	[mdtE]–slp
3,986,969											g							Δ204 bp	insH‑mediated	slp ← / → insH
4,114,118																t		C→A	intergenic (−171/−149)	yrfF ← / → nudE
4,136,677											g							G→T	V191V (GTC→GTA)	frlD
4,200,197			b	b														A→C	K271Q (AAA→CAA)	rpoA →
4,218,986											g							Δ6 bp::repeat(−) +4 bp::Δ4 bp	intergenic (+187/−79)	metA → / → aceB
4,221,094													t	t				Δ1 bp	coding (396/1305 nt)	aceA →
4,221,755											g							G→A	A353T (GCA→ACA)	aceA →
4,221,855											g							A→C	E386A (GAA→GCA)	aceA →
4,297,865								r										+T	intergenic (+136/−206)	nrfG → / → gltP
4,316,928											g							Δ6 bp::repeat(−) +4 bp::Δ6 bp	coding (739‑742/891 nt)	rpiR ←
4,405,094																t		G→A	V43M (GTG→ATG)	hfq →
4,485,284																t		IS5 (−) +4 bp	coding (875‑878/1197 nt)	yjgN →
4,543,244				r														Δ4 bp::repeat(+) +4 bp::Δ6 bp	coding (199‑202/1107 nt)	yjhT ←
4,625,980											g							Δ1 bp::repeat(−) +9 bp	coding (418‑426/720 nt)	deoD →
4,626,165													t	t				C→A	C201W (TGC→TGG)	deoD ←
4,639,891																t		A→G	S34P (TCC→CCC)	rob ←

915   **Highlighted generation numbers indicate published strains (18). Cam indicates

916   chloramphenicol; S indicates loss of growth at 8 µg/mL chloramphenicol, compared to strain

917   W3110. Colors indicate mutations in populations: A1, blue; A5, red; C3, green; G5, brown.

918   **Table 3. Selected differentially expressed genes (Log2 fold change ≥ 1, p < 0.01) [1]**

	Benzoate / No benzoate W3110	A1-1 / W3110 Benzoate	C3-1 / W3110 Benzoate	G5-1 / W3110 Benzoate	G5-2 / W3110 Benzoate
Up-regulated	*aceABEFK*	*acs*	*cspB*	*cvpA*	***ompF***
	appAB	*glcDE*	*ompG*	*fadB*	*ompL*
	asr	***ompF***	*ompL*	*glcDE*	*wcaADK*
	cyoABCDE		*pspB*	*ompL*	***ymgG***
	dppCB		*phoE*	*phoE*	
	gadABC			*phoH*	
	gadEF				
	hdeB				
	hyaBF				
	hycABCDEFG				
	marRAB				
	mdtEF				
	narHJ				
	oppABCD				
	slp				
Down-regulated	*cadAB*	***appBC***	*flu*	*dctR*	*artP*
	flgBCDEFG	*dctR*	***gadABC***	***gadABC***	***asr***
	fliAFN	*flu*	***hycACDEFGH***	*gadEF*	*flu*
	fruAK	***gadABC***	*pepN*	***hdeABD***	*gltIK*
	ompF	*gadEF*	*slp*	***hycACDEFGH***	***hycCDEFG***
	ymgG	*mdtEF*		***mdtEF***	***marRB***
		hycBCDEFGH		*slp*	*slp*
		hdeABD		*sufABCD*	*yahK*
		narHIJ		*yahK*	*yeeR*
		slp		*yhiDM*	
		yeeR		*wrbA*	
		yhiDM			
		ymgG			

[1]All strains were cultured to log phase at pH 6.5, 5 mM sodium benzoate, except for the W3110

control culture without benzoate. Bold letters without underline indicate genes upregulated by

benzoate in W3110 but knocked down in benzoate-evolved strains (A1-1, C3-1, G5-1, G5-2).

Bold underlined indicates genes downregulated by benzoate in W3110 and that had increased

expression in benzoate-evolved strains.

FIGURES

Figure 1. The Gad acid resistance regulon intersects with the Mar drug-resistance regulon.

Selected components relevant to this work are shown.

Figure 2. Isolates from early generations (500-1500 doublings) from populations A1, A5, C3,

and G5. Strains were cultured in LBK 100 mM PIPES pH 6.5 with 20 mM sodium benzoate, as

described under Methods. For each strain, the curve shown represents median value of OD_{600} at

16 h. Asterisk indicates significant difference from W3110, Tukey's test $p \leq 0.05$, n=4. All four

replicates are shown in **Figure S2**. **A.** A5-5, A1-5, A1-3, and A1-4 outgrew ancestor W3110.

A5-3 and A5-4 entered death phase after 12 h, as did ancestor W3110. **B.** C3-5, G5-3, G5-4, and

G5-5 showed increased benzoate resistance compared to ancestor W3110. C3-3 and C3-4

entered death phase after 12 h, as did ancestor W3110.

Figure 3. Genes upregulated by benzoate in the ancestral strain W3110 are downregulated in the benzoate-evolved strains. The grey dots indicated the Log$_2$ fold changes (LFC), the expression ratios of genes of the benzoate-evolved strains, plotted as a function of LFC for W3110 with or without 5 mM benzoate. Data are from the Supplemental File Table S3. Genes shown are those significantly differentially expressed (p < 0.001) in at least one evolved strain. Genes of the Gad regulon (*gadAEXW, mdtEF, hdeDAB, slp*) and *gadBC* are colored blue. In A1-1 most of the Gad island is deleted (Δ*slp-gadW*). R is the Pearson correlation coefficient.

Figure 4. Gad regulon and related mutations in strain A1-1 increase growth in benzoate.

Replicate curves are shown in **Fig. S4**. Strains were cultured overnight in LBK 100 mM PIPES

pH 6.5 (A, C, E) or LBK 100 mM MOPS pH 7.0 (B, D, F), both supplemented with 5 mM

benzoate. Eight replicate samples from two overnight cultures (four from each) were diluted

1:200 in a 96-well plate into fresh medium; LBK 100 mM PIPES pH 6.5 supplemented with 15

mM benzoate (A, C, E) or LBK 100 mM MOPS pH 7.0 supplemented with 5 mM benzoate and

added 4 µg/mL chloramphenicol (B, D, F). For each group of replicates, a curve with median

OD_{600} at 16 h is presented. Asterisk indicates significant difference from W3110 at 16 h, Tukey's

test p ≤ 0.05, n=8. All eight replicates are shown in **Figure S4. A.** W3110 constructs Δ*slp-gadX*,

Δ*gadE*::*kanR*, and *ΔgadX*::*kanR* were cultured in 15 mM benzoate alongside parent strain

W3110. The Δ*slp-gadX* strain grew to a higher OD_{600} than did W3110 at 16 h, though not as

high as benzoate-evolved strain A1-1. **B.** Strain A1-1 and W3110 constructs Δ*slp-gadX*,

Δ*gadE*::*kanR*, and Δ*gadX*::*kanR* were cultured with W3110 in benzoate and chloramphenicol.

Strain A1-1 grew significantly less than W3110 at 16 h. **C.** Δ*mdtE*::*kanR* and Δ*mdtF*::*kanR*

strains outgrew W3110 in benzoate, but did not grow as high as A1-1. **D.** Δ*mdtE*::*kanR* and

Δ*mdtF*::*kanR* strains grew higher than W3110 in 5 mM benzoate with chloramphenicol, whereas

strain A1-1 reached a lower OD_{600} at 16 h. **E.** Δ*ariR*::*kanR* had increased growth in benzoate, but

not as high as Δ*slp-gadX*, Δ*ariR*::*kanR* Δ*slp-gadX*, or A1-1. **F.** While Δ*ariR*::*kanR* and Δ*slp-*

gadX did not affect growth in benzoate with chloramphenicol, Δ*ariR*::*kanR* Δ*slp-gadX* outgrew

the ancestor W3110.

Figure 5. Chloramphenicol sensitivity with *rpoA* K271Q replacement by *rpoA*⁺ in A1-1.

Replicate curves are shown in **Figure S5**. **A.** Construct A1-1 with *rpoA* K271Q reversion to

rpoA⁺ (A1-1 Δ*yhdN*::*frt rpoA*⁺) showed no significant difference from A1-1 (cultured with 15

mM benzoate). **B.** A1-1 Δ*yhdN*::*frt rpoA*⁺ grew to a comparable level as W3110 in 8 µg/mL

chloramphenicol with 5 mM benzoate. Culture conditions for panels A, B were the same as for

Figure 4 A, B respectively, except that the chloramphenicol concentration was 8 µg/mL (B).

Significant difference from W3110 was determined at 16 h, Tukey's test p ≤ 0.05, n=8.

Figure 6. *ΔcspC* deletion confers benzoate tolerance and *ΔrfaY* confers chloramphenicol

sensitivity. Replicates are shown in **Figure S6**. **A.** In 15 mM benzoate, W3110 Δ*cspC* reached

higher growth than W3110, but W3110 Δ*rfaY* showed no growth difference from W3110. The

Δ*cspC* Δ*rfaY* growth curve resembled that of Δ*cspC*. **B.** W3110 constructs Δ*rfaY*::*kanR* and

Δ*cspC*::*kanR* Δ*rfaY*::*frt* showed no difference from W3110 at 16 h, but Δ*rfaY*::*kanR* had a lower

991 log-phase growth-rate compared to W3110 in 5 mM benzoate with 4 µg/mL chloramphenicol. **C.**

992 At 8 µg/mL chloramphenicol, 5 mM benzoate, W3110 Δ*rfaY*::*kanR* has lower log-phase growth

993 rate than W3110 (t-test $p < 0.01$); for each strain, 8 individual replicates are shown. Significant

994 difference from W3110 was determined at 16 h, Tukey's test $p \leq 0.05$, n=8.

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Figure 7. *Δadd* confers benzoate tolerance, and Δ*rob* decreases log-phase growth rate in

chloramphenicol. Replicates are shown in **Figure S7**. **A.** Strains G5-1 and W3110 Δ*emrA*::*kanR*

outgrew W3110 at 16 h, in 15 mM benzoate. **B.** W3110 Δ*emrA* outgrew W3110 and G5-1 at 16

h, in 5 mM benzoate, 4 µg/ml chloramphenicol. **C.** G5-2 and W3110 Δ*add*::*kanR* outgrew

W3110 in 15 mM benzoate. Δ*rob*::*kanR* did not affect growth. **D.** W3110 Δ*add*::*kanR*, W3110

Δ*rob*::*kanR*, and W3110 showed no difference in 5 mM benzoate, 4 µg/mL chloramphenicol.

Strain G5-2 grew less than W3110. **E.** Δ*rob*::*kanR* conferred a lower log-phase growth rate in 5

mM benzoate, 4 µg/mL chloramphenicol (t-test $p < 0.01$). 8 replicates per strain are shown.

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Figure 8. *Δhfq*::*kanR* increases growth in 15 mM benzoate and decreases growth in

chloramphenicol. **A.** Strains G5-2 and W3110 *Δhfq*::*kanR* outgrew W3110 at 16 h, in 15 mM

benzoate. **B.** W3110 outgrew strains G5-2 and W3110 *Δhfq*::*kanR* at 16 h, in 5 mM benzoate, 4

µg/ml chloramphenicol.

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1031 **Figure 9.** Deletion of hydrogenase Hyd-3 (*hyc*) enhances late growth in 15 mM benzoate pH 6.5.

1032 W3110 with Δ*hycE*::*kanR* or Δ*hycF*::*kanR* grows to higher median value of OD_{600} at 20 h than

1033 that of the parent W3110. The W3110 Δ*hyaB*::*kanR* strain deleted for Hyd-1 shows no

1034 enhancement of late growth compared to W3110. **A.** Median growth curves presented for each

1035 set of 8 replicates. **B.** All 8 replicates shown for each strain.

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