Benzoate-Tolerant *Escherichia coli* Strains from Experimental Evolution Lose the Gad

Regulon, Multi-Drug Efflux Pumps, and Hydrogenases

by

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ABSTRACT

Benzoate, a partial uncoupler of the proton motive force (PMF), selects for sensitivity to chloramphenicol and tetracycline in *Escherichia coli* K-12. Genetic mechanisms of increased benzoate tolerance and decreased drug resistance were analyzed in strains isolated from experimental evolution with benzoate. Transcriptomes showed reversal of benzoate-dependent regulation, including the Gad regulon for acid resistance and multi-drug resistance (MDR). Benzoate-evolved strains knocked down the nitrate reductase *narHJ* and the acid-consuming hydrogenase Hyd-3, but upregulated OmpF and other porins that admit nutrients and antibiotics. Mutations were found affecting many genes of aromatic catabolism such as *folD* and *add*. Several candidate genes from benzoate-evolved strains had a role in benzoate tolerance. Growth with benzoate or salicylate was increased by deletion of the Gad activator *ariR*, or by deletion of the *slp-gadX* acid fitness island encoding Gad regulators and the MDR pump MdtEF. Benzoate growth was also increased by deletion of MDR component *emrA*, the RpoS post-transcriptional regulator *cspC*, or the adenosine deaminase *add*. Growth in chloramphenicol with benzoate was decreased by a point mutation in the RNA polymerase alpha-subunit *rpoA*, which appeared in one chloramphenicol-sensitive benzoate-evolved strain. Growth in chloramphenicol was also decreased by deletion of Mar activator *rob*, or of *rfaY* (lipopolysaccharide biosynthesis). Hydrogenase Hyd-3 deletion increased benzoate tolerance. Overall, long-term culture in the presence of benzoate or salicylate favors loss of MDR efflux pumps and of hydrogenases that generate a futile cycle of PMF; and favors upregulation of large-hole porins that increase uptake of fermentable nutrients and of antibiotics.

IMPORTANCE

Benzoate is a common food preservative, and salicylate is the active form of aspirin. In *E. coli*,

benzoate derivatives upregulate multiple regulons that export antibiotics and other toxic

products, and downregulate large outer-membrane porins that allow antibiotic influx. But

benzoate or salicylate exposure causes energy stress by depleting the proton motive force. In the

absence of antibiotics, long-term benzoate exposure selects against energy-spending systems

such as multi-drug efflux pumps and the proton-consuming hydrogenase. Selection favors

upregulation of porins that admit fermentable substrates but also allow entry of antibiotics. Thus,

evolution with benzoate requires a tradeoff for antibiotic sensitivity. Benzoate and salicylate are

naturally occurring plant signal molecules that may influence the evolution of microbiomes in

plants and in animal digestive tracts. Effects on hydrogenase activity may be relevant to the

biotechnology of hydrogen production.

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). Acids that permeate in the unprotonated form can lead to toxic anion accumulation (3, 4) and partly uncouple proton motive force (PMF) (5–8). Benzoic acid and salicylic acid (2-hydroxybenzoic acid, the active form of aspirin) are abundant in human diets in the form of food preservatives, pharmaceutical products, and natural plant secondary metabolites (9–12). Given the prevalence of benzoate derivatives in human diets, and in the plant rhizosphere (13), there are interesting questions as to their molecular effects on bacteria.

Benzoate and salicylate induce low-level resistance to antibiotics, via a large number of regulators including the Mar regulon (14) as well as poorly understood mar-independent pathways (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**). Yet, experimental evolution with benzoate leads to loss of both acid resistance and resistance to the antibiotics tetracycline and chloramphenicol (18). Sequenced strains had lost MDR pumps and regulators such as *emrA*, *emrY*, and *marRAB*. Similarly, experimental evolution with a strong uncoupler, carbonyl cyanide m-chlorophenyl hydrazone (CCCP), yields strains that lose MDR pumps and regulators, with the exception of the EmrAB-TolC pump that exports CCCP (19, 20).

We hypothesize that as a partial uncoupler such as benzoate or salicylate depletes PMF, the cell incurs energy stress, which selects against MDR pumps that spend PMF. Constitutive induction of stress response pathways carries a heavy energetic penalty; thus, deletion or knockdown 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 (21). In the case of acid stress, experimental evolution leads to loss of three acid-

inducible amino-acid decarboxylase systems (22, 23). Alternatively, PMF expenditure 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 (24).

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

mutation affecting the *slp-gad* (Gad) acid fitness island (16, 25–27). The Gad island includes

acid-resistance regulators *gadE*, *gadW*, *gadX* (28); periplasmic acid chaperones *hdeA* and *hdeB*;

and the MDR efflux components *mdtE*, *mdtF* (29, 30) (**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, 27, 31, 32). 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 (33, 34); *mdtA* (35, 36); and *emrY* (37).

Other mutations affect MDR regulators such as *cpxA* (38), *ariR* (39), *arcA* (40), and *rob* (41).

In one population, benzoate has selected for deletion of *marRAB*, a multi-drug resistance

operon which is induced by MarR binding salicylate or benzoate (15, 41). MarRAB has

homologs throughout bacteria and archaea, and plays a role in many drug-resistant clinical

isolates (42). 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, 43) as well as

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

nutrients and antibiotics (44). Many targets of MarA are also subject to MarA homolog Rob (41,

42), 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 have been shown previously to lead to unexpected phenotypes

such as the downregulation of arginine decarboxylase caused by an *rpoC* mutation in an acid-

evolved strain (45).

Here we report the resequencing of earlier populations from the benzoate evolution with

fewer mutations to gain insight to the order in which mutations were acquired, and the existence

of multiple populations simultaneously in several cultures. Additionally, we sequenced

transcriptomes of four 2,000-generation strains and found a surprising long-term reversal of the

short-term benzoate stress response. We report the effects of several candidate gene deletions

and mutations on fitness in the presence of benzoate and of chloramphenicol.

RESULTS

Early benzoate-selected mutations affect Gad, Mar and aromatic metabolism. We sought to

assess the timeline of benzoate-tolerance evolution, and identify genes that acquired mutations

early, without the context of preexisting mutations (18). 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 ancestor (18). Selected isolates

were sequenced (**Table S1**), and mutations were detected using *breseq* (46). 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**). At this benzoate concentration, the ancestral strain W3110 starts to grow

but then fails and commences decline at approximately 12 h (18). All the A1 population strains

from generation 900 or 1,400 grew to stationary phase in 20 mM benzoate. 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 strains at

generation 2,000 (**Table 2**). Three of these affected Gad regulation: the partial Gad island

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

(47), 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

mediated by upstream insertion sequences, a common finding in stress evolution experiments

(18, 45). 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 (30). MdtEF-TolC exports

a variety of antibiotics and toxic metabolites, including chloramphenicol (40, 48, 49). 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.

Other genes that had early, persistent mutations include *folD* (5,10-methylene-

tetrahydrofolate dehydrogenase/cyclohydrolase, for thymidine biosynthesis) (50) in population

A1; and *apt* (adenosine phosphoribosyltransferase, for purine salvage) (51) in population A5. A

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

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

Overall, various isolates had mutations affecting metabolism of nucleotides and aromatic amino

acids. Strain E1-5, generation 1,000, had a mutation in *yeaS* (*leuE*) whose product effluxes

leucine and toxic analogues. Biosynthetic genes included *aroF* (3-deoxy-d-arabino-

heptulosonate 7-phosphate synthase; first step of tyrosine biosynthesis) (52) and *hisG* (ATP-

phosphoribosyltransferase, first step of histidine biosynthesis) (53);. Other mutations affected

aromatic catabolism and salvage: *add* (adenosine deaminase) (54); *deoD* (PNP, purine

nucleoside phosphorylase) (55); *rihA* (ribonucleoside hydrolase) (56); *paaE* (phenylacetate

degradation) (57); and *nupG* (nucleoside uptake transporter, PMF-driven) (58). These mutations

in aromatic metabolism may represent adjustment to the uptake of benzoate in the cytoplasm.

These effects may be associated with the proposed induction of Mar regulon by intracellular

aromatic intermediates that retard growth above a certain level (59, 60).

Transcriptome of benzoate-evolved isolates shows reversal of benzoate regulation in

the ancestor W3110. In our previous study of acid stress, the transcriptomes of acid-evolved

clones compared to those of the ancestor proved highly informative, revealing the surprising

knock-down of several acid stress genes (22). We therefore conducted a similar transcriptome

analysis of our benzoate-evolved strains (18), and of the ancestral strain under benzoate and no-

benzoate conditions. Four of the 2000-generation strains were selected (A1-1, C3-1, G5-1, and

G5-2). RNA was extracted during logarithmic growth from cultures supplemented with a

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

of all strains. In addition, the ancestor W3110 was cultured in medium with or without 5 mM

benzoate, in order to identify genes responding to benzoate stress before benzoate selection

occurred.

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 the ancestor, with benzoate versus

without. Remarkably, across the genome, genes that were regulated up or down by benzoate in

the ancestor showed reversal (by knock-down or by deletion) 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 absence or knock-down of most of the Gad regulon

(blue symbols in **Figure 3**). But strain C3-1 also had knockdown of Gad, despite no loss of

known regulators.

The log$_2$ expression ratios for individual genes of strain W3110 in the presence or

absence of benzoate are presented in **Table S3**. Genes are shown for ratios ≥2 (log$_2$ ratios ≥1)

with significance at a value of p ≤ 0.01. Expression ratios are also shown for the 2,000-

generation strains versus W3110, cultured in benzoate. Selected differentially expressed genes

are shown in **Table 3**.

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 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 (61). However, the cytoplasmic pH depression caused

by benzoate uptake does not involve extreme acidification of the periplasm. Thus, there is less

need for periplasmic chaperones HdeA and HdeB.

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

various losses of 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 mediates downregulation of the

large outer membrane porin, *ompF* (**Fig. 1**). The downregulation of *ompF* helps exclude toxins

and antibiotics. No *ompF* mutations appear in our evolved strains, yet two of the four benzoate-

evolved strains (A1-1 and G5-2) showed upregulation of *ompF*. Strain C3-1 upregulated two

other large porins, *ompG* (62) and *phoE* (63) as well as *ompL* (64). 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. The porins could also increase sensitivity to

antibiotics in the benzoate-evolved strains.

The genes induced by benzoate also included several components of electron transport,

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

(65, 66), nitrate reductase (*narHJ*) (67), and hydrogenase-3 (Hyd-3, *hycABCDEFG*) (68). Hyd-3

converts H^+ ions to H_2, and associates with the formate-hydrogenlyase complex (FHL); it

includes HycA regulator of FHL (69). The acceleration of electron transport is consistent with

the effect of uncouplers on respiration, generating a futile cycle during stationary phase (70). The

energy loss during stationary phase could explain why strain W3110 enters death phase after

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

All four of the benzoate-evolved strains had knocked down expression of FHL/Hyd-3

components (*hyc* genes), and strain A1-1 showed decrease 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 (68, 71). Hyd-3 converts $2H^+$ to H_2, as part of the formate-hydrogen lyase

complex converting formate to CO_2 plus H_2 (72). Hydrogen production by Hyd-3 is induced by

external acid, and is required for extreme-acid survival in low oxygen (73). Thus the benzoate-

associated loss of acid-inducible hydrogenase (and presumably FHL) parallels the loss of the

acid-inducible Gad system.

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

mutations appear affecting the nitrate-inducible formate dehydrogenase (*fdnG* and *fdnI*) (74).

Also in A1-1, the *narGHI* quinol-nitrate oxidoreductase (75) is down-regulated. 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**).

227   **Deletion of *gadE*, *mdtE*, *mdtF*, or *ariR* confers benzoate tolerance.** Our resequenced

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

tolerance. We started with the isolates from population A1, which suggest a progression of

acquired mutations that contribute to benzoate tolerance. The early-generation isolates do not

necessarily represent direct ancestors of the later strains, yet the *slp-gadX* deletion is present in

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

populations (**Table 2**). We constructed, by recombineering (76), a strain with a deletion spanning

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

235   For comparison, strains were cultured in microtiter plates with 15 mM benzoate, as

described under Methods (**Fig. 4**). Endpoint growth was measured at 16 h; and for each

condition, we show a replicate curve with median 16-h OD_{600}. 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 consisted effect on growth,

although their regulation of the Gad island (61) could have fitness effects detectable by direct

competion.

242   The ancestor W3110, and our benzoate-evolved strains, show growth effects of salicylate

that are comparable to the effects of benzoate, at 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 S1** presents salicylate

experiments comparable to all the 5 mM benzoate experiments in Figures 4, 5, 6.

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. Knockout strains of *mdtE*::*kanR* and *mdtF*::*kanR* each had increased growth rate and

16-h density relative to W3110 in 15 mM benzoate at pH 6.5 (**Fig. 4C**). The increase was

however significantly less than that found for strain A1-1. This suggests that various genes of the

Gad system make additive partial contributions to benzoate tolerance.

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

transposon-mediated knockout of *ariR* (18, 39). A KEIO *ariR*::*kanR* deletion strain had increased

endpoint growth compared to wild-type. AriR (YmgB) regulates both Gad acid resistance and

biofilm formation (39) possibly mediated by RpoS (77). We tested whether an *ariR* deletion

interacted with the acid fitness island deletion in an additive manner, or was overshadowed by

the larger 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. No *ariR* mutation was detected in the

sequence of the 500-generation isolate, so it appears likely that the *ariR* mutation in strain

A1-1 has an additional contribution to benzoate tolerance that requires a more sensitive fitness

assay for detection.

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). The

basis of this tradeoff is unknown. 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, at 4µg/ml or at 8µg/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 chloramphenicol efflux by MdtEF-TolC (49).

This could occur because chloramphenicol is exported by redundant systems outside *slp-gadX*.

275   We hypothesized that the chloramphenicol sensitivity of strain A1-1 required an

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

generations 900 and 1,400. An interesting candidate was the *rpoA* mutation that appeared in

strain A1-5 (generation 1,400, chloramphenicol sensitive) and persisted in A1-1. The carboxy-

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

elements, and transcription factors such as CRP. Our allele *rpoA* K271Q is nearly the same as a

well-studied *rpoA* allele, *rpoA341* K271E (78, 79). 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* (78). We found *ompF*

upregulated in strain A1-1 (**Table 3, Table S3**). Strain A1-1 also had knocked down expression

of *araBAD* and of *cysA*, as reported for the *rpoA341* allele (78).

286   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 *yhdN*::*kanR*. Strain JLS1616

(A1-1 Δ*yhdN*::*kanR rpoA*$^+$) was then cultured in parallel with strain A1-1 and the parent W3110

(**Fig. 5**). 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 *rpoA* mutation was sensitive to chloramphenicol. Thus, *rpoA* K271Q is responsible for

the loss of chloramphenicol resistance associated with benzoate evolution of A1-1.

Other alleles from the A1-5 strain (generation 1,400) are of interest, such as *rpoB* G373S.

Commonly a mutation in an RNA polymerase subunit is followed by evolution of a second

mutation that partly corrects the phenotoype; whether *rpoA* or *rpoB* mutated first, in this case, is

unknown. Mutations also occurred in *fucA* (L‑fuculose‑1‑phosphate aldolase) and in *cpxA*

(stress two-component regulator), deletions of which had no effect on benzoate growth or

chloramphenicol sensitivity, under our conditions tested. The gene mutations could however

show effects under different conditions, or under competition selection. In competition assays

with drug resistant strains, antibiotics typically show a minimum selective concentration (MSC)

as much as 100-fold lower than the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) (80).

***cspC* deletion confers benzoate tolerance and *rfaY* confers chloramphenicol-**

sensitive growth rate. In the C3-1 strain, there were two transposon-mediated deletions

affecting growth in benzoate: a post-transcriptional regulator *cspC*, and the LPS kinase *rfaY*. 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 (81–83). A

Δ*cspC*::*kanR* knockout strain showed increased growth relative to wild-type in 15 mM benzoate

(**Fig. 6A**). However, in media with 4 µg/mL chloramphenicol, this strain grew identically to

wild-type (**Fig. 6B**).

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

mutant Δ*cspC*::*kanR* Δ*rfaY*::*kanR* grew identically to the Δ*cspC* strain. In chloramphenicol

however, 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 in growth rate, compared to Δ*cspC*::*kanR.* Thus, the double mutant showed

the *cspC* phenotype cultured in 15 mM benzoate but the *rfaY* phenotype cultured with

chloramphenicol (5 mM benzoate).

The C3 population isolates had no mutations within *slp-gadX*, except for a *gadX*

knockout in C3-5. Yet strain C3-1 had knocked down transcription 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 (82, 84) it is possible that *cspC* deletion downregulates

Gad, via decreased RpoS concentration (**Fig. 1**). Unlike the A1 and A5 populations, the

sequenced isolates from C3 populations showed little evidence of shared ancestry. It is possible

that these populations contained multiple sub-populations of different ancestry with similar

fitness. During the isolation process, different sub-populations were sampled at each time-point,

one of which could have taken over the well at some point between generation 1,400 and

generation 2,000, and this population's descendent resulted in the generation 2,000 isolate.

***emrA* deletion confers benzoate tolerance.** In G5 (strain G5-3, G5-4), a 6,012 bp

deletion was present in the Gad island, although not detected in our later generation isolates. As

seen for population C3, population G5 shows evidence of independent subpopulations (**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). Deletion of *emrA*

conferred a degree of tolerance to benzoate (**Fig. 7A**) even in the presence of chloramphenicol

(**Fig. 7B**).

***add* deletion confers benzoate tolerance and *rob* confers chloramphenicol sensitivity.**

Strain 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 (85). 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 (41). Deletion of *rob* did not significantly enhance growth in 15 mM

benzoate (**Fig. 7C**). The *Δrob* did however 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 *Δrob* (**Fig. 7E**). A t-test comparison

gave a p-value of $p < 0.01$. Replicates for the log-phage growth region are shown for *Δrob* and

W3110 in 4 µg/ml chloramphenicol (**Fig. 7E**).

Hydrogenase 3 deletion enhances late growth. Our transcriptomes showed benzoate

induction of hydrogenase 3 in W3110, yet knockdown of *hycEFG* in all four benzoate-evolved

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

hydrogenase activity, $2H^+ \rightarrow H_2$) and *hycF* (subunit of formate hydrogenlyase complex) (86).

Both *ΔhycE*::*kanR* and *ΔhycF*::*kanR* strains reached higher OD_{600} than did W3110 during late

growth, measured at 20 h (**Fig. 8**). 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. Hydrogenase 1 (*hya*) consumes H_2,

producing $2H^+$ (68). The hydrogenase 1 deletion *ΔhyaB*::*kanR* showed no significant difference

from W3110.

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 have combined genomic, transcriptomic, and genetic approaches to study how *E. coli* evolve in the presence of benzoic acid at pH 6.5 (18). Our work extends the picture of known MDR-related genes mutated under exposure to partitial or full uncouplers (20) and suggests additional mechanisms for the increased sensitivitiy to antibiotics, such as the upregulation of porins. This subject has implications beyond *E. coli*, as the microbiomes of soil and rhizosphere (87) as well as human and animal digestive tracts (88) are exposed to benzoate and related compounds.

Evolution with benzoate reverses short-term benzoate regulation. Previously we showed that evolution with benzoate incurs frequent mutations of the Gad acid fitness island (18). Similarly, evolution at low pH has the counterintuitive result of deletion or knock-down of highly expressed acid resistance mechanisms including Gad as well as lysine and arginine decarboxylases (21). Our transcriptomes extend the benzoate result reveal a striking pattern of knockdown of Gad as well as many 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 knock-down of Gad, possibly by mutation of the RpoS post-transcriptional activator CspC. This result reflects a pattern of convergent evolution achieved via one of several possible genetic histories.

The reversal of short-term stress response after long-term exposure to acids may reflect a more general tendency for experimental evolution to restore global pre-stress conditions. An analogous effect was reported after heat-stress evolution of *E. coli*, where the resulting strains show loss of heat shock gene expression (89). Another example is that of experimental evolution in glycerol or lactate minimal media, where expression of many genes ultimately returns to pre-stress levels (90). The fitness cost of stress response could involve either the cost of stress-

induced gene expression, when it fails to provide a benefit (21); or the cost of excess PMF

expenditure by a transporter or an efflux pump (24).

A striking example of benzoate regulation reversal was the knockdown of hydrogenase 3

(**Table 3, Fig. 8**). Hyd-3 as part of formate hydrogenlyase complex normally converts formate

from fermentation 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 (71). There is evidence that FHL activity exports protons (91). If so, this could be yet

another system that wastes energy as exported protons drive 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 (86).

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

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

increase respiratory rates, while most bacteriostatic compounds decrease respiration (92). 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.

The benzoate induction of Mar regulon also shows various forms of reversal after

prolonged benzoate exposure. MarA downregulates the OmpF porin, presumably in order to

exclude antibiotics. But long-term benzoate exposure increases expression of several large-hole

porins (OmpF, OmpG, PhoE, OmpL). This finding would be consistent with a tendency to

decrease PMF dependence while amplifying access to fermentable carbon sources for substrate-

level phosphorylation.

Deletion analysis reveals contributors to benzoate tolerance and chloramphenicol

sensitivity. Several components of the *slp-gadX* island lead to benzoate tolerance. Loss of

MdtEF-TolC drug efflux system directly increases benzoate tolerance. This efflux pump couples

drug efflux to PMF (27, 29, 93). The increase of benzoate tolerance in *mdtEF* knockout strains

could result from a decrease of PMF stress. Theoretically, benzoate induces a PMF stress by

shuttling protons through the membrane (18). 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 reduces proton flux through systems with functions

that do not increase fitness in benzoate, leading to antibiotic sensitivity. Loss of regulators such

as *gadE* may decrease activation of *mdtEF*, but also may relate to regulatory connections outside

the Gad island (16, 25, 31, 93, 94).

Here we have shown three candidate alleles associated with antibiotic sensitivity, namely,

the *rpoA* mutation in A1-1; the *rfaY* mutation in C3-1, and the *rob* mutation in G5-2. 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 mutation down-regulates a large set of genes

(95, 96). This down-regulation 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 the

antibiotic resistance activator to function (96). By mutating the RpoA CTD, the antibiotic-

resistance properties of MarA could be lost without affecting *marA* transcription. Less clear is

how the *rfaY* mutation both contributes to benzoate tolerance and/or antibiotic sensitivity. This

gene encodes a membrane-bound enzyme that phosphorylates the inner core of

lipopolysaccharide (LPS), a function which has been implicated in membrane stability (97).

Decreased membrane stability caused by the *rfaY* mutation may increase the permeability of

certain antibiotics, thereby decreasing C3-1's antibiotic resistance.

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

aromatic biosynthesis and catabolism, such as *folD* and *add*. The *folD* gene is essential 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 (59) especially given the benzoate-evolved enhancement

of substrate influx via porins (**Table 2).**

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

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

and *cspC*, 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 role of benzoate as a food preservative, and

salicylate as a plant defense agent and as a therapeutic substance for long-term use.

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 ug/ml), or chloramphenicol (4 or 8 ug/ml) as necessary. For growth curves, media was buffered to pH 7.0 with 100 mM (3-(*N*-morpholino)propanesulfonic acid) (MOPS; pKa = 7.20) or to pH 6.5 with 100 mM piperazine-N,N′-bis(2-ethanesulfonic acid) (PIPES; pKa = 5.96), 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 (98). The XTL241 strain containing the *cat-sacB* fusion was obtained from the Court lab at NCI (76). 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 1:100 into fresh media supplemented with 4 ug/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 Mi-seq 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

(46).

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

recombineering. P1 transduction was performed by standard methods (99). Strains carrying *kanR*

resistance cassettes in genes of interest were acquired from the Keio collection (98).

The *gadX-slp* strain (JLS1726) was constructed using lambda-red recombineering

according to the protocol by Thomason (76). Generation of the acid fitness island knockout

strain, JLS1726, 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 (OD600 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 JLS1726 (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 (22). 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 (OD600 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* (22). 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)(22, 100). 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. (61)

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 < 0.001.

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

number for RNAseq files is: PRJNA491479.

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852   **TABLES**

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

Name	Genotype	Source
W3110	*Escherichia coli* K-12	(101)
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*	(73)
JLS0905	W3110 Δ*hycE*::*kanR*	(73)
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
JLS1617	A1-1 Δ*yhdN*::*kanR rpoA+*	This work

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

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

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

861   chloramphenicol; S indicates loss of growth at 8µg/ml, compared to strain W3110. Colors

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

863 **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*	*pspB*	*fadB*	*ompL*
		asr	***ompF***	*phoE*	*glcDE*	*wcaADK*
		cyoABCDE		*ompG*	*ompL*	***ymgG***
		gadABC		*ompL*	*phoE*	
		gadEF			*phoH*	
		hdeB				
		hyaBF				
		hycABCDEFG				
		marRAB				
		mdtEF				
		narHJ				
		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			

865   [1]All strains were cultured to log phase at pH 6.5, 5 mM sodium benzoate, except for the W3110

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

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

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

869   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.

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

878 and G5. Strains were cultured in LBK 150 mM PIPES pH 6.5 with 20 mM sodium benzoate, as

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

880 16 h. Asterisk indicates significant difference from W3110, Tukey's test $p \leq 0.05$, n=4.

Figure 3. Genes upregulated by benzoate in the ancestral strain W3110 are downregulated in the

benzoate-evolved strains. LFC=Log$_2$ fold change (expression ratios); data are from Supplemental

File Table S3. LFC for benzoate-evolved strains over W3110 (cultured in 5 mM benzoate) are

plotted as a function of LFC for W3110 with or without 5 mM benzoate. 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.

for each group of replicates, a curve with median OD$_{600}$ at 16 h is presented.

Figure 4. Gad regulon and related mutations in strain A1-1 increase growth in benzoate. 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 $p \leq 0.05$, n=8. **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. **A.**

Construct A1-1 with *rpoA* K271Q reversion to *rpoA⁺* (A1-1 Δ*yhdN*::*kanR rpoA⁺*) showed no

significant difference from A1-1 (cultured with 15 mM benzoate). **B.** A1-1 Δ*yhdN*::*kanR 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).

Figure 6. *cspC* deletion confers benzoate tolerance and deletion of *rfaY* confers chloramphenicol

sensitivity. **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 log-phase growth-rate compared

931   to W3110 in 5 mM benzoate with 4 µg/ml chloramphenicol. **C.** At 8 µg/ml chloramphenicol, 5

932   mM benzoate, W3110 Δ*rfaY*::*kanR* has lower log-phase growth rate than W3110 (t-test p <

933   0.01); for each strain, 8 individual replicates are shown.

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

chloramphenicol **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

956   showed no difference in 5 mM benzoate, 4 µg/ml chloramphenicol. Strain G5-2 grew less than

957   W3110. **E.** Δ*rob*::*kanR* conferred a lower log-phase growth rate in 5 mM benzoate, 4 µg/ml

958   chloramphenicol (t-test $p < 0.01$). 8 replicates per strain are shown.

Figure 8. Deletion of hydrogenase Hyd-3 enhances late growth in 15 mM benzoate pH 6.5.

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

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

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

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

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