Non-lethal oxidative stress boosts bacterial survival and evolvability under lethal exposure

Alexandro Rodríguez-Rojas[1]*, Josh Jay Kim[1], Paul Johnston[1,2,3], Olga Makarova[1], Murat Eravci[4], Christoph Weise[4], Regine Hengge[5] and Jens Rolf [1]

[1]Institut für Biologie, Evolutionary Biology, Freie Universität Berlin, Königin-Luise-Strasse 1-3, 14195 Berlin, Germany.
[2]Leibniz-Institute of Freshwater Ecology and Inland Fisheries (IGB), Berlin, Germany
[3]Berlin Center for Genomics in Biodiversity Research, Berlin, Germany
[4]Institut für Chemie und Biochemie, Freie Universität Berlin, Thielallee 63, 14195 Berlin, Germany.
[5]Institut für Biologie/Mikrobiologie, Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin, Philippstr. 13, 10115 Berlin, Germany.

*Corresponding author: a.rojas@fu-berlin.de

Abstract

When oxygen began to accumulate by photosynthesis and aerobic respiration evolved, reactive oxygen species such as H_2O_2 became a challenge. Later on, multicellular organisms began to employ reactive oxygen species as potent weapons against microbes. Although bacterial defences against lethal and sub-lethal oxidative stress have been studied in model bacteria, the role of fuctuating concentrations remains unexplored. It is known that sub-lethal exposure of *E. coli* to hydrogen peroxide results in enhanced survival upon further exposure. Here we investigate the priming response to H_2O_2 close to physiological concentrations. The basis and the duration of the response (memory) were also determined by time-lapse quantitative proteomics. A low level of peroxide induces several scavenging enzymes that are quite stable, protecting cells from future exposure. We then asked if the phenotypic resistance against H_2O_2 alters resistance evolution against oxygen stress.

Experimental evolution for H_2O_2 resistance revealed faster evolution and higher
levels of resistance in primed cells. Several mutations were found to be
associated with resistance in evolved populations affecting different loci but
counterintuitively, none of them was implicated in scavenging systems. Our
results have important implications for host colonisation and infections where
microbes often encounter reactive oxygen species in gradients.
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Author summary

Throughout evolutionary time bacteria were exposed to reactive oxygen
species (ROS) and evolved the ability to scavenge toxic oxygen radicals.
Multicellular organisms evolved also the ability to produce such oxygen species
against pathogens. Recent studies also suggest that ROS such as hydrogen
peroxide play an important role during host gut colonisation by its microbiota.
Traditionally, experiments with different antimicrobials are carried out using
fixed concentrations while in nature, including intra-host environment,
microbes experience this type of stress in steps or gradients. Here we show
that bacteria treated with sub-lethal concentrations of H_2O_2 (priming) survive
far better than non-treated cells when they later encounter a stronger
concentration. We also found that 'priming' response has a protective role from
lethal mutagenesis. This protection is provided by long-lived proteins that,
upon priming, remain at a high level for several generations as determined by
time-lapse LC-mass spectrometry. Bacteria that were primed evolved H_2O_2
resistance faster and to a higher level. Moreover, mutations that increase
resistance to H_2O_2, as determined by whole-genome sequencing (WGS), do not
occur in known scavenger encoding genes but in loci coding for other functions,
at least in *E. coli*.

Introduction

The ability to solicit a stress response when encountering repeated stress relies on 'remembering' a similar event from the past (memory), a common trait to many biological entities [1]. During the course of an infection or the colonisation of a host, bacteria encounter increasing and repeated stress imposed by the host immune system [2,3]. Obata *et al*., for example, recently demonstrated that low levels of hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) in the gut of *Drosophila melanogaster* shape the composition of the gut microbiota resulting in differential survival of the flies [3]. Here, we report how bacteria respond to low levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS) exposure and how this impacts bacterial fitness. We then investigate if the phenotypic response to a sub-lethal dose of H_2O_2 facilitates resistance evolution, hence providing a test of the phenotype-first hypothesis, which proposes that environmentally initiated phenotypic change precedes or even facilitates evolutionary adaptation [4].

In *Escherichia coli*, the defences against oxidative stress depend on transcriptional regulators such as OxyR or SoxR that detect different changes in the redox balance. They also induce the production of detoxifying enzymes, DNA repair and protection systems and other proteins [5]. Oxidation of OxyR by H_2O_2 leads to the formation of an intramolecular disulfide bond between cysteine residues 199 and 208. OxyR is deactivated by enzymatic reduction with glutaredoxin I (Grx) or thioredoxin (Trx). OxyR positively regulates catalases and peroxidases. Because the Grx/GorA system is also transcriptionally regulated by OxyR, the whole response is self-regulated by switching on or off the active form of OxyR [6].

The OxyR-mediated oxidative stress response results in scavenging of H_2O_2 and mitigates the toxicity of this by-product of aerobic metabolism. It includes the induction of Suf proteins that form a complex to supply apo-enzymes with iron-sulfur clusters. Suf system replaces the normal iron-sulfur cluster (Isc), required for critical biochemical pathways such as respiration, which is disrupted by H_2O_2 stress [7,8]. The iron-sulphur clusters of dehydratases are one of the most

H_2O_2-sensitive systems. The repair of those clusters by Suf is necessary to
prevent the failure of the TCA cycle. The iron-sulfur clusters are enzymes that
employ ferrous iron as a co-factor which can increase the risk of fuelling a
Fenton reaction. Active OxyR also induces Dps, a ferritin-class protein, that
strongly suppresses the amount of DNA damage by sequestering the
unincorporated iron [9].

The spontaneous reaction of hydrogen peroxide with free ferrous iron (Fe^{2+}) at
physiological pH, oxidising iron to Fe^{3+} and generating hydroxyl radicals and
water is named the Fenton reaction. Hydroxyl is a strong non-selective radical
that damages many cellular components, particularly DNA [10,11]. H_2O_2
impedes the function of the Fur regulatory protein and can directly damage
many cell components but is less toxic than other reactive oxygen species such
as hydroxyl. These radicals are responsible for DNA damage, indirectly
promoted by H_2O_2 as a consequence of the Fenton reaction [12].

A classic paper by Imlay *et al.* describes that the pre-treatment of *E. coli* with a
low dose (60 µM) of H_2O_2 can increase the survival upon subsequent exposure
to an otherwise lethal dose (30 mM) [13]. However, neither the duration of
such priming responses nor the molecular mechanisms of its maintenance, i.e.
the memory, have been studied. Our study has two main aims. First, we
investigated the main factors in the H_2O_2 priming response and for how long
the response is sustained. Second, we used this system to test the hypothesis
that inducible phenotypes accelerate adaptive evolution [4]. Therefore, we
experimentally evolved *Escherichia coli* under a growing level of H_2O_2 with and
without priming. For H_2O_2-resistant populations evolved after priming and non-
priming regimes, genome re-sequencing analyses were performed to identify
mutations. We focus on growing bacteria (exponential phase), as this better
represents an infection or colonisation of host surfaces including the gut [2,3].
Moreover, this allows us to focus on H_2O_2 priming response in proliferating cells
that differ from the stationary phase. RpoS, the master regulator of the general
stress response, controls a pronounced phenotypic H_2O_2 tolerance during
stationary phase [14,15].

Results and Discussion

Priming by H_2O_2 results in higher bacterial survival

We found that, in our conditions, the minimal inhibitory concentration for H_2O_2 is 1 mM. This concentration was subsequently used as a reference for 30-minute killing curves that show a clear dose-effect in survival rate (Fig 1a, ranging from 50 μM to 1 mM, Fig 1a, $p=2.1 \times 10^{-16}$, DRC model fitted based on maximum likelihood [16]). Based on these results, we primed cells with H_2O_2 0.1 mM and monitored survival after a chellenge (trigger of the priming response) with 1 mM H_2O_2, starting 30 min after removal of the treatment. The priming concentration (0.1 mM) is the maximum dose that shows no difference in growth rate for each time-point compared to non-treated cells (S1 Fig, S1 Table). Primed (pre-treated) populations of *E. coli* showed higher survival than naïve cells by more than one order of magnitude (Cox proportional hazard model, $p<0.05$, Fig 1b). We also determined that the priming response contributes to a more efficient removal of H_2O_2 by quantifying it in the supernatant of the cultures (S2 Table). After 15 minutes, H_2O_2 dropped from 1 mM to 0.723 mM for control while in pre-treated cultures H_2O_2 significantly decreased to 0.140 mM ($p=0.00014$, pre-treated versus control). For 30 minutes, the level of H_2O_2 went to 0.377 mM for control cultures while in pre-treated cultures also significantly decreased to 0.022 mM compared to non-treated cultures ($p=0.00035$).

Although there is no difference in growth rate, priming with 0.1 mM H_2O_2 imposes a small cost (approximately 4%, S1 Fig, S1 Table). The cost can be only detected by comparing the empirical area under the curve (p=0.0002, 0.9619 fold-change) or the curve carrying capacity ($p=0.0001$, 0.9565 fold-change) of primed bacteria compared to the control if bacteria are allowed to grow until stationary phase. No other parameter such as initial population size, growth rate, or doubling time is affected. Therefore, differential survival can be only attributed to cell response but not to cell growth arrest. The cost can be explained because even very low concentrations of H_2O_2 damage the iron-sulphur clusters compromising respiration. However in low-density bacteria in

rich medium, *E. coli* can grow very fast by fermentation [17]. This wasteful strategy allows quick generation of ATP on the expenses of the medium and can explains the small difference in carrying capacity and the area under the curve of the growth curves (Fig S1, S1 Table). In our experiments, this cost has no consequences because bacteria are maintained in low density and in exponential growth. This scenario should be similar while starting an infection or colonisation of a host's gut.

These results are in agreement with data previously reported by Imlay *et al*. [13], showing survival protection even to doses as high as 30 mM, a concentration close to H_2O_2 usage as a disinfectant. Our concentrations are also in the range of some *in vivo* situations. For example, tailfin transection on zebrafish larvae induces a rapid increase in H_2O_2 levels ranging from 100–200 µM in the wound margins [2]. In some cases, more than 100 µM of H_2O_2 have been reported in human and animal eye vitreous humour and aqueous humour [18].

Duration of the priming response

As the priming response protects the cells effectively from an otherwise lethal exposure to H_2O_2, an important question is for how long this response remains effective. To address this we pre-treated *E. coli* again with 0.1 mM H_2O_2 for 30 minutes, but we applied the higher dose (1 mM, trigger of the priming response) at different time-points (30, 60, 90, 120 and 150 minutes after the 30 min priming period, also keeping cell density constant). We observed a significant decay of the priming response from 120 minutes after H_2O_2 pre-treatment removal (Fig 2), approximately four divisions, suggesting that the priming effect is also trans-generational. After 150 minutes, the survival rate of primed populations no longer differed from naïve populations. Another study has shown long-term memory based on an epigenetic switch that controls a bimodal virulence alternation also in the scale of hours in *E. coli* [19].

How is the state of priming maintained for up to five generations? Bacteria can store information about recent stress via stable transcripts or proteins [19,20].

We investigated the memory at the protein level and initially studied the
impact of priming and trigger concentrations (0.1 and 1 mM) on the proteome
of *E. coli* by quantitative LC-mass spectrometry. We detected many of the
known enzymes that are induced by H_2O_2 just 5 minutes after the addition of
H_2O_2 (Fig 3, and S3 Table and S4 Table). For both concentrations used, we
detected and quantified many proteins belonging to OxyR regulon.
Furthermore, many other genes, such as *ahpC/F*, *xthA* and *suf* operons showed
a weak difference or no response at all. The samples in this experiment were
taken after only 5 minutes of treatment. The rationality behind this design is
that the availability of viable cells after 1 mM H_2O_2 treatment would be too low.
For the dose of 0.1 mM is possible to collect viable cells for any other time-
point after exposure. These results are presented in Fig 4.
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To explore the temporal dynamics of the proteome after a 30-minute stimulus
with H_2O_2 (0.1 mM), we followed the changes over almost 3 hours (five time
points: 30, 60, 90, 120 and 150 minutes). The decline in anti-H_2O_2 protein
levels correlates well with the decrease of the response (Fig 4). Proteins such
as KatG, AhpF or RecA declined slowly after removal of the H_2O_2, consistent
with a sustained production with a minor contribution of dilution due to cell
division and slow degradation rate. These results indicate that many of these
proteins are stable and show a significantly higher abundance than in the
control even at 150 minutes after H_2O_2 treatment. Other proteins such as GrxA,
YaaA and XthA, SufA, SufS, AcrA-AcrB completely declined at this point
indicating that these proteins may be subject to proteolysis and have shorter
half-lives (Fig 4) but also that the stressful situation is alleviated. The overall
results of this proteomic experiment shows that the memory of the priming
response in *E. coli* is mediated by the scavenging proteins such as KatG and
AhpCF. The primary amino acid sequence is informative about the *in vivo* half-
life a protein. A prediction of the half-life for some of the proteins, giving as
that are responsible for the memory additionally supports our findings by the
proteomic approach (S5 Table).
We visualised the global impact of H_2O_2 on bacterial physiology using a network
analysis based on protein-protein and function [21]. The proteome response to

the priming concentration (0.1 mM H_2O_2 during 30 minutes), resulted in a high
degree of connectivity of protein-protein interactions and functional relation of
both, up- and down-regulated proteins (Fig 5). If we compare our network with
a large-scale protein-protein interaction network of *E. coli* [22], we find a wide
perturbation including the most important nodes. This analysis also points to
proteome-wide readjustment to cope with H_2O_2 stress and shows the profound
impact of oxidative stress across the entire proteome in a dose that does not
change the growth rate in a rich medium. One possibility is that although such
H_2O_2 concentration (0.1 mM) can damage iron clusters, bacteria in early
exponential phase obtain most of the energy by fermentation as shown for *E.*
coli previously [17]. This means that at low cell density in rich medium, the
consumption of the resources does not drastically change the medium
properties and it is better for bacteria to use a costly strategy by providing fast
energy via fermentation that supports faster growth compared to aerobic
respiration.

The memory could also be based on long-life transcripts. Therefore, we
sequenced the full transcriptome after exposure to H_2O_2. RNAseq captured both
sRNA and mRNA and we sampled just before the decline of the response (120
minutes after removal the stimulus). The transcript with the greatest induction
was OxyS, a small regulatory RNA (sRNA) induced by active OxyR (S6 Table
and S7 Table). OxyS regulates several genes, and although several targets
have been identified, its function is not fully understood [19]. We did not detect
other transcripts under OxyR regulation.

OxyS is a potential candidate to explain the duration of priming because it is
relatively stable with a half-life between 18 to 20 minutes during the
exponential phase [23–25]. To explore this possibility, we used an *oxyS-*
deficient mutant to test its susceptibility to H_2O_2 over 30 minutes. We did not
find any significant differences in susceptibility (S2 Fig) consistent with prior
reports [24,26,27]. Although OxyS did not provide us with a mechanism to
explain the duration of the memory, its stability could play some role in

alleviating DNA damage as recently suggested [28]. However, such protection
does not seem to have a significant impact on cell survival.

Based on the comparison of proteomic and transcriptomic data we speculate
that the capacity of the cells 'to remember' the stimulus is mainly based on the
stability of scavenging proteins as documented in the proteomic dataset. These
scavenging proteins remain present at higher concentrations than in the
control samples as long as 120 minutes after removal of peroxide. This
indicates that these enzymes are not degraded but probably that their
production continues after the stimulus with a minor impact of proteolysis and
dilution during cell divisions which could explain the pattern that we observe in
the decline of the response. It is important to consider that around 120
minutes, there were still significant levels of KatG and AhpF (compared to $t=0$)
without providing additional protection. Thus, the memory requires the
contributions of many other genes whose relative expression decreased to low
levels after two hours. It is also possible that specific enzymatic activity of both
proteins gets lost, since the proteomic approach is based on protein
identification by sequence, not by activity.

Priming response is compromised by disrupting important H_2O_2-
scavenging genes
The expression of important genes for H_2O_2 stress survival was also confirmed
by qPCR 30 minutes after the addition of the chemical (0.1 mM). We found a
significant up-regulation of selected genes such as *katG*, *ahpF/ahpC*, *dps*, *mntH*
and *sufA* (S3 Fig and S8 Table). As previously described in the literature, *oxyR*
and *fur* do not change in expression level when cells are treated with H_2O_2,
since their activation relies on switching between active or inactive forms of
proteins that depend on the intracellular level of H_2O_2 or iron respectively [6,7].
Many of these transcripts showed a strong induction at the RNA level (S8
Table). After 30 minutes, the level of induction of all genes showed a stronger
response at RNA level than at proteins level. In a normal situation, we would
expect that a single molecule of RNA is translated into several proteins. This
possibly indicates that under oxidative stress, the translation is inefficient and

it is compensated with a high level of transcription probably due to damage of
many cell components, including ribosomes as previously described [29].
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To understand the priming response to H_2O_2 at the molecular level, we
constructed a set of mutants for the coding gene of key proteins pointed by our
proteomic dataset. In proliferating *E. coli*, OxyR is the major regulator
controlling cellular response to H_2O_2 [30]. We explored the involvement of OxyR
in the priming response since many of the differentially expressed proteins
were transcribed in an OxyR-dependent fashion.
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We found that by disrupting OxyR, there was a dramatic change in sensitivity
with full loss of viability after 30 minutes (S2 Fig). The priming response is
completely abolished (Fig 6), indicating that the enhanced survival, due to pre-
exposure to H_2O_2, depends on the regulator OxyR. This regulator is a major
transcription factor that protects *E. coli* against H_2O_2 during the exponential
phase [30,31]. The active form of OxyR positively regulates dozens of genes.
OxyR mutants accumulate ROS at much higher levels than the wild-type strain
during growth even in the absence of H_2O_2 which also accounts for its high
sensitivity [30].
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Next, from the most highly expressed proteins and informed by published work
[6,30], we selected a set of genes which mutants were used to determine their
contribution to survival (Fig S2) and priming (Fig 6). Removal of KatG
(catalase), AhpF (one subunit of the alkyl peroxidase AhpCF) or RecA (DNA
repair) significantly decreased the survival in the presence of H_2O_2 (1 mM). The
double mutant for KatG/AhpF showed even stronger sensitivity. However, the
absence of other important proteins induced by H_2O_2 such as YaaA (decreases
intracellular iron [32]), LipA (lipoate synthase, important for the repair of iron-
sulfur clusters [33]), GltD (glutamate synthase subunit), GhxA or GhrA did not
result in differential survival at 1 mM concentration. The OxyS sRNA was the
transcript with the highest level of induction in the RNAseq data, but the
mutant did not display any increased susceptibility to H_2O_2. Assuming that H_2O_2
sensitivity and the priming response are closely linked, we included in the

additional priming response experiment mainly those genes with increased
susceptibility (Fig 6 and S2 Fig). The removal of KatG indicates that catalase
importantly contributes to the priming response, but it does not fully explain
the protection observed for the WT strain (compare to Fig 1B). In the case of
AhpF, we also observe differences in priming response with the naïve state but
not as pronounced as in the case of KatG-deficient strain. The double mutant
defective in KatG and AhpF showed a dramatic decrease in the priming
response but still significantly different from naïve cells. Recently, a report
showed that bacteria lacking the AhpF/C system suffer a severe post-stress
recovery. The absence of the AhpF/C system also contributes to the lethality of
the mutants probably by the inability of the cell to cope with a low level of ROS
after severe oxidative stress [34]. Another protein that illustrates an important
influence on priming response is RecA, with the mutant showing a decreased
priming response to H_2O_2. The disruption of OxyS gene did not suppress the
priming response or decreased the survival rate compared to the wild-type
control. Overall, our data indicate that the priming by a low dose of H_2O_2 is
multifactorial, with several OxyR-controlled proteins such as KatG, AhpCF or
other factors related to DNA as RecA contributing to the priming response.
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Priming response enhances the survival of evolving populations
To find out whether the priming response described above has an influence on
the rate of evolution of resistance to H_2O_2, we used an experimental evolution
approach. We evolved bacterial cultures with a treatment protocol described in
detail in M&M section. Parallel populations were evolved where one group was
periodically exposed to a sub-lethal concentration of H_2O_2, an activating signal
that should protect the populations in comparison with naïve ones when later
exposed to a higher dose. We continued daily intermittent exposures to H_2O_2
doubling both, priming and triggering concentrations until extinction occurred.
We consider that a population is extinct when it shows no sign of growth during
the next passage. This was also confirmed by periodical contamination checks
after each passage. We observed that the extinction rate was faster for the
naïve populations in comparison to primed populations (Log-rank test, $p < 0.05$,
Fig 7). Naïve cells evolved resistance of up allowing them to resist up 8 mM

H$_2$O$_2$, whereas primed cells evolved resistance to survive up to 16 mM H$_2$O$_2$.
These results show that priming increases the evolvability of pre-treated
populations.

Further analysis of the resistant populations by whole-genome sequencing
revealed that all populations harboured different sets of mutations.
Surprisingly, we did not find any modification in the enzymatic scavenger
systems, such as catalase or any other proteins related to peroxide protection.
There are hundreds of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and other types
of mutations that were unique to each population for both regimes (Fig 8).
These mutations probably represent many of the neutral or non-lethal changes
that populations accumulated during the exposure to H$_2$O$_2$. Here, H$_2$O$_2$ is not
only a selective agent, but it also speeds up evolution by increasing
mutagenesis. At the moment, we cannot be certain about the contribution of all
mutations to H$_2$O$_2$ resistance and they will be subject to detailed studies in the
future. However, we studied two cases of the most frequent mutations in more
details as proof of principle.

One first case is that of very frequent inactivating mutations in *fimE*. The
promoter of the fimbrial subunit gene, *fimA* (the first gene of the operon
fimAICDFGH) lies within a short segment of invertible DNA known as the *fim*
switch (*fimS*), and the orientation of the switch in the chromosome determines
whether *fimA* is transcribed or not. Inversion is catalysed by two site-specific
recombinases, the FimB and FimE proteins. The FimB protein inverts the switch
in either direction, while FimE inverts it predominantly to the off orientation.
When FimB and FimE are co-expressed, FimE activity dominates and the switch
turns to the off phase [35].

We selected one of the many *fimE* defective mutants (Δ1 bp, position 248 out
of 597 nucleotides) for the next experiments. This kind of mutants was only
present in primed populations although there were some other intergenetic
mutations between *fimE→fimA,* both in primed and non-primed populations,
pointing to the relevance of this type of mutations in the survival under H$_2$O$_2$

stress. A series of experiments showed that *fimE* mutant can attach to glass surfaces more efficiently than the wild-type strain. This suggests that the mutant has the fimbriae production active. Besides, the same mutant had a MIC to H_2O_2 of 4 mM in comparison with 1 mM of the parental strain. The transformation of the mutant strain with a plasmid overexpressing *fimE* (pCA24N-*fimE*, GFP minus) [36] reverted the attaching ability (Fig 9) of the mutant but also restored the original resistance to 1 mM H_2O_2. Fimbriae expression *per se* constitutes a signal transduction mechanism that affects several unrelated genes via the thiol-disulfide status of OxyR [37]. Fimbriae formation is accompanied by massive disulfide bridge formation [37] that could also contribute to titration of the exogenous H_2O_2 limiting the intracellular damage.

Following the inversion of the phase switch to 'on state' of fimbriae production by environmental signals, this element can remain phase-locked in the 'on orientation' due to integration of insertion sequence elements at various positions the *fimE* gene [38]. Interestingly, *fim* operon expression allows *E. coli* to attach to abiotic surfaces, host tissues and to survive better inside macrophages protecting against the presence of extracellular antibacterials [39,40]. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) are critical components of the antimicrobial repertoire of macrophages to kill bacteria [41].

A second case that we studied is the intergenic mutations between *insB1* and *flhD (insB1→flhD)*, which were particularly highly frequent in our evolution experiment. FlhD forms an operon with FlhC and both form the master transcriptional factor that regulates transcription of several flagellar and non-flagellar operons by binding to their promoter region [42]. It is known that in *E. coli MG1655,* some insertions sequences such as insB1 can increase the motility of *E. coli* [43]. Our hypothesis here was that mutations in the intergenic region between *insB1 and flhD* contribute to abolishing the positive effect of *insB1* insertions on motility, which in turn increases resistance to hydrogen peroxide.

We first analysed whether mutants from our evolution experiment showing
these mutations had a decreased motility. Two independent mutants (positions
1978493 nt, Δ10bp and 1978504 nt, Δ1 bp) from two different populations
showed decreased swimming and increased sedimentation when culture tubes
were not shaken, as was the case of the evolution experiment setup. Both
mutants showed also a MIC of 4 mM to H_2O_2, while control had a MIC of 1 mM
H_2O_2. The transformation with a plasmid overexpressing the operon *flhDC*
(pVN15) restored both motility and H_2O_2 sensitivity (Fig 10). These mutations
may protect against H_2O_2 through the mechanism of decreased motility, which
results in an uneven distribution of the cells at the bottom of the culture and
creates a sinking effect for H_2O_2.

A second possibility is that the decrease of motility itself decreases the basal
level of hydrogen peroxide due to lower metabolic demand. Flagellar motility
enables bacteria to escape from detrimental conditions and to reach more
favourable environments [43]. However, flagella impose an important energetic
burden for bacterial metabolism by the many proteins involved in the
machinery and the energy spending. For instance, one interesting study
showed improved tolerance to oxidative stress in *Pseudomonas putida* as
reflected by an increased NADPH/NADP(+) ratio, concluding that flagellar
motility represents the archetypal tradeoff involved in acquiring environmental
advantages at the cost of a considerable metabolic burden [44]. In our
condition of oxidative stress, flagellate phenotype makes the cells more
susceptible to hydrogen peroxide. These results raise an interesting question in
regards to the motile vs non-motile strategy in bacteria: does flagellar activity
bring diminishing returns by creating susceptibility to oxidative stress? This
could have an impact on bacterial lifestyle and evolution of motility.

We can speculate about the role of some other mutations. For example, a set
of changes are located in genes coding for iron-binding proteins or related with
iron transport such as *iceT*, *feoA, yaaX*/*yaaA* or *rsxC*. The control of intracellular
iron is crucial to decrease the adverse effects of Fenton chemistry [7].

There were also mutations that were common to both types of population,
evolved under priming and non-priming conditions (Fig 8). The most frequent
mutations were *yodB* (a cytochrome b561 homologue), intergenic mutations
between *insA* and *uspC* (universal stress protein C). Another frequent mutation
was in the gene *yagH*, belonging to the CP4-6 prophage. CP4-6 is a cryptic
prophage in *E. coli* that could play a role in bacterial survival under adverse
environmental conditions [45].

Priming alters the mutational spectrum and H_2O_2-induced mutagenesis
in evolving populations
To assess if the evolved populations have a similar mutational spectrum, we
analysed the total pool of mutations segregated by the treatments. We used
the Monte Carlo hypergeometric test implemented by iMARS [46] to assess the
overall differences between each mutational spectrum. Both groups, evolved
under priming and non-priming conditions, differed from each other
significantly ($p=0.00021$). ROS induces a particular type of mutations, with a
characteristic signature in the DNA. The guanine base in genomic DNA is highly
susceptible to oxidative stress due to its low oxidation potential. Therefore,
$G·C→T·A$ and $G·C→C·G$ transversion mutations frequently occur under oxidative
conditions [47,48]. Thus, we investigated the proportion of C→A and C→G
substitutions between the two types of evolving regimes, but we did not find
significant differences ($p=0.056$ and $p=0.11$ respectively, two-tailed Fisher's
exact-test, Fig 11).

A possible explanation for these results is that the pre-activation of antioxidant
defences helps to decrease the number of non-adaptive mutations and lethality
by decreasing the extent to which the Fenton reaction occurs and the amount
of released hydroxyl radicals. We observed an increase in the frequency of
substitutions G→A, T→C, G→C, T→G and A→G in naïve populations compared to
primed populations, indicating that the priming response greatly buffers DNA-
damage. Primed populations showed an increased frequency of frameshift
mutations by deletion of 1 bp, and additions of C or G; only present in primed

populations that also showed, not exclusively, a higher number of A→C
substitutions.
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We hypothesised that the priming response would decrease DNA damage and
hence also the rate of lethal mutations. To assess this possibility, we tested if
priming can decrease the mutant frequency and hence lethality due to
mutagenesis. Applying the conditions of the previous experiments, we
determined the mutant frequency with and without H_2O_2 treatment. We found
that the priming response decreased H_2O_2-induced mutant frequency close to
one order of magnitude compared to naïve cells ($p<0.001$ primed versus naïve,
Welch's test, S4 Fig). In addition, there is a very small (1.87 fold-change) but
significant difference between primed bacteria and the basal *E. coli*
mutagenesis ($p=0.03$ primed versus base level, Welch's test), indicating that
priming suppresses most of the mutagenesis caused by H_2O_2. In our
experiment, naïve and primed populations showed different death rates (Fig 1).
We also showed previously that different inoculum sizes in similar conditions to
our current experiment do not influence mutagenesis [49]. We propose that
one of the most important consequences of the priming response to H_2O_2 is a
drastic decrease in lethal mutagenesis. Although H_2O_2 damages most of the
cellular components [7], DNA damage is likely the major contributor to
lethality.
515
In principle, an increase in mutation rate increases the evolvability of asexual
populations [50–52]. How is it possible that naïve populations show lower
evolvability compared to primed populations despite a higher mutation rate? A
possible explanation is that evolvability can be influenced by the population
size and the mutation supply. Even with an increased mutagenesis, if
population size drastically decreases, the final number of mutants can be
smaller when survival is improved. We also found that the mutational spectra
of our evolving populations are different. Mutational spectra are a qualitative
property of mutation rate that could enhance or hinder the access to beneficial
mutations [53–55]. It is possible that the observed changes in mutational
spectra between primed and naïve evolving populations could play a role in

balancing the ratio of deleterious/beneficial mutations, although demonstrating
this will be subject of future research.

Conclusions

We found that priming by H_2O_2 in exponentially growing bacteria is
quantitatively driven by genes that are mostly under OxyR control. Some other
genes such as *recA* also contribute to survival. The memory of the priming
response can last up to four generations upon first exposure to H_2O_2 taking into
account the time after addition of the stressor and number of divisions. We also
showed high stability of H_2O_2 detoxifying proteins which play a significant role
in resistance. Moreover, we found that priming boosts evolvability of bacterial
populations by enhancing the survival under oxidative stress, providing a link
between the phenotype as a target of selection during evolutionary processes
and supplies a validation for the 'plasticity-first' hypothesis [4]. The type and
number of mutations indicate that scavenger systems against oxidative stress
are optimally evolved since no mutations affecting these systems were found
under H_2O_2 stress selective pressure.

Material and methods

Bacteria and growth conditions. *E. coli* MG1655 was used as bacterial model for all experiments with H_2O_2. For genetic manipulation, *Escherichia coli* DH5α strain was used and routinely cultured in Lysogeny Broth (LB medium), supplemented with antibiotics when appropriate. All bacterial strains were cultured in Lysogeny Broth Lenox (Carl Roth, Germany). For all experiments with H_2O_2 the LB was freshly prepared and kept in the dark until use.

Construction and verification of deletion mutants. All mutants used in this work (S9 Table) were generated in *E. coli* K-12 strain MG1655 following a modified methodology described elsewhere [56]. Briefly, transformants carrying the red recombinase helper plasmid, pKD46, were grown in 5-ml SOB medium with ampicillin (100 µg/ml) and L-arabinose at 30°C to an OD_{600} of ~0.5 and then made electrocompetent. PCR products with homology regions were generated using specific primers (S10 Table) to amplify the region of interest from using the corresponding mutants of the Keio collection [57]. The PRC-generated fragments were purified (MinElute PCR Purification Kit, Qiagen). Competent cells in 50 µl aliquots were electroporated with 100 ng of PCR product. Cells were added immediately to 0.9 ml of SOC, incubated 1 h at 37°C, and then 100 µl aliquots spread onto LB agar with kanamycin (30 µg/ml). The mutants were verified by PCR and the antibiotic resistance cassette was removed using the plasmid pCP20. The correct inactivation of genes was verified by PCR. To construct double mutants, single mutants obtained in MG1655 were transduced using the P1vir phage procedure as previously described [58].

Hydrogen peroxide susceptibility testing. We determined the minimal inhibitory concentration for H_2O_2 by broth microdilution method with some modifications. We used LB medium instead of Mueller-Hinton Broth and we used approximately 10^7 bacteria instead of 10^5, a bacterial density that corresponds to the subsequent experiments. When working with H_2O_2, we carried out all experiments with freshly-made LB to avoid the accumulation of

chemically formed H_2O_2 by the joint action of light and flavin [59] present in the

medium during storage. Time-kill curves to H_2O_2 were determined by exposing

exponential phase bacteria at a density of ~ $2x10^7$ CFU/ml to different

concentrations and times, taking as a reference the modified MIC value.

Priming experiments with H_2O_2. Starting from $2x10^7$ CFU/ml, *E. coli* was

exposed (stimulus) to 0.1 mM of H_2O_2 during 30 minutes at 37°C with shaking.

The H_2O_2 was removed by centrifugation at 4000 x g for 10 minutes and cells

were allowed to recover during 90 minutes, keeping the cell density constant

by removing the required volume and replacing it with the appropriate amount

of fresh pre-warmed-LB (37°C) every 30 minutes. The trigger (1 mM H_2O_2) was

added 90 minutes after removal of the stimulus. The challenge lasted for 30

minutes. At this point, 4 µg/ml catalase (Sigma Aldrich, Germany) was added to

each tube and cultures were diluted and plated to determine cell viability. Non-

treated cells were used as control. Each groups consisted of five cultures.

Determination of the priming cost. Bacterial growth curves were carried

out in flat-bottom 96-well micro-plates (Nunc, Denmark). Fourty independent

colonies from a LB agar plate were inoculated in a 96 multi-well plate

containing 200 µl/well of LB and incubated overnight at 37 °C in a humid

chamber to prevent evaporation. In a new plate, each well was filled with 100

µl of fresh-made LB and inoculated per duplicate with 1 µl from the overnight

plate (80 wells in total). The remaining 16 wells were used as medium

contamination control. The plate was incubated for 2.5 hours to reach an OD_{600}

of 0.4. Then, 90 µl of medium per well were removed and replaced with 80 µl of

fresh LB using a multichannel pipette. Ten additional microlitres containing 1

mM H_2O_2 were added to every 40 wells and mixed immediately. Only LB was

added to the remaining 40 control wells. Each independent colony was

represented in both experimental groups. The plate was placed into a

microplate reader Synergy H1 (Biotek, Germany) and kinetic reading (OD_{600})

were carried out every 20 minutes after short shaking of 5 seconds. The cost of

priming by H_2O_2 (0.1 mM) was estimated from the parameters of the growth

curves. All model parameters —carrying capacity, initial population size, growth

rate, doubling time and the empirical area under the curve— were calculated
using Growthcurver R pakage [60]. Each parameter for *E. coli* MG1655 growing
with or without 0.1 mM H_2O_2 (priming concentration), was compared using
Student's t-test.

Hydrogen peroxide colourimetric quantitation in *E. coli* supernatant
media. Pierce™ Quantitative Peroxide Assay Kit (Thermo Scientific, Germany)
was used according to manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, *E. coli* cells were
grown in fresh LB (Lennox) medium to OD_{595} 0.5. The cultures were diluted 10
times in 1 ml of fresh LB containing 0.1 mM H_2O_2 (final concentration, primed)
or LB alone (naïve). The tubes were incubated with moderate shaking for 30
minutes. Then, the supernatant was removed by centrifugation at 10000 x g
during 1 minute and aspiration. The pellets were washed once with LB and
recovered repeating the same operation of aspiration-centrifugation. Then, the
pellets were resuspended by pipetting in 1 ml of LB containing 1 mM H_2O_2 and
100 µl of supernatant were taken at time points 0, 15 and 30 minutes, the cells
were removed and the medium used to determine H_2O_2 concentration. Finally,
20 µl microlitres of medium supernatant per tube were diluted 10 times and
mixed in a 96-well microplate with 200 µl of working solution (prepared
according to the manufacturer's instructions). The mix was incubated at room
temperature for 15 minutes in a humid chamber. OD_{600} was measured using a
Synergy H1 plate reader (Biotek, Germany) and a standard curve of H_2O_2 was
prepared as indicated in the protocol. The blank value (working without H_2O_2)
was automatically subtracted from all sample measurements. Three
independent cultures were used per group and non-treated cultures were used
as an additional control. Means and standard deviations were calculated and
compared for each time-point by a Welch's test.

Memory of the priming response. After applying a stimulus (0.1 mM H_2O_2)
for 30 minutes, the cells were allowed to recover for 30, 60, 90, 120 and 150
minutes before the addition of the trigger concentration (1 mM H_2O_2). During
the experiment, the OD_{600} of all cultures were kept around 0.05 by adding
suitable volume and removal of equivalent quantity to maintain the population

in the exponential phase and the same population size. Bacteria remained
exposed to the trigger for 30 minutes before starting the dilution in 1 ml of LB
containing 4 µg of catalase. Appropriate dilutions were made and plated onto
LB agar to determine the survival rate.
663
Global proteomics by LC-mass spectrometry. *E. coli* strain MG1655 was
grown at 37°C in LB medium to an OD_{600} of 0.5. The cultures were diluted 10
times in fresh LB. H_2O_2 was added to tubes to final concentrations of 0.1 and 1
mM. Non treated samples were used as control. All tubes were incubated for 5
minutes with shaking at 37°C. Remaining H_2O_2 was removed by adding 4 µg/ml
of catalase first and by centrifugation at 10000 x g during 2 minutes. After
removal of the supernatant, the equivalent amount of fresh LB was added. For
the memory decline experiment, the procedure was identical, except that only
0.1 mM H_2O_2 was used and the samples were treated for 30 minutes. After
removal of the treatment, samples were taken after 30, 60, 90, 120 and 150
minutes. Each experimental condition consisted of six replicates. One millilitre
per sample was pelleted by centrifugation at 10000 x g for 2 minutes. The cells
were resuspended in 50 µl of TE (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA)
containing chicken lysozyme (0.1 mg/ml, Sigma Aldrich, Germany) and
incubated at room temperature for 5 minutes with occasional swirling. A
volume of 250 µl of denaturation buffer (6M urea/2 M thiourea in 10 mM HEPES
pH 8.0) was added into each sample. Then, 25 µl per sample (which
approximately corresponds to 50 µg of protein) of the resulting lysate were
used for in-solution protein digestion as described previously [61]. Briefly,
proteins, demobilised in denaturation buffer, were reduced by the addition of 1
µl of 10 mM DTT dissolved in 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate (ABC) and
incubated for 30 minutes, followed by 20-minute alkylation reaction with 1 µl of
55 mM iodoacetamide. As first digestion step, Lysyl endopeptidase (LysC,
Wako, Japan) resuspended in 50 mM ABC was added to each tube in a ration of
1 µg per 50 µg of total proteins and incubated for 3 hours. After pre-digestion
with LysC, protein samples were diluted four times with 50 mM ABC and
subjected to overnight trypsin digestion using 1 µg/rection of sequencing grade
modified trypsin (Promega, USA), also diluted before use in 50 mM ABC. All in-

solution protein digestion steps were performed at room temperature. After the
addition of iodoacetamide, the samples were protected from the light until the
digestion was stopped by acidification adding 5% acetonitrile and 0.3%
trifluoroacetic acid (final concentrations). The samples were micro-purified and
concentrated using the Stage-tip protocol described elsewhere [61], and the
eluates were vacuum dried. Re-dissolved samples were loaded on a ReprosilPur
C18 reverse phase column and peptides were analysed using a nano-HPLC
Dionex Ultimate 3000 system (Thermo Scientific, Germany) coupled to an
Orbitrap Velos mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific, Germany). MS and
MS/MS data from each LC/MS run were analysed with MaxQuant software [62].
Identification of proteins was performed using the MaxQuant implemented
Andromeda peptide search engine and statistic analysis was carried out using
the software Perseus [63].

Prediction of *in vivo* protein half-life and stability index. The half-life
estimation is a prediction of the time that takes for half of the amount of
protein in a cell to disappear after its synthesis. It relies on the "N-end rule" (for
a review see [64–67]). The instability index provides an estimate of the stability
of a protein in a test tube. Based on experimental data [68], making possible to
compute an instability index using the primary amino acid sequence. For these
predictions, we used the online software ProtParam [69]. When available, N-
end sequence was corrected to the real *in vivo* sequence due to methionine
excision [70].

Quantification of gene expression. To assess the quality of H_2O_2 stress
related genes in *E. coli*, treated bacteria comparison with 0.1 mM H_2O_2 were
compared to the non-treated control. Preparation of each of the six treatments
and the control samples were carried out by two operators three times on three
consecutive days, thereby comprising three biological replicates for each of the
six experimental and one control groups. Overnight (ON) cultures were diluted
1:100 in fresh LB, subdivided into six 10 ml aliquots and incubated in 50 ml-
Falcon tubes at 37°C for 2.5 hours at 220 r.p.m. When the OD_{600} reached 0.4-
0.5, the cultures were diluted 10 times with LB and H_2O_2 was added to the final

concentrations of 0.1 mM. These bacterial cultures were incubated for 30 minutes at 37°C with shaking. Catalase was added to each tube to a final concentration of 4 µg/ml. Ten millilitres of treated and control cultures were collected, immediately centrifuged at 10000 x g for 2 minutes and the supernatant was fully removed. The bacterial pellets were resuspended in 1 ml LB and mixed with 1 ml of RNAprotect Bacteria Reagent (Qiagen, Germany), incubated during 2 minutes and centrifuged at 10000 x g for 2 minutes at room temperature. The supernatant was discarded and the bacterial pellet was immediately frozen and stored at -80°C until RNA extraction.

RNA was isolated using RNeasy kit (Qiagen, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions and eluted in 50 µl of RNase-free water. The nucleic acid yield and purity were determined by measuring the optical density at A260/280 using Nanodrop spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific). RNA samples were treated with TURBO DNase (Life Technologies, Germany). Briefly, 10 µg of RNA were used in a total volume of 500 µl containing 20 units of TURBO DNase, incubated for 30 minutes at 37°C, immediately followed by RNeasy (Qiagen, Germany) clean-up and elution in 30 µl of RNase-free water. Following DNase treatment, RNA integrity was assessed using Agilent RNA 6000 Nano kit and 2100 Bioanalyzer instrument (both Agilent Technologies, USA). All samples had RIN values above 8.

For cDNA synthesis, total RNA (250 ng per reaction) and random primers were used for cDNA synthesis using High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit with RNase Inhibitor (Applied Biosystems, Germany). Initially, to ensure linear conversion of the transcripts, the dynamic range of reverse transcription reaction was tested by performing a standard curve with cDNA, synthesised using various input amounts of pooled RNA. To obtain a sufficient amount of cDNA, several batches of 20 µl RT reactions were pooled, diluted 50-fold with RNase-free water and stored in single-use aliquots at -80°C until further use. All 21 samples were tested for presence of contaminating genomic DNA by running the *mdoG* assay with cDNA and the respective no reverse transcription (-RT) controls. There was no amplification in the majority of –RT controls. In –RT

samples with detectable amplification, difference in Ct values when compared with +RT varied between the samples, but was no less than 10 cycles for all of them with the lowest Ct values in –RT control samples ≥ 30.

For primer design, *Escherichia coli* strain K-12 MG1655 complete genome (accession U00096) sequence was downloaded from NCBI database (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov) and used as reference. Target sequence accession number, and primer sequences for each assay can be found in S11 Table. Primers were designed using Primer Express software (Applied Biosystems, Germany) and optimised for annealing temperature of 60°C. Each primer pair and amplicon were checked for secondary structure formation using Oligo Tool (Integrated DNA technologies, USA, http://eu.idtdna.com/analyzer/Applications/OligoAnalyzer/).

Quantitative Real-time PCR reactions were prepared manually in a total volume of 10 μl by mixing 5 μl 2x KAPA SYBR FAST ABI Prism master mix (KAPA Biosystems, Germany), 0.2 μl forward and reverse primer mix (10 μM each primer), 2.8 μl RNase-free water and 2 μl cDNA in MicroAmp Fast Optical 48-wells reaction plates (Applied Biosystems, Germany). PCR reactions were set up in the Fast mode using StepOne thermocycler (Applied Biosystems, Germany) with the following cycling conditions: 95°C 3', 40x(95°C 3'', 60°C 20''), melting curve analysis. Each assay was run in duplicate. No template controls (NTC) were included each time. Presence of a single specific product was verified by running a melt curve analysis followed by visualisation of the qPCR product in a 2% agarose gel stained with SYBR Safe DNA Gel stain (Life Technologies). Additionally, each PCR assay was tested for reaction efficiency as follows: equimolar amounts of cDNA from all 21 samples were pooled together and used for the preparation of the standard curve by serial dilution (1:3) over five dilution points and run in triplicate. Expression of target genes was normalised to the expression levels of three reference genes (*arcA*, *mdoG* and *tus*), selected based on the assessment of the expression stability across all experimental conditions using BestKeeper software [71]. Reaction efficiency information inferred from the standard curve data was used to correct for

differences in amplification efficiencies in the REST 2009 software [72]. Default
settings (2000 iterations) were used for randomisation and bootstrapping
analysis to test significance of gene expression. Expression values with p-
values ≤0.05 were assigned as differentially expressed. We followed the
Minimum Information for Publication of Quantitative Real-Time PCR
experiments (MIQE) guidelines-compliant check-list [73].

For data analysis, qPCR Amplification curves were first visually examined in the
StepOne software (Applied Biosystems, Germany). No baseline and threshold
line adjustments were necessary. Ct values of the technical replicates were
averaged and used for relative gene expression analysis in the REST 2009
software (Qiagen, Germany) [72]. Expression of target genes was normalised
to the expression levels of three reference genes (*arcA*, *mdoG* and *tus*),
selected based on the assessment of the expression stability across all
experimental conditions using BestKeeper software [71]. Reaction efficiency
information inferred from the standard curve data was used to correct for
differences in amplification efficiencies in the REST 2009 software. Default
settings (2000 iterations) were used for randomisation and bootstrapping
analysis to test significance of gene expression. Expression values with p-
values ≤0.05 were assigned as differentially expressed. We followed the
Minimum Information for Publication of Quantitative Real-Time PCR
experiments (MIQE) guidelines-compliant check-list [73].

Transcriptome sequencing. The transcriptome sequence was carried out on
samples treated with 0.1 mM H_2O_2 during the experiment of memory decline.
The time point used corresponded to 120 minutes after removal of the
treatment. Bacterial cells that were kept in low density (0.05 OD_{600}) were
concentrated 10 times and the pellets were resuspended in 1 ml of lysis buffer.
Both, small RNA fraction and the large one were isolated using the microRNA &
small RNA Isolation kit (Thermo Scientific, Germany). Traces of genomic DNA
were removed from 10 µg of RNA by digestion in a total volume of 500 µl
containing 20 units of TURBO DNase, incubated for 30 minutes at 37°C,
immediately followed by RNeasy (Qiagen, Germany) clean-up and elution in 30

µl of RNase-free water. Following DNase treatment, RNA integrity was assessed
using Agilent RNA 6000 Nano kit and 2100 Bioanalyzer instrument (both
Agilent Technologies, USA). Both fractions were depleted from ribosome RNA
using the Ribo-Zero depletion Kit for Gram-negative bacteria (Illumina, USA).
Libraries were prepared using a TruSeq Stranded Total RNA library preparation
kit (Illumina, USA) and were sequenced on a MiSeq platform. All sequences are
available from the NCBI SRA under BioProject accession PRJNA485867.

Evolution experiment. Before the beginning of the experiment, five
independent clones of *E. coli* MG1655 were pre-adapted to the experimental
conditions such as culture medium, temperature and oxygen level. The pre-
adaptation was carried out by diluting an overnight culture of each clone
1:1000 followed by incubation at 37°C in the plate reader with the same
shaking conditions used during the rest of the experiment in 0.2 ml in fresh-
made LB. The bacteria were cultured by serial passage every 24 hours using a
bottleneck of 1% (1/100 dilution) to allow for approximately fifty generations
during 10 days. Contamination checks by plating out on LB and
cryopreservation of culture aliquots at -80°C in LB containing 15% glycerol
solution were carried out periodically. All lines showed similar fitness and five
independent colonies (one per line) were selected for the evolution experiment.
The experiment was performed at 37°C with periodical shaking in a microplate
reader (Synergy H1, Biotek, Germany). We used flat-bottom polystyrene 96-
well plates which lids had anti-evaporation rings (Greiner Bio-One, Germany). A
final volume of 200 µl per well was used. Growth curves were generated by
taking measurements of OD_{600} every 20 minutes (preceded by a brief shaking
of 5 seconds). Every day, the experiment consisted of two stages. Every
morning a V-bottom plate containing 190 µl of LB was inoculated with 2 µl of
overnight culture and incubated for 2 hours to reach an OD_{600} between 0.2 to
0.6. At this point, 3 µl of LB containing the corresponding priming concentration
of H_2O_2 (for populations to be primed) or only LB (control populations) were
added to each well. The plate was then incubated for 30 minutes, centrifuged
and the supernatant removed using a Costar 8-channel vacuum aspirator
(purchased from Sigma Aldrich, Germany) equipped with disposable tips. The

pellets were resuspended in 200 μl of fresh LB and 190 μl were transferred to a
new flat-bottom plate. Cells were allowed to recover for 30 minutes at 37 °C
and challenged with a ten-fold higher concentration of the priming one. The
dish was placed in the plate reader and the growth was followed as described
above during 20 hours. The serial passage started at 50 μM of H_2O_2. Next day,
the procedure was identical for priming and triggering concentrations that were
doubled every 24 hours to reach a final challenging concentration (trigger) of
32 mM H_2O_2 where all bacterial population went extinct. Before each passage,
20 μl per population were added to 180 μl of sterile 0.9% NaCl and then serially
diluted, plated and inspected for contamination and population extinction.

DNA isolation. Genomic DNA samples for whole genome sequencing were
isolated using in house method based on fast phenol:chloroform extraction,
removal of RNA and ethanol precipitation. The DNA quantity and quality were
estimated by measuring the optical density at A260/280 using a Nanodrop
2000 (Thermo Scientific, Germany) and agarose gel electrophoresis.

Genome re-sequencing. We sequenced the total genomic DNA coming from
sixty populations from the evolution experiment, all from the previous passage
before extinction (20 evolved from the priming regime, 20 from the non-
priming regime and 20 control strains). TruSeq DNA PCR-free libraries were
constructed according to the manufacturer's instructions and sequenced for
600 cycles using a MiSeq at the Berlin Center for Genomics in Biodiversity
Research. Sequence data are available from the NCBI SRA under BioProject
accession PRJNA485867. The haploid variant calling pipeline snippy [74] was
used to identify mutations in the selection lines. Snippy uses bwa [75] to align
reads to the reference genome and identifies variants in the resulting
alignments using FreeBayes [76]. All variants were independently verified
using a second computational pipeline, breseq [77].

Determination of H_2O_2-induced mutagenesis. This procedure was carried
out following similar protocols to previous studies with some modifications
[78,79]. Five independent cultures (5 ml each one) of *E. coli* MG1655 were

grown in fresh LB medium to an OD_{600} of ~0.2. Then, each culture was diluted
10 times (volume was increased to 50 ml) with LB and divided into two
separate sets of 25 ml per culture each one. One set, consisting of five cultures
of 25 ml was treated with 0.1 mM H_2O_2 (primed) while the second set of culture
remained untreated (naïve). After 30 minutes, both cultures were treated with
1 mM H_2O_2 during another 30 minutes. Then, H_2O_2 was removed, first, by
quickly adding 4 µl/ml of catalase and, second, by collecting the cells by
centrifugation and washing them with one ml of fresh LB. Another set of tubes
received no treatment and were used to determine the basal frequency of
mutants. For determination of H_2O_2-induced mutation frequency, a 4 ml tube of
fresh LB was inoculated with 1 ml of washed bacteria from each culture. The
cultures were allowed to recover overnight for 16 h at 37°C. Serial dilutions of
each culture were plated next day onto LB plates containing 100 µg/ml of
rifampicin or without antibiotic to estimate the viability. The three groups were
compared among them using a Welch's test.

Attachment assays. Attachment assays of an *E. coli* mutant in *fimE* and
control strains to microscope glass slides were investigated. The experiment
consisted in dipping sterile microscope slides into 50 ml Falcon tubes
containing 10 ml of mid-exponential phase cultures of *E. coli* (0.5 OD_{600}), five
culture for each group. The slides were incubated during 1 hour. In the last 10
minutes of the incubation, 10 µl of the LIVE/DEAD® BacLight™ Bacterial
Viability Kit (Thermo Scientific, Germany) was added to each culture following
the instructions of the manufacturer. The slides were mounted with a glass
coverslip and fluorescent images were taken of several fields with a
simultaneous acquisition in red and green fluorescent channels with a Nikon Ti-
2 inverted microscope (Nikon, Japan). Cells were observed with the 100×
objective and controlled by Nis Element AR software.

Bacterial swimming assay. Swimming motility of mutants in the upstream
region of *fldhC* and their complementation analysis were carried out on
swimming plates containing swimming medium (0.5% bacto-tryptone and 0.3%
agar, both from Sigma Aldrich, Germany). Briefly, 1 ml of overnight cultures per

strain was centrifuged and resuspended in their supernatant adjusting their final OD_{600} to 4. From these OD-adjusted cultures, 2 µl from each one were inoculated into the swimming plates in pairs and bacteria were allowed to grow and swim for 4 h at 37°C. For complementation we used the plasmid pVN15 (pBAD24 carrying *flhDC* operon genes) and the vector pBAD24 was used as control [80]. For contrast purposes, another 5 ml of swimming medium containing 0.25 mM isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) and 4 µg/ml 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl β-D-galactopyranoside (X-gal) were added carefully covering the entire surface of each plate. After the top layer solidification, the plates were incubated for 15 minutes at 37°C and 1 hour at 4°C before taking photographs. The combination of IPTG and X-gal turn the swimming surface into blue colour.

Statistical analysis. For point-to-point comparisons in sensitivity and priming killing curves a Welch's test was used. Growth curve analysis was carried out using the Growthcurver package for R. For survival analysis we used a log-rank test. Some specific analyses are mentioned elsewhere in the manuscript. All tests were performed with software R [81] except mutational spectrum analysis that was implemented using the *ad hoc* software iMars [46].

Acknowledgements. We would like to thank Heidrun Häweker and Elisa Bittermann for help with library preparations and technical assistance. We are grateful to Drs Gisela Storz (NIH, Bethesda, USA) and Karen Fahrner (Harvard University, Boston, USA) for kindly supplying the strains of E. coli OxyS deficient mutant and the plasmid carrying FlhDC operon respectively. We also thank to Francesca Zucchetti Villagarcía for valuable help with the proofreading of the article.

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 Legend to the figures

 Fig 1. Hydrogen peroxide killing curves of *E. coli* MG1655. Panel A shows
 bacterial sensitivity to 1 mM H_2O_2 with a strong dose-response effect
 ($p=2.1x10^{-16}$, DRC model fitted based on maximum likelihood). Panel B shows
 the priming effect or improved response when cells are treated in advance with
 a non-lethal dose (0.1 mM). Curves represent the mean of five independent
 cultures per time point. Asterisks represent significant differences (Welch's
 test, one asterisk for $p<0.05$ and two asterisks for $p<0.01$). Only comparison
 between primed and non-primed groups are shown.

 Fig 2. During memory decline experiment, the viability of the cells remains
 unaltered before the addition of the trigger (A). The priming memory declined
 over time after induction of priming response with H_2O_2 0.1 mM (trigger) (B).
 Asterisks indicate significant differences between each time-point pair (Welch's
 test, one asterisk for $p<0.05$ and two asterisks for $p<0.01$).

 Fig 3. Heatmap of relative protein expression based on quantitative label-free
 quantification by liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry (LC-MS).
 Hierarchical clustering of the intensities was performed by using Euclidean
 distances between means. Rows indicate the fluctuation of protein (by gene
 names) level at 5 minutes after adding of 0.1 and 1 mM H_2O_2. Intensity ranges
 of the log2 fold-changes are given from highest intensity (green) to lowest
 (red). Only the 50 most statistically significant up-regulated proteins are
 shown, taking as a reference the 0.1 mM concentration.

 Fig 4. Heatmap of relative protein expression based on quantitative label-free
 quantification by liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry (LC-MS).
 Hierarchical clustering of the intensities was performed by using Euclidean
 distances between means. Rows indicate the fluctuation of protein (by gene
 names) level at different time points. Intensity ranges of the log2 fold-changes
 are given from highest intensity (green) to lowest (red). Only the most 50
 statistically significant up-regulated proteins at time point T1 (30 minutes after

1240   priming) are represented to follow their fluctuation in the other time points with
1241   30 minutes between them.

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Fig 5. Projection of differentially translated proteins 30 minutes after addition
of H_2O_2 on protein-protein interaction network of *E. coli* K12. Pale green nodes
indicate up-regulated proteins while pale red ones represent down-regulated
ones. Note that the most critical nodes (DnaK and GloL) of the protein-protein
interaction network are affected. The interaction among nodes shows the wide-
proteome impact of H_2O_2.

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1250   **Fig 6**. Priming experiments of different mutants of *E. coli* MG1655 in
1251   responsive genes to oxidative stress. Asterisks represent significant differences
1252   (Welch's test, one asterisk for $p<0.05$ and two asterisks for $p<0.01$). Only
1253   comparison between primed and non-primed groups are shown.

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Fig 7. Proportion of population extinctions (20 populations per treatment) due
to exposure to growing concentration of H_2O_2 during experimental evolution of
40 individual populations. Note that every passage was carried out every 24
hours although time in the x-axis is represented as continuous. Both, priming
and triggering doses were increased twofold daily up to 32 mM, where total
extinction was reached. The extinction was perceived by negative growth in
the next passage and by the absence of growth in LB plates during
contamination controls. Evolvability differs between the two treatments, naïve
and primed populations (Log-rank test, $p< 0.01$).

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Fig 8. Mapping of mutations that are unique to each H_2O_2-evolved population
shared ones. The positions indicate the approximate locations of mutations in
the *E. coli* MG1655 chromosome relative to the wild-type. Different types of
mutations that were found in both evolving regimes are indicated in the left
panel highlighted with different colours (non-synonymous amino acid changes
in yellow, intergenic mutations in green and frameshift in red). The right panel
indicates mutations that were common for both regimes one regime (grey) and

those that are exclusive for the priming regime (blue). To see full reports of
mutation for each population see supplementary material.

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Fig 9. Representative fluorescent micrograph of attachment to a glass by *E.*
coli MG1655 and its derivative mutant *fimE* (Δ1 bp, position 248 out of 597
nucleotides) of mid-exponetial cultures to microscope glass slide. The image
were taken after short incubation a vital staining (LIVE/DEAD® BacLight™
Bacterial Viability Kit). Top panel shows bacterial attachment to glass thanks
to the inactivation of *fimE*, which phenotype is complemented and recovers the
lower glass attachment activity of the wild-type strain (down panel).
Additionally, the strain transformed with the plasmid pCA24N-*fimE* also
recovers the original resistance to H_2O_2, that turns from 4 to 1 mM. In both
panels control cells (transformed with the cloning vector pCA24N) can be also
observed.

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Fig 10. Motility test of *E. coli* MG1655 and its derivative mutants in the
intergenic region between *insB1* and *flhD (insB1→flhD,* positions 1978493 nt,
Δ10bp and 1978504 nt, Δ1 bp). Panel A shows the initial phenotypes of
insB1→flhD mutants, low motility and resistance to 4 mM H_2O_2 while the
parental strain is motile with a MIC of 4 mM H_2O_2. A complementation
experiment showed identical phenotypes when the strains were transformed
with the cloning vector (panel B) and recovery of motility and original
resistance to 1 mM H_2O_2 when both mutants are transformed with the plasmid
overexpressing the operon *flhDC* [80] (panel C).

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Fig 11. Mutational spectra. Frequencies of different types of mutations among
evolved populations of both primed and no-primed conditions. The number of
mutations (nucleotide substitutions and indels) is plotted against respective
nucleotide positions within the gene fragment. In this analysis, the mutations
were taken by type regardless of the targets by generating two frequency
datasets to compare frequency by type of mutation of evolved populations
under priming and non-priming regimes. The mutational spectra are

significantly different between the two conditions according to the spectrum analysis software iMARS [46].

Supporting Information Legends

S1 Fig. Growth curves of *E. coli* cells treated with 0.1 mM H_2O_2 and non-treated ones (control). Panel A represents a graphical model fitting of individual curves plotted by Growthcurver R package [60]. Panel B shows the average growth curves from 40 independent replicas per each situation (0.1 mM H_2O_2 versus control).

S2 Fig. Sensitivity of a selected set of mutants in relevant genes of *E. coli* MG1655 that presented an increased level of expression as part of priming response. Asterisks represent significant differences between the wild-type (wt) strain and its derivatives mutants (Welch's test, one asterisk for $p<0.05$ and two asterisks for $p<0.01$)

S3 Fig. Relative gene expression for *E. coli* MG1655 OxyR regulon selected genes in treatments with 0.1 mM H_2O_2 versus non-treated bacteria. Cells were collected 30 minutes after exposure. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean of three independent biological replicas, biological replica is the average of three technical repetitions.

S4 Fig. Boxplot showing the H_2O_2-induced mutant frequency. Naïve and primed cells (pre-treated with 0.1 mM, 30 minutes in advanced) cultures challenged with 1 mM, allowed to recover and plated in rifampicin (100 µg/ml). The basal level of mutagenesis for non pre-treated, non-challenged cells is also shown. Every sample consisted in five independent replications. Equal letter indicates significant differences while same expresses no differences (Welch's test, $p=0.03$ for basal level versus primed, $p<0.01$ for both basal versus naïve and primed versus naïve).

1336 **S1 Table.** Growth curves parameters showing priming cost for *E. coli* cells
1337 treated with 0.1 mM H_2O_2 when compared to non-treated ones (control). The
1338 growth curve parameters were estimated with the Growthcurver R package
1339 [60]. Only carrying capacity and the areas under the curve have shown
1340 significant differences with a small fond-change.

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S2 Table. Quantitative H_2O_2 determination of *E. coli* culture supernatants after
a treatment with 1 mM after priming bacteria with 0.1 mM H_2O_2 in comparison
to naïve cells. H_2O_2 concentrations were determined for 0, 15 and 30 minutes
after the addition of H_2O_2 using the Pierce Quantitative Peroxide kit (Thermo
Scientific, Germany). The shown values represent the mean of the supernatant
from three individual cultures and their standard deviations.

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S3 Table. Output table of the proteomic experiment reporting time-lapse
decline of the *E. coli* response to 1 mM H_2O_2 during 30 minutes. Bacteria were
sampled 30, 60, 90, 120 and 150 minutes after removal of the treatment. Each
treatment group consisted of six independent replications and bacteria before
treatment (T0) were used as control. Statistical analysis used student t-test and
false discovery rate for correction of the p-values (data analysis using
Maxquant and Perseus software for label-free quantification of proteins with LC-
MS).

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S4 Table. Output table of the proteomic experiment reporting *E. coli* response
to H_2O_2 treatment of 0.1 and 1 mM during 5 minutes. Each treatment group
consisted of six independent replications and bacteria before treatment (T0)
were used as control. Statistical analysis used student t-test and false
discovery rate for correction of the p-values (data analysis using Maxquant and
Perseus software for label-free quantification of proteins with LC-MS).

1364

1365 **S5 Table**. Protein stability predicted from the sequences of selected proteins
1366 that showed an elevated level of expression after treatment with H_2O_2 0.1 mM
1367 (priming concentration) and remained up or declined during memory duration

1368 of priming response. The predictions were carried out using the online tool
1369 ProtParam [69].

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1371 **S6 Table.** Transcripts differentially expressed (±2 log2) in the fraction of small
1372 of RNA (<200 nt) during the decay of H_2O_2 response (120 minutes after
1373 removal the treatment).

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1375 **S7 Table.** Transcripts differentially expressed (± 2.5 log2) in the fraction of
1376 large RNA (>200 nt) during the decay of H_2O_2 response (120 minutes after
1377 removal the treatment).

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1379 **S8 Table.** Relative gene expression (qPCR) for *E. coli* MG1655 selected
1380 responsive genes after a treatment with 0.1 mM H_2O_2 versus non-treated
1381 bacteria during 30 minutes.

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1383 **S9 Table.** Strains used in this work and their relevant phenotypes.

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1385 **S10 Table.** Primers used for amplification of kanamycin insertion of mutants
1386 from the Keio collection which PCR product was used to transfer the mutations
1387 to the *E. coli* MG1655 strain.

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1389 **S11 Table.** Primers used for relative gene expression quantification by real
1390 time PCR (qPCR). RNA was extracted after a treatment of *E. coli* MG1655 with
1391 H_2O_2 0.1 mM during 30 minutes.

MIC (mM H₂O₂)