Title: Bacterial outer membrane homeostasis via retrograde phospholipid transport

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Abstract:

The outer membrane (OM) is essential for viability in Gram-negative bacteria, yet mechanisms to ensure its stability and homeostasis are not known. The trans-envelope Tol-Pal complex, whose physiological role has remained elusive, is important for OM stability, and coordinated OM invagination during cell division. Here, we establish the function of the Tol-Pal complex in OM lipid homeostasis in *Escherichia coli*. Cells lacking the complex exhibit defects in lipid asymmetry and accumulate excess phospholipids (PLs) in the OM. This imbalance in OM lipids is due to defective retrograde PL transport in the absence of a functional Tol-Pal complex. Thus, cells ensure the assembly of a stable OM by maintaining an excess flux of PLs to the OM only to return the surplus to the inner membrane via transport mediated by the Tol-Pal complex. Our findings also provide insights into the mechanism by which the Tol-Pal complex promotes OM invagination during division.

Main Text:

Lipid bilayers define cellular compartments, and thus life itself, yet our understanding

of the assembly and maintenance of these structures are limited. In Gram-negative bacteria,

the outer membrane (OM) is essential for growth, and allows the formation of an oxidizing

periplasmic compartment beyond the cytoplasmic or inner membrane (IM)[1]. The OM is

asymmetric, with lipopolysaccharides (LPS) and phospholipids (PLs) found in the outer and

inner leaflets, respectively. This unique lipid asymmetry is required for the OM to function as

an effective and selective permeability barrier against toxic substances, rendering Gram-

negative bacteria intrinsically resistant to many antibiotics, and allowing survival under

adverse conditions. The assembly pathways of various OM components, including LPS[2], β-

barrel OM proteins (OMPs)[3], and lipoproteins[4], have been well-characterized; however,

processes by which PLs are assembled into the OM have not been discovered. Even though

they are the most basic building blocks of any lipid bilayer, essentially nothing is known

about how PLs are transported between the IM and the OM. Unlike other OM components,

PL movement between the two membranes is bidirectional[5, 6, 7]. While anterograde (IM-to-

OM) transport is essential for OM biogenesis, the role for retrograde (OM-to-IM) PL

transport is unclear. How assembly of the various OM components are coordinated to ensure

homeostasis and stability of the OM is also unknown.

The Tol-Pal complex is a trans-envelope system highly conserved in Gram-negative

bacteria[8, 9]. It comprises five proteins organized in two sub-complexes, TolQRA in the IM

and TolB-Pal at the OM. In *Escherichia coli*, these sub-complexes interact in a proton motive

force (pmf)-dependent fashion, with TolQR transducing energy to control conformational

changes in TolA and allowing it to reach across the periplasm to contact Pal[10, 11], an OM

lipoprotein that binds peptidoglycan[12]. TolA also interacts with periplasmic TolB[13], whose

function within the complex is not clear. The TolQRA sub-complex is analogous to the

ExbBD-TonB system[8, 14, 15], where energy-dependent conformational changes in TonB are

exploited for the transport of metal-siderophores across the OM[16]. Unlike the ExbBD-TonB

system, however, the physiological role of the Tol-Pal complex has not been elucidated,

despite being discovered over four decades ago[17, 18]. The Tol-Pal complex has been shown to

be important for OM invagination during cell division[19], but mutations in the *tol-pal* genes

also result in a variety of phenotypes, such as hypersensitivity to detergents and antibiotics,

leakage of periplasmic proteins, and prolific shedding of OM vesicles, all indicative of an

unstable OM[8]. In addition, removing the *tol-pal* genes causes envelope stress and up-

regulation of the σ^E and Rcs phosphorelay responses[20, 21]. It has thus been suggested that the

Tol-Pal complex may in fact be important for OM stability and biogenesis. Interestingly, the

tol-pal genes are often found in the same operon as *ybgC*[9], which encodes an acyl

thioesterase shown to interact with PL biosynthetic enzymes in *E. coli*[22]. This association

suggests that the Tol-Pal complex may play a role in PL metabolism and/or transport.

Cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex exhibit defects in OM lipid asymmetry

To elucidate the function of the Tol-Pal complex, we set out to characterize the

molecular nature of OM defects observed in *tol-pal* mutants in *E. coli*. Defects in the

assembly of OM components typically lead to perturbations in OM lipid asymmetry[23, 24]. This

is characterized by the accumulation of PLs in the outer leaflet of the OM, which serve as

substrates for PagP-mediated acylation of LPS (lipid A)[25]. To determine if *tol-pal* mutants

exhibit defects in OM lipid asymmetry, we analyzed lipid A acylation in strains lacking any

member of the Tol-Pal complex. We demonstrated that each of the mutants accumulate more

hepta-acylated lipid A in the OM compared to wild-type (WT) cells (Fig. 1). This OM defect,

and the resulting SDS/EDTA sensitivity in these *tol-pal* mutants, are all corrected in the

complemented strains (Fig. 1, Extended Data Fig. 1). We also examined other strains with

known OM permeability defects. We detected increased lipid A acylation in strains with

either impaired OMP (*bamB*, *bamD*, Δ*surA*) or LPS (*lptD4213*) biogenesis, as would be

expected, but not in strains lacking covalent tethering between the cell wall and the OM

(Δ*lpp*) (Fig. 1). Even though the Δ*lpp* mutant is known to exhibit pleiotropic phenotypes

similar to the *tol-pal* mutants[26, 27], it does not have perturbations in OM lipid asymmetry. In

contrast to OMP or LPS assembly mutants, *tol-pal* strains produce WT levels of major OMPs

and LPS in the OM (Extended Data Fig. 2). These results indicate that *tol-pal* mutations lead

to accumulation of PLs in the outer leaflet of the OM independent of OMP and LPS

biogenesis pathways.

83   Cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex have disrupted OM lipid homeostasis

We hypothesized that the loss of OM lipid asymmetry in *tol-pal* mutants is due to

defects in PL transport across the cell envelope. To test this, we examined the steady-state

distribution of PLs (specifically labelled with [^{3}H]-glycerol) between the IM and the OM in

WT and *tol-pal* strains. We established that *tol-pal* mutants have ~1.4-1.6-fold more PLs in

their OMs (relative to the IMs) than the WT strain (Fig. 2a, Extended Data Fig. 4). To

ascertain if this altered distribution of PLs between the two membranes was due to the

accumulation of more PLs in the OMs of *tol-pal* mutants, we quantified the ratios of PLs to

LPS (both lipids now labelled with [^{14}C]-acetate) following OM isolation and differential

extraction. *tol-pal* mutants contain ~1.5-2.5-fold more PLs (relative to LPS) in their OMs,

when compared to the WT strain (Fig. 2b, Extended Data Fig. 5). Since *tol-pal* mutants

produce WT LPS levels (Extended Data Fig. 2b), we conclude that strains lacking the Tol-Pal

complex accumulate excess PLs in their OMs, a phenotype that can be corrected via genetic

complementation (Fig. 2). Consistent with this idea, *tol-pal* mutants, unlike WT[28], are able to

survive the toxic effects of LPS overproduction (Extended Data Fig. 6), possibly due to a

more optimal balance of PLs to LPS in their OMs. Importantly, having excess PLs makes the

OM unstable, and can account for the permeability and vesiculation phenotypes observed in

tol-pal mutants[8, 27]. Furthermore, cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex are on average shorter

and wider than WT cells (when grown under conditions with no apparent division defects)[19];

this reflects an increase in surface area of the rod-shaped cells, possibly a result of increase in

OM lipid content. As expected, we did not observe disruption of lipid homeostasis in the

Δ*lpp* mutant (Fig. 2). However, we observed higher PL content in the OMs of strains

defective in OMP assembly. We reasoned that this increase may help to stabilize the OM by

filling the voids created by the decrease in properly-assembled OMPs. Since strains lacking

the Tol-Pal complex have proper OMP assembly (Extended Data Fig. 2a), the phenotype of

excess PL build-up in the OM must be due to a different problem. Our results suggest that

tol-pal mutations directly affect PL transport processes, and therefore OM lipid homeostasis.

Cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex are defective in retrograde PL transport

Unlike for other OM components, PL transport between the IM and the OM is

bidirectional[5, 6, 7]. Therefore, a simple explanation for the accumulation of excess PLs in the

OMs of cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex is that there are defects in retrograde PL transport.

To evaluate this possibility, we used the turnover of OM PLs (specifically anionic lipids,

including phosphatidylserine (PS), phosphatidylglycerol (PG), and cardiolipin (CL)) as

readout for the transport of PLs back to the IM (Fig. 3a). As an intermediate during the

biosynthesis of the major lipid phosphatidylethanolamine (PE), PS is converted to PE by the

PS decarboxylase (PSD) at the IM, and typically exists only at trace levels[29]. PG and CL have

relatively short lifetimes[30, 31]. While the pathways for CL turnover are not known, PG can be

converted to PE via PS[32]. Since all known enzymes involved in possible pathways of

converting PG to PS, and then to PE, are localized in the IM[29], the turnover of OM anionic

lipids require, and therefore report on, retrograde PL transport. Such an assay has previously

been employed to demonstrate retrograde transport for PS[7].

Using a strain expressing a temperature-sensitive (Ts) allele (*psd2*) of the gene

encoding PSD[33], we pulse-labelled PLs with [^{32}P]-phosphate at the restrictive temperature

(42˚C), and monitored the turnover of individual PL species in the OM during a chase period

at the permissive temperature (30˚C). At 42˚C, the *psd2* strain accumulates substantial

amounts of PS in both the IM and the OM (Fig. 3b, 0-min time point), as previously

reported[33]. With the restoration of PSD activity at 30˚C, we observed initial increase but

eventual conversion of PS to PE in both membranes (Fig. 3b, after 45-min time point),

indicating that OM PS is transported back to the IM, converted to PE, and subsequently re-

equilibrated to the OM[7]. We also detected higher PG/CL content in the *psd2* strain at 42˚C,

and saw rapid conversion of these lipids to PE in both membranes at 30˚C (Fig. 3b), at rates

comparable to what was previously reported (for PG)[32]. The fact that PS levels increase

initially but decrease after 45 min into the chase is consistent with the idea that PS is an

intermediate along the turnover pathway for PG[32], as well as for CL. To confirm this

observation, we also performed the chase at 42˚C in the presence of a known PSD inhibitor[34]

(these conditions completely shut down PSD activity), and found quantitative conversion of

PG/CL to PS in both membranes (Extended Data Fig. 7). We further showed that PG/CL-to-

PE conversion is abolished in the presence of the pmf uncoupler carbonyl cyanide *m*-

chlorophenyl hydrazone (CCCP)(Fig. 3c), demonstrating a requirement for cellular energy

sources in this process[32], and that conversion occurs in the IM. The observation of PG/CL

turnover in the IM is thus expected. The fact that we also observed the conversion of OM

PG/CL to PE points towards an intact retrograde PL transport pathway for these lipids in the

otherwise WT cells. Notably, turnover of OM PG/CL appears to be slightly faster than that of

IM PG/CL (Fig. 3b), suggesting that retrograde transport of these lipids may be coupled to

the turnover process.

We performed the same pulse-chase experiments with *psd2* cells lacking TolA. We

detected PG/CL-to-PE conversion in the IM at rates comparable to WT (Fig. 3d, f; ~67% and

~71% PG/CL turnover at 2 h-chase in Δ*tolA* and WT IMs, respectively (Fig. 4a)),

demonstrating that there are functional PG/CL turnover pathways in the Δ*tolA* mutant. In

contrast, we observed substantial reduction of the turnover of OM PG/CL in these cells (Fig.

3d, f; ~53% PG/CL turnover at 2 h-chase in the Δ*tolA* OM, compared to ~79% for WT (Fig.

4a)), even though PS conversion to PE appears intact. These results indicate an apparent

defect in the movement of PG and CL (but not PS) from the OM back to the IM, which is

restored when complemented with functional *tolA*$_{WT}$ (Fig. 3e, f, Fig. 4a). Δ*tolR* mutant cells

exhibit the same defect, and can similarly be rescued by complementation with functional

tolR$_{WT}$ (Fig. 4a). In contrast, no rescue was observed when Δ*tolR* was complemented using a

tolR allele with impaired ability to utilize the pmf (*tolR*$_{D23R}$)[14] (Fig. 4a, Extended Data Fig. 1);

this indicates that Tol-Pal function is required for efficient PG/CL transport. We also

examined PG/CL turnover in *psd2* cells lacking BamB, which accumulate excess PLs in the

OM due to defects in OMP assembly (Fig. 2). Neither IM nor OM PG/CL turnover is affected

(Fig. 4a), highlighting the different basis for OM PL accumulation in this strain compared to

the *tol-pal* mutants. Our assay does not report on the retrograde transport of major lipid PE,

which is relatively stable[30]. However, since *tol-pal* mutants accumulate ~1.5-fold more PLs

in the OM (Fig. 2) without gross changes in PL composition (compared to WT) (Extended

Data Fig. 9), PE transport must also have been affected. We conclude that the Tol-Pal

complex is required for the retrograde transport of bulk PLs in *E. coli*.

Removing the Tol-Pal complex does not completely abolish retrograde PG/CL

transport, indicating that there are other systems involved in this process. The OmpC-Mla

system is important for the maintenance of OM lipid asymmetry, and is proposed to do so via

retrograde PL transport[35, 36]. We showed that cells lacking MlaC, the periplasmic lipid

chaperone in the OmpC-Mla system, do not exhibit defects in OM PG/CL turnover (Fig. 4a).

In addition, removing MlaC in cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex does not appear to

exacerbate the defects in retrograde PL transport, given that overall turnover rates of IM and

OM PG/CL are similarly reduced in the double mutant. These results indicate that the OmpC-

Mla system may not contribute significantly to retrograde transport of bulk lipids when

expressed at physiological levels, as has been previously suggested[35]. When MlaC and the IM

MlaFEDB complex[37] are overexpressed, however, we detected partial rescue of OM PG/CL

turnover in the Δ*tolA* mutant (Fig. 4b). Further to validating the putative PL transport

function of the OmpC-Mla system, this observation lends strong support to the notion that the

Tol-Pal complex is indeed a major system for retrograde PL transport.

Discussion

Our work reveals that the Tol-Pal complex plays an important role in maintaining OM

lipid homeostasis via retrograde PL transport. Removing the system causes accumulation of

excess PLs (over LPS) in the OM (Fig. 2). While pathways for anterograde PL transport

remain to be discovered, this result indicates that PL flux to the OM may be intrinsically

higher than that of LPS. Evidently, the ability to transport high levels of PLs to the OM

allows cells to compensate for the loss of OMPs due to defects in assembly (Fig. 2). Our data

suggest that cells maintain an excess flux of PLs to the OM in order to offset changes in the

unidirectional assembly pathways for other OM components, and then return the PL surplus

to the IM via the Tol-Pal complex (and other redundant systems). Having bidirectional PL

transport therefore provides a mechanism to regulate and ensure the formation of a stable

OM.

It is not clear how the Tol-Pal complex may mediate retrograde PL transport. It is

possible that this machine directly binds and transports lipids, although there are no obvious

lipid binding motifs or cavities found in available structures of the periplasmic components[38,

39]. The Tol-Pal complex is related to the ExbBD-TonB[14, 40], Agl-Glt[41], and Mot[14, 42] systems,

each of which uses pmf-energized conformational changes to generate force for the uptake of

metal-siderophores, for gliding motility, or to power flagella rotation, respectively. In

addition, both the Tol-Pal and ExbBD-TonB complexes are hijacked by toxins (such as

colicins) and bacteriophages to penetrate the OM[43]. It is therefore also possible that the Tol-

Pal complex acts simply as a force generator to transport other PL-binding proteins across the

periplasm, or perhaps bring the OM close enough to the IM for PL transfer to occur via

hemifusion events. For the latter scenario, one can envision energized TolA pulling the OM

inwards via its interaction with Pal, which is anchored to the inner leaflet of the OM[12]. While

it remains controversial, the formation of such "zones of adhesion", or membrane contact

sites, has previously been proposed[44], and in fact, was suggested to be a mechanism for

retrograde transport of native and foreign lipids[6].

That the Tol-Pal complex is involved in retrograde PL transport also has significant

implications for Gram-negative bacterial cell division. As part of the divisome, this system is

important for proper OM invagination during septum constriction[19, 45, 46]. How OM

invagination occurs is unclear. Apart from physically tethering the IM and the OM, we

propose that removal of PLs from the inner leaflet of the OM by the Tol-Pal complex serves

to locally reduce the surface area of the inner leaflet relative to the outer leaflet[47]. According

to the bilayer-couple model[48], this may then induce the requisite negative curvature in the

OM at the constriction site, thus promoting formation of the new cell poles.

Given the importance of the Tol-Pal complex in OM stability and bacterial cell

division, it would be an attractive target for small molecule inhibition. This is especially so in

some organisms, including the opportunistic human pathogen *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*,

where the complex is essential for growth[49, 50]. The lack of understanding of the true role of

the Tol-Pal complex, however, has impeded progress. We believe that our work in

elucidating the physiological function of this complex will accelerate efforts in this direction,

and contribute towards the development of new antibiotics in our ongoing fight against

recalcitrant Gram-negative infections.

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discussed data; R.S. and S.-S.C. wrote the paper.

Competing financial interests. The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Figure 1 | Cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex accumulate PLs in the outer leaflet of the OM, as judged by lipid A acylation. Thin layer chromatographic (TLC) analysis of [^{32}P]-labelled lipid A extracted from WT, Δ*tol-pal*, and various mutant strains (*see text*). Where indicated, WT and *tol-pal* mutants contain an empty pET23/42 plasmid (p)[23] or one expressing the corresponding *tol-pal* gene(s) at low levels (e.g. p*tol-pal*). As a positive control for lipid A acylation, WT cells were treated with EDTA (to chelate Mg^{2+} and destabilize the LPS layer) prior to extraction. Equal amounts of radioactivity were spotted for each sample. Lipid spots annotated # represent 1-pyrophosphoryl-lipid A. Average percentages of lipid A acylation and standard deviations were quantified from triplicate experiments and plotted below. Student's t-tests: * $p < 0.005$ as compared to WT.

Figure 2 | Cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex accumulate excess PLs (relative to LPS) in the OM. a, Steady-state distribution of [³H]-glycerol labelled PLs between the IM and the OM of WT, Δ*tol-pal*, and various mutant strains (*upper panel*). Distribution of [³H]-labelled PLs in the OMs of respective mutants expressed as fold changes relative to the WT OM (*lower panel*). The IMs and OMs from both WT and *tol-pal* mutants were separated with equal efficiencies during sucrose density gradient fractionation (Extended Data Fig. 3). **b**, Steady-state PL:LPS ratios in the OMs of WT, Δ*tol-pal*, and various mutant strains (*upper panel*). Lipids were labelled with [¹⁴C]-acetate and differentially extracted from OMs (Extended Data Fig. 5). OM PL:LPS ratios of respective mutants expressed as fold changes relative to that in the WT OM (*lower panel*). Error bars represent standard deviations calculated from triplicate experiments. Student's t-tests: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.005$; NS, not significant (as compared to WT).

Figure 3 | Cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex are defective in OM PG/CL turnover. a, A

schematic diagram depicting movement and turnover of PE, PG and CL (major), and PS

(trace) in the cell envelope. **b-e,** TLC time-course analyses of [^{32}P]-pulse-labelled PLs

extracted from the IMs and OMs of (**b**) WT, (**c**) WT (with CCCP added), (**d**) Δ*tolA*, and (**e**)

tolA-complemented strains also harboring the *psd2* mutation. The average percentage levels

of PE, PG/CL, and PS in the IM and OM at each time point, together with standard

deviations, were quantified from triplicate experiments and shown on the right. **f,** The

percentage levels of PG/CL in the IMs and OMs from (**b**)-(**e**) normalized to the

corresponding levels at the start of the chase (0 min).

Figure 4 | Tol-Pal function is required for efficient retrograde PG/CL transport, as judged by OM PG/CL turnover rates. Single time-point (2-h chase) quantification of the turnover rate of [^{32}P]-labelled PG/CL in the IMs and OMs of (**a**) WT, *tol-pal* and various mutant strains, and (**b**) ΔtolA overexpressing OmpC-Mla components, all in the *psd2* background (*see text*) (Extended Data Fig. 8). Percentage PG/CL turnover at 2-h is expressed as [(%PG/CL)$_{start}$ − (%PG/CL)$_{2h}$]/[(%PG/CL)$_{start}$]. Average percentage lipid levels and standard deviations were quantified from triplicate experiments. Student's t-tests: * $p <$ 0.0005 as compared to WT; ** $p <$ 0.0005 as compared to ΔtolA.

Methods

Bacterial strains and growth conditions. All the strains used in this study are listed in

Supplementary Table 1. *Escherichia coli* strain MC4100 [F^- *araD139* Δ*(argF-lac) U169*

rpsL150 relA1 flbB5301 ptsF25 deoC1 ptsF25 thi][51] was used as the wild-type (WT) strain

for most of the experiments. To achieve accumulation of phosphatidylserine (PS) in cells, a

temperature-sensitive phosphatidylserine decarboxylase mutant (*psd2*), which accumulates

PS at the non-permissive temperature, was used[33]. NR754, an *araD*$^+$ revertant of MC4100[24],

was used as the WT strain for experiments involving overexpression of *lpxC* from the

arabinose-inducible promoter (P$_{BAD}$). Δ*tolQ*, Δ*tolA* and Δ*tol-pal* deletions were constructed

using recombineering[52] and all other gene deletion strains were obtained from the Keio

collection[53]. Whenever needed, the antibiotic resistance cassettes were flipped out as

described[52]. Gene deletion cassettes were transduced into relevant genetic background strains

via P1 transduction[54]. Luria-Bertani (LB) broth (1% tryptone and 0.5% yeast extract,

supplemented with 1% NaCl) and agar were prepared as previously described[54]. Strains were

grown in LB medium with shaking at 220 rpm at either 30˚C, 37˚C, or 42˚C, as indicated.

When appropriate, kanamycin (Kan; 25 µg ml^{-1}), chloramphenicol (Cam; 30 µg ml^{-1}) and

ampicillin (Amp; 125 µg ml^{-1}) were added.

Plasmid construction. All the plasmids used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table

2. Desired genes were amplified from MC4100 chromosomal DNA using the indicated

primers (sequences in Supplementary Table 3). Amplified products were digested with

indicated restriction enzymes (New England Biolabs), which were also used to digest the

carrying vector. After ligation, recombinant plasmids were transformed into competent

NovaBlue (Novagen) cells and selected on LB plates containing appropriate antibiotics. DNA

sequencing (Axil Scientific, Singapore) was used to verify the sequence of the cloned gene.

To generate $tolR_{D23R}$ mutant construct, site-directed mutagenesis was conducted using

relevant primers listed in Supplementary Table 3 with pET23/42$tolR$ as the initial template.

Briefly, the entire template was amplified by PCR and the resulting PCR product mixture

digested with DpnI for > 1 h at 37˚C. Competent NovaBlue cells were transformed with 1 μl

of the digested PCR product and plated onto LB plates containing ampicillin. DNA

sequencing (Axil Scientific, Singapore) was used to verify the introduction of the desired

mutation.

Analysis of [^{32}P]-labelled lipid A. Mild acid hydrolysis was used to isolate lipid A as

previously described[55] with some modifications. 5-ml cultures were grown in LB broth

(inoculated from an overnight culture at 1:100 dilution) containing [^{32}P]-disodium phosphate

(final 1 μCi ml^{-1}; Perkin Elmer product no. NEX011001MC) till mid-log phase (OD600 ~0.5

- 0.7). One MC4100 WT culture labelled with [^{32}P] was treated with EDTA (25 mM pH 8.0)

for 10 min prior to harvesting. Cells were harvested at 4,700 x g for 10 min, washed twice

with 1 ml PBS (137 mM NaCl, 2.7 mM KCl, 10 mM Na_2HPO_4, 1.8 mM KH_2PO_4, pH 7.4)

and suspended in PBS (0.32 ml) again. Chloroform (0.4 ml) and methanol (0.8 ml) were

added and the mixtures were incubated at room temperature for 20 min with slow shaking (60

rpm) to make the one-phase Bligh-Dyer mixture (chloroform:methanol:water = 1:2:0.8).

Mixtures were then centrifuged at 21,000 x g for 30 min. Pellets obtained were washed once

with fresh one-phase Bligh-Dyer system (1 ml) and centrifuged as above. Resulting pellets

were suspended in 0.45 ml of sodium acetate (12.5 mM, pH 4.5) containing SDS (1 %) and

heated at 100˚C for 30 min. After cooling to room temperature, chloroform and methanol (0.5

ml each) were added to create a two-phase Bligh-Dyer mixture (chloroform:methanol:water =

2:2:1.8). The lower (organic) phase of each mixture was collected after phase partitioning via

centrifugation at 21,000 x g for 30 min. This was washed once with upper phase (0.5 ml) of

freshly prepared two-phase Bligh-Dyer mixture and centrifuged as above. Finally, all the

collected lower phases containing [^{32}P]-labelled lipid A were air-dried overnight. Dried

radiolabelled lipid A samples were suspended in 50 μl of chloroform:methanol (2:1) and

equal amounts (~1,000 cpm) of radioactivity were spotted on silica-gel coated TLC (Thin

Layer Chromatography) plates (Merck). TLCs were developed in chambers pre-equilibrated

overnight with solvent system chloroform:pyridine:98 % formic acid:water (50:50:14.6:5).

TLC plates were air-dried overnight and later visualized by phosphor imaging (STORM, GE

healthcare). The densitometric analysis of the spots obtained on the phosphor images of TLCs

was carried out using ImageQuant TL analysis software (version 7.0, GE Healthcare).

Average levels of hepta-acylated lipid A (expressed as a percentage of total lipid A in each

sample) were obtained from three independent experiments.

Sucrose density gradient fractionation. Sucrose density gradient centrifugation was

performed as previously described[56] with some modifications. For each strain, a 10/50-ml

culture (inoculated from an overnight culture at 1:100 dilution) was grown in LB broth until

OD_{600} reached ~0.5 – 0.7. For radiolabeling, indicated radioisotopes were added from the

start of inoculation. Cells were harvested by centrifugation at 4,700 x g for 10 min, suspended

to wash once in 5 ml of cold Buffer A (Tris-HCl, 10 mM pH 8.0), and centrifuged as above.

Cells were resuspended in 6 ml of Buffer B (Tris-HCl, 10 mM pH 8.0 containing 20%

sucrose (w/w), 1 mM PMSF and 50 μg ml^{-1} DNase I), and lysed by a single passage through

a high pressure French press (French Press G-M, Glen Mills) homogenizer at 8,000 psi.

Under these conditions, lipid mixing between inner and outer membranes is minimal[56].

Unbroken cells were removed by centrifugation at 4,700 x g for 10 min. The cell lysate was

collected, and 5.5 ml of cell lysate was layered on top of a two-step sucrose gradient

consisting of 40% sucrose solution (5 ml) layered on top of 65% sucrose solution (1.5 ml) at

the bottom of the tube. All sucrose (w/w) solutions were prepared in Buffer A. Samples were

centrifuged at 39,000 rpm for 16 h in a Beckman SW41 rotor in an ultracentrifuge (Model

XL-90, Beckman). 0.8-ml fractions (usually 15 fractions) were manually collected from the

top of each tube.

Analysis of OMP and LPS levels in isolated OMs. OM fragments were isolated from 50 ml

of cells following growth, cell lysis and application of sucrose density gradient fractionation,

as described above. Instead of manual fractionation, OM fragments (~1 ml) were isolated

from the 40%/65% sucrose solution interface by puncturing the side of the tube with a

syringe. Buffer A (1 ml) was added to the OM fragments to lower the sucrose concentration

and reduce viscosity. The OM fragments were then pelleted in a microcentrifuge at 21,000 x

g for 30 min and then resuspended in 200 - 250 μl Buffer A. Protein concentrations of these

OM preparations were determined using Bio-Rad D_C protein assay. The same amount of OM

(based on protein content) for each strain was analyzed by reducing SDS-PAGE and

immunoblotted using antibodies directed against OmpC, OmpF, LamB, BamA, LptE and

LPS.

Analysis of steady-state [^{3}H]-glycerol-labelled PL distribution in IMs and OMs. To

specifically label cellular PLs, 10-ml cells were grown at 37°C in LB broth (inoculated from

an overnight culture at 1:100 dilution) containing [2-^{3}H]-glycerol (final 1 μCi ml^{-1}; Perkin

Elmer product no. NET022L001MC) until OD_{600} reached ~0.5 - 0.7. Once the desired OD_{600}

was achieved, cultures were immediately mixed with ice-cold Buffer A containing CCCP (50

μM) to stop the labeling of the cultures. Cells were pelleted, lysed, and fractionated on

sucrose density gradients, as described above. 0.8-ml fractions were collected from each tube,

as described above, and 300 μl from each fraction was mixed with 2 ml of Ultima Gold

scintillation fluid (Perkin Elmer, Singapore). Radioactivity ([3H]-count) was measured on a

scintillation counter (MicroBeta$^{2\circledR}$, Perkin-Elmer). Based on [3H]-profiles, IM and OM peaks

were identified and peak areas determined after background subtraction (average count of

first 5 fractions was taken as background). For each strain, relative [3H]-PL levels in the IM

and OM were expressed as a percentage of the sum in both membranes (see Fig. 2a upper

panel). The average percent [3H]-PL in the OM for each strain (obtained from three

independent experiments) was then compared to that for the WT strain to calculate fold

changes (see Fig. 2a lower panel).

Determination of PL/LPS ratios in [14C]-acetate labelled OMs (see Extended Data Fig. 5

for workflow and results). To specifically label all cellular lipids (including LPS), 10-ml

cells were grown at 37°C in LB broth (inoculated from an overnight culture at 1:100 dilution)

containing [1-14C]-acetate (final 0.2 μCi ml^{-1}; Perkin Elmer product no. NEC084A001MC)

until OD_{600} reached ~0.5 – 0.7. At this OD, cultures were transferred immediately to ice-cold

Buffer A (5 ml), pelleted, lysed, and fractionated on sucrose density gradients, as described

above. 0.8-ml fractions were collected from each tube, as described above, and 50 μl from

each fraction was mixed with 2 ml of Ultima Gold scintillation fluid (Perkin Elmer,

Singapore). Based on [14C]-profiles, IM and OM peaks were identified. OM fractions were

then pooled, and treated as outlined below to differentially extract PLs and LPS for relative

quantification within each OM pool. For each strain, the whole experiment was conducted

and the OM PL/LPS ratio obtained three times.

Each OM pool (0.32 ml) was mixed with chloroform (0.4 ml) and methanol (0.8 ml)

to make a one-phase Bligh-Dyer mixture (chloroform:methanol:water = 1:2:0.8). The

mixtures were vortexed for 2 min and later incubated at room temperature for 20 min with

slow shaking at 60 rpm. After centrifugation at 21,000 x g for 30 min, the supernatants (S1)

were collected. The resulting pellets (P1) were washed once with fresh 0.95 ml one-phase

Bligh-Dyer solution and centrifuged as above. The insoluble pellets (P2) were air dried and

used for LPS quantification (see below). The supernatants obtained in this step (S2) were

combined with S1 to get the combined supernatants (S3), which contained radiolabelled PLs.

To these, chloroform (0.65 ml) and methanol (0.65 ml) were added to convert them to two-

phase Bligh-Dyer mixtures (chloroform:methanol:water = 2:2:1.8). After a brief vortexing

step, the mixtures were centrifuged at 3000 x g for 10 min to separate the immiscible phases,

and the lower organic phases were collected. These were washed once with equal volumes of

water and centrifuged as above, and the lower organic phases (containing radiolabelled PLs)

recollected and air dried. Finally, the dried PLs were dissolved in 50 µl of a mixture of

chloroform:methanol (2:1). Equal volumes (20 µl) of PL solutions were mixed with 2 ml of

Ultima Gold scintillation fluid (Perkin Elmer, Singapore). The [14C]-counts were measured

using scintillation counting (MicroBeta[2®], Perkin-Elmer) and taken as the levels of PLs

isolated from the OMs.

To quantify LPS, the P2 pellets were suspended in 2X reducing SDS-PAGE loading

buffer (40 µl) and boiled for 10 min. Equal volumes (15 µl) were loaded and subjected to

SDS-PAGE (15% Tris.HCl). Gels were air-dried between porous films (Invitrogen) and

exposed to the same phosphor screen along with standards (GE healthcare). To generate a

standard curve for LPS quantification, the WT OM pellet sample was serially diluted two-

fold and equal volumes of diluted samples were resolved on SDS-PAGE and dried as above.

The densitometric analysis of bands (i.e. LPS from each OM) was carried out using

ImageQuant TL analysis software (version 7.0, GE Healthcare). To allow proper comparison

and quantification, the LPS gels from triplicate experiments were exposed on the same

phosphor screen along with the standards (see Extended Data Fig. 5b)

For each strain, the arbitrary PL/LPS ratio in the OM was obtained by taking the

levels of PLs (represented by [^{14}C]-counts of PL fraction) divided by the LPS levels

(represented by gel band density), averaged across three independent replicates (see Extended

Data Fig. 5b, Fig. 2b upper panel). The average PL/LPS ratio in the OM for each strain was

then compared to that for the WT strain to calculate fold changes (see Fig. 2b lower panel).

Phosphatidylglycerol/Cardiolipin turnover assay (pulse-chase and single time-point (2-

h) analysis). PG/CL turnover pulse-chase experiments were performed using the *psd2*

background, which accumulated PS and PG/CL during growth at restrictive temperature. For

each strain, cells were grown in 70 ml LB broth (inoculated from an overnight culture at

1:100 dilution) at the permissive temperature (30˚C) until OD$_{600}$ reached ~0.15 - 0.2. The

culture was then shifted for 4 h at the restrictive temperature (42˚C) and labelled with [^{32}P]-

disodium phosphate (final 1 μCi ml^{-1}) during the last 30 min at the restrictive temperature

(42˚C). After labeling, cells were harvested by centrifugation at 4,700 x *g* for 10 min, washed

once with cold LB broth (10 ml) and centrifuged again at 4,700 x *g* for 10 min. Cells were

then resuspended in fresh LB broth (70 ml) and the chase was started in the presence of non-

radioactive disodium phosphate (1000-fold molar excess) at either the permissive

temperature, with or without addition of carbonyl cyanide *m*-chlorophenyl hydrazone (CCCP;

50 μM), or at the restrictive temperature in the presence of hydroxylamine (HA; 10 mM). At

the start (0 min) and different times (15, 30, 45, 90 and 120 min) during the chase, a portion

of the culture (either 15 ml or 10 ml) was collected and mixed immediately with equal

volume of ice-cold Buffer A containing CCCP (50 μM) and hydroxylamine (10 mM). Cells

were harvested by centrifugation at 4,700 x *g* for 10 min and then resuspended in 6 ml of

Buffer B containing CCCP (50 µM) and hydroxylamine (10 mM). Cells were lysed, and

fractionated on sucrose density gradients, as described above. 0.8-ml fractions were collected

from each tube, as described above. Fractions 7-9 and 12-14 contained the IM and OM

fractions, respectively. To extract PLs from the IM and OM pools (2.4 ml), methanol (6 ml)

and chloroform (3 ml) were added to make one-phase Bligh-Dyer mixtures. These were

incubated at room temperature for 60 min with intermittent vortexing. Chloroform (3 ml) and

sterile water (3 ml) were then added to generate two-phase Bligh-Dyer mixtures. After brief

vortexing, the lower organic phases were separated from the top aqueous phases by

centrifugation at 3,000 x g for 10 min. These were washed once with equal volumes of water

and centrifuged as above, and the lower organic phases (containing radiolabelled PLs)

recollected and air dried. Finally, the dried PLs were dissolved in 40 µl of a mixture of

chloroform:methanol (2:1) and spotted onto silica-gel coated TLC plates (Merck). Equal

amounts (in cpm) of radioactivity were spotted for each sample. TLCs were developed in pre-

equilibrated chambers containing solvent system chloroform:methanol:water (65:25:4). TLC

plates were dried, and visualized by phosphor imaging (STORM, GE healthcare).

Densitometric analysis of the PL spots on the phosphor image of TLCs was conducted using

the ImageQuant TL analysis software (version 7.0, GE Healthcare). The levels of each major

PL species were expressed as a percentage of all detected PL species (essentially the whole

lane), and plotted against time (see Figs. 3b-e, Extended Data Fig. 7).

For single time-point analysis, 30-ml cultures were grown and labelled with [^{32}P]-

disodium phosphate (final 1 µCi ml^{-1}) at the restrictive temperature. For strains harboring

plasmids used for overexpressing OmpC-Mla components, arabinose (0.2 %) was added

during growth at the permissive as well as restrictive temperatures. After washing and

resuspension in fresh LB broth (30 ml), the chase was started in the presence of non-

radioactive disodium phosphate (1000-fold molar excess) at the permissive temperature. At

start (0 h) and 2 h during the chase, a portion of the culture (15 and 10 ml) was collected and

processed similarly as pulse chase analysis described above. The levels of PG/CL in the

membranes at each time point were expressed as a percentage of the sum of PE, PS and

PG/CL. For each strain, IM and OM PG/CL turnover were expressed as the difference

between percentage PG/CL levels at 0-h and 2-h time points divided by that at 0-h. Average

PG/CL turnover values were obtained from three independent experiments conducted (see

Fig. 4, Extended Data Fig. 8).

OM permeability assay. OM sensitivity against SDS/EDTA was judged by colony-forming

unit (cfu) analyses on LB agar plates containing indicated concentrations of SDS/EDTA.

Briefly, 5-ml cultures were grown (inoculated with overnight cultures at 1:100 dilution) in LB

broth at 37˚C until OD_{600} reached ~1.0. Cells were normalized according to OD_{600}, first

diluted to OD_{600} = 0.1 (~10^8 cells), and then serial diluted in LB with seven 10-fold dilutions

using 96-well microtiter plates (Corning). Two microliters of the diluted cultures were

manually spotted onto the plates and incubated overnight at 37˚C.

LpxC overexpression (growth curves and viability assay). For each strain, a 10-ml culture

was inoculated in LB broth supplemented with arabinose (0.2 %) from the overnight culture

to make the initial OD_{600} of 0.05. Cells were grown at 37˚C and the OD_{600} of the cultures

was measured hourly. At the start of growth (0 h) and at 4 and 7 h during growth, 100 µl of

cells were collected and then serial diluted in LB/cam with six 10-fold dilutions using 96-well

microtiter plates (Corning). Five microliters of the non-diluted and diluted cultures were

manually spotted on LB/cam agar plates (no arabinose). Plates were incubated overnight at

37˚C.

IM (NADH activity) and OM marker (LPS) analysis during sucrose gradient

fractionation. The inner membrane enzyme, NADH oxidase, was used as a marker for the

IM; its activity was measured as previously described[56]. Briefly, 30 µl of each fraction from

the sucrose density gradient was diluted 4-fold with 20 mM Tris.HCl, pH 8.0 in a 96-well

format and 120 µl of 100 mM Tris.HCl, pH 8.0 containing 0.64 mM NADH (Sigma) and 0.4

mM dithiothreitol (DTT, Sigma) was added. Changes in fluorescence over time due to

changes in NADH (λex = 340 nm, λem = 465 nm) concentration was monitored using a plate

reader (Perkin Elmer). The activity of NADH oxidase in pooled IM and OM fractions relative

to the sum of these fractions was determined.

LPS was used as a marker for the OM and detected using LPS dot blots. OM fractions

were pooled together and 2 µl of the fractions were spotted on nitrocellulose membranes

(Bio-Rad). Spotted membranes were allowed to dry at room temperature for 1 h and then the

membranes were probed with antibodies against LPS.

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SDS-PAGE and immunoblotting. All samples subjected to SDS-PAGE were mixed with

2X Laemmli reducing buffer and boiled for 10 min at 100°C. Equal volumes of the samples

were loaded onto the gels. Unless otherwise stated, SDS-PAGE was performed according to

Laemmli using the 12% or 15% Tris.HCl gels[57]. Immunoblotting was performed by

transferring protein bands from the gels onto polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membranes

(Immun-Blot® 0.2 µm, Bio-Rad) using the semi-dry electroblotting system (Trans-Blot®

TurboTM Transfer System, Bio-Rad). Membranes were blocked using 1X casein blocking

buffer (Sigma). Mouse monoclonal α-OmpC antibody was a gift from Swaine Chen and used

at a dilution of 1:5,000[58]. Rabbit α-LptE (from Daniel Kahne)[56] and α-OmpF antisera (Rajeev

Misra)[59] were used at 1:5,000 dilutions. Rabbit α-BamA antisera (from Daniel Kahne) was

used at 1:40,000 dilution. Mouse monoclonal α-LPS antibody (against LPS-core) was

purchased from Hycult biotechnology and used at 1:5,000 dilutions. Rabbit polyclonal α-

LamB antibodies was purchased from Bioss (USA) and used at 1:1,000 dilution. α-mouse

IgG secondary antibody conjugated to HRP (from sheep) and α-rabbit IgG secondary

antibody conjugated to HRP (from donkey) were purchased from GE Healthcare and used at

1:5,000 dilutions. Luminata Forte Western HRP Substrate (Merck Milipore) was used to

develop the membranes and chemiluminescent signals were visualized by G:BOX Chemi XT

4 (Genesys version1.3.4.0, Syngene).

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Extended Data Figure 1 | SDS/EDTA sensitivity in *tol-pal* strains can be rescued only by

expressing the corresponding functional *tol-pal* gene(s) from the pET23/42 plasmid[23].

Serial dilutions of cultures of wild-type (WT) and indicated *tol-pal* strains harboring

pET23/42 empty vector (p), or pET23/42 encoding (**a**) functional or (**b**) non-functional *tol-*

pal gene(s) (e.g. p*tolA*), were spotted on LB agar plates containing 125 μg ml^{-1} ampicillin,

supplemented with or without SDS (0.5%) and EDTA (0.5 mM) as indicated, and incubated

overnight at 37˚C. In the plasmids used, the *tol-pal* gene(s) is placed under the control of the

T7 promoter, which is transcribed at low levels by endogenous polymerases. *tolR$_{D23R}$* is a

non-functional allele encoding TolR protein that is defective in transducing energy derived

from the pmf[14].

Extended Data Figure 2 | *tol-pal* mutations do not affect β-barrel OMP and LPS assembly. Immunoblot analyses of (**a**) indicated OMPs and (**b**) LPS in the OMs of WT and *tol-pal* strains. The OMP assembly mutants (*bamB*, *bamD*, Δ*surA*) and the LpxC-deficient (*lpxC*1272) or YciM-overexpressing (p*yciM*) strains[60] serve as controls for decreased OMP and LPS levels, respectively. The levels of LptE serve as a loading control.

Extended Data Figure 3 | Inner and outer membranes of both WT and *tol-pal* strains are effectively separated via fractionation on sucrose density gradients. a, [³H]-distribution profiles of WT (*black circles*) and Δ*tolQ* mutant (*red triangles*) cell lysates fractionated on a sucrose density gradient. Cells were grown in the presence of [2-³H]-glycerol to specifically label PLs in the IM and OMs. **b**, Percent NADH oxidase activity (*upper panel*) and LPS levels (*lower panel*) (dot blot) in pooled IM and OM fractions from (**a**).

Extended Data Figure 4 | Cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex contain more PLs in the OM, compared to the IM. Representative [3H]-distribution profiles of cell lysates from WT (*black circles*), *tol-pal* mutants (*red triangles*), *tol-pal*-complemented strains (*blue inverted triangles*), and various control strains, fractionated on sucrose density gradients. Cells were grown in the presence of [2-3H]-glycerol to specifically label PLs in the IMs and OMs. Total [3H]-activities detected in IM (6-10) and OM (12-14) fractions were expressed as a percentage of their sums, averaged across three replicate experiments, and plotted in Fig. 2a.

a
Workflow for differential extraction and quantification of PL/LPS ratio

b
Densitometric analysis of LPS levels

c
Tabulation of [¹⁴C]-labelled PLs and LPS levels

Strains	Replicate 1			Replicate 2			Replicate 3			Average	
	PL	LPS	PL/LPS	PL	LPS	PL/LPS	PL	LPS	PL/LPS	PL/LPS	SD
WT p	3640	7.3	497	1517	2.5	597	3602	7.9	457	517	72
ΔtolQ p	3715	4.3	860	3014	3.1	975	6471	8.1	797	877	91
ΔtolQ ptolQ	1970	3.0	663	1321	2.4	548	1990	4.4	457	556	103
ΔtolR p	3448	2.6	1306	3452	2.7	1279	6215	5.6	1110	1231	106
ΔtolR ptolR	6076	9.2	661	2147	4.1	526	6062	10.5	577	588	68
ΔtolA p	5342	5.6	961	2971	2.7	1092	5218	7.4	709	921	195
ΔtolA ptolA	3508	8.6	406	1987	2.9	688	4250	6.2	691	595	163
ΔtolB p	3672	4.4	838	2214	2.6	868	3300	4.2	782	830	44
ΔtolB ptolB	4184	4.2	1006	3014	3.2	957	3890	6.4	610	857	216
Δlpp p	2871	5.0	578	1784	3.0	599	3362	6.4	524	567	38
bamB p	6622	2.8	2340	6806	6.2	1105	6624	7.0	944	1463	764
bamD p	5784	7.7	753	6188	6.3	985	6252	5.5	1143	960	196
ΔsurA p	7004	5.0	1401	7314	6.8	1076	7528	6.1	1236	1238	163

Extended Data Figure 5 | Cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex accumulate excess PLs (relative to LPS) in the OM. a, Workflow for differential extraction and subsequent quantification of PLs and LPS levels in the [¹⁴C]-acetate labelled OMs. **b**, In-gel quantification of [¹⁴C]-LPS levels in the OMs of WT, *tol-pal* mutants, *tol-pal*-complemented strains, and various control strains. [¹⁴C]-LPS of respective strains separated on SDS-PAGE gels (*right*) were visualized by phosphor imaging and quantified via densitometry using a linear standard curve (*left*). **c**, Tabulation of [¹⁴C]-labelled PL levels (scintillation counts), LPS levels (gel densitometry), and arbitrary PL/LPS ratios in the OMs of the indicated

759   strains. The average PL/LPS ratio for each strain was obtained from three independent

760   experiments, and plotted in Fig. 2b.

Extended Data Figure 6 | *tol-pal* mutants survive toxicity induced by overproduction of LpxC, the enzyme catalyzing the first committed step in LPS biosynthesis. a, Growth profiles of WT, $\Delta tolQ$ and $\Delta tolA$ cells harboring either pBAD18cm empty vector (p) or pBAD18cm*lpxC* (p*lpxC*) and grown in the presence of arabinose (0.2%). OD_{600} values were measured every hour during growth. Error bars represent the standard deviation observed from triplicate experiments. **b**, Indicated serial dilutions of 0-, 4- and 7-h cultures of the same strains in (**a**) were spotted on LB agar plates containing 30 μg ml^{-1} cam and incubated overnight at 37°C.

Extended Data Figure 7 | PG/CL is converted to PS in the absence of PSD function. TLC time-course analyses of [^{32}P]-pulse-labelled PLs extracted from the IMs and OMs of the WT strain also harboring the temperature-sensitive *psd2* mutation. Cells were incubated at the restrictive temperature (42˚C, 4 h) and PLs were pulse-labelled with [^{32}P]-phosphate during the last 30 min at the restrictive temperature, and then chased in the presence of excess cold phosphate and hydroxylamine (HA; 10 mM) at the same temperature. HA is a known PSD inhibitor[34]. The percentage levels of PE (circles), PG/CL (squares), and PS (triangles) in the IM (grey symbols) and OM (white symbols) at each time point were quantified and shown on the right. The results clearly showed quantitative PG/CL to PS conversion.

Extended Data Figure 8 | Cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex are defective in OM PG/CL

turnover. Single time-point TLC analyses of [^{32}P]-pulse-labelled PLs extracted from the IMs

and OMs of indicated strains also harboring the temperature-sensitive *psd2* mutation. Cells

were incubated at the restrictive temperature (42˚C, 4 h) and PLs were pulse-labelled with

[^{32}P]-phosphate during the last 30 min at the restrictive temperature, and then chased in the

presence of excess cold phosphate at the permissive temperature (30˚C) for 2 h. The average

extents of PG/CL turnover ($[(\%PG/CL)_{start} - (\%PG/CL)_{2h}]/[(\%PG/CL)_{start}]$) in the IM and

OM for each strain was obtained from three biological replicate (Reps) experiments, and

plotted in Fig. 4.

Extended Data Figure 9 | Although cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex accumulate ~50% more PLs in the OM, PL compositions of this membrane are comparable to that in WT cells. TLC analysis of [^{14}C]-labelled PLs extracted from the OMs of WT and indicated mutant strains. Equal amounts of radioactivity were spotted for each sample. An unidentified lipid species that migrated in this solvent system similarly to palmitoylated PG[65] is annotated by an asterisk (*). The percentage levels of PE, PG/CL, and the unidentified lipid were quantified and shown below.

801 **Supplementary Table 1. Bacterial strains used in this study.**

Strains	Relevant genotype	References
MC4100	[F⁻ *araD139 Δ(argF-lac) U169 rpsL150 relA1 flbB5301 ptsF25 deoC1 ptsF25 thi*]	*51*
BW25113	*F- Δ(araD-araB)567 ΔlacZ4787::rrnB-3 λ- rph-1 Δ(rhaDrhaB)568 hsdR514*	*53*
NovaBlue	*endA1 hsdR17 (rK12– mK12+) supE44 thi-1 recA1 gyrA96 relA1 lac F' [proA+B+lacIqZΔM15::Tn10]*	Novagen
NR754	MC4100 *araD⁺*	*24*
MR706	MG1655 *lpxC1272 leuB::Tn10*	*60*
EH150	*psd-2 purA⁺*; temperature-sensitive PSD	*33*
NR1215	NR754 Δ*surA*	*61*
NR698	MC4100 *lptD4213* (*carB⁺,* Tn10)	*62*
NR814	MC4100 *bamD::kan*	*63*
NR721	MC4100 *bamB::kan*	*62*
RS101	BW25113 Δ*tolQ::kan*	This study
JW0728	BW25113 Δ*tolR::kan*	*53*
RS102	BW25113 Δ*tolA::kan*	This study
JW5100	BW25113 Δ*tolB::kan*	*53*
RS104	BW25113 Δ*tol-pal::kan*	This study
RS105	BW25113 Δ*lpp::kan*	This study
RS119	MC4100 Δ*tolQ::kan*	This study
RS120	MC4100 Δ*tolR::kan*	This study
RS121	MC4100 Δ*tolA::kan*	This study
RS122	MC4100 Δ*tolB::kan*	This study
RS125	MC4100 Δ*tol-pal::kan*	This study
RS137	MC4100 Δ*lpp::kan*	This study
CZS011	MC4100 Δ*mlaC::kan*	Lab collection
RS173	EH150 Δ*tolR::kan*	This study
RS174	EH150 Δ*tolA::kan*	This study
RS177	EH150 *bamB::kan*	This study
RS178	EH150 Δ*mlaC::kan*	This study
RS180	EH150 Δ*tolA* Δ*mlaC::kan*	This study
JXE082	NR754 Δ*tolQ::kan*	This study
JXE081	NR754 Δ*tolA::kan*	This study

802 **Supplementary Table 2. Plasmids used in this study.**

Plasmids	Description	Plasmid construction		References
		PCR template[a]	PCR primers[b]	
pET23/42	P_{T7} inducible expression vector, contains multiple cloning site of pET42a(+) in pET23a(+) backbone; Amp^R	-	-	*23*
pBAD18cm	P_{BAD} inducible expression vector; Cam^R	-	-	*64*
pBAD33	P_{BAD} inducible expression vector; Cam^R	-	-	*64*
pET23/42*tolQ*	Encodes full length TolQ; Amp^R	Ch. DNA	TolQ-N-NdeI/TolQ-C-AvrII	This study
pET23/42*tolR*	Encodes full length TolR; Amp^R	Ch. DNA	TolR-N-NdeI/TolR-C-AvrII	This study
pET23/42*tolR$_{D23R}$*	Encodes full length TolR$_{D23R}$; Amp^R	pET23/42*tolR*	TolR-D23R-N/TolR-D23R-C	This study
pET23/42*tolA*	Encodes full length TolA; Amp^R	Ch. DNA	TolA-N-NdeI/TolA-C-AvrII	This study
pET23/42*tolB*	Encodes full length TolB; Amp^R	Ch. DNA	TolB-N-NdeI/TolB-C-AvrII	This study
pET23/42*tol-pal*	Encodes full Tol-Pal complex; Amp^R	Ch. DNA	TolQ-N-NdeI/Pal-C-AvrII	This study
pBAD18cm*lpxC*	Encodes full length LpxC; Cam^R	Ch. DNA	LpxC-N-KpnI/LpxC-C-XbaI	This study
pDSW210-*yciM*	Encodes full length YciM under control of P_{trc}; IPTG-inducible; Amp^R	-	-	*60*
pBAD33*mlaA*	Encodes full length MlaA; Cam^R	Ch. DNA	MlaA-N-KpnI/MlaA-C-XbaI	This study
pBAD33*mlaFEDCB*	Encodes full length MlaFEDCB; Cam^R	Ch. DNA	MlaFEDCB-N-KpnI/MlaFEDCB-C-XbaI	This study

803 [a] Ch. DNA = MC4100 chromosomal DNA.
804 [b] Primer sequences are listed in Table S3.
805

806 **Supplementary Table 3. List of oligonucleotides**

Primer name	Sequence (5'-3')[a]
TolQ-N-NdeI	AGCA<u>CATATG</u>ACTGACATGAATATCC
TolQ-C-AvrII	ATT<u>CCTAGG</u>TTACCCCTTGTTGCTCTC
TolR-N-NdeI	ACAT<u>CATATG</u>GCCAGAGCGCGTGGAC
TolR-C-AvrII	ACA<u>CCTAGG</u>TTAGATAGGCTGCGTC
TolA-N-NdeI	ACAT<u>CATATG</u>TCAAAGGCAACCGAACAAAC
TolA-C-AvrII	ACTA<u>CCTAGG</u>TTACGGTTTGAAGTCC
TolB-N-NdeI	GCGAATT<u>CATATG</u>AAGCAGGCATTACGAGTA
TolB-C-AvrII	ACTA<u>CCTAGG</u>TCACAGATACGGCG
Pal-C-AvrII	ACTA<u>CCTAGG</u>TTAGTAAACCAGTACC
LpxC-N-KpnI	ATAA<u>GGTACC</u>TAATTTGGCGAGATAATACGATGATCAAA
LpxC-C-XbaI	ATCG<u>TCTAGA</u>TTATGCCAGTACAGCTGAAGG
MlaA-N-KpnI	ATAA<u>GGTACC</u>AAAAAAACAGGGAGACATTTATGAAGCTTC
MlaA-C-XbaI	ATCG<u>TCTAGA</u>TTATTCAGAATCAATATCTTTTAAAT
MlaFEDCB-N-KpnI	ATAA<u>GGTACC</u>CGCAAGACGAAGGGTGAATTATGGAGCAGT
MlaFEDCB-C-XbaI	ATCG<u>TCTAGA</u>TTAACGAGGCAGAACATCAGCAGG
TolR-D23R-N	ATTGTACCGTTGCTGAGAGTACTGCTGGTGCTG
TolR-D23R-C	CAGCACCAGCAGTACTCTCAGCAACGGTACAAT

807 [a] restriction sites are underlined.