Molecular and cellular insight into *Escherichia coli* SslE and its role during biofilm maturation

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Abstract

Escherichia coli **is a Gram-negative bacterium that colonizes the human intestine and virulent strains can cause severe diarrhoeal and extraintestinal diseases. The protein SslE is secreted by a range of pathogenic and some commensal** *E. coli* **strains. It can degrade mucins in the intestine, promotes biofilm maturation and in virulent strains, it is a major determinant of infection, although how it carries out these functions is not well understood. Here we examine SslE from the** *E. coli* **Waksman and H10407 strains and show that SslE has a highly dynamic structure in solution. We directly observe acidification within mature biofilms, describe a mechanism where SslE forms unique functional fibres under these conditions and determine that these SslE aggregates can bind cellulose, a major exopolysaccharide of many** *E. coli* **biofilms. Our data indicates that the spatial organization of SslE polymers and local pH are critical for biofilm maturation and SslE is a key factor that drives persistence of SslE-secreting bacteria during acidic stress.**

Introduction

Escherichia coli is a primary colonizer of the lower intestinal tract of humans and other warm-blooded animals. While many strains are considered beneficial to the host and help to maintain a healthy immune system, virulent strains are the cause of severe diarrhoeal diseases, including haemorrhagic colitis, and extraintestinal diseases such as neonatal meningitis, urinary tract infections, sepsis and pneumonia[1]. A wide range of pathogenic *E. coli* strains, and some commensals, use a *Vibrio*-like type II secretion system (T2SS) to translocate the protein SslE across their outer membrane and onto their extracellular surface[2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7]. These include the Waksman (W), enterotoxigenic (ETEC), enterohemorrhagic (EHEC), enteropathogenic (EPEC), enteroaggregative (EAEC), enteroinvasive (EIEC) and neonatal meningitis *E. coli* (NMEC) strains. SslE is required for full virulence in a rabbit model of EPEC infection[4] and as a surface exposed antigen, SslE has shown great promise as a broadly protective vaccine candidate against a wide range of *E. coli* pathotypes[3, 6, 8, 9].

SslE interacts with mucosal membranes in the host intestine where it can degrade mucins[6, 10, 11, 12], a

family of heavily *O*-linked glycosylated proteins and the primary constituents of mucus[13]. This provides

nutrients during bacterial growth but also enables these *E. coli* strains to penetrate the gut mucosa to

access host cells for efficient colonisation and targeting of toxins/effectors. However, SslE is also

important for mediating maturation of EPEC biofilms[4]; microbial aggregations encased within a self-

produced extracellular matrix comprised of exopolysaccharides, adhesive proteins and nucleic acids[14].

When *E. coli* is released into the environment through faeces or wastewater effluent it can survive for

long periods within complex biofilm communities[15, 16], and these are fundamental for both the

environmental ecology of *E. coli* but also for successful colonisation of the intestinal tract[17]. However,

the specific molecular mechanisms that SslE uses to promote ecology and disease are not well

understood.

SslE is a ~165 kDa lipoprotein composed of an N-terminal periplasmic localization sequence and

lipobox motif, an unstructured ~5 kDa region, a ~110 kDa residue region with no significant primary

sequence homology to any other known protein, and a ~50 kDa M60-like aminopeptidase domain at its

C-terminus[18] (**Fig. 1a**). M60-like domains are metalloproteases that contain a zinc binding HxxHE

motif and an additional conserved catalytic glutamate residue, which cleaves the peptide backbone of

mucin-like substrates. These and other related enzymes have been identified in both prokaryotic and

eukaryotic microbes that interact with host mucosal membranes[18] and structures of proteoglycan

complexes suggest that interactions with both the mucin peptide and *O*-linked carbohydrate sidechains

are important for specificity[19, 20]. The peptidase activity of the SslE M60 domain is effective for the

degradation of major mucins of the intestine (e.g. MUC2, MUC3, MUC5AC)[6, 10, 11, 12], however, we

know very little of how SslE interacts with these mucins or what function the remaining SslE sequence

has.

Using electron microscopy (EM), small angle X-ray scattering (SAXS), nuclear magnetic resonance

(NMR) spectroscopy and biochemical analyses we show that SslE from *E. coli* W is formed of three

defined regions (NT1, NT2 and NT3-M60), and is highly dynamic in solution. We also demonstrate

that SslE undergoes conformational changes under acidic conditions and this leads to the formation of

amyloid-like structures, which is mediated through its unique N-terminal (NT) region. We directly

observe acidification within mature *E. coli* W biofilms and determine that SslE fibres can bind cellulose,

a major exopolysaccharide of *E. coli* biofilms. We provide evidence that SslE aggregates are functional

for the maturation of both *E. coli* W and ETEC strain H10407 biofilms and this is likely a general

mechanism of all SslE-secreting bacteria.

Results

SslE forms amyloid-like aggregates under acidic conditions. Functional amyloids are important

proteinaceous structures in biofilms[21] and analysis of the SslE primary sequence had previously

highlighted several regions across the protein that may form amyloid-like structures[22]. Furthermore,

environmental pH plays a major role initiating the formation of amyloid-like structures in

Staphylococcus aureus, *Enterococcus faecalis* and *Streptococcus mutans* biofilms[23, 24, 25], and we

speculated that pH may also stimulate similar structural changes in SslE. SslE from *E. coli* W, minus

the N-terminal lipidation motif and adjacent disordered region (rSslE; residues 67 to 1497; UniProt

ID E0IW31) (**Fig. 1a**), was therefore produced in *E. coli* K-12 and purified by nickel-affinity and size

exclusion chromatography. We then incubated rSslE across the pH range 4.0 to 7.0 and observed a ring

of protein deposited on the walls of the tube at pH ≤ 4.4, which resisted solubilization up to pH 6.2 (**Fig.**

1b). Mass spectrometry analysis of the ring identified peptides that spanned the complete sequence of

rSslE and indicated that the aggregate contained intact protein, rather than a degradation product

(**Supplementary Fig. 1**). We next used the amyloid diagnostic dye Thioflavin-T (ThT) to assess the

formation of rSslE aggregates in solution over time. We observed large increases in ThT fluorescence

emission again across the pH range 4.0 to 4.4, but no change was detected when rSslE was incubated

above pH 4.4 (**Fig. 1c**). Likewise, when rSslE was boiled and treated with sodium dodecyl sulphate

(SDS) and then analysed by immunoblotting, stable high molecular weight species were observed over

the same pH range (**Fig. 1d**).

A main feature of amyloid is the presence of a cross-β-sheet structure[26] and so we first analysed the

secondary structure of soluble rSslE using far-UV circular dichroism (CD) spectroscopy. This

suggested that at pH 7.4 rSslE is composed of approximately 30% α-helix, 12% β-sheet and 45% coil,

while under acidic conditions and prior to aggregation, there is an ~8% loss of helical secondary

structure with a ~5% increase in β-sheet structure (**Fig. 1e; Supplementary Table 1**). We next used

attenuated total reflectance (ATR) Fourier transform mid-infrared (FT-MIR) spectroscopy to probe the

secondary structure composition of soluble rSslE at pH 7.4 and rSslE fibres at pH 4.4. Examination of

the amide I absorption band showed a peak at approximately 1656 cm^{-1} and 1624 cm^{-1}, respectively,

which corresponds to β-sheet structure and the shift from higher to lower frequency indicated that a

larger and more rigid structure had assembled under acid conditions (**Supplementary Fig. 2**). The

presence of both a high-intensity absorption band at ~1624 cm^{-1} and a low-intensity band at ~1695 cm^{-}

^{1} is indicative of an anti-parallel β-sheet structure[27] and is consistent with previous FT-MIR based

characterisations of other anti-parallel β-sheet amyloid fibres[28] (**Fig. 1f**). Furthermore, deconvolution

of the amide I region suggested that rSslE fibres are predominantly composed of aggregated β-strands

(~21%) and other β-sheet structures (~54%) and with very little helical content (~2%) (**Supplementary**

Table 2).

Biofilm maturation supports polymerisation of SslE. Congo red is a dye which binds extracellular

polymeric substances (EPS) and we used this to assess the role of SslE during formation of macrocolony

biofilms. We created an isogenic Δ*sslE* mutant in *E. coli* W and ETEC strain H10407 and compared

these to their parental wild-type strains. When these mutants were cultured on Congo red agar plates

for 24 hrs, we observed no obvious differences, however, after 96 hrs the mutants exhibited an altered

morphology with the dye retained within the centre of the colony (**Fig. 2a**). Complementation of the

Δ*sslE* mutant in *E. coli* W with a plasmid containing intact *sslE* (Δ*sslE::sslE*) was able to restore

bacterial secretion of SslE and recover macrocolony morphology similar to that of the parental wild-

type (**Fig. 2a**; **Supplementary Fig. 3**). We also generated a plasmid expressing SslE with a truncated

C-terminus (Δ*sslE::sslEΔM60*; residues 1 to 1000) to examine the role of the M60-domain during

colony formation, and this again restored SslE secretion and wild-type colony morphology (**Fig. 2a**;

Supplementary Fig. 3). This led us to speculate that SslE experiences extracellular pH values <5.0

during the development of biofilms and this results in SslE being deposited as a functional aggregate.

To test this, we first grew *E. coli* W biofilms using a microfluidic system under continuous flow and

assessed their overall morphology using confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM). While biofilms

grown for 48 hrs produced a relatively homogenous lawn of bacterial growth, after 96 hrs there were

clear signs of maturation, with a significant increase in biofilm mass, structural heterogeneity and the

presence of solvent channels (**Fig. 2b,c**). We then examined the *E. coli* W Δ*sslE* mutant under these

conditions, but in line with previous reports in EPEC strain E2348/69[4], it was unable to develop

structures beyond microcolonies (**Fig. 2c,d**). Furthermore, complementation of the mutant with either

intact *sslE* or *sslEΔM60* was again able to restore wild-type biofilm morphology. Together with our

previous observation, this indicated that the C-terminal M60-domain is not required for translocation

of SslE through its T2SS and it is dispensable for biofilm development, at least under these conditions.

We then examined pH distribution across *E. coli* W biofilms using CLSM coupled with the cell-

impermeant fluorescent ratiometric probe seminaphthorhodafluor-4F 5-(and-6) carboxylic acid (C-

SNARF-4). After growing *E. coli* W for 24 hrs under continuous flow, we observed pH values between

6.0 and 6.3 across biofilms (**Supplementary Fig. 4**), however, after 96 hrs, lower pH values were also

recorded (**Fig. 2e**). Although across the majority of biofilms examined, we detected pH values between

approximately 5.0 and 6.0, clearly defined microenvironments were also observed with pH values that

ranged from 4.2 and 4.8.

Overall structural features of SslE. We next initiated structural studies of SslE. Small angle X-ray

scattering (SAXS) coupled with size exclusion chromatography (SEC-SAXS) was first used to get

shape information for rSslE at pH 7.4. Guinier analysis provided a radius of gyration (R_g) of 4.03 nm

and examination of the distance distribution function (P(r)) suggested a maximum particle dimension

(D_{max}) of 14.1 nm and R_g of 4.07 nm (**Supplementary Fig. 5; Supplementary Table 3**). Calculation

of the particle molecular mass was consistent with a monomer in solution and *ab initio* dummy residue

reconstruction generated reproducible models with an average normalized spatial discrepancy (NSD)

score between reconstructions of 0.56 and a χ^2 fit between calculated and experimental solution

scattering of 1.2 (**Fig. 3a,b**). The low-resolution bead model suggested that rSslE has a slightly

elongated structure, however, examination of the Kratky plot indicated that rSslE is a dynamic particle

(**Supplementary Fig. 5**) and no obvious domain features could be assigned.

Negative-stain TEM data was next collected for rSslE at pH 7.4 and we performed single particle

analysis to generate an initial low-resolution structure, with overall dimensions of approximately

8×8×11.5 nm (**Fig. 3c; Supplementary Fig. 6**). Here, three well defined regions could be identified:

two adjacent globular domains (regions 1 and 2) with approximate diameters of 4 nm and 4.5 nm,

respectively, and a torus shaped structure (region 3) with a ~15 Å wide central channel and approximate

overall dimensions of 4.5×6.5×9 nm (**Fig. 3d**). Superposition of the SAXS bead model with the TEM

envelope supported SslE being dynamic in solution, with an apparent reduction of bead volume in all

three regions of the SAXS model. Docking analysis of a homology model of the M60 domain, based

on the IMPa M60 metalloprotease from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (PDB ID code 5kdv)[19], indicated that

the C-terminus of SslE is located at the base of region 3 (**Fig. 3e**). This suggested that the remaining

density in region 3 is composed of the SslE sequence directly N-terminal to the M60 domain and these

two regions pack against one another to form a stable structure around an inter-domain channel.

Furthermore, from this model the M60 HxxHE active site motif faces into the channel and this could

be an important feature for its mucolytic activity. The location of the M60 domain in the TEM map was

also supported by previous reports where it was not possible to purify a folded recombinant SslE M60

fragment due to sample instability[22].

Secondary structure prediction[29] of the SslE sequence indicated two potential inter-domain boundaries

within the N-terminal region and we predicted that these represented regions 1 and 2 located at the

extreme N-terminus (NT) of SslE. We therefore renamed these as the NT1 (residues 67-211) and NT2

(residues 230-425) domains, respectively, and renamed the remaining sequence as NT3 (residues 426-

1000) (**Fig. 3f**). The NT1 and NT2 domains, along with the NT1-NT2 region (residues 67-425) and

NT3-M60 core (region 3; residues 426-1497) were then produced in *E. coli* K-12 and purified by nickel-

affinity and size exclusion chromatography. Examination of these constructs using analytical gel

filtration and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy showed that they were well folded

(**Supplementary Fig. 7**), and supported NT1, NT2 and NT3-M60 being well-defined structural

boundaries within SslE. When we examined intact rSslE by NMR, a ^{1}H^{15}N transverse relaxation

optimized spectroscopy (TROSY) HSQC spectrum yielded only ~250 strong resonances with the

remaining ~1200 peaks being either very weak or completely absent (**Fig. 3g**). Furthermore, NMR

relaxation measurements of these intense peaks provided an estimated correlation time consistent with

an ~80 kDa domain ($\tau_c \sim$ 35 ns at 37°C). Comparison of rSslE with ^{1}H^{15}N-HSQC spectra from SslE

subdomains also clearly showed that the rSslE NMR spectrum is dominated by the NT1 domain but

with minor contributions from the NT2 domain (**Fig. 3g; Supplementary Fig. 8**). This further

supported this region having significant independent motion with respect to the NT3-M60 core and we

considered whether the NT1-NT2 region alone could be responsible for mediating SslE aggregation.

We therefore repeated our ring assay with SslE NT1-NT2 and the NT3-M60 constructs incubated across

the pH range 4.0 to 7.0. This resulted in significantly less protein being deposited on the walls of the

tubes and for NT3-M60 this was over a wider pH range. This implied that both the NT1-NT2 and the

NT3 regions are necessary for polymerisation of intact SslE (**Supplementary Fig. 9**).

Kinetics of SslE aggregation using SAXS. We took advantage of SEC-SAXS to probe the global

shape of rSslE at pH 4.4 prior to fibre formation and both Guinier analysis (R_g 3.92 nm) and examination

of the distance distribution function (D_{max} 13.7 nm) produced very similar values to rSslE at pH 7.4

(**Supplementary Fig. 10; Supplementary Table 3)**. However, comparison of scattering profiles and

Kratky plots showed differences at q-values around 0.13 Å^{-1}, indicative of rSslE becoming more rigid

under acidic conditions (**Fig. 4a**; **Supplementary Fig. 11**). *Ab initio* dummy residue reconstruction

produced models with an average NSD score of 0.45 and a χ^2 fit between calculated and experimental

solution scattering of 1.0 (**Fig. 4b**; **Supplementary Fig. 12**). Comparison of the bead models indicated

an increase in bead volume within the NT1 and NT2 domains and adjacent NT3 region at pH 4.4, while

little change was observed in the NT3-M60 core, which supported an increase in rigidity under acidic

conditions that could trigger aggregation.

We then exploited the additive nature of SAXS along with its ability to examine structures over a large size range to study the kinetics of fibre formation by rSslE. We acquired SAXS data at pH 4.4 during the course of aggregation for 11 hrs and the resulting 23 profiles displayed a systematic upwards intensity increase, indicating the presence of large aggregates in solution (**Fig. 4c**). The appearance of these large species occurred relatively fast as the upwards intensity increase was already observed after 1 hr and the increase of aggregated species was concomitant to the loss of the SAXS features linked to the monomeric species. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) indicated that the data set could be described as a two-component system (**Supplementary Fig. 13**) and we decomposed the time-dependent data set along with the SAXS profile of the monomer, obtained using SEC-SAXS, with COSMiCS. COSMiCS uses a chemometric approach to decompose SAXS data sets in a model-free manner to derive the pure SAXS curves of the co-existing species and their relative populations, which we used here to report on the fibrillation kinetics[30].

The COSMiCS decomposition, assuming the co-existence of two components, was able to adequately fit all the SAXS profiles with an average $<\chi^2>$ of 1.49, although some deviations from the perfect fit were observed for the SAXS curves measured in the first 3 hrs (**Fig. 4c**). This observation suggested the presence of a small population of a third species in the initial steps of fibrillation but this putative third species could not be captured when considering a three-species decomposition with COSMiCS. The extracted profile of the smallest species, and the subsequently derived R_g (3.93 nm) and D_{max} (13.3 nm) values, were almost identical to the SEC-SAXS profile for rSslE at pH 4.4 (**Fig. 4d,e; Supplementary Table 3**), and this indicated that SslE is in a monomeric form at the beginning of the fibrillation process. The extracted SAXS profile of the second component displayed the typical features of a highly elongated amyloidogenic particle[30, 31, 32, 33] and the *P(r)* analysis of the profile indicated that the repetitive unit of the fibre had an R_g of ~51.1 nm and D_{max} of ~140 nm (**Fig. 4d,e; Supplementary Table 3**). Examination of the relative populations of the two species derived from the COSMiCS decomposition over time showed that after 30 min from initiating the measurements, the amyloidogenic species already represented 50% of the molar fraction (**Fig. 4f**). From this time point, this population continued to grow and reached a plateau after ~10 hrs.

SslE fibres bind cellulose. We speculated that during the maturation of biofilms, SslE aggregates would likely interact with other components of the biofilm matrix and may contribute to structural integrity of these communities. We therefore examined whether rSslE could bind cellulose, a major exopolysaccharide of many *E. coli* biofilms. We first produced rSslE fibres at pH 4.0 and then isolated these aggregates in citrate-phosphate buffer at pH 6.0, a condition in which fibres would resist solubilization (**Fig. 1b**). As controls, we used monomeric rSslE, and the C-terminal domain (CTD) of the *Porphyromonas gingivalis* gingipain protein RgpB (**Supplementary Fig. 14**), both of which were not expected to bind cellulose or form polymers at pH 6.0. When we assayed binding of rSslE fibres to immobilised cellulose discs we observed a significant interaction, but as expected this was not detected with monomeric rSslE or RgpB-CTD (**Fig. 5**). This indicated that under similar conditions SslE aggregates may associate with cellulose and/or other exopolysaccharides during biofilm maturation.

Discussion

SslE is a relatively large protein and we have revealed that it is composed of four defined regions: two globular domains at the N-terminus (NT1 and NT2) and a central torus shaped core, where a NT3 domain packs against an M60-like aminopeptidase. The N-terminal region (NT1, NT2 and NT3) is composed of a unique primary sequence that has only been identified in SslE and its homologs[34], while the C-terminal M60-like domain is found in a wide range of proteins secreted by both prokaryotic and eukaryotic microorganisms that interact with mucosal membranes[18, 35]. The atomic structure for three M60-like domains in complex with *O*-glycopeptides have been described: BT4244 from *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron* (PDB ID code: 5kd2), IMPa from *P. aeruginosa* (PDB ID code: 5kdw) and ZmpB from *Clostridium perfringens* (PDB ID code: 5kdn)[19]. While the active site structures in these bacterial enzymes are highly conserved, there are variations within the remaining M60 domain, which enables them to recognize unique glycan sequences. Structural data is not available for the N-terminus of BT4244, although it is thought to contain putative BACON and CBM32 carbohydrate binding domains[18]. Likewise, structures for the N- and C-terminal regions of ZmpB do not exist but are predicted to contain dicoidin, NPCBM and leucine rich repeat domains. It is likely that these M60

augmentations have a role in the recognition of *O*-glycopeptide substrates and it appears that the active site in the M60 domain of SslE faces into the NT3 domain, which implies that both the NT3 and M60 domains are responsible for recognition of mucins in SslE. Furthermore, with significant flexibility of the NT1/NT2 region, these domains might be functional in clamping mucin substrates in place once bound at the NT3-M60 core.

Although SslE has a clear function in the processing of mucins, it is a unique member of the M60-like aminopeptidase family as it is also fundamental for the maturation of EPEC biofilms grown on plastics. Furthermore, we have now shown that it is also required for the maturation of *E. coli* W and ETEC H10407 biofilms when grown on agar and silicone substrates. We have demonstrated that this unusual function is due to SslE forming amyloid-like aggregates at pH ≤ 4.4; conditions which are also observed as microenvironments across mature wild-type *E. coli* W biofilms. It is well established that phenotypical heterogeneity develops during the maturation of biofilms and direct measurement of extracellular pH within *E. coli* PHL628 biofilms has also shown a heterogenous distributions of pH, with values ranging between 5.0 and 7.0[36]. Therefore, it is very likely that SslE can form functional aggregates within transiently forming microenvironments across maturing and established biofilms, but then resists solubilisation after any increase in pH.

Microbial amyloid structures are ubiquitous in biofilms and in gram negative bacteria most known amyloid structures are synthesized by two distinct and dedicated systems[37, 38]. Curli fimbriae are formed using the Csg secretion system and are the best characterized bacterial amyloid structure[39], while Fap fimbriae in *Pseudomonas* are created by the Fap system[40]. Curli-like fibres are formed through spontaneous aggregation of extended peptides and provide adhesion, cohesion and contribute to the structural integrity of the biofilm matrix[39]. Environmental cues play a major role in the regulation of curli expression [41], for example, in *E. coli* curli are generally expressed below 30°C, although clinical isolates have been found that express at 37°C, and absence of curli is important for the survival of EHEC strain O157:H7 in agricultural environments[42]. However, in recent years a growing family of surface associated proteins have been identified in gram-positive bacteria that also display amyloid-like

properties[21]. These proteins have a high molecular weight and are functional as non-amyloidogenic folded proteins; but in response to environmental stimuli, including changes in pH, they form functional aggregates. Examples include the biofilm associated protein (Bap) from *S. aureus*[24], the related enterococcal surface protein (Esp) from *E. faecalis*[23] and the *S. mutans* antigen I/II (AgI/II) protein[25]. Here we have shown that SslE is a new member of this family and it is the first example from a gram-negative bacterium. However, it is not clear whether SslE works in synergy with curli or whether it supports biofilm growth under those conditions where curli and other matrix components are not expressed.

Polymerisation of SslE is mediated by its NT1 , NT2 and NT3 domains, which become more rigid prior to SslE incorporation into growing fibres. There is also a ~5% increase in β-sheet structure within monomeric SslE under acidic conditions and this suggests that up to ~70 residues could be directly involved in aggregation. While at neutral pH SslE is formed of ~30% helix, SslE fibres display much less helical content and the C-terminal M60-like domain is dispensable for the maturation of *E. coli* biofilms when grown on agar and silicone. However, it could be that this domain while not involved in polymerisation, may still decorate these fibres and be functional under different conditions, for example through interacting with mucins during intestinal colonisation. We have shown that SslE fibres can associate with cellulose, which is known to have an architectural role in many *E. coli* biofilms and provides cohesion and elasticity[43]. Although the precise role of SslE during biofilm development is still vague, its interaction with cellulose indicates that it could also have an architectural role and act as a hub to promote binding between other EPS within the biofilm. Furthermore, as monomeric SslE does not recognize cellulose, this suggests that new binding potentials in SslE become available after its aggregation.

Outside of *E. coli*, high sequence identity to SslE has also been identified in enteric human pathogens which include *Shigella flexneri* (93% identity), *Shigella boydii* (93% identity), *Shigella dysenteriae* (92% identity), *Escherichia fergusonii* (90% identity) and *Escherichia albertii* (86% identity). Furthermore, SslE homologs have been found in bacterial pathogens that infect aquatic organisms,

many of which also cause severe gastrointestinal diseases in humans. These are namely *Vibrio cholerae* (52% identity), *Vibrio vulnificus* (51% identity), *Photobacterium piscicola* (50% identity), *Vibrio harveyi* (39% identity), *Vibrio campbellii* (39% identity), *Vibrio crassostreae* (39% identity) and *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* (40% identity). SslE was originally identified in *V. cholerae* (called AcfD)[44] and is part of a gene cluster involved in bacterial colonisation and pathogenesis, however, outside of *E. coli* little is known of its function. Based on sequence analysis[34] SslE homologues are expected to possess mucolytic activity but it is unknown whether they can also regulate biofilm development.

Although both *E. coli* W and ETEC 10407 secrete SslE, the W strain is a harmless commensal, while ETEC is a major etiological agent in developing countries[45]. SslE is also required for colonisation in a rabbit model of EPEC infection[4] and is actively transcribed during ETEC infection of mice[6]. Biofilm growth and the production of enterotoxins are essential for the pathogenesis of ETEC-induced disease[45] and secretion of SslE and the ETEC labile toxin is via the same type II secretion system[4, 46]. This suggests that SslE increases the virulence of *E. coli* pathotypes through its ability to promote biofilm maturation and/or through its interactions with mucosal defences. Both enterotoxigenic and enteropathogenic *E. coli* strains cause infection in the small intestine[1] where the intraluminal pH ranges between approximately 6.0 to 7.5[47]. However, *E. coli* possess an acid-tolerance response that supports exponential growth at pH values as low as pH 4.2[48] and due to the synthesis of organic acids by the residing microbiota, during colonisation of the intestine *E. coli* will experience extracellular pH values that range between 4.0 and 6.0[49]. Although this suggests that within the intestinal tract, conditions exist where SslE could regulate biofilm development, it remains unclear whether this role is important for infection or during extraintestinal survival. SslE represents a unique protein and further studies are now required to understand its complete functions during ecology and disease.

Methods

Bacterial strains and media

Bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table 4. Lysogeny broth

(LB) medium contained (per litre) 10 g tryptone, 5 g yeast extract and 10 g NaCl. Isotopically defined

M9 minimal medium (pH 7.4) contained (per litre) 6.0 g $Na_2HPO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$, 3 g KH_2PO_4, 0.5 g NaCl,

0.12 g $MgSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$, 0.022 g $CaCl_2$, 0.04 g thiamine, 8.3 mg $FeCl_3 \cdot 6H_2O$, 0.5 mg $ZnCl_2$, 0.1 mg $CuCl_2$,

0.1 mg $CoCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$, 0.1 mg H_3BO_3 and 13.5 mg $MnCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$, supplemented with 2g [U-$^{13}C_6$]glucose

and/or 0.7 g $^{15}NH_4Cl$. M9 media was made up in deuterium oxide for the production of perdeuterated

protein samples and pH was adjusted using 1 M NaOH solution. All NMR isotopes were from Sigma.

Gene deletion

Plasmids and primers used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table 4. A non-polar deletion of

sslE was constructed in *E. coli* W and H10407 strains by allelic exchange with FLP recombination

target (FRT)-flanked Kan[r], using a modified protocol[50]. This fragment was amplified from *E. coli* strain

JW5925-1[51] using Platinum *Taq* DNA polymerase (Promega) and primers PC3 and PC4 with

specificity for the regions flanking *sslE*. These exchanges were facilitated by the λ Red recombinase

system carried on plasmid pKD46 and knockouts were confirmed by PCR and sequencing.

Plasmid construction

Plasmids and primers used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table 4. Synthetic genes used in

this study are listed in Supplementary Table 5. Complementation plasmids pCPC1 and pCPC2 were

generated by amplifying whole length *sslE*, or *sslE* minus the M60 domain, from *E. coli* W gDNA using

primer pairs PC7/PC8 or PC7/PC9, respectively. These were digested with HindIII/NheI (NEB), ligated

into HindIII/NheI-digested pBad-cm18 vector. Synthetic genes gPC4, gPC5, gPC6 and gPC7 were

synthesized by Synbio Technologies and cloned into pET28b vector using NcoI and XhoI restriction

sites to create plasmids pPC2, pPC3, pPC4 and pPC5, respectively. Plasmid pBD1 was created by

amplification of the RgpB-CTD from *P. gingivalis* W50 gDNA using primers BD1 and BD2. This was

then cloned into pET46 Ek/LIC vector through ligation independent cloning (Novagen).

Microfluidic biofilm growth

Biofilms were grown in a BioFlux 200 device (Labtech, UK) using a protocol adapted from the

manufacturer. Single colonies of *E. coli* W and its derivatives were resuspended in 10 ml of LB (with

additional 50 μg/ml kanamycin for *Δssle* mutant and 50 μg/ml kanamycin, 25 μg/ml chloramphenicol

Δssle::pCPC1 (*sslE*) and *Δssle::pCPC2* (*sslEΔM60*)) and incubated at 37°C with shaking (200 rpm) for

16 hrs. All subsequent media contained appropriate antibiotics where required. The cultures were then

diluted (1:100) in 10 ml of LB to OD_{600nm} of 0.5. A 24 well Bioflux plate (0-20 dyn/cm^2) was pre-

warmed to 37°C on a heated stage and microfluidic channels were incubated with prewarmed LB. The

channels were then inoculated by injecting 20 μl of bacterial suspension into the output reservoir for 5

s at 2 dyne/cm^2. The microfluidic plate was incubated for 1 hr at 37°C to allow bacteria to bind to the

surface and then the flow reversed for 20 sec. Prewarmed LB was then added to the input reservoir, the

flow of media was initiated at 2 dyne/cm^2 for 5 min and then decreased to 1 dyne/cm^2 for 18 hrs. The

spent media was removed from the output reservoir, fresh prewarmed media was added to the input

reservoir and the flow was lowered to 0.5 dyne/cm^2 for up to 96 hrs.

Biofilm pH measurement

The ratiometric dye seminaphthorhodafluor-4F 5-(and-6) carboxylic acid (C-SNARF-4) was used to

directly measure pH across biofilms within the Bioflux channel, using a modified method[52]. HEPES

buffer was first adjusted between pH 3.2 to 7.8 in 0.2 increments using HCl, and 95 μl of each respective

solution was then mixed with 5 μl 1mM C-SNARF-4, resulting in a final 50 μM concentration of C-

SNARF-4. This solution was flushed into the Bioflux plate channel, pre-warmed at 37°C and the

channels were imaged at x64 magnification using a DM-IRE2 confocal laser scanning microscope

(Leica Microsystems Heidelberg GmbH, Germany) and the accompanying Leica Microsystems

Confocal Software (version 2.61 Build 1537). Simultaneous images were captured using an excitation

wavelength of 488 nm and emission wavelengths of 580 nm and 640 nm, in triplicate for each pH

increment with a background image obtained after each acquisition. Acquired images were analysed

using ImageJ Software (FIJI)[53] by determining the average intensity of fluorescence and standard

deviation of each channel, minus the background control. The intensity ratio for each pH was used to

make a standard curve by plotting known pH against green/red ratio. 50μM C-SNARF-4 was then

flushed into Bioflux plates containing *E. coli* W biofilm after either 24 or 96 hrs growth and five

separate images were acquired for each Bioflux channel to calculate the pH from different areas of the

biofilm. The fluorescence intensity and standard deviation were recorded, and the ratiometric value was

used to determine pH from the standard curve. A 12×12 grid (~30 μm^2 area) was applied to each image,

each box was used to define regions of interest (ROI) and an average measure of pH was calculated

within each region. The average pH for ROIs within the biofilm fringes and centres is presented.

Bacterial culture ring assay

408 10 ml of LB containing 0.8 mg/ml congo red dye, adjusted to either pH 5.0 or 7.0 with HCl, were

409 inoculated with wild-type *E. coli* W or H10407 strains and their derivatives (including 50 μg/ml

410 kanamycin for *Δssle* mutant and 50 μg/ml kanamycin, 25 μg/ml chloramphenicol for *Δssle::pCPC1*

411 (*sslE*) and *Δssle::pCPC2* (*sslEΔM60*)). These were incubated overnight at 37°C while shaking (200

412 rpm) and the presence of ring formation on the glass tube was visually assessed.

Protein purification

Recombinant SslE (residues 67-1497; numbered based on mature sequence) was expressed and

purified as described previously[12]. Likewise, SslE NT1 (residues 67-211), NT2 (residues 230-425),

NT1-NT2 (residues 67-425), NT3-M60 (residues 426-1497) and RgpB-CTD were transformed into *E.*

coli SHuffle cells (SslE; New England Biolabs) or BL21 (DE3) (RgpB-CTD; New England Biolabs),

grown at 37°C in LB media (rSslE, RgpB-CTD: 100 μg/ml ampicillin; NT1, NT2, NT1-NT2, NT3-

M60: 100 μg/ml kanamycin) and expression induced with 0.5 mM isopropyl-d-1-thiogalactopyranoside

(IPTG) at an OD_{600nm} of 0.6, followed by growth overnight at 18°C. Cells were resuspended in 20 mM

Tris–HCl pH 8, 200 mM NaCl, 5 mM MgCl$_2$, 1 mg/ml DNase I, 5 mg/ml lysozyme, lysed by sonication

and purified using nickel affinity chromatography followed by gel filtration using either a Superdex 75

(NT1, NT2, RgpB-CTD) or 200 (rSslE, NT1-NT2, NT3-M60) column (GE Healthcare).

Recombinant protein ring assay

20 μl of rSslE, NT1-NT2 or NT3-M60 (62.5 μM) in 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8, 100 mM NaCl buffer were

diluted to 2 ml in 100 mM citrate phosphate buffer at pH 4.0, 4.2, 4.4, 4.6, 4.8, 5.0, 5.4, 5.8, 6.2, 6.6

and 7.0. These were transferred to glass tubes, incubated overnight at 37°C while shaking (200 rpm)

and the presence of ring formation on the glass tube was visually assessed. Buffer from tubes containing

rings formed at pH 4.0 was then removed without disturbing the rings and 3 ml of 100 mM citrate

phosphate buffer over the same pH range was added. These were left overnight with shaking at 37°C

and solubilization of the rings were visually assessed the next day.

ThT binding

433 15 μl of 50 μM rSslE in 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8, 100 mM NaCl buffer was mixed with 1.5 μl of 1 mM

434 Thioflavin T (ThT) dye and transferred to a 96-well plate. 100 mM citrate phosphate buffer between

435 pH 4.0 and 8.0 was added to a final volume of 150 μl and fluorescence data was collected

436 (excitation/emission 438/480 nm) at 37°C with shaking every 15 min over 24 hrs using a BMG

437 CLARIOstar plate reader.

SEC-SAXS

SAXS data were collected on beamline B21 at the Diamond Light Source (DLS), United Kingdom at

25°C. 60 μl of rSslE (10 mg/ml) in 20 mM Tris–HCl pH 8, 200 mM NaCl was applied to a KW403-4F

column (Shodex) at 0.16 ml/min and SAXS data were measured over a momentum transfer range of

$0.003 < q < 0.44$ Å^{-1}. Peak integration and buffer subtraction were performed in CHROMIXS[54]. The

radius of gyration (R_g) and scattering at zero angle [$I(0)$] were calculated from the analysis of the Guinier

region by AUTORG[54]. The distance distribution function [$P(r)$] was subsequently obtained using

GNOM[54] yielding the maximum particle dimension (D_{max}). *Ab initio* low resolution shape restoration

was carried out by calculating 20 models using DAMMIF[54], which were subsequently averaged using

DAMAVER[54] and used as a staring model for refinement in DAMMIN[54]. An additional 20 models were

also calculated and averaged in DAMAVER[54]. CRYSOL[54] was used to compare final rSslE TEM

envelopes and models against the solution SAXS curve. Processing and refinement statistics can be

found in **Supplementary Table 2**.

SAXS fibrillation analysis

SAXS data were collected on beamline B21 at the DLS, UK at 20°C. Immediately prior to data

collection, 10 mg/ml rSslE in 20 mM Tris–HCl pH 8, 200 mM NaCl was buffer exchanged into 20 mM

citrate-phosphate buffer, pH 4.4 using a PD10 column (GE Healthcare) and the flow through was used

as a buffer reference. Using a peristaltic pump and while constantly stirring, 5 ml of rSslE (0.7 mg/ml)

was circulated through the SAXS imaging cuvette and data were collected every 30 min over a

momentum transfer range of $0.004 < q < 0.4$ Å^{-1}, with the initial scattering data captured at 30 min after

initiating fibre growth. Data collected over the course of 11 hrs, consisting of 22 profiles, was

decomposed using COSMiCS[30], which utilizes MCR-ALS[55] to perform model free decomposition of

the entire SAXS data set. The SEC-SAXS curve collected at pH 4.4 was also included in the dataset as

the representative state of the protein at time 0 s, *i.e.* before initiating fibrillation. The time 0 s curve

was selected as one of the initial estimates and the selectivity restraint was used to ascertain that the

curve had no contribution from the other species. In addition, non-negativity restraint was imposed for

both the SAXS profiles and concentrations using FNNLS algorithm[56]. Before COSMiCS analysis,

SAXS data were scaled according to the large angle data to enhance the decomposition capacity of the

approach. Although COSMiCS was run assuming a two-component system as suggested by Principal

Component Analysis (PCA), a three-species run was also performed. The convergence criterion of <

0.01 % change in lack of fit was used with 1,000 maximum allowed iterations. The analysis of the

resulting COSMiCS curves was performed with the ATSAS suit of programs[54].

TEM single particle analysis

4 µl of rSslE (625 nM) in 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 150 mM NaCl was applied to previously glow-discharged 300 mesh continuous carbon-coated copper grids (Agar Scientific Ltd) for 1 min and blotted for excess liquid. 4 µl of 2% (v/v) uranyl acetate was applied for staining for 1 min. The excess liquid was blotted and left to dry. Data was acquired using a JEOL JEM-2100 plus TEM operating at 200 kV equipped with a OneView 16 Megapixel camera (Gatan). 50 micrographs were collected at a nominal magnification of 50,000x with a pixel size of 2.1 Å/pixel and a range of defocus from 1 to 3 µm. Data were processed using Relion 3.1[57]. Defocus and astigmatism parameters were estimated using CTFFIND4[58] in Relion 3.1. An initial dataset of 41,752 particles were autopicked using 2D class averages generated using manually picked particles (approx. 1500 particles) as reference. After a few rounds of 2D classification ignoring CTF until the first peak, 10,988 particles were taken forward for an initial model generation using 3D initial model in Relion 3.1[57]. Following initial model generation, a few rounds of 3D classification followed by 3D refinement was carried out. The final model was refined to 22 Å using the gold standard FSC (0.143 criterion). PHYRE2[59] was used to analyse the SslE sequence (residues 67-1497; UniProt ID E0IW31) and generate a homology model for the C-terminal M60 domain (residues 962-1415) based on residues 421-894 of *P. aueriginosa* IMPa (PDB ID code 5kdv; 100% confidence, 21% identity)[19]. This was then docked into the rSslE TEM envelope using UCSF CHIMERA[60].

Solution NMR spectroscopy

NMR measurements for rSslE were performed at 25°C on a 100 µM ^{2}H^{15}N-labelled sample in 50 mM NaPO$_4$ pH 7.4, 100 mM NaCl, 10 % D$_2$O. NMR measurements for SslE NT1 (0.6 mM), SslE NT2 (1.3 mM) and SslE NT1-NT2 (0.8 mM) were performed at 25°C on ^{15}N-labelled samples in 50 mM NaPO$_4$ pH 7.0, 100 mM NaCl, 10 % D$_2$O. NMR measurements for RgpB-CTD (0.3 mM) were performed at 37°C on a ^{15}N-labelled sample in 20 mM NaPO$_4$ pH 6.0, 100 mM NaCl, 10 % D$_2$O. Transverse relaxation optimized spectroscopy (TROSY) based ^{1}H^{15}N-HSQC experiment and T_1 and T_2 relaxation times for rSslE were recorded on a Bruker Avance III HD 950, equipped with a TXI cryoprobe. TROSY

497   ^{1}H^{15}N-HSQC experiment for SslE NT1-NT2 was recorded on a on a Bruker Avance III HD 800,

498   equipped with a TCI cryoprobe. Standard ^{1}H^{15}N-HSQC spectra of SslE NT1, SslE NT2 and RgpB-CTD

499   were recorded on a Bruker Avance III HD 700, equipped with a TCI cryoprobe. Data were processed

500   in NMRPIPE[61] and analysed/visualized with ANALYSIS[62] and NMRVIEW[63].

Cellulose binding assay

An Immulon 2-HB 96-well plate (VWR) was blocked for 1 hr at 25°C with 300 µl of 0.1 % (w/v) BSA

in PBS-Tween and then washed once with 300 µl of incubation buffer (100 mM citrate-phosphate buffer

pH 6.0, 0.05 % (w/v) BSA, 0.05 % Tween-20). One cellulose disc[64] was added to each well and then

200 µl of incubation buffer was added to cover the discs, followed by incubation for 5 min. The discs

were washed twice in incubation buffer and then 200 µl of either 100 µM rSslE monomer, rSslE fibre

(produced as described for immunoblotting) or RgpB-CTD control, all in incubation buffer, were added

to the cellulose discs. The plate was incubated for 3 hrs at 25°C and then the discs were transferred

carefully to new pre-blocked wells and washed with 200 µl incubation buffer. After repeating three

times, the discs were incubated with anti-His$_6$ HRP conjugated antibody (ThermoFisher) diluted 1:2000

with incubation buffer for 1 hr at 24°C. The discs were removed again, and the washing step was

repeated 3 times. Finally, the solution was removed from the wells and the discs were incubated with

150 µl of *o*-Phenylenediamine dihydrochloride (Sigma) for 30 min. The solution in the wells was stirred

thoroughly, the discs were removed and then data was recorded at 450 nm.

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Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: PC, SW, SR, KF, AS, SS, BD, LC, LMS, SL, JJ, GC, MAC, PB, VCD, JAG. Performed the experiments: PC, SW, SR, KF, AS, SS, BD, LC, LMS, SL, JJ, VCD, JAG. Analyzed the data: PC, SW, SR, KF, PB, VCD, JAG. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: SS, SL, JJ, PB, VCD, JAG. Wrote the paper: PC, SW, SR, KF, AS, SS, BD, LC, LMS, SL, JJ, GC, MAC, PB, VCD, JAG.

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Figures

Fig. 1 | Characterization of SslE aggregates. a, Schematic of SslE from *E. coli* W with mature

sequence numbers and structural features annotated. SS: periplasmic signal sequence; L: flexible linker;

NT: unique N-terminal region; M60: peptidase/mucinase domain. **b,** Purified rSslE forms a clear ring

of aggregated protein when incubated in citrate-phosphate buffer between pH 4.0 and 4.4 (upper panel;

white asterisks). Rings resist solubilization up to pH 6.2 (lower panel; purple asterisk), although some

loss of protein band is observed after pH 5.8 (lower panel; red asterisks). **c,** Increase in ThT fluorescence

emission on binding to rSslE fibres formed in citrate-phosphate buffer over pH 4.0 to 8.0. **d,**

Immunoblot of rSslE incubated in citrate-phosphate buffer from pH 3.8 to 4.8 and detected with anti-

His₆ antibody. rSslE present in the well represents aggregated protein. **e,** Far-UV CD spectra of soluble

rSslE at pH 4.4 (solid line) and 7.4 (dashed line). Secondary structure analysis is shown in the doughnut

chart. **e,** ATR FT-MIR spectrum of the amide I region of rSslE fibres. Deconvolution is shown for the underlying peaks, which correspond to aggregated β-strands, β-sheets, random coil, α-helical and β-turn structures. All data are representative of three independent experiments.

Fig. 2 | Analysis of SslE-dependent biofilm formation by *E. coli* W and H10407 strains. a, Macrocolony biofilm phenotype of wild-type *E. coli* W and H10407 strains and their derivatives on Congo red agar medium after 24 and 96 hrs of growth. The derivatives *sslE* and *sslE*ΔM60 represent *trans*-complementation of intact *sslE* or *sslE* minus its M60 domain, respectively, into the W Δ*sslE* mutant. **b,** Confocal laser scanning images of wild-type *E. coli* W biofilms grown for 28 and 96 hrs. **c,** Quantification of 3-dimensional biofilm intensity of wild-type *E. coli* W biofilms and its derivatives carried out in ImageJ[40]. *P <0.05; ***P <0.001; verses W 96 hrs growth by two-tailed Student's test. **d,** Confocal laser scanning images of *E. coli* W Δ*sslE* mutant and *trans*-complementation with *sslE* (Δ*sslE::sslE*) and *sslE*ΔM60 (Δ*sslE::sslE*ΔM60). **e,** The pH across wild-type *E. coli* W biofilms grown for 96 hrs was monitored ratiometrically using C-SNARF-4. pH values were calculated over ~30 μm^2 boxes and pH values for representative regions within the biofilm fringes and centres are annotated. Dotted line outlines solvent channel within the biofilm, where pH values are not shown. Scale bar represents 20 μm. All data are representative of at least three independent experiments

Fig. 3 | Structural features of monomeric SslE. a, SAXS bead model of rSslE at pH 7.4. **b,** Fit of the SAXS bead model (teal line) and negative-stain TEM map (black line) of rSslE to the rSslE SAXS data (black open circles) with χ^2 of 1.2 and 113.7, respectively. **c,** Representative negative-stain TEM micrograph of rSslE (pH 7.4) at 50,000× nominal magnification with representative 2D classifications. Scale bar represents 20 nm. **d,** Overlay of the 22 Å resolution TEM map (grey) and SAXS bead model (teal) with the three defined regions in SslE highlighted. **e,** Docking of an SslE M60 domain homology model (orange) into the TEM map. **f,** TEM map of rSslE colored based on domain organization. The NT3-M60 interdomain channel is highlighted with an arrow. **g,** TROSY ^{1}H^{15}N-HSQC spectrum of rSslE (black) overlaid with ^{1}H^{15}N-HSQC spectra of the SslE NT1 (light green) and NT2 (olive green) domains.

Fig. 4 | Kinetics of SslE polymerization. a, SAXS normalized Kratky plots for rSslE at pH 4.4 and

7.4. **b,** Overlay of rSslE SAXS bead models at pH 4.4 (red) and 7.4 (teal) with rSslE TEM map (grey).

NT1 and NT2 domains are highlighted. COSMiCS decomposition of rSslE SAXS fibrillation data,

assuming the co-existence of two components. SEC-SAXS curve for rSslE at pH 4.4 is also shown for

t=0. **c,** COSMiCS decomposed scattering curves for rSslE monomer (red) and fibres (blue). **d,** Shape

distribution [P(r)] functions derived from COSMiCS decomposed scattering curves for rSslE monomer

(red) and fibres (blue). **f,** Relative populations of the two species of rSslE derived from the COSMiCS

analysis over time.

Fig. 5 | Binding properties of SslE aggregates. a, ELISA analysis of binding between cellulose discs and His-tagged monomeric rSslE, His-tagged polymeric rSslE and His-tagged *P. gingivalis* RgpB-CTD control, at pH 6.0 and detected with anti-His$_6$ antibody. BSA-coated wells were used as controls. $^*P$ <0.05; verses control empty well (-) by two-tailed Student's test.