Escherichia coli SPFH membrane microdomain proteins HflKC contribute to aminoglycoside and oxidative stress tolerance

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41 **ABSTRACT**
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Many eukaryotic membrane-dependent functions are often spatially and temporally

regulated by membrane microdomains (FMMs) also known as lipid rafts. These domains

are enriched in polyisoprenoid lipids and scaffolding proteins belonging to the Stomatin,

Prohibitin, Flotillin, and HflK/C (SPFH) protein superfamily that was also identified in

Gram-positive bacteria. By contrast, little is still known about FMMs in Gram-negative

bacteria. In *Escherichia coli* K12, 4 SPFH proteins, YqiK, QmcA, HflK, and HflC, were

shown to localize in discrete polar or lateral inner-membrane locations, raising the

possibility that *E. coli* SPFH proteins could contribute to the assembly of inner-membrane

FMMs and the regulation of cellular processes.

Here we studied the determinant of the localization of QmcA and HflC and showed that

FMM-associated cardiolipin lipid biosynthesis is required for their native localization

pattern. Using Biolog phenotypic arrays, we showed that a mutant lacking all SPFH genes

displayed increased sensitivity to aminoglycosides and oxidative stress that is due to the

absence of HflKC. Our study therefore provides further insights into the contribution of

SPFH proteins to stress tolerance in *E. coli*.

IMPORTANCE
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Eukaryotic cells often segregate physiological processes in cholesterol-rich functional

membrane micro-domains. These domains are also called lipid rafts and contain proteins

of the Stomatin, Prohibitin, Flotillin, and HflK/C (SPFH) superfamily, which are also

present in prokaryotes but were mostly studied in Gram-positive bacteria. Here, we

showed that the cell localization of the SPFH proteins QmcA and HflKC in the Gram-

negative bacteria *E. coli* is altered in absence of cardiolipin lipid synthesis. This suggests

that cardiolipins contribute to *E. coli* membrane microdomain assembly. Using a broad

phenotypic analysis, we also showed that HflKC contribute to *E. coli* tolerance to

aminoglycosides and oxidative stress. Our study, therefore, provides new insights into the

cellular processes associated with SPFH proteins in *E. coli*.

INTRODUCTION

In addition to separating the intracellular content of cells from the environment, lipid

bilayer membranes also contribute to specialized functions, including cross-membrane

transport, enzymatic activity, signaling as well as anchoring of cytoskeletal and

extracellular structures (1, 2). In eukaryotes, these membrane-dependent functions are

often spatially and temporally regulated by functional membrane microdomains (FMMs)

called lipid rafts (3-5). FMMs compartmentalize membrane cellular processes in

cholesterol- and sphingolipid-enriched membrane regions formed upon lipid-lipid, lipid-

protein and protein-protein interactions (5-7). A family of membrane proteins called

SPFH proteins (for Stomatin/Prohibitin/Flotillin/HflK/C) has been shown to localize in

eukaryotic lipid rafts and to recruit and provide a stabilizing scaffold to other raft-

associated proteins (8-13).

Whereas most prokaryotes lack sphingolipids and cholesterol (14), the Gram-positive

bacteria *Bacillus subtilis* and *Staphylococcus aureus* can also compartmentalize cellular

processes in functional membrane microdomains (FMMs) (14-16). Although whether

bacterial FMMs display a distinct lipidic composition needs to be more firmly established,

they have been reported to be enriched in polyisoprenoid lipids as well as in cardiolipins

at the cell poles (14-19)

FMMs also contain SPFH proteins, including flotillins, and a pool of proteins involved

in diverse cellular processes (14, 16). In *B. subtilis*, flotillins FloT and FloA colocalize in

membrane foci and contribute to the assembly of membrane protein complexes (20-23).

Lack of flotillins impairs biofilm formation, sporulation, protease secretion, motility, and

natural competence, indicating that the formation of FMMs also plays critical cellular

roles in *B. subtilis* (15, 20, 24-27).

SPFH proteins are also present in Gram-negative bacteria, and *Escherichia coli* K12 even

possesses four genes, *yqiK*, *qmcA*, *hflK*, and *hflC*, which encode proteins with an SPFH

domain and a N-terminal transmembrane segment (28). QmcA and YqiK are predicted to

face the cytoplasmic compartment, while HflK and HflC are predicted to be exposed in

the periplasm, forming the HflKC complex negatively regulating the protease activity of

FtsH against membrane proteins (29-32). HflC and QmcA are detected in *E. coli*
membrane fractions resistant to solubilization by non-ionic detergents (detergent-resistant
membranes or DRM) that are often used as - debatable - proxies for FMMs (33-36).
Fluorescent microscopy also showed that *E. coli* SPFH proteins HflC and QmcA are
localized in discrete polar or lateral membrane foci (37), raising the possibility that *E. coli*
SPFH proteins could localize in inner-membrane FMMs and regulate specific cellular
processes (38). However, apart from the functional and structural description of HflKC
as a regulator of the FtsH membrane protease (29, 32, 39) and a recent study suggesting
that YqiK is involved in cell motility and resistance to ampicillin (40), the functions of
FMM in *E. coli* and other Gram-negative bacteria are still poorly understood.
In this study, we used fluorescent and super-resolution microscopy to perform a detailed
analysis of QmcA and HflC membrane localization signals. We then showed that the
integrity of QmcA and HflC protein domains is required for their inner membrane
localization, and that the lack of cardiolipin and isoprenoid lipids known to associate with
FMMs alters their localization. Moreover, using single and multiple SPFH gene mutants,
we showed that HflKC SPFH proteins contribute to aminoglycosides and oxidative stress
resistance. Our study therefore provides new insights into the determinants of cellular
localization and the function associated with *E. coli* SPFH proteins.

RESULTS
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123   **Chromosomal *E. coli* SPFH fluorescent fusion proteins show distinct localization**
124   **patterns.**
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To investigate the determinant of cell localization of *E. coli* SPFH proteins, we first

tagged YqiK and QmcA, which C-termini are predicted to be in the cytoplasm (31), with

a C-terminal monomeric super folder green fluorescent protein (msfGFP). We then

tagged HflC and HflK, which C-termini are predicted to be in the periplasm (31), with

the C-terminal monomeric red fluorescent protein mCherry. All these fusions were

expressed under their own promoter from their native chromosomal location (Sup. Fig.

S1). Epifluorescence and super-resolution microscopy confirmed the previously reported

polar localization of HflK and HflC (37) (Fig. 1 and Sup. Fig. S2), with 94% and 91%

polar localization pattern for HflC-mCherry and HflK-mCherry, respectively (n=150). By

contrast, C-terminally tagged QmcA-GFP showed punctate foci distributed throughout

the cell body, with 96% of the cells harboring 5 foci or more (n=150) (Fig. 1CD).

However, we could not detect YqiK-GFP, possibly due to its low native chromosomal

expression level. We then used anti-GFP or mCherry antibodies to perform

immunodetection on cytoplasmic as well as inner and outer membrane fractions of *E. coli*

strains expressing either HflC-mCherry or QmcA-GFP. In agreement with previous

results (31, 38), both fusion proteins were detected in the inner membrane fraction (Fig.

2).

Domain swap analysis shows that protein integrity is essential for QmcA-GFP and
HflC-mCherry localization.
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To identify HflC and QmcA membrane localization signals, we constructed multiple

fluorescently tagged truncated versions of both proteins. We tagged with msfGFP a

QmcA protein reduced to its transmembrane region and SPFH domain (TM^{QmcA}-

SPFH^{QmcA}-GFP) and, separately, one reduced to the QmcA transmembrane region only

(TM^{QmcA}-GFP) (Fig. 3A). To test the role of the QmcA transmembrane region, we also

swapped TM^{QmcA} in the three constructs by the single-spanning TM domain of the phage

coat protein Pf3 (TM^{Pf3}), which orients subsequent amino acids to the cytosol (38) (Fig.

3A). Similarly, in addition to the full length HflC-mCherry, we tagged with mCherry the

HflC transmembrane region and SPFH domain (TM^{HflC}-SPFH^{HflC}-mCherry) and,

separately, only its TM region (TM^{HflC}-mCherry) (Fig. 3B). We also swapped the HflC

TM region with the single-spanning TM region of colistin M immunity protein (TM^{Cmi}),

which orients subsequent amino acids to the periplasm (39) (Fig. 3B). Epifluorescence

microscopy of HflC and QmcA derivative fusions showed that in addition to full-length

constructs only full-length constructs with swapped TM (TM^{Pf3}-QmcA-GFP and TM^{Cmi}-

HflC-mCherry) displayed significant punctate foci or polar localization, respectively (Fig.

3AB), although at reduced frequency compared to native QmcA-GFP and HflC-mCherry.

Finally, we prepared inner and outer membrane fractions of *E. coli* strains expressing

each QmcA and HflC derivative, and we observed that all these constructs were still

mainly located in the inner membrane fraction. This indicates that, while we observed

that QmcA-GFP and HflC-mChery derivatives exhibit altered cell localization, they do

not exhibit significant mis-localization and remain located in the inner membrane (Sup.

Fig. S3). These results therefore indicated that specific QmcA and HflC localization

requires the combination of a transmembrane and full cytoplasmic (QmcA) or

periplasmic (HflC) domain.

Lack of cardiolipin and isoprenoid lipid synthesis alters the cell localization of
QmcA and HflC.

FMMs were proposed to be enriched with negatively charged cardiolipins and

isoprenoids, which promote the localization of polar proteins and modulation of

membrane lipid fluidity (15, 17, 18, 24, 41-44). We first tested whether alteration of

cardiolipin synthesis could cause mis-localization of *E. coli* SPFH proteins QmcA or

HflKC in a mutant lacking the major cardiolipin synthases *clsABC* (45). Whereas super-

resolution microscopy analysis only showed an alteration of the number of QmcA-GFP

punctates (1-5 cluster per bacterium) compared to WT (10-15 cluster per bacterium) (Fig.

4A and Sup. Fig. S4), the localization of HflC-mCherry showed a drastic loss of polar

localization pattern (Fig. 4B and Supp. Fig. S4). We then used an *idi* mutant with reduced

isoprenoid lipid synthesis due to the lack of isomerization of isopentenyl diphosphate

(IPP) into dimethylallyl diphosphate (DMAPP) (46, 47). Whereas QmcA-GFP punctate

localization was not affected, HflC-mCherry polar localization was not abolished in the

Δ*idi* mutant (Fig. 4A and Sup. Fig. S4). These results demonstrated that the alteration of

cardiolipin and, in a lesser extent, isoprenoid lipid synthesis pathway affects HflC fusion

protein localization in *E. coli*.

Phenotypic analysis of *E. coli* SPFH mutant shows that only the absence of HflKC increases *E. coli* sensitivity to aminoglycosides and oxidative stress.

To identify potential phenotypes and functions associated with the *E. coli* SPFH proteins YqiK, QmcA, HflK and HflC, we introduced single and multiple deletions of the corresponding SPFH genes. We observed that neither single mutants nor the quadruple Δ*hflK*, Δ*hflC*, Δ*qmcA*, and Δ*yqiK* (hereafter referred to Δ*SPFH* mutant) displayed any significant growth defects in rich or minimal media (Fig. 5A and Sup. Fig. S5A). Considering the role of SPFH proteins in the activation of inner-membrane kinases involved in *B. subtilis* biofilm formation (15), we tested adhesion and biofilm capacity of WT and ΔSPFH strains but could not detect any significant differences between these two strains. We then used Biolog™ phenotypic microarrays to perform a large-scale phenotypic assay comparing an *E. coli* WT and Δ*SPFH* mutant (Sup. Table S1). This analysis revealed that the Δ*SPFH* mutant is metabolically less active when grown in the presence of various aminoglycosides (tobramycin, capreomycin, sisomicin and paromomycin) or when exposed to paraquat (Fig. 5B and Sup. Fig. S5BC). Consistently, the minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) for tobramycin of the Δ*SPFH* mutant was 3-fold lower than that of the WT MIC (Fig.5C), and the sensitivity of the Δ*SPFH* mutant to paraquat was increased compared to the WT (Fig. 5D and Sup. Fig. S5D). Test of individual SPFH-gene mutants for their sensitivity to tobramycin and paraquat showed that the HflKC complex is the sole responsible for both phenotypes, as both single *hflK* and *hflC* or a double *hflKC* mutants displayed increased sensitivity to tobramycin and oxidative stress (Fig. 5CD and Sup. Fig. S5E). This phenotype could be complemented upon the introduction of a plasmid expressing *hflKC* genes in the double *hflKC* mutant (Sup. Fig. S6). Of note, C-terminally tagged HflC-mCherry and HflK-mCherry displayed wildtype MIC for tobramycin and paraquat, indicating that both fusions were functional and relevant proxies for the bacterial localization of the HflKC complex (Sup. Fig. S6).

Contribution of HflC localization to tobramycin and paraquat tolerance

Whereas an Δ*idi* mutant showed no significant difference compared to the WT, the MIC for tobramycin and paraquat of a Δ*clsABC* mutant was reduced by 2 to 3-fold, which is consistent with the respective impact of a *cls* and *idi* mutation on HflC localization (Fig. 4BD and Fig.5CD). Considering the scaffolding role of HflKC and the importance of cell localization, we tested the localization and contribution to aminoglycoside and stress tolerance of AcrA, a protein previously identified in *E. coli* inner-membrane DRM fractions often biochemically associated with FMM (37). AcrA is an efflux pump involved in the transport of a wide range of substrates including aminoglycosides (48). However, while an *acrA* deletion did not altered *E. coli* MIC profile to tobramycin and paraquat as much as a Δ*hflC* mutant (Fig.5CD), the expression of AcrA-GFP from their native chromosomal context did not lead to any distinct polar co-localization with HflC in exponential or stationary phase conditions (Sup. Fig. S7).

Taken together, these results indicate that the HflKC SPFH protein complex contributes to oxidative and antibiotic stress resistance.

239 **DISCUSSION**
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SPFH-domain proteins have been identified in most organisms (16, 49) and extensively

studied in eukaryotes (3, 5, 50). By contrast, prokaryotic SPFH proteins and proteins

associated with functional membrane microdomains (FMMs) are much less understood.

This is particularly the case for Gram-negative bacteria, in which potential FMMs

functions are mostly inferred from studies performed in *B. subtilis* and *S. aureus*. In this

study, we investigated the functions and the localization determinants of *E. coli* SPFH

proteins. Focusing on QmcA and HflKC SPFH proteins, we used a domain deletion and

replacement approach and showed that most of the tested domain replacement variants

correctly localized to the inner membrane but failed to display WT protein localization

patterns. This indicates that inner-membrane localization alone is not sufficient for the

correct subcellular distribution of HflC and QmcA, whose localization signals might rely

on multiple addressing sequences spread throughout the entirety of each protein.

Alternatively, it has been shown that oligomerization is critical for flotillin function and

cluster formation (51), a process that is likely to be abolished in the domain deletion

constructs, potentially explaining some of the observed localization defects.

QmcA and HflKC SPFH proteins display different localization patterns and could be part

of different FMMs, potentially using different localization signals. The punctate

localization pattern displayed by QmcA-GFP fusion was also observed in the case of *E.*

coli YqiK expressed from plasmid and other Gram-positive bacteria flotillin

homologues(15, 16, 18, 52, 53). Interestingly, *B. subtilis*, *B. anthracis* and *S. aureus*

flotillin genes are physically associated with a gene encoding a NfeD protein, which could

contribute to protein-protein interactions within flotillin assemblies (54, 55). Consistently,

E. coli qmcA gene is located upstream of the NfeD-like *ybbJ* gene, like NfeD-like *yqiJ*

gene is located upstream of *yqiK* (see Supplementary Figure S1). This further supports

the notion that QmcA and YqiK could be considered as *E. coli bona fide* flotillins. By

contrast, the *hflKC* transcription unit is not closely associated with a *nfeD*-like gene,

suggesting that HflKC may not be a flotillin. However, while QmcA and YqiK have an

opposite orientation to HflK and HflC, they are structurally similar proteins and the four

E. coli SPFH proteins could therefore share some degrees of functionalities. The

topological similarity between HflK and HflC might contribute to HflKC complex

formation, and its interaction with FtsH protease, resulting in a large periplasmic FtsH-
HflKC complex localized at the cell pole (29, 30, 56-58).

The strong negative impact of QmcA or HflC transmembrane (TM) domain replacement
suggests that QmcA or HflC TM domains could recognize specific FMM membrane
lipids facilitating the recruitment of SPFH proteins at their proper cellular membrane
localization. Along with phosphatidylethanolamine and phosphatidylglycerol,
cardiolipins are the primary constituent components of *E. coli* membranes that
concentrate into cell poles and dividing septum (59-62). It was indeed observed that the
composition of *E. coli* membrane lipids at cell poles is altered in a *clsABC* cardiolipin
deficient mutant, compensated by an increased amount of phosphatidylglycerol (17, 63).
Several studies also reported that cardiolipin-enriched composition in membranes at cell
poles influences both the localization and activity of inner membrane proteins, such as
respiratory chain protein complexes and the osmosensory transporter ProP (41, 42, 64-
66). We showed here that, similarly to ProP, HflC and QmcA localization patterns are
affected in a *ΔclsABC* mutant, suggesting that HflKC and QmcA complexes could act as
scaffolds for cardiolipin-enriched FMM cargo proteins. Isoprenoid lipids such as farnesol,
carotenoids, and hopanoids have been proposed to be constituents of bacterial FMMs or
to interact with SPFH proteins and FMM-associated proteins (14). Consistently, blocking
the *S. aureus* carotenoid synthetic pathway by zaragozic acid leads to flotillin mis-
localization (15), and the inactivation of farnesol synthesis in a *B. subtilis yisP* mutant
impairs focal localization of the FMM-associated sensor kinase KinC (15). We showed
that interfering with the *E. coli idi* isoprenoid biosynthesis pathway also strongly alters
the localization of HflC. This further indicates that isoprenoid lipids contribute to the
formation or integrity of FMMs, possibly by altering isoprenoid-dependent membrane
fluidity, as shown in *S. aureus* and *B. subtilis* FMMs (14, 67).

Our investigation of the phenotypes displayed by an *E. coli* mutant lacking all SPFH
protein genes showed that the absence of HflKC leads to an increased susceptibility to
oxidative stress and aminoglycosides. The HflKC complex was previously shown to
modulate the quality control proteolytic activity of FtsH by regulating the access of
misfolded membrane protein products to FtsH (29, 30, 68). *E. coli ΔhflK* and *ΔhflC*
mutant strains were also shown to accumulate increased amounts of hydroxyl radical,

suggesting that HflK and HflC could influence tolerance to aminoglycosides and
oxidative stress by suppressing excessive hydroxyl radical production. Alternatively,
HflK and HflC could contribute to tobramycin resistance via FtsH-dependent proteolytic
activity (69) or favoring FMM formation and the assembly of membrane proteins and
lipids, such as cardiolipin, involved in the transport and movement of aminoglycosides
within cells and cell membranes. Consistently, several proteins associated with
aminoglycosides transport were actually detected in *E. coli* DRM fractions, including
transporters and several components of the AcrAB-TolC efflux pump (37), suggesting
that deletion of *hflK* or *hflC* could reduce the activity of these proteins in FMMs and
enhance entry of aminoglycosides. Whereas the susceptibility to aminoglycosides indeed
partly relies on the AcrAB-TolC efflux pump (48, 70-72), we found that lack of the AcrA
only moderately decreases the MIC to tobramycin, compared to a *hflKC* mutation. We
also showed that the alteration of the cardiolipin pathway in a $\Delta clsABC$ mutant altered
both the localization and sensitivity to tobramycin and paraquat of a HflC-GFP fusion.
This suggests that cardiolipin could be required for the correct localization of HflKC to
FMMs at cell poles. By contrast, although an *idi* isoprenoid pathway mutant mildly affects
HflC localization, it does not show altered sensitivity. This may be due to an uncomplete
inactivation of the pathway since lycopene production in a Δidi mutant is reduced by 1/3
but not totally abolished, due to the fact that the idi protein is a reversible isomerase. (46).
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In conclusion, the present study provides new insights into the functions of *E. coli* SPFH
proteins and some of their interacting partners and further experiments will be needed to
fully uncover the roles played by this intriguing family of membrane proteins in Gram-
negative bacteria.

MATERIALS & METHODS

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

Bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study are described in Sup. Table S2, and

further explained in Sup. Fig. S1 and Figure 3. Unless stated otherwise, all experiments

were performed in lysogeny broth (LB) or M63B1 minimal medium supplemented with

0.4% glucose (M63B1.G) at 37 °C. Antibiotics were used as follows: kanamycin (50

µg/mL); chloramphenicol (25 µg/mL); ampicillin (100 µg/mL); and zeocin (50 µg/mL).

All compounds were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St Louis, MO, USA) except for

Zeocin (InvivoGen, Santa Cruz, CA, USA).

Mutant construction

Generation of mutants in E. coli: Briefly, *E. coli* deletion or insertion mutants used in this

study originated either from the *E. coli* Keio collection of mutants (73) or were generated

by λ-red linear recombination using pKOBEG (Cm^R) or pKOBEGA (Amp^R) plasmids

(74) using primers listed in Sup. Table S3. P1vir transduction was used to transfer

mutations between different strains. When required, antibiotic resistance markers flanked

by two FRT sites were removed using the Flp recombinase (75). Plasmids used in this

study were constructed using an isothermal assembly method, Gibson assembly (New

England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, USA) using primers listed in Sup. Table S3. The integrity

of all cloned fragments, mutations, and plasmids was verified by PCR with specific

primers and DNA sequencing

Construction of deletion mutants

Δ*yqiK*, Δ*qmcA*, Δ*hflK*, Δ*hflC*, Δ*clsA*, Δ*clsB*, Δ*clsC*, Δ*idi*, Δ*acrA*, deletions were

transferred into *E. coli* MG1655*strep* by P1vir phage transduction from the corresponding

mutants in the *E. coli* BW25113 background of the Keio collection (73). The associated

kanamycin marker was then removed using the Flp recombinase expressed from the

plasmid pCP20 (75). (Details regarding the construction of all other strains used in this

study are presented in Sup.Table S2).

Construction of GFP and mCherry fusions

See Supplementary Methods section in Supplementary Materials

Construction of complemented strains

The *hflKC* genes were amplified from MG1655*strep* using primers listed in

Supplementary Table S3 and cloned at the downstream of the IPTG-inducible promoter

of a pZS*12 vector using the Gibson assembly to generate plasmids pZS*12-HflKC Then,

these plasmids were introduced into Δ*hflKC* mutants, respectively, to construct

complemented mutants (Sup. Table S2). A pZS*12 empty vector was also introduced into

wildtype and Δ*hflKC* mutants. Mutants harbouring these pZS*12 plasmids were

incubated and used for the below experiments in the presence of IPTG (1 mM) and

ampicillin.

Epifluorescence microscopy

Bacteria were incubated into 5 mL of fresh LB medium and harvested at OD_{600} 0.4 for

samples in exponential phase or OD_{600} 2.0 for stationary phase. After washing twice with

M63B1 medium, cells corresponding to 1 mL of the bacterial culture were pelleted by

centrifugation and resuspended into 0.1 mL of M63B1 medium for exponential samples,

or 1 mL of the medium for stationary samples. Ten µL aliquots of the cell suspension

were immobilized on glass slides previously covered with freshly made M63B1 medium

0.8% agarose pads. Cells were observed using a ZEISS Definite focus fluorescent

microscope (Carl Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany), equipped with an oil-immersion

objective lens microscope (Pln-Apo 63X/1.4 oil Ph3). GFP or mCherry fluorescence was

exited with a ZEISS Colibri LED illumination system and the fluorescence signal was

detected with Zeiss FS38 HE (Carl Zeiss) or Semrock HcRed filters (Semrock, Rochester,

NY, USA). GFP, and mCherry fluorescence images were taken at 1000, and 2000 msec.

exposure, respectively. Image processing was performed using ImageJ and Adobe

Photoshop. For each tested mutant, the subcellular localization patterns of 150 randomly

selected bacteria were evaluated and the frequencies were expressed as percentiles.

Super-resolution microscopy

Bacteria were imaged using single-molecule localization microscopy and stochastic

optical reconstruction microscopy (SMLM-STORM), using a previously described

method (76). Overnight cultures were fixed with PFA 4%, permeabilized with Triton

0,05%, and labeled with either GFP monoclonal FluoTag®-Q — Sulfo-Cyanine 5 (Cy5),

or RFP monoclonal FluoTag®-Q – Cy5, which are single-domain antibodies (sdAb)

conjugated to Cy5. Labeling was performed at 1:250 (concentration), and washing steps

were carried out three times using Abbelight's SMART kit buffer. For imaging,

Abbelight's imaging system was used with NEO software. Abbelight's module was added

to an Olympus IX83 with 100x TIRF objective, N.A. 1.49. We used Hamamatsu's

sCMOS Flash 4 camera and a 647nm 500mW Oxxius laser, with an astigmatic lens, to

allow for 3D imaging of the sample (77).

Inner membrane separation

E. coli overnight cultures were diluted into 1 L of fresh LB medium to OD_{600} of 0.02 and

incubated at 37°C and 180 rpm until reaching OD_{600} 0.4. Cells were harvested and washed

once with 10 mM HEPES (pH 7.4) and stored at -20°C for at least 1 h. Bacteria were then

resuspended in 10 mL of 10 mM HEPES (pH 7.4) containing 100 μL of Benzonase (3.10^4

U/mL) and were passed through a FRENCH press (Thermo) at 20,000 psi. The lysate was

centrifugated at 15,000 *g* for 15 min at 4 °C to remove cell debris, and aliquots of the

suspension were stored at 4 °C as the whole extract. Then, the suspension was centrifuged

at 100,000 *g* for 45 min at 4 °C to separate supernatant and pellets, and aliquots of the

supernatant were stored at 4 °C as the cytosolic and periplasmic fractions. The pellets

were suspended into 600 μL of cold 10 mM HEPES (pH 7.4) and homogenized by using

2 mL tissue grinder (Kontes Glass, Vineland, NJ, USA). Discontinuous sucrose gradients

with the following composition were placed into ultracentrifugation tube: bottom to top

0.5 mL of 2 M sucrose, 2.0 mL of 1.5 M sucrose, and 1.0 mL of 0.8 M sucrose, and 500

μL of the homogenized samples were placed on the top of sucrose gradients. The

gradients were centrifuged at 100,000 *g* for 17.5 h at 4 °C. Subsequently, 400 μL of

aliquots were collected into 11 microtubes from top to bottom, and the samples were

proceeded to the immunodetection method, as described below.

Immunodetection of inner membrane proteins

Aliquots of samples were suspended in 4× Laemmli buffer (BioRad) with 2-

Mercaptoethanol (Sigma) and incubated for 5 min at 98 °C. The protein samples (10 μL

each) were run on 4-20 % Mini-PROTEAN TGX Stain-FreeTM precast Gels (BioRad)

in 1× TGX buffer and then transferred to nitrocellulose membrane using a Trans-Blot®

Turbo™ Transfer System (BioRad). Subsequently, the membranes were blocked using

blocking buffer consisting of 5% skim milk in PBS with 0.05% Tween 20 (PBST) for 2

h at 4 °C with agitation. The membranes were then incubated in PBST containing 1%

skim milk with first antibodies, polyclonal rabbit antiserum raised against ExbB and TolC

(kindly given by Dr. Philippe Delepelaire), GFP (Invitrogen, A6455, Thermo Fisher

Scientific, Indianapolis, IN, USA) and mCherry (Invitrogen, PA5-34974) at 1:20,000

overnight at 4 °C with agitation. The membranes were washed in PBST and incubated in

PBST containing 1% skim milk with a secondary antibody, anti-rabbit IgG conjugated

with horseradish peroxidase (Cell signaling, 7074S), at 1:10,000 for 2 h at 25 °C with

agitation. After washing the excess secondary antibody, specific bands were visualized

using the ECL prime detection method (GE Healthcare) and imaged with an imaging

system, iBright™ CL1500 (Invitrogen).

Microbial growth phenotypic analysis

A high-throughput analysis for microbial growth phenotypes using a colorimetric reaction,

Phenotype MicroArrays (Biolog Inc., Hayward, CA, USA), was performed in accordance

with the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, several colonies of *E. coli* grown on LB agar

were transferred in 10 mL of a mixture of Biolog IF-0a media (BioLog) and sterilized

water into a sterile capped test tube. The suspension was mixed gently, and the turbidity

was adjusted to achieve the appropriate transmittance using the Biolog turbidimeter

(BioLog). The cell suspension was diluted with the IF-0a plus dye mix, as mentioned in

the manufacturer's protocol. 100 μL of the mixture suspension was inoculated into PM

plates 1-3 and 9-20 and incubated for 72 h at 37 °C. The absorbance of each well was

taken every 15 min. The OmniLog software (BioLog) was used to view and edit data, to

compare data lists, and to generate reports.

Monitoring of bacterial growth

An overnight culture of *E. coli* was diluted into fresh LB and M63B1 supplemented with

0.4% glucose medium to OD_{600} of 0.05, and 200 μL aliquots were cultured in the presence

or absence of paraquat (Methyl viologen dichloride hydrate, Sigma-Aldrich) in 96-well

microplates at 37 °C for 24 h with shaking. The absorbance of each culture at 600 nm was

measured every 15 min for 24 h using a microplate reader (Tecan Infinite, Mannedorf,

Switzerland).

Susceptibility of *E. coli* against Tobramycin and Paraquat

The broth microdilution method was used to determine the MIC (minimum inhibitory

concentration) values of Tobramycin (Sigma-Aldrich) and Paraquat (Sigma-Aldrich) in

96-well microtiter plates. Briefly, 100 μL of LB medium was distributed into each well

of the microtiter plates. Tobramycin was 2-fold serially diluted in each well. Five μL of

approximately 1×10^7 CFU/mL of *E. coli* was inoculated into each well, and the plates

were incubated at 37°C for 24 h. The lowest concentration that visibly inhibited bacterial

growth was defined as the MIC. All strains were evaluated in biological and technical

triplicates.

The spot assay was performed to evaluate the susceptibility of *E. coli* against

paraquat. Briefly, an overnight culture of *E. coli* was diluted into fresh LB medium to

OD_{600} of 0.05. Ten μL of the diluted culture was spotted on LB plates containing either

no or 100 μM paraquat. The plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 h, and the photographs

were taken. All strains were evaluated in triplicate.

Statistical analysis

Data analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 9.5 software (GraphPad, La Jolla,

CA, USA). All data are expressed as mean (± standard deviation, SD) in figures.

Statistical analysis was performed using unpaired non-parametric Mann-Whitney test.

Differences were considered statistically significant for *P* values of <0.05.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS:

A.K.W., Y.Y., and J.-M.G. designed the experiments. A.K.W., Y.Y., A.R., R.B.; M.S.,

J.B-B. performed the experiments. A.K.W., Y.Y., A.R., U.V. M.S., R.B., J.-M.B., C.B.,

D.L. and J.-M.G. analyzed the data. Y.Y., A.K.W. and J.-M.G. wrote the paper with

significant contribution from all authors.

DATA AVAILABILITY

The data that support the findings of this study are presented in the paper and/or the

Supplementary Materials. Strains and plasmids are available from the corresponding

author, JMG, upon reasonable request.

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing financial or non-financial interests.

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FIGURES

Figure 1. Cell localization patterns of HflC and QmcA. A and **C**: Epifluorescence

microscopy of cells expressing HflC-mCherry (A) or QmcA-GFP (C). Arrowheads

indicate polar or punctate localization foci. **B** and **D**: Super-resolution microscopy of cells

expressing HflC-mCherry (B) or QmcA-GFP (D). *Left panels*: lack of subcellular

localization in WT cells. *Center panels*: 3D images-artificial colors (red for HflC-

mCherry, green for QmcA-gfp). *Right panels*: 3D localization of HflC-mCherry and

QmcA-GFP, with colors corresponding to depth location along the Z axis, 0-500 nm, with

0 nm expressed in red, and 500 nm expressed in deep blue. Scales are indicated as white

bars.

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Figure 2. QmcA and HflC localize to the inner membrane. SDS-PAGE and
immunodetection analyses of whole-cell extracts, cytosolic fractions, and inner (IM) or
outer membrane (OM) fractions prepared from cells expressing QmcA-GFP (**A**) and
HflC-mCherry (**B**). Anti-GFP and anti-mCherry antibodies were used to detect the
presence of QmcA-GFP and HflC-mCherry, respectively. An anti-ExbB antibody were
used to detect the inner membrane- (IM) marker ExbB and anti-TolC antibodies to detect
the outer membrane- (OM) marker TolC.

Figure 3. The localization pattern and membrane topology of full-length, domain

swapped or truncated versions of QmcA and HflC. (**A**) GFP fusion derivatives of

QmcA and (**B**) mCherry fusion derivatives of HflC. The representative images are shown

in each strain with the frequencies of cells showing punctate (**A**) or polar localization (**B**).

In membrane topology, helical structures represent transmembrane (TM) domains; silver,

native TM domain of QmcA; pink, Pf3 domain; green, native TM domain of HflC; black,

Cmi domain. Scale bars are 2 μm.

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Figure 4. Alteration of QmcA and HflC cell localization in *E. coli* cardiolipin and isoprenoid pathway mutants. Two-dimensional super-resolution microscopy images of WT, Δ*clsABC*, and Δ*idi* strains expressing QmcA-GFP (**A**) and HflC-mCherry (**B**) in stationary phase.

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Figure 5. Phenotypic analysis of *E. coli* SPFH mutants. **A**: Bacterial growth curve of

WT and SPFH gene deletion mutants in LB medium. **B**: Biolog bacterial growth curve of

WT and ΔSPFH in the presence of tobramycin and paraquat. **C**: Minimum inhibitory

concentration (MIC) for tobramycin of *E. coli* WT and indicated mutants. **D**: Minimum

inhibitory concentration (MIC) for paraquat of *E. coli* WT and indicated mutants. *$p <$

0.05, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$ compared with WT.

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