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Differentiation of gram-negative intermembrane phospholipid transporter function by fatty acid saturation preference

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Abstract

The gram-negative outer membrane protects against environmental stress and antibiotics. Phospholipid transport to this membrane is under intense investigation and, in *Escherichia coli*, YhdP, TamB, and YdbH have recently been shown to mediate this transport. However, strains without the main transporters, YhdP and TamB, have different phenotypes, demonstrating distinct functions. We investigated these functions using the synthetic cold sensitivity of a deletion strain of *yhdP* and *fadR*, a fatty acid metabolism regulator. Cold sensitivity is suppressed by Δ*tamB* forcing transport to YdbH and demonstrating TamB dysfunction. Increased cardiolipin and fatty acid saturation are necessary for cold sensitivity and lowering either suppresses the sensitivity. Our data and simulations support a model where YhdP transports more saturated phospholipids and TamB transports more unsaturated phospholipids, allowing independent regulation of inner and outer membrane saturation by altering the YhdP:TamB activity ratio and providing a mechanism for maintaining outer membrane homeostasis under changing conditions.

Introduction

The gram-negative bacterial cell envelope has an outer membrane (OM) that sits outside the aqueous periplasm and peptidoglycan cell wall. The OM provides a barrier against various environmental stresses including toxic molecules such as antibiotics and osmotic pressure[1-6]. Unlike the inner membrane (IM), a phospholipid bilayer, the OM is largely composed of phospholipids in its inner leaflet and LPS (lipopolysaccharide) in its outer leaflet[2,7]. However, both membranes are asymmetric as the IM has different phospholipid composition between its inner and outer leaflets[8]. Outer membrane proteins (OMPs) form a network across the cell surface interspersed with phase separated LPS patches[9]. Lipoproteins are generally anchored in the inner leaflet of the OM[10].

OM components are synthesized in the cytoplasm or IM and transported to the OM. OMP[11], lipoprotein[10], and LPS[12] transport pathways are well defined. However, until recently, intermembrane phospholipid transport (between the IM and OM), especially anterograde transport from the IM to the OM, has remained largely opaque. Phospholipids are synthesized at the IM's inner leaflet[13] and rapid, bidirectional intermembrane phospholipid transport occurs[14], even without ATP[15]. Phospholipid transport has relaxed specificity, allowing transport of non-native lipids[16,17]. However, intermembrane phospholipid composition differences are maintained[18-22]. Establishment and maintenance of this defined lipid topography between the IM and the OM must involve the coordinated biosynthesis and balanced bidirectional trafficking of specific phospholipids across the IM and from the IM to the OM[23].

A recent study has demonstrated anterograde phospholipids transport is mediated by a high-flux, diffusive system in *Escherichia coli*[24]. The Mla system removes mislocalized phospholipids from the OM outer leaflet and returns them to the IM[25]. A gain-of-function allele, *mlaA**[26,27], opens a channel allowing phospholipids to flow from the OM inner to outer leaflet[26,28], resulting in a PldA-mediated increase in LPS production, OM vesiculation, and increased phospholipids flow to the OM[26,27]. When nutrients are depleted, inhibiting phospholipid production, cell lyse due to loss of IM integrity[15,17]. Single cell imaging of *mlaA** cells confirmed IM flows to the OM at a fast rate and loss of YhdP, an inner membrane protein, could significantly slow phospholipid flow to the OM resulting in loss of OM integrity before IM lysis[24], suggesting YhdP might play a role in intermembrane phospholipid transport.

Very recently, YhdP and two homologs, TamB and YdbH, were demonstrated to be intermembrane phospholipid transporters[29,30]. Ruiz, *et al.* investigated AsmA family proteins and found ΔyhdP ΔtamB mutants showed synthetic OM permeability and stationary phase lysis[29]. Moreover, ΔyhdP, ΔtamB, and ΔydbH are synthetically lethal and genetic interactions with *mlaA* and *pldA* show involvement in OM phospholipid homeostasis. Predicted structures of YhdP, TamB, and YdbH[31,32], as well as a partial crystal structure of TamB[33], have a β-taco fold domain with a hydrophobic pocket, resembling eukaryotic lipid transporters[34-37]. These data suggest YhdP, TamB, and YdbH are involved in phospholipid transport. Douglass, *et al.* confirmed the synthetic lethality of ΔyhdP, ΔtamB, and ΔydbH and demonstrated a ΔtamB ΔydbH mutant with

reduced *yhdP* expression had decreased OM phospholipids, directly demonstrating involvement
in intermembrane phospholipid transport[30].

Nevertheless, why there are three intermembrane phospholipid transport proteins remains
unanswered, although it is clear the proteins are not fully redundant. YdbH seems to play a more
minor role than YhdP and TamB[29,30] and the screen identifying ∆*yhdP* as slowing *mlaA** lysis did
not identify ∆*tamB* or ∆*ydbH*[24]. In addition, we previously identified a role for YhdP in stationary
phase SDS (sodium dodecyl sulphate) resistance and modulating cyclic enterobacterial common
antigen activity[38,39] not shared by TamB and YdbH (**Fig. S1**)[29,30,38,39].

Here, we investigated the differentiation of YhdP and TamB function and identified synthetic cold
sensitivity due to impaired TamB function in a strain with ∆*yhdP* and ∆*fadR*, a transcriptional
regulator of fatty acid biosynthesis and degradation acting as a switch between these pathways
in response to acyl-CoA[40]. FadR is necessary for normal levels of unsaturated fatty acids to be
synthesized[41]. The ∆*yhdP* ∆*fadR* mutant has increased levels of a specific phospholipid,
cardiolipin, and decreasing cardiolipin suppresses cold sensitivity. Furthermore, increasing
unsaturated fatty acids levels suppresses. Overall, our data lead us to a model where TamB and
YhdP functions are differentiated based on phospholipid fatty acid saturation state, with TamB
transporting more unsaturated phospholipids and YhdP transporting more saturated
phospholipids. This model is supported by computational data suggesting phospholipids can stall
phospholipids near the center of TamB, which would impair diffusive flow of stiff, saturated
phospholipids.

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Results

Loss of FadR and YhdP results in cold sensitivity due to impaired TamB function. To
investigate YhdP-TamB function differentiation, we created a ∆*yhdP* ∆*fadR* strain. A ∆*fadR* strain
is expect to have decreased fatty acid synthesis, increased fatty acid degradation, and increased
fatty acid saturation[40,41]. ∆*yhdP* ∆*fadR* cultures grown at 30 °C lagged for more than 8 hours,
followed by highly variable growth, suggesting suppressor outgrowth (**Fig.1A**). The growth defect
was decreased at 37 °C and completely absent at 42 °C. To confirm this cold sensitivity, we
performed efficiency of plating assays (EOPs) and demonstrated severe cold sensitivity in the
∆*yhdP* ∆*fadR* strain (5 logs at 30 °C and 3 logs at 37 °C) (**Fig. 1B**). Cyclic enterobacterial common
antigen is necessary for ∆*yhdP*'s OM permeability phenotypes[39]. However, the ∆*yhdP* ∆*fadR*
strain's cold sensitivity was unchanged when enterobacterial common antigen was removed
(∆*wecA*)[42] (**Fig. 1C**).

Given their role in phospholipid transport, we expected ∆*tamB* and/or ∆*ydbH* to show similar
synthetic phenotypes with ∆*fadR*; however, ∆*fadR* ∆*tamB* and ∆*fadR* ∆*ydbH* strains had no
growth defects (**Fig 1D**). We, therefore, hypothesized the ∆*yhdP* ∆*fadR* cold sensitivity was due
to impairment of another phospholipid transporter(s). ∆*ydbH* in the ∆*yhdP* ∆*fadR* strain did not
alter cold sensitivity (**Fig. 1E**). However, ∆*tamB* in the ∆*yhdP* ∆*fadR* background completely

suppressed the cold sensitivity (**Fig. 1F**). Consistent with previous observations[29], the Δ*yhdP*
Δ*fadR* Δ*tamB* strain was mucoid due to Rcs stress response activation and colanic acid capsule
production. Deleting *rcsB*, a Rcs response regulator, prevented mucoidy but did not affect
suppression (**Fig. 1F**). We observed only minimal growth phenotypes in the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* Δ*tamB*
strain, similar to those of Δ*tamB* and less severe than those of Δ*fadR* (**Fig. 1G**), eliminating slow
growth as a suppression mechanism. Together, these data demonstrate suppression from loss
of TamB is due to reprieve of impaired TamB function, shifting phospholipid transport to YdbH.

We next looked for envelope homeostasis alterations in the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain with TamB
impairment. To identify lysis and/or severe OM permeability defects at 30 °C, we assayed CPRG
(chlorophenol red-β-D-galactopyranoside) processing. CPRG must contact LacZ in the cytoplasm
or supernatant to release chlorophenol red[43]. Compared to wild type or single mutants, the Δ*yhdP*
Δ*fadR* strain had increased CPRG processing (**Fig. S2A**), demonstrating lysis or increased
envelope permeability. When we assayed resistance to molecules excluded by the OM[1,38,39,44,45]
at 37 °C, a semi-permissive temperature, the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain showed sensitivity to
vancomycin, a large scaffold antibiotic, and SDS EDTA compared to single mutants (**Fig. S2B**).
However, with bacitracin treatment or EDTA treatment alone, the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain
phenocopied the Δ*fadR* single deletion (**Fig. S2CD**). LPS levels were not altered in the Δ*yhdP*,
Δ*fadR*, or the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain (**Fig. S2E**). OM asymmetry mutations (i.e., Δ*pldA*, Δ*mlaA*)[25-27,46]
did not have suppressive or synthetic effects on cold sensitivity in the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain (**Fig.
S3AB**), suggesting against a causal loss of OM asymmetry. Overall, the changes in OM
permeability did not seem sufficient to cause lethality at lower temperature, suggesting the
phospholipid transport disruption affects both IM and OM integrity.

Increased cardiolipin is necessary for impaired TamB function. We investigated phospholipid
composition of the wild-type and Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strains grown at the permissive temperature (42
°C) and grown to early log phase at 42 °C, then downshifted to 30 °C. *E. coli* phospholipid
composition is generally 75% phosphatidylethanolamine (PE), 20% phosphatidylglycerol (PG),
and 5% cardiolipin (CL) with CL increasing in stationary phase[13,47]. Of the three CL synthases,
ClsA and ClsB synthesizes CL from two PG molecules, while ClsC synthesizes CL from one PG
and one PE molecule, so CL and PG levels are generally reciprocally regulated[48-51]. For both
strains and conditions, the levels of PE were similar (**Fig. 2A**). However, the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain
had increased CL and concomitant decreased PG compared to the wild-type strain, especially at
30 °C. PgsA synthesizes phosphatidylglycerol-phosphate and is the first enzyme differentiating
PG and PE biosynthesis. PgsA depletion would decrease both PG and CL levels, reversing
increased CL levels and exacerbating decreased PG levels in the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain. We tested
the PgsA depletion in a strain background (Δ*rcsF* Δ*lpp*) where *pgsA* is non-essential[52-55]. When
pgsA expression was induced (arabinose panel), the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* PgsA-depletion strain had
equal cold sensitivity to the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain (**Fig. 2B**). When *pgsA* expression was repressed
(glucose panel), the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* cold sensitivity was partial suppressed, suggesting increased
CL, and not decreased PG, may be necessary for cold sensitivity. A Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain with all
cardiolipin syntheses removed (Δ*clsABC*) or with the main exponential phase cardiolipin synthase
removed (Δ*clsA*) had undetectable CL levels (**Fig. 2A**) and was completely suppressed for cold

sensitivity (**Fig. 2CD**). Δ*clsB or* Δ*clsC* caused a smaller decrease in CL levels that was very similar
between the two strains (11% to 7.4% vs. 7.6%, respectively) (**Fig. 2A**). Surprisingly, Δ*clsC*
completely suppressed the cold sensitivity, while Δ*clsB* did not (**Fig. 2EF**). Thus, increased CL is
necessary for impaired TamB function leading to cold sensitivity but CL levels alone cannot
explain the phenotype: another factor, such as a specific form or localization of CL, is required.

Increased *fabA* expression suppresses cold sensitivity. To identify other factors involved in
the cold sensitivity, we applied a forward genetic approach by isolating spontaneous suppressor
mutants capable of growing at 30 °C and identified a suppressor mutant (Suppressor 1) that
restored growth at 30 °C (**Fig. 3A**), decreased CPRG processing (**Fig. S2A**), and had very similar
CL to the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain (**Fig. 3B**, **Fig. S4**). We identified a point mutation in the *fabA*
promoter region in Suppressor 1 (**Fig. 3C**) and confirmed this mutation was sufficient for
suppression (**Fig. 3D**). FabA is a dehydratase/isomerase that introduces *cis* unsaturation into fatty
acids[13,56] and *fabA* is expressed from two promoters controlled by FadR and FabR[57,58]. FadR
activates *fabA* expression, while FabR represses. Thus, *fadR* deletion would be expected to lower
fabA expression. The suppressor mutation was located in the *fabA* promoter FabR binding site
(**Fig. 3C**) and we hypothesized this mutation would increase *fabA* expression. *fabA* mRNA levels
were more than 4-fold lower in the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain than the wild-type strain (**Fig. 3E**). While
lower than wild type, the suppressor mutant increased *fabA* mRNA 1.6-fold over the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR*
strain.

We constructed luciferase reporter plasmids with the wild-type *fabA* promoter region or the *fabA*
promoter region containing the suppressor mutation. The reporter with the mutated promoter had
higher activity in a wild-type, Δ*fadR,* and Δ*fabR* background (**Fig. 3F**). *fabA* transcription occurs
from a promoter downstream of the FabR binding site[58-60]. However, when FadR is removed,
transcription moves to the FabR-regulated promoter within the FabR binding region[58-60]. Our data
indicate the Suppressor 1 mutation regulates this promoter's constitutive activity rather than FabR
binding. To confirm the effect of changing the second promoter's activity, we tested the effect of
Δ*fabR* on cold sensitivity in the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain and observed partial suppression (**Fig. S5**).
The smaller effect of Δ*fabR* compared to Suppressor 1 may result from other gene expression
changes or to the smaller relative effect of Δ*fabR* on *fabA* expression (**Fig. 3F**). Overall, these
data demonstrate increasing *fabA* expression, which is necessary for unsaturated fatty acid
biosynthesis, can relieve TamB impairment in the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain without changing CL levels.

Increasing unsaturated fatty acids relieves impaired TamB function. Given the effect of *fabA*
expression on the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* cold sensitivity, we used liquid chromatography-electrospray
ionization mass spectrometry (LC/MS) to characterize the strains' phospholipid saturation state
(**Dataset S1**, **Fig. 4A-C, Fig. S6**). We analyzed whole cell and IM extracts (**Fig. S6A**) from cells
grown to early log phase at 42 °C then downshifted to 30 °C. In whole cell extracts, Δ*fadR* caused
increased fully saturated and monounsaturated PE with a concomitant decrease of diunsaturated
PE (**Fig. 4A**, **Fig. S6B**). Levels of fully saturated PG were increased with a decrease in mono-
and diunsaturated species (**Fig. 4B**, **Fig. S6C**). The Δ*fadR* strain demonstrated increased
monounsaturated CL with a concomitant decrease in triunsaturated CL (**Fig. 4C**, **Fig. S6D**).

Compared to the ΔfadR strain, the ΔyhdP ΔfadR strain had slightly increased saturation for all
three phospholipids, with the largest increase in fully saturated PE. Suppressor 1 demonstrated
decreased saturation of all three phospholipids but especially of PE compared to the ΔyhdP ΔfadR
strain (**Fig. 4A-C**, **Fig. S6E-G**). The OM is enriched for PE and its saturated species compared to
the IM outer leaflet[8,19-22] making the large PE changes intriguing. We wondered whether the
suppression difference between ΔclsC and ΔclsB resulted from the CL saturation state. However,
The ΔyhdP ΔfadR ΔclsB and ΔyhdP ΔfadR ΔclsC strains had very similar CL profiles (**Fig. 4C**,
Fig. S6G), suggesting another qualitative difference affecting suppression, perhaps CL
localization.

We hypothesized increasing unsaturated fatty acids suppresses ΔyhdP ΔfadR cold sensitivity and
performed EOPs for cold sensitivity on media containing an unsaturated fatty acid (oleic acid,
C18:1 *cis*-9). Oleic acid addition suppressed the ΔyhdP ΔfadR strain's cold sensitivity (**Fig. 4D**).
Supplementing oleic acid increases unsaturated phospholipids and provides an exogenous fatty
acid source. To differentiate between saturation state and fatty acid availability, we compared
treatment with oleic acid and saturated stearic acid (C18:0). Only oleic acid, and not stearic acid,
suppressed the ΔyhdP ΔfadR strain's cold sensitivity (**Fig. 4E**), confirming increasing unsaturated
fatty acids, not fatty acid availability suppresses.

These data suggested the ΔyhdP ΔfadR strain was impaired in intermembrane transport of more
saturated phospholipids. To investigate phospholipid transport defects, we compared
phospholipids in whole cell and IM extracts (**Fig. S6A**). OM extracts are generally contaminated
with IM, complicating interpretation. PG and CL showed small differences between whole cell and
IM extracts but were largely similar between strains (**Fig. 4BC**). However, PE showed larger strain
differences. In the wild-type strain, fully saturated PE was enriched in whole cells compared to
IM, demonstrating increased OM saturated PE (**Fig. 4A**, **Fig. S6H**). In the ΔfadR strain, whole
cell and IM extracts had similar fully saturated PE levels, but IM extracts had higher diunsaturated
PE, still suggesting OM enrichment of more saturated PE. However, in the ΔyhdP ΔfadR strain,
while the IM had higher levels of diunsaturated PE, the IM was underrepresented for fully
saturated PE (**Fig. 4A**, **Fig. S6H**). The ΔyhdP ΔfadR IM also had much lower short chain PE
levels (30:0 and 30:1) than whole cells (**Fig. 4A**, **Fig. S6HI**). Short chain phospholipids decrease
membrane rigidity and remain fluid at lower temperatures[61]. Thus, the short fatty acid PE increase
after short-term adaptation to 30 °C may be an attempt to increase fluidity and restore balance
between the membranes. In Suppressor 1, the profile more closely resembled ΔfadR cells. Thus,
the alteration of PE saturation and fatty acid length in the ΔyhdP ΔfadR OM demonstrates a
disruption in intermembrane phospholipid trafficking due to impairment of TamB function.

Suppression causes fatty acid metabolism and stress response alterations. In wild-type
cells, *fabA* overexpression does not change saturation: FabB is rate limiting for unsaturated fatty
acid biosynthesis[62]. We were intrigued Suppressor 1 altered saturation without directly effecting
fabB expression. We also wondered if CL levels in the ΔyhdP ΔfadR strain are transcriptionally
regulated. Thus, we investigated the transcriptional landscape of the wild type, the ΔyhdP ΔfadR,
and Suppressor 1 strains after a 30 minute downshift to 30 °C to determine: (i) whether the ΔyhdP

Δ*fadR* strain had altered *cls* gene expression; (ii) whether Suppressor 1 had other transcriptional
changes; and (iii) why increased *fabA* expression decreased saturation. All differentially
expressed genes (>2-fold change, p<0.05) are listed in **Dataset S2**. Principle component analysis
of these genes showed the closest relation between Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain and Suppressor 1, while
the wild-type strain was more distantly related (**Fig. 5A**, **S7A**). Nevertheless, Suppressor 1 was
more closely related to wild type than was the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain. Most differentially regulated
genes between Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* and wild type and Suppressor 1 and wild type were upregulated
(**Fig. 5BC**, **S7BC**). Many of the most highly regulated genes are FadR-regulon members. The
majority of differentially regulated genes in Suppressor 1 compared to Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* are
downregulated (**Fig. 5D, S7D**). These genes are involved in many cellular pathways and likely
reflect the decreased cellular stress (**Table S2**). Indeed, many external stress response genes
are more enriched in Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* than in Suppressor 1 (**Fig. S8A**).

No significant expression changes occurred in the CL biosynthesis pathway (**Fig. 5E**) or other
phospholipid biosynthesis genes (**Fig. S8B**). The increased cardiolipin in Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* and
Suppressor 1 may be post-transcriptional or due to a change in a regulatory pathway not yet
altered after 30 minutes at 30 °C (**Fig. S8C**). We examined the expression of genes in fatty acid
synthesis and degradation, many of which are members of the FadR regulon. In Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR*
compared to wild type, many fatty acid biosynthesis genes significantly decreased while many
fatty acid degradation genes significantly increased (**Fig. 5F**), consistent with Δ*fadR* effects. While
fabA expression is decreased, *fabB* expression is not changed, explaining why increased *fabA*
expression causes decreased saturation in Suppressor 1.

TamB modeling shows potential for blocking interactions. Our data demonstrate the Δ*yhdP*
Δ*fadR* strain's cold sensitivity is due to impaired TamB function, and increased phospholipid
saturation and cardiolipin are necessary for impairment. We hypothesized TamB has a substrate
preference and TamB impairment is due to "clogging" by inappropriate substrates. As the OM is
enriched for PE[8,19-22], we modeled docking of a short-chain saturated PE (14:0, 14:0) with the
AlphaFold predicted structures of YhdP, TamB, and YdbH[31,32]. A partial TamB crystal structure
has a similar conformation to the predicted structures with a long, hydrophobic groove formed by
β-sheets[33]. When docking with YhdP and YdbH (**Fig. 6AB**), the short-chain, saturated PE showed
sites, generally binding one PE conformation, spread throughout the hydrophobic cavity[29,33].
Contrarily, when docking with TamB, several binding sites interacted with PE molecules in many
possible conformations (**Fig. 6C**). When we modeled transit of PE through TamB, the molecule
became "trapped" in the center, curved portion of TamB, sampling many possible binding sites
and conformations (**Movie S1**). Other PE and PG molecules with differing saturations states
showed similar binding patterns for the three proteins (**Fig. S9**). Together with our genetic and
biochemical data, these data suggest more hydrophobic and rigid saturated phospholipids could
interact improperly with TamB and impair diffusive phospholipids flow.

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Discussion

The identification of YhdP, TamB, and YdbH as intermembrane phospholipid transporters[29,30] posed the tantalizing question: why is having three transporters advantageous? Here, we demonstrate each protein plays a distinguishable role in phospholipid transport that can be differentiated based on genetic interactions with lipid metabolism. Disruption of FadR and YhdP function causes synthetic cold sensitivity not shared by TamB or YdbH, due to impaired TamB function, which can be suppressed by forcing transport to YdbH. This phenotype requires both increased CL and saturated fatty acids, and decreasing either suppresses. In addition, our data demonstrate CL synthesized by ClsB and ClsC is qualitatively different—resulting in differential suppression phenotypes—likely due to differences in CL localization and localized membrane fluidity[63] or TamB interaction. Molecular docking simulations suggest TamB has different interactions with phospholipids than the other transporters likely making transport of unsaturated phospholipids unfavorable.

In our model based on these data (**Fig. 6D-F**), the functions of YhdP and TamB are diversified based on the saturation of the phospholipids they transport: YhdP transports mainly phospholipids with more saturated fatty acids, while TamB transports phospholipids with more unsaturated fatty acids (**Fig. 6D**). Our data and previous data[29,30] agree YdbH plays a relatively minor role. In the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain, YhdP's absence forces more saturated phospholipids to be transported by TamB. At 30 °C, where CL levels are high and membrane fluidity is decreased, our simulations suggest TamB becomes "clogged" by phospholipids cycling in the curved region of the protein, impeding transport (**Fig. 6E**). CL could contribute by failing to move around cycling phospholipids or by locally decreasing fluidity. Impaired transport explains the difference in OM PE saturation profiles between the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain and the other, non-cold-sensitive strains. When Δ*tamB* is deleted, phospholipid flow is forced to YdbH, preventing clogging and relieving cold sensitivity (**Fig. 6F**). YdbH's ability to successfully transport phospholipids in the Δ*yhdP* Δ*tamB* strain only when TamB is absent may be because YhdP and TamB are preferred transporters (e.g., preferred interaction partners for other pathway members), due to direct toxicity caused by TamB clogging, or because *ydbH* is upregulated.

Although both fatty acid saturation and high CL levels are required for the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain's cold sensitivity, two lines of evidence point to saturation rather than headgroup as the factor separating YhdP and TamB function. (i) YhdP loss slows phospholipid transport from the IM to the OM in a *mlaA** mutant, which losses OM material due to vesiculation and lysis when phospholipid biosynthesis is insufficient to replace lost phospholipids[24,26]. CL only accounts for 5% of phospholipids in exponentially growing cells making unlikely loss of CL transport could slow net phospholipid transport to the extent required to slow lysis. (ii) Δ*tamB* has a small growth defect at 30 °C (**Fig. 1G**) not observed at higher temperature[29,30], perhaps due to increased unsaturated phospholipids[64-66] resulting in decreased net OM transport by YhdP or to lower OM fluidity. Together, these observations provide strong evidence YhdP has a substrate preference for phospholipids with more saturated fatty acids, while TamB prefers phospholipids with more unsaturated fatty acids.

Our model suggests the IM and OM saturation state could be independently regulated based on YhdP and TamB activity or levels. IM saturation is regulated by altering the composition of newly synthesized fatty acids, while OM saturation could be separately regulated by allowing increased transport of more saturated or unsaturated phospholipids as necessary. IM and OM saturation has been studied in several strains of *E. coli* and in *Yersinia pseudotuberculosis*[18-21] and higher saturated fatty acid levels were observed in the OM than in the IM, supporting discrimination of phospholipids transport based on saturation. The IM needs to maintain an appropriate level of fluidity to allow IM proteins to fold and diffuse, to allow diffusion of hydrophobic molecules, to regulate cellular respiration, and to maintain membrane integrity[67,68]. However, the OM is a permeability barrier, a load-bearing element that resists turgor pressure[1-6], and has an outer leaflet consisting of LPS[2,7]. LPS has saturated acyl chains and is largely immobile in *E. coli*[69] and a specific phospholipid saturation level may be necessary to match or counterbalance LPS rigidity. OM phospholipids may also play a role in the physical strength of the membrane. Interestingly, previous work has demonstrated that the tensile strength of the OM is lessened in a *yhdP* mutant[24].

Possessing two different phospholipid transporters with different saturation state preferences would allow the cell to adapt OM saturation to changing conditions including temperature shifts, chemical insults, or changes synthesis of other OM components (e.g., LPS or OMPs). A recent study demonstrated in *Y. pseudotuberculosis* the difference in saturation levels between the membranes is exaggerated at 37 °C compared to 8 °C[21]. Thus, conditions where IM and OM saturation are independently regulated exist and this regulation is likely important for optimum fitness of the cells. Transcriptional regulation of *yhdP* and *tamB* has not been thoroughly explored. It seems likely *yhdP* transcription is quite complex with several promoters and transcriptional termination sites[70-72]. *tamB* is predicted to be in an operon with *tamA* (which codes for an OMP necessary for TamB function) and *ytfP*[70,73] and to have a σ^E-dependent promoter[74]. The σ^E stress response is activated by unfolded OMP accumulation, and downregulates the production of OMPs and upregulates chaperones and folding machinery[75]. It is intriguing to speculate a change in OM phospholipid composition might aid in OMP folding due to altered biophysical properties and/or lipoprotein diffusion.

The mechanism of phospholipid transfer between the IM and OM has been one of the largest remaining questions in gram-negative envelope biogenesis and has remained an area of intense investigation for decades. Recent work has begun to elucidate this pathway by identifying YhdP, TamB, and YdbH as proteins capable of transporting phospholipids between the membranes[24,29,30]. Our work has now clarified that YhdP and TamB have separate roles in phospholipid transport that are differentiated by their preference for phospholipid saturation states. Homologs of YhdP and TamB are found throughout *Enterobacterales* and more distantly related members of the ASMA family are wide spread in gram-negative bacteria[76]. Furthermore, structural predictions of YhdP and TamB are strikingly similar between species[31,32]. Given this, it is quite likely similar mechanisms of discrimination in phospholipid transfer exist in other species. The data we present here provide a framework for investigation of phospholipid transfer and mechanisms differentiating phospholipid transporter function in these species.

Methods

Bacterial strains and Growth Conditions. Table S3 lists the strains used in this study. Most
knockout strains were constructed with Keio collection alleles using P1vir transduction[77,78]. New
alleles were constructed through λ-red recombineering[79], using the primers indicated in **Table S4**.
The FLP recombinase-FRT system was used to remove antibiotic resistance cassettes as has
been described[79]. *E. coli* cultures were grown in LB Lennox media at 42°C, unless otherwise
mentioned. Where noted, LB was supplemented with vancomycin (Gold Biotechnology),
bacitracin (Gold Biotechnology), SDS (Thermo Fisher Scientific), EDTA (Thermo Fisher
Scientific), oleic acid (Sigma Aldrich), stearic acid (Sigma Aldrich), arabinose (Gold
Biotechnology), or glucose (Thermo Scientific). For plasmid maintenance, media was
supplemented with 25 µg/mL kanamycin (Gold Biotechnology), 10 or 20 µg/mL chloramphenicol
(Gold Biotechnology), or 10 µg/mL tetracycline (Gold Biotechnology) as appropriate.

Plasmid construction. The pJW15-P$_{fabA}$, and pJW15-P$_{fabA}$(-19G>A) reporter plasmids were
constructed by amplifying the region upstream of *fabA* from -432 bp to +27 bp relative to the
annotated transcriptional start site from wild-type MG1655 or Suppressor 1, respectively, using
the Overlap-pJW15-*fabA* FP and RP primers (**Table S4**). pJW15 was amplified using primers
Overlap-pJW15-*fabA* FP1 and RP1. The pJW15 plasmid was a kind of gift from Dr. Tracy Raivio
(Univeristy of Alberta)[80,81]. The resulting fragments were assembled using HiFi Assembly master
mix (New England Biolabs) as per the manufacturer's instructions.

Growth and Sensitivity Assays. For EOPs assays, cultures were grown overnight, serially
diluted, and plated on the indicated media. For *pgsA* depletion, overnight cultures grown in
arabinose were washed and diluted 1:100 into fresh LB with 0.2% glucose or arabinose as
indicated and grown to OD$_{600}$=1 before diluting and plating on media with glucose or arabinose
respective, as above. EOPs were incubated at 30 °C unless otherwise indicated. Growth curves
were performed at the indicated temperature as has been described[39]. For CPRG assays[43],
strains were streaked on LB plates supplemented with CPRG (40µg/ml) and IPTG (100 µM)
incubated overnight at 30°C.

Suppressor isolation and sequencing. Serially diluted cultures were spread on LB plates and
incubated overnight at a 30°C. Colonies that grew at 30°C were isolated and rechecked for cold-
resistance through EOP and growth curves. The suppressors were subjected to whole-genome
sequencing to identify potential suppressor mutations. Genomic DNA was isolated from the parent
and suppressors using a DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen) as per the manufacturer's
instructions. Library preparation and Illumina sequencing were performed by the Microbial
Genome Sequencing Center (MiGS, Pittsburgh, PA, USA). Briefly, Illumina libraries were
prepared and the libraries were sequenced with paired-end 151 bp reads on a NextSeq 2000
platform to a read depth of at least 200 Mbp. To identify variants from the reference genome
(GenBank: U00096.3), reads were trimmed to remove adaptors and the *breseq* software (version

0.35.4) was used to call variants[82]. Identified mutations were confirmed with Sanger sequencing.
The consensus motif of the FabR binding site of *fabA* was determined using Multiple Em for Motif
Elicitation (MEME) tool in the MEME Suite based on the sequence of putative FabR binding sites
reported by Feng and Cronan (2011)[57,83,84]. The ability of the identified P_{fabA} mutation to suppress
was confirmed by linking the mutant to *zcb*-3059::Tn*10*[85] and transducing to a clean background.

Lux reporter assays. Overnight cultures of strains harboring the pJW15-P_{fabA} and pJW15-P_{fabA}(-
19G>A) plasmids were sub-cultured at (1:100) into 200 µl of fresh LB broth in a black 96-well
plate. The plate was incubated in a BioTek Synergy H1 plate reader and the OD_{600} and
luminescence intensity were recorded every 2.5 min for 6 hours as described in previously[81,86].
Each biological replicate was performed in technical triplicate.

RNA-seq. Overnight cultures grown at 42°C were subcultured 1:100 into fresh media and
incubated at 42 °C until an OD_{600} of 0.4. Then, the cultures were shifted to a 30 °C water bath for
30 minutes. 500 µL of each culture was immediately fixed in the RNAprotect Bacteria Reagent
(Qiagen) as per the manufacturer's instructions. RNA was purified using the RNeasy Kit (Qiagen)
with on-column DNase digestion following the manufacturer's protocol for gram-negative bacteria.
Library preparation, Illumina sequencing, and analysis of differentially expressed genes were
performed by MiGS. Briefly, samples were treated with RNase free DNase (Invitrogen) and library
preparation was performed with the Stranded Total RNA Prep Ligation with Ribo-Zero Plus Kit
(Illumina). Libraries were sequenced with 2x50 bp reads on a NextSeq2000 (Illumina).
Demultiplexing, quality control, and adapter trimming carried out using bcl-convert (Illumina,
v3.9.3) and bcl2fastq (Illumina). Read mapping and read quantification were performed with
HISAT2[87] and the featureCounts tool in Subreader[88], respectively. Descriptive statistics of the
RNA-seq read data can be found in **Table S1**. The raw RNA-seq data is available in the Sequence
Read Archive database (SRA) (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra, BioProject ID PRJNA965821).
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Raw read counts were normalized using the Trimmed Mean of M values algorithm in edgeR[89] and
converted to counts per million. The Quasi-Linear F-Test function of edgeR was used for
differential expression analysis. Normalized read values and for all genes as well as differential
expression analysis statistics can be found in **Dataset S3**. KEGG pathway analysis was
conducted using the *"kegga"* function of limma[90]. Expression of genes differentially expressed
(greater than 2-fold change and p<0.05) was subjected to principle component analysis, and
pathway and enrichment analysis using the EcoCyc Omics Dashboard[90].

Lipid extraction and TLC. For thin layer chromatography (TLC) experiments, cultures were
grown in LB with 1 mCi/mL ^{32}P until OD_{600} of 0.6-0.8 at the indicated temperature. For temperature
downshift experiments, cells were grown at 42 ºC until OD_{600} of 0.2 and then transferred to 30 ºC
for 2 hours. For lipid extraction, cells were pelleted and resuspended in 0.2 mL of 0.5 M NaCl in
0.1 N HCl. Lipids were extracted by first adding 0.6 mL of chloroform:methanol (1:2) to create a
single-phase solution. After vigorous vortexing for 30 minutes, 0.2 mL of 0.5 M NaCl in 0.1 N HCl
was added to convert the single-phase solution to a two-phase solution. After centrifugation at 20

000 x g for 5 minutes at room temperature, the lower phase was recovered and used for TLC.
Approximately 2,000 cpm of phospholipid extract was subjected to TLC analysis using a HPTLC
60 plate (EMD, Gibbstown, NJ)) developed with either solvent 1: chloroform/methanol/acetic acid
[60/25/10 (vol/vol/vol) in **Fig. 2A** or by solvent 2: chloroform/methanol/ammonia/water
[65/37.5/3/1] (vol/vol/vol/vol) in **Fig. S4**. Radiolabeled lipids were visualized and quantified using
a Phosphoimager Typhoon FLA 9500 (GE). Images were processed and quantified using
ImageQuant^{TM} software for scanning and analysis. The phospholipid content is expressed as
molecular percentage of the total phospholipids (correcting for the two phosphates per molecule
of CL).

Phospholipid composition analysis. Whole cell lipid extracts were isolated as for TLC
temperature downshift experiments without radiolabelling. IMs were isolated and extracts were
prepared as has been previously described[91]. Briefly, cells from temperature downshifted cultures
were lysed using a French press at 8,000 psi and whole cells were pelleted by centrifugation at
30 000 x g for 20 minutes. Then, the supernatant was centrifuged at 150 000 x g for 1 hour. The
resulting pellet contained pure IM as demonstrated by immunoblot analysis (**Fig. S6A**). Relative
amounts of CL, PG, and PE were determined in these lipid extracts using liquid chromatography
coupled to electrospray ionization mass spectrometry (LC/MS) in an API 4000 mass spectrometer
(Sciex, Framingham, MA, USA) using normal phase solvents as previously published[92]. Individual
molecular species of CL, PG, and PE were expressed as a percentage within their individual
phospholipid by summing all the species and dividing by that sum for each phospholipid. The
identities of CL species were confirmed using tandem mass spectrometry.

Molecular Docking Simulations. Predicted protein structures were accessed from the
AlphaFold Database[31,32]. To sample phospholipid ligand conformations along the predicted
protein structures, molecular docking simulations were perfomed using the AutoDock Program[93].
Structures were converted from PDB to PDBQT format for ligands and proteins using the Open
Babel ToolBox[94] and the MGLTtools software (available from ccsb.scripps.edu/mgltools),
respectively. The 3D search field for molecular docking was split into smaller fields with a size
less than 30 cubic Å, overlapping by 20 Å. Search fields were considered valid if they contained
at least three surface exposed amino acid. Docking results from smaller fields were merged into
one complete search field. Selection of the most probably ligand conformations was carried out
by the convergence method calculated by the RMSD between ligand conformations. Resolution
of the conformations and the minimal size of the cluster were calculated based on the distribution
of the RMSD between ligan conformations. The affinity of ligand binding was estimated by the
Autodock   program.   The   pipeline   code   was   deposited   to   GitHub
(github.com/NastiaKozlova/stabilisation complex-receptor-ligand).

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Figures and Figure Legends

Figure 1. Deletion of *yhdP* and *fadR* causes synthetic cold sensitivity due to impairment of TamB function. (A) The ΔyhdP ΔfadR strain had impaired growth at lower temperatures. **(B)** EOPs were performed to confirm the growth defect of the ΔyhdP ΔfadR strain. **(C-F)** EOPs were performed at 30 °C to assess cold sensitivity. **(C)** The growth of the ΔyhdP ΔfadR strain was not affected by the loss of ECA (ΔwecA). **(D)** Neither a ΔtamB ΔfadR strain nor a ΔydbH ΔfadR strain exhibited cold sensitivity. **(E)** Deletion of *ydbH* did not suppress cold sensitivity in the ΔyhdP ΔfadR strain. **(F)** Deletion of *tamB* completely suppressed cold sensitivity in the ΔyhdP ΔfadR strain and the Rcs stress response was not necessary for this suppression. **(G)** Growth curves were performed at 30 °C . The ΔtamB and the ΔyhdP ΔfadR ΔtamB strain grew equally well, indicating suppression is unlikely to result from slow growth. Quantitative data are shown as the mean of three biological replicates ± the SEM. Images are representative of three independent experiments.

Figure 2. Increased cardiolipin levels are necessary for cold sensitivity of the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain. (A) Thin layer chromatography (TLC) of lipid extracts was performed for the indicated cultures grown to OD$_{600}$=0.2 at 42 °C then transferred to 30 °C or 42 °C for 2 hours before analysis. Relative phospholipid levels are provided for 30 °C samples. The Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain shows increased levels of CL and a concomitant decrease in PG levels. **(B-F)** Growth effects of

altered phospholipid levels were investigated by EOP. Images are representative of three independent experiments. **(B)** PgsA depletion strains in a background where *pgsA* is non-essential were used to assay the effect of lowering PG and CL levels on cold sensitivity. Arabinose induces expression of *pgsA* while glucose represses. Lowering PG and CL levels partially suppressed cold sensitivity. **(C)** Deletion of the three CL synthases, *clsA*, *clsB*, and *clsC*, suppressed cold sensitivity of the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain. **(D)** Deletion of *clsA* also suppressed cold sensitivity. **(E)** Deletion of *clsB* does not suppress cold sensitivity, while deletion of *clsC* (F) does.

Figure 3. Cold sensitivity can be suppressed by increasing *fabA* expression. (A) The cold
sensitivity of a spontaneous suppressor of Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* cold sensitivity was tested by EOP. The
suppressor returned growth to the level of the Δ*fadR* mutant. **(B)** TLC was performed to assay
phospholipid composition. Suppressor 1 showed very similar phospholipid composition to that of
its parent strain and did not decrease CL levels. **(C)** A diagram of the promoter region of *fabA* is
shown with its transcriptional start sites (blue arrows) and regulator binding sites (boxes). FadR
acts as an activator while FabR acts as a repressor. The motif of the FabR binding site, generated
using MEME, is shown with the sequences of the parent strain and of Suppressor 1. **(D)** The
P*fabA*(-19G>A) mutation was linked to a Tn*10* and transferred to the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain by
transduction. The Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain with P*fabA*(-19G>A) was not cold sensitivity, confirming
suppression. **(E)** *fabA* RNA levels are shown. Bars are the mean of three biological replicates ±
the SEM. Individual data points are shown as open circles. ** p<0.005, *** p<0.0005 by quasi-
linear F-test. Data are from the RNA-seq experiment in Figure 5 and *fabA* data are also shown in
Figure 5F. **(F)** Luciferase reporters of wild-type and mutant *fabA* promoter activity were
constructed. The mutation caused similar fold increases in P*fabA* activity in all strain backgrounds.
Data are luminescence relative to OD$_{600}$ and are shown as the average of two biological replicates
± the SEM.

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Figure 4. Decreasing fatty acid saturation suppresses Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* cold sensitivity. (A-C) Lipid extracts were made from whole cells or from IM separated from OM by differential centrifugation. Strains were grown to OD_{600} 0.2 at 42 °C then shifted to 30 °C for 2 hours before harvest. Lipid extracts were quantified using LC/MS and the percentage of each specific species of PE (A), PG (B), and CL (C) was calculated using the sum of all molecular species detected. Suppressor 1 showed decreased saturation compared to its parent strain (Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR*). For PE, this difference was evident for whole cells but not for IM. Data for phospholipids without unsaturations are shown in grey, with one unsaturation in blue, with two unsaturations in green, with three unsaturations in orange, and odd chain fatty acids (likely cyclopropyl-fatty acids) in yellow. Data for phospholipids with longer acyl chains are shown in darker colors. **(D)** EOPS were performed on media supplemented with oleic acid or a vehicle control. Oleic acid suppresses the cold sensitivity of the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain. **(E)** Growth curves of the indicated strains were performed in the presence of oleic acid, stearic acid, or a vehicle control. Oleic acid suppressed the cold sensitivity of the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain while stearic acid did not. Data are the average of three biological replicates ± the SEM.

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Figure 5. Transcriptional landscape of the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* and suppressed strain. Three
biological replicates of the indicated strains were grown at 42 °C to mid-log then transferred to 30
°C for 30 minutes before harvesting RNA and performing RNA-seq. Differential expression was
calculated based on a greater than 2-fold change in expression and a p value of less than 0.05
by quasi-linear F-test. **(A)** PCA was performed on the expression of all genes differentially
expressed between any groups of samples. Suppressor 1 and the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain grouped
closer together than to the wild-type strain, although Suppressor 1 was closer to wild type than
the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain. **(B-D)** Volcano plots show the average fold change and significance of
expression changes between the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain and wild-type MG1655 (B), Suppressor 1
and wild-type MG1655 (C), and Suppressor 1 and the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain (D). Genes with
changes greater than 2-fold are shown in blue, while genes with changes less than 2-fold are
shown in grey. Genes with a q-value (false discovery rate) of less than 0.05 are shown in yellow.
Blue lines indicate a 2-fold change and dotted line indicates p>0.05. The number of up or down
regulated genes is indicated in blue. The names of the 10 genes with the largest changes are
called out. More genes were up-regulated then down regulated in the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain and
Suppressor 1 vs. wild type. More genes were down regulated in Suppressor 1 compared to the
Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain. **(E)** Relative expression of genes in the CL synthesis pathway is shown as

841   averages ± the SEM and individual data points. No significant changes were evident. **(F)** Relative
842   expression of genes in the fatty acid synthesis and degradation pathways is shown as averages
843   ± the SEM and individual data points. A general normalizing of these pathways occurred in
844   Suppressor 1 compared to the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain; however, the most significant change was in
845   the expression of *fabA*. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.005$, *** $p < 0.0005$ by quasi-linear F-test.
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Figure 6. Model for the role of YhdP and TamB in phospholipid transport. (A-C) Docking of short-chain, saturated PE to the predicted structures of YhdP (A), YdbH (B), and TamB (C) was modeled. Conformations of bound PE are shown. Sites where many conformations of PE can bind TamB are indicated with arrows. **(D-F)** Our data can be explained by the following model of phospholipid transport. **(D)** In normal conditions, YhdP is mainly responsible for the transport of phospholipids with more saturated fatty acid chains between the IM and OM. TamB shows a strong preference for transporting phospholipids with more unsaturated fatty acids, with YdbH playing a minor role in phospholipid transport. **(E)** In the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain, YhdP is not available to transport more saturated phospholipids and the proportion of both saturated fatty acids and cardiolipin is increased, especially at low temperature. The fluidity of the membrane is also lessened by the low temperature. In these conditions, transport of phospholipids between the membranes is impeded, possibly due to the clogging of TamB by CL or monounsaturated phospholipids. This leads to a lethal lack of phospholipids in the OM and overabundance of phospholipids in the IM. **(F)** When TamB is removed from the Δ*yhdP* Δ*fadR* strain, the clogging

863 of TamB is relieved, and the cell relies on YdbH for phospholipid transport overcoming the cold
864 sensitivity. PL: phospholipid
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