Bam complex associated proteins in *Escherichia coli* are functionally linked to

peptidoglycan biosynthesis, membrane fluidity and DNA replication

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Abstract

Biogenesis of the bacterial outer membrane is key to survival and antibiotic resistance. Central to this is the β-barrel assembly machine (Bam) complex and its associated chaperones, which are responsible for outer membrane protein (OMP) transport and insertion. The *Escherichia coli* Bam complex consists of two essential subunits, BamA and BamD, and three non-essential lipoproteins, BamB, BamC and BamE. Optimal Bam function is further dependent on the non-essential chaperones DegP, Skp and SurA. Despite intensive study, the specific function of these non-essential Bam-associated proteins remains unknown. Here, we analysed knockout strains for each gene by phenotypic screening, conservation analysis and high-throughput genetics. We reveal that Bam activity is affected by outer membrane lipid composition and that enterobacterial common antigen is essential in the absence of the chaperone SurA. We also show that components of peptidoglycan are conditionally essential with Bam accessory lipoproteins and that DNA replication is perturbed in the absence of BamB. Together, our data indicates potential mechanisms for coordination of OMP biogenesis with processes such as LPS and peptidoglycan biogenesis, and DNA replication.

Keywords:

Bam complex / TraDIS / Escherichia coli / DNA replication / peptidoglycan synthesis

Introduction

The Gram-negative outer membrane is instrumental for virulence, antimicrobial resistance, and immune evasion. The outer membrane is an asymmetric lipid bilayer consisting of phospholipid on the inner leaflet, lipopolysaccharide (LPS) on the outer leaflet, integral outer membrane proteins (OMPs) and associated lipoproteins. Biogenesis of the outer membrane is completed by several multi-component proteinaceous machines. Central to this is the β-barrel assembly machine (Bam) complex, the essential protein machinery responsible for folding and insertion of OMPs into the outer membrane, which then act as transporters, porins, receptors, virulence factors, adhesins and enzymes (Konovalova et al., 2017, Rollauer et al., 2015). All OMPs are synthesised in the cytoplasm before being trafficked through the inner membrane to the periplasmic space by the Sec machinery. OMPs are prone to aggregation and must be maintained in an unfolded state during their translocation to the Bam complex (Ruiz et al., 2006). Three quality control proteins that chaperone OMPs across the periplasm are SurA, Skp and DegP. The double mutants Δ*surA*Δ*skp* and Δ*surA*Δ*degP* are not viable, which suggests that Skp, SurA and DegP might be functionally redundant (Rizzitello et al., 2001). Indeed, the primary chaperone pathway to the Bam complex is thought to be SurA, while Skp and DegP are suggested to form a secondary pathway that is amplified in stress conditions (Sklar et al., 2007). However, single molecule studies with purified OmpC and Skp or SurA demonstrate that the two proteins recognise different conformations of the OMP and that while Skp is capable of dispersing aggregated OmpC, SurA is not. This suggests that Skp and SurA have specialised roles in maintaining OMPs in a folding competent state during periplasmic transit (Li et al., 2018).

Following transport across the periplasmic space, OMPs are received at the outer membrane by the Bam complex. In *Escherichia coli*, the Bam complex is composed of two essential subunits, the outer membrane β-barrel BamA and the lipoprotein BamD, and three non-essential accessory lipoproteins, BamB, BamC and BamE (Hagan et al., 2010, Wu et al., 2005). BamA is the central component of the complex and consists of a 16-stranded β-barrel

and five periplasmically localised POlypeptide-TRansport-Associated (POTRA) domains that function to dock the accessory subunits (Gentle et al., 2005, Sánchez-Pulido et al., 2003). The POTRA domains are hypothesised to interact with incoming unfolded OMP substrates and feed them into the assembly machinery (Knowles et al., 2008). BamD is a lipoprotein composed of five tetratricopeptide repeat (TPR) domains that interact with POTRA 5 of BamA (Dong et al., 2012, Sandoval et al., 2011, Wu et al., 2005). The remaining components of the complex are the accessory lipoproteins, BamB, BamC and BamE, which interact with BamA and BamD to form a functionally coordinated ring structure under the BamA barrel on the periplasmic face of the outer membrane (Bakelar et al., 2016, Browning et al., 2015, Gu et al., 2016, Iadanza et al., 2016, Knowles et al., 2011).

The Bam complex accessory lipoproteins each contribute to full activity of the complex through a shared redundant function of coordinating efficient BamA/D interaction in OMP engagement and folding. Beyond this shared function, there is some limited information about specific roles of these proteins in the cell (Hagan et al., 2010, Hart & Silhavy, 2020). For example, as part of the Rcs stress response signalling pathway, the outer membrane lipoprotein RcsF is threaded through an OMP during folding by the Bam complex and this process specifically requires BamE (Konovalova et al., 2016). In addition, lethal jamming of the Bam complex in the absence of BamE can be prevented by BamB (Hart et al., 2019, Tata & Konovalova, 2019). BamB has also been shown to be important in folding of high-flux substrates (Charlson et al., 2006). However, further information about the specific roles of BamB, BamC and BamE are lacking (Hart & Silhavy, 2020).

In this study, we provide evidence for specialised function and show that changes to LPS structure lead to increased membrane fluidity and decreased Bam complex activity. We also identify that the cyclic form of enterobacterial common antigen (ECA), a periplasmic carbohydrate, is essential in the absence of the chaperone protein SurA. Further to this we demonstrate that the Bam accessory lipoproteins, including BamC, are essential in the absence of the peptidoglycan stem-peptide component *meso*-DAP, providing a strong phenotype for this poorly understood protein. Lastly, we show that loss of BamB causes the

100 cells to over-initiate DNA replication, which also becomes asynchronous, indicating potential

101 coordination between OMP biogenesis and DNA replication. Together, our data indicate

102 specialised roles for the Bam-associated proteins and highlights potential mechanisms for

103 coordination of OMP biogenesis with processes such as outer membrane lipid biogenesis,

104 peptidoglycan synthesis and DNA replication control.

Results

Loss of Bam-associated proteins leads to distinct phenotypes

We hypothesised that if the Bam-associated proteins have specialised roles in the cell it would be unlikely that they phenocopy each other. Therefore, we tested fitness of ∆bamB, ∆bamC, ∆bamE, ∆surA, ∆skp and ∆degP mutants of *E. coli* K-12 BW25113 compared to the parent strain under various stresses. We arrayed the strains in 384-well format on solid agar plates containing each stress or compound. Endpoint pictures were taken to quantify colony fitness based on size by the image analysis software Iris (Kritikos et al., 2017). Fitness was scored using the chemical genomics analysis software ChemGAPP Small by comparing the mean colony size for the mutant in each condition to the mean colony size of that mutant in the LB agar condition, which was normalised to a fitness score of 1 (Doherty et al., 2023). Fitness scores below 1 represent decreased fitness, as a function of colony size compared to growth on LB agar, and scores above 1 indicate increased fitness in that condition.

The fitness of each mutant across all conditions identified that the ∆bamB and ∆surA mutants have the strongest fitness defects **(Fig 1)**. Correlation between each mutant fitness profile pair was assessed by calculating the Pearson correlation coefficient. This demonstrated that ∆bamB and ∆surA have a similar phenotypic profile with a correlation coefficient of 0.74, the highest of all pairs of mutants **(Fig S1)**. Similar decreased fitness scores were observed for both strains in the presence of bacitracin, carbenicillin, erythromycin, sodium dodecyl-sulfate (SDS), osmotic stress conditions due to varied salt concentrations, and vancomycin **(Fig 1)**. This is unsurprising as SurA is the major chaperone pathway for OMPs to reach the Bam complex resulting in low fitness of ∆bamB and ∆surA when growing on LB at 37°C. However, despite this functional link, they do not always phenocopy each other. For example, the ∆bamB strain grew better in the presence of the MreB inhibitor A22 with a fitness score of 1.59, but the ∆surA mutant was less fit in this condition (score of 0.51). The same was true in the presence of doxycycline (∆bamB – 1.65, ∆surA – 0.94) and hydroxyurea (∆bamB – 0.68, ∆surA – 1.14) **(Fig 1)**.

Condition

Condition	ΔbamB	ΔbamC	ΔbamE	ΔsurA	Δskp	ΔdegP	WT
A22 [10 µg/ml]	1.59	1.09	1.04	0.51	0.99	0.61	1.04
Aztreonam [0.04 µg/ml]	1.09	1.24	0.88	0.82	1.06	1.10	1.17
Bacitracin [0.5 mg/ml]	0.02	1.34	0.58	0.05	0.87	1.48	1.66
Benzalkonium [6 µg/ml]	1.17	1.00	1.02	0.97	0.96	1.00	0.97
Benzalkonium [12 µg/ml]	0.34	1.17	1.10	0.00	1.06	0.65	1.12
Carbenicillin [4 µg/ml]	0.56	1.39	0.97	0.81	1.29	0.94	1.40
Cefsulodin [20 µg/ml]	1.30	1.06	1.02	1.53	1.17	0.71	1.10
Cefsulodin [32 µg/ml]	1.09	1.17	1.01	1.34	1.19	0.66	1.23
Chloramphenicol [2.5 µg/ml]	1.62	1.10	1.06	1.37	0.88	1.01	1.08
Cisplatin [50 µg/ml]	1.32	0.97	1.02	1.63	0.94	1.06	0.96
Cisplatin [100 µg/ml]	0.82	1.10	1.04	1.26	1.06	0.77	1.10
D-cycloserine [10 µg/ml]	0.85	1.06	1.07	1.31	1.10	0.75	1.04
D-cycloserine [30 µg/ml]	0.98	1.08	1.02	1.23	1.08	0.78	1.11
D-cycloserine [50 µg/ml]	2.08	1.03	1.10	1.33	1.07	0.93	1.06
Doxycycline [1 µg/ml]	0.85	1.18	1.09	0.08	0.57	1.20	1.15
Doxycycline [8 µg/ml]	1.65	1.09	0.96	0.94	0.87	1.15	1.07
EDTA [1 mM]	1.07	1.02	1.03	0.98	0.97	0.91	0.99
Erythromycin [129 µg/ml]	0.28	1.20	0.94	0.58	1.24	1.02	1.21
EMIC [837 µg/ml]	1.11	0.99	1.02	1.43	1.04	1.00	0.98
EMIC [900 µg/ml]	0.87	1.04	1.04	1.39	1.03	0.77	1.05
Fusidic acid [128 µg/ml]	0.74	1.13	0.97	0.65	1.10	0.99	1.12
Fusidic acid [40 µg/ml]	1.13	1.08	1.00	0.98	1.06	0.91	1.07
Hydroxyurea [240 µg/ml]	0.68	1.05	0.98	1.14	1.08	1.00	1.03
Methylglyoxal [0.016 %]	1.28	0.99	1.02	1.66	0.97	1.04	0.98
Methylglyoxal [0.025 %]	0.78	1.07	1.02	1.24	1.05	0.76	1.07
Ammonium chloride [10 mM]	1.00	1.01	1.03	1.36	0.98	0.92	0.98
Ammonium chloride [20 mM]	0.82	1.06	1.01	1.41	1.00	0.84	1.06
Novobiocin [1 µg/ml]	1.23	1.00	1.00	1.57	0.97	1.06	0.97
Novobiocin [2 µg/ml]	0.96	1.12	1.05	1.23	1.08	0.74	1.12
SDS [1%]	0.25	1.32	0.97	0.09	1.06	1.02	1.27
SDS [1%] EDTA [25 mM]	0.29	1.26	1.02	0.11	1.04	0.67	1.19
Salt [0 mM]	0.49	1.13	0.90	0.25	1.06	1.05	1.06
Salt [50 mM]	0.43	1.11	0.99	0.51	1.09	0.99	1.04
Salt [300 mM]	0.61	1.03	1.02	0.58	0.98	0.96	1.01
Salt [600 mM]	0.33	1.00	1.01	0.70	0.99	1.06	0.99
LB 20°C	1.40	1.00	0.92	1.58	0.92	1.27	0.96
LB 25°C	1.58	1.03	1.02	1.51	0.93	1.21	1.00
LB 30°C	1.14	1.02	0.94	1.19	0.93	1.19	0.98
LB 42°C	1.48	0.99	1.11	1.87	1.00	0.51	0.91
LB 47°C	1.64	1.02	1.04	2.12	1.00	0.40	0.97
Trimethoprim [5 µg/ml]	2.11	1.01	0.98	1.37	0.83	1.09	0.96
Triton X-100 [2%]	0.89	1.09	1.04	1.00	1.05	0.86	1.05
Vancomycin [25 µg/ml]	0.06	1.31	0.66	0.01	0.78	1.70	1.54
Vancomycin [50 µg/ml]	0.08	1.12	0.63	0.01	0.93	1.18	1.20
Vanillin [5 mM]	1.64	1.00	1.06	1.87	0.95	0.99	0.94

Strain

Figure 1 – Phenotypic profiling of mutants lacking Bam-associated proteins
Heat map of fitness scores for the *E. coli* BW25113 parent strain and Δ*bamB*, Δ*bamC*, Δ*bamE,* Δ*surA*, Δ*skp*, or Δ*degP* mutants grown in various stress conditions. Colony size measurements for each condition were normalised by comparing to colony size of that strain when grown on LB medium at 37°C. Growth of each strain on LB is set to 1 and each condition normalised to this. Fitness scores above 1 represent better growth than the LB condition as measured by colony size and scores below 1 indicate smaller colony size than the LB condition. Some conditions are abbreviated due to space restrictions: EMIC - 1-Ethyl-3-methylimidazolium chloride, EDTA - Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid, SDS – Sodium dodecyl sulfate.

The ∆*bamE* mutant only mildly correlated to ∆*bamB* with a coefficient of 0.51 **(Fig S1)**.

However, as expected both mutants were sensitive to vancomycin (∆*bamB* – 0.06, ∆*bamE* –

0.66) and bacitracin (∆*bamB* – 0.02, ∆*bamE* – 0.58) two antibiotics that exceed the exclusion

limit of outer membrane porins and to which sensitivity indicates damage to the permeability

barrier. In contrast, ∆*bamC* has no strong phenotypes and correlated most strongly with the

WT parent strain **(Fig 1 and Fig S1)**. Similarly, to ∆*bamC*, the ∆*skp* mutant also has no strong

phenotypes in our screen. Surprisingly, ∆*degP* was negatively correlated with the other

periplasmic chaperone pathway group mutants ∆*skp* (-0.51) and ∆*surA* (-0.37) and with

∆*bamE* (-0.68) due to opposing fitness scores in a range of stresses **(Fig. 1 and Fig S1)**.

Together, the phenotypic profiling data indicate that while there are shared phenotypes

between each knockout, we observe a broad range of unique, mutant specific phenotypes that

suggests specialised roles.

TraDIS identifies unique synthetic lethal interactions for Bam-associated proteins.

Considering that the Bam-associated proteins have specialised function, we sought to find

their genetic interaction networks by using Transposon-Directed Insertion site Sequencing

(TraDIS). When TraDIS libraries are generated in single gene deletion mutant backgrounds,

the insertion frequencies of genes/regions compared to wild-type cells identifies genes that

become more important for survival in the mutant backgrounds. These genes are termed

conditionally essential, and help to identify co-dependencies of processes that the candidate

gene might be involved in. The method can also identify mutants that are more fit in the given

genetic background or condition (Cain et al., 2020, Goodall et al., 2021, Langridge et al., 2009,

Winkle et al., 2021). Therefore, the parent strain (*E. coli* BW25113) and ∆*bamB,* ∆*bamC,*

∆*bamE,* ∆*surA,* ∆*skp,* or ∆*degP* mutants were transformed with a mini Tn5-kanamycin

transposon and recovered on LB agar at 37°C. Transposon mutants were then pooled and

transposon insertion sites identified by DNA sequencing as described previously (Goodall et

al., 2021). The BioTraDIS pipeline was used for data analysis in order to classify genes as

either essential or non-essential. Essential genes were then compared to the parent BW25113

TraDIS library to identify genes that became essential in the knockout strains (conditionally

essential) **(Table S1)** (Barquist et al., 2016). For quality control, two independent replicates of

each transposon library were sequenced over several sequencing runs. Individual sequencing

runs had a high correlation coefficient of ≥0.93 between samples and generated >6 million

TraDIS reads and >500,000 unique insertion sites for each strain **(Fig S2 and S3)**. Transposon

insertion sites were evenly mapped throughout the genome, with the exception of an increased

density around the origin of replication as expected due to gene dosage **(Fig S4)** (Cooper &

Helmstetter, 1968).

These experiments are aimed to identify novel genetic interactions, but this unbiased

approach will also uncover known synthetic lethal gene pairs that are still useful for us to

benchmark our data against. Indeed, we confirmed known genetic interactions between *surA*

and *skp* (Rizzitello et al., 2001), *degP* and *surA* (Rizzitello et al., 2001), *bamB* and *degP*

(Charlson et al., 2006) and *bamE* and *bamB* (Hart et al., 2019) **(Fig S5)**. The Δ*bamB,* Δ*bamC*

and Δ*bamE* TraDIS libraries allowed identification of 93, 92 and 29 conditionally essential

genes, respectively **(Fig 2A and Table S1)**. This is particularly surprising as there are no

known roles or dependencies for *bamC* and we did not observe strong phenotypes for Δ*bamC*

in our phenotypic screen **(Fig 1)**. Unfortunately, 54 of the genes identified as conditionally

essential in the Δ*bamC* background are of unknown function, therefore providing no

hypotheses for the role of BamC **(Table S1)**.

Next, we compared the conditionally essential gene lists to probe if they are involved in similar

processes or contribute to the same function within the cell. In the case that all three Bam

accessory proteins solely contribute to Bam function, we would expect to find significant

overlap between mutants. However, we found a large number of unique conditionally essential

genes for each (62, 57 and 5 for Δ*bamB,* Δ*bamC* and Δ*bamE,* respectively), indicating

potential specialised roles in the cell **(Fig 2A)**.

For the OMP chaperone pathway mutants we identified 247, 87 and 35 conditionally essential

genes for the Δ*surA,* Δ*degP* and Δ*skp* mutants, respectively **(Fig 2A)**. As the Δ*surA* mutant

Figure 2 - Genetic interaction analysis of Bam-associated genes by TraDIS
TraDIS libraries were constructed in the *E. coli* BW25113 parent strain and Δ*bamB*, Δ*bamC*,
Δ*bamE,* Δ*surA*, Δ*skp*, or Δ*degP* mutants in order to identify genes that become essential in
each knockout strain compared to the parent library (conditionally essential). **A.** Venn
diagrams showing conditionally essential genes identified within the Δ*bamB*, Δ*bamC* and
Δ*bamE* TraDIS libraries or the Δ*surA*, Δ*skp* and Δ*degP* libraries. **B.** Analysis of KEGG
categories enriched in conditionally essential gene lists in the Δ*bamB*, Δ*bamE,* Δ*surA* and
Δ*degP* TraDIS libraries, represented as bubble plots. No data is shown for the Δ*bamC* and
Δ*skp* conditionally essential gene lists as there was no significant enrichment of any KEGG
categories.

had many strong phenotypes when probed against stresses **(Fig 1)**, this could potentially

explain the large number of conditionally essential genes compared to the other OMP

chaperone mutants **(Fig 2A)**. Of the 87 conditionally essential genes in the Δ*degP* dataset,

only 15 were also in the Δ*skp* background, despite DegP and Skp being assumed to be part

of the same arm of the chaperone pathway. These results suggest that while there is functional

redundancy between the SurA and DegP/Skp chaperone pathways, the function of the

chaperones under specific chemical and genetic conditions is likely specialised **(Fig 1 and**

2A).

In order to determine the functions and associated pathways of the conditionally essential

genes identified in the mutant backgrounds, we completed GO and KEGG analyses.

Enrichment analysis of KEGG pathways for the Δ*bamC* and Δ*skp* datasets resulted in no

significant enrichment of any one category. However, genes involved in "Lipopolysaccharide

biosynthesis" and "Biosynthesis of nucleotide sugars" were enriched in the Δ*surA*, Δ*degP* and

Δ*bamE* conditionally essential gene lists and "O-antigen nucleotide sugar biosynthesis" was

enriched in the Δ*surA* background **(Fig 2B and Table S2)**. The most enriched KEGG pathway

in the Δ*bamB* dataset was "Aminoacyl-tRNA biosynthesis", however these genes all encode

tRNAs and are on average 75 bp in length. Visual inspection of these gene regions identified

sparse insertion density within the local genomic area leading to a likely false positive for

conditional essentiality. The Δ*bamB* dataset is also significantly enriched for three other KEGG

pathways: "Homologous recombination", "Mismatch repair" and "DNA replication" **(Fig 2B and**

Table S2). Together, the KEGG pathway enrichment analysis identifies the importance of LPS

and ECA biosynthesis in these mutants as well as a potential link between OMP biogenesis

and DNA replication, which directed our further investigations.

Genes required for heptose incorporation into LPS demonstrate synthetic lethality with

bamB, surA* and *degP

We identified that fewer mutants were recovered with transposon insertions in genes involved

in LPS assembly in the Δ*bamB*, Δ*surA* and Δ*degP* backgrounds than in the parent. In addition,

genes involved in "Biosynthesis of nucleotide sugars" were significantly enriched, with genes

identified being involved in the synthesis of heptose, a core component of LPS **(Fig 2B and**

Table S2). Despite this category being enriched in the ∆*bamE* dataset, we found this was due

to one gene in particular and that the result was actually specific to the ∆*bamB*, ∆*surA* and

∆*degP* TraDIS libraries **(Fig 3A and Fig S6)**. Synthesis of heptose consists of five main steps

before it is incorporated into the LPS inner core **(Fig 3B)**. In the ∆*surA* and the ∆*degP* TraDIS

libraries, all four genes involved in synthesis of heptose were essential: *gmhA*, *gmhB*, *hldE*

and *waaD*. In the ∆*bamB* background all were essential except for *gmhB,* which is potentially

because a ∆*gmhB* mutant is partially defective in LPS core synthesis, but is not completely

devoid of heptose (Kneidinger et al., 2002). These data suggest that heptose production was

functionally more important in ∆*degP* and ∆*surA* than in the ∆*bamB* mutant.

The incorporation of heptose into the LPS structure was also functionally important. In ∆*degP*

and ∆*surA* mutants, the genes *waaC* and *waaF* were conditionally essential, which are

responsible for transfer of the first and second heptose onto the LPS inner core, respectively

(Fig 3A and 3B) (Gronow et al., 2000, Kadrmas & Raetz, 1998). In contrast, in the ∆*bamB*

mutant, *waaC* was conditionally essential whereas *waaF* was not. This implies that while

∆*degP* and ∆*surA* mutants are not able to tolerate having LPS with only one heptose residue,

the ∆*bamB* mutant is.

LPS truncation leads to increased membrane fluidity and decreased Bam complex

activity

Increased outer membrane fluidity decreases Bam activity and modifications to LPS structure

can lead to changes in membrane fluidity (Storek et al., 2019). Thus, we hypothesised that

changes in LPS core structure would affect membrane fluidity to differing degrees, which could

affect Bam complex efficiency. To test this hypothesis we assessed membrane fluidity and

Bam complex activity in strains lacking the genes encoding the heptose biosynthesis pathway

(∆*gmhA*, ∆*gmhB*, ∆*hldE*, and ∆*waaD*) and LPS core synthesis (∆*waaC*, ∆*waaF*, ∆*waaP*,

∆*waaG* and ∆*waaY*) **(Fig 3)**. There were no differences in insertion index for the gene *waaY,*

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Figure 3 - Incorporation of heptose into LPS is essential in ΔbamB, ΔsurA and ΔdegP
A. Transposon insertions in the genes *gmhA*, *gmhB*, *hldE, waaD, waaC,* and *waaF* in the
parent, Δ*bamB,* Δ*surA* and Δ*degP* TraDIS libraries. Transposon cut-off is set to 20. Essential
genes are represented as red arrows. **B**. Schematic of the heptose biosynthesis pathway and
LPS structure in *E. coli* K-12 BW25113 with gene labels for LPS biosynthesis enzymes
indicated next to the linkage they form or component they ligate. Enzymes identified as
conditionally-essential are labelled in red text. **C.** Membrane fluidity was measured in Δ*gmhA,*
ΔgmhB, ΔhldE, ΔwaaD, ΔwaaC, Δ*waaF*, Δ*waaG*, Δ*waaP* and Δ*waaY* mutants and compared
to the parent strain by using pyrenedeconoic acid fluorescence. **D.** To determine the extent of
Bam complex activity, successful folding and insertion of OmpT into the outer membrane was
measured in the Δ*gmhA,* Δ*gmhB,* Δ*hldE,* Δ*waaD,* Δ*waaC*, Δ*waaF*, Δ*waaG*, Δ*waaP*, Δ*waaY*
and Δ*ompT* mutants and compared to the parent strain. For panels C and D, experiments
were performed in biological and technical triplicate with standard deviation represented by
error bars. Two sample t-tests were used to assess statistical significance of differences from
the WT strain with *** indicating p-values of <0.001, * indicating p-values of <0.05, and NS as
not significant (p-value ≥0.05).

which encodes the enzyme responsible for phosphorylation of the second heptose in the LPS inner core. Therefore, Δ*waaY* should act as a control in this experiment (Yethon et al., 1998). In addition, Δ*waaP* and Δ*waaG*, which are responsible for phosphate addition to the first heptose, and incorporation of the first glucose, respectively (Parker et al., 1992), were included as a small decrease in the insertion indexes for these genes were observed in the Δ*surA* and Δ*degP* TraDIS datasets **(Fig S6).**

Fluidity of the membrane for each mutant was measured using the lipophilic pyrene probe, pyrene decanoic acid. The pyrene monomer can undergo excimer formation and demonstrates a shift in fluorescence, a process which is dependent on the ease of mobility within the membrane (Kumar et al., 2002, Storek et al., 2018). Formation of the excimer was measured and compared to that of the parent strain **(Fig 3C)**. The largest increase in membrane fluidity occurred in knockouts of genes required for heptose biosynthesis: Δ*gmhA*, Δ*gmhB,* Δ*hldE*, and Δ*waaD*. Of this group, the Δ*gmhB* mutant had the smallest increase in membrane fluidity and this gene was also not essential in the Δ*bamB* background **(Fig 3A and 3C)**. Of the genes required for LPS core biosynthesis, membrane fluidity was higher in Δ*waaC*, Δ*waaF* and Δ*waaG* than in the parent strain with the biggest change being in Δ*waaC* and the smallest in Δ*waaG*. However, there was no significant increase in fluidity in the Δ*waaP* mutant. Membrane fluidity of the Δ*waaF*, Δ*waaP* and Δ*waaG* mutants was intermediate between that of the heptoseless Δ*waaC* mutant and the parent, with the severity of the effect correlating to the severity of LPS core truncation. No significant change in membrane fluidity was measured in the Δ*waaY* mutant control **(Fig 3C)**.

Next, we investigated whether impairment of heptose synthesis affected activity of the Bam complex, which was monitored by an *in vivo* OmpT fluorescence assay. The outer membrane protease OmpT is dependent on the Bam complex and is able to cleave a fluorogenic peptide, which is monitored by increased fluorescence over time (Hagan et al., 2010). With the exception of Δ*waaY*, all mutants demonstrated a minimum 40% decrease in OmpT activity compared to the parent strain. The heptoseless Δ*waaC* mutant exhibited the greatest decrease in OmpT activity. The effect of Δ*waaF*, Δ*waaP* and Δ*waaG* mutations on OmpT

activity levels was comparable to each other and intermediate between that of $\Delta waaC$ and the

parent strain **(Fig 3D)**. In summary, mutations that lead to heptoseless LPS had the biggest

increase in membrane fluidity and the lowest levels of OmpT activity with a graded response

based on the severity of LPS core truncations. This suggests there is a correlation between

LPS core structure, membrane fluidity and Bam complex activity that leads to a variety of Bam

complex activity levels depending on the form of LPS in the outer membrane.

Generation of cyclic ECA is essential in the absence of the chaperone SurA

Genes involved in 'Biosynthesis of nucleotide sugars' were significantly enriched as

conditionally essential in the $\Delta surA$ mutant. The genes identified are involved in biosynthesis

of ECA **(Fig 2B)**, which is a highly conserved carbohydrate-derived molecule present on the

external leaflet of the outer membrane and in the periplasm of Enterobacteriaceae (Kuhn et

al., 1988, Kunin, 1963). All of the ECA biosynthesis pathway genes were conditionally

essential with the exception of *wxyE,* which is required for survival of both the parent and the

$\Delta surA$ mutant **(Fig 4A and 4B)**. In addition, fewer mutants were recovered with transposon

insertions in the genes *rffH* and *rffG* than in the parent TraDIS library (**Fig 4A)**. The gene

products RffH and RffG catalyse the same enzymatic reaction and are homologous in

sequence to the genes RfbA and RfbB, respectively. However, they form part of different

operons and function in separate pathways despite *rffG* being able to complement an RfbB

defective strain (Marolda & Valvano, 1995, Sivaraman et al., 2002). This likely explains why

rffH and *rffG* are not entirely essential in the $\Delta surA$ background.

ECA exists in three forms that all share the same biosynthetic pathway: ECA that is covalently

linked to LPS (ECA_{LPS}), covalently linked to diacylglycerol-phosphate (ECA_{PG}), or a cyclic form

(ECA_{CYC}) (Kuhn et al., 1988, Rai & Mitchell, 2020). We sought to determine which form of ECA

is conditionally essential in $\Delta surA$. Synthesis of ECA_{LPS} is facilitated by the O-antigen ligase

WaaL, which is responsible for attaching the ECA molecule onto the LPS core (Rai et al.,

2021, Schmidt et al., 1976). However, in the $\Delta surA$ TraDIS library, the gene *waaL* is non-

essential **(Fig 4C)**. This suggests that ECA_{LPS} is not essential in the $\Delta surA$ mutant.

A.

B.

C.

D.

Figure 5 – Synthesis of ECA is essential in the absence of the chaperone SurA

A. Transposon insertions in genes of the ECA biosynthesis pathway in the parent or Δ*surA* mutant TraDIS libraries. Transposon cut-off is set to 100. Essential genes are represented as red arrows. **B**. Schematic representation of the ECA biosynthesis pathway with the names of proteins labelled next to the reaction for which they are responsible. Conditionally essential proteins are labelled in red text. **C.** Transposon insertions in the *waaL* gene in either the parent or Δ*surA* mutant TraDIS libraries. Transposon cut-off is set to 100. **D.** Analysis of phospholipid content in the parent or Δ*surA* mutant with further mutations to disrupt synthesis of the major anionic phospholipids. The Δ*pgsA* and Δ*surA*Δ*pgsA* strains are also Δ*lpp*Δ*rcsF*. Phospholipid samples were separated and visualised by TLC using a solvent mixture of methanol/ chloroform/ water with a ratio of 2:2:1.8 before being visualised by phosphomolybdic acid and charring.

The formation of ECA$_{PG}$ is completed by attachment of linear ECA chains to diacylglycerol by

a phosphodiester bond through an unknown mechanism (Kuhn et al., 1983, Rai et al., 2021).

To determine the essentiality of ECA$_{PG}$ we targeted synthesis of the donor molecule for ECA$_{PG}$,

the phospholipid phosphatidylglycerol (Morris & Mitchell, 2023). The gene *pgsA* encodes

phosphatidylglycerophosphate synthase, which catalyses the first committed step in

biosynthesis of phosphatidylglycerol. However, loss of *pgsA* is lethal due to mislocalisation of

Braun's lipoprotein, Lpp, to the inner membrane and activation of the Rcs stress system.

These issues can be resolved by making an Δ*lpp*Δ*rcsF* mutant before constructing the Δ*pgsA*

mutation (Kikuchi et al., 2000, Rowlett et al., 2017, Suzuki et al., 2002). The

Δ*pgsA*Δ*surA*Δ*lpp*Δ*rcsF* quadruple mutant was viably constructed and the absence of

phosphatidylglycerol was confirmed by phospholipid extraction and thin layer chromatography

(Fig 4D). This confirmed that the phospholipid donor for synthesis of ECA$_{PG}$ is not essential in

the Δ*surA* mutant. Lastly, the gene *wzzE* is not required for the production of ECA$_{LPS}$ or ECA$_{PG}$,

but is required for production of ECA$_{CYC}$ (Kajimura et al., 2005, Mitchell et al., 2018, Rai et al.,

2021). In the Δ*surA* TraDIS library, the gene *wzzE* contained a conditionally essential region

indicating that ECA$_{CYC}$ is likely to be the form of ECA that is conditionally essential in a Δ*surA*

mutant **(Fig 4A)** (Mitchell et al., 2018).

***meso*-DAP is essential in the absence of BamB, BamC or BamE**

The TraDIS data were searched for conditionally essential genes involved in cell envelope

biogenesis pathways other than LPS and ECA biosynthesis. The gene *dapF* was identified as

conditionally essential in Δ*bamB* and Δ*bamC* with visual inspection indicating decreased

insertions in *dapF* in Δ*bamE* **(Fig 5A)**. DapF converts LL-diaminopimelate (LL-DAP) to *meso*-

diaminopimelate (*meso*-DAP), which is then either decarboxylated to produce L-lysine by the

enzyme LysA or it is utilised in the biosynthesis of peptidoglycan (Dewey & Work, 1952,

Richaud et al., 1987). The gene *lysA* was non-essential in all strains tested, suggesting the

essentiality of *dapF* in these mutants is due to the requirement for *meso*-DAP in synthesis of

peptidoglycan **(Fig 5A and 5B)**.

418
Figure 5 – *meso*-DAP containing peptidoglycan is essential in the absence of Bam
accessory lipoproteins
A. Transposon insertions in the genes *dapF* and *lysA* in the parent or Δ*bamB*, Δ*bamC*, Δ*bamE*
mutant TraDIS libraries. Transposon cut-off is set to 20. Essential genes are represented as
red arrows. **B**. Schematic representation of the L-lysine biosynthesis pathway with the names
of proteins labelled next to the reaction for which they are responsible. Conditionally essential
proteins are labelled in red text. A schematic structure of *E. coli* peptidoglycan is shown with
the site of *meso*-DAP incorporation shown. **C.** Efficiency of plating assay showing survival of
the Δ*dapF*, Δ*bamB*, Δ*bamC*, Δ*bamE*, Δ*dapF*Δ*bamB*, Δ*dapF*Δ*bamC*, or Δ*dapF*Δ*bamE* mutants
grown on LB with or without 1 mM *meso*-DAP or 10 % sucrose. Cells were grown overnight in
LB supplemented with 1 mM *meso*DAP before being normalised to OD_{600} = 1.00 and serially
diluted 1:10 before 2 μl was spotted on agar plates and incubated at 37°C overnight.

To validate the genetic interaction between Δ*dapF* and components of the Bam complex, the

dapF gene was knocked out in the BW25113 parent strain, Δ*bamB,* Δ*bamC* or Δ*bamE*

mutants. The double knockouts were selected in the presence of externally supplied *meso*-

DAP, which alleviated the loss of *dapF*. Cells were then grown in liquid media in the presence

of *meso*-DAP before being serially diluted in un-supplemented media and assayed for survival

in the presence or absence of *meso*-DAP by efficiency of plating assay. All strains grew

equally as well as the parent on LB agar supplemented with 1 mM *meso*-DAP, except for

Δ*bamB*Δ*dapF* which showed a minor decrease in CFU and colony size **(Fig 5C)**. However, in

the absence of *meso*-DAP the single Δ*dapF* mutant demonstrated a decrease in survival and

the double mutants were not viable **(Fig 5C)**. Lastly, considering that loss of DapF will lead to

a weaker peptidoglycan layer due to decreased crosslinks, we sought to negate the synthetic-

lethal phenotype by growth in the presence of sucrose as an osmoprotectant (Mengin-Lecreulx

et al., 1988, Mickiewicz et al., 2019). Unexpectedly, while the presence of 10% sucrose

enabled survival of the single *dapF* mutant to levels comparable to the parent, this was

insufficient to restore growth of the double mutant **(Fig 5C)**. This data demonstrates that

peptidoglycan structure is of increased importance in the absence of full Bam complex activity

and that this may not simply be due to structural support for the envelope.

Regulation of DNA replication initiation is disrupted in the absence of BamB

Our TraDIS experiment identified that in the Δ*bamB* dataset three KEGG pathways were

significantly enriched: "Homologous recombination", "Mismatch repair" and "DNA replication".

Bacterial DNA replication is mainly regulated at the initiation step by DnaA **(Fig 6A)**. The ATP-

bound form of this protein binds to DnaA boxes present at the chromosomal origin of

replication (*oriC*), with both high and low affinity, and directs replisome assembly (Jameson &

Wilkinson, 2017). Briefly, DnaA-ATP forms an oligomeric complex that facilitates unwinding of

the DNA strands, which in turn enables assembly of the replisome: the complex responsible

for replication of the bacterial chromosome. In *E. coli,* DnaA binding to its cognate DnaA boxes

is modulated by regulatory proteins. Negative regulation is achieved by two proteins. The

Figure 6 – Loss of BamB leads to changes in DNA replication control

A. Schematic representing DNA replication control in *E. coli*. DiaA stimulates initiation at the origin of replication, *oriC*, by DnaA. SeqA prevents premature reinitiation of replication. Hda acts together with the β-sliding clamp to hydrolyse ATP-bound DnaA by regulatory inactivation of DnaA (RIDA). This can also occur through *datA*-dependent DnaA-ATP hydrolysis (DDAH). **B.** Transposon insertions in the genes *hda*, *seqA* and *diaA* in the parent or Δ*bamB* mutant TraDIS libraries. Conditionally-essential genes are represented as red arrows and genes that increase fitness are in green. **C.** Efficiency of plating assay showing survival of the parent dCas9 expressing strain LC-E18 (WT) or Δ*bamB* mutant derivatives carrying the pSGRNA plasmid, which encodes CRISPRi guide RNA targeting either *seqA* or *hda*. Cells were grown on LB with or without 40 nM anhydro-tetracycline (aTc) to induce guide RNA expression. **D.** The *E. coli* BW25113 parent strain, single, or double Δ*bamB* and Δ*diaA* mutants were spotted on LB agar in 384-well format, in triplicate, and grown overnight at 37°C before being imaged. Fitness was calculated based on colony size and fitness ratios generated relative to the WT parent. **E.** Flow cytometry of *E. coli* LC-E18 cells grown in LB followed by replication run-out

475 assay. Forward scatter and side scatter are plotted with WT cell data indicated in blue and
476 Δ*bamB* data points in red. Fluorescence is plotted and represents chromosomal content for
477 each cell with chromosome numbers for each peak marked.
478
479

protein SeqA sequesters newly replicated origins, preventing premature reinitiation of

replication (Lu et al., 1994, Torheim & Skarstad, 1999, von Freiesleben et al., 1994). The Hda

protein works together with the β-sliding clamp to stimulate ATP hydrolysis of DnaA-ATP,

which in the ADP-bound form is unable to promote initiation of DNA replication (Katayama et

al., 1998, Kato & Katayama, 2001, Lu et al., 1994, Torheim & Skarstad, 1999, von Freiesleben

et al., 1994). Positive regulation is facilitated by the DnaA initiator-associating factor, DiaA,

which directly interacts with the N-terminal domain of DnaA to stimulate initiation at *oriC* (Ishida

et al., 2004, Keyamura et al., 2007).

Analysis of the TraDIS data identified the genes *holC, holD, matP, seqA* and *hda* as

conditionally essential in the Δ*bamB* mutant **(Table S1)**. Within this set of genes, we chose to

focus on those with the clearest conditional essentiality from the TraDIS data, *hda* and *seqA*.

Insertions within the negative regulator encoding genes, *seqA* and *hda*, led to decreased

survival of Δ*bamB*. In contrast, increased fitness of Δ*bamB* was observed for cells containing

disruptions of the positive regulator gene *diaA* **(Fig 6B)**. We confirmed the findings regarding

the negative regulators by using CRISPRi. The *bamB::aph* allele was transferred into the

dCas9 encoding strain *E. coli* LC-E18 and the kanamycin resistance marker was removed.

The pSGRNA plasmid was used to express guide RNA targeting the *seqA* or *hda* genes in

either the parent or Δ*bamB*. Expression of guide RNA targeting the *seqA* and *hda* genes led

to significantly decreased survival of Δ*bamB* when compared to the parent strain, therefore

confirming the observations made from TraDIS **(Fig 6C)**. The positive genetic interaction

between *bamB* and *diaA* was confirmed by measuring fitness of the Δ*bamB*Δ*diaA* mutant

compared to both single deletion mutants. Fitness of the double mutant was greater than the

expected fitness for this strain **(Fig 6D)**.

Considering that loss of negative regulators of DNA replication initiation led to decreased

fitness of Δ*bamB*, and loss of the positive regulator increases fitness, we hypothesised that

the Δ*bamB* mutant may already have defective replication control. Therefore, we compared

chromosomal content of the wild-type and Δ*bamB* strain by using an established replication

run-out assay (Hawkins et al., 2016). Both strains were grown to early exponential phase

under conditions supporting fast cell growth (LB + 0.2% glucose), when cells contain multiple

replicating chromosomes. We reasoned that dysfunction of replication control is usually

exacerbated when cells grow with overlapping replication rounds. Next, cells were collected

and treated with rifampicin to inhibit further rounds of DNA replication initiation, and with

cephalexin to prevent cell division. Fixed cells were stained for DNA content with Sytox Green

and analysed by flow cytometry. The comparison of chromosomal copy number revealed a

higher proportion of cells with 16 chromosome copies for the Δ*bamB* mutant, which implies

that initiation of replication occurs earlier during the cell cycle in this strain relative to the

parent. Strikingly, a population of Δ*bamB* cells also displayed a number of chromosomes

deviating from the normally observed 2^n, as manifested by an additional peak between the 8

and 16 chromosome peaks. This is a hallmark of asynchronous DNA replication events, when

not all replication origins in the cell fire simultaneously **(Fig 6E, S7-9)**. Analysis of the other

Bam-accessory lipoprotein gene mutants and Δ*skp* by replication run-out assay revealed no

significant changes from the parent pattern **(Fig S10)**. Therefore, our results suggest that *E.*

coli over-initiates DNA replication in the absence of BamB. This is fully consistent with the

observations that Δ*bamB* cells are more fit if they lose the positive regulator of DNA replication,

DiaA, but have decreased fitness in the absence of the negative regulators SeqA and Hda.

OMP trafficking protein conservation varies throughout Gram-negative bacteria

The data presented here demonstrate that in *E. coli,* the Bam-associated proteins likely have

specialised functions that are potentially coordinated with LPS structure, the presence and

form of ECA, peptidoglycan biogenesis and DNA replication control. Considering these

results, we revisited the evolutionary conservation of Bam complex subunits and the

periplasmic chaperone pathway proteins (Webb et al., 2012). Reference genomes for a

diverse range of Gram-negative bacterial representative strains were used to search for

sequences coding the Bam complex subunits (as observed in *E. coli*) or the chaperone

pathway proteins SurA, Skp and DegP. A combination of Prokka annotation, hmmsearch,

SignalP 6.0 (Teufel et al., 2022) and manual curation were used to generate a neighbour

joining tree with a heat map of gene counts in each organism **(Fig 7)**. While we found broad

conservation of all query proteins within the gamma- and beta-proteobacteria, there are some

notable exceptions. The BamB and BamC lipoproteins are not conserved within two species

of the aphid endosymbiont *Buchnera aphidicola* and the data confirm previous unpublished

observations that a strain of *B. aphidicola*, (subspecies *Baizongia pistaciae*) appears to have

entirely lost genes encoding the Bam complex (Malinverni & Silhavy, 2011). Likely this is due

to the strain containing only a few OMPs, therefore no longer requiring a dedicated OMP

assembly machinery.

Outside of the gamma- and beta-proteobacteria requirement for the Bam-associated proteins

appears to be diverse. The lipoproteins BamB and BamC are largely absent in the alpha-

proteobacteria, and the epsilon-proteobacteria only encode the core components BamA and

BamD, demonstrating reductive evolution. This minimalist form of the Bam complex is

sufficient for OMP insertion, which is likely due to reduced β-barrel complexity as observed in

Helicobacter pylori (Webb et al., 2017). This indicates that the specialised roles these proteins

may play in *E. coli* are not required in these organisms **(Fig 7)**. While there is diversity in the

presence or absence of these proteins in the organisms analysed, multiple copies of some

components were also identified. In particular, we found that *Pseudomonas putida* encodes

two copies of BamA, BamE and SurA. Outside of the gamma-proteobacteria there are

numerous examples of species encoding multiple copies of BamA, particularly within the

alpha-proteobacteria, such as the plant pathogen *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* **(Fig 7)**. These

copies may play specialised roles in folding and inserting specific cargo, or they may alleviate

an increased requirement for OMP insertion in these organisms. Taken together, the diverse

Figure 7 – Conservation analysis of Bam-associated proteins in Gram-negative bacteria
Conservation of the BamB, BamC, BamE, SurA, DegP and Skp proteins among key Gram-negative bacterial species represented by a presence/absence map plotted onto a phylogenetic tree generated with iTOL (Letunic & Bork, 2021). Gene count in each species is represented by coloured boxes.

range of Bam complex subunit compositions within Gram-negative bacteria support the hypothesis that the Bam-associated proteins likely play specialised roles that vary in each organism.

Discussion

The Bam complex has been identified as a potential target for antimicrobials, with several new inhibitors of this essential outer membrane biogenesis machine being identified recently (Steenhuis et al., 2021). However, despite this focus as an important new avenue for drug discovery, and recent advances in understanding the mechanism by which the Bam complex folds and inserts OMPs into the outer membrane (Doyle et al., 2022, Tomasek et al., 2020), we still do not fully understand the roles of the Bam-associated proteins in *E. coli*. We also do not understand why the complex appears to be modular, with subunits being differentially conserved throughout Gram-negative bacteria as shown through our analysis and those done previously **(Fig 7)** (Webb et al., 2012). Constituent parts of the outer membrane such as phospholipid species, type of LPS, O-antigen, ECA, lipoprotein content, and variety/flux of the unfolded OMP proteins can vary across bacterial species (Simpson & Trent, 2019, Valvano, 2022). Such variation would likely result in significant differences in the biophysical constraints of the membrane environment in which the Bam complex must operate. In addition, there is likely to be differing requirements for the chaperone pathway proteins depending on the pool of client OMPs. Considering that Skp and SurA have been shown to act on different unfolded states of OmpC, with Skp likely being more important during stress conditions, the environmental conditions experienced by each species could also dictate the requirement for each OMP chaperone (Li et al., 2018). Together, this strongly suggests that each accessory lipoprotein is likely to have specialised functions and that the chaperone proteins are unlikely to be truly functionally redundant. This is supported by our phenotypic profiling of knockout strains. Should each of the accessory lipoproteins merely contribute to overall activity of the Bam complex, and if there is true redundancy in the chaperone pathway, then we would expect that the knockout strains should phenocopy each other. However, we found this not to be the

case **(Fig 1)**. Our TraDIS analysis also supports this conclusion as we saw a large number of

unique conditionally essential genes for each mutant **(Fig 2)**.

Role of the outer membrane lipid environment for OMP insertion

The Bam complex must function within the constraints of the outer membrane lipid

environment, therefore OMP biogenesis is likely to be affected by changes to outer membrane

lipids. Indeed, we found conditional essentiality between genes involved in LPS inner core

biogenesis and either *bamB*, *surA* or *degP*. Complete truncation of the LPS inner core by

disruption of the last enzyme in the heptose biosynthesis pathway has previously been

demonstrated to increase membrane fluidity and lead to decreased Bam complex activity

(Storek et al., 2019). We confirmed this observation and further demonstrate that the changes

to membrane fluidity are of graded severity relating to the severity of LPS inner core truncation.

This in turn leads to a graded impact on Bam complex activity **(Fig 3)**. The Δ*bamB,* Δ*surA* and

Δ*degP* knockout strains have the most severe phenotypes within the set of strains tested here

(**Fig 1**). Also, loss of BamB, SurA or DegP each leads to OMP assembly defects, decreased

numbers of folded OMPs in the outer membrane, and accumulation of unfolded OMPs in the

periplasm (Charlson et al., 2006, Krojer et al., 2008, Lazar & Kolter, 1996, Rouvière & Gross,

1996, Wu et al., 2005). We hypothesise that the negative effect of increased membrane fluidity

on the Bam complex in combination with decreased levels of OMP assembly in the absence

of BamB, SurA or DegP leads to OMP assembly levels that are too low to sustain cell viability.

This is of particular significance when considering the variation in LPS structure seen between

different strains, and the LPS modifications available, which could affect the level of Bam

activity and influence the conservation of each Bam-associated protein (Simpson & Trent,

2019, Valvano, 2022).

A role for ECA$_{cyc}$ in amelioration of periplasmic protein folding stress?

The carbohydrate antigen ECA consists of three repeating sugars, is widely conserved amongst the *Enterobacterales*, and is produced in three forms that are either surface exposed (ECA$_{LPS}$ and ECA$_{PG}$) or periplasmically localised (ECA$_{CYC}$). The invariant nature of the antigen suggests it has an important undiscovered function, however the role of ECA in outer membrane biology remains unknown (Rai & Mitchell, 2020). We identified that ECA biogenesis becomes essential in the absence of the chaperone SurA **(Fig 4A)**. Production of ECA requires the lipid carrier undecaprenyl phosphate (Und-P), which is limited in the cell and utilised in numerous metabolic reactions including the production of peptidoglycan, capsule, O-antigen and membrane-derived oligosaccharides. Disruption of ECA biogenesis can cause stress on these other pathways due to Und-P sequestration in ECA dead-end intermediates (Jorgenson et al., 2016, Mitchell et al., 2018, Rai & Mitchell, 2020). However, the first gene in the ECA pathway is conditionally essential in the absence of SurA **(Fig 4A)**, therefore the effects are unlikely due to stress on the Und-P pool. Instead, we showed that the periplasmically localised form, ECA$_{cyc}$, is essential in the absence of SurA **(Fig 4)**. It is possible that ECA$_{cyc}$ might help stabilise the outer membrane of a Δ*surA* mutant, as it has been shown to suppress the envelope permeability defect of a Δ*yhdP* mutant. However, the molecular details of this suppression are yet to be discovered (Mitchell et al., 2018). Alternatively, disruption of ECA biosynthesis activates the Cpx, Rcs, and σ^E stress responses, which in addition to activation of these pathways by the loss of SurA could led to excessive activation of stress responses that are lethal to the cell (Castanié-Cornet et al., 2006, Danese et al., 1998, Jorgenson et al., 2016). Finally, ECA$_{cyc}$ could be performing a chaperone function directly, however this would require *in vitro* assays of protein aggregation with purified products for proof.

Coordination of OMP biogenesis with peptidoglycan biosynthesis

In order to ensure successful cell growth and division, activity of the Bam complex must be coordinated with biogenesis of the peptidoglycan layer. Our TraDIS analysis identified that in

the $\Delta bamB$, $\Delta bamC$ and $\Delta bamE$ mutants, the gene *dapF* was essential **(Fig 5A)**. The DapF

enzyme is responsible for synthesis of the peptidoglycan stem-peptide component *meso*-DAP.

The single and double mutants could be rescued by exogenous *meso*-DAP, however only the

single *dapF* mutant could be rescued by the osmo-protectant sucrose, which is sufficient to

allow survival during disruption of peptidoglycan biogenesis **(Fig 5B)** (Mickiewicz et al., 2019).

Loss of *meso*-DAP in the single *dapF* mutant leads to accumulation of LL-DAP, which is

incorporated into peptidoglycan and leads to decreased crosslinking (Mengin-Lecreulx et al.,

1988, Richaud et al., 1987). In the $\Delta dapF$ mutant the peptidoglycan layer would be able to

withstand less mechanical load due to decreased crosslinking. This decreased mechanical

strength, in combination with the reduced capacity for load bearing by the outer membrane in

the Bam complex mutants, means that the cells are unlikely to withstand osmotic stress (Rojas

et al., 2018). However, while this may be true for $\Delta bamB$ and $\Delta bamE$ mutants, there are no

strong phenotypic effects for $\Delta bamC$ (**Fig 1)** (Nichols et al., 2011). Also, the loss of BamC has

only a slight effect on the membrane permeability barrier, no detectable changes to the outer

membrane proteome, and no effect on OMP folding in an *in vitro* assay (Thewasano et al., Wu

et al., 2005). Consequently, the synthetic lethality between *dapF* and *bamC* is unlikely to be

due to osmotic stress tolerance, as could be the case for the other mutants.

It has recently been demonstrated that the Bam complex preferentially inserts OMPs at the

cell division site and that this is coordinated by interaction with the peptidoglycan layer (Mamou

et al., 2022). While all of the Bam complex proteins were shown to interact with peptidoglycan

in vitro, only BamA and BamC were found to interact with peptidoglycan in whole cells when

analysed by crosslinking and pull-down assays (Mamou et al., 2022). Considering the

interaction of mature peptidoglycan with BamC and the altered peptidoglycan structure in the

$\Delta dapF$ strain (Mengin-Lecreulx et al., 1988, Richaud et al., 1987), we hypothesise that BamC

might facilitate coordination between the Bam complex and peptidoglycan biosynthesis,

however this requires further investigation.

 Link between OMP biogenesis and DNA replication control

Not only must envelope biogenesis processes be coordinated with each other, but synthesis

of the envelope must be coordinated with cell growth and cell division. Experimental evidence

suggests that both DNA replication control (Si et al., 2017, Wallden et al., 2016) and the rate

of cell surface synthesis are coupled to cell volume (Harris & Theriot, 2016). This provides the

rationale for existence of mechanisms that modulate DNA replication rate in response to cell

envelope synthesis perturbation. Here we demonstrated that in the absence of BamB, cells

over-initiate DNA replication and that synchrony of replication initiation at multiple origins is

compromised **(Fig 6E)**. Also, our phenotypic screen revealed that Δ*bamB* has increased

fitness at sub-optimal growth temperatures. This would lead to slower growth, a factor that is

known to alleviate some DNA replication control defects, such as those arising from loss of

SeqA (Lu et al., 1994). In addition, we found that the Δ*bamB* mutant is sensitive to

hydroxyurea, which specifically inhibits ribonucleotide reductase and leads to depletion of the

cellular dNTPs pool, replication fork arrest and genomic instability **(Fig 1)** (Davies et al., 2009,

Nakayashiki & Mori, 2013). Similarly to Δ*bamB*, mutants that also over-initiate replication, such

as *seqA* mutants, are also sensitive to hydroxyurea (Sutera & Lovett, 2006).

Led by our TraDIS results, we confirmed that *seqA* and *hda* are essential in the Δ*bamB* mutant

(Fig 6) and that this is likely due to over-initiation of DNA replication, which can be caused by

all three of these mutations (Camara et al., 2005, Lu et al., 1994, von Freiesleben et al., 1994).

SeqA is required to prevent premature re-initiation of replication through sequestration of

newly replicated GATC sites within oriC, whereas Hda prevents re-initiation of replication

through regulatory inactivation of DnaA (RIDA), in combination with the β-sliding clamp of DNA

polymerase (Camara et al., 2003, Lu et al., 1994). Interestingly, we also identified that two

components of the β-sliding clamp loader complex, HolC and HolD, become essential in the

Δ*bamB* mutant **(Table S1)**. These proteins contribute towards activity of the clamp loader.

Therefore, the synthetic lethality could be due to decreased RIDA and over-initiation of DNA

replication, as observed for the *hda* mutant (Cooper et al., 2021, Katayama et al., 1998).

This is the first link between the Bam complex and DNA replication control, however links

between the envelope and DNA replication have been observed previously. In order to initiate

DNA replication, the DnaA protein must be in the ATP-bound form and regeneration of DnaA-

ATP from the ADP-bound form is facilitated by interaction with phospholipids. (Garner et al.,

1998, Sekimizu & Kornberg, 1988). DNA replication control and envelope biogenesis are also

linked by the SeqA protein, which has been associated to the purified outer membrane fraction

in a cell-cycle dependent manner, however the mechanism remains unclear (d'Alençon et al.,

1999). In addition, disrupted origin/terminus ratios in *seqA* mutant strains are suppressed by

mutations in the *waaG, waaQ* and waa*P* genes, which are responsible for addition of the outer

core of LPS, heptose III addition to the inner core and phosphorylation of heptose II of the LPS

inner core, respectively (Rotman et al., 2009, Valvano, 2022). Interestingly, the Δ*bamB* mutant

is also sensitive to changes in membrane fluidity brought about by LPS modifications that map

to the inner core **(Fig 3)**.

We also identified that insertions in the *diaA* gene, which encodes a positive regulator of DNA

replication initiation, can suppress Δ*bamB*. The *diaA* gene is part of a conserved four gene

cluster that also encodes LpoA - a regulator of peptidoglycan biogenesis, YraN - a protein of

unknown function, and DolP - a cell-division site localised outer membrane lipoprotein shown

to interact with the Bam complex (Bryant et al., 2020, Ranava et al., 2021). The genes in this

cluster all appear to be linked to regulating cellular growth processes such as peptidoglycan

biogenesis, OMP insertion into the outer membrane and DNA replication. This is of particular

interest considering our data demonstrate potential coordination of these processes, which is

essential to ensure efficient growth and survival during cell division.

Together, our data demonstrate that the Bam-associated proteins have specialised roles in

the cell and highlights potential future targets to understand these roles. We provide further

evidence that OMP transport, folding and insertion is affected by, and potentially coordinated

with, peptidoglycan and LPS structure. We also show that Bam function is correlated with DNA

replication control and highlight the BamB lipoprotein, outer membrane fluidity and LPS

structure as a potential route through which this could occur. This provides a strong direction

for further study to understand this coordination.

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Conflict of interest

740 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest

Supplementary figures

Figure S1 – Correlation of phenotypic profiles
Heatmap of Pearson correlation coefficients for each pair of strain phenotypic profiles. Correlation of fitness ratios for each strain was assessed by calculating the Pearson correlation coefficient for averaged fitness scores across replicates using Python before being plotted as a heatmap. Black squares indicate a p-value ≥0.05 meaning the correlation coefficient achieved was not statistically significant.

Figure S2 – Reproducibility across TraDIS library sequencing runs
Correlogram of insertion indexes between individual sequencing runs for each TraDIS library.
The colour and size of the bubbles correspond to the strength of the Pearson correlation
coefficient between the indices for the same genes across the runs. The blue colour
represents positive correlation.

Figure S3 – Transposon library construction metrics
TraDIS library construction metrics showing the percentage of sequencing reads that matched the transposon tag and that mapped to the chromosome. Total sequencing length as a function of total unique insertion sites, the total number of unique insertion sites for each sample, total number of sequencing reads, and the number of reads that mapped are also shown.

765
766 **Figure S4 – Circular plots of transposon insertion density in TraDIS libraries.** Circular
767 plot of transposon insertion sites in the parent BW25113 (WT), Δ*degP,* Δ*skp,* Δ*surA,* Δ*bamE*,
768 Δ*bamC*, Δ*bamB* TraDIS libraries, listed from innermost tracks outwards, generated using
769 DNAPlotter. The outermost track marks the BW25113 genome in base pairs with the inner
770 grey bar tracks corresponding to sense and antisense CDS.
771

Figure S5 – Examples of known synthetic lethal interactions
Transposon insertions in the genes *degP*, *skp*, *bamB* or *bamE* in the WT parent strain, Δ*bamB*,
or Δ*surA* mutant TraDIS libraries. Conditionally-essential genes are represented as red
arrows, non-essential genes are represented by grey arrows. Transposon cut-off is set to 50.

779 **Figure S6 – Transposon insertions in genes required for heptose biosynthesis in the**
780 **Δ*bamC*, Δ*bamE* and Δ*skp* TraDIS libraries**
781 Transposon insertions in the genes *gmhA*, *gmhB*, *hldE, waaD, waaC,* and *waaF* in the parent,
782 Δ*bamC,* Δ*bamE* and Δ*skp* TraDIS libraries. Transposon cut-off is set to 20. Essential genes
783 are represented as red arrows and non-essential genes are represented by grey arrows.
784

Figure S7 – Transposon insertions in the *waaG* and *waaP* genes in the WT, Δ*bamB*, Δ*degP* and Δ*surA* TraDIS libraries

Transposon insertions in the genes *waaB, waaS, waaP, waaG* and *waaQ* in the parent, Δ*bamB,* Δ*degP* and Δ*surA* TraDIS libraries. Transposon cut-off is set to 20. Genes are represented by grey arrows.

Figure S8 – Replication run-out assay standards
Flow cytometry of *E. coli* MG1655 cells grown in media supporting different growth rates
followed by replication run-out assay. Cells were grown in AB minimal medium supplemented
with either 0.4% acetate, 0.2% glucose, or 0.2% glucose + 0.5% casamino acids, or LB
supplemented 0.2% glucose at 37°C with aeration before being treated with rifampicin,
cephalexin and stained with Sytox Green. Fluorescence is plotted and represents
chromosomal content for each cell with chromosome numbers for each peak marked. An
overlay of the separate data panels is presented.

Figure S9 – Reproducibility of replication run-out assays for the parent strain
Flow cytometry of *E. coli* LCE-18 cells grown in LB supplemented with 0.2% glucose at 37°C
with aeration before being treated with rifampicin, cephalexin and stained with Sytox Green.
Fluorescence is plotted and represents chromosomal content for each cell with chromosome
numbers for each peak marked. Each experiment was repeated on 4 separate occasions and
an overlay of the separate data panels is presented.

Figure S10 - Reproducibility of replication run-out assays for the Δ*bamB* strain
Flow cytometry of *E. coli* LCE-18 Δ*bamB* cells grown in LB supplemented with 0.2% glucose at 37°C with aeration before being treated with rifampicin, cephalexin and stained with Sytox Green. Fluorescence is plotted and represents chromosomal content for each cell with chromosome numbers for each peak marked. Each experiment was repeated on 4 separate occasions and an overlay of the separate data panels is presented.

Figure S11 – Replication run-out assays for the parent, Δ*bamB*, Δ*bamC*, Δ*bamE* and Δ*skp* strains

Flow cytometry of *E. coli* LCE-18 WT parent, Δ*bamB*, Δ*bamC*, Δ*bamE* or Δ*skp* cells grown in LB supplemented with 0.2% glucose at 37°C with aeration before being treated with rifampicin, cephalexin and stained with Sytox Green. Fluorescence is plotted and represents chromosomal content for each cell with chromosome numbers for each peak marked. An overlay of the separate data panels is presented.

Materials and methods

Bacterial strains and culture conditions.

For TraDIS experiments, the parent strain was *E. coli* K-12 BW25113. The *E. coli* Δ*bamB*, Δ*bamC*, Δ*bamE*, Δ*surA*, Δ*skp* and Δ*degP* mutants were generated by transferring the relevant allele from the Keio library (Baba et al., 2006) into the clean parent strain by P1 transduction (Thomason et al., 2007). The *kan*[R] cassette was then removed by using the pCP20 plasmid (Cherepanov & Wackernagel, 1995). These strains were then used for construction of transposon libraries. The same approach was used for construction of the *E. coli* Δ*wecA*::*aph*, Δ*wecD*::*aph*, Δ*wecF*::*aph*, Δ*ompT*::*aph*, Δ*dapF*::*aph* and Δ*diaA::aph* mutants. The *diaA::aph* allele was also transferred into the Δ*bamB* derivative of *E. coli* BW25113 to generate the Δ*bamB*Δ*diaA::aph* double mutant. The *dapF::aph* allele was also transferred from the Keio library into Δ*bamB*, Δ*bamC*, Δ*bamE*, Δ*surA*, Δ*skp* and Δ*degP* mutants in the presence of 1 mM *meso*-diaminopimelate in order to generate double mutants. The Δ*rcsF*Δ*lpp*Δ*pgsA*Δ*surA* mutant was generated by transfer of alleles from the Keio library and subsequent removal of the *kan*[R] cassette by use of the pCP20 plasmid before incorporation of the next allele by P1 transduction. The *E. coli* Δ*gmhA*::*aph*, Δ*gmhB*::*aph*, Δ*hldE*::*aph*, Δ*waaD*::*aph*, Δ*waaC*::*aph*, Δ*waaF::aph*, Δ*waaP::aph*, Δ*waaG::aph*, Δ*waaY::aph* mutants were created by using λ-Red recombination, as previously described for single-step gene inactivation (Datsenko & Wanner, 2000). All mutants were confirmed by polymerase chain reaction and strains were routinely cultured on LB agar and LB broth. The dCas9 expressing strain *E. coli* LC-E18 and the pSGRNA plasmid was a gift from David Bikard (Addgene plasmid # 115924) and has been described previously (Cui et al., 2018). All strains used in this study are listed in **Table S3**. Bacterial cultures were grown at 37°C unless otherwise stated. Where stated, the medium was supplemented with kanamycin (50 µg/ml), carbenicillin (100 µg/ml), and *meso*-DAP (1 mM). For micro-dilution survival assays, bacteria were grown in 5 ml LB medium at 37°C with aeration for ~16 hours. Cultures were normalised by optical density to OD_{600} = 1.00, 10-fold serially diluted in LB, and 2 µl of each dilution was inoculated onto LB agar plates.

Phenotypic screening

The *E. coli* K-12 BW25113 parent strain, Δ*bamB*, Δ*bamC*, Δ*bamE*, Δ*surA*, Δ*skp* and Δ*degP* mutants were screened against diverse stress conditions to phenotypically profile the mutants. Strains were arrayed in 384-well format and inoculated on 2% agar LB plates using a BM3-BC robot (S&P Robotic Inc.). In addition, the mutants and the wild type were subsequently inoculated on LB agar plates containing different stress conditions. The inoculated plates were incubated for 12 to 14 hours at 37°C before being imaged under controlled lighting with an 18-megapixel Canon rebelT3i (Canon) camera on the BM3-BC robot (S&P Robotic Inc.). Images of the plates were analysed using the software IRIS, which measured the size, opacity and circularity of each colony (Kritikos et al., 2017). A total of 4 replica plates were generated for each stress condition. Fitness of the mutants was then scored and analysed using the ChemGAPP Small software (Doherty et al., 2023). Mean colony size for the mutant in each condition was compared to the mean colony size of that mutant in the LB agar condition, which was normalised to a fitness score of 1 (Doherty et al., 2023). Fitness scores below 1 represent decreased fitness, as a function of colony size compared to growth on LB agar, and scores above 1 indicate increased fitness in that condition. Each of the plates contained 56 replicates for the parent BW25113 strain (WT), Δ*bamB*, Δ*bamC*, Δ*bamE* and Δ*degP* strains with 52 replicates for Δ*surA* and Δ*skp* for plate space requirements. There were 4 replicate plates for each condition, all of which were treated as individual replicates and compared to their respective wild type parent replicates on each plate before the average was taken. The probability that the two means are equal across replicates was obtained by a one-way ANOVA. Correlation of fitness ratios for each strain was assessed by calculating the Pearson correlation coefficient for averaged fitness scores across replicates using Python before being plotted as a heatmap.

TraDIS library construction

The *E. coli* K-12 BW25113 parent strain, Δ*bamB*, Δ*bamC*, Δ*bamE,* Δ*surA*, Δ*skp* and Δ*degP*

mutants were transformed with the EZ-Tn5™ <KAN-2> Tnp Transposome (Cambio) as

previously described (Goodall et al., 2021). Approximately 1 million mutant colonies were

pooled, thoroughly mixed and stored in LB supplemented with 15% glycerol at -80°C. DNA

was extracted from at least two samples of each transposon library to generate independent

sampling replicates for library generation.

Sequencing of TraDIS libraries

Cells from the pooled mutant library were harvested and genomic DNA was extracted for

library preparation and sequencing as previously described (Goodall et al., 2021). Samples

were sequenced using an Illumina MiSeq with a 150 cycle v3 cartridge.

TraDIS data analysis

Raw data were processed using a series of custom scripts as previously described (Goodall

et al., 2021). The data were trimmed using Fastx barcode splitter and trimmer tools (Pearson

et al., 1997) and filtered based on inline indexes. The accuracy of the transposon sequences

were checked in two steps: the first 22 bases, allowing for three nucleotide base mismatches

and the last 10 bases of the transposon, allowing for up to one mismatch. Using Trimmomatic,

sequences with less than 20 bases in length were removed (Bolger *et al.,* 2014). TraDIS data

were then analysed using BioTraDIS (https://sanger-pathogens.github.io/Bio-Tradis/)

(Barquist et al., 2016) and aligned to the *E. coli* BW25113 reference genome CP009273.1,

available from NCBI (Tatusova *et al.,* 2014). We used SMALT

(https://www.sanger.ac.uk/tool/smalt/) as an aligner with zero value for mismatch threshold.

We also set the parameter smalt_r, determining how to treat multi-mapping reads, to zero.

This avoided repetitive elements to count as essential. We used the scripts

tradis_essentiality.R and tradis_comparison.R as part of the package to produce the list of

essentiality and then to compare the control and test libraries, respectively.

Membrane fluidity assay

Membrane fluidity was measured using the membrane fluidity kit (Abcam: ab189819), as previously described, but with minor modifications (Bryant et al., 2020). Bacterial strains were grown to mid-exponential phase (OD_{600} = ~0.4-0.6) in LB medium. Cells were harvested by centrifugation, washed with phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and incubated with labelling mix (10 µM pyrenedecanoic acid (PDA), 0.08% pluronic F-127, in PBS) in the dark for 20 min at 25°C with rocking. Cells were then washed twice in PBS and re-suspended in PBS prior to measuring fluorescence (excitation = 350 nm, emission = either 400 nm or 470 nm). Membrane fluidity was estimated by measuring the ratio of excimer (470 nm) to monomer (400 nm) fluorescence. The emission spectra were compared to unlabelled cells to confirm membrane incorporation and each experiment contained triplicate technical repeats and was then repeated three times. Membrane fluidity of the mutants of interest were expressed relative to the parent *E. coli* strain. Experiments were performed in technical triplicate and were repeated three times. Two sample t-tests were used to assess statistical significance of differences from the WT strain.

OmpT *in vivo* fluorescence assay

The OmpT assay for monitoring Bam activity was performed as described previously with minor modifications (Hagan et al., 2010, Iadanza et al., 2016, Storek et al., 2019). Bacterial strains were grown to mid-exponential phase (OD_{600} = ~0.4-0.6) in LB medium and were normalised to OD_{600} of 0.2 in growth media. The cell suspension (5 µl) was then added to 95 µl of 25 µM fluorogenic peptide, $Abz-ARRAY(NO_2)-NH_2$, diluted in PBS. Fluorescence emission was immediately measured (excitation = 325 nm, emission = 430 nm) over a period of 5 h, with readings every 20 s. OmpT activity was expressed relative to the parent strain. Experiments were performed in technical triplicate and were repeated three times. Two sample t-tests were used to assess statistical significance of differences from the WT strain.

Phospholipid extraction and thin layer chromatography

Phospholipids were extracted using an adapted Bligh-Dyer method (Bligh & Dyer, 1959).

Bacterial cultures were grown overnight (~16 hours) at 37°C with shaking and cells were

harvested by centrifugation. The bacterial cell pellets were resuspended and normalised to

OD_{600} = 3 and mixed with methanol and chloroform (2:1). The cell suspension was incubated

at 50°C for 30 min before additional chloroform and water was added to the samples to

produce a final ratio 2:2:1.8 of methanol/chloroform/water. Following centrifugation, the

phospholipid-containing phase was extracted and dried under nitrogen before being stored at

-20°C. Samples were re-dissolved in chloroform before being separated by thin layer

chromatography on silica gel membrane using a solvent system that consisted of chloroform,

methanol, acetic acid (65:25:10). The plate was subsequently stained with phosphomolybdic

acid (PMA) and warmed until the lipid species were visible.

Efficiency of plating assay

Efficiency of plating assays were completed as previously described (Boelter et al., 2022).

Cells were grown overnight in LB (supplemented with 1 mM *meso*DAP where indicated) before

being normalised to OD_{600} = 1.00 and serially diluted 1:10. Following dilution, 2 µl was spotted

on agar plates containing supplements where indicated and incubated at 37°C for ~16 hours

before being imaged.

Genetic interaction analysis

For genetic interaction analysis, overnight cultures were diluted 1/100 and then grown to OD_{600}

= 0.8-1. Cultures were then spread on LB agar plates using sterile glass beads to create

source plates, before being incubated for 12 to 14 hours at 37°C. Each strain was arrayed on

LB agar plates, from the source plates, to form 384 colonies of 96 replicates for each strain

using a BM3-BC robot (S&P Robotic Inc.). Plates were incubated at 37°C for 12 to 14 hours.

The plate was then imaged under controlled lighting, with an 18-megapixel Canon rebelT3i

(Canon) camera on the BM3-BC robot (S&P Robotic Inc.). Images were then analysed using

the software called IRIS to measure the size, opacity and circularity of each colony on the

plates (Kritikos et al., 2017). Fitness of the mutants was then analysed and compared using

the software ChemGAPP GI (Doherty et al., 2023).

Flow cytometry analysis

Chromosome number measurements were performed as described previously, but with

several modifications (Hawkins et al., 2016). Briefly, cells were grown with aeration at 37°C

until OD_{600}=0.15 in LB medium supplemented with 0.2% glucose. Samples were collected,

treated with 150 µg/ml rifampicin, and 10 µg/ml cephalexin and incubated for 4 h at 37°C with

mixing. Incubation with antibiotics results in cells containing an integral number of

chromosomes, corresponding to the number of replication origins at the time of drug treatment.

Subsequently, cells were harvested, washed with TBS (20 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 130 mM NaCl)

and fixed with cold 70% ethanol overnight. Additional samples were collected at OD_{600}=0.15

without antibiotic treatment and fixed as above.

Prior to flow cytometry analysis, cells were resuspended in 50 mM sodium citrate followed by

RNA digestion with RNase A for 4 h. Chromosomal DNA was stained with 2 mM Sytox Green

(Invitrogen) and DNA content per cell was measured with BD FACS Calibur at 488 nm Argon

Ion laser. MG1655 (WT) strain grown in AB medium containing one of the following carbon

sources: 0.4% sodium acetate, 0.2% glucose, 0.2% glucose + 0.5% casamino acids or in LB

medium with 0.2% glucose, treated with antibiotics, fixed and stained as above was used as

a standard for each flow cytometry measurement, indicating cells containing 1/2 , 2/4, 4/8 or

8/16 chromosomes, respectively. Flow cytometry data was analyzed using FlowJo ver. 10.8.0.

Conservation analysis

Reference genomes were downloaded for each species from NCBI in fasta format and

annotated using Prokka (Seemann, 2014). The 16s rRNA sequence for each species was

then extracted from Prokka ffn files in fasta format. A Kmer based neighbour joining tree was

produced via extracting a one-step sliding window of 8 base kmers from each 16s rRNA

sequence. Following this, the number of unique kmers was counted for each species in order

to produce a Kmer profile. The Jaccard similarity between each species Kmer profiles was

then used to produce a distance matrix. This distance matrix was input into the R module

ape::nj to produce the neighbour joining tree. The neighbour joining tree was reformatted as

a nexus file and visualised within Figtree (http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/), where the

tree was rooted at the midpoint and branches were transformed to become proportional.

To count the instances of the proteins BamA, BamB, BamC, BamD, BamE, DegP, SurA, and

Skp, hmmsearch was used to extract proteins with the relevant domains from the Prokka

annotated faa files. The Pfam domains used were PF01103, PF13360, PF06804, PF13525,

PF04355, PF09312 and PF03938 for BamA, BamB, BamC, BamD, BamE, SurA, and Skp,

respectively. For DegP, both PF00595 and PF13180 were used and the intersect taken. An

e-value of 0.001 was used as a threshold for significant hits by hmmsearch. For BamA, hits

annotated as the query protein were inputted into hmmscan and hits with at least one POTRA

domain and an Omp85 domain were counted as true BamA hits. Hits containing a Tam-

POTRA domain were excluded. Where a hit had only an Omp85 gene, the adjacent gene was

checked for the POTRA domains. For BamB, any hmmsearch hits annotated as BamB or

hypothetical proteins by Prokka were input into SignalP 6.0 (Teufel et al., 2022) and hmmscan.

Proteins assigned a LIPO (Sec/SPII) signal peptide within SignalP 6.0, with only one PQQ_2

domain within hmmscan were selected as true BamB hits. For BamC, all hits from hmmsearch

were inputted into hmmscan to confirm the presence of the Lipoprotein-18 domain. Hits were

also inputted into Phmmer and proteins with significant homology to BamC were counted as

true hits. For BamD, hypothetical proteins and BamD hits were inputted into hmmscan and

Phmmer and those with homology to BamD and a non-outcompeted YfiO domain counted as

true hits. For BamE, hypothetical proteins and BamE hits were inputted into hmmscan and

those with a singular SmpA_OmlA domain were counted as true hits. For DegP hypothetical

proteins and DegP hits were inputted into hmmscan. If a hit had a PDZ type domain,

Peptidase_M50 domain or Trypsin_2 domain then it was visualised on Pfam and manually

assigned as DegP based on structure. If a DegP hit had any other type of domain, it was

discounted. For SurA, all hits were run through hmmscan and Phmmer. Those with a SurA_N

domain, Rotamase domain and a Rotamase_3 domain and homologous to SurA within

Phmmer were counted. For Skp, all hits were run through Phmmer and only hits with only an

OmpH domain and with homology to Skp counted as true hits. Finally, the neighbour-joining

tree was edited in iTOL (Letunic & Bork, 2021) to produce the heatmap of gene counts.

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