Title: Non-redundant cardiolipin synthases shape membrane composition and support

stress resilience in *Bacteroides fragilis*

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Abstract: *Bacteroides fragilis* is an anaerobic resident of the human gut known to tolerate the

toxic effects of host-produced and microbially-modified bile acids. Two conserved genes, *clsA* and

clsB, encode putative cardiolipin synthases that have been linked to bile acid tolerance, but their

physiological roles remain undefined. Phylogenetic analysis indicates that *Bacteroides* spp. ClsA

and ClsB diverge from the well-characterized cardiolipin synthases of Gammaproteobacteria and

Firmicutes. Here, we show that these enzymes have distinct cardiolipin synthase activities and

make non-redundant contributions to *B. fragilis* fitness under gut-relevant stress conditions,

including osmotic stress, disruption of membrane potential, and exposure to the bile acid

deoxycholate. Although deoxycholate treatment perturbed K^+/Na^+ homeostasis in *B. fragilis*,

deletion of *clsA* or *clsB* did not significantly alter intracellular ion levels, suggesting that cardiolipin

loss does not substantially impact ion balance under standard cultivation conditions. High-

resolution lipidomic analyses showed that cardiolipin comprises less than 1% of *B. fragilis*

membranes and that ClsA and ClsB produce distinct cardiolipin products with unique acyl chain

lengths and levels of unsaturation. Deletion of either *cls* gene led to Cls-specific remodeling of *B.*

fragilis envelope lipid content, which was also associated with shifts in non-lipid metabolites

indicative of stress-induced metabolic changes. These results define distinct roles for ClsA and

ClsB in shaping *B. fragilis* membrane composition, metabolism, and stress resilience, and

highlight cardiolipin as a key determinant of fitness under bile acid stress.

Importance: Inflammatory bowel diseases are a growing global health concern, motivating efforts

to understand how inflammation-associated microbes, such as *B. fragilis*, adapt to and persist in

stress conditions typical of the intestinal environment. Our targeted genetic analyses reveal that

the cardiolipin synthases ClsA and ClsB make non-redundant contributions to *B. fragilis* fitness

under bile acid exposure and other gut-relevant stress conditions. Complementary omics-based

approaches show that these enzymes produce chemically distinct cardiolipin species and that

their loss leads to specific remodeling of membrane lipid composition and cellular metabolite

profiles. Together, our results indicate that cardiolipin synthases contribute to membrane and

metabolic adaptation in *B. fragilis*, supporting stress resilience in the presence of bile acids and

other gut-relevant stressors.

INTRODUCTION

To successfully occupy gut niches and maintain homeostasis, bacteria must preserve membrane integrity to resist phage attack, host immune pressures, and membrane-disrupting molecules such as bile acids (1-7). The functional properties of membranes are shaped by the diverse lipids classes of which they are made, each characterized by an array of structural species (8-10). For example, bacteria can alter their membrane fluidity and/or permeability by modulating the length of phospholipid acyl tails in response to extracellular conditions (8, 11). Bacteria also adjust the abundance of different phospholipid types or modify lipid headgroups through reactions such as aminoacylation (12-16).

In addition to protecting against external threats, membranes also help support cellular metabolism by maintaining a potential energy source in the form of ion gradients, such as hydrogen (protons, H^+), sodium (Na^+), and potassium (K^+) (17). One of the best-known functions of proton gradients is to power rotary ATPase complexes (i.e., F_oF_1) associated with aerobic and anaerobic respiration (18-22). Prokaryotes as well as eukaryotes maintain Na^+ and K^+ at intracellular concentrations that are lower and higher, respectively, relative to their environment, which drives the transport of metals or other molecules across the membrane (23, 24).

Cardiolipins, which make up 1–5% of the bacterial membrane, play an integral role in maintaining ion gradients (25-30). This class of membrane lipid comprises two covalently bonded phospholipids, such as phosphatidylglycerol (PG) or in some cases phosphatidylethanolamine (PE) (31). While cardiolipins increase proton permeability across model liposome membranes (28, 32), they also contribute to membrane stabilization by enhancing hydrogen bonding, reducing water permeability and sustaining membrane potential during stress-induced membrane depolarization (32, 33). In addition, several protein complexes require cardiolipin for proper function, including some two-component systems, protein translocation machinery, and respiratory complexes (34-39).

Escherichia coli has three well-studied genes responsible for cardiolipin biosynthesis:

clsA, *clsB* and *clsC* (31, 40). Each gene makes distinct contributions to *E. coli* physiology

depending on growth phase, with *clsA* being the primary *cls* used during logarithmic (log)-phase

growth and all three used during stationary phase (26, 31). While ClsA and ClsB act on PG as the

sole substrate, ClsC synthesizes cardiolipin from PE as well as PG (31, 41-43). The Cls enzymes

encoded by these genes are thought to synthesize three structural families of cardiolipin, which

have four (cardiolipin), three (monolysocardiolipin) and two acyl tails (dilysocardiolipin),

respectively (for chemical structures, see Fig. 6A) (44). However, mechanistic insight into bacterial

cardiolipin biosynthesis and function largely comes from studies in *E. coli* and other

Enterobacteriaceae. Expanding this research across diverse bacterial lineages is essential for

uncovering the broader physiological roles of this important lipid class.

The gut microbe *Bacteroides fragilis* is a gram-negative facultative anaerobe that must

maintain membrane integrity for gut fitness (45-47). While *B. fragilis* strains, particularly those that

carry the fragilysin toxin, are linked to colorectal cancer and other diseases (48), it constitutes

about 1–5% of the microbiota in otherwise healthy humans (49, 50). We recently identified two

cardiolipin synthases as critical for the survival of the non-toxigenic *B. fragilis* strain P207 in the

presence of physiologically relevant levels of deoxycholate, a secondary bile acid (51). *B. fragilis*

P207 was isolated from the ileoanal pouch of a patient with ulcerative colitis (UC) and is

representative of *B. fragilis* populations that can dominate prior to the onset of pouchitis (52), a

condition characterized by UC-like inflammation of the ileoanal pouch following colectomy (53).

In this study, we build on our previous findings by investigating the roles of the two *B. fragilis*

cardiolipin synthases across a broader range of membrane stress conditions. Since cardiolipin

synthases are largely uncharacterized in the Bacteroidota, our work provides foundational

knowledge about this important class of enzymes in a dominant group of gut microbes (54). Using

a combination of approaches, we demonstrate that the two *cls* genes in *B. fragilis* P207, *clsA* and

clsB, are evolutionarily and functionally distinct from *cls* homologs in *E. coli* and other well-studied

bacterial phyla. These genes encode non-redundant enzymes that contribute structurally unique

cardiolipin species to the membrane, conferring distinct physiological advantages under stress.

We further show that *clsA* and *clsB* differ in their expression profiles and that mutants lacking

each gene produce distinct cardiolipin species as well as distinct metabolomic profiles, supporting

complementary roles in maintaining membrane homeostasis and adapting to diverse

environmental conditions.

RESULTS

B. fragilis *P207 ClsA and ClsB are cardiolipin synthases*

The two *B. fragilis* P207 genes, ptos_000612 (*clsA*) and ptos_003252 (*clsB*), encode

proteins with predicted cardiolipin synthase domains (TIGR04265, PFAM13091, cd09112),

though *clsA* and *clsB* have low nucleotide (52.4%) and amino acid sequence (29.6%) identity to

each other (Fig. 1A). The low primary structure identity (≤30%) of ClsA and ClsB to *E. coli* Cls

proteins limited our ability to predict their specific enzymatic activities based on sequence alone

(Fig. 1A). Furthermore, *E. coli* ClsC did not align well with ClsA or ClsB from either *B. fragilis* or

E. coli (Fig. 1A, B). We therefore excluded ClsC from further comparisons.

ClsA and ClsB from *B. fragilis* and *E. coli* exhibit high amino acid conservation in two

regions around their predicted active sites but share limited identity across the remainder of the

protein (Fig. 1B, C). The Cls proteins from both species harbor two phospholipase-D active site

motifs H-X-K-X(4)-D (26, 42), indicative of phospholipase-D activity (Fig. 1D). Indeed, deleting

either *clsA* (∆*clsA*) or *clsB* (∆*clsB*) in *B. fragilis* resulted in a partial loss of cellular cardiolipin

accumulation relative to the wild-type (WT) strain; deleting both genes (∆*clsA* ∆*clsB*) completely

abolished cardiolipin accumulation (Fig. 1E). We conclude that *clsA* and *clsB* in *B. fragilis* P207

encode *bona fide* cardiolipin synthases. A more comprehensive analysis of how deletion of *clsA*

and *clsB* affects the membrane lipid composition of the *B. fragilis* envelope is presented in

sections below.

The cardiolipin synthases of Bacteroides *sp. occupy a distinct phylogenetic cluster among*

dominant gut bacterial phyla

To evaluate the relatedness between *Bacteroides* Cls proteins and those encoded by other

gut microbes, we performed pairwise alignments of Cls sequences from dominant bacterial phyla

present in the human gut. These sequences clustered according to their evolutionary heritage,

except for the Bacillota, which had two clusters (Fig. 1F). Based on this result, we conclude that

each cardiolipin synthase originated from a proto-lineage, rather than having been horizontally

transferred.

We next evaluated Cls protein sequences within the *Bacteroides* genus. We aligned 301

Bacteroides protein sequences containing the TIGR04265 domain (i.e. cardiolipin synthases).

Most genomes encoded two cardiolipin synthases that partitioned into distinct clusters (Fig. S1).

Notably, the *B. thetaiotaomicron* genome encodes a third Cls that is distinct from the other two

Bacteroides Cls clusters (Fig S1) indicating an evolutionarily distant introduction. We designate

cluster 1 homologs as ClsA based on our observation that both *B. fragilis* and *E. coli* ClsA proteins

are predicted to have two N-terminal transmembrane helices, suggesting a similar mode of post-

translational processing (55, 56). We named the cluster 2 homologues ClsB, as they represent

proteins from the second and only other annotated *cls* gene in most *Bacteroides.* We left the third

cls gene, which we identified only in *B. thetaiotaomicron*, unnamed and did not further

characterize it.

Within the *Bacteroides* genus, the chromosomal gene neighborhoods around *clsA* (Fig.

S2A) and *clsB* (Fig. S2B) are highly conserved; this conservation is lost outside the *Bacteroides*.

Thus, the genomic context of *clsA* and *clsB* provides some indication of the identity of each *cls*

gene, specifically within the *Bacteroides* lineage. This evidence also supports the hypothesis that

taxa inherited each *cls* gene in two distinct regions of the chromosome. Considering this

phylogeny, our analysis of the *B. fragilis cls* genes presented below offer insight into the function

of the two broadly distributed cardiolipin synthases across the genus *Bacteroides*.

clsA *and* clsB *deletion mutants have growth defects under membrane stress*

To explore the functions of the two cardiolipin synthases in *B. fragilis* P207, we generated

mutant strains harboring in-frame deletions of *clsA* (Δ*clsA*) and *clsB* (Δ*clsB*), and a strain lacking

both *cls* genes (Δ*clsA* Δ*clsB*). We also generated corresponding genetic complementation strains

bearing *clsA* or *clsB* integrated at a neutral heterologous site in the chromosome. We assessed

the growth characteristics of these *B. fragilis* strains under stress conditions that perturb various

aspects of membrane biology (Fig. 2). The treatments in this study included: 1) the detergents

deoxycholate and sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS); 2) low pH; 3) the salts NaCl and KCl; and 4) the

ionophores monensin A (for Na$^+$) and nigericin (for K$^+$ and H$^+$) to disrupt transmembrane ion

gradients. Treatment concentrations were chosen based on their effect on WT strain growth.

In the absence of treatment, all strains grew equally well (Figs. 2A, S3A, B). Treatment

with the detergents deoxycholate (at 0.01% [w/v]; Fig. 2A, S3) or SDS (at 0.002% [w/v]) (Fig. 2B)

limited the growth of the *cls* mutant strains to a greater extent than WT. Deoxycholate affected

maximum OD_{600} in the Δ*clsA* Δ*clsB* att::*clsA* strain, and both max OD_{600} and growth rate the Δ*clsA*

Δ*clsB* strain. SDS treatment mainly affected lag time, decreasing the max OD_{600} values in the first

20 h of growth. Doubling time defects appeared as little or no growth, rather than slower growth

(Fig. 2B). Under both detergent conditions, the deletion of *clsB* had a larger effect on fitness than

deletion of *clsA* (Figs. 2A, B, S3) and deletion of both genes (Δ*clsA* Δ*clsB*) had an additive effect.

300 mM K$^+$ or Na$^+$ (Fig. 2C, D) also lowered the growth rate and maximum OD_{600} of the mutant

strains relative to WT (Fig. S3). Both Δ*clsA* and Δ*clsB* strains exhibited similar phenotypes, with

the Δ*clsA* Δ*clsB* strain showing more pronounced effects. Lowering the medium pH from 6.9 to

pH 5.5 (i.e., higher [H$^+$]) had a detrimental effect on all *B. fragilis* strains, with no clear *cls-*

dependent growth defects (Fig. 2E).

The ionophores nigericin and monensin A dissipate ion gradients by mediating the

exchange of ions across the inner membrane (57, 58). Specifically, nigericin is a potassium-

selective ionophore and a H$^+$-K$^+$ antiporter, erasing both gradients by acidifying the cytoplasm and

moving K$^+$ out of the cell (57). Monensin A is a sodium-selective ionophore with a 16-fold

preference for Na$^+$ over K$^+$, but can also affect H$^+$ gradients (57-59). Under either nigericin or

monensin A treatment, *clsB* deletion decreased strain fitness relative to the WT (Fig. 2F, G).

However, strains harboring *clsB* but lacking *clsA* (Δ*clsA* and Δ*clsA* Δ*clsB* att::*clsB*) exhibited a

higher maximum OD$_{600}$ relative to the WT (Fig. S3).

We conclude that deleting *clsB* results in greater fitness defects than loss of *clsA* under

membrane perturbations. Furthermore, a functional ClsA limits growth under nigericin and

monensin A treatment, as we observed increased culture density in the Δ*clsA* strains. These

growth phenotypes provide evidence that ClsA and ClsB have distinct roles in *B. fragilis*

membrane physiology.

Loss of cardiolipin changes cell shape

Given that in many bacteria, cardiolipin influences cell division, morphology, and

membrane fluidity (60-67), we asked whether loss of Cls function in *B. fragilis* would affect cell

shape. Deletion of either *cls* gene did not markedly affect overall rod-like cell shape or cellular

length distribution (Fig. S4A, B). However, cells lacking *clsA* (i.e., Δ*clsA* and Δ*clsA* Δ*clsB* strains;

Figs. 3A, B and S4C) were narrower. While cells lacking *clsB* were not significantly narrower than

WT, this cell population did have a broader cell width distribution compared to WT, suggesting a

role for ClsB in cell size regulation (F-test, WT to Δ*clsB* p = 0.019, WT to Δ*clsA* Δ*clsB* att:*clsA* p <

0.001, WT variances compared to Δ*clsA* and Δ*clsA* Δ*clsB* were not significantly different; Figs. 3A

and S4C). Both phenotypes could be genetically complemented. These results demonstrate that

ClsA and ClsB influence cell width in *B. fragilis* (Fig. 3A, B).

B. fragilis *cardiolipin synthase genes have distinct expression profiles*

Considering the unique phenotypes of the Δ*clsA* and Δ*clsB* mutant strains, we

hypothesized that these genes have distinct expression patterns. To test this idea, we quantified

clsA and *clsB* transcripts levels across growth phases and stress conditions. *clsB* transcript levels

were four-fold higher during logarithmic (log) phase growth than in stationary phase, while *clsA*

expression was two-fold higher in stationary phase (Fig. 4A). During logarithmic growth, deletion

of either *cls* gene did not affect the transcript levels of the other (Fig. 4B). However, in stationary

phase, the deletion of *clsA* led to an 8-fold increase in *clsB* transcripts. No change in *clsA*

transcripts were observed upon *clsB* deletion (Fig. 4B). We conclude that the two cardiolipin

synthase genes of *B. fragilis* have distinct, growth-phase dependent expression profiles and that

clsB transcript upregulation in the Δ*clsA* strain may compensate for loss of ClsA activity.

To test if membrane stress influences the expression of the *cls* genes, we subjected cells

to acute stress for 20 minutes and harvested RNA. While SDS treatment did not affect *cls*

transcript levels, we observed a two-fold increase in *clsA* expression and a small decrease in *clsB*

transcripts after 0.01% deoxycholate and 300 mM K$^+$ treatments (Fig. 4C) (51). Acidic pH did not

alter *cls* transcript levels, but basic pH did decrease transcript levels of both genes (Fig. 4C).

Finally, we detected differences under ionophore treatment, although the biological significance

of these smaller changes is unclear (Fig. 4C).

Loss of cardiolipin synthase genes does not have a major impact on homeostasis of major

cellular elements

As cardiolipins play an important role in maintaining membrane barrier integrity (25-27,

68, 69), we used inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) to quantitatively define

amounts of certain elements in *B. fragilis* cells and measure the effect of ClsA and/or ClsB or

stress treatment on those elements. While cell washing is routinely used to prepare samples for

metal analysis, it can disrupt intracellular levels of elements (Fig. S5A). Therefore, we used a

wash-free ICP-MS assay to minimize perturbation during sample preparation, adapted here for

bacterial cultures (70). Using this approach, we found that *B. fragilis* P207 cells grown in

supplemented brain heart infusion (BHIS) medium contained 550 mM phosphorus (P), 430 mM

potassium (K), 98 mM sulfur and 63 mM sodium (Na) (Fig. S5C, medium elemental concentrations

shown in S5B).

To compare strains, we normalized intracellular element levels to phosphorus content, an

accepted practice in this type of analysis (71). This revealed no significant differences across the

ΔclsA, *ΔclsB*, or double-deletion strains in the relative levels of elements detected (Fig. 5A, B,

and S5C). Notably, given the lack of strain-dependent defects in CFU viability, we observed shifts

in relative phosphorus content per CFU across *cls* mutants that was consistent with differences

in the OD_{600}/CFU ratios (Fig. S5E-G). Furthermore, sulfur levels scaled proportionally with

phosphorus across samples (Fig. S5D and S5G). While P and S abundance can vary across

physiological states of the cell, they are tightly regulated (72, 73). Together, the elemental

composition and OD_{600} data suggest that *cls* deletion can alter the ability of *cls* deletion strains to

consistently form colonies.

Like most organisms, *B. fragilis* maintains a higher concentration of intracellular K^+ (+400

ΔmM) and lower concentration of intracellular Na^+ (-67 ΔmM) than the surrounding environment

(Fig. 5C, D). Exposure to deoxycholate, a microbially-modified bile acid, led to decreased

intracellular K^+ and increased Na^+ contents, providing evidence that this treatment indeed disrupts

transmembrane ion gradients in *B. fragilis* (Figs. 5C, D & S5I-J). The observed increase in

intracellular P per CFU (Fig. S5K) suggests that some of these changes could result from the

presence of non-viable cells (Fig. S5L), as these cells would retain the S and P mass associated

with large molecules like proteins and nucleotides, while smaller, more permeable elements would

be lost across damaged membranes (74, 75). Treatment with the sodium selective ionophore,

monensin A, did not affect K^+ levels but caused a 32 mM increase in intracellular Na^+ (Fig. 5C,

D). By contrast, treatment with the potassium selective ionophore, nigericin, caused no detectable

effect on either K^+ or Na^+ content, suggesting that nigericin may require more than 20 min to act

on *B. fragilis*, or that the cells quickly adapt to the imposed ionic disturbance (Fig. 5C, D).

Membrane lipid composition of WT* B. fragilis *P207

Through tandem mass spectrometric-based lipidomics (MS/MS), we characterized lipid

species present in *B. fragilis* P207 membranes using both negative and positive electrospray

ionization modes. To get an overall picture of WT cell membranes, we calculated the relative peak

area abundance for lipids detected in negative ionization mode. This analysis revealed that WT

cell membranes were predominantly composed of phospholipids (47% of total peak areas) and

ceramides (42%). The remaining abundance consisted of saccharolipids, diacylglycerols and *N*-

acyl lipids (Figs. 6A & S6A). The major phospholipids were species of PE (37% of total peak

areas), PS (7.2%) and PG (1.5%) (Fig. 6A, B, Table S4). Cardiolipin species accounted for

approximately 0.33% of membrane lipids detected (Fig. 6B, C). Dominant ceramides were

ceramide phosphoethanolamine (31.7% of total peak area) and ceramide beta-hydroxy fatty acid-

dihydrosphingosine (8.6%). These results are consistent with previous studies on *Bacteroides*

membrane lipid contents (76-78).

Since cardiolipin synthases use phospholipids as substrates, we investigated the types of

PA, PE, PS and PG species. For PA, PS and PE, the dominant lipid types were fully saturated

(30:0), comprising 85.8%, 60.7% and 57.1% of their respective classes (Fig. S6B). The most

prevalent PG species was 32:0 (54.5%, Fig. S6B). *B. fragilis* membranes also contained

lysophospholipids at lower levels than their two-acyl tailed versions (Fig. 6A), the most abundant

species of which were fully saturated at C_{15} chains for lysophosphatidylethanolamine (LPE;

76.9%) and lysophosphatidylserine (LPS; 54.9%), and unsaturated at 18:3 for lysophosphatidic

acid (LPA; 70.5%) (Fig. S6C). Ether-linked lipids and cardiolipin lipid pools showed much greater

diversity in their constituent acyl chains (Fig. S6D–F).

clsA *and* clsB *mutants have distinct cardiolipins profiles*

We compared the membrane lipid profiles of the *B. fragilis* P207 WT strain and the derived

Δ*clsA,* Δ*clsB,* and Δ*clsA* Δ*clsB* mutant strains (Fig. 1E). While the overall abundance of the

dominant lipid classes did not vary significantly among the WT and *cls* mutant strains (Fig. 6B),

abundances of cardiolipin and monolysocardiolipin were lower in the *cls* deletion mutants (CL and

MLCL; Fig. 6C). Total cardiolipin levels were lower in the Δ*clsA,* Δ*clsB,* and Δ*clsA* Δ*clsB* strains

compared to WT, with the double knockout strain having no measurable cardiolipin (Fig. 6C). We

detect lower MLCL levels only in strains lacking *clsB,* indicating that ClsB is primarily responsible

for their biosynthesis (Fig. 6C). Notably, the deletion of both *clsA* and *clsB* led to no change in the

detected dilysocardiolipin (DLCL), indicating that in contrast to *E. coli* where Cls proteins

synthesize these lipids, a different enzymatic pathway is responsible for biosynthesis of DLCLs in

B. fragilis (Figs. 6C and S6H) (31, 41).

Principal component analysis (PCA) of membrane lipid peak areas revealed that each

mutant strain clustered separately, indicating that ClsA and ClsB independently shape membrane

lipid composition, while the double knockout reflected the combined loss of both functions (Fig.

6D). K-means clustering of lipid changes in *cls* deletion mutants relative to WT identified four

distinct lipid subpopulations (Fig. 6E). Clusters 1 and 2 were composed almost entirely of

cardiolipin, monolysocardiolipin and hexosylceramides (i.e., cluster 1 = AHexCer, cluster 2 =

AHexCer, Hex2Cer, HexCer_HDS), and were absent in the Δ*clsA* Δ*clsB* double deletion strain.

On average, the peak area of lipids in cluster 3 was significantly lower in strains lacking ClsA,

while cluster 4 lipids were significantly higher in strains lacking ClsB (Fig. 7A). Lipids from cluster

1 were largely missing is strains without *clsB,* and lipids from cluster 2 were largely missing in

strains without *clsA.* We therefore refer to these as *clsB-* and *clsA*-associated lipid clusters,

respectively. From these results, we conclude that ClsA and ClsB catalyze the production of

distinct lipid species in *B. fragilis*, consistent with the unique phenotypes observed in their

respective deletion mutants (Fig. 2).

ClsA and ClsB differentially influence cardiolipin saturation and membrane composition

To better understand the roles of ClsA and ClsB in cardiolipin biosynthesis, we analyzed

the acyl chain length and degree of unsaturation in CL and MLCL species from lipid clusters 1

and 2. The cardiolipins associated with ClsA and with ClsB exhibited a different distribution of

chain lengths, including a subset of longer species that were only detected when ClsB was

present (Figs. 7B and S7A). The major differences between ClsA- and ClsB-associated lipids

were in acyl chain unsaturation: ClsA-associated cardiolipins were enriched in species with 3 and

11 double bonds, whereas ClsB-associated cardiolipins were enriched with 1, 2, and 14 double

bonds (Fig. 7C & S7B). These unique lipid profiles provide evidence that ClsA and ClsB have

distinct substrate preferences.

To determine whether *cls* deletions alter the membrane lipidome globally, we performed

PCA on the lipid profiles of each sample excluding cardiolipins. This analysis showed that each

strain still clustered separately with an additive phenotype, suggesting broad ranging, *cls*-specific

changes (Fig. S7D). Upon loss of cardiolipin biosynthesis in *B. fragilis*, we observe altered

membrane　lipid　composition,　including　shortening　the　acyl　chain　length　of

phosphatidylethanolamine (PE), phosphatidylglycerol (PG) and phosphatidylserine (PS) species

(Figs. 7D and S7D). This shift was coupled with increases in lipid acyl chains with a high number

of total unsaturations (Figs. 7E and S7E). The combined effect of shorter acyl chains and

increased unsaturation is predicted to alter membrane fluidity and permeability, potentially

compensating for cardiolipin loss. Additional remodeling occurred in non-phospholipid lipid

classes, with lipid families such as fatty acids (FAHFA) and hexosylceramides (HexCer-HDS)

more affected by *clsA* deletion, while *N*-acyl lipids (NAOrn, NAE, NAGlySer), phosphoceramides

(CerP), other hexosylceramides (AHexCer, Hex3Cer), and ether-linked glycolipids (EtherMGDG)

were more affected by *clsB* deletion (Fig. 7F–H). These patterns were confirmed by elastic net

regression, which distinguished the double mutant from WT based reductions in Cluster 1 (CL

75:3, AHexCer [O-22:6]51:9:2O) and Cluster 3 (PE O-38:0:2O) lipid species, as well as increases

in two Cluster 4 lipids (NAGlySer 29:0:1O, PC O-24:4:1O). Together, these results provide

evidence that ClsA and ClsB have distinct biosynthetic activities that contribute to cardiolipin

diversity, and that the loss of either enzyme perturbs the membrane lipidome in unique ways.

These broader shifts in membrane composition upon *cls* gene deletion likely underlie the distinct

phenotypes observed in each mutant strain.

ClsA and ClsB loss lead to distinct changes in non-lipid metabolites

Since we observed distinct shifts in non-cardiolipin lipids, we hypothesized that these

shifts might extend to other *B. fragilis* metabolites under non-stressed conditions. Using LC-

tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS), we found that each strain had unique metabolite

profiles, with Δ*clsB* being the most distinct (Figs. 8A-C). Using publicly available databases, 56%

of all features were annotated, with 83% of those matches from small molecule databases.

Approximately 27% of the metabolomic features were not shared between all the strains, with

~14% of the features only depleted in Δ*clsA*, Δ*clsB*, or Δ*clsA* Δ*clsB* (Fig. 8B). Notably, we observed

that the effect of *clsA* and *clsB* deletion is not additive, with *clsB* deletion showing the most

profound alterations on the metabolomic profiles by hierarchical clustering (Fig. 8C).

To determine metabolites that are associated with *cls* deletions, we performed pathway

enrichment analysis comparing feature abundances between the WT and double knockout strain.

As with the lipidomics analysis above, we identified fatty amides as the most differentially enriched

pathway, followed by the fatty esters and sphingolipids (Fig. S8). Several non-lipid classes were

also identified, including alkaloids, amino acids, amino sugars, benzoic acid esters, and

pyrimidines as the most differentially enriched pathways with high enrichment factors and

significant p-values (Fig. 8D). Analysis of amino acids and related compounds identified lipid-

conjugated homoserine lactones (HSLs) and fatty amides to be substantially changed in the

mutant strains (Figs 8E–F). The lipid-conjugated HSLs, which are small signaling molecules

crucial in quorum sensing (79), were mainly associated with *clsB* deletion. In these mutants, levels

of long-chain HSLs (e.g., *N*-hexadecanoyl HSL) were reduced, while shorter lipid conjugates (e.g.

N-tetradecanoyl- and *N*-pentadecanoyl HSL) were enriched. Changes in fatty amides were

associated with both *clsA* and *clsB* deletions, with many metabolites showing opposing trends

between mutant strains. Levels of several *N*-acyl amides were affected by both *clsA* and *clsB*

deletion, including *N*-hexadecyl-L-hydroxyproline, *N*-(3-hydroxy-14-methyldecanoyl) glycine, *N*-

palmitoyl threonine, and *N*-stearoyl tryptophan. Some *N*-acyl amides showed gene specific

changes such as *N*-(3-hydroxy-1-oxodecanoyl) glycine, which was primarily affected by *clsA*

deletion, and *N*-palmitoyl GABA, which was impacted by *clsB* deletion (Fig. 8F). *N*-acyl amides

may serve as additional carbon sources and/or signaling molecules between bacteria or to the

host, such as through G-protein coupled receptors (GPCRs) (80, 81). Molecular network analysis

identified *N*-acyl amides in larger clusters of chemically similar but unannotated metabolites,

suggesting that *cls* modifications may lead to larger global metabolomic shifts (Fig. S9). These

findings demonstrate that cardiolipin synthases play essential non-redundant roles in maintaining

metabolic homeostasis in *B. fragilis* P207.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we demonstrate that *B. fragilis* P207 has two functionally non-redundant

cardiolipin synthases, which we named ClsA and ClsB. Deleting either gene leads to distinct

defects in *B. fragilis* fitness under stress, with the loss of *clsB* generally being more detrimental

than *clsA* (Fig. 9). We note that *clsA* deletion results in elevated *clsB* expression, which may

partially compensate for and minimize the impact of its loss. We present evidence that ClsA and

ClsB synthesize cardiolipin species that differ in acyl chain length and unsaturation levels,

suggesting that each enzyme has unique substrate specificity and contributes distinct lipids to the

membrane. Furthermore, loss of either enzyme has knock-off effects on diverse cellular metabolic

processes.

This study is significant for several reasons. First, we offer an approach that integrates

metallomics-, lipidomics-, metabolomics-, and classical genetics-based techniques to investigate

cardiolipin synthase function. We employ tandem mass spectrometry to assess how *cls* deletion

affects the lipid composition of the *B. fragilis* envelope. To our knowledge, previous studies have

not leveraged high-resolution mass detection to differentiate the specific lipid species produced

by individual Cls proteins (26, 31, 41, 42, 82). While some have used MS/MS to characterize

membranes of diverse taxa, including *Bacteroides*, these approaches have not been applied to

strains with deletion of individual *cls* genes, limiting the identification of products associated with

each enzyme (76, 77, 83-86). By combining genetic and analytical approaches, we distinguish

the unique contributions of each Cls to the cardiolipin pool and intracellular ion gradient

homeostasis. Second, we provide functional characterization of *cls* genes in the *Bacteroides*

taxonomic group, particularly genes from a novel clinical isolate from the IBD gut. As important

members of the human gut ecosystem, *Bacteroides* species play key roles in microbiota

metabolism and host immune health (46). Understanding how these microbes regulate membrane

composition and homeostasis is essential for understanding their fitness in the context of the gut.

Future research should continue to explore cardiolipin biosynthesis in these organisms,

particularly in *B. thetaiotaomicron*, which possesses an additional *cls* not found in most other

Bacteroides species.

Due to the high diversity of bacterial *cls* genes, we struggled with the best approach to

name the *Bacteroides* group *cls* homologs (34, 82, 87, 88). While new letter codes (e.g. *clsX* or

clsN) might help distinguish *cls* gene diversity across bacteria, this naming scheme might have

become onerous upon characterization of other homologs. We therefore decided on the naming

conventions used for *E. coli cls* and other taxa, acknowledging that *cls* homologs across different

bacterial phyla may have distinct functional roles (89, 90).

The *B. fragilis cls* genes have some similarity to *E. coli clsA* and *clsB* as the genes from

both taxa have strong alignment with cardiolipin synthase domain models. However, at the amino

acid sequence level, no clear phylogenetic relationship exists between these homologs. In each

taxon, the ClsA homolog is predicted to have two N-terminal transmembrane helices. While these

domains in ClsA are thought to be cleaved post-translationally in *E. coli*, it is likely that this does

not occur in *Bacillus subtilis* (26, 90). Therefore, the functional consequences of these putative

transmembrane domains in *B. fragilis* remain unknown, particularly their role in the cellular

localization of these enzymes (90, 91). In addition, across these two taxa, the *cls* expression

profiles are distinct. *E. coli* relies almost exclusively on *clsA* during log phase, and expression of

clsB and *clsC* is largely limited to the stationary phase (26, 31, 41, 42). Under our growth

conditions, *B. fragilis* expresses both *cls* genes during log phase, with *clsA* expression further

enhanced during stationary phase. To determine if the two *B. fragilis* Cls have overlapping

enzymatic activities with the Cls of these other taxa, comparative biochemical analysis of the lipid

products produced by the Cls homologs of each species is needed.

Maintaining ion gradients across membranes is essential for bacterial survival, as these

gradients provide a reservoir of potential energy. The loss of cardiolipin biosynthesis under non-

stressed conditions largely does not affect ion homeostasis, as seen in our *B. fragilis* metallomic

studies. Bacteria generally tightly regulate intracellular K^+ content due to its physiological

importance, with some adjusting it by several fold depending on extracellular conditions (24, 92).

For example, *B. subtilis* and *E. coli* both increase intracellular K^+ levels in response to elevated

osmolarity (93, 94). However, *S. aureus* does not modulate K^+ content in this manner (95). While

one might expect ion gradient perturbations given previous work showing improved membrane

stability with the presence of cardiolipin (88, 96, 97), the resilience of intracellular K^+ and Na^+

levels in the absence of cardiolipin suggests that otherwise unperturbed cells maintain membrane

integrity. Even if loss of cardiolipin changed the inherent membrane permeability of either K^+ or

Na^+, our data indicate that *B. fragilis* leverages membrane remodeling and several compensatory

ion shuttling systems to achieve and maintain intracellular homeostasis (Fig. 5C-D) (24, 92, 98-

103).

While *B. fragilis clsA* is not essential and may even diminish fitness during selective ion

permeabilization, both *cls* genes are beneficial when the bacterium faces broader membrane

stress conditions. Although unlikely, the absence of ClsA-associated cardiolipins in the Δ*clsA*

strain may provide stress resistance by impairing ionophore translocation across the membrane

(59, 104, 105). Our favored hypothesis is that Δ*clsA*-dependent membrane remodeling enhances

resilience to ion gradient loss, possibly through altered membrane protein or lipid function. Beyond

general effects like membrane fluidity, cardiolipins can influence bacterial physiology through

multiple pathways. For example, some proteins that influence cell shape and cell division, such

as the actin homolog MreB, rely on cardiolipin for proper folding at the membrane (106, 107).

Interactions of cardiolipin with membrane-bound or membrane-associated cell division/shape

proteins may also underlie our observation that the loss of cardiolipin biosynthesis results in *B.*

fragilis cell shape defects (60-66). The cls-specific cell size effects may be shaped by

asymmetrical distribution of cardiolipin species across inner and outer leaflets of the inner

membrane as well as inner leaflet of the outer membrane (16, 108-110).

The catalytic products of *B. fragilis* ClsA and ClsB, as inferred from our lipidomics data,

have distinct acyl chain lengths and unsaturation levels. In response to environmental changes,

bacteria can adjust these lipid properties, which are key factors influencing membrane fluidity and

permeability (111). For example, under conditions that increase membrane rigidity, such as lower

temperature or high pressure, microbes increase the abundance of highly unsaturated fatty acids

to restore membrane fluidity (112, 113). Exposure to membrane destabilizing agents, such as

alcohols, can result in decreased acyl chain unsaturation (114). Exposure to phenols, which can

also disrupt membranes, cause some anaerobes to increase their membrane fluidity by

incorporating fatty acids with trans-double bonds (115). Although *B. fragilis* apparently lacks

enzymes required for this particular mechanism of introducing double bonds, phylogenetically

diverse bacteria have other regulatory mechanisms for the introduction of double bonds into acyl

chains already present in the membrane (116, 117). Having two unique pools of cardiolipins with

corresponding membrane lipids that respond to cardiolipin fluctuations, such as hexosylceramide

for ClsA and *N*-acyl glycylserine for ClsB, would provide bacteria like *B. fragilis* with greater

adaptability in the face of diverse selective pressures in the gut.

The distinct metabolomic alterations observed in *B. fragilis* ClsA and ClsB mutants

underscore the non-redundant and critical roles of cardiolipin synthases in bacterial metabolic

homeostasis. Our results demonstrate that loss of either ClsA or ClsB leads to unique changes in

the abundance of key lipid and non-lipid metabolites. These changes likely reflect the broader

disruptions in membrane composition and cellular signaling, as well as shifts in central metabolic

pathways. Importantly, the non-additive nature of the double mutant phenotype suggests that ClsA

and ClsB may influence partially overlapping yet distinct biosynthetic networks. The pronounced

depletion and enrichment of specific metabolites, such as lipid-conjugated HSLs and *N*-acyl

amides, further indicates that cardiolipin synthase activity influences both membrane structure

and intercellular communication. Given the essential role of membrane integrity and metabolic

adaptability in bacterial survival within the gut environment, these findings suggest that ClsA and

ClsB are pivotal for the ecological fitness of *B. fragilis*.

In summary, *B. fragilis* relies on cardiolipin synthases to maintain barrier integrity against

diverse stresses that it encounters in the gut, such as bile acids and osmotic variation. However,

much remains to be discovered regarding *B. fragilis* Cls-mediated physiology, including protein

domain function, cellular localization, and the mechanism by which each enzyme produces

distinct cardiolipins. Furthermore, the overlapping, yet possibly distinct, functional roles that this

diverse enzyme class plays across the prokaryotic tree of life is ripe with potential. The data we

present here serve as a foundation for a deeper understanding of *B. fragilis* physiology specifically

as well as that of the Bacteroidota generally, potentially leading to the engineering of probiotic gut

species with improved gut fitness and therapeutic outcomes.

METHODS (see supplemental methods for additional detail)

Bacterial Growth and Strains

Strain generation

E. coli strains were grown aerobically at 37° C in Miller LB broth. As appropriate, E. coli

cultures were supplemented with filter-sterilized 300 µM diaminopimelic acid (Sigma-Aldrich) to

grow auxotrophic strains and/or 100 µg/ml carbenicillin to select for plasmid containing cells. All

B. fragilis strains were grown in supplemented brain heart infusion (BHIS) medium. As

appropriate, cultures were supplemented with 5 µg/mL erythromycin for vector selection, 100

ng/mL anhydrotetracycline (aTC) for inducible ssbfe1 counter-selection (118) and 50 ng/mL aTC

to induce expression from aTC-inducible complementation vectors (118). *B. fragilis* strains were

manipulated aerobically and grown at 37°C in an anaerobic chamber (Coy Laboratory Products)

filled with 5% CO_2, 2.5% hydrogen and 92.5% nitrogen.

Mutant strains were generated by allelic exchange using modified vectors described

previously (118). For conjugation into *B. fragilis* P207, plasmids were transformed into the donor

E. coli strain WM3064. Allele exchange was conducted as previously described (118). The Δ*clsA*

mutant (lacking ptos_000612) was complemented by integration of an aTC-inducible *clsA*

construct. The Δ*clsB* mutant (lacking ptos_003215) was complemented by integration of *clsB*

under the control of a constitutive *Bacteroides* promoter (P_{rpoD}, bt_1311/BT_RS06635).

Complementation constructs were integrated into the chromosome at the *att* site using an intN1

integrase (119). Primers, vectors, and strains are listed in Tables S1–3, respectively.

Cls conservation analysis

Alignment. The *B. fragilis* P207 ClsA and ClsB gene and protein sequences, as well as *E.*

coli K-12 MG1655 (NC_000913) ClsA, ClsB, and ClsC were aligned using default settings of the

Geneious alignment algorithm (Geneious Prime 2024) (51, 52).

DeepTMHMM. The ClsA and ClsB amino acid sequences from *B. fragilis* P207 and *E. coli*

K-12 MG1655 were uploaded to DeepTMHMM (v. 1.0.42, https://dtu.biolib.com/DeepTMHMM) to

predict transmembrane domains (120).

Inter-Phylum Tree. Representative taxa were selected from the top five phyla in the human

gut (metadata listed in Table S3) (121, 122). Annotated *cls* genes were obtained from genomes

on NCBI and protein aligned in Geneious. One genome per species was used, aside from the two

B. fragilis strains. The phylogenetic tree was reconstructed using neighbor-end joining via

Geneious and then visualized using R.

Intra-Bacteroides *Tree.* TIGR04265 domains in *B. fragilis* ClsA and ClsB were identified

using the conserved domain database of NCBI (123). *Bacteroides* protein sequences containing

this domain were obtained by querying the Interpro database. Alignment, tree reconstruction, and

tree visualization were performed as with the inter-phylum tree, except that *E. coli* K-12 MG1655

ClsA was specified as an outgroup.

Genomic Neighborhoods. WebFlags2 was used to query genomic neighborhoods around

B. fragilis P207 *clsA* and *clsB* genes (124).

Growth curve assays

Stationary phase *B. fragilis* strain cultures were back-diluted to an optical density at 600

nm (OD_{600}) of 0.05 and grown to OD_{600} 0.3 in the presence of 50 ng/mL aTC inducer. Each strain

was then diluted again to 0.025–0.05 for growth curves in a 96-well plate format. OD_{600} was

measured with a Tecan Infinite M Nano plate reader (Tecan, Männedorf, Switzerland) for 24 h.

Three biological replicates, each in technical triplicate, were performed for each growth condition.

To expose cells to stress conditions, BHIS medium was prepared as above but modified.

For pH assays, cells were pelleted and then resuspended in aTC-containing BHIS medium

adjusted to the appropriate pH. For deoxycholate and SDS assays, 0.01% (w/v) deoxycholate

(Sigma) or 0.002% (w/v) SDS (Lab Scientific) was added to cultures from filter-sterilized 1% (w/v)

stocks dissolved in UltraPure water. For Na^+ and K^+ assays, NaCl (Fisher Scientific) and KCl

(Fisher Scientific) were dissolved to a $4\times$ concentration of each cation in BHIS medium and then

filter sterilized before being added to cells to yield the final concentration of cells and cation (i.e.,

300 mM). To determine how much additional NaCl or KCl to add, the average Na^+ and K^+ content

of our BHIS medium was determined using ICP-MS (see below for methods), yielding 130 mM

for Na^+ and 33 mM for K^+ (Table S5). For ionophore assays, a concentrated ionophore (monensin

A or nigericin; Sigma-Aldrich) was added to cultures to yield final concentrations of 0.8 µg/mL

monensin A or 0.1 µg/mL nigericin, with equivalent volumes of ethanol added to non-treated

conditions as a vehicle control. We calculated maximum OD600 and doubling time using R

(ipolygrowth; see supplemental methods) (125).

Microscopy

B. fragilis P207 cell cultures were grown overnight under antibiotic selection and then

back-diluted into medium containing inducer (aTC) without antibiotic selection to reach log-phase

growth. All cultures were removed from the 37ºC incubator but were maintained under anaerobic

conditions, with only two or three cultures removed for microscopy at a time. Cells were visualized

by phase-contrast microscopy on a Leica DMI6000 B inverted microscope with a Hamamatsu

ORCA-R2 10600 camera with a $63\times$ Plan Apo objective (126). Each strain was visualized on four

different days to generate four biological replicates. The two images per replicate from each

strain/day were chosen for analysis. Chosen images were processed using the MicrobeJ plugin

(v. 5.13l) cell size analysis software in Fiji (v. 1.54k) (127). Called cells were manually curated and

resulting cell lengths and widths were exported and analyzed in R to calculate cell volume and

Epanechnikov kernel densities.

Gene expression assays

Stress condition exposure: For comparison of *cls* gene expression at log and stationary

phases, *B. fragilis* WT, $\Delta clsA$ and $\Delta clsB$ strain log phase cultures were back diluted to an OD_{600}

of 0.05 without inducer. Two and 24 h later, cell samples were pelleted and resuspended in 1 mL

of Trizol (Invitrogen). For acute toxicity assays, back-diluted WT *B. fragilis* cultures that reached

OD_{600} ~0.3–0.5 were exposed to a specified condition (i.e., pH, SDS, deoxycholate, K^+, monensin

A, or nigericin, as described for the growth assays) and incubated for 20 min before cell sample

collection.

RNA extraction: RNA was extracted as described previously (51). RNeasy Extraction Kit

(Qiagen) was used to treat samples with Turbo DNase (Invitrogen) using the manufacturers

protocol.

RT-qPCR: Samples were run in technical triplicate. *Ct* values were determined using a

QuantStudio5 (Applied Biosystems) instrument and a Luna One-Step RT-qPCR kit (NEB) for

target genes in each sample (51). Using *B. fragilis dnaN* (ptos_002600, encoding DNA

polymerase subunit beta) as a normalization gene*.*

Inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry

Log phase cells were removed from the anaerobic chamber for sample collection. If

exposed to a stress, cells were incubated for 20 min aerobically at room temperature with either

0.01% (w/v) deoxycholate, 0.8 µg/mL monensin A or 0.1 µg/mL nigericin. Cultures were spiked

with gadolinium-DOTA (Gd-DOTA, Macrocyclics) to a final concentration of 40 µM. Washing cells,

even with the BHIS medium cells were grown in, perturbs intracellular concentrations of small

alkali metals like Na^+ and K^+ making quantification difficult (Fig. S5A). Using a Gd-DOTA spike

enabled us to remove washing steps in the ICP-MS sample preparation process (128, 129).

For the wash experiment, wash condition cells were washed twice with either 250 mM

sucrose or BHIS media. Then, unwashed cells (i.e., no previous centrifugation) and resuspended

washed cells were transferred to a metal-free tube, given a Gd-DOTA spike to 40 µM, and then

pelleted. For *cls* and treatment comparison experiments, cells were unwashed.

Weighed cell pellets and supernatant were dried overnight, then digested using 70% HNO_2

acid, before diluting to 3% nitric acid. All standards, blanks, and ICP-MS samples were prepared

using ultra-trace metal grade nitric acid (70%, Fisher), ultrapure water (Millipore), metal free

polypropylene conical tubes (15 and 50 mL, Labcon), and trace metal grade pipette tips (Labcon).

All solutions were weighed for accurate elemental determination using the XSR205 DU semi-

analytical balance (Mettler Toledo).

Samples were analyzed using an Agilent 8900 Triple Quadrupole ICP-MS (Agilent

Technologies). To prepare ICP-MS standards, the multi element standard IV-65024 (Inorganic

Ventures) was diluted with 3% (v/v) nitric acid in ultrapure water. Internal standardization was

accomplished inline using a 200 ppb internal standard solution in 3% (v/v) nitric acid in ultrapure

water (IV-ICPMS-71D, Inorganic Ventures). The isotopes selected for analysis were ^{23}Na, ^{31}P, ^{32}S,

^{39}K and ^{157}Gd with ^{45}Sc, ^{89}Y, ^{115}In, and ^{159}Tb used for internal standardization. For accurate

quantification of ^{31}P and ^{32}S, these isotopes were measured in the oxygen mode. To quantify

intracellular elemental concentration, the average strain-specific cell volume was determined and

then the molar concentration calculated for each element from the number of atoms per cell. The

ΔmM concentrations were calculated by subtracting the concentration of an element in the

medium from that in the intracellular space.

Lipidomics assays

WT, $\Delta clsA$, $\Delta clsB$, and $\Delta clsA$ $\Delta clsB$ strains were backdiluted, grown to OD_{600} 0.7, and then

submitted on dry ice to the University of Tennessee-Knoxville Biological and Small Molecule Mass

Spectrometry Core (BSMMSC; RRID: SCR_021368) for targeted lipidomic analysis of membrane

lipids. Lipids were extracted as previously described (see supplemental methods for details) (130,

131). The lipidomic analyses were performed using a previously validated method (131) on an

ultra high performance liquid chromatography system coupled to a high resolution mass

spectrometer (UHPLC-HRMS). The chromatographic separations were carried out using

Vanquish Horizon LC system (Thermo Scientific) and reversed phase separations as described

previously (131). The eluent was introduced to an Exploris 120 mass spectrometer (Thermo

Scientific) via electrospray ionization for high resolution analysis. Following the analysis, the lipids

were annotated and the peak area integrated using MS-DIAL (132-135). Peak area for a

metabolite was first normalized to the optical density of a sample, then relative lipid abundance

was determined by normalizing to the total peak area of all lipids detected in each

UHPLC−MS/HRMS mode (i.e., positive versus negative). Elastic net regression performed using

the glmnet R package (136, 137).

Metabolomic assays

WT, $\Delta clsA$, $\Delta clsB$, and $\Delta clsA$ $\Delta clsB$ strains were grown in 50mL BHIS medium and

metabolites were extracted with ethyl acetate (see supplemental methods for details). Untargeted

metabolomics data was acquired using a Bruker timsTOF Pro2 (Bruker-Daltonics, Billerica, MA,

USA) coupled to an Agilent 1290 Infinity II Bio UHPLC (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA). The

chromatographic separations were carried out using an Acquity UPLC HSST3 column (2.1 x

150mm, 1.8 μM) (see supplemental methods for details). Following data acquisition, mass

spectrometry (MS) data were pre-processed using Bruker MetaboScape® version 9.0.1 (Bruker-

Daltonics, Billerica, MA, USA) and filtered using mpactR (see supplemental methods for details)

(138). Peak intensity for each metabolite was normalized to the total peak intensity of all features

detected in the sample. Molecular networking was generated as previously described (139) using

GNPS2: Global Natural Products Social Molecular Networking 2 (http://gnps2.org/). A minimum

cosine similarity score of 0.7 with at least six matching peaks, parent mass tolerance of 2 Da, and

fragment ion tolerance 0.5 Da were selected to generate consensus spectra. Files were imported

into CytoScape 3.10.3 and nodes were arranged with yFiles organic layout plugin (140). Pathway

analysis was performed with MetaboAnalyst 6.0 functional analysis [LC-MS] module (141). A

formatted peak intensity table was uploaded to the web server (https://metaboanalyst.ca), then

normalized by sum and log transformed. Default setting of 5.0 ppm mass tolerance, mummichog

algorithm v2.0 with p-value cutoff of 0.0005, against the lipid and non-lipid pathway libraries with

at least 3 entries in each pathway. Metabolites from enriched pathways were plotted using R

(v4.5.0).

Data analysis and reproducibility

All data analyses were performed using R (v4.3.3 unless otherwise specified) and several

packages (125, 136, 137, 142-164). Code used and original datasets for all data analysis and

figure generation, except for the WebFlags neighborhoods, is published on GitHub

(https://github.com/mschnizlein/bfrag_cardiolipin). Lipidomics data alongside appropriate

metadata were deposited on MetaboLights (MTBLS11891

www.ebi.ac.uk/metabolights/MTBLS11891) (165). Untargeted metabolomics were deposited to

MassIVE (https://massive.ucsd.edu) (deposit in progress at time of submission).

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 FIGURES AND TABLES

Figure 1. Cardiolipin synthases diverge across the dominant gut bacterial phyla. A. Percentage identity from pairwise amino acid alignment of cardiolipin synthases in *B. fragilis* P207 (*Bf*) and *E. coli* K12 MG1655 (*Ec*). **B.** Alignment of ClsA and ClsB from *B. fragilis* P207 and *E. coli* MG1655, with the two HKD domains marked in blue. **C.** Percentage identity from amino acid alignment in panel B colored based on the thresholds <30% (pink), <100% (orange) and 100% (blue). **D.** Consensus and individual sequences of the regions flanking the two HKD active sites of *B. fragilis* and *E. coli* Cls proteins. HKD residues are colored in blue; the N- and C-terminal positions are shown. **E.** Relative abundance of cardiolipin in *B. fragilis* P207

wild-type (WT), $\Delta clsA$, $\Delta clsB$ and $\Delta clsA$ $\Delta clsB$ strains measured by mass spectrometry. The horizontal line

indicates the median, and the whiskers 1.5× the interquartile range outside the 25th and 75th percentiles of

n = 3 samples. (linear regression; unadjusted p-values are shown; *** indicates $p < 0.001$). **F.** Neighbor-

joining tree of a Cls alignment from representative taxa of major bacterial phyla in the gut, using only one

genome per species. For each sequence in the tree, taxa names are followed by genome IDs at the tip of

each branch; genome accession numbers and other metadata are provided in Table S3. Bootstrap values

are shown only if >80%. Bacterial taxa are colored according to the phylum to which they belong (red,

Pseudomonadota – 3 classes with 1, 1, and 3 families; brown, Actinomycetota – 1 class; blue, Bacillota –

3 classes; violet, Fusobacteriota – 1 class; green, Bacteroidota – 2 classes, respectively). Key indicates the

rate of amino acid substitutions per site.

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Figure 2. Loss of cardiolipin synthase activity results in growth defects under stress. Optical density

(OD_{600}) measurements of *B. fragilis* P207 wild-type (WT) and *cls* single or double mutant strains exposed

to the detergents (**A.**) 0.01% deoxycholate or (**B.**) 0.002% SDS; the salts (**C.**) 300 mM K$^+$ or (**D.**) 300 mM

Na$^+$; (**E.**) medium adjusted to pH 5.5; and the ionophores (**F.**) 0.1 μg/mL nigericin or (**G.**) 0.8 μg/mL

monensin A. Untreated (solid lines) and treated cultures (dashed lines) are plotted by strain, with blue,

green and orange/purple indicating *clsA-*, *clsB-* and *clsA clsB*-related strains, respectively. Black indicates

WT. The shaded areas around each line indicate 2× the standard error of the mean of n = 3 biological

replicates.

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Figure 3. Loss of cardiolipin synthase activity is associated with defects in cell width. A. Summary

of the cell width distributions. Horizontal line lengths indicate the 25% and 75% quartiles of the distribution;

circles indicate the median; triangles indicates the mode (i.e., the peak of the distribution). **B.** Cell width

data for all cells shown in A. plotted by strain (n = 323 cells/strain). The gray or black bars indicate the

mean. The table at right shows the results of a mixed-effect linear model comparing strain width to the

widths of either WT cells or Δ*clsA* Δ*clsB* double mutant (ΔΔ) cells, as indicated at the top of the column,

with a random intercept of biological replicate (i.e., cell width ~ strain + 1|biological replicate). Unadjusted

p-values are shown; *, $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.001$.

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Figure 4. Cardiolipin synthase genes have distinct expression patterns. A. RT-qPCR analysis of relative levels of *clsA* and *clsB* transcripts, shown as the $\log_2$ ratios between log- and stationary-phase growth. **B.** Expression levels of *clsA* or *clsB* when the other gene is knocked out in log- or stationary-phase growth. **C.** *clsA* and *clsB* expression levels in WT *B. fragilis* P207 after 20 min exposure to of 0.01% deoxycholate, 0.002% SDS, 300 mM K, pH 5.5, pH 9.0, 0.8 µg/mL monensin A, or 0.1 µg/mL nigericin. For all panels, values are means ± standard deviation from three biological replicates, each biological replicate value being the mean of three technical replicates. The vertical brackets for statistical analysis assess the significance of the difference between conditions in A and C, between mutant and WT in B. The horizontal brackets for statistical analysis assess the significance of the difference between ΔΔCt values for *clsA* and *clsB* (Students *t*-test). Genes amplified are colored in blue (*clsA*) or green (*clsB*). Error bars indicate standard deviation. Unadjusted p-values are shown; *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

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Figure 5. Stress but not loss of Cls function disrupts membrane ion gradients. A., B. Abundance of
(**A.**) potassium (K) and (**B.**) sodium (Na) normalized to intracellular phosphorus (P) in *B. fragilis* P207 WT,
$\Delta clsA$, $\Delta clsB$ and complemented strains as well as the $\Delta clsA$ $\Delta clsB$ strain, as detected by inductively
coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS). **C., D.** Differential concentrations of (**C.**) K^+ and (**D.**) Na^+ in
WT strain cells after a 20 min exposure to 0.01% deoxycholate, 0.8 µg/mL monensin A or 0.1 µg/mL nigericin
(linear regression). The intracellular concentrations (i.e., normalized to cell volume and number of colony-
forming units) with the extracellular concentrations subtracted are shown. For all boxplots, gray or black
lines indicate the median; the top and bottom edges of the box indicate the 25th and 75th percentiles of the
data; the error bars indicate standard deviation (10 biological replicates for untreated conditions and three
for the treatment conditions). Unadjusted p-values are shown; *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

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Figure 6. Paralogous cardiolipin synthases produce unique lipid products. A. Structures of lipid families detected by UHPLC-MS/HRMS. For fatty acids, the R-group is H; for saccharolipids, a sugar (i.e., lipid A); and for acyl carnitines, a carnitine. The R-group is H for phosphatidic acid and ethanolamine for phosphatidylethanolamine. Phospholipids are shown as members of three categories: ester-linked (i.e., classical phospholipids), ether-linked and lysophospholipids. Diacylglycerols and monogalactosyl /

monoglucosyl-diacyglycerols have H or a hexose ring as an R-group, respectively. Ceramides, which can

be conjugated to a hexose (i.e., hexosylceramide), are synthesized by *N*-acylating a sphingosine. As

phosphorylated ceramides, sphingolipids have similar R-groups as phospholipids. Length and unsaturation

of the acyl tails are not shown. **B.** Relative abundance of lipid species across WT, Δ*clsA*, Δ*clsB and* Δ*clsA*

Δ*clsB* strains (three biological replicates). Lipid families are abbreviated as follows: PC indicates

phosphatidylcholine; PA, phosphatidic acid; PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; PG, phosphatidylglycerol; PS,

phosphatidylserine; CL, cardiolipin. L-, ML- and DL- indicate lyso-, monolyso- and dilyso-, respectively. **C.**

Relative abundance of cardiolipin, monolyso-cardiolipin and dilysocardiolipin (linear regression).

Unadjusted p-values are shown; ***, $p < 0.001$. **D.** Principal component analysis plot of lipid species in each

strain, with the minimum volume–enclosing ellipses estimated by the Khachiyan algorithm. **E.** Heatmap

representation of the $\log_2$(fold change) of lipid species in each knockout strain compared to WT. Columns

are clustered by similarity and rows by K-means. The left side of the heatmap shows lipid families and K-

means clusters.

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Figure 7. Cardiolipin synthases shape the length and unsaturation level of membrane lipid acyl chains. A. $\log_2$(fold change) of the total peak areas for all lipids in k-means clusters compared to the mean of WT peak areas of that particular cluster (linear regression of peak areas compared to WT). **B., C.** Relative

distribution of sum of acyl chain (**B.**) carbons and (**C.**) unsaturations in cardiolipin and monolysocardiolipin

species of Km clusters 1 (ClsB-associated) and 3 (ClsA-associated) in WT cells. **D., E.** $\log_2$(fold change) of

total two acyl-tailed phospholipids in $\Delta clsA$ $\Delta clsB$ strain cells compared to WT shown by (**D.**) acyl chain

length and (**E.**) unsaturations. Student's *t*-test comparing values at designated x-axis values); nd, not

detected (i.e., 0) in the $\Delta clsA$ $\Delta clsB$ strain. **F., G., H.** $\log_2$(fold change) of lipids detected in negative (**F.**) and

positive (**G., H.**) ionization mode UHPLC-MS/HRMS comparing each strain to the mean WT peak area.

AHexCer was detected in only 2 and 1 replicates of $\Delta clsB$ and $\Delta clsA$ $\Delta clsB$, respectively. Lipid families are

abbreviated as follows: DG, diacylglycerol; MG, monogalactosyl/monoglucosyl conjugation; NA, *N*-acyl,

with substituent conjugations indicated for glycyl- (Gly), glycylseryl- (GlySer, ornithine- (Orn), and

ethanolamine- (E); CER, ceramide, with A indicating acyl-, P indicating phospho- and Hex, Hex2 and Hex3

indicating hexosyl-, dihexosyl-, and trihexosyl-; HDS, hydroxy fatty acid-dihydrosphingosine; SM,

sphingomyelin; Ether-, ether-linked (linear regression compared to WT). Across all panels, error bars

indicate standard deviation. Unadjusted p-values are shown; *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

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Figure 8. Cardiolipin synthases disrupt metabolic homeostasis. A. NMDS of metabolomics data colored by strain. **B.** Upset plot with the main bar plot color coded for the metabolomic features annotation

sources (dark green = lipid databases, purple = small molecule databases, grey = not annotated within

5ppm error) and the lower section color coded for metabolomic features only present or absent in each

strain (grey = WT, blue = Δ*clsA,* green = Δ*clsB*, orange = Δ*clsA* Δ*clsB*). Inset is a rescaled axis of

metabolites missing in at least one strain. **C.** Heatmap of row normalized abundance of each metabolite in

each strain, clustering by metabolomic features on the vertical axis and samples on the horizontal axis

using Euclidean distance and Ward clustering (3 technical replicates shown for each strain). **D.** Metabolic

pathway analysis with nonlipid sub-categories of *clsAclsB* knockout compared to wildtype (≥3

features/pathway). The x-axis represents the enrichment factor computed from pathway topological

analysis on non-lipid species, and the y-axis is the log of p-value obtained from pathway enrichment

analysis. The pathways that were most significantly changed are characterized by both a high-log(p) value

and high enrichment factor (top right region). **E., F.** Abundance of compounds in enriched pathways for (E)

lipid-conjugated homoserine lactones and (F) fatty amides (top enriched pathways) (mean and standard

deviation of 3 technical replicates shown; linear regression compared to WT). Across all panels, error bars

indicate standard deviation. Unadjusted p-values are shown; *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

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Figure 9. Cardiolipins mitigate the fitness cost of membrane stress in *B. fragilis*. In unperturbed cells,

ion gradients are maintained across the inner membrane, with higher extracellular concentrations of H^+ and

Na^+ and elevated intracellular K^+ (top left). The outer membrane is generally permeable to these ions due

to the presence of porins. In the absence of cardiolipin, *B. fragilis* remodels its membrane lipid composition,

which presumably helps to maintain ion gradients (bottom left). Chemical membrane (or membrane ion

gradient) perturbation alters *cls* gene expression and ion homeostasis (top right). In the absence of

cardiolipins, cells are more susceptible to chemical membrane perturbations (bottom right). The larger blue

star indicates the greater fitness cost associated with membrane perturbation in cardiolipin-deficient cells,

particularly *clsB* mutants. In contrast, the smaller red star reflects reduced stress susceptibility in cells that

retain cardiolipin synthesis.

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Figure S1. Neighbor-joining tree of cardiolipin synthases from *Bacteroides* species. Clusters 1 (ClsA), 2 (ClsB) and 3 (not named) of *Bacteroides* Cls proteins are indicated. *E. coli* ClsA was designated as an outgroup. ClsA and ClsB of *B. fragilis* P207 are colored in blue and green, respectively. Other strains

1285   of *B. fragilis, B. thetaiotaomicron*, and *E. coli* are colored in gold, purple and light blue, respectively. Taxa

1286   labels with similar tree positions are combined for clarity at times (i.e., *B. xylanisolvens/caecimuris*). Key

1287   indicates the rate of amino acid substitutions per site. Bootstrap values are generally shown only if ≥90.

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 Figure S2. Genomic neighborhood synteny indicates the ancestral introduction of *clsA* and *clsB*

1291 **into the *Bacteroides*.** Curated WebFlags2 output of (**A.**) *clsA* and (**B.**) *clsB* genomic neighborhoods. *B.*

1292 *fragilis* is colored blue. Genera of interest with similar levels of gene conservation are indicated at right.

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Figure S3. Loss of cardiolipin synthase activity results in growth defects under stress. A., B. log$_2$(fold

change) of (**A.**) doubling time and (**B.**) maximum OD$_{600}$ comparing *B. fragilis* wild-type (WT) and *cls* mutants

to the average of WT in that condition. Metrics were calculated from 24-h growth curves in BHIS medium

alone or containing 0.01% deoxycholate (Dc), 0.002% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), 300 mM sodium

(Na$^+$), 300 mM potassium (K$^+$), and 0.01 µg/mL nigericin and 0.8 µg/mL monensin A. Any doubling time

≥100 h was considered as no growth. The dashed horizontal line indicates no change from the average of

WT. Strain are colored with blue (*clsA-related*), green (*clsB*-related) and orange/purple (*clsA clsB*-related).

Black indicates WT. The vertical lines indicate mean; the ends of the whiskers ± standard deviation (linear

regression compared to WT). Three biological replicates for each condition were run, each run in technical

triplicate. nf, no accurate fit of growth data by the polynomial was found. Unadjusted p-values are shown;

*, p < 0.05; **, p < 0.01; ***, p < 0.001.

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1309 **Figure S4. Loss of cardiolipin synthase activity is associated with defects in cell width. A.** Phase-

1310 contrast microscopy images of *B. fragilis* P207 WT, Δ*clsA*, Δ*clsB* and Δ*clsA* Δ*clsB* strains. Scale bars, 5 μm.

1311 **B., C.** Distributions estimated by kernel density of (**B.**) cell length and (**C.**) cell width. Results are plotted by

1312 strain with blue, green and orange/purple indicating *clsA*-, *clsB*- and *clsA clsB*-related strains, respectively.

1313 Black indicates WT.

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Figure S5. Washing but not loss of *cls* genes disrupts intracellular elemental concentrations.
Inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) analysis using wash-free sample preparation to quantify intracellular elemental concentrations. **A.** $\log_2$(fold change) of elements comparing unwashed cells to cell pellets washed with either BHIS growth medium or an isotonic sucrose solution. Error bars indicate standard deviation. **B.** Concentrations of detected elements in BHIS growth medium. **C.** Intracellular concentrations of detected elements in WT *B. fragilis* P207. **D.** Intracellular sulfur in *B. fragilis* P207 strains normalized to P. **E.** Intracellular phosphorus (P) per 10^6 colony-forming units (CFU) in *B. fragilis* P207 wild-type (WT), $\Delta clsA$, $\Delta clsB$ and $\Delta clsA$ $\Delta clsB$ strains. **F.** OD_{600} normalized to CFU per mL of strain cultures used in ICP-MS input. **G.** Raw CFU/mL of each strain shown in panels F and G. **H.** Intracellular P content compared to sulfur (S) content across *cls* strains and treatment conditions. **I., J.** Intracellular concentrations of (**I.**) K^+ and (**J.**) Na^+ after a 20 min exposure to 0.01% deoxycholate, 0.8 μg/mL monensin A and 0.1 μg/mL nigericin. Each treatment had the same culture input. **K.** Intracellular P concentrations of *B. fragilis* WT cells

after 20 min of exposure to the indicated stress conditions. **L.** CFU/mL of strain cultures after exposure to

the treatments in **I–L**. For all boxplots, the gray or black middle lines indicate the median; the top and

bottom edges of the box indicate the 25th and 75th percentiles of n = 3 replicates for wash and treatment

experiments and n = 10 replicates for rest. Whiskers indicate 1.5× the interquartile range (IQR). For the

linear regression, the shade ribbon indicates standard error of the mean. All statistical comparisons were

made using linear regression, with unadjusted p-values shown; *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

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Figure S6. Cardiolipin synthases shape the membrane lipid population. A-J. Relative abundance of

lipid species in membranes across *B. fragilis* WT, Δ*clsA*, Δ*clsB*, and Δ*clsA* Δ*clsB* strains in positive (**A.**) or

negative (**B-J.**) electrospray ionization modes for UHPLC–MS/HRMS. For **A,** colors designate lipid family.

Positive-mode lipid families are abbreviated as follows: BMP, bismonoacylglycerophosphate; SL,

saccharolipids; DG, diacylglycerol; EtherMG, ether-linked with monogalactosyl/monoglucosyl conjugation;

NA, *N*-acyl, with substituent conjugations indicated for glycyl- (Gly), glycylserine- (GlySer), and

ethanolamine- (E); CAR, acylcarnitine; CER, ceramide, AP indicating alpha-hydroxy fatty acid-

phytospingosine and Hex indicating hexosyl-; SM, sphingomyelin; DHSph, sphinganine (please see the

legend for panel E for other abbreviations). For **B-J**, species are colored based on the total number of

carbons in their acyl chains. Lipids at <1% abundance are colored gray, with the number of lipid species in

this category indicated in the figure. Relative abundance plots are grouped as (**B.**) two or (**C.**) one acyl-

tailed phospholipid species, with oxidized and ether-linked lipids shown in **E.-G.**, or (**H.**) dilysocardiolipin,

(**I.**) monolysocardiolipin or (**J.**) cardiolipin species. Negative-mode lipid families are abbreviated as follows:

PA, phosphatidic acid; PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; PS, phosphatidylserine; PG, phosphatidylglycerol;

PC, phosphatidylcholine; CL, cardiolipin. L-, ML- and DL- indicate lyso-, monolyso- and dilyso-, respectively.

Ox and Ether indicate oxidized and ether-linked, respectively. **K.** $\log_2$(fold change) peak area of

dilysocardiolipin species comparing $\Delta clsA$ $\Delta clsB$ to WT (linear regression, $p < 0.00029$; $\log_{10}$[peak area] ~

strain + DLCL species). Error bars indicate standard deviation.

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Figure S7. Cardiolipin synthases produce unique lipid products and their loss remodels overall

membrane lipid composition. A., B. Relative abundance of lipids from K-means clusters 1 and 2 across

B. fragilis WT, $\Delta clsA$, $\Delta clsB$ and $\Delta clsA$ $\Delta clsB$ strains plotted by (**A.**) acyl chain length or (**B.**) acyl chain

unsaturations. **C.** Principal component analysis plot of lipids in the *B. fragilis* membrane excluding

cardiolipin and monolysocardiolipin species. Minimum volume-enclosing ellipses were estimated using

the Khachiyan algorithm. **D., E.** $\log_2$(fold change) of Pa, PE, PG and PS lipids in $\Delta clsA$ $\Delta clsB$ cells

compared to WT plotted by the sum of acyl chain (**D.**) carbons or (**E.**) unsaturations. **F., G.** $\log_2$(fold

change) of lipids detected in (**F.**) negative or (**G.**) positive ionization modes with values for each strain

compared to the mean abundance in WT cells. See figures 7 and S6 for lipid family abbreviations. Error

bars indicate standard deviation. Unadjusted p-values are shown.

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1370 **Figure S8. Pathway enrichment analysis for main lipid categories.** Pathway analysis is performed

1371 with MetaboAnalyst 6.0, with default mummichog parameters with p-value cutoff of 0.0005 and lipid –

1372 main chemical class as the selected metabolite sets containing at least 3 entries.

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Figure S9. Molecular networking shows chemically related metabolites in *B. fragilis* strains. A.

Feature-based molecular networking of all features (excluding singletons) from WT, Δ*clsA*, Δ*clsB*, Δ*clsA*

Δ*clsB*, and extracted BHIS media. Each feature is a node, connected by an edge calculated from cosine

similarity score. **B.** Subset of features connected by an edge to fatty amides highlighted in Fig. 8 (red

border). Each pie chart in the node is colored by relative abundance of the feature in each strain.

Table S1. Primers and vectors used in this study.

Table S2. Strains used in this study.

Table S3. Metadata for genomics analyses.

Table S4. Raw data for the lipidomics analyses.

Table S5. Raw data for the ICP-MS analyses.

Table S6. Raw data for untargeted metabolomics analyses.

Table S7. Pathway enrichment analysis for main lipid categories.

Table S8. Pathway enrichment analysis for sub non-lipid categories.

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