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Impaired envelope integrity in the absence of SanA is linked to increased Lipid II availability and an imbalance of FtsI and FtsW activities

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ABSTRACT

In gram-negative bacteria, the outer membrane (OM) acts in conjunction with the peptidoglycan (PG) cell wall as a barrier against physical, osmotic, and toxic environmental stresses including antibiotics. SanA, an inner membrane protein in *Escherichia coli* K-12, is required for vancomycin resistance at high temperatures (>42 °C) and we have previously demonstrated that SanA impacts sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) resistance during stationary phase reached from carbon limitation. However, its function remains unknown. Here, we show that Δ*sanA* has a synthetic genetic interaction with Δ*wecA*, a mutation increasing the availability of the isoprenoid carrier for PG biosynthesis. Specifically, the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain demonstrated heightened SDS EDTA sensitivity, Rcs stress response activation, and increased cell length. Further investigation tied the SDS EDTA sensitivity to increased Lipid II available for PG synthesis. Spontaneous suppressor mutants of this phenotype harbored point mutations in *prc* which encodes tail specific protease or *ftsI* which encodes the cell division DD-transpeptidase, a target of Prc. Given Prc's role in FtsI maturation, we focused on the *ftsI* mutations and determined these mutations caused a partial loss of function in FtsI, with at least one of these mutations also increasing FtsW activity. Moreover, we found that other mutations which reduce septal PG synthesis, but not divisome assembly, also suppressed the SDS EDTA sensitivity. Together, these findings demonstrates that, in the absence of SanA, increased Lipid II availability perturbs the balance between FtsI and FtsW function leading to increased OM permeability.

IMPORTANCE

The gram-negative cell envelope is a barrier that protects the cell from environmental stress and the synthesis of each layer of this envelope needs to be carefully coordinated throughout growth and division. Here, we investigated the function of a protein in *Escherichia coli* K-12, SanA, that affects envelope permeability in conditions of cellular stress, including nutrient limitation and growth at high temperature. We found SanA is important for envelope permeability when higher levels of the precursor for peptidoglycan cell wall synthesis are expected, and that the permeability is linked to an imbalance in septal peptidoglycan synthesis during cell division. Overall, our results show that excess availability of substrate for septal peptidoglycan synthesis can impede proper septum synthesis leading to envelope permeability and that SanA modulates the substrate availability to maintain the envelope permeability barrier.

INTRODUCTION

Gram-negative bacteria have a multi-layered envelope consisting of the inner or cytoplasmic membrane (IM), the aqueous periplasm containing the peptidoglycan (PG) cell wall, and the outer membrane (OM) (1). While the IM is a phospholipid bilayer, the lipid portion of the OM is composed of phospholipids in the inner leaflet and lipopolysaccharide (LPS) in the outer leaflet. The cell envelope is tightly interconnected. For instance, the OM and the cell wall are physically connected by an OM lipoprotein (Lpp) and/or outer membrane proteins (OMPs) that bind to PG (e.g., OmpA) (2, 3). When the envelope is properly composed, it prevents the entry of toxic molecules, resists osmotic and physical stress, and facilitates cell growth, all while allowing nutrients to enter the cell and metabolic waste to be expelled (1, 4-8). The envelope permeability barrier prevents the entry of molecules that are either large or hydrophobic, making gram-negative bacteria intrinsically resistant to many clinically used antibiotics and greatly complicating the discovery of new antimicrobials (4). Yet, the pathways responsible for envelope biogenesis and the regulatory interactions between the biogenesis pathways are promising targets for development of new antimicrobials (9-17).

There are separate pathways for the synthesis of each component of the layers of the envelope (1, 18-21); however, recent work has demonstrated there are complex regulatory interactions between the envelope biogenesis pathways that allow the growth of the layers to be coordinated (22). For instance, in *Escherichia coli*, halting fatty acid synthesis, and so the synthesis of phospholipids and LPS, causes PG synthesis to cease (23). In fact, synthesis of phospholipids in excess of those needed for the IM and inner leaflet of the OM can trigger PG expansion through phospholipids in the outer leaflet of the OM acting as a signal to activate MepS, an endopeptidase that breaks PG crosslinks to allow new PG insertion (24). Interestingly, cell growth can be separated from new PG synthesis and endopeptidase activity and cell growth can continue in the absence of PG synthesis until the point of cell lysis (25). The physical strength of the OM also plays a role in orienting PG synthesis and LPS mutations strengthening the OM can restore rod shape in mutants deficient in activation of the elongasome, which is responsible for PG synthesis during cell growth (26). YhcB (a.k.a.

ZapG, LapD) has been suggested to interact with both the elongasome and with the complex

responsible for regulating LPS synthesis and has been suggested to play a role in balancing

the production of LPS, PG, and phospholipids (27-29). In *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, the

interactions between PG and LPS biosynthesis are more direct with physical interaction

between MurA, which catalyzes the first committed step in PG biosynthesis, and LpxC,

which catalyzes the first committed step in LPS biosynthesis, causing stimulation of LpxC

activity (30). Interactions in biosynthesis can also occur based on the use of shared

synthesis substrates. For instance, most extracytoplasmic glycans are synthesized on an

isoprenoid carrier, undecaprenyl-phosphate (Und-P), and mutations that affect biosynthesis

of one glycan can disrupt synthesis of the others due to sequestration of Und-P. For instance,

mutations in later steps of enterobacterial common antigen (ECA) synthesis cause cell

shape defects and envelope stress response activation, presumably through the inhibition

of PG synthesis (31-36). Investigation of the level of Und-P has shown that mutation of the

gene for the first step in ECA synthesis (*wecA*) causes approximately a 2-fold increase in free

Und-P and that levels decrease from that point in later pathway mutations (37).

The need for coordination in synthesis of the layers of the cell envelope becomes more acute

during conditions that perturb synthesis of envelope components such as nutritional stress

or cell division. PG synthesis during cell division is carried out by a highly regulated complex

known as the divisome (38, 39). The divisome is assembled on the FtsZ ring which consists

of FtsZ, FtsA, and ZipA in *E. coli*. FtsK is then recruited, followed by FtsQ, FtsL, and FtsB.

Once this complex is complete, FtsW, FtsI, and FtsN then join the complex. FtsW and FtsI

(PBP3) are responsible for synthesis of the septal PG with FtsW acting as the

transglycosylase linking the glycan backbone of PG and FtsI acting as the DD-transpeptidase

to link the peptide stems of the PG. FtsA plays a key role in recruiting the downstream

components of the complex, while recruitment of FtsN acts as a signal to begin cell division.

As septal PG synthesis occurs, the OM invaginates with the PG allowing for coordinated

separation of the cell envelope (39). This coordination is accomplished through a protein,

CpoB, that interacts with LpoB and PBP1B at the septum and with the Tol-Pal complex, which

has IM and OM components and contacts PG (40-42). Beyond its importance for OM invagination, Tol-Pal, as well as two OM lipoproteins (NlpD and YraP), are involved in the activation of amidases that split the septal PG during cell division, ensuring the coordination of OM invagination with cell division (43, 44). Interestingly, mutations inactivating NlpD led to increased sensitivity to the detergent SDS in combination with EDTA, which disrupts interactions between LPS molecules, suggesting that the OM permeability barrier is disrupted by this mutation (43). To complete the invagination of the OM, an increase in OM synthesis is required. The folding of OMPs into the OM by the β-barrel assembly machine (BAM) is activated by immature PG allowing the insertion of new OMPs into the OM to be increased at the cell septum facilitating this increased synthesis (45). In combination with the regulatory mechanisms mentioned above, this is likely to allow balanced synthesis of OM during the cell division process.

We previously investigated changes in OM permeability during stationary phase initiated by carbon limitation (46). We found that resistance to SDS during carbon limitation did not rely on efflux pumps as it did in exponentially growing cells. Instead, a change in OM permeability dependent on RpoS, the master regulator of stationary phase, occurred and required the presence of three genes, *sanA*, *dacA* (PBP5)*, and *yhdP* (46). YhdP is now a proposed inter-membrane phospholipid transporter (47-50), the loss of which causes increased OM permeability in the presence of ECA (51). PBP5 is a carboxypeptidase that cleaves D-alanine from the PG pentapeptide, regulating the amount of substrate available for transpeptidases (52). Later work has shown that loss of PBP5 can prevent the maturation of PG that results in mid-cell insertion of new OMP proteins (45). Together, these findings suggest that envelope coordination is important for the stationary phase membrane permeability effects of the mutations we identified. With this in mind, we have turned our attention to *sanA*, a gene of unknown function.

SanA is a bitopic inner membrane protein that has one N-terminal transmembrane helix and a periplasmic domain consisting of a DUF218 domain (53, 54). In *E. coli* K-12, *sanA* was first identified as a multicopy suppressor of vancomycin sensitivity in a strain with a gene

deletion that included *sanA* (55). It was also found to be involved in vancomycin resistance at high temperature (i.e., 43 °C) (55). In *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium, SfiX (homologous to SanA) is necessary for filamentation of a mutant overexpressing *hisFH* (His[C]) and also affects vancomycin resistance at high temperature (56). More recent work demonstrated a decrease in hydrophobicity and charge of the *Salmonella* cell surface and a corresponding change in envelope permeability in a *sfix* (*sanA*) mutant (57). Here, we investigated the envelope permeability phenotypes caused by loss of SanA and found a genetic interaction with ECA synthesis. Mutations expected to increase the availability of Und-P caused the *sanA* mutant to become sensitive to SDS EDTA and cause activation of the Rcs envelope stress response. We then selected suppressors of SDS EDTA sensitivity and isolated partial loss of function mutations in *ftsI* (PBP3) and in *prc*, a protease involved in the maturation of FtsI (58, 59), suggesting a role for cell division in this phenotype. Testing of additional cell division mutations demonstrated that specifically loss of function in septal PG synthesis but not divisome assembly suppressed the envelope permeability defect. Our results tie the envelope permeability phenotype to Lipid II availability and support a model in which SanA modulates the availability of Lipid II for septal PG synthesis. Furthermore, we suggest that, when Lipid II levels are high such as during certain cellular stresses, FtsW and FtsI activities can become unbalanced and that this leads to alteration of OM composition and envelope permeability.

RESULTS

Loss of SanA causes membrane permeability under cellular stress conditions. We began investigating SanA's role in envelope permeability by confirming previously published phenotypes of SanA. We previously reported that a Δ*sanA* strain is sensitive to the detergent SDS, as assayed by colony forming units (CFU) at 24 hours after treatment, when cells are treated during stationary phase reached from carbon limitation (46). When we examined the effect of Δ*sanA* on SDS sensitivity in carbon-limited stationary phase at shorter time scales, we found that the decrease in CFU began within the first hour of treatment and continued

through 7 hours (**Figure 1A**). In contrast, wild-type cells maintained viability similar to that of

untreated cells throughout the 7-hour treatment. An insertion mutation in *sanA* has also

been reported to increase vancomycin sensitivity at high temperatures (43 °C), causing cells

to lyse at a concentration of vancomycin where wild-type cells can grow (55). To confirm this

in a Δ*sanA* mutant, we performed efficiency-of-plating assays (EOPs) with wild-type and

Δ*sanA* cells carrying either an empty vector or a low copy number plasmid expressing *sanA*.

When we treated cells with vancomycin and grew cultures at 43 °C, we found that the Δ*sanA*

strain was more sensitive to vancomycin and this phenotype could be complemented

(**Figure 1B**). To confirm this was a true change in resistance (i.e., the concentration of

antibiotic that can kill cells), we performed minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) assays

and found that the MIC of vancomycin for the Δ*sanA* strain was significantly less than that of

wild type (**Figure 1C**).

Vancomycin is a large glycopeptide antibiotic for which entry into the cell is greatly impeded

by the OM (4, 60, 61) and anionic detergents such as SDS are excluded from the cell by the

strong hydrophilic network of lateral interactions between LPS molecules in the OM (1, 4).

Therefore, we examined the structure of the Lipid A component of LPS in the Δ*sanA* strain

under various growth conditions. We observed a large increase in hepta-acylated Lipid A in

the Δ*sanA* mutant when cells were grown in defined MOPS media with glucose but not when

the cells were grown at 37 or 43 °C in LB media (**Figure 1D, S1**). The hepta-acylated Lipid A

levels were returned to normal by plasmid-based complementation of *sanA*. Hepta-acylated

LPS is formed when PagP, an OMP, transfers a saturated acyl chain to LPS from a

phospholipid mislocalized to the outer leaflet of the OM (62). Thus, increased hepta-

acylated LPS is an indication of a loss of OM asymmetry causing increased phospholipids

on the cell surface (63). In support of this loss of asymmetry, overexpression of *pldA*, an outer

membrane phospholipase that removes an acyl chain from phospholipids mislocalized to

the outer membrane (64, 65), decreased the amount of hepta-acylated Lipid A in the Δ*sanA*

strain (**Figure 1D, S1**). However, *pldA* overexpression did not restore the Δ*sanA* mutant's

vancomycin resistance at 43 °C or SDS resistance during carbon limitation (**Figure S2**),

suggesting the loss of OM asymmetry is secondary to another defect that is causing OM
permeability.

SanA's effect on vancomycin resistance is only found at high temperatures (55) and *sanA* is
annotated to have a possible σ^H promoter (53, 54). Therefore, we investigated whether loss
of SanA affected heat shock resistance in carbon-limiting conditions. In fact, the Δ*sanA*
strain showed a small but significant decrease in survival at 57 °C compared to the wild-type
strain (**Figure 1E**). This increased sensitivity was not shared with deletion of the other gene
in *sanA*'s operon, *yeiS* (**Figure S3**). Overall, these data demonstrate that SanA is playing an
important role in maintaining the outer membrane permeability barrier specifically in
conditions of cellular stress such as carbon limitation or growth at high temperatures.

***sanA* has genetic interactions with ECA mutations causing PG stress.** In investigating
how SanA affects membrane permeability, we made double mutants of *sanA* and non-
essential members of various envelope biosynthesis pathways. ECA is a component of the
Enterobacterales envelope and consists of a repeating, invariant trisaccharide unit that is
found surface exposed as the headgroup of a phospholipid or attached to LPS in place of O-
antigen, as well as cyclized in the periplasm (66). A paralog of *sanA*, *elyC*, has been shown
to have genetic interactions with enterobacterial common antigen (ECA) mutations (67) and
is involved in regulating the synthesis of one form of ECA (68). In addition, we identified
another gene, *yhdP*, which codes for a putative intermembrane phospholipid transporter
(47-50) in the same screen as *sanA*, and *yhdP*'s membrane permeability phenotypes are
dependent on the presence of ECA (46). Therefore, we decided to assay genetic interactions
between ECA biosynthesis genes and *sanA*.

We found that Δ*sanA* had a synthetic SDS EDTA sensitivity, even at 37 °C in LB media, when
paired with a deletion of *wecA*, the first gene in the ECA synthesis pathway (**Figure 2A**). EDTA
breaks the network of interactions between LPS molecules, increasing cells susceptibility to
SDS (69). Intriguingly, when we tested for genetic interactions between *sanA* and *wecE*,
which encodes a protein involved in synthesis of the third sugar in the ECA trisaccharide, we
found that Δ*wecE* causes SDS EDTA sensitivity and this sensitivity is suppressed by Δ*sanA*

(**Figure 2A**). These genetic interactions were apparent at 43 °C as well as 37 °C (**Figure S4A**)

and the synthetic SDS EDTA phenotype of the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* mutant could be complemented

with plasmid-based expression of *sanA* (**Figure S4B**). The difference in phenotype between

Δ*wecA* and Δ*wecE* suggested that it was not the loss of ECA that was important for the

phenotype but might instead be the interaction between ECA and other biosynthetic

pathways. Specifically, ECA synthesis uses the same isoprenoid carrier (Und-P) used for the

synthesis of PG (66). Therefore, we wondered if it might be PG synthesis stress caused by

sequestration of the isoprenoid carrier that is important for the genetic interaction with *sanA*.

We decided to compare the phenotypes of Δ*sanA* with deletion of the three

transglycosylases in the ECA synthesis pathway. The PG stress caused by deletion of each

subsequent transglycosylase is worse than the previous (34, 37, 67, 70). Δ*wecA* does not

cause apparent PG stress, Δ*wecG* causes minimal PG stress, and Δ*wecF* causes PG stress

as evidenced by envelope stress response activation, permeability defects, and cell shape

defects, although these defects are not as strong as those of Δ*wecE* (34, 37, 67, 70). When

we tested these mutants, we indeed found the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain showed the most SDS

EDTA sensitivity, while the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecG* strain showed a slight sensitivity and the Δ*sanA*

Δ*wecF* strain showed very similar SDS EDTA sensitivity to that of the Δ*sanA* strain (**Figure**

2B). These data show that, counterintuitively, the envelope permeability of a Δ*sanA* mutant

is increased by mutations that increase isoprenoid carrier availability.

ECA mutants causing PG stress have been shown to activate the Rcs (Regulator of Capsule

Synthesis) stress response, which directly responds to LPS defects but can also be activated

by PG stress (71-73). Therefore, we tested Rcs activation using a reporter assay with

luciferase genes driven by the *rprA* promoter (74, 75) in single and double deletion mutants

of *sanA*, *wecA* and *wecF*. Neither Δ*sanA* or Δ*wecA* caused Rcs activation alone (**Figure 2C**,

S4C); however, a Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* mutant showed Rcs activation greater than that of the Δ*wecF*

or Δ*sanA* Δ*wecF* mutant. As these data and the SDS EDTA data point to interactions with

isoprenoid carrier availability and PG synthesis, we then assayed the cell shape of the Δ*sanA*

and Δ*wecA* single and double mutants. We grew cells for 7-10 generations in exponential

phase before the assay to ensure that cell shape was stable after exiting stationary phase

(76, 77). The aspect ratio (length/width) of all mutants was larger than wild type with the

Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* mutant showing a significant shape change from that of the Δ*sanA* single

mutant (**Figure 2D**, **S4D**). Overall, these data demonstrate *sanA* has genetic interactions

causing increased permeability and envelope stress with increased isoprenoid carrier

availability.

Spontaneous mutation to *ftsI* and *prc* suppress the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* SDS EDTA sensitivity.

When assaying the SDS EDTA sensitivity of the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* double mutant, we

occasionally noticed the appearance of spontaneous suppressor mutants. Therefore, we

decided to select for these mutants to determine what types of mutations could suppress

the envelope permeability of this strain. We plated Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain on a concentration

of SDS EDTA where it did not grow but the wild-type strain did and collected eleven

suppressor mutants from a total of 7 separate cultures. We grouped these mutants by their

antibiotic resistance patterns to find strains with similar mutations (**Figure S5**) and then

performed whole genome sequencing on representatives of each group, following up to

confirm that the mutations in the other mutants. These suppressor mutants each contained

one of four mutations, *ftsI*$_{V98E}$, *ftsI*$_{S165P}$, *prc*$_{F365L}$, or *prc*$_{R578C}$ (**Figure 3A**). FtsI is the DD-

transpeptidase involved in septal PG synthesis during cell division (38, 78), while Prc (a.k.a.

Tsp) is a protease known to cleave FtsI's C terminal 11 amino acids to produce the fully

mature protein (58, 59). As Prc is necessary for FtsI maturation (58), we focused on the *ftsI*

mutations as the more direct suppressors. We linked the *ftsI*$_{V98E}$ mutation to a nearby Tn*10*

and used this marker to transfer the mutation to the wild-type, Δ*sanA,* Δ*wecA,* and Δ*sanA*

Δ*wecA* backgrounds. After being moved to a clean background, the *ftsI*$_{V98E}$ mutation

suppressed SDS EDTA sensitivity in the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain showing it was sufficient for

suppression (**Figure 3B**). We were not successful in moving the *ftsI*$_{S165P}$ mutation; however,

we used P1*vir* transduction to remove the mutations from the suppressor strain and this

prevented the SDS EDTA resistance of the suppressor strain (**Figure 3C**). Although we

assayed the effect of the *ftsI*$_{V98E}$ mutation on the vancomycin sensitivity of a Δ*sanA* strain at

43 °C, the *ftsI*$_{V98E}$ mutation caused vancomycin resistance in a wild-type background making

it difficult to assess whether its effect on the ΔsanA vancomycin sensitivity was specific

(**Figure S6**).

We then asked whether the *ftsI* mutations could suppress the Rcs activation found in the

ΔsanA ΔwecA strain. We found that the *ftsI$_{S165P}$* mutation caused a growth delay and

maintained Rcs activation, while the *ftsI$_{V98E}$* mutation brought Rcs activation in the ΔsanA

ΔwecA mutant back to nearly wild-type levels without a significant effect on growth (**Figure**

3D). We made an AlphaFold model (79) of a complex of FtsI, FtsW, FtsL, FtsB, and FtsQ,

which corresponds well to the crystal structure of this complex in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*

(80), and mapped locations of the suppressor mutations onto this predicted structure

(**Figure 3E**). FtsI has two periplasmic domains, a pedestal domain thought to control

activation of FtsW and mediate interactions with FtsL and FtsB and the catalytic

transpeptidase domain (78, 81). The Prc cleavage site in FtsI is located in an unstructured

region adjacent to the transpeptidase domain, while the V98E and S165P mutations are

located in the pedestal domain (**Figure 3E**). Neither of these mutations has been previously

reported and their effect on FtsI activity is yet to be determined. Nevertheless, the consistent

and repeated isolation of mutations in *ftsI* and *prc* demonstrated that the envelope defect

leading to SDS EDTA sensitivity in the ΔsanA ΔwecA strain is related to the process of cell

division.

Suppressor mutations in *ftsI* cause partial loss of function. As the ΔsanA and ΔsanA

ΔwecA strains showed a cell shape with a higher aspect ratio than wild-type cells (**Figure**

2D) and the suppressor mutations we found are in cell division genes, we then assayed the

cell shape of the suppressor strains. Cells from both *ftsI* mutant strains were significantly

longer than the ΔsanA ΔwecA parent and had a greater aspect ratio (**Figure 4AB**). In contrast,

the aspect ratio of the *prc* mutants was indistinguishable from that of the ΔsanA ΔwecA

parent. The longer length of the *ftsI* mutants suggests that they have a partial loss of function

in their transpeptidase activity or in protein interactions. Therefore, we tested the

transpeptidase activity of the mutants through resistance to aztreonam, a β-lactam

antibiotic that this highly specific to FtsI (82).

As controls to show that activity of FtsI correlates to aztreonam resistance, we tested *ftsI23* (Y281D), a temperature sensitive allele of *ftsI* that has reduced activity even at permissive temperatures and can slow the rate of closure of the septum (83-85), and *ftsN* overexpression which has been shown to result in increased activity of the divisome and to suppress partial loss of function mutations in both divisome assembly and septal PG synthesis (86-88). Given the temperature sensitive phenotype of *ftsI23,* we assayed aztreonam MICs at both 30 and 37 °C. At 30 °C, *ftsN* overexpression caused a significant increase in aztreonam MIC in the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* background (**Figure 4C**), while none of the *ftsI* mutations caused a significant change in MIC. However, at 37 °C, *ftsI23* caused a significant decrease in MIC and *ftsN* overexpression caused a significant increase demonstrating that decreased *ftsI* activity correlates with decreased aztreonam resistance and vice versa (**Figure 4C**). At this temperature, *ftsI*$_{V98E}$ caused a significant decrease in aztreonam MIC compared to its Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* parent, while *ftsI*$_{S165P}$ did not cause a significant change. These data suggest that, while *ftsI*$_{V98E}$ has decreased transpeptidase activity that may contribute to the longer cell shape, *ftsI*$_{S165P}$ does not have a severe effect on transpeptidase activity. Therefore, the effect of these mutations on protein-protein interactions, and more specifically FtsW activation, may be more important for suppression.

To confirm that the *ftsI* mutations were loss-of-function mutations and to see whether their suppression of the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* membrane permeability was unique, we tested the effect of several gain- and loss-of-function mutations in divisome activity on the SDS EDTA sensitivity of the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain. Our suppressor mutation, *ftsI*$_{V98E}$, suppressed the SDS EDTA sensitivity of the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain when cells were grown at either 30 or 37 °C (**Figure 4D**). However, *ftsI23* suppressed only at 30 °C, suggesting that there may be a range of function loss for *ftsI* that can suppress envelope permeability. Neither *ftsA** (R286W) (89, 90) nor *ftsN* overexpression, both of which are activating mutations, suppressed the SDS EDTA sensitivity of the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* mutant (**Figure 4D**). In fact, the SDS EDTA sensitivity of the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain carrying the *ftsA** allele was greater than that of Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* alone. Overall, these data demonstrate that *ftsI*$_{V98E}$ and *ftsI*$_{S165P}$ are partial loss of function mutations

and that other loss of function mutations in *ftsI* can also suppress the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA*
envelope permeability.

Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* envelope permeability is linked to septal PG synthesis. As the SDS EDTA
sensitivity of the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain can be suppressed by mutations to *ftsI*, we next asked
whether SanA might influence the timing of assembly of the Z ring, which is the first step in
cell division. We expressed a GFP-version of FtsZ (91) and examined its localization in the
wild-type, Δ*sanA*, and Δ*sanA ftsI*$_{V98E}$ strains. However, we observed no difference in the
localization of FtsZ in these strains (**Figure 5**). Therefore, we decided to examine more cell
division mutations to determine whether divisome assembly and/or septal PG synthesis
were important for suppression of SDS EDTA sensitivity in the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain. We
examined the effect of three temperature sensitive loss-of-function mutations in divisome
assembly *ftsZ84* (G105S) (92), *ftsA12* (A188V) (93, 94), and *ftsA27* (S195P) (87, 95), as well
as a gain-of-function mutation, *ftsL** (E88K) (96, 97), and temperature sensitive loss-of-
function mutation in septal PG synthesis, *ftsQ1* (E125K) (93, 98). Given the temperature
sensitivity caused by these mutations we performed the experiment at 30 °C. None of the
mutations caused SDS EDTA sensitivity on their own at this temperature except *ftsQ1*, which
showed sensitivity similar to that of the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain (**Figure 6A**). However, only *ftsQ1*
suppressed the SDS EDTA sensitivity of the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain (**Figure 6B**), demonstrating
that these mutations can cross suppress. When we examined the effect of the mutations on
SDS EDTA sensitivity in a Δ*sanA* strain, we found that the *ftsZ84*, *ftsA12*, and *ftsL** mutations
cause SDS EDTA sensitivity in the Δ*sanA* background (**Figure 6C**). Overall, these data
demonstrate that the envelope permeability of the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain is suppressed by
slowing of septal PG synthesis and not by slowing of divisome assembly. Furthermore, our
data show that slowing divisome assembly can increase the envelope permeability of a
Δ*sanA* strain.

Membrane permeability with loss of SanA is tied to Lipid II availability and FtsW activity.
Our data show that partial loss of function mutations in septal PG synthesis can suppress
the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain's SDS EDTA sensitivity. As the spontaneous *ftsI* mutations we
isolated were in the FtsI pedestal domain that interacts with FtsW, we wondered whether

SanA's envelope permeability phenotypes relate to FtsW activity and what effect the *ftsI* mutations we isolated have on this activity. A plasmid-based FtsW depletion strain has been previously described (99) and we transferred the arabinose-inducible *ftsW* expressing plasmid and chromosomal *ftsW* deletion to our strains. We then assayed growth and SDS EDTA resistance with various concentrations of arabinose. When we examined SDS EDTA resistance, we found that *ftsI*$_{V98E}$ could suppress the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain regardless of arabinose concentration (**Figure 7A**). However, we also observed that *ftsI*$_{V98E}$ in a wild-type background conferred resistance to arabinose depletion, allowing cells to grow at a lower concentration of arabinose than is tolerated by the parent strain, suggesting increased activity of FtsW (**Figure 7A**). We did not observe the same increase when *ftsI*$_{V98E}$ is expressed in either the Δ*sanA* or Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* background, suggesting that loss of SanA may increase the activity of FtsW necessary for viability.

Given *sanA*'s genetic interaction with mutations altering isoprenoid carrier availability, we further asked whether the availability of Lipid II, the substrate for PG synthesis, was involved in SanA's envelope permeability phenotype. A chromosomal depletion strain for MurJ, the Lipid II flippase (99, 100), where the promoter for *murJ* was replaced with the arabinose-inducible P$_{BAD}$ promoter has been described (100). We transduced this promoter into our strains and assayed growth and SDS EDTA resistance at various arabinose concentrations. Depletion of MurJ did not prevent suppression of Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* SDS EDTA sensitivity by *ftsI*$_{V98E}$ (**Figure 7B**). Therefore, we then decided to test the effect of overexpression of *murA*, which is responsible for the first committed step in PG synthesis (101) and would be expected to increase Lipid II levels. When we overexpressed *murA* in a Δ*sanA* strain, we observed SDS EDTA sensitivity that phenocopied that observed in a Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain and this sensitivity could be suppressed by *ftsI*$_{V98E}$ (**Figure 7C**). Furthermore, overexpression of *murA* decreased the level of SDS EDTA sensitivity suppression observed in a Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain. These data confirm that increased Lipid II availability leads to SDS EDTA sensitivity in the absence of SanA and that this sensitivity can be suppressed through modulation of septal PG synthesis.

DISCUSSION

Here, we set out to understand how SanA affects the cell's envelope permeability barrier. We confirmed that a Δ*sanA* strain has envelope permeability phenotypes that occur under cellular stress, such as carbon limitation and high temperatures. Additionally, we discovered that a Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain, which has heightened isoprenoid carrier levels due to a lack of ECA synthesis (37), had a pronounced, synthetic SDS EDTA sensitivity and that this sensitivity could be suppressed by partial loss of function mutations to either *ftsI* or to *prc*. When investigating the suppression phenotype, we found that mutations resulting in partial loss of function for septal PG synthesis, but not early divisome assembly, could suppress the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* SDS EDTA sensitivity. Moreover, we observed that overexpressing *murA* in a Δ*sanA* strain phenocopied Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA*, indicating increased Lipid II is important for the SDS EDTA phenotype. Finally, the *ftsI* mutations we identified were located in the pedestal domain of FtsI important for protein-protein interactions, and at least one of the mutations, *ftsI*$_{V98E}$, increases FtsW activity, highlighting the importance of the FtsI-FtsW interaction for this phenotype.

Based on these findings, we propose a model which provides a parsimonious explanation for our results. In this model, we reason that, under certain cellular stress conditions, the amount of Lipid II available for septal PG synthesis increases. For example, enzymes involved in Lipid II synthesis might have higher activity rates at higher temperature leading to increased Lipid II synthesis. Alternatively, under carbon limited conditions, decreased cell elongation and the lower surface area of stationary phase cells could lead to higher Lipid II levels available for septal PG synthesis. The increase in substrate availability for septal PG synthesis creates an imbalance of FtsI and FtsW activity, with FtsI activity increasing more than FtsW activity. This imbalance ultimately leads to envelope permeability. This model would also suggest that loss-of-function mutations in early divisome assembly increase the membrane permeability of a Δ*sanA* strain by decreasing the number of active septal PG synthesis complexes and so increasing the ratio of Lipid II to active septal PG synthesis complexes. SanA restores this balance by limiting the amount of Lipid II available for septal

PG synthesis. In SanA's absence, mutations that reduce FtsI activity and, in at least in some

cases, increase FtsW activity, can restore this balance even when excess Lipid II is present.

In support of this model, a paper (102) was published while this manuscript was in

preparation that identified a suppressive phenotype of Δ*sanA* for the growth of several cell

division mutants including *ftsI23* and found that PG incorporation was increased in a Δ*sanA*

strain (102). Although the paper examined different conditions from our study, it also found

synthetic interactions between early genes in ECA synthesis and Δ*sanA*, specifically for

growth in low osmolarity (102). From these findings it was unclear whether SanA's

phenotypes related to septal PG synthesis or PG synthesis more broadly. However, our work

clearly demonstrates that the membrane permeability phenotype which occurs when Lipid

II levels are increased coupled with the absence of SanA, specifically relates to septal PG

synthesis and that changes to the elongasome (involved in cell lengthening) are not

necessary to prevent permeability.

How SanA alters Lipid II availability for septal PG synthesis remains an unanswered

question. The recent paper speculates that SanA may have enzymatic activity, based on

phenotypes of *sanA* point mutations (102). We agree that predicted structures of SanA

suggest it has enzymatic activity, and we have made similar point mutations. However, many

of these mutants did not produce a stable protein, making it difficult to confirm enzymatic

activity. Nevertheless, if SanA does have enzymatic activity, it is possible that it alters or

degrades Lipid II in some way that promotes its recycling. Alternatively, it is possible that

SanA binds to and sequesters Lipid II. However, the number of SanA molecules in the cell

are 10 to 50-fold less than those of Lipid II under normal growth conditions (103, 104). Thus,

a significant increase in SanA levels under activating conditions would be necessary for this

possibility to occur. The synthesis of Lipid II has been found to be regulated through the

dimerization of MraY which binds to excess Lipid II, inhibiting its activity and Lipid II synthesis

(105). Given this, it is possible SanA is involved in this regulatory pathway. However, it's

perhaps more likely that SanA directly controls the availability of Lipid II for septal PG

synthesis rather than overall Lipid II levels. For instance, SanA could feed Lipid II to FtsW in

some manner that ensures correct substrate availability to balance FtsI and FtsW levels.

This idea fits well with the slight increase in cell length observed in the Δ*sanA* strain, which

suggests that cells are elongating longer before they divide. However, differentiating these

possibilities will require future investigation.

FtsI's cytoplasmic region and transmembrane helix are important for its recruitment to the

Z-ring through interaction with FtsW (78). The periplasmic portion of FtsI contains the

pedestal domain, which is important for interacting with other members of the septal PG

synthesis complex, and the catalytic domain that acts as the transpeptidase during septal

PG synthesis (78). Both FtsI variants that we identified, FtsI^{V98E} and FtsI^{S165P}, are in the

pedestal domain of FtsI. Notably, this domain is proposed to recruit FtsN (the final activating

protein for the complex), to interact with FtsW (the transglycosylase) and to control its

activation, and to control FtsI transpeptidase activity (78, 81, 106). It is interesting then that

although both FtsI^{V98E} and FtsI^{S165P} resulted in longer cells, suggesting a partial loss-of-

function, FtsI^{V98E} also made wild type cells resistant to FtsW depletion, suggesting increased

FtsW activation. Thus, these mutations may be affecting the activity of both FtsI and FtsW—

and in differing directions. Mutations to residues near S165 (R166 and R167) have been

shown to either cause constitutive activation of FtsW or loss-of-function in FtsI

transpeptidase activity so it may be that S165P causes functional changes to both FtsI and

FtsW as well. Further investigation of these mutants may lead to greater insight into the

complex regulatory interactions carried out by the pedestal domain of FtsI.

Finally, it is worth considering how an imbalance in septal PG synthesis, particularly FtsI and

FtsW activities, leads to increased envelope permeability. The synthesis of PG and OM

components share many precursors. Therefore, it is possible that an increase in septal PG

synthesis could limit some OM components, hindering proper OM synthesis. However, our

cell length data do not support increased septal PG synthesis in either a Δ*sanA* or Δ*sanA*

Δ*wecA* strain. Thus, we find it more likely that the envelope biosynthesis phenotype is due to

a lack of coordination between different envelope biosynthetic pathways. For instance, OMP

biosynthesis has been shown to increase in the presence of immature PG (45). Therefore, it

is possible that the imbalance between FtsI and FtsW activity leads to an increase in the

formation of immature PG, causing excess OMP insertion near the septum. Finally, it is

possible that there is a defect in OM invagination caused by the alteration in septal PG

synthesis. These questions will be interesting avenues for future investigations.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains and growth conditions. All strains used in this study are listed in **Table S1**. Cultures

were inoculated and grown at 37°C unless otherwise noted in LB, M63 or MOPS media.

Cultures were supplemented with 20mg/liter chloramphenicol, 25mg/liter kanamycin,

10mg/liter tetracycline, or a combination thereof as necessary. M63 was supplemented with

1mM $MgSO_4$, 0.2% glucose, 50mg/ml thiamine, and 2% arabinose. Carbon-limited cultures

were grown in M63 medium supplemented with 0.05% glucose. Keio insertion-deletion

mutations and other indicted mutations were moved using P1*vir* transduction (107).

Antibiotic resistance cassettes were removed with the Flp recombinase-FRT system as

described previously described (108). To clone a plasmid encoding *sanA*, genomic DNA was

amplified using the primers pZS21-RBS-*sanA* F and *sanA*-pZS21 R (**Table S2**). pZS21 (109)

was amplified using pZS21 F and pZS21-RBS R (**Table S2**). The fragments were assembled

using HiFi Assembly Master Mix (New England Biolab) as per the manufacturer's

instructions.

Sensitivity assays. Resistance to SDS in stationary phase was assay as we have previously

described (46). For EOPs, overnight cultures were serially diluted as indicated, plated on the

indicated plates, and plates were incubated overnight. For Kirby-Bauer tests, 100 µL of

overnight cultures were then added to 3 mL liquified top LB agar and spread on LB agar

plates. Preconditioned antibiotic disks were placed on the agar surface and plates were

incubated overnight. The diameter of the zone of clearance was measured in at least two

directions. For MICs, overnight cultures were normalized to an OD_{600} of 0.1 then further

diluted 1:1000. Diluted cultures were then added to 96-well plate followed by two-fold

dilutions of the indicated antibiotic. Plates were incubated at 37 °C overnight. Then, OD_{600}

was read using a BioTek Synergy H1 plate reader. The lowest concentration where growth is

inhibited was determined to be the MIC.

Lipid A modification assay. Cultures were grown overnight in the indicated media. Cells were then diluted 1:100 in fresh medium containing 2.5 µCi/mL of ^{32}P and grown to OD_{600} 0.6-0.8. LPS was purified and mid-acid hydrolysis was used to liberate Lipid A which was visualized using thin-layer chromatography (TLC) as has been previously described (110).

Suppressor isolation. To isolate suppressors, cultures of the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain were serial diluted and plated with 0.5% SDS with 1.0 or 1.1 mM EDTA. Colonies that grew were isolated and suppression was confirmed by EOP. Verified suppressors were categorized based on antibiotic resistance profiles. For a representative of each category and the parent strain, genomic DNA was purified using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen) and provided to SeqCoast Genomics for library preparation and sequencing. Briefly, libraries were prepared using a DNA Prep Tagmentation Kit (Illumina) and unique dual indexes. Sequencing was performed with an Illumina NextSeq2000 using a 300-cycle flow cell producing 2x150bp reads. A PhiX control was used to optimize base calling. Demultiplexing, read trimming, and run analytics were performed using DRAGEN software version. SeqCoast quality trimmed the reads, mapped them to the MG1655 reference genome (Genebank ID U00096.3) and called variants using Trimmomatic and Breseq software (111-113). The identified mutations were confirmed in all suppressors using Sanger sequencing. Suppressors strains were linked to a tetracycline marking using P1*vir* transduction of the *zab*-3051:Tn*10* insertion site (114).

P*rprA* reporter activity assay. Overnight cultures carrying the pJW15-P*rprA* reporter plasmid (74, 75) were assayed for luciferase activity as has been previously described (68). Data are representative of three biological replicates, each performed in technical triplicate.

Cell imaging and analysis. Overnight cultures were diluted 1:10,000 and grown to an OD_{600} ~0.5 before imaging. Imaging and cell shape analysis were performed as previously described (115, 116). Briefly, 5-10 µl of culture were added to a 0.8% agarose gel pad supplemented with 8 mM $MgSO_4$. Differential interference contrast (DIC) images were captured using an Andor iXon Ultra 897 EMCCD camera (effective pixel size 160 nm) on an inverted Nikon Eclipse-Ti™ microscope with a 100× 1.49 NA TIRF objective. Cell length and

width was determined using a MATLAB (MathWorks, Inc) script (115). Raincloud plots were made and statistics calculated using Raincloud-shiny (117). For protein localization, overnight cultures were diluted to OD_{600} 0.1 and grown to OD_{600} 0.4. GFP-tagged proteins were excited by a 488 nm laser. GFP-tagged *ftsZ* was expressed from pXY027 (91) (Addgene #98915). Demographs were constructed using ImageJ plug-in MicrobeJ (118). Cells were aligned at mid-cell and sorted by their length, and fluorescence intensity was normalized.

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   FIGURES AND LEGENDS

Figure 1: Loss of SanA causes increased envelope permeability and low levels of temperature sensitivity. (A) The indicated strains were grown to carbon-limited stationary phase and then treated with SDS EDTA or a vehicle control and viability was assayed by CFU. The ΔsanA strain is significantly more sensitive to SDS than the wild-type strain from early time points post treatment. **(B)** The sensitivity of the indicated strains to vancomycin when grown at 43 °C was assayed by EOP. Plates were supplemented with MgSO₄ to support growth. The ΔsanA strain was more sensitive to vancomycin than the wild-type strain and this sensitivity could be complemented with plasmid based expression of *sanA*. **(C)** To confirm a true change in vancomycin resistance, the MIC for vancomycin was assayed for the wild-type and ΔsanA strain. The ΔsanA strain was significantly more sensitive to vancomycin than the wild-type strain. **(D)** Modifications to LPS were assayed by thin layer chromatography (TLC) for strains grown in the indicated conditions. The bands for hexa- and hepta-acylated Lipid A are shown. The ΔsanA strain shows an increase in hepta-acylated Lipid A which can be mitigated by complementation of *sanA* or overexpression of *pldA*. The *mlaC* strain is known to have an increase in phospholipids in the outer leaflet of the OM (65) and serves as a control. **(E)** Cells were grown to carbon-limited stationary phase at 37 °C and then their ability to survive at the

indicated temperatures was assayed. The Δ*sanA* strain shows a significant decrease in survival at 57

°C. Quantitative data are the average of three biological replicates ± the SEM. For MICs, data are

shown as the geometric average with individual data points. Images are representative of three

independent experiments. * p<0.05 by the Mann Whitney Test.

Figure 2: SanA shows genetic interactions with ECA synthesis mutations differentially affecting

PG stress. (A-B) The indicated strains were assayed for SDS EDTA resistance by EOP. Images are

representative of three independent experiments. (A) A double mutant of Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* showed

synthetic SDS EDTA sensitivity, while Δ*sanA* suppressed the SDS EDTA sensitivity of the Δ*wecE* strain.

(B) Double mutants of each ECA transglycosylase showed less SDS EDTA sensitivity than the

previous strain. **(C)** Activation of the Rcs stress response in the indicated strains was assayed using

a *luxCDABE* reporter. Data are shown as luminescence relative to OD_{600}. Data are the average of three

biological replicates ± the SEM. **(D)** Cell shape of the indicated strains was assayed, and the aspect

ratio (length/width) was calculated. Raincloud plots are shown with individual data points, the

population distribution, and a box plot. **** p<0.00005 vs. wild type MG1655 by Wilcoxon Test; ‡

p<0.05 vs. the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain by Wilcoxon Test.

Figure 3: The SDS EDTA of a Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain can be suppressed through mutations to *ftsI* **and *prc*. (A-B)** The SDS EDTA sensitivity of the indicated strains was assayed by EOP. Images are representative of three independent experiments. (A) Suppressor mutations show increased SDS EDTA resistance compared to the parent Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain. (B) A linked Tn*10* was used to transfer the *ftsI*$_{V98E}$ mutation the indicated strains. The *ftsI*$_{V98E}$ mutation was sufficient for suppression. (C) The *ftsI*$_{S165P}$ mutation was removed from the indicated suppressor and the loss of this mutation prevented suppression demonstrating that it is necessary for suppression. **(D)** Reporter assays for Rcs activation were performed as in Figure 2C. The P$_{rprA}$ activity (luminescence/OD$_{600}$) as well as the

966 growth of the strains over time are shown. The $ftsI_{V98E}$ mutation suppressed the Rcs activation

967 phenotype of the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain but the $ftsI_{S165P}$ mutation did not. The Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain with

968 the $ftsI_{S165P}$ mutation also had a noticeable growth defect. Data are the average of three biological

969 replicates ± the SEM.

Figure 4: Suppressors of Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* SDS EDTA sensitivity cause partial loss of FtsI function.

(A) Cell shape of the indicated strains was assayed, and the aspect ratio (length/width) and cell length are shown. Raincloud plots are shown with individual data points, the population distribution, and a box plot. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.005$, *** $p < 0.0005$, **** $p < 0.00005$ vs. wild type MG1655 by Wilcoxon Test; ‡ $p < 0.05$, ‡‡ $p < 0.005$, ‡‡‡ $p < 0.0005$, ‡‡‡‡ $p < 0.00005$ vs. the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain by Wilcoxon Test. Mutations in *ftsI* caused the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* cells to become significantly longer, while *prc*

mutations had less of an effect on length. **(B)** Representative images demonstrating cell shape are

shown for the indicated strains. **(C)** The sensitivity of the indicated strains to aztreonam, a β-lactam

targeting FtsI, was assayed by MIC. Data are shown as the geometric average of six biological

replicates ± the SEM with individual data points. * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.005$ by Mann-Whitney Test. *ftsI23*

and overexpression of *ftsN* serve as controls for decreased and increased activity of FtsI,

respectively. The *ftsI$_{V98E}$* mutation caused a significant increase in aztreonam sensitivity at 37 °C,

indicating decreased FtsI transpeptidase activity. **(D)** The SDS EDTA sensitivity of the indicated

strains was assayed by EOP at both 30 and 37 °C. Of the cell division mutants, only *ftsI23* was able

to suppress the SDS EDTA sensitivity of the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain. Images are representative of three

independent experiments.

Figure 5: Loss of SanA does not affect localization of FtsZ. The FtsZ-GFP localization was assayed

in the wild-type strain (A), the Δ*sanA* strain (B), and the Δ*sanA* strain carrying the *ftsI*$_{V98E}$ mutation (C).

Demographs were computed using the locational data with cells arranged from shortest to longest.

No significant differences in FtsZ localization were observed.

Figure 6: Suppression of Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* phenotypes is linked to septal PG synthesis and not

divisome assembly. EOPs were performed at 30 °C to assay the SDS EDTA sensitivity of the indicated

strains. The effect of cell division mutations in a wild-type background (A), a Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA*

background (B), and a Δ*sanA* background (C) are shown. Images are representative of three

independent experiments. **(A)** Only the *ftsQ1* mutation causes SDS EDTA sensitivity in a wild-type

background. **(B)** Of the assayed mutations, only *ftsQ1* suppressed the SDS EDTA sensitivity of the

Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain, while earlier loss-of-function mutations in divisome assembly or gain-of-

function mutations in septal PG synthesis did not. **(C)** The *ftsZ84, ftsA12,* and *ftsL** mutations make

the Δ*sanA* strain more sensitive to SDS EDTA.

Figure 7: SanA membrane permeability phenotypes are tied to lipid II availability and FtsW activity. EOPs were performed to assay SDS EDTA resistance in the following strains in the indicated conditions. Images are representative of three independent experiments. **(A)** FtsW depletion strains were constructed by deleting *ftsW* in strains carrying a plasmid-based copy of *ftsW* under an arabinose-inducible promoter. Deletion of *araH,* an inducible arabinose permease, ensures linear induction. Wild-type cells carrying the *ftsI$_{V98E}$* mutation could grow at a lower arabinose concentration, indicating increased activity of FtsW. Interestingly, this increased activity is not observed with the *ftsI$_{V98E}$* mutation in the Δ*sanA* or Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strains. **(B)** MurJ depletion constructs were made by transduction of an arabinose inducible promoter to replace the native *murJ* promoter. Depletion of MurJ did not prevent suppression of Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* SDS EDTA sensitivity by the *ftsI$_{V98E}$* mutation. **(C)** An IPTG inducible *murA* overexpression plasmid or a vector control were introduced into the indicated strains. Overexpression of *murA* in a Δ*sanA* strain phenocopies the SDS EDTA sensitivity of the Δ*sanA* Δ*wecA* strain and this sensitivity can be suppressed by the *ftsI$_{V98E}$* mutation.