Title: Mutations in enterobacterial common antigen biosynthesis restore outer membrane barrier

function in *Escherichia coli tol-pal* mutants

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Important note to readers:

In the previous version of this preprint, we reported that mutations in enterobacterial common antigen (ECA) biosynthesis restore outer membrane (OM) barrier function AND re-establish OM lipid homeostasis in cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex. However, the latter conclusion is no longer correct. Initial experiments to examine OM lipid composition in our strains involved relative quantification of $[^{14}C]$-acetate-labelled phospholipids (PLs) and lipopolysaccharides (LPS), but the method for LPS quantification (gel separation/phosphor imaging with comparison to standards) was cumbersome and produced rather high variability in the data, especially between different researchers. We have since simplified the experiments by using $[^{32}P]$-phosphate labelling, allowing quantification of both PLs and LPS using scintillation counting; these changes enabled us to produce robust and consistent data for OM lipid composition analyses. While it is clear that cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex do accumulate excess PLs in the OM (i.e. higher PL/LPS ratio) as previously reported [6], we found that mutations in ECA biosynthesis DO NOT restore lipid homeostasis. Accordingly, we have updated this newer version of the manuscript to reflect the changes in conclusions and discussion.

Summary

The outer membrane (OM) is an essential component of the Gram-negative bacterial envelope that protects cells against external threats. To maintain a functional OM, cells require distinct mechanisms to ensure balance of OM proteins and lipids. Mutations in OM biogenesis and/or homeostasis pathways often result in permeability defects, but how changes in the OM affect barrier function, specifically against large hydrophilic molecules, is unclear. Here, we set out to identify potential mechanism(s) that can alleviate permeability defects in *Escherichia coli* cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex, which accumulate excess PLs in the OM. We identify mutations in enterobacterial common antigen (ECA) biosynthesis that restore OM barrier function but not lipid homeostasis in these strains. Furthermore, we demonstrate that build-up of biosynthetic intermediates, but not loss of ECA itself, contributes to the rescue. This suppression of OM phenotypes is unrelated to known effects resulting from accumulation of ECA intermediates on peptidoglycan. Finally, we reveal that an unusual diacylglycerol pyrophosphoryl-linked lipid species also accumulates in ECA mutants, and might play a role in the rescue phenotype. Our work provides insights into how OM barrier function can be restored independent of lipid homeostasis, and highlights previously unappreciated effects of ECA-related species in OM biology.

Introduction

Gram-negative bacteria are surrounded by a multilayered cell envelope consisting of the inner membrane (IM), the peptidoglycan layer, and the outer membrane (OM). This envelope structure, in particular the OM, plays an essential role in preventing toxic molecules from entering the cell, contributing to intrinsic resistance of Gram-negative bacteria against many antibiotics and detergents [1]. The OM bilayer is asymmetric and has a unique lipid composition, comprising lipopolysaccharides (LPS) in the outer leaflet and phospholipids (PLs) in the inner leaflet. In the presence of divalent cations, LPS molecules in the outer leaflet pack together to form an impervious monolayer [2]; OM structure and lipid asymmetry are thus key determinants for its barrier function. Furthermore, the OM is essential for growth, highlighting the importance of understanding how it is established and maintained.

The biogenesis of the OM has been relatively well studied. Key components, including LPS, integral β-barrel proteins, and lipoproteins, are transported and assembled unidirectionally into the OM by the Lpt [3], Bam [4], and Lol machinery [5], respectively. Recently, several systems, including the OmpC-Mla system and the Tol-Pal complex, have been implicated in PL transport between the IM and the OM [6-10]. However, much of bulk PL transport between the two membranes, which occurs in both directions [11-13], is still largely unknown [14]. Nonetheless, an intricate balance between these different OM biogenesis pathways need to be maintained at all times to ensure a stable OM. Such homeostasis of OM components is critical for proper barrier function; yet, we do not fully understand the exact molecular mechanisms of how changes in the OM can translate to permeability defects. In many cases, mutations in OM biogenesis (e.g.

lptD4213, degP, bamB, tol-pal) result in compromised OM barrier function against both

hydrophobic molecules, such as detergents, and even large hydrophilic antibiotics, including

vancomycin. One common problem with the OM in these mutants appears to be perturbations in

the lipid asymmetry. This give rises to PL bilayer patches that would allow easier diffusive passage

of hydrophobic compounds, but not hydrophilic ones. How large hydrophilic drugs like

vancomycin cross the OM in mutants with defective OM biogenesis remains elusive.

The Tol-Pal complex is a conserved multi-protein system that forms a trans-envelope bridge

across the cell envelope in Gram-negative bacteria, and has been known to be generally important

for OM stability and integrity [15-17]. It comprises two sub-complexes: TolQRA in the IM and

TolB-Pal at the OM. We recently demonstrated that the Tol-Pal complex is involved in the

maintenance of OM lipid homeostasis in *Escherichia coli* [6]. Cells lacking the intact complex

accumulate excess PLs in the OM, likely due to defects in retrograde (OM-to-IM) PL transport.

This increase in PL content may contribute to many known OM permeability/stability phenotypes

in *tol-pal* mutants, including hypersensitivity to antibiotics and detergents, leakage of periplasmic

content, and OM hypervesiculation [15, 18]. The Tol-Pal complex also plays a key role in cell

division; mutant strains lacking functional Tol-Pal exhibits division defects under extreme

osmolarity due to incomplete septal cell wall separation and/or improper OM invagination [19,

20]. Its role in cell division appears to be independent of its function in OM lipid homeostasis [20].

Lipid dyshomeostasis in cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex affects OM barrier function in a

way that allows entry of both hydrophobic molecules and large hydrophilic antibiotics. To gain

insight(s) into OM lipid homeostasis and how it possibly affects OM function, we asked whether

cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex could restore OM barrier function by compensatory mutations

in other pathways. We found that disruption in the biosynthesis of enterobacterial common antigen

(ECA), a cell surface polysaccharide in the Enterobacteriaceae family [21], rescues OM

permeability defects, specifically against vancomycin, in *tol-pal* mutants. Interestingly, in these

suppressor mutants, OM lipid homeostasis is still defective even though barrier function is restored.

We demonstrated that the rescue requires the accumulation of ECA intermediates, yet is

independent of known effects of such build-up on cell wall integrity. Finally, we detected unusual

ECA-related lipids in these cells, raising the possibility that they might play a role in restoring OM

phenotypes. Our work reveals that the OM barrier, specifically against large hydrophilic molecules,

can somehow be re-established even during lipid dyshomeostasis, highlighting the complex and

dynamic nature of bacterial OM permeability.

Results

Loss-of-function mutations in ECA biosynthesis rescue OM permeability defects in *tol-pal* mutants

Cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex have compromised OM integrity due to the accumulation of excess PLs [6]. To gain insight(s) into this phenomenon, we sought to isolate genetic suppressor mutations that could restore OM barrier function in a Δ*tol-pal* mutant. We selected for suppressors that rescue sensitivity to vancomycin, the large cell wall-targeting antibiotic that cannot penetrate an intact and functional OM [22]. Cells have no intrinsic mechanism to alter cell wall structure to give rise to resistance against vancomycin; consistently, suppressor colonies appeared at a low frequency of ~1 x 10^{-9}. We obtained 36 individual suppressor strains, all of which exhibited stable resistance phenotypes against vancomycin similar to a wild-type (WT) strain. We further examined the susceptibilities of these strains against other commonly used antibiotics, including rifampicin and erythromycin. An intact OM also impedes the entry of rifampicin and erythromycin but less effectively than against vancomycin [22]. Eight of the suppressors exhibited near wild-type level resistance against all antibiotics tested (Fig. S1A), thus appearing to have restored OM barrier function. Consistent with this, many of these strains do not leak, or release less, periplasmic RNase I into the media during growth when compared to the parent Δ*tol-pal* mutant (Fig. S1B). We sequenced the genomes of the parent strain and all eight suppressors. Each suppressor strain contains multiple mutations relative to the parent Δ*tol-pal* mutant (Table S1); interestingly, all of these strains have mutations in genes involved in the biosynthesis of ECA (*wecB*, *wecC*, or *wecF*).

Six strains contain mutations in *wecC*, which encodes a dehydrogenase enzyme in the ECA

synthesis pathway [21, 23]. A 6-bp in-frame insertion in *wecC*, termed *wecC**, is common to four

of these strains, suggesting that this allele may be important for restoring OM barrier function in

the Δ*tol-pal* mutant. To validate this, we re-constructed the *wecC** mutation in the native locus

using a negative selection technique [24] and confirmed that this allele alone is able to rescue

vancomycin sensitivity (Fig. 1A) and periplasmic leakiness in Δ*tolQ*, Δ*tolA*, and Δ*tolB* strains (Fig.

S2A). The effects of *wecC** on these phenotypes are only partial, however, suggesting that other

mutations found in the original suppressor strains may also contribute to restoring OM function.

Supporting this idea, the *wecC** mutation does not restore resistance of the *tol-pal* strains against

erythromycin and rifampicin (Fig. S2B). Rifampicin (MW ~823) and erythromycin (MW ~734)

are much smaller than vancomycin (MW ~1449). It appears that the *wecC** mutation only restores

OM barrier function in the *tol-pal* mutant against the passage of larger molecules, including

vancomycin and periplasmic proteins (e.g. RNase I).

The *wecC** mutation results in the insertion of two amino acids (Pro and Gly) five residues

away from the predicted active site Cys in the full-length protein, suggesting that WecC function

may be disrupted. Consistent with this, we did not detect any ECA in strains containing this *wecC**

allele (Fig. 1C). Furthermore, we showed that deletion of *wecC* also partially restores vancomycin

resistance in *tol-pal* strains (Figs. 1B and C). We isolated *wecB* and *wecF* mutations in two of the

sequenced suppressor strains (Table S1); we therefore constructed Δ*wecB* and Δ*wecF* mutants to

test their rescue phenotypes. Both null mutations partially rescue vancomycin sensitivity in the

Δ*tolA* strain (Fig. 1D). We conclude that loss-of-function mutations in ECA biosynthesis likely

restore the function of the OM in strains lacking the Tol-Pal complex.

Mutations in ECA biosynthesis restore OM barrier function in *tol-pal* strains independent of

Rcs phosphorelay pathway and/or capsular polysaccharide biosynthesis

Mutations in the ECA pathway are known to trigger the Rcs phosphorelay stress response [25].

tol-pal mutations also strongly activate the Rcs signaling cascade [26]. Consequently, combined

tol-pal/ECA mutant colonies exhibit strongly mucoid phenotypes, presumably due to the over-

production of capsular polysaccharides (colanic acids), which is regulated by the Rcs pathway [27,

28]. We therefore considered whether hyperactivation of the Rcs stress response or up-regulation

of colanic acid biosynthesis contributed to the suppression of vancomycin sensitivity by ECA

mutations in the *tol-pal* strains. To test this idea, we examined vancomycin sensitivity in *rcsC*

(encoding the histidine sensor kinase of the Rcs pathway) [27] or *wcaJ* (encoding the glycosyl

transferase that initiates colanic acid biosynthesis) [29] mutants. Deleting *rcsC* or *wcaJ* did not

prevent the Δ*wecC* mutation from suppressing vancomycin sensitivity in the Δ*tolA* strain; instead,

the Δ*rcsC* Δ*tolA* Δ*wecC* and Δ*wcaJ* Δ*tolA* Δ*wecC* mutants display full resistance against

vancomycin, similar to WT cells (Fig. 2A). The mechanism by which the Δ*wecC* mutation

suppresses vancomycin sensitivity in *tol-pal* strains is therefore independent of the Rcs

phosphorelay and/or colanic acid synthesis. To further demonstrate that the OM barrier function

was indeed restored, we showed that a fluorescent analog of vancomycin (BODIPY FL

vancomycin) could only penetrate the OM and label peptidoglycan in the Δ*wcaJ* Δ*tolA* strain, but

not the Δ*wcaJ* Δ*tolA* Δ*wecC* triple mutant (Fig. 2B). Furthermore, the Δ*wcaJ* Δ*tolA* Δ*wecC* strain

also exhibited reduced periplasmic leakiness compared to the Δ*wcaJ* Δ*tolA* mutant (Fig. 2C). We

conclude that the Δ*wecC* mutation suppresses OM permeability defects in *tol-pal* strains lacking

colanic acid synthesis.

We have observed that the Δ*wecC* mutation rescues vancomycin sensitivity in the Δ*tolA* strain;

however, we noted that different transductants display varying extents of suppression (Fig. S3).

We found that removing RcsC or WcaJ greatly improved the consistency of suppression of the

Δ*tolA* phenotype by the Δ*wecC* mutation. This suggests that the initial variability in suppression

could be due to varying mucoidal phenotypes. To eliminate this inconsistency, we used strains

deleted of *wcaJ* for the rest of this study.

Mutations in ECA biosynthesis rescue OM barrier function without restoring lipid

homeostasis in *tol-pal* mutants

Cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex accumulate excess PLs (relative to LPS) in the OM due to

defective retrograde PL transport [6]. Since mutations in the ECA biosynthetic pathway rescue

OM defects in *tol-pal* mutants (Fig. 1), we hypothesized that OM lipid homeostasis is restored in

these strains. To test this idea, we examined steady state OM lipid compositions in Δ*wcaJ* Δ*tolA*

Δ*wecC* mutant cells by measuring the distribution of [^{32}P]-phosphate-labelled PLs between the IM

and the OM, and also determining the ratio of PLs to LPS (also labelled with [^{32}P]) in the OM.

Consistent with our previous findings, the Δ*tolA* mutant contained more PLs in the OM than WT

cells (here in the Δ*wcaJ* background). Specifically, cells lacking TolA accumulate ~1.7-fold excess

PLs in the OM (relative to the IM) (Fig. 3A). Furthermore, these cells have ~1.4-fold higher

PL/LPS ratio in the OM (Fig. 3B). To our surprise, deleting *wecC* in the Δ*tolA* strain neither re-

established intermembrane PL distribution (Fig. 3A), nor restored the OM PL/LPS ratio back to

wild-type (Fig. 3B). Consistently, the Δ*tolA* and Δ*tolA* Δ*wecC* strains produced similarly high

levels of OM vesicles (Fig. 3C), a phenotype in part attributed to excess PLs in the OM [6]. Even

though the OM barrier function (restriction of vancomycin entry and periplasmic RNase I release)

has largely been restored (Fig. 2), we conclude that mutations in ECA biosynthesis do not restore

OM lipid homeostasis in cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex.

Accumulation of ECA intermediates along the biosynthetic pathway is critical for rescue of

OM barrier function in *tol-pal* strains

The initial steps of ECA biosynthesis involve successive addition of three sugar moieties (*N*-

acetyl-D-glucosamine (GlcNAc), *N*-acetyl-D-mannosaminuronic acid (ManNAcA), and 4-

acetamido-4,6-dideoxy-D-galactose (Fuc4NAc)) to the undecaprenyl phosphate (und-P) lipid

carrier to form Lipid III^{ECA} [21, 30]. After its synthesis at the inner leaflet of the IM, Lipid III^{ECA}

is flipped across the membrane by WzxE [31]. This trisaccharide repeating unit is then polymerized

by WzyE to form the complete ECA polymer, whose polysaccharide chain length is regulated by

WzzE [32, 33]. The whole ECA polymer, which is now carried on undecaprenyl pyrophosphate

(und-PP), is finally transferred to form a phosphatidyl-linked species (ECA$_{PG}$) before being

transported to the OM [34-36] (Fig. 4A). The enzymes mediating the last two steps are not known.

Of note, a small amount of ECA polymer may be found attached to LPS (ECA$_{LPS}$) or exists in a

soluble cyclic form (ECA$_{CYC}$) in the periplasm [21]. The production of these two ECA forms is

dependent on the LPS O-antigen ligase WaaL and WzzE, respectively [32, 37, 38].

We have shown that loss-of-function mutations in *wecB*, *wecC*, and *wecF* rescue vancomycin

sensitivity in *tol-pal* mutants (Fig. 1). In the $\Delta wcaJ$ $\Delta tolA$ $\Delta wecC$ strain, we showed that expressing

wecC in trans reversed the rescue (Fig. S4), indicating that the suppression is solely due to effect(s)

arising from the deletion of *wecC*. Mutations in ECA biosynthesis result in both the loss of ECA

itself and the build-up of Lipid I^{ECA} or Lipid II^{ECA} intermediates along the pathway (Fig. 4A). To

test whether ECA loss is important, we mutated *wecA*, which encodes the enzyme that catalyzes

the first committed step in ECA biosynthesis [39]. Interestingly, we found that the $\Delta tolA$ $\Delta wecA$

mutant (in the $\Delta wcaJ$ background) is equally sensitive to vancomycin as the $\Delta tolA$ mutant (Fig.

4B), suggesting that accumulation of intermediates along the ECA pathway, but not the loss of any

form of ECA (ECA$_{PG}$, ECA$_{LPS}$, or ECA$_{CYC}$), is responsible for the suppression. Consistent with

this idea, removing other ECA biosynthetic enzymes that result in accumulation of intermediates

(Lipid I^{ECA} in $\Delta wecG$, or Lipid II^{ECA} in $\Delta wecE$) fully rescues vancomycin sensitivity in the $\Delta tolA$

mutant (Fig. 4B). Importantly, rescue of vancomycin sensitivity in these strains was completely

abolished when *wecA* was subsequently deleted (Fig. 4C). We conclude that the build-up of Lipid

I^{ECA} or Lipid II^{ECA} intermediates can somehow restore OM barrier function in the absence of the

Tol-Pal complex.

We next tried to test whether mutations in later steps of ECA biosynthesis also suppress *tol-*

pal phenotypes. However, it has been reported that blocking translocation across the IM or

subsequent polymerization of Lipid III^{ECA} causes toxicity in cells. Removing WzxE, together with

WzxB, the O-antigen flippase that can also transport Lipid III^{ECA}, is lethal [31] (Fig. S5A). WzyE

is also essential for growth [32, 39] (Fig. S5B), precluding further analysis. We therefore turned

our attention to WzzE. Remarkably, deletion of *wzzE* partially rescues vancomycin sensitivity in

the Δ*tolA* mutant, and this phenotype is dependent on the presence of WecA (Fig. 5A). Cells

lacking WzzE are known to lose modality in the ECA polymer, giving rise to a more random

distribution of chain lengths [33]. We validated this observation; there are relatively higher levels

of shorter chain ECA, presumably including Lipid III^{ECA} precursors, in the Δ*wzzE* mutant (Fig.

5B). Taken together, our results suggest that build-up of short-chain or Lipid III^{ECA} intermediates

can also possibly rescue OM defects in cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex.

It has previously been reported that the terminal GlcNAc moiety attached to the *E. coli* K-12

LPS core oligosaccharide is derived from und-PP-GlcNAc (i.e. Lipid I^{ECA}) via the action of WaaL

[40, 41]. Since WaaL accepts different und-PP-linked substrates, it may be possible that

corresponding modifications of LPS can occur in strains accumulating Lipid II/III^{ECA}; these

modified LPS might contribute to restored OM barrier function in the *tol-pal* mutants. To test this

idea, we checked if the rescue of vancomycin sensitivity in the Δ*tolA* Δ*wecC* strain is dependent

on WaaL. We found that deleting *waaL* did not confer vancomycin sensitivity to the Δ*tolA* Δ*wecC*

mutant (Fig. S6), suggesting that the suppression of OM permeability defects is not due to WaaL-

dependent LPS modifications.

Suppression of OM permeability defects in *tol-pal* strains via accumulation of ECA

intermediates is independent of und-P sequestration or σ^E and Cpx stress response pathways

Recently, it has been reported that the build-up of ECA "dead-end" intermediates in a strain

with defective undecaprenyl pyrophosphate synthase (UppS) [42] can lead to sequestration of und-

P, the common precursor for many sugar polymers in the cell envelope including peptidoglycan;

this gives rise to severe shape defects such as filamentation and swelling [43]. In our strains that

express wild-type UppS and lack colanic acids, we did not observe similarly severe shape defects.

Instead, we measured primarily larger cell width in the $\Delta wecC$ mutant, which were exacerbated in

the $\Delta tolA$ background (Figs. S7A, B). The morphological changes observed in the $\Delta tolA \Delta wecC$

strain are thus a combination of defects due to the loss of Tol-Pal function [44], and und-P

sequestration caused by accumulation of ECA intermediates [43]. To test whether und-P

sequestration contributes to the rescue of vancomycin sensitivity in the $\Delta tolA \Delta wecC$ strain, we

examined if overexpression of MurA, which can alleviate und-P sequestration effects [43], could

reverse the phenotypes. As expected, MurA overexpression was able to fully and partially revert

the cell morphological defects in $\Delta wecC$ and $\Delta tolA \Delta wecC$ strains, respectively. However, doing

so did not alter vancomycin resistance in the $\Delta tolA \Delta wecC$ mutant (Fig. S7C). These data indicate

that the effect of accumulation of ECA intermediates in restoring vancomycin resistance in *tol-pal*

mutants is independent of und-P sequestration.

Accumulation of ECA intermediates, specifically Lipid II^{ECA}, is also known to stimulate the

σ^E and Cpx stress response pathways [45]. However, we did not observe significant induction or

increased stimulation of σ^E when ECA intermediates were accumulated in WT or $\Delta tolA$ strains,

respectively (Fig. S8A). Removing the Cpx pathway also did not affect vancomycin resistance in

the $\Delta tolA \Delta wzzE$ strain (Fig. S8B). We conclude that both σ^E and Cpx stress responses are also not

involved in the ability of accumulated ECA intermediates to restore the OM barrier function in *tol-*

pal mutants.

Diacylglycerol pyrophosphoryl-linked species also accumulate in ECA biosynthesis mutants

We have shown that accumulation of ECA intermediates rescues vancomycin sensitivity in

strains lacking the Tol-Pal complex. However, und-PP-linked intermediates (Lipid I/II/III^{ECA}) may

not be the only species accumulated in ECA biosynthesis mutants. In a *Salmonella* Typhimurium

Δ*rmlA* mutant, which accumulates Lipid II^{ECA}, a novel diacylglycerol pyrophosphoryl (DAG-PP)-

linked species containing the first two sugars of ECA (GlcNAc and ManNAcA) was detected at

comparable levels [46]. We therefore sought to determine whether DAG-PP-linked adducts could

also be found in our *E. coli* ECA mutants. Using high resolution mass spectrometry (MS), we

analyzed lipids extracted from cells lacking WecG, which is expected to accumulate Lipid I^{ECA}.

We demonstrated that DAG-PP-GlcNAc species are indeed present in these cells, but not in WT

(Figs. 6A, B). Specifically, we detected peaks with m/z values corresponding to DAG-PP-GlcNAc

species with various fatty acid compositions in the DAG moiety, namely 32:1 (m/z 928.4927), 34:1

(m/z 956.5243), 34:2 (m/z 954.5076), and 36:2 (m/z 982.5391); these are in fact the major DAGs

found in native PLs in *E. coli* [47]. Chemical structures of the 32:1 and 34:1 species were assigned

and elucidated based on fragmentation patterns in MS/MS (Fig. 7). Furthermore, we showed that

the same species were specifically found in the IM but not the OM of the Δ*wecG* mutant, as well

as the Δ*wecC* strain (Fig. 6C). It is worth noting that DAG-PP has one extra phosphate moiety and

is therefore structurally distinct from phosphatidic acid (i.e. diacylglycerol monophosphate or

DAG-P), the final lipid carrier of ECA; instead, the DAG-PP-GlcNAc and DAG-PP-GlcNAc-

ManNAc species [46] have been suggested as structural precursors to the MPIase glycolipid [48,

49], which is required for protein integration and translocation at the IM. How these DAG-PP-

linked species are generated is not fully understood, but their existence highlights the need to

consider possible effects of these unusual lipids in our ECA biosynthesis mutants, especially in the

context of rescuing OM barrier function in *tol-pal* strains.

Discussion

In this study, we have identified suppressor mutations that can rescue OM permeability defects in cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex, which are known to contain excess PLs in their OM [6, 50]. Mutations in ECA biosynthesis restore OM barrier function, thus blocking vancomycin entry and reducing periplasmic leakiness, in *tol-pal* mutant strains (Figs. 1, 2); however, lipid homeostasis was not restored in these strains (Fig. 3). We have demonstrated that these rescue phenotypes are due to the accumulation of intermediate species along the ECA pathway (Figs. 4, 5). Interestingly, aside from the und-PP-linked ECA intermediates, DAG-PP-linked species have also been observed (Figs. 6, 7). How the presence of these ECA-related species could result in the restoration of OM barrier function requires further investigation.

The role of ECA in the enterobacterial cell envelope is not known. Strains that do not make ECA are more sensitive to bile salts and produce more OMVs [45, 51]. Loss of cyclic ECA has also been reported to modulate OM function in strains lacking YhdP, a protein of unknown function [38]. These observations suggest that ECA has roles related to the OM. However, we have shown that loss of any form of ECA (ECA$_{PG}$/ECA$_{LPS}$/ECA$_{CYC}$) does not contribute to the restoration of OM barrier function in cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex; instead, the build-up of ECA biosynthetic intermediates is necessary for this rescue. Interestingly, accumulation of und-PP-linked intermediates (in the ECA, O-antigen, and colanic acid pathways) can lead to sequestration of und-P [43, 52], the common lipid carrier also used for peptidoglycan precursors. While this can give rise to morphological changes, the defects were not as severe in our strains (Fig. S5A), which have functional UppS and do not synthesize O-antigens and colanic acids.

Overexpression of MurA to alleviate und-P sequestration effects reduced the extent of

morphological defects but could not reverse the suppression of *tol-pal* phenotypes (Fig. S5B).

Intuitively, weakening the cell wall via und-P sequestration is unlikely to contribute to vancomycin

resistance. We therefore believe that restoration of OM phenotypes by ECA intermediates in cells

lacking the Tol-Pal complex is independent of und-P sequestration. Furthermore, the rescue

mechanism does not appear to involve the major cell envelope stress responses, including Rcs,

Cpx, and σ^E pathways (Figs. 2, S8).

One possible mechanism where accumulation of und-PP-linked ECA intermediates could

affect the physical properties of the OM is via LPS modification. The structure of LPS could affect

mechanical strength and barrier function of the OM [53]. In wild-type cells, the full length ECA

polymer can be transferred onto LPS core oligosaccharides by WaaL to form ECA$_{LPS}$ [37].

However, since deletion of either *wecA* (does not restore OM barrier function) or other *wec* genes

(restore OM barrier function) would result in the loss of full length ECA$_{LPS}$, we ruled out the role

of ECA$_{LPS}$ in rescuing the OM permeability defect. It has been reported that the GlcNAc moiety

from und-PP-GlcNAc (Lipid I^{ECA}) can itself be transferred onto LPS in a WaaL-dependent manner

[40, 41]. We reasoned it is likely that the incomplete sugar subunits on Lipid II/III^{ECA} could also

be ligated onto LPS, therefore affecting the physical properties of the OM via LPS modification.

However, we showed that deletion of *waaL* in strains that accumulate ECA intermediates did not

reverse the suppression of OM permeability defects in the *tol-pal* mutant (Fig. S6). Therefore, the

rescue of OM defects by ECA mutations in *tol-pal* strains is unlikely due to WaaL-dependent LPS

modifications.

While und-PP-linked intermediates are expected to be accumulated in ECA mutants, we and

others have also observed the corresponding DAG-PP-linked species [46]. Specifically, DAG-PP-

GlcNAc and DAG-PP-GlcNAc-ManNAc species have been detected in strains known to

accumulate und-PP-GlcNAc (Lipid I^{ECA}) (Fig. 6) and und-PP-GlcNAc-ManNAc (Lipid II^{ECA}) [46],

respectively. Intriguingly, these unusual DAG-PP-linked species have been suggested to be

precursors for the membrane protein integrase (MPIase) glycolipid, which in fact has a polymer of

9-11 trisaccharide units (identical to the ECA sugars) linked to the DAG-PP carrier [48]. It has

been shown that MPIase is important for driving integration of membrane proteins into the IM,

and also Sec-dependent translocation of periplasmic and OM proteins across the membrane [48,

54]. MPIase biosynthesis has been shown to require the activity of CdsA [49], the CDP-

diacylglycerol synthase critical for PL synthesis; however, despite the identical trisaccharide units,

this process appears to be independent of the ECA pathway [55]. Consequently, it is not clear how

and why DAG-PP-linked species, the presumed precursors to MPIase, would accumulate in ECA

biosynthesis mutants. Regardless, we need to consider possible effects of these unusual lipids. We

therefore speculate that these DAG-PP-linked species detected in our suppressor strains might

somehow modulate the essential membrane protein integration or protein translocation functions

of MPIase, possibly affecting a broad spectrum of pathways, and thus indirectly resulting in

restored OM barrier function even in the event of lipid dyshomeostasis. The interesting

connections between ECA, DAG-PP-linked species, and MPIase, remain to be clarified.

Cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex exhibit both cell division and OM stability/permeability

defects. The cell division defect, which is more apparent under extreme osmolarity conditions, is

thought to be a problem in OM invagination [19] but recently shown to be also related to

incomplete septal cell wall separation [20]. The OM defects are largely independent of cell division

[20], and likely due to lipid dyshomeostasis, where excess PLs accumulate in the OM [6]. While

excess PLs in the OM necessarily affect lipid asymmetry [6] and result in PL bilayer patches that

can allow diffusion of hydrophobic molecules, it is unclear how that would increase permeation of

large hydrophilic molecules, such as vancomycin and RNase I, across the OM. One possibility is

that having more PLs in the OM alters physical properties such as membrane tension and rigidity.

These effects could in turn result in the appearance of transient "cracks" in the bilayer, which have

been suggested to allow the passage of large hydrophilic compounds [56, 57]. Vancomycin can

also cross the OM via the lumen of large porins, if unplugged [22]. Therefore, another possibility

is that the changes in lipid composition in the OM of cells lacking the Tol-Pal complex may affect

the structure and function of specific large OM porins, causing them to become leaky. How the

accumulation of und-PP-linked ECA intermediates and/or DAG-PP-linked species restores OM

barrier function against large hydrophilic molecules remains unclear; however, these species might

affect other yet-to-be-identified pathways (e.g. MPIase function), possibly indirectly modifying

OM physical properties or porin function. The unappreciated roles of ECA-related species in OM

biology should be thoroughly investigated.

Experimental Procedures

Strains and growth conditions. All the strains used in this study are listed in Table S2. *Escherichia coli* strain MC4100 [*F⁻ araD139 Δ(argF-lac) U169 rpsL150 relA1 flbB5301 ptsF25 deoC1 ptsF25 thi*] [58] was used as the wild-type (WT) strain for most of the experiments. NR754, an *araD⁺* revertant of MC4100 [59], was used as the WT strain for experiments involving depletion of *wzxE* or *wzyE* from the arabinose-inducible promoter (P$_{BAD}$). Gene deletion mutants were constructed using recombineering [39, 60] or obtained from the Keio collection [39]. Whenever needed, the antibiotic resistance cassettes were flipped out as described [39, 60]. Gene deletion cassettes were transduced into relevant genetic background strains via P1 transduction [61]. The unmarked and chromosomal *wecC** allele was constructed using a negative selection technique [24]. Luria-Bertani (LB) broth (1% tryptone and 0.5% yeast extract, supplemented with 1% NaCl) and agar were prepared as previously described [61]. When appropriate, kanamycin (kan; 25 µg ml⁻¹), chloramphenicol (cm; 30 µg ml⁻¹), ampicillin (amp; 200 µg ml⁻¹) and spectinomycin (spec; 50 µg ml⁻¹) were added.

Plasmid construction. Plasmids used in this study are listed in Table S3. Desired genes were amplified from MC4100 chromosomal DNA using the indicated primers (sequences in Table S4). Amplified products were digested with indicated restriction enzymes (New England Biolabs), which were also used to digest the carrying vector. After ligation, recombinant plasmids were transformed into competent NovaBlue (Novagen) cells and selected on LB plates containing

appropriate antibiotics. DNA sequencing (Axil Scientific, Singapore) was used to verify the

sequence of the cloned gene.

Generation of suppressor mutations and genome sequencing. To isolate spontaneous

suppressor mutants, 10^9 BW25113 Δ*tol-pal*[#] cells were plated on LB agar plate supplemented with

vancomycin (250 μg/ml) and incubated at 37°C for 48 h. Individual colonies were picked and

restreaked on similar plates to verify their vancomycin resistance properties. 36 separate strains

were isolated. To identify the genetic location of mutations, whole genome sequencing was

performed. Purified genomic DNA was sheared to approximately 300 bp using a focused

ultrasonicator (Covaris). A sequencing library was prepared using the TruSeq DNA PCR Free Kit

(Illumina) according to the manufacturer's instructions. This was sequenced using a HiSeq 4000

with 2×151 bp reads. Raw FASTQ files were mapped to the *E. coli* W3110 genome sequence

(NC_007779.1) using bwa (version 0.7.10) [62]; indel realignment and SNP (single nucleotide

polymorphism) calling was performed using Lofreq* (version 2.1.2) with default parameters [63].

Resulting variants were assigned to associated genes and amino acid changes using the Genbank

Refseq W3110 annotation.

Antibiotic sensitivity assay. Sensitivity against different antibiotics was judged by efficiency of

plating (EOP) analyses on LB agar plates containing indicated concentrations of drugs. Briefly, 5-

ml cultures were grown (inoculated with overnight cultures at 1:100 dilution) in LB broth at 37°C

until OD_{600} reached ~0.6. Cells were normalized according to OD_{600}, first diluted to $OD_{600} = 0.1$

($\approx 10^8$ cells), and then serially diluted in LB with six 10-fold dilutions using 96-well microtiter

plates (Corning). Two microliters of the diluted cultures were manually spotted onto the plates and

incubated overnight at 37˚C.

RNase I leakage assay. Measurement of RNase I leakiness was performed using a plate assay as

described before [64]. Briefly, 5-ml cultures were grown (inoculated with overnight cultures at

1:100 dilution) in LB broth at 37˚C until OD_{600} reached ~0.6. Cells were normalized to $OD_{600} =$

0.001, and 2 μl ($\approx$2,000 cells) were manually spotted onto LB agar plates containing 1.9 mg/ml

yeast RNA extract (Sigma). The plates were incubated overnight at 37˚C. To precipitate and

visualize RNA, the plates were overlaid with cold (12.5% v/v) trichloroacetic acid.

Microscopy. 5-ml cultures were grown (inoculated with overnight cultures at 1:2000 dilution) in

LB broth at 37˚C until OD_{600} reached ~0.5 – 0.6. For FM1-43 (Invitrogen) labelling, 1 μg/ml final

concentration of the probe was added to 100 μl of bacterial culture before imaging. For

vancomycin-BODIPY FL (Invitrogen) labelling, cell cultures were incubated with 10 μg/ml final

concentration of the probe for 15 minutes and washed one time with 1 ml fresh LB before

resuspended into 200 μl LB. For all experiments, 5 μl of final cell culture were spotted onto freshly

prepared 1% LB agarose pads. Images were acquired using a Zeiss LSM710 confocal microscope

at 100x magnification. Cells lengths and widths were measured with Image J [65] and result plotted

using the *ggplot2* package in R.

σ^E **reporter assay.** Strains with plasmid expressing *rpoH*P3::*gfp* or promoterless *gfp* were grown

to mid-logarithmic phase ($OD_{600} \approx 0.4$-0.6), then normalized and re-suspended in 150 mM NaCl.

Fluorescence level (Ex: 485 nm and Em: 535 nm) of equal amount of cells were measured for each

strain using the Victor X4 plate reader (Perkin Elmer). Relative levels of σ^E activation correlates

with the expression of GFP due to specific activation of *rpoH*P3 promoter and were determined

by normalizing the fluorescence level in strains with *rpoH*P3::*gfp* to the basal fluorescence level

in strains expressing *gfp* without promoter. Data from three independent experiments were

collected and normalized to the σ^E activation level in WT.

Membrane lipid composition analyses. Experiments to determine steady-state radiolabeled PL

distributions in IMs/OMs and PL/LPS ratios in OMs were adapted from methods previously

described with some changes [6]. Briefly, 10 ml cultures were grown in LB broth (inoculated from

overnight culture to a starting OD_{600} of 0.05) containing [^{32}P]-disodium phosphate (final 1 μCi ml$^-$

^{1}; Perkin Elmer product no. NEX011001MC) until mid-log phase (OD_{600} ~0.5–0.7). Cells were

harvested by centrifugation at $4700 \times g$ for 10 min, re-suspended in 5 ml of TBS (20 mM pH 8.0

Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl), and centrifuged again as above. Resulting cell pellets were re-suspended

in 5 ml of 20% sucrose in 10mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0 (w/w) containing 1 mM PMSF and 50 μg

ml^{-1} DNase I), and lysed by a single passage through a high pressure French press (French Press

G-M, Glen Mills) homogenizer at 8000 psi. Unbroken cells were removed by centrifugation at

$4700 \times g$ for 10 min. The cell lysate was collected, and 5.5 ml of cell lysate was layered on top of

a two-step sucrose gradient consisting of 40% sucrose solution (5 ml) layered on top of 65%

sucrose solution (1.5 ml) at the bottom of the tube. Samples were centrifuged at 36 000 rpm for 16

h in a Beckman SW41 rotor in an ultracentrifuge (Model XL-90, Beckman). 0.8-ml fractions

(usually 15 fractions) were manually collected from the top of each tube. IM and OM fractions

were pooled and diluted with TBS before centrifugation at 36 000 rpm for one hour in the Beckman

SW41 rotor to concentrate the membrane. The resulting membrane pellets (not visible) were

resuspended in 320 µl TBS for subsequent extraction of PLs (IM) or PLs and LPS (OM). Protocol

for the extraction of PLs and LPS had been described previously [6]. Dried PLs were resuspended

in 50 µl of a mixture of chloroform:methanol (2:1); while dried LPS pellets were resuspended in

50 µl 1% SDS. Equal volumes of PL or LPS solutions were mixed with 2 ml of Ultima Gold

scintillation fluid (Perkin Elmer, Singapore) and [^{32}P]-counts were measured using scintillation

counting (MicroBeta$^{2®}$, Perkin-Elmer). For each strain, scintillation counts of OM PLs were

divided by the total counts of IM PLs and OM PLs to obtain the percentage of OM PLs distribution;

while scintillation counts of OM PLs were divided by the counts of OM LPS to obtain the PL/LPS

ratio.

Quantification of OM vesiculation. For each strain, 10-ml cells were grown at 37°C in LB broth

(inoculated from an overnight culture at 1:100 dilution) containing [1-^{14}C]-acetate (final 0.2 µCi

ml^{-1}; Perkin Elmer product no. NEC084A001MC) until OD600 reached ~0.7. At this OD, cultures

were harvested to obtain the cell pellets, and supernatants containing OM vesicles. Cell pellets

were washed twice with 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0 and finally suspended in the same buffer (0.2

ml). To obtain OM vesicles, supernatants were filtered through 0.45 µm filters followed by

ultracentrifugation in a SW41.Ti rotor at 39,000 rpm for 1 h. Finally, the OM vesicles in the

resulting pellets were washed and re-suspended in 0.2 ml 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0 buffer.

Radioactive counts in cell pellets and OM vesicles were measured after mixing with 2 ml of Ultima

Gold scintillation fluid (Perkin Elmer, Singapore). Radioactivity ($[^{14}C]$-count) was measured on a

scintillation counter (MicroBeta$^{2®}$, Perkin-Elmer)

Lipid extraction and liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) analysis. To

prepare the lipid extracts, a modified Bligh and Dyer method was used as described previously

[66]. Briefly, bacterial pellets were resuspended in PBS, and chloroform:methanol (1:2, v/v) was

added. The mixture was vortexed thoroughly before incubation with shaking at 1,000 rpm, 4°C.

Subsequently, water and chloroform were added to each sample to generate a two-phase Bligh-

Dyer mixture. The two phases were separated via centrifugation and the lower organic phase was

collected in a new tube. The aqueous phase was re-extracted twice with chloroform, and all the

organic extracts pooled and dried using a Centrivap and stored at -80°C until use.

The lipid samples were reconstituted in chloroform:methanol (1:1, v/v) and analyzed using a

high performance chromatography system (1260 Agilent Infinity Quaternary Pump) coupled to an

SCIEX QTOF 6600 mass spectrometer in negative electrospray ionization mode. Mass calibration

is performed every 5 h, using the automated calibration solution (SCIEX, Canada). For lipid

separation, normal phase chromatography was performed as previously described [66]. For

characterization of the DAG-PP species using tandem mass spectrometry, multiple collision

energies ranging from -55 V to -85 V were used. MS and MS/MS spectra obtained were visualized

using Peak View (SCIEX) and graphical representations of the selected peaks of interests were

plotted using sigmaplot v10.0.

SDS-PAGE and immunoblotting. SDS-PAGE was performed according to Laemmli using the

12% or 15% Tris.HCl gels [67]. For ECA, cell samples were treated with proteinase K (0.25 mg/ml)

at 55ºC for 1 h before loading and resolving on 10% Tricine SDS-PAGE gels. Immunoblotting was

performed by transferring from the gels onto polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membranes (Immun-

Blot® 0.2 μm, Bio-Rad) using the semi-dry electroblotting system (Trans-Blot® TurboTM

Transfer System, Bio-Rad). Membranes were blocked using 1X casein blocking buffer (Sigma).

Rabbit α-LptE (from Daniel Kahne) was used at 1:5000 dilutions. Rabbit polyclonal α-ECA$_{CYC}$

antisera (generous gift from Jolanta Lukasiewicz), which reacts with all forms of ECA (ECA$_{CYC}$,

ECA$_{LPS}$, ECA$_{PG}$), was used at 1:800 dilution [68]. Mouse monoclonal α-LPS antibody (against

LPS-core) was purchased from Hycult biotechnology and used at 1:5,000 dilutions. α-mouse IgG

secondary antibody conjugated to HRP (from sheep) and α-rabbit IgG secondary antibody

conjugated to HRP (from donkey) were purchased from GE Healthcare and used at 1:5,000

dilutions. Luminata Forte Western HRP Substrate (Merck Milipore) was used to develop the

membranes and chemiluminescent signals were visualized by G:BOX Chemi XT 4 (Genesys

version1.3.4.0, Syngene).

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Author contributions

X.E.J., W.B.T., and R.S. performed most of the experiments described in this work; S.L.C. analyzed the whole genome sequencing data of suppressor mutants; D.C.C.S. and X.L.G. performed the MS experiments; S.-S.C. directed and supervised the work; X.E.J., R.S., W.B.T., and S.-S.C. analyzed the data and wrote the paper; all authors provided critical feedback of the manuscript.

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Fig. 1 Loss-of-function mutations in the ECA pathway rescue vancomycin sensitivity in *tol-pal*

mutants. Vancomycin sensitivity of indicated *tol-pal* strains with or without (A) *wecC**, (B)

Δ*wecC*, and (D) Δ*wecB*/Δ*wecF* mutations based on efficiency of plating (EOP) on LB agar plates

supplemented with vancomycin (120 μg/ml). (C) ECA levels in wild-type (WT) and Δ*tolA* strains

with or without *wecC** and Δ*wecC* mutations as judged by immunoblot analysis using α-ECA

antibody. Samples were normalized by OD_{600} and treated with proteinase K prior to Tricine SDS-

PAGE/immunoblotting.

Fig. 2 Restoration of OM permeability defects by Δ*wecC* in cells lacking TolA does not require

the Rcs phosphorelay cascade and/or capsular polysaccharide biosynthesis. (A) Vancomycin

sensitivity of indicated strains in either Δ*rcsC* or Δ*wcaJ* backgrounds based on EOP on LB agar

plates supplemented with vancomycin (120 μg/ml). (B) RNase I leakage in the same strains as (A),

as judged by RNA degradation (halo formation) around cells spotted on LB agar plates containing

yeast RNA, subsequently precipitated with trichloroacetic acid. (C) Confocal microscopy images

of indicated strains (Δ*wcaJ* background) after incubation with BODIPY FL vancomycin. (Right)

Quantification of the percentage of cells circumferentially labelled with BODIPY FL vancomycin

from different field of view (n = 6); error bars represent standard deviation. Student's t-tests: **,

$p < 0.005$ (as compared to WT, unless otherwise indicated).

Fig. 3 *ΔwecC* mutation does not restore OM lipid homeostasis in cells lacking TolA. (A) Steady-

state [^{32}P]-labelled PL distribution profiles of indicated *ΔwcaJ* strains. Cells were grown in the

presence of [^{32}P]-phosphate to label PLs in the IMs and OMs. [^{32}P]-scintillation counts detected in

PLs extracted from IM and OM fractions were expressed as a percentage of their sums, averaged

across three replicate experiments. (B) Steady-state PL:LPS ([^{32}P]-phosphate labelled) ratios in the

OMs of indicated *ΔwcaJ* strains. Arbitrary OM PL:LPS ratios were calculated based on [^{32}P]-

scintillation counts detected from PL or LPS, differentially extracted from the OM fractions of the

indicated strains. (C) Steady-state distribution of [^{14}C]-acetate-labelled lipids found associated

with cells (total membranes) or OM vesicles for the indicated strains. Error bars represent standard

deviations calculated from triplicate experiments. Student's t-tests: ∗, $p < 0.05$; ∗∗, $p < 0.005$; NS,

not significant (as compared to WT, unless otherwise indicated).

Fig. 4 Accumulation of ECA biosynthetic intermediates restores vancomycin resistance in cells

lacking TolA. (A) Schematic of the ECA biosynthetic pathway illustrating und-PP-GlcNAc-

ManNAcA-Fuc4NAc (Lipid III^{ECA}) synthesis at the inner leaflet of IM, and subsequent

polymerization at the outer leaflet. The final ECA polymer (ECA$_{PG}$) is attached to a

phosphoglyceride (i.e. diacylglycerol-phosphate (DAG-P) aka phosphatidic acid) and transported

to the OM. Chemical structures of und-PP and DAG-P anchors are shown. (B, C) Vancomycin

sensitivity of the Δ*wcaJ* Δ*tolA* strain with or without indicated *wec* mutations in otherwise (B) WT

or (C) Δ*wecA* backgrounds, based on efficiency of plating (EOP) on LB agar plates supplemented

with vancomycin (120 ug/ml).

Fig. 5 Partial accumulation of Lipid III^{ECA} and/or short chain ECA rescues vancomycin sensitivity in cells lacking TolA. (A) Vancomycin sensitivity of the $\Delta wcaJ \Delta tolA$ strain with or without $\Delta wzzE$ mutation in otherwise WT or $\Delta wecA$ backgrounds, based on efficiency of plating (EOP) on LB agar plates supplemented with vancomycin (120 ug/ml). (B) ECA profiles in the indicated $\Delta wcaJ$ strains as judged by immunoblot analysis using α-ECA antibody. Samples were normalized by OD_{600} and treated with proteinase K prior to Tricine SDS-PAGE/immunoblotting. Profiles in strains progressively depleted of *wzyE* are used to visualize accumulation of Lipid III^{ECA}. Relative band intensities from ECA profiles of WT, $\Delta wzzE$, and *wzyE*-depleted (*) strains are shown on the right.

Fig. 6 Strains lacking WecG or WecC accumulate DAG-PP-GlcNAc species in the IM. (A) Ion

chromatogram (XIC) of 34:1 DAG-PP-GlcNAc (m/z 956.5243) extracted from LC-MS analyses

of total lipids isolated from indicated Δ*wcaJ* strains. Inset, XICs of corresponding 32:1 (m/z

928.4927), 34:2 (954.5076) and 36:1 (m/z 982.5391) species. (B) Mass spectra obtained from

integration of XIC peak region in (A) of Δ*wcaJ* (WT) and Δ*wcaJ* Δ*wecG* strains. WT peaks (black)

are overlaid on top of Δ*wecG* peaks (red), illustrating unique DAG-PP-GlcNAc signals in the latter

strain. (C) XICs of 34:1 DAG-PP-GlcNAc (m/z 956.5243) extracted from LC-MS analyses of IM

lipids isolated from indicated Δ*wcaJ* strains. Inset, XICs of the same species from OM lipids.

A

B

C

790   **Fig. 7** The chemical structures of DAG-PP-GlcNAc species are deduced from MS fragmentation

791   analysis. (A) Proposed fragmentation pattern with mass assignments of 32:1 and 34:1 DAG-PP-

792   GlcNAc species. (B and C) MS/MS spectra of (B) 32:1 and (C) 34:1 DAG-PP-GlcNAc species at

793   indicated collision energies. Spectrum at high collision energy (-75 V, red) is overlaid on top of

794   that at low collision energy (-55 V, black).