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The Intimin periplasmic domain mediates dimerisation and binding to peptidoglycan

18

## 19 SUMMARY

20 Intimin and Invasin are prototypical inverse (Type Ve) autotransporters and important virulence factors 21 of enteropathogenic Escherichia coli and Yersinia spp., respectively. In addition to a C-terminal 22 extracellular domain and a  $\beta$ -barrel transmembrane domain, both proteins also contain a short N-23 terminal periplasmic domain that, in Intimin, includes a lysin motif (LysM), which is thought to mediate 24 binding to peptidoglycan. We show that the periplasmic domain of Intimin – but not the shorter domain 25 of Invasin – does bind to peptidoglycan both in vitro and in vivo, but only under acidic conditions. We 26 present the solution structure of the Intimin LysM, which has an additional, potentially functionally 27 relevant  $\alpha$ -helix compared to other LysMs. In contrast to previous reports, we demonstrate that the 28 periplasmic domain of Intimin mediates dimerisation. Our data suggests that the periplasmic domain 29 contains two dimerisation interfaces. We further show that dimerisation and peptidoglycan binding are 30 general features of LysM-containing inverse autotransporters. The periplasmic domain could be involved 31 in autotransport, and peptidoglycan binding may aid in resisting mechanical and chemical stress during 32 transit through the gastrointestinal tract.

33

### 35 INTRODUCTION

36 An often essential first step in host colonization by bacterial pathogens is the adherence of bacteria to 37 host cells and tissues. This binding is mediated by various adhesins, many of which are proteinaceous 38 molecules expressed on the cell surface. Intimin (Int) is a major adhesin of enteropathogenic and 39 enterohaemorrhagic Escherichia coli (EPEC and EHEC) and is instrumental in the formation of actin 40 pedestals leading to attaching and effacing (A/E) lesions on enterocytes (Schmidt, 2010). It is a 41 homologue of Invasin (Inv) from enteropathogenic Yersinia spp., which mediates direct binding to host cells via  $\beta_1$  integrins (Leo and Skurnik, 2011). However, unlike Inv, Int does not bind primarily to a 42 43 cellular receptor; rather, the Int receptor Tir is produced by the bacteria themselves and transferred to 44 the host cell membrane through the type 3 secretion system (Schmidt, 2010).

45 The extracellular domain of Intimin consists of tandem immunoglobulin (Ig)-like domains capped by a C-46 type lectin domain (Kelly et al., 1999). The Tir-binding region is located in the C-terminal superdomain 47 consisting of the last Ig domain and the lectin domain (Luo et al., 2000). The extracellular portion of 48 Invasin has a similar structure (Hamburger et al., 1999), and the integrin-binding region is also located at 49 the C-terminal tip of the protein (Leong et al., 1990). The extracellular or passenger domain of both 50 proteins is exported by a type Ve or inverse autotransport mechanism: a 12-stranded transmembrane  $\beta$ -51 barrel N-terminal to the passenger domain acts as a translocation pore which facilitates the secretion of 52 the passenger domain across the outer membrane (Oberhettinger et al., 2012; Leo et al., 2012; Fairman 53 et al., 2012).

In addition to the passenger and translocation domains, both proteins contain a small N-terminal periplasmic domain, also referred to as the  $\alpha$ -domain (Tsai *et al.*, 2010). In Int, the periplasmic domain contains a lysin motif (LysM) found in many peptidoglycan-binding proteins (Buist *et al.*, 2008). The LysM is a small domain consisting of a 2-stranded anti-parallel  $\beta$ -sheet packed against two  $\alpha$ -helices with the topology  $\beta$ - $\alpha$ - $\alpha$ - $\beta$  (Bateman and Bycroft, 2000). LysMs usually bind to the N-acetylglucosamine moieties in peptidoglycan (PGN) and chitin, or other carbohydrate structures (Buist *et al.*, 2008). In contrast to Int, the Inv periplasmic region lacks a LysM.

Due to the presence of a LysM in the Int periplasmic domain, it has long been suspected that the periplasmic domain would mediate binding to PGN (*e.g.* Bateman and Bycroft, 2000; Tsai *et al.*, 2010; Pisano *et al.*, 2012). However, up to now, this hypothesis has not been experimentally validated. In this study, we show that the periplasmic domain of Int does indeed bind PGN, but only under acidic

conditions. In addition, we show that the periplasmic domain mediates dimerisation of Int. In contrast, the shorter periplasmic domain of Inv has neither of these functions. We also present a solution structure of the Int LysM and show that dimerisation and PGN binding are conserved functions of LysMs of inverse autotransporters. Dimerisation appears to be an important feature for the virulence function of these proteins. Our results show that the periplasmic domain of type Ve autotransporters are functional and may be involved in stabilising the cell envelope and virulence functions.

## 71 **RESULTS**

## 72 Bioinformatic analysis of periplasmic domains from inverse autotransporters

73 Secondary structure prediction of the Int sequence using software of the online Bioinformatics Toolkit of 74 the Max-Planck Institute for Developmental Biology (<u>http://toolkit.tuebingen.mpg.de/</u>) reveals that the 75 periplasmic domain contains the LysM motif, consisting of a small  $\beta$ -sheet packed against two  $\alpha$ -helices, 76 followed C-terminally by two closely spaced  $\alpha$ -helices (Fig. 1A). There is an unstructured loop of 77 approximately 30 residues linking the LysM domain to the first of the C-terminal helices, which we call 78 the spacer sequence. The periplasmic domain of Inv also contains the helices, but lacks the LysM motif 79 (Fig. 1A). An alignment of selected members of the Inv-Int family periplasmic domains shows that the C-80 terminal helices are conserved, whereas the LysM motif is only present in some members of the family 81 (Fig. S1). Similar results were also obtained in an earlier study (Tsai *et al.*, 2010).

82 To investigate the distribution of different types of periplasmic domains within inverse autotransporters, 83 we performed clustering analysis of the periplasmic domain sequences using CLANS (Frickey and Lupas, 2004). A total of 172 sequences were included in the clustering (Table S1), and after singletons 84 85 (sequences with P-values for BLAST high-scoring segment pairs higher than 0.99) were removed 152 86 sequences remained. The results (Fig. 1B) show that the periplasmic domains cluster largely based on 87 taxonomic distribution rather than length or the presence of the LysM motif. Most of the sequences 88 were derived from the  $\gamma$ -Proteobacteria, especially the Enterobacteriaceae, which form a large cluster. 89 Int is located close to the centre of this cluster, whereas Inv is located more peripherally (Fig. 1B). Other 90 distinct clusters are formed by cyanobacterial sequences and sequences from the  $\beta$ -proteobacterial 91 genus Bordetella. Interestingly, periplasmic domains from the cyanobacterial genus Synechococcus form 92 two distinct clusters that are only distantly connected to the enterobacterial cluster; however, as the 93 synechococcal sequences are all very short, the separate clusters may be artefactual. The sizes of the 94 sequences do not have a large effect on the clustering, as both large and small sequences are found in

95 the same clusters (Fig. S2A). The LysM appears restricted to the large γ-proteobacterial cluster, as it was 96 not detected in any of the other groups (Fig. 1C). The presence of the LysM domain can to some degree 97 be predicted based on the length of the protein sequence; however, the correlation is not absolute and 98 there are several large members of the family lacking the LysM motif (Fig. S2B). The prevalence of LysMs 99 in large inverse autotransporters suggests that the LysM may be involved in the autotransport process, 100 possibly stabilising translocation intermediates during secretion.

#### 101 The Int periplasmic domain mediates dimerisation

102 In thas been reported to form dimers via its  $\beta$ -barrel domain (Touzé et al., 2004). However, the Int  $\beta$ -103 barrel crystallises as a monomer (Fairman et al., 2012). This suggested to us that the dimerisation might 104 be mediated by the periplasmic domain, which was included in the construct used by Touzé et al (2004). 105 To test this, we produced the periplasmic domains of Int (from EPEC) and Inv (from Y. enterocolitica) as 106 maltose-binding protein (MBP) fusions, named IntPeri-MBP and InvPeri-MBP, with the MBP as a C-107 terminal fusion and a hexahistidine tag on the N-termini of the periplasmic domains. The constructs are 108 depicted schematically in Fig. 2A, and all plasmids used in the study are summarised in Table 1. IntPeri-109 MBP in particular is unstable, and degradation products were observed in cell lysates (data not shown); 110 however, we were able to purify the proteins to high purity by passing the proteins through both a 111 nickel and amylose column followed by size exclusion chromatography (SEC).

When we performed analytical SEC at physiological pH (7.4.), MBP and InvPeri-MBP run at the expected sizes of the monomer, whereas IntPeri-MBP gives two peaks: the major peak migrates at an apparent size slightly larger than the dimer and the smaller peak at the expected molecular weight of the monomer (Fig. 2B). Both peaks contain Int-MBP, suggesting an equilibrium between monomeric and dimeric forms. Indeed, when we reran the major peak through the SEC column, a similar distribution for dimer and monomer was observed (Fig. S3A).

To further characterise the region in the periplasmic domain responsible for dimerisation, we fused short fragments of the Int periplasmic domain to MBP (Fig. 2A). These fragments were the LysM domain along with the spacer sequence (IntLysM-MBP), the two C-terminal helices (IntPeriHelix1-MBP) or just the second, C-terminal helix (IntPeriHelix2-MBP). In SEC, IntLysM-MBP migrates as a dimer, whereas the other two constructs run as a monomer (Fig. 2C). This suggests that the N-terminal region of the periplasmic domain is the dimerisation interface.

124 Touzé and coworkers showed that the  $\beta$ -barrel and flanking regions (residues 189-550) contains a 125 dimerisation site (Touzé et al., 2004). As the β-barrel itself is monomeric, Fairman et al. speculated that 126 the dimerisation interface would either be in the periplasmic region or the first extracellular Ig-like 127 domain (D00) (Fairman et al., 2012). Our results above suggest a dimerisation site in or near the LysM. 128 We therefore produced and purified the D00 domain and tested its oligomerisation status by SEC. The 129 domain ran as a monomer (Fig. S4). Thus, the dimerisation observed by Touzé et al must be due to the 130 short stretch preceding the  $\beta$ -barrel domain (residues 189-209). This corresponds to C-terminal helix in 131 the periplasmic domain (Helix2). This helix failed to dimerise when fused to MBP, but it is possible that 132 the helix is not correctly folded outside its native context. We therefore submit that the Int periplasmic 133 domain contains two dimerisation interfaces, the LysM region and Helix2, though the latter only 134 mediates dimer formation when fused to the  $\beta$ -barrel.

## 135 The periplasmic domains of Int and Inv promote surface display of the passenger domain

To investigate the relevance of the periplasmic domain under *in vivo* conditions, we produced deletion mutants of Inv and Int in *E. coli*. We used full-length, wild-type (wt) Int and a construct missing the entire periplasmic domain (Int $\Delta$ Peri). We did the same for Inv (Inv wt and Inv $\Delta$ Peri), and bacteria with the empty vector (pASK-IBA2) acted as our negative control. In addition, we made two chimaeric constructs: IntPeri-Inv, where the periplasmic domain of Inv was switched to that of Int, and InvPeri-Int, where the Int periplasmic domain was replaced with the Inv periplasmic domain. These constructs are summarized schematically in Fig. 3A.

To determine whether the truncations had a major effect on Int biogenesis, we examined the surface display of the Int passenger by both fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) and immunofluorescence microscopy. Both Int wt and Inv wt were exported to the surface (Fig. 3B). The  $\Delta$ Peri constructs were also surface-exposed but displayed a bimodal distribution, with a part of the population exhibiting lower fluorescence. This may be due to impaired secretion of the passenger domain. In contrast, the chimaeras were more fluorescent than the corresponding wt constructs, suggesting higher expression levels or more efficient surface display. The reason for this is unclear.

We also examined the effect of the truncations and domain switching on adhesion and induction of interleukin (IL)-8. For Int, we performed qualitative adhesion assays, where we examined the adherence of the omp2 strain containing the Int constructs to HeLa cells that had been preinfected with a  $\Delta eaeA$ EPEC strain to prime the cells with Tir (Oberhettinger *et al.*, 2012). The wild-type construct adhered strongly to preinfected cells, but not to uninfected cells (Fig. 3C). However, Int $\Delta$ Peri showed much lower adhesion than the wt, probably because of reduced surface display, but possibly also because of reduced avidity through the loss of dimer formation (Fig. 3C). The chimaeric construct InvPeri-Int promoted intermediate adhesion; stronger than Int $\Delta$ Peri, but not as strong as the wt, despite high surface exposure. We assume this is due to the lack of dimer formation and thus a loss of co-operativity in the Int-Tir interaction (Touzé *et al.*, 2004). The empty vector served as a background control.

160 For the Inv constructs, we measured the induction of IL-8 production in infected cells with an enzyme-161 linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA). Wild-type Inv induced IL-8 well over background levels, as did the 162 positive control tumor necrosis factor (TNF) (Fig. 3D). The vector control was barely above background 163 levels, and IL-8 production by Inv∆Peri was reduced compared to the wt. However, IntPeri-Inv showed 164 significantly higher induction of IL-8 than even TNF. This increase is presumably largely due to the Int 165 periplasmic domain mediating dimerisation of Inv, but the higher levels of IntPeri-Inv on the surface may 166 also have an effect (Fig. 3B). In Y. pseudotuberculosis, Inv contains an additional extracellular domain 167 (D2) that mediates self-association and leads to more efficient bacterial uptake than in Y. enterocolitica 168 (Dersch and Isberg, 1999; Dersch and Isberg, 2000). In the chimaeric IntPeri-Inv, the Int periplasmic 169 domain could thus fulfil a role similar to D2, leading to dimerisation which in turn promotes receptor 170 clustering, more efficient cell invasion and higher IL-8 levels.

#### 171 The periplasmic domain of Int, but not Inv, binds peptidoglycan in a pH-dependent manner

We performed pull-down assays with our MBP fusions using purified PGN sacculi from *E. coli* to determine whether the Int periplasmic domain binds PGN (Fig. 4). We fortuitously found that binding was strongest at low pH: in assays performed at pH 5.0, approximately half the IntPeri-MBP fusion precipitates with the sacculi, while the MBP control remain in the supernatant (Fig. 4A). In this assay, Inv-MBP displayed only background-level binding to PGN (Fig. 4A). In the absence of PGN, all three proteins remained soluble. At normal physiological pH (7.4), however, we saw no binding of IntPeri-MBP to PGN, with most of the protein remaining in the supernatant (Fig. 4A).

To examine the effect of pH on the binding of IntPeri-MBP to PGN more systematically, we performed binding at range of pH values between 8.0 and 3.0; strong binding first became evident at pH 6.0 and the ratio of bound IntPeri-MBP to soluble protein remains constant even with reduction in pH value (Fig. 4B). In the control experiment without PGN sacculi, the protein remains soluble at all pH values tested (Fig. 4B). We observed similar results with a glutathione-S-transferase (GST) fusion of IntPeri; however, GST itself tends to precipitate at low pH, which made interpreting these results difficult (data not
shown). Int-MBP still dimerises at pH 4.0 (Fig. S3B), demonstrating that dimerisation is independent of
pH.

Physiologically abundant divalent cations (Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, Mn<sup>2+</sup>, Zn<sup>2+</sup>) might have an effect on the binding of IntPeri to PGN. To check this, we added these ions as chloride salts to the pull-down assay, and in addition we tested the effect of the chelators ethylene diamine tetra-acetic acid (EDTA) and sodium citrate. However, neither the divalent cations nor the chelators had an effect on binding, though some of the ions, particularly Ca<sup>2+</sup>, slightly modified the pattern of migration in SDS-PAGE (Fig. 4C). We therefore conclude that the binding of IntPeri to peptidoglycan is pH-dependent but does not require divalent ions.

194 We partially digested peptidoglycan sacculi with mutanolysin and performed a competition assay with 195 the soluble digestion products. Addition of the degradation products inhibited the binding of IntPeri-196 MBP to the sacculi in a dose-dependent manner, though we did not observe complete inhibition of 197 binding to sacculi (Fig. 4D). This demonstrates that soluble muropeptides can compete for binding to 198 IntPeri-MBP. Many LysM-containing proteins also bind chitin (Buist et al., 2008). We therefore ran 199 IntPeri-MBP, InvPeri-MBP and MBP as a control through a chitin column. However, we did not observe 200 binding for any of the constructs (Fig. 4E). This suggests that IntLysM binds to other determinants in PGN 201 than the N-acetylglucosamine – N-acetylmuramic acid backbone.

To find out which part of the periplasmic domain of Int is responsible for PGN binding, we performed pull-down assays with IntLysM-MBP, IntPeriHelix1-MBP and IntPeriHelix2-MBP (Fig. 4F). In this assay, only IntLysM-MBP coprecipitated with the sacculi in appreciable amounts, demonstrating that it is indeed the LysM that mediates PGN binding.

206 As we saw some background levels of InvPeri-MBP bound to PGN, we wished to further investigate the 207 relative affinities of InvPeri-MBP and IntPeri-MBP. To this end, we performed pull-down assays using a 208 concentration series of IntPeri-MBP and InvPeri-MBP with a constant amount of PGN. At low 209 concentrations of IntPeri-MBP, almost all the protein is pulled down with the sacculi, whereas the 210 fraction in the pellet decreases steadily with increasing protein concentration (Fig. 5A). InvPeri-MBP 211 follows a similar trend, but even at low concentrations only approximately 50% is pulled down with the 212 sacculi, and at higher concentrations less than 20% remains in the pellet (Fig. 5A). In the reverse 213 experiment, where we varied the concentration of PGN but kept the protein concentration constant,

214 only a small fraction of IntPeri-MBP precipitates with low amounts of PGN, but as the amount of PGN 215 rises, increasingly more IntPeri-MBP is found in the pellet (Fig. 5B). The increase in roughly linear, and at 216 the highest concentration tested (50  $\mu$ g), 75% of the protein is in the pellet. Again, InvPeri-MBP follows a 217 similar trend, but the increase in the fraction of pelleted protein is not as large, and at most only 30% of 218 the protein was pulled down with the sacculi (Fig. 5B). It appears that IntPeri-MBP binds with high 219 affinity to PGN, as most of the protein precipitates at low protein concentration. However, the fraction 220 of bound protein declines more or less linearly with increasing concentration of IntPeri-MBP, which we 221 interpret to mean that there are a limited number of high-affinity binding sites in the sacculi and that 222 these are quickly saturated. The amount of IntPeri-MBP scales linearly with increasing PGN, which is 223 consistent with this interpretation. However, also InvPeri-MBP follows similar trends, though the 224 binding levels are much lower than for IntPeri-MBP. When we incubated sacculi with both IntPeri-MBP 225 and InvPeri-MBP, we did not see any effect of high concentrations of InvPeri-MBP on the binding levels 226 of IntPeri-MBP, suggesting that these proteins do not compete for the same binding site(s) and that the 227 binding of InvPeri-MBP is indeed unspecific (Fig. S5). The results obtained using concentration series of 228 either protein or PGN should be viewed with caution, however, as the assays used are rather crude and 229 include washing steps which we did not take into account when calculating the relative binding, and 230 even in the absence of PGN we often observe faint background bands in the pellets (Fig. 4). In addition, 231 the pull-down assays do not cover a wide enough range to estimate reliable dissociation constants. Our 232 tentative conclusions are therefore that IntPeri-MBP binds with high affinity to a finite number of 233 binding sites, whereas a small amount of InvPeri-MBP precipitates unspecifically with the sacculi, though 234 we cannot rule out some specific but low-affinity interaction. Unfortunately, we could not use more 235 sophisticated biophysical methods such as surface plasmon resonance to more accurately estimate the 236 dissociation constants due to the difficulty of immobilising sacculi on detector chips.

## 237 The Int periplasmic domain binds to PGN in vivo

To determine whether the Int periplasmic domain can mediate PGN binding *in vivo*, we cloned the MBP fusions into pIBA2C, which contains a signal sequence for periplasmic targeting. We used chloramphenicol selection rather than ampicillin in order to avoid any structural changes to PGN. The protein was expressed in medium buffered at either pH 7.4 or pH 5.5. To see if the MBP fusion proteins bound to PGN, we extracted the periplasmic fraction by osmotic shock. All solutions were buffered at either pH 7.4 or pH 5.5. We then detected the protein by Western blot using an anti-MBP antiserum. For the whole-cell samples of IntPeri-MBP, a strong band is evident at ~65 kDa, as expected, along with a

small amount of apparent degradation products (Fig. 6A). We assume the 65 kDa band corresponds to 245 246 intact IntPeri-MBP. At pH 7.4, this band is also in the periplasmic fraction, but at pH 5.5 the 65 kDa band 247 is barely visible. InvPeri-MBP is less stable, with two stronger bands: ~50 kDa, which is presumably the 248 intact protein, and ~45 kDa, which we assume is a degradation product. Both bands are present at 249 similar levels in all samples. The vector control does not display any bands, demonstrating the specificity 250 of the antiserum, whereas in our control for periplasmic extraction (pIBA2C-MBP), the MBP band (41 251 kDa) is present in all the samples at an equal intensity. As the 65 kDa IntPeri-MBP band is present in the 252 periplasmic fraction at pH 7.4 but not at pH 5.5, we interpret this to mean that at pH 5.5, IntPeri-MBP is 253 retained in the periplasm due to PGN binding. This finding is consistent with our pull-down assays, as is 254 the observation that InvPeri-MBP is extracted at similar amounts at both pH values, which supports the 255 conclusion that it does not bind to PGN.

#### 256 Structure of the Intimin LysM

To date, there is no structural information about the inverse autotransporter periplasmic domains. To structurally characterise the periplasmic domain, we produced and purified the N-terminal region of the Int periplasmic domain (residues 40-153). We did this by producing the protein as a fusion with MBP, followed by cleaving the MBP from the Int fragment with tomato etch virus (TEV) protease. This region contains the predicted LysM domain (residues 63-114) and putative dimerisation interface (Fig. 2C). We then proceeded to solve the solution structure of this region using nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy.

264 When measuring the NMR spectra, we noted the rapid decay of several signals with shifts suggesting a 265 structured environment and the appearance of others more consistent with unstructured protein chain. 266 The signals appearing were assigned to the C-terminus of the protein, *i.e.* in the spacer sequence. 267 Despite extensive efforts, we could not obtain high-resolution structural information from the transient 268 signals, although chemical shifts suggest that this region has considerable  $\beta$ -sheet content. We conclude 269 that this structure is unstable and unfolds once the C-terminal fusion partner is removed. At equilibrium, 270 both the N-terminus (residues 40-60) and the C-terminus (residues 115-143) are disordered (Fig. 7A). 271 However, the LysM itself was well defined (Fig. 7A). The NMR constraint and refinement statistics are 272 presented in Table S2. It is noteworthy that we could not detect the dimerisation interface in NMR 273 measurements on mixtures of differentially labelled protein. This is probably due to the unfolding of the 274 spacer sequence that presumably contains the dimerisation site.

275 The overall fold of the Int LysM is the typical  $\beta \cdot \alpha \cdot \alpha \cdot \beta$  seen in other LysM structures (Fig. 7B). A C $\alpha$ 276 superposition of the various LysMs shows that the main chain conformation is largely similar (Fig. 7C), 277 with the root mean square deviation (RMSD) between the different structures and the Int LysM varying from 1.28 Å to 3.62 Å. Most of the LysM structures have an RMSD between 1.5 and 2.5 Å; the furthest 278 outliers are the hypothetical human protein SB145 (Protein database ID 2DJP) at 2.75 Å and the gpX 279 280 LysM from coliphage P2 (2LTF; (Maxwell et al., 2013)) with an RMSD of 3.62 Å. The closest structure is 281 from the putative (trans)peptidase YkuD from Bacillus subtilis (Bielnicki et al., 2006). Though there are 282 no major differences between the current LysM domain structures, the Int LysM does contain a short  $\alpha$ -283 helix connecting the structurally conserved C-terminal  $\alpha$ -helix and the C-terminal  $\beta$ -strand (Fig. 7C). 284 Though gpX some other LysMs have a helical turn in this region, these are not as long and defined as the 285 α-helix in the Int LysM. This extra helix was predicted by bioinformatics (Fig. S1), and appears conserved 286 within the inverse autotransporter LysMs, suggesting it has some function. Future work will be needed 287 to uncover the relevance of this  $\alpha$ -helix.

#### 288 **PGN binding and dimerisation are general features of LysM-containing inverse autotransporters**

289 Several inverse autotransporters from the Enterobacteriaceae contain a periplasmic LysM domain (Fig. 290 1). To test whether binding to PGN and dimerisation are general features of inverse autotransporter 291 LysMs, we cloned the LysM-containing periplasmic domain from an Inv homologue from the fish 292 pathogen Yersinia ruckeri (GI: 238705545), which we refer to as YrInv for Y. ruckeri Invasin. We 293 produced the periplasmic domain as an MBP fusion (YrInvPeri-MBP). During later purification steps, we 294 noticed that in SDS-PAGE, the band of the expected size (58 kDa) began to lose intensity and a new band 295 migrating at ~200 kDa appeared, and almost all the protein was in this higher molecular-weight band 296 after the SEC step. This suggested to us that YrInv was forming multimers stabilised by disulphide 297 bridges, which were not disrupted in our SDS-PAGE experiments because we do not routinely add 298 reducing agent to our sample buffer. When we used reducing sample buffer, all the protein previously in 299 the ~200 kDa band ran at the expected size of the monomer, showing that the multimer resulted from 300 the formation of disulphides by oxidation during purification (Figure 8A). Indeed, there is a single 301 cysteine in the periplasmic domain in the spacer sequence between the LysM and Helix1 which 302 presumably mediates the disulphide formation (Fig. 8D). When we performed analytical SEC, YrInvPeri-303 MBP migrated with an apparent size of ~240 kDa (Fig. 8B). However, if the buffer was supplemented 304 with dithiothreitol (DTT), the protein migrated with an apparent molecular weight of 91 kDa (Fig. 8B). As 305 the expected size of the monomer is 58 kDa, we interpret the 91 kDa peak to represent the dimeric form

306 of the molecule. The 240 kDa peak seen under non-reducing conditions would therefore correspond to a 307 tetrameric molecule, *i.e.* a dimer of dimers stabilised by disulphides. We are not sure whether this 308 tetramer represents the physiological quaternary structure of YrInv, as we were unable to express the 309 full-length protein in *E. coli*. Though this tetramer could be an artefact of the purification procedure, it 310 seems more likely that the tetrameric form is the physiologically relevant one, as the tetramer of YrInvPeri-MBP forms quantitatively in the presence of oxygen, and disulphides would be formed in the 311 periplasm. Interestingly, in addition to dimerising, Inv from Y. pseudotuberculosis also forms tetramers 312 313 (Dersch and Isberg, 1999), further pointing towards the interpretation of the tetramer being the 314 physiologically relevant form of YrInv.

315 We also performed pull-down assays with PGN sacculi. In the pull-down assay, approximately half the 316 protein precipitated with the sacculi at pH 5.0, similar to Int, whereas in the control reaction the protein 317 remained soluble (Fig. 8C). Addition of DTT did not have a significant effect on the amount of protein in 318 the pellet fraction, suggesting that the tetrameric form is not required for PGN binding (Fig. 8C). Interestingly, similar to Int, YrInvPeri-MBP did not bind to PGN at pH 7.4 (Fig. 8C). These results show 319 320 that also YrInv-MBP dimerises, and probably further tetramerises, and binds to PGN. This suggests that 321 dimerisation and PGN binding are general properties of LysM-containing periplasmic domains of inverse 322 autotransporters, and that the pH dependence of the PGN interaction may also be a general feature.

#### 323 DISCUSSION

#### 324 PGN binding by the Intimin LysM

325 Here, we provide the first experimental evidence to show that the Int periplasmic region has affinity for 326 PGN. In addition, we present the NMR structure of the Int LysM, giving the first structural information 327 on an inverse autotransporter periplasmic domain. Using pull-down assays with purified PGN sacculi, we 328 were able to experimentally show, for the first time, that the LysM of the Int periplasmic domain 329 mediates binding to PGN, whereas the periplasmic domain from Inv did not bind with appreciable 330 affinity. In our in vivo experiments, InvPeri-MBP was efficiently extracted from the periplasm at pH 5.5., 331 whereas IntPeri-MBP was retained. These data all point to IntPeri binding strongly to PGN, whereas 332 InvPeri binds only at low levels, which we contend represent unspecific background binding. An arguable 333 shortcoming of our experiments is that were not able to test the binding of InvPeri to PGN from Y. 334 enterocolitica. However, the composition of PGN from E. coli and Y. enterocolitica is very similar, though 335 there is some variation in the relative abundance of specific muropeptides (Quintela et al., 1995). This suggests that if Inv did bind with high affinity to PGN, we would see stronger binding in our experiments.
 This view is supported by the fact that YrInvPeri clearly does bind to PGN from *E. coli* (Fig. 7). Our
 conclusion is therefore that only LysM-containing inverse autotransporter periplasmic domains mediate
 PGN binding.

340 Most LysM-containing proteins that have been studied bind to the carbohydrate backbone of PGN, and 341 many also bind to the N-acetylglucosamine backbone of chitin. However, we did not detect any binding 342 to chitin beads. Furthermore, although we observed strong binding by IntPeri-MBP to purified sacculi, 343 the binding saturates at a rather low concentration of protein in relation to PGN (Fig. 5). This would 344 suggest that either the affinity is low, or the affinity is high and there are only a limited number of 345 binding sites available for Int. Our data points to the latter explanation; IntPeri-MBP does not bind to 346 chitin, which suggests to us that the PGN carbohydrate backbone alone is not the target of the Int LysM 347 domain, but that some particular muropeptide or combination of crosslinked PGN strands is required for 348 binding. The dimerisation of the LysM may have something to do with the specific binding: it could either position the two PGN binding sites of the dimer in such a way that the protein can optimally 349 350 interact with the specifically crosslinked strands, or dimerisation increases the affinity of the dimer for 351 PGN. In contrast to inverse autotransporters, many PGN-binding proteins contain several LysMs in 352 tandem (Buist et al., 2008). Dimerisation may thus be a mechanism to increase the number of PGN 353 binding units and thereby the strength of the interaction. We are now pursuing further characterisation 354 of the binding determinants for the Int periplasmic domain in PGN.

#### 355 The dimerisation interface(s)

356 We demonstrate here that the Int periplasmic domain is a dimerisation interface for Int. This is in 357 contrast to a previous report implicating the  $\beta$ -barrel domain as the dimerisation interface (Touzé *et al.*, 358 2004). However, Fairman *et al.* have shown that the  $\beta$ -barrel alone does not dimerise (Fairman *et al.*, 359 2012), which suggests that the dimerisation is mediated by the regions immediately upstream or 360 downstream of the  $\beta$ -barrel domain. We tested whether the N-terminal Ig-like D00 domain forms 361 dimers, but our SEC experiments show that it does not. Therefore, the dimerisation observed by Touzé 362 et al. is probably due to the C-terminal helix (Helix2) of the periplasmic domain. However, this region of 363 the periplasmic domain does not mediate dimerisation when fused N-terminally to MBP. A likely 364 explanation for this discrepancy is that Helix2 is intimately connected to the  $\beta$ -barrel domain, and 365 therefore protease-resistant, as shown by Touzé et al. (2004). When fused to MBP, these connections

are lost and the helix remains either unfolded or misfolded and thus cannot mediate dimerisation. This
 finding is supported by the observation that both IntPeri-MBP and IntHelix2-MBP were prone to
 degradation.

We also observed clear dimerisation by the LysM region alone, a finding has not been reported before. Both the full periplasmic domain and the N-terminal, LysM-containing region mediated dimerisation in SEC experiments when fused to MBP. A notable feature of these experiments was that the dimeric form was in equilibrium with the monomeric form. This is in contrast to the findings of Touzé *et al.*, who only observed obligate dimerisation of Int.

374 Though our SEC experiments show clear evidence for the N-terminal region of IntPeri mediating 375 dimerisation, unfortunately we did not observe dimers when solving the solution structure. This is most 376 likely due to the unfolding of the C-terminal spacer element upstream of the LysM. This region may 377 require a C-terminal anchor (Helix1 under native condition, or MBP in our constructs) to fold stably. The 378 instability of this region outside its native context could explain why we saw an equilibrium between the 379 dimeric and monomeric states in SEC. We thus conclude that it is not the LysM itself that is the 380 dimerisation interface, but the upstream sequence. This conclusion is supported by the fact that 381 YrInvPeri forms disulphide-bonded tetramers. The single cysteine in the periplasmic domain is located in 382 the spacer sequence, suggesting that this region is in fact the dimerisation (or oligomerisation) interface. 383 That the periplasmic domain of YrInv also mediates oligomerisation suggests that oligomer formation is 384 a general feature of LysM-containing inverse autotransporters. In the case of YrInv, the physiological 385 relevance of the disulphide-bonded tetramer remains to be determined.

In conclusion, we present a new model for Int dimerisation, where the LysM of the periplasmic domain is the dimerisation interface, with two sites for dimer formation: Helix2 and the spacer sequence between the LysM and Helix1 (Fig. 9). This is a modification of the earlier model of Touzé *et al.* (2004), which suggested that a single Int dimer interacts with two separate Tir dimers, leading to a reticular array of Int-Tir interactions and receptor clustering. This is consistent with the crystal structure of Int-Tir, where the Int monomers jut out from the Tir dimer in opposite directions (Fig. 8) (Luo *et al.*, 2000).

## 392 Biological implications

What might be the function of PGN binding in a subset of inverse autotransporters? One possibility might be to anchor the protein to specific sites in PGN and thus prevent lateral diffusion in the outer membrane. This could be useful for A/E pathogens, such as EPEC, for pedestal formation and in

396 maintaining intimate attachment to host cells. Another interesting facet of the Int-PGN interaction is the 397 dependence on low pH, which appears to be a conserved feature based on our results with YrInv. The 398 pH dependence of inverse autotransporter LysM binding suggests that charged residues are involved in 399 binding. IntPeri has a calculated isoelectric point (pl) of 8.7, and YrInvPeri has a pl of 6.1. Thus, at pH 5.0, 400 both proteins carry a net positive charge which may play a role in PGN binding. A similar result was 401 obtained for AcmD, an autolysin from Lactococcus lactis containing three LysMs, where binding to the 402 cell wall was only detected below the pl of the protein (Visweswaran et al., 2013). Interestingly, Int is 403 upregulated under acid stress (House et al., 2009). As EPEC and other A/E pathogens must travel 404 through the stomach to reach the intestine, and the pH of the periplasm closely follows the pH of the 405 extracellular medium (Wilks and Slonczewski, 2007), the periplasm will experience a significant drop in 406 pH during the pathogen's journey through the stomach. The binding to PGN may help in stabilising the 407 cell envelope and aid in acid resistance; however, our attempts to probe the acid resistance of Int-408 expressing bacteria using survival assays did not yield any conclusive results compared to control cells 409 (data not shown).

410 The function of PGN binding and dimerisation remain unclear. The model proposed by Touzé et al. 411 (2004) suggests that Int dimerisation leads to more efficient Tir clustering on the host cell membrane 412 and the initiation of downstream effects. Purified Int passenger domain can also lead to actin 413 rearrangements (Liu et al., 1999), but these experiments were carried out using a GST fusion, and GST 414 forms dimers, which could explain this observation. Bacteria expressing periplasmically truncated Int or 415 InvPeri-Int did not bind as strongly to HeLa cells as wt Int, possibly due to less surface exposure of the 416 protein in the case of Int $\Delta$ Peri, but potentially as a result of the loss of dimer formation in the case of 417 the chimaeric protein. Interestingly, a recent study showed that an Inv-Int fusion that binds to Tir failed 418 to form actin pedestals when expressed in *Citrobacter rodentium*, and that this strain was defective in 419 colonising a mouse model (Mallick et al., 2012). As this fusion lacks a dimerisation interface, it is 420 tempting to speculate that the defects are at least partially due to the protein not forming a functional 421 dimer. Dimerisation seems to be important for inverse autotransporter function, as it is widely 422 conserved within the protein family. In contrast to LysM-containing inverse autotransporters, Inv from Y. 423 pseudotuberculosis forms dimers and tetramers, but in the absence of a LysM (Dersch and Isberg, 1999). 424 The multimerisation interface is in the D2 Ig-like domain in the passenger region, which is missing in the 425 Y. enterocolitica orthologue (Dersch and Isberg, 2000). The Y. pseudotuberculosis protein is the more 426 potent invasin and promotes a stronger cellular response compared to Y. enterocolitica Inv, presumably

due to receptor clustering (Dersch and Isberg, 2000). Dimerisation of inverse autotransporters thus
appears functionally important and can occur through at least two distinct mechanisms: through
dimerisation of the periplasmic domain or by self-association of domains in the passenger region.

430 Apart from adhesion, another aspect of the biology of type Ve-secreted adhesins in which the 431 periplasmic domain might play a role is autotransport. Some of our data supports this hypothesis: 432 though deletion of the entire periplasmic domain does not abolish surface display, it does reduce it. A 433 reasonable assumption would therefore be that the conserved C-terminal helices (Helix1 and Helix2) 434 would play a role in passenger secretion. Additionally, longer inverse autotransporters are more likely to 435 include a LysM, which might also have a function in the autotransport process. Autotransporters of 436 some other classes contain periplasmic domains: a few trimeric (type Vc) autotransporters contain 437 coiled-coil periplasmic extensions, and type Vd-secreted proteins have periplasmic POTRA (polypeptide 438 transport-associated) domains (Szczesny and Lupas, 2008; Salacha et al., 2010; Arnold et al., 2010). We 439 are currently investigating the involvement of autotransporter periplasmic domains in passenger 440 secretion.

## 441 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

#### 442 Bioinformatic analyses

443 To identify periplasmic domains of inverse autotransporters, we performed a PSI-BLAST (Altschul and 444 Koonin, 1998) search with 5 iterations against the non-redundant database using either the Int or Inv 445 periplasmic domain and  $\beta$ -barrel domain sequence. We included the latter to correctly identify type Ve-446 secreted proteins, and only hits covering over 80% of the query (so as to contain sequence from both 447 the  $\beta$ -barrel and periplasmic domain) were included. The search results were pooled and duplicate hits 448 removed. The sequences were then checked manually and any clearly false positive results (*i.e.* those 449 lacking the  $\beta$ -barrel domain) were removed. The remaining sequences (many of which appear to 450 misannotated in the database) were aligned and the  $\beta$ -barrel domains removed based on the alignment. 451 To identify signal peptide cleavage sites, we submitted the sequences to Signal P 4.0 (Petersen et al., 452 2011) or Phobius (Käll et al., 2004), and the sequence N-terminal to the consensus cleavage site were 453 removed. The remaining sequences were then checked for the presence of a LysM motif using HHPred 454 (Söding et al., 2005). For clustering, we used CLANS (Frickey and Lupas, 2004) with default parameter 455 values. Alignments and secondary structure analysis were performed using programmes in the MPI 456 Bioinformatics Toolkit (Biegert *et al.*, 2006)(http://toolkit.tuebingen.mpg.de/).

#### 457 *Cloning*

458 We amplified the regions of interest from genomic DNA of E. coli O127:H6 strain 2348/69 (for Int), Y. 459 enterocolitica O:8 strain 8081 (for Inv) or Y. ruckeri strain CECT 4319 (for YrInv) using polymerase chain 460 reaction (PCR) with Phusion polymerase (Thermo Scientific). Primers were constructed to include N- and 461 C-terminal Bsal sites for cloning into vectors of the pASK-IBA series (IBA GmbH). For the periplasmic 462 domains, primers were designed to introduce an N-terminal hexahistidine tag for protein purification. 463 Primer sequences are available on request. Constructs used in this study are summarised in Table 1. For 464 producing MBP fusions, we introduced in-frame BamHI and Nhel restriction sites after the 3' end of the 465 insert by PCR-based site-directed mutagenesis (Byrappa et al., 1995). The MBP coding sequence was 466 amplified from the plasmid pMal-c2 (New England Biolabs) with primers that introduced BamHI and 467 Nhel sites to the 5' and 3'-ends, respectively. This product was then cloned into the corresponding sites 468 in the modified pIBA-ASK plasmids to produce the final fusion construct. For fusion controls, we 469 amplified MBP with primers introducing Bsal sites and cloned the PCR product into pASK-IBA33 to 470 include a C-terminal hexahistidine tag for efficient purification. To purify Int LysM alone, we amplified 471 the IntLysM-MBP insert from pIBA2-IntPeriLysM-MBP with the forward primer lacking the His tag 472 sequence. This product was then cloned into pASK-IBA33 to introduce a C-terminal His tag on the MBP 473 moiety, and a TEV site was introduced between the LysM and MBP by site-directed mutagenesis. To 474 produce domain-swapped Inv and Int constructs, we performed a two-step PCR reaction, where the 475 primers at the fusion junction where designed to overlap (Barik, 1997). Restriction enzymes were from 476 New England Biolabs, and T4 DNA ligase from Fermentas.

### 477 Bacterial strains and growth media

For cloning, all ligation reactions were transformed into chemically competent *E. coli* TOP10 (Invitrogen).
For protein overproduction in the cytoplasm, we used the expression strain BL21Gold(DE3) (Novagen).
For surface production, the BL21 derivative strain omp2 was used, which is optimised for outer
membrane protein expression (Prilipov *et al.*, 1998). Bacteria were usually grown in lysogeny broth
medium (LB) (Bertani, 1951) supplemented with ampicillin (100 µg/ml) or chloramphenicol (25 µg/ml).
For protein production, we used the buffered, rich medium ZYP (Studier, 2005) supplemented with
ampicillin as above.

#### 485 **Protein production and purification**

486 For production of MBP and MBP fusions, an overnight culture of BL21Gold transformed with the 487 required plasmid was diluted 1:100 in 1 I ZYP medium and grown to mid-log phase (OD<sub>600</sub>~0.5) at 37 °C, 488 at which time protein production was induced with anhydrotetracycline (200 ng/ml). The cultures were 489 then grown for another 3 hours at 37 °C after which the cells were harvested by centrifuging (10 490 minutes 5000 x g) and then resuspended in Ni binding buffer (20 mM sodium phosphate, 20 mM 491 imidazole, 500 mM sodium chloride, pH 7.4). We added MgCl<sub>2</sub> and MnCl<sub>2</sub> to 1 mM, lysozyme to 0.1 492 mg/ml, EDTA-free complete protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche) and a pinch of DNase I (Applichem) and 493 proceeded to rupture the cells using a French pressure cell with two passes at 18 000 p.s.i. Cellular 494 debris were pelleted for 1 hour at 100 000 x q, the supernatant was passed through a 0.22  $\mu$ m filter and 495 applied to a nickel iminodiacetic acid column (PrepEase; USB). Bound proteins were eluted with a step 496 gradient of imidazole (250 mM) in Ni binding buffer. We pooled the fractions containing the periplasmic 497 domain-MBP fusions, added protease inhibitor cocktail and applied these to an amylose column 498 (MBPTrap; GE Healthcare) equilibrated with 20 mM Tris, 200 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA at pH 7.4. Bound 499 protein was eluted using the same buffer supplemented with 10 mM maltose. Proteins were further 500 purified by size exclusion chromatography (Superdex200<sup>™</sup> 26/60 column; GE Healthcare) in Tris-501 buffered saline (TBS; 20 mM Tris pH 7.4 with 150 mM NaCl and 0.02% NaN<sub>3</sub>).

502 For producing isotope-labeled protein for NMR experiments, we grew cells overnight in minimal 503 medium M9 (Hochuli et al., 2000) supplemented with 1% LB and ampicillin at 100 µg/ml. The cultures were then diluted 1:200 in 2 l of M9 + 1% LB + ampicillin containing <sup>15</sup>NH<sub>3</sub>Cl and <sup>13</sup>C-glucose (Sigma). 504 505 Once the cultures reached mid-log phase, protein production was induced and the cultures were 506 harvested after 3 hours at 37 °C. The cells were resuspended in Ni binding buffer and lysed as above. 507 After passing over a nickel column, the eluted protein was dialysed overnight against phosphate-508 buffered saline (PBS; 20 mM phosphate pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl). The following morning, TEV protease 509 (produced according to (Tropea et al., 2009) was added to 1/10 of the concentration of sample protein 510 as estimated by absorbance at 280 nm. The digestion was allowed to proceed for 4 hours at room 511 temperature, after which the digested protein was passed over the nickel column again. The flow 512 through contained the digested, labeled protein. This was further purified by size exclusion chromatography using a Superdex75<sup>™</sup> 16/60 column (GE Healthcare) equilibrated with PBS. 513

514 For outer membrane expression, overnight cultures were diluted 1:100 in 20 ml ZYP medium and grown 515 till mid-log phase at 37 °C. The temperature was then adjusted to 27 °C and protein production was

induced with anhydrotetracycline (50 ng/ml). The cells were grown for approximately two hours at 27 °C
before harvesting.

#### 518 NMR structure determination

All spectra were recorded at 298 K on Bruker AVIII-600 and AVIII-800 spectrometers. Backbone sequential assignments were completed using a strategy based on a 3D-HN(CA)NNH experiment (Weisemann *et al.*, 1993). Aliphatic sidechain assignments were completed with standard TOCSY-based experiments, while aromatic assignments were made by linking aromatic spin systems to the respective  $C^{\beta}H_{2}$  protons in a 2D-NOESY spectrum. Stereospecific assignments and the resulting  $\chi 1$  rotamer assignments were determined from a combination of HNHB and HA[HBHN](CACO)NH experiments (Löhr *et al.*, 1999).

526 Distance data were derived from a set of five 3D-NOESY spectra, including the heteronuclear edited NNH-, CCH-, and CNH-NOESY spectra (Diercks et al., 1999) in addition to conventional <sup>15</sup>N- and <sup>13</sup>C-527 HSQC-NOESY spectra. A <sup>12</sup>C-filtered 2D-NOESY spectrum was recorded for the observation of contacts to 528 aromatic groups. Backbone dihedral angle restraints were derived using the TALOS+ server (Shen et al., 529 530 2009). Generic backbone dihedral restraints designed to restrict residues to allowed regions of the 531 Ramachandran map and well-populated sidechain rotamers were applied for unstructured residues. 532 Hydrogen bond restraints were applied as pseudo-covalent bonds, as outlined in (Truffault et al., 2001). 533 Refinement was carried out by comparing experimental and back-calculated NOESY spectra using in-534 house software. Strips were back calculated for the amide protons of all ordered atoms, plus selected 535 sidechain groups. These were compared to the experimental spectra to confirm backbone and sidechain 536 dihedral angles and to extract additional distance restraints.

537 Structures were calcuated with XPLOR (NIH version 2.9.4) using standard protocols with modifications 538 for the inclusion of H-bonds as pseudo-covalent bonds. For the final set, 100 structures were calculated 539 and 18 chosen on the basis of lowest restraint violations. An average structure was calculated and 540 regularized to give a structure representative of the ensemble. Details of the input data and the final 541 ensemble are given in Table S2.

### 542 Surface display and functional controls

543 Immunofluorescence microscopy, FACS, pre-infection adhesion assays and ELISA for IL-8 production 544 were all performed as described (Oberhettinger *et al.*, 2012).

#### 545 Analytical size exclusion chromatography

Gel sizing was done using a Superdex<sup>™</sup>200 10/300 column (GE Healthcare) equilibrated either with TBS or acetate-buffered saline (ABS; 20 mM sodium acetate pH 4.0 with 150 mM NaCl). Approximately 1 mg of protein was applied to the column, and elution was monitored by absorbance at 280 nm. For sizing, a preparation of standard proteins (Ribonuclease A (13.7 kDa), Conalbumin (75 kDa), Aldolase (158 kDa), Ferritin (440 kDa) from GE Healthcare) was passed through the column. We then compared the position of the sample proteins' peaks to a standard curve drawn based on the elution profile of the standard mix to obtain apparent molecular weights.

### 553 Peptidoglycan and chitin binding

554 Peptidoglycan sacculi from E. coli Nissle were purified according to the method of Glauner with some 555 modifications (Glauner, 1988). The lyophilized sacculi were resuspended in ultrapure water (with 556 sodium azide added to 0.02% w/v) to a concentration of 10 mg/ml. For pull-down assays, 2  $\mu$ l of this 557 suspension was mixed with 5  $\mu$ g of protein in a total volume of 30  $\mu$ l and incubated for 15 minutes at 558 room temperature. The buffer used depended on the pH: we used TBS (pH 8.0 or pH 7.4), MOPS-559 buffered saline (pH 7.0), MES-buffered saline (pH 6.0), ABS (pH 5.0 and pH 4.0) or glycine-buffered saline 560 (pH 3.0). The sacculi were then pelleted by centrifuging 30 minutes at  $\sim$ 20 000 x q (full speed using a 561 tabletop centrifuge). The supernatant was carefully removed and the pellet was washed once with the 562 corresponding buffer. After a second centrifugation step the supernatant was removed and the pellet 563 was resuspended in 30 µl TBS (pH 7.4). For analysis, we added 10 µl of 4X non-reducing sample buffer to 564 the first supernatant fraction and the pellet fraction, boiled the samples for 5 minutes and then loaded 565 10 µl onto a 12% polyacrylamide gel for SDS-PAGE.

566 For competition experiments, 20 mg of E. coli PGN sacculi were digested with mutanolysin (4000 U; 567 from Sigma) in a total volume of 800 μl PBS for 16 hours at 37 °C. After heat inactivation of the enzyme 568 (100 °C, 2 min), the undigested PGN was pelleted (30 min at ~20 000 x g) and the supernatant was 569 transferred to a new tube. The pH of the solution was changed to 5.0 by the addition of 50  $\mu$ l 1 M NaAc 570 at this pH; the pH of the solution was checked after mixing. An estimated 30-40% of the sacculi were 571 digested, giving a concentration of  $\sim$ 7 mg/ml of various muropeptides. We used 5, 10, 15, 20 or 25  $\mu$ l of 572 the muropeptide solution in our competition experiment. The muropeptides and IntPeri-MBP (5  $\mu$ g as 573 above) were mixed first, and peptidoglycan sacculi were subsequently added. The total volume was 574 adjusted to 30  $\mu$ l with ABS pH 5.0. The procedure from this point on was as above.

For the concentration series, we varied the amount of protein between 0.5 μg and 10 μg. The amount of
peptidoglycan was varied between 2 μg to 50 μg. The binding buffer was ABS (pH 5.0). The samples
were otherwise treated as above.

578 Chitin binding was assayed using chitin beads (New England Biolabs). We prepared columns using 2 ml 579 of the bead slurry and equilibrated with ABS (pH 5.0). We added 1 mg of protein diluted in 1 ml of ABS 580 and allowed the protein to enter the column by gravity flow. After washing with 10 ml ABS, bound 581 protein was eluted with 10 ml TBS (pH 7.4), followed by a second elution step with 0.3 M NaOH. A 582 sample was taken from each step for SDS-PAGE analysis.

#### 583 In vivo PGN binding

584 To test for PGN binding in whole cells, we transformed the plasmids pIBA2C-IntPeri-MBP, pIBA2C-585 InvPeri-MBP or pASK-IBA2C into BL210mp2 cells. The cells were then grown at 37 °C in LB + 586 chloramphenicol (25 µg/ml) till mid-log, at which time the temperature was changed to 27 °C. Growth at 587 this temperature in the presence of maltose leads to expression of endogenous MBP in BL21 and its 588 derivatives (REF). After 30 minutes, recombinant protein production was induced with AHTC (50 ng/ml). 589 After 1 hour at 27 °C, we added buffer, either Tris pH 7.4 or sodium acetate pH 5.5, to 100 mM. After a 590 further hour of growth the turbidity of the cultures (OD<sub>600</sub>) was measured and an amount of cells corresponding to 10 ml at an  $OD_{600}$  value of 1.0 was harvested by centrifugation (10 minutes 3500 x g). 591 592 To examine the soluble periplasmic fraction, we used a modified osmotic shock protocol. The pelleted 593 cells were resuspended in 400  $\mu$ l 5 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub> with 5 mM buffer (Tris pH 7.4 or sodium acetate pH 5.5) 594 and incubated on ice for 10 minutes. This step improves the yield of the periplasmic extraction (Chen et 595 al., 2004). The cells were pelleted (5 minutes at 8000 x q) and then resuspended in 400  $\mu$ l ice-cold 596 osmotic shock solution (33 mM buffer, 20 % sucrose, 5 mM EDTA) buffered at either pH 7.4 or pH 5.5, as above. After 10 minutes incubation at 8 °C with shaking, the cells were centrifuged as above and then 597 598 resuspended in 400 µl 5 mM buffer (either Tris pH 7.4 or sodium acetate pH 5.5). The cells were 599 incubated for 10 minutes with shaking at 8 °C and then centrifuged as above. A sample (120 µl) was 600 taken from the supernatant, and 40 µl 4 x SDS-PAGE sample buffer was added. This represented the 601 periplasmic fraction. For the whole-cell sample, we pelleted an amount of cells from the induced culture 602 corresponding to 120  $\mu$ l at OD<sub>600</sub> = 25, resuspended these in 120  $\mu$ l PBS and then added 40  $\mu$ l sample 603 buffer.

604 To probe for the recombinant proteins, we performed a Western blot. The proteins were separated in a 605 10% polyacrylamide gel and then transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane (Protran BA 85, GE 606 Healthcare) using a semi-dry apparatus. The membrane was blocked for 30 minutes with 5% fat-free 607 milk powder in TBS. The primary antibody was a rabbit anti-MBP (anti-MalE) antiserum diluted in 608 blocking buffer 1:5000. After 1 hour of blocking, the membrane was washed twice 10 minutes with TBS 609 + 0.05% Tween20 (TBS-T), and then the secondary antibody (goat anti-rabbit-alkaline phosphatase (AP), 610 Jackson Immunoresearch) was added at a dilution of 1:10 000 in blocking buffer. The membrane was 611 washed twice with TBS-T as above, and a final time in AP buffer (100 mM Tris pH 9.5, 100 mM NaCl, 5 612 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>). Chromogenic detection was performed using the AP substrate nitro blue tetrazolium/5-613 bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl phosphate (NBT/BCIP), diluted to 33 ng/ml and 17 ng/ml, respectively, in AP 614 buffer. The reaction was stopped with deionized water once colour had developed.

The anti-MalE antiserum was obtained by immunizing a rabbit with MBP (MalE). The vaccine was prepared by emulsifying 1 mg MalE protein (denaturated with 1% SDS) with Freund's adjuvant in the cold and injected subcutaneously and intramuscularly (hind legs); after four weeks the rabbit obtained a booster injection and blood was collected with 5-6 days intervals.

#### 619 Accession numbers

620 The NMR structure of the Int LysM from this publication has been submitted to the Protein Data Bank

621 (<u>http://www.rcsb.org/pdb</u>) and assigned the identifier 2MPW.

# 622 Author contributions

J.C.L., P.O., M.S., Mu.Co., I.B.A. and D.L. designed and J.C.L., P.O., Ma.Ch., and Mu.Co. performed the
experiments and analysed the data. D.K., U.B., H.S. and F.G. provided essential materials. J.C.L., P.O. and
D.L. wrote the paper.

#### 626 Acknowledgments

We would like to thank M.Sc. Iwan Grin (MPI for Develepmental Biology, Tübingen) for assistance with parsing the sequences for bioinformatic analyses. We are also grateful to Dr. Jörg Rau (Chemisches und Veterinäruntersuchungsamt, Stuttgart) for providing the *Y. ruckeri* DNA. We thank Prof. Andrei Lupas (Protein Evolution, MPI for Developmental Biology, Tübingen) for continued support. This study was

- funded by the Sonderforschungsbereich 766 of the DFG (German Science Foundation) to D.L., I.B.A., U.B.
- and F.G., UKT fortune F1433253 to P.O., and a FEMS Advanced Fellowship to J.C.L.

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# **TABLES**

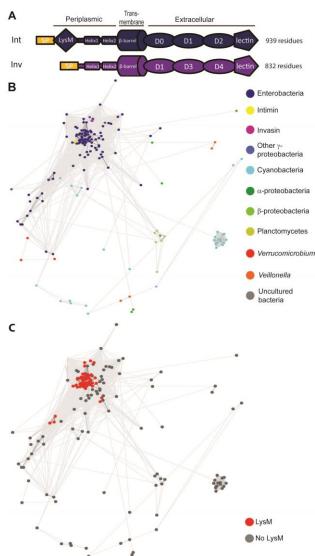
# **Table 1**. Plasmids used in this study.

Plasmid	Insert sequence	Vector	Comment	Reference/source
pASK-IBA2	-	pASK-IBA2	Expression vector with	IBA GmbH
			N-terminal OmpA signal	
			peptide for periplasmic	
			targeting, with ampicillin	
			resistance.	
pASK-IBA2C	-	pASK-IBA2C	Expression vector with	IBA GmbH
			N-terminal OmpA signal	
			peptide for periplasmic	
			targeting, with	
			chloramphenicol	
			resistance.	
pASK-IBA3	-	pASK-IBA3	Expression vector for	IBA GmbH
			cytoplasmic expression.	
pASK-IBA33	-	pASK-IBA33	Expression vector for	IBA GmbH
			cytoplasmic expression,	
			with C-terminal His tag.	
pIBA2C-IntPeri-	Int periplasmic	pASK-IBA2C	Produces IntPeri with a	This study
MPB	domain (residues		C-terminal MBP fusion;	
	40-212)		includes N-terminal	
			signal peptide for	
			periplasmic transport.	
pIBA2C-InvPeri-	Inv periplasmic	pASK-IBA2C	Produces InvPeri with a	This study
MBP	domain (residues		C-terminal MBP fusion;	
	35-93)		includes N-terminal	
			signal peptide for	
			periplasmic transport.	
pIBA2C-MBP	MBP	pASK-IBA2C	Produces MBP with N-	This study
			terminal signal peptide	

			for periplasmic	
			transport.	
pIBA2-Int∆LysM	Int lacking LysM	pASK-IBA2	For production of N-	This study
	domain (contains		terminally truncated Int	
	residues 144-939)		at cell surface.	
pIBA2-Int∆Peri	Int lacking entire	pASK-IBA2	For production of N-	This study
	periplasmic		terminally truncated Int	
	domain (contains		at cell surface.	
	residues 213-939)			
pIBA2-IntFull	Full-length Int	pASK-IBA2	For production of full-	This study
	(without native		length Int at cell surface.	
	signal peptide;			
	residues 40-939)			
pIBA2-	Int lacking LysM	pASK-IBA2	For production of N-	This study
IntPeriHelix1	domain and linker		terminally truncated Int	
	to first conserved		at cell surface.	
	helix (contains			
	residues 157-939)			
pIBA2-	Int lacking LysM	pASK-IBA2	For production of N-	This study
IntPeriHelix2	domain and first		terminally truncated Int	
	conserved helix		at cell surface	
	(residues 184-939)			
pIBA2-Inv∆Peri	Inv lacking entire	pASK-IBA2	For production of N-	This study
	periplasmic		terminally truncated Int	
	domain (residues		at cell surface.	
	94-835)			
pIBA2-InvFull	Full-length Inv	pASK-IBA2	For production of full-	This study
	(without native		length Inv at cell surface.	
	signal peptide;			
	residues 35-835)			
pIBA33-IntLysM-	Int LysM domain	pASK-IBA33	For production of Int	This study
TEV-MBP	(residues 40-153)		LysM domain with C-	

			terminal MBP fusion	
		separated by TEV site.		
pIBA33-MBP	MBP	pASK-IBA33	Produces MBP with a C-	This study
			terminal His-tag.	
pIBA3-IntD00	Int D00 domain	pASK-IBA3	Produces Int N-terminal	
	(residues 450-550)		Ig-like domain	
pIBA3-IntLysM-	Int LysM domain	pASK-IBA3	Produces Int LysM with	This study
MBP	(residues 40-153)		a C-terminal MBP fusion.	
pIBA3-	2 C-terminal	pASK-IBA3	Produces conserved	This study
IntPeriHelix1-MBP	helices of Int		helices of Int periplasmic	
	periplasmic		domain with a C-	
	domain (residues		terminal MBP fusion.	
	157-212)			
pIBA3-	C-terminal helix of	pASK-IBA3	Produces second	This study
IntPeriHelix2-MBP	Int periplasmic		conserved helix of Int	
	domain (residues		periplasmic domain with	
	184-212)		a C-terminal MBP fusion.	
pIBA3-IntPeri-MBP	Int periplasmic	pASK-IBA3	Produces IntPeri with a	This study
	domain (residues		C-terminal MBP fusion.	
	40-212)			
pIBA3-InvPeri-	Inv periplasmic	pASK-IBA3	Produces InvPeri with a	This study
MBP	domain (residues		C-terminal MBP fusion.	
	35-93)			

## 751 FIGURES AND LEGENDS



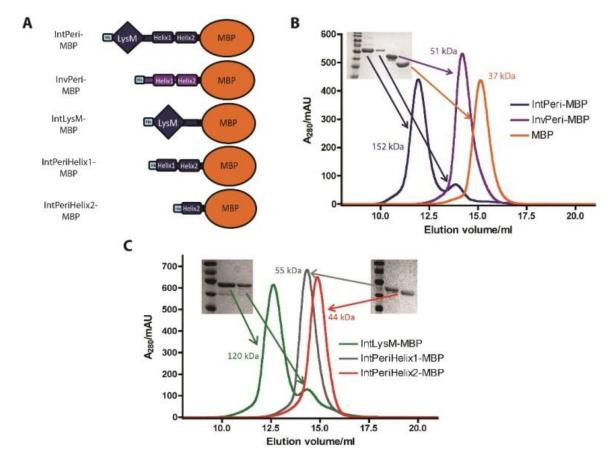
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**Fig. 1.** Bioinformatic analyses of periplasmic domains of inverse autotransporters.

A. Schematic of structures of Int from EPEC (dark blue) and Inv from *Y. enterocolitica* (purple). The periplasmic domains of both contain two conserved helices (Helix1 and Helix2) at the C-terminus. In addition, the Int periplasmic domain contains a LysM, which is connected to Helix1 by a spacer sequence. SP = signal peptide. The various domains are not to scale.

B. CLANS clustering of sequences of periplasmic domains from inverse autotransporters. The sequence
dots are coloured according to taxonomy. Int is indicated in yellow and Inv in magenta.

C. Highlighting of LysM-containing proteins in the cluster map from panel B. The sequences used forclustering are given is Table S1.



**Fig. 2.** The periplasmic domain of Int mediates dimerisation.

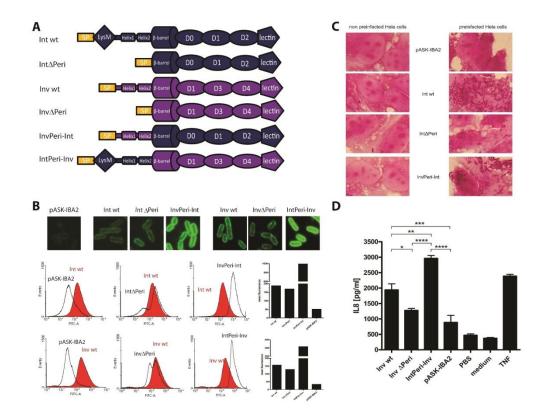
A. Schematic of periplasmic domain-MBP constructs. Fragments from Int are in blue, fragments from Inv

in purple, MBP is in orange and the N-terminal hexahistidine tags in light blue.

B. SEC of Inv and Int periplasmic domains at pH 7.4. The curve for IntPeri-MBP is in blue, InvPeri-MBP in
purple and MBP in orange. The inset shows an SDS-PAGE gel of the peaks. Apparent molecular weights
of the major peaks are indicated. Expected molecular weights are 61 kDa for IntPeri-MBP, 49 kDa for
InvPeri-MBP, and 41 kDa for MBP.

C: SEC of Int periplasmic domain fragments. IntLysM-MBP is in green, IntPeriHelix1-MBP in grey and
IntPeriHelix2-MBP in red. The insets show SDS-PAGE gels of the peaks. Apparent molecular weights of
the major peaks are indicated. Expected molecular weights are 54 kDa for IntLysM-MBP, 49 kDa for
IntPeriHelix1-MBP, and 46 kDa for IntPeriHelix2-MBP.

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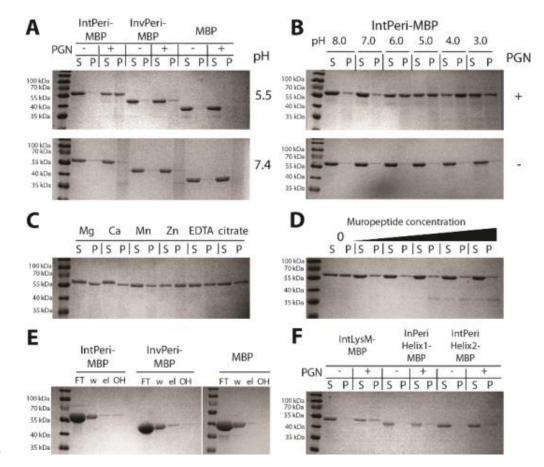
780 Fig. 3. Effect of Int and Inv periplasmic domain deletions.

A. Schematic of constructs used for cell surface expression experiments. In the chimaeric constructs
 IntPeri-Inv and InvPeri-Int, the periplasmic domains of Inv and Int have been switched.

B. Immunofluorescence and FACS measurements for Int and Inv constructs. For the FACS
 measurements, mean fluorescence intensity for the constructs is shown as a bar graph on the right.

C. Preinfection adhesion assay for Int constructs. HeLa cells were preinfected with EPEC *△eaeA* and then
 incubated with *E. coli* omp2 expressing Int constructs (right-hand micrographs). Non-preinfected cells
 and the vector pASK-IBA2 acted as negative controls.

D. IL-8 induction by Inv constructs. HeLa cells were incubated with *E. coli* expressing the Inv constructs from panel A and IL-8 production was measured by ELISA. TNF (0.1  $\mu$ g) was the positive control, PBS and cell culture medium were negative controls. Error bars (S.E.M.) are from 3 replicates, stars denote statistical significance as determined by ANOVA. *P* < 0.05 (\*), *P* < 0.01 (\*\*), *P* < 0.001 (\*\*\*), *P* < 0.0001 (\*\*\*\*).



795 Fig. 4. The Int periplasmic domain binds peptidoglycan under acidic conditions

A. Pull-down assays using purified peptidoglycan (PGN) sacculi from *E. coli*. IntPeri-MBP, InvPeri-MBP and MBP were mixed with peptidoglycan sacculi at pH 5.0 (upper gel) or pH 7.4 (lower gel) followed by centrifugation. Samples were taken from the supernatant (S), and after washing, the resuspended pellet (P) and separated in SDS-PAGE. Control reactions were without PGN.

800 B. Pull-down assays of IntPeri-MBP using PGN sacculi in solutions at different pH (upper gel). The lower

gel is a control gel without PGN. S = supernatant, P = pellet.

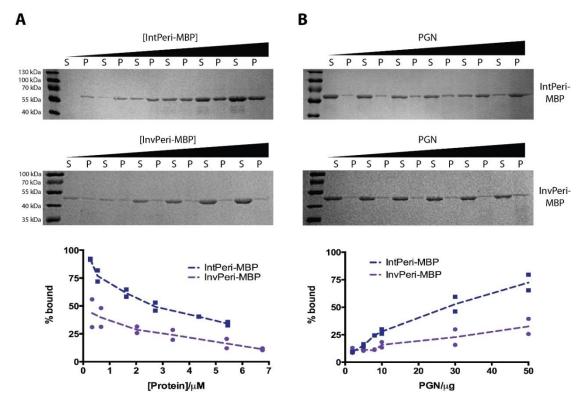
C. Effect of divalent cations and chelators on PGN binding by IntPeri-MBP. Pull-down assays were
 performed in the presence of either divalent cations or the chelators EDTA or sodium citrate at pH 5.0. S
 supernatant, P = pellet.

805 D. Effect of soluble muropeptides on the binding of IntPeri-MBP to PGN sacculi. Pull-down assays were

performed with increasing amounts (5-25  $\mu$ l) of mutanolysin-digested PGN at pH 5.0. S = supernatant, P = pellet.

E. Binding of IntPeri-MBP, InvPeri-MBP and MBP to a chitin column. 1 mg of protein was loaded onto a chitin column equilibrated at pH 5.0. The flow through (FT) was collected, the column washed with

- 810 running buffer (w) and bound protein was eluted first with a buffer at pH 7.4 followed by elution with
- 811 0.3 M NaOH (OH).
- 812 F. Binding of IntLysM-MBP, IntHelix1-MBP and IntHelix2-MBP to PGN sacculi. Pull-down assays were
- 813 performed as in panel A at pH 5.0. S = supernatant, P = pellet.
- 814 The results shown are representative of at least two repeated experiments.
- 815
- 816

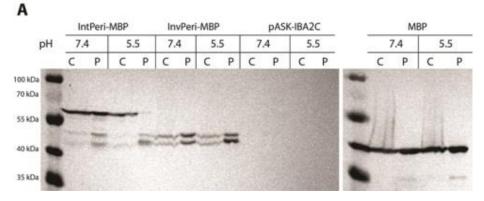




**Fig. 5**. Quantitative comparison of IntPeri-MBP and InvPeri-MBP binding to PGN.

819 A. Pull-down assays using a concentration series of IntPeri-MBP (upper gel) and InvPeri-MBP (lower gel) 820 against a constant amount of PGN at pH 5.0. The concentrations of IntPeri-MBP and InvPeri-MBP were 821 varied between 0.5 µg and 10 µg per reaction. The graph at the bottom shows relative binding of the 822 proteins to PGN, with the protein concentration expressed as micromoles per litre. Data points from two 823 replicate experiments represent the band intensity of the pellet divided by the sum of the supernatant 824 (S) and pellet (P) intensities for that concentration, multiplied by 100. The curves are plotted based on 825 the average of the two measurements. The bands intensities were quantified using the ImageJ software 826 (Schneider et al., 2012).

B. Pull-down assays using a varying amount of PGN sacculi against a constant amount of either IntPeriMBP (upper gel) or InvPeri-MBP (lower gel). The graph depicts relative binding for each PGN amount (in
micrograms). The binding percentage was calculated as for panel A. S = supernatant, P = pellet.



832 **Fig. 6.** The *Int* periplasmic domain binds to PGN *in vivo*.

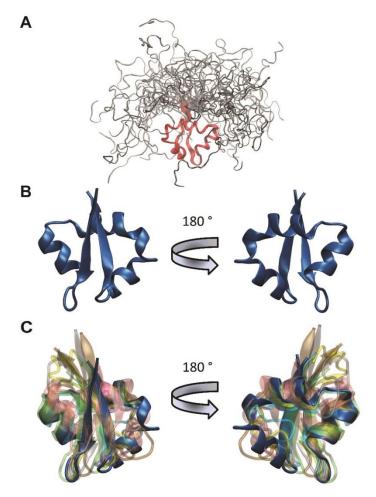
833 In vivo binding to peptidoglycan. Cells expressing IntPeri-MBP or InvPeri-MBP periplasmically were

grown at pH 7.4 or pH 5.5. The periplasmic fraction was extraction using a modified osmotic shock

835 protocol. Samples from whole cells (C) or the periplasmic fraction (P) were separated by SDS-PAGE and

subjected to Western blotting using an anti-MBP antibody. pIBA2C is the vector control, and MBP acts as

837 a control for periplasmic extraction.

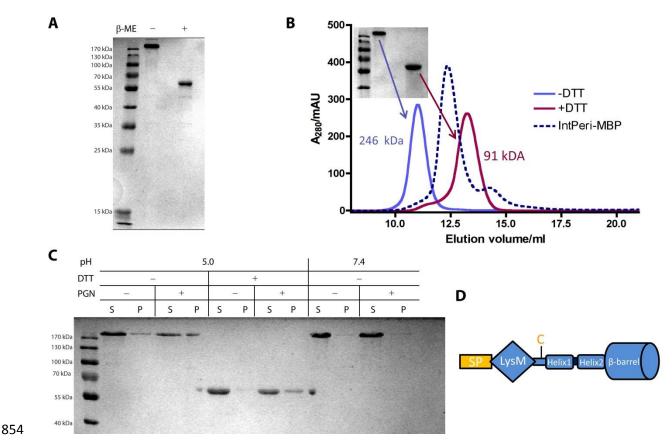


840 **Fig. 7.** Solution structure of Int LysM

A. Ensemble of 20 acceptable NMR structures for the Int LysM region, showing the LysM itself (highlighted in red) is well defined whereas the N-terminus and C-terminal spacer sequence are disordered.

844 B. The Int LysM structure in cartoon representation.

845 C. Superposition of other LysM structures onto the Int LysM NMR structure (in blue). The structures 846 include bacterial and bacteriophage LysMs (MltD from E. coli in green (PDB 1E0G)); YkuD from B. subtilis 847 in mauve (1Y7M); gpX from coliphage P2 in salmon (2LTF)), LysMs from fungal protein (LysM1 from Ecp6 848 of Cladosporium fulvum in yellow (4B8V); LysM of CVNH lectin from Magnaporthe oryzae in cyan 849 (2L9Y)), a plant protein (LysM1 from AtCERK1 of A. thaliana in grey (4EBY)) and a human hypothetical 850 protein (SB145 (2DJP)). The major difference in Int LysM compared to the others is the  $\alpha$ -helical region 851 between the C-terminal conserved  $\alpha$ -helix and the C-terminal  $\beta$ -strand. The figures were prepared using 852 VMD (Humphrey et al., 1996, <a href="http://www.ks.uiuc.edu/Research/vmd/">http://www.ks.uiuc.edu/Research/vmd/</a>)



855 **Fig. 8**. The periplasmic domain of YrInv forms multimers and binds peptidoglycan.

A. Effect of reducing agent on YrInvPeri-MBP. β-ME = β-mercaptoethanol.

857 B. SEC of YrInvPeri-MBP at pH 7.4 with (magenta) and without DTT(light blue). The inset shows an SDS-

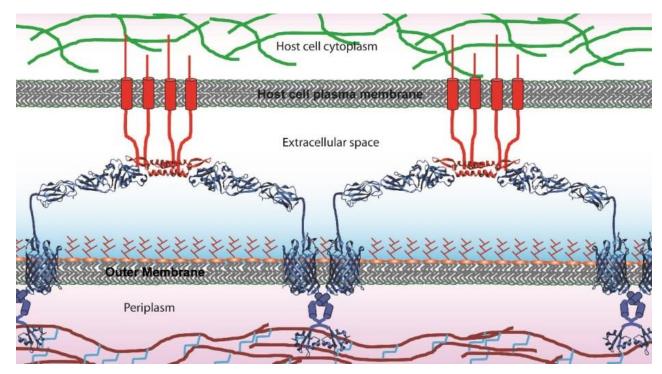
858 PAGE gel of the peaks (no additional reducing agent was added). The expected size for the monomer is

58 kDa. Apparent molecular weights are indicated. The SEC curve for IntPeri-MBP (dashed blue line) isshown for comparison.

C: PGN binding of YrInvPeri-MBP. Pull-downs with or without PGN sacculi was performed at pH 5.0 or pH
7.4. At pH 5.0, pull-down assays were performed either with or without the addition of 10 mM DTT. The
small amount of monomeric YrInv seen at the edges of lanes 5 and 10 can be explained by diffusion of

the DTT from the neighbouring wells. S = supernatant, P = pellet.

D. Schematic of YrInvPeri periplasmic domain and barrel. The position of the single cysteine in thespacer sequence is indicated.



869 Fig. 9. Model for Intimin dimerisation and Tir clustering

870 Schematic of Int (in blue) bound to Tir (red). Dimerisation of Int through the periplasmic domain in the periplasmic domain leads to a reticular array which promotes Tir clustering and pedestal formation. 871 872 Dimerisation takes place at two sites within the periplasmic domain: at the C-terminal  $\alpha$ -helix and in the 873 spacer sequence between the LysM and the N-terminal  $\alpha$ -helix. Where structural information is 874 available, cartoon structures are depicted. Regions of unknown structure are depicted as connecting 875 lines, or cylinders in the case of  $\alpha$ -helices. The actin cortex of the host cell is in green, the peptidoglycan 876 backbone in brown and peptide crosslinks in light blue. PDB IDs of the structures used for the figure are 877 1F02, 4E1S and 2MPW. The structural figures were prepared using VMD (Humphrey et al., 1996,

878 http://www.ks.uiuc.edu/Research/vmd/)