1	Title : MmpL3 is the flippase for mycolic acids in mycobacteria
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14	described in this work; G.P. synthesized and provided BM212; Z.X., and SS.C. analyzed
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Abstract

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The defining feature of the mycobacterial outer membrane (OM) is the presence of mycolic acids (MAs), which in part render the bilayer extremely hydrophobic and impermeable to external insults, including many antibiotics. While the biosynthetic pathway of MAs is well studied, the mechanism(s) by which these lipids are transported across the cell envelope is(are) much less known. MmpL3, an essential inner membrane (IM) protein, is implicated in MA transport, but its exact function has not been elucidated. It is believed to be the cellular target of several anti-mycobacterial compounds; however, evidence for direct inhibition of MmpL3 activity is also lacking. Here, we establish that MmpL3 is the MA flippase at the IM of mycobacteria, and show that a 1,5-diarylpyrrole compound, BM212, directly inhibits this activity. We develop assays that selectively access mycolates on the surface of *Mycobacterium smegmatis* spheroplasts, allowing us to monitor flipping of MAs across the IM. Using these assays, we establish the mechanism-of-action of BM212 as an MmpL3 inhibitor, and employ it as a molecular probe to demonstrate the requirement of functional MmpL3 for the transport of MAs across the IM. Our work provides fundamental insights into OM biogenesis and MA transport in mycobacteria. Furthermore, our assays serve as an important platform for accelerating the validation of small molecules that target MmpL3, and their development as future anti-tuberculosis drugs.

Keywords

- 42 *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*; membrane biogenesis; lipid transport; trehalose monomycolate;
- 43 Mycobacterial membrane protein Large; Resistance, Nodulation, and Cell Division

Significance statement

Biological membranes define cellular boundaries, allow compartmentalization, and represent a prerequisite for life; yet, our understanding of membrane biogenesis remains rudimentary. Mycobacteria, including the human pathogen *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, are surrounded by a double-membrane cell envelope that makes them intrinsically resistant to many antibiotics. Specifically, the outer membrane contains unique lipids called mycolic acids, whose transport mechanism across the envelope is unknown. In this study, we established the role of an essential membrane protein as the flippase for mycolic acids, and demonstrated that this protein is a target of putative anti-tuberculosis compounds. Our work provides insights into outer membrane biogenesis and lipid transport in mycobacteria, and also the means to evaluate drugs that disrupt mycolic acid transport at the inner membrane.

Introduction

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The outer membrane (OM) of Mycobacterium tuberculosis, the causative agent of tuberculosis (TB), is distinctively characterized by the abundance of mycolic acids (MAs), C_{60} - C_{90} long chain, branched fatty acids, packed together to produce a bilayer with markedly reduced fluidity and permeability (Brennan & Nikaido, The envelope of mycobacteria, 1995). These MAs come in the forms of trehalose monomycolates (TMMs), trehalose dimycolates (TDMs), and mycolates covalently attached to arabinogalactan (AG) polysaccharides, which are in turn linked to the peptidoglycan and collectively known as the mAGP complex (Fig. 1A). MAs are synthesized at the inner membrane (IM) as TMMs via a highly-conserved and well-characterized pathway (2), which is the target of first line anti-TB drug, isoniazid (3). How MAs are transported across the cell envelope and assembled into the OM, however, is less understood; proteins mediating TMM flipping across the IM and transit across the periplasm have not been identified and/or characterized (Fig. 1A). At the OM, the Ag85 complex transfers a mycolate chain from one TMM molecule to another to form TDM, or to the AG polysaccharides to form the mAGP complex (4). Tethering the OM to the cell wall via the AG polysaccharides further rigidifies the membrane, making it extremely impermeable to a wide range of compounds, including many antibiotics (1). The OM, and hence MAs, are essential for mycobacterial growth. Recently, a conserved essential IM protein, MmpL3 (Mycobacterial membrane protein Large 3), has been implicated in MA transport. Depletion of mmpL3 in Mycobacterium smegmatis results in accumulation of TMMs and reduced formation of TDMs and AG-linked mycolates (5,6), suggesting an impairment in TMM transport to the OM. Consistent with this,

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MmpL3, like other MmpL proteins, belongs to the resistance, nodulation, and cell division (RND) protein superfamily, and is believed to be a proton motive force (pmf)-dependent transporter (7). Based on its cellular localization, MmpL3 is likely involved in either TMM flipping across the IM, TMM release from the IM into the periplasm, or both (Fig. 1A). Yet, its exact role has not been clearly defined, due largely to the lack of functional assays for its putative transport activity. Treatment of mycobacteria with a few structurally-distinct small molecule scaffolds, including ethylenediamines (e.g. SQ109) (8), 1,5-diarylpyrroles (e.g. BM212) (9,10), adamantyl ureas (e.g. AU1235) (5), and others (11,12,13,14,15), result in similar changes in mycolate species as in *mmpL3* depletion. These compounds inhibit growth, and select for resistance mutations in *mmpL3*; however, there is limited evidence that they are direct MmpL3 inhibitors. The lack of activity assays for MmpL3 made it impossible to test the proposed mechanism of action of these putative inhibitors. Here, we report that MmpL3 is the TMM flippase at the IM. Using a spheroplast model, we developed assays to monitor IM topology of TMM. We found that 1,5-diarylpyrrole BM212 inhibits TMM flipping across the IM in wild-type spheroplasts. Furthermore, we established that specific MmpL3 variants confer resistance against this inhibition, indicating that MmpL3 is required for flipping TMM across the IM. BM212 does not inhibit the pmf or membrane potential, suggesting that it directly targets MmpL3. Our work represents the first demonstration of lipid transport activity of a key member of the MmpL protein family, and highlights the importance of using small molecule probes to interrogate protein function. Our assays have great utility in the validation and development of MmpL3-targeting small molecules as future anti-TB drugs.

Results

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Spheroplasts serve as a viable system to monitor TMM topology

To develop a functional assay for TMM flipping across the IM, we sought a system where TMM topology in the IM can be monitored. Mycobacterial spheroplasts are ideal for this purpose because they lack the OM and cell wall, providing easy access to molecules-of-interest at the IM. Due to the loss of periplasmic contents upon the formation of spheroplasts, we also expect the transport pathway(s) for TMM to the OM to be disrupted, thereby resulting in accumulation of TMM at the IM. M. smegmatis spheroplasts were successfully generated via sequential treatment with glycine and lysozyme (Fig. S1), as previously reported (16). To examine whether MA synthesis is intact in spheroplasts, we profiled newly-synthesized lipids metabolically labeled with [14C]-acetate. Thin layer chromatographic (TLC) analysis of lipids extracted from whole cells revealed two major species whose syntheses are inhibited by isoniazid, indicating that these are mycolate-based lipids (Fig. 1B). We assigned these species as TDM and TMM on the bases of reported retention factors of these lipids on TLC plates developed under the same solvent system (17). We showed that mycolates are still produced in M. smegmatis spheroplasts; however, the extracted lipids only contain TMM, but not TDM, consistent with the lack of TMM transport to the OM, where TDM synthesis occurs. Given the extreme hydrophobicity of mycolates, we conclude that newly-synthesized TMMs accumulate in the IM of spheroplasts, thus establishing a platform for monitoring TMM flipping across the bilayer.

TMMs accumulated in spheroplasts reside in the outer leaflet of the IM

We next examined whether newly-synthesized TMMs accumulated in the inner or outer leaflet of the IM in spheroplasts, by monitoring its accessibility to degradation by recombinant LysB, a lipolytic enzyme. LysB is a mycobacteriophage-encoded esterase that is specific for mycolates and plays the role of an endolysin important for the release of phage particles from infected cells (18,19). Substantial amounts of newly-synthesized TMMs in spheroplasts are readily and specifically hydrolyzed by purified LysB with the concomitant release of MAs (Fig. 2A). This suggests that newly-synthesized TMMs are accessible on the surface. We showed that an inactive LysB variant does not result in the same effect. In addition, we demonstrated that LysB does not enter spheroplasts, nor does it induce cell lysis compared to controls (Fig. 2B). Taken together, these results establish that the majority of newly-synthesized TMMs have been translocated across the IM in spheroplasts, and therefore reside in the outer leaflet of the membrane.

MmpL3 is responsible for flipping TMM across the IM

Several compounds, including SQ109, BM212 and AU1235, are believed to affect MmpL3-mediated TMM transport because mutations in *mmpL3* confer resistance against these small molecules (5,8,9). While it is not yet clear if these compounds directly inhibit MmpL3, they may be useful as probes to determine if MmpL3 is responsible for TMM flipping across the IM. Specifically, we asked whether these small molecules are able to inhibit TMM flipping in wild-type spheroplasts, and whether they would become less effective in doing so in spheroplasts expressing MmpL3 variants that confer resistance

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against them. We first tested the effects of these compounds in our LysB assay in wild-type spheroplasts. Remarkably, BM212 and AU1235 are able to reduce LysB-mediated hydrolysis of newly-synthesized TMMs in M. smegmatis spheroplasts (Fig. 3A and C), at concentrations 2x and 4x above their reported minimal inhibitory concentrations (MICs) (Table S1) (5.9). In contrast, SQ109 has no effect (Fig. 3B and C). We showed that the effects of BM212 and AU1235 are not due to direct inhibition of LysB activity, since TMMs are still hydrolyzed in detergent-solubilized samples (Fig. S2). Instead, significant amounts of newly-synthesized TMMs are no longer accessible to LysB in the presence of either compound, indicating inhibition of TMM flipping across the IM. As an alternative method to assess TMM topology in the IM and the effects of these drugs, we also examined the ability of membrane-impermeable fluorophore-conjugated streptavidin to bind to newly-synthesized TMMs engineered to contain biotin (TMM-biotin) (Fig. 4A). Here, we metabolically labelled TMMs with 6-azido-trehalose (20), which allowed us to covalently alkyne-containing biotin probe to TMM via the bio-orthogonal click reaction (21). In wild-type spheroplasts, TMM-biotin can be detected on the surface, indicating that 6-azido-TMMs have been translocated across the IM (Fig. 4C). We demonstrated that both BM212 and AU1235 drastically reduce the amounts of 6-azido-TMMs, and hence TMM-biotin, that can be labelled with streptavidin (Fig. 4D and E). Consistent with the LysB accessibility assay, these results establish that BM212 and AU1235 inhibit TMM flipping across the IM. To establish whether MmpL3 is responsible for flipping TMM across the IM, we employed specific MmpL3 variants that render M. smegmatis cells less sensitive to BM212,

and tested if TMM flipping in spheroplasts expressing these variants would be more resistant to the effects of BM212. The growth of cells expressing MmpL3 $_{V197M}$ or MmpL3 $_{A326T}$ variants is only fully inhibited in the presence of 4-8 times the concentration of BM212 that inhibits wild-type growth (Table S1) (9). In wild-type spheroplasts, we showed that BM212 inhibits TMM flipping in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 5A and D). We further demonstrated that BM212 is less effective at reducing LysB accessibility to TMM in spheroplasts expressing MmpL3 $_{V197M}$ or MmpL3 $_{A326T}$ variants (Fig. 5B, C and D). In fact, BM212 is also unable to inhibit the display of 6-azido TMMs on the surface of spheroplasts expressing MmpL3 $_{V197M}$ (Fig. 5E, F and G). Since TMM is only accessible on the outer leaflet of the IM in the presence of functional MmpL3 (i.e. not inhibited by BM212), we conclude that MmpL3 is the TMM flippase.

BM212 directly inhibits MmpL3 function

MmpL3 function is believed to require the pmf, specifically the proton gradient (7). Consistently, we showed that proton gradient uncouplers, such as CCCP and nigericin (Fig. 3), but not membrane potential disruptors, such as valinomycin-K⁺ (Fig. S3), can inhibit LysB accessibility to TMMs in spheroplasts. Whether BM212 inhibits TMM flipping by directly targeting MmpL3 is not clear. Contrary to previous reports (22), we did not observe effects on the proton gradient (Table S2) nor the membrane potential (Fig. S5) in spheroplasts treated with BM212, at concentrations that inhibited TMM flipping. Furthermore, mutations in *mmpL3* that confer resistance to BM212 cluster in a specific region when mapped onto a structural model of MmpL3 (Fig. 6), revealing a possible binding site. We therefore believe

that BM212 inhibits TMM flipping across the IM by binding MmpL3 directly.

Discussion

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How the mycobacterial OM is assembled is not well understood. Many members of the MmpL protein family are believed to be transporters that contribute to the assembly of various OM lipids (23,24,25,26); however, their specific roles have not been clearly defined. MmpL3 is the only member of this family essential for growth (5,6,7). Using two independent assays that allow determination of TMM topology in the IM of mycobacterial spheroplasts, and employing putative inhibitors as molecular probes to modulate protein function, we have provided strong biochemical evidence that establish MmpL3 as the TMM flippase. Whether MmpL3 is the only protein mediating TMM flipping, or whether it is also involved in TMM release from the IM is not clear (Fig. 1A). One can posit that a second yet identified protein may be necessary for extracting TMM from the IM and handing it to a putative chaperone. This scenario would be comparable to the transport of lipoproteins across the cell envelope in Gram-negative bacteria (27). Alternatively, this step may also be mediated by MmpL3, in which case, flipping and release of TMM might be coupled; this would suggest MmpL3 could interact with the putative chaperone. Extending from this idea, a third scenario may be possible where TMM flipping and release are essentially one single step in a mechanism similar to RND efflux pumps, whereby TMM never really resides in the outer leaflet of the IM. This latter model is, however, less like since we have been able to decouple these steps by observing TMM translocation across the IM in our spheroplasts, which are effectively devoid of any putative chaperones. Moreover, despite being in the same

RND protein superfamily, the structure of MmpL3 differs substantially from canonical RND efflux pumps (28). MmpL3 does form trimers like RND pumps (29), but the periplasmic domains of MmpL3 are much smaller (28), and it contains a large C-terminal cytoplasmic domain. Therefore, MmpL3 may not export TMM via an efflux mechanism. Further characterization of this system would be necessary to tease apart these models.

TB is one of the leading causes of death by infectious disease, and remains a major health problem worldwide (30). With the rapid emergence of multi- and extensive-drug resistant (MDR/XDR) TB, there is an urgent need to develop anti-TB drugs with novel mechanisms-of-action. In this regard, drugs inhibiting MmpL3, which has been shown to be an ideal target (31), would be especially important. While many small molecules are thought to inhibit MmpL3, it is puzzling how molecules with different molecular scaffolds may bind and target the same protein. We have now developed assays that measure the topology of TMM in the IM of mycobacterial spheroplasts, allowing the validation of true MmpL3 inhibitors. As a start, we have established that BM212 directly inhibits MmpL3 function. Furthermore, we have shown that SQ109, a molecule that has reached (but failed) phase II clinical trials, does not actually inhibit TMM flipping. In fact, it is likely that many of these molecules do not inhibit MmpL3, and have other targets, as has been shown for tetrahydropyrazo[1,5-a]pyrimidine-3-carboxamides (32). Our assays will help to select and advance small molecules currently under development as MmpL3-targeting drugs.

Materials and Methods

Detailed methods can be found in SI Appendix, Materials and Methods.

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Figure Legends

Fig. 1. TMM biosynthesis is intact in mycobacterial spheroplasts. (*A*) A schematic diagram illustrating the processes important for MA transport across the cell envelope. Following synthesis, TMMs must be flipped across the IM, released from the IM and then transported across the periplasm (presumably via a chaperone). MmpL3 is implicated in TMM transport at the IM, but its exact role has not been elucidated. At the OM, the Ag85 complex transfers the mycolate chain from one TMM molecule to cell wall-linked arabinogalactan (AG) polysaccharides, or to another TMM molecule to form trehalose dimycolate (TDM). Other known lipid species found in the OM and IM are omitted for simplicity. PL, phospholipid. (*B*) TLC analysis of newly-synthesized [¹⁴C]-labelled lipids extracted from wild-type *M. smegmatis* cells (WC) and spheroplasts (SP), visualized by phosphor imaging. Lipids were radiolabelled in the presence or absence of isoniazid as indicated. The developing solvent system comprises chloroform-methanol-water (30:8:1). PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; CL, cardiolipin; PI, phosphatidylinositol; PIM, phosphatidylinositol mannoside.

Fig. 2. Newly-synthesized TMMs in mycobacterial spheroplasts are accessible to degradation by LysB, indicating that these TMMs reside in the outer leaflet of the IM. (*A*) TLC analyses of newly-synthesized [¹⁴C]-labelled lipids extracted from *M. smegmatis* spheroplasts treated with purified functional or non-functional (S82A) LysB. Lipids were resolved on TLCs developed using solvent systems comprising either chloroform-methanol-water (30:8:1) (*left*) or hexane-diethylether-acetic acid (70:30:1) (*right*), followed by visualization via phosphor

imaging. In addition to MA, treatment with functional LysB also resulted in the release of an unidentified apolar lipid, annotated with an asterisk (*). TAG, triacylglycerol. (B) α -GroEL2 and α -His immunoblot analyses of pellet and supernatant fractions obtained from sedimentation of M. smegmatis spheroplasts treated with functional or non-functional (S82A) LysB, indicating that LysB does not induce cell lysis.

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Fig. 3. Anti-mycobacterial compounds, BM212 and AU1235, reduce TMM accessibility to LysB in spheroplasts, indicating inhibition of TMM flipping across the IM. (A, B) Representative TLC analyses of [14C]-labelled lipids newly-synthesized in the presence of indicated concentrations of (A) BM212, AU1235, and (B) SQ109, and extracted from M. smegmatis spheroplasts following treatment with or without purified LysB. The effects of carbonyl cyanide m-chlorophenyl hydrazone (CCCP) and nigericin, which are known to disrupt the pmf, were also tested. At higher concentrations, these uncouplers affected lipid synthesis, consistent with the depletion of ATP. DMSO and methanol were used to dissolve the respective compounds and thus serve as negative controls. Equal amounts of radioactivity spotted each sample. The developing solvent system were for chloroform-methanol-water (30:8:1). (C) A graphical plot showing the effects of various compounds on the amounts of TMMs remaining in spheroplasts following LysB treatment. TMM levels were quantified from TLCs shown in (A) and (B) expressed as a percentage of total mycolates (TMM+MA), and normalized against that in corresponding control samples without LysB treatment. Average normalized percentages and standard deviations from three

biological replicates are plotted. Student's t-test: *, p < 0.05 compared to the corresponding DMSO or methanol controls.

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Fig. 4. Anti-mycobacterial compounds, BM212 and AU1235, reduce surface display of 6-azido-TMMs in spheroplasts, indicating inhibition of TMM flipping across the IM. (A) A schematic diagram illustrating the 6-azido-TMM surface display assay. Spheroplasts were incubated with 6-azido-trehalose to allow synthesis of 6-azido-TMM (20), which were subsequently labelled with alkyne-containing biotin (DIBO-biotin) via click chemistry (21). molecules were then recognized by Alexa Fluor Surface-exposed TMM-biotin 488-conjugated streptavidin, and visualized by fluorescence microscopy. (B-E)Representative bright-field fluorescence microscopy and images following DIBO-biotin/Alexa Fluor 488-streptavidin labelling of spheroplasts synthesizing (B) TMM, or 6-azido-TMM in the presence of (C) DMSO, (D) BM212 (2xMIC), and (E) AU1235 (2xMIC). Scale bars = $3 \mu m$.

Fig. 5. Mutations in MmpL3 render BM212 less effective in the inhibition of TMM flipping across the IM. (A-C) Representative TLC analyses of [14C]-labelled lipids newly-synthesized in the presence of indicated concentrations of BM212, and extracted from (A) WT, (B) mmpL3_{V197M}, and (C) mmpL3_{A326T} M. smegmatis spheroplasts following treatment with or without purified LysB. DMSO serves as a negative control. Equal amounts of radioactivity were spotted for each sample. The developing solvent system comprises chloroform-methanol-water (30:8:1). (D) A graphical plot showing the dose-dependent

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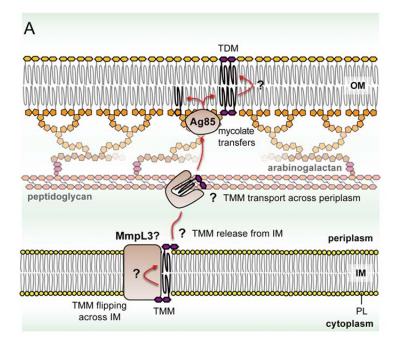
effects of BM212 on the amounts of TMMs remaining in the respective spheroplasts following LysB treatment. TMM levels were quantified from TLCs shown in (A-C) expressed as a percentage of total mycolates (TMM+MA), and normalized against that in corresponding control samples without LysB treatment. Average normalized percentages and standard deviations from three biological replicates are plotted. Student's t-test: *, p < 0.05; **, p < 0.01 compared to the corresponding DMSO controls for each respective strain. (E-G) Representative bright-field fluorescence microscopy images following and DIBO-biotin/Alexa Fluor 488-streptavidin labelling of mmpL3_{V197M} spheroplasts synthesizing (E) TMM, or 6-azido-TMM in the presence of (F) DMSO, and (G) BM212 (2xMIC). Scale bars = $3 \mu m$.

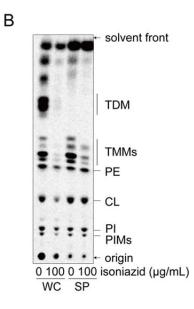
Fig. 6. Mutations that confer resistance against BM212 cluster on a structural model of MmpL3, suggesting a possible binding site. A phyre2 (33) structural model for *M. smegmatis* MmpL3 without its C-terminal cytoplasmic domain is shown in side- (*left*) and top-view (*right*) orientations. For clarity, periplasmic domains are removed from the top-view orientation. Residues important for passage of protons are highlighted in black. Residues that conferred resistance against BM212 (9) when mutated in MmpL3 from *M. smegmatis*, *M. bovis BCG* and *M. tuberculosis* are highlighted in red, purple and cyan, respectively.

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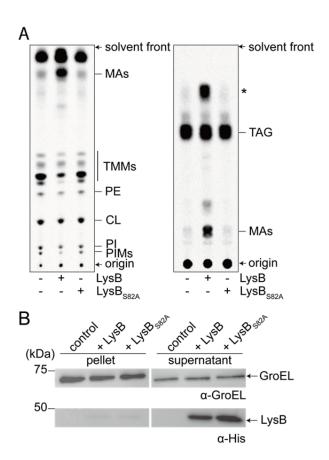
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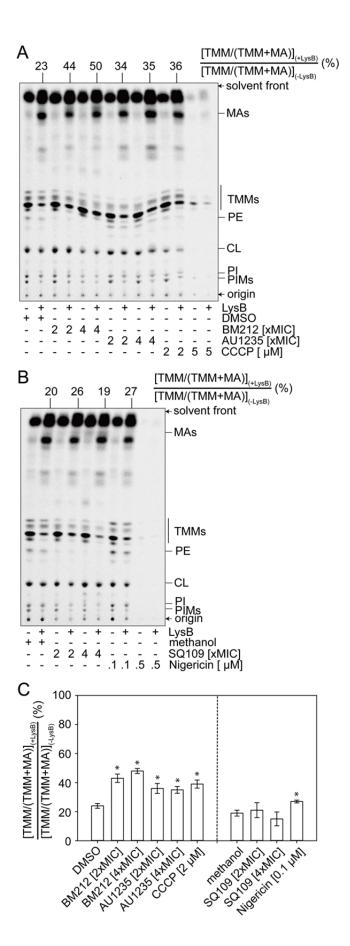
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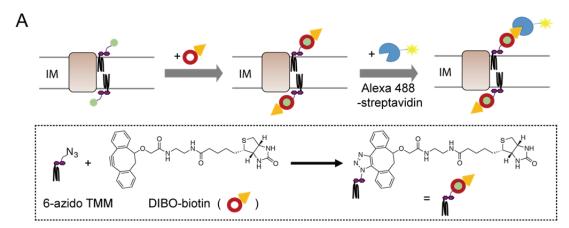


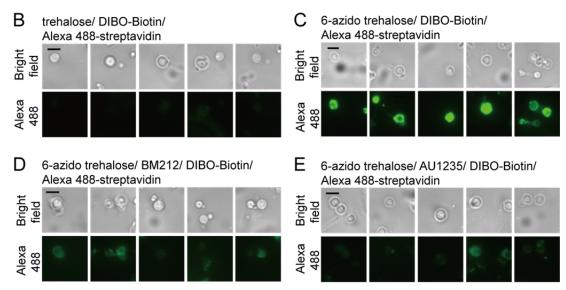


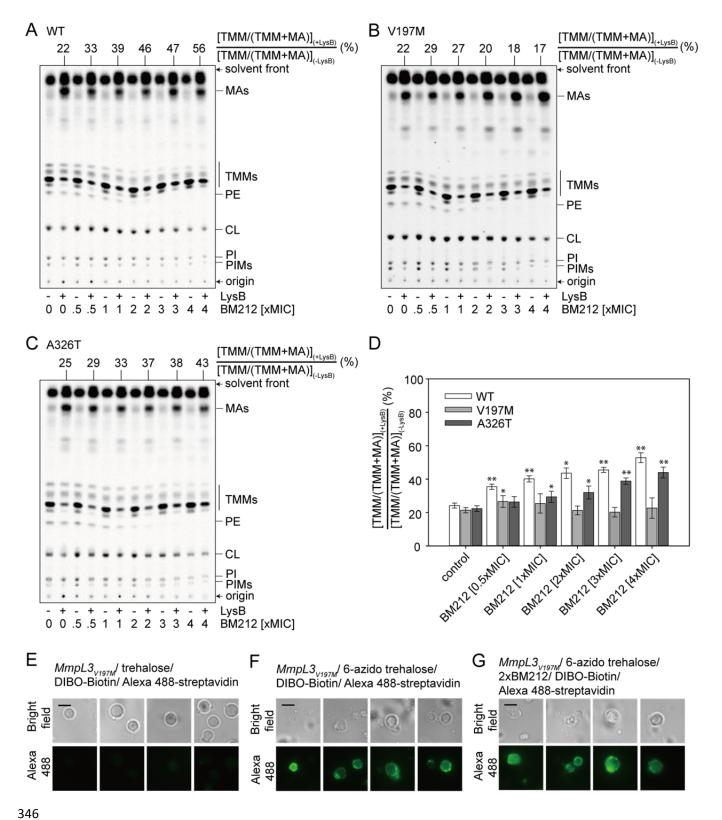
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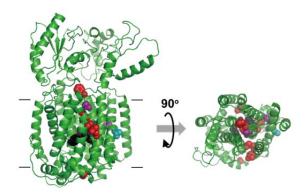












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Supplementary Information Title: MmpL3 is the flippase for mycolic acids in mycobacteria **Authors:** Zhujun Xu^a, Giovanna Poce^c, Shu-Sin Chng^{a,b,*} **Affiliations:** ^aDepartment of Chemistry, National University of Singapore, Singapore 117543. ^bSingapore Center on Environmental Life Sciences Engineering (SCELSE), National University of Singapore, Singapore 117456. ^cDipartimento di Chimica e Tecnologie del Farmaco, Sapienza University of Rome, Rome 00185, Italy *To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: chmchngs@nus.edu.sg

Supplementary Materials and Methods

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Bacterial strains and growth conditions. M. smegmatis mc²155 was used in all experiments unless otherwise noted. BM212-resistant M. smegmatis strains, SRBM212 26 (mmpL3_{V107M}) and SRBM212 20 (mmpL3_{A326T}), were obtained from the Rubin laboratory at Harvard School of Public Health (9). For spheroplast formation, strains were grown in tryptic soy broth (TSB; BD Falcon) containing 1% glucose and 0.05% Tween 80(16). For drug susceptibility tests, strains were grown in 7H9 broth (BD Falcon) containing 10% ADC enrichment (BD Falcon) and 0.05% Tween 80, or on 7H10 solid agar with 10% OADC enrichment (BD Falcon). Escherichia coli BL21(λDE3) was used for overexpression and purification of wild-type LysB and its non-functional LysB_{S82A} variant from pLAM3 (pET24a(+)lysB-His) (34) and pET24a(+) $lysB_{S82A}$ -His, respectively. Chemicals. BM212 was synthesized as previously reported (35). BM212 and AU1235 (JS Research Chemicals Trading) were solubilized in DMSO at 1 mg/ml and used as stock solutions. SQ109 (Vector Biomed) was solubilized in methanol at 1 mg/ml. CCCP (Sigma-Aldrich) was prepared as a 1-mM stock solution in DMSO. Nigericin (Sigma-Aldrich) was prepared as a 2-mM stock solution in methanol. Valinomycin (Sigma-Aldrich) was prepared as a 3-mM stock solution in ethanol. **Spheroplast formation.** M. smegmatis cells were converted to spheroplasts as described by Rakesh K et al (16). Briefly, a vial of M. smegmatis mc²155 glycerol stock was thawed and

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inoculated into TSB with 1% glucose and 0.05% Tween 80, followed by incubation at 37°C and 180 rpm until the optical density (OD₆₀₀) reached \sim 1.0. Glycine was then added into the culture to a final concentration of 1.2% (w/v), followed by continued incubation at 37°C and 120 rpm for 20 to 24 h. The glycine-treated cells were harvested by centrifugation at 4,000 x g, washed with 1xSMM buffer (final pH 6.8; 0.5 M sucrose and 20 mM MgCl₂ in 20 mM maleate buffer at pH 6.6), and re-suspended in TSB-SMM (TSB containing 1xSMM buffer) by gentle pipetting. Filter-sterilized solutions of lysozyme (5 mg/ml) and glycine (20% (w/v)) were added to final concentrations of 50 µg/ml and 1.2% (w/v), respectively. Spheroplast formation was complete after incubation at 37°C and 120 rpm for another 20 to 24 h. The final mixture was washed with 1xSMM buffer and filtered through a sterile cell strainer (20 um; BD Falcon) to eliminate clumps of cells. The successful generation of M. smegmatis spheroplasts was confirmed by examining morphology changes in both bright-field and fluorescence (DAPI, FM14-3) images taken using an Olympus IX71 inverted microscope. **Lipid profiling of M.** smegmatis spheroplasts. To label all lipids, M. smegmatis mc²155 cells or spheroplasts ($OD_{600} = 0.8$) were incubated for 2 h at 37°C in TSB or TSB-SMM (pH 6.8), respectively, containing sodium [1-14C]-acetate (final concentration 0.2 μCi/ml; Perkin Elmer NEC084A001MC). Where indicated, 100 µg/ml isoniazid (Sigma-Aldrich) was added to inhibit mycolic acid synthesis prior to [14C]-labelling. Labelled cells or spheroplasts were harvested by centrifugation at 5,000 x g for 10 min, and lipids extracted as follows. Briefly, cell pellets (from 1-ml cultures at $OD_{600} = 0.8$) were resuspended in 800-µl of single-phase chloroform-methanol-water (2:1:0.2) solution, followed by three repeats of alternating bath sonication (1 min duration) and brief vortexing. Appropriate volumes of methanol and water were then added to give a two-phase chloroform-methanol-water (1:1:0.8) mixture, the sample vortexed, and then centrifuged at $10,000 \times g$ for 5 min to achieve phase separation. The organic phases (bottom phase) containing lipids were collected and air-dried overnight in a fumehood. Lipids were analyzed by TLC, and visualized by phosphor imaging.

Assessing TMM accessibility to degradation in spheroplasts by purified LysB. To label all lipids, M. smegmatis mc²155 spheroplasts (OD₆₀₀ = 0.8) were incubated for 2 h at 37°C in 1xSMM buffer (pH 6.8) containing sodium [1-¹⁴C]-acetate (final concentration 0.2 μ Ci/ml; Perkin Elmer NEC084A001MC). Following labelling, 1-ml spheroplast suspensions were aliquoted into separate microcentrifuge tubes and treated with purified LysB (50 μ g/ml final concentration), purified inactive LysB_{882A}, or no LysB for 30 min at 37°C. Treated spheroplasts were harvested by centrifugation at 5,000 x g for 10 min. Lipids were extracted according to the procedure outlined in the "Lipid profiling" section, analyzed by TLC, and visualized by phosphor imaging. To test the effects of putative MmpL3 inhibitors in this assay, spheroplasts were pre-treated (prior to labelling) with indicated concentrations of compounds, including BM212, AU1235, SQ109 and valinomycin (in presence of 100 mM KCl), and incubated for 15 min at 37°C. DMSO, methanol and ethanol were used as negative controls (depending on the solvent used to solubilize each compound), while CCCP and nigericin were used as positive controls.

To examine if selected compounds (BM212 and AU1235) affected the activity of LysB, samples were treated with DDM (final concentration 0.02% (w/v)) to lyse spheroplasts

after radiolabeling and prior to LysB treatment. Following LysB treatment, lipids were extracted from the whole solution with a slightly modified procedure. Appropriate volumes of chloroform and methanol were added to the \sim 1-ml solution to give a single-phase chloroform-methanol-water (1:2:0.8) solution. The sample was then subjected to five repeats of alternating bath sonication (2 min duration) and brief vortexing (10 s). The final solution was converted to a two-phase chloroform-methanol-water (1:1:0.8) mixture by adding appropriate volumes of chloroform and water, vortexed and finally centrifuged at 4,000 x g for 30 min to achieve phase separation. The organic phases (bottom phase) containing lipids were collected and air-dried overnight in a fumehood. Lipids were analyzed by TLC, and visualized by phosphor imaging.

To test if treatment with LysB resulted in lysis of spheroplasts, mock reactions not containing radioactive sodium acetate were set up so as to examine cytoplasmic protein localization after cell fractionation. *M. smegmatis* mc^2 155 spheroplasts (OD₆₀₀ = 0.8) were incubated for 2 h at 37°C in 1xSMM buffer (pH 6.8) containing sodium acetate (final concentration 18 µg/ml). 1-ml spheroplast suspensions were then aliquoted into separate microcentrifuge tubes and treated with purified LysB (50 µg/ml final concentration), purified inactive LysB_{S82A}, or no LysB for 30 min at 37°C. Treated spheroplasts were centrifuged at 5,000 x g for 10 min to separate cell pellets and supernatants. Pellets were washed twice and resuspended in 1-ml 1xSMM buffer. Supernatants were further purified by two sequential centrifugation steps (10,000 x g, 10 min) to remove residual spheroplasts. 100 µl from both pellet and supernatant samples were mixed separately with equal volumes of 2x Laemmli SDS-PAGE reducing sample buffer, and boiled at 100°C for 10 min. Equal volumes of all

samples were then subjected to SDS-PAGE, followed by immunoblotting using antibodies against GroEL2 (cytoplasmic protein) and the penta-histidine tag (to detect LysB-His).

Thin layer chromatography. All dried radiolabeled lipid samples were suspended in 100 μ l chloroform-methanol (4:1). Equal volumes (20 μ l) of samples were mixed with 2 ml of Ultima Gold scintillation fluid (Perkin Elmer, Singapore). The [14 C]-counts were measured using scintillation counting (MicroBeta2 $^{\circ}$, Perkin-Elmer) and taken as the levels of total lipids isolated from the spheroplasts. Equal amounts (\sim 5,000 cpm) of radioactivity were spotted on Silica 60 F₂₅₄ TLC plates (Merck). TLCs were developed in chambers pre-equilibrated for 30 min with solvent systems chloroform-methanol-water (30:8:1) or hexane-diethylether-acetic acid (70:30:1), where indicated. After development, TLC plates were air-dried for 2 hours and later visualized by phosphor imaging (STORM, GE healthcare). Densitometric analyses of TMM and MA spots for each lane (sample) on the phosphor images of TLCs were carried out using ImageQuant TL analysis software (version 7.0, GE Healthcare).

Overexpression and purification of D29 mycobacteriophage LysB and its inactive variant. BL21(λ DE3) containing pLAM3 (pET24a(+)lysB-His) (34) or pET24a(+) $lysB_{S82A}$ -His were used for overexpression and purification of wild-type LysB or its non-functional LysB_{S82A} variant, respectively. pLAM3 was a kind gift from Graham Hatfull (University of Pittsburgh). pET24a(+) $lysB_{S82A}$ -His was constructed from pLAM3 via site-directed mutagenesis. For each strain, 30-ml small culture was first grown from single

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colony in LB broth (supplemented with 200 μg/ml ampicillin) at 37°C until OD₆₀₀ ~0.5-0.7. A 3-1 culture was then inoculated using the small culture at 1:100 dilution and grown in LB broth at 37°C until OD₆₀₀ ~0.5-0.7. Isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG; 1st Base) was subsequently added to large cultures to get a final concentration of 1 mM. After incubation at 37°C for 2 h, cells were harvested by centrifugation at 4,700 x g for 20 min. Pelleted cells were resuspended in 20 ml of cold buffer A (20 mM Tris HCl, pH 8.0, 150 mM NaCl) containing 100 µg/ml lysozyme, 100 µM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF) and 50 µg/ml DNase I. The re-suspended cells were lysed by a single passage through a high pressure French Press (French Press G-M, Glen Mills) homogenizer at 20,000 psi. Unbroken cells were removed by centrifugation at 5,000 x g for 10 min. The cell lysate was collected and centrifuged at 100,000 x g for 1 h in an ultracentrifuge (Model XL-90, Beckman Coulter) to remove membrane debris. The supernatant was collected, loaded onto a column packed with 2.5 mL of TALON cobalt resin (Clontech) pre-equilibrated with 25 mL of buffer B (50 mM Tris HCl, 300 mM NaCl, 10 mM imidazole, pH 8.0), and incubated at 4°C for 1 h with rocking. The resin mixture was later allowed to drain by gravity. The filtrate was collected, reloaded into the column and drained as above. The resin was washed with 4 x 25 ml buffer B, and then eluted with 10 ml of buffer C (50 mM Tris HCl, 150 mM NaCl, 200 mM imidazole, pH 8.0). The eluate was concentrated in a 10 kDa cut-off ultra-filtration device (Amicon Ultra, Merck Millipore) by centrifugation at 4,000 x g to ~250 μl. The concentrated samples were further purified by size exclusive chromatography on an AKTA Pure machine using a prepacked Superdex 75 column (GE Healthcare) with TBS as the eluent. The concentrations of purified LysB and LysB_{S82A} were determined using the DCTM protein assay 497 (Bio-Rad).

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6-azido-TMM surface display assay. 1-ml of M. smegmatis spheroplasts (OD = 0.8) in 1xSMM buffer was fed with 100 uM 6-azido-trehalose (a kind gift of Benjamin Swarts (Central Michigan U)) at 37°C for 2 h to allow the biosynthesis of 6-azido-TMM (20). The same concentration of trehalose was employed for spheroplasts used as a negative control. Spheroplasts were washed twice with 1xSMM buffer, resuspended in 1 ml of the same buffer, and then incubated at room temperature with Click-IT® Biotin DIBO Alkyne (final 5 µg/ml; ThermoFisher Scientific product no. C10412) for 1 hour in the dark. This step labels all 6-azido-TMMs via click chemistry to afford biotin-TMMs. Following this, spheroplasts were again washed thrice with 1xSMM buffer and resuspended in 1 ml of the same buffer. To specifically label surface-exposed biotin-TMMs, Alexa Fluor® 488 streptavidin (final 1 µg/ml; ThermoFisher Scientific product no. S32354) was added to the spheroplasts and incubated for 1 hour at room temperature in the dark. Following three washes with 1xSMM buffer, the spheroplasts were re-suspended in 50 µl 1xSMM buffer. 10 µl of each sample was spotted onto a microscope glass slide. Bright-field and fluorescence (λ_{ex} 488 nm/ λ_{em} 525 nm) images were captured on an Olympus IX71 inverted microscope using an Photometrics CoolSNAP HQ² camera and SoftWoRx 4.10 software (MBI NUS). To test the effects of putative MmpL3 inhibitors in this assay, spheroplasts were pre-treated (prior to labelling with 6-azido-trehalose) with indicated concentrations of compounds, including BM212 and AU1235, and incubated for 15 min at 37°C. In addition, all wash buffers contained the same concentrations of these compounds. DMSO was used as a negative control.

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Determination intracellular \mathbf{of} pН using the 2',7'-bis-(2-carboxyethyl)-5-(and-6)-carboxyfluorescein acetoxymethyl ester (BCECF-AM) dve. The effects of inhibitors on ΔpH were determined using BCECF, a pH-sensitive fluorescent dye activated inside cells via esterase-mediated hydrolysis of BCECF-AM (36). First, a standard curve was generated as follows. Briefly, M. smegmatis spheroplasts (OD = 0.8) in 1xSMM buffers at various pHs (6.0 - 8.0) were incubated with 20 μM BCECF-AM at 37°C for 30 min in the presence of 20 μM nigericin. Nigericin is a proton uncoupler and serves to allow equilibration of protons (pH) across the membrane. The buffers also contained 100 mM potassium chloride (KCl), presumably to ensure a steady membrane potential ($\Delta \psi$). Fluorescence emission (λ_{em} 525 nm) intensities of intracellular BCECF were measured following excitation at λ_{ex} 488 and 440 nm in a SPECTRAmax 250 microplate spectrophotometer equipped with SOFTmax PRO software (Molecular Devices). The ratio of fluorescence emission intensities at these two excitation wavelengths, or the fluorescence excitation profile (λ_{ex} 488 nm/ λ_{ex} 440 nm), is pH-dependent. Average (λ_{ex} 488 nm/ λ_{ex} 440 nm) values were obtained from technical triplicates and plotted against pH to obtain a linear standard curve (Extended Data Fig. 6). To test the effects of putative MmpL3 inhibitors on intracellular pH (and hence Δ pH), spheroplasts (OD = 0.8) in 1xSMM buffer at pH 6.8 were pre-treated with indicated concentrations of compounds, including BM212, AU1235 and SQ109, and incubated at 37°C for 30 min. DMSO and methanol were used as negative controls, while CCCP and nigericin were used as positive controls. 20 µM BCECF-AM was then added to the samples and

incubation was continued for 30 min before fluorescence measurements. Fluorescence excitation profiles (λ_{ex} 488 nm/ λ_{ex} 440 nm) of BCECF for each condition were averaged (across three technical replicates) and calibrated against the standard curve. The intracellular pH and ΔpH are tabulated in Extended Data Table 2.

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Membrane potential measurements in M. smegmatis spheroplasts. The effects of inhibitors determined using the membrane potential-sensitive on Δψ were 3,3'-dipropylthiodicarbocyanine (DiSC₃(5)) dye (37). DiSC₃(5) binds to energized membranes and becomes quenched. When $\Delta \psi$ is disrupted, the dye leaves the membrane, resulting in an increase in fluorescence. 1.5-ml M. smegmatis spheroplasts (OD =0.8) were used in 1xSMM buffer containing 10 mM glucose and 1 µM nigericin (added to remove the effects of ΔpH). DiSC₃(5) was then added to samples to get a final concentration of 5 μ M and equilibrated for 10 min at room temperature. From this point, fluorescence was continuously monitored with a SPECTRAmax 250 microplate spectrophotometer equipped with SOFTmax PRO software (Molecular Devices), employing an excitation wavelength of 643 nm and an emission wavelength of 666 nm. The effects of various compounds, including BM212 and AU1235, on Δψ were measured by monitoring increase in fluorescence when these compounds were added at specific time points at indicated concentrations. DMSO and valinomycin (with potassium chloride) were used as positive and negative controls, respectively.

Drug susceptibility tests. MICs of compounds against various M. smegmatis strains were

determined using both solid and liquid media (10). For assays performed with solid media, 7H10 agar medium supplemented with 10% OADC and 0.5% glycerol was used to prepare plates containing 2-fold serial dilutions of indicated compounds at concentrations ranging from 0.78 to 50 μ g/ml. Cell cultures were grown to mid-log growth phase (OD ~0.5-0.8) in 7H9 broth and diluted to a final concentration of ~2×10⁶ cells/ml. One microliter of the diluted culture was then streaked onto each plate and incubated at 37°C for 3 to 4 days. The MIC was defined as the lowest concentration of compound that prevented the formation of colonies.

For assays performed with liquid media, the MIC was defined as the lowest concentration of compound that inhibited growth. Mycobacteria was inoculated at an OD_{600} of 0.003 in wells with 200 μ l 7H9 media containing 2-fold serial dilutions of indicated compounds at concentrations ranging from 0.78 to 50 μ g/ml, and incubated at 37°C for 24 h. 50 μ l of a 1 mg/ml solution of MTT (Thiazolyl Blue Tetrazolium Bromide, Sigma) in sterile water was added to each well. Samples were then incubated at room temperature for 2 hours and color changes reflecting active metabolism (live cells) were monitored.

SDS-PAGE and Western blots. SDS-PAGE was performed according to Laemmli using the 4-12% Tris.HCl polyacrylamide gels (38). Immunoblotting was performed by transferring protein bands from SDS-PAGE 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 by 1x casein blocking buffer (Sigma). α-His antibody (penta-histidine) conjugated to the horseradish peroxidase (HRP)

(Qiagen) was used at a dilution of 1:5,000. Mouse monoclonal α -GroEL2 antibody (BEI Resources) was used at 1:1,000 dilution. Sheep α -mouse IgG secondary antibody conjugated to HRP (GE Healthcare) was used at 1:5,000 dilution. Luminata Forte Western HRP Substrate (Merck Milipore) was used and chemiluminescent signals were visualized using the G:BOX Chemi XT 4 (Genesys version 1.3.4.0, Syngene).

Supplementary Figure Legends

Fig. S1 M. smegmatis spheroplasts are successfully generated after treatment with glycine and lysozyme. Cellular morphologies of M. smegmatis cells and spheroplasts visualized by light and fluorescence microscopy after labelling with membrane and DNA dyes, FM14-3 and DAPI, respectively. Scale bar = 3 μ m.

Fig. S2 BM212 and AU1235 do not affect the activity of LysB. Representative TLC analysis of [14C]-labelled lipids newly-synthesized in the presence of indicated concentrations of BM212 and AU1235, and extracted from *M. smegmatis* spheroplasts following treatment with or without purified LysB. Where indicated, n-dodecyl-β-maltoside (DDM) was added to solubilize spheroplasts immediately prior to LysB addition. DMSO was used to dissolve the compounds and thus serve as negative controls. Equal amounts of radioactivity were spotted for each sample. The developing solvent system comprises chloroform-methanol-water (30:8:1). TMM levels in samples with LysB treatment were quantified from the TLC, expressed as a percentage of total mycolates (TMM+MA), and normalized against that in corresponding control samples without LysB treatment. FA, fatty acid.

Fig. S3 Membrane potential ($\Delta \psi$) is not required for TMM flipping across the IM. Representative TLC analysis of [14 C]-labelled lipids newly-synthesized in the presence of increasing concentrations of valinomycin (a potassium ionophore), and extracted from *M. smegmatis* spheroplasts following treatment with or without purified LysB. Ethanol was used

to dissolve valinomycin and thus serve as a negative control. Equal amounts of radioactivity were spotted for each sample. The developing solvent system comprises chloroform-methanol-water (30:8:1). TMM levels in samples with LysB treatment were quantified from the TLC, expressed as a percentage of total mycolates (TMM+MA), and normalized against that in corresponding control samples without LysB treatment.

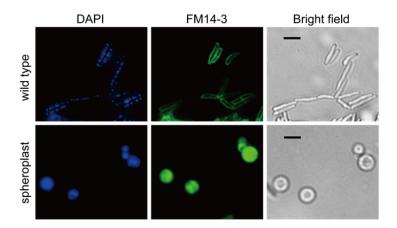
Fig. S4 Standard curve for intracellular pH measurements using the BCECF dye (36). The non-fluorescent BCECF acetoxymethyl ester (BCECF-AM) dye is used to measure intracellular pH. Upon entering spheroplasts, BCECF-AM is hydrolyzed by esterases to liberate BCECF, which is now fluorescent. The fluorescence excitation profile (λ_{ex} 488 nm/ λ_{ex} 440 nm) of BCECF is pH-dependent and varies linearly in the range of pH 6 to 8. Average (λ_{ex} 488 nm/ λ_{ex} 440 nm) values and standard deviations from technical triplicates are plotted.

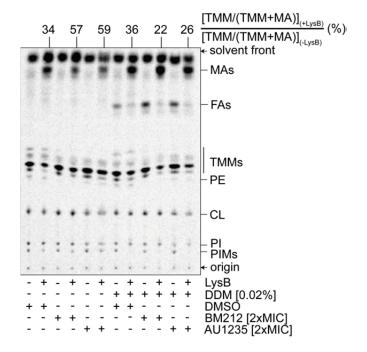
Fig. S5 BM212 and AU1235 have minimal effects on the membrane potential ($\Delta \psi$) in *M. smegmatis* spheroplasts. Fluorescence intensity changes of 3,3'-dipropylthiadicarbocyanine iodide (DiSC₃(5)) dye in spheroplasts upon the addition of specified concentrations of BM212 and AU1235 at the indicated time points. DiSC₃(5) binds to energized membranes and becomes quenched. When $\Delta \psi$ is disrupted, the dye leaves the membrane, resulting in an increase in fluorescence. Valinomycin-K⁺ and DMSO serve as positive and negative controls, respectively.

Supplementary Figures

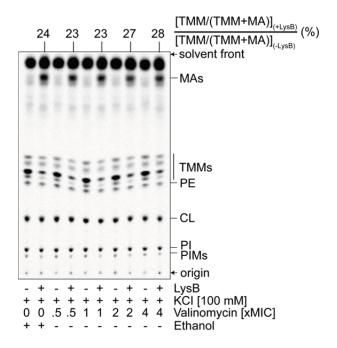
635 Figure S1

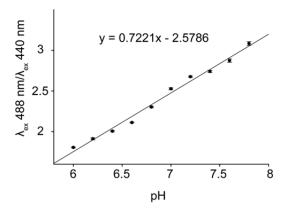
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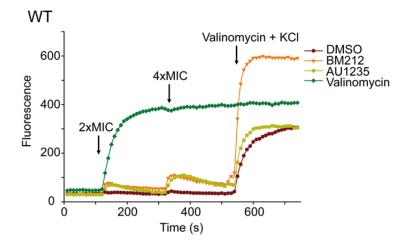


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Supplementary Tables

 Table S1. Reported and measured minimal inhibitory concentrations (MICs) of various compounds against indicated *M. smegmatis* strains.

Strain	MIC (μg/ml)								
	BM212			AU1235			SQ109		
	reported	liquid	solid	reported	liquid	solid	reported	liquid	
WT	3.125	3.125	3.125	3.125	3.125	3.125	3.125	3.125	
$mmpL3_{V197M}$	25	12.5	12.5	-	-	-	-	-	
$mmpL3_{A326T}$	25	12.5	12.5	-	-	-	-	-	

Table S2. BM212, AU1235 and SQ109 do not affect the Δ pH across the IM in *M. smegmatis* spheroplasts.

Drug	$pH_{outside}^{*}$	pH _{inside} †	ΔpH [‡]	
DMSO	6.80	7.21 (±0.02)	0.41 (±0.02)	
BM212 (2xMIC)	6.80	$7.12 (\pm 0.02)$	$0.32 (\pm 0.02)$	
BM212 (4xMIC)	6.80	$7.25~(\pm 0.06)$	$0.45~(\pm 0.06)$	
AU1235 (2xMIC)	6.80	7.11 (±0.02)	$0.31 (\pm 0.02)$	
AU1235 (4xMIC)	6.80	7.06 (±0.01)	$0.26~(\pm 0.01)$	
2 μM CCCP	6.80	6.74 (±0.01)	-0.06 (±0.01)	
5 μM CCCP	6.80	$6.65 \ (\pm 0.02)$	-0.15 (±0.02)	
methanol	6.80	$7.08 \ (\pm 0.03)$	$0.28~(\pm 0.03)$	
SQ109 (2xMIC)	6.80	$7.47 (\pm 0.28)$	$0.67 (\pm 0.28)$	
SQ109 (4xMIC)	6.80	$7.28 (\pm 0.01)$	$0.48~(\pm 0.01)$	
0.1 μM Nigericin	6.80	$7.18 (\pm 0.02)$	$0.38 \ (\pm 0.02)$	
0.5 μM Nigericin	6.80	6.89 (±0.02)	0.09 (±0.02)	

^{*} refers to pH of external buffer.

[†] intracellular pH obtained using the 2',7'-bis-(2-carboxyethyl)-5-(and-6)-carboxyfluorescein (BCECF) dye. Measurements of the fluorescence excitation profile (λ_{ex} 488 nm/ λ_{ex} 440 nm) of BCECF were averaged (across the three technical replicates) and calibrated against a standard curve (Supplementary Fig. 4). Standard deviations are given in parenthesis.

[‡] pH_{inside} - pH_{outside}.