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2 **Supplementary Information for**

3 **Role of internal loop dynamics in antibiotic permeability of outer membrane porins**

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13 **Extended Methods**

14 **Preparation and simulation of membrane-embedded OmpF.** We used the X-ray structure of OmpF trimer (PDB ID: 3POX) (1),
15 including all the crystal water molecules, as a starting point for our simulations. In each monomer, residues E296, D312, and
16 D127 were protonated in accordance with previous studies(2–4). The OmpF trimer was embedded in a symmetric membrane
17 composed of 1,2-dimyristoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DMPC) lipid molecules. Usage of an OM composition containing
18 lipopolysaccharides (LPS) is not considered, since the membrane composition is unlikely to influence the dynamics of L3 as
19 this internal loop is fully internalized in the protein fold and not exposed to the membrane. The protein-DMPC system was
20 then solvated with TIP3P water (5) and buffered in 0.15 M NaCl. Each step of the membrane building process was carried out
21 using the Membrane Builder module of CHARMM-GUI (6). The final system contained $\sim 140,000$ atoms with dimensions of
22 $120 \times 120 \times 100 \text{ \AA}^3$. Then, 10 independent molecular dynamics simulations were run. In each simulation, the prepared system
23 was minimized using the steepest descent algorithm for 2,000 steps, followed by an initial equilibration of 5 ns, during which
24 the protein heavy atoms were harmonically restrained using a force constant of $5 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$. Then, 1 μs of unrestrained
25 production simulation was performed for each replica.

26 **Electric field simulations.** Ionic current was calculated by performing simulations with a constant electric field normal to the
27 membrane. Five replicas of ionic current simulations were performed with an OmpF monomer, for each of the three different
28 OmpF conformations (O , C_A , C_B) derived from MSM analysis (see below). The starting point for each simulation was a
29 representative OmpF monomer from each protein conformation. The OmpF monomers were independently embedded in a
30 symmetric membrane composed of 1,2-dimyristoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DMPC) lipid molecules, solvated with TIP3P
31 water (5) and buffered in 0.5 M NaCl to enhance sampling of ionic current in the simulation. For each simulation, the prepared
32 system was minimized using the steepest descent algorithm for 2,000 steps, followed by an initial relaxation simulation of
33 1 ns, during which the protein heavy atoms were harmonically restrained using a force constant of $1 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$. Each
34 production simulation was then performed for 100 ns with an electric field corresponding to a membrane electric potential
35 difference of 100 mV. During these simulations, the protein heavy atoms were harmonically restrained using a relatively weak
36 force constant of $0.1 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$ to maintain the respective conformational state of the protein (O , C_A , or C_B).

37 Ionic current (I) was computed by counting the number of ions (Na^+ and Cl^-) that cross the porin over time, i.e., $I =$
38 $N \times \frac{q}{\tau}$, where N is the number of ion crossing events over a time interval τ , and q is the charge of the ion ($1.60217662 \times 10^{-19}$
39 Coulombs for Na^+ , and $-1.60217662 \times 10^{-19}$ Coulombs for Cl^-). The total current was simply the sum of the net Na^+ current
40 minus the net Cl^- current. The conductance (C) was then calculated as $C = \frac{I}{V}$.”
41

42 **Antibiotic permeation free energy calculations.** To investigate the energetics of permeation of fosfomycin in the open and closed
43 states, two independent sets of bias exchange umbrella sampling (BEUS) simulations (7–11) were performed starting from the
44 O and C_A states derived from our MSM analysis (see below). The force field parameters for fosfomycin were generated using
45 the CHARMM General Force Field (CGenFF) (12–14) with the ParamChem server.

46 The initial seeds for these BEUS simulations were obtained using a Monte Carlo-based pathway search (MCPS) algorithm,
47 specifically developed to improve sampling of the position and orientation of antibiotics in OM porins (15). Briefly, MCPS
48 determines the most likely permeation pathway through OmpF using an energetic descriptor of the system, while systematically
49 exploring all positions and orientations of the antibiotic in the region of interest based on an initial screening. To run MCPS,
50 we first take a representative monomer of each protein conformational state (O or C_A) and explore translational and rotational
51 degrees of freedoms of the drug within the pore to generate datasets containing hundreds of thousands of discrete drug-protein
52 poses. Each drug-protein pose is then minimized while fixing protein backbone. This dataset is then used to construct a
53 multidimensional drug-protein interaction energy (IE) landscape along the translation (Z -coordinate) and two orientation
54 angles (inclination angle, θ , and azimuthal angle, ϕ). Then, we walk through the resulting IE landscape using Monte Carlo
55 (MC) moves to determine favorable (low energy) trajectories/pathways connecting extracellular and periplasmic spaces. The
56 starting point within a trajectory is randomly selected from a pose in the extracellular space. To better sample putative
57 pathways in our defined space, we generated 2,000 MCPS trajectories. These trajectories were then used to build a connected
58 graph to be used in Dijkstra’s algorithm to determine the most favorable permeation pathway. A detailed description for each
59 step is provided in our previous study (15).

60 The most likely pathways for the drug, calculated independently for the two conformational states of OmpF (open and
61 closed), were used to seed the BEUS simulations (7–11). The main part of the pathways used, namely the part within the
62 protein, included poses with Z -values ranging from -10 to 24 Å (relative to the midplane of the membrane) of 1 Å width; to
63 obtain reference free energies, we extended the number of windows in the extracellular and periplasmic spaces such that the
64 terminal windows are at least 10 Å away from any atom of the protein. To ensure adequate histogram overlap in BEUS,
65 additional windows were added in between the original windows for the CR ($Z = -3$ to 12 Å) such that the window width was
66 0.5 Å within this region. In total, 94 windows were used spanning 80 Å from the extracellular ($Z = 46$ Å) to the periplasmic
67 ($Z = -34$ Å) space.

68 To take into account the biologically relevant configuration of the system, for each window we built a trimeric, membrane-
69 embedded, drug-bound system. To do this, we first aligned the backbone atoms of the β -barrel of the drug-bound monomer of
70 each window to an OmpF monomer in the trimeric X-ray structure of the protein (PDB ID: 3POX) (1). Then, we merged the
71 resulting coordinates of the aligned antibiotic-monomer system with the two additional monomers of the trimeric OmpF. In the
72 generated trimer for each window, residues E296, D312, and D127 were protonated (2–4). The windows were then embedded
73 in a symmetric membrane composed of 1,2-dimyristoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DMPC) lipid molecules in each leaflet
74 generated using the Membrane Builder module of CHARMM-GUI (6). Each window was solvated with TIP3P water (5) and
75 buffered in 0.15 M NaCl to generate trimeric systems containing $\sim 140,000$ atoms with dimensions of $120 \times 120 \times 100 \text{ \AA}^3$.

76 Before performing BEUS simulations, each trimer was minimized using 10,000 steps of the steepest descent algorithm, and
77 then the molecular system was relaxed at the center of each window during a 1-ns MD simulation while the drug and heavy
78 atoms of the protein were restrained with a force constant of $1 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$. This was followed by 30 ns of BEUS simulations
79 (until the convergence of the free-energy) during which the protein backbone heavy atoms were restrained with a force constant
80 of $1 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$, using the distance along the membrane normal (Z -axis) between the drug’s C.O.M and the C.O.M of the
81 drug-containing monomer as the collective variable. The force constants were $2.0 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$ for all windows except for the
82 windows in the CR, which had force constants of $7.0 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$. Using these force constants resulted in good window
83 overlap for each drug-protein system. The first 10 ns of each window were discarded, and the rest was used in evaluating the
84 free energy. A non-parametric variation of the weighted histogram analysis method (WHAM) (16), proposed by Bartels (17)
85 and implemented by Moradi and Tajkhorshid (11) was used to estimate the free-energy profile from the BEUS simulations.

86 **Molecular dynamics (MD) simulation protocol.** MD simulations in this study were performed using NAMD (18, 19) utilizing
87 CHARMM36m (20) and CHARMM36 (21) force field parameters for proteins and lipids, respectively. A timestep of 2 fs
88 was used in all simulations, and periodic boundary conditions were employed in all three dimensions. Bonded and short-range
89 nonbonded interactions were calculated every timestep. The particle mesh Ewald (PME) method (22) was used to calculate
90 long-range electrostatic interactions every 4 fs with a grid density of 1 \AA^{-3} . A force-based switching function was employed for
91 pairwise nonbonded interactions starting at a distance of 10 Å with a cutoff of 12 Å. Pairs of atoms whose interactions were
92 evaluated were searched and updated every 20 fs. A cutoff (13.5 Å) slightly longer than the nonbonded cutoff was applied to
93 search for the interacting atom pairs. Constant pressure was maintained at a target of 1 atm using the Nosé-Hoover Langevin
94 piston method (23, 24). Langevin dynamics maintained a constant temperature of 310 K with a damping coefficient, γ , of
95 0.5 ps^{-1} applied to all atoms. Simulation trajectories were collected every 10 ps.

Markov state model construction. We used our trajectory dataset to construct a Markov state model (MSM) using pyEmma (25), which enabled us to obtain kinetic and thermodynamic information about the system. To build the MSM, first the trajectory dataset was featurized using 26 residue-residue distance pairs with significant hydrogen bonding (occupancy greater than 25% during the simulations, or a maximum lifetime greater than 50 ns in at least one of the monomers of any replica) between the highly fluctuating residues of L3 (residues 116-123) and the barrel wall. A hydrogen bond was counted between an electronegative atom with a hydrogen atom (H) covalently bound to it (the donor, D), and another electronegative atom (the acceptor, A), if the D-A distance is less than 3 Å and the D-H-A angle is greater than 120°. For these residue pairs, the minimum distance (in each frame of every trajectory) between any donated H and any A atom was used to create the MSM feature space. Since the distance pairs are uncorrelated between monomers (Fig. S3), we considered each monomer as an independent trajectory, giving us an aggregate trajectory data of 30 μs (10 independent runs × 3 monomers × 1 μs).

To remove redundant information within the feature space and identify the slowest reaction coordinates, time-structure based independent component analysis (tICA) was used to reduce the dimensionality of the feature space ($X(t)$) to the eigenvectors of an autocovariance matrix, $\langle X(t)X^T(t + \tau) \rangle$, with a lag time, $\tau=1$ ns (26-29). It is important to choose an optimal number of tICA eigenvectors since an MSM built using too many eigenvectors would have microstates with low statistical significance due to finite sampling error (30). We found that the first seven tICA eigenvectors are sufficient to construct the MSM because only the distribution of these eigenvectors significantly differed from the normal distribution (Fig. S4). Further statistical analysis using an MSM scoring method, VAMP-2 score (31), discussed further in the next section, showed that the quality of an MSM does not significantly improve when using more than five tICA eigenvectors (Fig. S5). Thus, we chose to reduce the number of eigenvectors to five in our study.

The conformational space was then discretized into multiple microstates using k-means clustering. To choose the number of microstates to use in the model, we used the VAMP-2 score (31), to evaluate the quality of MSMs built with different numbers of microstates. The VAMP-2 score converged when using five tICA eigenvectors and 1,000 microstates (Fig. S5); thus, we used this parameter set to build our MSM.

Then, a transition probability matrix (TPM) was constructed by evaluating the probability of transitioning between each microstate within a lag time, τ . To choose an adequate lag time to construct a TPM that ensures Markovian behavior, multiple TPMs were first created using multiple maximum-likelihood MSMs with different lag times. The implied timescales ($\tau_i = \frac{\tau}{\ln(\lambda_i)}$) were evaluated for each of these transition matrices, and saturation was observed at $\tau = 2$ ns (Fig. S6). Thus, we built our final TPM using a maximum likelihood MSM with a lag time of 2 ns. This final TPM is symmetrized using a maximum likelihood approach to ensure detailed balance (25). This step did not significantly change the raw TPM (Fig. S14), indicating that the initial sampling was done under dynamic equilibrium conditions.

To identify physically meaningful metrics for projecting the free energy of the conformational transitions, we used a protocol described by Pérez-Hernández *et al.* to choose the metric with greatest correlation to the second eigenvector of the TPM (29). The normalized correlation between the second eigenvector of the TPM and each of the 26 residue-residue distance pairs was evaluated as follows:

$$Corr(r_k, \tilde{\psi}_{2,s(t)}) = \frac{\langle r_k \tilde{\psi}_{2,s(t)} \rangle_t - \langle r_k \rangle_t \langle \tilde{\psi}_{2,s(t)} \rangle_t}{\langle r_k^2 \rangle_t \langle \tilde{\psi}_{2,s(t)}^2 \rangle_t},$$

where r_k is the k_{th} residue-residue distance, $\tilde{\psi}_2$ is the second eigenvector of the TPM, $s(t)$ is the trajectory of microstates, and $\langle \rangle_t$ is the time average. The E117-Y22 and D121-R132 distances were chosen for this purpose, as these features showed the greatest positive and negative correlations with the second eigenvector, respectively (Fig. S7). Using these features, we projected the free energy landscape weighted with the stationary distribution obtained from the MSM (Fig.2C,D). The free energy landscape using the raw trajectory data, unweighted by the stationary distribution, is very similar to the weighted landscape (Fig. 2 and Fig. S15), indicating that the initial sampling used to build the MSM was sufficient to mitigate any sampling bias. To determine the error of the free energy landscape, we first used bootstrapping to alter the TPM, and to create new free energy landscapes. The error was then determined in every bin of the landscape (Fig. S13). We used the free energy landscape to lump our microstates into 5 macrostates depending on whether the microstate physically lies within a free energy minima (defined using an energy cutoff of 1.2 kcal/mol) shown in Fig2.C,D. Macrostates are classified according to their pore bottleneck radius (Fig. 3) leading to: an open state (O), two intermediate states (I_A , and I_B) and two closed states (C_A , and C_B).

Transition path theory. To obtain kinetic information about the processes, the mean first passage times (MFPTs) for the $O-C_A$ and $O-C_B$ transitions were evaluated. The uncertainty in the MFPT was evaluated using a Bayesian estimated MSM, implemented in pyEmma (25). The transition path theory module in pyEmma (25) was used to identify the conformational transitions. This step was done by choosing the O and C_A/C_B states as the source and sink, respectively, and identifying the pathways connecting them.

Construction of *E. coli ompF* mutants. Strains carrying various *ompF* alleles were constructed in three steps. All strains, plasmids, primers and gBlocks used in these constructions are shown in Tables S1 to S4. Initially, a strain carrying a complete deletion of the *ompF* locus ($\Delta ompF8897::cat$) was constructed by λ -red-mediated recombination as described elsewhere (32). To do this, BW26678 was transformed to Cm^R using a PCR product obtained using primers ompF-cloningF and ompF-cloningR with pKD3 as the template, creating WM8897. The $\Delta ompF8897::cat$ allele removes the entire *ompF* coding sequence and 323 base-pairs upstream of the start codon containing the promoter and regulatory sequences. Second, a series of plasmids

154 carrying various *ompF* alleles were constructed using the pAH144 (33) as the vector. This plasmid encodes resistance to
155 streptomycin and spectinomycin (Strep/Spec^R) and can be inserted into the host chromosome in single copy at the Hong Kong
156 phage attachment site (*att*-HK). Initially we constructed pMEM501, which carries the WT *ompF* gene and 610 upstream
157 base-pairs, including the promoter and all known regulatory sequences. Plasmid pMEM501 was then modified by replacement
158 of an appropriate internal restriction endonuclease fragment with a synthetic DNA fragment carrying the desired mutations.
159 Finally, each of these plasmids was inserted into the chromosome of WM8901 by selection for Strep/Spec^R. The inserts of all
160 plasmids were verified by DNA sequencing. All strains were verified by PCR, including DNA sequencing of the PCR product,
161 to confirm the presence of the $\Delta ompF8897::cat$ allele and the correct plasmid inserted in single copy.

162 **Accumulation assay protocol.** The accumulation assay was performed in triplicate as outlined elsewhere (34, 35). A 5 mL
163 overnight culture was diluted into 250 mL of fresh lysogeny broth (LB) and grown at 37°C with shaking to an optical density
164 (OD₆₀₀) of 0.55-0.60. Once grown to mid-log phase, 200 mL of culture was pelleted at 3,220 r.c.f. for 10 minutes (at 4°C). The
165 supernatant was discarded and cells resuspended in 40 mL phosphate buffered saline (PBS), pelleted as before, and resuspended
166 in 8.8 mL PBS. Cells were aliquoted into 1.7 mL Eppendorf tubes each with 875 μ L and incubated with shaking at 37°C for 5
167 minutes to equilibrate cells. Colony forming units (CFUs) were determined by a calibration curve. These time points were
168 short enough to minimize metabolic and growth changes (no changes in OD₆₀₀ or CFU count observed). Cells were treated
169 with 50 μ M compound (8.75 μ L of 5 mM compound stock) for 10 minutes at 37°C with shaking. After incubation, 800 μ L
170 of culture was layered over 700 μ L cold silicone oil (9:1 AR20/Sigma High Temperature, cooled to -78°C) and cells pelleted
171 at 13,000 r.c.f. for 2 minutes at room temperature to separate supernatant and extracellular compound from bacterial cells.
172 The supernatant and oil were removed by pipette and the cell pellet was resuspended in 200 μ L MilliQ water. Samples were
173 subjected to three freeze-thaw cycles of alternating 3 minute incubation periods in liquid nitrogen (-78°C) and a 65°C water
174 bath. Lysed cells were pelleted at 13,000 r.c.f. for 2 minutes and 180 μ L of supernatant were collected. Cell pellets were
175 washed in 100 μ L methanol, vortexed, and pelleted at 13,000 r.c.f. for 2 minutes. After pelleting, 100 μ L of supernatant was
176 collected and combined with previous supernatants. Remaining debris were removed through centrifugation at 20,000 r.c.f.
177 for 10 minutes at room temperature. Supernatants were analyzed with the QTRAP 5500 LC/MS/MS system (Sciex) in the
178 Metabolomics Laboratory of the Roy J. Carver Biotechnology Center, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. Software
179 Analyst 1.6.2 was used for data acquisition and analysis. The 1200 Series HPLC System (Agilent Technologies) includes a
180 degasser, an autosampler and a binary pump. The liquid chromatography separation was performed on an Agilent Zorbax
181 SB-Aq column (4.6 mm \times 50 mm; 5 μ m) with mobile phase A (0.1% formic acid in water) and mobile phase B (0.1% formic
182 acid in acetonitrile). The flow rate was 0.3 mL min⁻¹. The linear gradient was as follows: 0–3 min: 100% A; 10–15 min: 2% A;
183 16–20.5 min: 100% A. The autosampler was set at 15°C. The injection volume was 1 μ L. Mass spectra were acquired under
184 positive electrospray ionization with a voltage of 5,500 V. The source temperature was 450°C. The curtain gas, ion source gas 1
185 and ion source gas 2 were 33, 65 and 60 psi, respectively. Multiple reaction monitoring was used for quantitation with external
186 calibration. All compounds evaluated in biological assays were \geq 95% pure, assessed by NMR and LC-MS.

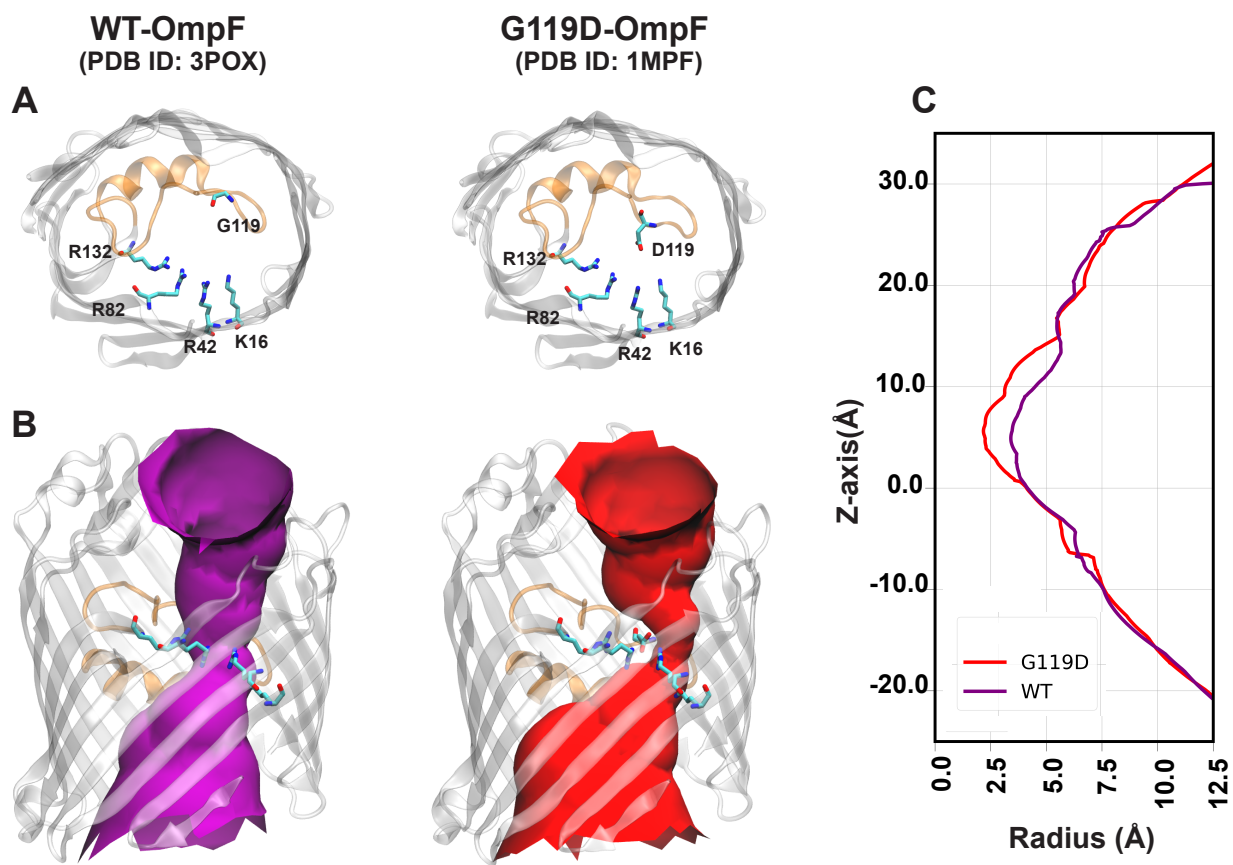


Fig. S1. (A) Top-down view of WT-OmpF and G119D-OmpF crystal structures, highlighting position 119 and the B-face residues. (B) Pore profile (determined using the program HOLE (36)) in WT-OmpF and mutant G119D-OmpF crystal structures. (C) Radius profile of the pore calculated using HOLE (36) for each structure.

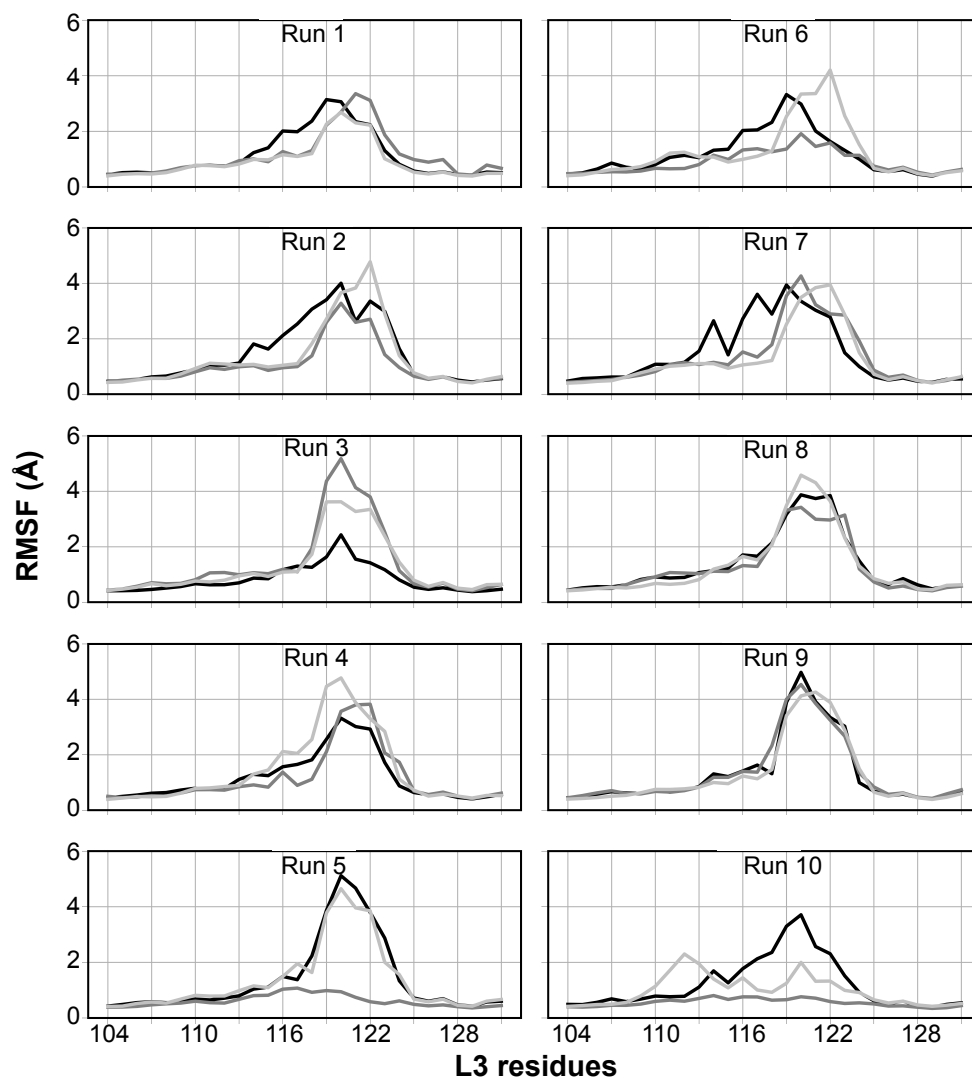


Fig. S2. Root mean-squared fluctuations of L3 residues in each monomer in all 10 replicas.

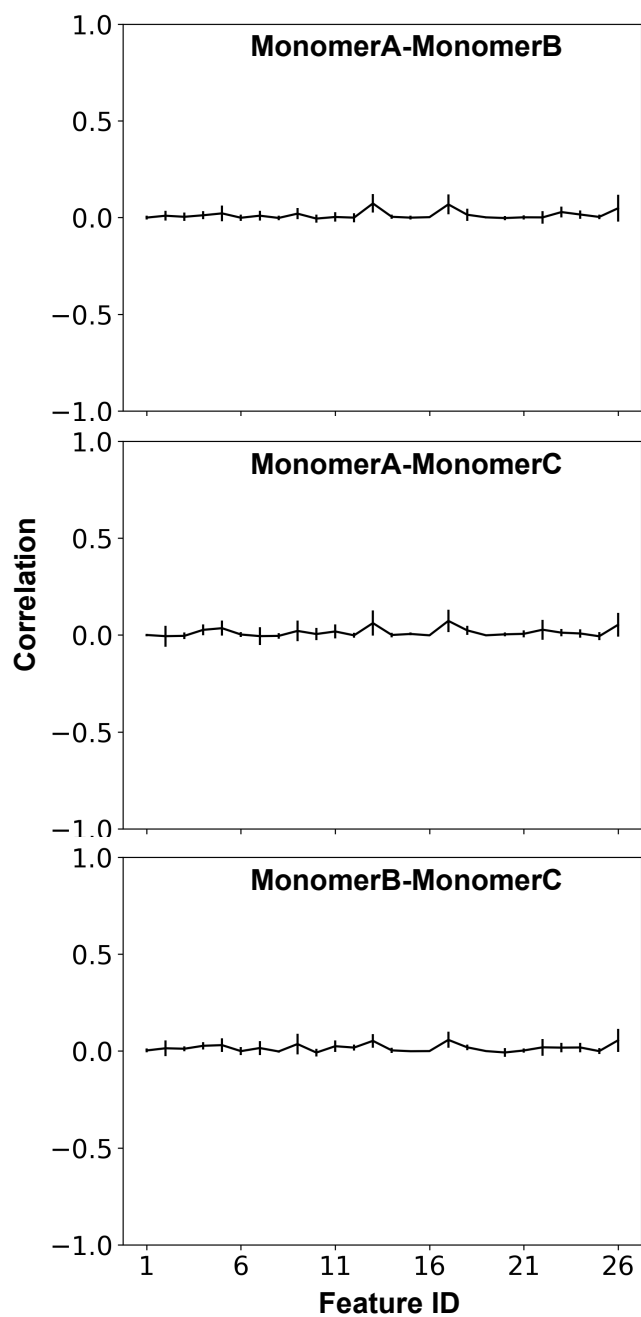


Fig. S3. The time-averaged monomer-monomer correlation coefficient for each distance pair feature. The average and standard deviation of the correlation coefficients from all simulations is shown.

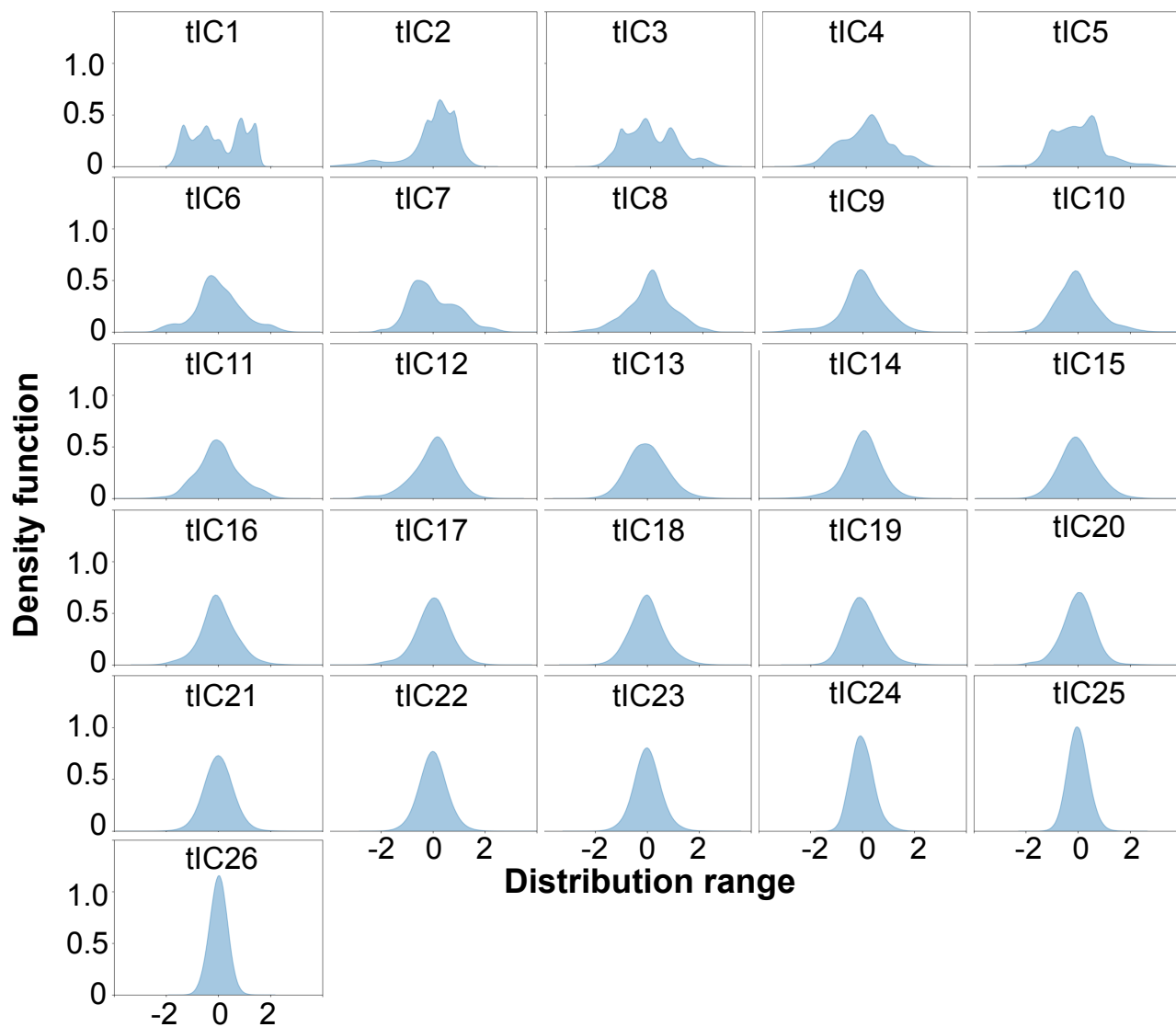


Fig. S4. Distributions of all 26 tICA eigenvectors evaluated from all of the distance pair features. The top seven eigenvectors show a non-Gaussian distribution, and are thus sufficient to build the MSM (37)

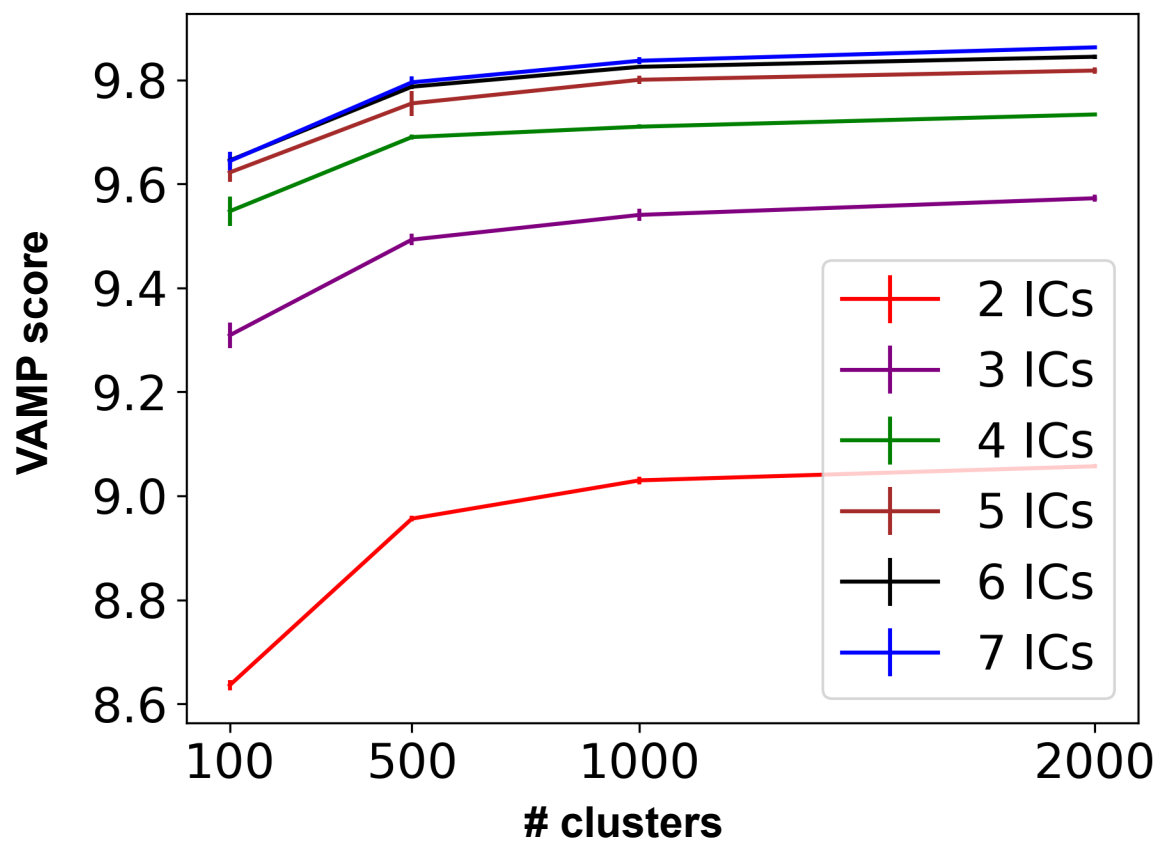


Fig. S5. Cross-validated VAMP-2 (31) score to rank the parameters (number of tICA eigenvectors and clusters) used to discretize the conformational space. Error bars are calculated by determining the VAMP-2 score after running 5 iterations of the k-means clustering algorithm. The score converges with 5 tICs and 1000 clusters, indicating an optimal parameter set.

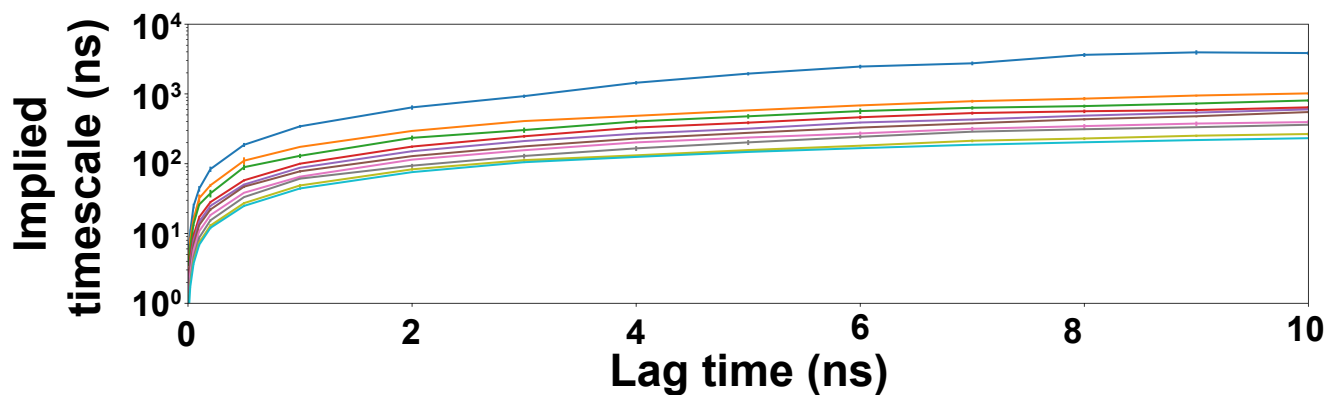


Fig. S6. Implied timescales (ITS) plot of the top 10 slowest processes using multiple lag times. Error bars indicate the uncertainty evaluated using a Bayesian estimated MSM. The lag time of 2 ns was chosen for MSM construction as the ITS curve converges, indicating Markovianity.

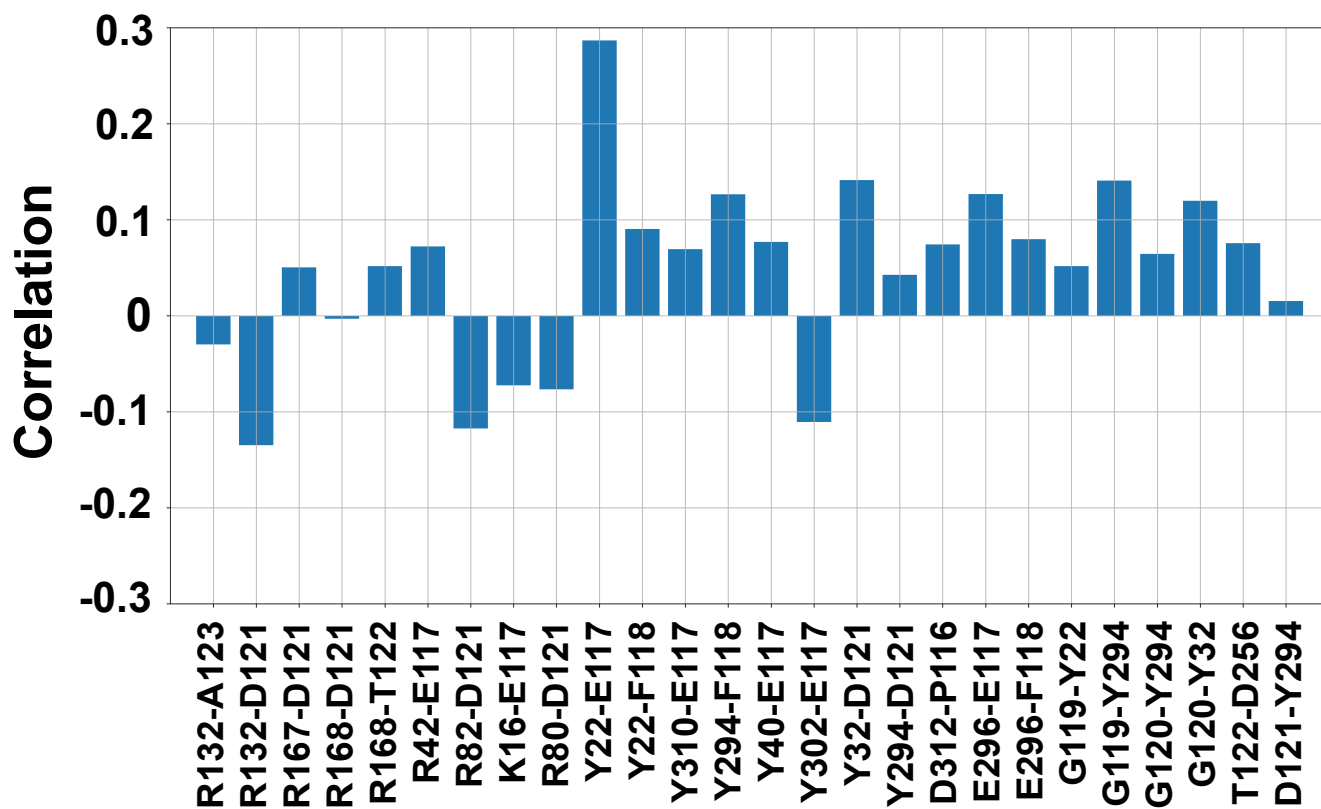


Fig. S7. Time-averaged correlation coefficient of each distance pair with the second eigenvector of the TPM to determine optimal indicators of the slowest transition. The Y22-E117 and R132-D121 distance pairs were chosen as indicators since these features had the greatest positive and negative correlation, respectively.

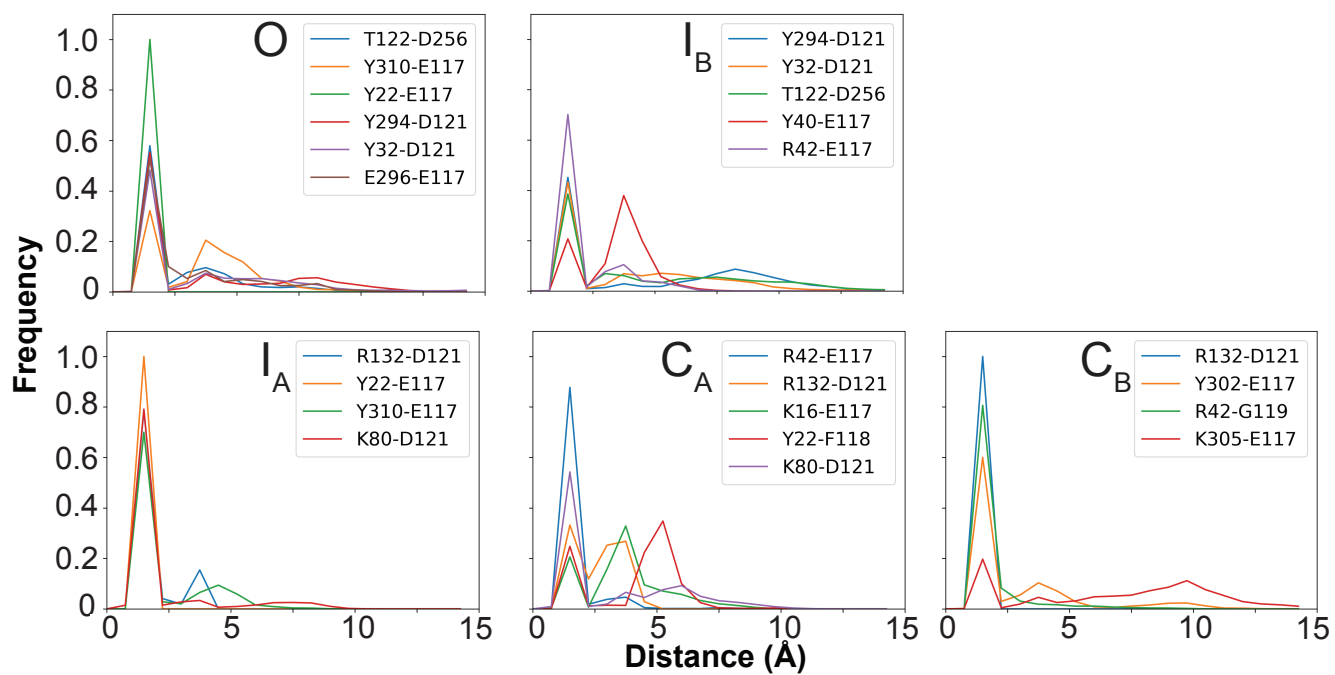


Fig. S8. The ensemble distribution of distances between each major hydrogen bond pair (>20 % occupancy) for the 5 conformational states.

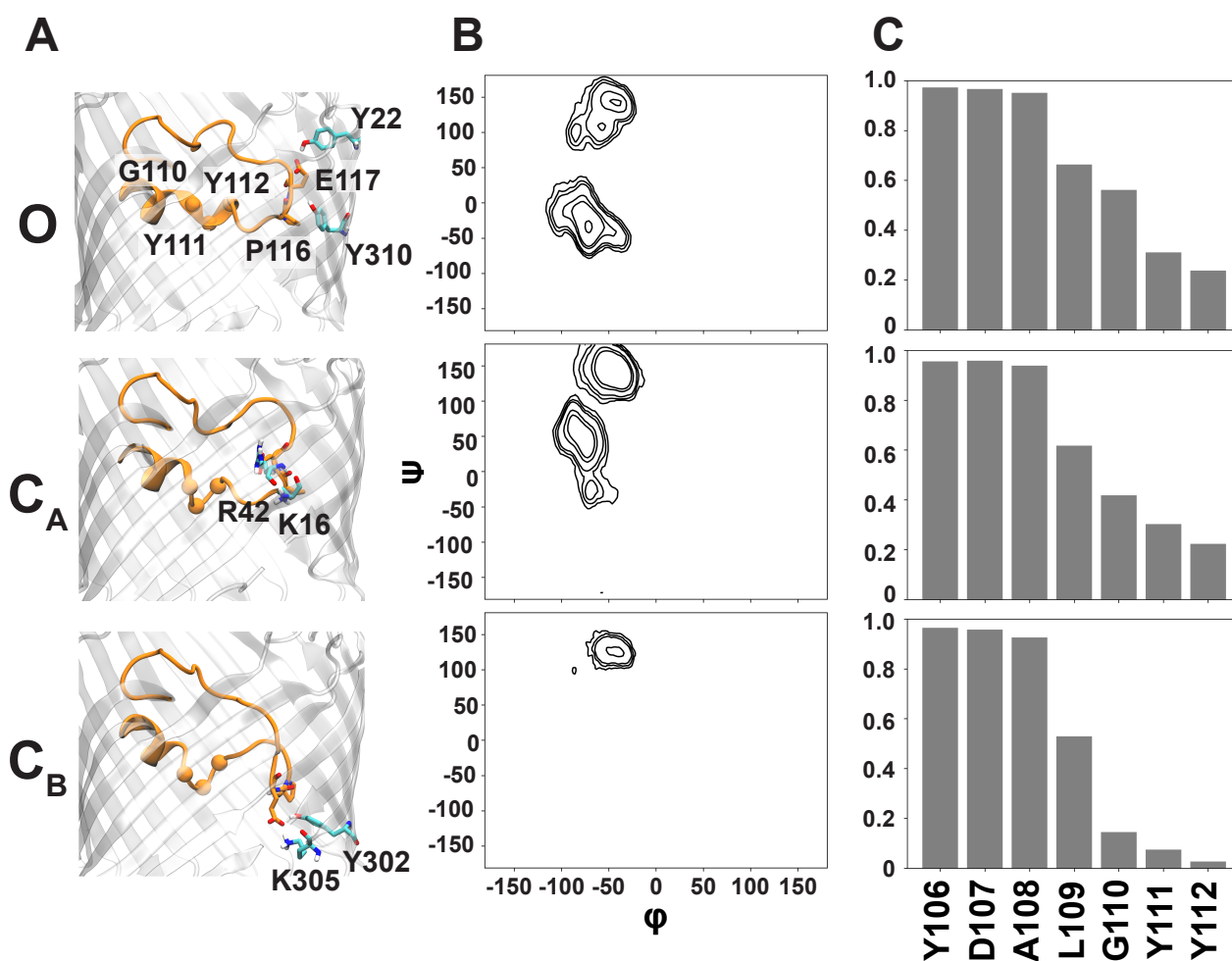


Fig. S9. Molecular explanation for the slower O - C_B kinetics than O - C_A in WT-OmpF. (A) Representative snapshots for O , C_A and C_B , highlighting the conformation of L3 (colored in orange). The C_α atom for residues belonging to the periplasmic terminal of the helical part of L3 (G110, Y111, Y112) are shown with VDW representation. (B) Distribution of P116 ϕ/ψ angles (in degrees) for the three conformational states, highlighting the conformational restriction of P116 in state C_B . (C) The probability of residues located at the periplasmic terminal of L3 in each state to adopt a helical conformation.



Fig. S10. Sequence alignment of OmpF (*E. coli*), OmpC (*E. coli*), PhoE (*E. coli*), OmpK36 (*K. pneumoniae*) and OmpE36 (*E. cloacae*). Each residue is represented by their one-letter abbreviation. Important residues in the observed gating mechanism of OmpF are highlighted with a box and colored based on residue type (black: hydrophobic, green: polar, red: acidic, and blue: basic). All other residues are colored gray. The alignment was performed on full-length sequences using the Clustal Omega (38) alignment tool within Uniprot (39).

G119D

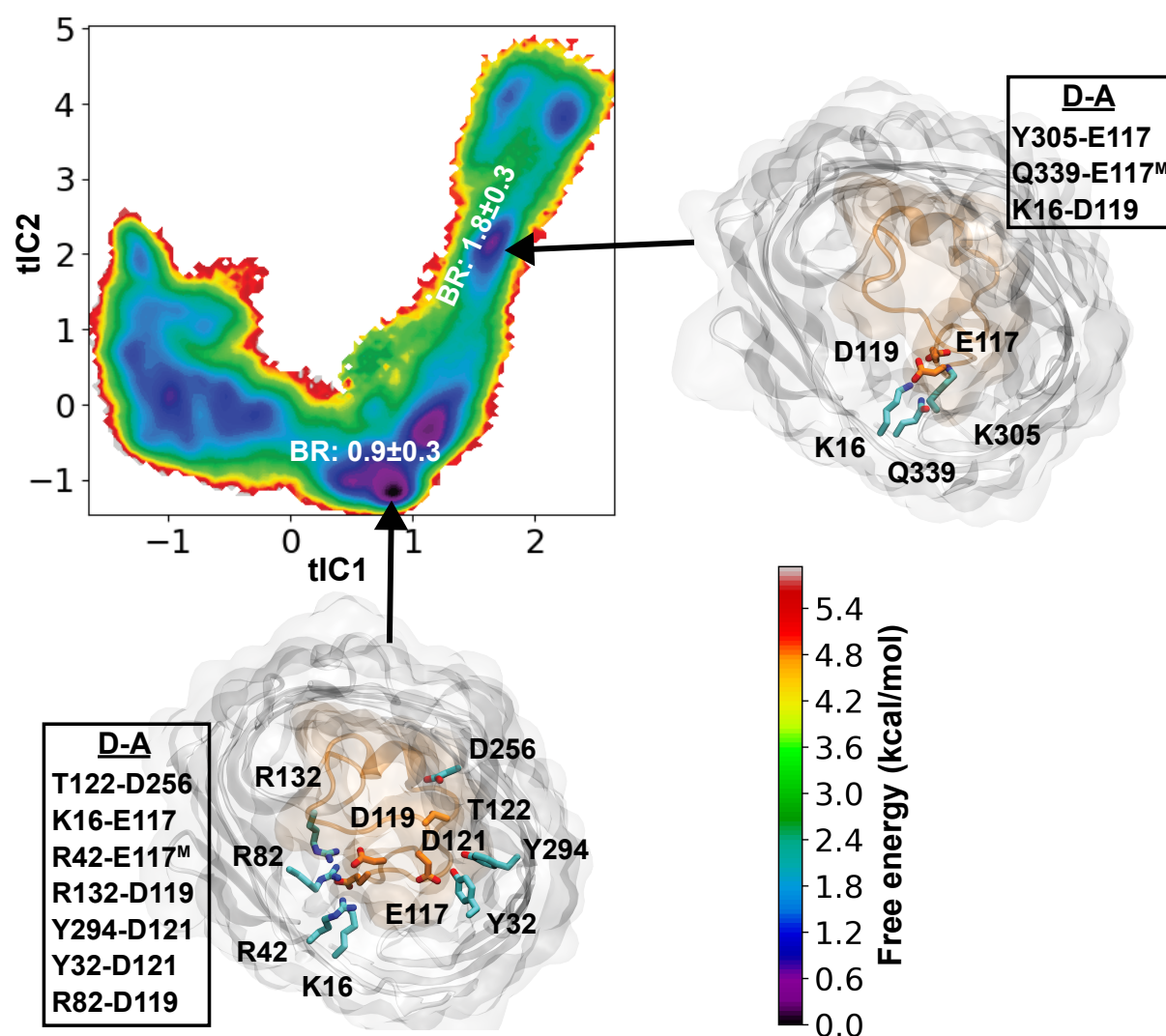


Fig. S11. Conformational landscape of L3 in G119D-OmpF mutant. Free energy landscape for dynamics of L3, reweighted by the stationary distribution, is projected onto the top two tICA eigenvectors. The pore bottleneck radii (BR) for the conformational states corresponding to energetic minima are highlighted on the free energy surface. Structural characteristics in each metastable state are depicted by the top-down snapshots of OmpF, highlighting hydrogen bonds with > 20% occurrence probability between the most fluctuating residues of L3 and the barrel residues.

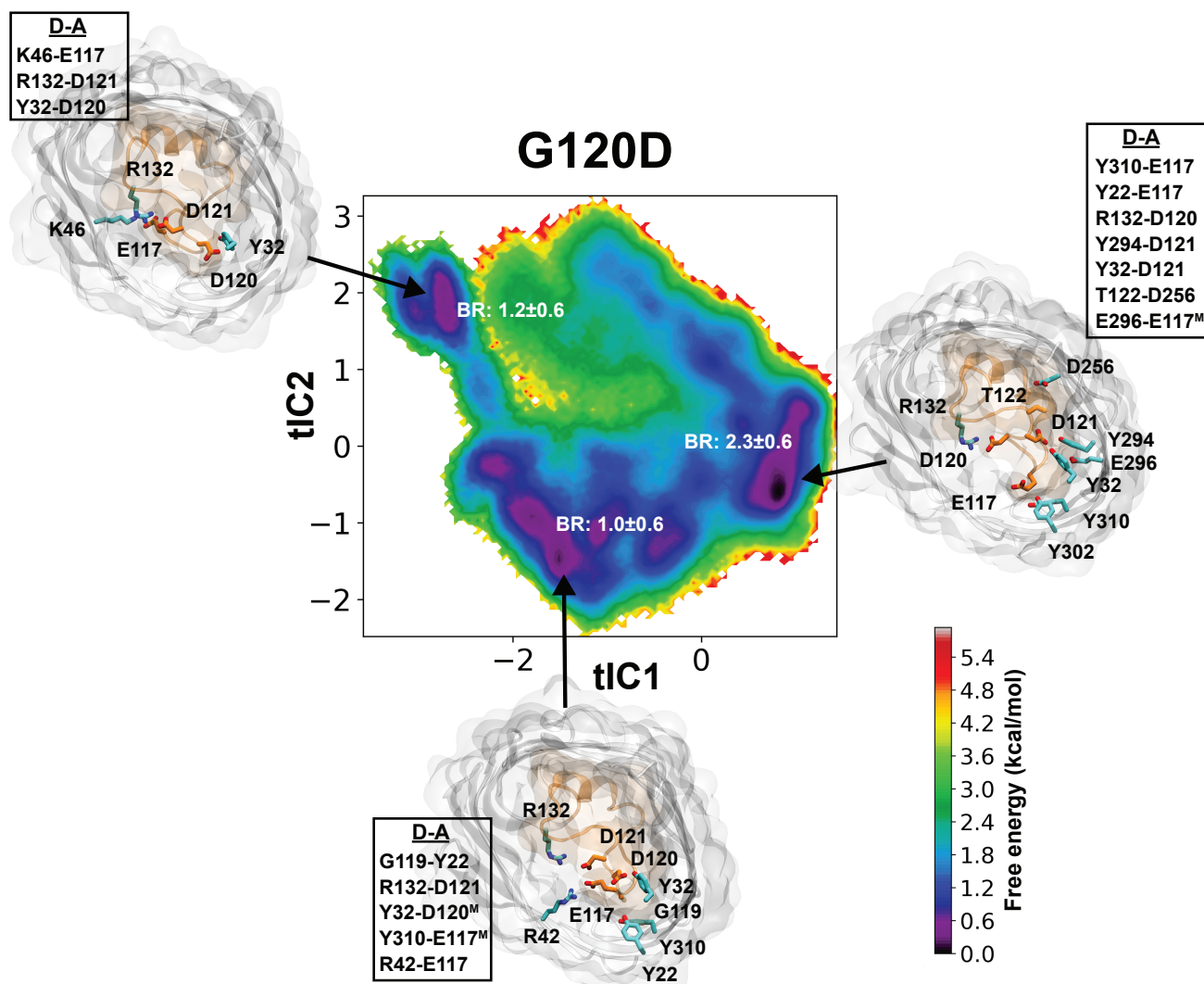


Fig. S12. Conformational landscape of L3 in G120D-OmpF mutant. Free energy landscape for dynamics of L3, reweighted by the stationary distribution, is projected onto the top two tICA eigenvectors. The pore bottleneck radii (BR) for the conformational states corresponding to energetic minima are highlighted on the free energy surface. Structural characteristics in each metastable state are depicted by the top-down snapshots of OmpF, highlighting hydrogen bonds with > 20% occurrence probability between the most fluctuating residues of L3 and the barrel residues.

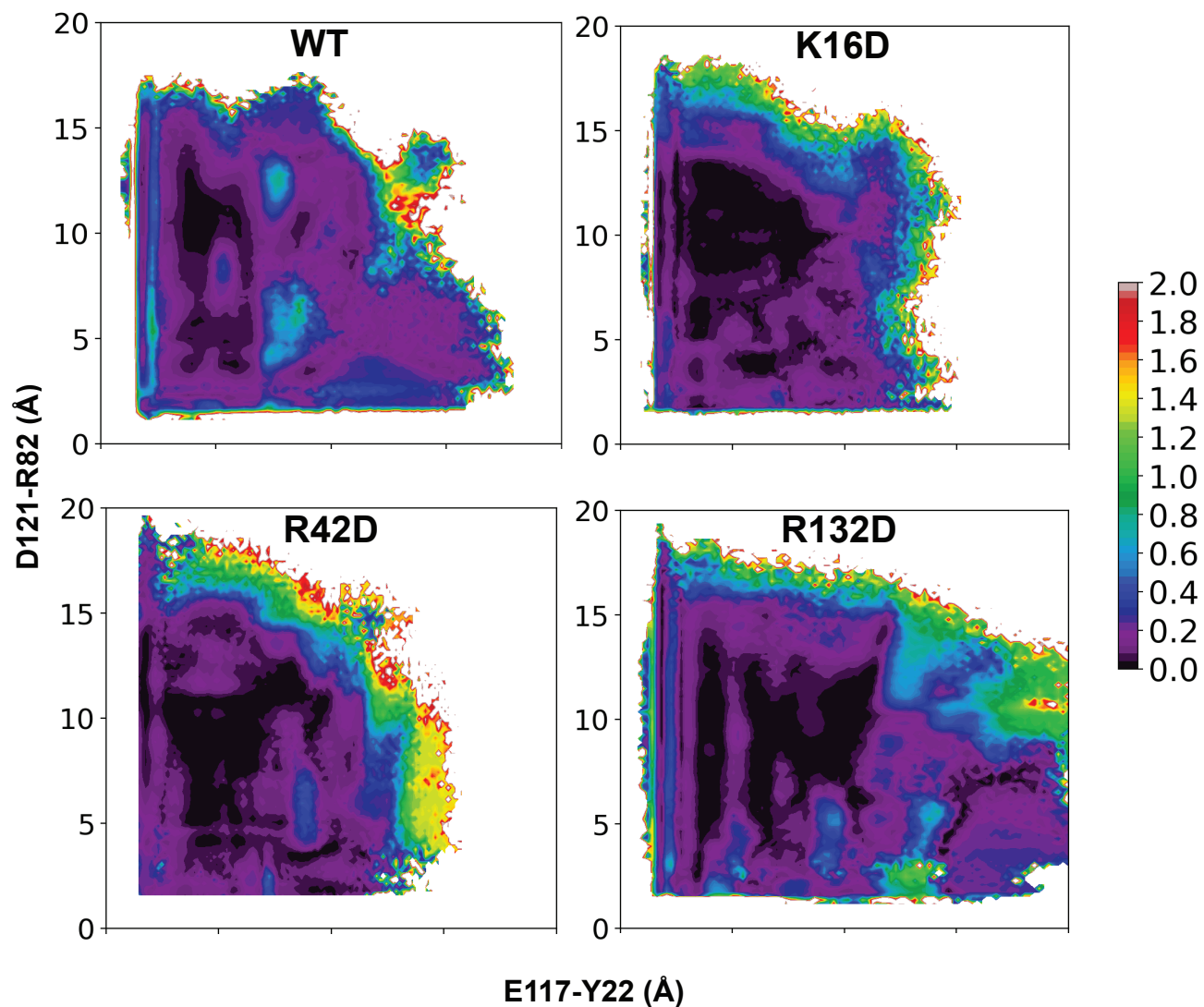


Fig. S13. Free energy error for WT, K16D, R42D, and R132D-OmpF systems. The landscape is projected onto E117-Y22 and R132-D121 for WT-OmpF and K16D-OmpF, and E117-Y22 and R82-D121 for R132D-OmpF.

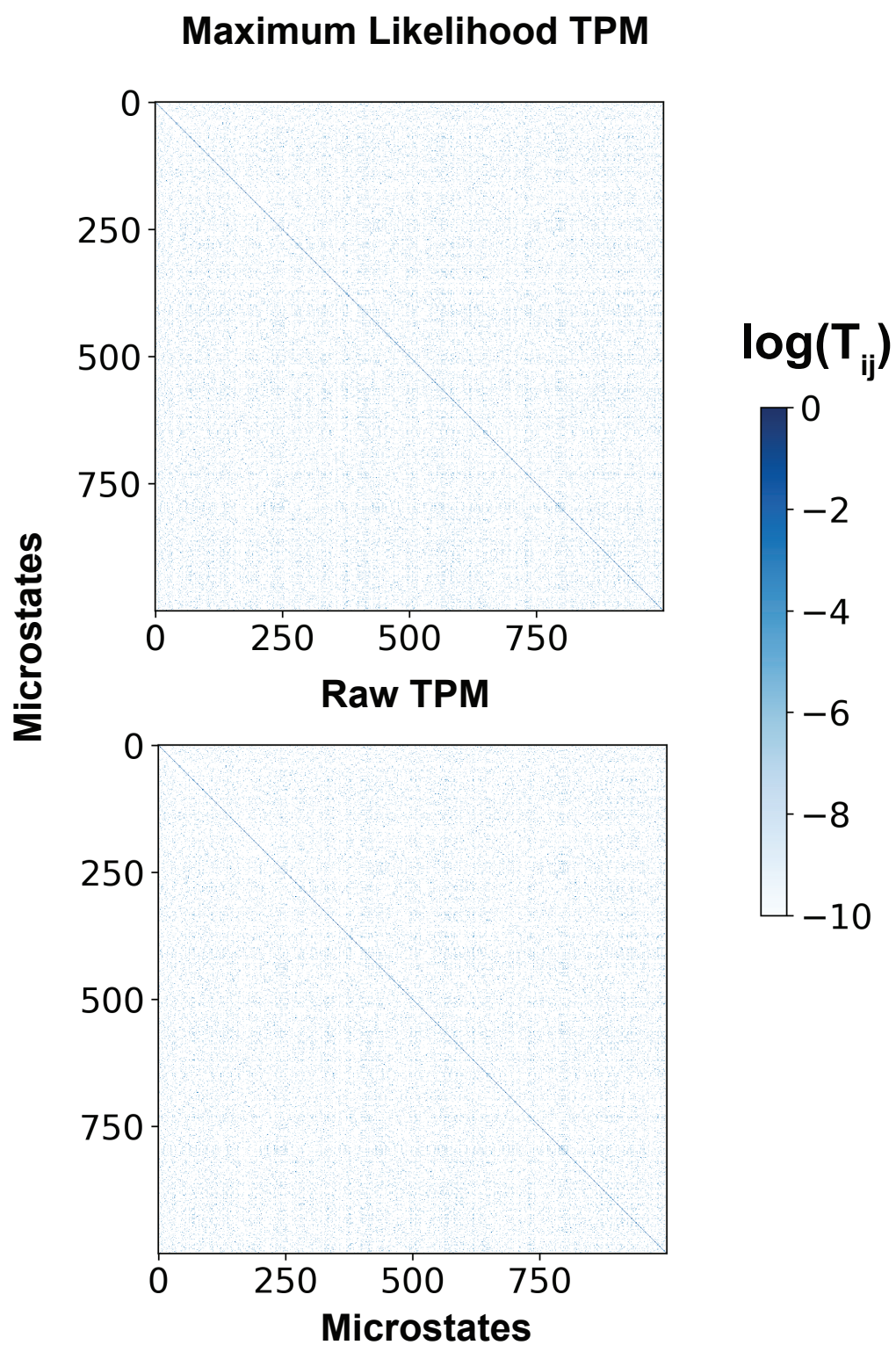


Fig. S14. Comparison of the TPM computed with maximum likelihood MSM and with the raw trajectory data. Shown is the log of each matrix element. No significant difference is observed.

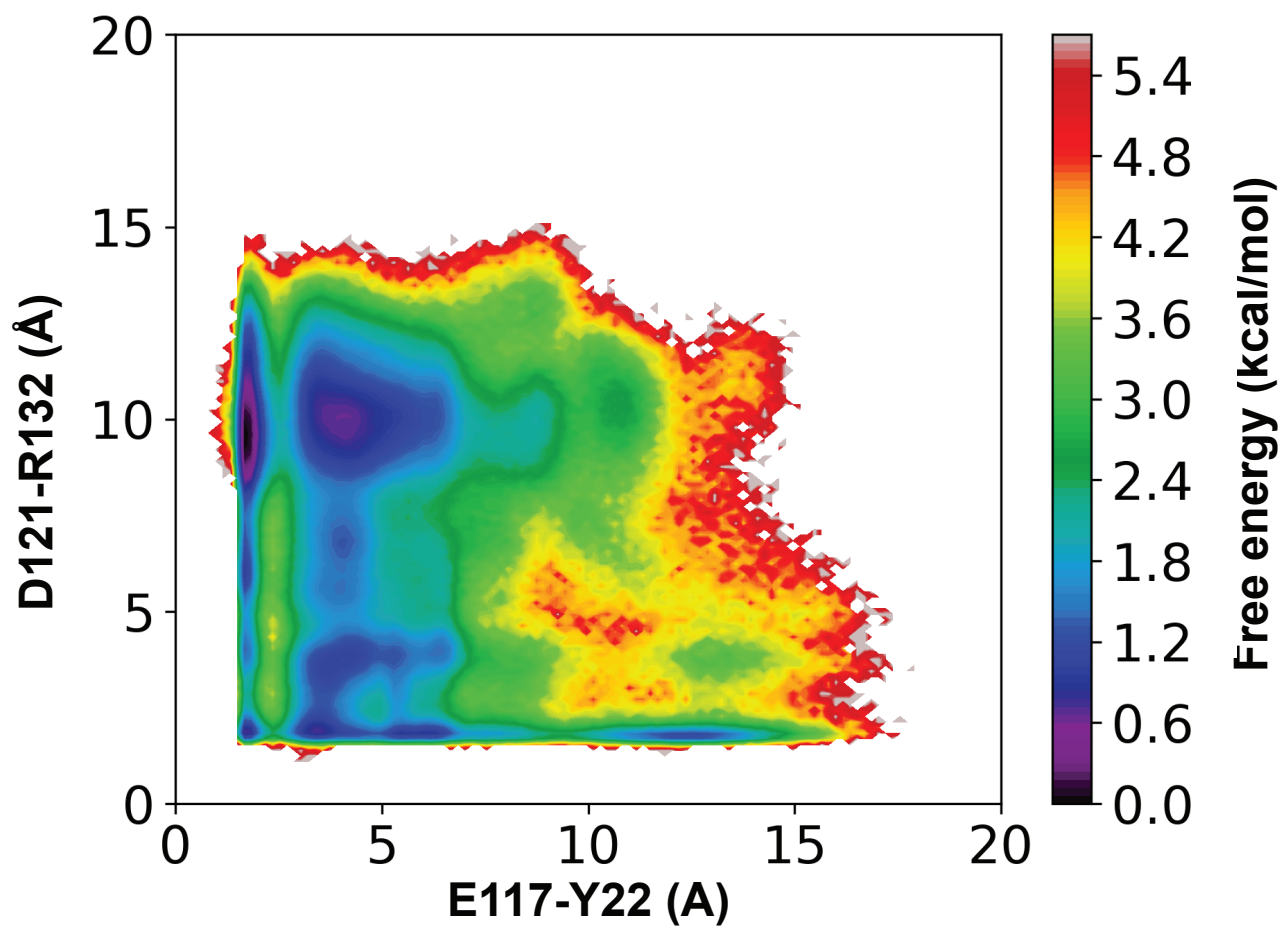


Fig. S15. The conformational landscape of L3 projected onto the E117-Y22 and D121-R132 distance features using the raw trajectory data.

Table S1. *Escherichia coli* strains used in the study

Strain	Genotype
BW26678	<i>lacI^q rrrB3 ΔlacZ4787 hsdR514 ΔaraBAD567 ΔrhaBAD568 rph-1/pKD46</i>
WM8897	<i>lacI^q rrrB3 ΔlacZ4787 hsdR514 ΔaraBAD567 ΔrhaBAD568 rph-1 ΔompF8897::cat</i>
WM8901	<i>lacI^q rrrB3 ΔlacZ4787 hsdR514 ΔaraBAD567 ΔrhaBAD568 rph-1 ΔompF8897::cat/pAH69</i>
WM8819	<i>lacI^q rrrB3 ΔlacZ4787 hsdR514 ΔaraBAD567 ΔrhaBAD568 rph-1 ΔompF8897::cat att-HK::pMEM503</i>
WM8820	<i>lacI^q rrrB3 ΔlacZ4787 hsdR514 ΔaraBAD567 ΔrhaBAD568 rph-1 ΔompF8897::cat att-HK::pMEM504</i>
WM8826	<i>lacI^q rrrB3 ΔlacZ4787 hsdR514 ΔaraBAD567 ΔrhaBAD568 rph-1 ΔompF8897::cat att-HK::pMEM501</i>

Table S2. Plasmids, carrying various *ompF* alleles, used in this study

Plasmid	Description	Construction or Reference
pKD3	Source of <i>cat</i> -cassette used for <i>ompF</i> deletion	Datsenko and Wanner (32)
pAH144	<i>att</i> -HK integration plasmid, Strep/Spec ^R	Haldimann and Wanner (33)
pAH69	Temperature-sensitive helper plasmid for chromosomal integration of <i>att</i> -HK plasmids	Haldimann and Wanner (33)
pMEM501	pAH144:: <i>ompF</i> (wt)	Vector pAH144 cut with EcoRI-HF and SphI-HF (no SAP) ligated with PCR amplified <i>ompF</i> (wt) using primers <i>ompF</i> -cloningF and <i>ompF</i> cloningR
pMEM503	pAH144:: <i>ompF</i> (G120D)	Hi Fi Assembly of MluI/PvuII-cut pMEM501 and <i>ompF</i> -G120D gBlock
pMEM504	pAH144:: <i>ompF</i> (R132D)	Hi Fi Assembly of MluI/PvuII-cut pMEM501 and <i>ompF</i> -R132D gBlock

Table S3. Primers used in this study

Name	Purpose	Sequence
ompF-cloningF	cloning <i>ompF</i> (wt)	GGCGCGCCGCATGCTTCCGTTCCCACGTA CTCCG
ompF-cloningR	cloning <i>ompF</i> (wt)	GGCGCGCCGAATTCCAGGAGCGGCGGTAATG TTC
del-ompF-F	amplification of <i>cat</i> -cassette used for construction of $\Delta ompF$ mutant	AGATTTTGTGCCAGGTCGATAAA-GTTTCCATCAGAAACAAGTGTAGGCTGGAGCTGCTTC
del-ompF-R	amplification of <i>cat</i> -cassette used for construction of $\Delta ompF$ mutant	GTCCTGTTTTTTCGGCATTTAAC-AAAGAGGTGTGCTATTACATATGAATATCCTCCTTAG
HK022-P1	verification of single copy plasmid integration at <i>att</i> -HK	GGAATCAATGCCTGAGTG
HK022-P2	verification of single copy plasmid integration at <i>att</i> -HK	GGCATCAACAGCACATTC
HK022-P3	verification of single copy plasmid integration at <i>att</i> -HK.	ACTTAACGGCTGACATGG
HK022-P4	verification of single copy plasmid integration at <i>att</i> -HK	ACGAGTATCGAGATGGCA

Table S4. gBlocks used for construction of *att*-HK plasmids carrying mutated *ompF* alleles

Name	Sequence
ompF-G120D	CTCTGAAGGCGCTGACGCTCAAAC TGGTAACAAAACGCGTCTGGCATT CGCGGGTCTTAAATACG-CTGACGTTGGTTC TTTTCGATTACGGCCGTAAC TACGGTGTGGTTATGATGCACTGGGTACACC-GATATGCTGCCAGAATTTGGTGATGATACTGCATACAGCGATGACTTCTTCGTTGGTCGTGTTGGCG-GCGTTGCTACCTATCGTAAC TCCAACCTCTTTGGTCTGGTTGATGGCCTGAACTTCGCTGTTCA-GTACCTGGGTAAAAACGAGCGTGACACTGCACGCCGTTCTAACGGCGACGGTGTGGCGGTTCTATC-AGCTACGAATACGAAGGCTTTGGTATCGTTGGTGCTTATGGTGCAGCTGACCGTACCAACCTGCAAG-AAGCTCAACCTCTT
ompF-R132D	CTCTGAAGGCGCTGACGCTCAAAC TGGTAACAAAACGCGTCTGGCATT CGCGGGTCTTAAATACG-CTGACGTTGGTTC TTTTCGATTACGGCCGTAAC TACGGTGTGGTTATGATGCACTGGGTACACCGATAT-GCTGCCAGAATTTGGTGATGATACTGCATACAGCGATGACTTCTTCGTTGGTGATGTTGGCGGCGT-TGCTACCTATCGTAAC TCCAACCTCTTTGGTCTGGTTGATGGCCTGAACTTCGCTGTTCAGT-ACCTGGGTAAAAACGAGCGTGACACTGCACGCCGTTCTAACGGCGACGGTGTGGCGGTTCTATCAGCTAC-GAATACGAAGGCTTTGGTATCGTTGGTGCTTATGGTGCAGCTGACCGTACCAACCTGCAAGAAGCT-CAACCTCTT

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