1 **Lytic transglycosylases mitigate periplasmic crowding by degrading**

2 **soluble cell wall turnover products**

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Abstract

18 The peptidoglycan cell wall is a predominant defining structure of bacteria, determining

19 cell shape and supporting survival in diverse conditions. As a single, macromolecular

20 sacculus enveloping the bacterial cell during growth and division, peptidoglycan is

21 necessarily a dynamic structure that requires highly regulated synthesis of new material,

22 remodeling, and turnover – or autolysis – of old material. Despite ubiquitous clinical

23 exploitation of peptidoglycan synthesis as an antibiotic target, much remains unknown

24 about how bacteria modulate synthetic and autolytic processes. Here, we couple

25 bacterial genetics in *Vibrio cholerae* with compositional analysis of soluble pools of

26 peptidoglycan turnover products to uncover a critical role for a widely misunderstood class

27 of autolytic enzymes, the lytic transglycosylases (LTGs). We demonstrate that LTG

28 activity is specifically required for vegetative growth. The vast majority of LTGs, however,

29 are dispensable for growth, and defects that are ultimately lethal accumulate due to

30 generally inadequate LTG activity, rather than the absence of specific individual enzymes.

Consistent with this, we found that a heterologously expressed *E. coli* LTG, MltE, is

capable of sustaining *V. cholerae* growth in the absence of endogenous LTGs. Lastly, we

demonstrate that soluble, uncrosslinked, endopeptidase-dependent peptidoglycan chains

accumulate in the WT, and, to a higher degree, in LTG mutants, and that LTG mutants

are hypersusceptible to the production of diverse periplasmic polymers. Collectively, our

results suggest that a key function of LTGs is to prevent toxic crowding of the periplasm

with synthesis-derived PG fragments. Contrary to prevailing models, our data further

suggest that this process can be temporally separate from peptidoglycan synthesis.

40 **Introduction**

The bacterial cell wall is a nearly universal feature of the bacterial cell envelope. Made

primarily of the strong and elastic polymer peptidoglycan (PG), the cell wall preserves

bacterial shape while protecting the cell from its high internal turgor pressure and external

environmental challenges[1-5]. PG synthesis begins in the cytoplasm with the generation of

lipid II, consisting of the disaccharide [N-acetylmuramic acid (MurNAc)-N-

acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc)] that is modified with a pentapeptide side stem and attached

to the lipid carrier undecaprenol. Lipid II is flipped across the cytoplasmic membrane

where the cell wall is assembled in two reactions: First, lipid II is polymerized into longer

glycan strands by glycosyltransferases (GTases) followed by crosslinking of the

elongating PG strands via their peptide side stems by transpeptidases (TPases)[3,4,6-8].

Ultimately, the combined result of GTase and TPase activities is a covalently closed

mesh-like macromolecular network called the PG sacculus.

The strength of the PG sacculus is a double-edged sword. On the one hand, the covalent

network provides a mechanical structure strong enough to withstand the high cellular

turgor pressure and stresses of a changing environment. On the other hand, it acts as a

macromolecular cage that might inhibit cellular expansion and division as well as the

insertion of crucial trans-envelope machinery (i.e., flagella and pili).[9-14] Bacteria therefore

need to couple new PG synthesis with degradation of bonds within the PG network to

simultaneously maintain the integrity of the sacculus while also making space for the

insertion of new PG.[11,15,16]

PG degradation is accomplished by several divergent enzyme classes that are often

subsumed under the term "autolysins", i.e., enzymes that cleave various bonds within PG.

Endopeptidases (EPs), for example, cleave the peptide crosslinks and are particularly

integral to the "space-making" autolytic function that permits sacculus expansion during

cell elongation; without EP activity, PG synthesis results in a thicker cell wall or integrity

failure and lysis.[17,18] Another major class of autolysins, the lytic transglycosylases (LTGs),

cleave the glycosidic linkages between disaccharide subunits within PG strands. Their

biochemistry has been exquisitely well-studied and the diversity of their structures and

mechanisms of action well characterized.[19-22] Unlike the other autolysins, the primary

cleavage mechanism of LTGs is non-hydrolytic. Rather, LTGs perform an intramolecular

cyclization of MurNac residues to generate a unique and readily identifiable signature of

their activity, anhydro-MurNAc (anhMurNAc).[20,23,24] Early characterization of PG in the

bacterial sacculus suggested that every PG strand in the sacculus terminates in an

anhMurNAc cap, long implicating LTGs as potential "terminases" of GTase glycan

elongation.[23,25] This was only recently confirmed empirically with the novel discovery and

characterization of MltG and its functional analogs [26-29]. MltG associates with active PG

synthetic complexes to release new strands from the cytoplasmic membrane (to which

they are initially tethered via undecaprenyl pyrophosphate), presumably as they emerge

from GTase activity; consequently, MltG is a strong determinant of PG strand length.[26-29]

Other physiological roles assigned to LTGs include local PG editing for insertion of PG-

spanning protein complexes[10,12,30] and PG recycling. PG recycling, the re-incorporation

of PG breakdown products into the biosynthesis cycle, starts with re-uptake of PG

turnover products by the importer AmpG.[31] AmpG specifically imports LTG breakdown

products (anhMurNAc-containing fragments) and this process can theoretically be

supported by any active LTG that produces monomeric anhydromuropeptides. Despite

being well-conserved throughout many bacterial phyla, PG recycling is not an essential

process under standard growth conditions.[32] Another underappreciated function of LTGs

has emerged through the work of our group and others wherein certain individual or

combinatorial LTG mutations, including septal LTG RlpA, results in a daughter cell

separation defect[33-36]

Answering the most general physiological questions about LTGs has been severely

encumbered by their redundancy.   Many organisms encode several LTGs with

presumably overlapping functions and rarely does a single LTG mutation yield a

significant, readily investigable phenotype. The genetic and functional redundancy

displayed by LTGs is consistent with an important conserved function and collective LTG

activity is indeed essential for growth and division.[35] The actual physiological function for

the majority of LTGs, however, and the reason for their collective essentiality, has

remained elusive. Here, we sought to comprehensively illuminate physiological roles for

LTGs by extensively characterizing mutants of the Gram-negative pathogen *Vibrio*

cholerae that are defective for most or all currently annotated LTGs. We find that the vast

majority of LTGs is dispensable for growth in laboratory media. Minimal LTG strains are

defective for growth in low-salt media and hypersensitive to accumulation of periplasmic

sugar polymers. Through analysis of PG turnover products, we show that soluble PG

strands accumulate in the wild type and that this is exacerbated in ΔLTG mutants and

alleviated by inactivating a major PG endopeptidase. Taken together, our data suggest

that lytic transglycosylase activity downstream of PG synthesis mitigates toxic periplasmic

accumulation of uncrosslinked, polymeric peptidoglycan turnover products released by

endopeptidases.

Results

A single LTG is necessary and sufficient for V. cholerae growth

We recently reported that a Δ6 LTG mutant (*rlpA⁺ mltG⁺ ΔmltA ΔmltB ΔmltC ΔmltD ΔmltF Δslt70*) was viable under standard laboratory conditions and exhibited only slight morphological defects, including an increase in cell length[35]. Depletion of RlpA from this background resulted in a lethal chaining defect, suggesting that collectively, some degree of LTG activity is essential for *V. cholerae* growth. Since we were previously unable to delete MltG or observe its depletion from a Δ6 LTG background, we asked whether MltG exhibited a synthetic-lethal relationship with the other LTGs. Surprisingly, a quantitative insertion/disruption assay suggested that MltG was fully dispensable in the Δ6 LTG background, so long as essential DNA synthesis genes downstream of *mltG* were expressed *in trans* to ameliorate polar effects of *mltG* disruption (**Fig. 1a, S1ab**). The resulting Δ6 LTG *mltG::kan* mutant was viable in LB but failed to grow in low-salt LB (LB without added NaCl, designated LB0N) (**Fig. S1c**), which could explain why previous attempts to inactivate *mltG* in this background using SacB-based allelic exchange (requiring selection on LB0N+sucrose) were unsuccessful[35]. Consistent with these data, we were then able to generate a clean, viable Δ7 LTG mutant (*rlpA⁺ mltG::stop ΔmltABCDF Δslt70*) using a MqsR toxin-based allelic exchange system[37]. The Δ7 mutant sacculus contained only a tenth of the AnhMurNAc residues observed in the wild type sacculus (**Fig. S1d, Tables S1,S2**), suggesting that no highly active LTGs remain in this background. Compared to Δ6 LTG[35], RlpA depletion was more severe in the Δ7 background, both by morphology and plating efficiency (**Fig. 1b, Fig. S2**), consistent with Δ7 exhibiting more limited LTG activity than Δ6.

Figure 1. A single LTG is necessary and sufficient for *V. cholerae* growth and envelope homeostasis

(a) *Trans* expression of DNA synthesis genes *vc2016-2014* permitted pAM299 disruption of native *mltG* locus. *lacZ* and *rpoB* were targeted as positive and negative controls for disruption, respectively. TE = Transformation Efficiency. ND = below limit of detection. 3 biological replicates are shown. **(b)** RlpA was depleted from the WT, Δ6, and Δ7 LTG backgrounds by placing its native promoter under control of arabinose induction and growing from a 10^{-3} overnight culture dilution into 5mL LB +/- 0.4% arabinose (ara) at 37 °C with shaking for 3 hrs, back-diluting 10^{-3} into fresh media, and incubating for another 3 hrs. Cells were imaged on LB agarose pads. Scale bars = 5µm. Dotted line indicates 10^{-3} back-dilution. **(c)** Arabinose-dependent RlpA depletion in Δ6 and Δ7 LTG backgrounds was rescued with IPTG-inducible LTGs by growing cultures in LB +/- ara (0.4%) and +/- IPTG (200µM) in 96 well plates at 37 °C without shaking for 3hrs, back-diluting 10^{-3} into fresh media, incubating another 3 hrs, and spotting directly onto the same media +kan50. Plates were incubated at 30 °C for 24hrs before imaging. Complete plating efficiencies associated with panels (B) and C) can be found in Fig. S2 and S4. Images are representative of 3 biological replicates.

Importantly, growth of Δ7 LTG depended on RlpA LTG activity, as RlpA[D145A], a predicted

active site RlpA mutant[34] (**Fig. S3ad**) was unable to promote growth (**Fig. 1c, S4**).

Conversely, a mutant in the conserved SPOR domain (which is essential for septal

localization in *P. aeruginosa*[34] and *V. cholerae*, **Fig. S3c**, but not for LTG function) fully

complemented both Δ6 and Δ7 **(Fig. 1c, S4)**, suggesting that RlpA LTG activity, but not

septal localization, are essential in these backgrounds. Taken together, these results

demonstrate that at least during growth in standard laboratory conditions, *V. cholerae*

only requires one active LTG of the 8 currently annotated in its genome.

Only a subset of LTGs can independently fulfill all essential LTG functions

Since RlpA LTG activity, but not septal localization, was essential for Δ6 and Δ7 growth,

we asked whether growth required specialized LTG function, or just PG cleavage function

in general. To test this, we assessed the ability of other LTGs to complement Δ6 and Δ7

(**Fig. 1c, S4**). Only two native LTGs, MltD and Slt70, could fully (MltD) or partially (Slt70)

substitute for RlpA in the Δ7 LTG background, demonstrating that RlpA, MltD, and (to a

lesser degree) Slt70 are the only *V. cholerae* LTGs capable of fulfilling all required LTG

roles. Additional LTGs, MltA, MltB, and MltC, were able to rescue RlpA depletion in the

Δ6 LTG background (where MltG is present), but not the Δ7 LTG background (where MltG

is absent). These observations suggest that LTGs perform at least two separable

essential functions for viability, where MltG can perform one function but requires MltA,

MltB, or MltC to perform another, and vice versa, as none of these LTGs are

independently capable of supporting growth. Intriguingly, the *E. coli* LTG MltE, for which

V. cholerae has no known homologue, was also capable of fully supporting *V. cholerae*

growth as the sole functioning LTG, suggesting that LTG essential functions may not

depend on specific protein-protein interactions. Collectively, these data suggest that

LTGs are partially redundant; but some LTGs also exhibit varying degrees of functional

specificity.

LTGs are required during vegetative growth

We were surprised that our strains lacking major LTG activity (even Δ7) were viable. We thus sought to characterize growth and morphology of these backgrounds in more detail. While the Δ6 and Δ7 mutants grew at wild-type growth rates in LB medium when cultures were started from a 100-fold dilution of saturated overnight cultures, we noticed a dilution-dependent exacerbation of growth and morphology defects **(Fig. 2, S5, S6)**. When Δ7 LTG cultures were highly diluted from overnight cultures to increase the number of generations spent in exponential growth, we started to observe a marked growth defect (**Fig. 2ab, S6a**). Conversely, the *mltG::stop* single mutant and Δ6 LTG mutant grew at wild-type growth rates independent of initial dilution factor (**Fig. 2b, S6a**). These data suggest an essential or near-essential role for MltG during sustained exponential growth, albeit only when other LTGs are also inactivated. We also observed diverse aberrant morphologies within the LTG-deficient mutants (but not a Δ*mltG*::stop single mutant) under these conditions (**Fig. 2c, S5**). Interestingly, despite lacking most members of an entire class of PG enzymes, Δ6 and Δ7 only exhibited only mild defects in length and width homeostasis (**Fig. 2de**, **Fig. S6**), which were only dilution-factor dependent for cell length (suggesting a cumulative division defect). When we followed a time-course after back-dilution from stationary phase, we observed morphological defects accumulating in exponential phase and then largely disappearing in stationary phase (**Fig. S7**) in both Δ6 and Δ7. Collectively, these observations suggest that LTG-deficient mutants suffer from cumulative damage during exponential growth, which is partially alleviated in stationary phase.

Figure 2. LTG insufficiency causes cumulative growth and morphology defects
(a) Schema describing relationship between dilution factor (DF) of saturated cultures into fresh media and time spent in exponential growth (t_{exp}). **(b)** Mass doubling times (doublings per hour, DPH) from growth curves performed in LB inoculated with 10-fold serial dilutions of saturated overnight cultures. Values were calculated from growth curves shown in Fig. S6. Error bars represent standard deviation of the mean, n≥3. **(c)** Relative abundance of cell morphologies from cultures at OD_{600} 0.3 from panel C. n>500 cells. Definition criteria and images are shown in Fig. S5. Mean length **(d)** and width **(e)** as a function of dilution factor (DF) of rod cells from panel (C). n>500 rods.

LTG activity is required for survival in hypo-osmotic conditions

Our results detailed above suggested that the majority of LTGs are dispensable for

growth, catalyzing renewed interest in the question of what their physiological roles are.

To dissect potential roles for LTGs in cell envelope integrity maintenance, we subjected

the Δ6 and Δ7 mutants to low osmolarity challenge. Similar to the morphology and growth

defects in LB (**Fig. 2**, **S5 – S7**), both mutants were sensitive to low salt conditions in a

dilution-dependent manner (**Fig. 3a, S8a**). Interestingly, the Δ7 LTG mutant grew at wild-

type rate during the initial growth period before onset of lysis, suggesting that it is not the

initial shock of changing osmotic conditions that kills this mutant, but rather some

cumulative damage during growth in low-salt conditions (**Fig. 3a, S8a**). Importantly, this

rules out a simple cell envelope defect as a cause of LTG-deficient mutant osmo-

sensitivity. We then sought to dissect the contributions of individual LTGs to salt

sensitivity. Other than RlpA, which has an established role in LB0N growth[34,35] and is still

present in the Δ6 and Δ7 mutants, no other single LTG mutant exhibited a strong growth

defect in LB0N (**Fig. S9a**), all suggesting that this defect is an accumulative function of

collective LTG insufficiency. Several LTGs (MltA, MltB, Slt70, and EcMltE) were able to

rescue Δ6 LTG growth in LB0N at higher dilutions (**Fig. S9c**), but none could rescue Δ7

growth in LB0N except MltG, which only partially restored growth to Δ6 mutant levels (**Fig.**

S9d). This suggests that no single LTG is be able to fully support growth in LB0N, and

that MltG, despite not exhibiting a defect as a single mutant, is particularly important in

this environment when other LTGs are inactivated. Intriguingly, overexpression of *mltF*

was toxic for both the Δ6 (LB0N only) and the Δ7 mutant (LB) (**Fig. S9bcd**), preventing

us from assessing its potential for LTG-deficient mutant complementation.

Figure 3. LTG mutants are hypersensitive to low osmolarity and accumulation of periplasmic polymers

(a) Mass doublings (doublings per hour, DPH) upon increasing dilutions (DF, dilution factor) during growth in LB0N. Values were calculated from growth curves in Fig. S8A. Error bars represent standard deviation of the mean, n≥3. NG, no growth **(b)** Representative growth curve in LB0N showing late-growing spontaneous suppressor in Δ6 LTG **(c)** Whole genome sequencing of Δ6 LB0N suppressor mutations identifies a premature stop resulting in a 6% 3' truncation of *opgH;* a deletion resulting in a 56% 3' truncation of *opgH* and 36% 3' truncation of *vc1286;* and a deletion of the 5' end of *ptsH*. **(d)** Validation of low osmolarity growth defect suppression by an *opgH* mutation. Shown are mass doublings (doublings per hour, DPH) upon increasing dilutions (DF, dilution factor) during growth in LB0N. Values were calculated from growth curves shown in Fig. S8E **(e)** Saturated overnight cultures harboring IPTG-inducible *sacB* were 10-fold serially diluted and plated on LB+kan50 +/- 200µM IPTG +/- 10% sucrose, incubated at 30 °C, and imaged 24 hrs before. Representative of 3 biological replicates. Empty vector and LB0N controls are shown in Fig. S11.

LTG mutants are hypersensitive to accumulation of periplasmic polysaccharides

To determine the reason for ΔLTG defects in low salt media, we took advantage of the

spontaneous appearance of suppressors arising during Δ6 LTG growth in LB0N. (**Fig. 3b,**

Fig. S8). Whole genome sequencing of three stable suppressors identified three unique

mutations: a deletion in *ptsH* (*vc0966*), a frameshift mutation in *opgH* (*vc1287*), and a

deletion mutation affecting both *opgH* and a downstream gene (*vc1286*) (**Fig. 3c**). *ptsH*

encodes HPr, a key regulator of sugar import via the phosphoenolpyruvate-carbohydrate

phosphotransferase system (PTS).[38] OpgH is critical to the synthesis of periplasmic

glucans (OPGs), which accumulate under conditions of low osmolarity and have been

implicated in a variety of cell functions, including steady-state maintenance of osmolarity

in the periplasm.[39] We were particularly intrigued by the role of periplasmic glucans and

validated restoration of Δ6 LTG LB0N growth using clean deletion mutants. Inactivation

of *opgH* completely restored wild-type growth of the Δ6 LTG mutant in LB0N, independent

of initial dilution factor (**Fig. 3d, S8e**). In contrast, inactivation of *opgH* was only able to

restore growth of the Δ7 LTG mutant in LB0N from a 10^{-2} inoculum (**Fig. 3d**, **Fig. 8e**), but

not from greater dilutions, nor from a 10^{-5} inoculum in LB (**Fig. S8cd**), indicating that the

Δ7 LTG mutant has additional exponential growth-dependent defects unique from the Δ6

LTG mutant. Interestingly, OpgH orthologues in *E. coli* and *Y. pseudotuberculosis* have

also been ascribed a moonlighting function, tying carbon availability with cell length by

inhibiting FtsZ filamentation when UDP-glucose levels are high in the cell[40,41]. The

elongated cell phenotype of the Δ6 LTG and Δ7 LTG mutants could in principle be

indicative of a similar activity by *V. cholerae* OpgH; however, deleting *opgH* from the Δ6

LTG mutant did not restore wild-type cell length in Δ6 (**Fig. S10a**). Additionally, alignment

of *V. cholerae* OpgH with *E. coli* and *Y. pseudotuberculosis* suggests that it lacks much

of the N-terminal domain that was shown to interact with FtsZ in *E. coli* (**Fig. S10b**).[40]

We consequently considered a model where accumulation of periplasmic glucans is

detrimental to ΔLTG mutants, e.g., via periplasmic crowding or an increase in periplasmic

osmolarity. To test this model, we used an unrelated system to increase periplasmic

crowding. The *B. subtilis sacB* gene product isomerizes and polymerizes sucrose

monomers into levan molecules up to several kD[42], molecules much too large to escape

the gram-negative periplasm through outer membrane porins. This is often exploited in

allelic exchange methods for mutant generation as a means of counterselection,[43-45]

where, for example, WT *V. cholerae* is sensitive to *sacB* expression in LB0N+sucrose.

We hypothesized that the ΔLTG mutants might be hypersensitive to levan accumulation

even in standard LB salt conditions (1% W/V). To test this, we engineered strains

overexpressing *sacB*. Consistent with the use of *sacB* as a counterselection method

under low salt conditions, the wild type is sensitive to *sacB* induction on LB0N (**Fig. S11**),

but not LB. In contrast, we observed a *sacB*-dependent plating defect on sucrose in the

Δ6 and Δ7 LTG mutant on LB (**Fig. 3e, S11**). Interestingly, the *mltG::stop* mutant also

exhibited hypersensitivity to SacB activity (**Fig. 3e, S11**), suggesting that accumulating

MltG substrate is a particularly strong direct or indirect contributor to this phenotype.

Collectively, our data suggest that ΔLTG mutants suffer from either hyperosmotic stress

or excessive molecular crowding in the periplasm, which can be exacerbated through the

induction of long-chain polysaccharides.

PG transglycosylase activity causes Δ6 LTG mutant periplasmic stress

Based on our model that accumulation of polysaccharides in the periplasm is toxic, we

predicted that induction of "futile cycling" (accumulation of uncrosslinked PG strands

caused by uninterrupted GT activity during TP inhibition, e.g. by β-lactams[46]) should

exacerbate LTG-deficient mutant sickness, and this has indeed been shown with Slt70 in

E. coli[46]. To test this hypothesis, we assessed susceptibility of ΔLTG mutants to cell wall-

acting antibiotics with varying ability to induce futile cycling. In a disk diffusion assay, the

Δ6 and Δ7 LTG mutants were hypersensitive to inducers of futile cycling, i.e., general

PBP inhibition by Penicillin G as well as to inhibition of specific PBPs including PBP3

(aztreonam), PBP2 (mecillinam), and PBP1b (cefsulodin) (**Fig. 4a**). Conversely, both the

Δ6 and the Δ7 mutant exhibited wild-type sensitivity to moenomycin and fosfomycin, both

of which inhibit cell wall synthesis without inducing futile cycling. Thus, β-lactam sensitivity

of LTG-deficient mutants is not necessarily tied to simple inhibition of cell wall synthesis,

but potentially also to periplasmic crowding due to the accumulation of uncrosslinked PG

strands. Curiously, the Δ7 LTG mutant was hypersensitive to MreB inhibition by MP265.

This suggests that in the absence of other LTGs, MltG contributes to survival upon Rod

system insufficiency through an unknown mechanism.

To further dissect PG strand accumulation

under these conditions, we visualized the

fate of PG during antibiotic treatment using

the cell wall label BADA.[47,48] The Δ6 and Δ7

LTG mutants were all readily labeled when

grown with BADA (**Fig. S12, S13**) prior to

antibiotic addition. After 3 hours of treatment with Penicillin G (100µg ml^{-1}, 20xMIC), the

Δ6 and Δ7 LTG mutants accumulated strong periplasmic BADA signal compared to the

wild-type spheroplasts in which the cell wall is presumably completely degraded (**Fig. 4b**).

At earlier stages of penicillin treatment, it also appeared that the $\Delta 6$ and $\Delta 7$ LTG mutants

were slower to degrade their rod-shaped poles (**Fig. S12**). Treatment with fosfomycin

(500μg ml^{-1}) did not result in pronounced BADA accumulation in the periplasm,

suggesting that this signal does not reflect sacculus degradation, but indeed relies on

ongoing cell wall synthesis (i.e., futile cycling) (**Fig. 4b, S13**).

LTG insufficiency results in periplasmic PG strand accumulation

Why are LTG mutants sensitive to periplasmic accumulation of polymers? Accumulating

PG debris released during PG synthesis could, in principle, increase periplasmic

osmolarity and/or crowding, explaining defects associated with low salt conditions and

periplasmic polysaccharide accumulation. We therefore sought to quantify soluble,

periplasmic PG debris within crude cell lysates (excluding PG released into the growth

medium). Canonical PG architecture analysis relies on SDS-boiled sacculi isolated by

ultra-centrifugation, which permits sacculus characterization (**Fig. S1d**), but ignores

solubilized, uncrosslinked (freely-diffusing) PG fragments associated with PG turnover

processes such as those potentially mediated by LTGs. We thus analyzed fragments that

remained soluble after sedimentation of purified sacculi, i.e., PG material that freely

accumulates within the periplasm (or inside the cell) but is not attached to the cell wall.

Since entire periplasmic PG strands cannot be easily resolved using subsequent LC-MS

analysis, we also digested the soluble PG fraction with muramidase (to generate smaller

monomers suitable for LC-MS detection) and then compared muramidase-treated vs.

untreated traces to determine soluble PG architecture **(Fig. 5a)**. We first analyzed soluble

Figure 5. Periplasmic uncrosslinked PG strands accumulate in an endopeptidase-dependent manner during normal growth

(a) Schema describing muramidase-treatment dependence of detection of monomeric or polymeric PG fragments. M4N = anhMurNAc-tetrapeptide. M4 = reduced MurNAc-tetrapeptide. **(b-e)** Overnight cultures of. WT and ΔLTG mutants were diluted 1:100 into LB, grown at 37°C, and harvested at OD_{600} 0.3 (Exp, solid bars) and 1.2 (Stat, striped bars) for soluble PG analysis by LC-MS. MS peak areas for M4N and M4 are shown here. Means compared to WT by unpaired t-tests, n=3. **(f)** WT and Δ6 LTG strains harboring a single chromosomal copy of *shyA* under an IPTG-inducible promoter were grown from 10^{-2} inocula for 3hrs (OD_{600} ~1.0) in LB with (ShyA+) or without (ShyA -) 200µM IPTG at 37 °C and harvested for soluble PG analysis by LC-MS. Means compared by unpaired t-test, n=3. All error bars = standard deviation. ns = p>0.01, ** = p<0.01, *** = p<0.001, **** = p<0.0001. ND = Not detected in all replicates.

products of LTG activity (**Fig. 5bc, Table S3-S6**). AnhMurNAc-tetrapeptide (M4N) was

abundant in the wild type during exponential phase, and predictably, M4N was

significantly depleted in the Δ7 LTG soluble muropeptide profile. Surprisingly, M4N was

enriched in the *mltG::kan* and Δ6 LTG mutants, suggesting that the absence of some

LTGs might cause upregulated activity of others.

Importantly, MurNAc-tetrapeptide species without anhMurNAc (M4) were detectable in

the WT during exponential phase, and significantly enriched in the Δ6/Δ7 LTG mutants

(**Fig 5d, Tables S3-S6**). By comparing the muramidase-treated vs. untreated samples,

we can infer the native state of these M4 and M4N (**Fig. 5abd**), i.e., determine whether

these species occur predominantly as monomers or as parts of PG polymers *in vivo*. Both

species were significantly depleted in the muramidase-untreated samples, suggesting

that *in vivo*, they are part of polymeric, uncrosslinked peptidoglycan strands. It is important

to note that M4 monomers are not intermediates of cell wall synthesis (which proceeds

from a tripeptide directly to pentapeptide due to addition of preformed D-Ala-D-Ala

dipeptide).[49] This, in conjunction with a strong muramidase-treatment-dependence of the

abundance of M4 excludes a cytoplasmic origin of this species.   It is also interesting to

note that, unlike the WT, *mltG::kan*, and even Δ6 LTG mutant, the Δ7 LTG appears to

have a disproportionately large pool of polymeric M4 species (muramidase-dependent)

compared to M4N species, suggesting that either the soluble PG strands in the Δ7 LTG

mutant are extremely long, or perhaps do not ubiquitously terminate in anhMurNAc

residues. The abundance of soluble PG strands decreased in stationary phase (**Fig. 5ce,**

Tables S3-S6), which suggests that in the LTG-deficient mutants, these strands are

somehow cleared by RlpA, an unrecognized LTG, or a cryptic PG hydrolase. Reduction

of these uncrosslinked strands in stationary phase is consistent with the alleviation of

morphology defects observed as cells exit exponential growth **(Fig. S7)**.

We next asked how these polymeric uncrosslinked PG strands might be generated. Since

endopeptidases have been suggested to be essential for sacculus expansion during cell

elongation, we hypothesized that these soluble strands may reflect endopeptidase

activity, which would imply that EPs do not simply relax PG crosslinking (as commonly

assumed), but also might excise entire strands that accumulate - at least transiently - in

the periplasm. To test this hypothesis, we depleted the major housekeeping EP ShyA[50]

from a Δ6 LTG mutant, and found that the most abundant monomer species, M4, was

reduced in a ShyA-dependent manner in both the WT and Δ6 LTG mutant (**Fig. 5f, Tables**

S7, S8). This strongly suggests that ShyA produces the majority of the uncrosslinked

strands in the periplasm. Curiously, depletion of ShyA in the Δ6 LTG background resulted

in large, irregular cells (**Fig. S14**), suggesting a cell envelope defect upon EP

insufficiency. Additionally, ShyA was required for Δ6 LTG mutant colony formation on LB

plates, but Δ6 LTG liquid cultures depleted for ShyA remained viable and could be

rescued on plates restoring *shyA* expression (**Fig. S14**). Altogether, the data suggest that

EPs excise entire PG strands that accumulate in the periplasm until they are later cleared

by LTGs.

Discussion

The exact contributions of LTGs to cell growth have remained elusive, mainly due to the

high level of apparent redundancy of these enzymes, which hampered classical

genotype-phenotype association analyses. While circumstantial evidence abounds, no

collective physiological characterization of essential LTG function has been conducted in

any organism, and even cases of demonstrated synthetic lethal relationships are rare and

rely on indirect evidence (inability to delete LTG genes).[33,51,52] The *V. cholerae* Δ6 and Δ7

LTG mutants described here provide a vital platform for exploring both the collective and

individual contributions of lytic transglycosylases to bacterial viability.

Conserved LTGs are not functionally equivalent

In this study we confirm that LTG enzymatic activity is essential for growth and division.

We further demonstrate that some functional redundancy exists in *V. cholerae* between

diverse LTG families, as has been observed in other bacteria [12,20,53]. Members of LTG

families 1A (Slt70), 1D (MltD) and 6A (RlpA) can support growth independent of all other

natively encoded LTGs from families 1B, 1E, 2A, 3A, and 5A. Certain *V. cholerae* LTGs

additionally exhibit complementary genetic relationships in the absence of all other LTGs,

implying there are at least two essential roles for LTGs. For example, while neither MltG,

MltA, MltB, nor MltC can support growth on their own, strains expressing the MltG+MltA,

MltG+MltB, or MltG+MltC pairs are each viable. Surprisingly, and importantly, essential

LTG activities may not require conserved protein-protein interactions as suggested by the

viability of a *V. cholerae* mutant expressing non-native *E. coli* MltE as its sole LTG.

Scheurwater and Clarke unsuccessfully but informatively attempted to inactivate *mltF* in

an *E. coli* Δ6 LTG (Δ*mltABCDE* Δ*slt70*), suggesting that the essentiality of LTG activity is

conserved between *E. coli* and *V. cholerae,* and that MltF and MltG may not be

functionally redundant in *E. coli*.[52] In contrast, *mltF* inactivation is not synthetically lethal

with Δ*mltABCD* Δ*slt70* in *V. cholerae*. In fact, restoring MltF expression in the Δ6 and Δ7

LTG background is toxic, indicating that *V. cholerae* and *E. coli* exhibit different genetic

relationships between homologs of the same LTGs. This is perhaps most strongly

exemplified by the conservation of RlpA in both species, where *E. coli* RlpA has no

detectable LTG activity[34], yet *V. cholerae* RlpA can perform essential functions as the

sole LTG. Recently, the hydrolytic enzyme DigH in *E. coli* was shown to be functionally

similar to LTGs by contributing to the resolution of septal PG during daughter cell

separation[54]. The activity of DigH (of which *V. cholerae* does not possess a strong

homolog) may explain why *E. coli* does not appear to require RlpA LTG activity; this LTG-

like physiological role for a hydrolytic enzyme also suggests that we may need to look

beyond LTGs to fully address the roles for glycosidic bond cleavage within PG.

The functional redundancy of LTGs is also likely the root of an apparent paradox. Release

of new PG strands from undecaprenyl pyrophosphate should be an essential function, as

anchoring of PG to the inner membrane is toxic[55] and is likely necessary for lipid carrier

recycling. Yet MltG, the highly conserved "PG terminase" that associates with PG

synthetic complexes to release new strands, is not essential. MltG can be inactivated in

wild type *V. cholerae* without significant consequence but our Δ7 LTG (*mltG*-null) mutant

lost viability upon sustained growth in exponential phase in LB. It is therefore likely that

other LTGs can partially complement for terminase activity. The dilution-dependent Δ7

LTG growth defect further suggests that either RlpA has at least partial terminase activity

and/or that during brief growth in exponential phase, terminase activity is non-essential.

MltG essentiality (or near-essentiality) can thus perhaps only be appreciated in a multiple

LTG background under conditions where terminase activity is expected to be most

important. This is also evidenced by the increased sensitivity of the Δ7 LTG mutant to

hypo-osmotic conditions that cannot be rescued via the same mechanisms that rescue

Δ6 LTG mutant, i.e., inactivation of OPG synthesis, as well as hypersensitivity to MreB-

inhibitor MP265. All of these defects point to a unique, MltG-dependent, conditionally

essential LTG function.

LTGs manage the periplasmic environment

By analyses of soluble PG, we discovered that even wild-type *V. cholerae* accumulates

loose strands of uncrosslinked PG of periplasmic origin (detected as muramidase-

dependent, soluble M4 products) and that production of these strands is dependent on

the EP ShyA. PG strands appear to accumulate to detrimental levels in the Δ6 and Δ7

mutants and we thus propose that processing soluble PG is a major collective function of

LTGs. PG strand accumulation induces hypersensitivity to other polymeric sugars in the

periplasm, such as OPGs, SacB-generated levans and β-lactam-induced futile cycling

products. This polysaccharide toxicity may arise from the fact that these large polymers

(PG, OPGs, or levans) cannot diffuse out through OM porins, accumulating in a growth

and/or substrate-dependent manner. This would inappropriately increase the osmolarity

and/or cause excessive crowding[5] of the periplasm to interfere with normal growth-related

processes, as exemplified by the mild division defect of the *V. cholerae* LTG-deficient

mutants.

Broader implications for LTGs in PG dynamics

Our data suggest that the most important roles for LTGs may not include "making space"

for new PG insertion, as has been assumed for fundamental models of PG synthesis.

More likely, LTGs clear the periplasm of most PG debris generated by endopeptidases

during normal growth by facilitating either recycling or release of small fragments into the

environment (**Fig. 6**). As such, this collectively essential function of LTGs may not be tied

to a direct influence on PG synthesis. Importantly, uncrosslinked strands are not a deviant

feature unique to the LTG-deficient mutants nor β-lactam treatment (though they become

more apparent under these conditions), as they were also detectable in the wild type

during normal growth. Detection of EP-dependent, uncrosslinked PG strands suggests

that EP activity might be temporally separated from LTG-mediated turnover of those PG

strands. This is seemingly contrary to pervasive models proposing a synchronized

synthetic/autolytic complex that digests old PG while simultaneously building new PG. If

such a complex exists, LTGs collectively maintain an important role complementary to it,

but not inevitably as part it.

Figure 6. Model for LTG-mediated removal of toxic PG debris
(a) Endopeptidases (EPs, Yellow) excise PG strands (Red) from the sacculus (Blue), permitting sacculus expansion. **(b)** In wild-type cells, lytic transglycosylases (LTGs, Green) digest excised, uncrosslinked PG strands into smaller fragments that can be recycled by AmpG (Brown) or released through porins (Violet) **(c)** In LTG deficient cells, excised PG debris crowds the periplasm and becomes toxic

Lastly, while high accumulation of PG strands is toxic, maintaining a small pool of uncrosslinked PG material may actually serve a beneficial purpose to cells under some conditions; bacteria might thus have an adaptive reason for avoiding tightly coordinating LTG activity with synthesis. Inactivation of *sltY* in *E. coli,* for example, can promote β-lactam resistance by upregulating L,D-crosslinking activity of L,D-transpeptidase LdtD (YcbB), presumably due to the increased presence of uncrosslinked glycan strands under these conditions.[64] It is possible that one function of L,D-TPs is to patch holes in the sacculus via readily available soluble PG strands, constituting an innate "bike tire repair kit" for the bacterial cell wall. Future studies of this LTG-mediated turnover of uncrosslinked PG could be critical for understanding PG repair mechanisms, as well as general periplasmic homeostasis, both of which have been historically elusive topics.

Methods

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

V. cholerae strains in this study are derivatives of *V. cholerae* WT El Tor strain N16961 [65]. Construction of plasmids and mutant *V. cholerae* strains is described in the next section along with a table of strains and plasmids used in this work (**Tables S9-S11**).

Strains were grown at 30°C or 37°C in Luria-Bertani (LB, Fisher Bioreagents# BP97235) with or without 1% NaCl, 1% sucrose, or 10% sucrose, or in M9 minimal media + 0.4% glucose (Cold Spring Harbor Protocols) where indicated in the figure legends. Growth media were supplemented with kanamycin (50 µg ml⁻¹), ampicillin (25 µg ml⁻¹), or chloramphenicol (5 µg ml⁻¹) in plates and overnight cultures when needed to maintain plasmids or chromosomal integration of suicide vectors. Genes under P_{ara} and P_{tac} regulation were induced with 0.4% L-arabinose or 200 µM isopropyl-β-D-1-thiolgalactopyranoside (IPTG), respectively.

Construction of plasmids and strains

A summary of all strains, plasmids, and primers used in this study can be found in Tables S9-S11. *E. coli* DH5α λ*pir* was used for general cloning, while *E. coli* SM10 or MFD λ*pir* were used for conjugation into *V. cholerae*[66]. Plasmids were constructed using Gibson assembly[67] with the exception of plasmids expressing *rlpAΔSPOR* or *rlpA^D145A*, which were generated by site directed mutagenesis of the parent wild-type sequence *rlpA* plasmids. All Illumina whole genome sequencing and variant calling for Δ6 LTG and Δ7

LTG strain verification or suppressor identification was performed by the Microbial

Genome Sequencing Center (MiGS, Pittsburg, PA, USA).

Most chromosomal in-frame deletions (or premature stop codon mutants) were generated

using the pCVD442 *ampR/sacB* allelic exchange system[68]. 500bp regions flanking the

gene to be deleted were amplified from N16961 genomic DNA by PCR, cloned into

suicide vector pCVD442, and conjugated into *V. cholerae*. Conjugation was performed

by mixing and pelleting equal volumes of recipient *V. cholerae* and SM10 or MFD *λpir*

donor LB overnight cultures, spotting the mixed pellet onto LB (+600 µM diaminopimelic

acid [DAP] for MFD *λpir*) followed by incubation at 37°C for 3 hrs. The first round of

selection was performed on LB + streptomycin (200 µg ml^{-1}) + ampicillin (100 µg ml^{-1}) at

30°C followed by counterselection on salt-free LB + 10% sucrose + streptomycin at room

temperature. Inducers for conditionally essential genes were included in all media during

conjugation and selection. Addition of 0.2% glucose was required for maintenance in *E.*

coli of plasmids expressing *Vc mltB*. Deletions were verified by PCR.

Introduction of a premature stop codon to *mltG* at its native locus to yield Δ7 LTG as well

as in-frame deletions of *opgH* were constructed using the pTOX5 *cmR/msqR* allelic

exchange system[37]. Flanking regions were cloned into pTOX5 as described for

pCVD442. Conjugation was performed by mixing and pelleting equal parts of recipient

V. cholerae and donor MFD *λpir,* and spotting onto LB + 1% glucose + 600µM DAP at

37°C for 5 hrs. The first round of selection was performed on LB + chloramphenicol (5 µg

µg ml^{-1}) + streptomycin + 1% glucose at 30°C. Chloramphenicol resistant colonies were

picked into a 96well plate containing 200µL LB + 1% glucose and incubated at 37°C

without agitation for 3 hrs, then counter selected on LB + 1% rhamnose at 30°C.

Mutations were verified by PCR.

Ectopic chromosomal expression from IPTG-inducible P_{tac} was achieved through use of

suicide vector pTD101, a pJL1[69] derivative carrying the P_{tac} promoter, a multiple cloning

site, and *lacIq* and integrates into the native *V. cholerae lacZ* (*vc2338*) locus. Single

genes of interest were amplified from N16961 genomic DNA, introducing a strong

consensus RBS (AGGAGA). Genes downstream of *mltG* (*vc2016, vc2015, vc2014*) were

amplified together maintaining their native organization, including 30bp upstream of

vc2016 to retain the native RBS. Selection for double crossover events was performed

as described for pCVD442. Due to hypersensitivity of the Δ7 LTG strain to β-lactams,

ampicillin was reduced to 25 µg ml^{-1} for the first selection. Due to the osmosensitivity of

the Δ7 LTG strain, pTD101 in this strain (and control strains) was maintained as an ampR

single crossover without counterselection.

Suicide vector pAM299[70] was used to place *rlpA* under P_{ara} control at its native locus for

RlpA depletion experiments. pAM299 was introduced via conjugation and selection for

single crossover events on LB + kanamycin (50 µg ml^{-1}) + streptomycin. IPTG-inducible

overexpression of *rlpA-mCherry* fusions for localization studies and *sacB* for levan toxicity

assays was achieved using pHL100[70] or its conjugatable derivative pHL100mob. The

sacB gene was amplified from pCVD442.

Gene insertion/disruption assay for gene essentiality

The suicide vector pAM224 was used to disrupt genes through single crossover integration events. 300bp internal regions in the first third of each respective *orf* (towards the 5' end) were cloned into pAM224 using methods described above. Quantitative conjugation was performed by washing, mixing, and pelleting 500 µL of recipient *V. cholerae* and donor MFD λ*pir*. Pellets were re-suspended in 50 µl of LB, spotted onto a 45 µm filter on LB + 600 µM DAP, and incubated at 37°C for 4 hrs. Cells were recovered from the filters into 1 ml of LB by vigorous vortexing and 20 µl of the suspension was reserved for 10-fold serial dilution and spotting onto LB + streptomycin (200 µg ml^{-1}) incubated at 30°C to calculate total CFU/ml for all viable *V. cholerae.* The remaining suspension was pelleted and plated on LB + kanamycin (50 µg ml^{-1}) + streptomycin incubated at 30°C. Viable CFU/ml were calculated, and kanamycin resistance was verified by patching 50 colonies back onto LB + streptomycin +/- kanamycin (all kanR colonies were patched if fewer than 50 colonies were recovered). Transformation efficiency was calculated as a ratio of kanR CFU to all strepR CFU.

Growth rate experiments

Saturated overnight cultures used for growth curve experiments were washed once and resuspended in final growth media, normalizing to OD_{600} 2.0. Normalized cell suspensions were serially diluted into 200 µL growth media and incubated in a Bioscreen growth plate reader (Growth Curves America) at 37°C with random shaking at maximum amplitude, and OD_{600} recorded at 5-min intervals. Calculations of doublings per hour (DPH) were performed in R as previously described[53]. Briefly, logarithmic regressions

were fitted to sections of growth curves with >5 consecutive values corresponding to

OD_{600} 0.03-0.1 (for 10^{-2} diluted inocula) or OD_{600} 0.01-0.1 (for <10^{-3} diluted inocula).

Logarithmic regressions of ≥3 replicates with fit value r^2 > 0.95 were used to estimate

mean doublings per hour for each strain in each growth condition. Growth rates were not

calculated for samples that did not reach OD_{600} 0.1, either through absence of detectable

growth or lysis prior to reaching OD_{600} 0.1. Growth rates were also not calculated for

replicates that were subsequently determined to be suppressors or grew due to

irreproducible adaptation. Means within strains between dilution factors and between

strains within dilution factors were compared using a two-way Anova and Tukey HSD

post-hoc test.

Morphology analysis by microscopy

Strains were grown as described in the figure legends and imaged without fixation on LB

0.8% agarose using a Leica DMi8 inverted microscope. Phase-contrast images were

analyzed using MicrobeJ. Default parameter settings were applied, and features (septa)

were defined as 25% constriction of cell width. Cell outlines were manually edited as

needed.

Sacculus composition analysis

PG composition from insoluble sacculi samples were analyzed as described previously

with some modifications[71,72]. Briefly, cells were harvested and resuspended and in boiled

5% SDS for 1 h. Sacculi were repeatedly washed by ultracentrifugation (110,000 rpm,

10 min, 20ºC) with MilliQ water until SDS was totally removed. Samples were treated with

20 µg Proteinase K (1 h, 37 °C) for removal of Braun's lipoprotein, and finally treated with

muramidase (100 µg/mL) for 16 hours at 37 ºC. Muramidase digestion was stopped by

boiling and coagulated proteins were removed by centrifugation (14,000 rpm, 15 min).

For sample reduction, the pH of the supernatants was adjusted to pH 8.5-9.0 with sodium

borate buffer and sodium borohydride was added to a final concentration of 10 mg/mL.

After incubating for 30 min at room temperature, the samples pH was adjusted to pH 3.5

with orthophosphoric acid.

UPLC analyses of muropeptides were performed on a Waters UPLC system (Waters

Corporation, USA) equipped with an ACQUITY UPLC BEH C18 Column, 130Å, 1.7 µm,

2.1 mm X 150 mm (Waters, USA) and a dual wavelength absorbance detector. Elution of

muropeptides was detected at 204 nm. Muropeptides were separated at 45°C using a

linear gradient from buffer A (formic acid 0.1% in water) to buffer B (formic acid 0.1% in

acetonitrile) in an 18-minute run, with a 0.25 ml/min flow.

Relative total PG amount was calculated by comparison of the total intensities of the

chromatograms (total area) from three biological replicas normalized to the same OD600

and extracted with the same volumes. Muropeptide identity was confirmed by MS/MS

analysis, using a Xevo G2-XS QTof system (Waters Corporation, USA) (*see next section*

for details). Quantification of muropeptides was based on their relative abundances

(relative area of the corresponding peak) normalized to their molar ratio. Analyses were

performed in biological triplicates and means were compared with unpaired t-tests.

Soluble peptidoglycan analysis

Sample preparation of soluble PG samples was performed as follows. Bacteria cultures were harvested by centrifugation (4,000 rpm, 20 min, 4°C). Cell pellets were gently resuspended and washed twice with ice-cold 0.9% NaCl solution. After pelleting the cells again by centrifugation, they were resuspended in 1 ml water and boiled for 30 min. Samples were centrifuged again to remove cell debris at 14,000 rpm for 15 min, and soluble fractions were transferred to new tubes. Next, samples were filtered using 0.2 µm pore size filters. Half of the sample was treated with muramidase (100 µg/mL) for 16 hours at 37 ºC. Muramidase digestion was stopped by boiling and coagulated proteins were removed by centrifugation (14,000 rpm, 15 min). Finally, sample pH was adjusted to pH 3.5 with orthophosphoric acid. When needed, samples were diluted or concentrated by speed vacuum.

Soluble muropeptides were detected and characterized by MS/MS analysis, using a Xevo G2-XS QTof system (Waters Corporation, USA) equipped with an ACQUITY UPLC BEH C18 Column (130 Å, 1.7 µm, 2.1 mm x 150 mm (Waters, USA)). Muropeptides were separated at 45 ºC using a linear gradient from buffer A (formic acid 0.1% in water) to buffer B (formic acid 0.1% in acetonitrile) in an 18-min run, with a 0.25 ml/min flow. The QTOF–MS instrument was operated in positive ionization mode. Detection of muropeptides was performed by MS[E] to allow for the acquisition of precursor and product ion data simultaneously, using the following parameters: capillary voltage at 3.0 kV, source temperature to 120 ºC, desolvation temperature to 350 ºC, sample cone voltage to 40 V, cone gas flow 100 l/h, desolvation gas flow 500 l/h and collision energy (CE): low

CE: 6 eV and high CE ramp: 15-40 eV. Mass spectra were acquired at a speed of 0.25

s/scan. The scan was in a range of 100–2000 *m/z*. Data acquisition and processing was

performed using UNIFI software package (Waters Corp.).

An in-house compound library built in UNIFI was used for detection and identification of

muropeptides. Subsequent identification and confirmation of each muropeptide was

performed by comparison of the retention-times and mass spectrometric data to known

samples. Quantification was performed by integrating peak areas from extracted ion

chromatograms (EICs) of the corresponding *m/z* value of each muropeptide and

normalized to their molar ratio.

Soluble muropeptide analyses were performed in biological triplicates and means were

compared with unpaired t-tests.

Antibiotic sensitivity

For zone of inhibition assays, a lawn of saturated overnight culture was spread on an LB

plate and allowed to dry for 15 minutes. Filter disks (6 mm) were dropped with 5µL of

antibiotic solutions (Table S4) onto the lawns and incubated at 37°C for 24 hrs before

measurements. Means were compared with a one-way ANOVA and Tukey post-hoc test.

Fluorescent D-amino acid PG labeling

Saturated overnight cultures were diluted 1:100 into LB with 100 µM BADA[47] at 37°C for

1.5 hrs before addition of antibiotic. Labeled samples were washed one time in LB before

imaging on LB 0.8% agarose pads using a Leica DMi8 inverted microscope set for 490

nm excitation.

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