A dynamic bactofilin cytoskeleton cooperates with an M23 endopeptidase to control bacterial morphogenesis

Sebastian Pöhl[1,*], Manuel Osorio-Valeriano[1,2,#,*], Emöke Cserti[1,*], Jannik Harberding[1], Rogelio Hernández-Tamayo[2,3,4], Jacob Biboy[5], Patrick Sobetzko[4,§], Waldemar Vollmer[5,6], Peter L. Graumann[3,4], Martin Thanbichler[1,2,4]

[1] Department of Biology, University of Marburg, Marburg, Germany
[2] Max Planck Institute for Terrestrial Microbiology, Marburg, Germany
[3] Department of Chemistry, University of Marburg, Marburg, Germany
[4] Center for Synthetic Microbiology (SYNMIKRO), Marburg, Germany
[5] Centre for Bacterial Cell Biology, Biosciences Institute, Newcastle University, Newcastle upon Tyne, United Kingdom
[6] Institute for Molecular Bioscience, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia.

[#] Present address: Department of Cell Biology, Blavatnik Institute, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA.
[§] Present address: Faculty of Sciences and Technologies, Université de Lorraine, Nancy, France.

* These authors contributed equally to this work.

Address correspondence to
Martin Thanbichler (thanbichler@uni-marburg.de)

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Abstract

Bactofilins have emerged as a widespread family of cytoskeletal proteins with important roles in bacterial

morphogenesis, but their precise mode of action is still incompletely understood. In this study, we identify

the bactofilin cytoskeleton as a key regulator of cell growth in the stalked budding alphaproteobacterium

Hyphomonas neptunium. We show that, in this species, bactofilin polymers localize dynamically to the

stalk base and the bud neck, with their absence leading to unconstrained growth of the stalk and bud

compartments, indicating a central role in the spatial regulation of cell wall biosynthesis. Database search-

es reveal that in a range of different species bactofilin genes are clustered with genes for cell wall hydro-

lases of the M23 peptidase family, suggesting a functional connection between these two types of pro-

teins. In support of this notion, we find that the *H. neptunium* M23 peptidase homolog LmdC interacts

directly with bactofilin *in vitro* and is required for proper cell shape *in vivo*. Complementary studies in the

spiral-shaped alphaproteobacterium *Rhodospirillum rubrum* again reveal a close association of its bacto-

filin and LmdC homologs, which co-localize at the inner curve of the cell, modulating the degree of cell

curvature. Collectively, these findings demonstrate that bactofilins and M23 peptidases form a conserved

functional module that promotes local changes in the mode of cell wall biosynthesis, thereby driving cell

shape determination in morphologically complex bacteria.

Introduction

Bacteria come in a variety of different cell shapes, which can be further modified by the formation of
cellular extensions such as branches or stalks (Kysela et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2016). Their morphology can
change as a function of the cell cycle or in response to environmental cues to ensure optimal fitness in
the given ecological niche or growth conditions (van Teeseling et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2016). In the vast
majority of species, cell shape is determined by the peptidoglycan cell wall, a complex macromolecule
composed of glycan chains that are crosslinked by short peptides (Typas et al., 2012; Vollmer et al., 2008).
The synthesis of this mesh-like structure is achieved by an array of synthetic and lytic enzymes that are
typically combined into multi-protein complexes and associated with regulatory factors and cytoskeletal
elements to facilitate the coordination and spatiotemporal regulation of their activities (Egan et al., 2020;
Rohs and Bernhardt, 2021).

Basic spherical, rod-like and hyphal shapes are generated by the combined action of the cell division and
cell elongation machinery (Margolin, 2009; Rohs and Bernhardt, 2021). In most bacteria, cell division is
executed by the divisome, which is organized by the tubulin homolog FtsZ and mediates cell constriction
and the synthesis of the new cell poles prior to cytokinesis (McQuillen and Xiao, 2020). Cell elongation, by
contrast, can be achieved by various types of cell wall-biosynthetic complexes, including the so-called
elongasome, which is organized by the actin homolog MreB and mediates the dispersed incorporation of
new cell wall material along the lateral cell walls (Shi et al., 2018), or different cell pole-associated com-
plexes that promote polar growth of the cell body (Brown et al., 2011). More complex cell shapes are
generated with the help of accessory systems that either modulate the activity of the generic cell elon-
gation machinery or have peptidoglycan biosynthetic activity on their own, thereby locally modifying the
structure of the peptidoglycan layer (Taylor et al., 2019).

A particularly widespread family of cytoskeletal proteins implicated in cell shape modification are the
bactofilins. They are characterized by a conserved central Bactofilin A/B domain (InterPro ID: IPR007607;
Paysan-Lafosse et al., 2022) with a barrel-like β-helical fold that is typically flanked by short disordered
terminal regions (Kühn et al., 2010; Shi et al., 2015; Vasa et al., 2015). Bactofilins polymerize spontane-
ously without the need for nucleotide cofactors (Koch et al., 2011; Kühn et al., 2010), driven by head-to-
head and tail-to-tail interactions between the core domains of neighboring molecules (Deng et al., 2019).
Lateral interactions between individual protofilaments can then give rise to higher-order assemblies, such
as bundles or two-dimensional sheets (Kühn et al., 2010; Vasa et al., 2015; Zuckerman et al., 2015).
Previous work has suggested that bactofilin polymers typically associate with the inner face of the cyto-

plasmic membrane and localize to regions of high membrane curvature (Caccamo et al., 2020; Hay et al.,

1999; Kühn et al., 2010; Lin et al., 2017; Taylor et al., 2020). These structures have been co-opted as

localization determinants and assembly platforms by several different morphogenetic systems.

For instance, bactofilin homologs were reported to contribute to rod-shape maintenance in *Myxococcus*

xanthus (Koch et al., 2011), the establishment of helical cell shape in the human pathogen *Helicobacter*

pylori (Sycuro et al., 2010; Taylor et al., 2020) as well as the modulation of cell helicity in the spiral-shaped

bacterium *Leptospira biflexa* (Jackson et al., 2018). Apart from modulating general cell shape, they were

found to have an important role in the formation of cellular extensions known as stalks, which are wide-

spread among alphaproteobacterial species (Wagner and Brun, 2007). Stalks are elongated protrusions of

the cell envelope that are filled with a thin thread of cytoplasm and grow through zonal incorporation of

cell wall material at their base (Aaron et al., 2007; Randich and Brun, 2015). In *Caulobacter crescentus* and

Asticcacaulis biprosthecum, bactofilin polymers were shown to localize to the stalk base to direct proper

stalk formation. In *C. crescentus*, they recruit a cell wall synthase that contributes to stalk elongation, with

their absence leading to a reduction in stalk length (Kühn et al., 2010). In *A. biprosthecum*, by contrast,

bactofilin acts as a central topological regulator that is required to efficiently initiate stalk formation and

limit peptidoglycan biosynthesis to the stalk base. Its absence leads to the development of pseudostalks,

which are much shorter and wider than normal stalks and irregularly shaped, likely due to unrestrained

peptidoglycan biosynthesis through the entire stalk envelope (Caccamo et al., 2020).

While stalks are often accessory structures with highly specialized functions (Klein et al., 2013; Persat et

al., 2014; Wagner and Brun, 2007), stalked budding bacteria such as *Hyphomonas neptunium* and other

members of the *Hyphomonadaceae* and *Hyphomicrobiaceae* use them as integral parts of the cell with

key roles in cell growth and division (Moore, 1981). *H. neptunium* has a biphasic life cycle (Wali et al.,

1980), in which a non-replicative, motile swimmer cell sheds its single polar flagellum and differentiates

into a replicative, sessile stalked cell (**Figure 1—figure supplement 1**). Unlike most widely studied model

species, it does not divide by binary fission but instead produces new offspring through the formation of

buds at the tip of the stalk. As the terminal stalk segment gradually dilates, a flagellum is formed at the

pole opposite the stalk. After DNA replication and translocation of one of the sister chromosomes through

the stalk into the bud compartment (Jung et al., 2019), cytokinesis occurs at the bud neck, releasing a new

swimmer cell. While the newborn cell first needs to differentiate into stalked cells to start replication, the

stalked mother cell restores the stalk and then immediately re-enters the next budding cycle (Jung et al.,

2019; Wali et al., 1980). The developmental program of *H. neptunium* involves several switches in the

pattern of peptidoglycan biosynthesis (Cserti et al., 2017). After birth, swimmer cells increase in size by

dispersed incorporation of new cell wall material throughout the cell body. Stalk formation is then

achieved by zonal growth at the stalk base, followed by localized dispersed growth of the stalk-terminal

bud compartment and, finally, zonal peptidoglycan synthesis at the site of cell division. The pattern of

new cell wall synthesis is similar to the localization pattern of elongasome components (Cserti et al., 2017),

suggesting the involvement of this machinery in all growth phases. However, the underlying regulatory

mechanisms are still unknown.

In this study, we identify the bactofilin cytoskeleton as a central player in the regulation of cell growth of

H. neptunium. We show that the lack of bactofilins causes severe morphological defects, resulting from

unconstrained growth of the stalk and bud compartments. In line with this finding, bactofilin polymers

localize dynamically to the stalk base and then to the incipient bud neck prior to the onset of bud for-

mation, acting as a barrier that retains the cell wall biosynthetic machinery in the respective growth zones.

Notably, in a broad range of species, bactofilin genes lie adjacent to genes encoding putative M23 pepti-

dases. We show that the corresponding *H. neptunium* homolog, LmdC, is an essential bitopic membrane

protein with peptidoglycan hydrolase activity that interacts directly with bactofilin through its N-terminal

cytoplasmic tail. Its CRISPRi-mediated depletion also results in unconstrained cell growth, confirming its

functional connection to bactofilin. The conservation of this interaction is further verified by studies of

the spiral-shaped alphaproteobacterium *Rhodospirillum rubrum*. We show that the bactofilin and LmdC

homologs of this species co-localize at the inner curve of the cell, forming filamentous assemblies that

modulate the degree of cell curvature. Their interaction is abolished by amino acid exchanges in the

cytoplasmic tail of LmdC, confirming a key role of this region in the recruitment of LmdC. Together, these

results demonstrate a conserved functional interaction between bactofilins and M23 peptidases that is

important for the control of cell growth in morphologically complex bacteria.

Results

100 **The bactofilin cytoskeleton is required for cell shape determination in *H. neptunium***

101 The *H. neptunium* chromosome contains two open reading frames that encode bactofilin homologs,

102 HNE_0444 and HNE_2629 (Badger et al., 2006). Reciprocal BLAST analysis using the two bactofilins

103 described in the close relative *C. crescentus* identified HNE_2629 as a potential ortholog of *C. crescentus*

104 BacA (43% identity, 60% similarity). By contrast, HNE_0444 was only distantly related (<30% identity) to

105 either of the two proteins. Based on these results, we propose to designate the two bactofilin homologs

106 of *H. neptunium* BacA (HNE_2629) and BacD (HNE_0444), respectively. *bacA* forms a putative bicistronic

107 operon with *lmdC*, an essential gene encoding an M23 peptidase homolog (Cserti et al., 2017) (**Figure 1A**).

108 The two genes overlap by 17 base pairs, suggesting that their expression is closely coupled. *bacD*, by

109 contrast, is not part of an operon. Both BacA and BacD display the typical architecture of bactofilins, with

110 a central polymerization domain flanked by short non-structured N- and C-terminal regions (**Figure 1B**).

111 To investigate the role of bactofilins in *H. neptunium*, we generated mutant strains in which *bacA* and

112 *bacD* were deleted either individually or in combination and analyzed their phenotypes (**Figure 1**). The

113 Δ*bacA* and Δ*bacAD* cells showed severe morphological defects, as reflected by irregularly shaped, elon-

114 gated and/or oversized cells, buds directly fused with the mother cell body, branched stalks, and multiple

115 wide protrusions that emerged from the cells in an apparently random fashion (**Figure 1C-E**), reminiscent

116 of the pseudostalks reported for a bactofilin-deficient *A. biprosthecum* mutant (Caccamo et al., 2020).

117 Surprisingly, these growth defects did not have any major defects on the doubling time (**Figure 1—figure**

118 **supplement 2F**). The wild-type phenotype could be largely restored by expressing an ectopic copy of *bacA*

119 under the control of a copper-inducible promoter, even though BacA accumulated to lower-than-normal

120 levels under this condition, confirming the absence of polar effects (**Figure 1—figure supplement 2A-D**).

121 The deletion of *bacD*, by contrast, did not cause any obvious cell shape defects (**Figure 1C,E,F** and **Figure**

122 **1—figure supplement 2E**). Moreover, neither *bacD* deletion nor *bacD* overexpression had any influence

123 on the proportion of distorted or amorphous cells in the Δ*bacA* background (**Figure 1C,F** and **Figure 1—**

124 **figure supplement 2C,F**). These results demonstrate that BacA has a critical role in the regulation of cell

125 growth in *H. neptunium*, whereas BacD might be an auxiliary factor of so-far unknown function, similar to

126 BacB in *C. crescentus* (Kühn et al., 2010).

127 To obtain more insight into the dynamics of cell growth in the Δ*bacA* mutant and identify the initial pheno-

128 typic defects induced upon BacA depletion, we imaged a conditional *bacA* mutant after its transfer from

129 permissive to restrictive conditions on an agarose pad (**Figure 2A,B**). Following cells at the swimmer-to-

stalked cell transition, we observed that stalk formation initially proceeded as in the wild-type strain.
However, as BacA was gradually depleted, stalk elongation ceased and the stalk structure started to widen
and eventually develop multiple bulges that kept on expanding in an apparently uncontrolled manner.
Thus, BacA appears to be required to maintain the polar growth zone at the stalk base, with its absence
leading to unconstrained growth of the stalk cell wall. To follow the fate of bactofilin-deficient cells over
a prolonged period of time, we monitored Δ*bacAD* cells in a flow-cell system, which ensured optimal
nutrient supply throughout the course of the experiment and led to a looser packing of cells, thereby
facilitating their visual analysis (**Figure 2—figure supplement 1** and **Figure 2—video 1**). In this setup, cells
again started growth by the formation of irregularly shaped stalks that started to branch, with branches
developing either into extensive hyphal-like structures or large, amorphous compartments that may
represent morphologically aberrant buds. At irregular intervals, cells divided at the junctions between
hyphal and bulged cellular segments, releasing smaller amorphous fragments and, occasionally, also cells
with close-to-normal morphology. Wild-type cells, by contrast, showed the usual growth pattern when
cultivated under these conditions (**Figure 2—video 1**). Together, these results underscore the importance
of BacA in the spatiotemporal control of cell growth in *H. neptunium*.

To obtain more detailed information about the dynamics of cell wall biosynthesis in the absence of bacto-
filins, we performed pulse-labeling studies with the fluorescent D-amino acid HADA, which is rapidly incor-
porated into peptidoglycan when added to the culture medium, thus marking regions of ongoing cell wall
biosynthesis (Kuru et al., 2015). Wild-type cells showed the typical succession of growth modes, with
dispersed growth in swimmer cells, zonal growth at the stalk base in stalked cells and localized dispersed
growth in the nascent bud (**Figure 2C**). In the Δ*bacAD* background, by contrast, this switch in the growth
modes was abolished. Cells with close-to-normal morphology that had just initiated stalk formation still
showed a distinct fluorescent focus at the stalked pole, suggesting that the initial recruitment of the
machinery responsible for stalk formation occurred in a bactofilin-independent manner. However, all
other cell types, including amorphous cells with aberrant stalk- and bud-like extensions, only displayed
diffuse fluorescence, which points to uncontrolled growth through dispersed incorporation of new pepti-
doglycan throughout the entire cell envelope. These findings support the notion that the bactofilin cyto-
skeleton is required to limit cell wall biosynthesis to the different growth zones of *H. neptunium*.

The *H. neptunium* bactofilin homologs assemble into stable filamentous structures
Despite their severe cell shape defects, the Δ*bacA* and Δ*bacAD* mutants showed close-to-normal growth
rates. Moreover, muropeptide analysis showed that the global composition of their peptidoglycan re-

mained essentially unchanged (**Figure 2—figure supplement 2B** and **Figure 2—Dataset 1**). These findings suggested that BacA might affect cell wall composition at a local scale or act mainly by modulating the activity of the generic cell elongation machinery. To further investigate the role of bactofilins in *H. neptunium*, we first aimed to verify the ability of the proteins to assemble into polymeric scaffolds. A model of the structure of BacA generated with AlphaFold-Multimer (Evans et al., 2022) suggested that the protein adopted a β-helical fold and polymerized through head-to-head and tail-to-tail interactions among different subunits (**Figure 3A**), as revealed previously in experimental studies (Deng et al., 2019; Shi et al., 2015). Consistent with this prediction, purified BacA produced a mixture of long filaments, filament bundles and two-dimensional polymeric sheets *in vitro*, which could be readily visualized by transmission electron microscopy (**Figure 3B**). Moreover, upon heterologous co-expression in *Escherichia coli*, fluorescently tagged derivatives of BacA and BacD co-localized into extended filamentous structures that were associated with the cell envelope (**Figure 3C** and **Figure 3—figure supplement 1A**). The BacA fusion formed qualitatively similar structures when produced alone, whereas the BacD fusion condensed into tight foci in the absence of BacA (**Figure 3—figure supplement 1B,C**). These results confirm the polymeric nature of bactofilin assemblies in *H. neptunium* and suggest that BacA and BacD interact with each other *in vivo*.

Bactofilins localize dynamically to the boundaries of the *H. neptunium* growth zones

Next, we sought to investigate the localization dynamics of the bactofilin cytoskeleton *in vivo*. To this end, we generated strains producing fluorescently tagged BacA or BacD derivatives in place of the native proteins (**Figure 4—figure supplement 1**). Time-lapse microscopy analysis of cells producing a BacA-YFP fusion on agarose pads (**Figure 4A**) revealed that the protein was localized to the new cell pole in swimmer cells and remained associated with the stalk base during the initial phase of stalk formation. At some point, it appeared to attach to the stalk structure and then move away from the base as new cell wall material was inserted. Subsequently, stalk elongation ceased and the terminal stalk segment, delimited by the bactofilin assembly, started to swell and develop into a bud, gradually displacing BacA-YFP in the direction of the stalk base as its size increased. After cell division, both the mother cell and the newborn swimmer cells showed a fluorescent focus, indicating that the bactofilin assembly was split during cell division. To monitor the dynamics of the bactofilin cytoskeleton over multiple division cycles, we analyzed the same strain in a flow-cell system (**Figure 4—figure supplement 2** and **Figure 4—videos 1-3**). Under these conditions, the small, newborn swimmer cells were washed away immediately after cytokinesis, preventing the formation of microcolonies around the mother cell. We observed that cell division occurred at a small distance from the BacA-YFP focus, leaving a short stalk-terminal segment in between

the bactofilin assembly and the stalk tip. After cytokinesis, the stalk elongated again prior to the initiation

of the next budding event. Notably, BacA-YFP was only occasionally detected at the stalked pole during

the stalk restoration phase, suggesting that the bactofilin cytoskeleton no longer plays a major role in stalk

growth once the stalk structure has been established.

To verify the behavior observed in the time-lapse studies, we performed a population-wide analysis of the

BacA-YFP localization pattern, based on snap-shot images of exponentially growing cells. A demographic

analysis confirmed that the protein localizes to the new cell pole in swimmer cells, remains at the stalk

base in cells with short stalks and then moves to a position close to the distal end of the stalk before the

onset of budding, remaining associated with the bud neck up to the point of cell division (**Figure 4B**). A

very similar behavior was observed for a BacD variant fused to the yellow fluorescent protein Venus (Nagai

et al., 2002) (**Figure 4C**), consistent with the notion that the two bactofilin paralogs interact. In support of

this hypothesis, studies of a strain in which both proteins were fluorescently labeled showed that BacA

and BacD indeed co-localized to a large extent during all stages of the developmental cycle (**Figure 4D** and

Figure 4—figure supplement 3). However, at the onset of bud formation, the signals of the two proteins

were not always fully superimposable, with BacD assemblies occasionally detectable both at the bud neck

and in the mother cell (**Figure 4—figure supplement 4**). In the absence of BacA, BacD-Venus still formed

distinct foci, albeit at apparently random positions within the cell (**Figure 4—figure supplement 5**). Notab-

ly, a BacA-YFP variant carrying a previously reported mutation that disrupts the polymerization interface

(F130R) (Deng et al., 2019; Vasa et al., 2015; Zuckerman et al., 2015) was evenly distributed within the cell

and unable to functionally replace the wild-type protein, indicating that the formation of polymeric

assemblies is essential for proper BacA localization and function (**Figure 4—figure supplement 6**). Given

that the bactofilin assemblies are localized to the stalk and bud boundaries and required to prevent

unconstrained growth of these cellular structures, we hypothesized that the bactofilin cytoskeleton might

serve to limit the cell wall biosynthetic machinery to the different growth zones of *H. neptunium*.

To further investigate the role of bactofilin in the spatial regulation of cell wall biosynthesis, we generated

derivatives of the wild-type and Δ*bacAD* strains that produced a fluorescently (YFP-) labeled variant of

the membrane-bound elongasome protein RodZ, a core structural component of the complex connecting

the cytoplasmic MreB cytoskeleton to the periplasmic enzymatic machinery (Bendezú et al., 2009; van

den Ent et al., 2010; Alyahya et al., 2009). In the wild-type background, RodZ-YFP formed dynamic foci in

in the mother cell, at the (incipient) stalk base and the nascent bud (**Figure 5** and **Figure 5—videos 1,2**),

thus localizing to the different growth zones detected by HADA labeling (**Figure 2C**). These results are in

line with previous findings identifying the elongasome as a key determinant of cell growth in *H. neptunium* (Cserti et al., 2017). Importantly, however, RodZ-YFP foci were never observed in the stalk, suggesting that elongasome complexes are unable to cross the stalk base and the bud neck, even though their free components appear to be able to diffuse through the stalk to facilitate the *de novo* assembly of elongasomes in the incipient bud compartment. In the Δ*bacAD* mutant, the localization behavior of RodZ-YFP resembled that in the wild-type background as long as the cells were the early stages of the cell cycle, with dynamic foci detectable throughout the cell envelope and at the (future) stalk base (**Figure 5** and **Figure 5—video 3**). However, at later stages, the elongasome was no longer excluded from the nascent stalk structure and, in many cases, even appeared to be enriched this region, leading to its remodeling into an increasingly amorphous cellular extension (**Figure 5** and **Figure 3—videos 3-5**). The bactofilin cytoskeleton itself or the high degree of positive inner cell curvature induced in its presence at the stalk base thus appear to act as a barrier that excludes elongasome complexes from the stalk and thus facilitates proper morphogenesis and bud development.

The assembly state of BacA changes at different stages of *H. neptunium* development

Since bactofilins form highly stable polymers *in vitro* (Kühn et al., 2010; Zuckerman et al., 2015), the dynamic localization observed for BacA and BacD was unexpected. To further characterize the dynamics of the bactofilin cytoskeleton in *H. neptunium*, we followed the movement of individual BacA-YFP molecules in swimmer, stalked and budding cells (**Figure 6—video 1**). First, we used single-molecule tracking data to generate high-resolution images of the bactofilin assemblies in each of the three cell types. The results confirmed the cell cycle-dependent localization patterns observed by widefield fluorescence microscopy (**Figure 6A** and **Figure 6—figure supplement 1**). In addition, they revealed clusters in medial regions of the stalk, which may represent transient polymers formed during the reshuffling of bactofilin molecules between the stalk base and the (incipient) bud neck. When calculating the average mean squared displacement of the tracked BacA-YFP molecules, we found that their mobility decreased gradually from the swimmer over the stalked cell to the budding cell stage (**Figure 6B**). For each cell type, the distribution of step sizes in the single-particle tracks suggests the existence of two distinct diffusion regimes, with a static (D= 0.02 ± 0.0004 $\mu m^2\ s^{-1}$) and a mobile (D= 0.35 ± 0.004 $\mu m^2\ s^{-1}$) population, likely representing the polymerized and freely diffusible states, respectively (**Figure 6C** and **Figure 6—figure supplement 2**). In swimmer cells, the static fraction comprised only ~60% of the molecules. Its proportion increased to ~70% in stalked cells and finally reached ~80% in budding cells. The F130R variant, by contrast, showed less than 15% of static molecules (**Figure 6B,C** and **Figure 6—figure supplement 2** and **Figure 6—video 1**) consistent with the notion that it is impaired in polymerization but still able to assemble under certain conditions

after undergoing a structural change that generates an alternative polymerization interface (Deng et al., 2019). Collectively, these results show that, in *H. neptunium*, the assembly state of the bactofilin cytoskeleton changes as cells progress through their developmental cycle. Moreover, despite the inherent stability of bactofilin polymers, all cell types display a sizeable fraction of mobile BacA-YFP molecules, which could potentially reflect the dynamic reorganization of bactofilin assemblies during cell growth.

Bactofilin genes are often clustered with genes encoding M23 peptidases

After identifying a critical role of BacA in *H. neptunium* morphogenesis, we set out to gain further insight into its mechanism of action. Notably, in several species in which bactofilins play a role in cell shape determination, the corresponding bactofilin genes are located adjacent to genes encoding a putative M23 peptidase homologous to LmdC (**Figure 7A**). To determine whether this gene arrangement was more widely conserved, we performed a comprehensive bioinformatic analysis in which we searched all bacterial genome sequences available for putative bactofilin genes that were located immediately upstream or downstream of open reading frames encoding proteins with a predicted M23 peptidase domain. This analysis identified a total of 226 species from a wide variety of bacterial phyla (**Figure 7B** and **Figure 7—Dataset 1**), suggesting a conserved functional association between bactofilins and M23 peptidases.

The M23 peptidase LmdC of *H. neptunium* has peptidoglycan hydrolase activity *in vitro*

Like many of its homologs, *H. neptunium* LmdC is a predicted bitopic membrane protein with a short N-terminal cytoplasmic region, a transmembrane helix, large periplasmic region composed of a predicted coiled-coil domain, and a C-terminal M23 peptidase domain (**Figure 8A**). Members of the M23 peptidase family usually have Zn^+-dependent hydrolase activity and cleave bonds within the peptide side chains of in the peptidoglycan meshwork (Firczuk et al., 2005; Grabowska et al., 2015). However, there are also various representatives that have lost their enzymatic activity because of mutations in residues required for metal cofactor binding and have instead adopted regulatory roles in cell wall biosynthesis (Figueroa-Cuilan et al., 2021; Goley et al., 2010; Gurnani Serrano et al., 2021; Möll et al., 2010; Poggio et al., 2010; Uehara et al., 2010). An amino acid alignment showed that the M23 peptidase domain of LmdC features all residues reported to be critical for Zn^{2+} binding, suggesting that it could act as a genuine peptidoglycan hydrolase (**Figure 8B**). In a structural model of LmdC generated with AlphaFold2 (Jumper et al., 2021), the periplasmic coiled-coil and M23 peptidase domains form an elongated, rigid unit with two flanking non-structured regions that is flexibly linked to the transmembrane helix (**Figure 8C**). Notably, LmdC homologs were shown to form a distinct clade among the M23 peptidases that is broadly conserved among species but particularly enriched in alpha- and deltaproteobacteria (Figueroa-Cuilan et al., 2021).

To clarify whether LmdC was indeed catalytically active, we purified a C-terminal fragment of the protein

including the M23 peptidase domain and assayed its activity *in vitro*. Peptidoglycan from *H. neptunium*

shows only a low degree of cross-linkage and hardly any pentapeptides (Cserti et al., 2017), likely due to

a high level of autolytic activity. We therefore used normally crosslinked, pentapeptide-enriched peptido-

glycan from *E. coli* strain D456 (lacking PBPs 4, 5 and 6) (Edwards and Donachie, 1993) as a substrate to

enable a comprehensive analysis of the cleavage specificity of LmdC. Upon treatment with the protein,

the proportion of dimeric muropeptide species strongly decreased, regardless of the length of the cross-

linked peptides and without the formation of major additional monomer peaks (**Figure 8D**). The activity

of LmdC was particularly high at a pH value of 5, but the physiological significance of this effect remains

to be determined. Collectively, these results demonstrate that LmdC is a DD-endopeptidase cleaving the

bond between the meso-diaminopimelic acid residue of one peptide and D-alanine at position 4 of the

other peptide, thereby reducing the degree of cross-linkage within the peptidoglycan layer (**Figure 8E**).

LmdC is critical for morphogenesis in *H. neptunium* and physically interacts with BacA

To clarify whether LmdC was also required for proper growth in *H. neptunium*, we aimed to generate a

mutant strain lacking LmdC activity. However, all attempts to delete the *lmdC* gene or the entire putative

lmdC-bacA operon or to generate non-functional truncated *lmdC* alleles were unsuccessful, in line with a

previous report suggesting that *lmdC* is essential for viability (Cserti et al., 2017). It was also not possible

to generate a conditional *lmdC* mutant producing the gene under the control of a copper-inducible pro-

moter, suggesting that its expression level needs to be precisely regulated.

To address this issue, we developed a CRISPR interference (CRISPRi) system (Larson et al., 2013) that en-

abled the inducible down-regulation of target genes in *H. neptunium*. It is based on a newly constructed

integrative plasmid (pdCas9Entry) that carries the gene for a nuclease-deficient variant of *Streptococcus*

pyogenes Cas9 (dCas9) under the control of a copper-inducible promoter as well as a cassette for the

construction and constitutive expression of a gene-specific small guide RNA (sgRNA) (**Figure 9A** and **Figure**

9—figure supplement 1A). A derivative of this plasmid encoding an sgRNA directed against the 5' region

of the *lmdC* gene was then inserted into the *H. neptunium* chromosome (**Figure 9B**). Induction with copper

led to the formation of an sgRNA-dCas9 complex that targeted the non-coding strand of *lmdC*, generating

a road-block that prevented the movement of RNA polymerase and, thus, gene expression (**Figure 9C,D**).

Importantly, the block of *lmdC* expression led to cell shape defects very similar to those observed for the

Δ*bacA* mutant, as reflected by a large proportion of distorted and amorphous cells, which still showed

close-to-normal growth rates (**Figure 9E,F** and **Figure 9—figure supplement 1B,C**). Induced cells of a con-

trol strain carrying the empty pdCas9Entry plasmid did not show any obvious phenotype, indicating that the presence of dCas9 alone did not have any adverse effects on cell growth or viability (**Figure 9D,E** and **Figure 9—figure supplement 1C**). These results suggest that LmdC and BacA are part of the same morpho­genetic pathway.

To further investigate whether the peptidoglycan hydrolase LmdC was functionally linked to bactofilins in *H. neptunium*, we aimed to conduct *in vivo* co-localization studies. However, all attempts to generate functional fluorescent protein fusion to full-length or C-terminally truncated LmdC failed, because the fusion proteins were either unstable or did not produce any fluorescence signal *in vivo*. As a complemen­tary approach, we analyzed the interaction between LmdC and BacA *in vitro* by biolayer interferometry. To this end, a synthetic peptide comprising the predicted cytoplasmic region of LmdC (amino acids 1-38) was immobilized on a biosensor and probed with increasing concentrations of purified BacA protein. The results showed that BacA interacts with the LmdC peptide with an apparent equilibrium dissociation constant (K_D) of ~15 µM. By contrast, an unrelated peptide used as a negative control was not bound with appreciable affinity (**Figure 9G,H**). This result confirms a direct interaction between BacA and LmdC and identifies the N-terminal cytoplasmic region of LmdC as the interaction determinant for BacA association.

R. rubrum BacA recruits LmdC to the inner curve of the cell to modulate cell curvature

Our bioinformatic analysis suggests that bactofilins and M23 peptidases may be functionally associated in a large number of species. To further explore this possibility, we turned our efforts to the spiral-shaped bacterium *Rhodospirillum rubrum*, which contains a putative *lmdC-bacA* operon similar to that in *H. nep­tunium* (Munk et al., 2011) (**Figure 10A**). The *R. rubrum* BacA homolog Rru_A1867 (BacA$_{Rs}$) is 37% identical (57% similar) to BacA of *H. neptunium* and also consists of a central Bactofilin A/B domain flanked by terminal non-structured regions (**Figure 10B**). The LmdC homolog Rru_A1868 (LmdC$_{Rs}$) is 39% identical (55% similar) to *H. neptunium* LmdC and has a similar predicted molecular structure (Varadi et al., 2022). The deletion of *bacA$_{Rs}$* led to a noticeable increase in cell curvature (**Figure 10C** and **Figure 10—figure supplement 1A**), as also reflected in a significant increase in cell sinuosity (**Figure 10D**). A very similar effect was observed for cells lacking *lmdC$_{Rs}$* or both *bacA$_{Rs}$* and lmdC$_{Rs}$, indicating that the two gene pro­ducts act in the same pathway and jointly contribute to cell shape maintenance in *R. rubrum* (**Figure 10C,D and Figure 10—figure supplement 1A**). In the two mutant strains, the global composition of peptido­glycan was largely unchanged, supporting the notion that the BacA$_{Rs}$-LmdC$_{Rs}$ pathway modifies the cell wall only locally or acts by modulating the activity of the standard cell elongation machinery (**Figure 10—figure supplement 1B**).

Complementation studies showed that the expression of a plasmid-borne copy of *bacA* under the control

of a weak constitutive promoter attenuated the curvature defect, albeit only partially, likely due to inade-

quate expression levels (**Figure 10—figure supplement 2**). The generation of an analogous plasmid to

complement the deletion of *lmdC$_{Rs}$* failed, because it was not possible to introduce the construct into

Escherichia coli for plasmid propagation, suggesting that the expression of *lmdC$_{Rs}$* was toxic to the cells.

To further test this hypothesis, we constructed a plasmid enabling the expression of the gene under a

tightly controlled, inducible promoter in *E. coli*. Upon induction, a large part of the cell population lyzed,

whereas control cells carrying an empty plasmid did not show any phenotypic defects (**Figure 10—figure**

supplement 3). These results indicate that, similar to its *H. neptunium* homolog, LmdC$_{Rs}$ is an active en-

zyme with peptidoglycan hydrolase activity.

To further test the hypothesis that LmdC was functionally linked to bactofilin in *R. rubrum*, we set out to

perform *in vivo* co-localization studies. However, all attempts to generate fluorescently labeled variants

of full-length LmdC failed, because the corresponding *R. rubrum* expression plasmids appeared to be toxic

to *E. coli*. Importantly, our *in vitro* studies had shown that the interaction of LmdC with the bactofilin

cytoskeleton was mediated by its N-terminal cytoplasmic region (**Figure 9G,H**). To avoid the issues caused

by the full-length protein, we therefore generated a reporter fusion encoding only the predicted N-termi-

nal cytoplasmic region and the transmembrane helix (amino acids 1-80) of LmdC$_{Rs}$ fused to the green

fluorescent protein mNeonGreen (Shaner et al., 2012) (LmdC$^{N}_{Rs}$-mNG) (**Figure 10—figure supplement 4A-**

C). A low-copy plasmid carrying the corresponding allele under the control of the native *lmdC$_{Rs}$* promoter

was then introduced into an *R. rubrum* Δ*lmdC$_{Rs}$* mutant producing a fully functional fusion of BacA$_{Rs}$ to the

red fluorescent protein mCherry (BacA$_{Rs}$-CHY) (Shaner et al., 2004) in place of the wild-type protein (**Fig-**

ure 10—figure supplement 2). We found that BacA$_{Rs}$-CHY and LmdC$^{N}_{Rs}$-mNG were consistently localized

to the same subcellular positions, forming patchy or filamentous structures that were preferentially, but

not exclusively, positioned at the inner curve of the cell (**Figure 10E**). A very similar behavior was observed

in the presence of wild-type LmdC$_{Rs}$ (**Figure 10—figure supplement 4D**). To further validate the enrich-

ment of the two fusion proteins at the inner curve, we quantified their fluorescence signals along the

inner and outer curves of multiple individual cells, concatenated the resulting fluorescence profiles and

ordered them according to their total length. In both cases, cells consistently displayed higher signal

intensities at the inner curve (**Figure 10F,G**), supporting the notion that BacA$_{Rs}$-LmdC$_{Rs}$ assemblies pro-

mote cell wall biosynthesis in the inner curve to reduce overall cell curvature. Notably, a BacA$_{Rs}$-mNG

fusion showed a reduced enrichment in the absence of LmdC$_{Rs}$, whereas LmdC$^{N}_{Rs}$-mNG completely lost its

asymmetric distribution in the Δ*bacA$_{Rs}$* background (**Figure 10H-J**). These results identify BacA$_{Rs}$ polymers

as recruitment platforms for LmdC$_{Rs}$, although an interaction between the two proteins appears to be

required for normal BacA$_{Rs}$ localization.

LmdC recruitment depends on the conserved cytoplasmic β-hairpin motif

The N-terminal cytoplasmic region of LmdC$_{Rs}$ contains a β-hairpin motif (**Figure 11A**) that is conserved

among LmdC homologs. To determine whether this structural feature was involved in BacA binding, we

exchanged two small clusters of amino acids that protruded from its surface and might thus serve as

interaction determinants, using LmdC$^{N}_{Rs}$-mNG as a reporter. Cluster I (R25, H26, L27) was located within

the first β-strand, whereas cluster II (R30, S31) was close to the β-turn (**Figure 11B**). The modifications in

cluster I completely abolished the enrichment of LmdC at the inner curve of the cell, indicating that the β-

hairpin motif is a critical part of the BacA binding site (**Figure 11C,D**). Notably, the loss of interaction

between the two proteins also led to a reduced inner-curve enrichment of BacA$_{Rs}$-CHY, as previously

observed in the Δ*lmdC$_{Rs}$* background (**Figure 10I,J**). This observation confirms that LmdC$_{Rs}$ binding is re-

quired for BacA to adopt its proper spatial organization. Similar defects were caused by the modification

of cluster II (**Figure 11C,E**). However, in this case, BacA$_{Rs}$-CHY was also no longer enriched at the inner

curve, suggesting that the mutant protein may still show a residual, yet aberrant interaction with BacA$_{Rs}$

that has a negative effect on BacA$_{Rs}$ localization. Collectively, these findings confirm a functional associ-

ation between the bactofilin cytoskeleton and LmdC$_{Rs}$ in *R. rubrum*. Moreover, they support the notion

that bactofilins and LmdC-like M23 peptidases form a conserved morphogenetic module that is involved

in the establishment of complex bacterial cell shapes.

Discussion

Although bactofilins are widely conserved among bacteria, their cellular functions are still incompletely

understood. Here, we show that BacA homologs critically contribute to cell shape determination in two

morphologically distinct members of the alphaproteobacteria, the stalked budding bacterium *H. neptu-*

nium and the spiral-shaped bacterium *R. rubrum*. In both cases, they functionally interact with LmdC-type

DD-endopeptidases to promote local changes in the pattern of peptidoglycan biosynthesis. Bactofilins

thus complement the activities of the MreB and FtsZ cytoskeletons in the regulation of cell growth and

act as versatile cell shape modifiers that facilitate the establishment of complex bacterial morphologies.

In *H. neptunium*, the bactofilin cytoskeleton localizes dynamically to the stalk base and the bud neck, pro-

moting stalk growth and subsequent bud formation (**Figure 4**). While flanked by zones of active growth,

the stalk itself is usually devoid of cell wall biosynthetic machinery (Cserti et al., 2017) (**Figure 5**). In bacto-

filin-deficient cells, however, the stalk and bud growth zones are no longer confined and expand into the

stalk envelope, leading to stalk widening and the formation of irregular bulges due to uncontrolled pep-

tidoglycan incorporation and bud expansion (**Figure 2** and **Figure 5**). Bulges or larger amorphous segments

at some point separate from the mother cell and then continue to grow as independent cells, indicating

that chromosome replication and segregation as well as cell division still occur under these conditions.

Together, these observations suggests that bactofilin polymers establish barriers that normally prevent

the entry of elongasome complexes from the mother cell or nascent bud compartments into the stalk.

The precise mechanism underlying the function of bactofilin in cell morphogenesis remains to be clarified.

It is conceivable that bactofilin polymers act by tethering peptidoglycan biosynthetic proteins or estab-

lishing physical barriers that hinder the mobility of elongasome complexes (**Figure 12A**). However, we

observed a close functional association of bactofilins with M23 peptidases that appears to be widely con-

served among species, suggesting that their activity may be intimately tied to cell wall hydrolysis. The

transition zones between the stalk and the adjacent mother cell and bud compartments are characterized

by a high degree of positive inner cell curvature, which is in stark contrast to the negative curvature in the

remaining parts of the cell. The hydrolytic activity of *H. neptunium* LmdC may be critical to remodel the

cell wall in these zones and thus facilitate the extrusion of the stalk. Importantly, MreB is thought to move

along regions of negative inner cell curvature (Hussain et al., 2018; Wong et al., 2019). The positively

curved transition zones generated by the bactofilin-LmdC assemblies could therefore represent topo-

logical barriers that are difficult to cross by elongasome complexes, thereby helping to restrict their move-

ment to the mother cell and bud compartments. Moreover, the narrow diameter stalks and their exceed-

ingly high degree of negative inner cell curvature may reduce the stability of elongasome complexes that

may form spontaneously in the stalk region. These effects may also be important during the stalk elonga-

tion phase following cell division, when bactofilin assemblies are no longer present at the stalk base.

Notably, a role in stalk formation has also been reported for the bactofilin homologs of *C. crescentus* and

A. biprosthecum. In *C. crescentus*, the major bactofilin BacA was shown to act as a localization determinant

for the bifunctional penicillin-binding protein PbpC, a cell wall synthase that contributes to stalk elonga-

tion (Kühn et al., 2010) and the proper sorting of a stalk-specific protein (Hughes et al., 2013). However,

the absence of BacA only leads to a moderate reduction in stalk length and leaves overall cell shape

unaffected, indicating that this protein has only a minor role in *C. crescentus* stalk formation. In *A. bipros-*

thecum, by contrast, the deletion of *bacA* completely abolishes stalk formation in rich medium and leads

to the formation of wide cellular protrusions, named pseudostalks, under phosphate-limiting conditions

(Caccamo et al., 2020). Similar to the amorphous extensions observed for the *H. neptunium* Δ*bacAD* mu-

tant, these structures grow through disperse incorporation of new peptidoglycan and develop into viable

offspring. Their formation was also attributed to the entry of cell wall biosynthetic proteins into nascent

stalks (Caccamo et al., 2020), suggesting that the *H. neptunium* and *A. biprosthecum* BacA homologs share

the same barrier function during stalk formation. However, in *H. neptunium*, another layer of regulation

has been added in which bactofilins establish a second barrier close to the stalk tip that enables the for-

mation of stalk-terminal buds. Bud expansion requires the relocation of elongasome complexes from the

mother cell to the nascent bud at the onset of bud formation, as likely reflected by the fact that compo-

nents of the elongasome (MreB, RodZ) and new cell wall biosynthesis can be detected within the stalk

during a short time window at the end of the stalk elongation phase (Cserti et al., 2017). This process may

be facilitated by the (partial) disassembly of the bactofilin complex at the stalk base and the diffusion of

its components to the bud compartment, but the mechanistic details remain to be investigated. Another

open question concerns the factors that control the dynamic localization of bactofilin to the stalked pole

and the future bud neck in the terminal segment of the stalk. In *A. biprosthecum*, the recruitment of BacA

assemblies to the sites of stalk biosynthesis is dependent on the cell wall hydrolase SpmX (Caccamo et al.,

2020). However, an *H. neptunium* mutant lacking this protein shows normal morphology (Leicht et al.,

2020), suggesting the existence of a different localization determinant.

Intriguingly, bactofilins not only mediate stalk formation and stalk-terminal budding but also the forma-

tion of curved cell shapes. We show that both BacA and LmdC are required to establish the normal degree

of cell helicity in *R. rubrum*, with their absence leading to hyper-curved cells (**Figure 10C,D**). This result

suggests that the two proteins form an accessory module that counteracts the activity of a so-far unknown

system responsible for generating spiral cell shape in *R. rubrum* (**Figure 12B**). Cell curvature was shown to

promote cell motility (Martinez et al., 2016). It is tempting to speculate that the expression of *bacA* and

lmdC could be controlled in response to external cues to ensure optimal cell helicity and, thus, fitness in

different environments. Our results show that *R. rubrum* cells contain multiple BacA-LmdC complexes that

are distributed along the entire cell envelope but localize preferentially to the inner cell curvature (**Figure

10E,G**). In this system, it is immediately obvious that BacA acts as a localization determinant for LmdC,

since the preferential localization of LmdC to the inner curve is abolished in its absence (**Figure 10I,J**). To

reduce cell curvature, the hydrolytic activity of LmdC must ultimately stimulate the insertion of new pep-

tidoglycan at the inner curve of the cell, which increases the rate of cell elongation in this region and thus

straightens the cell body. A similar mechanism may also be at work in the spirochete *L. biflexa*, where the

loss of the bactofilin paralog LbbD, whose gene lies adjacent to a gene for putative M23 peptidase

(LEPBI_I1430) (**Figure 7A**), was found to induce a strong increase in cell helicity (Jackson et al., 2018). A

different variation of this theme is found in *H. pylori*. There, the bactofilin homolog CcmA also forms

multiple assemblies along the cell envelope, which interact with a membrane-spanning protein complex

including an M23 peptidase (Csd1) homologous to LmdC (Sichel et al., 2022; Taylor et al., 2020). However,

these assemblies are enriched at the outer curve of the cell, where they stimulate peptidoglycan synthesis

to locally increase the rate of cell elongation over that at the inner curve, leading to twisting of the cell

body.

Notably, in all systems characterized so far in molecular detail, the function of bactofilin-M23 peptidase

complexes involves the stimulation of cell wall biosynthesis in a confined region of the cell envelope that

entails a local change in cell envelope curvature. In *H. neptunium*, these complexes are only localized to

narrow bands at the stalk base and bud neck, generating sharp bends at the transition zones between the

stalk and the adjacent mother cell and bud compartments. In spiral-shaped bacteria, by contrast, they are

scattered along the entire length of the cell, thereby establishing an elongated zone of increased longi-

tudinal growth that changes overall cell curvature. The same mechanistic principle may also explain the

morphogenetic role of bactofilins in so-far uninvestigated systems.

Collectively, our results underscore the role of bactofilins as versatile modulators of bacterial cell shape.

In association with M23 peptidases, they form cell wall biosynthetic complexes that introduce local

changes in cell envelope curvature. In doing so, they complement the activities of the tubulin and actin

cytoskeletons in cell shape determination and thus expand the morphogenetic potential of bacteria,

enabling the generation of complex cell shapes that go beyond the generic rod-like or spherical morpho-

logies. It will be interesting to investigate the molecular function of bactofilins in a range of morphologic-

ally diverse species to obtain a comprehensive picture of the functionalities provided by these cytoskeletal

proteins and the conservation of their mode of action.

Materials and methods

Media and growth conditions

H. neptunium LE670 (ATCC 15444) (Leifson, 1964) and its derivatives were grown in Artificial Sea Salt (ASS) medium at 28 °C under aerobic conditions, shaking at 210 rpm in baffled flasks. ASS medium was composed of 0.5% Bacto Peptone (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA), 0.1% yeast extract, 1 mM $MgSO_4$, 0.5 mM $CaCl_2$ and 1.5% Instant Ocean Sea Salt (Spectrum Brands, USA), dissolved in deionized water. For solid media, 1.5% agar was added prior to autoclaving. When appropriate, antibiotics were used at the following concentrations (µg/mL in liquid/solid medium): rifampicin (1/2), kanamycin (100/200). The expression of genes under the control of the copper-inducible P_{Cu} promoter or the zinc-inducible P_{Zn} promoter (Jung et al., 2015) was induced by the addition of $CuSO_4$ or $ZnSO_4$ to the concentrations indicated in the text. To assess the growth of *H. neptunium*, cells were grown to exponential phase, diluted in fresh medium to an optical density at 580 nm (OD_{580}) of 0.02, and transferred into 24-well polystyrene microtiter plates (Becton Dickinson Labware, USA). Growth was then followed at 32 °C under double-orbital shaking in an EPOCH 2 microplate reader (BioTek, USA) by measuring the OD_{580} at 20-min intervals.

R. rubrum S1 (ATCC 11170) (Molisch, 1907; Pfennig and Trüper, 1971; van Niel, 1944) and its derivatives were grown in Bacto Tryptic Soy Broth (BD Diagnostic Systems, USA) at 28 °C under aerobic conditions, shaking at 210 rpm in Erlenmeyer flasks. When appropriate, media were supplemented with antibiotics at the following concentrations (µg/mL in liquid/solid medium): kanamycin (30/30), cefalexin (15/-).

E. coli strains were cultivated aerobically (shaking at 210 rpm) at 37 °C in LB medium. For plasmid-bearing strains, antibiotics were added at the following concentrations (µg/mL in liquid/solid medium): kanamycin (30/50), rifampicin (25/50), ampicillin (50/200). To grow *E. coli* WM3064, media were supplemented with 2,6-diaminopimelic acid (DAP) to a final concentration of 300 µM.

Determination of growth rates

Exponentially growing cultures were diluted to an OD_{580} of ~0.01, transferred to a 96-well plate and incubated at 30°C with double-orbital shaking at 355 cpm in an Epoch 2 microplate reader (BioTek, Germany). Growth was monitored by measuring the OD_{600} at 10-min intervals until the stationary phase was reached. OD_{600} measurements obtained in the exponential phase were used to calculate the growth rate μ (increase in OD_{600} per hour). The doubling time t_d was then calculated using the equation $t_d = \ln(2)/\mu$.

Plasmid and strain construction

The bacterial strains, plasmids, and oligonucleotides used in this study are listed in **Supplementary file 1**. *E. coli* TOP10 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) was used as host for cloning purposes. All plasmids were verified by DNA sequencing. *H. neptunium* and *R. rubrum* were transformed by conjugation using the DAP-auxotrophic strain *E. coli* WM3064 as a donor (Jung et al., 2015). The integration of non-replicating plasmids at the chromosomal P_{Cu} or P_{Zn} locus of *H. neptunium* was achieved by single homologous recombination (Jung et al., 2015). Gene replacement in *H. neptunium* and *R. rubrum* was achieved by double-homologous recombination using the counter-selectable *sacB* marker (Cserti et al., 2017). Proper chromosomal integration or gene replacement was verified by colony PCR.

Live-cell imaging

Cells of *H. neptunium* and *R. rubrum* were grown to exponential phase in the appropriate medium and, if suitable, induced with $CuSO_4$ prior to imaging. For depletion experiments, cells were grown in the presence of inducer, washed three times with inducer-free medium and then further cultivated in the absence of inducer for the indicated period of time prior to analysis. To acquire still images, cells were transferred onto 1% agarose pads (in water). For time-lapse analysis, cells were immobilized on pads made of 1% agarose in ASS medium, and the cover slides were then sealed with VLAP (1:1:1 mixture of vaseline, lanolin, and paraffin) to prevent dehydration. Imaging was performed using a Zeiss Axio Imager.M1 microscope equipped with a Zeiss alpha Plan-Apochromat 100x/1.40 Oil DIC objective and a pco.edge 3.1 sCMOS camera (PCO, Germany) or a Zeiss Axio Imager.Z1 microscope equipped with a Zeiss alpha Plan-Apochromat 100x/1.46 Oil DIC M27 or a Plan-Apochromat 100x/1.40 Oil Ph3 M27 objective and a pco.edge 4.2 sCMOS camera (PCO, Germany). An X-Cite 120PC metal halide light source (EXFO, Canada) and ET-DAPI, ET-YFP or ET-TexasRed filter cubes (Chroma, USA) were used for fluorescence detection. Microfluidic experiments were performed using a CellASIC ONIX EV262 Microfluidic System, equipped with an F84 manifold and B04A microfluidic plates (Merck Millipore, Germany), which were flushed with PBS buffer for 30 min before usage. Exponentially growing cells were flushed into the flow cells, cultivated under continuous medium flow (0.4 ml/h), and imaged at regular intervals using the Axio Image.Z1 microscope described above. To visualize sites of ongoing peptidoglycan synthesis, cells were grown to the exponential phase, incubated for 1 min with 1 mM HADA and washed four times in ASS medium prior to imaging.

Images were recorded with VisiView 3.3.0.6 (Visitron Systems, Germany) and processed with ImageJ (Schneider et al., 2012) and Adobe Illustrator CS6 (Adobe Systems, USA). The subcellular distribution of

fluorescence signals was analyzed with BacStalk (Hartmann et al., 2020). Pearson's correlation coefficients were determined using the JACoP plug-in (Bolte and Cordelieres, 2006) for ImageJ. Cell sinuosity was determined using the ImageJ plug-in MicrobeJ (Ducret et al., 2016), with each analysis performed in triplicate and 100 cells analyzed per strain and experiment. Results were displayed as SuperPlots (Lord et al., 2020) generated using the SuperPlotsOfData web application (Goedhart, 2021).

To analyze the distribution of fluorescently tagged BacA and LmdC variants along the outline of *R. rubrum* cells, the fluorescence intensity along the outer and inner curve was determined for 200 cells per strain using Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012). After concatenation of the two fluorescence profiles obtained for each cell, the combined profiles were plotted as demographs, using R 4.2.3 (R Development Core Team, 2012) and the Cell-Profiles package (github.com/ta-cameron/Cell-Profiles/wiki/Vignette) (Cameron et al., 2014).

Single-particle tracking and diffusion analysis

Cells were cultivated overnight in ASS medium, transferred into fresh medium and grown to exponential phase prior to imaging by slimfield microscopy (Plank et al., 2009). In this approach, the back aperture of the objective is underfilled by illumination with a collimated laser beam of reduced width, generating an area of ~10 μm in diameter with a light intensity high enough to enable the visualization of single fluorescent protein molecules at very high acquisition rates. The single-molecule level was reached by bleaching of most molecules in the cell for 100 to 1,000 frames, followed by tracking of the remaining and newly synthesized molecules for ~3,000 frames. Images were taken at 30 ms intervals using an Olympus IX-71 microscope equipped with a UAPON 100x/ NA 1.49 TIRF objective, a back-illuminated electron-multiplying charge-coupled device (EMCCD) iXon Ultra camera (Andor Solis, USA) in stream acquisition mode, and a LuxX 457-100 (457 nm, 100 mW) light-emitting diode laser (Omicron-Laserage Laserprodukte GmbH, Germany) as an excitation light source. The laser beam was focused onto the back focal plane and operated during image acquisition with up to 2 mW (60 W/cm^2 at the image plane). Andor Solis 4.21 software was used for camera control and stream acquisition. Prior to analysis, frames recorded before reaching the single-molecule level were removed from the streams, using photobleaching curves as a reference. Subsequently, the streams were cropped to an equal length of 2,000 frames and the proper pixel size (100 nm) and time increment were set in the imaging metadata using Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012). Single particles were tracked with u-track 2.2 (Jaqaman et al., 2008). Trajectories were only considered for further statistical analysis if they had a length of at least five steps. Data analysis was performed using SMTracker 2.0 (Oviedo-Bocanegra et al., 2021). An estimate of the diffusion coefficient and insight into the kind of diffusive motion exhibited were obtained from mean-squared-displacement (MSD)-versus-

585   time-lag curves. In addition, the frame-to-frame displacements of all molecules in x and the y direction

586   were fitted to a two-population Gaussian mixture model to determine the proportions of mobile and static

587   molecules in each condition (Oviedo-Bocanegra et al., 2021).

Transmission electron microscopy

Images of *H. neptunium* cells, 10 µl of early exponential cell cultures were applied onto glow-discharged

electron microscopy grids (Formvar/Carbon Film on 300 Mesh Copper; Plano GmbH, Germany) and

incubated for 1 min at room temperature. The grid was manually blotted with Whatman filter paper to

remove excess liquid. Subsequently, the cells were negatively stained for 5 sec with 5 µl of 1% uranyl

acetate. After three washes with H_2O, the grids were dried and imaged in a 100 kV JEM-1400 Plus trans-

mission electron microscope (JEOL, USA). To image BacA polymers, purified BacA-His$_6$ was dialyzed against

low-salt buffer (50 mM HEPES pH 7.2, 10 mM NaCl, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.1 mM EDTA, 1 mM ß-mercaptoethanol)

for 16 h. The protein was spotted onto carbon-coated grids and allowed to settle for 2 min. The grids were

blotted dry, stained with 1:2 diluted supernatant of saturated 2 % uranyl acetate (in H_2O) for 1 min, dried

and imaged using a Zeiss CEM902 electron microscope, operated at 80 kV and equipped with a 2048x2048

pixel CCD camera. Image processing was carried out using Photoshop CS2 and Illustrator CS5 (Adobe

Systems, USA).

Immunoblot analysis

Antibodies against BacA were raised by immunization of rabbits with purified BacA-His$_6$ protein

(Eurogentec, Belgium). Cells were harvested in the exponential growth phase. Immunoblot analysis was

conducted as described previously (Thanbichler and Shapiro, 2006), using anti-BacA antiserum (1:10.000),

a monoclonal anti-mNeonGreen antibody (Chromotek, Germany; Cat. #: 32f6; RRID: AB_2827566), a

polyclonal anti-GFP antibody (Sigma, Germany; Cat. #: G1544; RRID: AB_439690), a polyclonal anti-

mCherry antibody (BioVision, USA; Cat. #: 5993; RRID: AB_1975001) or a monoclonal anti-HA antibody

(Merck Millipore, USA; Cat. #: 05-904; RRID: AB_11213751) at dilutions of 1:10,000, 1:1,000, 1:10,000,

1:10,000 or 1:1,000, respectively. Goat anti-rabbit immunoglobulin G conjugated with horse-radish per-

oxidase (Perkin Elmer, USA) or goat anti-mouse immunoglobulin G conjugated with horse-radish per-

oxidase (Sigma, Germany) were used as secondary antibodies. Immunocomplexes were detected with the

Western Lightning Plus-ECL chemiluminescence reagent (Perkin Elmer, USA). The signals were recorded

with a ChemiDoc MP imaging system (BioRad, Germany) and analyzed using Image Lab software (BioRad,

Germany).

Peptidoglycan analysis

Cultures of exponentially growing cells of the *H. neptunium* wild type and its mutant derivatives EC28 (Δ*bacA*), EC23 (Δ*bacD*) and EC33 (Δ*bacAD*) were rapidly cooled to 4°C and harvested by centrifugation at 16,000 ×g for 30 min. The cells were resuspended in 6 ml of ice-cold H_2O and added dropwise to 6 ml of a boiling solution of 8% sodium dodecylsulfate (SDS) that was stirred vigorously. After 30 min of boiling, the suspension was cooled to room temperature. Peptidoglycan was isolated from the cell lysates as described previously (Glauner, 1988) and digested with the muramidase cellosyl (kindly provided by Hoechst, Frankfurt, Germany). The resulting muropeptides were reduced with sodium borohydride and separated by HPLC following an established protocol (Bui et al., 2009; Glauner, 1988). The identity of eluted fragments was assigned based on the known retention times of muropeptides, as reported previously (Cserti et al., 2017; Glauner, 1988).

Protein purification

To purify BacA-His$_6$, *E. coli* Rosetta(DE3)pLysS (Invitrogen) was transformed with pEC86 and grown in LB medium at 37 °C to an OD$_{600}$ of 0.8. Isopropyl-β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) was added to a final concentration of 0.5 mM and the incubation was continued for another 3 h. The cells were harvested by centrifugation for 15 min at 7,500 ×g and 4 °C and washed with buffer B2 (50 mM NaH$_2$PO$_4$, 300 mM NaCl, 10 mM imidazole, adjusted to pH 8.0 with NaOH). Subsequently, they were resuspended in buffer B2 containing 100 μg/mL phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, 10 μg/mL DNase I and 1 mM β-mercaptoethanol and lysed by three passages through a French press at 16,000 psi. After the removal of cell debris by centrifugation at 30,000 ×g for 30 min, the supernatant was applied onto a 5 mL HisTrap HP column (GE Healthcare) equilibrated with buffer B3 (50 mM NaH$_2$PO$_4$, 300 mM NaCl, 20 mM imidazole, adjusted to pH 8.0 with NaOH). The column was washed with 10 column volumes (CV) of the same buffer, and protein was eluted at a flow rate of 1 mL/min with a linear imidazole gradient obtained by mixing buffers B3 and B4 (50 mM NaH$_2$PO$_4$, 300 mM NaCl, 250 mM imidazole, adjusted to pH 8.0 with NaOH). Fractions containing high concentrations of BacA-His$_6$ were pooled and dialyzed against 3 L of buffer B5 (20 mM Tris/HCl pH 8.0, 10 mM NaCl, 1 mM β-mercaptoethanol) at 4 °C. After the removal of precipitates by centrifugation at 30,000 ×g for 30 min, the protein solution was aliquoted and snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen. Aliquots were stored at -80 °C until further use.

To purify LmdC, the protein was first produced as a His$_6$-SUMO-LmdC fusion (Marblestone et al., 2006). To this end, *E. coli* Rosetta(DE3)pLysS cells carrying plasmid pLY015 were grown at 37 °C in 3 L of LB medium supplemented with ampicillin and chloramphenicol. At an OD$_{600}$ of 0.6, the culture was chilled to

18°C, and protein synthesis was induced by the addition of 1 mM IPTG prior to overnight incubation at 18

°C. The cultures were harvested by centrifugation at 10,000 ×g for 20 min at 4 °C and washed with lysis

buffer (50 mM Tris/HCl pH 8.0, 300 mM NaCl). Cells were resuspended in lysis buffer supplemented with

5 mM imidazole, 10 mg/mL DNase I and 100 mg/mL PMSF. After three passages through a French press

(16,000 psi), the cell lysate was clarified by centrifugation (30,000 ×g, 30 min, 4 °C). Protein was then

purified using zinc-affinity chromatography using a 1 mL Zn-NTA column (Cube Biotech) equilibrated with

lysis buffer containing 5 mM imidazole. Protein was eluted with a linear gradient of 5 to 250 mM imidazole

in lysis buffer at a flow rate of 1 mL/min. Fractions containing high concentrations of His$_6$-SUMO-LmdC

were pooled and dialyzed against 3 L of low-salt lysis buffer (20 mM Tris/HCl pH 7.6, 50 mM NaCl, 10%

(v/v) glycerol). After the addition of Ulp1 protease (Marblestone et al., 2006) and dithiothreitol (1 mM),

the protein was incubated for 4 h at 4 °C to cleave off the His$_6$-SUMO tag. The solution was centrifuged

for 30 min at 38,000 ×g and 4 °C to remove precipitates and then subjected to ion exchange chromato-

graphy using a 1 mL HiTrap Q HP column (Cytiva, USA) equilibrated with low-salt lysis buffer. His$_6$-SUMO

passed the column in the flow-through, and LmdC was eluted with a linear gradient of 150-1000 mM NaCl

in low-salt buffer. Fractions containing LmdC were concentrated in an Amicon Ultra-4 10K spin concen-

trator (MWCO 10,000; Merck, Germany). After the removal of precipitates by centrifugation at 30,000 ×g

for 30 min, LmdC was further purified by size exclusion chromatography (SEC) on a HighLoad 16/60

Superdex 200 pg column (GE Healthcare, USA) equilibrated with SEC buffer (20 mM Tris/HCl pH 7.4, 150

mM NaCl). Fractions containing pure protein were pooled and concentrated. After the removal of

precipitates by centrifugation at 30,000 ×g, the protein solution was snap-frozen in liquid N$_2$ and stored

at -80 °C until further use.

LmdC enzymatic activity assay

To test the enzymatic activity of LmdC, peptidoglycan from *E. coli* D456 (Edwards and Donachie, 1993)

was mixed with 10 µM LmdC in buffer A (20 mM Hepes/NaOH pH 7.5, 50 mM NaCl, 1 mM ZnCl$_2$) or buffer

B (20 mM sodium acetate pH 5.0, 50 mM NaCl, 1 mM ZnCl$_2$) in a final volume of 50 µL and incubated at

37°C for 16 h in a thermal shaker set at 900 rpm. A mixture of peptidoglycan in buffer B without LmdC was

used as a control. The reactions were stopped by heating at 100°C for 10 min. The peptidoglycan was then

further digested overnight with cellosyl, and the reactions were stopped by heating at 100°C for 10 min.

After centrifugation of the samples at 14,000 rpm for 10 min, the supernatants were recovered, reduced

with sodium borohydride, acidified to pH 4.0 – pH 4.5 with dilute 20% phosphoric acid and subjected to

HPLC analysis as previously described (Glauner, 1988).

Bio-layer interferometry

Bio-layer interferometry analyses were conducted using a BLItz system equipped with High Precision Streptavidin (SAX) Biosensors (Sartorius, Germany). As a ligand, a custom-synthetized N-terminally biotin-ylated peptide comprising residues Met1 to Gln38 of LmdC (GenScript, USA) was immobilized on the biosensors. After the establishment of a stable baseline, association reactions were monitored at various analyte concentrations. At the end of each binding step, the sensor was transferred into an analyte-free buffer to follow the dissociation kinetics. The extent of non-specific binding was assessed by monitoring the interaction of analyte with unmodified sensors. All analyses were performed in BLItz binding buffer (25 mM HEPES/KOH pH 7.6, 100 mM KCl, 10 mM $MgSO_4$, 1 mM DTT, 10 mM BSA, 0.01% Tween).

Bioinformatic analysis

Protein similarity searches were performed with BLAST (Altschul et al., 1990), using the BLAST server of the National Institutes of Health (https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi). Transmembrane helices were predicted with DeepTMHMM (Hallgren et al., 2022), coiled-coil regions with PCOILS (Lupas, 1996). The positions of conserved functional domains were determined using the PFAM server (Mistry et al., 2021). AlphaFold2 (Jumper et al., 2021) and AlphaFold-Multimer (Evans et al., 2022), as implemented in the AlphaFold.ipynb notebook on Google Colab, were used to predict the tertiary or quaternary structure of proteins, respectively. SuperPlots (Lord et al., 2020) were used to visualize cell length distributions and to evaluate the statistical significance of differences between multiple distributions, employing the PlotsOfData web app (Postma and Goedhart, 2019).

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Author contributions

S.P., M.O.V., E.C. and M.T. conceived the study. S.P., M.O.V., E.C. and J.H. constructed plasmids and strains and performed the growth analyses and subcellular localization studies. M.O.V. purified proteins and conducted the biochemical studies. J.H. established the CRISPRi system for *H. neptunium*. R.H.-T. performed the single-particle tracking analysis. J.B. conducted the peptidoglycan analysis. P.S. analyzed the co-conservation of BacA and LmdC homologs. S.P., M.O.V., E.C., R.H.-T., P.S., J.B., W.V. and M.T. analyzed the data. W.V., P.L.G. and M.T. supervised the study. W.V., P.L.G. and M.T. secured funding. S.P., M.O.V. and M.T. wrote the paper, with input from all other authors.

Data availability

All relevant data generated in this study are included in the manuscript and the supplemental information.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Bactofilin BacA is required for proper cell morphology in *H. neptunium*. (A) Schematic representation of the two bactofilin genes present in the *H. neptunium* genome. *bacA* lies adjacent to the M23 peptidase gene *lmdC*. Arrows indicate the direction of transcription. **(B)** Domain organization of BacA and BacD from *H. neptunium*. The bactofilin polymerization domain (colored boxes) is flanked by non-structured N- and C-terminal regions. **(C)** Morphology of *H. neptunium* bactofilin mutants. Shown are representative cells of strains LE670 (wild type), EC28 (Δ*bacA*), EC23 (Δ*bacD*) and EC33 (Δ*bacAD*), imaged by differential interference contrast (DIC) microscopy. Bar: 4 µm. **(D)** Transmission electron micrographs of Δ*bacA* cells at the early stalked-cell stage. Bar: 1 µm. **(E)** Quantification of the proportion of phenotypically abnormal stalked and budding cells in cultures of the strains analyzed in panel C (n = 100 cells per strain). **(F)** Doubling times of the indicated *H. neptunium* strains. Bars represent the mean (± SD) of three independent experiments (dots). Statistical significance was determined using Welch's non-paired t-test (*, $p<0.05$; n.s., not significant). **(G)** Immunoblot analysis of the strains shown in panel C, performed using anti-BacA antibodies.

Figure 1—figure supplement 1. The dimorphic lifecycle of *H. neptunium*. A motile, flagellated swimmer sheds its flagellum and forms a stalk at the opposite cell pole. At a defined point in the cell cycle, the terminal segment of the stalk dilates and develops into a new swimmer cell. After cell division, the newborn swimmer cell first needs to differentiate into a stalked cell to initiate a new round of cell division, whereas the stalked mother cell immediately enters the next replication cycle. The predominant growth zones (Cserti et al., 2017) are indicated in red.

Figure 1—figure supplement 2. Phenotypic analysis of *H. neptunium* bactofilin mutants. (A) Immunoblot analysis of strains LE670 (wild type), EC28 (Δ*bacA*) and EC41 (Δ*bacA* P$_{Cu}$::P$_{Cu}$-*bacA*) grown in the absence (-*bacA*) and presence (+*bacA*) of 0.5 mM CuSO$_4$, performed with an anti-BacA antibody. **(B)** Rescue of the phenotype of a Δ*bacA* mutant by ectopic expression of *bacA*. Cells of strain EC41 (Δ*bacA* P$_{Cu}$::P$_{Cu}$-*bacA*) were grown in copper-free medium, induced by the addition of copper, and imaged after the indicated time incubation times. Bar: 3 µm. **(C)** Quantification of the proportion of phenotypically abnormal stalked and budding cells in the cultures of strains EC41 (Δ*bacA* P$_{Cu}$::P$_{Cu}$-*bacA*) and EC43 (Δ*bacA* P$_{Zn}$::P$_{Zn}$-*bacD*) analyzed in panels B and E before (t=0 h) and 24 h after induction (n = 100 cells per time point). **(D)** Doubling times of the indicated *H. neptunium* strains. Strain EC41 (Δ*bacA* P$_{Cu}$::P$_{Cu}$-*bacA*) as analyzed in the absence (-) and presence (+) of copper. Strain LE670 (wild-type) grown in copper-free medium is shown as a control. Bars represent the mean (± SD) of three independent experiments (dots). Statistical

significance was determined using Welch's non-paired t-test (n.s., not significant). **(E)** Transmission elec-

tron micrographs of Δ*bacD* cells at the swimmer and stalk cell stage. Bar: 1 μm. **(F)** DIC images of a Δ*bacA*

mutant overproducing BacD from a zinc-inducible promoter. Cells of strain EC43 (Δ*bacA* P_{Zn}::P_{Zn}-*bacD*)

were grown in inducer-free medium, induced by the addition of 0.5 mM $ZnSO_4$, and imaged after the

indicated incubation times. Bar: 3 μm.

Figure 2. Lack of BacA leads to uncontrolled growth of the stalk and bud compartments. (A) Immunoblot

showing the levels of BacA in strain EC41 (Δ*bacA* P_{Cu}-*bacA*) over the course of BacA depletion. Cells were

grown in copper-containing medium, washed and transferred to inducer-free medium. At the indicated

time points, samples were withdrawn and subjected to immunoblot analysis. Strains LE670 (wild type)

and EC28 (Δ*bacA*) were included as controls. The position of BacA is indicated. **(B)** Morphological defects

induced by BacA depletion. Cells of strains LE670 (wild type) and EC41 (Δ*bacA* P_{Cu}-*bacA*) were grown in

medium containing 0.5 mM $CuSO_4$, washed, and incubated for 6 h in inducer-free medium before they

were transferred onto ASS-agarose pads lacking inducer and imaged at the indicated time points. Bar: 2

μm. **(C)** Changes in the growth pattern of *H. neptunium* in the absence of bactofilins. Cells of strains LE670

(wild type) and EC33 (Δ*bacAD*) were stained with the fluorescent D-amino acid HADA prior to analysis by

fluorescence microscopy. Shown are representative images of cells at different developmental stages.

Bars: 2 μm.

Figure 2—figure supplement 1. Growth of Δ*bacAD* cells in a microfluidic flow cell. Cells of strain EC33

(Δ*bacAD*) were flushed into a microfluidic flow cell and imaged at the indicated time points (in h). Bar:

3 μm.

Figure 2—video 1. Unconstrained growth of a bactofilin-deficient *H. neptunium* mutant. Cells of strain

EC33 (Δ*badAD*) were grown in a microfluidic flow cell and imaged by DIC microsopy at 15 min intervals.

Bar: 2 μm.

Figure 2—video 2. Normal growth of the *H. neptunium* wild-type strain. Cells of strain LE670 (wild type)

were grown in a microfluidic flow cell and imaged by DIC microscopy at 5 min intervals. Bar: 2 μm.

Figure 2—figure supplement 2. Muropeptide profiles of different *H. neptunium* strains. Cell walls of

strains LE670 (wild type), EC28 (Δ*bacA*), EC23 (Δ*bacD*) and EC33 (Δ*bacAD*) were digested with cellosyl to

release muropeptides, which were reduced and separated by HPLC. The identities of major muropeptide

species, assigned based on the previously reported retention times (Cserti et al., 2017; Glauner, 1988),

are given above the corresponding peaks. Tri, Tetra and Penta stand for N-acetylglucosamine-N-

acetylmuramitol tripeptide, tetrapeptide and pentapeptide, respectively. "Anh" indicates muropeptides

containing 1,6-anhydromuramic acid.

Figure 3. BacA and BacD co-polymerize into filamentous structures. (A) Model of a BacA trimer gener-

ated with AlphaFold-Multimer (Evans et al., 2022). Only residues P34-D138 are shown for each subunit.

(B) Visualization of BacA polymers. Purified BacA-His$_6$ was stained with uranyl acetate and imaged by

transmission electron microscopy (TEM). Arrowheads point to BacA filaments. Asterisks indicate filament

bundles and sheets. Bars: 200 nm. **(C)** Copolymerization of BacA and BacD after heterologous co-

expression in *E. coli*. Cells of *E. coli* BL21(DE3) transformed with plasmid pEC121 (P$_{T7}$-*bacA-eyfp* P$_{T7}$-*bacD-*

ecfp) were grown in LB medium containing 5 % glucose and induced with 0.5 mM IPTG prior to imaging.

Bar: 3 µm.

Figure 3—figure supplement 1. Localization patterns of BacA-YFP and BacD-CFP upon heterologous over-

production in *E. coli*. **(A)** Co-localization of BacA-YFP and BacD-CFP in cells of *E. coli* BL21(DE3) transformed

with plasmid pEC121 (P$_{T7}$-*bacA-eyfp* P$_{T7}$-*bacD-ecfp*). **(B)** Localization of BacA-YFP in cells of *E. coli*

BL21(DE3) transformed with plasmid pEC119 (P$_{T7}$-*bacA-eyf*) **(C)** Localization of BacD-CFP in *E. coli*

BL21(DE3) transformed with plasmid pEC120 (P$_{T7}$-*bacD-ecfp*). All strains were grown in LB medium containing

5% glucose and induced with 0.5 mM IPTG prior to imaging. Bars: 2 µm.

Figure 4. BacA and BacD show a dynamic, cell cycle-dependent localization pattern. (A) Localization

pattern of BacA-YFP. Cells of strain EC61 (*bacA*::*bacA-eyfp*) were transferred to agarose pads and imaged

at 20-min intervals. Shown are overlays of DIC and fluorescence images of a representative cell, with YFP

fluorescence shown in red. Scale bar: 3 µm. **(B)** Demographic analysis of BacA-YFP localization in swimmer

(left), stalked (middle), and budding (right) cells of strain EC61 (*bacA*::*bacA-eyfp*). The fluorescence inten-

sity profiles measured for cells of each type were sorted according to cell length and stacked on each

other, with the shortest cell shown at the top and the longest cell shown at the bottom (n=250 swimmer

cells, 215 stalked cells and 49 budding cells). Dotted red lines indicate the positions to which cells were

aligned. **(C)** Demographic analysis of BacD-Venus localization. Cells of strain EC67 (*bacD*::*bacD-venus*)

were analyzed as described in panel B (n=416 swimmer cells, 248 stalked cells and 45 budding cells). **(D)**

Co-localization of BacA and BacD in cells of strain EC68 (*bacA*::*bacA-eyfp* *bacD*::*bacD-mCherry*). Shown are

DIC images and overlays of the YFP and mCherry signals of representative cells, arranged according to

their developmental state. The individual signals are shown in **Figure S6A**. The Pearson's Correlation Coef-

ficient (PCC) of the two fluorescence signals in a random population of cells (n=454) is 0.506. Bar: 1 µm.

Figure 4—figure supplement 1. **Stability of the fluorescently tagged bactofilin derivatives used in this**
study. Cells of strains LE670 (wild type), EC61 (*bacA*::*bacA-eyfp*), MO78 (*bacA*::*bacA$_{F130R}$-eyfp*) and EC67
(*bacD*::*bacD-venus*) were subjected to immunoblot analysis using anti-GFP antibodies.

Figure 4—figure supplement 2. Localization dynamics of BacA-YFP. Cells of strain EC61 (*bacA*::*bacA-eyfp*)
were flushed into a microfluidic flow cell and imaged at 15-min intervals over multiple cell cycles. Shown
are overlays of DIC and fluorescence images. Bar: 2 µm.

Figure 4—video 1. Localization dynamics of BacA-YFP (example 1). Cells of strain EC61 (*bacA::bacA-eyfp*)
were grown in a microfluidic flow cell and imaged at 15 min intervals. Shown are overlays of DIC and
fluorescence images. YFP fluorescence is shown in red for better visibility. Bar: 2 µm.

Figure 4—video 2. Localization dynamics of BacA-YFP (example 2). Cells of strain EC61 (*bacA::bacA-eyfp*)
were grown in a microfluidic flow cell and imaged at 15 min intervals. Shown are overlays of DIC and
fluorescence images. YFP fluorescence is shown in red for better visibility. Bar: 2 µm.

Figure 4—video 3. Localization dynamics of BacA-YFP (example 3). Cells of strain EC61 (*bacA::bacA-eyfp*)
were grown in a microfluidic flow cell and imaged at 15 min intervals. Shown are overlays of DIC and
fluorescence images. YFP fluorescence is shown in red for better visibility. Bar: 2 µm.

Figure 4—figure supplement 3. Co-localization of BacA and BacD. Shown are the individual fluorescence
images of strain EC68 (*bacA*::*bacA-eyfp bacD*::*bacD-mCherry*) used to generate the overlays in **Figure 4D**.
Bar: 1 µm.

Figure 4—figure supplement 4. **Partial independence of BacA and BacD localization at the onset of the**
budding process. Shown are exemplary cells of strain EC68 (*bacA*::*bacA-eyfp bacD*::*bacD-mCherry*) in
which BacA-YFP and BacD-CHY do not fully co-localize. Bar: 2 µm.

Figure 4—figure supplement 5. Random localization of BacD complexes in the absence of BacA. Cells of
strain EC60 (Δ*bacA* P$_{Zn}$::P$_{Zn}$-*bacD-venus*) were grown in inducer-free medium and then induced for 4 h
with 0.5 mM ZnSO$_4$ prior to imaging. Bar: 3 µm.

Figure 4—figure supplement 6. Localization and functionality of BacA$_{F130R}$-YFP. Cells of strain MO78
(*bacA*::*bacA$_{F130R}$-eyfp*), producing the polymerization-deficient BacA$_{F130R}$-YFP variant instead of the native
protein, were grown to exponential phase and imaged. Bar: 3 µm.

Figure 5. The bactofilin cytoskeleton is required to confine the elongasome to the mother cell and bud
compartments. Localization of eYFP-RodZ in the *H. neptunium* wild-type and Δ*bacAD* backgrounds.

Shown are representative cells of strain EC93 (*rodZ*::*eyfp-rodZ*) and SP221 (Δ*bacAD rodZ*::*eyfp-rodZ*)

imaged by DIC and fluorescence microscopy and arranged according to their developmental state.

Arrowheads indicate cellular extensions that show eYFP-RodZ foci. Bar: 2 μm.

Figure 5—video 1. Localization of YFP-RodZ during stalk synthesis in the wild-type background. Cells of

strain EC93 (*rodZ*::*eyfp-rodZ*) were immobilized on pads made of 1% agarose in ASS medium and imaged

at 2 min intervals. Bar: 2 μm.

Figure 5—video 2. Localization of YFP-RodZ during bud formation in the wild-type background. Cells of

strain EC93 (*rodZ*::*eyfp-rodZ*) were immobilized on pads made of 1% agarose in ASS medium and imaged

at 2 min intervals. Bar: 2 μm.

Figure 5—video 3. Localization of YFP-RodZ during pseudo stalk synthesis in the Δ*bacAD* background.

Cells of strain SP221 (Δ*bacAD rodZ*::*eyfp-rodZ*) were immobilized on pads made of 1% agarose in ASS

medium and imaged at 2 min intervals. Bar: 2 μm.

Figure 5—video 4. Localization of YFP-RodZ within within early stalks in the Δ*bacAD* background. Cells

of strain SP221 (Δ*bacAD rodZ*::*eyfp-rodZ*) were immobilized on pads made of 1% agarose in ASS medium

and imaged at 2 min intervals. Bar: 2 μm.

Figure 5—video 5. Localization of YFP-RodZ in amorphous cells in the Δ*bacAD* background. Cells of strain

SP221 (Δ*bacAD rodZ*::*eyfp-rodZ*) were immobilized on pads made of 1% agarose in ASS medium and

imaged at 2 min intervals. Bar: 2 μm.

Figure 6. The single-particle dynamics of BacA change over the course of the cell cycle. (A) Representa-

tive heat maps showing the sum of single-particle positions observed in live-cell single-particle localization

microscopy studies of a swimmer, stalked and budding cell producing BacA-YFP (EC61) or a mutant cell

producing the polymerization-deficient BacA$_{F130R}$-YFP variant (MO78). Insets show the corresponding

bright-field images. Bars: 1 μm. **(B)** Mean-squared displacement (MSD) analysis of the mobility of BacA-

YFP in wild-type swimmer (n=100), stalked (n=105) and budding (n=101) cells (EC61). Cells (n=110) produc-

ing the BacA$_{F130R}$-YFP were analyzed as a control (MO78). Error bars indicate the standard deviation. **(C)**

Bubble plots showing the proportions of mobile and immobile particles (size of the bubbles) and the cor-

responding average diffusion constants (y-axis) in the cells analyzed in panel B.

Figure 6—video 1. Tracking of single BacA-YFP particles in representative cells at different stages of the

cell cycle. Shown are stream acquisitions (20-ms intervals) of *H. neptunium* cells producing wild-type

BacA-YFP (EC61) or the polymerization-deficient $BacA_{F130R}$-YFP variant (MO78) in place of the native BacA

protein at different developmental stages. Bar: 1 µm

Figure 6—figure supplement 1. Single-particle tracking analysis of BacA-YFP. The images show the sums

of all single-molecule tracks obtained for individual *H. neptunium* swimmer, stalked and budding cell

producing BacA-YFP (EC61) or for a mutant cell producing the polymerization-deficient $BacA_{F130R}$-YFP

variant (MO78). Cell outlines are indicated by white lines. Inserts show the corresponding bright-field

images. Bars: 1 µm.

Figure 6—figure supplement 2. Single-particle tracking analysis of BacA-YFP mobility. Shown is a

Gaussian mixture model (GMM) analysis of the mobility of the BacA-YFP variants plotted in **Figure 5C**. The

distributions of the frame-to-frame displacements in both x and y direction from single-particle tracking

experiments were fitted to a two-component Gaussian function (sum in black), assuming a fast-diffusing

mobile (dotted blue lines) and a slow-diffusing (dotted red lines) population.

Figure 7. Putative operons comprising adjacent BacA and M23 peptidase genes are widely conserved

among bacteria. (A) Arrangement of *bacA* and *lmdC* genes in species whose BacA homolog has a proven

role in cell morphogenesis. **(B)** Co-conservation of BacA and M23 peptidase genes across different bacte-

rial phyla. Bioinformatic analysis was used to identify genomes that contained a bactofilin gene located

next to an M23 peptidase gene. After retrieval of the taxonomy IDs of the corresponding species from the

National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) website, a phylogenetic tree of the species was

created using the iTOL server (Letunic and Bork, 2021). Abbreviations: DT (Deinococcus-Thermus group),

FCB (Fibrobacteres-Chlorobi-Bacteroidetes group), β (β-proteobacteria), δ (δ-proteobacteria). The full list

of species used and details on the genes identified are provided in **Figure 7—Dataset 1.**

Figure 8. LmdC is a peptidoglycan hydrolase with DD-endopeptidase activity. (A) Predicted domain archi-

tecture of *H. neptunium* LmdC. The predicted positions of the transmembrane helix (TM), the three coiled-

coil regions (CC) and the M23 peptidase domain are indicated. **(B)** Alignment of the amino acid sequences

of multiple M23 peptidases showing the conservation of the catalytic residues in LmdC. Residues required

to coordinate the catalytic Zn^{2+} ion of LytM from *S. aureus* (Firczuk et al., 2005) are indicated by arrow-

heads. The proteins shown are EnvC from *E. coli* (UniProt: P37690), NlpD from *E. coli* (P0ADA3), LytM from

S. aureus (O33599), MepM from *E. coli* (P0AFS9) and LmdC from *H. neptunium* (Q0BYX6). **(C)** Predicted

molecular structure of *H. neptunium* LmdC, generated with Alphafold2 (Jumper et al., 2021). The different

domains of the protein and the position of proline 66, which terminates the N-terminal fragment of LmdC

used for the *in vivo* analyses in this study ($LmdC_{1-66}$) are indicated. **(D)** HPLC traces showing the muro-

peptide profile of peptidoglycan treated with LmdC. Cell walls were incubated with the isolated M23 pep-

tidase domain of LmdC at pH 5.0 and pH 7.5. Subsequently, muropeptides were released with cellosyl,

reduced and separated by HPLC. A control sample lacking LmdC (No protein). The nature of the major

products is indicated above the peaks. Tri, Tetra and Penta stand for N-acetylglucosamine-N-acetylmura-

mitol tripeptide, tetrapeptide and pentapeptide, respectively. A quantification of the relative abundance

of different muropeptide species in each condition, based on a comparison of the relative integrated peak

areas, is provided in **Figure 8—Dataset 1**. **(E)** Structure of a TetraTetra muropeptide. Abbreviations: G (N-

acetylglucosamine), M (N-acetylmuramic acid). The cleavage site of LmdC is indicated by a red arrowhead.

Figure 9. LmdC interacts with BacA to mediate *H. neptunium* morphogenesis. (A) Schematic represen-

tation of the integrative plasmid pdCas9Entry, enabling CRISPR interference (CRISPRi) in *H. neptunium*.

The plasmid harbors a chromosomal fragment containing the copper-inducible P_{Cu} promoter, followed by

a gene encoding a nuclease-deficient variant of Cas9 (dCas9). It also contains an sgRNA expression cassette

composed of the constitutive $P_{HNE0038}$ promoter, a BbsI cloning site for the insertion of target-specific DNA

fragments, a sequence encoding an optimized sgRNA handle (Chen et al., 2013) and a transcriptional ter-

minator (ter). Other features of the plasmid are a replication initiator gene (*rep*), a kanamycin resistance

gene (*npt1*), an origin of transfer (*oriT*) and a strong transcriptional terminator (*rrnB*T1T2) that is placed

upstream of the P_{Cu}-containing fragment. The DNA sequence of the sgRNA expression cassette is given in

Figure 9–figure supplement 1. **(B)** Schematic showing the integration of a pdCas9Entry derivative into the

H. neptunium chromosome by single homologous recombination at the P_{Cu} locus. **(C)** Mechanism of the

CRISPRi-mediated repression of *lmdC* expression. In the presence of inducer, dCas9 interacts with a con-

stitutively produced sgRNA that targets bases 51-72 of the non-coding strand of *lmdC* (sg*lmdC*). The

formation of the interference complex creates a roadblock that blocks the transcription of *lmdC* by RNA

polymerase. **(D)** Immunoblot analysis verifying the CRISPRi-mediated depletion of LmdC. Strain SU34

(*lmdC*::*lmdC-HA*), which produces a fully functional variant of LmdC carrying the HA affinity tag inserted

in between the transmembrane helix and the coiled-coil domain, was transformed with pdCas9Entry

(empty vector) or plasmid pJH13 (sg*lmdC*). The resulting strains (SP249 and SP236) were grown for 24 h

in the absence (-) or presence (-) of 0.3 mM $CuSO_4$ and subjected to immunoblot analysis with an anti-HA

antibody. The wild-type strain (LE670), the parental strain SU34 as well as the uninduced pre-cultures

(pre) of strains SP249 and SP236 used for the experiment were analyzed as controls. A non-specific band

served as a loading control (LC). **(E)** Morphology of *H. neptunium* cells depleted of LmdC. Shown are

representative cells of strains SP236 (*lmdC*::*lmdC*-HA pJH13) (sg*lmdC*) and SP249 (*lmdC*::*lmdC*-HA

pCas9Entry) (empty vector) grown for 24 h in the absence (control) or presence (+ dCas9) of 0.3 mM

CuSO$_4$. Cells were imaged by DIC and fluorescence microscopy. Bar: 2 µm. **(F)** Quantification of the proportion of phenotypically abnormal stalked and budding cells in the cultures of strain SP236 (*lmdC*::*lmdC*-HA pJH13) analyzed in panel E (n=100 cells per condition). **(G)** Bio-layer interferometric analysis of the interaction between cytoplasmic domain of LmdC and BacA. Sensors derivatized with a biotinylated synthetic peptide comprising the N-terminal cytoplasmic region of LmdC (amino acids 1-38) were probed with the indicated concentrations of BacA. After the association of BacA, the sensors were transferred to protein-free buffer to induce BacA dissociation. The interaction kinetics were followed by monitoring the wavelength shifts resulting from changes in the optical thickness of the sensor surface during association or dissociation of the analyte. The extent of non-specific binding of BacA to the sensor surface was negligible (control). **(H)** Affinity of the BacA-LmdC interaction. The maximal wavelength shifts measured in the experiment shown in panel D were plotted against the corresponding BacA concentra-tion. The data were fitted to a one-site binding model, yielding an apparent K_d value of ~15 µM.

Figure 9—figure supplement 1. Characterization of the phenotype induced by the CRISPRi-mediated depletion of LmdC in *H. neptunium*. (A) Sequence of the sgRNA expression cassette of pdCas9Entry. The different parts of the sequence are colored as defined in the schematic on top. The BsbI recognition and cut sites are indicated by arrows. **(B)** Morphological diversity of *H. neptunium* cells depleted of LmdC. Shown are representative cells of strains SP236 (*lmdC*::*lmdC*-HA pJH13) (sg*lmdC*) and SP249 (*lmdC*::*lmdC*-HA pCas9Entry) (empty vector) grown for 24 h in the absence (control) or presence (+ dCas9) of 0.3 mM CuSO$_4$. Cells were imaged by DIC microscopy. Bar: 2 µm. **(C)** Doubling times of the strains analyzed in panel B in the absence (-Cu) or presence (+Cu) of 0.3 mM CuSO$_4$. Bars represent the mean (± SD) of three independent experiments (dots). Statistical significance was determined using Welch's non-paired t-test (n.s., not significant).

Figure 10. BacA and LmdC contribute to cell morphogenesis in *R. rubrum*. (A) Schematic representation of the *bacA-lmdC* operon in *R. rubrum*. **(B)** Domain organization of LmdC and BacA from *R. rubrum*. LmdC consists of a transmembrane helix (TM) followed by a coiled-coil-rich region and a C-terminal M23 pepti-dase domain (M23). The bactofilin polymerization domain (green box) is flanked by non-structured N- and C-terminal regions. Numbers indicate the first and last amino acid of a domain. **(C)** Phenotypes of *R. rub-rum* wild-type (S1), Δ*bacA$_{Rs}$* (SP70), Δ*lmdC$_{Rs}$* (SP68) and Δ*bacA$_{Rs}$* Δ*lmdC$_{Rs}$* (SP116) cells, imaged using phase-contrast microscopy. Bar: 5 µm. **(D)** Superplots showing the distribution of cell sinuosities in populations of the indicated *R. rubrum* strains. Small dots represent the data points, large dots represent the median values of the three independent experiments shown in the graphs (dark blue, light blue, grey). The mean

of the three median values is indicated by a horizontal red line. Whiskers represent the standard deviation.

*** $p<0.005$; ns, not significant; t-test). **(E)** Co-localization of BacA$_{Rs}$-CHY and LmdC$^N_{Rs}$-mNG in the $\Delta lmdC_{Rs}$

background (SP119). The Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (PCC) of the two fluorescence signals in a

random subpopulation of cells is 0.916. Scale bar: 5 µm. **(F)** Schematic showing the approach used to

quantify the distribution of proteins along the outer and inner curve of a cell in panel G. **(G)** Demographs

showing the enrichment of BacA-CYH and LmdC^N-mNG at the inner curve the populations of strain SP119

analyzed in panel E (n=200 per strain). The white dashed line represents the point of transition from the

outer to the inner curve. **(H)** Localization of BacA$_{Rs}$-mNG in the $\Delta lmdC_{Rs}$ background (SP98). Bar: 5 µm. **(I)**

Localization of LmdC$_{Rs}$-mNG in the $\Delta bacA_{Rs}$ background (SP118). Bar: 5 µm. **(J)** Demographs showing the

outer-versus-inner curve distribution of BacA$_{Rs}$-mNG in the $\Delta lmdC_{Rs}$ background (SP98; n=200) and

LmdC$^N_{Rs}$-mNG in the $\Delta bacA_{Rs}$ background (SP118; n=200). The white dashed line represents the point of

transition from the outer to the inner curve.

Figure 10—figure supplement 1. Analysis of BacA and LmdC from *R. rubrum*. (A) Clearer visualization of

the abnormal curvature of BacA- and LmdC-deficient *R. rubrum* cells by inhibition of cell division. Cells of

strains SP68 ($\Delta lmdC$), SP70 ($\Delta bacA$) and SP116 ($\Delta lmdC \Delta bacA$) were treated with 5 µg/ml cefalexin (Cfx)

for 6 h. Bar: 5 µm. **(B)** Muropeptide profiles of different *R. rubrum* strains. Cell walls of strains S1 (wild

type), SP70 ($\Delta bacA_{Rs}$) and SP68 ($\Delta lmdC$) were digested with cellosyl to release muropeptides, which were

reduced and separated by HPLC chromatography. The identities of major muropeptide species, assigned

based on the previously reported retention times (Glauner, 1988), are given above the corresponding

peaks. Tetra stands for N-acetylglucosamine-N-acetylmuramitol tetrapeptide. "Anh" indicates muropep-

tides containing 1,6-anhydromuramic acid.

Figure 10—figure supplement 2. Cell lengths of *R. rubrum* strains. Superplots showing the distribution of

cell sinuosities in populations of strains S1 (wild type), SP105 ($\Delta bacA_{Rs}$ P$_{bacA}$-$bacA_{Rs}$) and SP109

($bacA_{Rs}$::$bacA_{Rs}$-$mCherry$). Small dots represent the data points, large dots represent the median values of

the three independent experiments shown in the graphs (dark blue, light blue, grey). The mean of the

three median values is indicated by a horizontal line. Whiskers represent the standard deviation. ***

$p<0.005$; ns, not significant; t-test).

Figure 10—figure supplement 3. Lysis of *E. coli* upon heterologous expression of full-length *R. rubrum*

***lmdC*.** Shown are cells of *E. coli* Rosetta(DE3)pLysS harboring pSP120 (P$_{T7}$-$lmdC_{Rs}$) or the corresponding

empty vector imaged 4h after the induction of gene expression with 0.5 mM IPTG. Arrowheads indicate

ghost cells, cell debris, lysing cells or strongly elongated cells. Scale bar: 5 µm.

Figure 10—figure supplement 4. Analysis of *R. rubrum* strains producing fluorescent protein fusions. (A)

Domain architectures of the native LmdC$_{Rs}$ protein and the truncated LmdC$^N_{Rs}$-mNG reporter construct

used for localization studies. The transmembrane helix is shown in purple. Abbreviations: CC (coiled-coil

domain), M23 (M23 peptidase domain), mNG (mNeongreen). **(B)** Levels of the LmdC$^N_{Rs}$-mNG fusion in

different *R. rubrum* strains. Strains SP98 (Δ*lmdC$_{Rs}$ bacA$_{Rs}$*::*bacA$_{Rs}$-mNeongreen*), SP114 (*bacA$_{Rs}$*::*bacA$_{Rs}$-*

mCherry P$_{lmdC}$–*lmdC$^N_{Rs}$-mNeongreen*), SP118 (Δ*bacA* Δ*lmdC* P$_{lmdC}$–*lmdC$_{1-80}$-mNeongreen*) and SP119

(*bacA*::*bacA-mCherry* Δ*lmdC* P$_{lmdC}$–*lmdC$_{1-80}$-mNeongreen*) were subjected to immunoblot analysis with an

anti-mNeonGreen antibody. Predicted molecular weights: BacA$_{Rs}$-mNG (44.8 kDa), LmdC$^N_{Rs}$-mNG fusion

(35.9 kDa) **(C)** Levels of the BacA$_{Rs}$-CHY fusion in different *R. rubrum* strains. Strains SP109 (*bacA$_{Rs}$*::*bacA$_{Rs}$-*

mCherry), SP114 (*bacA$_{Rs}$*::*bacA$_{Rs}$-mCherry* P$_{lmdC}$–*lmdC$^N_{Rs}$-mNeongreen*), SP117 (*bacA$_{Rs}$*::*bacA$_{Rs}$-mCherry*

Δ*lmdC*) and SP119 (*bacA$_{Rs}$*::*bacA$_{Rs}$-mCherry* Δ*lmdC* P$_{lmdC}$–*lmdC$^N_{Rs}$-mNeongreen*) were subjected to

immunoblot analysis with an anti-mCherry antibody. The predicted molecular weight of BacA$_{Rs}$-CHY is 44.9

kDa. **(D)** Co-localization of BacA$_{Rs}$-CHY and LmdC$_{Rs}$-mNG in *R. rubrum* cells carrying the native *lmdC$_{Rs}$* gene.

The Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (PCC) of the two fluorescence signals in a random subpopulation of

cells (n=177) is 0.54. Scale bar: 5 µm.

Figure 11. The β-hairpin in the cytoplasmic region of LmdC is critical for BacA binding. (A) Predicted

structure of LmdC^N, comprising the first 80 amino acids of LmdC. The transmembrane domain is colored

light blue. The cytoplasmic domain includes a conserved β-hairpin motif. **(B)** Clusters of amino acids

mutated for the analysis of BacA-LmdC interaction. Mutated amino acids are shown as red sticks. **(C)**

Localization of BacA$_{Rs}$-CHY and the indicated LmdC$^N_{Rs}$-mNG variants in the Δ*lmdC$_{Rs}$* background. The

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (PCC) of the two fluorescence signals in a random subpopulation of cells

is 0.914 for the wild type fusion (SP119), 0.887 for the R25A-H26A-L27A variant (SP237) and 0.827 for the

R30A S31A variant (SP238). Scale bar: 5 µm. **(D,E)** Demographs showing the distribution of BacA-mCherry

and (D) R25A-H26A-L27A variant (SP237) or R31A-S31A variant (SP238) of LmdC^N-mNG along the outer

and inner curve of the cell (n=200 per strain). The white line marks the point of transition from the outer

and the inner curve. The analysis was performed as described in **Figure 10F**.

Figure 12. Model of the roles of BacA and LmdC in *H. neptunium* and *R. rubrum* cell morphogenesis. (A)

Cell morphogenesis in *H. neptunium* wild-type (top) and Δ*bacAD* cells (bottom). In wild-type cells, BacA

polymers form a complex with the DD-endopeptidase LmdC at the future stalked pole. The hydrolytic

activity of LmdC, possibly stimulated by its interaction with BacA, helps to curve the cell wall at the

incipient stalk base and thus determine stalk morphology. The zone of high positive inner cell curvature

and, potentially, the physical barrier constituted by the bactofilin polymer prevent the movement of

elongasome complexes from the mother cell body into the stalk, thereby limiting peptidoglycan biosyn-

thesis to the stalked cell pole. At a later stage, the bactofilin-LmdC complex localizes close to the tip of the

stalk and again generates a ring-shaped zone of positive cell curvature, thereby promoting the remodeling

of the stalk tip into a spherical bud. At the onset of the budding process, elongasome complexes accumu-

late in the nascent bud by a so-far unknown mechanism. The positively curved bud neck and the bactofilin

polymers prevent the movement of elongasome complexes from the bud into the stalk, thereby limiting

cell growth to the bud compartment. In the Δ*bacAD* mutant, cells fail to concentrate LmdC at the future

stalk base and bud neck. As a consequence, peptidoglycan biosynthesis is no longer limited to the different

growth zones, leading to pseudo-stalk formation and unregulated bud expansion. **(B)** Bactofilin-mediated

modulation of cell helicity in *R. rubrum*. BacA$_{Rs}$ (yellow) recruits LmdC$_{Rs}$ (red) to the inner cell curvature.

The hydrolytic activity of LmdC ultimately stimulates peptidoglycan biosynthesis at this position, leading

to a reduction in cell helicity.

Figures

Figure 1. Bactofilin BacA is required for proper cell morphology in *H. neptunium*. (A) Schematic representation of the two
bactofilin genes present in the *H. neptunium* genome. *bacA* lies adjacent to the M23 peptidase gene *lmdC*. Arrows indicate the
direction of transcription. **(B)** Domain organization of BacA and BacD from *H. neptunium*. The bactofilin polymerization domain
(colored boxes) is flanked by non-structured N- and C-terminal regions. **(C)** Morphology of *H. neptunium* bactofilin mutants.
Shown are representative cells of strains LE670 (wild type), EC28 (Δ*bacA*), EC23 (Δ*bacD*) and EC33 (Δ*bacAD*), imaged by
differential interference contrast (DIC) microscopy. Bar: 4 µm. **(D)** Transmission electron micrographs of Δ*bacA* cells at the early
stalked-cell stage. Bar: 1 µm. **(E)** Quantification of the proportion of phenotypically abnormal stalked and budding cells in cultures
of the strains analyzed in panel C (n = 100 cells per strain). **(F)** Doubling times of the indicated *H. neptunium* strains. Bars represent
the mean (± SD) of three independent experiments (dots). Statistical significance was determined using Welch's non-paired t-test
(*, $p<0.05$; n.s., not significant). **(G)** Immunoblot analysis of the strains shown in panel C, performed using anti-BacA antibodies.

Figure 1—figure supplement 1. **The dimorphic lifecycle of *H. neptunium*.** A motile, flagellated swimmer sheds its flagellum and forms a stalk at the opposite cell pole. At a defined point in the cell cycle, the terminal segment of the stalk dilates and develops into a new swimmer cell. After cell division, the newborn swimmer cell first needs to differentiate into a stalked cell to initiate a new round of cell division, whereas the stalked mother cell immediately enters the next replication cycle. The predominant growth zones (Cserti et al., 2017) are indicated in red.

Figure 1—figure supplement 2. Phenotypic analysis of *H. neptunium* bactofilin mutants. (A) Immunoblot analysis of strains
LE670 (wild type), EC28 (Δ*bacA*) and EC41 (Δ*bacA* P_{Cu}::P_{Cu}-*bacA*) grown in the absence (-*bacA*) and presence (+*bacA*) of 0.5 mM
CuSO$_4$, performed with an anti-BacA antibody. **(B)** Rescue of the phenotype of a Δ*bacA* mutant by ectopic expression of *bacA*.
Cells of strain EC41 (Δ*bacA* P_{Cu}::P_{Cu}-*bacA*) were grown in copper-free medium, induced by the addition of copper, and imaged
after the indicated time incubation times. Bar: 3 µm. **(C)** Quantification of the proportion of phenotypically abnormal stalked and
budding cells in the cultures of strains EC41 (Δ*bacA* P_{Cu}::P_{Cu}-*bacA*) and EC43 (Δ*bacA* P_{Zn}::P_{Zn}-*bacD*) analyzed in panels B and E
before (t=0 h) and 24 h after induction (n = 100 cells per time point). **(D)** Doubling times of the indicated *H. neptunium* strains.
Strain EC41 (Δ*bacA* P_{Cu}::P_{Cu}-*bacA*) as analyzed in the absence (-) and presence (+) of copper. Strain LE670 (wild-type) grown in
copper-free medium is shown as a control. Bars represent the mean (± SD) of three independent experiments (dots). Statistical
significance was determined using Welch's non-paired t-test (n.s., not significant). **(E)** Transmission electron micrographs of
Δ*bacD* cells at the swimmer and stalk cell stage. Bar: 1 µm. **(F)** DIC images of a Δ*bacA* mutant overproducing BacD from a zinc-
inducible promoter. Cells of strain EC43 (Δ*bacA* P_{Zn}::P_{Zn}-*bacD*) were grown in inducer-free medium, induced by the addition of
0.5 mM ZnSO$_4$, and imaged after the indicated incubation times. Bar: 3 µm.

Time [h] of growth

Figure 2—figure supplement 1. Growth of ΔbacAD cells in a microfluidic flow cell. Cells of strain EC33 (ΔbacAD) were flushed
into a microfluidic flow cell and imaged at the indicated time points (in h). Bar: 3 µm.

Figure 2—video 1. Unconstrained growth of a bactofilin-deficient *H. neptunium* mutant. Cells of strain EC33 (ΔbadAD) were
grown in a microfluidic flow cell and imaged by DIC microsopy at 15 min intervals. Bar: 2 µm.

Figure 2—video 2. Normal growth of the *H. neptunium* wild-type strain. Cells of strain LE670 (wild type) were grown in a
microfluidic flow cell and imaged by DIC microsopy at 5 min intervals. Bar: 2 µm.

Figure 2—figure supplement 2. Muropeptide profiles of different *H. neptunium* strains. Cell walls of strains LE670 (wild type),
EC28 (ΔbacA), EC23 (ΔbacD) and EC33 (ΔbacAD) were digested with cellosyl to release muropeptides, which were reduced and
separated by HPLC. The identities of major muropeptide species, assigned based on the previously reported retention times
(Cserti et al., 2017; Glauner, 1988), are given above the corresponding peaks. Tri, Tetra and Penta stand for N-acetylglucosamine-
N-acetylmuramitol tripeptide, tetrapeptide and pentapeptide, respectively. "Anh" indicates muropeptides containing 1,6-
anhydromuramic acid.

Figure 3. BacA and BacD co-polymerize into filamentous structures. (A) Model of a BacA trimer generated with AlphaFold-
Multimer (Evans et al., 2022). Only residues P34-D138 are shown for each subunit. **(B)** Visualization of BacA polymers. Purified
BacA-His$_6$ was stained with uranyl acetate and imaged by transmission electron microscopy (TEM). Arrowheads point to BacA
filaments. Asterisks indicate filament bundles and sheets. Bars: 200 nm. **(C)** Copolymerization of BacA and BacD after
heterologous co-expression in *E. coli*. Cells of *E. coli* BL21(DE3) transformed with plasmid pEC121 (P$_{T7}$-*bacA-eyfp* P$_{T7}$-*bacD-ecfp*)
were grown in LB medium containing 5 % glucose and induced with 0.5 mM IPTG prior to imaging. Bar: 3 μm.

Figure 3—figure supplement 1. Localization patterns of BacA-YFP and BacD-CFP upon heterologous overproduction in *E. coli*. **(A)**
Co-localization of BacA-YFP and BacD-CFP in cells of *E. coli* BL21(DE3) transformed with plasmid pEC121 (P_{T7}-*bacA-eyfp* P_{T7}-*bacD-*
ecfp). **(B)** Localization of BacA-YFP in cells of *E. coli* BL21(DE3) transformed with plasmid pEC119 (P_{T7}-*bacA-eyf*) **(C)** Localization of
BacD-CFP in *E. coli* BL21(DE3) transformed with plasmid pEC120 ($P_{T7-bacD-ecfp}$). All strains were grown in LB medium containing 5%
glucose and induced with 0.5 mM IPTG prior to imaging. Bars: 2 μm.

Figure 4—figure supplement 1. **Stability of the fluorescently tagged bactofilin derivatives used in this study.** Cells of strains LE670 (wild type), EC61 (*bacA*::*bacA-eyfp*), MO78 (*bacA*::*bacA*$_{F130R}$-*eyfp*) and EC67 (*bacD*::*bacD-venus*) were subjected to immu-noblot analysis using anti-GFP antibodies.

Figure 4—figure supplement 2. **Localization dynamics of BacA-YFP.** Cells of strain EC61 (*bacA*::*bacA-eyfp*) were flushed into a microfluidic flow cell and imaged at 15-min intervals over multiple cell cycles. Shown are overlays of DIC and fluorescence images. Bar: 2 μm.

Figure 4—video 1. **Localization dynamics of BacA-YFP (example 1).** Cells of strain EC61 (*bacA*::*bacA-eyfp*) were grown in a microfluidic flow cell and imaged at 15 min intervals. Shown are overlays of DIC and fluorescence images. YFP fluorescence is shown in red for better visibility. Bar: 2 μm.

Figure 4—video 2. **Localization dynamics of BacA-YFP (example 2).** Cells of strain EC61 (*bacA*::*bacA-eyfp*) were grown in a microfluidic flow cell and imaged at 15 min intervals. Shown are overlays of DIC and fluorescence images. YFP fluorescence is shown in red for better visibility. Bar: 2 μm.

Figure 4—video 3. **Localization dynamics of BacA-YFP (example 3).** Cells of strain EC61 (*bacA*::*bacA-eyfp*) were grown in a microfluidic flow cell and imaged at 15 min intervals. Shown are overlays of DIC and fluorescence images. YFP fluorescence is shown in red for better visibility. Bar: 2 μm.

Figure 4—figure supplement 3. Co-localization of BacA and BacD. Shown are the individual fluorescence images of strain EC68
(*bacA*::*bacA-eyfp bacD*::*bacD-mCherry*) used to generate the overlays in **Figure 4D**. Bar: 1 µm.

Figure 4—figure supplement 4. Partial independence of BacA and BacD localization at the onset of the budding process. Shown
are exemplary cells of strain EC68 (*bacA*::*bacA-eyfp bacD*::*bacD-mCherry*) in which BacA-YFP and BacD-CHY do not fully co-
localize. Bar: 2 µm.

Figure 4—figure supplement 5. Random localization of BacD complexes in the absence of BacA. Cells of strain EC60 (Δ*bacA*
P_{Zn}::P_{Zn}-*bacD-venus*) were grown in inducer-free medium and then induced for 4 h with 0.5 mM ZnSO$_4$ prior to imaging. Bar: 3 µm.

Figure 4—figure supplement 6. Localization and functionality of BacA$_{F130R}$-YFP. Cells of strain MO78 (*bacA*::*bacA$_{F130R}$-eyfp*),
producing the polymerization-deficient BacA$_{F130R}$-YFP variant instead of the native protein, were grown to exponential phase and
imaged. Bar: 3 µm.
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Figure 5. The bactofilin cytoskeleton is required to confine the elongasome to the mother cell and bud compartments.
Localization of eYFP-RodZ in the *H. neptunium* wild-type and Δ*bacAD* backgrounds. Shown are representative cells of strain EC93
(*rodZ*::*eyfp-rodZ*) and SP221 (Δ*bacAD rodZ*::*eyfp-rodZ*) imaged by DIC and fluorescence microscopy and arranged according to
their developmental state. Arrowheads indicate cellular extensions that show eYFP-RodZ foci. Bar: 2 µm.

Figure 5—video 1. Localization of YFP-RodZ during stalk synthesis in the wild-type background. Cells of strain EC93 (*rodZ*::*eyfp-*
rodZ) were immobilized on pads made of 1% agarose in ASS medium and imaged at 2 min intervals. Bar: 2 µm.

Figure 5—video 2. Localization of YFP-RodZ during bud formation in the wild-type background. Cells of strain EC93 (*rodZ*::*eyfp-*
rodZ) were immobilized on pads made of 1% agarose in ASS medium and imaged at 2 min intervals. Bar: 2 µm.

Figure 5—video 3. Localization of YFP-RodZ during pseudo stalk synthesis in the Δ*bacAD* background. Cells of strain SP221
(Δ*bacAD rodZ*::*eyfp-rodZ*) were immobilized on pads made of 1% agarose in ASS medium and imaged at 2 min intervals. Bar: 2
µm.

Figure 5—video 4. Localization of YFP-RodZ within within early stalks in the Δ*bacAD* background. Cells of strain SP221 (Δ*bacAD*
rodZ::*eyfp-rodZ*) were immobilized on pads made of 1% agarose in ASS medium and imaged at 2 min intervals. Bar: 2 µm.

Figure 5—video 5. Localization of YFP-RodZ in amorphous cells in the Δ*bacAD* background. Cells of strain SP221 (Δ*bacAD*
rodZ::*eyfp-rodZ*) were immobilized on pads made of 1% agarose in ASS medium and imaged at 2 min intervals. Bar: 2 µm.

Figure 6. The single-particle dynamics of BacA change over the course of the cell cycle. (A) Representative heat maps showing
the sum of single-particle positions observed in live-cell single-particle localization microscopy studies of a swimmer, stalked and
budding cell producing BacA-YFP (EC61) or a mutant cell producing the polymerization-deficient BacA$_{F130R}$-YFP variant (MO78).
Insets show the corresponding bright-field images. Bars: 1 μm. **(B)** Mean-squared displacement (MSD) analysis of the mobility of
BacA-YFP in wild-type swimmer (n=100), stalked (n=105) and budding (n=101) cells (EC61). Cells (n=110) producing the BacA$_{F130R}$-
YFP were analyzed as a control (MO78). Error bars indicate the standard deviation. **(C)** Bubble plots showing the proportions of
mobile and immobile particles (size of the bubbles) and the corresponding average diffusion constants (y-axis) in the cells anal-
yzed in panel B.

Figure 6—video 1. Tracking of single BacA-YFP particles in representative cells at different stages of the cell cycle. Shown are
stream acquisitions (20-ms intervals) of *H. neptunium* cells producing wild-type BacA-YFP (EC61) or the polymerization-deficient
BacA$_{F130R}$-YFP variant (MO78) in place of the native BacA protein at different developmental stages. Bar: 1 μm

Figure 6—figure supplement 1. Single-particle tracking analysis of BacA-YFP. The images show the sums of all single-molecule
tracks obtained for individual *H. neptunium* swimmer, stalked and budding cell producing BacA-YFP (EC61) or for a mutant cell
producing the polymerization-deficient BacA$_{F130R}$-YFP variant (MO78). Cell outlines are indicated by white lines. Inserts show the
corresponding bright-field images. Bars: 1 μm.

Figure 7. Putative operons comprising adjacent BacA and M23 peptidase genes are widely conserved among bacteria. (A)
Arrangement of *bacA* and *lmdC* genes in species whose BacA homolog has a proven role in cell morphogenesis. **(B)** Co-
conservation of BacA and M23 peptidase genes across different bacterial phyla. Bioinformatic analysis was used to identify
genomes that contained a bactofilin gene located next to an M23 peptidase gene. After retrieval of the taxonomy IDs of the
corresponding species from the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) website, a phylogenetic tree of the species
was created using the iTOL server (Letunic and Bork, 2021). Abbreviations: DT (Deinococcus-Thermus group), FCB (Fibrobacteres-
Chlorobi-Bacteroidetes group), β (β-proteobacteria), δ (δ-proteobacteria). The full list of species used and details on the genes
identified are provided in **Figure 7—Dataset 1**.

Figure 8. **LmdC is a peptidoglycan hydrolase with DD-endopeptidase activity. (A)** Predicted domain architecture of *H. neptunium* LmdC. The predicted positions of the transmembrane helix (TM), the three coiled-coil regions (CC) and the M23 peptidase domain are indicated. **(B)** Alignment of the amino acid sequences of multiple M23 peptidases showing the conservation of the catalytic residues in LmdC. Residues required to coordinate the catalytic Zn^{2+} ion of LytM from *S. aureus* (Firczuk et al., 2005) are indicated by arrowheads. The proteins shown are EnvC from *E. coli* (UniProt: P37690), NlpD from *E. coli* (P0ADA3), LytM from *S. aureus* (O33599), MepM from *E. coli* (P0AFS9) and LmdC from *H. neptunium* (Q0BYX6). **(C)** Predicted molecular structure of *H. neptunium* LmdC, generated with Alphafold2 (Jumper et al., 2021). The different domains of the protein and the position of proline 66, which terminates the N-terminal fragment of LmdC used for the *in vivo* analyses in this study (LmdC$_{1-66}$) are indicated. **(D)** HPLC traces showing the muropeptide profile of peptidoglycan treated with LmdC. Cell walls were incubated with the isolated M23 peptidase domain of LmdC at pH 5.0 and pH 7.5. Subsequently, muropeptides were released with cellosyl, reduced and separated by HPLC. A control sample lacked LmdC (No protein). The nature of the major products is indicated above the peaks. Tri, Tetra and Penta stand for N-acetylglucosamine-N-acetylmuramitol tripeptide, tetrapeptide and pentapeptide, respectively. **(E)** Structure of a TetraTetra muropeptide. Abbreviations: G (N-acetylglucosamine), M (N-acetylmuramic acid). The cleavage site of LmdC is indicated by a red arrowhead.

Figure 9. LmdC interacts with BacA to mediate *H. neptunium* morphogenesis. (A) Schematic representation of the integrative plasmid pdCas9Entry, enabling CRISPR interference (CRISPRi) in *H. neptunium*. The plasmid harbors a chromosomal fragment containing the copper-inducible P_{Cu} promoter, followed by a gene encoding a nuclease-deficient variant of Cas9 (dCas9). It also contains an sgRNA expression cassette composed of the constitutive $P_{HNE0038}$ promoter, a BbsI cloning site for the insertion of target-specific DNA fragments, a sequence encoding the sgRNA handle and a transcriptional terminator (ter). Other features of the plasmid are a replication initiator gene (*rep*), a kanamycin resistance gene (*npt1*), an origin of transfer (*oriT*) and a strong transcriptional terminator (*rrnB*T1T2) that is placed upstream of the P_{Cu}-containing fragment. The DNA sequence of the sgRNA expression cassette is given in **Figure 9–figure supplement 1**. **(B)** Schematic showing the integration of a pdCas9Entry derivative into the *H. neptunium* chromosome by single homologous recombination at the P_{Cu} locus. **(C)** Mechanism of the CRISPRi-mediated repression of *lmdC* expression. In the presence of inducer, dCas9 interacts with a constitutively produced sgRNA that targets bases 51-72 of the non-coding strand of *lmdC* (sg*lmdC*). The formation of the interference complex creates a roadblock that blocks the transcription of *lmdC* by RNA polymerase. **(D)** Immunoblot analysis verifying the CRISPRi-mediated depletion of LmdC. Strain SU34 (*lmdC*::*lmdC-HA*), which produces a fully functional variant of LmdC carrying the HA affinity tag inserted in between the transmembrane helix and the coiled-coil domain, was transformed with pdCas9Entry (empty vector) or plasmid pJH13 (sg*lmdC*). The resulting strains (SP249 and SP236) were grown for 24 h in the absence (-) or presence (-) of 0.3 mM $CuSO_4$ and subjected to immunoblot analysis with an anti-HA antibody. The wild-type strain (LE670), the parental strain SU34 as well as the uninduced pre-cultures (pre) of strains SP249 and SP236 used for the experiment were analyzed as controls. A non-specific band served as

a loading control (LC). **(E)** Morphology of *H. neptunium* cells depleted of LmdC. Shown are representative cells of strains SP236
(*lmdC*::*lmdC*-HA pJH13) (sg*lmdC*) and SP249 (*lmdC*::*lmdC*-HA pCas9Entry) (empty vector) grown for 24 h in the absence (control)
or presence (+ dCas9) of 0.3 mM CuSO₄. Cells were imaged by DIC and fluorescence microscopy. Bar: 2 μm. **(F)** Quantification of
the proportion of phenotypically abnormal stalked and budding cells in the cultures of strain SP236 (*lmdC*::*lmdC*-HA pJH13)
analyzed in panel E (n=100 cells per condition). **(G)** Bio-layer interferometric analysis of the interaction between cytoplasmic
domain of LmdC and BacA. Sensors derivatized with a biotinylated synthetic peptide comprising the N-terminal cytoplasmic
region of LmdC (amino acids 1-38) were probed with the indicated concentrations of BacA. After the association of BacA, the
sensors were transferred to protein-free buffer to induce BacA dissociation. The interaction kinetics were followed by monitoring
the wavelength shifts resulting from changes in the optical thickness of the sensor surface during association or dissociation of
the analyte. The extent of non-specific binding of BacA to the sensor surface was negligible (control). **(H)** Affinity of the BacA-
LmdC interaction. The maximal wavelength shifts measured in the experiment shown in panel D were plotted against the
corresponding BacA concentration. The data were fitted to a one-site binding model, yielding an apparent K_d value of ~15 μM.

Figure 9—figure supplement 1. Characterization of the phenotype induced by the CRISPRi-mediated depletion of LmdC in
H. neptunium. **(A)** Sequence of the sgRNA expression cassette of pdCas9Entry. The different parts of the sequence are colored
as defined in the schematic on top. The BsbI recognition and cut sites are indicated by arrows. **(B)** Morphological diversity of *H.*
neptunium cells depleted of LmdC. Shown are representative cells of strains SP236 (*lmdC*::*lmdC*-HA pJH13) (sg*lmdC*) and SP249
(*lmdC*::*lmdC*-HA pCas9Entry) (empty vector) grown for 24 h in the absence (control) or presence (+ dCas9) of 0.3 mM CuSO₄. Cells
were imaged by DIC microscopy. Bar: 2 μm. **(C)** Doubling times of the strains analyzed in panel B in the absence (-Cu) or presence
(+Cu) of 0.3 mM CuSO₄. Bars represent the mean (± SD) of three independent experiments (dots). Statistical significance was
determined using Welch's non-paired t-test (n.s., not significant).

Figure 10. BacA and LmdC contribute to cell morphogenesis in *R. rubrum*. (A) Schematic representation of the *bacA-lmdC* operon
in *R. rubrum*. **(B)** Domain organization of LmdC and BacA from *R. rubrum*. LmdC consists of a transmembrane helix (TM) followed
by a coiled-coil-rich region and a C-terminal M23 peptidase domain (M23). The bactofilin polymerization domain (green box) is
flanked by non-structured N- and C-terminal regions. Numbers indicate the first and last amino acid of a domain. **(C)** Phenotypes
of *R. rubrum* wild-type (S1), Δ*bacA$_{Rs}$* (SP70), Δ*lmdC$_{Rs}$* (SP68) and Δ*bacA$_{Rs}$* Δ*lmdC$_{Rs}$* (SP116) cells, imaged using phase-contrast
microscopy. Bar: 5 μm. **(D)** Superplots showing the distribution of cell sinuosities in populations of the indicated *R. rubrum* strains.
Small dots represent the data points, large dots represent the median values of the three independent experiments shown in the
graphs (dark blue, light blue, grey). The mean of the three median values is indicated by a horizontal red line. Whiskers represent
the standard deviation. *** p<0.005; ns, not significant; t-test). **(E)** Co-localization of BacA$_{Rs}$-CHY and LmdC$^N_{Rs}$-mNG in the Δ*lmdC$_{Rs}$*
background (SP119). The Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (PCC) of the two fluorescence signals in a random subpopulation of
cells is 0.916. Scale bar: 5 μm. **(F)** Schematic showing the approach used to quantify the distribution of proteins along the outer
and inner curve of a cell in panel G. **(G)** Demographs showing the enrichment of BacA-CYH and LmdC^N-mNG at the inner curve
the populations of strain SP119 analyzed in panel E (n=200 per strain). The white dashed line represents the point of transition
from the outer to the inner curve. **(H)** Localization of BacA$_{Rs}$-mNG in the Δ*lmdC$_{Rs}$* background (SP98). Bar: 5 μm. **(I)** Localization of
LmdC$_{Rs}$-mNG in the Δ*bacA$_{Rs}$* background (SP118). Bar: 5 μm. **(J)** Demographs showing the outer-versus-inner curve distribution
of BacA$_{Rs}$-mNG in the Δ*lmdC$_{Rs}$* background (SP98; n=200) and LmdC$^N_{Rs}$-mNG in the Δ*bacA$_{Rs}$* background (SP118; n=200). The white
dashed line represents the point of transition from the outer to the inner curve.

Figure 10—figure supplement 1. Analysis of BacA and LmdC from *R. rubrum*. (A) Clearer visualization of the abnormal curvature of BacA- and LmdC-deficient *R. rubrum* cells by inhibition of cell division. Cells of strains SP68 (Δ*lmdC*), SP70 (Δ*bacA*) and SP116 (Δ*lmdC* Δ*bacA*) were treated with 5 µg/ml cefalexin (Cfx) for 6 h. Bar: 5 µm. **(B)** Muropeptide profiles of different *R. rubrum* strains. Cell walls of strains S1 (wild type), SP70 (Δ*bacA*$_{Rs}$) and SP68 (Δ*lmdC*) were digested with cellosyl to release muropeptides, which were reduced and separated by HPLC chromatography. The identities of major muropeptide species, assigned based on the previously reported retention times (Glauner, 1988), are given above the corresponding peaks. Tetra stands for N-acetyl-glucosamine-N-acetylmuramitol tetrapeptide. "Anh" indicates muropeptides containing 1,6-anhydromuramic acid.

Figure 10—figure supplement 2. Cell lengths of *R. rubrum* strains. Superplots showing the distribution of cell sinuosities in populations of strains S1 (wild type), SP105 (Δ*bacA*$_{Rs}$ P$_{bacA}$-*bacA*$_{Rs}$) and SP109 (*bacA*$_{Rs}$::*bacA*$_{Rs}$-*mCherry*). Small dots represent the data points, large dots represent the median values of the three independent experiments shown in the graphs (dark blue, light blue, grey). The mean of the three median values is indicated by a horizontal line. Whiskers represent the standard deviation. *** p<0.005; ns, not significant; t-test).

Figure 10—figure supplement 3. Lysis of *E. coli* upon heterologous expression of full-length *R. rubrum lmdC*. Shown are cells of
E. coli Rosetta(DE3)pLysS harboring pSP120 (P$_{T7}$-*lmdC$_{Rs}$*) or the corresponding empty vector imaged 4h after the induction of gene
expression with 0.5 mM IPTG. Arrowheads indicate ghost cells, cell debris, lysing cells or strongly elongated cells. Scale bar: 5 µm.

Figure 10—figure supplement 4. Analysis of *R. rubrum* strains producing fluorescent protein fusions. (A) Domain architectures
of the native LmdC$_{Rs}$ protein and the truncated LmdC$^N_{Rs}$-mNG reporter construct used for localization studies. The transmem-
brane helix is shown in purple. Abbreviations: CC (coiled-coil domain), M23 (M23 peptidase domain), mNG (mNeongreen). **(B)**
Levels of the LmdC$^N_{Rs}$-mNG fusion in different *R. rubrum* strains. Strains SP98 (Δ*lmdC$_{Rs}$ bacA$_{Rs}$*::*bacA$_{Rs}$-mNeongreen*), SP114
(*bacA$_{Rs}$*::*bacA$_{Rs}$-mCherry* P$_{lmdC}$–*lmdC$^N_{Rs}$-mNeongreen*), SP118 (Δ*bacA* Δ*lmdC* P$_{lmdC}$–*lmdC$_{1-80}$-mNeongreen*) and SP119 (*bacA*::*bacA-*
mCherry Δ*lmdC* P$_{lmdC}$–*lmdC$_{1-80}$-mNeongreen*) were subjected to immunoblot analysis with an anti-mNeonGreen antibody.
Predicted molecular weights: BacA$_{Rs}$-mNG (44.8 kDa), LmdC$^N_{Rs}$-mNG fusion (35.9 kDa) **(C)** Levels of the BacA$_{Rs}$-CHY fusion in
different *R. rubrum* strains. Strains SP109 (*bacA$_{Rs}$*::*bacA$_{Rs}$-mCherry*), SP114 (*bacA$_{Rs}$*::*bacA$_{Rs}$-mCherry* P$_{lmdC}$–*lmdC$^N_{Rs}$-mNeongreen*),
SP117 (*bacA$_{Rs}$*::*bacA$_{Rs}$-mCherry* Δ*lmdC*) and SP119 (*bacA$_{Rs}$*::*bacA$_{Rs}$-mCherry* Δ*lmdC* P$_{lmdC}$–*lmdC$^N_{Rs}$-mNeongreen*) were subjected to
immunoblot analysis with an anti-mCherry antibody. The predicted molecular weight of BacA$_{Rs}$-CHY is 44.9 kDa. **(D)** Co-localiza-
tion of BacA$_{Rs}$-CHY and LmdC$_{Rs}$-mNG in *R. rubrum* cells carrying the native *lmdC$_{Rs}$* gene. The Pearson's Correlation Coefficient
(PCC) of the two fluorescence signals in a random subpopulation of cells (n=177) is 0.54. Scale bar: 5 µm.

Figure 11. The β-hairpin in the cytoplasmic region of LmdC is critical for BacA binding. (A) Predicted structure of LmdC^N, comprising the first 80 amino acids of LmdC. The transmembrane domain is colored light blue. The cytoplasmic domain includes a conserved β-hairpin motif. (B) Clusters of amino acids mutated for the analysis of BacA-LmdC interaction. Mutated amino acids are shown as red sticks. (C) Localization of BacA$_{Rs}$-CHY and the indicated LmdC^N$_{Rs}$-mNG variants in the Δ$lmdC_{Rs}$ background. The Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (PCC) of the two fluorescence signals in a random subpopulation of cells is 0.914 for the wild type fusion (SP119), 0.887 for the R25A-H26A-L27A variant (SP237) and 0.827 for the R30A S31A variant (SP238). Scale bar: 5 µm. (D,E) Demographs showing the distribution of BacA-mCherry and (D) R25A-H26A-L27A variant (SP237) or R31A-S31A variant (SP238) of LmdC^N-mNG along the outer and inner curve of the cell (n=200 per strain). The white line marks the point of transition from the outer and the inner curve. The analysis was performed as described in Figure 10F.

Figure 12. Model of the roles of BacA and LmdC in *H. neptunium* and *R. rubrum* cell morphogenesis. (A) Cell morphogenesis in *H. neptunium* wild-type (top) and Δ*bacAD* cells (bottom). In wild-type cells, BacA polymers form a complex with the DD-endopeptidase LmdC at the future stalked pole. The hydrolytic activity of LmdC, possibly stimulated by its interaction with BacA, helps to curve the cell wall at the incipient stalk base and thus determine stalk morphology. The zone of high positive inner cell curvature and, potentially, the physical barrier constituted by the bactofilin polymer prevent the movement of elongasome complexes from the mother cell body into the stalk, thereby limiting peptidoglycan biosynthesis to the stalked cell pole. At a later stage, the bactofilin-LmdC complex localizes close to the tip of the stalk and again generates a ring-shaped zone of positive cell curvature, thereby promoting the remodeling of the stalk tip into a spherical bud. At the onset of the budding process, elonga-some complexes accumulate in the nascent bud by a so-far unknown mechanism. The positively curved bud neck and the bacto-filin polymers prevent the movement of elongasome complexes from the bud into the stalk, thereby limiting cell growth to the bud compartment. In the Δ*bacAD* mutant, cells fail to concentrate LmdC at the future stalk base and bud neck. As a consequence, peptidoglycan biosynthesis is no longer limited to the different growth zones, leading to pseudo-stalk formation and unregulated bud expansion. **(B)** Bactofilin-mediated modulation of cell helicity in *R. rubrum*. BacA$_{Rs}$ (yellow) recruits LmdC$_{Rs}$ (red) to the inner cell curvature. The hydrolytic activity of LmdC ultimately stimulates peptidoglycan biosynthesis at this position, leading to a reduction in cell helicity.