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A lytic transglycosylase connects bacterial focal adhesion complexes to the peptidoglycan cell wall

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Abstract

The Gram-negative bacterium *Myxococcus xanthus* glides on solid surfaces. Dynamic bacterial focal adhesion complexes (bFACs) convert proton motive force from the inner membrane into mechanical propulsion on the cell surface. It is unclear how the mechanical force transmits across the rigid peptidoglycan (PG) cell wall. Here we show that AgmT, a highly abundant lytic PG transglycosylase homologous to *Escherichia coli* MltG, couples bFACs to PG. Coprecipitation assay and single-particle microscopy reveal that the gliding motors fail to connect to PG and thus are unable to assemble into bFACs in the absence of an active AgmT. Heterologous expression of *E. coli* MltG restores the connection between PG and bFACs and thus rescues gliding motility in the *M. xanthus* cells that lack AgmT. Our results indicate that bFACs anchor to AgmT-modified PG to transmit mechanical force across the PG cell wall.

Introduction

In natural ecosystems, the majority of bacteria attach to surfaces[1]. Surface-associated motility is critical for many bacteria to navigate and populate their environments[2]. The Gram-negative bacterium *Myxococcus xanthus* moves on solid surfaces using two independent mechanisms: social (S-) motility and adventurous (A-) motility. S-motility, analogous to the twitching motility in *Pseudomonas* and *Neisseria*, is powered by the extension and retraction of type IV pili[3,4]. A-motility is a form of gliding motility that does not depend on conventional motility-related cell surface appendages, such as flagella or pili[2,5]. AglR, AglQ, and AglS form a membrane channel that functions as the gliding motor by harvesting proton motive force[6,7]. Motor units associate with at least fourteen gliding-related proteins that reside in the cytoplasm, inner membrane, periplasm, and outer membrane[8,9].

In each gliding cell, two distinct populations of gliding complexes coexist: dynamic complexes move along helical paths and static complexes remain fixed relative to the substrate[10-13]. Motors transport incomplete gliding complexes along helical tracks but form complete, force-generating complexes at the ventral side of cells that appear fixed to the substrate (**Fig. 1**)[10,13]. Based on their functional analogy with eukaryotic focal adhesion sites, these complete gliding machineries are called bacterial focal adhesion complexes (bFACs). Despite their static appearance, bFACs are dynamic under single-molecule microscopy. Individual motors frequently display move-stall-move patterns, in which they move rapidly along helical trajectories, join a bFAC where they remain stationary briefly, then move rapidly again toward the next bFAC or reverse their moving directions[11,14,15]. bFACs adhere to the gliding substrate through an outer membrane adhesin[12]. As motors transport bFACs toward lagging cell poles, cells move forward but bFACs remain static relative to the gliding substrate.

bFAC assembly can be quantified at nanometer resolution using the single-particle dynamics of gliding motors[11,16]. Single particles of a fully functional, photoactivatable mCherry (PAmCherry)-labeled AglR display three dynamic patterns, stationary, directed motion, and diffusion[11,16]. The stationary population consists of the motors in fully assembled bFACs, which do not move before photobleach. In contrast, the motors moving in a directed manner carry incomplete gliding complexes along helical tracks, whereas the diffusing motors assemble to even less completeness[10,11,13,16]. As motors only generate force in static bFACs[10], the population of nonmotile motors indicates the overall status of fully assembled bFACs.

However, how bFACs transmit force across the peptidoglycan (PG) cell wall is unclear. PG is a mesh-like single molecule of crosslinked glycan strands that surrounds the entire cytoplasmic membrane. The rigidity of PG defines cell shape and protects cells from osmotic lysis[17,18]. If bFACs physically penetrate PG, their transportation toward lagging cell poles would tear PG and trigger cell lysis. To avoid breaching PG, an updated model proposes that rather than forming stable and rigid complexes, gliding-related proteins only assemble into force-generating machineries in bFACs. Outside of bFACs, these proteins could localize diffusively or move along with unengaged motor units[10,19]. To simplify this model, we can artificially divide each gliding machinery into two subcomplexes, one on each side of the PG layer. The inner subcomplexes move freely and only assembly with the outer subcomplexes in bFACs, which transform proton motive force into mechanical propulsion on cell surfaces (**Fig. 1**).

The inner subcomplexes, containing the motors, are the force-generating units in bFACs. As motors reside in the fluid inner membrane, to transmit force to the cell surface, the inner subcomplexes must push against two relatively rigid structures, one

on each side of the membrane, in opposite directions[19] (**Fig. 1**). MreB is a bacterial actin

homolog that supports rod shape in many bacteria[16,17,20]. In *M. xanthus*, MreB also

connects to bFACs on the cytoplasmic side and thus plays essential roles in

gliding[2,5,6,12,16,21,22]. The inner subcomplexes could push against MreB filaments and PG in

the cytoplasm and periplasm, respectively[10,16,19,23]. The interaction between the inner

subcomplexes and PG not only satisfies the physical requirement for force generation

but also supports bFAC stability. Without this interaction, the inner and outer

subcomplexes can only form transient, "slippery" association, which is predicted to

produce short and aberrant cell movements[19]. How the inner complex interacts with PG

remains unknown. It was speculated that gliding motors in the inner complex could

bind PG directly[10]. However, such binding has not been confirmed by experiments.

In this study, we found that AgmT, a lytic transglycosylase (LTG) for PG, is

required for *M. xanthus* gliding motility. Whereas AgmT only regulates cell morphology

moderately during vegetative growth, it is essential for maintaining PG integrity under

the stress from the antibiotic mecillinam. Using single-particle tracking microscopy and

coprecipitation assays, we found that AgmT is essential for the inner subcomplexes to

connect to PG and stall in bFACs. Importantly, expressing *Escherichia coli* MltG

heterologously rescues the connection between PG and bFACs and thus restores gliding

motility. Hence, the LTG activity of AgmT anchors bFACs to PG, potentially by

modifying PG structure. Our findings reveal the long-sought connection between PG

and bFACs that allows mechanical force to transmit across the PG cell wall.

Results

AgmT, a putative LTG, is required for gliding motility.

To elucidate how bFACs interact with PG, we searched for potential PG-binding domains among the proteins that are required for gliding motility. A previous report identified 35 gliding-related genes in *M. xanthus* through transposon-mediated random mutagenesis[24]. Among these genes, *agmT* (ORF K1515_04910[25]) was predicted to encode an inner membrane protein with a single transmembrane helix (residues 4 – 25) followed by a large "periplasmic solute-binding" domain[24]. No other motility-related genes are found in the vicinity of *agmT*. After careful analysis, we found that AgmT showed significant similarity to the widely conserved YceG/MltG family LTGs. The putative active site, Glu223 (corresponding to E218 in *E. coli* MltG)[26], is conserved in AgmT (**Fig. 2A**).

To confirm the function of AgmT in gliding, we constructed an *agmT* in-frame deletion mutant. We further knocked out the *pilA* gene that encodes pilin for type IV pilus to eliminate S-motility. On a 1.5% agar surface, the *pilA⁻* cells moved away from colony edges both as individuals and in "flare-like" cell groups, indicating that they were still motile with gliding motility. In contrast, the *ΔaglR pilA⁻* cells that lack an essential component in the gliding motor were unable to move outward from the colony edge and thus formed sharp colony edges. Similarly, the *ΔagmT pilA⁻* cells also formed sharp colony edges, indicating that they could not move efficiently with gliding (**Fig. 2B**).

We then imaged individual *ΔagmT pilA⁻* cells on 1.5% agar surface at 10-s intervals using bright-field microscopy. To our surprise, instead of being static, individual *ΔagmT pilA⁻* cells displayed slow movements, with frequent pauses and reversals (**Video 1**). To quantify the effects of AgmT, we measured the velocity and gliding persistency (the

distances cells traveled before pauses and reversals) of individual cells. Compared to

the *pilA⁻* cells that moved at 2.30 ± 1.33 µm/min (n = 46) and high persistency (**Video 2**

and **Fig. 2C, D**), *ΔagmT pilA⁻* cells moved significantly slower (0.88 ± 0.62 µm/min, n =

59) and less persistent (**Video 1** and **Figure. 2C, D**). Such aberrant gliding motility is

distinct from the "hyper reversal" phenotype due to the polarity regulators

constitutively switching the moving direction of cells, because hyper reversing cells

usually maintain gliding velocity at the wild-type level[27]. Instead, such phenotypes

match the prediction that when the inner complexes of bFACs lose connection with PG,

bFACs can only generate short, and inefficient movements[19]. Our data indicate that

AgmT is not essential component in the bFACs. Thus, AgmT is likely to regulate the

assembly and stability of bFACs, especially their connection with PG.

AgmT is an LTG

As AgmT is a putative LTG for PG, we then tested if its predicted active site, Glu223, is

required for gliding. Because the amino acid following Glu223 is also a glutamate

(Glu224), we replaced both glutamate residues with alanine (AgmT^EAEA) using site-

directed mutagenesis to alter their codons on the chromosome. *agmT^EAEA pilA⁻* cells

formed sharp colony edges on agar surface (**Fig. 2B**). Thus, the putative LTG activity of

AgmT is required for *M. xanthus* gliding motility.

To determine if AgmT is an LTG, we expressed the periplasmic domain (amino

acids 25 – 339) of wild-type AgmT and AgmT^EAEA in *E. coli*. We purified PG from wild-

type *M. xanthus* cells, labeled it with Remazol brilliant blue (RBB), and tested if the

purified AgmT variants hydrolyze labeled PG *in vitro* and release the dye[28,29]. Similar to

lysozyme that specifically cleaves the β-1,4-glycosidic bonds in PG, wild-type AgmT

solubilized dye-labeled *M. xanthus* PG that absorbed light at 595 nm. In contrast, the

AgmT^{EAEA} variant failed to release the dye (**Fig. 3A**). Hence, AgmT displays LTG

activity *in vitro*.

Whereas AgmT does not affect growth rate (**Fig. S2**), cells that lacked AgmT or

expressed AgmT^{EAEA} maintained rod shape but were slightly shorter and wider than the

wild-type ones (**Fig. 3B**). Nevertheless, altered morphology alone does not likely

account for abolished gliding. In fact, a previously reported mutant that lacks all three

class A penicillin-binding proteins (*Δ3*) displays similarly shortened and widened

morphology[30] but is still motile by gliding (**Fig. S1**).

A recent report revealed that *Vibrio cholerae* MltG degrades un-crosslinked PG

turnover products and prevents their detrimental accumulation in the periplasm[31]. To

test if AgmT plays a similar role in *M. xanthus*, we used mecillinam to induce cell

envelope stress. Mecillinam is a β-lactam that induces the production of toxic, un-

crosslinked PG strands[32]. Rather than collapsing the rod shape, mecillinam only causes

bulging near the centers of wild-type *M. xanthus* cells, whereas large-scale cell lysis does

not occur, and cell poles still maintain rod shape even after prolonged (20 h) treatment

(**Fig. 3C**)[30]. Thus, wild-type *M. xanthus* can largely mitigate mecillinam stress. In

contrast, mecillinam-treated *agmT* cells increased their width drastically, displayed

significant cell surface irregularity along their entire cell bodies, and lysed frequently

(**Fig. 3C**). Cells expressing AgmT^{EAEA} as the sole source of AgmT displayed similar, but

even stronger phenotypes under mecillinam stress, growing into elongated, twisted

filaments that formed multiple cell poles and lysed frequently (**Fig. 3C**). These results

confirm that similar to *V. cholerae* MltG, *M. xanthus* AgmT is important for maintaining

cell integrity under mecillinam stress. The different responses from *agmT* and *agmT^{EAEA}*

cells suggest that other LTGs could partially substitute AgmT while AgmT^{EAEA} blocks

these enzymes from accessing un-crosslinked PG strands.

AgmT is the only LTG *in M. xanthus* that belongs to the YceG/MltG family. Besides

agmT, the genome of *M. xanthus* contains 13 genes that encode putative LTGs (**Table**

S1). To test if these proteins also contribute to gliding, we knocked out each of these 13

genes in the *pilA⁻* background. The resulting mutants all retained gliding motility,

indicating that AgmT is the only LTG that is required for *M. xanthus* gliding (**Fig. S1**).

AgmT is essential for proper bFACs assembly

How does AgmT support gliding? We first tested if AgmT regulates the function of the

gliding motor. For this purpose, we quantified the motor dynamics by tracking single

particles of AglR, an essential component of the motor. We spotted the cells that express

a fully functional, photo-activatable mCherry (PAmCherry)-labeled AglR[11] on 1.5% agar

surface. We used a 405-nm excitation laser to activate the fluorescence of a few labeled

AglR particles randomly in each cell and quantified their localization using a 561-nm

laser at 10 Hz using single particle tracking photo-activated localization microscopy

(sptPALM) under highly inclined and laminated optical sheet (HILO) illumination[11,16,33].

Using this setting, only a thin section of each cell surface that was close to the coverslip

was illuminated. To analyze the data, we only chose the fluorescent particles that

remained in focus for 4 - 12 frames (0.4 - 1.2 s). As free PAmCherry particles diffuse

extremely fast in the cytoplasm, entering and exiting the focal plane frequently, they

usually appear as blurry objects that cannot be followed at 10-Hz close to the

membrane[16]. For this reason, the noise from any potential degradation of AglR-

PAmCherry was negligible. Consistent with our previous results[11,14], 32.1% (n = 2,700) of

AglR-PAmCherry particles remained within one pixel (160 nm · 160 nm) before

photobleach, indicating that they were immotile. The remaining 67.9% AglR-

PAmCherry particles were motile, leaving trajectories of various lengths (**Fig. 4A, 4B**).

bFAC assembly is sensitive to mechanical cues. As the agar concentration increases

in gliding substrate, more motor molecules engage in bFACs, where they appear

immotile[9,11]. We exposed *aglR-PAmCherry* cells to 405-nm excitation (0.2 kW/cm^2) for 2 s,

where most PAmCherry molecules were photoactivated and used epifluorescence to

display the overall localization of AglR[11,16,30]. As the agar concentration increased,

bFACs increased significantly in size (**Fig. 4C**). Accordingly, the immotile AglR

particles detected by sptPALM increased from 10.7% (n = 1112) on 0.5% agar to 45.2% (n

= 726) on 5.0% agar surface (**Fig. 4B**). Thus, the stationary population of AglR-

PAmCherry particles reflects the AglR molecules in fully assembled bFACs.

In contrast to the cells that expressed wild-type AgmT (*agmT*[+]), AglR particles were

hyper motile in the cells that lacked AgmT or expressed AgmT[EAEA]. On 1.5% agar

surfaces, the immotile populations of AglR particles decreased to 10.5% (n = 2,989) and

11.7% (n = 1,408), respectively. Consistently, AglR-containing bFACs were rarely

detectable in these cells, even on 5% agar surfaces (**Fig. 4A-C**).

To test if other components in the gliding machinery also depend on AgmT to

assemble into bFACs, we tested the localization of AglZ, a cytoplasmic protein that is

commonly used for assessing bFAC assembly[10,34]. In the cells that expressed wild-type

AgmT, yellow fluorescent protein (YFP)-labeled AglZ formed a bright cluster at the

leading cell pole and multiple static, near-evenly spaced clusters along the cell body,

indicating the assembly of bFACs (**Fig. 4D**). In contrast, AglZ-YFP only formed single

clusters at cell poles in the cells that lacked AgmT or expressed AgmT[EAEA] (**Fig. 4D**).

Taken together, the LTG activity of AgmT is essential for proper bFACs assembly.

AgmT does not assemble into bFACs

We first hypothesized that AgmT could assemble into bFACs, where it could generate

pores in PG specifically at bFAC loci that allow the inner and outer gliding complexes

interact directly. Alternatively, it could bind to PG and recruit other components to

bFACs through protein-protein interactions. Regardless, if AgmT assembles into

bFACs, it should localize in bFACs. To test this possibility, we labeled AgmT with

PAmCherry on its C-terminus and expressed the fusion protein as the sole source of

AgmT using the native promoter and locus of *agmT*. *agmT-PAmCherry pilA*⁻ cells

displayed gliding motility that was indistinguishable from *pilA*⁻ cells (**Fig. 2B**),

indicating that the fusion protein is functional. Similar to many membrane proteins that

resistant to dissociation by SDS[35], immunoblot using an anti-mCherry antibody showed

that AgmT-PAmCherry accumulated in two bands in SDS-PAGE that corresponded to

monomers and dimers of the full-length fusion protein, respectively (**Fig. 5A**). This

result is consistent with the structure of *E. coli* MltG that functions as homodimers

(PDB: 2r1f). Importantly, AgmT-PAmCherry was about 50 times more abundant than

AglR-PAmCherry (**Fig. 5A**). To test if AgmT assembles into bFACs, we first expressed

AgmT-PAmCherry and AglZ-YFP together using their respective loci and promoter.

We exposed *agmT-PAmCherry* cells to 405-nm excitation (0.2 kW/cm^2) for 2 s to visualize

the overall localization of AgmT. We found that on a 1.5% agar surface that favors

gliding motility, AglZ formed bright clusters at cell poles and aggregated in near

evenly-spaced bFACs along the cell body. In contrast, AgmT localized near evenly

along cell bodies without forming protein clusters (**Fig. 5B**). Thus, AgmT does not

localize into bFACs. These results echo the fact that despite its abundance, AgmT has

not been identified as a component in bFACs despite extensive pull-down experiments

using various bFAC components as baits[6,9,36].

As an additional test, we used sptPALM to track the movements of AgmT-

PAmCherry single particles on 1.5 agar surfaces at 10 Hz. We reasoned that if AgmT

assembles into bFACs, AgmT and gliding motors should display similar dynamic

patterns. Distinct from the AglR particles of which 32.1% remained stationary, AgmT

moved in a diffusive manner, showing no significant immotile population. Importantly,

compared to the diffusion coefficients (D) of motile AglR particles ($1.8 \cdot 10^{-2} \pm 3.6 \cdot 10^{-3}$

$\mu m^2/s$ (n = 1,833)), AgmT particles diffused much faster ($D = 2.9 \cdot 10^{-2} \pm 5.3 \cdot 10^{-3}$ $\mu m^2/s$ (n

= 8,548)). Taken together, AgmT and the gliding motor did not display significant

correlation in either their localization or dynamics. We thus conclude that AgmT does

not assemble into bFACs.

AgmT connects bFACs to PG through its LTG activity

We then explored the possibility that AgmT could modify PG through its LTG activity

and thus generate the anchor sites for certain components in bFACs. If this hypothesis is

true, heterologous expression of a non-native LTG could rescue gliding motility in the

$\Delta agmT$ strain. To test this hypothesis, we fused the *E. coli mltG* gene (*mltG_{Ec}*) to a

vanillate-inducible promoter and inserted the resulting construct to the *cuoA* locus on

M. xanthus chromosome that does not interfere gliding[37]. We subjected the $\Delta agmT$ and

agmT^{EAEA} cells that expressed MltG_{Ec} to mecillinam (100 µg/ml) stress. Induced by 200

µM sodium vanillate, MltG_{Ec} restored cell morphology and integrity of the $\Delta agmT$ strain

to the wild-type level (**Fig. 3C**). This result confirmed that MltG_{Ec} was expressed and

enzymatically active in *M. xanthus*. In contrast, MltG_{Ec} failed to confer mecillinam

resistance to the *agmT^{EAEA}* cells (**Fig. 3C**). A potential explanation is that AgmT^{EAEA} could

still bind to PG and thus block MltG_{Ec} from accessing *M. xanthus* PG.

Consistent with its LTG activity, the expression of MltG_{Ec} restored gliding motility

of the $\Delta agmT$ *pilA^-* cells on both the colony (**Fig. 2B**) and single-cell (**Fig. 2C, D**) levels.

Interestingly, in the absence of sodium vanillate, the leakage expression of MltG_{Ec} using

the vanillate-inducible promoter was sufficient to compensate the loss of AgmT. A

plausible explanation of this observation is that as *E. coli* grows much faster (generation

time 20 - 30 min) than *M. xanthus* (generation time ~4 h), MltG_{Ec} could possess

significantly higher LTG activity than AgmT. Induced by 200 µM sodium vanillate, the

expression of MltG$_{Ec}$ further but non significantly increased the velocity and gliding

persistency (**Fig. 2B-D**). Importantly, the expression of MltG$_{Ec}$ failed to restore gliding

motility in the *agmT^{EAEA} pilA* cells, even in the presence of 200 μM sodium vanillate (**Fig.**

2B). Consistent with the mecillinam resistance assay (**Fig. 3C**), this result suggests that

AgmT^{EAEA} still binds to PG and that in the absence of its LTG activity, AgmT does not

anchor bFACs to PG. As MltG$_{Ec}$ substitutes AgmT in gliding motility, it is the LTG

activity, rather than specific interactions between AgmT and bFACs, that is required for

gliding.

It is challenging to visualize how AgmT facilitates bFAC assembly through its

enzymatic activity *in vitro*. First, the inner complex in a bFAC spans the cytoplasm,

inner membrane, and periplasm and contains multiple proteins whose activities are

interdependent[8-10]. It is hence difficult to purify the entire inner complex in its functional

state. Second, Faure *et al*. hypothesized that AglQ and AglS in the gliding motor could

bind PG directly[10]. However, such binding has not been proved experimentally due to

the difficulty in purifying the membrane integral AglRQS complex. To overcome these

difficulties, we used AglR-PAmCherry to represent the inner complex of bFAC and

investigated how bFACs bind PG in their native environment. To do so, we expressed

AglR-PAmCherry in different genetic backgrounds as the sole source of AglR using the

native *aglR* locus and promoter. We lysed these cells using sonication, subjected their

lysates to centrifugation, isolated the pellets that contained PG, and detected the

presence of AglR-PAmCherry in these pellets by immunoblots using an mCherry

antibody. Eliminating AgmT and disabling its active site significantly reduced the

amounts of AglR in the pellets (**Fig. 5C**). Because such pellets contain both the PG and

membrane fractions, we further eliminated PG in cell lysates using lysozyme before

centrifugation and determined the amount of AglR-PAmCherry in the pellets that only

contained membrane fractions. Regardless of the presence and activity of AgmT,

comparable amounts of AglR precipitated in centrifugation pellets after lysozyme

treatment, indicating that AgmT does not affect the expression or stability of AglR (**Fig.**

5C). Thus, active AgmT facilitates the association between bFACs and PG. Strikingly,

the heterologous expression of MltG$_{Ec}$ enriched AglR-PAmCherry in the PG-containing

pellets from the *ΔagmT* cells but not the *agmT^{EAEA}* ones (**Fig. 5C**). These results indicate

that AgmT connects bFACs to PG through its LTG activity.

The assembly of bFACs produces wave-like deformation on cell surface[6,38],

suggesting that their assembly may require a flexible PG layer[2,6,11,12]. As a major

contributor to cell stiffness, PG flexibility affects the overall stiffness of cells[39]. To test the

possibility that AgmT and MltG$_{Ec}$ facilitate bFAC assembly by reducing PG stiffness, we

adopted the GRABS assay[39] to quantify if the lack of AgmT and the expression of MltG$_{Ec}$

affects cell stiffness. To quantify changes in cell stiffness, we simultaneously measured

the growth of the *pilA⁻*, *ΔagmT pilA⁻*, and *ΔagmT P$_{van}$-MltG$_{Ec}$ pilA⁻* (with 200 μM sodium

vanillate) cells in a 1% agarose gel infused with CYE and liquid CYE and calculated the

GRABS scores of the *ΔagmT pilA⁻*, and *ΔagmT P$_{van}$-MltG$_{Ec}$ pilA⁻* cells using the *pilA⁻* cells

as the reference, where positive and negative GRABS scores indicate increased and

decreased stiffness, respectively (see Materials and Methods and Ref[39]). The GRABS

scores of the *ΔagmT pilA⁻*, and *ΔagmT P$_{van}$-MltG$_{Ec}$ pilA⁻* (with 200 μM sodium vanillate)

cells were -0.06 ± 0.04 and -0.10 ± 0.07 (n = 4), respectively, indicating that neither AgmT

nor MltG$_{Ec}$ affects cell stiffness significantly. Whereas PG flexibility could still be

essential for gliding, AgmT and MltG$_{Ec}$ do not regulate bFAC assembly by modulating

PG stiffness. Instead, these LTGs could connect bFACs to PG by generating structural

features that are irrelevant to PG stiffness.

Discussion

Gliding bacteria adopt a broad spectrum of nanomachineries. Compared to the trans-envelope secretion system that drives gliding in *Flavobacterium johnsoniae* and *Capnocytophaga gingivalis*, the gliding machinery of *M. xanthus* appears to lack a stable structure that transverses the cell envelope, especially across the PG layer[2,40,41]. In order to generate mechanical force from the fluid *M. xanthus* gliding machinery, the inner complex must establish solid contact with PG and push the outer complex to slide[10,19]. In this work, we discovered AgmT as the long-sought factor that facilitates persistent gliding by connecting bFACs to PG.

It is surprising that AgmT itself does not assemble into bFACs and that MltG$_{Ec}$ substitutes AgmT in gliding. Thus, rather than interacting with bFAC components directly and specifically, AgmT facilitates proper bFAC assembly indirectly through its LTG activity. LTGs usually break glycan strands and produce unique anhydro caps on their ends[42-46]. However, because AgmT is the only LTGs that is required for gliding, it is not likely to facilitate bFAC assembly by generating such modification on glycan strands. *E. coli* MltG is a glycan terminase that controls the length of newly synthesized PG glycans[26]. Likewise, AgmT could generate short glycan strands and thus uniquely modify the overall structure of *M. xanthus* PG, such as producing small pores that retard and retain the inner subcomplexes of bFACs (**Fig. 6**). On the contrary, the *M. xanthus* mutants that lack active AgmT could produce PG with increased strain length, which blocks bFACs from binding to the cell wall and precludes stable bFAC assembly. However, it would be very difficult to demonstrate how glycan length affects the connection between bFACs and PG.

Then how does AgmT, a protein localized diffusively, facilitate bFAC assembly into near-evenly spaced foci? The actin homolog MreB is the only protein in bFACs that

displays quasiperiodic localization independent of other components[16,21]. *M. xanthus*

MreB assembles into bFACs and positions the latter near evenly along the cell

body[6,11,16,21-23]. MreB filaments change their orientation in accordance with local

membrane curvatures and could hence respond to mechanical cues[47-49]. Strikingly, *M.*

xanthus does assemble bFACs in response to substrate hardness (**Fig. 4C**) and

assembled bFACs could distort the cell envelope, generating undulations on the cell

surface[6,9,11,38,50]. Taken together, whereas AgmT potentially modifies the entire PG layer,

it is still the quasiperiodic MreB filaments that determine the loci for bFAC assembly in

response to the mechanical cues from the gliding substrate (**Fig. 6**).

Most bacteria encode multiple LTGs that function in PG growth, remodeling, and

recycling[43,46]. This work provides an example that macro bacterial machineries

domesticate non-specialized LTGs for specialized functions. Other examples include

MltD in the *Helicobacter pylori* flagellum and MltE in the *E. coli* type VI secretion

system[51,52]. Based on their catalytic folds and domain arrangements, LTGs can be

categorized inti six distinct families[43]. Both *M. xanthus* AgmT and *E. coli* MltG belong to

the YceG/MltG family, which is the first identified LTG family that is conserved in both

Gram-negative and positive bacteria[26,43]. About 70% of bacterial genomes, including

firmicutes, proteobacteria, and actinobacteria, encode YceG/MltG domains[26]. The

unique inner membrane localization of this family and the fact that AgmT is the only *M.*

xanthus LTG that belongs to this family (**Table S2**) could partially explain why it is the

only LTG that contributes to gliding motility. It will be interesting to investigate if other

LTGs, once anchored to the inner membrane, could also facilitate force-generation by

bFACs.

Methods

Strains and growth conditions

M. xanthus strains used in this study are listed in **Table S2**. Vegetative *M. xanthus* cells were grown in liquid CYE medium (10 mM MOPS pH 7.6, 1% (w/v) Bacto™ casitone (BD Biosciences), 0.5% yeast extract and 8 mM MgSO₄) at 32 °C, in 125-ml flasks with vigorous shaking, or on CYE plates that contains 1.5% agar. All genetic modifications on *M. xanthus* were made on the chromosome. Deletion and insertion mutants were constructed by electroporating *M. xanthus* cells with 4 µg of plasmid DNA. Transformed cells were plated on CYE plates supplemented with 100 µg/ml sodium kanamycin sulfate and 10 µg/ml tetracycline hydrochloride when needed. AgmT and AgmT^{EAEA} were labeled with PAmCherry at their C-termini by fusing their gene to a DNA sequence that encodes PAmCherry through a KESGSVSSEQLAQFRSLD (AAGGAGTCCGGCTCCGTGTCCTCCGAGCAGCTGGCCCAGTTCCGCTCCCTGGAC) linker. All constructs were confirmed by PCR and DNA sequencing.

Immunoblotting

The expression and stability of PAmCherry-labeled proteins were determined by immunoblotting following SDS-PAGE using an anti-mCherry antibody (Rockland Immunochemicals, Inc., Lot 46705) and a goat anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L) secondary antibody, HRP (Thermo Fisher Scientific, catalog # 31460). MreB was detected as the loading control using an anti-MreB serum[21] and the same secondary antibody. The blots were developed with Pierce™ ECL Western Blotting Substrate (Thermo Fisher Scientific REF 32109) and a MINI-MED 90 processor (AFP Manufacturing).

Gliding assay

390   Five microliters of cells from overnight culture were spotted on CYE plates containing

391   1.5% agar at 4×10^9 colony formation units (cfu)/ml and incubated at 32 °C for 48 h.

392   Colony edges were photographed using a Nikon Eclipse™ e600 phase-contrast

393   microscope with a 10× 0.30 NA objective and an OMAX™ A3590U camera.

Protein expression and purification

DNA sequences encoding amino acids 25 – 339 of AgmT and AgmT[EAEA] were amplified

by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and inserted into the pET28a vector (Novogen)

between the restriction sites of *Eco*RI and *Hind*III and used to transform *E. coli* strain

BL21(DE3). Transformed cells were cultured in 20 ml LB (Luria-Bertani) broth at 37 °C

overnight and used to inoculate 1 L LB medium supplemented with 1.0% glucose.

Protein expression was induced by 0.1 mM IPTG (isopropyl-h-d-thiogalactopyranoside)

when the culture reached an OD_{600} of 0.8. Cultivation was continued at 16 °C for 10 h

before the cells were harvested by centrifugation at 6,000 × g for 20 min. Proteins were

purified using a NGC™ Chromatography System (BIO-RAD) and 5-ml HisTrap™

columns (Cytiva)[15,53]. Purified proteins were concentrated using Amicon™ Ultra

centrifugal filter units (Millipore Sigma) with a 10-kDa molecular weight cutoff and

stored at -80 °C.

LTG activity (RBB) assay

PG was purified following the published protocol[30,54]. In brief, *M. xanthus* cells were

grown until mid-stationary phase and harvested by centrifugation (6,000 × g, 20 min,

25 °C). Supernatant was discarded and the pellet was resuspended and boiled in 1× PBS

with 5% SDS for 2 h. SDS was removed by repetitive wash with water and

centrifugation (21,000 × g, 10 min, 25 °C). Purified PG from 100 ml culture was

suspended into 1 ml 1× PBS and stored at -20 °C. RBB labelling of PG was performed

essentially as previously described[28,29]. Purified sacculi were incubated with 20 mM RBB

in 0.25 M NaOH overnight at 37 °C. Reactions were neutralized by adding equal

volumes of 0.25 M HCl and RBB-labeled PG was collected by centrifugation at 21,000 ×

g for 15 min. Pellets were washed repeatedly with water until the supernatants became

colorless. RBB-labelled sacculi were incubated with purified AgmT and AgmT[EAEA] (1

mg/ml) at 25 °C for 12 h. lysozyme (1 mg/ml) was used as a positive control. Dye release

was quantified by the absorption at 595 nm from the supernatants after centrifugation

(21,000 × g, 10 min, 25 °C).

Cell stiffness (GRABS) assay

Cell stiffness was quantified using the GRABS assay[55]. Briefly, overnight cultures of

$pilA^-$, $\Delta agmT\ pilA^-$, and $\Delta agmT\ P_{van}$-$MltG_{Ec}\ pilA^-$ (with 200 μM sodium vanillate) cells

were inoculated to liquid CYE medium or embedded in solid CYE medium with 1%

agarose to OD_{600} 0.5 in 2-ml optical spectrometer cuvettes and incubated at 32 °C.

Growth data were collected over 24 hr, and the GRABS scores were calculated as

$(OD_{mutant,\ agarose}/OD_{pilA,\ agarose})$ - $(OD_{mutant,\ liquid}/OD_{pilA,\ liquid})$.

Co-precipitation assay

M. xanthus cells expressing AglR-PAmCherry were grown in liquid CYE to OD_{600} ~1,

harvested by centrifugation (6,000 × g, 20 min, 25 °C), washed by 1× PBS, and

resuspended into 1× PBS to OD_{600} 6. Cells (1 ml) were lysed using a Cole-Parmer 4710

Ultrasonic Homogenizer. Unbroken cells and large debris were eliminated by

centrifugation (6,000 × g, 10 min, 25 °C). Supernatants were subjected to centrifugation

at 21,000 × g for 15 min. Pellets that contain both the PG and membrane fractions were

resuspended to 1 ml in 1× PBS. To collect the pellets that do not contain PG,

supernatants from sonication lysates were incubated with 5 mg/ml lysozyme at 25 °C

for 5 h before centrifugation. Five microliters of each resuspended pellet were mixed

with 5 μl 2× loading buffer and applied to SDS-PAGE. AglR-PAmCherry was detected

using immunoblotting.

Microscopy Analysis

For all imaging experiments, we spotted 5 μl of cells grown in liquid CYE medium to

OD_{600} ~1 on agar (1.5%) pads. For the treatments with inhibitors, inhibitors were added

into both the cell suspension and agar pads. The length and width of cells were

determined from differential interference contrast (DIC) images using a MATLAB

(MathWorks) script[16,30,56]. DIC and fluorescence images of cells were captured using an

Andor iXon Ultra 897 EMCCD camera (effective pixel size 160 nm) on an inverted

Nikon Eclipse-Ti™ microscope with a 100× 1.49 NA TIRF objective. For sptPALM, *M.*

xanthus cells were grown in CYE to 4×10^8 cfu/ml and PAmCherry was activated using a

405-nm laser (0.3 kW/cm^2), excited and imaged using a 561-nm laser (0.2 kW/cm^2).

Images were acquired at 10 Hz. For each sptPALM experiment, single PAmCherry

particles were localized in at least 100 individual cells from three biological replicates.

sptPALM data were analyzed using a MATLAB (MathWorks) script[16,56]. Briefly, cells

were identified using differential interference contrast images. Single PAmCherry

particles inside cells were fit by a symmetric 2D Gaussian function, whose center was

assumed to be the particle's position[16]. Particles that explored areas smaller than 160 nm

× 160 nm (within one pixel) in 0.4 - 1.2 s were considered immotile[16,30,56]. Sample

trajectories were generated using the TrackMate[57] plugin in the ImageJ suite

(https://imagej.net).

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Author Contributions

C. R. C., O. G. F., and B. N. designed the study, performed experiments and data analysis, and wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the manuscript.

Competing Interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Data availability

All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in the manuscript and supporting files.

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 Figure legends

 Fig. 1. Stationary bFACs drive *M. xanthus* gliding. Motors carrying incomplete

gliding complexes either diffuse or move rapidly along helical paths but do not generate

propulsion. Motors stall and become nearly static relative to the substrate when they

assemble into complete bFACs with other motor-associated proteins at the ventral side

of the cell. Stalled motors push MreB and bFACs in opposite directions and thus exert

force against outer membrane adhesins. Overall, as motors transport bFACs toward

lagging cell poles, cells move forward but bFACs remain static relative to the substrate.

IM, inner membrane; OM, outer membrane.

Fig. 2. AgmT, a putative lytic transglycosylase, is required *for M. xanthus* gliding.

A) AgmT shows significant similarity to a widely conserved PG transglycosylase in

YceG/MltG family. The conserved glutamine residue is marked by an asterisk. M_xant,

M. xanthus; E_coli, *E. coli*; M_tube, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*; S_coel, *Streptomyces

coelicolor*; A_calc, *Acinetobacter calcoaceticus*; X_albi, *Xanthomonas albilineans*;

N_meni, *Neisseria menningitidis*; R_prow, *Rickettsia prowazekii*; T_aqua, *Thermus

aquaticus*. **B)** AgmT is required for *M. xanthus* gliding. Colony edges were imaged after

incubating cells on 1.5% agar surface for 24 h. To eliminate S-motility, we further

knocked out the *pilA* gene that encodes pilin for type IV pilus. Cells that move by gliding

are able to move away from colony edges. Deleting *agmT* or disabling the active site of

AgmT abolish gliding but fusing an PAmCherry (PAmCh) to its C-terminus does not.

Heterologous Expression of *E. coli* MltG (MltG$_{Ec}$) restores gliding of *agmT* cells but not

the cells that express AgmT^{EAEA}. **C, D)** While cells lacking AgmT moved slower **(C)** and

less persistently (**D**, measured by the distances cells traveled before pauses and

reversals), the expression of MltG$_{Ec}$ restores both the velocity and persistence of gliding

in the *agmT* cells. Data were pooled from three independent experiments and *p* values

were calculated using a one-way ANOVA test between two unweighted, independent

samples. Boxes indicate the 25th - 75th percentiles and bars the median. The total

number of cells analyzed is shown on top of each plot. *, *p* <0.001.

Fig. 3. AgmT regulates cell morphology and integrity under antibiotic stress. A)

Purified AgmT solubilizes dye-labeled PG sacculi, but AgmT^{EAEA} does not. Lysozyme

serves as a positive control. Absorption at 595 nm was measured after 18 h incubation

at 25 C. Data are presented as mean values ± SD from three replicates. **B)** AgmT

regulates cell morphology. Compared to wild-type cells, cells that lack AgmT and

express AgmT^{EAEA} are significantly shorter and wider. A previously reported mutant that

lacks all three class A penicillin-binding proteins (*Δ3*) displays similarly shortened and

widened morphology but is still motile by gliding (**Fig. S1**). Heterologous expression of

E. coli MltG partially restores cell length but not cell width in *agmT* and *agmT^{EAEA}*

backgrounds. Asterisks, 200 M sodium vanillate added. *p* values were calculated using

a one-way ANOVA test between two unweighted, independent samples. Whiskers

indicate the 25th - 75th percentiles and red dots the median. The total number of cells

analyzed is shown on top of each plot. **C)** AgmT regulates cell morphology and integrity

under mecillinam stress (100 µg/ml). Expressing *E. coli* MltG by a vanillate-inducible

promoter (*P$_{van}$*) restores resistance against mecillinam in *agmT* cells but not in the cells

that express AgmT^{EAEA}. van, 200 M sodium vanillate. Arrows point to newly lysed cells.

Scale bars, 5 µm.

Fig. 4. AgmT and its LTG activity are essential for proper bFAC assembly. A)

Overall distribution of AglR-PAmCherry particles on 1.5% agar surface is displayed

using the composite of 100 consecutive frames taken at 100-ms intervals. Single-

particle trajectories of AglR-PAmCherry (AglR-PAmCh) were generated from the same

frames. Individual trajectories are distinguished by colors. Deleting *agmT* or disabling

the transglycosylase activity of AgmT (AgmT^{EAEA}) decrease the stationary population of

AglR particles. **B)** The stationary population of AglR-PAmCherry particles, which reflects

the AglR molecules in bFACs, changes in response to substrate hardness (controlled by

agar concentration) and the presence and function of AgmT. The total number of

particles analyzed is shown on top of each plot. **C)** AglR fails to assemble into bFACs in

the absence of active AgmT, even on 5.0% agar surfaces. **D)** AgmT and its LTG activity

also support the assembly of AglZ into bFACs. White arrows point to bFACs. Scale

bars, 5 µm.

Fig. 5. AgmT does not assemble into bFACs but connects bFACs to PG. A)

Immunoblotting using *M. xanthus* cell lysates and an anti-mCherry antibody shows that

PAmCherry (PAmCh)-labeled AgmT and AgmT^{EAEA} (592 amino acids) accumulate as

full-length proteins. AgmT is significantly more abundant than the PAmCherry-labeled

motor protein AglR (498 amino acids). The bacterial actin homolog MreB visualized

using an MreB antibody is shown as a loading control. **B)** AgmT does not aggregate into

bFACs. **C)** The LTG activity of AgmT is required for connecting bFACs to PG and

expressing the *E. coli* LTG MltG (MltG$_{Ec}$) restores PG binding by bFACs in cells that

lack AgmT but not in the ones that express an inactive AgmT variant (AgmT^{EAEA}). AglR-

PAmCherry was detected using an anti-mCherry antibody to mark the presence of

bFACs that co-precipitate with PG-containing (lysozyme-) pellets. Lysates from the cells

that express AglR-PAmCherry in different genetic backgrounds were pelleted by

centrifugation in the presence and absence of lysozyme. The loading control of AglR-

PAmCherry in the whole cell is shown as "total".

Fig. 6. A possible mechanism by which AgmT connect bFACs to PG. AgmT could

generate short glycan strands through its LTG activity and thus uniquely modify the

overall structure of *M. xanthus* PG, such as producing small pores that retard and retain

the inner subcomplexes of bFACs. Likewise, the *M. xanthus* mutants that lack active

AgmT could produce PG with increased strain length, which precludes bFACs from

binding to the cell wall.

A

bright field | fluorescence (100-frame composit) | single-particle trajectories

AglR-PAmCh

agmT+

Δ*agmT*

agmT^EAEA

B

Stationary population (%)

1112 — 2700 — 726 — 2989 — 1408

0.5 1.5 5.0 1.5 1.5 % agar

agmT+ | Δ*agmT* | *agmT^EAEA*

C

0.5 | 1.5 | 5.0 % agar

AglR-PAmCh

agmT+

Δ*agmT*

agmT^EAEA

D

agmT+ | Δ*agmT* | *agmT^EAEA*

AglZ-YFP

A

aglR-PAmCh
agmT-PAmCh
agmT^{EAEA}-PAmCh

kDa

MreB

C

		MltG$_{Ec}$ -		MltG$_{Ec}$ +	
	agmT+	ΔagmT	agmT^{EAEA}	ΔagmT	agmT^{EAEA}

kDa

lyzozyme -

63
48
35

lyzozyme +

63
48
35

total

63
48
35

B   *agmT-PAmCh aglZ-yfp*

PAmCh

YFP

5 μm

Wild-type   *ΔagmT*

MreB

IM

inner complex

bFAC

PG

outer complex

OM

substratum

bFAC assembled   bFAC not assembled