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, also known as gliding motility, does not depend on conventional motility-related cell surface appendages, such as flagella or pili[2,5]. In *M. xanthus*, AglR, AglQ, and AglS form a membrane channel that functions as the gliding motor by harvesting proton motive force[6,7]. The motor unit associates with at least fourteen gliding-related proteins that reside in the cytoplasm, inner membrane, periplasm, and outer membrane[8-10].

Recently, the mechanisms for bFAC assembly and the coupling between bFACs and substrate begin to emerge[8,11,12]. 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[11,13-15]. 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)[11,15]. 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[13,16,17]. 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[13,18]. Single particles of a fully functional, photoactivatable
mCherry (PAmCherry)-labeled AglR display three dynamic patterns, stationary,
directed motion, and diffusion[13,18]. 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[11,13,15,18]. As motors only
generate force in static bFACs[11], 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[19,20]. 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 there are two subcomplexes in each bFAC, one on each
side of the PG layer. Rather than forming stable and rigid interactions, these two
subcomplexes only associate transiently to form a bFAC[11,21] (**Fig. 1**).

As motors reside in the fluid inner membrane, to transmit force to the cell surface,
they must push against two relatively rigid structures, one on each side of the
membrane, in opposite directions[21] (**Fig. 1**). MreB is a bacterial actin homolog that
associates with the motors and plays essential roles in gliding[2,5,6,14,18,22]. The motors could
push against MreB filaments in the cytoplasm, whereas PG could be the structure that

motors push against in the periplasm[11,21]. The interaction between the inner complex

and PG not only satisfies the physical requirement for force generation but also

supports efficient bFACs assembly. Without this interaction, once the inner subcomplex

disassociates from the outer one, it will quickly escape bFACs and no longer contribute

to force generation[21]. In this case, the fraction of time each motor generates force

(remains in bFACs) will be extremely low[21]. How the inner complex interacts with PG

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

bind PG directly[11]. However, such binding has not been confirmed by experiments.

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

essential for *M. xanthus* gliding motility. AgmT is required for maintaining PG integrity

under the stress from the antibiotic mecillinam. Using single-particle tracking

microscopy and coprecipitation assays, we found that AgmT is required for the gliding

motors 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 bFAC to PG, potentially by

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

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

Results

AgmT, a putative LTG, is essential 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[23]. Among these genes, *agmT* (ORF K1515_04910[24]) was predicted to encode a protein with a large "periplasmic solute-binding" domain[23]. After careful analysis, we found that AgmT showed significant similarity to the widely conserved YceG/MltG family LTGs. About 70% of bacterial genomes, including firmicutes, proteobacteria, and actinobacteria, encode YceG/MltG domains[25]. Especially, the putative active site, Glu223 (corresponding to E218 in *E. coli* MltG)[25], is conserved in AgmT (**Fig. 2A**). To confirm the function of AgmT in gliding, we constructed an *agmT* in-frame deletion mutant. To eliminate S-motility, we further knocked out the *pilA* gene that encodes pilin for type IV pilus. In contrast to the *pilA*⁻ cells that were still motile with gliding motility, the Δ*aglR* *pilA*⁻ cells that lack an essential component in the gliding motor, were unable to move outward from the colony edge. Similarly, the Δ*agmT* *pilA*⁻ cells also formed sharp colony edges, indicating that they were nonmotile with gliding (**Fig. 2B**). 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 were nonmotile (**Fig. 2B**). Thus, the putative LTG activity of AgmT is essential for *M. xanthus* gliding motility.

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 an LTG. 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[26,27]. Similar to lysozyme that specifically cleaves the β-1,4-glycosidic bonds in PG,

wild-type AgmT solubilized dye-labeled *M. xanthus* PG that absorbs 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[28], 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[29]. 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[30]. 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)[28]. 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 AgmT could interact with other PG-related enzymes and that the

inactive AgmT variant might still modulate PG through these enzymes. Alternatively,

other LTGs could partially substitute AgmT while AgmT[EAEA] blocks these enzymes

from accessing un-crosslinked PG strands.

AgmT is essential for 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[13] 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[13,18,31]. 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[18]. For this reason,

the noise from any potential degradation of AglR-PAmCherry was negligible.

165 Consistent with our previous results[13,16], 32.1% (n = 2,700) of AglR-PAmCherry particles

166 remained within one pixel (160 nm · 160 nm) before photobleach, indicating that they

167 were nonmotile. The remaining 67.9% AglR-PAmCherry particles were motile, leaving

168 trajectories of various lengths (**Fig. 4A, 4B**).

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

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

171 immobile[10,15]. We exposed *aglR-PAmCherry* cells to 405-nm excitation (0.2 kW/cm^2) for 2

172 s, where most PAmCherry molecules were photoactivated and used epifluorescence to

173 display the overall localization of AglR[13,18,32]. As the agar concentration increased bFACs

174 increased significantly in size (**Fig. 4C**). Accordingly, the immobile AglR particles

175 detected by sptPALM increased from 10.7% (n = 1112) on 0.5% agar to 45.2% (n = 726)

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

177 particles reflects the AglR molecules in fully assembled bFACs.

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

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

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

181 11.7% (n = 1,408), respectively. Consistently, AglR-containing bFACs were not

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

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

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

185 commonly used for assessing bFAC assembly[11,33]. In the cells that expressed wild-type

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

187 leading cell pole and multiple stationary, near-evenly spaced clusters along the cell

188 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 bFACs assembly.

AgmT does not assemble into bFACs. We first hypothesized that AgmT itself could

assemble into bFACs, where it could either generate pores in PG that allow the inner

and outer gliding complexes interact directly or bind to PG and recruit other

components to bFACs through protein-protein interactions. If this is the case, AgmT

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. Immunoblot using an anti-mCherry antibody showed that AgmT-

PAmCherry accumulated in two bands 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 itself 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 aggregated into bFACs whereas 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[6,10,34].

We reasoned that if AgmT assembles into bFACs, AgmT and gliding motors should display similar dynamic patterns. To test this possibility further, we used sptPALM to track the movements of AgmT-PAmCherry single particles on 1.5 agar surfaces at 10 Hz. Distinct from the AglR particles of which 32.1% remained stationary, AgmT moved in a diffusive manner, showing no significant immobile population. Importantly, compared to the diffusion coefficients (D) of mobile AglR particles ($1.8 \cdot 10^{-2} \pm 3.6 \cdot 10^{-3}$ ⌈m^2/s (n = 1,833)), AgmT particles diffused much faster ($D = 2.9 \cdot 10^{-2} \pm 5.3 \cdot 10^{-3}$ ⌈m^2/s (n = 8,548)). Taken together, neither the localization nor dynamics of AgmT displayed significant correlation with bFAC components. 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 ⊗*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[35]. We subjected the ⊗*agmT* and *agmT*^{EAEA} cells that expressed MltG_{Ec} to mecillinam (100 ⌈g/ml) stress. Induced by 100 ⌈M sodium vanillate, MltG_{Ec} restored cell morphology and integrity of the ⊗*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 activity, MltG_{Ec} restored gliding motility in the *agmT pilA* cells but not in the *agmT*^{EAEA} *pilA* ones (**Fig. 2B**). 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[8,10,11]. 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[11]. 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 a mCherry antibody. Eliminating AgmT and disabling its

active site significantly reduced the amounts of AglR in the pellets (**Fig. 5B**). 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. 5B**). 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 $\otimes agmT$ cells but not

the $agmT^{EAEA}$ ones (**Fig. 5B**). These results indicate that AgmT connects bFACs to PG

through its LTG activity.

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 that both contain PG, the gliding machinery of *M. xanthus*
appears to lack a stable structure that transverses cell envelope, especially across the PG
layer[2,36,37]. 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[11,21]. In this work, we discovered AgmT as the long-sought factor that
connects bFACs to PG. Such connection not only satisfies the requirement for force
generation but is also essential for bFAC assembly.

It is rather unexpected that AgmT itself does not assemble into bFACs. Because
MltG$_{Ec}$ substitutes AgmT in gliding, rather than interacting with bFAC components
specifically, AgmT facilitates bFAC assembly through its LTG activity. A few
possibilities could explain the function of AgmT. First, LTGs usually break glycan
strands and produce unique anhydro caps on their ends[38-41]. Certain components in
bFACs could specifically bind to such modified glycan strands in PG and further recruit
other components. Second, AgmT could generate small openings all over the PG
meshwork that allow the inner and outer subcomplexes in bFACs to interact locally.
Third, AgmT could reduce the overall rigidity of *M. xanthus* PG, allow the bulky inner
subcomplexes to deform the PG layer, and thus establish a viscous coupling between
bFACs and PG[6,21].

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[18,22]. *M. xanthus*
MreB assembles into bFACs and positions the latter near evenly along the cell
body[6,13,18,22,42]. MreB filaments change their orientation in accordance with local

membrane curvatures and could hence respond to mechanical cues[43-46]. 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[6,10,13,47,48]. 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.

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

recycling. Trans-envelope structures often require highly specialized LTGs to penetrate

PG[49]. 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[50,51]. Both *M.*

xanthus AgmT and *E. col*i MltG belong to the YceG family, which is the first identified

LTG family that is conserved in both Gram-negative and positive bacteria[39]. LTGs in

this family localize to the inner membrane and feature periplasmic transglycosylase

domains[39]. Due to their unique localization, the YceG family LTGs are important for

determining the length of nascent glycan strands and for degrading the toxic un-

crosslinked strands from futile PG synthesis[29,52]. Due to the wide distribution of YceG

family LTGs, it is challenging to study how the unique *M. xanthus* gliding machinery

adopts AgmT in evolution. Nevertheless, 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

has been adopted by the gliding machinery. It will be interesting to investigate if other

LTGs, once anchored to the inner membrane, could also facilitate bFAC assembly.

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 $MgSO_4$) 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 (AAGGAGTCCGGCTCCGTGTCCTCCGAGCAGCTGGCCCAGTTCCGCTCCCTGGA C) linker. All constructs were confirmed by PCR and DNA sequencing.

Immunoblotting

The expression and stability of PAmCherry-labeled proteins were determined by immunoblotting 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 using an anti-MreB serum[22] and the same secondary antibody. The blots were developed with Pierce™ ECL Western Blotting Substrate (Thermo Fisher Scientific REF 32109) and MINI-MED 90 processor (AFP Manufacturing).

Gliding assay

Cells at 4×10^9 colony formation units (cfu)/ml were spotted on CYE plates (5 μl/spot) containing 1.5% agar, incubated at 32 °C for 48 h. Colony edges were photographed

using a Nikon Eclipse™ e600 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. The resulting plasmids were

transformed into *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 the NGC™

Chromatography System (BIO-RAD) and a 5-ml HisTrap™ (Cytiva)[17,53]. Purified

proteins were concentrated using Amicon™ Ultra centrifugal filter units (Millipore

Sigma) with a molecular cutoff of 10 kDa and stored at -80 °C.

RBB assay

PG was purified following the published protocol[28,54]. 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 MilliQ 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[26,27]. 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 MilliQ 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).

PG binding 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 (40% output). 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 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. Resuspended pellets (5 ⌡l each) were mixed with equal

volumes of 2× loading buffer and applied to SDS PAGE and immunoblotting.

Microscopy Analysis

For all imaging experiments, 5 ⌡l cells were spotted on an agarose pad. For the

treatments with inhibitors, inhibitors were added into both the cell suspension and

agarose pads. The length and width of cells were determined from differential

interference contrast (DIC) images using a MATLAB (MathWorks) script[18,28,55]. DIC and

fluorescence images of cells were captured using a Hamamatsu ImagEM X2™ EM-CCD

camera C9100-23B (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[18,28,55]. 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[18]. Particles that explored areas smaller than 160 nm × 160 nm (within one pixel)

in 0.4 - 1.2 s were considered immobile. Sample trajectories were generated using the

TrackMate[56] plugin in the ImageJ suite (https://imagej.net).

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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. Deleting or Disabling the active site of AgmT abolishes gliding but fusing an PAmCherry (PAmCh) to its C-terminus does not. Heterologous Expression of *E. coli* MltG restores gliding of $\oslash agmT$ cells but not the cells that express AgmT^{EAEA}.

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. 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 ⌈g/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,. Arrows point to newly lysed cells. Scale bars, 5 μm.

Fig. 4. AgmT and its LTG activity are essential for bFAC assembly. A) Overall distribution of AglR-PAmCherry particles on 1.5% agar surface is displayed using the composite of 100 consecutive frames. Single-particle trajectories of AglR-PAmCherry 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-labeled AgmT and AgmT^{EAEA} accumulate as full-length proteins. AgmT is
significantly more abundant than the motor protein AglR. 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.

Acknowledgements

This work is supported by the National Institute of Health R01GM129000 to B. N.. C. R. C. is supported in the 2023 − 2024 academic year by a National Institute of Health Diverse Predoctoral Training in Genetics grant T32GM135115 awarded to the Genetics and Genomics Interdisciplinary Program at Texas A&M University.

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.

stalled motor

moving motor

MreB

motor

inner complex

IM

bFAC

PG

outer complex

OM

substratum

bFAC assembled

adhesin

bFAC not assembled

Other bFAC components

A

M_xant	163	EGYLYPETYGVIPGKFDVEALIQRQLDAFAQRFFAPNRDTI-TKSGRTLHEVVVMASMLEREEPLPDQRPLVAGILWKRV
E_coli	88	EGWFWPDTWXYTANTTDVALLK-RAHKKXVKAVDSAWEGRADGLPYKDKNQLVTXASIIEKETAVASERDQVASVFINRL
M_tube	237	EGLIAPGTFNIDPSASAETILATLISAGAVEYMKSGLVDTAKSLGL-SPYDILVVASLVQQEAN-TQDFPKVARVIYNRL
S_coel	397	EGFLYPSSYSAAKGQKPADVLKQMVARANEQYEKIGLEQKAEGLGLEGPWELLTAASLVQAEGKTHEDFRKMAEVIYNRL
A_calc	100	EGLFAPNTYFFAKGETDKKILT-DLYHRQMKALDAAWANRAPNLPYKDKYEALIMASIVEKETSLDSELTQVSGVFVRRL
X_albi	95	EGRFLPETYLYQRGDSDLDLLR-RAHKAMDKALADAWDSRAAGLLLSSPEQALILASIVEKETALAAERPQIAGVFVRRL
N_meni	153	EGQFFPDSYEIDAGGSDLRIYQ-TAYKAMQRRLNEAWESRQDGLPYKNPYEMLIMASLIEKETGHEADRDHVASVFVNRL
R_prow	85	EGFLMPSTYFFSYGDQKDRIID-QMRNLMSTNLDEVMKYLSPDSPLKTRIDVLTLASIIEKEAGSNEEKPIIAAVFINRL
T_aqua	126	EGYLFPATYTFDLLATPEEVVR-AMLRRFEAELTPPVRQLLEERNL-SVHAWVTLASIVQVEAGSEAEMPKIAGVFLNRL

B

A

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

kDa

MreB

C

MltG_{Ec} −   MltG_{Ec} +

agmT+
ΔagmT
agmT^{EAEA}
ΔagmT
agmT^{EAEA}

lyzozyme −

kDa
63
48
35

lyzozyme +

63
48
35

B

agmT-PAmCh aglZ-yfp

YFP

5 µm

PAmCh