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 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 anchors to AgmT-modified PG to transmit mechanical across the PG cell wall.

Introduction

In natural ecosystems, the majority of bacteria attaches 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 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 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 cell

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 mechanic 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 *ΔaglR*
pilA⁻ cells that lack an essential component in the gliding motor, were unable to move
outward from the colony edge. Similarly, the *ΔagmT 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 resulted 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 bounds 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[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.

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

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

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

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

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

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

immobile[10,15]. We exposed *aglR-PAmCherry* cells to 405-nm excitation (0.2 kW/cm²) for 2

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

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

increased significantly in size (**Fig. 4C**). Accordingly, the immobile 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 immobile populations of AglR particles decreased to 10.5% (n = 2,989) and

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

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[11,33]. 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 stationary, 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 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/cm²) 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 to its abundancy, 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 ($1.8 \times 10^{-2} \pm 3.6 \times 10^{-3}$

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

(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 *ΔagmT* strain. To

test this hypothesis, we fused the *E. coli mltG* gene (*mltG$_{Ec}$*) to a vanillate-inducible

promoter and inserted the resulted construct to the *cuoA* locus on *M. xanthus*

chromosome that does not interfere gliding[35]. We subjected the *ΔagmT* and *agmT^{EAEA}*

cells that expressed MltG$_{Ec}$ to mecillinam (100 μg/ml) stress. Induced by 100 μM sodium

vanillate, MltG$_{Ec}$ restored cell morphology and integrity of the *ΔagmT* 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 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 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 *ΔagmT* 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 localizes 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 cell envelope, generating undulations on 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 rigorous shaking, or on CYE plates that contains 1.5% agar. All genetic modifications on *M. xanthus* were made on 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 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

337 using a Nikon Eclipse™ 600 microscope with a 10× 0.30 NA objective and an OMAX™

338 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 resulted 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 contains 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 µl each) were mixed with equal

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

Microscopy Analysis

For all imaging experiments, 5 µl 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 *ΔagmT* 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 $\pm$ 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 μM 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,. 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.

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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.

stalled motor

moving motor

MreB

motor

IM

inner complex

PG

bFAC

OM

outer complex

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

| *pilA* | *aglR pilA* | *agmT pilA* | *agmT^EAEA pilA* |

100 µm

| *agmT-PAmCh pilA* | *agmT pilA* P_{van}-vector | *agmT pilA* P_{van}-mltG$_{Ec}$ | *agmT^EAEA pilA* P_{van}-mltG$_{Ec}$ |

+ 200 µM Na vanillate

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

B   *agmT-PAmCh aglZ-yfp*

YFP

5 µm

PAmCh