Wall teichoic acids regulate peptidoglycan synthesis by paving cell wall nanostructure

Felix Barber[1], Zarina Akbary[1], Zhe Yuan[1], Jacob Biboy[2], Waldemar Vollmer[3], Enrique R. Rojas[1,*]

1: Center for Genomics and Systems Biology, New York University, New York 10003, United States.

2: Center for Bacterial Cell Biology, Newcastle University, Newcastle upon Tyne NE2 4AX, United

Kingdom.

3: Institute for Molecular Bioscience, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia.

*Correspondence: rojas@nyu.edu

Keywords: Rod complex, bacterial growth, cell shape, morphogenesis, *Bacillus subtilis*

Summary

The cell wall is a polymeric exoskeleton that defines the size and shape of bacteria; it is composed of

peptidoglycan and, in Gram-positive bacteria, wall teichoic acid polymers. Two systems synthesize

peptidoglycan in rod-shaped bacteria, which are found pervasively across bacterial clades: the multi-

protein Rod complexes synthesize anisotropic peptidoglycan, which is required for rod shape because it

reinforces the cell wall along its circumference[1–3], whereas the non-essential enzyme PBP1 synthesizes

isotropic peptidoglycan[1,4] (Fig. 1A). In Gram-positive bacteria, rod shape also requires wall teichoic acids[5]

for unknown reasons. Here, we show that wall teichoic acids promote rod shape by preventing the

formation of nanoscopic pores in the *Bacillus subtilis* cell wall, which lead to amorphous growth by

activating PBP1 and inhibiting Rod complexes. Depleting wall teichoic acids resulted in pores within

minutes, coinciding with a rapid increase in PBP1-mediated synthesis. PBP1's ability to sustain teichoic

acid-less growth depended on its intrinsically disordered domain. In contrast to previous steady-state

measurements[6,7], we found that wall teichoic acid depletion caused the transient arrest of Rod complexes

prior to the onset of amorphous growth. Finally, one of the two synthetically lethal cell wall hydrolases in

B. subtilis[8], LytE, became essential during wall teichoic acid depletion, meaning that PBP1 and LytE execute

a novel, amorphous mode of growth. Collectively, our results identify the cell wall, via its molecular-scale

structure, as a non-canonical auto-regulator of its own synthesis.

Introduction

The bacterial cell wall is a solid polymeric macromolecule that protects cells from lysis in many contexts,

including osmotic shock[9], pathogenesis[10] and antibiotic treatment[11]. The cell wall also prescribes cell

shape (Fig. 1A), which affects many aspects of cellular physiology[3,12,13] — a pervasive shape across bacteria

is the bacillus, or "rod"[14]. The cell wall consists primarily of peptidoglycan: glycan polymers that are

covalently crosslinked through short peptides. In Gram-positive bacteria, peptidoglycan is also covalently

modified with wall teichoic acids, anionic polymers of sugar alcohol-phosphate subunits (hereafter

"teichoic acids," distinct from the membrane-anchored lipoteichoic acids)[15,16]. Teichoic acids are usually

nonessential[5,17], however, inhibiting their synthesis causes *Bacillus subtilis* and *Listeria monocytogenes* to

grow slowly[5] and amorphously[17,18]. How teichoic acids enable rod-shaped morphogenesis is

unknown[5,17,18].

During rod-shaped cell growth, peptidoglycan is synthesized by two molecular mechanisms. First, the

essential, multi-protein Rod complexes synthesize anisotropic peptidoglycan that structurally reinforces

the cell wall along its circumference (Fig. 1A), providing the mechanical basis for rod shape[1,2]. Anisotropic

peptidoglycan synthesis results from the processive circumferential motion of Rod complexes along the

plasma membrane[19–21]. In *B. subtilis*, this motion is oriented by actin homologs MreB, Mbl and

MreBH[22,23,6], and is driven by peptidoglycan synthesis itself[19]. Circumferential motion, therefore, is a direct

indicator for Rod complex activity[24,25]. Within the Rod complex, peptidoglycan polymerization is catalyzed

by the transglycosylase RodA[26], drawing from lipid II precursors in the plasma membrane, while cross-

linking of nascent polymers to acceptor peptides within the existing cell wall is catalyzed by the

transpeptidases PBP2A and PBPH[4,27] ("Class B" PBPs).

The second mechanism is the non-essential, multi-domain enzyme PBP1 (a "Class A" PBP, encoded by

ponA[28]) that synthesizes isotropic peptidoglycan (Fig. 1A). PBP1 is thought to repair pores in the cell wall

that arise during the rapid cell-wall turnover required for cell growth[4,29]. Because Rod complexes

synthesize peptidoglycan anisotropically and PBP1 synthesizes it isotropically, the balance of their

expression determines cell width[1], and overexpression of PBP1 causes semi-amorphous growth[1].

Teichoic acids influence diverse cellular phenotypes including antimicrobial resistance[30,31], protein

localization within the cell envelope[32], pathogenesis[33], cation homeostasis[34,35] and autolysis[36–39]. It is

unclear, however, how these processes would account for the dependence of cell shape on teichoic acids

according to the Rod complex-PBP1 model. One possibility is that Rod complexes are directly,

biochemically activated by teichoic acids[40]. This model is consistent with the observations that teichoic

acid synthases and peptidoglycan synthesis machinery both exhibit punctate spatial patterning[41], and that

the syntheses of the two materials are co-local in both *B. subtilis*[42] and *Streptococcus pneumoniae*[43].

However, teichoic acid synthases do not exhibit the circumferential motion characteristic of Rod

complexes, and Rod complexes move processively along the cell membrane in amorphous cells depleted

for TagO, the enzyme that catalyzes the first committed reaction of teichoic acid synthesis[6,7]. Given these

conflicting data, there is no known mechanistic interaction between teichoic acids and either of the two

peptidoglycan biosynthesis pathways.

Results

Inhibiting wall teichoic acid synthesis reduces growth rate prior to cell shape loss

Bacillus subtilis mutants that lack teichoic acids (Δ*tagO*) grow amorphously and ≈4 times slower than

wild-type cells in bulk liquid culture[5]. To interrogate this dependence at the single-cell level, we measured

the dynamics of growth rate and cell shape upon teichoic acid depletion by using microfluidics to acutely

treat exponentially growing, wild-type *B. subtilis* cells with the small molecule tunicamycin (Fig. 1B), which

specifically inhibits TagO at low concentrations[31,44–46] (Fig. S1A,B,C). Approximately 10 minutes after

tunicamycin treatment, the median growth rate decreased from its steady-state value in rich medium

(LB), plateaued temporarily, and then decreased a second time until it reached its steady-state value in

tunicamycin (Fig. 1B, S2A). Cells retained their untreated rod shape until the second decrease in

elongation rate when they began to widen, eventually losing rod shape altogether (Fig. S2B). Amorphous

cells grew indefinitely (Video S1). We observed a similar decline in the single-cell growth rate prior to the

loss of cell shape when we acutely inhibited *tagO* transcription (Fig. S2C,D), during tunicamycin treatment

on agarose pads (Fig. S2E,F), and during tunicamycin treatment in minimal media (S750; Fig. S2G,H;

Methods).

Inhibiting wall teichoic acid synthesis reduces Rod complex activity

Although it was previously reported that inhibiting teichoic acid synthesis does not prevent Rod complex

motion during steady-state, amorphous cell growth[6,7], we hypothesized that the loss of cell shape results

from a quantitative or transient effect of teichoic acid depletion on Rod complex activity. To test this, we

measured the dynamics of Rod complex motion upon tunicamycin treatment by using total internal

reflection fluorescence microscopy to track a fusion of superfolder GFP and MbI[19,24,25], a protein scaffold

of the Rod complex. As we hypothesized, tunicamycin caused an acute decrease in the percentage of Rod

complexes that moved processively, (Fig. 1C), in the spatial density of processive Rod complexes (Fig. S3A),

and in Rod complex speed (Fig. S3B). These decreases were coincident with the first decline in cellular

growth rate (Fig. 1B). Following the second decrease in growth rate (and loss of cell shape; Fig. 1B) we

observed a small but reproducible recovery of Rod complex motion (Fig. 1C) against a higher background

of diffuse Mbl-sfGFP fluorescence than we observed in untreated cells (Fig. S3C, Videos S2-S7), consistent

with the previous observation of Rod complex motion in Δ*tagO* mutants[6]. Tunicamycin also inhibited Rod

complex motion as tracked via another Rod complex scaffold (MreB-mNeonGreen; Fig. S3D-F), and

inhibited Rod complexes in slow-growing cells in minimal media (S3G-I; *Methods*). Finally, like tunicamycin

treatment, transcriptional inhibition of *tagO* expression caused a decrease in each metric for Rod complex

activity (Fig. S3J-L). The decrease was more gradual for transcriptional inhibition, which we expected since

in this case TagO enzymes must be diluted by growth before teichoic acids are depleted.

Since Rod complexes synthesize peptidoglycan uniformly across the cell length, we hypothesized that this

distributed synthesis would be perturbed upon the Rod complex arrest associated with teichoic acid

depletion. To test this, we measured the localization of peptidoglycan synthase activity. First, we pulsed

exponentially growing cells with the fluorescent D-amino acid 7-hydroxycoumarin-3-carboxylic acid-

amino-D-alanine (HADA), which is incorporated into peptidoglycan by transpeptidases[47,48], for 5 min at

various times after tunicamycin treatment. Whereas in untreated cells HADA was incorporated uniformly

across the cell wall, tunicamycin treatment caused HADA to be incorporated as aberrant puncta (Fig. 1D),

consistent with a loss of distributed Rod complex synthesis. Tunicamycin had the same effect on the

dipeptide D-amino acid ethynyl-D-alanine D-alanine (EDA-DA), which is incorporated into peptidoglycan

precursors cytosolically[49] (Fig. S4B). Finally, transcriptional inhibition of *tagO* also caused punctal HADA

incorporation (Fig. S4A).

Since Rod complexes are the primary mode of peptidoglycan synthesis during vegetative growth, we

hypothesized that a loss of Rod complex activity during teichoic acid depletion would require increased

peptidoglycan synthesis by another mechanism, and that this shift would cause changes in the abundance

of specific types of peptidoglycan crosslinks. To test this, we performed high performance liquid

chromatography on purified, lysozyme-digested peptidoglycan from exponentially growing wild-type and

Δ*tagO* cells[50]. Deleting *tagO* caused a small increase in the percentage of un-cross-linked peptidoglycan

subunits, and a corresponding decrease in the percentage of dimeric cross-links (Fig. 1E, S5A). Conversely,

we observed increases in trimeric and tetrameric cross-links in Δ*tagO* cells that were reproducible but not

significant across two replicates (Trimers: 9.9% ± 0.1% for Δ*tagO* vs. 8.0% ± 0.7% for wild-type. Tetramers:

1.6% ± 0.2% for Δ*tagO* vs. 0.8% ± 0.1% for wild-type. Error is s.e.m.; Fig. S5B,C,D). The correlation of

trimeric and tetrameric cross-linking with reduced Rod complex activity is consistent with a previous study

that reported the reduction of these species in Δ*ponA* cells[50].

PBP1 is essential in the absence of wall teichoic acids

Since i) Rod complexes and PBP1 are the two principal modes of peptidoglycan synthesis during cell

growth, ii) teichoic acid depletion acutely inhibits Rod complex activity (Fig. 1C), and iii) cells lacking

teichoic acids grow amorphously with a cell wall that is rich in trimeric and tetrameric cross-links, as would

be expected from PBP1-mediated cell growth, we hypothesized that teichoic acid-less growth is driven by

PBP1. To test this, we first measured the effect of tunicamycin treatment on the growth, shape, and

viability of Δ*ponA* mutants. At the single-cell level, tunicamycin caused a decrease in the growth rate of

Δ*ponA* cells equivalent to the growth-rate decrease it caused in wild-type cells, except without the

transient plateau and subsequent shape loss (Fig. 2A). Rather, Δ*ponA* mutants exhibited pervasive lysis

after their growth rate decrease (Fig. 2B). Furthermore, concentrations of tunicamycin that permitted

amorphous growth of wild-type cells prevented growth of Δ*ponA* cells (Fig. 2C, S6A).

Teichoic acid-less cell growth was dependent on the glycosyltransferase activity of PBP1, since a mutant

incapable of this reaction (*ponA$_{GT-}$*) did not grow at concentrations of tunicamycin that permitted wild-

type growth (Fig. 2C; *Methods*). Similarly, tunicamycin inhibited the growth of a PBP1 mutant incapable

of transpeptidation (*ponA$_{TP-}$*; Fig. S6B)[51] 40-times more strongly than wild-type growth (Fig. 2C), and

caused only partial shape loss of this mutant prior to growth arrest (Fig. 2A inset). Tunicamycin may inhibit

the growth of the *ponA$_{GT-}$* mutant more than it inhibits that of the *ponA$_{TP-}$* mutant because PBP1

transpeptidase activity is dependent on glycosyltransferase activity[52]. In addition to its catalytic domains,

PBP1 also possesses a highly anionic 14kDa C-terminal intrinsically disordered domain, which stimulates

PBP1-mediated synthesis upon cell wall damage[29]; we found that tunicamycin inhibited the growth of a

mutant harboring a version of PBP1 lacking this domain (*ponA$_{ΔIDR}$*; Fig. 2C, S6B). Finally, transcriptional

inhibition of *tagO* expression in Δ*ponA* and *ponA$_{TP-}$* mutant backgrounds prevented growth in bulk culture

(Fig. S6C).

These results demonstrate that PBP1 activity is essential for the amorphous cell growth following teichoic

acid depletion, which inhibits Rod complexes. In this light, we hypothesized that amorphous growth would

require increased peptidoglycan synthesis by PBP1 upon teichoic acid depletion, concomitant with the

decline in Rod complex activity (Fig. 1C). To test this, we performed single-molecule tracking on a PBP1-

mNeonGreen fusion protein expressed at low levels, in addition to the native enzyme (Fig. 2D, S6D;

Methods). Previous studies demonstrated that PBP1 is stationary when it is actively synthesizing

peptidoglycan and rapidly diffuses when it is not[4]. Consistent with our hypothesis, we observed a stark

decline in PBP1 diffusion upon tunicamycin treatment, culminating in large, stable PBP1 puncta (Fig. 2D,

Videos S8-9).

To confirm that these PBP1 puncta were enzymatically active, we performed HADA staining after 90

minutes of tunicamycin treatment and measured the colocalization of PBP1 and HADA puncta. We found

that 67% of PBP1 puncta overlapped with HADA puncta, while a simulated random localization yielded an

overlap of only 36% (Fig. S6E). Furthermore, Δ*ponA* cells treated with tunicamycin did not display HADA

puncta (Fig. 1D), indicating that these puncta resulted from PBP1-polymerized peptidoglycan. However,

ponA$_{TP-}$ cells exhibited only a partial reduction in HADA puncta labelling compared to wild-type (Fig. 1D),

suggesting that other transpeptidases may partially complement PBP1 transpeptidation during teichoic

acid depletion. This is consistent with the incomplete growth inhibition of tunicamycin-treated *ponA*$_{TP-}$

cells, as opposed to the full arrest of tunicamycin-treated Δ*ponA* and *ponA*$_{GT-}$ cells (Fig. 2C).

To test whether PBP1 expression increases in concert with PBP1-mediated synthesis upon teichoic acid

depletion, we measured PBP1 abundance by western blot (Fig. 2E), and by labeling with the fluorescent

penicillin bocillin, which covalently binds transpeptidases at their active sites[53] (Fig. S6F-H). Upon

tunicamycin treatment, we observed a similar increase in PBP1 levels as measured with each assay (62%

± 8% by western blot, 80% ± 6% by bocillin labeling. Errors are s.e.m.). Notably, the increase in PBP1

bocillin labeling preceded the increase in PBP1 staining by western blot (Fig. S6H), on the same timescale

as decreased PBP1 diffusion/synthesis. The increase in PBP1 expression did not result from the SigI stress

response that is triggered by teichoic acid depletion[54], since we also observed increased PBP1 expression

in Δ*sigI* mutant cells (Fig. S6I).

Our results demonstrate that teichoic acid depletion causes an increase in PBP1 abundance and PBP1-

mediated synthesis, and that this enzyme becomes essential for growth without teichoic acids. Based on

previous studies[1], the increase in PBP1 expression that we measured is, alone, insufficient to cause the

degree of cell shape changes that we observed. Since our single-molecule measurements indicate that

PBP1-mediated synthesis increases upon teichoic acid depletion, our data are consistent with a model in

which teichoic acids inhibit peptidoglycan synthesis by PBP1 such that when teichoic acids are depleted

PBP1 outcompetes Rod complex for lipid II precursors leading to slow, amorphous cell growth and Rod

complex inhibition.

Given this model, we next questioned whether Rod complex motion also decreases in the absence of

PBP1. We assayed Rod complex motion during tunicamycin treatment in Δ*ponA* cells (*Methods*), finding

that Rod complex motion declined, but with a delay compared to wild-type cells (Fig. 2F, Videos S10-S11).

In this case, a mechanism besides competition for precursors must inhibit Rod complex function during

teichoic acid depletion.

Teichoic acid depletion results in a porous cell wall in the absence of PBP1

We next asked why PBP1 becomes activated during teichoic acid depletion, and why Rod complexes arrest

during teichoic acid depletion in Δ*ponA* cells. Since PBP1 is thought to fill pores in the cell wall[4] and is

conditionally essential in the absence of teichoic acids, we hypothesized that teichoic acids play a

complementary pore-filling role and that Rod complexes require a pore-less "confluent" cell wall on which

to synthesize new peptidoglycan. Furthermore, since intrinsically disordered domains sense cell wall

damage[29], likely through entropic translocation through pores in the cell wall[55], and deleting PBP1's

intrinsically disordered region prevents growth during teichoic acid depletion (Fig. 2C), we additionally

hypothesized that PBP1-mediated synthesis is stimulated by this domain when it senses natural pores in

the teichoic acid-less cell wall.

To test whether depleting teichoic acids results in pores within the cell wall, we leveraged a single-cell

microfluidics assay we recently developed[56]. In this assay, we used a brief pulse of detergent to lyse cells

expressing genetically encoded, cytosolic fluorescent probes and then measured the kinetics of the

probes' diffusion through the cell wall at the single-cell level — this provides an empirical measurement

of cell wall permeability (*Methods*). To measure the pore structure at different length scales, we used two

probes: mNeonGreen (27.5 kDa, minimal radius $R_{min} \approx 2.0$ nm[57]) and a new fluorogenic version of ubiquitin

that we developed (ubiquitin-FlAsH, 9.5 kDa, $R_{min} \approx 1.4$ nm).

We first measured the effect of teichoic acid depletion on cell wall permeability by treating wild-type and

Δ*ponA* cells with tunicamycin (Fig. 3A). To avoid confounding effects on cell wall permeability caused by

changes in peptidoglycan synthesis, we measured permeability before Rod complex activity began to

decline (10 min for WT and 20 min for Δ*ponA*). Contrary to our initial hypothesis, tunicamycin treatment

of wild-type cells resulted in a modest but reproducible decrease in the permeability of wild-type cell

walls, as measured with the mNeonGreen probe (Fig. 3A, S7A). Conversely, the same treatment resulted

in an increase in permeability in Δ*ponA* cells.

As an alternative approach to remove teichoic acids, we perfused cells with a purified phosphodiesterase,

GlpQ, that *B. subtilis* naturally expresses during phosphate starvation to digest and recycle its teichoic

acids[58] (*Methods*). Perfusing cells with GlpQ dissolved in phosphate buffer saline (PBS) for 15 minutes

reduced the abundance of teichoic acids within the cell wall (Fig. S8; *Methods*) and recapitulated the effect

of tunicamycin on cell wall permeability: it caused a modest decrease in mNeonGreen permeability in

wild-type cells but a large increase in permeability in Δ*ponA* cells (Fig. 3B, S7B). Together, these results

are consistent with a model in which teichoic acids occlude pores in the cell wall, and in which PBP1 is

activated by these pores via its intrinsically disordered domain to "seal" them, thereby preventing an

increase in cell wall permeability[56].

Treating Δ*ponA* cells with tunicamycin or GlpQ for durations approaching the cell-cycle time ($\approx$20 min)

could cause pore formation indirectly, for example, by inducing peptidoglycan hydrolysis unbalanced by

synthesis[36–39]. To control for this possibility, we measured cell-wall permeability during teichoic acid

digestion by GlpQ, reasoning that at short time scales after teichoic acid digestion, peptidoglycan

hydrolases would not have had time to meaningfully enlarge pores. Because we anticipated small,

incipient pores, we used our ubiquitin probe to test for them. When we simultaneously digested teichoic

acids and measured the loss of this probe in Δ*ponA* cells, we observed an increase in cell wall permeability

within 2 minutes of GlpQ treatment (Fig. 3C, S7C, S9A,B).

In concurrent work, we discovered that the size threshold for cell wall permeability is close to the size of

typical globular proteins[56]. We therefore hypothesized that the pores exposed during teichoic acid

depletion would cause increased labeling by peptidoglycan-binding proteins. To test this, we measured

whether teichoic acid depletion affected cell-wall labeling with a fluorescent lectin that specifically binds

to the N-acetyl glucosamine moiety of peptidoglycan. We observed an increase in labeling of both Δ*ponA*

cells and, to a lesser extent, wild-type cells following pre-treatment with tunicamycin (Fig. S9C). We

speculate that teichoic acid depletion in wild-type cells reduces cell wall permeability (Fig. 3A) but

increases lectin binding because PBP1 is membrane-bound and would therefore only fill pores near the

internal surface of the cell wall, leaving teichoic acid-less peptidoglycan on the outer surface exposed.

Our model that Rod complexes require a pore-less cell wall as their substrate made the prediction that

removing teichoic acids from Δ*ponA* cells by perfusing them with PBS-suspended GlpQ, which arrests cell

growth and leads to a permeable cell wall, would prevent Rod complex activity and cell growth upon re-

immersion in growth media. Consistent with this prediction, Δ*ponA* cells were unable to recover from

teichoic acid digestion but did not lyse upon re-immersion in growth media (Fig. 3D), whereas most wild-

type cells recovered (Δ*ponA*: 7% ± 2% recovered. Wild-type: 66% ± 2% recovered. Recovery counted as

reaching half the initial, unperturbed growth rate. Error is s.e.m.; Fig. 3E). Furthermore, wild-type cells

that resumed growth did so as rods and recovered Rod complex activity (Fig. 3Ei,iii), while cells that did

not recover showed no Rod complex motion (Fig. 3Eii,iv, S10A-D). Rod complex activity and cell growth of

both wild-type and Δ*ponA* cells recovered fully from incubation in PBS alone (Wild-type: 94% ± 1%

recovered growth. Δ*ponA*: 81% ± 2% recovered growth. Error is s.e.m.; Fig. S10E-G, S11A,B). This

correlation between pores, Rod complex activity and PBP1 is strong evidence that the Rod complexes

cannot add peptidoglycan to a porous cell wall. However, since GlpQ-treatment of wild-type cells does

not induce pores (Fig. 3C) but partially inhibits growth recovery (Fig. 3E), teichoic acid digestion must

additionally inhibit Rod complexes via a mechanism independent of pores, at least of those that are

detected by the mNeonGreen probe. We speculate that this results from the effect of spatially

heterogeneous peptidoglycan synthesis by PBP1 on Rod complexes (*Discussion*).

We reasoned that if pores in the cell wall inhibit Rod complex activity upon teichoic acid removal, then

shrinking these pores would activate Rod complexes, thereby promoting cell growth recovery after GlpQ

treatment. We tested this prediction by coupling the re-immersion of cells in rich media following GlpQ

treatment to a 500 mM hyperosmotic shock that physically contracted the cell wall[59]. To ensure that any

cell growth recovery resulted directly from cell wall contraction and not from PBP1 activity, we performed

this experiment in Δ*ponA* cells that are otherwise unable to grow following teichoic acid cleavage.

Consistent with our hypothesis, we found that hyperosmotic shock led to a partial growth recovery after

teichoic acid removal even in the absence of PBP1 (60% ± 2% recovered. Error is s.e.m.; Fig. 3F, S11C).

Finally, we sought to visualize the effect of teichoic acid depletion on the cell wall. Previously, atomic force

microscopy explicitly aimed at resolving peptidoglycan structure did not resolve a difference between

isolated cell wall sacculi before and after hydrofluoric acid treatment to remove teichoic acids[60].

Therefore, we used transmission electron microscopy to examine the effect of teichoic acid depletion on

cell wall ultrastructure. To do this, we performed high pressure freeze-substitution staining on chemically

fixed wild-type and Δ*ponA* cells that had been grown either in LB alone or that had been treated for 30

min with tunicamycin (*Methods*). We observed significant cell wall degradation of Δ*ponA* tunicamycin-

treated cell walls, visible both as general thinning of the cell wall relative to untreated cells, and as

localized regions of lower density within the wall (Fig. 3G, S12A). Neither phenomenon was present in

wild-type cells treated with tunicamycin (Fig. 3H, S12B). We also observed an electron-dense band on the

inner face of the untreated cell wall that is absent in tunicamycin-treated cells (Fig. 3H), consistent with

prior observations of a granular, teichoic acid-dependent layer supporting the Gram-positive periplasm in

Streptococcus pneumoniae[61]. Although this technique is incapable of resolving the nanoscale pores

detected by our permeability assays, these findings are consistent with the conclusion that PBP1 fills pores

within the cell wall during teichoic acid depletion, and that in Δ*ponA* cells, teichoic acid depletion causes

significant cell wall degradation, leading to a loss of Rod complex activity.

Rod complex inhibition and shape loss occur during teichoic acid depletion in hydrolase mutants

We finally questioned whether the cell wall degradation that occurs upon teichoic acid depletion in *ΔponA*

cells (Fig. 3A,B,G, S12A) depends on specific peptidoglycan hydrolases. Although *Bacillus subtilis* encodes

up to 42 putative hydrolases, cell growth can be sustained by either of two synthetically lethal D,L

endopeptidases: CwlO or LytE[8]. Furthermore, teichoic acid depletion significantly increases SigI-

dependent *lytE* expression[54]. Therefore, we measured the growth rate and width dynamics of Δ*cwlO* and

Δ*lytE* cells upon tunicamycin treatment, in the presence or absence of PBP1, and found that the initial

phases of these dynamics were identical to those of the respective background strains possessing both

hydrolases (Fig. S13A-D). Additionally, upon tunicamycin treatment, Rod complex activity decreased in

both hydrolase mutants, as it did in wild-type cells (Fig. S13E-J). Strikingly, at long times after either

tunicamycin treatment (Fig. S14A), or transcriptional inhibition of *tagO* (Fig. S14B), Δ*lytE* cells failed to

grow. This means that *lytE,* like *ponA,* is essential during teichoic acid depletion.

Discussion

Our data support a model in which teichoic acids occlude nanoscopic pores in peptidoglycan (Fig. 4A,B)

and prevent them from growing, which promotes rod shape by inhibiting PBP1 and enabling Rod complex

activity. According to this model, in wild-type cells teichoic acids limit PBP1's access to natural pores within

peptidoglycan by "filling" them and/or by "lining" the inner face of the cell wall (Fig. 4C). When teichoic

acids are depleted, PBP1's intrinsically disordered domain rapidly senses the pores, leading to an increase

in the relative amount of peptidoglycan that PBP1 synthesizes (Fig. 2D); we find it likely that the anionic

teichoic acids exclude the anionic intrinsically disordered domain from pores in the cell wall through

polymer-polymer repulsion, similar to the forces that govern macromolecular crowding[62]. Teichoic acid

depletion also leads to an increase in PBP1 abundance (Fig. S6F-I) via an unknown mechanism. PBP1 is

therefore the essential peptidoglycan synthase driving amorphous growth. This amorphous growth

manifests gradually, via an intermediate "dumbbell" morphology that may reflect local reinforcement of

the cell wall by septa[5] (Fig. S15). Our model explains prior observations that Rod complexes become

dispensable during teichoic acid depletion[63].

At slightly longer times, teichoic acid depletion leads to decreased activity of Rod complexes (Fig. 1C).

According to our model, this occurs in wild-type cells because increased PBP1-mediated synthesis inhibits

Rod complex activity by reducing the lipid II pool. Reducing lipid II synthesis is known to inhibit Rod

complex activity in both fast and slow growth conditions[25], and we observed a reduction of Rod complex

activity during teichoic acid depletion in both conditions (Fig. 1C, S3G-I). We speculate, however, that the

heterogenous spatial distribution of PBP1-synthesized peptidoglycan upon teichoic acid depletion

amplifies the inhibition of Rod complexes because one function of PBP1 in untreated cells is to contribute

to a dense, homogeneous "lawn" of acceptor peptides. This hypothesis is consistent with the impaired

Rod complex function of Δ*ponA* mutants during vegetative growth[64], which we suppressed with

supplemental magnesium (*Methods*). Localized PBP1 synthesis could inhibit Rod complexes if the latter

could only cross-link efficiently to recently synthesized peptidoglycan (or peptidoglycan that is still being

synthesized) due to either spatial or biochemical maturation of acceptor peptides (e.g. proximity to the

plasma membrane). The heterogeneity of immature peptidoglycan would not inhibit PBP1 since it is not

spatially processive, and can therefore cross-link to its own products.

In the absence of PBP1, teichoic acid depletion causes the simultaneous formation of nanoscopic pores in

the cell wall (Fig. 3C) and the eventual arrest of Rod complexes (Fig. 2D,3D). According to our model, the

pores exposed by teichoic acid depletion enlarge through hydrolysis without repair by PBP1 (Fig. 3A,B,

4A). When the pores become too large, the density of peptide acceptors becomes so low that Rod

complexes arrest for the same reason that pharmacological inhibition of Class B PBP transpeptidation

arrests Rod complexes[19–21]. Conversely, when these pores are contracted, Rod complex activity can

recover (Fig. 3F). The delay in Rod complex arrest that we observed in Δ*ponA* mutants compared to that

in wild-type cells is consistent with competitive inhibition of Rod complexes by PBP1.

Our model accounts for why Rod complex activity partially recovers at late times after teichoic acid

depletion, and in Δ*tagO* mutants. The transition from thin rods, to wide rods, to amorphous spheroids

directly lowers the growth rate and the surface area-to-volume ratio of the cells, which is expected to

increase lipid II levels by lowering the fraction of metabolic flux, per unit cell volume, needed for cell wall

expansion. Rod complexes therefore become partially active again, but not at a high enough level to

confer rod shape since PBP1 is constitutively de-inhibited and still directs peptidoglycan synthesis to

nascent, teichoic acid-less pores.

In addition to cell wall synthesis, teichoic acids also influence peptidoglycan hydrolysis during cell growth,

both directly and indirectly[36–39,54]. We found that *lytE* becomes essential during teichoic acid depletion for

cells grown in LB, meaning that stable, amorphous teichoic acid-less growth is driven by PBP1 and LytE.

However, deletion of *cwlO* or *lytE* had no effect on the growth, shape and Rod complex dynamics at early

times after teichoic acid depletion, indicating that teichoic acids do not differentially regulate these two

enzymes. Whether this conditional essentiality of *lytE* arises due to CwlO becoming inactive at long times

following teichoic acid depletion will be the subject of further study. Our data suggests that in addition to

directly occluding PBP1 from pores, teichoic acids also inhibit peptidoglycan hydrolysis during incubation

in PBS (autolysis), potentially through inhibition of LytC and LytD[56]. Teichoic acids' inhibition of hydrolysis

could therefore underlie our observation that GlpQ-mediated digestion of teichoic acids partially prevents

recovery of wild-type cells even though PBP1 activity prevents the formation of large pores (Fig. 3E). For

example, runaway PBP1 activity and hydrolysis during GlpQ treatment could create an irreversibly altered

cell wall incapable of supporting Rod complex activity.

B. subtilis cells depleted for wall teichoic acids often fail to separate and show aberrantly thick septa[5,6].

Our data is consistent with increased PBP1-mediated synthesis contributing to septal peptidoglycan

synthesis since Δ*ponA* cells show reduced septal HADA labeling relative to wild type cells during

tunicamycin treatment (Fig. 1D). However, since teichoic acid-depleted cells that are forced to maintain

rod shape through confinement grow and divide faster than their spherical counterparts[6], the loss of rod

shape clearly contributes substantially to this division defect.

In sum, wall teichoic acids are critical regulators of rod-shaped morphogenesis in Gram-positive bacteria

since they coordinately influence both modes of peptidoglycan synthesis as well as its hydrolysis. Our

study resolves the longstanding question of how teichoic acids promote rod-shape without directly

contributing to cell wall anisotropy. Furthermore, we establish a direct link between the molecular

structure of the cell wall and anisotropic cell wall synthesis, identifying the cell wall as a critical

autoregulatory factor of its own synthesis, rather than a passive substrate.

References

1. Dion, M. F. *et al.* Bacillus subtilis cell diameter is determined by the opposing actions of two distinct cell wall synthetic systems. *Nature Microbiology* **4**, 1294–1305 (2019).

2. Garner, E. C. Toward a Mechanistic Understanding of Bacterial Rod Shape Formation and Regulation. *Annual Review of Cell and Developmental Biology* **37**, null (2021).

3. Young, K. D. The Selective Value of Bacterial Shape. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews* **70**, 660–703 (2006).

4. Cho, H. *et al.* Bacterial cell wall biogenesis is mediated by SEDS and PBP polymerase families functioning semi-autonomously. *Nat Microbiol* **1**, 1–8 (2016).

5. D'Elia, M. A., Millar, K. E., Beveridge, T. J. & Brown, E. D. Wall Teichoic Acid Polymers Are Dispensable for Cell Viability in Bacillus subtilis. *Journal of Bacteriology* **188**, 8313–8316 (2006).

6. Hussain, S. *et al.* MreB filaments align along greatest principal membrane curvature to orient cell wall synthesis. *eLife* **7**, e32471 (2018).

7. Schirner, K. *et al.* Lipid-linked cell wall precursors regulate membrane association of bacterial actin MreB. *Nature Chemical Biology* **11**, 38–45 (2015).

8. Wilson, S. A., Tank, R. K. J., Hobbs, J. K., Foster, S. J. & Garner, E. C. An exhaustive multiple knockout approach to understanding cell wall hydrolase function in Bacillus subtilis. *mBio* **14**, e01760-23 (2023).

9. Rojas, E., Theriot, J. A. & Huang, K. C. Response of Escherichia coli growth rate to osmotic shock. *PNAS* **111**, 7807–7812 (2014).

10. Goldman, W. E., Klapper, D. G. & Baseman, J. B. Detection, isolation, and analysis of a released Bordetella pertussis product toxic to cultured tracheal cells. *Infection and Immunity* **36**, 782–794 (1982).

11. Sassine, J. *et al.* Functional redundancy of division specific penicillin-binding proteins in Bacillus

subtilis. *Molecular Microbiology* **106**, 304–318 (2017).

12. Barber, F., Min, J., Murray, A. W. & Amir, A. Modeling the impact of single-cell stochasticity and size

control on the population growth rate in asymmetrically dividing cells. *PLOS Computational Biology*

17, e1009080 (2021).

13. Barber, F., Ho, P.-Y., Murray, A. W. & Amir, A. Details Matter: Noise and Model Structure Set the

Relationship between Cell Size and Cell Cycle Timing. *Frontiers in Cell and Developmental Biology* **5**,

(2017).

14. Chang, F. & Huang, K. C. How and why cells grow as rods. *BMC Biol* **12**, 54 (2014).

15. Armstrong, J. J., Baddiley, J., Buchanan, J. G. & Carss, B. Nucleotides and the Bacterial Cell Wall.

Nature **181**, 1692–1693 (1958).

16. Armstrong, J. J. *et al.* Teichoic Acids from Bacterial Walls: Composition of Teichoic Acids from a

Number of Bacterial Walls. *Nature* **184**, 247–248 (1959).

17. Boylan, R. J., Mendelson, N. H., Brooks, D. & Young, F. E. Regulation of the Bacterial Cell Wall:

Analysis of a Mutant of Bacillus subtilis Defective in Biosynthesis of Teichoic Acid. *Journal of*

Bacteriology **110**, 281–290 (1972).

18. Eugster, M. R. & Loessner, M. J. Wall Teichoic Acids Restrict Access of Bacteriophage Endolysin

Ply118, Ply511, and PlyP40 Cell Wall Binding Domains to the Listeria monocytogenes Peptidoglycan.

J Bacteriol **194**, 6498–6506 (2012).

19. Garner, E. C. *et al.* Coupled, Circumferential Motions of the Cell Wall Synthesis Machinery and MreB

Filaments in B. subtilis. *Science* **333**, 222–225 (2011).

20. van Teeffelen, S. *et al.* The bacterial actin MreB rotates, and rotation depends on cell-wall assembly.

Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences **108**, 15822–15827 (2011).

21. Domínguez-Escobar, J. *et al.* Processive Movement of MreB-Associated Cell Wall Biosynthetic

Complexes in Bacteria. *Science* **333**, 225–228 (2011).

22. Carballido-López, R. *et al.* Actin homolog MreBH governs cell morphogenesis by localization of the

cell wall hydrolase LytE. *Dev Cell* **11**, 399–409 (2006).

23. Daniel, R. A. & Errington, J. Control of cell morphogenesis in bacteria: two distinct ways to make a

rod-shaped cell. *Cell* **113**, 767–776 (2003).

24. Billaudeau, C. *et al.* Contrasting mechanisms of growth in two model rod-shaped bacteria. *Nature

Communications* **8**, 15370 (2017).

25. Sun, Y., Hürlimann, S. & Garner, E. Growth rate is modulated by monitoring cell wall precursors in

Bacillus subtilis. *Nat Microbiol* **8**, 469–480 (2023).

26. Meeske, A. J. *et al.* SEDS proteins are a widespread family of bacterial cell wall polymerases. *Nature*

537, 634–638 (2016).

27. Wei, Y., Havasy, T., McPherson, D. C. & Popham, D. L. Rod Shape Determination by the Bacillus

subtilis Class B Penicillin-Binding Proteins Encoded by pbpA and pbpH. *Journal of Bacteriology* **185**,

4717–4726 (2003).

28. McPherson, D. C. & Popham, D. L. Peptidoglycan Synthesis in the Absence of Class A Penicillin-

Binding Proteins in Bacillus subtilis. *Journal of Bacteriology* **185**, 1423–1431 (2003).

29. Brunet, Y. R., Habib, C., Brogan, A. P., Artzi, L. & Rudner, D. Z. Intrinsically disordered protein regions

are required for cell wall homeostasis in Bacillus subtilis. *Genes Dev* **36**, 970–984 (2022).

30. Brown, S. *et al.* Methicillin resistance in Staphylococcus aureus requires glycosylated wall teichoic

acids. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **109**, 18909–18914 (2012).

31. Campbell, J. *et al.* Synthetic Lethal Compound Combinations Reveal a Fundamental Connection

between Wall Teichoic Acid and Peptidoglycan Biosyntheses in Staphylococcus aureus. *ACS Chem.

Biol.* **6**, 106–116 (2011).

32. Farha, M. A. *et al.* Inhibition of WTA Synthesis Blocks the Cooperative Action of PBPs and Sensitizes

MRSA to beta-Lactams. *ACS Chem. Biol.* **8**, 226–233 (2013).

33. Lu, Y. *et al.* Modulation of MRSA virulence gene expression by the wall teichoic acid enzyme TarO.

Nat Commun **14**, 1594 (2023).

34. Thomas, K. J. & Rice, C. V. Equilibrium binding behavior of magnesium to wall teichoic acid.

Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA) - Biomembranes **1848**, 1981–1987 (2015).

35. Wecke, J., Madela, K. & Fischer, W. The absence of D-alanine from lipoteichoic acid and wall teichoic

acid alters surface charge, enhances autolysis and increases susceptibility to methicillin in Bacillus

subtilis. *Microbiology (Reading)* **143**, 2953–2960 (1997).

36. Bonnet, J. *et al.* Nascent teichoic acids insertion into the cell wall directs the localization and activity

of the major pneumococcal autolysin LytA. *The Cell Surface* **2**, 24–37 (2018).

37. Wecke, J., Perego, M. & Fischer, W. d-Alanine Deprivation of Bacillus subtilis Teichoic Acids Is

without Effect on Cell Growth and Morphology But Affects the Autolytic Activity. *Microbial Drug*

Resistance **2**, 123–129 (1996).

38. Flores-Kim, J., Dobihal, G. S., Fenton, A., Rudner, D. Z. & Bernhardt, T. G. A switch in surface polymer

biogenesis triggers growth-phase-dependent and antibiotic-induced bacteriolysis. *eLife* **8**, e44912

(2019).

39. Flores-Kim, J., Dobihal, G. S., Bernhardt, T. G. & Rudner, D. Z. WhyD tailors surface polymers to

prevent premature bacteriolysis and direct cell elongation in Streptococcus pneumoniae. *eLife* **11**,

e76392 (2022).

40. Atilano, M. L. *et al.* Teichoic acids are temporal and spatial regulators of peptidoglycan cross-linking

in Staphylococcus aureus. *PNAS* **107**, 18991–18996 (2010).

41. Formstone, A., Carballido-López, R., Noirot, P., Errington, J. & Scheffers, D.-J. Localization and

Interactions of Teichoic Acid Synthetic Enzymes in Bacillus subtilis. *Journal of Bacteriology* **190**,

1812–1821 (2008).

42. Koyano, Y., Okajima, K., Mihara, M. & Yamamoto, H. Visualization of Wall Teichoic Acid Decoration

in Bacillus subtilis. *Journal of Bacteriology* **0**, e00066-23 (2023).

43. Bonnet, J. *et al.* One-Pot Two-Step Metabolic Labeling of Teichoic Acids and Direct Labeling of

Peptidoglycan Reveals Tight Coordination of Both Polymers Inserted into Pneumococcus Cell Wall.

ACS Chem. Biol. **13**, 2010–2015 (2018).

44. Bracha, R. & Glaser, L. An intermediate in teichoic acid biosynthesis. *Biochemical and Biophysical*

Research Communications **72**, 1091–1098 (1976).

45. Hancock, I. C., Wiseman, G. & Baddiley, J. Biosynthesis of the unit that links teichoic acid to the

bacterial wall: Inhibition by tunicamycin. *FEBS Letters* **69**, 75–80 (1976).

46. Mirouze, N., Ferret, C., Cornilleau, C. & Carballido-López, R. Antibiotic sensitivity reveals that wall

teichoic acids mediate DNA binding during competence in Bacillus subtilis. *Nat Commun* **9**, 5072

(2018).

47. Hsu, Y.-P. *et al.* Fluorogenic d -amino acids enable real-time monitoring of peptidoglycan

biosynthesis and high-throughput transpeptidation assays. *Nature Chemistry* **11**, 335–341 (2019).

48. Lupoli, T. J. *et al.* Transpeptidase-Mediated Incorporation of d-Amino Acids into Bacterial

Peptidoglycan. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **133**, 10748–10751 (2011).

49. Liechti, G. W. *et al.* A new metabolic cell-wall labelling method reveals peptidoglycan in Chlamydia

trachomatis. *Nature* **506**, 507–510 (2014).

50. Atrih, A., Bacher, G., Allmaier, G., Williamson, M. P. & Foster, S. J. Analysis of peptidoglycan

structure from vegetative cells of Bacillus subtilis 168 and role of PBP 5 in peptidoglycan maturation.

J Bacteriol **181**, 3956–3966 (1999).

51. Sauvage, E. & Terrak, M. Glycosyltransferases and Transpeptidases/Penicillin-Binding Proteins:

Valuable Targets for New Antibacterials. *Antibiotics* **5**, 12 (2016).

52. Bertsche, U., Breukink, E., Kast, T. & Vollmer, W. *In Vitro* Murein (Peptidoglycan) Synthesis by

Dimers of the Bifunctional Transglycosylase-Transpeptidase PBP1B from *Escherichia coli**. *Journal of*

Biological Chemistry **280**, 38096–38101 (2005).

53. Sharifzadeh, S., Dempwolff, F., Kearns, D. B. & Carlson, E. E. Harnessing β-Lactam Antibiotics for

Illumination of the Activity of Penicillin-Binding Proteins in Bacillus subtilis. *ACS Chem. Biol.* **15**,

1242–1251 (2020).

54. Kasahara, J. *et al.* Teichoic Acid Polymers Affect Expression and Localization of dl-Endopeptidase

LytE Required for Lateral Cell Wall Hydrolysis in Bacillus subtilis. *Journal of Bacteriology* **198**, 1585–

1594 (2016).

55. Halladin, D. K. *et al.* Entropy-driven translocation of disordered proteins through the Gram-positive

bacterial cell wall. *Nat Microbiol* **6**, 1055–1065 (2021).

56. Akbary, Z. *et al.* Peptidoglycan turnover promotes active transport of protein through the bacterial

cell wall. 2025.09.12.675941 Preprint at https://doi.org/10.1101/2025.09.12.675941 (2025).

57. Erickson, H. P. Size and Shape of Protein Molecules at the Nanometer Level Determined by

Sedimentation, Gel Filtration, and Electron Microscopy. *Biol Proced Online* **11**, 32–51 (2009).

58. Myers, C. L. *et al.* Identification of Two Phosphate Starvation-induced Wall Teichoic Acid Hydrolases

Provides First Insights into the Degradative Pathway of a Key Bacterial Cell Wall Component*.

Journal of Biological Chemistry **291**, 26066–26082 (2016).

59. Bardetti, P., Barber, F. & Rojas, E. R. Non-linear stress-softening of the bacterial cell wall confers cell

shape homeostasis. 2024.09.03.611099 Preprint at https://doi.org/10.1101/2024.09.03.611099

(2024).

60. Pasquina-Lemonche, L. *et al.* The architecture of the Gram-positive bacterial cell wall. *Nature* **582**,

294–297 (2020).

61. Nguyen, M. *et al.* Teichoic acids in the periplasm and cell envelope of Streptococcus pneumoniae.

eLife **14**, RP105132 (2025).

62. Delarue, M. *et al.* mTORC1 Controls Phase Separation and the Biophysical Properties of the

Cytoplasm by Tuning Crowding. *Cell* **174**, 338-349.e20 (2018).

63. Kawai, Y. *et al.* A widespread family of bacterial cell wall assembly proteins. *The EMBO Journal* **30**,

4931–4941 (2011).

64. Murray, T., Popham, D. L. & Setlow, P. Bacillus subtilis Cells Lacking Penicillin-Binding Protein 1

Require Increased Levels of Divalent Cations for Growth. *J Bacteriol* **180**, 4555–4563 (1998).

Figures

547
Fig. 1: Inhibiting wall teichoic acid synthesis decreases Rod complex activity prior to cell shape loss. (A)

Schematic of Gram-positive cell wall synthesis. **(B)** Cell length growth rate $\lambda_l = \frac{1}{l}\frac{dl}{dt}$ for wild-type cells

during 0.5 μg/mL tunicamycin treatment. Blue line shows smoothed population median, error bars show

standard deviation. Data shown for 2,048 discrete cell tracks from 3 biological replicates. Inset:

micrographs taken (i) before and (ii) after 45 min tunicamycin treatment. Scale bars 5 μm. **(C)** Time course

for the percentage of processive Mbl filaments during 0.5 μg/mL tunicamycin treatment. Error bars show

95% confidence intervals across biological replicates (bootstrap analysis). Analysis performed on 62,901

discrete filament tracks from 4 biological replicates. Inset shows representative fluorescent kymographs

of Mbl motion across the cell waist in (i) LB and (ii) after 30 min tunicamycin treatment. Red dotted line

follows a processive Mbl filament. Scale bars 1 μm. **(D)** Mean fluorescent puncta per unit cell length for

wild-type*, ΔponA* and *ponA$_{TP-}$* cells during tunicamycin treatment, labeled with fluorescent D-amino acids.

Error bars show 95% confidence intervals. Analysis performed over 2,017 segmentations from 4 biological

replicates (wild-type), 857 segmentations from 3 biological replicates (Δ*ponA*) and 257 cells from 2

biological replicates (*ponA$_{TP-}$*). All timepoints show statistical significance for difference in mean between

cell types (Student's T-test, P<0.01). Dots show individual replicates. Measurements at 50 min tunicamycin

treatment used a lower exposure time so are plotted separately. Inset shows micrographs of (i,iii,v) wild-

type and (ii,iv,vi) Δ*ponA* cells at (i,ii) 0 min, (iii,iv) 30 min, and (v,vi) 50 min of treatment. Micrographs are

identically saturated across cell types. Scale bars 5 μm. **(E)** Percentage of peptidoglycan subunits in

monomers, measured by HPLC (*Methods*). Two biological replicates per strain. Mean values calculated

across biological replicates. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals. Individual datapoints shown in red.

Statistical significance calculated using Student's T-test, P<0.05.

Figure 2: PBP1 is required for growth during wall teichoic acid synthesis inhibition. (A) Cell length growth

rate $\lambda_l = \frac{1}{l}\frac{dl}{dt}$ for Δ*ponA* cells during 0.5 µg/mL tunicamycin treatment. Orange line shows smoothed

population median, error bars show standard deviation. Analysis performed over 629 discrete cell tracks

from 5 biological replicates. Blue line reproduces wild-type data from Fig. 1A. Statistical significance

calculated between cell types at 25 min tunicamycin exposure using Student's T-test, P<0.01. Inset:

micrographs showing (i) wild-type, (ii) Δ*ponA* and (iii) *ponA*$_{TP-}$ cells following 90 min treatment with 0.5

µg/mL tunicamycin. Scale bars 5 µm. **(B)** Percentage of membrane-disrupted cells following tunicamycin

exposure, measured by propidium iodide staining. Solid line shows mean across all fields of view. Error

bars show standard deviation of the same. Analysis performed over 1,098 cells from three biological

replicates (Δ*ponA*) and 1,105 cells from two biological replicates (wild-type). Statistical significance

calculated for final timepoint using Student's T-test, P<0.01. Inset: micrographs of Δ*ponA* cells (i) before

and (ii) after 2 h tunicamycin treatment. Phase images overlaid with propidium iodide stain. Scale bars

5*µm*. **(C)** Maximum OD (optical density) for wild-type, *ponA*$_{\Delta IDR}$ (expressing PBP1 without its intrinsically

disordered region)*, ponA*$_{TP-}$ (expressing PBP1 with an inactive transpeptidase domain), Δ*ponA* and *ponA*$_{GT-}$

(inducibly expressing PBP1 with an inactive glycosyltransferase domain) with and without a low dose of

tunicamycin, grown in bulk culture. Data shown from one representative biological replicate out of three,

with four technical replicates per biological replicate. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals based on

bootstrap analysis. Inset: same data for WT, *ponA*$_{ΔIDR}$ and *ponA*$_{TP-}$ cells, plotted on log-scale. Statistical

significance tested with one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD post-hoc test for groups with and

without tunicamycin, P<0.01. **(D)** Diffusion exponent α for PBP1 puncta during a time course of

tunicamycin treatment (*Methods*). $\alpha = 1$: diffusive, $\alpha < 1$: sub-diffusive. Inset: kymographs of PBP1-

mNeonGreen motion for (i) untreated and (ii) 90 min tunicamycin-treated cells. Red arrow points to a

static PBP1-mNeonGreen spot during tunicamycin treatment. Total time: 4 s. **(E)** Western blot analysis of

PBP1 levels during 0.5µg/mL tunicamycin treatment. Bottom: Western blot bands for PBP1-FLAG and

identically loaded SigA control. Loading volumes normalized based on OD600 readings. Top:

Quantification of PBP1 staining, normalized by SigA stain and measured relative to values at 0min

tunicamycin treatment. Two biological replicates. Error bars show standard error of the mean. **(F)**

Percentage of processive Mbl-sfGFP filaments during tunicamycin time course of Δ*ponA* cells. Error bars

show 95% confidence intervals across biological replicates based on bootstrap analysis. Analysis

performed on 40,793 discrete filament tracks from three biological replicates.

Figure 3: PBP1 fills pores that are exposed upon wall teichoic acid removal, conferring growth. (A) mNeonGreen diffusion out of cells with disrupted membranes following a 10 min (wild-type) or 20 min (Δ*ponA*) incubation with LB supplemented with tunicamycin or with LB alone. Solid lines show population average, error bars show standard error of the mean. Wild-type untreated: 87 cells, 4 biological replicates. Wild-type tunicamycin: 139 cells, 3 biological replicates. Δ*ponA* untreated: 53 cells, 3 biological replicates. Δ*ponA* tunicamycin: 35 cells, 3 biological replicates. Inset: micrographs showing cellular fluorescence of tunicamycin-treated Δ*ponA* cells (i) before and (ii) 20 min after cell lysis. Scale bars 5 μm. **(B)** mNeonGreen diffusion out of lysed wild-type and Δ*ponA* cells following a 15-minute live-cell incubation with PBS supplemented with either 40 µM GlpQ in Buffer A or with Buffer A alone. Wild-type Buffer: 121 cells, 1 biological replicate. Wild-type GlpQ: 90 cells, 1 biological replicate. Δ*ponA* Buffer: 85 cells, 3 biological replicates. Δ*ponA* GlpQ: 108 cells, 3 biological replicates. Inset: micrographs showing cellular fluorescence of GlpQ-treated Δ*ponA* cells (i) before and (ii) 20 min after cell lysis. Scale bars 5μm. **(C)** Ubiquitin-FlAsH diffusion out of lysed Δ*ponA* cells following a 2 min incubation with PBS + 5% N-lauroylsarcosine supplemented with either 40 µM GlpQ or the equivalent volume of Buffer A. **(D)** Heat map showing growth

rate $\lambda_l = \frac{1}{l}\frac{dl}{dt}$ of Δ*ponA* cells following a 15 min incubation with 10μM native GlpQ (1,816 discrete tracks,

3 biological replicates). Heat map intensity is proportional to the number of cells with a given growth rate

at a given time, normalized across the total number of cells tracked at each timepoint. Inset: lack of

propidium iodide staining for Δ*ponA* cells 50 min after GlpQ incubation. (i) Phase contrast. (ii) Propidium

iodide stain. For positive stain, see Fig. 2B ii. Scale bars 5μm. **(E)** Same as (D) for wild-type cells (3,236

discrete tracks, four biological relicates). Inset: (i-ii) cell micrographs of (i) growing and (ii) non-growing

cells, and (iii-iv) kymographs of (iii) growing and (iv) non-growing cells, following the exit from GlpQ

treatment. Scale bars 5μm in (i,ii), 0.5 μm in (iii,iv). Red dotted line in (iii) follows a processive Mbl

filament. **(F)** Heatmap showing Δ*ponA* cell length growth rate $\lambda_l = \frac{1}{l}\frac{dl}{dt}$ when exit from a 15-minute

incubation with 10 μM GlpQ was coupled to a 500 mM hyperosmotic shock (3,036 discrete cell tracks, 3

biological replicates). **(G-H)** Transmission electron micrographs showing the sidewall of exponentially

growing cells grown in either LB or LB supplemented with 0.5 μg/mL tunicamycin for 30 min. Scale bars

100 nm. **(G)** Δ*ponA* cells. Red arrows in show sites of severe cell wall thinning during tunicamycin

treatment. Inset: average wall thickness for the growth conditions shown, calculated for 47 cells (LB) and

44 cells (tunicamycin). Statistical significance calculated using Student's T-test, P<0.01. **(H)** Wild-type cells.

Red arrow shows electron-dense band on the inner face of the cell wall, absent in tunicamycin-treated

cells. Inset: average wall thickness of wild-type cells for the growth conditions shown, calculated for 31

cells (LB) and 28 cells (tunicamycin). No statistically significant difference measured between conditions,

Student's T-test for P<0.01.

Figure 4: (A) Model illustration. During teichoic acid depletion of wild-type cells, denuded cell wall pores are targeted by PBP1, competitively inhibiting Rod complexes and driving localized peptidoglycan synthesis. This isotropic cell wall synthesis causes decreased growth and loss of cell shape. During teichoic acid depletion of Δ*ponA* cells, denuded cell wall pores directly arrest Rod complex motion through depletion of crosslinking acceptors. **(B)** Schematic of model described in (A).

Methods

Microscopy

All timelapse microscopy was performed with a Nikon Eclipse Ti2 microscope, outfitted with a

photometrics PRIME BSI CMOS camera (Teledyne Photometrics) and a Nikon 100X Plan Apo Phase

Contrast objective, NA 1.45. All non-TIRF fluorescence imaging used LED illumination. We conducted all

imaging using CellASIC ONIX microfluidic plates (Millipore B04A-03), using standard priming and media

exchange protocols. We heated all microscope stage components, CellASIC plates, and objectives to 37°C

prior to imaging using a microscope incubator outfitted with a heater. We performed our timelapse phase

contrast microscopy using 20s timesteps, monitoring medium exchange using the dye AlexaFluor 647 at

a final media concentration of 2.5μg/mL, with CY5 illumination adjusted to avoid any confounding effects

of phototoxicity.

Total Internal Reflection Fluorescence (TIRF) Microscopy

All TIRF microscopy was performed with the same Nikon Eclipse Ti2 microscope, using a COHERENT 488nm

laser and 100X Plan Apo objective, NA 1.45, with 2s timesteps. We adjusted our laser power, exposure

time and TIRF alignment to minimize photobleaching, and used a fresh field of view for each new

timepoint to avoid any confounding effects of phototoxicity.

Single Molecule Tracking

We performed single molecule tracking by imaging small fields of view with TIRF microscopy, using a

timestep of 90ms, laser power 1% and 40ms camera exposure time. To facilitate the rapid image

acquisition, the laser remained on constantly for the 4s acquisition. To facilitate single-molecule

resolution, we induced PBP1-mNeonGreen expression at low levels from a heterologous HyperSpank

promoter with 10uM IPTG (Isopropyl ß-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside), alongside unperturbed native PBP1

expression from the endogenous locus. Note: Videos S8 and S9 were acquired with imaging conditions

that visually emphasize the duration of PBP1 puncta during teichoic acid depletion, but that were not used

for single-molecule tracking because of their low time-resolution: time step = 500ms, exposure time 50ms,

15s time course, 1% laser power. We generated our image file structures for downstream analysis using

the ImageJ script tirf_pbp1_processing_v1.ijm. We then performed spot tracking using the python script

single_molecule_tracking_v1.py, which detected and tracked filaments as follows: we detected puncta

with SciKitImage's bloblog feature, using manually curated thresholds to start each timelapse (that were

then preserved within all timelapses acquired using that imaging condition). These thresholds were

iteratively reduced throughout each step of a single time course to maintain roughly equivalent levels of

spot detection. This allowed us to correct for partial photobleaching of the fluorescent signal. We tracked

individual puncta across successive images (all analysed images used a timestep of 90ms) by calculating

the minimum distance between all annotated puncta, subject to a maximum displacement threshold of

two pixels (equivalent to a linear distance of 186nm based on our magnification and camera size). We

then filtered to exclude all tracks with length 2 timepoints or less. Finally, we inferred the diffusion

exponents by applying linear regression to log-log plots for the population-averaged mean-squared

displacement of individual PBP1 puncta over time.

Cell culture and transformation

Unless otherwise stated, all cell culture was performed with LB media (Luria Broth, Lennox). All *in vivo*

imaging and spot-assay experiments were performed with log-phase cultures of OD600≤0.2.

Transformations were performed with competent *B. subtilis* cells grown in MC Media + 20mM $MgSO_4$,

then plated onto LB agarose plates. All cells were congenic with a PY79 strain background. Strains are

tabulated in Table S1. We note that expression of *ponA_{TG-}(E115A)* at high levels was toxic to cells, and

required media supplementation with 30mM $MgCl_2$. Similarly, our experiments on Rod complex tracking

in Δ*ponA* cells were performed with 10mM supplemental $MgCl_2$ to allow us to visualize processive

Rod complexes in this strain background.

S750 media

We used S750 defined minimal media following a recipe used previously[1]: 1x S750 salts, 1x S750 Metals,

1% Glucose, 0.1% Glutamate + distilled H2O to final volume.

10x S750 salts: 0.5 M MOPS (adjusted to pH 7.0 with KOH), 100 mM Ammonium Sulfate, 50 mM Potassium

Phosphate Monobasic (adjusted to pH 7.0). Filter sterilized.

100x S750 Metals: 0.2 M $MgCl_2$, 70 mM $CaCl_2$, 5 mM $MnCl_2$, 0.1 mM $ZnCl_2$, 100 µg/mL Thiamine HCl, 2 mM

HCl, 0.5 mM $FeCl_3$, dH_2O to final volume.

We performed our S750 experiments by first inoculating overnight S750 cultures from LB plates, then

back diluting the following morning into fresh S750 media and allowing these new cultures to grow to

exponential phase prior to starting an experiment.

Click Labeling of Peptidoglycan Precursors

We treated exponentially growing cultures with 1mM EDA-DA (ethynyl-D-alanine D-alanine, Fisher

Scientific 771410) for 20 min at 37°C. We then washed cell cultures once in PBS, before fixing cells

for 20 min on ice in PBS supplemented with 3.6% paraformaldehyde. We labeled the EDA-DA alkyne

group with Alexa Fluor 488 Azide (A10266) by following the Invitrogen Click-iT™ Cell Reaction Buffer

Kit (Thermo Fisher, C10269), but without supplementing with BSA (to ensure optimal diffusion

through the cell wall). We spotted cells onto PBS pads made with 2% agarose and imaged all

samples within 18 h of click-labeling. We generated different treatment conditions by inoculating

identical, prewarmed tubes of fresh growth media from a single exponentially growing culture. We

generated our tunicamycin-treated samples by pre-treating for 10 min with 0.5 μg/mL tunicamycin prior

to EDA-DA addition, for a total of 30 min drug exposure. By contrast, we added 50 μg/mL fosfomycin or 1

μg/mL vancomycin simultaneous with EDA-DA for a total of 20 min drug exposure.

Protein purification and application

Protein was purified according to the following, previously published method[2]: We incubated cell cultures

of bER461 in 500mL LB + 100 ug/mL Ampicillin and 35 ug/mL Chloramphenicol at 37°C with shaking until

they reached an OD600 of 0.6-0.8. We then shifted these cultures to 16°C, added IPTG (Isopropyl ß-D-1-

thiogalactopyranoside) to a final concentration of 0.5mM, and incubated with shaking for 18h. We

centrifuged these cultures at 4°C, resuspended in Buffer A (50 mM Tris-HCl + 200 mM NaCl + 1 mM CaCl2 +

1 mM MgCl2, pH 8.0) +25mM Imidazole and lysed by disruption in an Emulsiflex-C5. After disruption, we

incubated the supernatant with a column containing HisPur Ni-NTA Resin (ThermoFisher 88221), ran this

column over an Imidazole gradient, and visualized samples via SDS-PAGE with stain-free labeling (BioRad

1610183). We pooled column elutions containing high protein concentrations, performed dialysis at 4°C

overnight in Buffer A, concentrated our samples with Amicon Ultra Centrifugal Filters (10KDa molecular

weight cutoff), and flash-froze single-use aliquots with liquid nitrogen for storage at -80°C. We calculated

our protein concentration by nanodrop.

The Gram-positive cell wall imposes a substantial diffusion barrier to molecules above 15kDa[3]. At 30.1kDa,

GlpQ exceeds this limit substantially, rendering it necessary to partially degrade the cell wall to allow GlpQ

access to its target substrates. We accomplished this by performing all GlpQ incubations in PBS lacking

divalent cations for the times listed. This incubation simultaneously arrested peptidoglycan synthesis and

induced autolysis (cell wall degradation) by the cells' native autolysins. We made the PBS used to perform

these incubations according to the following recipe[4] (10X PBS, 1L): 80g NaCl, 2g KCl, 14.4g Na_2HPO_4, 2.4g

KH_2PO_4. Adjust pH to 7.4 with HCl.

In vivo **bocillin labeling**

We grew cell cultures to early log-phase, back diluted into prewarmed LB to create multiple identical, log-

phase samples, and added tunicamycin (MP Biomedical 0215002805 and Cell Signaling Technology 12819)

to each sample at successive time intervals of 10 min, to a final concentration of 0.5µg/mL. Prior to lysis,

we treated all cultures with bocillin-FL (Invitrogen, B13233) simultaneously to a final concentration of

1µg/mL, incubated for 2 min, then pelleted cells for cell lysate extraction. We treated cell pellets with lysis

buffer (20mM Tris pH 7.5, 1mM EDTA, 10mM $MgCl_2$, 1mg/mL Lysozyme, 1mM PMSF, 10ug/mL DNAse I,

100ug/mL RNAse A). We added fresh Lysozyme, PMSF, DNAse I and RNAse A to a lysis buffer stock for

each preparation. We then visualized cell lysates via SDS-PAGE (FastCast 10% Acrylamide, Bio-Rad

1610183) using a Cytiva Amersham Typhoon fluorescent imager.

Wall teichoic acid measurement by flow cytometry

We grew cell cultures to log-phase (OD600=0.1-0.2), then took two samples from a single cell culture,

washed 1X in PBS, and incubated in PBS + 40µM GlpQ or PBS + the equivalent volume of Buffer A for 15

min with rocking at 37°C. We then washed cells again 1X in PBS, and resuspended cells in PBS

supplemented with 200ug/mL of Concanavalin A-AlexaFluor 647 (Invitrogen, C21421) for 10min at 37°C,

with rocking. Concanavalin A is a lectin that binds glycosylation modifications along the teichoic acid

polymer[5,6]. We then washed cells again 1X in PBS, then resuspended samples in PBS for flow cytometry.

We performed our flow cytometry measurements with a Cytek Aurora set to 10,000 events per sample,

with gains adjusted to capture the full dynamic range of our population measurements. We consistently

calibrated the instrument to a low background (<10 events/second), and vigorously vortexed each sample

prior to acquisition. Since we were interested in statistics of the whole cell population, we performed

minimal gating (Fig. S6B). Since GlpQ preferentially cleaves non-glycosylated teichoic acids[2], the GlpQ-

mediated reduction in Concanavalin A staining for wild-type cells is likely an underestimate of GlpQ-

mediated teichoic acid cleavage. We used Δ*tagE* mutants to control for non-specific wheat-germ

agglutinin labeling, since TagE is responsible for teichoic acid glycosylation[7].

Image Analysis and Tracking

Cell tracking was performed using custom scripts written in FIJI (imagej.net), MATLAB (Mathworks, Natick,

MA,   USA)   and   Python,   all   of   which   are   available   online   at

https://github.com/felixbarber/WTA_peptidoglycan_nanostructure. We first applied the ImageJ scripts

image_process_updated.ijm and alignment_updated.ijm (for timelapse imaging, e.g. Fig. 1B) or

timepoint_imaging_v1.ijm (for discrete timepoint imaging, e.g. Fig. 1D) to generate the necessary tiff

image file structures for downstream segmentation and tracking in MATLAB. Our MATLAB timelapse

image analysis pipeline then involved the following steps: image alignment (imagealign_barber.m),

background removal (to avoid spurious detections, following eraseimagepart_barber.m), followed by cell

segmentation and tracking (BacTrack_barber.m). All cell segmentation was done based on phase contrast

images. Once phase contrast images were analyzed to generate individual cell masks (and cell tracks in

the case of timelapse imaging), we applied python scripts to analyze and plot the single cell characteristics,

and to integrate fluorescence data (for our discrete timepoint data series). The applicable python scripts

differ based on the purpose and plotting format for individual experiments, and a complete list of the

various different pipelines for different data formats is provided in the README file within our code

repository. Within these steps, we filtered our timelapse cell tracks to exclude cells tracks of 4 timepoints

or shorter, to exclude non-growing (dead) cells from analysis, and to remove sections of cell tracks with a

growth rate greater than two standard deviations away from the median growth rate (e.g. due to cell

divisions or mis-segmentations that combined multiple objects). For our cell staining experiments, we

calculated the cellular fluorescence by subtracting a background signal (obtained by normalizing a

Gaussian blur of the background signal across the cell mask), then calculating the statistics listed on the

pixel fluorescence values within individual cell masks. We performed spot detection (e.g. for Fig. 1D) with

SciKitImage's bloblog feature, using manually curated thresholds for each imaging condition, that were

then applied consistently across all images acquired using that condition (including across different cell

types).

MreB filament tracking

We detected and tracked our MreB and Mbl filaments using custom Python scripts as follows: first, we

generated our image file structures for downstream analysis using the ImageJ script tirf_processing.ijm.

We then applied the python script mreb_tracking_v3_py3.py, which detected, tracked and classified

filaments as follows: For filament detection, we applied SciKitImage's bloblog feature, using manually

curated thresholds to start each timelapse (that were then preserved within all timelapses acquired using

the same fluorescent fusion protein and imaging condition). These thresholds were iteratively reduced

throughout each step of a single time course to maintain roughly equivalent levels of spot detection. This

allowed us to correct for partial photobleaching of the fluorescent signal. We tracked individual puncta

across successive images (taken with a timestep of 2s) by calculating the minimum distance between all

annotated puncta, subject to a maximum displacement threshold of two pixels (equivalent to a linear

distance of 186nm based on our magnification and camera size, significantly greater than the average

displacement of a processive individual MreB or Mbl filament of roughly 80nm). We then filtered to

exclude all tracks with length 2 timepoints or less. To classify individual tracks as "ballistic", tracks had to

meet two criteria. First, we performed a linear regression on a log-log plot of distance (calculated between

successive points in each single puncta track and the track's starting position) versus time. If the slope of

this linear regression (the equivalent of ½ the "diffusion exponent" within single-molecule tracking, equal

here to 0.5 for diffusive behavior and 1.0 for ballistic, linear motion) was greater than 0.8, *and* if the R-

value of a linear regression for a standard plot of distances versus time (a metric for the goodness of fit

for linear motion) was greater than 0.9, we classified a track as ballistic.

Cell lysis tracking

We tracked cell lysis by perfusing cells with propidium iodide at a final concentration of 2μg/mL, imaging

every 5 min with 100 ms in the RFP channel at 10% power. Due to a high level of background signal

following cell lysis, we annotated cell lysis events using the semi-automated custom ImageJ macros

lysis_annotation_lysed_cells_updated.ijm and lysis_annotation_plain_cells_updated.ijm. These macros

allowed the user to provide annotations for lysed cells and all cells respectively within each image of a

propidium iodide-stained timecourse, which were then integrated and plotted using the python script

lysis_timelapses.py.

Analysis of peptidoglycan composition

Peptidoglycan was prepared from cell lysates and analysed by high-performance liquid chromatography

(HPLC) as previously described[8]: cell lysates were prepared from 500 mL of cell culture by boiling the cells

(100°C) for 30 min in the presence of 5% SDS to inactivate autolysins. The SDS was removed from the

insoluble cell wall preparation by repeated centrifugation (130,000 x *g* - 60 min)), the crude cell wall

washed with 1 M NaCl and twice with dionized water (dH$_2$O), and resuspension in dH$_2$O. The pellet was

resuspended in 2 to 4 mL of dH$_2$O, 1/3 volume of acid-washed glass beads (diameter of 0.17–0.18 mm,

Sigma, München, Germany) was added, and cell walls were disrupted in a FastPrep machine (FP120,

Thermo Scientific, Hemel Hempstead, UK). Broken cell walls were separated from the glass beads through

filtration and collected by ultracentrifugation as above. Cell walls were incubated at 4°C with DNase A and

RNase (for 2 h) and then with trypsin (18 h), and then incubated with 1% SDS at 80°C for 15 min. The cell

walls were then washed with 8 M LiCl, 20 mM EDTA and water, and lyophilized. The attached wall teichoic

acid was removed by treatment with 48% hydrofluoric acid (48 h at 4°C). The resulting peptidoglycan was

recovered by centrifugation and washed once with 50 mM Tris/HCL pH 7.0 and then with ice-cold distilled

water until a neutral pH was achieved. The peptidoglycan was digested with cellosyl (gift from Hoechst,

Germany) and the resulting muropeptides recovered were reduced with sodium borohydride and

separated by HPLC on a 250 × 4.6 mm 3-μm Prontosil 120-3-C$_{18}$ AQ reversed-phase column (Bischoff,

Leonberg, Germany) maintained at 52°C. A 270 min linear gradient reverse phase separation was

performed using 40 mM NaPO$_4$ pH 4.5, 0.003%NaN$_3$ (buffer 1, called buffer A in prior work but renamed

here to avoid confusion with our GlpQ protein buffer) and 40 mM NaPO$_4$ pH 4.0, 20% MeOH (buffer B)[9].

Muropeptides were detected by their absorbance at 202 nm and structures were assigned by comparison

to published chromatograms[9].

Permeability Assays

Cells were grown to log-phase and diluted 20-fold into a pre-warmed medium within the loading well of

a pre-heated CellASIC B04A microfluidic flow cell. The cells incubated for an additional 30 minutes prior

to loading into the imaging chamber. While imaging, fresh medium was perfused through the flow cell.

The cell-trapping mechanism used by the microfluidic chips had no detrimental effect on the elongation

or morphology of cell chains, as compared with cells growing on agarose pads or liquid culture[7].

To perform membrane lysis, we exchanged the medium in the flow cell with media + 5% N-

lauroylsarcosine (Sigma Aldrich L9150) for two minutes. We monitored detergent exchange using the dye

AlexaFluor 647 at a final media concentration of 5 μg/mL and imaged with CY5 illumination, 640 nm

excitation at 10% intensity and 50 ms exposure. After membrane lysis, the detergent in the flow cell was

exchanged for media to wash the cells.

Because both tunicamycin and GlpQ are temperature sensitive, all handling steps were performed to

better preserve reagent stability: tunicamycin and GlpQ were introduced into the microfluidic device

concurrently with the cells. At the end of the culture back-dilution, a 5 mg/mL tunicamycin stock aliquot

was thawed briefly and subjected to two successive 1:100 dilutions in LB before being loaded into the

chip. GlpQ aliquots were thawed on ice for approximately 30 min and diluted in PBS immediately prior to

use. Since PBS-mediated hydrolysis is sensitive to divalent cation concentration, an equal volume of Buffer

A was diluted in PBS as a control.

For the experiments in Figure 3A, cells expressing mNeonGreen were imaged every minute in our GFP

channel (480 nm excitation from an LED light source, Lumencor Aura Light Engine) at 100% power and 50

ms exposure. To mitigate photobleaching, no images were acquired were acquired from one minute after

the onset of tunicamycin treatment to five minutes prior to detergent exchange. Wild-type and Δ*ponA*

cells were exposed to 0.5 µg/mL tunicamycin for 10 minutes and 20 minutes respectively, corresponding

to time points during which Rod complex activity halts in each strain.

For the experiments in Figure 3B, cells expressing mNeonGreen were imaged in our GFP channel at 100%

power and 50 ms exposure: every minute for seven minutes, not acquired for eight minutes during Buffer

A/GlpQ perfusion, every minute for 10 minutes, and then every five minutes for 1 hour. Cells were

exposed to GlpQ or Buffer A for 15 minutes prior to membrane lysis.

For the experiment in Figure 3C, cells expressing a tetracysteine-tagged ubiquitin, we imaged in our GFP

channel at 10% power and 50 ms exposure every minute for the first 10 minutes and every five minutes

afterwards. To label the tetracysteine-tagged ubiquitin, we incubated cells with 1 µM FlAsH-EDT$_2$ (4',5'-

bis(1,3,2-dithiarsolan-2-yl)-3',6'-dihydroxy-spiro[isobenzofuran-1(3H),9'-[9H]xanthen]-3-one;   Cayman

Chemical 20704) for one hour prior to diluting the cells into the loading well, which also had 1 µM FlAsH-

EDT$_2$ in the medium. To perform membrane lysis and wall teichoic acid hydrolysis simultaneously, the

medium in the flow cell was exchanged with PBS + 5% N-lauroylsarcosine + GlpQ (or Buffer A) for two

minutes. We then perfused the cells with PBS + GlpQ (or Buffer A). As a control for non-specific binding of

FlAsH, we performed the same experiment in Buffer A with uninduced cells and subtracted the mean

uninduced fluorescence from the fluorescence trace of each cell.

The fluorescence from the frames during lysis were interpolated. The cellular trace was corrected for

photobleaching and then normalized to the final pre-lysis frame.

To perform the photobleaching controls[3], cells were imaged at one frame per minute during the initial

seven minutes of the experiment prior to cell lysis. After membrane lysis, the cells were imaged at frame

rates that were much more rapid than the rate of protein efflux.

Limitations: our permeability assay can quantitatively assess pores in the cell wall empirically, but cannot

resolve the distribution of pore sizes[3]. For example, we could not distinguish between 10 pores that allow

the passage of one mNeonGreen enzyme at a time, or one pore that allows 10 mNeonGreen enzymes to

pass through simultaneously. Additionally, while we controlled for the effect of the isoelectric point (pI)

of the probe, we have not yet explored whether there are other electrical properties of the probe that

influence permeability through the wall (for example, the net charge or distribution of acidic/basic

residues throughout the protein).

Permeability photobleaching correction

Population-averaged fluorescence traces were fit to a single exponential:

251 $$y = A\,e^{-x\rho}$$

where y = normalized fluorescence, A is the initial post-lysis normalized fluorescence value, ρ = the

photobleaching constant, and x is the frame number (Figure S7, S9).

For mNeonGreen, the mean background value is subtracted from the mean fluorescence of each cell and

normalized by the fluorescence of the final pre-lysis frame.

For FlAsH, the mean background value and mean autofluorescence is subtracted from the mean

fluorescence of each cell. The mean autofluorescence was obtained by measuring the fluorescence of

uninduced cells incubated with FlAsH-EDT$_2$.

To correct for photobleaching, the expected loss of fluorescence due to photobleaching was calculated,

263 $$dC_B = \; C_i * \rho$$

264   where C_B = bleached fluorophore, C_i = measured fluorescence in the *i*th frame, and r = photobleaching

265   constant (obtained from the photobleaching control). The total loss of fluorescence (dC_T) in each frame is

266   adjusted to account for the expected loss of fluorescence due to photobleaching,

267 $$dC_T = \; C_{i+1} - C_i$$

268 $$dC_U = dC_T + dC_B$$

269 $$C_{i+1} = C_i + dC_U$$

where dC_U is the change in unbleached fluorophore.

Transmission Electron Microscopy

We performed transmission electron microscopy on thin sections of formaldehyde-fixed freeze-

substituted *B. subtilis* cells as follows: we grew cultures of wild-type and Δ*ponA* cells to log-phase, then

back diluted into either fresh LB medium or LB supplemented with 0.5μg/mL tunicamycin for 30 min. We

then pelleted cells by centrifugation for 4 min at 3500 RPM, washed 1X in PBS, and resuspended in 1 mL

freshly made LRR fixative solution[10] (0.5 mL 0.15% ruthenium red, 125 μL 16% formaldehyde, 0.0155

g lysine acetate (Sigma); distilled water to 1 mL).

Samples were then subjected to high pressure freezing and freeze substitution. 3 mm planchettes

100 mm deep were lightly coated with hexadecene before being filled with approximately 1.2mL of fixed

sample. An absorbent filter paper was used to soak out extra liquid, and then the sample was allowed to

dry slightly for ~ 5 min. The hats were then sealed in the planchette holder for high-pressure freezing

(Leica ICE High Pressure Freezing Platform, Leica Microsystems). The frozen samples were immediately

transferred into liquid nitrogen and then into cryovials containing freeze substitution solutions (2 mL

cryovials (Nalgene) containing 2% (wt/vol) osmium tetroxide (OsO_4) and 0.1% (wt/vol) uranyl acetate in

anhydrous acetone with 0.075% (wt/vol) ruthenium red and 2% H_2O) at liquid nitrogen temperature. The

samples were brought into a Leica AFS2 EM freeze substitution unit (Leica Microsystems) and left in the -

90°C for 79 hours. Since the acetone:osmium mixture liquifies at -90ºC, the hats were slowly submerged

in the freeze substitution media. The temperature of the unit was raised 5°C per hour to −60°C and

incubated for 12 hours, then to −30°C for an additional 6 hours, and finally to a temperature of 0°C for 6

hrs.

After removal from freeze substitution unit, samples were washed in pure ethanol 3 x 1 hour on ice to

rinse out osmium. They were then washed with 1:1 100% ethanol:LR White resin for 2 hours on ice, 1:2

100% ethanol:LR White resin overnight at 4ºC, pure LR White resin for 8 hours on ice, and finally pure LR

White resin overnight at 4ºC. Samples were then embedded in gelatin capsules filled with LR White resin

at room temperature and polymerized for 48 hours at 55-60 ºC. Thin sections were cut onto 200 mesh

grids and counterstained with 4% aqueous uranyl acetate for 5 min. Stained grids were examined using a

JEOL1400 Flash transmission electron microscope (Japan) and photographed with a Gatan Rio 16 camera

(Gatan Inc. Pleasanton, CA). All chemicals and EM grids are purchased from Electron Microscopy Sciences,

Hatfield, PA.

Note: TEM sample preparations of wild-type and Δ*ponA* mutants were performed as separate batches,

with Δ*ponA* mutant samples being exposed to LRR fixative solution for up to 10 min longer than wild-

type cells immediately following lysis. We attribute this difference to the darker cell wall appearance

of Δ*ponA* mutants relative to wild-type cells, making it difficult to compare absolute cell wall

thickness between these cell types.

Data Availability

All datasets presented herein will be made publicly available.

Code Availability

All code used herein is publicly available at:

https://github.com/felixbarber/WTA_peptidoglycan_nanostructure

314 Methods References

1. Flórez, A. F. *et al.* BatCRISPRi: Bacillus titratable CRISPRi for dynamic control in Bacillus subtilis.

2023.11.01.565046 Preprint at https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.11.01.565046 (2023).

2. Myers, C. L. *et al.* Identification of Two Phosphate Starvation-induced Wall Teichoic Acid Hydrolases

Provides First Insights into the Degradative Pathway of a Key Bacterial Cell Wall Component*. *Journal*

of Biological Chemistry **291**, 26066–26082 (2016).

3. Akbary, Z. *et al.* Peptidoglycan turnover promotes active transport of protein through the bacterial

cell wall. 2025.09.12.675941 Preprint at https://doi.org/10.1101/2025.09.12.675941 (2025).

4. Phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). *Cold Spring Harb Protoc* **2006**, pdb.rec8247 (2006).

5. Koyano, Y., Okajima, K., Mihara, M. & Yamamoto, H. Visualization of Wall Teichoic Acid Decoration in

Bacillus subtilis. *Journal of Bacteriology* **0**, e00066-23 (2023).

6. Lang, W. K. & Archibald, A. R. Relation between wall teichoic acid content and Concanavalin A binding

in Bacillus subtilis 168. *FEMS Microbiology Letters* **20**, 163–166 (1983).

7. Allison, S. E., D'Elia, M. A., Arar, S., Monteiro, M. A. & Brown, E. D. Studies of the genetics, function,

and kinetic mechanism of TagE, the wall teichoic acid glycosyltransferase in Bacillus subtilis 168. *J Biol*

Chem **286**, 23708–23716 (2011).

8. Bui, N. K. *et al.* Isolation and analysis of cell wall components from *Streptococcus pneumoniae*.

Analytical Biochemistry **421**, 657–666 (2012).

9. Atrih, A., Bacher, G., Allmaier, G., Williamson, M. P. & Foster, S. J. Analysis of peptidoglycan structure

from vegetative cells of Bacillus subtilis 168 and role of PBP 5 in peptidoglycan maturation. *J Bacteriol*

181, 3956–3966 (1999).

10.   Hammerschmidt, S. *et al.* Illustration of Pneumococcal Polysaccharide Capsule during Adherence

and Invasion of Epithelial Cells. *Infection and Immunity* **73**, 4653–4667 (2005).

11.   Koo, B.-M. *et al.* Construction and Analysis of Two Genome-scale Deletion Libraries for Bacillus

subtilis. *Cell Syst* **4**, 291-305.e7 (2017).

12.   Liechti, G. W. *et al.* A new metabolic cell-wall labelling method reveals peptidoglycan in

Chlamydia trachomatis. *Nature* **506**, 507–510 (2014).

Acknowledgements

ERR and FB were supported by NSF-CAREER grant 2047404. WV received funding from the UK

Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council (BBSRC) (BB/W013630/1). ZA was supported by

NIH grant R35GM143057. We thank Ethan Garner and the Garner Lab (both past and present) for

generously sharing strains; we have particularly benefitted from strains built by prior Garner Lab members

Mrinal Kapoor, Mike Dion, Yingjie Sun and Sean Wilson. We also thank the Brown lab for sharing their

GlpQ expression construct. We thank Dr. Daniela Vollmer for preparation of peptidoglycan. We thank

NYULH Microscopy Lab Alice Liang, Jason Yin and Jason Liang (partially supported by NYU Cancer

Center Support Grant NIH/NCI P30CA016087) for consultation and timely preparation of the

electron microscopy works.

Author Contributions

FB, ZA, ZY, JB and LPL performed the experiments. FB, ZA, ZY, JB and LPL analyzed the data. FB and ER

wrote the manuscript.

Declaration of Interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Extended Data: Tables

Table S1: List of strains used in this study.

Strain ID	Genotype/Plasmid	Figures in this study	Source	Method
bGL01	WT	1(B,D,E), 2(A-C), S1(A-C), S2(A,B,E-H), S4(B), S5, S6(A,E-G), S7, S8(C), S10(A), S11(A,C), S12	Gift from Garner Lab	NA
bEG176	*ΔtagO::erm*	1E, S1(B,C), S5, S7(A)	Gift from Garner Lab	NA
bEG291	*ΔtagO::erm, ycgO::PxylA-tagO cat*	S2(C,D), S4(A), S6(B), S12(B)	Gift from Garner Lab	NA
bYS009	*ΔmreB::mreB-40aa-mNeonGreen*	S3(D-F)	Gift from Garner Lab	NA
bYS147	*amyE::Phyperspank-mNeonGreen::erm*	3(A,B)	Gift from Garner Lab	NA
bMD122	*Δmbl::sfGFP-mbl spec*	1(C,E), 3(E), S3(A-C,G-I), S9, Videos S2-S7,S12-S15	Gift from Garner Lab	NA
bMD599	*ΔponA::kan*	1(D), 2(A-C), 3(D,F), S2(E,F), S6(A), S8(C), S10(B,C), S11(B,D)	Gift from Garner Lab	NA
bMD643	*ΔponA::ponA-FLAG spec*	2(E), S6(G)	Gift from Garner Lab	NA
bMK210	*amyE::erm-Phyperspank(MkII)-mNeonGreen-15aa-ponA*	2(D), S6(C,D), Videos S8-9	Gift from Garner Lab	NA
bMK296	*amyE::erm-Pxyl-ponA(E115A), ΔponA::cat*	2(C), S6(A)	Gift from Garner Lab	NA

bSW23	*ΔcwlO::erm*	S11(A,C), S12(A)	Gift from Garner Lab	NA
bSW295	*ΔlytE::kan*	S11(A,C), S12(A)	Gift from Garner Lab	NA
bFB012	*Δmbl::sfGFP-mbl spec, ΔtagO::erm, ΔycgO::PxylA-tagO*	S3(J-L)	This study	bEG291 transformed with bMD122 gDNA.
bFB22	*ΔlytE::kan, Δmbl::sfGFP-mbl spec*	S11(H-J)	This study	bSW295 transformed with bMD122 gDNA.
bFB26	*ΔcwlO::erm, Δmbl*::sfGFP-mbl spec	S11(E-G)	This study	bSW23 transformed with bMD122 gDNA.
bFB83	*ΔponA::kan, Δmbl::sfGFP-mbl spec*	2(F), Videos S10,S11	This study	bMD599 transformed with bMD122 gDNA.
bFB87	*ΔponA::kan, ΔcwlO::erm*	S11(B,D)	This study	bSW23 transformed with bMD599 gDNA.
bFB93	*ΔponA::erm, ΔlytE::kan*	S11(B,D)	This study	bSW295 transformed with ponA::erm construct from BKE22320 (Bacillus genetic stock center[11]).
bFB145	*ΔponA::ponA(S390A) kan*	1(D), 2(A,C), S6(A)	This study	bGL01 transformed with Gibson assembly of oFB166/155 fusion PCR product (from oFB166/oFB157 and oFB156/oFB155 PCR products with bGL01 gDNA) and oFB154/oFB148 PCR product with bMD599 gDNA.
bFB149	*ΔponA::ponA kan*	Video S1	This study	Same as bFB145 but did not take up point mutation in S390A.
bFB155	*ΔtagE::erm*	S7(A)	This study	bGL01 transformed with PCR product of oTY001 and oTY002 on BKE35730 gDNA.
bFB177	*ΔtagO::erm, ycgO::PxylA-tagO cat ΔlytE::kan*	S12(B)	This study	bEG291 transformed with bSW295 gDNA.
bFB215	*ΔtagO::erm, ΔycgO::PxylA-tagO cat ΔponA::kan*	S6(B)	This study	bEG291 transformed with bMD599 gDNA.
bFB221	*ΔcwlO::kan*	NA	This study	bGL01 transformed with PCR product of oFB049 and oFB050 on BKK34800 gDNA.
bFB226	*ΔpbpD::kan*	NA		bGL01 transformed with PCR product of oTY038 and oTY039 on BKK31490 gDNA.

bFB236	*ΔtagO::erm, ycgO::PxylA-tagO cat, ΔcwlO::kan*	S12(B)	This study	bEG291 transformed with bFB221 gDNA.
bFB262	*ΔtagO::erm, ΔycgO::PxylA-tagO cat, ΔpbpD::kan*	S6(B)	This study	bEG291 transformed with bFB226 gDNA.
bFB264	*ΔtagO::erm, ΔycgO::PxylA-tagO cat, ΔponA::ponA(S390A)-kan*	S6(B)	This study	bEG291 transformed with bFB145 gDNA.
bFB305	*ΔtagO::erm, ycgO::PxylA-tagO, ΔlytF::kan*	S12(B)	This study	bEG291 transformed with PCR product of oFB270 and oFB271 on BKK09370 gDNA.
bFB317	*ΔponA::ponA-FLAG spec ΔsigI::kan*	S6(I)	This study	bMD643 transformed with PCR product of oFB279 and oFB281 on BKK13450 gDNA.
bFB319	*ΔponA::ponA(ΔIDR)-FLAG-kan*	2(C), S6(A)	This study	bGL01 transformed with Gibson assembly of PCR product of oFB159 and oFB290 on bGL01 gDNA and PCR product of oFB289 and oFB148 on bFB145 gDNA.
bER461	*Escherichia coli BL21(DE3) pDest17-glpQ*	3(B,C,D,E,F), S7, S8, S9, S10, S11	Gift from Brown Lab[2]	NA
bER565	*amyE::Phyperspank-ubiquitin-TC::erm*	NA	Rojas Lab	See Akbary *et al.*[3]
bER607	*ΔponA::kan, amyE::Phyperspank-ubiquitin-TC::erm*	3(C), S8(A,B)	Rojas Lab	bMD599 transformed with bER565 gDNA.
bER608	*ΔponA::kan, amyE::Phyperspank-mNeonGreen::erm*	3(A,B)	Rojas Lab	bMD599 transformed with bYS147 gDNA.
BKE35730	*trpC2 ΔtagE::erm*	NA	BGSC	
BKK31490	*trpC2 ΔpbpD::kan*	NA	BGSC	
BKE22320	*trpC2 ΔponA::erm*	NA	BGSC	
BKK09370	*trpC2 ΔlytF::kan*	NA	BGSC	
BKK34800	*trpC2 ΔcwlO::kan*	NA	BGSC	
BKK13450	*trpC2 ΔsigI::kan*	NA	BGSC	

361   **Table S2:** List of primers used in this study.

Name	Sequence	Purpose
oFB008	CAGGGAGCACTGGTC	Confirm insertion of bMD122 mbl construct in bFB26.
oFB020	CTTCGTATAATGTATGCTATACGA	Confirm insertion of ponA::erm in bFB93.
oFB041	ATTTTTATTCAATTAGGGAATATCTTGTTC CATCCGATTATCACGCAGGGAGCACTGGTC	Confirm insertion of bMD122 mbl construct in bFB26.
oFB049	CTTATGAAGTGCTTTCTCATAATG	Confirm deletion of cwlO in bFB221, bFB236.
oFB050	ATGTGAAACTCGTATGACAG	Confirm deletion of cwlO in bFB221, bFB236.
oFB051	TGCTTGTTTAGTTGTCACAT	Confirm deletion of lytE in bFB177.
oFB052	TCAAAGCTGTGATTCAGTG	Confirm deletion of lytE in bFB177.
oFB053	CTATACGAATAGCTTAGACAGC	Confirm construction of bFB145, bFB149, bFB177, bFB215.
oFB054	TAACAAGACGAACTCCAATTC	Confirm construction of bFB145, bFB149, bFB177, bFB215.
oFB055	GCGAACAATCAAGATAGGG	Confirm insertion of bMD122 mbl construct in bFB12, bFB22, bFB83.
oFB056	TCGATCAATGCAATGTCTG	Confirm insertion of bMD122 mbl construct in bFB12, bFB22, bFB83.
oFB059	CACGAAAAACAAATGATTAAGAAGCGTGCA AAAATCACGAATTAATTCTGCTCCCTCGCT	Confirm insertion of bMD122 mbl construct in bFB26.
oFB063	TTCTGCTCCCTCGCT	Confirm insertion of bMD122 mbl construct in bFB26.
oFB077	GTGAATAGCTCACTTATCAGATTA	Confirm insertion of ponA::erm in bFB93.
oFB094	TACAGCTCGATAATCTTTTCAG	Confirm construction of bFB221, bFB236, bFB262, bFB305.
oFB095	TTTGAACGGCATGATGG	Confirm construction of bFB221, bFB236, bFB262, bFB305.
oFB115	GAAAGGTTGATTAACGAAAGG	Confirm insertion of ponA deletion construct from bMD599 into bFB87.
oFB116	CGATAAAACCTCCTGTTAAAAC	Confirm insertion of ponA deletion construct from bMD599 into bFB87. Confirm construction of bFB264.
oFB146	CAATTGAGACAGCTGCTT	Amplify ponA::erm to construct bFB93.
oFB147	GAGGAGAACAATTCTGGC	Confirm insertion of ponA::erm in bFB93.
oFB148	AGGTGACAATCGTGTTAAAT	Amplify ponA::erm to construct bFB93. Construction of bFB145, bFB149, bFB319. Confirm construction of bFB215.
oFB149	CTCAGTTTCCGCTACATTG	Confirm construction of bFB93, bFB145, bFB149, bFB319.
oFB154	AAATTAAACAAAAAAGCCGTCACCTTTGG	Construction of bFB145, bFB149.

	GGTGATGGCTTTTTTGTTCTGCTCCCTCGCT	
oFB155	ATCACCCCAAAGGTGACGGCTTTTTTGTTTA ATTTGTTTTTTCAATGGATGATGAGTTTG	Construction of bFB145, bFB149.
oFB156	CTCAAACTAAGGCACAGCCTGGTGCGACCA TAAAACCGATTTTGGACTACGGACCAGTTA	Construction of bFB145, bFB149.
oFB157	CCAAAATCGGTTTTATGGTCGCACCAGGCTG TGCCTTAGTTTGAGTAGCATAGTTAAAGC	Construction of bFB145, bFB149.
oFB159	TGGACTACGGACCAGTTA	Confirm construction of bFB145, bFB149. Construction of bFB319.
oFB164	CTCAGAAGCTTTCTGATGG	Confirm construction of bFB215.
oFB166	GATGCGGTATACCTTCTCAA	Construction of bFB145, bFB149.
oFB168	CGCAATTACTCTAAAGATGAAATT	Confirm construction of bFB319.
oFB171	CACACCGCAATATACAGC	Confirm construction of bFB319.
oFB173	AAGACTCAGGATGATACACA	Confirm construction of bFB264.
oFB174	CGGTATAATCTTACCTATCACC	Confirm construction of bFB319.
oFB245	CGTATGGCAATGGGTCTTG	Confirm construction of bFB262.
oFB246	GTTCATATTTATCAAGCTTTATAATAGCATAA TGGCTA	Confirm construction of bFB262.
oFB269	CTTGTCTCAAGTTGTCGGTATG	Confirm construction of bFB305.
oFB270	TCTGCTCTTTACAGCTGA	Construction of bFB305.
oFB271	CTGTTGAAAGTACAGGAGC	Construction of bFB305.
oFB272	CACACGGATTTGATTGATCTAAGC	Confirm construction of bFB305.
oFB279	GCATATTATTGACGTATAAAATCATATTTCTTG	Construction of bFB317.
oFB281	TGAACCTTGGTTCTGATACA	Construction of bFB317.
oFB289	ATGAGGTGCCAAAAGCTGATTATAAAGATGA TGATGATAAATAAACAAAAAAGCCGTCAC	Construction of bFB319.
oFB290	GACGGCTTTTTTGTTTATTTATCATCATCATCT TTATAATCAGCTTTTGGCACCTCATAA	Construction of bFB319.
oTY001	CACCGTACAGAAATATGCG	Construction of bFB155.
oTY002	ATATATTCGTAAATCGCTCTCG	Construction of bFB155.
oTY003	CGGAATCCATAATGGAAGC	Confirm construction of bFB155.
oTY004	AACATAACCGTCTGAATAACC	Confirm construction of bFB155.
oTY038	GATTCATCCCGACATCTCT	Construction of bFB226.
oTY039	GTAAGCTAGCCATTTCAGC	Construction of bFB226.

Extended Data: Figures

Figure S1: (A) Low doses of tunicamycin do not decrease peptidoglycan precursor synthesis. We

pulsed exponentially growing cells with the dipeptide D-amino acid EDA-DA (ethynyl-D-alanine D-

alanine), which is incorporated into peptidoglycan precursors cytosolically[12], before fixing and

"clicking" with AlexaFluor 488 azide (*Methods*). Plot shows average intensity of AF488 labeling for

cells co-treated with the drugs shown, normalized against staining for cells grown in LB

supplemented with EDA-DA alone. Staining increased during tunicamycin treatment (relative to

EDA-DA alone), and during co-treatment with both tunicamycin and vancomycin (relative to co-

treatment with vancomycin), consistent with a rerouting of precursors to peptidoglycan synthesis

during TagO inhibition. Staining decreased only partially for vancomycin treatment relative to LB

alone, consistent with AF488 labeling both nascent peptidoglycan and lipid II. Fosfomycin treatment

arrests peptidoglycan precursor synthesis at the inner face of the plasma membrane so is a negative

control. Untreated cells were not exposed to EDA-DA but were clicked with AF488 azide to control

for off-target AF488 labeling. Analysis was performed over 1,533 cells (LB, 5 experimental

replicates), 1,063 cells (tunicamycin, 5 experimental replicates), 810 cells (tunicamycin +

vancomycin, 3 experimental replicates), 1,081 cells (vancomycin, 4 experimental replicates), 555

cells (fosfomycin control, 4 experimental replicates), and 473 cells (untreated, 4 experimental

replicates). All differences between conditions were significant (one-way ANOVA followed by

Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) post-hoc test, P<0.01), with the exception of

comparisons between fosfomycin-untreated and between LB-tunicamycin+vancomycin. Inset:

phase contrast and fluorescence micrographs of cells from (i) LB, (ii) tunicamycin and (iii) fosfomycin

conditions. Fluorescence micrographs are identically saturated. Scale bars 5µm. **(B-C) Low**

tunicamycin concentrations inhibit growth to precisely the same extent as deletion of *tagO*. (B) Growth

curves of cells grown with increasing tunicamycin concentrations in bulk culture. **(C)** Saturating culture

density plotted for data from (A). Representative data from one of three biological replicates, with 4

technical replicates per condition. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals based on bootstrap

analysis. Complete growth arrest consistently occurs at either 16µg/mL or 24µg/mL tunicamycin.

Figure S2: (A) Cell surface area growth rate $\lambda_S = \frac{1}{S}\frac{dS}{dt}$ for wild-type cells during 0.5μg/mL tunicamycin

treatment. Analysis performed over 1,927 discrete cell tracks from 3 biological replicates. In all plots,

solid lines show smoothed population medians, error bars show standard deviations across cells. Black

lines show onset of perturbation (tunicamycin treatment, inducer depletion or cell spotting onto agarose

pads). **(B)** Cell width of wild-type cells during 0.5µg/mL tunicamycin timecourse. Solid line shows

smoothed population median, error bars show standard deviation. Black lines show onset of tunicamycin

treatment. Increase in width corresponds to gradual loss of cell shape. Analysis performed over 3,737

discrete cell tracks from 3 biological replicates. **(C-D)** Cell properties during growth response of P_{xylA}-*tagO*

cells to xylose depletion. **(C)** Cell length growth rate. Analysis performed over 1,217 discrete cell tracks

from 3 biological replicates. **(D)** Cell width. Analysis performed over 1,846 discrete cell tracks from 3

biological replicates. **(E-F)** Cell growth and shape response to tunicamycin treatment on agarose pads. **(E)**

Cell length growth rate. Analysis performed over 204 discrete cell tracks from 4 biological replicates (WT

LB), 160 discrete cell tracks from 3 biological replicates (WT tunicamycin) and 93 discrete cell tracks from

3 biological replicates (Δ*ponA* LB). Growth rate during tunicamycin-treatment shows immediately slower

growth, with oscillations, followed by a sustained secondary decline at approximately 30 min (coincident

with shape loss, see (F)). WT cells grown in LB alone showed an abrupt growth decline at 45 min with no

shape loss. This late-stage decline was not observed for the slower-growing Δ*ponA* cells, consistent with

local nutrient depletion in these roughly 1mm-thin agarose pads. WT LB and WT Tunicamycin time

courses show statistical significance based on Student's T-test, P<0.01, calculated at first

measured timepoint. **(F)** Cell width. Analysis performed over 535 discrete cell tracks from 4 biological

replicates (WT LB), 432 discrete cell tracks from 3 biological replicates (WT tunicamycin) and 214 discrete

cell tracks from 3 biological replicates (Δ*ponA* LB). WT LB and WT Tunicamycin time courses show

statistical significance based on Student's T-test, P<0.01, calculated at last measured timepoint (63

min). **(G-H)** Time course of 0.5µg/mL tunicamycin exposure for WT cells grown in S750 media. **(G)** Cell

length growth rate. Analysis performed over 249 discrete cell tracks from 2 biological replicates. **(H)** Cell

width. Analysis performed over 307 discrete cell tracks from 2 biological replicates.

Figure S3: (A-B) Mbl-sfGFP activity time course for wild-type cells during 0.5μg/mL tunicamycin treatment. Analysis performed on 62,901 discrete filament tracks from 4 biological replicates. All error bars show 95% confidence intervals across biological replicates based on bootstrap analysis. **(A)** Spatial density of processive filaments. **(B)** Average speed of processive filaments. **(C)** (i-ii) Representative kymographs from TIRF imaging of Mbl-sfGFP cells after 60 min tunicamycin treatment. Red dotted line follows a processive Mbl filament. Scale bars 1μm. (iii-iv) TIRF micrographs showing whole cells during a single timepoint of the kymographs in (i-ii) respectively. Yellow lines show kymograph traces. Scale bars 5μm. **(D-F)** MreB-

mNeonGreen activity time course for wild-type cells during 0.5μg/mL tunicamycin treatment. Analysis

performed on 30,805 discrete filament tracks from 3 biological replicates. **(D)** Percentage of processive

filaments. **(E)** Spatial density of processive filaments. **(F)** Average speed of processive filaments. **(G-I)** Mbl-

sfGFP activity time course for wild-type cells grown in S750 media during 0.5μg/mL tunicamycin

treatment. Analysis performed on 9,859 discrete filament tracks from 2 biological replicates. **(G)**

Percentage of processive filaments. **(H)** Spatial density of processive filaments. **(I)** Average speed of

processive filaments. **(J-L)** Mbl-sfGFP activity time course of of P_{xylA}-*tagO* cells during xylose depletion.

Analysis performed on 55,542 discrete filament tracks from 3 biological replicates. **(J)** Percentage of

processive filaments. **(K)** Spatial density of processive filaments. **(L)** Average speed of processive filaments.

Figure S4. (A) Mean fluorescent puncta per cell (normalized to cell length) for P_{xylA}-*TagO* cells during

xylose depletion, labeled with fluorescent D-amino acids. Black line shows xylose washout. Error bars

show 95% confidence intervals. Analysis performed over 680 segmentations from 2 biological replicates.

Inset shows micrographs at (i) 5 min and (ii) 65 min following xylose depletion. Micrographs are

identically saturated across timepoints. **(B)** Mean EDA-DA AF488 click-labeled puncta per cell

(normalized to cell length) for wild-type cells during co-treatments with antibiotics shown. Analysis

was performed over 1,533 cells (LB, 5 experimental replicates), 1,063 cells (tunicamycin, 5

experimental replicates), 810 cells (tunicamycin + vancomycin, 3 experimental replicates), 1,081

cells (vancomycin, 4 experimental replicates), 555 cells (fosfomycin control, 4 experimental

replicates), and 473 cells (unstained, 4 experimental replicates). All differences between conditions

were significant (one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD post-hoc test, P<0.01) with the exception

of comparisons between vancomycin, tunicamycin+vancomycin and fosfomycin. Inset: fluorescent

micrographs of AF488 labeling in cells cultured with (i) LB alone and (ii) tunicamycin. Micrographs

are identically saturated across conditions. Scale bars 5μm.

Figure S5: (A-C) Percentage peptidoglycan subunits in **(A)** dimers, **(B)** trimers and **(C)** tetramers. Two biological replicates per strain. Mean values calculated across biological replicates. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals. Individual datapoints shown in red. Statistical significance calculated using Student's T-test, P<0.05. Differences for (B) and (C) are not statistically significant by this metric but reflect visible shifts in high time peaks that are consistent between samples (see (D)). **(D)** High-performance liquid chromatograms of reduced muropeptide samples isolated from wild-type and $\Delta tagO$ cells. Elution regions of the uncross-linked monomers and cross-linked dimers, trimers and tetramers are shown, and the three main muropeptides are labelled. Tri(NH$_2$), GlcNAc-MurNAc(red)-L-Ala-D-iGlu-mDap (1 amidation); TetraTri(NH2), GlcNAc-MurNAc(red)-L-Ala-D-iGlu-mDap-D-Ala-mDap-D-iGlu-L-Ala-(GlcNAc)MurNAc(red) (1 amidation); TetraTri(NH2)2, GlcNAc-MurNAc(red)-L-Ala-D-iGlu-mDap-D-Ala-mDap-D-iGlu-L-Ala-(GlcNAc)MurNAc(red) (2 amidations). GlcNAc, N-acetylglucosamine; MurNAc(red), N-acetylmuramitol; L-Ala, L-alanine; D-iGlu, D-isoglutamic acid; mDap, meso-diaminopimelic acid; D-Ala, D-alanine.

Figure S6: (A) Maximum OD for wild-type and Δ*ponA* cells with and without a low dose of tunicamycin,

grown in bulk culture in S750 minimal media. Data shown from one representative biological

replicate out of three, with four technical replicates per biological replicate. Error bars show 95%

confidence intervals based on bootstrap analysis. Statistical significance calculated using Student's

T-test, P<0.01. **(B)** SDS-PAGE on cell lysates from cultures incubated with fluorescently conjugated

bocillin. Black arrow shows wild-type PBP1, which is present in wild-type and *ponA$_{GT-}$* strains, shifted in

ponA$_{\Delta IDR}$ cells, absent in Δ*ponA* cells, and not labeled in *ponA$_{TP-}$* cell lysates. **(C)** Spot assays for WT, Δ*ponA*,

ponA$_{TP-}$ and Δ*pbpD* mutant strains in a *P$_{xylA}$-tagO* background, grown in the presence and absence of

30mM xylose. **(D)** log-log plot of mean-squared displacement vs. time for single molecule tracking of

PBP1 puncta, throughout a time course of tunicamycin treatment. Slopes correspond to the

diffusion exponent α in Fig. 2D of the main text. Data plotted from one representative biological

replicate of three. **(E)** Co-localization of fluorescent puncta within epifluorescent imaging of (i) PBP1-

mNeonGreen expressed at a low level alongside the native copy of *ponA*, and (ii) fluorescent labeling

with HADA. Cells were imaged following 90 minutes exposure to tunicamycin and a 5-minute

incubation with HADA. White circles show computationally detected HADA puncta, red circles show

the same for PBP1. Inset: the percentage of PBP1 puncta that overlap with HADA puncta, both for

our measured data and for the same PBP1 puncta when distributed randomly throughout the cell

masks. Analysis performed on 3,320 PBP1 puncta and 6,253 HADA puncta across two biological

replicates. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals based on bootstrap analysis, statistical

significance calculated by Student's T-test, P<0.01. **(F)** SDS-PAGE of *B. subtilis* whole cell lysates

shows bocillin-PBP binding during tunicamycin treatment. Arrows show PBP1, PBP2A/PBP2B and

PbpD bands. Cells were treated with fluorescent bocillin for two minutes prior to cell lysis. One

representative sample shown from 3 biological replicates. **(G-H)** Quantification of (F), showing the

ratio of **(G)** PBP1 to PBP2A/PBP2B and **(H)** PBP1 to PbpD intensities (normalized to value at 0 min;

PbpD staining showed no sustained trend during tunicamycin treatment). Error bars show standard

error of the mean across 3 biological replicates. Western blot data reproduced from Fig. 2E. **(I)**

Western blot analysis of PBP1 levels during 0.5μg/mL tunicamycin treatment of a Δ*sigI* mutant. Left:

Western blot bands for PBP1-FLAG and identically loaded SigA control. Loading volumes normalized

based on OD600 readings. Right: Quantification of PBP1 staining, normalized by SigA stain and

measured relative to values at 0min tunicamycin treatment. One biological replicate.

Figure S7: Statistical significance and decay statistics for cell wall permeability assay. (A) mNeonGreen fluorescence at t=35 min for wild-type and Δ*ponA* cells either treated with tunicamycin or untreated. Statistical significance determined via one-way ANOVA (p = 1.9e-27) followed by Tukey's HSD post-hoc test for multiple comparisons (p-values shown in figure). (B) mNeonGreen fluorescence at t=35 min for wild-type and Δ*ponA* cells either treated with GlpQ in PBS or PBS alone. Statistical significance determined via one-way ANOVA (p = 8.7e-32) followed by Tukey's HSD post-hoc test for multiple comparisons. All p-values are shown in the figure, except for wild-type untreated vs. *ponA* + GlpQ (p = 2.5e-18) and WT + GlpQ vs *ponA* untreated (p = 9.9e-15). (C) mUbiquitin fluorescence upon wash (as indicated by the arrow on the fluorescence vs time graph, right) following incubation of Δ*ponA* cells with detergent +/- GlpQ. Statistical significance calculated using Student's T-test with p = 7.11e-6.

Figure S8: (A) Mean fluorescence intensity of Concanavalin A-AlexaFluor647 cell staining, following

incubation either with PBS + Buffer A, or with PBS + GlpQ, measured by flow cytometry. GlpQ-treated

cells show decreased Concanavalin A staining relative to PBS-treated cells, consistent with GlpQ

enzymatically cleaving teichoic acids from the cell wall. Δ*tagO* cells show no such decrease in

Concanavalin A staining upon GlpQ incubation, and Δ*tagE* cells lacking the enzyme responsible for

teichoic acid glycosylation show negligible labeling. We observed increased Concanavalin A-

staining in Δ*tagO* cells relative to wild-type that was amplified during GlpQ treatment, possibly due

to the clumping phenotype of this mutant. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals across 3

biological replicates, 10,000 samples per replicate. All conditions show statistically significant

differences as measured by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD post-hoc test, $P<0.01$. **(B)**

Representative example of flow cytometry gating process used to generate data in (A).

Figure S9: Ubiquitin-FlAsH immediately leaves the cytosol upon wall teichoic acid digestion and simultaneous lysis in Δ*ponA* cells. **(A-B)** Individual Ubiquitin-FlAsH fluorescent traces and experimental replicates following 2 min incubation with PBS +5% N-lauroylsarcosine and either **(A)** Buffer A alone, or **(B)** 40uM GlpQ. Cell counts are shown in figure captions. **(C)** Fluorescence of cells labeled with a wheat-germ agglutinin-AlexaFluor488 conjugate after incubation with LB alone or LB supplemented with tunicamycin for either 10 min (wild-type) or 20 min (Δ*ponA*). Wild-type LB: 538 cells. Wild-type tunicamycin: 271 cells. Δ*ponA* LB: 285 cells. Δ*ponA* tunicamycin: 288 cells. 3 biological replicates per condition. Significance tested by Student's T-test, P<0.01.

Figure S10: (A-C) Mbl-sfGFP activity time course during 25µM GlpQ treatment. Analysis performed on

10,976 discrete filament tracks from 2 biological replicates. **(A)** Percentage of processive filaments. **(B)**

Spatial density of processive Mbl-sfGFP filaments. **(C)** Speed of processive Mbl-sfGFP filaments. All error

bars show 95% confidence intervals across biological replicates based on bootstrap analysis. **(D)**

Representative kymographs from TIRF imaging of (i) growing and (ii) non-growing wild-type cells 35 min

after release from GlpQ treatment. Scale bars 1µm. (iii-iv) TIRF micrographs showing whole cells during a

single timepoint of kymographs in (i-ii) respectively. Yellow lines show kymograph traces. Scale bars 5µm.

(E-G) Mbl-sfGFP and MreB-mNeonGreen activity time course during PBS treatment. Analysis performed

on 11,150 discrete filament tracks from 3 independent experiments. Data pooled from experiments with

15min and 20min PBS exposure. **(E)** Percentage of processive filaments. **(F)** Spatial density of processive

Mbl-sfGFP filaments. **(G)** Speed of processive filaments.

Figure S11: (A-B) Heat maps showing growth rate $\lambda_l = \frac{1}{l}\frac{dl}{dt}$ during recovery after incubation with either

PBS + denatured GlpQ or GlpQ buffer for 15 min. **(A)** wild-type cells (3,830 discrete tracks, two

independent experiments with denatured GlpQ, one with equivalent volume GlpQ buffer, no differences

between conditions observed). **(B)** Δ*ponA* cells (2,142 discrete cell tracks, 3 biological replicates). **(C)**

Heatmap showing Δ*ponA* cell length growth rate $\lambda_l = \frac{1}{l}\frac{dl}{dt}$ following 15-minute incubation with PBS + GlpQ

Buffer (*not* GlpQ enzyme) (7,097 discrete cell tracks, 3 biological replicates), where exit from incubation

is coupled to a 500mM Sorbitol hyperosmotic shock. Solid line shows onset of PBS incubation, dotted line

shows exit into LB + Sorbitol.

Figure S12: Transmission electron micrographs of the sidewall of exponentially growing cells grown

in either LB or LB supplemented with 0.5μg/mL tunicamycin for 30 min. Scale bars 100nm. **(A)** *ΔponA*

cells. Red arrows show sites of severe cell wall thinning during tunicamycin treatment. **(B)** Wild-type

cells. Red bar shows the region used to calculate cell wall thickness, measured from the edge of the

cell membrane (white line).

Figure S13. (A-B) Cell elongation rate during tunicamycin treatment for **(A)** wild-type, ΔcwlO and ΔlytE

cells and **(B)** ΔponA, ΔponA ΔcwlO and ΔponA ΔlytE cells. **(A)** Strains showed statistically significant

differences in initial growth rate (time=-5min), but converged to a plateau growth rate that did not reject

the null (equal) hypothesis (t=22 min following tunicamycin treatment). Significance calculated using

Student's T-test, P<0.01. Analysis performed over 1,091 discrete cell tracks from 5 experimental

replicates (Δ*cwlO*), and 1,277 discrete cell tracks plotted from three experimental replicates (Δ*lytE*). Wild-

type data replotted from Fig. 1B. **(B)** Hydrolase mutants showed significantly lower initial growth rates

than the Δ*ponA* mutant (first measured timepoint), while the Δ*ponA* Δ*cwlO* mutant showed a significantly

lower final growth rate than the Δ*ponA* mutant. All strains lacked the plateau in growth rate of wild-type

cells. Analysis performed over 164 discrete cell tracks from two experimental replicates (Δ*ponA* Δ*cwlO*),

and 105 discrete cell tracks plotted from two experimental replicates (Δ*ponA* Δ*lytE*). Δ*ponA* data replotted

from Fig. 2A. **(C-D)** Cell width dynamics during tunicamycin treatment for **(C)** wild-type, Δ*cwlO* and Δ*lytE*

cells and **(D)** Δ*ponA*, Δ*ponA* Δ*cwlO* and Δ*ponA* Δ*lytE* cells. **(C)** Strains showed statistically significant

differences in width throughout, calculated using Student's T-test, $P<0.01$ at the first and last measured

timepoints. All strains display characteristic cell widening at long times. Analysis performed over 1,746

discrete cell tracks from 5 experimental replicates (Δ*cwlO*), and 2,432 discrete cell tracks from three

experimental replicates (Δ*lytE*). Wild-type data replotted from Fig. 1B. **(D)** Hydrolase mutants showed

statistically significant differences in width from Δ*ponA* mutant at the first measured timepoint, but

showed no significant differences at the final timepoint (t=45 min tunicamycin exposure) and consistently

lacked the characteristic cell widening of wild-type cells at long times. Significance calculated using

Student's T-test, $P<0.01$. Analysis performed over 1,747 discrete cell tracks from five biological replicates

(Δ*ponA*), 632 discrete cell tracks from two experimental replicates (Δ*ponA* Δ*cwlO*), and 585 discrete cell

tracks from two experimental replicates (Δ*ponA* Δ*lytE*). **(E-J)** Rod complex dynamics measured by tracking

Mbl-sfGFP filaments during tunicamycin treatment for **(E-G)** Δ*cwlO* and **(H-J)** Δ*lytE* cells. **(E, H)** Percentage

of processive filaments. **(F, I)** Spatial density of processive filaments. **(G, J)** Average speed of processive

filaments. Analysis performed over 37,707 tracked filaments from four biological replicates (Δ*cwlO*) and

45,748 tracked filaments from three biological replicates (Δ*lytE*).

Figure S14. (A) Saturating culture density during growth in various concentrations of tunicamycin for wild-

type, Δ*cwlO* and Δ*lytE* cells. Data shown from one representative biological replicate out of two, with

four technical replicates per biological replicate. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals based

on bootstrap analysis. Statistical significance tested with one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD

post-hoc test for different concentrations of tunicamycin, P<0.01. **(B)** Spot assays showing growth

with and without *tagO* transcriptional inhibition in P_{xylA}-*tagO* cells with the mutant backgrounds shown

(two biological replicates).

Figure S15: Cell bulging occurs gradually a "dumbbell" phenotype during teichoic acid depletion. Cell wall
bulges become more prevalent with increasing distance from internal septa, presumably due to septal
reinforcement of the local cell wall. Micrographs show HADA fluorescent staining in blue, superimposed
over phase contrast images of cells following 45 min exposure to 0.5μg/mL tunicamycin and 5min HADA
incubation. Scale bars 5μm. One biological replicate.

Video S1: 100X Phase timelapse of wild-type growth during 0.5 µg/mL tunicamycin treatment.
tunicamycin exposure starts at 5min. Time step=20s. Scale bar 5µm.

Video S2: 100X TIRF imaging of Mbl-sfGFP motion in wild-type cells grown in LB. Time step=2s. Scale bar
5µm.

Video S3: 100X TIRF imaging of Mbl-sfGFP motion in wild-type cells grown in LB. Time step=2s. Scale bar
5µm.

Video S4: 100X TIRF imaging of Mbl-sfGFP motion in wild-type cells grown in LB, then treated with 0.5
µg/mL tunicamycin for 30min. Time step=2s. Scale bar 5µm.

Video S5: 100X TIRF imaging of Mbl-sfGFP motion in wild-type cells grown in LB, then treated with 0.5
µg/mL tunicamycin for 30min. Time step=2s. Scale bar 5µm.

Video S6: 100X TIRF imaging of Mbl-sfGFP motion in wild-type cells grown in LB, then treated with 0.5
µg/mL tunicamycin for 60min. Time step=2s. Scale bar 5µm.

Video S7: 100X TIRF imaging of Mbl-sfGFP motion in wild-type cells grown in LB, then treated with 0.5
µg/mL tunicamycin for 60min. Time step=2s. Scale bar 5µm.

Video S8: 100X TIRF imaging of PBP1-mNeonGreen dynamics during steady state growth, driven from a
heterologous HyperSpank promoter with 10μM IPTG in addition to the endogenous copy of *ponA*. Time
step = 500ms. Scale bar 5µm.

Video S9: 100X TIRF imaging of PBP1-mNeonGreen dynamics, driven from a heterologous HyperSpank
promoter with 10μM IPTG in addition to the endogenous copy of *ponA*. Cells treated with 0.5 µg/mL
tunicamycin for 90min. Time step = 500ms. Scale bar 5µm.

Video S10: 100X TIRF imaging of Mbl-sfGFP motion in Δ*ponA* cells grown in LB supplemented with
10mM MgCl$_2$. Time step=2s. Scale bar 5µm.

Video S11: 100X TIRF imaging of Mbl-sfGFP motion in Δ*ponA* cells grown in LB supplemented with
10mM MgCl$_2$, then treated with 0.5 µg/mL tunicamycin for 30min. Time step=2s. Scale bar 5µm.

Video S12: 100X TIRF imaging of Mbl-sfGFP motion in growing wild-type cells treated with 25uM GlpQ
for 15 minutes. Timelapse taken 25 min post release into LB. Time step=2s. Scale bar 5µm.

Video S13: 100X TIRF imaging of Mbl-sfGFP motion in growing wild-type cells treated with 25uM GlpQ
for 15 minutes. Timelapse taken 35 min post release into LB. Time step=2s. Scale bar 5µm.

Video S14: 100X TIRF imaging of Mbl-sfGFP in non-growing wild-type cells treated with 25uM GlpQ for
15 minutes. Timelapse taken 25 min post release into LB. Time step=2s. Scale bar 5µm.

Video S15: 100X TIRF imaging of Mbl-sfGFP in non-growing wild-type cells treated with 25uM GlpQ for
15 minutes. Timelapse taken 35 min post release into LB. Time step=2s. Scale bar 5µm.