Wall teichoic acids regulate peptidoglycan synthesis by paving cell wall nanostructure

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

Summary

The bacterial cell wall is a polymeric exoskeleton, composed largely of peptidoglycan, that determines

cell size and shape. Two systems synthesize peptidoglycan during the growth of rod-shaped bacteria,

which are found pervasively across diverse bacterial taxa: the multi-protein Rod complexes are critical

for cell shape because they synthesize anisotropic peptidoglycan oriented along the cell circumference[1–

3], whereas PBP1 synthesizes isotropic peptidoglycan[1,4] (Fig. 1A). In Gram-positive bacteria, rod shape is

also dependent on wall teichoic acids[5], an abundant cell wall polymer, for entirely unknown reasons.

Here, we show that teichoic acids occlude nanoscopic pores in the cell wall, which simultaneously

promotes Rod complex activity and inhibits PBP1. Depletion of teichoic acids exposed these pores within

minutes, coinciding with a rapid activation of PBP1. In contrast to previous steady-state

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

complexes prior to the onset of amorphous growth. Teichoic acids, therefore, are a new critical factor in

peptidoglycan synthesis regulation. Our work further identifies the cell wall, via its molecular-scale

structure, as a non-canonical auto-regulatory factor in its own synthesis.   Since teichoic acids

additionally govern peptidoglycan hydrolysis[8–13], our results position these polymers as "master

regulators" of rod-shaped cell growth.

Introduction

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

including pathogenesis[14] and antibiotic treatment[15]. Furthermore, the cell wall precisely determines cell

shape (Fig. 1A), which affects many aspects of cellular physiology[3,16,17] — the most pervasive shape

across bacteria is the bacillus, or "rod"[18]. The cell wall consists primarily of peptidoglycan: glycan

polymers that are crosslinked by short peptides. In Gram-positive bacteria, peptidoglycan is covalently

modified with wall teichoic acids, negatively charged polymers of sugar alcohol-phosphate subunits

(hereafter "teichoic acids," distinct from the membrane-anchored lipoteichoic acids)[19,20]. Teichoic acids

are typically nonessential[5,21], however, inhibiting their synthesis causes *Bacillus subtilis* and the serious

pathogen *Listeria monocytogenes* to grow amorphously and slowly[5,21]. How teichoic acids enable rod-

shaped morphogenesis is unknown[5,21,22].

Homeostasis of rod shape is thought to be governed by the two primary molecular mechanisms of

peptidoglycan synthesis. 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 circumferential

motion of Rod complexes along the plasma membrane[23–25]. In *B. subtilis*, this motion is oriented by actin

homologs MreB, Mbl and MreBH[26,27,6], and is driven by peptidoglycan synthesis itself[23]. Circumferential

motion, therefore, is a direct indicator for Rod complex activity[28,29]. Within the Rod complex,

peptidoglycan polymerization is catalyzed by the transglycosylase RodA[30] (drawing from lipid II

precursors in the plasma membrane), while cross-linking to acceptor peptides within the cell wall is

catalyzed by the transpeptidases PBP2A and PBPH[4,31] ("Class B" PBPs).

By contrast to the Rod complexes, the non-essential enzyme PBP1 is a large, multi-domain protein (a

"Class A" PBP, encoded by *ponA*[32]) that synthesizes isotropic peptidoglycan (Fig. 1A). It is thought to

specifically repair pores in the cell wall that arise during the rapid cell-wall turnover required for cell

growth[4,33]. Because Rod complexes synthesize peptidoglycan anisotropically and PBP1 synthesizes it

isotropically, the balance of their expression determines cell width[1], and strong overexpression of PBP1

causes semi-amorphous growth.

Teichoic acids influence diverse cellular phenotypes including antimicrobial resistance[34,35], protein

localization within the cell envelope[36], pathogenesis[37], cation homeostasis[38,39] and autolysis[8–11]. It is

unclear, however, how these processes would account for teichoic acids' influence on cell shape

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 still translocate 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(s) 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 slowly in bulk liquid

culture (≈4 times slower than wild-type, rod-shaped cells)[5]. To interrogate this dependence, we first

measured the dynamics of growth rate and cell shape upon teichoic acid depletion. We used a

microfluidic perfusion chamber to acutely treat exponentially growing, wild-type *B. subtilis* cells with

tunicamycin, which specifically inhibits TagO at low concentrations[35,44–46] (Fig. S1A,B) and then

computed the single-cell growth rate and width from timelapse micrographs. Approximately 10 minutes

after tunicamycin treatment, 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). Cells retained their untreated rod shape until the second decrease in elongation

rate when they began to widen, eventually losing rod shape altogether (Fig. S2A). Amorphous cells

continued to grow indefinitely (Video S1). We also observed a decrease in the single-cell growth rate

prior to the loss of cell shape when we acutely inhibited *tagO* transcription (Fig. S2B,C).

Inhibiting wall teichoic acid synthesis reduces Rod complex activity

Although it was previously reported that inhibiting teichoic acid synthesis does not affect the

activity/motion of Rod complexes at steady-state[6,7], we hypothesized that loss of cell shape results from

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

used total internal reflection fluorescence microscopy to measure the effect of tunicamycin on the

temporal dependence of Rod complex motion in cells expressing a fluorescent version of Mbl (Mbl-

sfGFP)[23,28,29]. 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). However, 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),

consistent with the previous observation of Rod complex motion in *ΔtagO* mutants[6]. Visual inspection of

cells treated with tunicamycin for 60 minutes confirmed the presence of oriented Rod complex motion,

but with a high level of spatially diffuse Mbl-sfGFP fluorescence relative to untreated cells (Fig. S3C,

Videos S2-S7). Tunicamycin treatment also inhibited Rod complex motion as measured with an MreB-

mNeonGreen fusion (Figs. S3D-F), demonstrating that this effect is not specific to a single species of Rod

complex. Finally, transcriptional inhibition of *tagO* caused a decrease in each metric associated with Rod

complex activity (Fig. S3G-I). This decrease was more gradual in the case of transcriptional inhibition,

which is expected since in this case TagO enzymes must be diluted by growth before teichoic acids are

depleted.

Although Rod complex motion depends on peptidoglycan synthesis, in principle it is possible that Rod

complexes could synthesize peptidoglycan without moving. To test this, we measured the rate at which

the fluorescent D-amino acid HADA (7-hydroxycoumarin-3-carboxylic acid-amino-D-alanine) was

incorporated into the cell wall upon teichoic acid depletion. We perfused cells with HADA for 5 minutes

at a range of times after tunicamycin treatment and, following wash-out, we measured the average

fluorescence intensity within the cell envelope as a proxy for cross-linking by the Rod complexes[47,48].

Tunicamycin caused a rapid decrease in the rate of HADA incorporation (Fig. 1D). Furthermore, whereas

HADA labeled the cell wall of untreated cells uniformly (Fig. 1Di), 30 minutes of tunicamycin treatment

caused aberrant, punctate labeling (Fig. 1Diii). We obtained similar results for Δ*ponA* and Δ*dacA*

mutants, demonstrating that the decrease in HADA incorporation does not reflect inhibition of PBP1 or

activation of the major D,D-carboxypeptidase DacA, which removes HADA[49]. Similarly, transcriptional

inhibition of TagO expression caused a reduction in HADA incorporation (Fig. S4A). Finally, we found

that deleting *tagO* caused a reduction in the total concentration of cell wall cross-links, as measured

through high performance liquid chromatography analysis of purified cell walls[49] (Fig. S4B,C). In

summary, Rod complex activity decreases upon teichoic acid depletion, coincident with a PBP1-

independent decrease in HADA incorporation.

PBP1 is essential in the absence of wall teichoic acid synthesis

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) the resulting

growth is amorphous as would be expected from PBP1-mediated cell growth, we hypothesized that

teichoic acid-less growth is primarily driven by PBP1. To test this, we first measured the effect of

tunicamycin treatment on the growth, shape, and Rod complex activity of Δ*ponA* mutants. At the single-

cell level, tunicamycin caused a decrease in the growth rate of Δ*ponA* cells, similar to the growth-rate

decrease it caused in wild-type cells except without the transient plateau and subsequent shape loss

(Fig. 2A). In contrast to wild-type cells, Δ*ponA* mutants exhibited pervasive lysis after their growth rate

decrease (Fig. 2B). Similarly, in bulk liquid culture, sublethal concentrations of tunicamycin that

permitted amorphous growth in wild-type cells completely inhibited growth in Δ*ponA* cells (Fig. 2C).

Teichoic acid-less growth required the transpeptidase activity of PBP1 since a transpeptidase mutant

ponA^{TP-} (Fig. S5A) that we constructed[50] was also fully inhibited at this tunicamycin concentration (Fig.

2C). Like tunicamycin, transcriptional inhibition of *tagO* expression also prevented growth of Δ*ponA* and

ponA^{TP-} mutants on solid media (Fig. S5B). Finally, as for wild-type cells, tunicamycin decreased Rod

complex motion in Δ*ponA* mutant cells except with a modest delay (Fig. 2D).

Together, these results demonstrate that PBP1 is responsible for amorphous cell growth following

teichoic acid depletion, which inhibits Rod complexes. We hypothesized that PBP1 activity would

increase to compensate for the lack of Rod complex-mediated synthesis during teichoic acid depletion.

To test this, we treated exponentially growing bulk liquid cultures with tunicamycin and measured the

temporal dynamics of labeling by a fluorescent penicillin, which covalently binds to active

transpeptidases[51]. We found that tunicamycin caused a rapid ≈30% increase in PBP1 labeling relative to

the combined labeling of PBP2A and the cell division peptidoglycan synthase PBP2B (which are not

distinguished by this assay; Figs. 2E,F). The increase in PBP1 labeling could reflect increased protein

levels and/or specific activity. However, based on previous studies[1], an increase in PBP1 protein levels of

this magnitude is not alone sufficient to the cell shape changes we observe. These results are therefore

consistent with a model in which teichoic acids directly inhibit PBP1 activity. In this model, increased

PBP1 activity, combined with the simultaneous inhibition of Rod complex activity, leads to slow,

amorphous cell growth. Furthermore, increased PBP1 activity would contribute to Rod complex

inhibition if the two modes of peptidoglycan synthesis were competing for lipid II precursors or peptide

acceptors (*Discussion*).

Teichoic acid depletion results in irrevocable cell wall damage in the absence of PBP1

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. A

previous genetic analysis predicted that PBP1 is activated by cell wall damage, which could be sensed

through PBP1's intrinsically disordered domain[33]. Therefore, we additionally hypothesized that PBP1

synthesizes peptidoglycan to "repair" the same incipient pores exposed by teichoic acid depletion.

To test whether depletion of teichoic acids results in pores within the cell wall, we used a single-cell

microfluidics assay we recently developed. In this assay, we used brief pulses 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 test for pores of different sizes,   we used two probes:

mNeonGreen (27.5 kDa, minimal radius $R_{min} \approx 2.0$nm[52]) and a fluorogenic version of ubiquitin (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 $\Delta ponA$ cells with tunicamycin (Figs. 1C,2D). To avoid the potential for confounding changes in

peptidoglycan synthesis on cell wall permeability, we treated cells for as long as possible before Rod

complex activity began to decline (10 min and 20 min for WT and $\Delta ponA$). Contrary to our initial

expectations, 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).

Conversely, the same treatment resulted in an increase in permeability in $\Delta ponA$ 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[53]

(*Methods*). Perfusing cells with GlpQ for 15 minutes strongly reduced the abundance of teichoic acids

within the cell wall (Fig. S6) (*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 $\Delta ponA$ cells (Fig. 3B). Together, these results are consistent with a model in

which teichoic acids occlude pores in the cell wall, and in which PBP1 fills these pores with

peptidoglycan that is intrinsically less porous than the cell wall synthesized by untreated wild-type cells.

Treatment of Δ*ponA* cells with tunicamycin or GlpQ for periods of time that approach the cell-cycle time

(≈20 min) could induce pore formation indirectly, for example, through unbalanced peptidoglycan

hydrolysis[8–11]. To control for this possibility, we measured cell-wall permeability during teichoic acid

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

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

were looking for 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

a reproducible increase in cell wall permeability within 1 minute of GlpQ treatment (Figs. 3C,S7A,B).

We reasoned that the nascent pores exposed during teichoic acid depletion would cause higher labeling

by peptidoglycan-binding ligands. 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 a reproducible increase in labeling of both Δ*ponA* cells and, to a lesser

extent, in wild-type cells following pre-treatment with tunicamycin (Fig. S7C). We propose that teichoic

acid depletion reduces permeability (Fig. 3A) but increases lectin binding in wild-type cells because PBP1

is membrane-bound and would therefore only fill pores on the internal surface of the cell wall, leaving

teichoic acid-less peptidoglycan on the outer surface exposed.

Since PBP1 complements the effect of teichoic acids on cell wall permeability, we reasoned that

enzymatically removing teichoic acids from Δ*ponA* cells would inhibit cell growth recovery upon re-

immersion in growth media. To test this, we cultured bacteria to steady-state exponential growth in

rich media, induced pore formation by digesting teichoic acids with GlpQ (suspended in PBS, which also

arrested cell growth), and then monitored the growth recovery upon re-perfusion of rich media. As

hypothesized, Δ*ponA* cells were unable to recover from teichoic acid digestion but did not lyse (Fig. 3D),

whereas wild-type cells that possessed PBP1 partially recovered (Fig. 3E). Furthermore, wild-type cells

that resumed growth did so as rods and showed a full recovery of Rod complex activity (Fig. 3Ei,iii),

while cells that remained arrested showed no Rod complex motion (Figs. 3Eii,iv,S8A-D). Rod complex

activity and cell growth of both wild-type and Δ*ponA* cells recovered fully from incubation in PBS alone

(Fig. S8E-G, S9A,B). This correlation between pores, Rod complex activity and PBP1 is strong evidence

that the Rod complex is incapable of adding 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 cell growth via a mechanism independent of pores,

at least of those that are detected by the mNeonGreen probe.

Finally, we reasoned that if cell wall pores 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 exit from GlpQ treatment to a 500 mM

hyperosmotic shock to physically contract the cell wall[54]. 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 observed a partial growth recovery following the hyperosmotic shock (Fig. 3F, S9C).

Discussion

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

We propose that in wild-type cells, teichoic acids limit PBP1's access to the inner face of the cell wall via

these pores, which lowers the enzyme's absolute activity. When teichoic acids are depleted, these pores

are exposed and PBP1 activity increases (Fig. 2F), promoting amorphous growth. This model is

consistent with a previous study showing that PBP1 activity is stimulated by its long intrinsically

disordered domain upon cell wall damage[33], a signal that would be induced by nascent pores if teichoic

acids excluded this domain from the cell wall via the same type of polymer-polymer interactions that

underlie macromolecular crowding[55].

On a slightly slower time scale, teichoic acid depletion causes decreased activity of Rod complexes (Fig.

1C). In wild-type cells, we find it likely that this occurs for two reasons. First, PBP1 activity will reduce

the pool of lipid II available for Rod complexes if the synthesis of lipid II is rate-limiting for cell wall

synthesis, which is expected during fast cell growth. Second, if increased PBP1 synthesis is targeted to

discrete pores, then this could result in a heterogeneous distribution of nascent peptide acceptors in the

cell wall to which Rod complexes can add material. This is consistent with the highly punctate synthesis

patterns we observe upon tunicamycin treatment (Fig. 1D). If this heterogeneity becomes too large,

Rod complexes will arrest when they encounter areas without acceptors for the same reason that

pharmacological inhibition of Class B PBP transpeptidation arrests Rod complexes[23–25]. The localized

pattern of peptide acceptors would not be inhibitory to PBP1 since it i) is not spatially processive and ii)

can cross-link to the peptides that it makes itself, which would reinforce localized synthesis.

Consistent with the latter mechanism, in the absence of PBP1 ($\Delta ponA$), teichoic acid depletion

simultaneously causes the formation of large pores in the cell wall (Fig. 3A,B) and the eventual arrest of

Rod complexes (Figs. 2D,3D). We propose that the nascent pores exposed by teichoic acid depletion

enlarge without repair by PBP1 (Fig. 4A). When the pores become too large, the density of peptide

acceptors becomes prohibitively low for Rod complex procession. The delay in Rod complex arrest in

$\Delta ponA$ mutants compared to that in wild-type cells is expected without direct competition from PBP1.

Given this model, one role of PBP1 at wild-type (low) activity may be to provide a lawn of nascent

peptide acceptors for Rod complexes.

Finally, our model can account for why Rod complex activity partially recovers at late times after teichoic

acid depletion, and in $\Delta tagO$ mutants. The transition from thin rods, to wide rods, to amorphous

spheroids directly lowers the surface area-to-volume ratio of the cells, which is expected to restore 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[8–11]. For example, teichoic acid depletion increases the expression of

the key hydrolase LytE[12] via the anti-sigma factor RsgI, a pathway that is activated by cell wall damage

via RsgI's intrinsically disordered domain[33]. In this light, we predict that the large holes that form in the

walls of teichoic acid-less cells that are incubated in buffer arise from increased, aberrant hydrolysis (i.e.

autolysis).   Teichoic acids' influence on hydrolysis could 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 hydrolysis and PBP1 activity

during GlpQ treatment could create an irreversibly altered cell wall incapable of supporting growth.

In sum, wall teichoic acids lie at the center of a feedback system that modulates both modes of

peptidoglycan synthesis as well as its hydrolysis, positioning them as "master regulators" of rod-shaped

morphogenesis in Gram-positive bacteria. 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 physical architecture 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.

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Figures

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 λ_l —— for wild-type cells

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

standard deviation. Analysis performed over 2,048 discrete cell tracks from 3 biological replicates. Inset:

micrographs taken (i) before and (ii) after 45 min tunicamycin treatment as shown by black arrows. Scale

bars 5 µm. **(C)** Time course showing the percentage of processive Mbl filaments during a 0.5 µg/mL

tunicamycin treatment. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals across biological replicates based on

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 as shown by black arrows. Red dotted line follows a processive Mbl

filament. Scale bars 1 µm. **(D)** Normalized mean cell envelope HADA staining for wild-type*, ΔponA* and

ΔdacA cells during tunicamycin treatment. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals. Analysis

performed over 3,458 segmentations from 3 biological replicates (wild-type), 1,664 segmentations from

two biological replicates (Δ*ponA*), and 2,440 segmentations from 3 biological replicates (Δ*dacA*). Dots

show individual replicates. Inset shows identically saturated micrographs of wild-type cells at (i) 0 min,

(ii) 15 min, and (iii) 30 min of treatment.

Figure 2: PBP1 is required for growth during wall teichoic acid synthesis inhibition. (A) Cell length growth rate ——for Δ*ponA* cells during 0.5 g/mL tunicamycin treatment. Blue line shows smoothed population median, error bars show standard deviation. Analysis performed over 621 discrete cell tracks from 5 biological replicates. Blue line reproduces wild-type data from Fig. 1A. Inset: micrographs showing (i) wild-type, (ii) Δ*ponA* and (iii) *ponA*^TP- cells following 90 min treatment with 0.5 g/mL tunicamycin. Scale bar 5 m. **(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 896 cells from one biological replicate (wild-type). Inset: micrographs showing Δ*ponA* cells (i) before and (ii) after 2h tunicamycin treatment. Phase overlaid with propidium iodide stain. Scale bars 5 m. **(C)** Maximum OD for wild-type, Δ*ponA* and *ponA*^TP- (expressing PBP1 with an

inactive transpeptidase domain) in varying doses of tunicamycin, grown in bulk culture. Data shown

from one representative biological replicate out of three, with four technical replicates per biological

replicate. **(D)** Percentage of processive Mbl-sfGFP filaments during tunicamycin treatment of *ΔponA*

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. **(E)** SDS-PAGE of

B. subtilis whole cell lysates shows PBP activity levels during tunicamycin treatment. Arrows show (i)

PBP1 and (ii) PBP2A/PBP2B bands. Cells treated with fluorescent bocillin for two minutes prior to cell

lysis. One representative sample shown from 4 biological replicates. **(F)** Quantification of (E), showing

the ratio of PBP1 to PBP2A/PBP2B intensity. Error bars show standard error of the mean across

replicates.

Figure 3: PBP1 fills pores that are exposed upon wall teichoic acid removal, conferring growth. (A)
mNeonGreen diffusion out of lysed cells following a 10 min (wild-type) or 20 min (ΔponA) incubation
with LB supplemented with tunicamycin or with LB alone. Wild-type untreated: 87 cells, 4 biological
replicates. Wild-type tunicamycin: 139 cells, 3 biological replicates. ΔponA untreated: 53 cells, 3
biological replicates. ΔponA tunicamycin: 35 cells, 3 biological replicates. Inset: micrographs showing
cellular fluorescence of tunicamycin-treated ΔponA cells (i) before and (ii) 20 min after cell lysis. Scale
bars 5 m. **(B)** mNeonGreen diffusion out of lysed wild-type and ΔponA cells following a 15-minute live-
cell incubation with PBS supplemented with either 40 M 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. ΔponA
Buffer: 85 cells, 3 biological replicates. ΔponA GlpQ: 108 cells, 3 biological replicates. Inset: micrographs
showing cellular fluorescence of GlpQ-treated ΔponA cells (i) before and (ii) 20 min after cell lysis. Scale
bars 5 m. **(C)** Ubiquitin-FlAsH diffusion out of lysed ΔponA cells following a 2 min incubation with PBS
+5% N-lauroylsarcosine + either 40 M GlpQ or the equivalent volume of Buffer A. **(D)** Heat map showing
growth rate λ_l —— of ΔponA cells following a 15 min incubation with 10 M native GlpQ cells (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 ΔponA cells 50 min after GlpQ incubation. (i) Phase contrast.
(ii) Propidium iodide stain. Scale bars 5 m. **(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)

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

481   bars 5μm in (i,ii), 0.5μm in (iii,iv). Red dotted line in (iii) follows a processive Mbl filament. For positive

482   stain, see Fig. 2B ii. Scale bars 5μm. **(F)** Heatmap showing Δ*ponA* cell length growth rate $\lambda_l = \frac{1}{l}\frac{dl}{dt}$ when

483   exit from a 15-minute incubation with 10μM GlpQ was coupled to a 500mM hyperosmotic shock (3,036

484   discrete cell tracks, 3 biological replicates).

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)** Model.

Methods

Microscopy

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

photometrics PRIME BSI CMOS camera 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 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.

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.

Cell culture and transformation

All cell culture was performed in LB media. All *in vivo* imaging and spot-assay experiments were

performed with log-phase cultures of OD600≤0.2. Transformations were performed in MC Media +

20mM MgSO$_4$. All cells were congenic with a PY79 strain background. Strains are tabulated in Sheet S1.

Protein purification and application

Protein was purified according to prior methods[1]. We incubated cell cultures of 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 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 (Akbary et

al., *in submission*). 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. As such, we performed all GlpQ

incubations in PBS lacking divalent cations, to induce autolysis.

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[2,3]. 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[1],

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[4].

Image Analysis and Tracking

Cell tracking was performed using custom scripts written in ImageJ, MATLAB and Python. Our timelapse

image analysis pipeline involved the following steps: image alignment, background removal, and cell

tracking based on phase contrast images. Our single timepoint FDAA image analysis pipeline only

required background removal and cell segmentation based on phase contrast images, before calculating

cellular fluorescence based on background-corrected fluorescence images. All scripts are available for

download at: *https://github.com/felixbarber/WTA_Rod_complex_2024.*

MreB filament tracking

We detected and tracked our MreB and Mbl filaments using custom Python scripts written by FB. For

filament detection, we used the "blob_log" function within scikit-image's "measure" module, selecting a

dynamical threshold throughout each TIRF timecourse to correct for partial photobleaching.

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 100ms RFP at 10% power. Due to a high level of background signal following cell lysis,

we annotated cell lysis events semi-automated custom ImageJ macros.

Analysis of peptidoglycan composition

Peptidoglycan was prepared from cell lysates, digested with cellosyl (gift from Hoechst, Germany), and

the resulting muropeptides were reduced with sodium borohydride and analyzed by high-performance

liquid chromatography as previously described[5].

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

of morphology of cell chains, as compared with cells growing on agarose pads or liquid culture[6].

To perform membrane lysis, the medium in the flow cell was exchanged 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 50 ms CY5 illumination at

10% intensity. After membrane lysis, the detergent in the flow cell was exchanged for media to wash the

cells.

For cells expressing mNeonGreen, we imaged every minute or every 5 minutes with 50 ms GFP at 100%

power. For cells expressing a tetracysteine-tagged ubiquitin, we imaged every minute with 50 ms GFP at

10% power. 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.

Cell tracking and fluorescence quantification was performed using custom scripts written in MATLAB.

Data Availability

All datasets presented herein will be made publicly available.

Code Availability

All code used herein will be made publicly available at https://github.com/felixbarber.

Methods References

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Acknowledgements

We thank Dr. Daniela Vollmer for preparation of peptidoglycan. 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.

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 used in this study	Source
bGL01	WT	1B,D, 2A-C, 2E-F, 3E, S1, S2A, S4, S5A, S6, S7C, S9A.	Gift from Garner Lab
bMD122	Δmbl::sfGFP-mbl spec	1C, 3E inset, S3A-C, S8, Videos S2-S11.	Gift from Garner Lab
bEG291	ΔtagO::erm, ycgO::PxylA-tagO cat	S2B-C, S4A	Gift from Garner Lab
bYS009	mreB-40aa-mNeonGreen	S3D-F	Gift from Garner Lab
bMD599	ΔponA::kan	1D,2A-D, 3D, 3F, S5A, S9C-D	Gift from Garner Lab
bFB071	ΔtagO::erm	S1, S4B-C, S6	Gift from Garner Lab
bFB012	Δmbl::sfGFP-mbl spec, ΔtagO::erm, ΔycgO::PxylA-tagO	S3G-I	This study
bFB079	ΔdacA::kan	1D	This study
bFB155	ΔtagE::erm	S6	This study
bFB145	ΔponA::PonA S390A kan	2A inset, 2C, S5A	This study
bFB149	ΔponA::PonA kan	Video S1	This study
bFB215	ΔtagO::erm, ΔycgO::PxylA-tagO cat ΔponA::kan	2B, S5B	This study
bFB262	ΔtagO::erm, ΔycgO::PxylA-tagO cat, Δpbpd::kan	S5B	This study
bFB264	ΔtagO::erm, ΔycgO::PxylA-tagO cat, ΔponA::PonA S390A kan	S5B	This study

623   **Table S2:** List of primers used in this study.

Name	Sequence
oFB0 53	CTATACGAATAGCTTAGACAGC
oFB0 54	TAACAAGACGAACTCCAATTC
oFB0 55	GCGAACAATCAAGATAGGG
oFB0 56	TCGATCAATGCAATGTCTG
oFB0 94	TACAGCTCGATAATCTTTTCAG
oFB0 95	TTTGAACGGCATGATGG
oFB1 16	CGATAAAACCTCCTGTTAAAAC
oFB1 31	CAGAATTTCCGGTGTTCC
oFB1 32	CCTGATCACCAAGTATTTGAT
oFB1 33	GACGTTTTACGACAAGACC
oFB1 34	CAAAATCAACCCGTCAACTT
oFB1 48	AGGTGACAATCGTGTTAAAT
oFB1 49	CTCAGTTTCCGCTACATTG
oFB1 54	AAATTAAACAAAAAGCCGTCACCTTTGGGGTGATGGCTTTTTTGTTCTGCTCCCTCGCT
oFB1 55	ATCACCCCAAAGGTGACGGCTTTTTTGTTTAATTTGTTTTTTCAATGGATGATGAGTTTG
oFB1 56	CTCAAACTAAGGCACAGCCTGGTGCGACCATAAAACCGATTTTGGACTACGGACCAGTTA
oFB1 57	CCAAAATCGGTTTTATGGTCGCACCAGGCTGTGCCTTAGTTTGAGTAGCATAGTTAAAGC
oFB1 59	TGGACTACGGACCAGTTA
oFB1 64	CTCAGAAGCTTTCTGATGG
oFB1 66	GATGCGGTATACCTTCTCAA
oFB1 73	AAGACTCAGGATGATACACA

oFB2 45	CGTATGGCAATGGGTCTTG
oFB2 46	GTTCATATTTATCAAGCTTTATAATAGCATAATGGCTA
oTY00 1	CACCGTACAGAAATATGCG
oTY00 2	ATATATTCGTAAATCGCTCTCG
oTY00 3	CGGAATCCATAATGGAAGC
oTY00 4	AACATAACCGTCTGAATAACC
oTY03 8	GATTCATCCCGACATCTCT
oTY03 9	GTAAGCTAGCCATTTCAGC

Extended Data: Figures

Figure S1: Low tunicamycin concentrations inhibit growth to precisely the same extent as deletion of

tagO. **(A)** Growth curves of cells grown with increasing tunicamycin concentrations in bulk culture. **(B)**

Saturating culture density plotted for data from (A). Representative data from one of three biological

replicates, with 4 technical replicates per condition. Complete growth arrest consistently occurs at

either 16 g/mL or 24 g/mL tunicamycin.

Figure S2: (A) Cell width of wild-type cells during 0.5 g/mL tunicamycin timecourse. Solid line shows

smoothed population median, error bars show standard deviation. Black line shows 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. **(B-C)** Cell properties during growth response

of P_{xylA}-*tagO* cells to xylose depletion. **(B)** Cell length growth rate. Analysis performed over 1,217 discrete

cell tracks from 3 biological replicates. **(C)** Cell width. Analysis performed over 1,846 discrete cell tracks

from 3 biological replicates. Solid lines show smoothed population medians, error bars show standard

deviations. Black lines show onset of xylose depletion.

Figure S3: (A-B) Mbl-sfGFP activity time course for wild-type cells during 0.5 g/mL tunicamycin treatment. Analysis performed on 62,901 discrete filament tracks from 4 biological replicates. **(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 1 m. (iii-iv) TIRF micrographs showing whole cells during a single timepoint of the kymographs in (i-ii) respectively. Yellow lines show kymograph traces. Scalebars 5 m. **(D-F)** MreB-mNeonGreen activity time course for wild-type cells during 0.5 g/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 of of P_{xylA}-*tagO* cells during xylose depletion. Analysis performed on 55,542 discrete filament tracks from 3 biological replicates. **(G)** Percentage of processive filaments. **(H)** Spatial density of processive filaments. **(I)** Average speed of processive

filaments. All error bars show 95% confidence intervals across biological replicates based on bootstrap

analysis.

Figure S4: (A) Normalized mean cell envelope HADA staining for P_{xylA}-*TagO* cells during xylose depletion.

Black line shows xylose washout. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals. Analysis performed over 198

segmentations from 1 biological replicate. **(B)** High-performance liquid chromatograms of reduced

muropeptide samples isolated from wild-type and Δ*tagO* cells. Elution regions of the uncross-linked

monomers and cross-linked dimers and trimers 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. **(C)**

Percentage of peptide stems in peptidoglycan crosslinks as measured within cell walls purified from

wild-type and Δ*tagO* cells by HPLC. 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 S5: (A) SDS-PAGE on whole cell lysates from cells incubated with fluorescently conjugated β-

lactam, bocillin. Black arrow shows PBP1, which is present in wild-type but absent in *ΔponA* and not

labeled in *ponA$_{S390A}$* cell lysates. **(B)** Spot assays for *P$_{xylA}$-tagO*, *ponA* mutant strains grown in the

presence and absence of *tagO* induction with 30mM xylose.

Figure S6: (A) Mean fluorescence intensity of Concananvalin 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 (Welch's T-test, P value < 10^{-3}), 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. **(B)** Example of flow cytometry gating process used to generate data in (A).

Figure S7: 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: 247 cells. Wild-type tunicamycin: 148 cells. Δ*ponA* LB: 197 cells. Δ*ponA* tunicamycin: 136 cells. 3 biological replicates per condition.

Figure S8: (A-C) Mbl-sfGFP activity time course during 25 M 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. Scalebars 1 m. (iii-iv) TIRF micrographs showing whole cells during a

single timepoint of kymographs in (i-ii) respectively. Yellow lines show kymograph traces. Scalebars 5 m.

(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 treatment. **(E)** Percentage of processive filaments. **(F)** Spatial density of processive

Mbl-sfGFP filaments. **(G)** Speed of processive filaments.

Figure S9: (A-B) Heat maps showing growth rate –— 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)** ΔponA cells (2,142 discrete cell tracks, 3 biological replicates). **(C)**

Heatmap showing ΔponA cell length growth rate –— following 15-minute incubation with PBS +

GlpQ Buffer (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.

Video S1: 100X Phase timelapse of wild-type growth during 0.5 μg/mL tunicamycin treatment.
tunicamycin exposure starts at 5min. Scale bar 5μm.

Video S2: 100X TIRF imaging of Mbl-sfGFP motion in wild-type cells grown in LB. Scale bar 5μm.

Video S3: 100X TIRF imaging of Mbl-sfGFP motion in wild-type cells grown in LB. Scale bar 5μm.

Video S4: 100X TIRF imaging of Mbl-sfGFP motion in wild-type cells treated with 0.5 μg/mL tunicamycin
for 30min. Scale bar 5μm.

Video S5: 100X TIRF imaging of Mbl-sfGFP motion in wild-type cells treated with 0.5 μg/mL tunicamycin
for 30min. Scale bar 5μm.

Video S6: 100X TIRF imaging of Mbl-sfGFP motion in wild-type cells treated with 0.5 μg/mL tunicamycin
for 60min. Scale bar 5μm.

Video S7: 100X TIRF imaging of Mbl-sfGFP motion in wild-type cells treated with 0.5 μg/mL tunicamycin
for 60min. Scale bar 5μm.

Video S8: 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. Scale bar 5μm.

Video S9: 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. Scale bar 5μm.

Video S10: 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. Scale bar 5μm.

Video S11: 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. Scale bar 5μm.