1   **Bacterial swarming reduces *Proteus mirabilis* and *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* cell**
2   **stiffness and increases β-lactam susceptibility**
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Abstract

Swarmer cells of the gram-negative pathogenic bacteria *Proteus mirabilis* and *Vibrio*

parahaemolyticus become long (>10-100 μm) and multinucleate during their growth and

motility on polymer surfaces. We demonstrate increasing cell length is accompanied by

a large increase in flexibility. Using a microfluidic assay to measure single-cell

mechanics, we identified large differences in swarmer cell stiffness of (bending rigidity

of *P. mirabilis*, 9.6×10^{-22} N m^2; *V. parahaemolyticus*, 9.7×10^{-23} N m^2) compared to

vegetative cells (1.4×10^{-20} N m^2 and 3.2×10^{-22} N m^2, respectively). The reduction in

bending rigidity (~3-15 fold) was accompanied by a decrease in the average

polysaccharide strand length of the peptidoglycan layer of the cell wall from 28-30 to

19-22 disaccharides. Atomic force microscopy revealed a reduction in *P. mirabilis*

peptidoglycan thickness from 1.5 nm (vegetative) to 1.0 nm (swarmer) and electron

cryotomography indicated changes in swarmer cell wall morphology. *P. mirabilis* and *V.*

parahaemolyticus swarmer cells became increasingly sensitive to osmotic pressure and

susceptible to cell wall-modifying antibiotics (compared to vegetative cells)—they were

~30% more likely to die after 3 h of treatment with minimum inhibitory concentrations

of the β-lactams cephalexin and penicillin G. Long, flexible swarmer cells enables these

pathogenic bacteria to form multicellular structures and promotes community motility.

The adaptive cost of swarming is offset by a fitness cost in which cells are more

susceptible to physical and chemical changes in their environment, thereby suggesting

the development of new chemotherapies for bacteria that leverage swarming for

survival.

Significance Statement

Proteus mirabilis and *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* are bacteria that infect humans. To adapt to

environmental changes, these bacteria alter their cell morphology and move collectively

to access new sources of nutrients in a process referred to as 'swarming'. We found that

a change in the composition and thickness of the peptidoglycan layer of the cell wall

makes swarmer cells of *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* more flexible (i.e., reduced

cell stiffness) and increases their sensitivity to osmotic pressure and cell-wall targeting

antibiotics (e.g., β-lactams). These results highlight the importance of assessing the

extracellular environment in determining antibiotic doses and the use of β-lactams

antibiotics for treating infections caused by swarmer cells of *P. mirabilis* and *V.*

parahaemolyticus.

"\body"

Introduction

Bacteria have evolved a variety of mechanisms to adapt to their physical environment. For example, in response to fluctuating environmental conditions, changes in biochemistry and gene regulation can alter bacterial shape and increase cell fitness. Cell filamentation is a commonly observed change in bacterial cell shape (1, 2) and has been described as a mechanism that enables bacteria to evade predation by the innate immune system during host infections (1).

In close proximity to surfaces, many bacteria alter their morphology and leverage cell-cell physical contact to move collectively to access new sources of nutrients and growth factors (3, 4). Referred to as 'swarming', this process is common among motile bacteria, has been connected to bacterial pathogenesis and infections, and is an example of adaptive behavior (3, 4). Swarmer cells of *Salmonella enterica*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Serratia marcescens*, and *Bacillus subtilis* have reduced susceptibility—compared to vegetative cells—to a variety of antibiotics that target protein translation, DNA transcription, and the bacterial cell membrane and cell wall (5-8). The specific biochemical and biophysical mechanisms underlying these observations are unknown.

Here, we describe physical changes in swarmer cells of the gram-negative pathogenic bacteria *Proteus mirabilis* and *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* that increase their susceptibility to cell wall-targeting clinical antibiotics. We found that large changes in the length of *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* swarmer cells are accompanied by an

increase in flexibility (i.e., a reduction in cell stiffness) that enables long cells to pack

together tightly and form cell-cell interactions; these interactions have been

demonstrated previously to promote surface motility (9). Using biophysical,

biochemical, and structural techniques, we quantified changes in the structure and

composition of the *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* cell wall in swarmer and

vegetative cells and characterized their susceptibility to osmotic changes and cell wall-

modifying antibiotics. Our results indicate that morphological changes that enable these

bacteria to adapt to new physical environments come at a significant fitness cost: cells

become more susceptible to changes in their chemical environment. These results

predict cell wall-modifying antibiotics should deter infections of *P. mirabilis* and *V.*

parahaemolyticus in which swarming is implicated (e.g., in urinary tract infections).

Results

The bending rigidity of *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* cells decreases during

swarming. During surface motility, *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* cells grow into

swarmers that are characteristically long (10-100 μm) and present a high surface density

of flagella that enables them to translate through viscous environments (3, 10). We

found that these swarmer cells display an unusual phenotype that is rarely observed

among gram-negative bacteria: cells become remarkably flexible and their shape is

dynamically altered by adjacent cell motion and collisions (Fig. 1). The ability of *P.*

mirabilis swarmer cells to form cell-cell contacts plays a role in their cooperative motility

(10), leading us to hypothesize that increasing flexibility enables these long cells to

optimize packing into multicellular structures that move cooperatively across surfaces.

Bacterial cell mechanics is generally attributed to the peptidoglycan (PG) layer of the

cell wall, which has a thickness of ~3-50 nm and surrounds the cytoplasmic membrane

(11). Very little is known about mechanical regulation in bacteria (12-17) and we are

unaware of studies connecting swarming to changes in cell mechanics. We quantified

changes in swarmer-cell stiffness using cell-bending assays in a reloadable,

poly(dimethylsiloxane) microfluidic system (Fig. 2 and S1) that is related to a method

developed previously (18). In bending assays, we applied a shear fluid force to multiple

filamentous cells, resulting in horizontal deflection of their cell tips (Fig. 2); fitting the

deflection data to a mechanical model provided us with a value of the (flexural)

bending rigidity of cells (Fig. S2). Introducing a reloadable mechanism enabled us to

perform rapid bending measurements of *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* swarmer

cells after isolating them from swarm plates. As a point of comparison, we filamented

vegetative cells of *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* using aztreonam—an inhibitor of

the division specific transpeptidase PBP3—to match the length of swarmer cells and

compared their bending rigidity values to swarmer cells. As a control, we measured the

bending rigidity of cells of *Escherichia coli* strain MG1655 that we filamented using

aztreonam, and determined the value to be 9.7×10^{-23} N m^2 (Fig. 3); using a value for the

thickness of the PG of 4-nm (19) yields a Young's modulus of 26 MPa, which is close to

values that have been reported previously (12, 18).

We used bending rigidity as a parameter to quantify *P. mirabilis* and *V.*

parahaemolyticus cell stiffness rather than Young's modulus, as the latter metric of the

mechanical properties of materials is dependent on cell-wall thickness, which we

hypothesized may change during swarming (described below). We found a substantial

decrease in the bending rigidity of swarmer cells of both *P. mirabilis* (~15-fold) and *V.*

parahaemolyticus (3-fold) compared to their vegetative cell counterparts (Fig. 3), which is

consistent with our observations of the shape and behavior of these cells during

swarming on surfaces. *V. parahaemolyticus* vegetative cells were remarkably flexible:

~134-fold more so than *E. coli* cells and ~3-fold more than *P. mirabilis* swarmer cells (Fig.

3).

To confirm that using aztreonam to inhibit PBP3 and produce filamentous cells

did not change the cross-linking density of PG at the division plane and alter cell

mechanics, we compared bending rigidity values of cells treated with aztreonam and

cells filamented by overexpressing SulA, a protein that prevents polymerization of the

division protein FtsZ and blocks cell division. Both mechanisms of filamenting *E. coli*

cells produced similar bending rigidity values: 4.0×10^{-20} N m² (SulA) and 4.1×10^{-20} N

m² (aztreonam) (Fig. S4*A*). To account for the high surface density of flagella on

swarmer cells, which may contribute to cell drag in fluid flow and bias measurements,

we performed bending rigidity measurements (Fig. S4*B*) on two K-12-derived strains of

E. coli with substantially different flagella densities (Fig. S4*C*) and observed no

appreciable change in values (bending rigidity of 4.0×10^{-20} N m² at high flagella density

and 4.1×10^{-23} N m² at low flagella density; Fig. S4*B*).

162   Overexpressing FlhDC—the heterohexameric activator that is important for

swarming—in vegetative cells growing in liquid produces a phenotype that replicates

many of the characteristics of swarmer cells, including increased cell length and flagella

density (20). The relationship between FlhDC and cell mechanics has not yet been

reported. To test whether FlhDC is connected to changes in swarmer cell stiffness, we

overexpressed the protein from the plasmid-encoded genes *pflhDC* in filamentous cells

of *P. mirabilis* and measured their bending rigidity. We detected a ~1.5-fold difference in

bending rigidity between wildtype (1.4×10^{-20} N m²) and *pflhDC*-containing *P. mirabilis*

vegetative cells (9.2×10^{-21} N m²), and no difference compared to *pflhDC*-containing *P.*

mirabilis swarmer cells (Fig. 3). These results indicate that FlhDC overexpression during

swarming contributes a small amount to the mechanical phenotype of swarming cells,

however the majority of the mechanical changes we observe arises from PG alterations

through another regulatory pathway.

Changes in PG composition of *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* swarmer cells.

PG consists of the disaccharide building block β-(1,4)-N-acetylmuramic acid/N-acetyl-

glucosamine (MurNAc-GlcNAc) in which a pentapeptide is attached to each 3′-OH

group on MurNAc. Cross-linking between adjacent pentapeptides creates a mesh-like

polymeric layer, and altering its structure and composition affects cell-mechanical

properties (14, 15). To determine whether the PG composition of *P. mirabilis* and *V.*

parahaemolyticus cells changes during swarming, we isolated PG sacculi from vegetative

and swarmer cells and used ultra performance liquid chromatography-mass

spectrometry (UPLC-MS) to quantify its chemical composition (Fig. S*5*). As the PG

composition of *V. parahaemolyticus* has not yet been reported, we characterized its

muropeptide stem peptide using UPLC-MS/MS (Fig. S*6* and Table S1). Similar to *E. coli*

(21) and *P. mirabilis* (22), *V. parahaemolyticus* has a PG structure that is conserved across

other gram-negative bacteria, in which the peptide stem consists of L-Ala-D-Glu-*meso-*

diaminopimelic acid (*meso*-DAP)-D-Ala-D-Ala (Fig. S6).

Compared to vegetative cells, *P. mirabilis* swarmer cells contained fewer

monomers (MurNAc-GlcNAc), more dimers, and more anhydrous-containing

saccharides, which are found at the terminating end of glycan polymers (Fig. 4*A*) (11).

We detected no differences in the relative abundance of trimers between swarmer and

vegetative cells of *P. mirabilis* (Fig. 4*A*). The increase in anhydrous-containing

saccharides that we observed in *P. mirabilis* swarmer cells was correlated with a

decrease in polysaccharide length (Fig. 4*B*; the values plotted reflect the number of

MurNAc-GlcNAc dimers). A similar increase in anhydrous-containing saccharides and

decreased length of polysaccharides occurred in *V. parahaemolyticus* swarmer cells (Fig.

4*A, B*). We found no change in cross-linking density between vegetative and swarmer

cells of either *P. mirabilis or V. parahaemolyticus* (Fig. 4C).

Swarmer cells have a reduced PG thickness and display membrane defects. Changes

in the thickness of the PG layer and structure of the cell envelope may also explain the

observed decrease in swarmer cell stiffness. To identify changes in PG thickness of

swarmer cells, we isolated the intact layer of PG (i.e., sacculi) from *P. mirabilis*

vegetative and swarmer cells and measured the thickness of dried sacculi using

tapping-mode atomic force microscopy (AFM) (Fig. 5*A*). Differences in the nanoscopic

appearance of the sacculi of different cells were not observed by AFM (Fig. S7). The

thickness of isolated, dry *P. mirabilis* swarmer cell sacculi (1.0 ± 0.2 nm) was reduced

~1.5-fold compared to vegetative cells (1.5 ± 0.2 nm) (Fig. 5*A*). *V. parahaemolyticus*

swarmer cells (0.6 ± 0.1 nm) exhibited a similar ~1.2-fold decrease in thickness

compared to vegetative cells (0.8 ± 0.2 nm). Earlier AFM measurements of isolated

sacculi indicated that dehydration reduced the thickness of *Escherichia coli* PG by ~2x,

which we used to estimate the dimensions of hydrated PG from *P. mirabilis* (3.1 and 2.1

nm for vegetative and swarmer cells, respectively) and *V. parahaemolyticus* (1.7 and 1.4

nm, respectively) (23). A comparison of PG thickness and cell bending rigidity

suggested that the relationship between these data is approximately exponential

(R^2=0.9874) (Fig. 5*B*).

A caveat with conversions between dried and hydrated values is that they will

be most accurate for PG that best mimics the structure and composition (e.g.,

crosslinking and polysaccharide composition) of the reference material: *E. coli* PG.

Alterations in the polysaccharide length of PG from *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus*

may be more elastic and stretch out during drying, thereby appearing to have a

thickness that is reduced compared to *E. coli* PG. Our control measurements on isolated,

dry *E. coli* sacculi yielded a thickness of 2.0 nm, which varies from the value of 3.0 nm

published by Yao et al. using the same technique (23). A difference of ~30% between

these *E. coli* measurements may arise for several reasons, including: variations in

physical conditions that can impact AFM measurements, improvement in the resolution

of AFMs, and/or the precision of fitting force curves.

The relatively low variability in the values we measured for isolated sacculi from

P. mirabilis and *V. parahaemolyticus* cells (~16-25%) demonstrated a consistent reduction

in PG thickness for swarmer cells, suggesting that our measurements are sufficient for

comparing PG from vegetative and swarming cells, and demonstrating a connection

between PG and changes in cell mechanics. In contrast, the variability in AFM

measurements and analysis makes us less comfortable comparing absolute values of PG

thickness to those reported for bacteria in other papers.

To complement AFM measurements, we sought to measure the thickness of

native PG using electron cryotomography (ECT) on intact vegetative and swarmer cells

(Figs. 5*C,D*, S8, and S9). Although we were unable to resolve the thickness of native PG,

sub-tomogram-averaged ECT volumes of the *P. mirabilis* cell wall (Fig. 5*C*) indicated

that the distance between the inner and outer membrane of swarmer cells was smaller

than in vegetative cells (Figs. *5*C,*D*). *P. mirabilis* vegetative cells had a characteristically

smooth membrane (Fig. S8*A,B*) that was similar to the presentation of the membrane

found along the lateral, cylindrical walls of swarmer cells (Fig. S8*C,D*). In contrast, the

polar regions of both *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* swarmer cells had an

undulating outer membrane suggestive of an altered structure (Fig. S8*E,F* and *S9D-F*),

and *V. parahaemolyticus* cells had significant defects in their cell-envelope, including,

membrane budding, vesicle formation, and ruptured cell walls (Fig. S9*D-F*).

P. mirabilis and _V. parahaemolyticus_ swarmer cells are more sensitive to osmotic

stress than vegetative cells. To complement cell stiffness measurements, we

investigated the mechanics of swarmer cells and filamented vegetative cells by

measuring their changes in length and volume in response to changes in osmotic

pressure, which will cause cells to shrink cells (in H_2O) and swell (in a NaCl solution)

(Fig. S10). We filamented *P. mirabilis*, *V. parahaemolyticus*, and control *E. coli* cells using

aztreonam to create a range of cell lengths that matched the lengths of *P. mirabilis* and *V.*

parahaemolyticus swarmer cells. We expected that low values of bending rigidity and

compositional and structural changes in PG would cause swarmer cells to elongate in

response to changes in osmotic pressure (in comparison to filamented, vegetative cells).

We found that *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* swarmer cell extension in response to

osmotic shock was significantly larger than filamented, vegetative cells (Fig. 6). To

circumvent the cellular production of osmolytes to protect cells from large changes in

osmotic pressure during shock (typically produced within 1 min) (24), we used a

microfluidic device to rapidly switch between H_2O and a NaCl solution and measured

changes in cell length before cells adapted (Fig. S10).

Osmotic shifts produced small changes in the length (Fig. 6*A*) and width (Fig. 6*B*)

of vegetative filamented *P. mirabilis* cells compared to *E. coli* cells (Figs. 6*A,B*). In

contrast, *V. parahaemolyticus* vegetative cells substantially increased in cell length (Fig.

6*C*) compared to *E. coli* cells, with no observable change in cell width (Fig. 6*D*). In

response to osmotic upshifts (i.e., transitioning from H_2O to NaCl), *P. mirabilis* and *V.*

parahaemolyticus swarmer cells dramatically increased in cell length (Figs. 6*A, C*) (and to

a lesser extent, cell width for *P. mirabilis* but not for *V. parahaemolyticus*; Figs. 6*B, D*)

compared to vegetative cells. These results suggest that changes in *P. mirabilis* and *V.*

parahaemolyticus swarmer cell mechanics make them more responsive to osmotic

changes.

Increased susceptibility of *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* swarmers to the cell wall-targeting antibiotics. Although swarming colonies of bacteria display resistance to many antibiotics (5), our experiments suggest *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* swarmers may have increased susceptibility to cell wall-targeting antibiotics that further alter PG structure, composition, and properties. To determine the sensitivity of *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* swarmers to the cell wall-targeting antibiotics cephalexin (inhibits PBP3 and 4) (25) and penicillin G (inhibits PBP3, 4, and 6), we measured swarmer single-cell growth in the presence of the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of antibiotics in a microfluidic device (Figs. S11) for 3 h. The time scale of this experiment was chosen based on two previous reports: 1) treating cells with cephalexin for 3 h was sufficient to kill ~100% of a population of *E. coli* cells (26); and 2) ~2 h of cephalexin treatment was sufficient to observe cell lysis of *E. coli* cells measured by single cell growth (27).

Using a microfluidic device enabled us to supply cells with a source of continuously replenished fresh growth media to ensure exponential cell growth and a constant concentration of antibiotics. We found that the survival of *P. mirabilis* (66%) and *V. parahaemolyticus* (64%) vegetative cells treated with 1X MIC of cephalexin was slightly higher than *E. coli* cells (55%) (Figs. 7*A*, S12). Treating *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* swarmer cells with 1X MIC of cephalexin reduced survival to 37% and 19%, respectively (Figs. 7*A*, S12), indicating their increased susceptibility. Rates of cell

survival in the presence of penicillin G were similar to the use of cephelexin (Fig. 7*A*).

We characterized dead cells using microscopy to measure membrane blebbing, cell

lysis, and changes in the refractive index of cells.

Cell wall-targeting antibiotics are most effective against actively growing cells

(28, 29) and therefore increases in growth rate will reduce cell survival. To determine

whether a growth rate phenotype explains our observations, we normalized data for

cell length, and were unable to detect a change in the growth rate of swarmer cells

when they were treated with these two antibiotics (Fig. S13). We measured the mean

survival time of cells (the amount of time elapsed after treatment with drugs before cell

death) for *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* swarmer cells treated with cephalexin and

penicillin G (Fig. 7*B*) and found that the survival time for these swarmer cells was lower

than that for vegetative cells (Fig. 7*B*), which is consistent with alterations in the PG.

Discussion

P. mirabilis is commonly associated with complicated urinary tract infections and

increased mortality in cases of bacteremia (30). Swarming is hypothesized to enable *P.*

mirabilis cell movement from the ureter to the kidney; in support of this hypothesis,

swarming deficient mutants have lower rates of host infection (31). We found that

during swarming, *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* cells become more flexible due to

changes in PG composition and cell wall structure. Presumably this phenotype conveys

an adaptive advantage for cells that we hypothesize improves community motility by

enabling long swarmer cells to form cell-cell contacts that are demonstrated to enhance

motility. The adaptive advantage of swarming in *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* is

offset by a decrease in their fitness, as cells become more sensitive to osmotic changes

and cell wall-targeting antibiotics, thereby creating an "Achilles heal" for targeting this

phenotype in infectious diseases. This study highlights the plasticity of bacteria (1), the

need for devising tests for treatments that measure efficacy against cells in a

physiological state relevant to specific infections, and re-considering the use of cell wall-

targeting antibiotics for treating UTIs in which *P. mirabilis* may be present.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains and cell culture. *P. mirabilis* strain HI4320, *V. parahaemolyticus* LM5674,

Escherichia coli MG1655 (CGSC #6300), and plasmids *pflhDC* (10) and *psulA*(18) were

used for experiments used in this paper. *P. mirabilis* was grown in PLB nutrient medium

consisting of 1% peptone (weight/volume), 0.5% yeast extract (w/v), and 1% NaCl (w/v).

V. parahaemolyticus was grown in nutrient medium (HI medium) consisting of 2.5%

heart infusion (w/v) and 2.5% NaCl (w/v). *E. coli* was grown in lysogeny broth (LB)

consisting of 1% tryptone (w/v), 0.5% yeast extract (w/v), and 1% NaCl (w/v). All strains

were grown at 30 °C with shaking at 200 rpm. Additional data and methods are

described in Supplementary Information.

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 FIGURES

Fig. 1. Images demonstrating the flexibility of *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus*

swarmer cells. (*A*) Time-series of *P. mirabilis* swarmer cells in a colony actively moving

across the surface of a 1.5% agarose gel. A representative cell, false colored green, has a

generally straight shape at t=0 s and is bent in half at t=0.98 s. Most of the cells in this

frame are bending during this imaging sequence. (*B*) A time-series of *V. parahaemolyticus*

swarmer cells in a colony actively moving across the surface of a 1.4% agarose gel. A

representative cell (false colored purple) has a generally straight shape at t=0 s and is

bent in half at t=4.02 s.

A *Proteus* swarmer   B *Vibrio* swarmer

10 µm   10 µm

t=0 s   t=0 s

t=0.49 s   t=2.01 s

t=0.98 s   t=4.02 s

453   **Fig. 1**

Fig. 2. Using a reloadable microfluidic-based assay to determine bacterial cell stiffness.

(*A*) Schematic of the microfluidic channel used to apply a user-defined shear force to

bend filamentous or swarmer cells. Single-sided green arrows depict the flow of fluid

through the central channel; the parabolic flow profile of the fluid is shown. Double-

sided green arrows indicate the vacuum chamber used to load cells into side channels

and to empty the device. (*B*) Cartoon of a flexible bacterium (left) and a stiff bacterium

(right) under flow force (V_{flow}). x_{max} indicates the deflection of cells in the flow; $2r$ = cell

diameter; L = cell length in contact with the flow force. (*C*) Representative images of

filamentous cells of *P. mirabilis* in no flow (left) and flow (right) conditions (top) and *P.*

mirabilis swarmers (bottom). Purple dashed lines indicate the position of a cell tip under

no flow conditions and black dashed lines illustrate the position after flow is applied

using a gravity-fed mechanism. The arrow indicates the direction of fluid flow in the

channel.

A

100 µm

25 µm

Apply vacuum to load cells

Fluid flow

Cells

B

x_{max}

x_{max}

V_{flow}

L

L

Cell

$2r$

C

No flow   Flow ⟶

Proteus vegetative filamented

10 µm

Proteus swarmer

10 µm

Fig 2.

Fig. 3. *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* swarmer cells have a lower bending rigidity

than vegetative cells. We measured the bending rigidity of *P. mirabilis* and *V.*

parahaemolyticus swarmer cells and filamentous vegetative cells in a microfluidic flow

assay and included measurements of vegetative *E. coli* cells. *P. mirabilis* swarmers

exhibited 15-fold lower bending rigidity than vegetative cells; *V. parahaemolyticus*

swarmers were 3-fold less rigid than vegetative cells. Overexpression of FlhDC (from

the plasmid-encoded *pflhDC*) had little effect on the stiffness of *P. mirabilis* vegetative

and swarmer cells. Error bars represent the 95% confidence interval of a fit to data. *n* >

100 cells, from at least 3 independent experiments.

Fig 3.

Fig. 4. Alterations in the PG muropeptide composition of *P. mirabilis* and *V.*

parahaemolyticus swarmer cells. (*A*) UPLC-MS data reveal that the muropeptide

composition of *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* vegetative and swarmer cells differs

slightly in the abundance of monomer, dimer, and anhydrous-terminated saccharides.

(*B*) We observed a relative increase in the amount of anhydrous-containing saccharides

in swarmers consistent with a decrease in polysaccharide strand length. (*C*) There was

no change in PG cross-linking of *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* vegetative and

swarmer cells, although *V. parahaemolyticus* does display a lower level of cross-linking. *n*

= 3 biological replicates. Error bars represent the standard deviation of the mean.

For (*A-C)*, significance was determined via two-way analysis of variance: *$P \leq 0.05$, **$P \leq$

0.01, ***$P \leq 0.001$, ****$P \leq 0.0001$, ns = not significant ($P > 0.05$).

Fig 4.

Fig. 5. AFM reveals the PG layer of *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* swarmer cells is

thinner than in vegetative cells and ECT demonstrates a reduced membrane-to-

membrane distance. (*A*) Sacculi were isolated from cells, dried, and imaged by AFM.

The thickness of swarmer cell PG was reduced compared to vegetative cells. We

analyzed >65 vegetative cells of *E. coli*, *P. mirabilis*, and *V. parahaemolyticus*, >65 *P.*

mirabilis swarmer cells, and 7 *V. parahaemolyticus* swarmer cells. Error bars represent the

standard deviation of the mean. (*B*) Bending rigidity and cell wall thickness display an

approximately exponential relationship (R^2=0.9874). (*C*) Sub-tomogram-averaged ECT

volume images of the *P. mirabilis* vegetative (left) and swarmer (right) cell wall. Two

central slices of sub-tomogram average volume images with normalized image densities

are shown. Yellow dashed line indicates the orientation used for gray-value

measurements. ES, extracellular space; OM, outer membrane; PG, peptidoglycan; IM,

inner membrane; CP, cytoplasm. (*D*) The density profile of sub-tomogram-averaged

ECT volume images reveals a reduced membrane-to-membrane distance in swarmer

cells. The vertical axis is the normalized gray value with the darkest value equal to 0

and the lightest value equal to 1. The red dashed line denotes the average gray value of

the extracellular space and serves as a reference for the background; the blue shaded

area indicates the thickness of the putative PG layer.

Fig 5.

Fig. 6. Swarmer cells increase in cell extension during osmotic shock. We calculated ΔL

as (cell length in water – cell length in 1 M NaCl) and performed a similar calculation

for ΔW, substituting cell width. Cell length indicates length prior to osmotic shock. We

filamented all vegetative cells using aztreonam to grow them to lengths that were

comparable with *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* swarmers. Lines indicate linear fits

to single-cell measurements (circles) of $n > 100$ cells from at least 3 independent

experiments. (*A*) *P. mirabilis* swarmer cells have an increase in extension (ΔL) under

osmotic shock compared to *E. coli* and *P. mirabilis* vegetative cells. (*B*) *V. parahaemolyticus*

vegetative and swarmer cells have an increase in extension (ΔL) under osmotic shock

compared to *E. coli*. (*C*) *P. mirabilis* swarmer cells have an increase in ΔW compared to *E.*

coli; *P. mirabilis* vegetative cells display a slight decrease in width and increased cell

length. (*D*) There was no observable change in ΔW of *V. parahaemolyticus* swarmer and

vegetative cells.

Fig 6.

Fig. 7. Swarmer cells are more susceptible to antibiotics that target the cell wall than are

vegetative cells. (*A*) Survival of cells treated with 1X MIC of cephalexin after 3 h of

incubation. We define percent survival as (cell count$_{no\ lysis}$ / cell count$_{total}$) x 100. *P.*

mirabilis and *V. parahaemolyticus* swarmer cells exhibit decreased levels (~30%) of

survival compared to vegetative cells; $n \geq 90$ cells from at least two independent

experiments. A similar decrease occurred when *P. mirabilis* was treated with penicillin

G; $n \geq 77$ cells from at least two independent experiments). Error bars represent the

standard deviation of the mean. (*B*) After exposure to cephalexin or penicillin G, the

survival time of *P. mirabilis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* swarmers was 2~3 fold lower than

for vegetative cells. Survival time was determined for ≥ 49 cells that lysed from at least 2

independent experiments. Significance in *A-B* was determined two-tailed t-test: *$P \leq$

0.05, **$P \leq 0.01$, ****$P \leq 0.0001$.

Fig 7.