1   Establishing Rod-Shape from Spherical, Peptidoglycan-Deficient Bacterial

2   Spores

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17   *Keywords: germination, Rod system, MreB, GTPase, gliding motility*

ABSTRACT

Chemical-induced spores of the Gram-negative bacterium *Myxococcus xanthus* are

peptidoglycan (PG)-deficient. It is unclear how these spherical spores germinate into

rod-shaped, walled cells without preexisting PG templates. We found that germinating

spores first synthesize PG randomly on spherical surfaces. MglB, a GTPase activating

protein, surveys the status of PG growth and establishes one future cell pole. Following

MglB, the Ras family GTPase MglA localizes to the second pole. MglA directs molecular

motors to transport the bacterial actin homolog MreB and the Rod PG synthesis

complexes away from poles. The Rod system establishes rod-shape by elongating PG

at nonpolar regions. Thus, the interaction between GTPase, cytoskeletons and

molecular motors provides a mechanism for the *de novo* establishment of rod-shape in

bacteria.

Significance

Spheres and rods are among the most common shapes adopted by walled bacteria, in which

the peptidoglycan (PG) cell wall largely determines cell shape. When induced by chemicals,

rod-shaped vegetative cells of the Gram-negative bacterium *Myxococcus xanthus* thoroughly

degrades their PG and shrinks into spherical spores. As these spores germinate, cells rebuild

rod-shaped PG without preexisting templates, which provides a rare opportunity to visualize *de*

novo PG synthesis and bacterial morphogenesis. In this study, we investigated how spherical

spores elongation into rods during germination and elucidated a system for rod-shape

morphogenesis that includes the Rod PG synthesis system, a GTPase-GAP pair, the MreB

cytoskeleton and a molecular motor.

Morphogenesis is a fundamental problem in biological systems. Compared to symmetric

spheres, rods are asymmetric and polarized. For most rod-shaped bacteria, the

peptidoglycan (PG) cell wall defines cell geometry, which is synthesized by two major

enzymatic systems. The Rod system consists of RodA, a SEDS-family PG polymerase,

PBP2, a member of the class B penicillin-binding proteins (bPBPs), and MreB, a

bacterial actin homolog (1-3). MreB orchestrates PG growth by the Rod complexes in

response to local cell curvature (4-9). In contrast, class A PBPs (aPBPs) contribute to

PG growth independent of MreB (10, 11).

Myxococcus xanthus, a rod-shaped Gram-negative bacterium, utilizes polarized

geometry for directed locomotion. MglA, a Ras family small GTPase, controls the

direction of gliding motility. The motors for gliding assemble into functional machineries

on MreB filaments (12-16). Consequently, the gliding machineries carry MreB filaments

as they move rapidly in the membrane (17). As cells move, GTP-bound MglA forms

large clusters at leading cell poles, whereas GDP-bound MglA distributes

homogeneously in the cytoplasm (16, 18, 19). The activity of MglA is regulated by its

cognate GTPase-activating protein (GAP), MglB, which forms large clusters at lagging

cell poles. MglB activates the GTPase activity of MglA, expelling MglA-GTP from

lagging poles (18, 19). MglA regulates the assembly and moving direction of the gliding

machinery through direct interaction with MreB (16, 20). Overall, the polarized

localization and activities of MglA and MglB ensure that the majority of gliding

machineries moves from poles to nonpolar regions, which generates propulsion (12, 16,

20).

Some rod-shaped bacteria change their geometry through sporulation. In

Firmicutes such as Bacilli and Clostridia, the morphological differentiation from rod-

shaped vegetative cells to oval spores begins with an asymmetric division, resulting in

the formation of a smaller spore wholly contained within a larger mother cell. In contrast

to endospore-forming bacteria, *M. xanthus* produces spores using two division-

independent mechanisms. First, groups of vegetative cells can aggregate on solid

surfaces and build spore-filled fruiting bodies (21). Second, individual *M. xanthus* cells

can form dispersed, spherical spores in response to chemical signals, such as glycerol

(22). Unlike endospores that contain intact and often thickened PG (23, 24), PG is

thoroughly degraded during single cell sporulation (25). Without the polarity defined by

PG, the mechanism by which glycerol-induced *M. xanthus* spores elongate into rods

remains largely unknown.

Results

Two-phase morphological transition during *M. xanthus* spore germination.

Overnight induction by 1 M glycerol produced spores with length to width aspect ratios

(L/W) of 1.56 ± 0.36 (n = 789), among which 40.9% are approximately spherical (L/W $\leq$

1.3). Overall, the L/W values of most (85.4%) spores were lower than 2. As spores

germinated, the morphological transition progressed in a two-phase manner. In the first

hour of germination (Phase I), L/W did not change significantly (p = 0.57, Fig. 1A, 1B, *SI*

Appendix, Movie S1). After 1 h, L/W increased sharply as the emerging cells

transformed into rods (Phase II). 70.2% (n = 198) of emerging cells reached the

dimensions of vegetative cells by 3 h (Fig. 1A, 1B, *SI Appendix,* Movie S1, Table S1).

After 8 h, the emerging cells are indistinguishable from vegetative cells (L/W = $5.55 \pm$

1.12, n = 233. Fig. 1A, 1B). Importantly, many oval spores initiated elongation along

their short axes (Fig. 1C, *SI Appendix,* Movie S2), indicating that although not perfectly

spherical, the geometry of mature spores does not predetermine the polarity of

emerging cells.

Using cryo-electron tomography (cryo-ET), we confirmed that mature glycerol-

induced spores do not retain PG (*SI Appendix,* Fig. S1). To investigate the role of PG

growth in germination, we treated spores with several inhibitors for PG synthesis. In the

presence of mecillinam and A22, which inhibit PBP2 and MreB in the Rod system,

respectively, spores failed to germinate into rods as their L/W ratios did not increase

within 8 h (Fig. 1A, 1B). These treated spores were viable because they were able to

grow into rods in inhibitor-free medium. Since A22 and mecillinam-treated spores

became even more spherical in Phase I (Fig. 1D), neither inhibitor blocked the

hydrolysis of spore coats that maintain the oval shape of spores. In the presence of

cefsulodin that inhibits PBP1A/B, and cefmetazole that inhibits all PBPs except PBP2,

spores were able to form rods, albeit the elongation rate was slower (Fig. 1A, 1B).

Although not essential for rod-like morphogenesis, aPBPs still contribute to the

establishment and maintenance of rod shape. First, L/W values of the cefmetazole-

treated spores increased significantly in Phase I of germination (p < 0.0001, Fig. 1B,

1D), suggesting that cells elongate earlier when PBP2 is dominant over other PBPs.

Second, despite successful elongation in early Phase II (1 – 3 h), 57.2% (n = 215)

cefsulodin-treated and 96.6% (n = 203) cefmetazole-treated emerging cells

retrogressed to spheres after 8-h treatments (Fig. 1A, 1B). As glycerol-induced spores

preserve PG precursors(25), when fosfomycin was added to inhibit the production of

UDP-MurNAc, a precursor of PG, spores were able to elongate into rods (Fig. 1A, 1B).

Taken together, PG polymerization by the Rod system is essential for the establishment

of rod-shape.

We next visualized the patterns of PG growth using a fluorescent D-amino acid,

TAMRA 3-amino-D-alanine (TADA) (26) to label newly synthesized PG. To enhance

labeling efficiency, we deleted the *dacB* gene (*mxan_3130*), which encodes a D-Ala-D-

Ala carboxypeptidase (27). The resulted *ΔdacB* cells showed identical morphology to

the wild-type ones and produced sonication-resistant spores. The *ΔdacB* spores

showed minor delay in germination and efficient TADA incorporation (Fig. 1E, *SI*

Appendix, Fig. S2 and Table S1). Although L/W of spores did not change, PG had

started to grow in Phase I. The surfaces of most Phase I spores (78.0%, n = 600) were

evenly labeled (Fig. 1E). The remaining 22.0% of spores showed bright patches of

TADA on their surfaces (Fig. 1F). However, these TADA patches do not likely register

future poles because 47.0% (n = 132) of spores contained more than two such patches

and these patches positioned randomly on spore surfaces (Fig. 1G, 1F). In contrast, as

cells grew into rods, TADA was incorporated heavily at nonpolar regions and

fluorescence signals were generally absent at cell poles (Fig. 1E). The patterns of PG

growth indicate that spores first synthesize PG on their spherical surfaces in Phase I

and then break symmetry in Phase II by growing PG at nonpolar regions.

Neither mecillinam, cefsulodin or cefmetazole was able to block TADA

incorporation in Phase I of germination. However, a treatment by all three antibiotics

abolished TADA incorporation (Fig. 1H), indicating that both aPBPs and the Rod system

contribute to the isotropic PG growth in Phase I. In contrast, mecillinam, but not

cefsulodin or cefmetazole, blocked TADA incorporation in Phase II of germination (Fig.

1H). Consistent with a recent report that cells reduce their diameter when the Rod

system becomes dominant over aPBPs (28), emerging cells continued to grow in length

but shrink in width in Phase II (Fig. S3). These results confirm that while both aPBPs

and the Rod system participate PG synthesis in Phase I of germination, the Rod system

plays major roles in cell elongation in Phase II.

MglA and MglB are required for rapid cell elongation To investigate how *M. xanthus*

spores establish cell polarity *de novo*, we tested the potential roles of polar-localized

motility regulators. *ΔmglA* and *ΔmglB* cells were able to form sonication-resistant spores

but their spores showed severe delays in elongation during germination. After 3 h, only

15.7% of the *ΔmglA* (n= 140) and 10.4% of *ΔmglB* (n = 298) cells reached the

vegetative aspect ratio (Fig. 2A, 2B). In contrast, deleting *romR* and *plpA*, the genes

encode another two polar-localized motility regulators (29-31), only caused minor delay

in germination (Fig. S4 and Table S1). Both the $\Delta mglA$ and $\Delta mglB$ spores were able to

elongate in length and shrink in width, albeit at significantly lower rates (Fig. 2A, 2B, *SI*

Appendix, Fig. S3), indicating that PG growth by the Rod complex still occurred.

Strikingly different from wild-type spores that maintained relatively smooth surfaces

during germination, the $\Delta mglA$ and $\Delta mglB$ spores generated pronounced bulges at

nonpolar regions in Phase II, appearing to have multiple cell poles (Fig. 2A, 2C, *SI*

Appendix, Movie S3). However, this crooked morphology was largely corrected after

prolonged growth (8 h) (Fig. 2A), implying that a system independent of MglA and MglB

was able to generate rod shape, although much less robustly. To determine how MglA

and MglB regulate germination, we investigated the spores that expressed the MglA^{Q82L}

variant as the sole source of MglA, under the control of the native promoter of the

mglBA operon. MglA^{Q82L} expresses normally but is unable to hydrolyze GTP (19).

Spores expressing wild-type MglB and MglA^{Q82L} showed both a severe delay in cell

elongation and bulged surfaces on emerging cells, similar to the $\Delta mglA$ and $\Delta mglB$

spores (Fig. 2A, 2B). Thus, the GTPase activity of MglA is required for rapid cell

elongation and MglB functions through MglA.

Both the delayed morphological transition and bulged surfaces of the mutant

spores suggest that MglA and MglB might regulate PG growth during germination.

$\Delta mglA$ $\Delta dacB$ and $\Delta mglB$ $\Delta dacB$ spores were able to grow PG in an isotropic manner in

Phase I, identical to the $\Delta dacB$ spores (Fig. 2D). However, emerging cells from both

mutant spores displayed elevated PG growth at cell poles and bulges in Phase II (Fig.

2D). As the Rod complex is the major system for PG growth in Phase II, the MglA-MglB

polarity axis might promote rapid cell elongation by restricting the Rod complexes to

nonpolar regions.

MglB determines the first future pole. We expressed endogenous YFP-labeled MglA

and mCherry-labeled MglB and correlated their localization patterns with L/W. 94.1% (n

= 152) of Phase I spores (L/W $\leq$ 2) contained one or two MglB clusters (Fig. 3A, 3B). In

phase II spores (L/W > 2), this ratio increased to 100% (n = 120). In contrast, MglA did

not form clusters until Phase II, when 54.2% of emerging cells contained one or two

MglA clusters (Fig. 3A, 3B). Thus, during germination, MglB establishes polarized

localization before MglA.

To test if the clusters of MglB in Phase I spores mark the polarity inherited from

previous vegetative cells, we imaged MglB clusters at 0.05 Hz. the majority of MglB

clusters in Phase I spores was highly dynamic (Fig. 3C, *SI Appendix,* Movie S4). Among

114 MglB clusters in Phase I spores, 22.9% remained stationary, and 77.1% showed

typical diffusion, with diffusion coefficients (D) of $1.05 \times 10^{-4} \pm 4.62 \times 10^{-5}$ μm^2/s. These

"wandering" MglB clusters were observed in both the approximately spherical (L/W <

1.3) and oval spores (1.3 < L/W $\leq$ 2), which supports our hypothesis that, regardless of

their geometry, polarity is not yet established in Phase I spores. As a control, imaged at

the same frequency, the fluorescence patches of TADA remained stationary in all

spores, which excludes potential artifacts caused by the movements of spores (Fig. 3C,

SI Appendix, Movie S5).

As germination progressed to Phase II (L/W > 2), the population of diffusive MglB

clusters decreased from 77.1% to 23.6% (n = 106, Fig. 3D). Stabilized MglB clusters

oscillated between newly established poles (Fig. 3C, *SI Appendix,* Movie S6), which

might provide a mechanism to ensure that MglB occupies each future cell pole for an

equal amount of time. When we expressed MglA-YFP in the *ΔmglB* background, the

formation of MglA clusters was delayed significantly, and in Phase II of germination,

only 23.3% (n = 120) of emerging cells contained MglA clusters (Fig. 3A, 3B). Thus,

rods start to form when a wandering MglB cluster stabilizes at one future cell pole and

positions MglA to the opposite future pole.

To investigate whether pole-like local cell curvature stabilizes MglB clusters, we

quantified the localization of stationary MglB clusters with regard to the geometry of

spores. We divide the spore/cell envelope into four quarters. In the quarter that

contained stationary MglB clusters, we defined the long and short axes as 0° and 90°,

which mark the local curvature that shows the highest and lowest similarity to the poles

of vegetative cells, respectively. As shown in Fig. 3E, MglB clusters stabilized randomly

in Phase I spores, indicating that MglB stabilizes before the establishment of cell poles

and that local curvature does not dictate the stabilized localization of MglB. The

population of diffusive MglB clusters decreased dramatically in the presence of A22,

mecillinam, cefmetazole and cefsulodin (Fig. 3D), indicating that in Phase I of

germination, active PG growth prevents MglB clusters from settling down. After the

stabilization of MglB, the sites harboring MglB clusters transformed into poles (0°) in

Phase II cells (Fig. 3E).

MglB clusters could stabilize either at the sites where PG synthesis has completed

or at the sites where PG synthesis has not yet initiated. We ruled out the second

possibility because the majority of MglB clusters (76.4%, n = 106) stabilizes at poles in

Phase II (Fig. 3A, 3B), where PG growth has completed (Fig. 1E). Consistent with our

finding that the Rod system becomes the dominant system for PG growth in Phase II

(Fig. 1H), A22 and mecillinam further reduced the small population of diffusive MglB

clusters in Phase II, while cefmetazole and cefsulodin did not show significant effects

(Fig. 3D). Taken together, it is the progress of PG growth, rather than the geometry of

the spore, that defines cell polarity. As MglB clusters only stabilize at the sites where

PG growth is completed, a region where PG synthesis completes first in Phase I will

become a future cell pole.

The MglA-MglB polarity axis regulates PG synthesis by the Rod system through

MreB and the gliding motor. MglA and MglB are both cytoplasmic proteins, which are

not likely to regulate the enzymatic activities of the Rod system directly. To investigate

whether MglA and MglB regulate the distribution of the Rod complexes, we used a fully

functional, photoactivatable mCherry (PAmCherry)-labeled MreB variant (17) to mark

the localization of Rod complexes in germination Phase II. When the majority of

PAmCherry was photoactivated, MreB-PAmCherry appeared as small patches (17)

(Fig. 4A). Compared to the wild-type spores where MreB patches mainly localized at

nonpolar locations, many MreB patches formed near cell poles and bulges of the

emerging ΔmglA and ΔmglB cells (Fig. 4A). We then photoactivate a few MreB-

PAmCherry particles in each emerging cell and quantified their localization using photo-

activatable localization microscopy (PALM). Along the long cell axis, we defined a

region within 320 nm from each end of cell as the pole and the rest of the cell as the

nonpolar region. In the emerging cells from wild-type spores that expressed MreB-

PAmCherry, the ratio between nonpolar and polar-localized MreB fractions was 2.68 (n

= 573, Fig. 4B). In contrast, in the ΔmglA and ΔmglB backgrounds, this ratio decreased

to 1.06 (n = 713) and 1.41 (n = 812), respectively (Fig. 4B). Our data support that during

the sphere-to-rod transition, MglA and expel MreB, and thus the Rod system, from cell

poles.

MglA connects MreB to the gliding motors and the gliding motors drive the

movement of MreB filaments (16, 17, 20). To test if MglA recruits the gliding motors to

transport the Rod complexes to nonpolar locations through MreB, we investigated the

regrowth process of the *ΔaglQS* pseudospores. *ΔaglQS* cells carry truncated gliding

motors that are unable to drive the rapid motion of MreB filaments (17). Due to the

truncation of motors, the *ΔaglQS* pseudospores lack compact polysaccharide layers on

their surfaces (32). Phenocopying the *ΔmglA* and *ΔmglB* spores, elongation of *ΔaglQS*

pseudospores delayed significantly and many emerging cells displayed bulged surfaces

in Phase II (Fig. 2). Consistently, significantly higher PG growth and MreB localization

were observed at cell poles and bulges in the elongation phase (equivalent to Phase II

of germination), similar to the observation made in *ΔmglA ΔdacB* and *ΔmglB ΔdacB*

spores (Fig. 2D, 4A, 4B). In summary, MglA and mglB restrict PG growth to nonpolar

regions in germination Phase II utilizing the gliding motors, which transport the Rod

complexes under the control of MglA.

Discussion

As spheres and rods are among the most common shapes adopted by walled bacteria, the sphere-to-rod transition during *M. xanthus* spore germination provides a unique opportunity to study rod-like morphogenesis in bacteria. Due to the absence of PG, glycerol-induced *M. xanthus* spores are especially valuable for the study of *de novo* PG synthesis, which drives spontaneous cell elongation in homogenous environments. In contrast to fruiting bodies that require millions of cells and days to form, glycerol-induced sporulation mimics the natural process that individual *M. xanthus* cells form spores within hours in response to environmental stresses. Without the protection from the fruiting body, rapid elongation could be critical for the survival of individual *M. xanthus* spores.

Based on the mutually exclusive localization of MglB and MglA-GTP in vegetative cells, we propose a model for spontaneous cell elongation during *M. xanthus* spore germination (Fig. 4C). We observed that MglB forms wandering clusters in Phase I of germination. Emerging cells start to elongate when the clusters of MglB stop moving and stabilize at what is to become a future pole. An important clue for understanding this process is that active PG growth prevents MglB clusters from settling down. Thus, the wandering dynamics of MglB clusters serves as a mechanism to survey the status of PG growth and the region where PG growth completes first in Phase I will host a MglB cluster and become a future pole in Phase II. MreB plays a key role in the stabilization of MglB clusters because both MglA and the Rod complexes assemble on MreB. Since MglB avoids colocalizing with MglA-GTP by converting the latter to MglA-GDP (18, 19) and MglA only binds to MreB (which also carries the Rod complexes) in

its GTP-bound form (16), the mutual exclusion between MglB and MglA-GTP will expel

MglB clusters from the Rod complexes. Once an MglB cluster stabilizes at one pole, the

expulsion between MglB and MglA-GTP causes MglA-GTP to cluster at the opposite

side of the spore (Figure 7). Then the diametrically opposing clusters of MglA-GTP and

MglB establish the polarity axis of the emerging cell.

A surprising finding of this work reveals that the MglA-MglB polarity axis regulates

the distribution of Rod complexes through the gliding machineries. Essential for gliding

motility, MreB serves as the platform for the assembly of the gliding machineries (12,

33). For this reason, compared to its homologs in other bacteria, *M. xanthus* MreB

displays unique dynamics: it is transported rapidly by the gliding motors, with a

maximum velocity of near 3 μm/s (17). At cell poles, MglA-GTP stimulates the assembly

of the gliding machinery by directly connecting it to MreB (12, 16). Once assembled, the

gliding machineries transport MreB filaments, thus entire Rod complexes, to nonpolar

locations (Figure 7) (17, 20). Utilizing the same system that defines the leading-lagging

axis in vegetative cells, spherical spores grow their walls at nonpolar regions and

eventually form rods.

Consistent with our model, the connection between the Rod complexes and gliding

machineries was also observed in a recent report, which showed that PG stops growing

in vegetative cells when the gliding machineries are dedicated to gliding (12). The

mechanism by which the gliding machineries switch between gliding and PG growth

remains to be investigated. Nonetheless, our results have added another layer to the

striking versatility of the gliding motors, which transport various cargos in different

compartments of the cells: spore coats on cell surfaces (32), the Rod complex and

gliding proteins in the membrane and periplasm (12, 15), as well as MreB and gliding

proteins in the cytoplasm (12, 17, 34).

Materials and Methods

Strain construction. Deletion and insertion mutants were constructed by electroporating *M. xanthus* cells with 4 µg plasmid DNA. Transformed cells were plated on CYE plates supplemented with 100 µg/ml sodium kanamycin sulfate or 10 µg/ml tetracycline hydrochloride. In-frame deletion of *dacB* is described in *SI Appendix, Materials and Methods, Table S2.*

Sporulation, spore purification and germination. Vegetative *M. xanthus* cells were grown in liquid CYE medium (10 mM MOPS pH 7.6, 1% (w/v) Bacto™ casitone (BD Biosciences), 0.5% yeast extract and 4 mM $MgSO_4$) at 32 °C, in 125-ml flasks with rigorous shaking, or on CYE plates that contains 1.5% agar. When the cell culture reaches OD_{600} 0.1 – 0.2, glycerol was added to 1 M to induce sporulation. After rigorous shaking overnight at 32 °C, remaining vegetative cells were eliminated by sonication and sonication-resistant spores were purified. Sonication-resistant spores were collected by centrifugation (1 min, 15,000 g and 4 °C). The pellet was washed three times with water. More details of spore purification and the purification of *ΔaglQS* pseudospores are provided in *SI Appendix, Materials and Methods.*

Microscopy Analysis. Cryo-ET was performed on a Polara G2™ electron microscope. Images were collected at 9,000× magnification and 8-µm defocus, resulting in 0.42 nm/pixel. Data were acquired automatically with the SerialEM software (35). Time-lapse videos of the germination progress of wild-type and *ΔmglA* spores were recorded using an OMAX™ A3590U CCD camera and a Plan Flour™ 40✕/0.75 Ph2 DLL objective on a phase-contrast Nikon Eclipse™ 600 microscope. The length, width and geometric aspect ratios (L/W) of spores/cells were determined from differential interference

contrast (DIC) images using a custom algorithm written in MATLAB (The MathWorks,

Inc., Natick, MA), which is available upon request. DIC images of spores/cells were

captured using a Hamamatsu ImagEM X2™ EM-CCD camera C9100-23B (effective

pixel size 160 nm) on an inverted Nikon Eclipse-Ti™ microscope with a 100✕ 1.49 NA

TIRF objective, which are also used for capturing regular fluorescence and PALM

images. MglB clusters and single-molecules were localized using an algorithm written in

MATLAB (17), which is available upon request. More detailed information is provided in

SI Appendix, Materials and Methods.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

426   We thank Drs. Joseph Sorg and Ritu Shrestha for their help in the initial determination

427   of germination phenotypes, Drs. Michael Van Nieuwenhze and Yen-Pang Hsu for

428   providing TADA, and Drs. David Zusman, Michael Manson and Joseph Sorg for critical

429   reading of this manuscript. This work is supported by the National Institute of Health

430   R01GM129000 (to B.N.) and R01AI087946 (to J.L.) and by CNRS to T.M.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. PG polymerization by the Rod complex is essential for *de novo* establishment of rod-shape. A) Morphological changes of untreated (UT) and inhibitor-treated wild-type spores in the germination process. Mecillinam (MEC, 100 μg/ml), A22 (100 μg/ml) cefmetazole (CMZ, 5 mg/ml), cefsulodin (CSD, 5 mg/ml) and fosfomycin (FOF, 8 mg/ml). **B)** Quantitative analysis of the germination progress using the aspect ratios (L/W) of spores/cells. Boxes indicate the 25th - 75th percentiles, whiskers the 5th - 95th percentiles. In each box, the midline indicates the median and × indicates the mean (Also see Table S1). Outlier data points are shown as individual dots above and below the whiskers. **C)** Some oval spores initiate elongation along their short axes during Phase II of germination (also see Movie S2). **D)** Phase I spores become more spherical after 1-h treatments by mecillinam and A22 but initiate elongation earlier when treated by cefmetazole. **E)** Patterns of PG growth in both phases of germination were visualized by TADA labeling in $\Delta dacB$ spores. The average and standard deviation of TADA intensity were calculated from 20 spores/cells in the diagrams to the right (same below). **F)** Imaged at different focal planes, 22.0% of Phase I spores show bright TADA patches (arrows) that position randomly on spore surfaces. **G)** Among these 22.0% spores, many contain multiple TADA patches. **H)** Compared to untreated (UT) $\Delta dacB$ spores, while neither MEC, CMZ or CSD is able to block PG growth, the combination of all three antibiotics (+3) abolishes PG growth in Phase I of germination. In contrast, MEC alone is sufficient to inhibit PG growth in Phase II. Scale bars, 2 μm. *p* values were calculated using the Student paired *t* test with a two- tailed distribution (same below). NS, nonsignificant difference.

Figure 2. MglA and MglB are required for rapid cell elongation. A) Emerging cells

from $\Delta mglA$, $\Delta mglB$, $mglA^{Q82L}$ spores and $\Delta aglQS$ pseudospores show significant delay

in elongation and crooked morphology in Phase II of germination. **B)** Quantitative

analysis of the germination progress. **C)** A representative image of the altered

morphology of the emerging $\Delta mglA$ cells after 3-h of germination. Arrows point to the

bulges that appear as additional poles. **D)** The disruption of either the MglA-MglB polar

axis ($\Delta mglA$ $\Delta dacB$ and $\Delta mglB$ $\Delta dacB$) or the gliding motor ($\Delta aglQS$ $\Delta dacB$) resulted in

significantly stronger PG growth at cell poles and budges (arrows) in Phase II.

Quantitative analysis of TADA fluorescence is shown on the right. Scale bars, 2 μm.

Figure 3. MglB determines the first future pole. A, B) While MglB-mCherry forms

clusters in Phase I spores (L/W $\leq$ 2), MglA-YFP are largely diffusive in Phase I. Without

MglB, MglA-YFP forms significantly less clusters in Phase II. For (**B**), the total number

of spores/cells analyzed for each strain is shown on top of the bar. **C)** 77.1% of MglB

clusters (red arrow) showed "wandering" dynamics in Phase I spores. In Phase II, MglB

clusters (yellow arrow) stabilized at cell poles and oscillated between opposite poles. As

a control, a TADA patch (white arrow) on a Phase I spore did not move during the entire

imaging process. **D)** The wandering behavior of MglB clusters depends on PG growth

as the inhibitors of PG synthesis, A22, MEC, CMZ and CSD, all significantly inhibit the

wandering of MglB in Phase I. In contrast, as the Rod system becomes the dominant

PG synthesis machinery in Phase II, only A22 and MEC inhibit the wandering of MglB in

Phase II. For each treatment, the total number of MglB clusters analyzed is shown on

top of the bar. UT, untreated. **E)** The stabilization of MglB clusters at cell poles does not

depend on local curvature. Scales bars, 2 μm.

Figure 4. The MglA-MglB polarity axis regulates PG growth through MreB and the

gliding motor. A) In the emerging *ΔmglA*, *ΔmglB* and *ΔaglQS* cells in Phase II of

germination, MreB patches (arrows) are frequently detected near cell poles and bulges.

B) The nonpolar-to-polar distribution ratios of MreB molecules were quantified by

PALM. For each strain, the total number of MreB particles analyzed is shown on top of

the bar. **C)** A schematic model for the *de novo* establishment of rod-shape by the MglA-

MglB polarity axis. Scales bars, 2 μm.

Fig. 1

Fig. 2

Fig. 3

Fig. 4

Fig. S1

Fig. S2

Fig. S3

Fig. S4