

Origin of a core bacterial gene via co-option and detoxification of a phage lysin

Amelia M Randich, David T Kysela, Cécile Morlot, Yves Brun

▶ To cite this version:

Amelia M Randich, David T Kysela, Cécile Morlot, Yves Brun. Origin of a core bacterial gene via co-option and detoxification of a phage lysin. Current Biology - CB, 2019, 29 (10), pp.1634-1646.e6. 10.1016/j.cub.2019.04.032 . hal-02296249

HAL Id: hal-02296249 https://hal.univ-grenoble-alpes.fr/hal-02296249v1

Submitted on 25 Oct 2021

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution - NonCommercial 4.0 International License

4 Authors

- 5 Amelia M. Randich¹, David T. Kysela^{1, 2}, Cécile Morlot³, Yves V. Brun^{1, 2}
- 6
- 7 Correspondence: Y.V.B. yves.brun@umontreal.ca; C.M. cecile.morlot@ibs.fr
- 8 Lead Contact: Y.V.B. yves.brun@umontreal.ca
- 9
- ¹ Department of Biology, Indiana University, 1001 E. 3rd Street, Bloomington, IN 47405 USA
- ² Faculté de médecine, Département de microbiologie, infectiologie et immunologie, Université
 de Montréal, Pavillon Roger-Gaudry, 2900, boulevard Édouard-Montpetit, bureau P-607,
- 13 C.P. 6128, Succursale Centre-ville, Montréal, QC H3C 3J7, Canada
- 14 ³ Univ. Grenoble Alpes, CNRS, CEA, IBS, 38000 Grenoble, France
- 15

16 Summary17

- 18 Temperate phages constitute a potentially beneficial genetic reservoir for bacterial innovation
- 19 despite being selfish entities encoding an infection cycle inherently at odds with bacterial fitness.
- 20 These phages integrate their genomes into the bacterial host during infection, donating new, but
- 21 deleterious, genetic material: the phage genome encodes toxic genes, such as lysins, that kill the
- 22 bacterium during the phage infection cycle. Remarkably, some bacteria have exploited the
- 23 destructive properties of phage genes for their own benefit by co-opting them as toxins for
- functions related to bacterial warfare, virulence, and secretion. However, do toxic phage genesever become raw material for functional innovation? Here we report on a toxic phage gene
- 26 whose product has lost its toxicity and has become a domain of a core cellular factor, SpmX,
- 27 throughout the bacterial order Caulobacterales. Using a combination of phylogenetics,
- bioinformatics, structural biology, cell biology, and biochemistry, we have investigated the
- 29 origin and function of SpmX and determined that its occurrence is the result of the detoxification
- 30 of a phage peptidoglycan hydrolase gene. We show that the retained, attenuated activity of the
- 31 phage-derived domain plays an important role in proper cell morphology and developmental
- 32 regulation in representatives of this large bacterial clade. To our knowledge, this is the first
- 33 observation of a phage gene domestication event in which a toxic phage gene has been co-opted
- 34 for core cellular function at the root of a large bacterial clade.
- 35

36 Keywords

- 37 Lysozyme, GH24, Prophage domestication, Bacterial evolution, Alphaproteobacteria,
- 38 Caulobacter, Asticcacaulis
- 39

40 Introduction

- 41
- 42 Understanding how new genes arise is key to studying the forces that drive diversity and
- 43 evolution. Although horizontal gene transfer (HGT) is widely regarded as an important
- 44 mechanism for exchanging *existing* genes among bacteria, mobile genetic elements can transfer
- 45 exogenous genetic material that gives rise to *novel* genes. These new genes provide the basis for
- 46 evolving new traits and propelling evolutionary transitions [1,2]. Temperate bacteriophages

47 mediate genetic transfer by integrating their genomes into bacterial hosts [3–6]. These integrated

48 gene tracts, called prophages, remain dormant until induced by various signals to produce phage

49 particles and proteins that lyse the cell. In many cases, prophages contain genes that benefit the

host, promoting prophage retention in many bacterial lineages, even after mutations have
 inactivated the prophage [7–9]. Accumulation of host-specific beneficial mutations in prophages

51 has been referred to as "domestication." Many domesticated segments of inactivated prophages

53 unexpectedly contain lytic and virion genes, which would intuitively be useless or even

64 detrimental to the bacterial host [7]. Bacteria can use these genes as weapons against competing

bacteria and eukaryotic hosts [10–14]. In contrast, we have identified an instance in which a
toxic phage gene has not been repurposed as a weapon, but has evolved into a domain in a new
core bacterial gene, *spmX*. Here, we report that SpmX resulted from an ancient domestication
event at the root of the alphaproteobacterial order Caulobacterales, in which co-option and

detoxification of a toxic phage gene gave rise to a novel bacterial gene with roles indevelopmental regulation and morphogenesis.

60 developmental regulation and morphogenesis. 61 SpmX was first identified as a developmental regulator in the model organism

62 Caulobacter crescentus [15]. Like most members of Caulobacterales, stalked C. crescentus cells divide asymmetrically to produce a stalked "mother" cell and a motile, flagellated "daughter" or 63 "swarmer" cell. The *Caulobacter* developmental cycle depends on strict coordination of cell 64 growth, chromosome replication and segregation, and division by various regulatory proteins 65 66 that differ in localization and timing [16]. This network depends on regulatory phospho-signaling factors localized and regulated by polar scaffolds. SpmX is one protein scaffold that localizes at 67 the stalked pole during the swarmer-to-stalked cell transition and recruits and potentially 68 activates the histidine kinase DivJ [15]. Intriguingly, SpmX is required for stalk synthesis 69 70 initiation and elongation in the closely related Asticcacaulis species A. excentricus and A. 71 *biprosthecum* [17]. Therefore, this gene appears to have evolved multiple roles for defining cell 72 morphology within this family of dimorphic, stalked bacteria.

73 Perplexingly, SpmX contains an N-terminal phage muramidase domain generally toxic to 74 bacteria. Phages use these enzymatic domains to cleave the bacterial cell wall and lyse bacteria 75 to release infectious phage particles. As a part of SpmX, this domain is critical for SpmX's role 76 in both developmental regulation and stalk biogenesis: the muramidase domain is necessary for 77 proper SpmX localization in both C. crescentus [15,18] and the Asticcacaulis genus [17]. 78 Various studies have shown that SpmX localizes with the polar scaffold PopZ in C. crescentus 79 [19,20] entirely through the muramidase domain [18]. The inability to measure enzymatic 80 activity from purified C. crescentus SpmX muramidase domain has led to the conclusion that the 81 domain lost its enzymatic activity and was repurposed for protein interactions and oligomeric 82 assembly [18]. However, given the remarkable sequence similarity of the SpmX muramidase 83 domain to functional phage lysozymes, including the canonical catalytic glutamate, total loss of 84 enzymatic activity seems unlikely. Why would this domain be so highly conserved if its new

85 function were merely for non-essential protein-protein interactions?

To better characterize the SpmX muramidase domain and the constraints underlying its conservation, we performed an in-depth bioinformatics study of more than 60 available SpmX genes together with structural determination, biochemical analysis, and comparative cell biology between *Caulobacter* and *Asticcacaulis*. We show that *spmX* arose prior to the diversification of

90 Caulobacterales, a large order of stalked bacteria. We establish that the SpmX muramidase

91 domain is a close relative of GH24 autolysin/endolysins that have been laterally exchanged via

92 prophages. We find that the SpmX muramidase domain exhibits attenuated ancestral phage

93 activity, consistent with its remodeled active cleft. Finally, we demonstrate that this enzymatic

activity is necessary for SpmX function in three representative species. We conclude that, close 94

95 to the time of the genesis of the full-length *spmX* gene, the co-opted muramidase domain

96 accumulated mutations that attenuated its hydrolytic activity on peptidoglycan and detoxified it

- 97 for bacterial use. To our knowledge, this is the first case of phage gene domestication in which a
- 98 toxic phage gene has been incorporated into a new core bacterial gene shared by a large bacterial order.
- 99
- 100

101 **Results**

102

103 The SpmX muramidase domain was co-opted from prophage in an early Caulobacterales

104 ancestor. We first determined the prevalence of SpmX and its homologues in the bacterial

105 domain. Simple pBLAST analysis revealed that SpmX, as defined by its three-part architecture

106 with an N-terminal muramidase domain, a charged and proline-rich intermediate domain, and

- 107 two C-terminal transmembrane (TM) segments (Figure 1A), is taxonomically constrained to
- 108 Caulobacterales and one member of its sister taxa, Parvularculales. It is conserved as a single-
- 109 copy gene in all sequenced members (Table S1). In all 69 identified *spmX* orthologues, the
- 110 muramidase domains exhibit high amino acid sequence conservation (Figure S1), the

111 intermediate domains high variability in length and sequence conservation, and the TM segments

- 112 moderate sequence conservation among genera (Figure 1A). Apart from these orthologues,
- 113 BLAST searches using SpmX only returned hits for the muramidase domain. These hits came
- 114 from Gram-negative bacterial genomes that span the entire bacterial domain and from viral 115 genomes. Most of these bacterial genes are likely to be in prophage regions, as evidenced by
- their position in tracts of prophage genes. We did not detect sequences homologous to SpmX 116
- 117 TMs in our search, although we occasionally detected homologous phage muramidase domains
- 118 fused to other, non-homologous TM segments.
- 119 Consistent with finding close SpmX muramidase relatives in prophages, NCBI's 120 Conserved Domain Database (CDD) tool [21,22] clustered SpmX muramidase with glycoside hydrolase 24 (GH24) lysozymes in the autolysin/endolysin class. The sequence cluster diagram 121 in Figure S2 illustrates the inferred, ancient evolutionary relationships between lysozyme 122 123 families based on sequence and structural alignments. These relationships allow us to determine 124 a root for the GH24v lysozymes, with SpmX emerging relatively recently within this ancient 125 clade of phage lysozymes. Autolysin/endolysins are closely related to classical phage T4 126 lysozyme-like (T4L-like) peptidoglycan hydrolases, which cleave peptidoglycan and lyse cells 127 during the lytic cycle. These lysozymes are distinct from lytic transglycosylases (Figure S2,
- 128 GH24 λ), which include known housekeeping bacterial hydrolases with roles in cell growth and
- 129 division. Lytic transglycosylases are also assigned to the GH24 group but share no sequence
- 130 similarity with T4L-like muramidases [23–25]. Thus, although core bacterial genomes encode
- 131 peptidoglycan hydrolases, the SpmX muramidase domain is most closely related to
- 132 peptidoglycan hydrolases encoded by prophages and phage genomes.
- 133 Unlike its close relatives that have been transferred horizontally through the bacterial 134 domain via prophage, the SpmX muramidase domain coding region has been inherited vertically
- 135 as part of the *spmX* gene in Caulobacterales. The SpmX gene tree mirrors the phylogeny of
- Caulobacterales from concatenated gene alignments (Figure 1B). None of the *spmX* genes 136
- 137 appear in tracts of prophage genes. The genomic context of *spmX* appears to be well maintained
- 138 in members of Caulobacterales, with the gene occurring between a putative Mg²⁺ transporter and

a putative isovaleryl-CoA dehydrogenase in most species. Together, these findings suggest that

140 SpmX muramidase domain is derived from an autolysin/endolysin no longer within a prophage

141 island but instead under direct cellular control. It likely fused with the intermediate and TM

142 domains in a common ancestor of Parvularculales and Caulobacterales. The vertical transmission

143 of *spmX* and strong sequence conservation of the muramidase domain suggests an important

144 cellular function for the gene among Caulobacterales members.

145

146 **The SpmX muramidase domain retains the canonical GH24 motif but contains mutations**

147 in the catalytic cleft known to inactivate phage lysozymes. To determine if critical enzymatic 148 residues in SpmX muramidase were conserved, we compared SpmX amino acid sequences to 149 other GH24v lysozymes. By definition, lysozymes catalyze the hydrolysis of β 1,4-linked glycosidic bonds in peptidoglycan and chitin [25]. This superfamily includes at least seven 150 151 distinct groups (five are represented in Figure S2) that are unrelated by sequence similarity but 152 share a common fold in which the catalytic Glu and the beta-hairpin motif in the N-terminal lobe 153 pack against the C-terminal lobe to form the catalytic cleft (Figure 2A) [26]. This beta-hairpin, 154 or GH motif, contains family-specific residues critical for enzyme activity in all lysozyme superfamily members [26]. 155

156 We compared the SpmX GH motif to those of lysozymes from the T4L and 157 endolysin/autolysin classes, which should share the same family-specific residues. Figure 2B 158 shows the amino acid conservation in the GH motif of T4L-like, autolysin/endolysin, closely 159 related non-SpmX muramidase, and SpmX muramidase protein sequences. Because the 160 autolysin/endolysin class and the closest non-SpmX relatives are likely to be active phage enzymes, highly conserved residues shared by these groups with T4L delineate positions that are 161 162 evolutionarily constrained for phage lysozyme activity and stability in this clade. For example, 163 D10 is not conserved outside of T4L-like enzymes because the autolysin/endolysin class does 164 not have a salt bridge between D10 and the C-terminal lobe [27]. On the other hand, all of the 165 putative phage sequences (Figure 2B(i-iii)) conserve the T4 lysozyme "catalytic triad": the 166 catalytic residue E11 and active site residues D20 and T26. While the exact roles of D20 and T26 are not clear, they are critical for effective catalysis [26–29]. Position D20 is very sensitive to 167 168 mutation, with only substitutions D20C/A retaining the hydrolytic activity of T4L or P22 phage 169 lysozymes [30]; these substitutions are tellingly well represented amongst the putative phage 170 sequences. Remarkably, SpmX muramidase domains demonstrate strong conservation of 171 residues required for the GH motif, but low conservation of residues associated with catalysis, 172 with the exception of the main catalytic residue, E11 (Figure 2B(iv)). The majority of SpmX genes contain the mutation D20L/R, both of which reduced T4L activity to less than 3% of WT 173 174 in previous studies [27] and which are distinctly unrepresented in the other phage muramidases. 175 Moreover, the T26 position no longer appears to be under selective constraint in SpmX. The 176 conservation of the GH motif coupled with the apparent inactivation of the catalytic triad across 177 all SpmX genes suggests that the catalytic cleft has been remodeled structurally and that the 178 muramidase domain may therefore not retain the same level of activity or function as phage 179 GH24v lysozymes.

180

181 The SpmX muramidase domain has a wider, more dynamic catalytic cleft than related

phage lysins. Obtaining the structure of the SpmX muramidase domain (residues 1-150) from

183 Asticcacaulis excentricus (SpmX-Mur-Ae) (**Table S2**) allowed us to directly visualize the effect

184 of the D20L and T26X mutations on the catalytic cleft. Overall, SpmX-Mur-Ae exhibits the

185 characteristic T4 lysozyme structure: the predicted catalytic glutamate occurs at the C-terminal

186 end of the first alpha-helix, within the catalytic cleft formed between the N- and C-terminal lobes

187 (Figure 3A). P22 lysozyme (the model for molecular replacement) and the active conformation

of the distantly related SAR endolysin protein R21 (PDB 3HDE) from bacteriophage P21
 (Figure S2) are overlaid in the structural alignment in Figure 3A to emphasize the manner in

(Figure S2) are overlaid in the structural alignment in Figure 3A to emphasize the manner in
 which the SpmX muramidase domain deviates from these phage lysozymes: besides the

extended beta-hairpin in the C-terminal lobe, the canonical GH beta-hairpin in the N-terminal

192 lobe of SpmX-Mur-*Ae* splays away from the catalytic cleft relative to those of the phage

193 lysozymes. This GH beta-hairpin region exhibited the most conformational differences among

194 the three molecules of SpmX-Mur-Ae in the asymmetric unit. The overlay of the three SpmX-

195 Mur-Ae chains in Figure 3B illustrates how the orientation of the GH beta-hairpin is tilted by

196 about 16° between chains A and B, suggesting a heightened flexibility in this region compared to

197 other T4L-like lysozymes, which may reduce the ability of the enzyme to coordinate

198 peptidoglycan hydrolysis in the catalytic cleft.

199 GH motif sequence alignments (Figure 2B) show that SpmX muramidase domains have 200 lost a highly conserved tyrosine residue at position 18. Although T4L enzymatic activity is not 201 sensitive to mutation at this position [27], it is invariant across all the phage lysozyme classes we 202 analyzed. Visualization of Y18 in the P22 lysozyme structure (Figure 3C) shows that it interacts with R14 at the base of the beta-hairpin, possibly a critical interaction for coordinating the beta-203 204 hairpin with the catalytic glutamate. In SpmX-Mur-Ae, Y18S still appears to make hydrogen-205 bonding contact with R14; however, most SpmX muramidase domains have non-polar residues 206 at position 18 (Figure 2B(iv)), which may reduce coordination. It has been previously shown 207 that the Y18 position is a hot-spot for compensatory mutations that restore activity to inactive 208 catalytic mutants [31], and it is intriguing to imagine that mutations at this position in SpmX 209 muramidase are associated with the ability of its remodeled, more flexible catalytic cleft to still 210 bind and/or cleave peptidoglycan.

211 Figure 3 shows the catalytic clefts of both P22 lysozyme (D) and SpmX-Mur-Ae (E). In 212 P22 lysozyme, the E11-carbonyl, D20-carboxyl, and T26-hydroxyl groups point into the aqueous catalytic cleft. In SpmX-Mur-Ae, the cleft is slightly reorganized, with the T26M S-methyl 213 214 thioether still within 20 Å of E11 and potentially capable of interacting with peptidoglycan. In 215 about two thirds of the SpmX genes, position 26 is either a valine or an isoleucine, which do not 216 have any polar moieties to contribute to the cleft (Figure 2B(iv)). With this structural data, we 217 can infer that the SpmX muramidase domain has a remodeled catalytic cleft with a correctly 218 positioned catalytic glutamate. However, the increased flexibility between the GH motif and the 219 glutamate, as well as the loss of key coordinating residues might reduce, if not eliminate, SpmX 220 hydrolytic activity, and would explain why previous groups could not detect hydrolytic activity 221 from purified SpmX muramidase [18].

222

223 SpmX retains reduced hydrolytic activity on peptidoglycan. Given SpmX's reported

inactivity [18] and the structural data suggesting the catalytic cleft is capable of interacting with

225 peptidoglycan, we hypothesized that the domain retains ancestral function in binding

226 peptidoglycan. To test this, various constructs from *C. crescentus*, *A. excentricus*, and *A.*

227 *biprosthecum* were purified and incubated with sacculi from all three species. Both muramidase

and entire soluble domains including the intermediate domain bound sacculi from all three

species (**Figure S3**). Since the purified protein was capable of binding its putative substrate, we

also tested its ability to hydrolyze peptidoglycan. We used remazol brilliant blue (RBB) assays to

compare the activity of SpmX muramidase from *C. crescentus* (SpmX-Mur-*Cc*) to P22 lysozyme (P22Lyso) and its D20L mutant (P22Lyso-D20L) (**Figure 4A**), and found that both SpmX-Mur-*Cc* and P22Lyso-D20L exhibit similarly attenuated hydrolytic activity in comparison to P22Lyso. Both reached maximal levels of RBB release near enzyme concentrations of 15 μ M while P22Lyso reached the same levels near 5 μ M. Mutants in which the catalytic glutamate was replaced with alanine (SpmX-Mur-*Cc*-E11A and P22Lyso-E11A) did not exhibit activity (**Figure S4A**). These data indicate that the "inactivating" substitution D20L attenuates enzymatic

activity whereas mutating the catalytic glutamate abolishes it altogether.

239 Because the D20L mutation reduced P22Lyso's activity close to that of SpmX 240 muramidase, it was possible that this mutation was responsible for SpmX's attenuated activity. However, restoring the ancestral D20 (SpmX-Mur-Cc-L20D) did not increase SpmX activity in 241 *vitro* (Figure S4B). We suspect that the additional accumulation of mutations in SpmX 242 243 muramidase, such as the drift observed at Y18 and T26 in the cleft, has made it impossible to 244 restore ancestral phage lysozyme activity with a single mutation. Because the D20L mutation is 245 ancestral in the SpmX phylogeny (Figure 1B) and capable of attenuating P22 lysozyme activity 246 to SpmX-like levels, we infer that this mutation likely occurred first. The increased flexibility of 247 the GH motif observed in the SpmX-Mur-Ae structure is therefore the consequence of many 248 mutations that accumulated either neutrally after the D20L substitution attenuated the activity, or 249 selectively to shape the new function of the domain as part of SpmX.

250 The enzymatic activity of the P22Lyso-D20L was puzzling in light of early work that 251 reported that D20 mutations inhibited T4 lysozyme in phage plaque assays [27]. One possible 252 explanation is that the D20L mutation reduces lysozyme activity to the point that it is not suitable 253 for cell lysis at *in vivo* expression levels, and that T4 lysozyme with the mutation was unable to 254 complete infection and form plaques. To explore this possibility, we designed an experimental 255 system to test the activity of P22Lyso and SpmX-Mur-Cc mutants in the E. coli periplasm using 256 fusions to the N-terminal PelB leader sequence (pET22b). Lemo21(DE3) cells expressing 257 P22Lyso lysed without induction (Figure 4B), indicating that marginal P22Lyso levels can drive 258 cell lysis. In contrast, cells expressing P22Lyso-D20L lysed only after induction (Figure 4C), 259 confirming that much higher enzyme concentrations were needed. Thus the D20L mutation may 260 represent a critical detoxification step that reduced the ability of the domain to lyse the cell and 261 made it available for co-option.

262 Although purified P22Lyso-D20L and SpmX-Mur-Cc had similar activation curves in 263 vitro, Lemo21(DE3) strains expressing SpmX-Mur-Cc never lysed (Figure 4C). This was 264 despite equivalent periplasmic expression levels to P22Lyso-D20L (Figure S4D). Different growth conditions and media increased the amount of SpmX-Mur-Cc in the periplasm but did 265 266 not affect cell viability (Figure S4C). Moreover, SpmX-Mur-Cc was active on sacculi isolated 267 from Lemo21(DE3) (Figure S4E), eliminating the possibility that it could not cleave E. coli 268 peptidoglycan. It is possible that SpmX-Mur-Cc cannot fold correctly in the E. coli periplasm, or 269 that its activity is further attenuated in the periplasmic environment. However, the periplasmic expression tests in *E. coli* confirm that the D20L mutation attenuates P22Lyso hydrolytic activity 270 271 and thereby increases the amount of protein required to induce lysis. This tuning of enzymatic 272 activity might have served as a critical detoxifying step in the co-option of the muramidase 273 domain from phage. Because SpmX has retained the ancestral catalytic glutamate and its 274 modified catalytic cleft is capable of hydrolytic activity, we conclude that this attenuated activity 275 is under purifying selection in SpmX and must be important for SpmX function. 276

277 Inactivating the muramidase domain interferes with SpmX localization in vivo. To

278 determine the role of the preserved, albeit attenuated, activity of the muramidase domain in

279 SpmX function, we inactivated it by mutating the conserved catalytic glutamate to alanine (E11A, E19A in SpmX numbering) at the chromosomal locus in various species and observed 280 281 the effects *in vivo* (Figure 5). We determined the effects of the E11A mutation on cellular 282 morphology, as the C. crescentus, A. excentricus, and A. biprosthecum $\Delta spmX$ strains all have 283 morphological phenotypes (Figure 5ABCii): In C. crescentus, $\Delta spmX$ cells have a characteristic 284 elongated morphology resulting from failed division cycles and often grow stalks prematurely 285 from daughter cells that fail to divide completely (Figure 5Aii) [15]. In Asticcacaulis, $\Delta spmX$ 286 cells lack stalks without other apparent developmental phenotypes (Figure 5BCii) [17]. If 287 enzymatic activity is critical for overall SpmX function, we expected that eliminating catalytic 288 activity with the E11A mutation would phenocopy $\Delta spmX$. However, we observed intermediate phenotypes for this mutation. In C. crescentus, the E11A mutant population contained both WT-289

phenotypes for this mutation. In C. *crescentus*, the ETTA mutant population contained both WTlike cells and cells exhibiting the division defect, but with less severity than in $\Delta spmX$ (Figure 5Aiii). In both *Asticcacaulis* species, the ETTA mutants still grew stalks (Figure 5BCiii). Nevertheless, the *A. biprosthecum* ETTA mutant exhibited a significant loss of bilateral stalks (3.5 fold reduction) and an increase in the frequency of cells with a single stalk (Figure S5D).

294 These results suggest that eliminating catalytic activity does not fully inhibit SpmX function. 295 WT and mutant SpmX GFP fusions allowed us to monitor changes in SpmX cellular 296 localization. As shown previously [15,17], WT SpmX localized at the future position of the stalk, 297 at the pole as in *C. crescentus*, or at sub-polar or bilateral positions in *Asticcacalis*, and was 298 retained at this position during stalk elongation (Figure 5ABCiii). Both C. crescentus and A. 299 *biprosthecum spmX* E11A mutants exhibited an increase in delocalized fluorescence throughout 300 the cell body compared to WT (Figure 5ABiv). Quantification of the fluorescence data indicated 301 that while the overall mean cell fluorescence was the same as WT, the SpmX foci were 302 significantly less intense in the mutants (Figure S5AB). We also observed a 3X increase in the stalk fluorescence in A. biprosthecum expressing SpmX E11A compared to WT (Figure S5B). 303 304 Although no difference in focal fluorescence intensity was observed in A. excentricus spmX 305 E11A mutant cells, more cells had a second SpmX focus at stalk tips than WT cells (Figure 5iv, 306 **S5C**), indicating altered localization. Western blots of cells expressing WT SpmX-eGFP and 307 SpmX mutants confirmed that the delocalized fluorescence was not due to clipping of the GFP 308 tag, but to delocalized SpmX protein (Figure S5E). Together these data show that the E11A 309 mutation disrupts SpmX localization in all three species and may underlie the morphological 310 defects observed in C. crescentus and A. biprosthecum.

311 Because the E11A intermediate phenotype suggested that the mutation might be 312 disrupting SpmX localization by interfering with peptidoglycan interactions, we also mutated a 313 position associated with peptidoglycan binding, but not catalysis, in T4 lysozyme. N/Q105 has 314 been shown to coordinate peptidoglycan in the active cleft [32] and the mutation Q105R 315 abolished activity in T4 phage plaque assays [27]. The mutation N105R (N91R in SpmX numbering) in C. crescentus and A. biprosthecum resulted in similar delocalization and 316 317 intermediate morphological phenotypes as E11A (Figure 5BCiiv). We also investigated the 318 effects of restoring the phage active site D20 (L28D in SpmX numbering) to the catalytic cleft. 319 However, this had no evident effect on SpmX localization or cell morphology (Figure 6i), 320 suggesting that the D20L substitution in SpmX, while ancestral, is not strictly necessary for SpmX function. This finding is in line with the observation that SpmX-Mur-Cc-L20D activity 321 322 was not significantly different from WT in our in vitro RBB assays (Figure S4B). Therefore, the 323 D20L substitution was likely a key first step in SpmX detoxification but no longer appears to be
 324 under fitness constraints.

325 Overall, these data show that inactivating enzymatic activity or reducing the peptidoglycan-binding capability of the muramidase domain affects SpmX localization and 326 327 function. Although it is not clear whether disrupting SpmX localization with the E11A mutation 328 stems from eliminating SpmX's hydrolytic activity or decreasing SpmX's binding affinity for peptidoglycan, the similar phenotype from mutating a predicted peptidoglycan-interacting 329 330 residue (N105R) underscores the importance of SpmX-peptidoglycan interactions. That the catalytic mutant has an intermediate morphological phenotype in C. crescentus and one 331 332 Asticcacaulis species indicates that the muramidase domain may coordinate SpmX functions 333 similarly in the two genera and that this function likely relies on its interactions with 334 peptidoglycan. 335

336 Replacing the muramidase domain, or removing it, depletes native SpmX protein levels in

337 vivo. Because SpmX localization depended on the ability of the muramidase domain to interact 338 with peptidoglycan, we were interested in whether swapping alternative muramidase domains 339 into SpmX would support WT function. We first made chimeras wherein P22 lysozyme replaced 340 the domain with the hypothesis that (1) P22 lysozyme would be too active and therefore toxic to 341 the cells and that (2) P22 lysozyme E11A might be able to support some level of SpmX 342 localization. While SpmX and the SpmX-E11A mutant exhibited the previously determined 343 morphological and delocalization phenotypes (Figure 6Aiii-iv), chimeras with P22 lysozyme 344 were surprisingly viable but phenocopied the parent $\Delta spmX$ strain and lacked fluorescence. We 345 were unable to detect any GFP-fusion products in this chimera by Western blot (Figure 6B), but 346 confirmed by sequencing that P22Lyso-SpmX had been correctly inserted at the *spmX* locus, 347 suggesting that the chimeras were likely expressed but quickly degraded in C. crescentus. 348 Therefore the phenotype of this chimera is due to the loss of SpmX and not the addition of the 349 P22 lysozyme domain. Inactivating P22 lysozyme (E11A) did not change the outcome, 350 suggesting that the toxicity of the phage muramidase was not driving SpmX degradation.

To determine whether the loss of SpmX protein levels was particular to using P22 351 352 lysozyme, we verified the phenotype when SpmX lacked the muramidase domain entirely. 353 Deletion of the muramidase domain from the *spmX* locus in all three species also resulted in 354 strains with the $\Delta spmX$ phenotype that failed to produce detectable amounts of $\Delta mur-SpmX$ -355 sfGFP by Western blot (Figure S5E). These results suggest that the SpmX muramidase domain 356 is necessary to produce and/or maintain WT levels of SpmX in all three species, and that P22 357 lysozyme, despite high sequence similarity (51%) and structural homology (RMSD 1.7 Å), is not 358 sufficient to replace it. P22Lyso and SpmX-Mur-Cc are nonetheless fairly distantly related, so 359 we tested the ability of other SpmX muramidase domains to replace that of C. crescentus. 360 Previously, C. crescentus and Asticcacaulis muramidase domains were shown to be 361 interchangeable [17], so we extended the sequence distance to SpmX muramidases from the next 362 closest relative *Brevundimonas subvibrioides*, which has D20R in the catalytic cleft, and the 363 most distant relative Parvularcula bermudensis, which shares the D20L mutation. We found that 364 the muramidase domain from *B. subvibrioides* supported the WT phenotype in *C. crescentus* 365 (Figure 6v), but that the SpmX muramidase domain from *P. bermudensis* did not. We were 366 surprised to see no evidence of delocalization in the B. subvibrioides SpmX chimera because the L20R point mutant of SpmX in C. crescentus showed some delocalization (Figure 6vi). This 367 368 result suggests that the L20R mutation in the brevundimonads must coexist with other

- 369 compensatory mutations. The SpmX muramidase domain from *P. bermudensis*, like P22
- 370 lysozyme, must be too distant from *C. crescentus* to support WT expression levels. In
- 371 combination with data from the P22Lyso chimeras, these data indicate that a T4L GH fold alone
- is not sufficient for SpmX function, and that the SpmX muramidase domain must contain other
- 373 mutations necessary for stable protein levels in Caulobacterales. It could suggest that this domain
- has additional constraints on it unrelated to potential peptidoglycan interactions, such as binding
- interfaces specific to its function as a recruiting factor and protein scaffold.

377 Discussion

378

379 Bacteriophages shape bacterial evolution in various ways: they increase bacterial diversity by

- selectively preying on species [2,33], drive horizontal gene transfer [8,34], and serve as
 reservoirs of raw material for genetic innovation [35,36]. Phages are heralded as a major source
- 382 of genetic material for novel gene emergence in bacteria [2,35,36], but, as we discuss later in this
- 383 section, very few examples of novel gene emergence from prophage exist in the literature. We
- 384 have investigated the origin and function of a taxonomically restricted gene from
- 385 Caulobacterales, spmX, and determined that its occurrence is the result of the fusion and domestication of a phage peptidoglycan hydrolase gene. Although SpmX functions as a scaffold 386 387 in developmental regulation and morphology, its muramidase domain retains high sequence 388 similarity to phage lysozymes, which are toxic to bacteria. The active cleft contains mutations 389 that have attenuated the toxic activity of the domain, presumably making it available for genetic 390 innovation and bacterial use. We show here that the domain remains enzymatically active on 391 peptidoglycan and that eliminating this activity alters the function of the full-length protein in 392 vivo. Thus, the SpmX gene represents a core gene innovation specific to the Caulobacterales 393 order that originally arose from a prophage gene with antibacterial activity.
- 394 Previously, it was suggested that the SpmX muramidase domain functions only in 395 protein-protein and self-oligomerizing interactions in SpmX's role as a developmental regulator 396 and scaffold in C. crescentus [18]. This conclusion was based on the lack of detectable activity 397 from the purified domain and the inability of the catalytic E11R (E19R in SpmX numbering) 398 mutant to self-oligomerize. It is highly likely that the E11R mutation greatly destabilizes the 399 muramidase domain structure. We found that even the E11A mutant eluted in multiple fractions 400 during purification, indicating decreased conformational stability. Moreover, the E11R protein 401 product was no longer detectable in the cells expressing the gene [18]. Thus, the effect of the 402 E11R mutation is similar to using a distantly related muramidase domain (like P22Lyso) or 403 deleting portions of the muramidase domain entirely [15]. These data indicate that the 404 muramidase domain plays an unanticipated role in maintaining stable SpmX protein levels across 405 all tested species: without an appropriate muramidase domain, SpmX is misfolded, 406 misprocessed, and/or quickly degraded.
- 407 Inactivating the SpmX muramidase domain resulted in developmental defects in C. 408 crescentus and significant decrease in bilateral stalks in A. biprosthecum. Curiously, inactivating 409 the enzymatic domain did not yield a null phenotype or complete delocalization. It is possible 410 that enough peptidoglycan-interactions are maintained in the mutants for the domain to function 411 as a peptidoglycan-binding domain. It is also possible that SpmX recruits proteins with 412 redundant enzymatic activity that cannot be recruited in the $\Delta spmX$ mutant, as it is already 413 known that SpmX interacts with targeting factors via its C-terminal domains in Asticcacaulis 414 [17] and possibly via its transmembrane segments with DivJ [15]. Finally, it is hard to

distinguish whether there is a direct relationship between catalytic activity and peptidoglycan binding, or if cleaving peptidoglycan could indirectly localize SpmX. The multiple domains and pleiotropic effects of SpmX make it difficult to assess the effects of an individual domain on its *in vivo* function. However, our data support a model in which the muramidase domain of SpmX is still active, and this activity is used to localize SpmX. We conclude that the muramidase domain functions in localizing SpmX via its interactions with peptidoglycan rather than selfoligomerization as previously hypothesized. This proper localization is necessary for its roles in

422 development and morphology.

423 SpmX emerges in the genomic record at the root of Caulobacterales with the attenuating 424 D20L mutation (Figure 1B). The D20L mutation is therefore ancestral and potentially the initial 425 step in the co-option of the domain. D20L conservation throughout most of Caulobacterales 426 suggests evolutionary constraint on this position despite no observable phenotype from the 427 SpmX-Mur-Cc L20D reversion mutation in vivo or in vitro. After the D20L substitution 428 detoxified the muramidase domain, the domain likely accumulated both neutral and occasional 429 adaptive mutations in the context of its new function. The active cleft contains several modifications, including the loss of selection on the third catalytic triad position, T26, and the 430 invariant residue Y18. This pair is interesting in that Y18 was identified as a hotspot for 431 spontaneous second site revertants of T26 mutants in T4 lysozyme [31]. It is possible that the 432 433 changes we see at these two positions are compensatory mutations retaining attenuated activity, 434 although there is no clear history of covariation. Accumulation of these types of mutations likely 435 underlies the inability to restore phage lysozyme-like activity by reversing the D20L substitution. 436 The ancestral D20L mutation has diverged in two groups: Oceanicaulis and Maricaulis 437 (D20R/G), and Brevundimonas (D20R) (Figure 1B, S1). Interestingly, D20R/G is covariant with 438 residue N105S/D (Figure S1), a peptidoglycan-interacting residue in T4L [32]. The covariance 439 of peptidoglycan-interacting residues in these diverging genera further underscores the 440 importance of this domain in peptidoglycan interactions, rather than just protein-protein 441 interactions.

442 *spmX* arose recently enough to see the hallmarks of novel gene emergence and adaptation 443 in a constrained bacterial clade. The gene either arose from a fusion event in the bacterial 444 genome, or the original phage gene contained the transmembrane segments. Detoxification of the 445 muramidase appears concomitant with the origin of the full SpmX gene comprising three fused 446 domains. Maintenance of the muramidase domain since the emergence of SpmX and its activity 447 in current living Caulobacterales members suggest that its attenuated activity was selected for in 448 the ancestral protein and still involved in its modern functions. In contrast, SpmX's downstream 449 intermediate domain is highly variable throughout Caulobacterales (Figure 1A). This domain 450 appears to experience comparatively minimal sequence constraint and has undergone multiple 451 independent events of elaboration and reduction in this clade. This region of charged residues 452 and prolines drives SpmX self-oligomerization *in vitro* [18], and may also facilitate other protein 453 interactions. For example, the intermediate domain appears to be responsible for targeting SpmX 454 to sub-polar and bilateral positions in Asticcacaulis [17].

In several reported cases bacteria have domesticated phage genes for genetic
manipulation and transfer, bacterial warfare, virulence, and secretion. However, these events are
distinct from that which created the novel bacterial gene *spmX*. Phage genes for DNA replication
and recombination have replaced bacterial functional homologues within bacterial genomes
several times [37–40], however these genes retain their original function and carry out the same
tasks. Gene transfer agents (GTAs) pose an interesting case where virion proteins from cryptic

- 461 prophage package random DNA from the bacterial genome to presumably share with other
- 462 bacteria [41]. Although a specific GTA has been stably maintained across several
- 463 alphaproteobacterial orders, this domesticated island of phage genes still shuttles DNA around,
- as it once did in ancestral infectious cycles [42,43]. Phage tails have been weaponized many
- times, resulting in type VI secretion systems [44,45], tailocins and phage tail-like bacteriocins
- 466 [12–14], phage tail-like systems with insecticidal properties [11,46,47], and phage tail-like arrays
 467 [48]. All of these represent a "guns for hire" acquisition scheme in which phage genes are co-
- 468 opted for their ancestral toxicity and function [2]. Many of these genes reside in genomic islands
- 469 and confer environmental, niche-specific advantages that directly exploit their ancestral activity
- 470 for the benefit of the host. Similarly, in two other known cases of phage lysozyme domestication
- 471 in bacteria, muramidase domains have been fused to colicins [49] or are predicted to be secreted
- with type III secretion systems [50], presumably for use in bacterial warfare or infection. In onestrange case, a phage lysozyme gene has been co-opted in bivalve genomes, which apparently
 - 474 still use the gene for its antibacterial properties [51].
 - 475 The domestication of the muramidase domain in SpmX is distinct from the above cases 476 of "guns for hire" because the phage gene has been incorporated into a novel bacterial gene with new function in basic cellular processes in a large bacterial order. The SpmX muramidase 477 478 domain, although active, no longer lyses bacterial cells; instead it plays a role in localizing 479 SpmX for its function in developmental regulation and morphogenesis. The co-option of phage 480 genes for core cellular function is likely a common event in nature, but identifying such genes 481 may require a careful search. Based on our findings, we suggest a future strategy for their 482 detection: searching for phage gene homologues with long histories of vertical inheritance and 483 signs of innovation in bacterial genomes.
- 484

485 Acknowledgements

- 486 We thank members of the Brun, Vernet, and Dessen laboratories for support, advice and 487 encouragement. Many thanks to Breah LaSarre, Farrah Bashey-Visser, Jay Lennon, Daniel 488 Schwartz, and Ernesto Vargas for critical manuscript reading and editing. Enthusiastic thanks for 489 critical preprint review by the journal clubs of the (Pamela) Brown Lab (University of Missouri) 490 and the Süel Lab (UCSD). We thank David Flot (ESRF, beamline ID30a1) for support in data 491 collection. The NIH supported this work with grants 2R01GM051986 and R35GM122556 (to 492 Y.V.B.), and NRSA F32GM112362 (to A.M.R.). A Fulbright US Research Scholar Award 493 supported the work of Y.V.B. at the Institut de Biologie Structurale in Grenoble. Y.V.B is 494 supported by a Canada 150 Research Chair in Bacterial Cell Biology. This work used the 495 platforms of the Grenoble Instruct-ERIC Center (ISBG : UMS 3518 CNRS-CEA-UGA-EMBL) 496 with support from FRISBI (ANR-10-INSB-05-02) and GRAL (ANR-10-LABX-49-01) within 497 the Grenoble Partnership for Structural Biology (PSB).
- 498

499 Author Contributions

- 500 Conceptualization, A.M.R. and Y.V.B.; Methodology, A.M.R., D.T.K., C.M., and Y.V.B.;
- 501 Investigation, A.M.R. with the following exceptions D.T.K. performed the sequence
- 502 conservation analysis (Figure 1A) and the phylogenetic analysis (Figure 1B), Y.V.B. grew
- 503 crystals, and C.M. collected X-ray diffraction data and solved the crystal structure; Resources,
- 504 C.M. and Y.V.B.; Writing Original Draft, A.M.R.; Writing Review and Editing, A.M.R.,
- 505 D.T.K., C.M., and Y.V.B.; Visualization, A.M.R.; Supervision, C.M. and Y.V.B.; Funding
- 506 Acquisition, A.M.R., C.M., and Y.V.B.

507

508 **Declaration of Interests**

- 509 The authors declare no competing interests.
- 510

511 Main Figure Titles and Legends

512

513 Figure 1. The SpmX is vertically inherited in Caulobacterales. (A) Schematic of SpmX 514 architecture, including the conserved muramidase domain (see Figure S1 for alignments), the 515 variable intermediate domain, and two C-terminal transmembrane (TM) segments. Bar indicates 516 amino acid sequence conservation among spmX alleles (see Table S1 for a list of spmX genes 517 used in this study). (B) Phylogenetic trees of representative species from Caulobacterales and other Alphaproteobacteria for concatenated housekeeping gene alignments (left) and for SpmX 518 (right), with branch colors indicating the amino acid identity at position 20 of SpmX (D20L in 519 520 yellow, D20R in red, and D20G in green). See Table S6 for genome IDs. The concatenated 521 housekeeping tree is fully supported with posterior probability of 1.0 for all clades. Asterisks 522 indicate clades in the SpmX tree with posterior probabilities > 0.95. See Figure S2 for the 523 relationship of the SpmX muramidase domain within the lysozyme superfamily.

524

Figure 2. The SpmX muramidase domain retains the canonical GH motif but contains
inactivating mutations in the catalytic cleft. (A) P22 lysozyme (PDB 2ANX) as a model

526 inactivating mutations in the catalytic cleft. (A) P22 lysozyme (PDB 2ANX) as a model
527 lysozyme colored with rainbow gradient from blue N-terminus to red C-terminus. The catalytic
528 glutamate appears in fuchsia and the GH beta-hairpin in light blue. (B) HMM logos of GH

- 529 Iysozymes made using WebLogo 3 [52]. Logos were constructed from protein sequences of (i)
- 530 T4 lysozyme-like genes (n = 94), (ii) representative autolysins/endolysins from the Conserved
- 531 Domain Database including P22 lysozyme (n = 20) but excluding SpmX genes, (iii) closest 532 BLAST hits from non-SpmX muramidases (n = 60), and (iv) SpmX muramidases (n = 66), and
- 532 BLAST fits from non-SpinX muramidases (n = 60), and (**IV**) SpinX muramidases (n = 60), and 533 organized in a cladogram to resemble the sequence cluster tree diagram in **Figure S2**. Amino
- acids are color-coded according to chemical properties, with uncharged polar residues in green,
- 535 neutral residues in purple, basic residues in blue, acidic residues in red, and hydrophobic residues
- 536 in black. The height of each letter is proportional to the relative frequency of a given identity and
- the height of the stack indicates the sequence conservation at that position. T4L numbering is
- used for ease of comparison. Asterisks mark positions critical for enzymatic activity and open
 circles mark positions associated with GH motif stability [26,27]. Refer to Figure S1 for
- circles mark positions associated with GH motif stability [26,27]. Refer to Figure S1 for
 alignments of SpmX muramidases, which are listed in Table S1. See also Table S5 for non-
- 541 SpmX GH24 gene IDs.
- 542

543 Figure 3. The structure of SpmX muramidase domain has a wider, more dynamic catalytic

544 **cleft than related phage lysins.** (A) Structural alignment of P22 lysozyme (PDB 2ANX, the

model used for molecular replacement) in purple, R21 endolysin from P21 (PDB 2HDE, a

546 distantly related GH24 T4L lysozyme) in navy blue, and SpmX-Mur-Ae in gold (PDB 6H9D).

547 The catalytic glutamate is shown in red. Root mean square deviation (rmsd) 1.7 Å and 40%

- 548 identity over 141 aligned Cα atoms, Dali Z-score 21.5 between P22 lysozyme and SpmX-Mur-
- 549 Ae. See **Table S2** for data collection and refinement statistics. (**B**) Structural alignment of the
- 550 three SpmX-Mur-Ae molecules, chains A (green), B (light blue), and C (dark blue), from the
- asymmetric unit. The surface of chain B is shown in partially transparent light blue. The doublebased of array indicates the fill of about 16° between the CII base based of bases. The double-
- headed arrow indicates the tilt of about 16° between the GH beta-hairpins of chains B and A. (C)

- 553 Overlays of ribbon diagrams and surfaces of P22 lysozyme (2ANX, left) and SpmX-Mur-Ae
- 554 (6H9D, right) illustrating the conformation of the critical residues E11 (red), D20 (dark blue),
- 555 R14 (yellow), and Y18 (orange). T4L numbering is used for ease of comparison. These
- 556 structures have been rotated 180° around the y-axis from their representation in (A, B, D, E). (D)
- 557 Surface representation of P22 lysozyme (2ANX) with inset showing ribbon diagram and
- 558 conformation of catalytic cleft with the canonical E11/D20/T26 catalytic triad. (E) Surface 559 representation of SpmX-Mur-*Ae* (6H9D) with inset showing ribbon diagram and conformation of
- representation of SpmX-Mur-*Ae* (6H9D) with inset showing ribbon diagram and conformation remodeled catalytic cleft with E11/D20L/T26M.
- 561

562 Figure 4. The D20L mutation attenuates P22 hydrolytic activity. (A) Remazol brilliant blue 563 assays on C. crescentus sacculi using purified P22 lysozyme, P22 lysozyme D20L mutant, and C. crescentus SpmX muramidase. Active enzymes release peptidoglycan monomers covalently-564 565 bound to RBB into the supernatant that are detected by absorbance at 595 nm. Error bars are \pm 566 standard deviation for each normalized absorbance (n = 3). Lines are drawn to help guide the eye 567 toward basic trends. Data points are from various days and sacculi preparations, but with internal 568 normalization to Hen Egg White Lysozyme (HEWL). See Figure S3 for peptidoglycan binding 569 activity and Figure S4AB for SpmX mutant activity in RBB assays. (B and C) Growth curves of 570 Lemo21(DE3) E. coli expressing P22 lysozyme (blue), P22 lysozyme D20L mutant (green), and 571 C. crescentus SpmX muramidase (red). Proteins were expressed from pET22b with a N-terminal 572 PelB signal sequence. In (B), strains were grown in 5 mM rhamnose without IPTG for maximal 573 repression of basal expression from the plasmids. In (C), strains were grown without rhamnose 574 and induced with 400 µM IPTG at the indicated time. See Figure S4CDE for enzymatic activity 575 and periplasmic expression of SpmX-Mur and various mutants. (D) Phase/fluorescent overlays 576 show live/dead staining of Lemo21(DE3) cells expressing P22Lyso-D20L and SpmX-Mur-Cc 577 after four hours of induction. Green, membrane permeable SYTO 9 stains DNA in live cells and 578 red, membrane impermeable propidium iodide nucleic acid dyes labels released nucleoids and 579 DNA from lysed bacteria. The rounding of the E. coli in (i) is characteristic of spheroplast 580 formation and lysis by hydrolytic activity on the cell wall. Scale bars are 5 µm.

581

582 Figure 5. Inactivating the muramidase domain partially delocalizes SpmX *in vivo*.

583 Phase and fluorescent images of (A) C. crescentus, (B) A. biprosthecum, and (C) A. excentricus. 584 In the top panel, phase images with derived schematics emphasizing stalks and morphologies are 585 shown for (i) WT and (ii) $\Delta spmX$ cells. In Aii, C. crescentus cells exhibiting characteristic 586 $\Delta spmX$ divisional defects are marked with asterisks and a cell growing stalks from both poles has 587 its stalks marked with red arrowheads. Phase and fluorescent images of cells expressing (iii) 588 SpmX-eGFP, (iv) SpmX-E11A-eGFP, or (v) SpmX-N105R-eGFP from the native chromosomal 589 locus are shown in the lower panels. In Aiv and Av, cells with divisional defects are marked with 590 white asterisks. In **Biii** and **Biv**, cells with one lateral or subpolar stalk are marked with white 591 arrowheads. In **Civ**, cells with foci at the tips of stalks are marked with white arrowheads. All 592 scale bars are 5 µm. See Figure S5 for quantification of fluorescence and morphology data.

593

594 Figure 6. Removing or replacing the muramidase domain depletes native SpmX protein

- 595 levels *in vivo*. (A) Phase and fluorescent images of strains in which the native *spmX* allele was
- replaced with the following gene fusions in the $\Delta spmX$ parent strain (ii): (i) spmX-L20D-sfGFP
- (iii) WT spmX-sfGFP, (iv) spmX-E11A-sfGFP, (v) MurBs- $\Delta mur-SpmX$ -sfGFP where MurBs is the murphidese domain from *Proceedings subvibriation* (vi) spmX (200 sfCFP)
- the muramidase domain from *Brevundimonas subvibrioides* SpmX, and (vi) *spmX-L20R-sfGFP*.

599 All scale bars are 5 μ m. (**B**) Western blot comparing the $\Delta spmX$ parent strain to SpmX mutants 600 and chimeras inserted at the *spmX* locus. In all cases, the primary antibody is directed against the 601 C-terminal GFP fusion.

602

603 STAR Methods

604

605 Contact for Reagent and Resource Sharing

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will befulfilled by the Lead Contact, Yves Brun (ybrun@indiana.edu).

608

609 Experimental Model and Subject Details

610 E. coli strains were grown in LB as described in the Method Details sections concerning

611 purification and periplasmic expression. All C. crescentus, A. excentricus, and A. biprosthecum

- 612 strains used in this study were grown in liquid PYE medium. C. crescentus (CB15N/NA1000)
- 613 was grown at 30°C, and *Asticcacaulis excentricus* (CB48/ATCC 15261) and *Asticcacaulis*
- *biprosthecucum* (C19/ ATCC 27554) species at 26°C. Strains were maintained on PYE plates
- supplemented with antibiotics as necessary (kanamycin 20 μ g/mL, gentamycin 5 μ g/mL, and
- 616 spectinomycin 100 μ g/mL). For microscopy, *C. crescentus* and *A. excentricus* were inoculated
- 617 from colonies, grown overnight, then diluted back 1:50 and grown for another 3-4 hours before
- being imaged in mid- to late-exponential phase. A. *biprosthecum* was inoculated from colonies
- and grown overnight to reach mid- to late-exponential phase for imaging. A detailed list of
- 620 strains is included as **Table S4**.

621622 Method

Method Details 623 Bioinformatics and gene trees. Sequences of the SpmX genes in Table S1 and members of the 624 GH24 family were retrieved by BLAST searches on the Integrated Microbial Genomes and 625 Microbiomes (IMG/M) database [53] and the National Center for Biotechnology Information 626 (NCBI) "nr" database. See Tables S1 and S5 for lists of gene ID numbers. Multiple alignments were achieved with MUSCLE [54] and manually adjusted and visualized with Jalview [55]. 627 Sequence conservation of SpmX residues was determined from the multiple sequence alignment 628 629 of spmX alleles using ConSeq [56]. To improve visualization of conservation patterns, the 630 ConSeq scores were averaged across a 20-residue sliding window. For estimating bacterial 631 species phylogeny, assembled genome data were obtained from the genome database of the 632 National Center for Biotechnology Information [57]. See Table S6 for lists of genome IDs. 633 Amino acid sequences of 37 conserved housekeeping genes were automatically identified, 634 aligned, and concatenated using Phylosift [58]. All phylogenetic reconstruction was performed 635 using MrBayes v3.2.6 [59] to estimate consensus phylogenies and clade posterior probability 636 support values. Sequence substitution was modeled according to a WAG substation model with 637 gamma-distributed rate variation between sites. Trees were visualized and formatted using iTol 638 [60]. The sequence cluster tree was built with NCBI's Conserved Domain Database tool (CDD) 639 [21,22]. This tool uses reverse position-specific BLAST, a method that compares query

- 640 sequences to databases of position-specific score matrices and obtains E-values, such as in PSI-
- 641 BLAST [21,22]. WebLogo3 was used to plot the amino acid distribution at each position of the 642 GH motif [52]. To create the alignments for logo generation, 94 T4 lysozyme-like sequences, 20
- 643 endolysin/autolysins from the CDD analysis, 60 SpmX muramidase-like sequences (BLAST

hits), and 66 SpmX muramidase sequences were simultaneously aligned to T4 lysozyme. Only
 sequences with unambiguous alignment in the GH motif were included in this analysis.

646

647 Recombinant DNA methods. DNA amplification, Gibson cloning, and restriction digests were 648 performed according to the manufacturer. Restriction enzymes and Gibson cloning mix were 649 from New England Biolabs. Cloning steps were carried out in E. coli (alpha-select competent cells, Bioline) and plasmids were purified using Zyppy Plasmid Kits (Zymo Research 650 651 Corporation). Sequencing was performed by the Indiana Molecular Biology Institute and Eurofins MWG Operon Technologies with double stranded plasmid or PCR templates, which 652 653 were purified with a DNA Clean & Concentrator kits (Zymo Research Corporation). 654 Chromosomal DNA was purified using the Bactozol Bacterial DNA Isolation Kit (Molecular Research Center). Plasmids were introduced into all E. coli strains using chemical transformation 655 656 according to the manufacturer's protocols. Plasmids were introduced into C. crescentus, A. 657 excentricus, and A. biprosthecum by electroporation based on previously published studies [61]. 658 Briefly, for a given electroporation, 1 mL of culture in early stationary phase was pelleted at 659 4600 xg and washed twice with 1 mL of water. The pellet was resuspended in 50 μ L water and placed in a 2.0 mm gap electroporation cuvette. 0.5-1 µg of DNA in 1-5 µL water was added 660 before pulsing (2.5 kV, 25 μ F, 200 Ω). The cells were resuspended in 500 μ L PYE, allowed to 661 662 recover overnight, and plated the next day on selective plates. Allelic exchange in was achieved 663 with pNPTS138, large genetic insertions with pMCS-2 [62], and eGFP insertional fusions with 664 pGFPC-1 and pGFPC-2 [62].

665

Plasmid construction. Expression plasmids: spmX gene fragments encoding amino acids 2-150 666 of SpmX (SpmX-Mur) were amplified from genomic DNA and inserted into linearized 667 668 expression vectors using Gibson cloning (NEB) according to manufacturers protocols. P22 lysozyme (P22Lyso) was amplified from a synthetic gene strand (Eurofins) for similar 669 670 construction with Gibson cloning. For pTB147SUMO, the vector was linearized with SapI and 671 XhoI to insert SpmX-Mur-Ae. For pET28a, the vector was linearized with NdeI and EcoRI to 672 insert SpmX-Mur-Cc, BamHI and XhoI to insert SpmX-Mur-Ae, SacI to insert SpmX-Mur-Ab, 673 and EcoRI to insert P22Lyso. In all pET28a plasmids, the constructs were cloned in frame with 674 the N-terminal His-tag and a stop codon to eliminate the C-terminal His-tag. For pET22b, the 675 vector was linearized with EcoRI and the C-terminal His-tag was preserved. Point mutants in 676 expression vectors were obtained by using standard "quick-change" site-directed mutagenesis 677 procedures and primers with 3' single stranded overhangs for increased efficiency.

678 *Integrating plasmids for allelic exchange*: For allelic exchange, the desired mutation was 679 engineered into pNPTS138, bracketed by 1 kb up- and downstream of the corresponding genetic 680 region. Integrants were isolated by antibiotic selection and secondary recombination events were 681 selected by sucrose counter-selection using standard procedures. The resulting clones were 682 confirmed by PCR and sequencing isolated genomic DNA.

For genomic deletions of *spmX* in *Asticcacaulis*, pNPTS138 was linearized with EcoRI and codons on either end of the gene were retained to avoid introducing frame-shifts in the surrounding area. Therefore the final gene deletion in *A. excentricus* lacks residues 5-808 and in *A. biprosthecum* lacks residues 5-815. For SpmX Δ mur truncations, resides 2-150 were removed in all three species. In all cases pNPTS138 was linearized with EcoRI. Point mutations E19A and N91R were integrated into the Δ *spmX* background for ease of clone isolation and included fulllength SpmX flanked by 1 kb genetic context. pNPTS138 containing mutated SpmX were 690 constructed using Gibson cloning with fragments on either side of the intended mutation and691 overlapping primers containing the mutation amplified from genomic DNA. In all cases

- 692 pNPTS138 was linearized with EcoRV, except for SpmX*Ab*-E19A, where pNPTS138 was 693 linearized with EcoRI.
- 694 *Plasmids for insertional eGFP fusions*: The last 600 bp of *spmX* from *C. crescentus* was
 695 amplified from genomic DNA and cloned into pGFPC-2 using Gibson cloning.
- 696 *Plasmids for integration at the* $\Delta spmX$ *locus*: These constructs were designed to allow 697 insertion of various SpmX mutants fused to C-terminal sfGFP into the $\Delta spmX$ locus in C. 698 crescentus. For SpmX-sfGFP and SpmX-E19A-sfGFP, fragments containing 1 kb of genomic 699 DNA upstream of *spmX* and *spmX* or *spmX-E19A* were amplified from existing pNPTS138 700 constructs and fused to a fragment containing monomeric sfGFP amplified from pSRKKm-Plac-701 sfgfp [63] using Gibson cloning. In the final construct, SpmX and sfGFP are connected with the 702 linker sequence GSAGSAAGSGEF [64]. Chimeras with P22 lysozyme (P22Lyso) and its 703 catalytic mutant were made by Gibson cloning together fragments containing 1kb of upstream 704 genomic DNA, P22Lyso (with no stop codon), SpmXAmur (residues 151-431) and sfGFP with 705 the same linker. P22Lyso and P22Lyso-E11A were amplified from pET28a plasmids containing 706 these genes. Chimeras with SpmX muramidase from Brevundimonas subvibrioides (residues 1-707 140) and Parvularcula bermudensis (residues 1-168) were similarly made with the muramidase 708 fragments amplified from genomic DNA and synthetic gene strands (Eurofins), respectively.
- 700 Tragments amplified from genomic DIVA and synthetic gene strands (Eurorins 709
- 710 **Production of SpmX-Mur-Ae for crystallography.** The muramidase domain of SpmX from A. 711 excentricus (SpmX-Mur-Ae, residues 2-150) was fused to a hexahistidine tag followed by the 712 SUMO cleavage site of the Ulp1 protease (His-SUMO tag) [65] and overexpressed in E. coli 713 BL21 (DE3) RIL cells. Cells were grown at 37 °C in 21 of Terrific Broth (BD Biosciences) 714 supplemented with ampicillin (100 μ g/mL) until the OD_{600nm} reached 0.8. Production of the 715 recombinant protein was induced by the addition of isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside 716 (IPTG) to 0.5 mM after the culture was cooled to 25°C. Cell growth was continued overnight at 717 25°C, and cells were harvested by centrifugation. Cell pellets were resuspended in 1/20th volume 718 of buffer A (50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 500 mM NaCl, 25 mM imidazole, 10% (vol/vol) glycerol) containing the CompleteTM cocktail of protease inhibitors (Roche). Cells were lysed by 719 720 six passages through a cell disruptor (Constant Systems Limited) at 20 kPsi, and cell debris were 721 pelleted by centrifugation at 40,000 × g for 30 min at 4 °C. The centrifugation supernatant was 722 loaded on a Ni-NTA agarose resin (Qiagen) equilibrated with buffer A. After extensive washing 723 with buffer A, His-SUMO-SpmX-Mur-Ae was eluted with a linear 0-100% gradient of buffer B 724 (50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 300 mM NaCl, 500 mM imidazole, 10% (vol/vol) glycerol) over 10 725 column volumes. Peak fractions were pooled, mixed with a 1:100 dilution of a His-tagged Ulp1 726 (SUMO) protease preparation [66] and dialyzed overnight at 4°C in buffer C (50 mM Tris-HCl 727 (pH 8.0), 300 mM NaCl, 10% (vol/vol) glycerol). Cleavage reactions were passed through Ni-728 NTA resin to remove free His-SUMO tag and His-Ulp1, and untagged protein was collected in 729 the flow through. Flow-through fractions were concentrated with Amicon Ultra Centrifugal filter 730 units with a molecular weight cutoff of 10 kDa (Millipore) and were injected onto an ENrichTM 731 SEC650 10x300 gel-filtration column (Biorad). SpmX-Mur-Ae was eluted with buffer D (25 mM 732 Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 150 mM NaCl) and again concentrated with Amicon Ultra Centrifugal filter 733 units. Protein concentration was measured using absorbance at 280 nm.
- 734

735 **Protein crystallization and structure determination.** High-throughput crystallization trials

were performed with a Cartesian PixSys 4200 crystallization robot (Genomic Solutions, U.K.).
 Hanging drops containing 100 nL of protein (25 or 12.5 mg/mL) and 100 nL of reservoir

ranging drops containing 100 nL of protein (25 of 12.5 mg/mL) and 100 nL of reservoir
 solution were set up in 96-well Crystal Quick plates (Greiner) and incubated at 20°C. Initial

crystal hits were refined manually by setting up hanging drops containing 1 μ L of protein (25 or

12.5 mg/mL and $1 \mu \text{L}$ of reservoir solution in 24-well plates (Molecular Dimensions) incubated

at 20°C. Large needle-shaped crystals (dimensions of about 40 x 40 x 400 µm) were finally

obtained for SpmX-Mur-Ae in 0.1 M Tris-HCl pH 8.5, 12% PEG 3350, 0.2 M MgCl₂, at 20°C

within 24–48 h. SpmX-Mur-*Ae* crystals were cryoprotected by transfer into 0.1 M Tris-HCl pH
8.5, 13% PEG 3350, 0.2 M MgCl₂, 10% glycerol, and then flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen. X-ray
diffraction data were collected at the European Synchrotron Radiation Facility (ESRF, Grenoble,
France) on the ID30a1 (MASSIF-1) beamline [67,68].

Diffraction data were indexed and scaled using the XDS program suite [69]. SpmX-Mur-*Ae* crystals belong to the trigonal space group P3₂21, with unit cell dimensions of 100.44 x
100.44 x 96.62 Å and three molecules per asymmetric unit. Phase determination was carried out
by the molecular replacement method with PHASER [70], using as a search model the structure
of the phage P22 lysozyme (PDB entry 2ANX)) to 1.9 Å resolution (*R*cryst 21.1%, *R*free
25.5%,) (**Table S2**). The molecular replacement solution model was rebuilt de novo using
PHENIX [71] to prevent bias from the model.

754 The structure of SpmX-Mur-Ae was completed by cycles of manual building with COOT 755 [72] and addition of water molecules with ARP/wARP [73]. Several cycles of manual building 756 and refinement with REFMAC [74], as implemented in the CCP4 program suite, were performed 757 until Rwork and Rfree converged [75]. Stereochemical verification was performed with 758 PROCHECK [76]. The secondary structure assignment was verified with DSSP [77], with all 759 residues within most favorable or allowed regions of the Ramachandran plot. Figures were 760 generated with PyMol (http://www.pymol.org). Coordinates of the final refined model were 761 deposited at the Protein Data Bank (PDB, http://www.rcsb.org) and were assigned PDB entry 762 code 6H9D. The data collection and refinement statistics are summarized in Table S2.

763

764 Protein production for in vitro assays. Fresh BL21(DE3) competent cells (Novagen) were 765 transformed with pET28a constructs containing various muramidase genes with N-terminal His-766 tags and grown overnight in LB with 1% glucose and 50 µg/mL kanamycin. Overnight cultures 767 were diluted 100-fold in LB medium with 1% glucose and 50 µg/mL kanamycin. Typically 500 768 mL cultures of cells were grown for 1.5-2 hours to an OD600 of 0.6-0.7 and shifted to 20°C. 769 When the OD600 reached 0.8–0.9, the cells were induced with 0.5 mM IPTG. After growing for 770 4 h at 20 °C, cells were harvested and resuspended in 30 mL lysis buffer (25 mM HEPES pH 771 7.5, 100 mM NaCl, 20 mM imiadazole, 5 mM BME) with a EDTA-free Protease Inhibitor Mini 772 Tablet (Pierce) and phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride (PMSF, 1 mM). The 30 mL cell mixture was 773 lysed on ice using a sonicating horn and spun down at 10,000g for 20-30 min. The clarified 774 lysate was loaded onto a 5 ml HiTrap Chelating HP cartridge (GE Healthcare) charged with Ni²⁺ 775 and pre-equilibrated with lysis buffer. After loading, the column was washed with lysis buffer 776 followed by an elution via a 0-100% linear gradient of buffer B (25 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl, 500 mM imidazole, 2 mM BME). Muramidase-containing fractions were pooled 777 778 based on SDS-PAGE analysis and concentrated to 2.5 mL. Imidizole was removed by passing 779 the concentrated fraction over a PD10 desalting column (GE Healthcare) equilibrated with 25 780 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl, 2 mM BME.

781

782 Sacculi preparation, RBB labeling, and calibration. Sacculi were prepared from all species in 783 the same manner. For a typical 2L prep, cells were grown to an OD of 0.5-1 in their respective medium (see culturing details in Experimental Model and Subject Details) and harvested by 784 785 centrifugation at 6,000g for 20 minutes. C. crescentus cells usually required multiple centrifugation steps to collect all the cells. Cells were resuspended in 25 mL water (or PBS for E. 786 787 coli) and added drop-wise into 50 mL of boiling 7.5% SDS under stirring. The mixture was 788 boiled for 30 minutes and then allowed to cool to room temperature. Sacculi were then pelleted 789 by ultracentrifugation at 100,000g for 30 minutes at room temperature. The resulting pellets were 790 resuspended in 100 mL pure water, and washed repeatedly until SDS was no longer detected in 791 the supernatant. The pellet was confirmed to be clear of SDS by mixing 0.2 mL of the 792 supernatant with 1 µL 0.5% methylene blue, 0.1 mL 0.7M NaPO₄ pH 7.2, and 0.6 mL 793 chloroform and checking to make sure that, after vortexing and allowing to settle, the solution 794 had an upper blue phase and a lower clear phase [78]. At this point, the pellets were resuspended 795 in 10 mL PBS with 20 mM MgSO₄, 250 U/µL Pierce Universal Nuclease (Thermo Fisher 796 Scientific), and 10 mg/mL amylase (Sigma). The mixture was incubated at 37°C for 1-4 hours. 797 Afterwards, 10 mg/mL trypsin and 10 mM CaCl₂ was added and the mixture incubated overnight 798 at 37°C. 800 µL of 15% SDS were then added to the mixture and it was brought to a boil for 799 about 10 minutes and allowed to cool to room temperature. The sample was then pelleted 800 (100,000g, 30 min, room temperature) and resuspended in 4-5 wash steps until SDS was no longer detected. The final pellet was then resuspended in 2 mL water and added to 0.8 mL 0.2M 801 802 remazol brilliant blue (Sigma), 0.4 mL 5M NaOH, and additional water to 8 mL. The mixture 803 was incubated, shaking, overnight at 37°C. After neutralizing the solution with 0.4 mL 5M HCl, 804 the mixture was then pelleted (21,000g, 20 minutes, room temperature), and resuspended in 805 water until the supernatant became clear.

To calibrate the concentration of RBB-labeled sacculi for dye-release assays and
peptidoglycan-binding assays, activity curves with Hen Egg White Lysozyme (HEWL, Sigma)
were produced using different dilutions of the RBB-labeled sacculi. The RBB-labeled sacculi
were used at the dilution that resulted in an A595 of 0.5 when 5 μL of the RBB-labeled sacculi
were incubated with 4 uM HEWL.

811

812 **Peptioglycan-binding assays.** 5μ L of calibrated RBB-labeled sacculi were incubated with 1 μ M 813 of purified protein (protein constructs used are shown in Figure S4) in PBS pH 7.4 to a final 814 volume of 50 μ L for 30 minutes at 37°C and then pelleted (16,000*g*, 20 minutes). Fractions were 815 separated and the pellet resuspended in 50 μ L PBS. 10 μ L of each fraction was loaded onto Any 816 kD Mini-PROTEAN TGX Precast Protein Gels (BioRad) to visualize whether the protein 817 associated with the insoluble sacculi fraction. BSA (Sigma) was used at 1 μ M as a negative 818 control.

Remazol brilliant blue dye-release assays. Methods were adapted from [79,80]. Assays were carried out in 25- μ L reactions using 25 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl and 5 μ L of calibrated RBB-labeled sacculi. Enzymes were added at various concentrations (see Figs. 4 and S4) and incubated overnight at 37°C. Reactions were then centrifuged for 20 minutes at 16,000*g*, and the supernatant carefully separated from the pellet. Final values in Figure 4 and S4 are normalized against absorbances measured for reactions with HEWL that were run in tandem for every measurement to correct for differences in different sacculi preparations.

- 827
- 828 Fluorescence microscopy and image preparation. Fluorescence imaging was done using an
- 829 inverted Nikon Ti-E microscope using a Plan Apo 60X 1.40 NA oil Ph3 DM objective with a
- GFP/Cy3 filter cube and an Andor DU885 EM CCD camera. Images were captured using NIS
 Elements (Nikon). Cells were mounted on 1% (w/y) agarose pads made with PYE (or PBS, in
- 831 Elements (Nikon). Cells were mounted on 1% (w/v) agarose pads made with PYE (or PBS, in 832 the case of *E. coli*) for imaging. In general, the fluorescent channel of each image was
- background subtracted and a Gaussian Blur filter was applied using Fiji [81].
- 834
- 835 Western blots. Strains were grown to saturation (overnight for C. crescentus and A. excentricus, 836 usually 48 hours for A. biprosthecum). OD600 was determined and cells were collected at a normalized density of OD600 = 1/1 mL. 1 mL of each normalized culture was pelleted, 837 838 resuspended in 100 µL water, and prepared for analysis using standard procedures using SDS-839 PAGE, transfer, and western blotting. 10 µL of each sample was loaded onto Any kD Mini-840 PROTEAN TGX Precast Protein Gels (BioRad). The JL-8 monoclonal GFP antibody (Clontech) 841 was used as the primary antibody and Goat Anti-mouse HRP (Pierce) was used for the secondary 842 antibody. Transferred blots were visualized with SuperSignal West Dura Extended Duration
- 843 HRP substrate (ThermoFisher Scientific) using a Bio-Rad Chemidoc.
- 844

845 Periplasmic expression in E. coli. Fresh Lemo(DE3) competent cells (NEB) were transformed 846 with pET22b constructs containing various muramidase genes with N-terminal H-tags and 847 plated. Lemo21(DE3) carries a rhamnose-inducible copy of LysY that inhibits T7 polymerase and allows for tunable dampening of expression of toxic products. We could not transform 848 849 expression strains BL21(DE3) or Tuner(DE3) with the pET22b-P22Lyso construct, but were 850 able to isolate a few transformants carrying this construct using Lemo21(DE3) cells under high 851 rhamnose repression (2 mM). P22Lyso-D20L, and all the SpmX-Mur-Cc constructs, efficiently 852 transformed into all expression strains tested, and could be carried by Lemo21(DE3) without 853 rhamnose.

854 In the case of pET22b-P22Lyso, where cells eventually lyse from leak, cell cultures were grown directly from colonies in the presence of 5 mM rhamnose and monitored over time. Figure 855 856 4A shows the same treatment for all tested constructs. For testing induction of CCM and 857 P22Lyso-D20L, colonies were grown overnight in LB with 100 µg/mL carbenicillin and 30 858 ug/mL chloramphenicol. Overnight cultures were diluted 50-fold in LB medium with 100 ug/mL 859 carbenicillin and 30 µg/mL chloramphenicol. In experiments cases rhamnose was added at 860 specified concentrations. Typically 4 mL cultures of cells were grown for 1-1.5 hours to an 861 OD600 of 0.3-0.4, induced with 400 uM IPTG, and shifted to 20°C.

862 *Growth curves and live-dead staining*: Optical densities were measured over time and 863 cells were routinely checked for lysing by microscopy using standard procedures. Briefly, 1 μ L 864 of a 1:1 mixture of solutions A and B from a LIVE/DEAD *Bac*Light Bacterial Viability Kit 865 (ThermoFisher Scientific) was directly added to 100 μ L of cells diluted 1:10 in PBS. Cells were 866 visualized on 1% agar pads made with PBS using the methods described in microscopy.

867 *Periplasmic expression levels:* After growing for 4 h at 20 °C, OD600 was determined 868 and cells were collected at a normalized density of OD600 = 1/1mL. One mL of the normalized 869 sample was pelleted at 4000g for 15 min and the pellet resuspended in 250 µL 20% sucrose, 1 870 mM EDTA, 30 mM TRIS pH 8 at room temperature. The sample was mixed gently by rotation 871 at room temperature for 10 minutes before being spun down at 13,000g for 10 minutes. The 872 supernatant was carefully removed and the pellet rapidly suspended in 250 µL ice-cold pure water. The sample was mixed gently by rotation at 4°C for 10 minutes before being spun down
at 13,000g at 4°C. The supernatant (periplasmic fraction) and pellet (cell fraction) were then
separated and prepared for analysis using standard procedures using SDS-PAGE, transfer, and
western blotting. Blots were incubated with His-Probe Antibody (H-3) sc-8136 HRP (Santa Cruz
Biotechnology) and visualized with SuperSignal West Dura Extended Duration HRP substrate
(ThermoFisher Scientific) using a Bio-Rad Chemidoc.

879

880 Quantification and Statistical Analysis

881

HHM logo generation. WebLogo3 was used to plot the amino acid distribution at each position
of the GH motif [52]. To create the alignments for logo generation, 94 T4 lysozyme-like
sequences, 20 endolysin/autolysins from the CDD analysis, 60 SpmX muramidase-like
sequences (BLAST hits), and 66 SpmX muramidase sequences were simultaneously aligned to
T4 lysozyme. See Table S5 for the genes used in logo construction. Because only sequences
with unambiguous alignment in the GH motif were included in this analysis, many
endolysin/autolysins from the CDD analysis had to be excluded from the logo. T4 lysozyme-like

sequences were chosen from BLAST hits from various bacterial prophage sources.

890

RBB assays. RBB assays were carried out in triplicate. The averages of the replicates were divided by the average measurement for Hen Egg White Lysozyme (HEWL) activity to obtain the normalized values plotted in the activity curves. The data points plotted in Figure 4A represent measurements of P22-lyso and SpmX-Mur-Cc activity over several days. Lines are drawn to help guide the eye toward basic trends and do not reflect line fitting. Data points are from various days and sacculi preparations, but are normalized to parallel reactions with HEWL

- 897 on the same day and with the same sacculi as each data point.
- 898

Fluorescent microscopy. Quantification of stalk morphotypes and stalks with multiple foci was
 done by hand using tools in Fiji. Quantification of fluorescence data was achieved using

901 MicrobeJ [82]. Mean stalk intensity was measured in *A. biprosthecum* cells by using Fiji to draw

902 line ROIs that did not overlap with the focus at the base of the stalk, measuring mean

fluorescence along the ROI. Figures and statistics were performed using GraphPad Prism version
 8.00 for Mac, GraphPad Software, La Jolla California USA, www.graphpad.com. The statistical
 details describing the quantification of cell morphology and fluorescent image analysis in Figure

- 906 S6 can be found in the figure legend.
- 907

908 Data and Software Availability

909 The accession number for the atomic coordinates and structure factors reported in this paper are 910 PDB: 6H9D. The data collection and refinement statistics are summarized in **Table S2**.

911

912 **References**

- Hall, J.P.J., Brockhurst, M.A., and Harrison, E. (2017). Sampling the mobile gene pool: innovation via horizontal gene transfer in bacteria. Phil Trans R Soc B *372*, 20160424.
- 915 2. Koonin, E.V. (2016). Viruses and mobile elements as drivers of evolutionary transitions. Phil
 916 Trans R Soc B *371*, 20150442.

- 917 3. Feiner, R., Argov, T., Rabinovich, L., Sigal, N., Borovok, I., and Herskovits, A.A. (2015). A
 918 new perspective on lysogeny: prophages as active regulatory switches of bacteria. Nat. Rev.
 919 Microbiol. 13, 641–650.
- 4. Harrison, E., and Brockhurst, M.A. (2017). Ecological and Evolutionary Benefits of
 Temperate Phage: What Does or Doesn't Kill You Makes You Stronger. BioEssays *39*,
 1700112.
- 923 5. Howard-Varona, C., Hargreaves, K.R., Abedon, S.T., and Sullivan, M.B. (2017). Lysogeny
 924 in nature: mechanisms, impact and ecology of temperate phages. ISME J. 11, 1511–1520.
- Menouni, R., Hutinet, G., Petit, M.-A., and Ansaldi, M. (2015). Bacterial genome
 remodeling through bacteriophage recombination. FEMS Microbiol. Lett. *362*, 1–10.
- 927 7. Bobay, L.-M., Touchon, M., and Rocha, E.P.C. (2014). Pervasive domestication of defective
 928 prophages by bacteria. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. *111*, 12127–12132.
- 8. Touchon, M., Moura de Sousa, J.A., and Rocha, E.P. (2017). Embracing the enemy: the diversification of microbial gene repertoires by phage-mediated horizontal gene transfer.
 931 Curr. Opin. Microbiol. *38*, 66–73.
- 932 9. Wang, X., Kim, Y., Ma, Q., Hong, S.H., Pokusaeva, K., Sturino, J.M., and Wood, T.K.
 933 (2010). Cryptic prophages help bacteria cope with adverse environments. Nat. Commun. 1,
 934 147.
- 10. Leiman, P.G., Basler, M., Ramagopal, U.A., Bonanno, J.B., Sauder, J.M., Pukatzki, S.,
 Burley, S.K., Almo, S.C., and Mekalanos, J.J. (2009). Type VI secretion apparatus and
 phage tail-associated protein complexes share a common evolutionary origin. Proc. Natl.
 Acad. Sci. *106*, 4154–4159.
- 939 11. Sarris, P.F., Ladoukakis, E.D., Panopoulos, N.J., and Scoulica, E.V. (2014). A Phage Tail940 Derived Element with Wide Distribution among Both Prokaryotic Domains: A Comparative
 941 Genomic and Phylogenetic Study. Genome Biol. Evol. *6*, 1739–1747.
- 942 12. Ghequire, M.G.K., and De Mot, R. (2015). The Tailocin Tale: Peeling off Phage Tails.
 943 Trends Microbiol. 23, 587–590.
- 944 13. Hockett, K.L., Renner, T., and Baltrus, D.A. (2015). Independent Co-Option of a Tailed
 945 Bacteriophage into a Killing Complex in Pseudomonas. mBio 6, e00452-15.
- 14. Scholl, D. (2017). Phage Tail–Like Bacteriocins. Annu. Rev. Virol. 4, 453–467.
- 15. Radhakrishnan, S.K., Thanbichler, M., and Viollier, P.H. (2008). The dynamic interplay
 between a cell fate determinant and a lysozyme homolog drives the asymmetric division
 cycle of Caulobacter crescentus. Genes Dev. 22, 212–225.

- 16. Lasker, K., Mann, T.H., and Shapiro, L. (2016). An intracellular compass spatially
 coordinates cell cycle modules in Caulobacter crescentus. Curr. Opin. Microbiol. *33*, 131–
 139.
- 17. Jiang, C., Brown, P.J.B., Ducret, A., and Brun, Y.V. (2014). Sequential evolution of bacterial
 morphology by co-option of a developmental regulator. Nature *506*, 489–493.
- 955 18. Perez, A.M., Mann, T.H., Lasker, K., Ahrens, D.G., Eckart, M.R., and Shapiro, L. (2017). A
 956 Localized Complex of Two Protein Oligomers Controls the Orientation of Cell Polarity.
 957 mBio 8, e02238-16.
- 958 19. Bowman, G.R., Comolli, L.R., Gaietta, G.M., Fero, M., Hong, S.-H., Jones, Y., Lee, J.H.,
 959 Downing, K.H., Ellisman, M.H., McAdams, H.H., *et al.* (2010). Caulobacter PopZ forms a
 960 polar subdomain dictating sequential changes in pole composition and function. Mol.
 961 Microbiol. *76*, 173–189.
- 962 20. Holmes, J.A., Follett, S.E., Wang, H., Meadows, C.P., Varga, K., and Bowman, G.R. (2016).
 963 Caulobacter PopZ forms an intrinsically disordered hub in organizing bacterial cell poles.
 964 Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. *113*, 12490–12495.
- 965 21. Marchler-Bauer, A., Anderson, J.B., Derbyshire, M.K., DeWeese-Scott, C., Gonzales, N.R.,
 966 Gwadz, M., Hao, L., He, S., Hurwitz, D.I., Jackson, J.D., *et al.* (2007). CDD: a conserved
 967 domain database for interactive domain family analysis. Nucleic Acids Res. *35*, D237–D240.
- 968 22. Marchler-Bauer, A., Derbyshire, M.K., Gonzales, N.R., Lu, S., Chitsaz, F., Geer, L.Y., Geer,
 969 R.C., He, J., Gwadz, M., Hurwitz, D.I., *et al.* (2015). CDD: NCBI's conserved domain
 970 database. Nucleic Acids Res. *43*, D222–D226.
- 971 23. Blackburn, N.T., and Clarke, A.J. (2001). Identification of Four Families of Peptidoglycan
 972 Lytic Transglycosylases. J. Mol. Evol. 52, 78–84.
- 973 24. Evrard, C., Fastrez, J., and Declercq, J.-P. (1998). Crystal structure of the lysozyme from
 974 bacteriophage lambda and its relationship with V and C-type lysozymes11Edited by K.
 975 Nagai. J. Mol. Biol. 276, 151–164.
- 976 25. Vollmer, W., Joris, B., Charlier, P., and Foster, S. (2008). Bacterial peptidoglycan (murein)
 977 hydrolases. FEMS Microbiol. Rev. *32*, 259–286.
- 978 26. Wohlkönig, A., Huet, J., Looze, Y., and Wintjens, R. (2010). Structural Relationships in the
 979 Lysozyme Superfamily: Significant Evidence for Glycoside Hydrolase Signature Motifs.
 980 PLOS ONE *5*, e15388.
- 27. Rennell, D., Bouvier, S.E., Hardy, L.W., and Poteete, A.R. (1991). Systematic mutation of
 bacteriophage T4 lysozyme. J. Mol. Biol. 222, 67–88.
- 28. Anand, N.N., Stephen, E.R., and Narang, S.A. (1988). Mutation of active site residues in
 synthetic T4-lysozyme gene and their effect on lytic activity. Biochem. Biophys. Res.
 Commun. 153, 862–868.

- 29. Sun, Q., Kuty, G.F., Arockiasamy, A., Xu, M., Young, R., and Sacchettini, J.C. (2009).
 Regulation of a muralytic enzyme by dynamic membrane topology. Nat. Struct. Mol. Biol. *16*, 1192–1194.
- 30. Hardy, L.W., and Poteete, A.R. (1991). Reexamination of the role of Asp20 in catalysis by
 bacteriophage T4 lysozyme. Biochemistry *30*, 9457–9463.
- 991 31. Poteete, A.R., Dao-Pin, S., Nicholson, H., and Mathews, B.W. (1991). Second-site revertants
 992 of an inactive T4 lysozyme mutant restore activity by restructuring the active site cleft.
 993 Biochemistry *30*, 1425–1432.
- 32. Anderson, W.F., Grütter, M.G., Remington, S.J., Weaver, L.H., and Matthews, B.W. (1981).
 Crystallographic determination of the mode of binding of oligosaccharides to T4
 bacteriophage lysozyme: Implications for the mechanism of catalysis. J. Mol. Biol. *147*,
 523–543.
- 33. Braga, L.P.P., Soucy, S.M., Amgarten, D.E., Silva, D., M, A., and Setubal, J.C. (2018).
 Bacterial Diversification in the Light of the Interactions with Phages: The Genetic Symbionts and Their Role in Ecological Speciation. Front. Ecol. Evol. 6. Available at: https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fevo.2018.00006/full [Accessed August 30, 2018].
- 34. Canchaya, C., Fournous, G., Chibani-Chennoufi, S., Dillman, M.-L., and Brüssow, H.
 (2003). Phage as agents of lateral gene transfer. Curr. Opin. Microbiol. *6*, 417–424.
- 35. Cortez, D., Forterre, P., and Gribaldo, S. (2009). A hidden reservoir of integrative elements
 is the major source of recently acquired foreign genes and ORFans in archaeal and bacterial
 genomes. Genome Biol. *10*, R65.
- 36. Daubin, V., and Ochman, H. (2004). Bacterial genomes as new gene homes: the genealogy
 of ORFans in E. coli., Bacterial Genomes as New Gene Homes: The Genealogy of ORFans
 in E. coli. Genome Res. *14*, *14*, 1036, 1036–1042.
- 37. Brézellec, P., Vallet-Gely, I., Possoz, C., Quevillon-Cheruel, S., and Ferat, J.-L. (2016).
 DciA is an ancestral replicative helicase operator essential for bacterial replication initiation.
 Nat. Commun. 7, 13271.
- 1014 38. Brézellec, P., Petit, M.-A., Pasek, S., Vallet-Gely, I., Possoz, C., and Ferat, J.-L. (2017).
 1015 Domestication of Lambda Phage Genes into a Putative Third Type of Replicative Helicase
 1016 Matchmaker. Genome Biol. Evol. 9, 1561–1566.
- 39. Forterre, P. (1999). Displacement of cellular proteins by functional analogues from plasmids
 or viruses could explain puzzling phylogenies of many DNA informational proteins. Mol.
 Microbiol. *33*, 457–465.
- 40. Sabehi, G., Shaulov, L., Silver, D.H., Yanai, I., Harel, A., and Lindell, D. (2012). A novel
 lineage of myoviruses infecting cyanobacteria is widespread in the oceans. Proc. Natl. Acad.
 Sci. U. S. A. *109*, 2037–2042.

- 41. Lang, A.S., Zhaxybayeva, O., and Beatty, J.T. (2012). Gene transfer agents: phage-like
 elements of genetic exchange. Nat. Rev. Microbiol. *10*, 472–482.
- 42. Lang, A.S., and Beatty, J.T. (2007). Importance of widespread gene transfer agent genes in α-proteobacteria. Trends Microbiol. 15, 54–62.
- 43. Shakya, M., Soucy, S.M., and Zhaxybayeva, O. (2017). Insights into origin and evolution of
 α-proteobacterial gene transfer agents. Virus Evol. 3. Available at: https://academic-oup com.proxyiub.uits.iu.edu/ve/article/3/2/vex036/4705971 [Accessed August 31, 2018].
- 44. Ho, B.T., Dong, T.G., and Mekalanos, J.J. (2014). A View to a Kill: The Bacterial Type VI
 Secretion System. Cell Host Microbe 15, 9–21.
- 45. Russell, A.B., Peterson, S.B., and Mougous, J.D. (2014). Type VI secretion system effectors:
 poisons with a purpose. Nat. Rev. Microbiol. *12*, 137–148.
- 46. Hurst, M.R.H., Glare, T.R., and Jackson, T.A. (2004). Cloning Serratia entomophila
 Antifeeding Genes—a Putative Defective Prophage Active against the Grass Grub Costelytra
 zealandica. J. Bacteriol. *186*, 5116–5128.
- 47. Yang, G., Dowling, A.J., Gerike, U., ffrench-Constant, R.H., and Waterfield, N.R. (2006).
 Photorhabdus Virulence Cassettes Confer Injectable Insecticidal Activity against the Wax
 Moth. J. Bacteriol. *188*, 2254–2261.
- 48. Shikuma, N.J., Pilhofer, M., Weiss, G.L., Hadfield, M.G., Jensen, G.J., and Newman, D.K.
 (2014). Marine Tubeworm Metamorphosis Induced by Arrays of Bacterial Phage Tail–Like
 Structures. Science *343*, 529–533.
- 49. Patzer, S.I., Albrecht, R., Braun, V., and Zeth, K. (2012). Structural and Mechanistic Studies
 of Pesticin, a Bacterial Homolog of Phage Lysozymes. J. Biol. Chem. 287, 23381–23396.
- 50. Michalska, K., Brown, R.N., Li, H., Jedrzejczak, R., Niemann, G.S., Heffron, F., Cort, J.R.,
 Adkins, J.N., Babnigg, G., and Joachimiak, A. (2013). New sub-family of lysozyme-like
 proteins shows no catalytic activity: crystallographic and biochemical study of STM3605
 protein from Salmonella Typhimurium. J. Struct. Funct. Genomics *14*, 1–10.
- 1049 51. Ren, Q., Wang, C., Jin, M., Lan, J., Ye, T., Hui, K., Tan, J., Wang, Z., Wyckoff, G.J., Wang,
 1050 W., *et al.* (2017). Co-option of bacteriophage lysozyme genes by bivalve genomes. Open
 1051 Biol. 7, 160285.
- 1052 52. Crooks, G.E., Hon, G., Chandonia, J.-M., and Brenner, S.E. (2004). WebLogo: A Sequence
 1053 Logo Generator. Genome Res. *14*, 1188–1190.
- 1054 53. Chen, I.-M.A., Markowitz, V.M., Chu, K., Palaniappan, K., Szeto, E., Pillay, M., Ratner, A.,
 1055 Huang, J., Andersen, E., Huntemann, M., *et al.* (2017). IMG/M: integrated genome and
 1056 metagenome comparative data analysis system. Nucleic Acids Res. *45*, D507–D516.

- 54. Edgar, R.C. (2004). MUSCLE: multiple sequence alignment with high accuracy and high
 throughput. Nucleic Acids Res. *32*, 1792–1797.
- 55. Waterhouse, A.M., Procter, J.B., Martin, D.M.A., Clamp, M., and Barton, G.J. (2009).
 Jalview Version 2—a multiple sequence alignment editor and analysis workbench.
 Bioinformatics 25, 1189–1191.
- 56. Ashkenazy, H., Erez, E., Martz, E., Pupko, T., and Ben-Tal, N. (2010). ConSurf 2010:
 calculating evolutionary conservation in sequence and structure of proteins and nucleic acids.
 Nucleic Acids Res. *38*, W529–W533.
- 57. Tatusova, T., Ciufo, S., Fedorov, B., O'Neill, K., and Tolstoy, I. (2014). RefSeq microbial
 genomes database: new representation and annotation strategy. Nucleic Acids Res. 42,
 D553–D559.
- 1068 58. Darling, A.E., Jospin, G., Lowe, E., Iv, F.A.M., Bik, H.M., and Eisen, J.A. (2014). PhyloSift:
 phylogenetic analysis of genomes and metagenomes. PeerJ 2, e243.
- 1070 59. Ronquist, F., and Huelsenbeck, J.P. (2003). MrBayes 3: Bayesian phylogenetic inference
 1071 under mixed models. Bioinformatics *19*, 1572–1574.
- 1072 60. Letunic, I., and Bork, P. (2016). Interactive tree of life (iTOL) v3: an online tool for the
 1073 display and annotation of phylogenetic and other trees. Nucleic Acids Res. 44, W242–W245.
- 1074 61. Gonin, M., Quardokus, E.M., O'Donnol, D., Maddock, J., and Brun, Y.V. (2000). Regulation
 1075 of Stalk Elongation by Phosphate inCaulobacter crescentus. J. Bacteriol. *182*, 337–347.
- 1076 62. Thanbichler, M., Iniesta, A.A., and Shapiro, L. (2007). A comprehensive set of plasmids for
 1077 vanillate- and xylose-inducible gene expression in Caulobacter crescentus. Nucleic Acids
 1078 Res. 35, e137–e137.
- 1079 63. Figueroa-Cuilan, W., Daniel, J.J., Howell, M., Sulaiman, A., and Brown, P.J.B. (2016).
 1080 Mini-Tn7 Insertion in an Artificial attTn7 Site Enables Depletion of the Essential Master
 1081 Regulator CtrA in the Phytopathogen Agrobacterium tumefaciens. Appl Env. Microbiol 82,
 1082 5015–5025.
- 4. Waldo, G.S., Standish, B.M., Berendzen, J., and Terwilliger, T.C. (1999). Rapid proteinfolding assay using green fluorescent protein. Nat. Biotechnol. *17*, 691–695.
- 1085 65. Marblestone, J.G., Edavettal, S.C., Lim, Y., Lim, P., Zuo, X., and Butt, T.R. (2006).
 1086 Comparison of SUMO fusion technology with traditional gene fusion systems: enhanced expression and solubility with SUMO. Protein Sci. Publ. Protein Soc. 15, 182–189.
- 1088 66. Uehara, T., Parzych, K.R., Dinh, T., and Bernhardt, T.G. (2010). Daughter cell separation is
 controlled by cytokinetic ring activated cell wall hydrolysis. EMBO J. 29, 1412–1422.
- 1090 67. Bowler, M.W., Nurizzo, D., Barrett, R., Beteva, A., Bodin, M., Caserotto, H., Delagenière,
 1091 S., Dobias, F., Flot, D., Giraud, T., *et al.* (2015). MASSIF-1: a beamline dedicated to the

- fully automatic characterization and data collection from crystals of biological
 macromolecules. J. Synchrotron Radiat. 22, 1540–1547.
- 1094 68. Svensson, O., Malbet-Monaco, S., Popov, A., Nurizzo, D., and Bowler, M.W. (2015). Fully
 1095 automatic characterization and data collection from crystals of biological macromolecules.
 1096 Acta Crystallogr. D Biol. Crystallogr. 71, 1757–1767.
- 1097 69. Kabsch, W. (2010). XDS. Acta Crystallogr. D Biol. Crystallogr. 66, 125–132.
- 1098 70. McCoy, A.J., Grosse-Kunstleve, R.W., Adams, P.D., Winn, M.D., Storoni, L.C., and Read,
 1099 R.J. (2007). Phaser crystallographic software. J. Appl. Crystallogr. 40, 658–674.
- Terwilliger, T.C., Grosse-Kunstleve, R.W., Afonine, P.V., Moriarty, N.W., Zwart, P.H.,
 Hung, L.-W., Read, R.J., and Adams, P.D. (2008). Iterative model building, structure
 refinement and density modification with the PHENIX AutoBuild wizard. Acta Crystallogr.
 D Biol. Crystallogr. *64*, 61–69.
- 1104 72. Emsley, P., and Cowtan, K. (2004). Coot: model-building tools for molecular graphics. Acta
 1105 Crystallogr. D Biol. Crystallogr. *60*, 2126–2132.
- 1106 73. Langer, G.G., Cohen, S.X., Lamzin, V.S., and Perrakis, A. (2008). Automated
 1107 macromolecular model building for X-ray crystallography using ARP/wARP version 7. Nat.
 1108 Protoc. *3*, 1171–1179.
- 1109 74. Murshudov, G.N., Skubák, P., Lebedev, A.A., Pannu, N.S., Steiner, R.A., Nicholls, R.A.,
 1110 Winn, M.D., Long, F., and Vagin, A.A. (2011). REFMAC5 for the refinement of
 1111 macromolecular crystal structures. Acta Crystallogr. D Biol. Crystallogr. *67*, 355–367.
- 1112 75. Brünger, A.T. (1992). Free R value: a novel statistical quantity for assessing the accuracy of
 1113 crystal structures. Nature *355*, 472–475.
- 1114 76. Laskowski, R.A., MacArthur, M.W., Moss, D.S., and Thornton, J.M. (1993). PROCHECK: a
 1115 program to check the stereochemical quality of protein structures. J Appl Crystallogr, 283–
 1116 291.
- 77. Kabsch, W., and Sander, C. (1983). Dictionary of protein secondary structure: pattern
 recognition of hydrogen-bonded and geometrical features. Biopolymers 22, 2577–2637.
- 1119 78. Hayashi, K. (1975). A rapid determination of sodium dodecyl sulfate with methylene blue.
 1120 Anal. Biochem. 67, 503–506.
- 1121 79. Uehara, T., Parzych, K.R., Dinh, T., and Bernhardt, T.G. (2010). Daughter cell separation is
 controlled by cytokinetic ring-activated cell wall hydrolysis. EMBO J. 29, 1412–1422.
- 1123 80. Zhou, R., Chen, S., and Recsei, P. (1988). A dye release assay for determination of
 1124 lysostaphin activity. Anal. Biochem. *171*, 141–144.

1125	81. Schindelin, J., Arganda-Carreras, I., Frise, E., Kaynig, V., Longair, M., Pietzsch, T.,
1126	Preibisch, S., Rueden, C., Saalfeld, S., Schmid, B., et al. (2012). Fiji: an open-source
1127	platform for biological-image analysis. Nat. Methods 9, 676–682.
1128	 Ducret, A., Quardokus, E.M., and Brun, Y.V. (2016). MicrobeJ, a tool for high throughput bacterial cell detection and quantitative analysis. Nat. Microbiol. 1, 16077.
1129	
1130	83. Evinger, M., and Agabian, N. (1977). Envelope-associated nucleoid from Caulobacter
1131	crescentus stalked and swarmer cells. J. Bacteriol. 132, 294–301.

- 1133 84. Poindexter, J.S. (1964). BIOLOGICAL PROPERTIES AND CLASSIFICATION OF THE 1134 CAULOBACTER GROUP1. Bacteriol. Rev. 28, 231-295.
- 85. Pate, J.L., and Ordal, E.J. (1965). THE FINE STRUCTURE OF TWO UNUSUAL 1136 1137 STALKED BACTERIA. J. Cell Biol. 27, 133–150.
- 1139 86. Mooers, B.H.M., and Matthews, B.W. (2006). Extension to 2268 atoms of direct methods in the ab initio determination of the unknown structure of bacteriophage P22 lysozyme. Acta 1140 Crystallogr. D Biol. Crystallogr. 62, 165–176. 1141
- 87. Meisner, J., Llopis, P.M., Sham, L.-T., Garner, E., Bernhardt, T.G., and Rudner, D.Z. (2013). 1143 1144 FtsEX is required for CwlO peptidoglycan hydrolase activity during cell wall elongation in Bacillus subtilis. Mol. Microbiol. 89, 1069-1083. 1145
- 1146

1132

1135

1138

1142

1147









Live-Dead Stain: SYTO9: live cells / PI: dead cells, free DNA





∆spmX







 \subset











В



