

Recent Advances in Our Understanding of Bacterial Morphogenesis

Michel Hollard*

Department of Embryology, University of Bremen, Germany

Description

The duplication and segregation of genetic material are only a small part of cellular replication. To house newly generated chromosomes, a new cell surface must be formed, and the expanded cellular compartment must be divided to generate daughter cells capable of restarting the cycle. Since the first visualisation of cells, scientists have been captivated by morphogenetic processes. Even in relatively simple creatures like bacteria, however, the mechanisms driving growth, cell division, and cell shape maintenance are still being unravelled. The peptidoglycan (PG) sacculus, a netlike macromolecule that encases the cytoplasmic membrane to protect it from osmotic lysis, keeps bacterial cells in shape. The PG sacculus is the only other cellular component, aside from the nucleoid, that exists as a single molecule that must be faithfully replicated in each cell cycle [1].

The sacculus' growth and division are controlled from within the cell by dynamic cytoskeletal structures, which require both synthetic and hydrolytic enzymes. Despite the fact that many of the actors engaged in these morphogenetic processes have been identified, little is known about how they all work together to create the cell wall, and even less about how PG growth is coordinated with nucleoid replication and synthesis of other cell envelope layers. The reviews in this issue emphasise recent breakthroughs in our knowledge of bacterial morphogenesis and how viruses co-opt or undermine it during their reproduction cycle. The United Nations has sparked significant progress. The creation and use of innovative methods and technologies, as well as the study of atypical model organisms. Genome-wide, high-throughput analysis of new mutant phenotypes and genetic interactions have been discovered through screens of variables that play a role in cell division and growth [2].

The cellular localisation and dynamics of cells have been disclosed using super-resolution and time-lapse fluorescence microscopy, as well as electron cryotomography hitherto unimaginable levels of surface assembly components and cytoskeletal proteins resolution. Finally, biochemical and genetic research were combined with the ever-increasing number of novel protein structures reveals how the body works. The cubicle is meticulously constructed. Old findings have given rise to some of the most fascinating new methods for investigating cell wall formation. Miguel de Pedro, for example, discovered in the early 1990s that *Escherichia coli* incorporates specific D-amino acids into its PG sacculus, such as D-methionine, D-leucine, and D-tyrosine. He then devised the ingenious technique of D-cysteine labelling PG to track the sacculus' development through the cell cycle. To elongate, *E. coli* cells inject additional PG material along their lateral wall in diffuse areas, according to his research. This method of elongation is followed by a brief period of zonal elongation via highly localised insertion of new material at mid cell, which is most visible in cells with restricted septal PG production [3].

*Address for Correspondence: Michel Hollard, Department of Embryology, University of Bremen, Germany; E-mail: hollmichel@emline.org.

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Cava review's focuses on the many ways of cell wall growth in rod-shaped bacteria, ranging from *E. coli* through *Caulobacter crescentus* to other α -proteobacteria. All of these species switch between elongation and division modes of cell wall production during the cell cycle. However, the percentage of the cell cycle devoted to the various modalities of elongation, as well as the process of cell elongation itself, differs between species. Both *E. coli* and *C. crescentus* insert new PG material along their cell length in a dispersed manner of development driven by the actin-like cytoskeletal protein MreB, as detailed by Cava et al. The time of the transition from mid cell to zonal mode of elongation is where they differ. In *C. crescentus*, this zonal phase of growth accounts for a large portion of total elongation, although it barely contributes to elongation in *E. coli*. Interestingly, additional α -proteobacteria members, such as MreB-independent elongation of *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* involves growth from the cell pole. These unique growth pathways can now be easily identified.

The fluorescently labelled D-amino acids were used to visualise the process as previously stated. The current focus of research is on figuring out how the numerous rod-shaped cells position and interact how do they control the elongation of their cell walls, and how do they do it? Elongation is coordinated with other main cell cycle events. MreB and the divisome factor FtsA are both actin-like proteins that form polymers that connect with the membrane via amphipathic helical domains, according to structural and biochemical investigations. As noted in the review, these two proteins are likely performing similar functions inside their separate complexes, and the two machineries may control PG biogenesis in a similar manner. In order for the divisome to favour a constrictive mode of growth rather than elongation, FtsZ and numerous other variables must be added to the equation [4,5].

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Conflict of Interest

The Author declares there is no conflict of interest associated with this manuscript.

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