FtsZ treadmilling is essential for Z-ring condensation and septal constriction initiation in *Bacillus subtilis* cell division

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ABSTRACT

Despite the central role of division in bacterial physiology, how division proteins work together as a nanoscale machine to divide the cell remains poorly understood. Cell division by cell wall synthesis proteins is guided by the cytoskeleton protein FtsZ, which assembles at mid-cell as a dense Z-ring formed of treadmilling filaments[1,2]. However, although FtsZ treadmilling is essential for cell division, the function of FtsZ treadmilling remains unclear[2–5]. Here, we systematically resolve the function of FtsZ treadmilling across each stage of division in the Gram-positive model organism *Bacillus subtilis* using a novel combination of nanofabrication, advanced microscopy, and microfluidics to measure the division-protein dynamics in live cells with ultrahigh sensitivity. We find that FtsZ treadmilling has two essential functions: mediating condensation of diffuse FtsZ filaments into a dense Z-ring, and initiating constriction by guiding septal cell wall synthesis. After constriction initiation, FtsZ treadmilling has a dispensable function in accelerating septal constriction rate. Our results show that FtsZ treadmilling is critical for assembling and initiating the bacterial cell division machine.

INTRODUCTION

Bacterial cell division is an essential cellular process and a key target for antibiotics. Bacterial cell division is also a remarkable feat of molecular self-assembly where a nanoscale divisome machine builds a micron-scale wall (septum) at mid-cell. The core components of this machine include the septal cell-wall synthases that insert new peptidoglycan (PG) to build the septum, and the essential cytoskeletal tubulin homologue FtsZ that polymerises into a dense "Z-ring" band of short filaments at mid-cell[6–8]. These short FtsZ filaments move by treadmilling, a type of motion where an asymmetric filament undergoes plus-end polymerisation and minus-end depolymerisation, with GTP hydrolysis setting the rate of FtsZ depolymerisation and overall treadmilling speed[1,2,9]. FtsZ treadmilling dynamics are essential for cell division[2–5].

However, the role of FtsZ treadmilling in cell division remains unclear. In the Gram-positive model organism *Bacillus subtilis*, we previously observed that constriction rate and synthase speed was dependent upon FtsZ filament speed[1], leading to an initial model of a tightly coupled motile cytoskeleton-synthase complex, where FtsZ acts an obligatory guide and rate-limiting step for septal PG synthesis. In contrast, FtsZ treadmilling is dispensable after constriction initiation in *Staphylococcus aureus*[3], even though the two organisms belong to the same phylogenetic class. This could reflect genuine differences between species, or there may exist a common division mechanism where FtsZ treadmilling plays different roles at different division stages. To date, it remains unclear how the role of treadmilling FtsZ filaments varies across the full division process.

Here, we measure the dynamics and function of FtsZ treadmilling across all division stages in *B. subtilis*. To make these observations, we developed a new method combining nanofabrication, advanced microscopy, and microfluidics. This approach allowed us to measure native FtsZ dynamics at near-single-filament resolution throughout division. We found that treadmilling dynamics drive FtsZ filament interactions during Z-ring assembly and that this stabilises filaments into dense Z-rings. We determined that the FtsZ inhibitor PC190723 arrests FtsZ treadmilling within seconds, independent of division stage, allowing us to elucidate the rapid response of cells to treadmilling arrest. By systematically determining the response of single cells to FtsZ treadmilling arrest by PC190723, we found that FtsZ treadmilling has two separate essential functions: mediating Z-ring assembly during the earliest stage of cell division, and subsequently for guiding septal constriction initiation. We found that FtsZ treadmilling becomes dispensable after constriction initiation but increases septal constriction rate, reconciling the findings from previous studies[1,3]. Our results show that the key roles of FtsZ treadmilling are to drive Z-ring assembly and to initiate septal constriction.

RESULTS

FtsZ assembly at mid-cell has three distinct phases: nascent, mature, and constricting Z-rings

Figure 1. FtsZ filament organisation and dynamics throughout the division process. *(a) Exemplar images of FtsZ-GFP (SH130)*
filament organisation throughout division, classified by division phase. (b) Quantification of FtsZ-ring diameter, ring thickness
and septal density (septal intensity divided by ring circumference) throughout division from time-lapse microscopy data.
Nascent Z-rings have large axial width (ring thickness) due to the diffuse distribution of filaments, which condense into a thin
mature Z-ring, followed by constriction initiation. Traces are temporally aligned relative to the start time of constriction
(Methods). Grey scatter points represent all data points. Lines show individual, representative traces, which are split into
coloured segments indicating cell division state: nascent (blue), mature (cyan), and constricting (purple). *(c) FtsZ-ring*
thickness and relative septal diameter. Colour indicates cell division state as per (b). Cell division state of FtsZ-rings in (b-c)
determined by automated classification of Z-ring diameter and axial thickness time lapse data (Methods, SI Note 3). *(d)*
VerCINI schematic. Rod-shaped bacteria are trapped in agarose microholes, rotating the division septum into microscope
imaging plane. *(e-g) VerCINI microscopy of FtsZ filament dynamics for each Z-ring phase, two representative examples per*
phase (i-ii). Nascent Z-rings are composed of sparse filaments diffusely distributed around the circumference of the cell, and
a large fraction of immobile FtsZ filaments. Mature and constricting Z-rings possess a more uniform distribution of FtsZ
filaments around the division site, with most filaments treadmilling. Images of septa show the first frame in kymographs (t=0
s). Kymographs were obtained by fitting septal images to circles and plotting intensity values around the circumference of

the cell for each frame of the time-lapse (1 frame/ s). Two full revolutions around the cell (0-720º) are plotted side-by-side
in each kymograph to resolve filament trajectories that pass 0º/360º, separated by yellow dotted lines. Blue lines highlight
example of motile FtsZ filament aggregation. *(h) Violin plots of FtsZ filament speed for each Z-ring phase.* White circles,
median; thick grey lines, interquartile range; thin grey lines, 1.5x interquartile range.

We first determined FtsZ organisation during cell division in *B. subtilis* using an FtsZ-GFP fusion[10]
expressed from the native locus at wild-type protein levels (SH130, Methods, Supplementary Figure
1). Cell morphology analysis showed near native morphology at 30°C and only a mild elongation
phenotype at 37°C (Supplementary Figure 2), although growth in liquid culture was not impaired at
either temperature (Supplementary Figure 3).

We performed time-lapse imaging of FtsZ-GFP organisation in slow growth conditions (Figure 1;
Supplementary Video 1). We observed that FtsZ filaments initially formed a diffuse structure at mid-
cell which rapidly condensed into a dense narrow band, followed by the onset of constriction (Figure
1a). We quantified these changes in Z-ring structure by measuring the dimensions (thicknesses and
diameters) and septal density (total septal intensity divided by Z-ring circumference) of the Z-rings in
each frame (Methods). The resulting traces of thicknesses and diameters over time were aligned by
the start time of constriction (Methods, Figure 1b). These time traces revealed three distinct Z-ring
stages that we classified as 'nascent', 'mature', and 'constricting' based on Z-ring diameter and axial
thickness (Figure 1b, Methods, Supplementary Note 3). During the nascent Z-ring stage, low density
FtsZ filaments transiently assemble at mid-cell over a wide region, consistent with previous reports[4,13–
15]. FtsZ filaments then rapidly condense into a thin mature Z-ring structure, which remains
unconstricted but increases in intensity for some time. Finally, the Z-ring begins constricting until
division is finished. Step finding analysis of Z-ring axial thickness time traces showed that Z-ring
condensation occurs rapidly and stochastically approximately 10 minutes before constriction initiation
(Figure 1b, Methods, Supplementary Figure 4).

VerCINI microscopy reveals FtsZ filament dynamics are division stage regulated and FtsZ
treadmilling drives filament encounter in nascent Z-rings

FtsZ filament dynamics are difficult to observe *in vivo*. TIRF imaging only illuminates a thin slice of the
septum, limiting observation to partial snapshots of filament dynamics in nascent Z-rings[1,2]. We
previously developed a prototype approach which resolves this problem by vertically immobilizing
cells in nanofabricated chambers, allowing continuous imaging of the entire division septum, including
dense actively constricting Z-rings[1,4]. However, the prototype method was not capable of imaging dim,
nascent Z-rings due to high background, suffered from fast photobleaching and lacked the throughput
required.

We created an entirely redesigned vertical cell immobilisation method which addresses all of these
issues and allows ultrasensitive high-resolution imaging of FtsZ filament dynamics at all stages of
division, termed VerCINI (Vertical Cell Imaging by Nanostructured Immobilisation). This new method
features a high-throughput chip design, centrifugation loading, high SNR ring-HiLO illumination[16],
imaging denoising[17], and custom septal localisation and background subtraction algorithms (Methods,
Supplementary Figure 5-6, Supplementary Videos 2-3). We measured FtsZ filament dynamics during
each division stage using VerCINI (Figure 1e-h, Supplementary Figure 7, Supplementary Videos 4-6)[1,21].
Division stage was determined based on septal intensity and diameter (Methods, Supplementary
Figure 8, Supplementary Note 3).

In nascent Z-rings, we observed that FtsZ filaments are sparsely distributed, with a mixture of
treadmilling and immobile filaments (Figure 1f, Supplementary Figure 9a, 35% immobile, filament
speed < 10 nm/s), leading to a low average filament speed with large spread (median 19 nm/s,
interquartile range, IQR, 5-31, N=526). Surprisingly, we frequently observed two or more treadmilling

FtsZ filaments colliding, leading to aggregation and temporary arrest of both filaments (Figure 1eii,
Supplementary Figure 7). FtsZ filament aggregation by lateral filament interactions is required to
bundle FtsZ filaments and condense the Z-ring[22–26]. These data show that FtsZ treadmilling can drive
filament aggregation by promoting the filament encounters required for lateral interactions.

Z-ring condensation led to a drop in the number of immobile FtsZ filaments in mature/early
constricting Z-rings, yielding a significant increase in average filament speed with narrower speed
distribution (15% immobile, median 27 nm/s, IQR 19-34, N=1053; Figure 1h). Simulations showed that
changes in filament density had little effect on observed filaments speeds or observed fraction of
immobile FtsZ filaments (Supplementary Figure 10). Filament speeds in late constricting Z-rings were
similar to those of mature/early constricting Z-rings (13% immobile, median speed 28 nm/s, IQR 21-
36, N=1677; Figure 1h). Due to the decreased immobile population, filaments in mature and
constricting Z-rings traversed, on average, twice the distance around the septum of those in nascent
rings (Supplementary Figure 9c).

The FtsZ filament lifetime (time bound to the septum) was similar at each stage of cell division: that
is, although FtsZ filaments in the nascent stage are less dense and less motile, their bound lifetime
remains similar (Supplementary Figure 9b). Furthermore, we found that treadmilling and immobile
filaments displayed similar lifetimes (Supplementary Figure 11), suggesting that immobile filaments
are dynamic. These results show that the fraction of treadmilling FtsZ filaments and their speeds are
division stage regulated.

PC190723 arrests FtsZ treadmilling within seconds throughout division

We next set out to determine the function of FtsZ treadmilling during each stage of cell division. For
this we needed to observe the effect on cell division in response to rapid FtsZ treadmilling arrest. The
antibiotic PC190723 (PC19) arrests FtsZ treadmilling in *B. subtilis* and related species by supporting
the 'open' conformation of FtsZ and stabilizing protofilaments[1,18–21] without fully abolishing subunit
turnover or GTPase activity[22]. Since the entire cell division process takes only 10-20 minutes in fast

growth conditions, it was critical to determine whether PC19 acted sufficiently rapidly and robustly
for use in dissecting the effect of treadmilling during each division stage. To determine how PC19 and
other cell division inhibitors perturb FtsZ treadmilling, we developed microfluidic VerCINI, which
combines high-resolution imaging of cell division protein dynamics *in vivo* with rapid chemical
perturbation (Methods, Figure 2a). In this method, cells are confined in an array of open-topped
microholes formed from PDMS atop a microscope coverslip, which is contained within a microfluidic
chamber to allow continual flow of fresh media as well as chemical inhibitors. PDMS was used rather
than agarose in order to produce a thin enough layer (~50 μm) to image through. Cells continued to
grow and divide, consistent with previous observations that growth of *B. subtilis* cells in sufficiently
wide (>0.8 μm) PDMS channels is not impaired[23], and models demonstrating that nutrient transport
does not significantly limit growth in short (<20 μm) channels[24]. A real-time image-based autofocus
system was used to stabilise focus during high-speed imaging[25].

We imaged FtsZ-GFP (SH130) using microfluidic VerCINI to observe the effects of division inhibitors
PC19 and Penicillin G (PenG) on FtsZ treadmilling. We recorded untreated FtsZ dynamics for 90 s while
blank media flowed over the cells, then continuously treated cells with an excess of division inhibitor
by changing fluid flow to media laced with the compound (Figure 2b, Supplementary Video 7). FtsZ
treadmilling dynamics were abolished by PC19 within a few seconds for all diameters of septa
observed (Figure 2c). When we treated cells with Penicillin G (PenG), which inhibits cell wall synthesis
by binding to cell wall synthase transpeptidation sites, FtsZ dynamics continued unperturbed for the
duration of the experiment (several minutes). FtsZ dynamics were also unaffected by a DMSO-only
control, the solvent for PC19 (Figure 2c, Supplementary Videos 8-9).

By providing high spatiotemporal resolution during rapid chemical perturbation, microfluidic VerCINI
revealed the effect of division inhibitors on FtsZ treadmilling throughout division. Our results
demonstrate that PC19 inhibits FtsZ treadmilling within seconds well after the start of constriction,
whereas PenG treatment does not directly affect FtsZ dynamics.

FtsZ treadmilling is essential for Z-ring condensation and septal constriction initiation, but is subsequently dispensable

Figure 3. FtsZ treadmilling is required until the arrival of PG synthesis machinery. *(a) Representative time-lapses of Z-rings for FtsZ-GFP cells (SH130) after arrival of 10 µM PC19-laced media.* Nascent rings and many mature rings do not constrict for tens of minutes after PC19 treatment, whereas constricting rings and many mature rings continue constricting after treatment. *(b) Scatter plot of Z-ring diameters and thicknesses for all FtsZ-GFP cells at t=0 min showing whether they continued constricting (blue) or not (red). Inset*: Percentage of cells that continued constricting classified by division stage. Nascent: thickness>400 nm, mature: thickness<400 nm, relative diameter>0.9, constricting: thickness<400 nm, relative diameter<0.9. *(c) Representative time-lapses of rings from two-colour strain SH212 (Green: GFP-FtsZ, magenta: JF549-HaloTag-PBP2B) after the arrival of PC19-laced media.* Z-rings with low HT-PBP2B signal typically do not continue constricting while those with high signal typically do. *(d) Scatter plot of Z-ring diameters and normalised HT-PBP2B intensities for mature Z-rings only at t=0 min showing whether they continued constricting (blue) or not (red). Inset:* Percentage of cells that continued constricting classified by JF549-HaloTag-PBP2B signal. Low 2B: intensity<0.5, high 2B: intensity>0.5. Scale bars: 500 nm. Numbers above stacked bars indicate number of cells.

We used PC19 to investigate the role of FtsZ treadmilling throughout cell division. We imaged cells in fast growth conditions (rich media, 37°C) using a commercial microfluidic device with continual fluid flow both before and during treatment with excess PC19 (Figure 3, Methods). Treatment with PC19 prevented Z-rings in earlier stages of division from continuing to divide, but Z-rings in later stages continued dividing (Figure 3a-b, Supplementary Videos 10-13). PC19 treatment prevented 96% (N=62) of nascent Z-rings from condensing into mature Z-rings (Supplementary Figure 13) and 100% (N=66) from constricting (Figure 3b). Furthermore, we found that treatment prevented 71% (N=56) of mature Z-rings from beginning constriction, while only 5% (N=66) of initially constricting Z-rings were prevented from continuing constriction. In contrast, treatment with PenG inhibited constriction altogether (Supplementary Video 14). Similar results were observed in slow growth conditions (poor media, 30°C; Supplementary Figure 14, Supplementary Video 15). Together these data suggest that FtsZ treadmilling is required for the condensation of filaments from a nascent to a mature Z-ring, but becomes dispensable at some point during the mature Z-ring stage.

It is worth noting that PC19 also affects FtsZ GTPase activity and filament structure[18]. These are likely
downstream effects of the primary mode of action, which is to stabilize the polymeric state of the
protein. We note that FtsZ retains ~25% GTPase activity even with excess PC19[18]. Furthermore, in cells
treated with 8j (a relative of PC19) the subunits in immobile FtsZ foci still turn over slowly[22], which
suggests filaments are still dynamic despite not treadmilling. So, while we cannot strictly rule out the
possibility that our observations result from a downstream effect of PC19, we believe the most
parsimonious explanation for our results is that the arrest of treadmilling specifically is responsible.

We considered whether these effects were specific to PC19 by repeating the assay with the non-
benzamide FtsZ inhibitor PC58538 (PC58). This compound inhibits FtsZ by a separate mode of action
from PC19: Rather than stabilizing protofilaments, it prevents filament assembly[26]. As with PC19, PC58
prevented 84% (N=50) of nascent Z-rings from condensing into mature Z-rings and 90% (N=50) from
constricting, but prevented 60% (N=52) of mature and only 6% (N=33) of constricting Z-rings from
constricting (Supplementary Figure 15, Supplementary Video 16). Interestingly, similar results were
recently demonstrated using ADEP antibiotics, which activate the protease ClpP to degrade FtsZ
monomers and thereby deplete the cytoplasmic pool needed for filament assembly[27]. We conclude
that arresting FtsZ treadmilling with PC19 produces an effect similar to, and as severe as, preventing
FtsZ filament assembly altogether, emphasizing the critical role of FtsZ treadmilling in cell division
initiation.

To further investigate the role of FtsZ treadmilling in Z-ring condensation, we examined the effect of
an FtsZ mutant that is deficient in GTP hydrolysis. The mutant FtsZ(D212A) in *E. coli* was shown to have
greatly reduced GTPase activity[28,29], and exogenous expression of the equivalent FtsZ(D213A) mutant
in *B. subtilis* reduces FtsZ treadmilling speed[1] (Supplementary Figure 16). We constructed a
merodiploid strain expressing FtsZ-GFP from the native locus and FtsZ(D213A) from a secondary locus
under an IPTG-inducible promoter (SH131, Methods). For comparison to wild-type (Figure 1) we
imaged this strain under slow growth conditions (poor media, 30°C) with an induction level (10 μM
IPTG) that supported growth in liquid culture (Supplementary Figure 3) and cell division
(Supplementary Video 17). Condensation of nascent Z-rings was significantly perturbed under these
conditions: 54% (N=74) of nascent Z-rings failed to fully condense prior to constriction initiation, and
even throughout constriction Z-rings remained 65 nm (95% CI [63,67]) thicker than wild-type
(Supplementary Figure 17), consistent with previous measurements in *E. coli*[30]. This partially
deleterious effect on Z-ring condensation is consistent with partial inhibition of FtsZ treadmilling
caused by expression of the GTPase-deficient mutant. Interestingly, many incompletely-condensed Z-
rings were still able to constrict, implying that cells can tolerate some degree of error in the
condensation step.

We next wondered what events within the mature Z-ring stage corresponded to the change in
dispensability of FtsZ treadmilling. Divisome assembly in *B. subtilis* is approximately a two-step process
where FtsZ and other cytoplasmic proteins arrive first, followed by arrival of the PG synthesis
machinery just before constriction initiation, including the septal transpeptidase PBP2B[31]. To
determine when FtsZ treadmilling becomes dispensable within mature Z-rings, we repeated the
treadmilling inhibition assay using a 2-colour strain where FtsZ and PBP2B are both labelled. Since
fully-labelled FtsZ slightly perturbed cell physiology (Supplementary Figure 2) and full labelling of FtsZ
was unnecessary for this assay, for the labelled FtsZ we decided to use a well-characterized
merodiploid harbouring an N-terminal GFP-FtsZ fusion[22] that could be expressed at a low non-
perturbative level. We therefore constructed a 2-colour strain (SH212, Methods) expressing GFP-FtsZ
from an ectopic locus and HaloTag-PBP2B from its native locus. To quantify the amount of PBP2B at
septa, we labelled HaloTag-PBP2B with an excess of JF549 HaloTag ligand[32] (Methods). This strain
showed the same response overall to PC19 treatment as before (Supplementary Figure 18,

Supplementary Videos 18-19). For mature rings we found that the amount of PBP2B present at time
of FtsZ treadmilling arrest correlated strongly with whether rings would constrict or not (Figure 3c-d).
Similar results were obtained for a functional mNeonGreen-PBP2B fusion expressed from the native
locus[1] (ME7 Supplementary Video 20, Supplementary Figure 19). The GFP-FtsZ signal also increased
during the mature ring stage, but unlike PBP2B the FtsZ signal was only weakly correlated with the
percentage of cells continuing constriction (Supplementary Figure 18b). FtsZ treadmilling thus
becomes dispensable for cell division just after the arrival of the PG synthesis machinery. These results
are consistent with previous findings in *S. aureus* that FtsZ treadmilling is required until constriction
has initiated, and thereafter becomes dispensable[3]. Since we previously observed that FtsZ
treadmilling guides processive PG synthesis around the septum[1], we conclude that FtsZ treadmilling
in mature Z-rings likely functions by guiding the processive motion of septal synthases during the
earliest stages of septal synthesis, before a septum has been formed.

Together, our data reveal two essential functions for FtsZ treadmilling in division. The first is a novel
peptidoglycan synthesis-independent function, to condense sparse FtsZ filaments into a dense Z-ring.
The second function is to initiate constriction by guiding initial cell-wall synthesis.

FtsZ treadmilling accelerates constriction

We wondered how to reconcile the finding that FtsZ treadmilling is dispensable for constriction after
initiation, with our previous observation that FtsZ treadmilling sets the rate of constriction[1]. To
address this, we set out to determine the effect of rapid, total arrest of FtsZ treadmilling on the septal
constriction rate. In order to precisely measure constriction rates immediately after PC19 treatment,
we developed a physical model for Gram-positive septal constriction which could be fitted to partial
septal constriction trajectories immediately after cell treatment with PC19 (Methods, Supplementary
Note 2, Figure 4a). For comparison to previous observations we converted the observed constriction
rates of partially constricted cells to an effective constriction time t_{eff}, the total amount of time it would
take for an average septum to constrict completely (Methods).

We observed that the constriction time of untreated cells in fast growth conditions was 15.3 min, IQR
13.5-17.9 (N=765, Figure 4b). FtsZ treadmilling inhibition by PC19 treatment caused a robust 7.7 min,
95% CI [6.9,8.3] (N=419), increase in constriction time for cells grown in rich media. This is similar to
the increase in constriction time caused by high expression of the GTP-hydrolysis-impaired
FtsZ(D213A) mutant (Supplementary Figure 20). Fluorescent PBP2B signal continued to increase after
treatment with PC19 (Supplementary Figure 21), indicating that the reduced constriction rate is
unlikely to be caused by indirect reduction of synthase levels at the septum. These results show that
although FtsZ treadmilling is not required for septal PG synthesis after constriction initiation,
treadmilling promotes efficient constriction by increasing septal constriction rate. This reconciles
apparently contradictory models previously proposed for the role of FtsZ treadmilling in septal
constriction[1,3].

Figure 4. **Constriction rate is accelerated by FtsZ treadmilling and fast cell growth rate.** *(a) Time traces of ring diameters from mNeonGreen-PBP2B strain (ME7) for untreated (left) and PC19-treated (right) cells with constant PG synthesis model (red) fitted to representative traces (black).* Untreated cell trajectories are aligned relative to fitted constriction start time. PC19-treated cell trajectories are aligned relative to the arrival time of PC19-laced media. *(b) Constriction time before and after PC19 treatment for both fast growth (rich media 37°C) and slow growth (poor media, 30°C) conditions. (c) Constriction time of mNeonGreen-PBP2B cells in rich and poor media at two growth temperatures. (d) FtsZ-mNeonGreen (bWM4) treadmilling speeds in different media and temperature. Top panels, b-d:* violin plots; white circle, sample median; thick black lines, interquartile range; thin black lines, 1.5x interquartile range. *Bottom panels, b-d: Bottom panels:* DABEST plots showing effect size analysis, compared to leftmost condition; black circles, median difference; error bars, 95% confidence interval of median difference.

Cell growth rate limits septal constriction rate independently of FtsZ treadmilling

Growth rate and cell size for most bacterial species are linked to nutrient availability and culture temperature[33]. We sought to identify how growth rate affects the constriction rate of *B. subtilis* cells. We measured the constriction rate in media and temperature conditions (Supplementary Figure 3c; Supplementary Table 1) using a strain expressing PBP2B from its native promoter fused to mNeonGreen (ME7, Methods). Slower growth in either minimal media or at low temperature led to correspondingly longer constriction times (Figure 4a, Supplementary Figure 3d), with a 2.18-fold (95% CI [2.12,2.24]) difference in constriction time between fastest and slowest growth conditions. We determined FtsZ treadmilling speed for all conditions using a dilute exogenous label of FtsZ-mNeonGreen (bWM4) which shows no growth or morphology phenotype at 37°C[1]. FtsZ treadmilling speed was constant across all growth conditions tested (Figure 4b), showing that the effect of growth rate on septal constriction is independent of FtsZ treadmilling.

We next investigated whether FtsZ treadmilling also promotes constriction in slow growth conditions. As in fast growth conditions, arresting FtsZ treadmilling increased the constriction time (Figure 4b, Supplementary Video 21). However, the relative increase in constriction time was much lower in slow growth conditions (1.16-fold 95% CI [1.09,1.24] vs 1.50-fold 95% CI [1.46,1.55] change). These

330 observations show that cell growth rate is a major regulator of active septal constriction, with
331 treadmilling FtsZ filaments acting as a secondary promotor of septal synthesis.

DISCUSSION

Figure 5: Model for function of FtsZ treadmilling in Z-ring assembly and septal constriction.

Using bespoke ultra-sensitive microscopy of cell division protein dynamics, we discovered that FtsZ
treadmilling plays two separate essential roles in cell division: to establish the mature divisome by
condensing diffuse filaments into a dense ring, and to guide septal constriction initiation (Figure 5).

We found that condensation of sparse FtsZ filaments into a dense Z-ring is required for cell division.
Using VerCINI microscopy we observed that treadmilling FtsZ filaments frequently collide and
aggregate in nascent Z-rings. We also found that nascent Z-rings contain a large fraction of immobile
FtsZ filaments, which do not treadmill, and that Z-ring condensation promotes formation of
treadmilling FtsZ filaments. While the mechanism of FtsZ filament motility regulation requires further
study, *in vitro* measurements of FtsZ dynamics suggest that immobile FtsZ filaments could result from
low septal FtsZ concentration or regulation by accessory/anchor proteins[9].

Chemical arrest of treadmilling completely abolished FtsZ ring condensation. Attractive lateral
interactions between FtsZ filaments, via the FtsZ C-terminal-linker and cytoplasmic FtsZ-associated
proteins are known to mediate FtsZ bundling and Z-ring condensation[34–38]. Our results reveal an
additional key factor in assembling the Z-ring: FtsZ filament treadmilling drives filament interactions
by enabling FtsZ filaments to rapidly search the mid-cell surface circumferentially and efficiently
encounter one another. This finding contrasts with previous models of Z-ring condensation involving
lateral sliding of filaments[13,14]. We conclude that FtsZ treadmilling—likely along with FtsZ lateral
interactions—drives aggregation of FtsZ filaments into a condensed Z-ring. This is remarkably
reminiscent of treadmilling-driven partitioning of FtsZ filaments into higher-order structures
previously observed *in vitro*[9,39].

The second role of FtsZ treadmilling is to guide septal PG synthesis. We found that this role is essential
in the constriction initiation phase of *B. subtilis* cell division, but dispensable afterwards. Together with
our previous observations that FtsZ treadmilling guides individual synthase molecules during PG
synthesis[1], it is likely that during constriction initiation FtsZ filament treadmilling is required to guide
the synthases around the circumference of the mid-cell in the absence of an established septum. We
also observed that FtsZ treadmilling dynamics are division stage regulated, with Z-ring condensation
promoting efficient FtsZ treadmilling. In addition to concentrating the division machinery into a small
area, Z-ring condensation may indirectly promote efficient constriction initiation by increasing the
fraction of treadmilling filaments available to guide cell-wall synthesis.

Although FtsZ treadmilling is dispensable after constriction initiation, we found that treadmilling
increases the rate of septal constriction by up to 1.5-fold. However, we found that overall cell growth
rate has a much stronger effect on septal constriction rate than FtsZ treadmilling, increasing

constriction rate up to 2.2-fold between fast and slow growth conditions. We conclude that FtsZ
treadmilling plays only a secondary role in active constriction, while its critical roles occur prior to
constriction initiation. This contrasts with the previous model of *B. subtilis* FtsZ as an obligatory guide
and rate-determining factor for constriction[1]. After constriction initiation, the highly ordered septal
leading edge[40] may be sufficient to act as a guide for processive septal PG synthesis, with FtsZ filaments
acting as a mid-cell localiser and redundant guide during active constriction.

The VerCINI method presented here is a powerful tool for ultra-sensitive measurement of cell division
protein dynamics and mode of action of cell division targeting antibiotics. We anticipate that many
other bacterial structures, especially the bacterial cell envelope and associated proteins, could also
benefit from VerCINI's high resolution top-down cell view.

A key puzzle in bacterial cell biology is how nanoscale division proteins spontaneously and accurately
build a micron-size wall at mid-cell. Treadmilling gives FtsZ filaments the remarkable ability to
autonomously drive their own circumferential motion around the mid-cell surface. Our results show
that the self-driving capability of FtsZ filaments is crucial to solving the scale problem of cell division
by directing divisome assembly and initial septal synthesis to a narrow band around the mid-cell, laying
the template for septum construction. Dynamic, self-organizing FtsZ filaments thus provide long-
distance order and collective motion around the bacterial mid-cell in the absence of cytoskeletal
motor proteins.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS
We thank Henrik Strahl (Newcastle) for helpful discussions, Ling Wu and Jeff Errington (Newcastle) for
strains and antibodies, Luke Lavis (HHMI) for Janelia Fluor dyes, and Ethan Garner (Harvard) for strains.
SH, KW, CJ and EK acknowledge funding support by a Newcastle University Research Fellowship and a
Wellcome Trust & Royal Society Sir Henry Dale Fellowship grant number 206670/Z/17/Z. NT supported
by a UK Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council doctoral studentship. RH and PA funded
by grants from the UK Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council (BB/M022374/1), the
UK Medical Research Council (MR/K015826/1), and Wellcome Trust (203276/Z/16/Z). CD and KW
acknowledge funding support by ERC grant SynDiv (669598) and the Netherlands Organisation for
Scientific Research (NWO/OCW) as part of the Frontiers of Nanoscience and Basyc programs.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS
KW, CJ and NT acquired data. KW, CJ, NT and SH analysed data. KW, CJ, SH and CD developed the
VerCINI method. KW performed nanofabrication, supervised by CD. SH, KW, PA and RH wrote
software. CJ, EK, NT created and characterised bacterial strains. SH and CD directed the research. KW,
SH and CJ wrote the manuscript with input from all authors.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

Strains used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table 2. Strains were streaked from -80°C freezer glycerol stocks onto Nutrient Agar (NA) plates containing the relevant antibiotics and/or inducers and grown overnight at 37°C. Single colonies were transferred to liquid starter cultures in either Time-Lapse Medium (TLM[42]) or PHMM media and grown with agitation at 200 rpm overnight at either 30°C (TLM) or 22°C (PHMM[1]). The next day, TLM starter cultures were diluted to a starting OD_{600} of 0.1 in Chemically-Defined Medium (CDM[42]), while PHMM starter cultures were diluted to a starting OD_{600} of 0.05 in PHMM, and these liquid cultures were grown at 30°C or 37°C with any required inducer until they reached the appropriate OD_{600}. When necessary, antibiotics and inducers were used at the following final concentrations: chloramphenicol 5 μg/ml, spectinomycin 60 μg/ml, erythromycin 1 μg/ml, lincomycin 10 μg/ml, kanamycin 5 μg/ml, xylose 0.08% and IPTG 20 μM.

Strain construction

SH211 (PY79 Δ*hag*) was constructed by transforming competent PY79 with genomic DNA extracted from strain PB5250, using standard protocols[43]. The antibiotic resistance cassette was removed using pDR224 as described previously[44].

SH130 (PY79 Δ*hag ftsZ::ftsZ-gfp-cam*) was constructed by transforming SH211 competent cells with genomic DNA extracted from strain PL642.

SH131 (PY79 Δ*hag ftsZ::ftsZ-gfp-cam* Ω *amyE::erm*-P_hyperspank-*ftsAZ*(D213A)) was constructed by transforming competent SH130 cells with genomic DNA extracted from strain bAB215.

SH132 (PY79 *pbp2B::mNeonGreen-15aa-pbp2B* Ω *amyE::erm*-Phyperspank-*ftsAZ*(D213A)) was constructed by transforming competent ME7 cells with genomic DNA extracted from strain bAB215.

SH212 (PY79 *pbp2B::erm*-P_hyperspank-*HaloTag-15aa-pbp2B* Ω *amyE::spc* P_*xyl* *gfp-ftsZ*) was constructed by transforming competent bGS28 cells with genomic DNA extracted from strain 2020. All published strains are available on request to the authors.

Bacterial strain characterization

Strains were characterised by growth in liquid culture (Supplementary Figure 3) and cell morphology analysis (Supplementary Figure 2). Fluorescent fusion protein levels for relevant strains were determined by Western blotting (Supplementary Figure 1).

Growth curves

B. subtilis PY79 and variant strains were grown overnight in TLM or PHMM containing the relevant inducers. Overnight cells were diluted to an OD_{600} of 0.05 in either CDM or PHMM, respectively, and 200 μL were used in a 96-well microtiter plate. Growth was monitored for 12 hours using a FluoStar plate reader (BMG Labtech).

Cell morphology analysis

PY79 and SH130 cultures were prepared for imaging in CDM or PHMM as described above. Once the cultures had reached OD_{600} 0.4-0.5, Nile Red was added to 200 μl of cells to a working concentration of 1 μg/ml, and incubated at growth temperatures for 5 mins, prepared on agarose microscope slides as described below and cell morphology images recorded. Cell length was then manually determined using ImageJ.

Western blotting

Overnight cultures of specified strains were grown overnight in LB at 30°C. The following morning, cultures were diluted to ~OD_{600} 0.05 and grown at 30°C until ~OD_{600} 0.6. Cells were harvested by centrifugation and stored at 20°C for further processing. Samples were normalised based on OD600, re-suspended in 2x SDS protein sample buffer and heated at 80°C for 10 minutes followed by centrifugation. 20 μL lysates were then separated by SDS PAGE in 10% polyacrylamide gel.. FtsZ and PBP2B were detected using a FtsZ polyclonal (Sigma, 1:10000 dilution) and a PBP2B polyclonal (Merck, 1:5000 dilution) antibody, respectively, followed by a HRP-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG antibody (Sigma). Samples were developed using Pierce™ ECL Western Blotting Substrate (Thermofisher) and imaged using an ImageQuant LAS 4000 mini Biomolecular Imager (GE Healthcare).

Microscopy

Power density, exposure time and other key parameters are listed for each microscopy experiment in Supplementary Table 4. All imaging was done using either a Nikon N-SIM/N-STORM inverted fluorescence microscope (Figure 4, Supplementary Figure 22) or a custom-built inverted microscope (otherwise).

Nikon N-STORM. Cells were illuminated with a 488 nm line from an Argon Ion laser (CVI Melles-Griot). A 100x TIRF objective (Nikon CFI Apochromat TIRF 100XC Oil) was used for imaging and an Andor iXon DU897 EMCCD camera was used, with a 1.5x OptoVar (Nikon) and standard Nikon tube lens, giving an effective image pixel size of 106 nm/pixel. Cells were illuminated via HiLO[45] inclined illumination to minimise background using an objective TIRF module (Nikon N-STORM module) using 488 nm laser excitation.

Custom microscope. Cells were illuminated with a 488 nm laser (Obis) and/or a 561 nm laser (Obis) as indicated. A 100x TIRF objective (Nikon CFI Apochromat TIRF 100XC Oil) was used for all experiments except microfluidic VerCINI measurements where a 100x silicone immersion objective (CFI SR HP Plan Apochromat Lambda S 100XC Sil, Nikon) was used for deep focusing. A 200 mm tube lens (Thorlabs TTL200) and Prime BSI sCMOS camera (Teledyne Photometrics) were used for imaging, giving effective image pixel size of 65 nm/pixel. Imaging was done with a custom-built ring-TIRF module operated in ring-HiLO[45] using a pair of galvanometer mirrors (Thorlabs) spinning at 200 Hz to provide uniform, high SNR illumination.

Nanofabrication

Micropillars were patterned using electron-beam lithography and etched using reactive-ion etching. Briefly, a silicon wafer was spin coated with AR-N 7700.18 (Allresist GmbH). Features were patterned using a Leica EBPG 5000+ with 56 nm beam step size. The unexposed resist was removed with solvent Microposit MF-321 and the exposed wafer surface was etched using an AMS Bosch etcher. The remaining resist was removed using oxygen plasma. Pillars widths ranged from 1.0 to 13 μm with height 6.7 μm, spaced 5 μm apart. Final micropillar dimensions were confirmed using SEM.

Micropillar wafers were silanised to allow cured polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) to be removed without damaging structures. To do this, wafers were coated with (tridecafluoro-1,1,2,2-tetrahydrooctyl) trichlorosilane (abcr GmbH) by vapour deposition.

VerCINI

Agarose microholes were formed by pouring molten 6% agarose onto the silicon micropillar array. Patterned agarose was transferred into a Geneframe (Thermo Scientific) mounted on a glass slide, and excess agarose was cut away to ensure sufficient oxygen. Cells at $OD_{600} \sim 0.4$ were concentrated 100x by centrifugation and added onto the agarose pad. Cells were then loaded into the microholes by

centrifuging the mounted agarose pad with concentrated cell culture in an Eppendorf 5810 centrifuge
with MTP/Flex buckets. Unloaded cells were rinsed off with excess media.

FtsZ treadmilling dynamics were imaged at 1 frame/s (continuous exposure) for 2 mins at 1-8 W/cm^2.
After each field of view was imaged, a multi-slice Z-stack was taken at 500 nm intervals to exclude
tilted or improperly trapped cells, in addition to excluding Z-rings that have an adjacent Z-ring 1 μm
above or below the imaging plane. VerCINI experiments were performed on cells in a *Δhag* mutant
background, preventing undesirable cell rotation within the microholes by disabling flagellar motility.

Microfluidic VerCINI

Device assembly

Open-topped microhole coverslips were formed from PDMS using the silicon micropillar array
(Supplementary Figure 23). All PDMS reagents and processing equipment were from BlackHoleLab.
PDMS elastomer base and curing agent were mixed in a 1:1 ratio and degassed. The degassed mixture
was then poured on top of the microhole array and a microscope coverslip was pressed down to form
a thin layer. PDMS was cured by baking at 80°C for 1 hr, and the coverslip with patterned PDMS layer
was removed from the silicon mould.

Microfluidic chambers were prepared using readily-available components (Supplementary Figure 23).
First, holes were drilled into a glass microscope cover slide using a diamond drill bit (Kingsley North).
A flow channel was then made by cutting a strip of double-sided tape using either a scalpel or laser
engraver. One side of the double-sided tape was then adhered to the microscope cover slide. Cut
pipette tips were then inserted into the drilled holes, and polyethylene tubing (Smiths Medical) was
inserted into them. Leakage was prevented by sealing pipette tips and tubing using epoxy.

To load cells into the microholes, PDMS was first rendered hydrophilic by treating with air plasma for
3 min. A 9 mm diameter silicone gasket (Grace Bio-Labs) was then placed over the PDMS microholes.
Cells at OD$_{600}$ ~ 0.4 were concentrated 100x by centrifugation and pipetted into the silicone gasket.
Cells were then loaded into the microholes by centrifuging the microhole-containing coverslip with
concentrated cell culture in an Eppendorf 5810 centrifuge with MTP/Flex buckets. The coverslip was
covered during centrifugation to prevent evaporation. Unloaded cells were rinsed off with excess
media. To ensure adequate loading, this loading-and-rinsing protocol was then repeated.

After cells were loaded into microholes, the silicone gasket was removed and the flow chamber was
fully assembled by adhering the PDMS-covered coverslip to the exposed side of double-sided tape on
the glass cover slide (Supplementary Figure 23).

Imaging

Due to the relatively thick (~50 μm) layer of PDMS between the coverslip surface and the confined
cells, a Nikon silicone immersion objective (CFI SR HP Plan Apochromat Lambda S 100XC Sil, Nikon)
was used for imaging due to its high working distance (0.3 mm).

Since the indices of refraction for PDMS and aqueous solution are similar, autofocusing systems relying
on the reflection of an IR signal from two interfaces were not adequate due to weak signal. Instead,
autofocusing was done using an image-based approach first described by McGorty and co-workers[25]
using cross-correlation of brightfield images. Briefly, a separate brightfield imaging pathway was
added to the microscope using a 1050 nm IR LED (Thorlabs) and IR-sensitive camera (UI-1220LE-M-GL,
Imaging Development Systems GmbH), and a plugin for Micro-Manager was developed to calculate
cross-correlations and move the sample stage (https://github.com/HoldenLab/DeepAutoFocus). At
the start of an experiment, a z-stack of IR brightfield images was obtained as a reference. During the

experiment, the cross-correlation map between every new IR brightfield image and this reference
stack was calculated, and the sample stage was moved to compensate for any drift. To our knowledge
this is the first application of IR cross-correlation autofocusing to live cell imaging.

Fluid control

Media was flowed through the chamber by a syringe pump (Aladdin-220, World Precision
Instruments). To prevent potential leakage, media was pulled through the chamber from fluid
reservoirs by operating the syringe pump in withdraw mode. Complete solution exchange occurred
within 7 s of initial compound arrival time, estimated using a rhodamine tracer.

CellASIC experiments

The microfluidic CellASIC system (EMD Millipore) was used to image constricting cells during
treatment with division inhibitors. Cells were loaded into B04A plates and equilibrated in blank media
for ~15 min with a pressure of 2 psi (~6 μL/hr flow rate) prior to imaging.

In a typical experiment, untreated constricting cells were imaged for 30 min (1 min/frame, 1 s
exposure, 1-2 W/cm^2) while blank media was flowed using 2 psi. Solution exchange was done by first
flowing media with compound using 8 psi (~34 μL/hr flow rate) for 15 s, then dropping the pressure
to 2 psi for the remainder of the experiment (50-90 min). DMSO treatment alone caused a small but
robust increase in constriction time (Supplementary Figure 24). However, pre-adaptation of cells to
blank media containing DMSO eliminated this effect, showing that observed effects of PC19 treatment
resulted from the drug and not the solvent that accompanied it (Supplementary Figure 24).

The arrival time of the compound at the cells was most estimated by treating the FtsZ-GFP strain with
10 μM PC19 using our standard flow protocol. PC19 causes the diffuse cytoplasmic FtsZ-GFP to rapidly
polymerise into short filaments throughout the cell (Supplementary Videos 10-13), providing a clear
signal for compound arrival. From these experiments we determined that compound arrives 3-4 min
after fluid exchange.

Microscopy of horizontal cells

Sample preparation

Coverslips were first cleaned by treating with air plasma for 5 min. Slides were prepared as described
previously[42]: Flat 2% agarose pads of either CDM or PHMM were prepared inside Geneframes (Thermo
Scientific) and cut down to strips of 5 mm width to ensure sufficient oxygen supply to cells. Cell
cultures were grown to OD_{600} between 0.2 and 0.4, when 0.5 μL of cell culture was spotted on the
pad. Cells were allowed to adsorb to the pad for 30 s before a plasma-cleaned coverslip was placed
on them. After spotting on agarose pads, cells were allowed to equilibrate within the microscope body
for 15 min before being imaged. Cells were then imaged either by TIRF microscopy for observation of
FtsZ filament dynamics, or ring-HiLO for time-lapse observation, with experimental parameters
defined in Supplementary Table 4.

HaloTag labelling with JF549 dye

Full labelling of HaloTag-PBP2B was done by incubating strain SH212 with 50 nM JF549 HaloTag ligand
for 15 min. Cells were washed once with fresh media before imaging. JF549 HaloTag ligand was a gift
from Luke Lavis[32].

Image analysis

VerCINI data analysis

Pre-processing

Videos were denoised using the ImageJ plugin PureDenoise[17], which is based on wavelet
decomposition. Key assumptions of the method are (i) local spatiotemporal similarity within the
image (ii) absence of sharp discontinuities, guaranteed by diffraction-limited nature of the image. The
denoising algorithm makes does not make any assumptions on the type of underlying biological
structure.

Denoised videos were registered using the ImageJ plugin StackReg[46]. Image stacks of vertically
immobilised cells were inspected to exclude tilted cells or out of focus FtsZ-rings, or FtsZ rings where
a second Z-ring was closer than 1 um to the focal plane. Cropped region of interest movies containing
single in-focus cells were manually selected and exported for analysis. An ImageJ package for VerCINI
data processing is available (https://github.com/HoldenLab/Ring_Analysis_IJ).

VerCINI background subtraction, kymograph extraction, quantification

Custom software for quantitative cytoplasmic background subtraction and kymograph extraction was
developed for analysis of VerCINI movies (https://github.com/HoldenLab/ring-fitting2). Fluorescence
images of isolated vertical cells were fitted to a joint explicit model for diffuse out-of-focus cytoplasmic
background (Gaussian + Cauchy model) plus septal protein signal, modelled as a 12 sectored annulus
with each sector of variable amplitude.

586
$$F(x,y) = Signal(x,y) + Bg(x,y)$$

587 Signal is calculated in polar coordinates, around the septal ring centre fit parameter (x_0, y_0), and then
588 transformed into Cartesian coordinates. Signal is defined as

589
$$S(r,\theta) = A_i(\theta) \exp\left(-\frac{(r-R_0)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right),$$

590 where $A_i(\theta)$ defines a 12 sectored ring. Background is defined as

591
$$Bg(x,y) = a \exp(\frac{-((x-x_0)^2 + (y-y_0)^2)}{2\sigma_{bg1}^2}) + b \frac{\sigma_{bg2}^2}{(x-x_0)^2 + (y-y_0)^2 + \sigma_{bg2}^2} + c.$$

This explicit model allowed accurate sub-pixel location of a circular line profile at the septal leading
edge. Explicit subtraction of complex background signal also allowed septal intensity quantification.
The background subtracted intensity along the circular line profile was then calculated for each frame
and automatically plotted as a kymograph. Kymographs were plotted over the [0,720°] ie two
complete revolutions around the line profile for ease of visualization, specifically to allow
straightforward visualization of treadmilling filaments crossing the 360°,0° boundary. For each cell,
the Z-ring diameter was determined from the fitted model in the kymograph extraction step. Median
septal intensity was calculated as the median value of all kymograph pixels from the first 60 image
frames.

FtsZ filament treadmilling analysis using VerCINI

We found that automated methods for in vitro FtsZ filament speed measurements, either after Dos
Santos Caldas and coworkers[47] or using a similar in-house algorithm, are currently insufficient for FtsZ
filament speed analysis in either horizontal or vertical cells compared to manual analysis, because at
cellular filament density they currently perform poorly at detecting immobile filaments, break the
complete trajectories of treadmilling filaments into multiple shorter trajectories, and cannot reliably
process images from dense Z-rings in horizontal cells.

We therefore performed manual measurement of filament speed and processivity by kymograph
analysis, annotating filaments as lines in ImageJ and then measuring the angle via ImageJ script. As
the intensity range across kymographs is large, manual detection and analysis of filaments was aided
by applying a ridge filter[48] to the kymograph which detects ridges in the image, independent of
absolute intensity. The ridge filter consists of a Gaussian blur operation to set the feature scale and
suppress noise (here 2 pixels, 130 nm), followed by calculation of the major eigenvalue of the Hessian
matrix for each pixel, implemented as an ImageJ macro in the package listed above. Joint annotation
of the ridge filtered and raw intensity kymograph was performed, allowing sensitive annotation of
both bright and dim filaments (Supplementary Figure 25).

Horizontal cell image analysis

Pre-processing

Images were denoised and registered as described above.

Cell segmentation and tracking of division protein localization

MicrobeJ[11] was used to track individual FtsZ-/PBP2B-rings and export their centroid coordinates for
analysis. To do this, image backgrounds were first subtracted using a sliding paraboloid window of 50
pixels and all frames were converted to 8-bit for easier thresholding.

Two approaches were used to identify division protein localization, depending on the experiment. For
measurements of septal constriction rate only (Figure 4a), which requires only detection of bright
dense FtsZ/PBP2B rings, a simple approach of intensity-based threshold detection was applied in
MicrobeJ a threshold was selected manually for each field of view using MinError. Additional area and
length thresholds (Area: [0.08 Inf] μm^2, Length: [0.02 1.8] μm) were established to exclude objects in
fields of view that were not rings. Tracks shorter than 7 frames were excluded. Data was then exported
for analysis in MATLAB.

For analysis of FtsZ ring dynamics over the entire division process, from nascent Z-ring assembly to
late constriction (Figure 1), it was necessary to additionally robustly detecting diffuse patchy FtsZ-
rings. We trained the machine learning segmentation tool Ilastik[12] to detect cell outlines with
fluorescence images of cells labelled with FtsZ. For detection of diffuse Z-rings, we applied a large
Gaussian blur filter to the images, and then multiplied this by the Ilastik-segmented binary image,
which had the effect of separating any overlap of Z-rings between adjacent cells. Intensity threshold-
based detection of Z-rings was then performed in MicrobeJ as above.

Quantification of division protein septal localization

Custom MATLAB software was developed to measure the diameters and intensities of Z- and 2B-rings
obtained from either MicrobeJ or Ilastik. Each frame of each individual ring was first segmented using
a multi-level threshold to distinguish the septum, cytoplasm, and background. The septal axis and the
cell axis were identified using the segmented image, and the image was rotated such that pixels were
aligned along these axes. Line profiles of Z- and 2B-rings were obtained by averaging pixel values along
the septal axis ±2 pixels to reduce noise. Diameter were then obtained by fitting line profiles to a toy
model that describes a circle of uniform intensity rotated to be orthogonal to the axis of the imaging
plane ('Tilted Circle Model', Supplementary Note 1, Supplementary Figure 26). Septal density was
calculated as the total intensity along the lateral line profile, divided by the ring circumference, as
calculated from the constriction rated analysis (below) to reduce single frame noise. Septal density
was used in place of total intensity, in order to compare to the septal intensity measurements
obtained during the VerCINI experiments. Axial thickness was estimated by fitting an axial line profile
to an analytical super-Gaussian and calculating the full-width half maximum.

Evaluation of percentage Z-rings condensed and constricted post-treatment

Since PC19 treatment causes bright fluorescent foci to appear randomly throughout the cell in strains where FtsZ is labelled, tracking software fails to consistently follow most Z-rings post-treatment in the SH130 and SH212 strains. Furthermore, measurements of Z-ring thickness and diameter were inaccurate due to the proximity of fluorescent foci. Since it was typically straightforward to observe, whether Z-rings condensed and/or constricted post-PC19 treatment was evaluated manually.

FtsZ filament treadmilling analysis from TIRF microscopy data

Images were denoised and registered as above. TrackMate[49] was used to help identifying treadmilling FtsZ filaments outside of dense Z-rings. A line region of interest (ROI) was drawn perpendicular to the cell axis where treadmilling filaments were identified. Kymographs were calculated along this line profile FtsZ filaments trajectories in the kymograph were marked with a line ROI (Supplementary Figure 22). Treadmilling speed for each filament trajectory was calculated from the angle of the line ROIs.

Constriction rate analysis

Previous models for septal constriction have either been *ad hoc*[26] or tailored to Gram-negative cell division based on remodelling of a hemispherical cap[27]. We derived a simple model for Gram-positive constriction, assuming (i) outside-in synthesis of a flat plate at mid-cell and (ii) total PG synthesis rate around the septal leading edge is constant (Supplementary note 2)

$$d(t) = \begin{cases} d_0, & t < t_0 \\ \sqrt{d_0^2 - \dfrac{4k}{\pi}(t - t_0)}, & t \geq t_0 \end{cases}$$

Where d_0 is the initial Z- or 2B-ring diameter, t_0 is the time constriction begins, and k is the rate at which area is added to the septal plate. This model fitted measured constriction trajectories well, and the estimated time of constriction completion corresponded closely to completion times independently estimated from PBP2B departure in wild type cells (Supplementary Figure 27).

We measured constriction rates in the mNeonGreen-PBP2B strain, since FtsZ-GFP mislocalises post-treatment with PC19 and makes it difficult to track large numbers of septa. A small amount of mNeonGreen-PBP2B signal remained at mid-cell after constriction had finished. This excess signal was excluded from the rate analysis by cutting the 2B-ring data after this drop in intensity. We obtained constriction time distributions for PC19-treated cells by fitting only to post-treatment data.

For comparison to previous observations we converted the observed constriction rates to an effective constriction time t_{eff}, the total amount of time it would take for an unconstricted septum to constrict completely (Methods) given the fitted rate k : $t_{eff} = 2\pi \cdot \dfrac{d_0^2}{k}$. The average diameter of the unconstricted septum d_0 was estimated as 1100 ± 100 nm (mean, SD) for the mNeonGreen-PBP2B based on the background fluorescence signal in the cell.

Statistics

Data were analysed using estimation statistics, which focusses on magnitude and robustness of effect size using DABEST[50] (Data Analysis with Bootstrap Coupled Estimation), rather than just statistical significance/ p-value. Averages reported were median values unless otherwise indicated. All effect size estimates were calculated based on difference of medians. 95% confidence interval of the median, or of the difference of medians, was estimated by bootstrapping (https://github.com/HoldenLab/violinplusDABEST-Matlab) and indicated with square brackets [].

692 Interquartile range was indicated by IQR. Thick error bar lines in Violin plots indicate interquartile
693 range, thin lines indicate adjacent vales. Error bars in DABEST plots indicate 95% CI of median
694 difference, estimated by bootstrapping. Sample size, indicating number of filaments/Z-ring, cells,
695 microscope fields of view, technical and biological replicates, as appropriate, is presented for each
696 dataset in Supplementary Table 3.

Simulations of FtsZ filament dynamics

Simulated time lapse movies of FtsZ filament dynamics in vertically immobilized cells were generated.
Source code for simulations is available (https://github.com/HoldenLab/ring-simulator). Filament
speed and lifetime were sampled from distributions obtained from experiments via bootstrap
resampling. FtsZ filament distributions were taken from cells expressing FtsZ-GFP in the nascent Z-ring
cell division state. Sub-diffraction-limited treadmilling filaments were simulated on a diffuse Gaussian-
Cauchy cytoplasmic background described above. Filament intensity, background amplitude and
shape parameters all matched average parameters experimentally observed in nascent Z-rings.
Photon noise and manufacturer specified camera gain and read noise were added to the images. The
number of filaments in each simulated Z-ring was drawn from a Poisson distribution with average
filament density equal to observed nascent, mature, 2x mature or 12x mature Z-ring density of (1.3,
3.3, 6.5, 37.5 filaments/ Z-ring/ frame). Filament density of real nascent Z-rings was calculated directly
from observed number of manually traced filaments, as the filament density there was low enough
that filament detection bias was expected to be low. To minimize possible under-detection bias,
filament density in mature Z-rings was estimated by multiplying the estimated nascent Z-ring density
by the ratio of total Z-ring intensity for mature and nascent Z-rings (Supplementary Figure 8b).
Additional simulations at 2x and 12x mature Z-ring filament densities were performed in order to
investigate the extent to which large increases to filament density could perturb observed FtsZ
filament speeds. Simulated FtsZ ring time lapse movies were analysed identically to the experimental
data, with FtsZ filament speed estimated by kymograph analysis. Increased FtsZ filament density
caused a decrease in the fraction of detected filaments but had minimal effect on observed FtsZ
filament speeds, or the ratio of immobile:treadmilling FtsZ filaments, i.e. the ability to robustly detect
both immobile and treadmilling FtsZ filaments (Supplementary Figure 10).

Step finding analysis of Z-ring axial thickness data

Transitions between a decondensed and condensed Z-ring for SH130 cells expressing FtsZ-GFP Z-rings
was measured using a step finding algorithm to detect either one or two states in time series Z-ring
axial thickness, using a global change point detection algorithm[51] implemented in the MATLAB
function *findchangepts()*. State detection was performed based on changes in standard deviation of
the time series, with an additional threshold that detected axial thickness states should differ by at
least 50 nm.

Analysis of Z-ring axial thickness data for FtsZ(D213A) mutant

Although the step-finding method described above accurately located the decondensed-to-
condensed transition in wild-type cells, we found that this method was inadequate for the
FtsZ(D213A) mutant, as the condensation transition was often slower and more gradual than in wild-
type. Instead, Z-rings were considered to have condensed if the thickness dropped below a threshold
value for at least one frame (1 min) prior to the start of constriction. The threshold was chosen as 1σ
above the mean thickness for condensed wild-type cells (356 nm; Supplementary Figure 17).

DATA AVAILABILITY

Source data for all figures presented in the paper and Supplementary Information, as well as raw movie files for all Supplementary Videos are available at

https://data.ncl.ac.uk/projects/FtsZ_treadmilling_is_essential_for_Z-ring_condensation_and_septal_constriction_initiation_in_Bacillus_subtilis_cell_division/92465

CODE AVAILABILITY

Custom software is available on the Holden lab GitHub page:

https://github.com/HoldenLab/Ring_Analysis_IJ
https://github.com/HoldenLab/ring-fitting2
https://github.com/HoldenLab/DeepAutoFocus
https://github.com/HoldenLab/ring-simulator

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