Bidirectional FtsZ filament treadmilling transforms lipid membranes via torsional stress

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Abstract: FtsZ is a key component in bacterial cell division, being the primary protein of the

presumably contractile Z ring. *In vivo* and *in vitro*, it shows two distinctive features that could

so far however not be mechanistically linked: self-organization into directionally treadmilling

vortices on solid supported membranes, and shape deformation of flexible liposomes. In cells,

circumferential treadmilling of FtsZ was shown to recruit septum-building enzymes, but an

active force production remains elusive. To gain mechanistic understanding of FtsZ dependent

membrane deformations and constriction, we designed an in vitro assay based on soft lipid

tubes pulled from FtsZ decorated giant lipid vesicles (GUVs) by optical tweezers. FtsZ actively

transformed these tubes into spring-like structures, where GTPase activity promoted spring

compression. Operating the optical tweezers in lateral vibration mode and assigning spring

constants to FtsZ coated tubes, we found that FtsZ rings indeed exerts 0.14 – 1.09 pN forces

upon GTP hydrolysis, through torsional stress induced by bidirectional treadmilling. These

directional forces could further be demonstrated to induce membrane budding with constricting

necks on both, giant vesicles and *E.coli* cells devoid of their cell walls.

Main Text: In biology, fundamental mechanical processes, such as cell division, require an

intricate space-time coordination of respective functional elements. However, how these

elements, mostly proteins, can self-organize to exert forces driving large-scale transformations

is poorly understood. In several organisms, ring-like cytoskeletal elements appear upon

cytokinesis; for instance, the FtsZ-based contractile Z ring in bacteria. Ring-like FtsZ structures

have previously been shown to deform liposome membranes (1,2). When reconstituted on flat

membranes, FtsZ self-assembles into rotating-treadmilling vortices with conserved direction

(3,4). *In vivo*, FtsZ shows circumferential but bidirectional treadmilling that is assumed to serve

as a pacemaker guiding peptidoglycan synthesis around the septum (5,6).

Despite of these exciting findings, it is not clear whether these treadmilling FtsZ filaments

actively contribute to the physical process of lipid membrane constriction and cytokinesis in

bacteria (7,8). The challenge is two-fold: (i) how much force is actually required to divide

bacteria, given the mechanical coupling of the lipid membrane and the cell wall?, and (ii) even

if FtsZ filaments can generate membrane deforming forces, what is the exact mechanism by

which these forces are exerted? For instance, considering the mechanical bearing related to

internal turgor pressure (~MPa), models have suggested that FtsZ forces in the range of 8-80

pN would be required for constriction (9). In contrast, it has been proposed that turgor pressure

need not be considered, due to the possibility of same osmolarity between periplasm and

cytoplasm (10). For this case, very low FtsZ forces in the range of 0.35 – 2.45 pN could exert

membrane deformations leading to constriction (10). In conclusion, *in vivo* and *in vitro*

experimental approaches addressing those two major questions are needed to gain deeper

understanding in cell division in bacteria.

Here, we have employed *in vitro* reconstitution as a strategy to understand the mechanistic

features of FtsZ as a membrane deforming polymer. Using an optical tweezers-based approach

by pulling soft lipid tubes from deflated giant unilamellar vesicles GUVs, our aim is to

quantitatively elucidate the physical principles underlying membrane deformations induced by

dynamic FtsZ rings on GUVs and the scale of delivered forces. These particular principles are

key to understand the nature of FtsZ membrane deformations *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

Based on our recent study (3), we externally added FtsZ-YFP-mts to GUVs made of *E. coli*

lipid extract. Conditions to obtain ring-like structures were determined by tuning GTP and Mg^{+2}

(Fig. 1A). Since no clear deformations were observed for tensed vesicles (Fig. 1A), we designed

a two-side open chamber allowing for slow water evaporation to obtain deflated and deformable

GUVs. After 20-30 minutes, we evidenced that rings were inducing inwards-cone structures

emerging from the membrane surface, indicative of drilling-like inward forces (Fig. 1B).

Motivated by this specific geometry, we designed PDMS microstructures mimicking such

inward cones (Fig. 1C Fig 1SA). After coating these with supported lipid bilayer (SLB) and

triggering protein polymerization, we observed individual filaments/bundles to wrap the cone

in a dynamic fashion resembling a vortex (Fig. 1D) (Movie S1). We noticed that the dynamic

vortices rotate both clockwise and anticlockwise (Fig. 1E), indicating that preferential

directionality observed on flat SLBs is absent in conical geometry. Rotational velocities were

estimated around 43 $nm/s,$ showing relatively good agreement with our previous results on

flat surfaces (34 nm/s) (3).

To quantitatively characterize the impact of FtsZ on soft tubular geometries, we developed a

method based on optical tweezers. Contrary to prior approaches using micropipettes (11), we

pulled soft tubules from weakly surface-attached GUVs (Fig. 2SA) by moving the GUVs

relative to an optically trapped bead. Lipid tubes with mean diameter of ca. 0.47 μm (Fig. 2SB)

were now pulled from deflated GUVs decorated with ring-like FtsZ structures and inward-

conical deformations (Movie S2). Once tubes were formed, protein filaments entered and

deformed the tube. After 175s, helical tube shapes were clearly observed (Fig. 2A), indicative

of dynamic coiling (Movie S3). As more protein entered the tube and accumulated in the tip,

the spring-like structure got compressed (Fig. 2A, 500s). These helical tube deformations can

be rationalized by twisting of an elastic rod subjected to constant tensile force (Fig. 3F). Similar

to the experiment in Figure 1D, filaments grew towards (clockwise) and away from

(counterclockwise) the tip of the tube. If filament growth imposes torsion, the counter-growing

filament will generate torsion in the opposite direction. These two different torsional

contributions result in the buckling of the lipid tube and the formation of a 3D helix (Fig. 3F).

The importance of the bidirectional treadmilling, or bidirectional filament growth, can be

understood using a shoelace analogy: opposite torque should be exerted on both ends of the

shoelace to observe a helical deformation. If one end is loose, the opposite end will only rotate

accordingly (sliding). A net force due to FtsZ twisting and coiling in the outwards-vesicle

direction caused the incorporation of new lipid material from the flaccid vesicle to the tube.

Since spring-like deformations were observed with a FtsZ protein chimera that binds

autonomously to membrane (FtsZ-YFP-mts), we attempted to confirm whether this

phenomenology is intrinsic to the FtsZ polymer and not caused by the membrane targeting

sequence. Based on the reconstitution of dynamic rings on flat membranes using the *E.coli* FtsZ

natural anchor ZipA (12), we identified the right conditions to obtain WT-FtsZ rings externally

decorating GUVs using ZipA (Fig. 2B). In the same way as for FtsZ-YFP-mts, rings induced

inwards cone-like deformations on deflated vesicles (Fig. 2B). The obvious next step was to

evaluate their impact on a soft tubular geometry. As a control, we pulled lipid tubes having only

ZipA to evidence missing deformation. Then we added WT-FtsZ and observed helical

transformations as expected (Fig. 2B), indicating that FtsZ polymer and not its membrane

attachment caused this effect. Interestingly, FtsZ-YFP-mts as well as FtsZ+ZipA displayed in

plectonic/supercoiled regions (Fig. 1SE) as further indicative of torsion over the lipid tube.

To investigate the role of GTP hydrolysis, we reconstituted FtsZ-YFP-mts*[T108A], a mutant

with low GTPase activity (3). We observed that FtsZ-YFP-mts*[T108A] also self-assembled

into ring-like structures (Fig. 1SB) that lacked dynamic treadmilling (3) yet still promoted

inwards deformations (Fig. 1SC). Interestingly, the activity of FtsZ-YFP- mts*[T108A] on the

tubes was much delayed (Fig. 2SC). Although helical deformations were also observed after

350s (Fig. 3B), their pitch remained considerably longer ($\lambda > 3\,\mu m$) also at long times (900s).

In contrast, helices decorated with GTP-active FtsZ-YFP-mts (Fig. 3A) underwent compression

to a pitch of $\lambda \sim 1.5\,\mu m$ after 300s. By plotting the arc-length of the spring against FtsZ

density on the tube, we clearly observed a greater membrane-deforming activity for FtsZ-YFP-

mts (Fig. 2SE). Experiments shown in Fig. 3A-B correspond to similar tube diameters (d = 0.44

μm Fig. 2SB).

Since the deflation of individual GUVs could vary, we also tested whether compression could

be biased by GUV membrane tension (deflation) and protein density over the tube. The tube

diameter d represented our observable for membrane tension according to the relation $d = \sqrt{\frac{2\kappa}{\sigma}}$,

where κ denotes the lipid bending modulus and σ the membrane tension (11,13). The lower the

membrane tension (deflation), the larger the tube diameter. Therefore, we plotted the mean

pitch vs tube diameter (Fig. 3C), for independent experiments, considering also the amount of

protein (Fig. 3D). Although there was a mild correlation between pitch and diameter (Fig. 3C)

for FtsZ-YFP-mts, the mean pitch was consistently longer for FtsZ-YFP-mts*[T108A] (Fig.

3C) in the case of tubes with comparable or higher protein density (Fig. 3D). To better visualize

the impact of GTPase activity, we plotted the pitch distribution for both proteins: the GTPase

activity contributed to a decrease of pitch (Fig. 3E) as clear indicative of spring compression.

Interestingly, both distributions are reasonably bimodal, indicative of two states of torsion: a

structural intrinsic torsion (longer pitch) that is further enhanced (shorter pitch) via GTPase

activity (Fig. 3F). Note that FtsZ-YFP-mts*[T108A] could exhibit residual GTPase activity

driving some compression.

To quantitatively characterize the mechanical properties of FtsZ-YFP-mts-induced spring-like

structures, we implemented an alternative approach based on the elastic response of the GUV

+ tube to a specific dynamic input. Using a piezoelectric stage, we induced a lateral oscillation

of the GUV position ($A = 3 \; \mu m, f = 1 \; Hz$) and recorded forces by the optical trap (Movie S4).

We here measured the resistive force of the material per micrometer (k-spring constant). The

stiffer the material, the higher force detected by the optical trap. To calculate the amplitude of

the signal at 1 Hz the signal was Fast Fourier Transformed, as depicted in Figure 4B, where the

red line refers to the pure lipid tube and the green line to lipid + FtsZ. Due to variability in terms

of vesicle size, deflation state and FtsZ surface concentration, a range of values was here

reported rather than a normal-distribution. The pure lipid contribution (N=11) had values

between $0.15 - 0.55$ pN/μm (Fig. 4C), while for the lipid + FtsZ system (Fig. 4A) (N=36) we

determined values between $0.23 - 1.52$ pN/μm (Fig. 4C). Note that for some vesicles, the pure

lipid response yet dominated the spring constant measurement. Based on these results, we next

attempted to estimate the range of forces that a single FtsZ ring delivered. To this end, the FtsZ

fluorescence signal per single ring was determined and compared to the signal on the FtsZ-

covered tubes (Fig. 2SF). Thus, for each force measurement we were able to approximate the

"number of rings" according to the total FtsZ brightness. By plotting these forces vs "number

of rings" (Fig. 4D), we noted that scattered data can be well described by two straight lines, and

consequently their slopes defined the range of forces per ring: 0.14-1.09 pN.

Interestingly, we had previously inferred that FtsZ-YFP-mts rings on SLB are made of filaments

of ~0.39 μm in average (3). This estimation could be used to validate our force measurements.

A FtsZ filament with a persistence length ~0.39 μm exhibits a flexural rigidity $K =$

$1.59 \; x \; 10^{-27} \; Nm^2$ that agrees well with Turner et. al., (2012) (14). Based on this, we could

calculate the Young's modulus of FtsZ filaments: $E_{FtsZ} = 51.8 \; MPa$. ($E = KI$ where $I =$

$\pi r^4 /4$, the area moment of inertia, $r = 2.5$ nm (15)). On the other hand, the Young's modulus

E of a spring is related to the spring constant through $E = (k \; l_0)/S$, where k denotes the spring

constant, l_0 is the spring initial length and S the cross-section. Since l_0/S was fairly constant in

our tube experiments, we could claim that $E_{FtsZ}/E_l = (k_{FtsZ}/k_l)$. To calculate $\frac{k_{FtsZ}}{k_l}$, we here

considered raw averages for distributions shown in Fig. 4C and subtracted the lipid contribution

in the case of FtsZ: $k_l = 0.34$ pN/ μm and $k_{FtsZ} = 0.6$ pN/ μm. Then, the ratio $\frac{k_{FtsZ}}{k_l} = 1.76$

showed good agreement compared to $\frac{E_{FtsZ}}{E_l} = 2.26$ assuming $E_l = 22.9$ MPa (lipids with

bending $\kappa = 20 \; k_b T$) (16, 17). This confirmed that our force measurements corresponded well

with previous flexural rigidity values for FtsZ fibers. In addition, our data provide further

evidence that FtsZ filaments are softer than other cytoskeleton proteins such as microtubules

($K \sim 10^{-23}$) or actin ($K \sim 10^{-26}$) (18,19)

The helical nature of FtsZ and its torsional dynamics have been experimentally observed (20,

21); however, its relation to a potential mechanism of deforming membranes has not yet been

clearly established. According to our observations, the helical membrane transformation caused

in this study by FtsZ filaments can best be understood by assuming Darboux torque around the

lipid tube. Darboux torques are tangential torques caused by a local mismatch between the plane

defined by the filament curvature and the membrane attachment direction (22). This twisting

angle along the one filament is key to produce torque. A molecular dynamics study showed that

dynamin, a helical endocytic constriction protein, required twisting of the "adhesive-stripe" to

achieve full membrane hemifusion (22). In the case of FtsZ, molecular dynamics studies have

predicted an angle of "twisting" along the c-terminus, where membrane attachment occurs (23,

24). Also, Fierling and coworkers have theoretically studied membrane deformations produced

by filaments inducing torques (25). Strikingly, they found inward vortex-like deformations

from flat surfaces and spring-like shapes when filaments wrapped around a tubular geometry

(25). These predictions agree remarkably well with our observations.

So far, we had investigated an inverse geometry, i.e., FtsZ added from the outside, as compared

to the physiological case. Now we also reconstituted FtsZ-YFP-mts and FtsZ-YFP-

mts*[T108A] inside GUVs (Fig. 5A). Conditions to obtain ring-like-structures (Fig. 5B) or

filaments wrapping the vesicle (Fig. 1SD) were again found by tuning GTP and Mg^{+2}.

Interestingly, the diameters of FtsZ-YFP-mts*[T108A] rings were significantly larger

(0.89 μm) than FtsZ-YFP-mts (0.44 μm) (Fig. 5D). This difference was not observed in the

case of SLBs (3), indicating the possibility that softer lipid surface affects the steady state of

FtsZ assembly. In other words, the physical properties of the lipid surface, such as stiffness,

may play an important role in FtsZ fragmentation and treadmilling. In addition, the wide size

distribution in the low GTPase mutant case (Fig. 5D) implied that polymers were flexible to

accommodate a larger variety of curvatures. Strikingly, both FtsZ mutants could create

outwards deformations emerging from rings (Fig. 4E). But only in the case of FtsZ-YFP-mts,

there was clear evidence of constricting rings (Fig. 4E) similar to previous reports (1). Based

on Fig. 1, we hypothesize that FtsZ torsion could create outwards out-of-plane forces (Fig. 5F).

However, FtsZ filaments only exhibiting static (structural) torsion were unable to stabilize

smaller diameters. In contrast, dynamic twisting upon GTP-hydrolysis drives constriction and

clustering (Fig. 5G), such that active FtsZ filaments lead to an overall shrinkage of diameters.

FtsZ constriction and neck formation on flat membranes thus represents an analog of helix

compression, where forces of $0.14 - 1.09$ pN per ring are actuating the lipid surface.

In order to appreciate the relevance of our mechanistic findings for lipid membranes *in vivo*,

we needed to transfer our FtsZ-YFP-mts construct to the cellular environment. Therefore, *E.*

coli cells were cloned and transformed with the corresponding gene into an inducible plasmid.

Upon IPTG induction, FtsZ-YFP-mts fluorescence signals in the cells were observed. The FtsZ-

YFP-mts construct localizes in several ring-like structures around midcell (Fig. 6A). Multiple

Z-ring structures were observed, due to the overexpression of the FtsZ-YFP-mts protein (1). A

3D-reconstruction reveals that these FtsZ assemblies are indeed ring structures that resemble

those formed by native FtsZ rings at the division site (Fig. 6A). Importantly, without addition

of inductor, no FtsZ-YFP-mts structures were observed (Fig. 6B). Since FtsZ driven

deformations were not observed for tensed GUVs (Fig. 5), we reasoned that in walled bacteria

with turgor pressure, it might be difficult to observe FtsZ-YFP-mts driven membrane

deformations. Therefore, cells were treated with lysozyme to create *E. coli* spheroplasts in

osmoprotective medium. Cells expressing the FtsZ fusion protein were highly fragile and prone

to lysis. We therefore started microscopic analyses before all cells have converted to

spheroplasts (Fig. 6B). Importantly, vesicular structures budding out from spheroplasted cells

were observed (Fig. 6B, arrows). These vesicular structures were not observed in control cells

lacking the FtsZ-YFP-mts expression, indicating that they are a consequence of protein

overproduction. We also observed drastic deformations of the plasma membrane that resemble

plasmolysis. In these cases, FtsZ-YFP-mts assemblies underneath the membrane seem to pull

in the membrane and exert force leading to a separation of plasma membrane and outer

membrane. A membrane stain reveals that areas with strong FtsZ fusion protein assemblies also

show membrane invaginations or constriction necks (Fig. 6C, arrows; Movie S5). These results

agreed remarkably well with our outwards deformations and constriction necks from FtsZ rings

inside GUVs. Directional screw-like forces promoting extrusion of lipid material or budding

(Fig. 5H & Fig. 6B), as well as constriction necks (Fig. 5G & Fig. 6C), are both explained in

terms of a FtsZ polymer able to exert torsional stress as explained above. Interestingly, this

opens the possibility of FtsZ filaments playing an active role in cell division organisms that

divide by budding, such as Acholeplasma laidlawii (28).

Altogether, our experiments provide clear evidence that FtsZ induces two kinds of mechanical

deformations to membranes. Static (structural) FtsZ torsion rules the assembly of rings on flat

surfaces (3) and induces inwards/outwards deformations as described earlier. Importantly,

circumferential treadmilling powered by GTP hydrolysis induces an additional torque-twist,

stabilizing smaller ring diameters and supporting further membrane constriction. Regardless

whether protein was externally added or encapsulated, cylindrical geometry allowed clockwise

and anti-clockwise treadmilling (Fig. 5G). Together active FtsZ induces helical transformation

of the membrane tube and a super-constricted state of filaments, imposing a mechanical strain

that promotes breakage and therefore the emergence of treadmilling (Fig. 5F). This establishes

an interesting similarity between FtsZ and dynamin, in which GTP hydrolysis also triggers a

super-constricted state, favoring fragmentation and clustering (19,20). We conclude that these

torques represent a robust constriction mechanism for cylindrically shaped membranes,

generating forces in the range of 0.14-1.09 pN per ring in the case of FtsZ. These FtsZ-induced

forces drive outwards deformations and constriction necks in the case of deflated vesicles *in*

vitro and wall-less *E. coli in vivo*. Although the here reported forces do likely not suffice for

the entire process of bacterial cytokinesis of walled rod-like cells, given the temporal relevance

of FtsZ dynamics in the coordination of synthesis of new wall material (5,6), an initial inwards

membrane deformation may be key to trigger cytokinesis, in the form of a "curvature trigger".

In view of our data, we hypothesize that if membrane tension is lowered; for instance, through

the incorporation of de novo synthesized lipids in bacteria septum (10), the here reported force

range might become relevant for the initiation of cell division.

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materials.

Figure 1.

A) FtsZ-YFP-mts ring structures externally decorating GUVs (scale bar=10 μm). **B)** After GUV

deflation, inwards conical deformations emerged from FtsZ rings. **C)** Inspired by deformations

in (B), we designed a PDMS microstructure with inwards-conical geometry covered with a

supported lipid bilayer (SLB). The imaging plane was chosen to have a cross-section of ~1 μm

diameter. **D)** Inside cones, FtsZ-YFP-mts self-assembled into dynamic vortices (Movie S1). **E)**

Kymograph showed negative and positive slopes indicating the presence of clockwise and

anticlockwise directions (Scale bar = 5 μm).

Figure 2.

A. FtsZ-YFP-mts

0 s

175 s

350 s

500 s

Helix diameter

B. Wild-type FtsZ + ZipA

Equator

Pole

Lipid

ZipA+FtsZ

Helical Transformation

A) To understand inwards deformations, we stretched the cone structures into a tubular

geometry. Soft lipid tubes were pulled from weakly surface-attached GUVs by moving the

GUVs relative to an optically trapped bead. As long as the FtsZ-YFP-mts entered the tube, a

process of coiling is clearly observed as a function of time. As a result, protein being

accumulated over the tip transformed the lipid tube into a spring-like shape. B) To rule out that

artificial attachment of the FtsZ-YFP-mts is responsible of the helical transformation, we

reconstituted wild-type FtsZ anchored to the membrane via ZipA to obtain ring-like structures

decorating GUVs. When vesicles were deflated, wild-type FtsZ + ZipA caused inwards cone-

like deformations. After pulling lipid tubes, similar helical deformations were observed

confirming that torsion is related the FtsZ core of the polymer. Fluorescence signal of wt-FtsZ-

Alexa 488 is shown in green while siZipA remains unlabeled. (Scale bar = 2 μm).

    Figure 3.

A) FtsZ-YFP-mts and **B)** FtsZ-YFP-mts*[T108A] promoted helical deformations with the

difference that GTPase activity induce compression (λ ~ 1.6 μm) of initially longer pitch (λ >

3 μm). **C)** To rule out that compression was biased by the deflation state, we plotted tube

diameter vs mean pitch for FtsZ-YFP-mts (N=12) (green) and FtsZ-YFP-mts*[T108A] (N=10)

(gray). Despite of higher tube densities for FtsZ-YFP-mts*[T108A] as shown in **(D),** the mean

pitch for no GTPase case is longer at comparable tube diameters. **E)** We observed two clear

pitch states for FtsZ-YFP-mts (gray bars/green line) and FtsZ-YFP-mts*[T108A] (gray bars/red

line) with a clear dominance of longer pitch for the mutant without GTPase activity. **F)** Helical

deformations can be understood by twisting an elastic rod subjected to constant force. We

postulate that FtsZ has an intrinsic torsion that is enhanced by GTPase activity, driving further

compression. Intrinsic FtsZ torsion rules long-pitch transformations ($\lambda > 3$ μm) while GTP

enhances further torsion causing higher pitch states ($\lambda < 2$ μm).

Figure 4.

A) Spring-like structures were mechanically assessed by forcing the tube length to oscillate

with an amplitude of 3 μm and a frequency of 1Hz. **B)** To measure forces, we tracked bead-

displacement as response of the dynamic input. Then, we calculated the Fast Fourier Transform

(FFT) to calculate the amplitude of the signal. Red line: lipid signal and green line: FtsZ. **C)** By

calculating the amplitude, we assessed the spring constant for the case of the only lipid

contribution (N=11) and Lipid+FtsZ (N=36). Dashed red lines indicate the range where the

lipid response dominated over the FtsZ contribution to the spring constant. **D)** By assessing the

average total intensity of FtsZ rings on a flat surface with the same imaging conditions, we

estimated the number of rings for each FtsZ experiments shown in **C)**. Therefore, scattered data

representing force vs. number of rings could be described by two dashed red lines with slopes

0.14 and 1.09 pN per ring. These slopes represented the upper and lower limit for the FtsZ

forces per ring.

Figure 5.

A) FtsZ-YFP-mts and FtsZ-YFP-mts*[T108A] rings inside GUVs. **B)** Imaging of rings, at

GUVs bottom, using TIRF microscopy. **C)** Intensity profile of structures indicated in (B)

showed that FtsZ-YFP-mts (green line) rings exhibit smaller diameter than FtsZ-YFP-

mts*[T108A] (red line). **D)** Size distribution of (N=112) FtsZ-YFP-mts*[T108A] (gray bars

and red line) and (N=102) FtsZ-YFP-mts showed a drastic reduction in ring diameter due to

GTP hydrolysis. **E)** After deflation, both mutants drove outwards deformations with the

difference that GTPase activity promotes constriction and neck formation. **F)** We suggest that

intrinsic torsion can create out-of-plane forces; however, **G)** GTP hydrolysis triggered a super-

constricted state favoring higher curvatures.

Figure 6.

A) *E. coli* DH5α cells expressing FtsZ-YFP-mts polymeric structures perpendicular to the cell

diameter around midcell (AI). 3D rendering reveals ring-like structures (AII-AIII). **B)** Removal

of the cell wall by lysozyme treatment leads to spheroplast formation. Expression of FtsZ-YFP-

mts leads to membrane vesiculation (arrows). **C)** Sphaeroplasts expressing FtsZ-YFP-mts show

drastic deformations of the plasma membrane. FtsZ assemblies lead to local membrane

invaginations (white arrows), indicating force generation. Scale bars 2 μm.

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408 **Code availability**

409 All custom code is available on request.

410 **Data availability**

411 All data are available in the main text, the supplementary materials, or upon request.

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