Control of septum thickness by a large protein ring

Michaela Wenzel[1,§,*], Ilkay N. Celik Gulsoy[1*], Yongqiang Gao[1ʸ], Joost Willemse[2], Mariska G. M. van Rosmalen[3], Gijs J. L. Wuite[3], Wouter H. Roos[4], Leendert W. Hamoen[1#]

[1]Bacterial Cell Biology, Swammerdam Institute for Life Sciences, University of Amsterdam, 1098 XH Amsterdam, The Netherlands

[2]Molecular Biotechnology, Institute of Biology, Leiden University, 2333 BE, Leiden, The Netherlands

[3]Department of Physics and Astronomy and Laser Lab, Free University of Amsterdam, 1081 HV Amsterdam, The Netherlands

[4]Molecular Biophysics, Zernike Institute, University of Groningen, 9747 AG Groningen, The Netherlands

*These authors contributed equally to this work.

#Corresponding author: Leendert Hamoen, l.w.hamoen@uva.nl

§Current address: Division of Chemical Biology, Department of Biology and Biological Engineering, Chalmers University of Technology, 41296 Gothenburg, Sweden

ʸCurrent address: Department of Microbiology and Immunobiology, Harvard Medical School, Boston MA 02115, USA

Abstract

Cell division in bacteria is initiated by polymerization of the tubulin homologue FtsZ at midcell. In Gram-positive bacteria FtsZ polymers are anchored to the cell membrane by the protein SepF. Purified *Bacillus subtilis* SepF polymerizes into large rings with an inner diameter of ~40 nm. The biological function of this ring formation is unclear. In this study we have isolated SepF homologues from five different bacterial species and showed that the ability to form rings is conserved. In addition, we found a correlation between the diameter of SepF rings and the thickness of cell division septa. By constructing SepF chimeras, we were able to show that the conserved core domain determines both SepF ring diameter and septum thickness. Our results support a model in which SepF polymers form arc-shaped molecular clamps on the leading edge of nascent septa, thereby controlling septal thickness. This suggests that the intrinsic form of a protein polymer can function as a mold to shape the cell wall.

Introduction

Bacterial cell division is accomplished by a complex multi-protein machinery called the divisome. Assembly of the divisome begins with polymerization of the tubulin homologue FtsZ at midcell along the cell membrane, into a ring-like configuration, the so called Z-ring (1). This structure forms a scaffold for the late cell division proteins responsible for synthesis of the dividing septal wall (2). Several cell division proteins support the formation of the Z-ring, and a key step is the anchoring of FtsZ polymers to the cell membrane. This is achieved by the conserved peripheral membrane proteins FtsA and/or SepF. FtsA can be found in both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria, whereas SepF is widely conserved in Gram-positive and cyanobacteria, but has no known homologue in Gram-negatives (3, 4). Several bacteria, such as *Bacillus subtilis*, contain both membrane anchors (5). Both FtsA and SepF directly interact with FtsZ and use an amphipathic α-helix to bind the cell membrane (6, 7).

B. subtilis can use either FtsA or SepF as anchor for the Z-ring, since only one of them is required for Z-ring formation. However, the absence of SepF results in highly deformed septa, which is not the case when FtsA is absent (4). This indicates that SepF must have an additional function related to septum formation. Curiously, purified *B. subtilis* SepF forms large ring structures with an inner diameter of ~40 nm (Figure 1) (8). Based on the crystal structure of SepF, these rings must encompass at least 80 to 100 SepF molecules (5). *In vitro*, these protein rings are able to bundle FtsZ polymers into very long microtubule-like structures with SepF rings stacked perpendicularly to the FtsZ polymers (9). However, such microtubular structures have never been observed in bacteria. Later studies showed that the membrane-binding amphipathic α-helix of SepF is likely located

inside the rings, and it was postulated that SepF might not form rings, but rather

forms arcs that wrap over the leading edge of nascent septa, on top of which the

FtsZ polymers bind and align (Figure 1) (5). Whether such arcs are formed is

unclear since high-resolution electron microscopy is unable to observe this due to

the electron density of the bacterial cytoplasm and cell wall.

An important argument for the arc model was the realization that the inner

diameter of SepF rings (41 nm) is comparable to the thickness of the septal wall

(43 nm) (8). Since SepF arcs will control the freedom of movement of FtsZ

polymers, including the peptidoglycan synthetic apparatus that is linked to the Z-

ring (Figure 1), the diameter of SepF rings would determine the thickness of the

septal wall. If this model is correct than (i) the ability to form large protein rings

must be a conserved feature of SepF proteins, and (ii) the inner diameter of these

rings should correspond to the thickness of division septa. To test this, we purified

SepF from different Gram-positive bacteria and found that these proteins also form

large protein rings. Importantly, we showed that there is a correlation between

SepF ring diameter and septum thickness. Using SepF chimeras, we revealed that

the conserved core domain of SepF determines ring diameter. Finally, by

expressing these chimeras in *B. subtilis*, we were able to show that changing the

core domain also changes septum thickness. These results provided support for

the SepF working model presented in Figure 1, and present a possible mechanism

how Gram-positive bacteria regulate septum thickness. It also suggests that the

intrinsic form of a protein polymer can function as a mold that can shape the cell

wall.

Results

SepF rings and tubules

SepF rings have previously been observed with transmission electron microscopy (TEM) using negative staining with uranyl acetate (8). Since high concentrations of this salt might influence the behavior of SepF, we decided to examine whether the protein can form rings under more physiological conditions using atomic force microscopy (AFM). It appeared that under these conditions purified *B. subtilis* SepF also formed rings with diameters of about 40 nm (Figure 2A). Rings were 2 to 4 nm high (Figure 2B-D), which corresponds to single or double molecule thick rings, since the crystal packing has shown that SepF polymers can be 1.5 or 2.6 nm thick, depending on the orientation of SepF dimers (8).

Previously, SepF was purified as a maltose-binding protein (MBP) fusion, followed by proteolytic cleavage and removal of MBP using ion-exchange chromatography (5, 9). We noticed that after cleavage, SepF precipitates, possibly due to the presence of calcium in the digestion buffer. After resuspension in calcium-free buffer, SepF formed stacks and tubules with diameters corresponding to that of SepF rings when observed by TEM (Figure 2E). After ion-exchange chromatography only rings are found (Figure 2F). These findings, together with the AFM data, show that the circular polymerization of SepF is a robust feature that likely also occurs *in vivo*.

SepF from other species

To determine whether ring formation is a conserved feature of SepF, we purified the protein from different Gram-positive organisms. *Bacillus cereus* is an important food-spoiling bacterium (10, 11) and the causative agent of rainforest anthrax

(12–14) and was chosen as close relative of *B. subtilis*. We further selected

Clostridium perfringens, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, and *Streptococcus*

pneumoniae, all of which are important human pathogens. *S. pneumoniae* differs

from the rest since it forms cocci instead of rods, and *M. tuberculosis* is one of the

bacterial species that lack an FtsA homologue. An amino acid sequence alignment

of the different SepF homologues is shown in Figure 3A. The central domain of the

protein, which contains the FtsZ binding site (8), is particularly conserved. All

proteins were successfully purified as MBP fusions. *C. perfringens, M. tuberculosis,*

and *S. pneumoniae* SepF precipitated after proteolytic cleavage from MBP and

were further purified by centrifugation, whereas *B. cereus* SepF remained largely

soluble and was purified by ion-exchange chromatography.

Membrane binding

B. subtilis SepF possesses an N-terminal amphipathic α-helix (amino acids 1-13),

which targets the protein to the cytoplasmic membrane (5, 6). This N-terminal

amphipathic helix is reasonably conserved in the different SepF species (Figure 3A,

see Supplementary Figure 1 for helical wheel depictions), although the helices

differ in their hydrophobicity and hydrophobic moment (Figure 3B). Nevertheless,

when the purified proteins were mixed with artificial liposomes, they caused a

strong aggregation of liposomes, and deformed them into small vesicles, as

observed with high-resolution structured illumination microscopy (SIM). One

example, *S. pneumoniae* SepF, is presented in Figure 3C-D (see Supplementary

Figure 2 for all variants). Such liposome deformation is a typical characteristic of

membrane-interacting amphipathic α-helices (15), and these data shows that the

membrane binding activity of SepF is conserved.

Ring formation

If polymerization into a curved structure is an important feature of SepF, this characteristic should not be restricted to the *B. subtilis* protein. To test this, the purified SepF homologues were spotted on TEM grids and negatively stained with uranyl acetate. Indeed, as shown in Figure 4A, all SepF variants formed large rings of a remarkably constant size. However, the average ring diameters varied between species, from ~20 up to ~40 nm (Figure 4B).

Correlation with septum thickness

If SepF forms arcs on top of the growing edge of septa, it is likely that the septum thickness corresponds to the diameter of SepF ring (Figure 1). To examine whether such correlation exists, we performed TEM of the different bacterial species and measured the cell wall diameter at the edge of nascent cell division septa (Figure 4C-E). Because of its high pathogenicity we used data taken from the literature in case of *M. tuberculosis* (16). A clear correlation was observed between the inner ring diameters and the thickness of the corresponding septa (Figure 4F). Only *B. cereus* did not follow this trend, and its SepF rings were smaller than the width of its septa (Figure 4B-E).

Core domain defines ring diameter

Proteolytic trimming has shown that the conserved C-terminal domain of *B. subtilis* SepF, spanning amino acids 57 to 151, is sufficient for the formation of rings (5). Therefore, we hypothesized that this core domain determines the ring diameter. To test this, we replaced the conserved core domain of *B. subtilis* SepF with those of the SepF proteins from the other species, maintaining the first 67 and last 13 amino acids of *B. subtilis* SepF. These chimeras (16) were then expressed in *E.*

coli, purified, and visualized by TEM using negative staining. All SepF chimeras

were able to form rings, and importantly, the ring diameters of these chimeras

corresponded very well to the diameters of the original SepF variants (Figure 5A-

D).

Functional chimeras

If it is true that the diameter of SepF rings determines the thickness of septa, then

expressing a SepF variant with a smaller diameter in *B. subtilis* should result in

thinner septa. It is unlikely that SepF from other species function in *B. subtilis*,

since the N- and C-termini of SepF, which are much less conserved, are crucial for

its activity (5, 9). Therefore, the chimeras provided a unique opportunity,

assuming that the core domains are sufficiently conserved so that they can bind

B. subtilis FtsZ. To test whether these chimeras are active in *B. subtilis*, they were

expressed in a Δ*sepF* strain. *B. subtilis* is one of the few species that grows

normally in absence of SepF, but its septa are strongly deformed in the absence

of this protein (4). This phenotype can be easily observed using high-resolution

SIM microscopy by fluorescently labelling of the cell membrane (Figure 6A). Except

for the *S. pneumoniae* chimera, the *B. cereus, C. perfringens,* and *M. tuberculosis*

chimera were able to restore normal septum formation in the Δ*sepF* background

(Figure 6A). This was confirmed by TEM (Figure 6B).

The inner ring diameter of the *C. perfringens* SepF chimera (24 nm) is

considerably smaller than that of the *B. subtilis* protein (42 nm). When this chimera

was expressed in the Δ*sepF* strain, the septum thickness decreased substantially

from 43 to 28 nm (Figure 6 C-E). A similar decrease of septum thickness was

observed when the *M. tuberculosis* chimera (35 nm diameter) was expressed in

the Δ*sepF* background. These results support our hypothesis that the SepF ring

diameter controls septum thickness. On the other hand, when we introduced the

B. cereus chimera in the Δ*sepF* mutant, the septum thickness was comparable to

that of wild type cells, whereas the diameter of this chimera is approximately 10

nm smaller than that of *B. subtilis* SepF (Figure 6C-E). However, *B. cereus* has an

average septum thickness that is comparable to *B. subtilis* (43 and 41 nm,

respectively). Thus, this finding is still in line with the conclusion that the central

core domain of SepF determines septum thickness.

Discussion

In this study we showed (i) that the membrane binding and ring forming activities are conserved in SepF homologues, (ii) that the correlation between ring diameter and septum thickness can be found in different Gram-positive bacteria, and (iii) that the septum thickness of *B. subtilis* cells can be reduced by expressing SepF mutants with a smaller diameter. These findings support the molecular clamp model, in which SepF arcs define the physical constraints for septum thickness (Figure 1). Thus, SepF fulfills a dual function in cell division, anchoring of the Z-ring to the cell membrane and controlling septum thickness.

B. cereus SepF behaved slightly different and showed an average inner ring diameter of 30 nm, which is smaller than its average septum thickness of 43 nm. Possibly, *B. cereus* SepF polymers are more flexible in a cellular environment, enabling a wider diameter, or there might be other factors involved in controlling septum diameter in this organism in addition to the physical confinement of SepF polymers.

Previous structural work has indicated that SepF rings are built of tightly packed dimers. These dimers are formed by two parallel oriented monomers (5), as a consequence of which all SepF dimers have the same orientation in a ring. However, FtsZ polymers treadmill in both directions in the Z-ring (17), and it is likely that they bind SepF rings in both polymer orientations. SepF binds to the C-terminal domain of FtsZ (18), which is connected to the protein by a long flexible linker (19). This flexibility might enable FtsZ polymers with opposite orientations to interact with the same SepF ring.

The septal wall of Gram-positive bacteria is build-up of multiple layers of peptidoglycan, and somehow cells are able to carefully control this process,

resulting septa with a constant thickness. The SepF clamp model provides a

possible explanation for this control mechanism. Many SepF arcs must line the

leading edge of the nascent septum to maintain an even thickness. This could be

facilitated by the propensity of SepF rings to form stacks (Figure 2E). Gram-

negative bacteria contain a cell wall that consists of a single-layer of peptidoglycan.

The thickness of this layer is regulated by the outer membrane proteins LpoA and

LpoB, which reach through the peptidoglycan layer to contact and regulate the cell

membrane-anchored peptidoglycan-synthetic enzymes (20). Possibly, this is why

Gram-negative bacteria do not need a SepF-like protein for septum thickness

control. It should be mentioned that *E. coli* FtsA has been shown to form ring

structures *in vitro* as well (21). However, the inner diameter of these rings is ~15

nm, which is considerably smaller than the septum width of *E. coli* (~30-60 nm).

Regulation of the shape of septal walls by SepF through its intrinsic

curvature is partly reminiscent of the activity of MreB, which controls the rod shape

of many bacteria (22). MreB forms polymers of defined curvature that orientate

and move transversely to the long axis of cells, along the direction of greatest

membrane curvature (23, 24), thereby guiding the cell wall synthetic machinery

in a way that enforces and maintains a rod shape (25, 26). However, unlike SepF,

the intrinsic curvature of MreB filaments, which has been estimated to have a

diameter of roughly 200 nm (23), does not define the diameter of the cell, which

is much larger (23). Thus, the control of septum thickness by a molecular clamp

appears to be a novel concept of how protein polymers can control the shape of

growing cell walls.

Material and Methods

Strain construction

All strains used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table 1, plasmids in Supplementary Table 2, and primers in Supplementary Table 3. Plasmids for purification of SepF variants were constructed by PCR amplification of *sepF* from the respective organisms, followed by restriction cloning into the pMalC2 plasmid (27), using the *Xba*I and *Sma*I or *Eco*RI restriction sites. pMalC2-based plasmids for purification of chimera proteins and pAPNC-213-kan-based plasmids (28) for integration of *sepF* variants into the *aprE* locus in the *B. subtilis* genome were constructed by Gibson assembly (29). pMalC2-derived purification plasmids were transformed into calcium-competent *E. coli* BL21 (DE3). pAPNC-213-kan-derived integration plasmids were transformed into *B. subtilis* 168 using a standard starvation protocol (30). Deletions of the *sepF* and *ftsA* genes were introduced by transforming the resulting *B. subtilis* strains with chromosomal DNA isolated from YK204 (*sepF::spc*) (31), BFA2863 (*sepF::ery*) (4), and TB94 (*ftsA::cat*), respectively. TB94 was created by transformation of *B. subtilis* 168 with chromosomal DNA of strain MD133 *ftsA::cat aprE::kan Pspac-ftsA* (31) followed by selection on chloramphenicol resistance but kanamycin sensitivity.

Protein purification

E. coli BL21 (DE3) strains carrying pMalC2 plasmids for purification of SepF variants were grown overnight in LB containing 100 µg/ml ampicillin at 37 °C under continuous shaking. Cultures were diluted 1:100 and allowed to grow until an OD_{600} of 0.4 in the presence of ampicillin. Expression of maltose-binding protein (MBP)-tagged SepF proteins was induced by addition of 0.5 mM IPTG. Cells were

harvested by centrifugation after 4 h of induction and subsequently washed in

phosphate-buffered saline supplemented with 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride

to prevent protein degradation. Dry cell pellets were flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen

and stored at -80 °C until further use. Cell pellets were resuspended in buffer AF

(50 mM Tris-HCL, pH 7.4, 200 mM KCl, 5 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM DTT) supplemented

with one Complete mini protease inhibitor tablet (Roche) and disrupted by French

Press. Cell debris was removed by ultracentrifugation at 31,000 x g, and the

resulting supernatant was filtered through 0.2 µm filter membranes prior to

loading onto a Tricorn 10/20 column (GE Healthcare) packed with 2 ml amylose

resin (New England Biolabs) equilibrated with buffer AF. After loading, the column

was washed with 5 column volumes buffer AF, followed by buffer BF (50 mM Tris-

HCl, pH 7.4) until the baseline was stable. MBP-tagged SepF variants were eluted

with buffer BF containing 10 mM maltose. Appropriate fractions were pooled and

digested with factor Xa protease (New England Biolabs) in the presence of 2 mM

$CaCl_2$ at 4 °C overnight. *B. cereus* SepF was soluble while the others precipitated

after cleavage (*B. subtilis, S. pneumoniae, C. perfringens, M. tuberculosis,* all

chimera proteins) due to presence of calcium. Insoluble proteins were separated

from soluble MBP and factor Xa by centrifugation at 10,000 x g. Pellets containing

pure SepF were dissolved in buffer BF without $CaCl_2$, flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen

and stored at -80 °C until further use. SepF variants that were soluble after factor

Xa cleavage were separated from MBP and Factor Xa protease by ion exchange

chromatography. To this end, digested samples were loaded onto a 1 ml HiTrap Q

column (GE Healthcare) equilibrated with buffer BF. The column was washed with

buffer BF until the baseline was stable, followed by washing with 7.5% buffer CF

(50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 1 M KCl) resulting in elution of MBP, and washing with

17.5% buffer CF resulting in elution of factor Xa. Pure SepF was eluted with 50%

buffer CF, flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80 °C.

Atomic force microscopy

Purified *B. subtilis* SepF was diluted 1:10 in buffer BF and added onto a freshly

cleaved highly oriented pyrolytic graphite (HOPG) surface (Agar Scientific) and

allowed to settle for 20 min at room temperature prior to imaging in buffer solution

(32). Images were taken with an atomic force microscope from Nanotec

Electronica (Tres Cantos) operated in jumping mode at room temperature.

Olympus OMCL-RC800PSA rectangular, silicon-nitride cantilevers with a nominal

tip radius of 15 nm and a nominal spring constant of 0.05 N/m were used. Images

were processed and analyzed with WSxM software (33).

Fluorescence light microscopy of liposomes

Liposomes were prepared from *E. coli* polar lipid extract (Avanti Polar Lipids) as

described previously (6). Liposomes were extruded through 0.2 μm filters.

Samples were stained with 1 μg/ml Nile red, spotted on 1.2% agarose films,

covered with poly-dopamine-coated cover slips (34), and immediately imaged with

a Nikon Eclipse Ti equipped with a CFI Plan Apochromat DM 100x oil objective, an

Intensilight HG 130 W lamp, a C11440-22CU Hamamatsu ORCA camera, and NIS

elements software. Images were analyzed using ImageJ (National Institutes of

Health).

Structured illumination (SIM) microscopy

Liposomes for SIM were prepared from *E. coli* polar lipid extract (Avanti Polar

Lipids) as described previously (6). Liposomes were extruded through 0.8 μm

filters to obtain large enough vesicles. 0.25 mg/ml of the respective SepF variants

was mixed with 2 mg/ml liposomes in SepF binding buffer. Samples were stained

with 0.5 µg/ml mitotracker green, spotted on 1.2% agarose films, covered with

poly-dopamine-coated cover slips (34), and immediately imaged with a Nikon

Eclipse Ti N-SIM E microscope setup equipped with a CFI SR Apochromat TIRF

100x oil objective (NA1.49), a LU-N3-SIM laser unit, an Orca-Flash 4.0 sCMOS

camera (Hamamatsu Photonics K.K.), and NIS elements Ar software. SIM

microscopy of bacteria was performed by staining cells with 0.5 µg/ml mitotracker

green for 1 min, spotted on a thin film of 1.2% agarose (21).

Transmission electron microscopy of proteins

Protein samples were spotted on glow-discharged 200 mesh formvar/carbon-

coated copper grids (Agar Scientific) and incubated for 1 min at room temperature.

Excess liquid was removed with paper tissue and samples were negatively stained

by adding 100 µl 2% uranyl acetate drop by drop. Excess staining solution was

removed with paper tissue and samples were allowed to air dry. Samples were

examined with a JEOL1010 at 60 kV.

Growth conditions for microscopy

B. cereus, S. pneumoniae, and *C. perfringens* were grown on tryptic soy agar

plates containing 5 % sheep blood (BioMerieux). After three days of aerobic (*B.*

cereus and *S. pneumoniae*) or anaerobic incubation (*C. perfringens*) at 37 °C,

colonies were transferred to fresh plates and incubated for another 48 h prior to

suspension in phosphate-buffered saline and preparation for electron microscopy.

B. subtilis strains were grown in Luria-Bertani (LB) broth at 37 °C under steady

agitation. The medium was supplemented with 0.1 mM IPTG to induce expression

of SepF variants, where appropriate. It is important not to use more IPTG since

SepF overproduction causes membrane deformations that obscure septa (35).

Overnight cultures were grown with appropriate antibiotic concentrations (100

μg/ml spectinomycin, 10 μg/ml chloramphenicol, 5 μg/ml kanamycin, 1 μg/ml

erythromycin), where necessary. Cells were grown until exponential phase (OD_{600}

= 0.4) prior to microscopy.

Transmission electron microscopy of bacteria

Electron microscopy of bacteria was performed according to van Wezel *at al.*

(36)(*B. cereus*, *S. pneumoniae*, *C. perfringens)* or Saeloh *et al.* (37) (*B. subtilis*).

Samples were examined with a JEOL 1010 at an electron voltage of 60 kV.

Acknowledgements

We gratefully acknowledge Zehui Zhang and Daniel Antwi-berko for help with sample preparation, Wiep Klaas Smits for help with growing strains, Marien P. Dekker and Jan R. T. van Weering for support with TEM, and Gaurav Dugar for critically reading the manuscript. Electron microscopy was performed at the VU/VUMC EM facility, supported by the Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (NWO, middelgroot 91111009). This work was financially supported by the Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (NWO, STW-Vici 12128 to LWH and NWO-Vidi to WHR). MW was supported by a postdoc stipend from the Amsterdam Infection and Immunity Institute.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that this work was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Author contributions

MW planned and performed experiments and wrote the paper. INCG constructed strains and performed experiments. YG constructed strains. JW and MGM performed experiments. GJLW and WHR provided tools and planned experiments. LWH designed the study and wrote the paper.

References

1. Lutkenhaus J, Pichoff S, Du S (2012) Bacterial cytokinesis: From Z ring to divisome. *Cytoskeleton* 69(10):778–790.

2. Gamba P, Veening JW, Saunders NJ, Hamoen LW, Daniel RA (2009) Two-step assembly dynamics of the Bacillus subtilis divisome. *J Bacteriol* 191(13):4186–4194.

3. Errington J, Daniel RA, Scheffers D-J (2003) Cytokinesis in bacteria. *Microbiol Mol Biol Rev* 67(1):52–65, table of contents.

4. Hamoen LW, Meile J-C, De Jong W, Noirot P, Errington J (2006) SepF, a novel FtsZ-interacting protein required for a late step in cell division. *Mol Microbiol* 59(3):989–999.

5. Duman R, et al. (2013) Structural and genetic analyses reveal the protein SepF as a new membrane anchor for the Z ring. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 110(48):E4601-10.

6. Strahl H, Hamoen LW (2010) Membrane potential is important for bacterial cell division. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 107(27):12281–12286.

7. Pichoff S, Lutkenhaus J (2005) Tethering the Z ring to the membrane through a conserved membrane targeting sequence in FtsA. *Mol Microbiol* 55(6):1722–1734.

8. Duman R, et al. (2013) Structural and genetic analyses reveal the protein SepF as a new membrane anchor for the Z ring. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 110(48):E4601-10.

9. Gündoğdu ME, et al. (2011) Large ring polymers align FtsZ polymers for normal septum formation. *EMBO J* 30(3):617–626.

10. Kotiranta A, Lounatmaa K, Haapasalo M (2000) Epidemiology and

pathogenesis of Bacillus cereus infections. *Microbes Infect* 2(2):189–198.

11.   Bottone EJ (2010) Bacillus cereus, a volatile human pathogen. *Clin Microbiol*

Rev 23(2):382–398.

12.   Antonation KS, et al. (2016) Bacillus cereus Biovar Anthracis Causing Anthrax

in Sub-Saharan Africa—Chromosomal Monophyly and Broad Geographic

Distribution. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 10(9):e0004923.

13.   Hoffmaster AR, et al. (2004) Identification of anthrax toxin genes in a Bacillus

cereus associated with an illness resembling inhalation anthrax. *Proc Natl*

Acad Sci 101(22):8449–8454.

14.   Hoffmann C, et al. (2017) Persistent anthrax as a major driver of wildlife

mortality in a tropical rainforest. *Nature* 548:82.

15.   Prinz WA, Hinshaw JE (2009) Membrane-bending proteins. *Crit Rev Biochem*

Mol Biol 44(5):278–291.

16.   Velayati AA, Farnia P (2016) *Altas of Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Academic

Press, Cambridge). 1st Editio.

17.   Bisson-Filho AW, et al. (2017) Treadmilling by FtsZ filaments drives

peptidoglycan synthesis and bacterial cell division. *Science* 355(6326):739–

743.

18.   Krol E, et al. (2012) Bacillus subtilis SepF binds to the C-terminus of FtsZ.

PLoS One 7(8):e43293.

19.   Buske PJ, Mittal A, Pappu R V, Levin PA (2015) An intrinsically disordered

linker plays a critical role in bacterial cell division. *Semin Cell Dev Biol* 37:3–

10.

20.   Typas A, et al. (2010) Regulation of peptidoglycan synthesis by outer-

membrane proteins. *Cell* 143(7):1097–1109.

21.   Krupka M, et al. (2017) Escherichia coli FtsA forms lipid-bound minirings that

antagonize lateral interactions between FtsZ protofilaments. *Nat Commun*
8:15957.

22. Jones LJ, Carballido-Lopez R, Errington J (2001) Control of cell shape in bacteria: helical, actin-like filaments in Bacillus subtilis. *Cell* 104(6):913–922.

23. Hussain S, et al. (2018) MreB filaments align along greatest principal membrane curvature to orient cell wall synthesis. *Elife* 7:e32471.

24. Ursell TS, et al. (2014) Rod-like bacterial shape is maintained by feedback between cell curvature and cytoskeletal localization. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 111(11):E1025-34.

25. Dominguez-Escobar J, et al. (2011) Processive movement of MreB-associated cell wall biosynthetic complexes in bacteria. *Science* 333(6039):225–228.

26. Garner EC, et al. (2011) Coupled, circumferential motions of the cell wall synthesis machinery and MreB filaments in B. subtilis. *Science* 333(6039):222–225.

27. Riggs P (2001) Expression and Purification of Maltose-Binding Protein Fusions. *Current Protocols in Molecular Biology* (John Wiley & Sons, Inc.). doi:10.1002/0471142727.mb1606s28.

28. Yoshimura M, Oshima T, Ogasawara N (2007) Involvement of the YneS/YgiH and PlsX proteins in phospholipid biosynthesis in both Bacillus subtilis and Escherichia coli. *BMC Microbiol* 7(1):69.

29. Gibson DG, et al. (2009) Enzymatic assembly of DNA molecules up to several hundred kilobases. *Nat Meth* 6(5):343–345.

30. Hauser PM, Karamata D (1994) A rapid and simple method for Bacillus subtilis transformation on solid media. *Microbiology* 140(7):1613–1617.

31. Ishikawa S, Kawai Y, Hiramatsu K, Kuwano M, Ogasawara N (2006) A new FtsZ-interacting protein, YlmF, complements the activity of FtsA during

progression of cell division in Bacillus subtilis. *Mol Microbiol* 60(6):1364–

1380.

32. Heinze K, et al. (2016) Protein Nanocontainers from Nonviral Origin: Testing

the Mechanics of Artificial and Natural Protein Cages by AFM. *J Phys Chem B*

120(26):5945–5952.

33. Horcas I, et al. (2007) WSXM: A software for scanning probe microscopy and

a tool for nanotechnology. *Rev Sci Instrum* 78(1):13705.

34. te Winkel JD, Gray DA, Seistrup KH, Hamoen LW, Strahl H (2016) Analysis of

antimicrobial-triggered membrane depolarisation using voltage sensitive

dyes. *Front Cell Dev Biol* 4:29.

35. Gao Y, Wenzel M, Jonker MJ, Hamoen LW (2017) Free SepF interferes with

recruitment of late cell division proteins. *Sci Rep* 7(1):16928.

36. van Wezel GP, et al. (2000) ssgA is essential for sporulation of Streptomyces

coelicolor A3(2) and affects hyphal development by stimulating septum

formation. *J Bacteriol* 182(20):5653–5662.

37. Saeloh D, et al. (2018) The novel antibiotic rhodomyrtone traps membrane

proteins in vesicles with increased fluidity. *PLoS Pathog* 14(2):e1006876.

Figure legends

Figure 1: SepF working model. *B. subtilis* SepF forms large rings with an average inner ring diameter (d) of 41 nm. The septum thickness (t) of *B. subtilis* cells measures on average 43 nm. A crossection of a developing septum (grey) is depicted. FtsZ polymers (Z) bind to the outside of SepF rings, and the transmembrane peptidoglycan synthesis machinery (P) is associated with FtsZ polymers. Of note, it is not yet know how these transmembrane proteins are linked to the FtsZ polymers in Gram-positive bacteria, and this association might be indirect.

Figure 2: SepF rings and tubules. **(A)** Plane AFM images of three different SepF rings imaged in buffer solution. **(B)** 3D projections of the same images. **(C)** Height measurements of the individual SepF rings shown in A and B. **(D)** Height measurements of SepF rings derived from AFM data. **(E)** TEM image of SepF stack and tubules after cleavage from MBP. **(F)** TEM image of SepF rings after ion-exchange chromatography. Scale bars 100 nm.

Figure 3: Membrane binding of SepF is conserved. **(A)** Sequence alignment (Clustal Omega) of SepF homologues used in this study. Dark grey marks identical, light grey similar amino acids. Arrows mark the highly conserved core domain of SepF. **(B)** Hydrophobic moment plot of the putative N-terminal α-helices of SepF homologues. High H values indicate strong hydrophobicity. The hydrophobic moment (µH) is a measure for the amphipathicity of an α-helix (high values indicating strong amphipathicity). The plot of H and µH indicates the probability of an α-helix to reside in the globular or surface-exposed domains of a protein and

can be used to predict transmembrane or amphipathic membrane-binding helices.

Black dots indicate known globular (*Bacillus thermoproteolyticus* thermolysin, aa

67-88), transmembrane (*B. subtilis* EzrA, aa 1-21) and amphipathic (*B. subtilis*

FtsA, aa 424-440) helices for comparison. N-terminal α-helices of SepF

homologues are depicted in red. **(C)** Fluorescence light microscopy images

showing the aggregation of small liposomes (~200 nm) stained with Nile red. **(D)**

Structured illumination microscopy images showing deformation of large liposomes

(800 nm) stained with mitotracker green. 0.25 µg/ml of the respective SepF

proteins were mixed with 2 mg/ml liposomes. See Supplementary Figure 2 for the

results with other SepF variants. Scale bars 1 µm.

Figure 4: Correlation between SepF ring diameter and septum thickness. **(A)** TEM

pictures of purified SepF from the different species. Scale bar 50 nm. **(B)**

Quantification of the inner SepF ring diameter. Black bars show mean with

standard error of the mean. A minimum of 45 rings was measured. **(C)** TEM images

of nascent cell division septa of the respective species. **(D)** Quantification of the

thickness of the nascent septa of the respective organisms. Black bars show mean

with standard error of the mean. A minimum of 50 septa was measured. **(E)**

Comparison of inner ring diameters with nascent septum thickness. Average +/-

standard deviations are indicated. *Data for *M. tuberculosis* were taken from the

literature (16). **(F)** Correlation between inner SepF ring diameter and septum

thickness.

Figure 5: The conserved core domain of SepF determines ring diameter. **(A)** TEM

pictures of purified SepF chimera proteins. **(B)** Quantification of ring diameter.

Black bars represent mean with standard error of the mean. A minimum of 50

rings was measured. **(C)** Comparison of the inner ring diameters of the original

and chimera proteins. Average +/- standard deviation are given. **(D)** Correlation

between original and chimera ring diameter.

Figure 6: SepF ring diameter determines septum thickness. **(A)** SIM images of *B.*

subtilis Δ*sepF* cells expressing different SepF chimera driven by the IPTG-inducible

Pspac promotor. Cells were grown in the presence of 100 µM IPTG until mid-log

phase prior to membrane staining and microscopy. Lack of SepF results in severely

deformed septa, which appear as highly fluorescent membrane patches due to

membrane invaginations and double membranes. Scale bar 2 µm. **(B)**

Representative TEM images of septa of Δ*sepF* strains expressing the different SepF

chimeras. Scale bar 1 µm. **(C)** Quantification of the septum thickness of the

different strains. Black bars represent mean with standard error of the mean. p

values for *C. perfringens* and *M. tuberculosis* chimeras compared to *B. subtilis* are

<0.0001. **(D)** Comparison and **(E)** correlation of the inner ring diameter of SepF

chimeras and nascent septum thickness of *B. subtilis* Δ*sepF* expressing the

chimeras.

Figure 1.

 Figure 2.

 Figure 3.

555 **Figure 4.**

	B. subtilis	B. cereus	S. pneumoniae	C. perfringens	M. tuberculosis
inner ring diameter (nm)	41 +/-3	30 +/-3	34 +/-4	28 +/-7	19 +/-7
nascent septum thickness (nm)	43 +/-8	43 +/-12	37 +/-11	33+/-7	21 nm*

 Figure 5.

557   **Figure 6.**