Controlling septum thickness by a large protein ring

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Abstract

Gram-positive bacteria divide by forming a thick cross wall. How the thickness of

this septal wall is controlled is unknown. In this type of bacteria the key cell division

protein, FtsZ, is anchored to the cell membrane by SepF. We have isolated SepF

homologues from different bacterial species and found that they all polymerize into

large protein rings with diameters varying from 19 to 41 nm. Interestingly, these

values correlated well with the thickness of their septa. By constructing different

SepF chimeras, we showed that the conserved core domain of SepF determines

ring diameter. Importantly, expressing SepF chimera with smaller diameters in

Bacillus subtilis reduced septum thickness. These results support a model in which

SepF polymerizes into molecular clamps on the leading edge of nascent septa,

thereby controlling septal thickness. This suggests that the intrinsic shape of a

protein polymer can function as a mold to shape the cell wall.

Introduction

The hallmark of Gram-positive bacteria is their thick cell wall composed of multiple layers of peptidoglycan. They divide by synthesizing a crosswall in between the newly formed daughter cells, and the thickness of this division septum approaches that of the lateral cell wall. How Gram-positive bacteria regulate the thickness of their cell wall and division septum is not known. We have investigated the latter using the Gram-positive model organism *Bacillus subtilis*.

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 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 SepF. Both proteins directly interact with FtsZ and use an amphipathic α-helix to bind the cell membrane (6, 7). 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 *B. subtilis*, contain both membrane anchors (5). Other proteins that stimulate Z-ring formation in *B. subtilis* are the conserved protein ZapA, which links FtsZ polymers (8), and the transmembrane protein EzrA that regulates FtsZ assembly (9). Once the Z-ring is assembled, the late cell division proteins arrive. These transmembrane proteins form a complex comprising the peptidoglycan glycosyltransferase FtsW (10), the transpeptidase Pbp2B (11), and the bitopic transmembrane proteins FtsL, DivIC

and DivIB (12). It is assumed that the latter three proteins regulate the assembly

of late cell division. However, for Gram-positive bacteria it is not yet clear how the

late proteins are recruited to the Z-ring.

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 (5). 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 (13). However, such

microtubular structures have never been observed in bacteria, and later studies

showed that the membrane-binding amphipathic α-helix of SepF is likely located

inside the ring, which seems to rule out ring formation *in vivo* (5). Interestingly,

the inner diameter of SepF rings is about the same size of the thickness of the

septal wall (43 nm). We wondered whether this relationship is relevant, and if so,

whether SepF rings might actually control the thickness of division septa. To

examine this, we purified SepF from different Gram-positive bacteria and found

that these proteins form large protein rings as well. Importantly, also in these

organisms there seems to be a correlation between SepF ring diameter and septum

thickness. As a final proof we expressed SepF chimeras with smaller diameters in

B. subtilis. Indeed, this reduced the thickness of septa. These results provide

strong evidence that Gram-positive bacteria regulate the thickness of their septal

wall by the strong curvature of SepF polymers at the leading edge of nascent septa.

It also indicates that the intrinsic form of a protein polymer can function as a mold

that can shape a cell wall.

Results

SepF rings and tubules

Purified *B. subtilis* SepF forms large protein rings when observed with transmission electron microscopy (TEM) using negative staining with uranyl acetate (5). Since high concentrations of this salt might influence the behavior of SepF and possibly stimulates this ring formation, we first examined 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 forms rings with diameters of about 40 nm (Fig. 1). Rings were 2 to 4 nm high (Fig. 1C, D), which corresponds to a single or double molecule stacking, since the crystal packing has shown that SepF polymers can be 1.5 or 2.6 nm wide, depending on the orientation of SepF dimers (5).

Previously, SepF was purified as a maltose-binding protein (MBP) fusion followed by proteolytic cleavage and removal of MBP using ion-exchange chromatography (5, 13). 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 (Fig. 1E). After ion-exchange chromatography only rings are found (Fig. 1F). These findings, together with the AFM data, show that the circular polymerization of *B. subtilis* 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 organisms. *Bacillus cereus* is an important food-spoiling

bacterium (14, 15) and the causative agent of rainforest anthrax (16–18) 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 Fig. 2A. The central domain of the protein, which contains

the FtsZ binding site (5), 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

A key property of *B. subtilis* SepF is its capacity to bind the cell membrane, which

is achieved by an N-terminal amphipathic α-helix (amino acids 1-13) (5). This N-

terminal amphipathic helix is reasonably conserved in the different SepF variants

(Fig. 2A, see Fig. S1 for helical wheel depictions), although the helices differ in

their hydrophobicity and hydrophobic moment (Fig. S2). To confirm that the

different SepF molecules are able to bind to lipid membranes, the purified proteins

were mixed with liposomes. This 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

Fig. 2B, C (see Fig. S3 for all variants). Such liposome deformation is a typical

characteristic of membrane-interacting amphipathic α-helices (19). These results

indicate that the membrane binding activity of SepF is conserved.

Ring formation

Another characteristic of *B. subtilis* SepF is its tendency to polymerize into a curved structure. If this feature is important for the activity of SepF, it should not be restricted to the *B. subtilis* protein. To check this, the purified SepF homologues were spotted on TEM grids and negatively stained with uranyl acetate. Indeed, as shown in Fig. 2D, 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 (Fig. 2F).

Correlation with septum thickness

The different ring diameters offered a first real test of the hypothesis that SepF ring diameter determines septum thickness. To this end, we performed TEM of the different bacterial species and measured the diameter of nascent cell division septa (Fig. 2E, G). Because of its high pathogenicity we used published data for *M. tuberculosis* (20). As shown in Fig. 2I, there is a clear correlation between inner ring diameters and the thickness of septa in the different species. Only *B. cereus* did not follow this trend, with SepF rings that are clearly smaller than the width of its septa (Fig. 2F-H).

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 assumed that this core domain determines 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 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 (Fig. 3A-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, 13). Therefore, the chimeras provided a unique opportunity to test

this, assuming that the core domains are sufficiently conserved so that they can

bind *B. subtilis* FtsZ. To determine 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

can grow without SepF, although this leads to strongly deformed septa (4). This

phenotype can be easily observed using high-resolution SIM microscopy by

fluorescently labelling the cell membrane (Fig. 4A). Only the *S. pneumoniae*

chimera failed to rescue the Δ*sepF* phenotype, while the *B. cereus, C. perfringens,*

and *M. tuberculosis* chimeras were all able to restore normal septum formation in

the Δ*sepF* background (Fig. 4A). This was also confirmed by TEM (Fig. 4B).

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

considerably smaller than *B. subtilis* SepF (42 nm). When this chimera was

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

43 to 28 nm (Fig. 4C, D). A similar decrease in septum thickness was observed,

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

Δ*sepF* background (Fig. 4C-E). These results strongly indicate that the SepF ring

diameter controls septum thickness.

Finally, the diameter of *B. cereus* SepF is approximately 10 nm smaller than

B. subtilis SepF (Fig. 2F), and so is the diameter of the *B. cereus* SepF chimera

(Fig. 3B). However, *B. cereus* has an average septum thickness comparable to that

of *B. subtilis* (Fig. 2G). If the core domain of SepF determines septum thickness,

it is likely that expression of the *B. cereus* chimera in *B. subtilis* Δ*sepF* results in

septa with a thickness comparable to that of wild type *B. subtilis* cells. This was

indeed the case (Fig. 4C-E).

Discussion

In this study we have shown that (i) the membrane binding and ring forming activities are conserved in SepF homologues, (ii) the correlation between ring diameter and septum thickness can be found in different Gram-positive bacteria, and (iii) the septum thickness of *B. subtilis* cells can be reduced by expressing SepF mutants with a smaller diameter. Together these findings strongly suggest that the diameter of curved SepF polymers define septum thickness. The positioning of SepF polymers at the division site cannot be directly observed using high-resolution cryo-electron microscopy due to the electron density of the bacterial cytoplasm and cell wall. However, our findings provide support for a SepF clamp model (Fig. 5). Since the membrane-binding amphipathic α-helix of SepF is located inside the rings, it is likely that SepF polymers do not form rings, but instead form arcs, wrapping the leading edge of nascent septa, on top of which FtsZ polymers bind and align. Since these arcs control the freedom of movement of FtsZ polymers, including the peptidoglycan synthetic apparatus that is linked to the FtsZ polymers (Fig. 5), the diameter of SepF rings will determine the thickness of the septal wall. 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 (Fig. 1F).

     B. cereus SepF behaved slightly differently 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. In fact, *B. subtilis* can still make septa, albeit irregular in shape, when

SepF is absent, suggesting that other factors provide some control of FtsZ
polymers. FtsA, which also forms polymers, might be such factor.

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 (21).
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 (22). However, the inner diameter of these
rings is ~15 nm, which is considerably smaller than the width of septa.

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 all SepF dimers have the same orientation in a ring. However,
FtsZ polymers treadmill in both directions in the Z-ring (23), and it is likely that
they bind SepF rings in both polymer orientations. SepF binds to the C-terminal
domain of FtsZ (24), which is connected to the main protein domain by a long
flexible linker (25). This flexibility might enable FtsZ polymers with opposite
orientations to interact with the same SepF ring.

Regulation of the shape of septal walls by SepF through its intrinsic
curvature is reminiscent of the activity of MreB, which controls the rod shape of
many bacteria (26). MreB forms polymers of defined curvature that orientate and
move transversely to the long axis of cells, along the direction of greatest
membrane curvature (27, 28), thereby guiding the cell wall synthetic machinery
in a way that enforces and maintains a rod shape (29, 30). However, unlike SepF,
the intrinsic curvature of MreB filaments, which has been estimated to have a
diameter of roughly 200 nm (27), does not correlate with the diameter of the cell,

which is much larger (27). Thus, the control of septum thickness by a molecular

clamp, such as a SepF arc, is 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 Table S1, plasmids in Table S2, and primers in Table S3. 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 (31), 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 (32) for integration of *sepF* variants into the *aprE* locus in the *B. subtilis* genome were constructed by Gibson assembly (33). 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 (34). Deletions of the *sepF* and *ftsA* genes were introduced by transforming the resulting *B. subtilis* strains with chromosomal DNA isolated from YK204 (*sepF::spc*) (35), 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* (35) 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 (36). 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 (37).

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 (38), 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 (38), 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 (39).

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.*

(40)(*B. cereus*, *S. pneumoniae*, *C. perfringens)* or Saeloh *et al.* (41) (*B. subtilis*).

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

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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.

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 Figure legends

 Fig. 1 SepF forms 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.

 Fig. 2 Membrane binding, ring formation and septum thickness. **(A)** Sequence

 alignment (Clustal Omega) of SepF homologues used in this study. Dark and light

 grey marks identical and similar amino acids, respectively. Arrows mark the

 beginning and end of the highly conserved core domain. **(B)** Fluorescence light

 microscopy image showing the aggregation of small liposomes (~200 nm) by

 purified *S. pneumoniae* SepF. Liposomes were stained with Nile red. **(C)** SIM image

 showing deformation of large liposomes (800 nm) by purified *S. pneumoniae* SepF.

 Liposomes were stained with mitotracker green. 0.25 µg/ml SepF was mixed with

 2 mg/ml liposomes. Scale bars 1 µm. See Fig. S3 for the results with other SepF

 variants. **(D)** TEM pictures of purified SepF from the different species. Scale bar

 50 nm. **(E)** Quantification of the inner SepF ring diameter. Black bars show mean

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

 images of nascent cell division septa of the respective species. **(G)** 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.

 (H) Comparison of inner ring diameters with nascent septum thickness. Average

 +/- standard deviations is indicated. *Data for *M. tuberculosis* were taken from

the literature (20). **(I)** Correlation between inner SepF ring diameter and septum thickness ($R^2=0.74$).

Fig. 3 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 is given. **(D)** Correlation between original and chimera ring diameter ($R^2=0.71$).

Fig. 4 SepF ring diameter determines septum thickness. **(A)** SIM images of *B. subtilis* Δ*sepF* cells expressing different SepF chimera. The chimera were expressed from 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 shows 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 ($R^2=0.57$).

Fig. 5 Clamp model illustrating how SepF polymers can control septal thickness. SepF forms large rings with an average inner ring diameter (d) that corresponds

558   to the thickness of septa (t). Crossections of a nascent septum (grey) is depicted.

559   FtsZ polymers (Z) bind to the outside of SepF rings, in a perpendicular fasion. The

560   transmembrane peptidoglycan synthesis machinery (P) is associated with FtsZ

561   polymers. Of note, it is not yet know how these transmembrane proteins are linked

562   to FtsZ polymers in Gram-positive bacteria, and this association might be indirect.

 Fig. 2.

566 **Fig. 3.**

567 **Fig. 4.**

569 **Fig. 5.**