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# Division site selection in rod-shaped bacteria

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Rod-shaped bacteria often divide with high precision at midcell to produce two equally sized daughter cells. The positioning of the division machinery in *Escherichia coli* and *Bacillus subtilis* is spatially regulated by two inhibitory systems, the nucleoid occlusion and the Min system. The current models suggest that the target of the inhibitory mechanism is the cytoskeletal element FtsZ and that the concerted action of nucleoid occlusion and Min are necessary for correct placement of the division machinery. However, recent advances show that at least the Min system also ensures that division occurs only once in a cell cycle and might also act downstream of FtsZ assembly.

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## Introduction

Cell division is a highly complex cytological process to produce viable progeny. In virtually all cells cytokinesis requires cytoskeletal elements [1<sup>•</sup>]. In bacteria the tubulin homolog FtsZ is the central cell division protein [2] that assembles into a cytoskeletal scaffold known as the Z-ring. Subsequently, other proteins that drive invagination of cell membrane and synthesis of cell wall material are recruited to the division site [3,4]. It has long been known that cell division in rod-shaped bacteria is restricted to midcell, between the segregated nucleoids [5,6]. In the last decades research has revealed that two inhibitory systems are involved in the spatial regulation of cytokinesis (Figure 1). The Min system has been shown to prevent aberrant cell division close to the cell poles, while nucleoid occlusion (NO) prevents cell division from occurring over the nucleoids [7–9]. Although, the textbook view on division site selection is that the inhibitory effect is due to the combined action of the Min and NO systems on FtsZ, a number of publications have provided

evidence that the regulation of cytokinesis by the Min system could also occur downstream of FtsZ assembly [10<sup>•</sup>,11].

This review will focus on division site selection during vegetative growth in the rod-shaped model organisms *Escherichia coli* and *Bacillus subtilis*. Although the Min system is widespread among bacteria, other regulatory principles have evolved in bacteria whose genomes do not encode prototypical Min/NO systems. An interesting example is the spatial control of division in the vibrioid rod *Caulobacter crescentus* ([12<sup>•</sup>], and see the review by M Thanbichler in this issue). We emphasize recent discoveries that challenge and extend the classical view of the Min system.

## The cytokinetic machinery

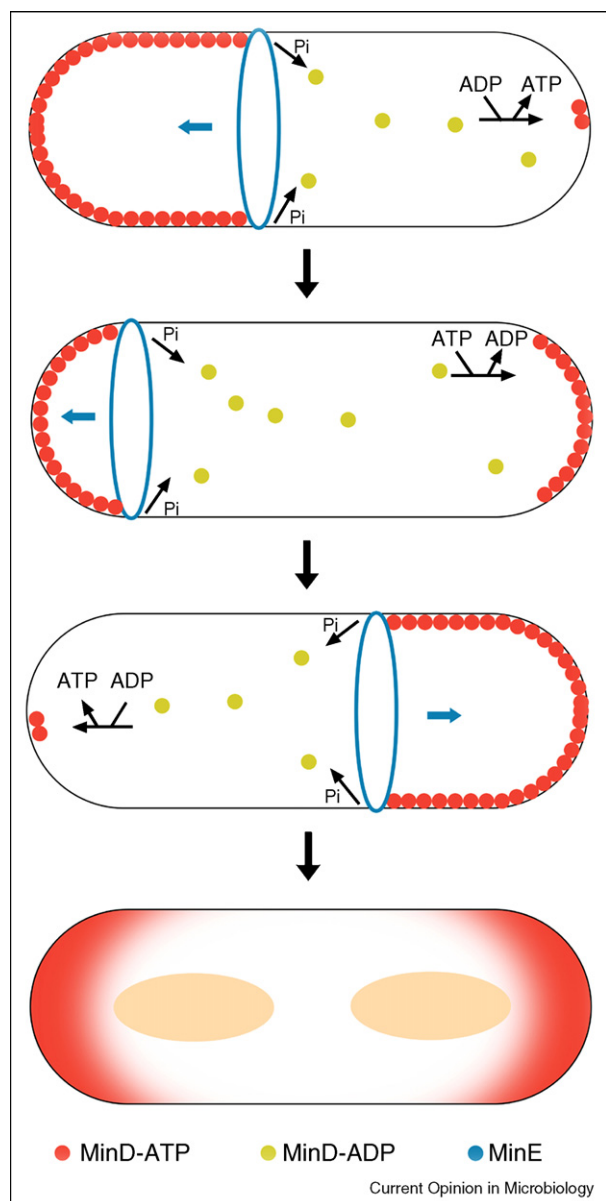
The cytokinetic machinery, or divisome, is highly conserved in bacteria and many of the essential components are found in almost all bacterial cells. The tubulin homolog FtsZ is the first protein to be localized at the incipient division site [2,13]. When bound to GTP, FtsZ assembles into protofilaments that can interact laterally to form the Z-ring. Associated proteins like ZapA and ZipA promote lateral bundling and help the Z-ring to coalesce into a functional ring [14,15]. The Z-ring is associated with the plasma membrane through FtsA [16], which peripherally binds to the membrane via its amphipathic helix [17]. The membrane-bound Z-ring subsequently recruits a set of membrane-integral proteins, as reviewed in detail by [1<sup>•</sup>,18,19].

## Nucleoid occlusion

One of the two identified systems that determine division site selection is the NO system. Although nucleoid occlusion was proposed long ago [7], the actual effector, Noc (*yjaA*) of *B. subtilis* was only identified recently [8]. Although a *noc* null mutation had no obvious phenotype, a conditional deletion with *minD* resulted in a severe division defect with a failure to form functional Z-rings between the nucleoids, while overproduction led to cell elongation. A GFP–Noc fusion protein localized to the nucleoid and *in vitro* studies confirmed the DNA-binding capacities of Noc. When initiation of DNA replication was inhibited by depletion of DnaA, cell division in a *noc* mutant occurred over the nucleoid [8]. Noc is highly homologous to the partitioning protein ParB and in a similar mechanism Noc binds to a palindromic sequence located throughout the chromosome, with the exception of the terminus region [20<sup>•</sup>]. The transplantation of the palindromic consensus sequence to a multicopy plasmid resulted in a severe block in cell division, adding to the

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Figure 1



Division site selection in *E. coli* is governed by a dynamic Min system. The MinCDE system in *E. coli* is oscillating between the cell poles. MinD-ATP (red spheres) binds to the cell membrane and recruits MinC (not shown). MinE (blue ellipse) binds to MinD and activates ATP hydrolysis and inorganic phosphate (P<sub>i</sub>) is released. This reaction leads to effective removal of MinD-ADP (green spheres) and, as passive passengers, MinC and MinE from the membrane. Nucleotide exchange in the cytoplasm reactivates the membrane affinity of MinD and subsequently, MinD-ATP assembles at membrane areas that are far distant from the highest MinE concentration (usually the opposite pole). This simple oscillation generates over time a MinCD gradient which is lowest at midcell. The last cell in the panel should illustrate this gradient (red shading). The replicated and segregated nucleoids are illustrated in this cell as light orange ellipsoids. The nucleoid occlusion factor (SlmA in *E. coli*) is bound to the DNA and leads to the inhibition of efficient Z-ring formation in this area. Together, the dynamic Min system and the nucleoid occlusion allow assembly of a functional cytokinetic ring only at midcell.

notion that nucleoid-associated Noc is indeed able to inhibit cytokinesis [20<sup>\*</sup>]. The NO effect in *E. coli* is carried out by SlmA (synthetic lethal with a defective Min) [9]. SlmA is not related to Noc, but is functionally similar. SlmA has been shown to bind DNA and, as with Noc, depletion of DnaA in the absence of SlmA resulted in cytokinesis across the nucleoid, showing that SlmA is required for an antequilibrant checkpoint. *In vitro* experiments confirmed that SlmA is able to directly bind FtsZ and, interestingly, promote polymer assembly [9]. It may sound paradox that promoting lateral assembly of FtsZ should inhibit division. However, SlmA recruits FtsZ away from the cell membrane and may also compete with other known FtsZ assembly factors, such as ZapA. Hence, SlmA reduces the ability of FtsZ polymers to develop into a functional cytokinetic ring near the nucleoid.

### The Min system

The Min system prevents aberrant division at the cell poles [21<sup>\*\*</sup>,22] and it consists of the actual inhibitor MinC, a membrane-associated ATPase MinD that localizes MinC to the plasma membrane and a topological factor that spatially organizes the inhibitory MinCD complex. Only the topological factor differs between *E. coli* (MinE) and *B. subtilis* (DivIVA). Interestingly, the Min system is also found in chloroplasts [23<sup>\*\*</sup>]. Chloroplasts contain MinD and MinE; however, a MinC-like protein has not been identified.

### The inhibitory MinCD complex

In the absence of any component of the Min system, division close to the cell poles generates an anucleate minicell [24,25]. *In vivo* overexpression and *in vitro* experiments with purified components revealed that MinC is an inhibitor of division [26,27<sup>\*</sup>,28]. The molecular details of MinC action are still not fully understood but a direct effect of MinC on FtsZ has been shown for *E. coli* and *B. subtilis* [27<sup>\*</sup>,28]. Early models suggested that MinC prevents FtsZ polymerization. However, recently it was shown that *E. coli* MinC antagonizes the scaffolding function of FtsZ by inhibiting lateral interactions of FtsZ. This effect can be suppressed by ZapA, a positive factor of lateral FtsZ associations [29<sup>\*</sup>]. *In vitro* studies with *E. coli* MinC showed that the N-terminal and C-terminal domains of MinC inhibit FtsZ assembly via two distinct inhibitory mechanisms [30<sup>\*</sup>,31,32]. The N-terminal domain of MinC is essential for FtsZ binding and has a potent inhibitory effect that is observed even in the absence of MinD, while the C-terminal domain is important for the interaction with MinD. Recent results also revealed that the C-terminal domain is able to inhibit FtsZ *in vivo* [33<sup>\*</sup>]. Interestingly, overexpression of the C-terminal part of MinC displaced FtsA (and/or ZipA), which would prevent recruitment of downstream division proteins [30<sup>\*</sup>]. The structure of MinC clearly supports the idea that MinC is composed of two independent domains

[34]. Strikingly, a comparison between MinC from *E. coli* and *B. subtilis* reveals that the C-terminal domain is conserved in Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria, while the N-terminal part seems to be less conserved. MinC is recruited to the membrane by MinD. MinD is an ATPase that belongs to the ParA/MinD family of proteins [35] and associates with the membrane via a C-terminal amphipathic helix [36]. Membrane association of the MinCD complex is essential for proper FtsZ inhibition. Interestingly, in *E. coli*, a gene product, DicB, of the cryptic prophage Kim, is able to recruit MinC and localize it to the site of septation independent of MinD [37]. Thus, the inhibitory function of MinC can be activated by two different proteins.

### The topological determinants, MinE and DivIVA

The inhibitory activity of the MinCD complex must be restricted to the cell poles, which in *E. coli* is carried out by MinE [25,38,39]. The MinCDE complex shows a remarkable oscillation between the poles of *E. coli* cells (Figure 1). Oscillation is driven by MinE which stimulates ATP hydrolysis of MinD. Upon ATP hydrolysis MinD (and hence MinC) is released from the membrane into the cytoplasm [40,41]. Subsequently, cytosolic MinD binds ATP and reassembles at the opposite pole. Protein-protein interactions between MinD and MinE result in the recruitment of MinE to the outer rim of the MinD-covered membrane. MinCDE can also use ectopic poles of branched cells for oscillation, showing that the system is able to detect geometrical cues [42]. Strikingly, the self-organization of the *E. coli* Min system can be reconstituted *in vitro* with the minimal components MinD, MinE, ATP, and a phospholipid membrane [43•]. The self-organization of the Min system in *E. coli* has been analyzed intensively using mathematical modeling [44•,45]. The common idea of all mathematical models is the dynamic instability of protein distribution as a prerequisite for oscillation. Most current models favor a cooperative binding of MinD (in its ATP bound state) to the membrane at sites that are already covered with MinD [44•].

DivIVA is the topological factor in *B. subtilis* [46,47]. Mutations in *divIVA* lead to a dispersed MinCD localization as well as filamentation and minicell formation [48]. GFP fusions to DivIVA revealed that the protein localizes to the cell poles and is recruited late to the assembling divisome where it is then retained, after the divisome is disassembled [4,47]. Strikingly, DivIVA is able to find curved membrane regions even in unrelated cells, such as *E. coli* or even yeast cells [49]. On the basis of these observations it seems likely that DivIVA has the intrinsic capacity to bind and accumulate at negatively curved membranes. However, DivIVA itself was not able to impose negative curvature [50•,51].

In striking contrast to the oscillatory behavior of the Min system in *E. coli*, DivIVA was thought to stably recruit

MinCD to the cell poles in *B. subtilis* [48,52]. A report using a functional MinC–GFP fusion provided the first evidence that MinC (and hence MinD) is not static in *B. subtilis*, but rather dynamically relocated from the old pole to the site of septation [53•]. Later in the division cycle strong accumulation of MinCD was consequently found only at the young poles, suggesting that MinCD ensures that division is not reinitiated at sites of recent septation.

### The novel component MinJ

Recently, MinJ, a novel component of the Min system has been identified in *B. subtilis* [10•,54•]. The phenotype of a *minJ* (*yvjD*) null mutant was almost identical to a *divIVA* knockout, with filamentous cells and a significant production of minicells. The *minJ* associated block in division could be suppressed by a simultaneous deletion of *minCD* as is the case in a *divIVA* mutant [10•,54•]. GFP fusions of MinJ localized to the cell poles and to the division site [10•,54•]. The new division site selection protein MinJ was shown to be the missing link in the interaction between DivIVA and MinD. Thus, MinJ acts as an adaptor protein linking the topological factor DivIVA to the inhibitory complex MinCD. A bacterial two hybrid interaction map could be corroborated by *in vivo* localization studies [10•,54•]. Subcellular localization of MinJ depends on DivIVA, while MinJ is necessary for correct localization of MinD and, hence, indirectly for MinC. Unlike the conventional Min proteins, MinJ is a membrane-integral protein that spans the membrane six times. It was shown that the localization of membrane-integral division proteins like FtsL or Pbp2B is facilitated by MinJ and, interestingly, MinJ interacts with several division proteins [10•]. These findings suggest that MinJ connects the membrane-integral part of the divisome with the Min system. This raises the question whether the regulatory function of the Min system only acts on the level of FtsZ polymerization or whether there is also a second regulatory level that acts on the membrane-integral divisome components. In fact the classical view on the Min system was that FtsZ polymers are not present in the vicinity of MinCD. Hence, dispersed MinCD, would suppress Z-ring formation; and lead to filamentation. However, new results with the *minJ* mutant showed that although the inhibitory MinCD complex is dispersed throughout the cell, Z-rings form readily in between the segregated nucleoids (and close to the cell poles) in *B. subtilis* [10•].

### EzrA – part of the division site selection system?

Nucleoid occlusion and the Min system are not the only factors that negatively regulate Z-ring formation. Using a temperature-sensitive *ftsZ* allele in *B. subtilis*, the gene locus *ezrA* (extra Z-rings) was identified [55]. EzrA inhibits Z-ring formation and as a result, the concentration of FtsZ needed to form functional Z-rings is lowered in an *ezrA* mutant. Similar to a *minCD* mutant, *ezrA* depleted

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cells exhibit polar Z-rings. In contrast to *minCD* mutants, however, these Z-rings rarely constrict, suggesting that the divisome does not mature at these sites. Unlike MinCD, EzrA is localized throughout the membrane and accumulates at the septum due to binding with FtsZ. The FtsZ inhibitory function was mapped in the C-terminal domain of EzrA [56,57]. Biochemical evidence suggests that EzrA interferes with the GTPase activity of FtsZ [58].

## Conclusions

Division site selection in rod-shaped bacteria is regulated by at least two negative regulators of FtsZ assembly, the NO and the Min system. Their combined action defines the site of septation in many rod-shaped bacteria. Recent discoveries have added to the knowledge about the mechanism how the division machinery is spatially regulated and opened up new, unexpected, insights into division site selection.

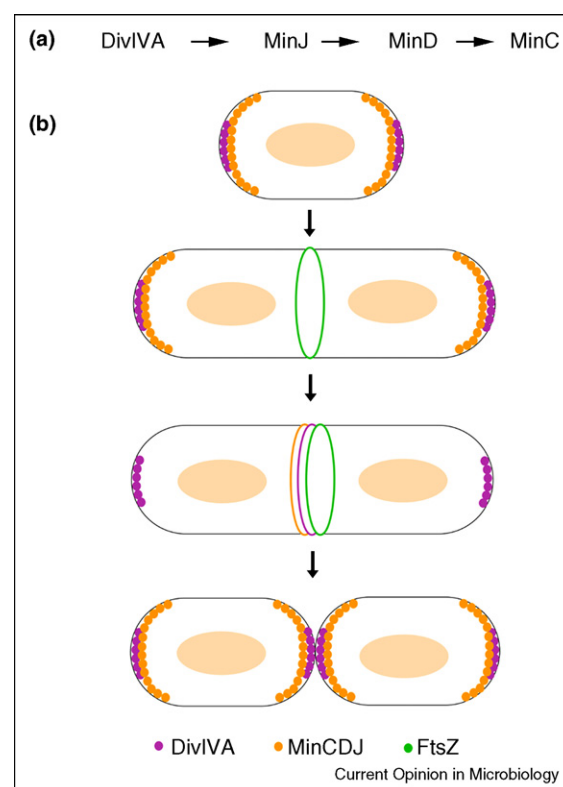
### A revised mode of action for the Min system

An overwhelming amount of publications shows that the inhibitory effect of the Min system is based on a direct effect of MinC on FtsZ. Thus, by spatially organizing MinC towards the cell poles, the central region in between the segregated nucleoids is the only available site for FtsZ to polymerize efficiently into a mature Z-ring which has the potential to recruit all downstream division proteins. However, this model has recently been challenged by different observations. The filamentous phenotype of cells where MinCD is dispersed was thought to be due to uncontrolled action of MinCD throughout the cell [48], inhibiting the formation of Z-rings. However, at least for *B. subtilis*, it has been reported that the cytosolic components of the Z-ring (e.g. FtsZ, FtsA, and ZapA) can assemble in the absence of the topological determinants DivIVA and MinJ, although MinCD is dispersed [10<sup>•</sup>]. This suggests that MinCD acts on division proteins downstream of the Z-ring assembly, as well. The novel division site selection protein MinJ seems to couple this inhibitory effect of MinCD to the membrane-integral parts of the divisome. Further support for the notion that the Min system can act downstream of FtsZ assembly comes from results that were obtained with *ezrA* mutants. Although Z-rings form with high frequency close to cell poles in an *ezrA* mutant, only a few minicells are observed in these strains, compared to a *minCD* mutant [55], suggesting that MinCD prevents the maturation of Z-rings into functional cytokinetic machines. One report shows that FtsZ-rings do form at regular intervals in *E. coli* filaments generated by MinCD overexpression [11], similar to the results reported for *B. subtilis* [10<sup>•</sup>].

Furthermore, the current models for Min systems suggested a static model in *B. subtilis* and a dynamic model in *E. coli*. However, recently, it was shown that

the Min system in *B. subtilis* is indeed less static than originally supposed [53<sup>••</sup>] and that the main site of MinCD activity is at the young poles protecting sites of active division from reinitiation of division. Therefore, the Min system ensures that division is only initiated once per cell cycle. How is this activity achieved? We propose a model where the MinCDJ system in *B. subtilis* is dynamically relocated from the old poles to the divisome during the late steps of divisome assembly (Figure 2). At this stage the divisome is already committed to divide and the FtsZ inhibitory function of MinC cannot be implemented at this stage. However, after completion of septation the

Figure 2



Revised model for division site selection in *B. subtilis*. A summary of the interactions between the division site selection proteins in *B. subtilis* is given in (A). MinJ interacts with DivIVA and MinD, while MinC only interacts with MinD and DivIVA only interacts with MinJ. The order of proteins also shows the dependency for their localization *in vivo*. The revised model for division site selection in *B. subtilis* takes into account that MinC (and presumably MinD and MinJ) is dynamically relocated to the maturing divisome (B). In newborn cells DivIVA (purple spheres) recruits the MinCDJ complex (orange spheres) to the poles. Note that only MinJ binds directly to DivIVA. Upon polymerization of FtsZ (green spheres) into a Z-ring (green ellipse) at midcell, MinCDJ is recruited away from the cell poles to the site of active division. A reason for the recruitment of the inhibitory MinCDJ complex to the divisome is likely to prevent a new round of division. After completion of septation, MinCDJ is distributed evenly to both poles. The orange ellipses represent the segregated nucleoids, which impose the nucleoid occlusion effect (here executed by the Noc protein) and together with the Min system restrict division to midcell, only.



MinCDJ system ensures effective disassembly or prevention of immediate reassembly of the division machinery at the young pole.

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