The nucleoid as a scaffold for the assembly of bacterial signaling complexes 1 2 3 Audrey Moine¹, Leon Espinosa¹, Eugenie Martineau¹, Deborah Byrne², Emanuele G. Biondi¹, 4 Eugenio Notomista³, Matteo Brilli⁴, Virginie Molle⁵, Tâm Mignot^{1*} and Emilia M.F. 5 Mauriello1* 6 7 ¹Laboratoire de Chimie Bactérienne, CNRS-Université Aix-Marseille, Marseille, France; 8 9 ²Protein Purification Platform, Institut de Microbiologie de la Méditerranée, CNRS, Marseille, France; ³Dipartimento di Biologia, Università degli Studi di Napoli "Federico II", 10 Naples, Italy; ⁴Centre for Research and Innovation, Fondazione Edmund MachTrento, Italy; 11 ⁵Laboratoire de Dynamique des Interactions Membranaires Normales et Pathologiques, 12 13 CNRS-Universités de Montpellier II et I, Montpellier, France. 14 15 16 *Correspondence to: 17 Emilia M.F. Mauriello 18 Laboratoire de Chimie Bactérienne. 19 CNRS-Université Aix-Marseille 20 31 Chemin Joseph Aiguier, Marseille 13402, France 21 Tel. +33491164321 22 Email: emauriello@imm.cnrs.fr 23 Tâm Mignot 24 25 Laboratoire de Chimie Bactérienne. 26 CNRS-Université Aix-Marseille 27 31 Chemin Joseph Aiguier, Marseille 13402, France 28 Tel. +33491164348 29 Email: tmignot@imm.cnrs.fr 30 31 Running Title: The Myxococcus xanthus FrzCD cytoplasmic chemoreceptor binds DNA 32 33 to enhance the signaling activity of Che-like clusters

ABSTRACT

The FrzCD chemoreceptor from the gliding bacterium *Myxococcus xanthus* forms cytoplasmic clusters that occupy a large central region of the cell body also occupied by the nucleoid. In this work, we show that FrzCD directly binds to the nucleoid with its N-terminal positively charged tail and recruits active signaling complexes at this location. The FrzCD binding to the DNA leads to the formation of multiple distributed clusters that explore constrained areas. This supra-molecular organization is required for cooperative interactions between clustered receptors, in turn important for the modulation of bacterial social behaviors.

INTRODUCTION

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The bacterial cytoplasm is not a homogeneous solution of macromolecules, but rather a highly organized and compartmentalized space where the clustering and segregation of macromolecular complexes at certain cell regions confers functional efficiency (Typas and Sourjik, 2015). Bacterial chemoreceptors represent a versatile model system to study the subcellular localization of macromolecules, as they are universally present in prokaryotes where they form highly ordered arrays that occupy different positions in cells. Chemoreceptors, also called Methyl-accepting Chemotaxis Proteins (MCP), are capable of transducing external signals to downstream signaling pathways where phospho-cascades, initiating at the level of histine kinases CheAs and culminating at the level of output response regulators CheYs, translate the initial signal into cell behaviors such as regulation of motility, cell development or aggregation (Sourjik and Berg, 2002; Berleman and Bauer, 2005; Bible et al., 2012). A common feature of the MCPs is their ability to form highly ordered hexagonal structures, which, by cryoelectron tomography, look like lattices with each unit composed of an MCP trimer of dimers, two CheW docking proteins and one CheA dimer (Studdert and Parkinson, 2005; Li et al., 2011; Briegel et al., 2012a; Liu et al., 2012). Receptor clustering is not strictly required for signal transduction, as one functional unit is enough to generate phosphorylated CheY (Francis et al., 2002; Li et al., 2011; Li and Hazelbauer, 2011; Piñas et al., 2016). However, MCP clustering is essential to ensure the amplification of the initial signal, which is a direct consequence of the cooperative interactions between clustered chemoreceptors (Sourjik and Berg, 2004; Ames and Parkinson, 2006; Li and Hazelbauer, 2014; Piñas et al., 2016; Frank et al., 2016). While the MCP lattices have been described as universal among prokaryotes (Briegel et al., 2015) their subcellular localization and distribution can vary among different bacterial species, often reflecting life style complexity, behaviors and functions. For example,

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Escherichia coli MCPs localize in one or two polar clusters and more lateral clusters appear as cells become longer (Thiem and Sourjik, 2008). Differently, the TlpT cytoplasmic chemoreceptor from *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* forms a cluster positioned at the center of cells or two clusters positioned at the two and three cell quarters (Thompson et al., 2006). The determinants of these different localization patterns also vary. In E. coli, membrane-anchored MCPs form clusters stochastically and through a self-assembly mechanism (Thiem and Sourjik, 2008). The TlpA Bacillus subtilis polar chemoreceptor recognizes and associates with strongly curved membrane regions generated during cell septation. These regions become the new poles after cell division, which explains the TlpA polar localization (Strahl et al., 2015). While in E. coli and B. subtilis the polar targeting of bacterial chemoreceptors is due to intrinsic properties of these proteins, in Vibrio species the Che proteins are recruited to the cell poles by a set of specialized proteins responsible of the general maturation of these cell regions (Ringgaard et al., 2011; Ringgaard et al., 2014). The presence of CheWs and CheAs also seem to be universally important in chemoreceptor cluster formation (Sourjik and Berg, 2000; Martin et al., 2001). Myxococcus xanthus is a gliding bacterium that uses the Frz chemosensory system to modulate the frequency at which cells periodically reverse the direction of their movement on solid surfaces to reorient in the environment, analogously to controlled tumbles in E. coli (Blackhart and Zusman, 1985). The Frz regulation of directionality in M. xanthus is essential to achieve fruiting body formation, a behavior that bacteria initiate when they are exposed to unfavorable growth conditions. In the Frz pathway, the FrzCD chemoreceptor activates the autophosphorylation of a CheA-CheY fusion, FrzE, which in turn phosphorylates the response regulator FrzZ (Guzzo et al., 2015). The system also possesses two CheW homologues (FrzA and FrzB), a methyltransferase (FrzF) and methylesterase (FrzG). The chemoreceptor of the Frz pathway, FrzCD, lacks the transmembrane and periplasmic

1 domains, which are replaced by a N-terminal domain of unknown function (Bustamante et al., 2 2004). When FrzCD was first localized in cells, it appeared organized in multiple dynamic 3 cytoplasm clusters that aligned when cells made side-to-side contacts, which has been 4 proposed to be part of a signaling process that synchronizes cell reversals (Mauriello, Astling, 5 et al., 2009). However the determinants of FrzCD localization and its exact link with the 6 regulation of the cell reversal are still unclear. 7 In this work we show that FrzCD forms cytoplasmic signaling clusters by directly binding to 8 the nucleoid. Analogously to membrane chemotaxis clusters in E. coli, nucleoid binding and 9 cluster formation confer to the Frz system important regulatory properties such as signal 10 amplification. We propose that the nucleoid functions as a scaffold for the formation of

bacterial chemosensory complexes like the membrane for enteric chemosensory systems.

RESULTS

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The Frz chemosensory system co-localizes with the nucleoid of different bacterial species Fluorescence microscopy has shown that a FrzCD-GFP fusion appears as multiple distributed clusters co-localizing with the nucleoid in M. xanthus cells (Figure 1A, 1B and Supplementary Figure 1) (Mauriello, Astling, et al., 2009; Moine et al., 2014; Kaimer and Zusman, 2016). It has been also shown that an inducible FrzE-YFP fusion colocalizes with FrzCD at the nucleoid (Kaimer and Zusman, 2016). To further analyze the co-localization of FrzCD and FrzE with the nucleoid, we first constructed a strain expressing a frzE-mcherry fusion that replaced the frzE locus and is, thus, expressed under its endogenous promoter. The chimeric protein was functional (Supplementary Figure 2) and formed clusters very similar to that of FrzCD and also co-localizing with the M. xanthus nucleoid (Figure 1A, 1B and Supplementary Figure 1). To directly show that the nucleoid supports Frz protein localization, we constructed a M. xanthus conditional mutant that lacked ParB, a protein important for nucleoid segregation whose absence causes the presence of anucleated cells, cells with abnormal nucleoid condensation and cells where the division septum is improperly positioned over the nucleoid ("guillotines") (Harms et al., 2013; Iniesta, 2014). When frzCD-gfp and frzE-mCherry were expressed in the parB mutant, we observed that both FrzCD and FrzE clusters always colocalized with the nucleoid and cells lacking the nucleoid also lacked Frz clusters. Similarly, in cells with "guillotines", septa formed in regions occupied by both the nucleoid and Frz clusters instead than in DNA-free regions (Figure 1E). As a control, we looked at the cellular localization of another chemoreceptor fusion, DifA-GFP, in the absence of parB. DifA has been recently shown to form membrane bound and uniformly distributed clusters (Moine et al., 2014). In the absence of parB, even cells without nucleoid still carried DifA-GFP clusters and these clusters localized similar to the wild type

1 (Moine et al., 2014) (Figure 2). These results confirmed that nucleoid-mediated cluster 2 formation is a specific feature of Frz proteins. 3 To test if FrzCD and FrzE were capable of associating with the nucleoid independently of each other, we expressed frzE-mcherry in a strain lacking frzCD and frzCD-gfp in a strain 4 5 lacking frzE (Mauriello et al., 2009 and this study). As previously shown, in the absence of 6 FrzCD, FrzE-mCherry was homogeneously dispersed in the cytoplasm, and notably also in 7 the polar regions (Figure 1A, 1B and Supplementary Figure 1) (Mauriello, Astling, et al., 8 2009; Kaimer and Zusman, 2016). Here we additionally showed that in the absence of fizE, 9 FrzCD was no longer capable to form clusters, but the fluorescent signal was still retained 10 towards the center of the cell body and strictly co-localized with the nucleoid (Figure 1A-D 11 and Supplementary Figure 1). The aberrant localization patterns observed in the deletion 12 mutants were not due to a change in protein levels (Supplementary Figure 3). Thus, this result 13 confirms that both FrzCD and FrzE are important for cluster formation, whereas FrzCD is 14 responsible for the recruitment of FrzE to the nucleoid. 15 To check whether the association between FrzCD and the nucleoid was M. xanthus-specific, 16 we constructed an E. coli strain expressing frzCD-gfp from a plasmid and under the control of 17 an IPTG inducible promoter. Under these conditions, FrzCD also co-localized with the 18 nucleoid and this co-localization was particularly evident in elongated undivided cells 19 containing multiple segregated nucleoids (Figure 2A-D). 20 These observations suggest that FrzCD can associate with the chromosomes of different 21 bacterial species, either directly or by the aid of a docking factor common to M. xanthus and E. coli. 22 23

FrzCD directly binds to the DNA

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The possibility that FrzCD interacted with the nucleoid was puzzling especially considering that the direct binding between a chemoreceptor and the DNA has not been reported prior to this study. To explore this possibility, we generated a 6His-tagged FrzCD version, purified it from E. coli and tested its ability to form complexes with different DNA fragments in gel shift assays (Supplementary Figure 4). FrzCD binds directly to DNA because its presence altered DNA mobility on agarose gels (Figure 3A). Moreover, FrzCD DNA-binding did not seem to be sequence-specific (Supplementary Figure 4) as anticipated by the *in vivo* results showing that FrzCD is distributed all over the nucleoid in the absence of FrzE (Figure 1A and B). Mobility shifts seemed rather to depend on the DNA size, being more efficient for DNA fragments of higher molecular weight (Supplementary Figure 4). The shift pattern depended on the FrzCD concentration (Figure 3A). More specifically, the shift of a 801 base pair DNA fragment gradually increased as the FrzCD concentration varied from 0.6 µM to 4.2 µM (Figure 3A). Such migration profiles have been previously described for proteins that can nucleate on DNA molecules in a non-specific manner, i.e. some Type Ib ParA-like proteins (Hester and Lutkenhaus, 2007; Castaing et al., 2008). While FrzCD does not appear to bind specific DNA motifs in vitro, it could bind to specific sites *in vivo* (perhaps with the help of additional factors), explaining the formation of clusters. To test this possibility, we performed chromatin-immunoprecipitation (ChIP) experiments using the frzCD-gfp strain and polyclonal GFP antibodies. As expected, FrzCD-GFP but not a FrzCD variant that cannot bind DNA (see below) was able to co-immunoprepicipate significant amounts of DNA. Deep-sequence (ChIP-Seq) (Fioravanti et al., 2013) of the immunoprecipitated DNA revealed no significant enrichment (p > 0.5) in the pool of DNA fragments obtained with the ChIP meaning that FrzCD-GFP can bind any DNA sequence from the M. xanthus genome (Supplementary Figure 5). As a positive control we used a parBvfp strain (Harms et al., 2013). In this case, as expected, the nucleoid region corresponding to

positions 9,109 to 9,110 Kb and containing parS (Harms et al., 2013) was highly represented

2 $(p < 1^{e-5})$ in the DNA pool obtained with ParB-YFP (Supplementary Figure 5). We conclude

that FrzCD binds DNA in a non sequence-specific manner to recruit FrzE and thus form

clusters containing Frz signaling complexes.

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The FrzCD N-terminal region is required for the FrzCD DNA binding

Beside a very conserved C-terminal methylation domain, FrzCD contains a unique 137 residue N-terminal region (Figure 3B). We then asked whether this region corresponded to the FrzCD nucleoid-binding domain and tested its ability to form complexes with the DNA in our gel shift assays. Indeed, the FrzCD N-terminal domain (FrzCD^{\Delta 131-417}) also provoked a mobility shift of DNA fragments of different length, albeit at a lower efficiency (Supplementary Figure 4, compare Figure 3A and C). On the other hand, the FrzCD Cterminal methyl-accepting domain alone (FrzCD^{\Delta 1-130}) did not associate with any DNA fragment (Figure 3D and Supplementary Figure 4) showing that the methylation domain does not bind DNA. To confirm a direct interaction between FrzCD and DNA and also better compare the DNAbinding properties of FrzCD and FrzCD^{\Delta 131-417}, we performed DNA-protein interaction experiments using Bio-Layer Interferometry (BLI), a technique previously used to study protein-protein interactions (Arlet et al., 2014). FrzCD and DNA interaction was also detected in this assay (Figure 3E). Consistent with the gel-shift experiments, binding appeared complex and could not be fitted to a 1:1 interaction model, precluding precise determination of a $K_D.$ Nevertheless, when we compared the DNA binding curves of $FrzCD^{\Delta 131\text{-}417}$ and FrzCD, the results confirmed that FrzCD^{\Delta 131-417} binds the DNA at a lower efficiency than FrzCD (showing slower association and faster dissociation, Figure 3E).

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By further analyzing the FrzCD N-terminal domain, we realized that it contains a positively charged peptide of approximately 30 amino acids followed by a more negative region predicted to contain alpha helices (Figure 3B and F, Supplementary Figure 6). By searching for homologs in the UniProtKB/SwissProt Data Base, we found that such FrzCD N-terminal basic peptide was similar to the basic tail present at the N terminus of eukaryotic histones (Supplementary Figure 6) whose deletion has been shown to substantially affect histone-DNA interactions and decrease nucleosome stability (Parra et al., 2006; Iwasaki et al., 2013). To test whether this sequence had a histone-tail-like function in the binding of FrzCD to DNA in vitro, we generated a 6His-tagged FrzCD version only lacking the basic amino acid sequence from residue 7 to 27 (FrzCD $^{\Delta^{7-27}}$), purified it from E. coli and tested its ability to form complexes with the DNA in our gel shift assays. Remarkably, FrzCD^{△7-27} did not shift the migration of DNA fragments on agarose gels, similarly to FrzCD^{Δ1-130} missing the entire Nterminal domain (Figure 3D and 3G). In the BLI assay, binding of FrzCD^{\Delta7-27} to DNA was still detectable, however it was severely impaired (Figure 3E). This result suggests that the positively charged motif is required for efficient DNA binding but it may not be the sole determinant. The different DNA binding efficiencies of the four FrzCD, FrzCD $^{\Delta 1-130}$, FrzCD $^{\Delta 131-417}$ and FrzCD^{Δ7-27} alleles were not due to altered protein stability and folding because all recombinant proteins, except as expected FrzCD^{\Delta 131-417} (the signaling domain) were able to activate the autophosphorylation of the FrzE kinase *in vitro* (Supplementary Figure 7). The binding of FrzCD to the nucleoid is required for FrzCD cluster formation in vivo To check whether the absence of the N terminus or the basic tail also affected the binding of FrzCD to DNA in vivo, we used M. xanthus strains expressing frzCD $^{\Delta^{6-130}}$ -gfp or frzCD $^{\Delta^{7-27}}$ gfp at the frzCD locus (Mauriello et al., 2009 and this study). The FrzCD $^{\Delta 6-130}$ -GFP and

1 FrzCD $^{\Delta^{7-27}}$ -GFP fluorescence appeared mostly diffused, also occupying the polar regions

(Figure 1A-D). The two protein fusions could only rarely form short-lived clusters that

localized anywhere in the cells (not only at the central region). In all cases, the aberrant

localization patterns where not due to protein stability (Supplementary Figure 3). In addition,

when FrzCD $^{\Delta 6-130}$ -GFP and FrzCD $^{\Delta 7-27}$ -GFP were produced in E. coli they also lost their co-

localization with the nucleoid. However, instead of looking dispersed in the cytoplasm as in

M. xanthus, FrzCD $^{\Delta^{6-130}}$ -GFP and FrzCD $^{\Delta^{7-27}}$ -GFP were confined at one cell pole in E. coli. It

is likely that $FrzCD^{\Delta 6-130}$ -GFP and $FrzCD^{\Delta 7-27}$ -GFP formed aggregates targeted to the poles

due to the absence of the nucleoid anchor (Figure 2).

FrzCD cluster dynamics are confined to small nucleoid areas

To understand how FrzCD clusters are formed along the nucleoid, we analyzed the cluster dynamics at high temporal resolution. Contrarily to previous assumptions based on lower resolution analysis (Mauriello, Astling, *et al.*, 2009), this analysis showed that FrzCD clusters are quite fixed and only featured by Brownian-like motions in highly constrained areas of the nucleoid (Figure 4A-C). This mobility decreased with the increase of cluster intensity, suggesting that clusters containing more molecules might be more tightly anchored to the chromosome and, hence, more fixed (Figure 4D). To test whether the signaling state of FrzCD also affects the cluster mobility, we tested whether clusters were also constrained in strains carrying point mutations either generating FrzCD loss of function or, oppositely, FrzCD gain of function (Astling *et al.*, 2006; Mauriello, Astling, *et al.*, 2009; Guzzo *et al.*, 2015). There were no notable differences between the tested conditions, suggesting that signaling does not affect the nucleoid dynamics of Frz signaling complexes along the nucleoid (Figure 4E).

The nucleoid-dependent assembly could promote cooperative interactions between

FrzCD receptors

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Consistent with transmembrane chemosensory clusters (Francis et al., 2002; Li et al., 2011; Li and Hazelbauer, 2011; Piñas et al., 2016), the formation of Frz nucleoid-associated clusters is not strictly required for signaling. In fact, it has been previously shown that a $frzCD^{\Delta 6-130}$ strain, where FrzCD molecules can no longer bind DNA and are, thus, diffused (Figure 1), can still produce reversals (Bustamante et al., 2004). This is not surprising because in E. coli chemosensory cluster formation is also not critical for the signal transduction, but it confers properties such as the amplification of signal, a direct consequence of the cooperative interactions between clustered chemoreceptors (Sourjik and Berg, 2004; Ames and Parkinson, 2006; Li and Hazelbauer, 2014; Piñas et al., 2016; Frank et al., 2016). Thus, we decided to check if the formation of Frz clusters also led to cooperativity in the signaling activity of the Frz chemosensory system. For this, we took advantage of a newly developed microfluidic single cell assay where the frequency of reversals can be measured as a function of increasing concentrations of an artificial Frz-signal activator, the isoamyl alcohol (IAA) (Guzzo et al., 2015). Consistent with previous observations (Guzzo et al., 2015), in cells where FrzCD formed nucleoid bound clusters, IAA induced a dose-dependent response with a sigmoidal shaped curve that could be fitted by the Hill equation with a coefficient n = 3.017 + 0.2 (P = 0.0007), which is significantly higher than one and reveals the presence of cooperativity in the FrzCD activity (Figure 5A). Such response is FrzCD-dependent because a \(\Delta frzCD \) strain does not reverse at any IAA dose (Figure 5A). In the $frzCD^{\Delta 6-130}$ mutant, the dose-dependent response curve to IAA resulted to a Hill coefficient n = 1.15 + 0.01 (P = 0.008) when it was fitted by the Hill equation, revealing that cooperation is lost in this mutant. These results suggest that while the IAA response in the $frzCD^{\Delta 6-130}$ mutant only depends on the number of the FrzCD^{\Delta-130} molecules in the cytoplasm, in cells where FrzCD formed nucleoid bound

- 1 clusters, such response also depends on the supra-molecular organization of the FrzCD
- 2 proteins, presumably because of cooperative protein interactions in the clusters (Lai et al.,
- 3 2005; Li and Hazelbauer, 2014; Piñas et al., 2016). This signal amplification is advantageous
- 4 to M. xanthus social behaviors because swarming and predation are defective in the $frzCD^{\Delta^{6}}$
- 5 130 mutant compared to the wild type (Figure 5B and C).

DISCUSSION

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In this work, we show that analogously to how transmembrane chemoreceptors use the bacterial inner membrane as a platform to form the well described arrays of trimers of dimers (Briegel et al., 2012b), the M. xanthus Frz system forms signaling clusters on the bacterial chromosome. Cluster assembly is directed by the chemoreceptor FrzCD, which binds to the DNA by a N-terminal domain carrying a positively charged tail similar to that found in eukaryotic histones (Parra et al., 2006; Iwasaki et al., 2013). While the binding of FrzCD to DNA is essential to target the Frz chemosensory system to the nucleoid, it is not sufficient for Frz cluster formation, as it requires downstream interactions with the FrzE kinase. Because FrzCD appears to bind DNA in a non-sequence specific manner, DNA-bound clusters do not occupy fixed localization sites and move across small areas on the nucleoid surface. Analogous to trans-membrane proteins diffusing in the bacterial membrane, the FrzCD cluster dynamic behavior may be affected by the size of the complex (and thus the number of interactions with DNA), explaining why bright clusters show Brownian-like motions that only explore constrained nucleoid areas. Several lines of evidence suggest that the Frz cluster formation on the nucleoid occurs in a stochastic manner similarly to the assembly of the E. coli Che lattices in the membrane. First, the initial binding of FrzCD to DNA might take place anywhere on the nucleoid as such binding is not DNA-sequence specific. Once recruited to the nucleoid, small FrzCD foci diffuse, non-directionally, across confined small areas until they might nucleate large fixed clusters by attracting more FrzCD molecules. "Newborn" FrzCD foci might also, at one point, be incorporated by existing neighboring clusters. Thus, the areas explored by FrzCD clusters might represent the minimal critical distance from other clusters at which foci can exist. The existence of such minimal critical distance is supported by the fact that the number of Frz clusters increases linearly with the nucleoid size (Supplementary Figure 8), suggesting that

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more clusters can form when more surface becomes available. Thus, like for transmembrane chemoreceptors, FrzCD molecules might either nucleate new dynamic foci if they are far enough from existing clusters, or encounter and join neighboring clusters. Transmembrane chemoreceptors are arrayed in a monolayer tightly associated with the inner membrane (Briegel et al., 2009). However, in the absence of a scaffold Vibrio sp. and R. sphaeroides cytoplasmic chemosensory arrays, are instead organized in two sandwiched arrays (Briegel et al., 2014; Briegel et al., 2015; Briegel et al., 2016). Our data suggest that the M. xanthus chromosome functions as a platform to form signaling clusters, much like the inner membrane supports transmembrane chemosensory complexes. In the future, it will be interesting to test if the Frz proteins, indeed, form single layered arrays at the surface of the chromosome by Cryo-EM tomography. But, what is the outcome of this nucleoid driven cluster assembly? FrzCD cluster formation has been previously been associated to regulation of the cell reversal frequency in response to cell-cell contact. In fact, FrzCD clusters align in adjacent M. xanthus cells, a behavior that also seemed to induce cell reversals (Mauriello, Astling, et al., 2009). The authors' argument in favor of a retro-regulated FrzCD cluster rearrangement in response to cell contact was that adjacent cells of a frzE strain, which also seemed to form FrzCD-GFP clusters even if more diffused, did not produce cluster alignment. In light of our new results, what seemed to be more diffused FrzCD clusters in the frzE strain, are, in fact, FrzCD molecules dispersed on the nucleoid. Moreover, we now show that the Frz cluster organization is independent on the Frz signaling activity. Thus, the observed FrzCD cluster alignment might be more likely determined by similar dynamic rearrangements of the nucleoid of adjacent cells rather than by an active regulated mechanism. Therefore, a simpler outcome of the nucleoid-driven Frz cluster assembly could be to confer to a cytoplasmic receptor the universal properties of transmembrane receptors but here, in

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response to intracellular signals. One of these properties is the signal amplification, which, in enteric bacteria, strictly requires the MCP clustering to the membrane. Remarkably, this work as well as previous studies shows that wild type M. xanthus cells respond to increasing concentrations of the Frz activator IAA with a dose-dependent response curve typical of a cooperative response that strongly suggests the presence of signal amplification. Analogously to enteric bacteria, signal amplification must be due to the supra-molecular organization of FrzCD receptors on the nucleoid, because such property is lost in FrzCD^{Δ6-130} lacking the nucleoid binding domain. In cells of this strain, the reversal frequencies increase linearly with the IAA doses, suggesting that, in this case, signaling is only function of the number of activated receptor-signaling complexes dispersed in the cytoplasm. Why does FrzCD need to form many and not just one single cluster? One possibility could be to prevent the diffusion of CheY-P to be a limiting factor in the control of the polar and lateral motility motors due to the length of M. xanthus cells (5-10 µm in average). However, a more attractive explanation could be that the nucleoid-dependent formation of multiple distributed clusters represents a simple mechanism to segregate clusters during cell division without the need for a faithful partitioning system (Supplementary Figure 9). Such partitioning system would be, in fact, likely required in the presence of a single cluster like in R. sphaeroides where PpfA ensures the faithful segregation of Tlp clusters (Thompson et al., 2006; Ringgaard et al., 2011). Finally, the analysis of the FrzCD sequences from some related species of δ -proteobacteria shows that while the FrzCD C-terminal region is very conserved, its N-terminus largely varies. Nevertheless, the FrzCD N-terminus always shows a positively charged sequence (Supplementary Figure 10) suggesting that the non sequence-specific recruitment of Frz

- 1 proteins to the nucleoid essentially requires the presence of a positively charged protein
- 2 domain rather than a specific amino acid sequence.
- 3 This type of cellular organization may be common to other bacterial macromolecular
- 4 complexes to provide important regulatory functions. In this sense, the Frz example provides
- 5 new perspectives to the role of the bacterial nucleoid as a scaffold for the spatial control of
- 6 cellular functions.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

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2 Bacterial strains, plasmids and growth Strains and plasmids are listed in Supplementary Table 1 and 2. M. xanthus strains were 3 4 grown at 32°C in CYE rich media as previously described. Pcuo::parB-AparB cells were 5 grown at 32°C in CTT supplied with 300 µM CuSO₄. 6 Plasmids were introduced into M. xanthus cells by electroporation. Deletions and GFP fusions 7 were inserted in frame to avoid polar effects on the downstream gene expression. These 8 strains were obtained by homologous recombination based on a previously reported method 9 using the pBJ113 or pBJ114 vectors (Bustamante et al., 2004; Moine et al., 2014). To 10 generate strains expressing GFP or mCherry fusion proteins, we constructed DNA cassettes including the last approximately 800 bp of each gene, with the exception of the stop codon; 12 the gene encoding the egfp or mcherry genes from pEGFP-N1 (Invitrogen) or pEM147 13 (Mauriello, Nan, et al., 2009) excluding the start codon and including the stop codon; the 14 intergenic region between the gene of interest and its immediately downstream gene, if any; 15 the first 800 bp of the downstream gene. To construct the parB conditional mutant, we transferred the previously described parB 16 conditional depletion (Harms et al., 2013) in our wild type strain, DZ2 (Harms et al., 2013; 17 18 Iniesta, 2014). 19 To construct strains carrying a FrzS-YFP fusion, we used the pEFrzSY plasmid (Guzzo et al., 20 2015) Escherichia coli cells were grown under standard laboratory conditions in Luria-Bertani broth 22 supplemented with antibiotics if necessary. For swarming assays, cells (5 µl) at a concentration of 5×10⁹ cfu ml⁻¹ were spotted on CYE 23 24 agar plates and incubated at 32°C and photographed after respectively 48h with an Olympus

SZ61 binocular stereoscope. For predation assays, E. coli (3μl at a concentration of 5×10⁹ cfu

- 1 ml⁻¹) and M. xanthus cells (3μ l at a concentration of 5×10^9 cfu ml⁻¹) were spotted at 0.7 mm
- 2 distance from each other on CF agar plates, incubated at 32°C and photographed after 72 h.

Protein purification

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- 4 BL21(DE3) [F ompT hsdSB(rB mB) gal dcm (DE3)] cells were grown in Luria-Bertani
- 5 broth supplemented 100 µg/ml ampicillin to mid-exponential phase at 37°C. Overexpression
- 6 was induced by adding 0,1 mM IPTG for cells containing plasmid pEM414 or 0,5mM for
- 7 pEM415 and pEM433. Cells were then grown at 16°C over night. Cells were washed and
- 8 resuspended in lysis buffer (50 mM TrisHCl, pH 8; 300 mM NaCl; 100 μg/ml PMSF; 30
- 9 U/mL Benzonase) and lysed at the French press. The cell lysates were centrifuged at 4°C for
- 10 30 min at 13000× rpm. Soluble tagged His₆-proteins were purified on 1ml HisTrapTMFF
- 11 columns (GE Healthcare) and desalted with PD-10 columns (GE Healthcare). Ultimately,
- purified proteins were eluted in 50 mM TrisHCl, pH 8 and 300 mM NaCl.

Electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSA)

- 15 EMSAs were carried out by incubating different concentrations of purified proteins
- 16 (Supplementary Figure 7A) with 10 nM PCR-amplification products of different sizes
- 17 (Supplementary Figure 4), in buffer (10 mM of TrisHCl at pH 8; 60 mM of NaCl; 10%
- glycerol). Reactions were incubated for 40 min at 4°C before being loaded on 1% agarose
- 19 gels. Gel migration was performed in 1X TBE at 4°C for 55 min. Gels were, then, stained
- with ethidium bromide and revealed at the UV light.

Biolayer interferometry

- 23 Protein-DNA interaction experiments were conducted at 25°C with the BLItz instrument from
- 24 ForteBio (Menlo Park, CA, USA). The BLI consists in a real time optical biosensing

technique exploits the interference pattern of white light reflected from two surfaces to measure biomolecular interactions (Concepcion et al., 2009). Purified 6His-FrzCD, 6His-FrzCD $^{\Delta 131-417}$, 6His-FrzCD $^{\Delta 6-130}$ and 6His-FrzCD $^{\Delta 7-27}$ protein ligands were immobilized onto two different Ni-NTA biosensors (ForteBio) in duplicate at 1µM concentrations. A PCR amplified DNA fragment (474bp) with primers AGACCCCGCACCCACGGAG and TCACGCGGGCTCCGGCTC (Eurogentec) was used as the analyte throughout the study at the 38nM. The assay was conducted in PBS pH 7.5, 0.001% tween-20. The binding reactions were performed with an initial baseline during 30 seconds, an association step at 120 seconds and a dissociation step of 120 seconds with lateral shaking at 2200rpm. A double reference subtraction (sensor reference and 6His-FrzCD^{\Delta-130}) was applied to account for non-specific binding, background, and signal drift to minimize sensor variability.

Chromatin Immunoprecipitation-deep sequencing (ChIp-seq)

ChIp-seq was performed as previously described (Fioravanti *et al.*, 2013). In particular, midlog phase cells (80 ml, OD₆₀₀ of 0.6) were cross-linked in 10 mM sodium phosphate (pH 7.6) and 1% formaldehyde at room temperature for 10 min and on ice for 30 min thereafter, washed thrice in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and lysed with lysozyme 2.2 mg ml⁻¹ in TES (Tris-HCl 10 mM pH 7.5, EDTA 1 mM, NaCl 100 mM). Lysates (Final volume 1ml) were sonicated (Branson Digital Sonicator 450, Branson Sonic Power. Co., www.bransonic.com/) on ice using 10 bursts of 30 sec (50% duty) at 30% amplitude to shear DNA fragments to an average length of 0.3–0.5 kbp and cleared by centrifugation at 14,000 rpm for 2 min at 4°C. Lysates were normalized by protein content by measuring the absorbance at 280 nm; ca. 7.5 mg of protein was diluted in 1 mL of ChIP buffer (0.01% SDS, 1.1% Triton X-100, 1.2 mM EDTA, 16.7 mM Tris-HCl [pH 8.1], 167 mM NaCl plus protease inhibitors (Euromedex, https://www.euromedex.com/) and pre-cleared with 80 μL of protein-

1 A agarose (Sigma-Aldrich, www.sigmaaldrich.com) and 100 µg BSA. Polyclonal GFP 2 antibodies were added to the remains of the supernatant (1:1,000 dilution), incubated 3 overnight at 4°C with 80 µL of protein-A agarose beads pre-saturated with BSA, washed once 4 with low salt buffer (0.1% SDS, 1% Triton X-100, 2 mM EDTA, 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.1), 5 150 mM NaCl), high salt buffer (0.1% SDS, 1% Triton X-100, 2 mM EDTA, 20 mM Tris-6 HCl (pH 8.1), 500 mM NaCl) and LiCl buffer (0.25 M LiCl, 1% NP-40, 1% sodium 7 deoxycholate, 1 mM EDTA, 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.1) and twice with TE buffer (10 mM 8 Tris-HCl (pH 8.1) and 1 mM EDTA). The protein-DNA complexes were eluted in 500 µL 9 freshly prepared elution buffer (1% SDS, 0.1 M NaHCO3), supplemented with NaCl to a final 10 concentration of 300 mM and incubated overnight at 65°C to reverse the crosslinks. The 11 samples were treated with 2 µg of Proteinase K for 2 h at 45°C in 40 mM EDTA and 40 mM 12 Tris-HCl (pH 6.5). DNA was extracted using QIAgen minelute kit and resuspended in 30 µl 13 of Elution Buffer. ChIp DNA sequencing was performed using Illumina MiSeq and analyzed 14 using Galaxy Web Portal (usegalaxy.org/). Reads were analyzed by MatLab.

Protein sequence analyses

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In order to search for homologs of the FrzCD N-terminal domain, the first 130 aminoacids of the FrzCD sequence were BLAST into the UniProtKB/SwissProt Data Base (http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov). Predictions of secondary structures and protein sequence alignments were obtained with Jpred (Cole *et al.*, 2008) and Clustal Omega (Sievers and Higgins, 2002), respectively. To analyze the FrzCD N-terminal region protein charge, "Sliding window" analyses were performed with Microsoft Excel.

In vitro autophosphorylation assay

1 In vitro phosphorylation assays were performed with E. coli purified recombinant proteins. 4 ug of FrzEkinase were incubated with 1µg of FrzA and increasing concentrations (3µg) of 2 3 different FrzCD proteins (entire FrzCD, FrzCD^c, FrzCDΔ6-130, FrzCDΔ7-27 or FrzCDΔ131-4 417) in 25 µl of buffer P (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5; 1 mM DTT; 5 mM MgCl₂; 50mM KCl; 5 mM EDTA; 50µM ATP, 10% glycerol) supplemented with 200 µCi ml⁻¹ (65 nM) of [y-5 33P]ATP (PerkinElmer, 3000 Ci mmol⁻¹) for 10 minutes at room temperature in order to 6 obtain the optimal FrzE^{kinase} autophosphorylation activity. Each reaction mixture was stopped 7 8 by addition of 5 × Laemmli and quickly loaded onto SDS-PAGE gel. After electrophoresis, 9 proteins were revealed using Coomassie Brilliant Blue before gel drying. Radioactive proteins 10 were visualized by autoradiography using direct exposure to film (Carestream). 12 Fluorescence microscopy and image analysis For fluorescence microscopy analyses, 5 µl of cells from 4 x 10⁸ cfu ml⁻¹ vegetative CYE 13 14 cultures were spotted on a thin fresh TPM agar pad at the top a slide (Mignot et al., 2005). A 15 cover slip was added immediately on the top of the pad, and the obtained slide was analyzed by microscopy using a Nikon Eclipse TE2000 E PFS inverted epifluorescence microscope 16 17 (100 x oil objective NA 1.3 Phase Contrast) (Ducret et al., 2009). 18 To study the colocalization with the DNA, the TPM agar pads were supplied with 1µg/ml 19 DAPI stain and 1 mM IPTG. Prior to imaging, E. coli cells were grown in 1 mM IPTG for 20 one hour then spotted on agar pads containing or not 10µg/ml cephalexin and incubated for 1 hour. Cell fluorescence profiles were obtained with the "plot profile" function of FIJI 22 (Schindelin et al., 2012). FrzCD clusters numbers and distances, nucleoid areas and cell areas 23 were automatically determined and verified manually with the "MicrobeJ" Fiji/ImageJ plugin

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created by A. Ducret, Brun Lab (http://www.indiana.edu/~microbej/index.html). All data

plots and statistical tests were obtained with the R software (https://www.r-project.org/).

- 1 To study the dynamic of FrzCD-GFP clusters we automatically tracked clusters (imaged
- 2 every second) by MicrobeJ and recorded parameters such as the mean square displacement
- 3 (MSD), the confinement radius and the fluorescence intensity along the time.

Reversal frequencies

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These assays were performed as previously described (Guzzo et al., 2015) by using homemade PDMS glass microfluidic chambers (Ducret et al., 2013) treated with 0.015% carboxymethylcellulose after extensive washing of the glass slide with water. For each experiment, 1 mL of a CYE grown culture of OD = 0.5 was injected directly into the chamber and the cells were allowed to settle for 5 min. Motility was assayed after the chamber was washed with TPM 1mM CaCl buffer. For IAA injections, IAA solutions made in TPM 1mM CaCl buffer at appropriate concentrations were injected directly into the channels and motility was assayed directly under the microscope. Time-lapse movies of strains carrying a FrzS-YFP fusion were shot for 20 minutes with frames captured every 15 seconds. To discriminate bona fide reversal events from stick-slip motions (Guzzo et al., 2015), the fluorescence intensity of FrzS-YFP was measured at cell poles over time. In fact, this protein has been shown to switch from the leading cell pole to the lagging pole when M. xanthus cells reverse their movement direction (Mignot et al., 2005). For each cell that was tracked, the fluorescence intensity and reversal profiles were correlated to distinguish bona fide reversals from stick-slip events. About one hundred cells for the wild type and $frzCD^{\Delta l-130}$ strains and fifty for the \(\Delta frzCD\) strain were analyzed (refer to Supplementary Table 3 for the exact number of cells analyzed for each strain and IAA dose). The number of reversals was plotted against time. The best fits for the reversal frequencies values at the different IAA doses were obtained with the following Hill equation:

$$\frac{N_{rev}}{\Delta T} = \frac{[IAA]^n}{K_d + [IAA]^n} B + A$$

- 1 where the $N_{rev}/\Delta T$ is the number of reversal events per hour; K_d is the apparent affinity
- constant; [IAA] is the IAA dose; B is the plateau; A is the basal reversal frequency and n is the
- 3 Hill coefficient describing cooperativity. Reversal frequency values for each IAA dose and
- 4 each strain are the results of two independent biological triplicates.

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Figure legends

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Figure 1. FrzCD-GFP colocalizes with the nucleoid in *M. xanthus*. (A) Micrographs of *M.* xanthus cells carrying a GFP or a mCherry fusion and stained with the DNA DAPI stain. The genetic backgrounds of the M. xanthus strains are indicated on the left. The white arrows indicate the cells whose fluorescence profiles and correlation coefficients between the DAPI and GFP localization are shown in (B) and (C), respectively. Cells surrounded by white boxes are taken from separate original micrographs. Scale bars correspond to 1 µm. (B) GFP or mCherry (green or red) and DAPI fluorescence (blue) profiles with the fluorescence intensity (arbitrary units) represented on the y axis and the cell length positions with -1 and +1 indicating the poles, on the x axis. (C) Correlation coefficients between the DAPI and GFP or mCherry localization. R^2 values > 0.5 indicate significant correlations. (D) Box plots indicate the medians of the correlation coefficients (R²) from 10 cells (from one biological replicate) of each of the indicated strains. (E) Micrographs of a M. xanthus parB conditional mutant carrying frzCD-gfp or frzE-mCherry and DAPI stained. Micrographs were obtained upon 18h depletion of ParB. The genetic backgrounds of the *M. xanthus* strains are indicated on the left. Scale bars correspond to 1µm. Figure 2. FrzCD-GFP colocalizes with the nucleoid in E. coli. (A) Micrographs of E.coli cells carrying a GFP fusion on a plasmid and stained with the DNA DAPI stain. The genetic fusions are indicated on the left. Cells carrying frzCD-gfp were also treated with 10µg/ml cephalexin to visualize FrzCD-GFP colocalization with the multiple nucleoids of undivided cells. The white arrows indicate the cells whose fluorescence profiles are shown in (B). Cells surrounded by white boxes are taken from separate original micrographs. Scale bars correspond to 1µm. (B) GFP (green) and DAPI fluorescence (blue) profiles with the fluorescence intensity (arbitrary units) represented on the y axis and the cell length positions with -1 and +1 indicating the poles, on the x axis. (C) Correlation coefficients between the

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DAPI and GFP localization. R^2 values > 0.5 indicate significant correlations. (D) Box plots indicate the medians of the correlation coefficients (R²) from 10 cells (from one biological replicate) of each of the indicated strains. Figure 3. FrzCD directly interacts with the DNA in vitro. (A) Electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSA) on 1% agarose gels stained with ethidium bromide and developed at the UV light. The indicated concentrations of purified 6His-FrzCD were incubated with a 801 bp DNA fragment. (B) Schematic representation of the FrzCD protein domains. (C-D) The indicated increasing concentrations of 6His-FrzCD $^{\Delta 131-417}$ (C) and 6His-FrzCD $^{\Delta 1-130}$ (D) were used in EMSA assays with a 801 bp DNA fragment. (E) Average binding curves and duplicates in degraded colors of each immobilized FrzCD construct 6His- FrzCD, 6His-FrzCD $^{\Delta 131-417}$ or 6His- FrzCD $^{\Delta 7-27}$, with a 474 bp DNA fragment at a concentration of 38nM. (F) "Sliding window" representation indicating the protein charge of the first FrzCD Nterminal region at the different positions and obtained with 10, 20 and 30 residue windows (blu, green and red, respectively). (G) Increasing concentrations of 6His-FrzCD $^{\Delta^{7-27}}$ were used in EMSA assays. On the first lane of each gel, 500 ng of the 2-Log DNA ladder (0.1-10 kb, NEB) have been loaded. Data in panel (A, C, D, and G) are representative of three independent experiments. Figure 4. The organization of FrzCD clusters depends on cluster intensity and mobility. (A) A representative fluorescence 1 second time-lapse (left panel) and the corresponding kymograph (middle panel) of a frzCD-gfp cell (top panel). Big and small arrows indicate large and small clusters, respectively. The right panel represents the trajectories of each cluster (same color codes as on the top panel). Scale bars correspond to 1 µm. (B) Cluster displacement (r) from the mean position at each given time (t). L represents the cell length.

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The color code corresponding to the logarithm of the ratio r/L indicates that the amplitude of the cluster displacement never exceeds 5% of the cell length. (C) Box plots indicate the distribution of the Mean Square Displacements at the different lag times; the mean of each lag value is indicate by the black dots. (D) Box plots indicate a significant decrease of the median confinement for clusters of low fluorescence intensity compared to high intensity clusters. For panels B, C and D 1039 clusters from 297 cells (two biological replicates) were analyzed. (E) The box plots and the violin plots show the measured confinements of frzCD-gfp strains blocked in the ON ($frzCD_{E168A-G169A}$::gfp) and OFF ($frzCD_{E202A-E203A}$::gfp) states. 130 and 150 clusters were analyzed for the ON and OFF states, respectively. Figure 5. Frz cluster formation generates signal sensitivity in turn important for social behaviors. (A) The average reversal frequencies, calculated by scoring FrzS-YFP pole-topole oscillations are shown as a function of the IAA concentration for wild type (black), $frzCD^{\Delta 6-130}$ (red) and $\Delta frzCD$ (grey). Reversal frequencies values of wild type and $frzCD^{\Delta 6-130}$ can be fitted by the Hill equation with an interval of confidence of 95% (dashed lines). Error bars represent the standard errors of the means. Reversal frequency values for each IAA dose and each strain are the results of two independent biological triplicates. About one hundred cells for the wild type and $frzCD^{41-130}$ strains and fifty for the $\Delta frzCD$ strain were analyzed (refer to Supplementary Table 3 for the exact number of analyzed cells for each strain and IAA doses used in this experiment). (B) Colony expansion of wild type, frzCD²⁶⁻¹³⁰ and $\Delta frzCD$ cells. Error bars represent the standard deviations of the means from three biological replicates. (C) The same strains were analyzed in *E. coli* predation assays.

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Extended data Supplementary Figure legends Supplementary Figure 1. Representative micrographs of *M. xanthus* cells carrying a GFP or a mCherry fusion and stained with the DNA DAPI stain. The genetic backgrounds of the M. xanthus strains are indicated on the left. Scale bars correspond to 1 µm. Supplementary Figure 2. frzE-mCherry cells can swarm and form fruiting bodies like wild type. Scale bars correspond to 0,5 cm. **Supplementary Figure 3.** FrzCD and FrzE are stable in different *M. xanthus* mutants. Western blot with anti-FrzCD (A) or anti-FrzE antibodies (B) on the cell extracts of the indicated M. xanthus strains. Scale bars correspond to 1µm. Black lines are used to indicate that two lanes from the same gel where separated by other lanes there were lanes between separate lanes from different westerns blots. Supplementary Figure 4. FrzCD binds DNA fragments of different lengths. (A) Primers and genomic DNA template used to obtain the DNA fragments used in (B) and in Figure 3. (B) Electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) on 1% agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide and developed at the UV light. Different concentrations (0, 2 and 4 mM) of 6His-FrzCD purified protein were incubated with DNA fragments of the indicated length. White lines are used to separate lanes from different agarose gels. Supplementary Figure 5. FrzCD-GFP binds the nucleoid in a DNA-sequence independent manner. A library of DNA fragments was obtained by ChIP experiments on frzCD-gfp and parB-yfp strains, using GFP polyclonal antibodies. The figure shows the results

obtained by the deep sequencing of the DNA libraries. Only for parB-yfp, we observed an

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enrichment corresponding a to the nucleoid region containing parS (rectangle in the middle panel and last panel) (Harms et al., 2013) (9,109 to 9,110 Kb). Note that while the number of reads relative to ParB are represented with a logarithmic scale, for FrzCD we used a regular scale. Supplementary Figure 6. The FrzCD N-terminal tail has the same properties of that of eukaryotic histones. (A) Prediction of the FrzCD N-terminal secondary structures. The nature of each amino acid is also indicated through color codes. (B) FrzCD first 50 amino acid alignment with the N-terminal tail of Histones 2B. The alignment was obtained by Clustal Omega. Dots indicate similarities and stars identities. Supplementary Figure 7. FrzCD alleles lacking N terminal regions can promote FrzE phosphorylation. (A) SDS page of the indicated proteins purified from E. coli and used for the different experiments shown in Figure 3. (B) Kinetics of the FrzE kinase domain (FrzE^{CheA}) auto-phosphorylation were tested in vitro by incubation of FrzE^{CheA} in the presence of FrzA, the indicated different form of FrzCD and ATPyP³³ as a phosphate donor. **Supplementary Figure 8.** Positive correlation between the number of FrzCD clusters and the nucleoid length (pixels). Average numbers of clusters with standard deviations (black dots and bars, respectively) for different nucleoid sizes are shown. Green dots represent measurements for individual cells. Grey zones represent the variances. 2564 clusters from two biological replicates were analyzed. Supplementary Figure 9. FrzCD segregated in cells with segregated chromosomes. (A) 909 cells were ordered according to their cell length (pixels, grey) and for each cells GFP and

- 1 DAPI fluorescence are represented as green and blue dots, respectively, at their corresponding
- 2 cell position. 0 is the cell center. **(B)** The three histograms show the average GFP (green) and
- 3 DAPI (blue) fluorescence density for each cell position for the indicated cell-size ranges. 0 is
- 4 the cell center.

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- 6 Supplementary Figure 10. The alignment of FrzCD sequences from the indicated species
- 7 was obtained by Clustal Omega. Stars indicate identities.

Table S1: Strains used in this study

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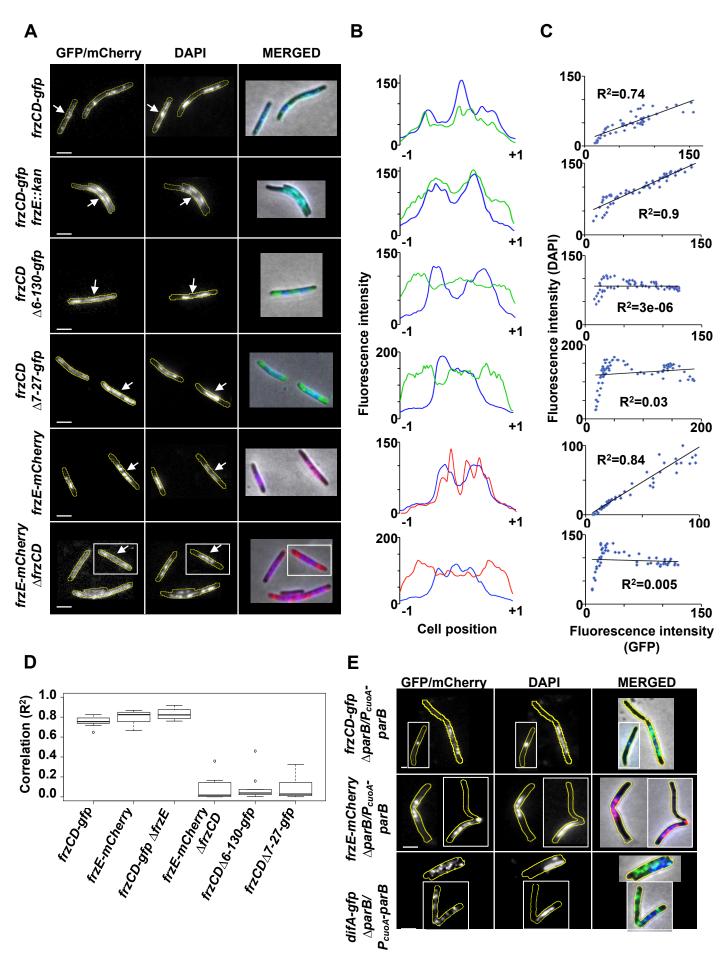
Strains	Genotyp	Deletion	Source
DZ2	wt		Zusman et al., 1982
DZ4620	frzCD-gfp		Mauriello et al., 2009
DZ4480	Δ frzCD	Codons 6-393	Bustamante et al., 2004
DZ4485	frzCD ^{∆6-130}		Mauriello et al., 2009
DZ4743	$\mathit{frzCD}^{\Delta 6-130}$ - gfp		Mauriello et al., 2009
EM231	frzCD _{E202A-E203A} ::gfp		Mauriello et al., 2009
EM228	frzCD _{E168A-G169A} ::gfp		Mauriello et al., 2009
EM434	frzE-mCherry		This study
EM506	frzE-mCherry ∆frzCD		This study
EM516	frzCD-gfp frzE::kan	Codons 171-438	This study
EM531	difA-gfp ∆parB/P _{cuoA} -parB		This study
EM532	frzCD-gfp ∆parB/P _{cuoA} -parB		This study
EM533	frzE-mCherry ∆parB/P _{cuoA} -parB		This study
EM543	frzCD ^{Δ7-27}	Codons 7-27	This study
EM550	$frzCD^{\Delta 7-27}$ - gfp	Codons 7-27	This study
TM26	frzS-yfp		Guzzo et al., 2015
EM622	frzCĎ ^{ú6-130} frzS-yfp		This study
EM623	∆frzCD frzS-yfp		This study

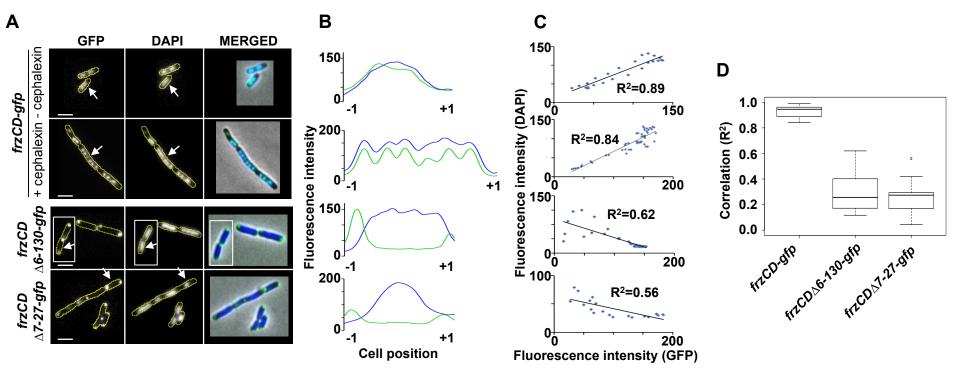
Table S2: Plasmids used in this study

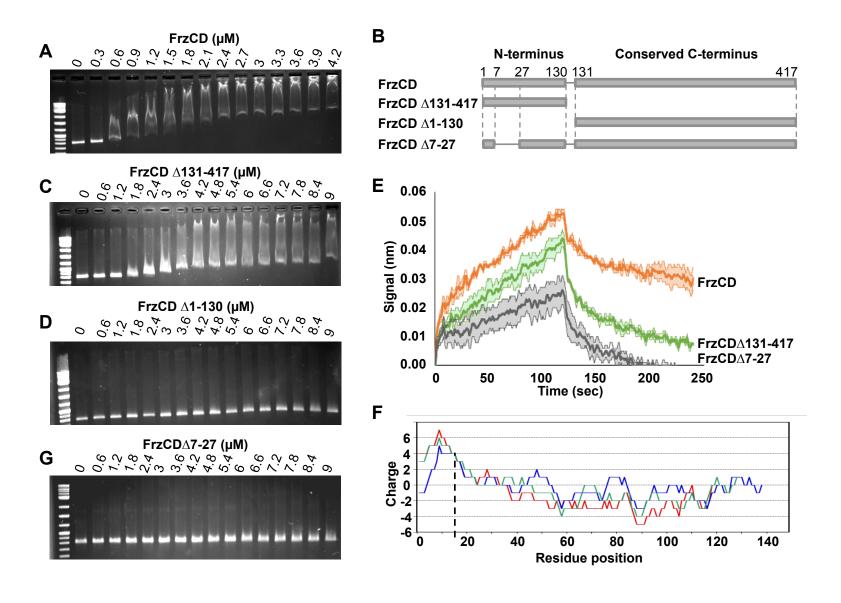
pAH18 Construct for in frame deletion of <i>parB</i> pETPhos_ <i>frzCD</i> pETPhos with <i>frzCD</i> tagged with 6-his inducible with IPTG pETPhos_ <i>frzE</i> pETPhos with <i>frzE</i> pETPhos	,	Plasmid	Expression plasmid	Source
pGEX(M)_frzA pETPhos with frzA tagged with 6-his inducible with IPTG pBJ113 with frzE-mCherry fusion This study pEM405 pBJ113 with an insertion cassette for frzE::kan This study pEM418 pBJ113 with a cassette for frzCD $^{\Delta 7-27}$ This study pETPhos with frzCD $^{\Delta 1-130}$ tagged with 6-his inducible with IPTG This study pETPhos with frzCD $^{\Delta 131-417}$ tagged with 6-his inducible with IPTG This study pEM433 pETPhos with frzCD $^{\Delta 7-27}$ tagged with 6-his inducible with IPTG This study pEM409 pETDuet-1 with frzCD-gfp inducible with IPTG This study pEM417 pETDuet-1 with frzCD $^{\Delta 1-130}$ -gfp inducible with IPTG This study pEM434 pETDuet-1 with frzCD $^{\Delta 7-27}$ -gfp inducible with IPTG This study pETDuet-1 with frzCD $^{\Delta 7-27}$ -gfp inducible with IPTG This study pETDuet-1 with frzCD $^{\Delta 7-27}$ -gfp inducible with IPTG This study		pAH57 pAH18 pETPhos_frzCD pETPhos_frzE ^{kunase} pETPhos_frzCD ^c pGEX(M)_frzA pEM365 pEM405 pEM418 pEM414 pEM415 pEM417 pEM433	P_{cuoA} -parB, copper-dependent expression of parB, Mx8 attB Construct for in frame deletion of parB pETPhos with $frzCD$ tagged with 6-his inducible with IPTG pETPhos with $frzCD^c$ tagged with 6-his inducible with IPTG pETPhos with $frzCD^c$ tagged with 6-his inducible with IPTG pETPhos with $frzA$ tagged with 6-his inducible with IPTG pBJ113 with frzE-mCherry fusion pBJ113 with an insertion cassette for $frzE::kan$ pBJ113 with a cassette for $frzCD^{\Delta 7-27}$ pETPhos with $frzCD^{\Delta 1-130}$ tagged with 6-his inducible with IPTG pETPhos with $frzCD^{\Delta 131-417}$ tagged with 6-his inducible with IPTG pETPhos with $frzCD^{\Delta 7-27}$ tagged with 6-his inducible with IPTG pETDuet-1 with $frzCD$ - gf inducible with IPTG pETDuet-1 with $frzCD$ - gf inducible with IPTG pETDuet-1 with $frzCD^{\Delta 7-27}$ - gf inducible with IPTG	Harms et al., 2013 Harms et al., 2013 Guzzo et al., 2015 Guzzo et al., 2015 Guzzo et al., 2015 Guzzo et al., 2015 This study

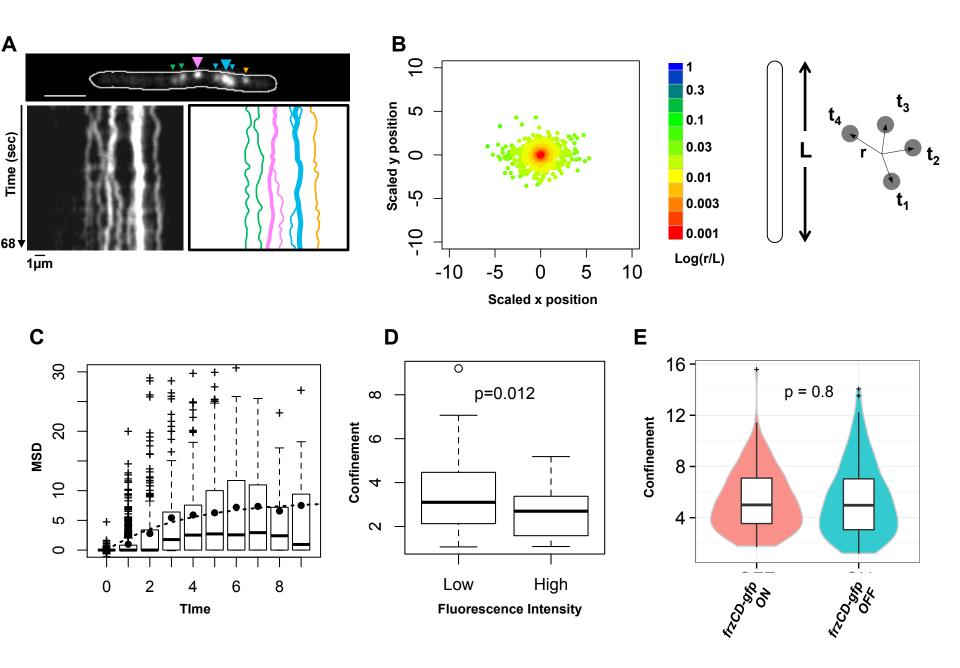
Table S3: Number of cells analyzed for Figure 5A

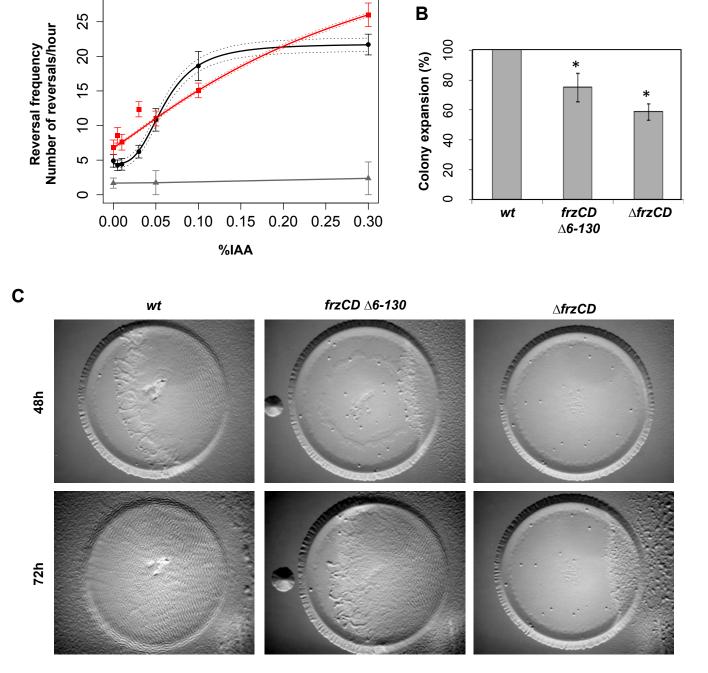
%IAA Strain	0	0.005	0.01	0.03	0.05	0.1	0.3
frzS-yfp	101	113	77	114	64	47	170
frzCD 6-130 frzS-yfp	98	103	75	128	112	139	109
∆frzCD frzS-yfp	44	ND	ND	ND	48	ND	47





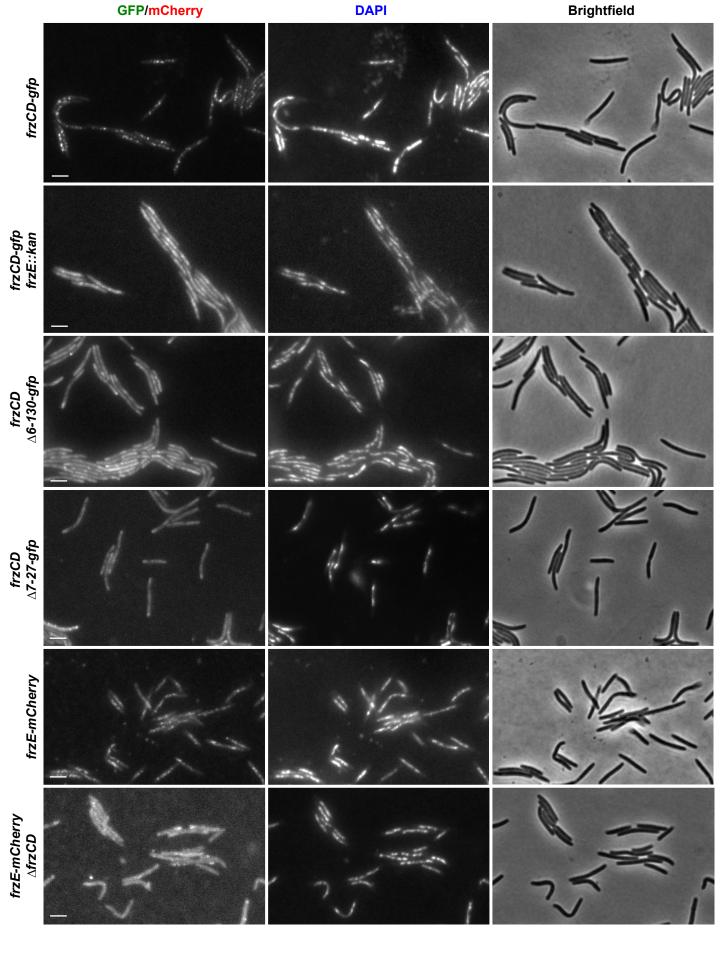


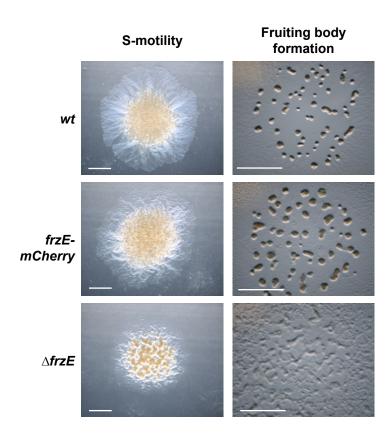


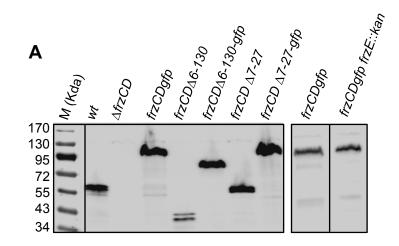


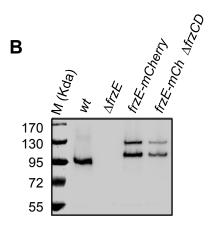
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Primer sequence	Chromosomal DNA template	Size
actctagagaccccgcacccacggag	DZ2 (Bustamante et al., 2004)	474
tcggtacctcacgcgggctccggctc		
cgggatcctggctccgccccgacgca	DZ2 (Bustamante et al., 2004)	801
cccaagcttttgatgaggcgcttggagat		
gatccgtgcggaccggcaa	EM417 (Moine et al., 2014)	1497
ggtaccgacctcaggacaccattga		
atgtccctggacacccccaacga	D74020 (Marrialla et al. 2000)	2000
ttactatttgtatagttcatccat	DZ4620 (Mauriello et al., 2009)	2000

