1 **The nucleoid as a scaffold for the assembly of bacterial signaling complexes**
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Running Title: The *Myxococcus xanthus* FrzCD cytoplasmic chemoreceptor binds DNA

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.

1 INTRODUCTION

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,

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

domains, which are replaced by a N-terminal domain of unknown function (Bustamante *et al.*, 2004). When FrzCD was first localized in cells, it appeared organized in multiple dynamic cytoplasm clusters that aligned when cells made side-to-side contacts, which has been proposed to be part of a signaling process that synchronizes cell reversals (Mauriello, Astling, *et al.*, 2009). However the determinants of FrzCD localization and its exact link with the regulation of the cell reversal are still unclear.

In this work we show that FrzCD forms cytoplasmic signaling clusters by directly binding to the nucleoid. Analogously to membrane chemotaxis clusters in *E. coli*, nucleoid binding and cluster formation confer to the Frz system important regulatory properties such as signal 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

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 co-

localized 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

(Moine *et al.*, 2014) (Figure 2). These results confirmed that nucleoid-mediated cluster

formation is a specific feature of Frz proteins.

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

lacking *frzE* (Mauriello et al., 2009 and this study). As previously shown, in the absence of

FrzCD, FrzE-mCherry was homogeneously dispersed in the cytoplasm, and notably also in

the polar regions (Figure 1A, 1B and Supplementary Figure 1) (Mauriello, Astling, *et al.*,

2009; Kaimer and Zusman, 2016). Here we additionally showed that in the absence of *frzE*,

FrzCD was no longer capable to form clusters, but the fluorescent signal was still retained

towards the center of the cell body and strictly co-localized with the nucleoid (Figure 1A-D

and Supplementary Figure 1). The aberrant localization patterns observed in the deletion

mutants were not due to a change in protein levels (Supplementary Figure 3). Thus, this result

confirms that both FrzCD and FrzE are important for cluster formation, whereas FrzCD is

responsible for the recruitment of FrzE to the nucleoid.

To check whether the association between FrzCD and the nucleoid was *M. xanthus*-specific,

we constructed an *E. coli* strain expressing *frzCD-gfp* from a plasmid and under the control of

an IPTG inducible promoter. Under these conditions, FrzCD also co-localized with the

nucleoid and this co-localization was particularly evident in elongated undivided cells

containing multiple segregated nucleoids (Figure 2A-D).

These observations suggest that FrzCD can associate with the chromosomes of different

bacterial species, either directly or by the aid of a docking factor common to *M. xanthus* and

E. coli.

FrzCD directly binds to the DNA

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 *parB-*

yfp 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

($p < 1^{e-5}$) 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.

6   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$^{\Delta131-417}$) 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 C-

terminal methyl-accepting domain alone (FrzCD$^{\Delta1-130}$) 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 DNA-

binding properties of FrzCD and FrzCD$^{\Delta131-417}$, 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$^{\Delta131-417}$ and

FrzCD, the results confirmed that FrzCD$^{\Delta131-417}$ binds the DNA at a lower efficiency than

FrzCD (showing slower association and faster dissociation, Figure 3E).

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$^{\Delta 7-27}$ did not shift the migration of DNA fragments on agarose gels, similarly to FrzCD$^{\Delta 1-130}$ missing the entire N-terminal domain (Figure 3D and 3G). In the BLI assay, binding of FrzCD$^{\Delta 7-27}$ 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$^{\Delta 7-27}$ 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

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

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 *ΔfrzCD* 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$^{\Delta 6-130}$ 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

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

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

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$^{\Delta 6\text{-}130}$ 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

proteins to the nucleoid essentially requires the presence of a positively charged protein domain rather than a specific amino acid sequence.

This type of cellular organization may be common to other bacterial macromolecular complexes to provide important regulatory functions. In this sense, the Frz example provides new perspectives to the role of the bacterial nucleoid as a scaffold for the spatial control of cellular functions.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains, plasmids and growth

Strains and plasmids are listed in Supplementary Table 1 and 2. *M. xanthus* strains were

grown at 32°C in CYE rich media as previously described. *Pcuo::parB-ΔparB* cells were

grown at 32°C in CTT supplied with 300 μM CuSO₄.

Plasmids were introduced into *M. xanthus* cells by electroporation. Deletions and GFP fusions

were inserted in frame to avoid polar effects on the downstream gene expression. These

strains were obtained by homologous recombination based on a previously reported method

using the pBJ113 or pBJ114 vectors (Bustamante *et al.*, 2004; Moine *et al.*, 2014). To

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;

the gene encoding the *egfp* or *mcherry* genes from pEGFP-N1 (Invitrogen) or pEM147

(Mauriello, Nan, *et al.*, 2009) excluding the start codon and including the stop codon; the

intergenic region between the gene of interest and its immediately downstream gene, if any;

the first 800 bp of the downstream gene.

To construct the *parB* conditional mutant, we transferred the previously described *parB*

conditional depletion (Harms *et al.*, 2013) in our wild type strain, DZ2 (Harms *et al.*, 2013;

Iniesta, 2014).

To construct strains carrying a FrzS-YFP fusion, we used the pEFrzSY plasmid (Guzzo *et al.*,

2015)

Escherichia coli cells were grown under standard laboratory conditions in Luria-Bertani broth

supplemented with antibiotics if necessary.

For swarming assays, cells (5 μl) at a concentration of 5×10^9 cfu ml^{-1} were spotted on CYE

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 5×10^9 cfu

ml^{-1}) and *M. xanthus* cells (3µl at a concentration of 5×10^9 cfu ml^{-1}) were spotted at 0.7 mm

distance from each other on CF agar plates, incubated at 32°C and photographed after 72 h.

Protein purification

BL21(DE3) [F$^-$ ompT hsdSB(rB$^-$ mB$^-$) gal dcm (DE3)] cells were grown in Luria-Bertani

broth supplemented 100 µg/ml ampicillin to mid-exponential phase at 37°C. Overexpression

was induced by adding 0,1 mM IPTG for cells containing plasmid pEM414 or 0,5mM for

pEM415 and pEM433. Cells were then grown at 16°C over night. Cells were washed and

resuspended in lysis buffer (50 mM TrisHCl, pH 8; 300 mM NaCl; 100 µg/ml PMSF; 30

U/mL Benzonase) and lysed at the French press. The cell lysates were centrifuged at 4°C for

30 min at 13000× rpm. Soluble tagged His$_6$-proteins were purified on 1ml HisTrap^{TM}FF

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)

EMSAs were carried out by incubating different concentrations of purified proteins

(Supplementary Figure 7A) with 10 nM PCR-amplification products of different sizes

(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

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

Protein-DNA interaction experiments were conducted at 25°C with the BLItz instrument from

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$^{\Delta131-417}$, 6His-FrzCD$^{\Delta6-130}$ and 6His-FrzCD$^{\Delta7-27}$ protein ligands were immobilized onto

two different Ni-NTA biosensors (ForteBio) in duplicate at 1μM concentrations. A PCR

amplified DNA fragment (474bp) with primers AGACCCCCGCACCCACGGAG 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$^{\Delta1-130}$) 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, mid-

log phase cells (80 ml, OD$_{600}$ 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-

A agarose (Sigma-Aldrich, www.sigmaaldrich.com) and 100 μg BSA. Polyclonal GFP

antibodies were added to the remains of the supernatant (1:1,000 dilution), incubated

overnight at 4°C with 80 μL of protein-A agarose beads pre-saturated with BSA, washed once

with low salt buffer (0.1% SDS, 1% Triton X-100, 2 mM EDTA, 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.1),

150 mM NaCl), high salt buffer (0.1% SDS, 1% Triton X-100, 2 mM EDTA, 20 mM Tris-

HCl (pH 8.1), 500 mM NaCl) and LiCl buffer (0.25 M LiCl, 1% NP-40, 1% sodium

deoxycholate, 1 mM EDTA, 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.1) and twice with TE buffer (10 mM

Tris-HCl (pH 8.1) and 1 mM EDTA). The protein-DNA complexes were eluted in 500 μL

freshly prepared elution buffer (1% SDS, 0.1 M NaHCO3), supplemented with NaCl to a final

concentration of 300 mM and incubated overnight at 65°C to reverse the crosslinks. The

samples were treated with 2 μg of Proteinase K for 2 h at 45°C in 40 mM EDTA and 40 mM

Tris-HCl (pH 6.5). DNA was extracted using QIAgen minelute kit and resuspended in 30 μl

of Elution Buffer. ChIp DNA sequencing was performed using Illumina MiSeq and analyzed

using Galaxy Web Portal (usegalaxy.org/). Reads were analyzed by MatLab.

Protein sequence analyses

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**

In vitro phosphorylation assays were performed with *E. coli* purified recombinant proteins. 4

µg of FrzE^{kinase} were incubated with 1µg of FrzA and increasing concentrations (3µg) of

different FrzCD proteins (entire FrzCD, FrzCD^c, FrzCDΔ6-130, FrzCDΔ7-27 or FrzCDΔ131-

417) in 25 µl of buffer P (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5; 1 mM DTT; 5 mM MgCl$_2$; 50mM KCl; 5

mM EDTA; 50µM ATP, 10% glycerol) supplemented with 200 µCi ml^{-1} (65 nM) of [γ-

33P]ATP (PerkinElmer, 3000 Ci mmol^{-1}) for 10 minutes at room temperature in order to

obtain the optimal FrzE^{kinase} autophosphorylation activity. Each reaction mixture was stopped

by addition of 5 × Laemmli and quickly loaded onto SDS-PAGE gel. After electrophoresis,

proteins were revealed using Coomassie Brilliant Blue before gel drying. Radioactive proteins

were visualized by autoradiography using direct exposure to film (Carestream).

Fluorescence microscopy and image analysis

For fluorescence microscopy analyses, 5 µl of cells from 4 x 10^8 cfu ml^{-1} vegetative CYE

cultures were spotted on a thin fresh TPM agar pad at the top a slide (Mignot *et al.*, 2005). A

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

(100 x oil objective NA 1.3 Phase Contrast) (Ducret *et al.*, 2009).

To study the colocalization with the DNA, the TPM agar pads were supplied with 1µg/ml

DAPI stain and 1 mM IPTG. Prior to imaging, *E. coli* cells were grown in 1 mM IPTG for

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

(Schindelin *et al.*, 2012). FrzCD clusters numbers and distances, nucleoid areas and cell areas

were automatically determined and verified manually with the "MicrobeJ" Fiji/ImageJ plugin

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/).

To study the dynamic of FrzCD-GFP clusters we automatically tracked clusters (imaged

every second) by MicrobeJ and recorded parameters such as the mean square displacement

(MSD), the confinement radius and the fluorescence intensity along the time.

Reversal frequencies

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, 1mL 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^{Δ1-130}* strains and

fifty for the *ΔfrzCD* 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

2   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

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 1μm. **(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 (R^2) 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

DAPI and GFP localization. R^2 values > 0,5 indicate significant correlations. **(D)** Box plots

indicate the medians of the correlation coefficients (R^2) 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$^{\Delta131-417}$ (C) and 6His- FrzCD$^{\Delta1-130}$ (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$^{\Delta131-417}$ or 6His- FrzCD$^{\Delta7-27}$, with a 474 bp DNA fragment at a concentration of 38nM**.**

(F) "Sliding window" representation indicating the protein charge of the first FrzCD N-

terminal 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$^{\Delta7-27}$ 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 1μm. **(B)** Cluster

displacement (r) from the mean position at each given time (t). L represents the cell length.

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$_{E168A\text{-}G169A}$::gfp*) and OFF (*frzCD$_{E202A\text{-}E203A}$::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-to-

pole oscillations are shown as a function of the IAA concentration for wild type (black),

frzCD$^{\Delta6\text{-}130}$ (red) and *ΔfrzCD* (grey). Reversal frequencies values of wild type and *frzCD$^{\Delta6\text{-}130}$*

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$^{\Delta1\text{-}130}$* strains and fifty for the *ΔfrzCD* 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, *frzCD$^{\Delta6\text{-}130}$* and

ΔfrzCD 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.

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 1μm.

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

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 ATPγP^{33} 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

DAPI fluorescence are represented as green and blue dots, respectively, at their corresponding

cell position. 0 is the cell center. **(B)** The three histograms show the average GFP (green) and

DAPI (blue) fluorescence density for each cell position for the indicated cell-size ranges. 0 is

the cell center.

Supplementary Figure 10. The alignment of FrzCD sequences from the indicated species

was obtained by Clustal Omega. Stars indicate identities.

1   Table S1: Strains used in this study
2

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$^{\Delta 6-130}$*		Mauriello et al., 2009
DZ4743	*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* Δ*frzCD*		This study
EM516	*frzCD-gfp frzE::kan*	Codons 171-438	This study
EM531	*difA-gfp* Δ*parB*/P$_{cuoA}$-*parB*		This study
EM532	*frzCD-gfp* Δ*parB*/P$_{cuoA}$-*parB*		This study
EM533	*frzE-mCherry* Δ*parB*/P$_{cuoA}$-*parB*		This study
EM543	*frzCD$^{\Delta 7-27}$*	Codons 7-27	This study
EM550	*frzCD$^{\Delta 7-27}$-gfp*	Codons 7-27	This study
TM26	*frzS-yfp*		Guzzo et al., 2015
EM622	*frzCD$^{\Delta 6-130}$ frzS-yfp*		This study
EM623	Δ*frzCD frzS-yfp*		This study

3
4
5   Table S2: Plasmids used in this study
6

Plasmid	Expression plasmid	Source
pAH57	*P$_{cuoA}$-parB,* copper-dependent expression of *parB*, Mx8 attB	Harms et al., 2013
pAH18	Construct for in frame deletion of *parB*	Harms et al., 2013
pETPhos_*frzCD*	pETPhos with *frzCD* tagged with 6-his inducible with IPTG	Guzzo et al., 2015
pETPhos_*frzE^{kinase}*	pETPhos with *frzE^{CheA}* tagged with 6-his inducible with IPTG	Guzzo et al., 2015
pETPhos_*frzCD^{c}*	pETPhos with *frzCD^{c}* tagged with 6-his inducible with IPTG	Guzzo et al., 2015
pGEX(M)_*frzA*	pETPhos with *frzA* tagged with 6-his inducible with IPTG	Guzzo et al., 2015
pEM365	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
pEM414	pETPhos with *frzCD$^{\Delta 1-130}$* tagged with 6-his inducible with IPTG	This study
pEM415	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
pEFrzSY	pEYFPN1 with a cassette to construct *frzS-yfp*	Guzzo et al., 2015

7
8

9   Table S3: Number of cells analyzed for Figure 5A

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

10
11
12
13

A FrzCD (µM)

0 0.3 0.6 0.9 1.2 1.5 1.8 2.1 2.4 2.7 3 3.3 3.6 3.9 4.2

B

N-terminus   Conserved C-terminus

1 7   27   130 131   417

FrzCD

FrzCD Δ131-417

FrzCD Δ1-130

FrzCD Δ7-27

C FrzCD Δ131-417 (µM)

0 0.6 1.2 1.8 2.4 3 3.6 4.2 4.8 5.4 6 6.6 7.2 7.8 8.4 9

D FrzCD Δ1-130 (µM)

0 0.6 1.2 1.8 2.4 3 3.6 4.2 4.8 5.4 6 6.6 7.2 7.8 8.4 9

E

FrzCD

FrzCDΔ131-417

FrzCDΔ7-27

F

G FrzCDΔ7-27 (µM)

0 0.6 1.2 1.8 2.4 3 3.6 4.2 4.8 5.4 6 6.6 7.2 7.8 8.4 9

	S-motility	**Fruiting body formation**

wt

frzE-mCherry

Δ*frzE*

A

B

A

Primer sequence	Chromosomal DNA template	Size
actctagagacccccgcacccacggag tcggtacctcacgcggggctccggctc	DZ2 (Bustamante et al., 2004)	474
cgggatcctggctccgcccccgacgca cccaagctttgatgaggcgcttggagat	DZ2 (Bustamante et al., 2004)	801
gatccgtgcggaccggcaa ggtaccgacctcaggacaccattga	EM417 (Moine et al., 2014)	1497
atgtccctggacacccccaacga ttactatttgtatagttcatccat	DZ4620 (Mauriello et al., 2009)	2000

B

FrzCD

raw counts
smoothed coverage (5000nt)

ParB

Genome coordinates

Zoom of the most
enriched ParB region

Genome coordinates (x10^8)

```
                          : 1---------11--------21--------31--------41--------51--------61--------71--------81--------91--------101-------111-------121-------131-------141---- :
OrigSeq     : MSLDTPNEKPAGKARARKAPASKAGATNAASTSSSTKAITDTLLTVLSGNLQARVPKELVGESGVELAHLLNQVLDQFAASEHRKHVAAQEIDQALDALIGLVREGDLSRWNTTTEDPQLGPLLEGFGKVIETLRTFVREINEAALR : OrigSeq
Jnet        : -----------------HHHH-----HHHHH---------HHHHHHHHHHHH----------------HHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHH-----------------HHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHH-- : Jnet
jhmm        : -----------HHHH-HHHHHHHHH-------HHHHHHHHHHHH----------HH----HHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHH-----------------HHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHH-- : jhmm
jpssm       : ------------HHHH----------HHHHHHHHHHHHHHHH----------------HHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHH----------------HHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHH-- : jpssm
PSIPRED     : ------------HHHHH---------------------------------------HHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHH----------------HHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHH- :
Phyre2      : -----------hHHHHHh-HHHHh--hhhhhhhhhHHHHHHHHHHHHHH--hhhh--HHHH-----HHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHH-hhhhh--------hhHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHH--- :
```

```
MSLDTPNEKPAGKARARKAPASKAGATNAASTSSSTKAITDTLLTVLSGNLQARVPKELVGESGVELAHLLNQVLDQFAASEHRKHVAAQEIDQALDALIGLVREGDLSRWNTTTEDPQLGPLLEGFGKVIETLRTFVREINEAALR
       |---basic region----|   loop  |--------------------------------------------------------------------------helical fold-------------------------------------------------------|
                                                                                                                                    |___________________________________________|
```

■ basic	■ acid	■ hydrophilic	PATG borderline	LIVMWFY hydrophobic	H histidine

A

B

A

B

Legend: **basic** | **acid** | **NQS polar** | AGPTC **borderline** | ILMVFWY **hydrophobic** | **H histidine**