Distinct subcellular localization of a Type I CRISPR complex and the Cas3 nuclease in bacteria

Sutharsan Govindarajan[1#], Adair Borges[1] and Joseph Bondy-Denomy[1,2,3]*

[1]Department of Microbiology and Immunology, University of California San Francisco, San Francisco, CA 94158, USA

[2]Quantitative Biosciences Institute, University of California, San Francisco, San Francisco, CA 94158, USA

[3]Innovative Genomics Institute, Berkeley, CA

[#]Department of Biology, SRM University AP, Amaravati, India

*Correspondence: joseph.bondy-denomy@ucsf.edu

Abstract

CRISPR-Cas systems are prokaryotic adaptive immune systems that have been well characterized biochemically, but *in vivo* spatiotemporal regulation and cell biology remains largely unaddressed. Here, we used fluorescent fusion proteins to study the localization of the Type I-F CRISPR-Cas system native to *Pseudomonas aeruginosa.* When targeted to an integrated prophage, the crRNA-guided (Csy) complex and a majority of Cas3 molecules in the cell are recruited to a single focus. When lacking a target in the cell, however, the Csy complex is broadly nucleoid bound, while Cas3 is diffuse in the cytoplasm. Nucleoid association for the Csy proteins is crRNA-dependent, and inhibited by expression of anti-CRISPR AcrIF2, which blocks PAM binding. The Cas9 nuclease is also nucleoid localized, only when gRNA-bound, which is abolished by PAM mimic, AcrIIA4. Our findings reveal PAM-dependent nucleoid surveillance and spatiotemporal regulation in Type I CRISPR-Cas that separates the nuclease-helicase Cas3 from the crRNA-guided surveillance complex.

Introduction

Bacteria have evolved a wide range of immune mechanisms, including the clustered regularly interspaced short palindromic repeats (CRISPR) and CRISPR-associated (cas) genes, to protect from bacteriophages and other mobile genetic elements (Marraffini, 2015). The adaptive CRISPR-Cas system is present in almost 85% of archaea and 40% of bacterial genomes sequenced. Currently, CRISPR-Cas systems are categorized into 2 broad classes, 6 types and 33 subtypes (Makarova *et al.*, 2019). CRISPR-Cas systems acquire foreign DNA into the CRISPR array as new 'spacers', transcribes and processes that array to generate CRISPR RNAs (crRNAs), which complex with Cas proteins. This crRNA-guided complex surveils the cell for a protospacer adjacent motif (PAM), and subsequent complementary base pairing with the crRNA, which triggers cleavage of the invading nucleic acid. In the case of type I CRISPR-Cas systems, which are the most abundant in bacteria (Van Der Oost *et al.*, 2014; Makarova *et al.*, 2019), a multi-subunit crRNA-guided surveillance complex (Cascade in Type I-E, Csy complex in Type I-F) recognizes the PAM and protospacer, and then recruits a *trans*-acting helicase-nuclease (Cas3) for target degradation (Redding *et al.*, 2015).

How CRISPR-Cas effectors are organized within cells is currently not well understood. For efficiently functioning as a defense system, CRISPR-Cas must rapidly recognize the incoming foreign DNA and destroy it before it becomes established. Previous *in vitro* studies using single molecule imaging has shown that Type I-E Cascade (which is the crRNA-guided complex of the I-E system) spends between 0.1 and 10 s scanning targets in DNA (Redding *et al.*, 2015; Xue *et al.*, 2017; Dillard *et al.*, 2018). A recent *in vivo* study using super resolution microscopy and single molecule tracking of cascade in live *E. coli* suggested a timescale of 30 ms for target probing (Vink *et al.*, 2020), and similar binding kinetics have also been suggested for Cas9 (Jones *et al.*, 2017; Martens *et al.*, 2019). Cascade was suggested to spend approximately 50% of its search time on DNA and the rest distributed in the cytoplasm, however, the impact of phage infection and Cas3 localization have not determined. Additionally, ChIP-seq analysis of Cascade-DNA interactions in *E. coli* revealed that less than 5 bp of crRNA-DNA interaction is sufficient to promote association of cascade at numerous sites in the genome (Cooper *et al.*, 2018). Genomic associations of CRISPR-Cas stands in contrast to another important class of defense systems, restriction modification (R-M). Type I R–M complexes (HsdRMS) localize to the inner membrane in such a way that their activities are controlled spatially. The methyltransferase is exposed in the cytoplasmic-side of the inner membrane, for accessing the host DNA, while the restriction enzyme components are positioned in the periplasmic-side of the membrane (Holubová *et al.*, 2000; Holubova *et al.*, 2004).

The type I-F CRISPR-Cas system of *P. aeruginosa* has emerged as a powerful model for understanding various aspects of CRISPR-Cas biology, including a mechanistic understanding of type I systems (Wiedenheft *et al.*, 2011; Guo *et al.*, 2017; Rollins *et al.*, 2019), the discovery (Bondy-Denomy *et al.*, 2013) and *in vivo* characterization (Borges *et al.*, 2018; Landsberger *et al.*, 2018) of phage-encoded anti-CRISPR proteins (Acrs), and identification of regulatory pathways governing CRISPR-Cas expression (Høyland-Kroghsbo *et al.*, 2017; Lin *et al.*, 2019a; Lin *et al.*, 2019b; Ahator *et al.*, 2020; Borges *et al.*, 2020). The I-F system of *P. aeruginosa* PA14 consists of two CRISPR loci and six Cas proteins, namely Csy1-4, which form the Csy complex (surveillance complex of the I-F system), Cas3 (a fusion of Cas2-3), a trans-acting

nuclease/helicase protein, and Cas1, which drives spacer acquisition (Wiedenheft *et al.*, 2011;
Rollins *et al.*, 2017). Structural and biochemical studies have shown that Csy1-4 assemble on a
60 nucleotide crRNA to form a 350 kDa sea-horse-shaped crRNA-guided surveillance complex
(Chowdhury *et al.*, 2017; Guo *et al.*, 2017; Rollins *et al.*, 2019). The Csy surveillance complex
recognizes DNA first via Csy1-PAM interaction (G-G/C-C), leading to destabilization of the DNA
duplex, strand invasion, R-loop formation in the seed region, and downstream base pairing.
Finally, DNA-bound Csy complex triggers recruitment of Cas3 nuclease, which mediates
processive degradation of the target DNA in a 3'–5' direction (Chowdhury *et al.*, 2017; Guo *et al.*,
2017; Rollins *et al.*, 2019).

Here, we address the cell biology of a naturally active *P. aeruginosa* Type I-F CRISPR-Cas
system by directly observing its subcellular localization using live cell microscopy. Using functional
fluorescent fusions chromosomally integrated at the native locus, we show that the Csy1 and
Csy4 proteins, which are part of the surveillance complex, are largely nucleoid bound, while Cas3
nuclease is cytoplasmic, but both can be re-directed to a stable intracellular target (i.e. a
prophage). When the Csy complex is formed with a crRNA, it binds the nucleoid even in the
absence of a target, but the individual Cas proteins do not. Nucleoid localization of the Csy
complex, and Cas9, is mediated at the level of PAM recognition and is specifically disrupted by
PAM-mimetic anti-CRISPR proteins. Taken together, our study suggests that the relatively
promiscuous PAM-dependent (e.g. 5'-GG-3') DNA search mechanism likely relegates these
complexes to predominantly associate with the host genome, without an active mechanism for
preventing host genome surveillance.

Results
The majority of endogenous Cas3 molecules are recruited to CRISPR targets
To investigate CRISPR-Cas subcellular localization, we focused on *P. aeruginosa* strain UCBPP-
PA14 (denoted PA14), which has a type I-F CRISPR-Cas system (Cady *et al.*, 2012). We
constructed PA14 strains in which Csy1 (Cas8), Csy4 (Cas6) and Cas3 are fused with sfCherry
at their native locus. We assessed the functionality of the tagged strains using a panel of isogenic
phages to read out CRISPR-Cas function: DMS3 (untargeted control), DMS3m (targeted by a
natural spacer, CRISPR2 spacer 1), and DMS3m engineered phages that expresses Acr proteins
AcrIF1, AcrIF2, AcrIF3 or AcrIF4 (Borges *et al.*, 2018). All three fusions exhibited CRISPR-Cas
activity similar to the wild-type and were inhibited by Acr proteins (Fig. S1). Using these strains
as reporters, we performed live cell fluorescence microscopy to visualize the distribution of the
Cas proteins. We observed that all three proteins appeared diffuse in the cytoplasm under this
condition (Fig. 1a). Of note, cells had to be grown to high cell density, which is important for Cas
protein expression in *P. aeruginosa* (Fig. 1b) (Høyland-Kroghsbo *et al.*, 2017; Borges *et al.*, 2020).
Analysis of fluorescent signal from single cells indicated that Csy1 and Csy4 protein levels are
higher than Cas3 (Fig. 1c).

To observe fluorescent Cas proteins localizing to target DNA *in vivo*, we generated lysogenic
strains containing JBD18 as a prophage in PA14 strains expressing chromosomal Csy1-sfCherry
(in dCas3 background) or dCas3-sfCherry. JBD18 naturally has five protospacer sequences with
the correct PAM (Cady *et al.*, 2012). Both Csy1-sfCherry and dCas3-sfCherry formed fluorescent
foci in the presence of the JBD18 prophage (Fig. 1d). Notably, the foci formed by dCas3-sfCherry

were quite discrete, suggesting that most of the cellular dCas3 protein is recruited to the targeted
locus. Taken together, the data presented above shows that endogenous levels of tagged I-F Cas
proteins are functional, can be visualized, and can read out *bona fide* target DNA binding events
in vivo, which apparently recruits multiple Cas3 proteins.
115
Csy complex is nucleoid-enriched while the Cas3 nuclease is cytoplasmic
To determine the localization pattern of the Csy complex, we took an approach that can clearly
differentiate membrane associated, DNA bound and cytoplasmic proteins (Hershko-Shalev *et al.*,
2016). Cells were treated with the DNA-damaging antibiotic nalidixic acid (NA). At the
concentration used, *P. aeruginosa* continues to grow slowly and forms long cells with compacted
nucleoid (schematic presented in Fig. 2a). In these nucleoid compacted cells, DNA-localized
proteins can be clearly differentiated from cytoplasmic and membrane proteins. We observed that
Csy1-sfCherry and Csy4-sfCherry are enriched in the nucleoid, as evidenced by their
colocalization with DAPI stain, while Cas3-sfCherry appeared diffuse in the cytoplasm (Fig. 2b).
To confirm that nucleoid localization of Csy1 and Csy4 did not occur as a result of DNA damage
caused by NA treatment, we treated cells with chloramphenicol (200 µg/ml), which causes
nucleoid compaction as a result of translation inhibition, leading to transertion inhibition (Van
Helvoort *et al.*, 1996; Govindarajan *et al.*, 2013). Also, in these nucleoid compacted cells, Csy1
and Csy4, but not Cas3, were found to be nucleoid-enriched (Fig. S2).
130
We next asked whether Csy protein nucleoid localization is dependent on crRNA-mediated
surveillance complex formation. To test this, the same Csy1-sfCherry and Csy4-sfCherry labels
were inserted into the chromosome of a ΔCRISPR strain that lacks all 35 spacers, but still
expresses all Cas proteins. Both Csy1-sfCherry and Csy4-sfCherry lost nucleoid localization in
the ΔCRISPR mutant (Fig. 2b) suggesting that crRNA-mediated assembly of the surveillance
complex is essential for nucleoid localization. Additionally, expression of Csy1-sfCherry or Csy4-
sfCherry ectopically from a plasmid in NA-treated cells that lack all components of the CRISPR-
Cas system (ΔCRISPR-Cas), showed that they were not enriched in the nucleoid (Fig. 2c).

PA14 has a total of 35 distinct crRNAs produced from its two CRISPR loci. It is possible that one
or more of these crRNAs with partial match to the genomic DNA is responsible for the surveillance
complex nucleoid localization. To determine the importance of crRNAs in nucleoid surveillance,
we expressed synthetic crRNAs, which do not have a detectable sequence match in the PA14
genome, in ΔCRISPR cells and asked if they can restore Csy1-sfCherry nucleoid localization. All
three crRNAs restored Csy1-sfCherry nucleoid localization in ΔCRISPR cells suggesting that the
Csy complex, once assembled, is intrinsically capable of binding the nucleoid independent of the
crRNA sequence (Fig. 2d). Together, these data indicate that nucleoid-localization of Csy1 and
Csy4 is not an intrinsic property of free protein, but occurs as a result of functional surveillance
complex formation, while the Cas3 nuclease is spread throughout the cell.

An Anti-CRISPR that blocks PAM binding specifically prevents nucleoid localization
Next, we wanted to determine the mechanism of nucleoid binding and understand whether the
surveillance complex binds to the nucleoid directly or through its interaction with other host
factors. The surveillance complex recognizes target DNA in two steps: (i) interaction with the 'GG'
PAM, which is mediated mostly by residues in Csy1 and (ii) base pairing between the crRNA with

target DNA, which is mediated by the spacer region of the crRNA (Chowdhury *et al.*, 2017; Guo
et al., 2017; Rollins *et al.*, 2019). Two Type I-F Acr proteins have been identified that distinguish
between these two binding mechanisms (Bondy-Denomy*et al.*, 2013; Bondy-Denomy *et al.*, 2015;
Maxwell *et al.*, 2016; Chowdhury *et al.*, 2017; Guo *et al.*, 2017). AcrIF1 binds to Csy3, blocking
crRNA-DNA target hybridization but does not occlude the PAM binding site, while AcrIF2 binds to
the Csy1-Csy2 heterodimer, and specifically competes with PAM binding in target DNA. AcrIF3
was also utilized, which binds to Cas3 nuclease and prevents target cleavage but does not have
any known effect on surveillance complex (Bondy-Denomy *et al.*, 2015; Wang *et al.*, 2016). Csy1-
sfCherry localization was monitored in NA-treated nucleoid compacted cells expressing one of
these three anti-CRISPRs, either from a plasmid (Fig. 3a) or from isogenic DMS3m prophages
(Borges *et al.*, 2018)(Fig. 3b) integrated in the reporter strain. Csy1-sfCherry localization to
nucleoid was not affected when AcrIF1 or AcrIF3 were expressed. However, in cells expressing
AcrIF2, nucleoid localization of Csy1-sfCherry is completely disrupted (Fig. 3a and 3b). Of note,
prophage containing cells were transformed with a plasmid expressing the C-repressor in order
to prevent possible excision during NA treatment. Finally, the expression of recently characterized
AcrIF11 (Marino *et al.*, 2018; Niu *et al.*, 2020), an enzyme that ADP-ribosylates Csy1 to prevent
PAM binding, also disrupted nucleoid localization (Fig. S3). Together, these results suggest that
PAM recognition is the dominant and direct factor that mediates Csy complex localization to
nucleoid.

Phage infection does not modulate Csy complex localization
As a defense system against phage, we next wanted to address the important question of whether
CRISPR-Cas distribution responds to phage infection. To enable visualization of infecting phage
particles, we propagated DMS3 (0 protospacers) and DMS3m (1 protospacer) in a strain that
expressed GpT, the major capsid protein, fused with mNeonGreen fluorescent protein. This
allowed us to obtain fluorescent mosaic phage particles that contain labelled as well as unlabeled
GpT protein. We verified that 100% of fluorescent phages packed viral DNA, as evidenced by
colocalization of mNeonGreen and DAPI stain (Fig. 4a). The subcellular localization of Csy1-
sfCherry and Cas3-sfCherry were assessed in the presence of labelled DMS3 (untargeted phage)
or DMS3m (targeted phage) after 15 minutes of infection. In both cases, the apparent diffuse
localization of Csy1-sfCherry was not affected at a gross level, when comparing cells with
fluorescent phage particles adjacent to the cell surface to those without (Fig. 4b and 4c). To check
whether presence of more protospacers would enable recruitment of Csy complex or Cas3, we
infected Csy1-sfCherry (in dCas3 background) and dCas3-sfCherry expressing cells with
unlabeled JBD18 under the same conditions (Fig. S4). Also, here we did not observe any change
in localization despite this being the same genotype where JBD18 prophage recognition was so
striking (Fig. 1d). These data suggest that phage infection, irrespective of presence or absence
of a target sequence, does not significantly modulate the distribution of the Csy complex or Cas3.
191

PAM-dependent nucleoid localization is conserved for Spy Cas9
Having observed that the multi-subunit type I-F Csy surveillance complex is nucleoid enriched,
we next wondered whether nucleoid localization is a conserved property of Class 2 CRISPR-Cas
single protein effectors. For this purpose, we chose Cas9 of *Streptococcus pyogenes* as a model
protein, which coincidentally uses the same PAM as the Csy complex. To test the localization of

SpyCas9, we used a plasmid that expressed a functional SpyCas9 fused with cherry (Mendoza
et al., 2020) in *P. aeruginosa* PA01 and monitored its localization in the presence and absence of
a crRNA in NA-treated nucleoid compacted cells. Interestingly, SpyCas9 was found to be diffuse
in its Apo form (i.e. lacking a crRNA) and nucleoid localized when complexed with a crRNA,
provided as a single guide RNA (Fig. 5). When we expressed AcrIIA4, an anti-CRISPR that
inhibits SpyCas9 by competing with the PAM-interacting domain (Dong *et al.*, 2017; Rauch *et al.*,
2017), nucleoid localization of guide RNA bound SpyCas9 was abolished (Fig. 5). These data,
taken together with previous reports (Jones *et al.*, 2017; Martens *et al.*, 2019; Vink *et al.*, 2020),
suggests that genome surveillance via PAM-dependent nucleoid localization appears to be a
conserved property of type I and type II CRISPR-Cas systems.
207
Discussion
In this study, we report on the cell biology and subcellular organization of the *P. aeruginosa* type
I-F system in its native host. We show that Csy1 and Csy4, which are used here as markers of
the Csy surveillance complex, are enriched in the nucleoid, consistent with studies of Type I-E
Cascade (Vink *et al.*, 2020), while the Cas3 nuclease-helicase is distributed in the cytoplasm
(schematically illustrated in Fig. 6). Nucleoid localization is not an intrinsic property of these
proteins when expressed alone or without crRNAs, but is rather mediated by the assembly of the
Csy surveillance complex. This is especially surprising regarding Csy1, as it and other Cas8 family
members have been shown to bind DNA non-specifically (Jore *et al.*, 2011; Sashital *et al.*, 2012;
Dillard *et al.*, 2018; Vink *et al.*, 2020). These observations indicate that the surveillance complex
spends most of its time scanning for a match, not in association with the Cas3 nuclease, perhaps
avoiding potential detrimental effects. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to
examine the *in vivo* subcellular organization of Cas3, a universally conserved nuclease in Type I
systems. Our observations reveal a new layer of post-translational spatiotemporal regulation in
CRISPR-Cas. However, at first glance, the subcellular organization of CRISPR-Cas seems like
an inferior approach compared to Type I R-M complexes which localize in the inner membrane
(Holubová *et al.*, 2000; Holubova *et al.*, 2004), likely minimizing host collateral damage and
maximizing phage detection. Given this, it remains to be seen whether Csy/Cascade/Cas9
surveillance of the genome is adaptive, as opposed to simply being a by-product of the basic PAM
surveillance mechanisms of CRISPR-Cas systems, "forcing" these systems to localize in the
genome.

Our observation of differential localization of the Csy complex and Cas3 might present a
regulatory strategy to prevent autoimmunity in type I systems, in a way that is not achievable for
Class 2 systems (e.g. Cas9 and Cas12). Type II-A Cas9 of *S. pyogenes*, which mediates target
recognition as well as cleavage as a single multidomain protein (Jiang and Doudna, 2017), is also
enriched in the nucleoid, only when bound to a crRNA. In contrast to the Cas3 nuclease,
localization of Cas9 in the nucleoid could pose autoimmunity risks. In fact, a recent study showed
that uncontrolled induction Cas9 in *S. pyogenes*, which occurs in the absence of a natural single
guide RNA, results in increased self-targeting and auto immunity (Workman *et al.*, 2020).
Anecdotally, we have also observed that activity of *Listeria monocytogenes* Cas9 is very low, at
least in laboratory conditions (Rauch *et al.*, 2017). It is possible that because of the single protein
mediating DNA-binding and cleavage, that the risks associated with Cas9-mediated toxicity could
explain the observed bias towards type I systems in nature.

Our efforts to pin down the target recognition step that mediates nucleoid localization of the Csy
complex as well as Cas9 were supported by experiments using Acr proteins, such as AcrIF2,
AcrIF11, and AcrIIA4, which specifically block PAM-binding, while AcrIF1 and AcrIF3 act
downstream. Perhaps most notably, the inability of AcrIF1 to prevent nucleoid localization,
together with observations that crRNA sequence is not important, suggests that PAM-binding is
important. Some base pairing in the seed region could contribute to binding strength (Cooper *et*
al., 2018), but we do not consider it necessary for nucleoid surveillance due to the abundance of
PAM sequences in the genome (*P. aeruginosa* PA14 has 1.2 x 10^6 5'-GG-3' PAM sites). In
contrast to our observation, Cascade-DNA interactions were suggested to be mediated by PAM-
dependent as well as PAM-independent interactions (Vink *et al.*, 2020) because a mutant Cas8
(Csy1 in Type I-F) that is incapable of recognizing PAM decreased, but not completely abolished,
its nucleoid localization. In our case, Csy1 nucleoid localization was not observed either in the
presence of AcrIF2 or in the absence of crRNA or when Csy1 was expressed alone. Given the
divergence of the Cas8 superfamily, it is possible that the mechanistic differences between type
I-E and type I-F systems exist.

Lastly, while phage infection has been implicated in upregulation of CRISPR-Cas enzymes in
some bacteria and archaea (Agari *et al.*, 2010; Young *et al.*, 2012; Quax *et al.*, 2013), we did not
observe significant upregulation or re-localization of the Csy complex or Cas3 during phage
infection. Intriguingly, JBD18 could promote clustering of Csy complex and Cas3 as a prophage
but not as an infecting phage. Notably, the fluorescent foci formed by dCas3 were quite discrete,
suggesting that most dCas3 molecules within the cell are recruited, an observation we found
surprising. Whether this truly reflects Cas3 recruitment events or is observed due to catalytic
inactivation is worth further investigation. One possible reason for the absence of any Csy/Cas3
re-localization during lytic infection could be the transient nature of the interaction, with a relatively
dynamic target like injected phage DNA (Shao *et al.*, 2015). Additionally, Csy complexes are
loaded with 35 distinct crRNAs, likely concealing relocation of a minority of molecules, despite
Csy and Cas3 re-localization being observable for a prophage. Dynamic relocation of molecules
near the inner membrane during infection may require investigation using more sensitive imaging
techniques including single molecule imaging and total internal reflection fluorescence (TIRF)
microscopy (Shashkova and Leake, 2017).

What is the physiological function of the nucleoid enriched CRISPR-Cas enzymes? Several
findings have suggested that CRISPR-Cas enzymes participate in cellular functions other than
immunity. These include DNA repair, gene regulation, sporulation, genome evolution and stress
response (Weiss and Sampson, 2014; Ratner *et al.*, 2015; Hille and Charpentier, 2016), however
there is no strong evidence for these functions with the Csy complex in *P. aeurginosa*. The
molecular basis for most of these alternative functions of Cas proteins are not well understood. A
recent study showing SpyCas9 can repress its own promoter using a natural single guide opens
the possibility that CRISPR-Cas systems can also function as intrinsic transcriptional regulators
(Workman *et al.*, 2020). It is therefore possible that crRNAs generated from degenerate self-
targeting spacers might direct CRISPR-Cas enzymes in regulating host genes. However, binding
of the *E. coli* cascade complex to hundreds of off-target sites does not affect gene expression
globally (Cooper *et al.*, 2018). Alternatively, it could be concluded that the intrinsic PAM-sensing
mechanism of DNA detection relegates Cascade, the Csy complex, and Cas9, to survey the

genome, even if that function is neither directly adaptive for cellular functions or defense. Given
that affirmative PAM recognition is important for function (and avoidance of CRISPR locus
targeting), as opposed to exclusion mechanisms (e.g. genome-wide methylation to prevent
restriction enzyme binding), host genome surveillance likely reflects this limitation. Future studies
examining these possibilities will provide important insights on the functions and evolutionary
limitations of CRISPR-Cas systems in bacteria.

Materials and methods

Plasmids, phages and growth media

Plasmids, and primer sequences used in this study are listed in Supplemental Tables 1-2. *P.*
aeruginosa UCBPP-PA14 (PA14) strains and *Escherichia coli* strains were grown on lysogeny
broth (LB) agar or liquid at 37 °C. To maintain the pHERD30T plasmid, the media was
supplemented with gentamicin (50 µg ml−1 for *P. aeruginosa* and 30 µg ml−1 for *E. coli*). Phage
stocks were prepared as described previously (Borges *et al.*, 2018). In brief, 3 ml SM buffer was
added to plate lysates of the desired purified phage and incubated at room temperature for 15
min. SM buffer containing phages was collected and 100 µl chloroform was added. This was
centrifuged at 10,000g for 5 min and supernatant containing phages was transferred to a storage
tube with a screw cap and incubated at 4 °C. Phages used in this study include DMS3, DMS3m,
and engineered DMS3m phage with Acrs (Borges *et al.*, 2018).

Construction of plasmids and strains

Plasmids expressing sfCherry alone, sfCherry tagged with Cas3 orCas9 were previously
reported(Mendoza *et al.*, 2020). Plasmids expressing Csy1–sfCherry and Csy4-sfCherry were
constructed by Gibson assembly in pHERD30T plasmid digested with SacI and PstI. These
fusions have ggaggcggtggagcc (G-G-G-G-A) linker sequence in between them. sCherry was
amplified from SF-pSFFV-sfCherryFL1M3_TagBFP (kindly provide by Bo Huang lab, UCSF).
csy1 and*csy4*sequences were amplified from PA14. Csy1 and Cas3 are tagged at the N-terminus
and Csy4 is tagged at the C-terminus.

Endogenous Csy1–sfCherry and Cas3–sfCherry reporters were previously described (Borges *et*
al., 2020). Csy4-sfCherry was constructed in a similar way. The sfCherry gene was inserted with
csy4 of PA14 via allelic replacement. The recombination vector pMQ30, which contained sfCherry
flanked by homology arms matching csy4 was introduced via conjugation. pMQ30–Csy4-
sfCherry, which contains the sfCherry sequence flanked by 123 bp upstream and downstream of
csy4 stop codon was cloned in the pMQ30 plasmid between HindIII and BamHI sites using Gibson
assembly.   Both pMQ30–Csy4-sfCherry contain theGGAGGCGGTGGAGCC sequence
(encoding GGGGA) as a linker between sfCherry and csy4. The pMQ30–Csy4-sfCherry construct
was introduced into PA14 strains of interest via allelic replacement to generate Csy4-sfCherry.
Strains containing the appropriate insertion were verified via PCR.

crRNAs suitable for type I-F system were expressed from I-F entry vectors pAB04.
Oligonucleotides with repeat-specific overhangs encoding the spacer sequences that does not
have sequence homology with PA14 genome are phosphorylated using T4 polynucleotide kinase

(PNK) and cloned into the entry vectors using the BbsI sites. Sequences of the spacers are listed
in supplementary table 3. crRNAs are expressed without addition of the inducer arabinose.

<u>Construction of PA14 lysogens.</u>

Lysogens were obtained by first spotting phage onto a bacterial lawn, then streaking out surviving
colonies from phage spots. These colonies were screened for phage resistance using a cross-
streak method and lysogeny was verified by prophage induction. For maintenance of DMS3m
engineered lysogens that expresses Acr proteins AcrIF1, AcrIF2, AcrIF3 during NA treatment, an
arabinose inducible plasmid expressing C-repressor of DMS3 was maintained.

<u>Live-cell imaging and image processing</u>

Fluorescence microscopy was carried out as described previously (Mendoza *et al.*, 2020). Unless
indicated, overnight cultures were diluted 1:10 in fresh LB medium and grown for 3 hours. For
compaction of nucleoid, Nalidixic acid (200 µg/ml) was added for 3 hours or chloramphenicol (200
µg/ml) was added for the last 20 minutes. 0.5 ml cells were centrifuged, washed with 1:10 LB
diluted with double-distilled water and finally resuspended in 200–500 µl of 1:10 LB. Cell
suspensions were placed on 0.85% 1:10 LB agarose pads with uncoated coverslips. For DNA
staining, DAPI (2µg/ml) was added to the cell suspension for 10 minutes and washed twice with
1:10 LB and finally resuspended. A Nikon Ti2-E inverted microscope equipped with the Perfect
Focus System (PFS) and a Photometrics Prime 95B 25-mm camera were used for live-cell
imaging. Time-lapse imaging was performed using Nikon Eclipse Ti2-E equipped with OKOLAB
cage incubator. Images were processed using NIS Elements AR software.

For measuring of single cell fluorescence, region of interest (ROI) were drawn over the phase
contrast images of endogenous sfCherry-tagged reporter strains using NIS Elements AR. After
subtracting the background, the sfCherry ROI mean intensity values were obtained. The data was
analyzed and presented as a scatterplot using GraphPad prism.

For fluorescence intensity maps, an intensity line was drawn over the phase contrast images
along the middle long cell axis. Fluorescence values of sfCherry and DAPI along the long axis
were extracted. The data was analyzed and presented as a line plot using GraphPad prism.

Supplementary Table - 1

Plasmid name	Information	Reference
pSG30T-sfCherry-csy1(IF)	pHERD30T with Csy1-sfCherry	This study
pSG30T-csy4-sfCherry (IF)	pHERD30T with Csy4-sfCherry	This study
pMQ30-csy4-sfCherry		This study
pSG30T-GpT-mNeonGreen	pHERD30T with capsid GpT-mNeonGreen	This study
pHerd30T-C-rep	pHERD30T with DMS3 C-repressor protein	(Borges *et al.*, 2018)
pAB014	I-F entry vectors	(Mendoza *et al.*, 2019)
pHerd30T-AcrIF1	Expresses AcrIF1	(Bondy-Denomy *et al.*, 2013)
pHerd30T-AcrIF2	Expresses AcrIF2	(Bondy-Denomy *et al.*, 2013)
pHerd30T-AcrIF3	Expresses AcrIF3	(Bondy-Denomy *et al.*, 2013)
pESN28	Expresses cherry-Cas9	(Mendoza *et al.*, 2020)

354 **Supplementary Table - 2**

Plasmid	Primer name	Sequence
pSG30T-sfCherry-csy1(IF)	F-30T-sfCh_P29	tacccatgggatctgataagaattcgagctATGGAGGAGGACAACATGGCC
	R-csy1-link-sfCh(TAA-)_P30	GTAGGCGTTGGGAGGGGAGAGGTggctccaccgcctccGCCGCCGGTGCTGTGTCTGGC
	F-link-csy1 (ATG-)_P31	ggaggcggtggagccACCTCTCCCCTCCCAACGCCTAC
	R-30T-csy1_P32	gacggccagtgccaagcttgcatgcctgcaTCAGTCACGCTCATCTTCGAG
pSG30T-csy4-sfCherry (IF)	F-30T-csy4(TAA-)2_P35	tacccatgggatctgataagaattcgagctATGGACCACTACCTCGACATTC
	R-sfCh-link-csy4_P36	GATGGCCATGTTGTCCTCCTCggctccaccgcctccGAACCAGGGAACGAAACCTC
	F-link-sfCh (ATG-)_P37	ggaggcggtggagccGAGGAGGACAACATGGCCATC
	R-30T-sfCh2_P38	gacggccagtgccaagcttgcatgcctgcaTTAGCCGCCGGTGCTGTGTC
pMQ30-csy4-sfCherry	F-pMQ+csy4-orf-(short)	cacgacgttgtaaaacgacggccagtgccaCGCAGCCAGAGCACCGGACAGC
	R-sfCherry_P52	TTAGCCGCCGGTGCTGTGTCTG
	F-Ch-csy4(down)_P53	CAGACACAGCACCGGCGGCTAAAGAACCCCGTCAGCGCCTTATC
	R-pMQ+csy4 down(SHORT)	atgattacgaattcgagctcggtacccgggCGGCCAGCAGCCCTGAAGTATC

pSG30T-GpT-mNeonGreen	F-30T-gpT_P60	tacccatgggatctgataagaattcgagctATGGCCATCATTACTCCGGC
	R-mNeon-link-gpT_P62	ATCCTCCTCGCCCTTGCTCACggctccaccgcctccGTTGAGCCAGGCGGTATCGAG
	F-link-mNeon (ATG-)_P63	ggaggcggtggagccGTGAGCAAGGGCGAGGAGGAT
	R-30T-mNeon_P64	gacggccagtgccaagcttgcatgcctgcaTTACTTGTACAGCTCGTCCATGC

356 **Supplementary Table - 3**

Name	Sequence
crRNA 1	CCGTCGCCCTCCTAGGCATCTTCTTCTCGGGGCT
crRNA 2	AACCCCAGATACTGACACCGCGGTTCGAGATTGG
crRNA 3	GTGCGGCTCGATCAGGGATCGCAGCTTGTCCAGG

Conflict of interest

Acknowledgements

We thank members of the Bondy-Denomy lab for helpful discussions. S.G appreciate helpful
discussion and support with Shweta Karambelkar and Bálint Csörgő. This project in the Bondy-
Denomy lab was supported by the UCSF Program for Breakthrough Biomedical Research funded
in part by the Sandler Foundation and an NIH Director's Early Independence Award DP5-
OD021344.

References

Agari, Y., Sakamoto, K., Tamakoshi, M., Oshima, T., Kuramitsu, S., and Shinkai, A. (2010)
Transcription profile of Thermus thermophilus CRISPR systems after phage infection. *J Mol Biol*
395: 270–281.

Ahator, S. Dela, Wang, J., and Zhang, L. (2020) The ECF sigma factor PvdS regulates the type
IF CRISPR-Cas system in Pseudomonas aeruginosa. *bioRxiv* .

Bondy-Denomy, J., Garcia, B., Strum, S., Du, M., Rollins, M.F., Hidalgo-Reyes, Y., *et al.* (2015)
Multiple mechanisms for CRISPR–Cas inhibition by anti-CRISPR proteins. *Nature* **526**: 136–
139.

Bondy-Denomy, J., Pawluk, A., Maxwell, K.L., and Davidson, A.R. (2013) Bacteriophage genes
that inactivate the CRISPR/Cas bacterial immune system. *Nature* **493**: 429–432.

Borges, A.L., Castro, B., Govindarajan, S., Solvik, T., Escalante, V., and Bondy-Denomy, J.
(2020) Bacterial alginate regulators and phage homologs repress CRISPR–Cas immunity. *Nat*
Microbiol 1–9.

Borges, A.L., Zhang, J.Y., Rollins, M.F., Osuna, B.A., Wiedenheft, B., and Bondy-Denomy, J.
(2018) Bacteriophage cooperation suppresses CRISPR-Cas3 and Cas9 immunity. *Cell* **174**:
917–925.

Cady, K.C., Bondy-Denomy, J., Heussler, G.E., Davidson, A.R., and O'Toole, G.A. (2012) The
CRISPR/Cas adaptive immune system of Pseudomonas aeruginosa mediates resistance to
naturally occurring and engineered phages. *J Bacteriol* **194**: 5728–5738.

Chowdhury, S., Carter, J., Rollins, M.F., Golden, S.M., Jackson, R.N., Hoffmann, C., *et al.*
(2017) Structure reveals mechanisms of viral suppressors that intercept a CRISPR RNA-guided
surveillance complex. *Cell* **169**: 47–57.

Cooper, L. A., Stringer, A. M., & Wade, J. T. (2018). Determining the specificity of cascade
binding, interference, and primed adaptation in vivo in the Escherichia coli type IE CRISPR-Cas
system. MBio, **9**(2).

Dillard, K.E., Brown, M.W., Johnson, N. V, Xiao, Y., Dolan, A., Hernandez, E., *et al.* (2018)
Assembly and translocation of a CRISPR-Cas primed acquisition complex. *Cell* **175**: 934–946.

Elf, J., Li, G.-W., and Xie, X.S. (2007) Probing transcription factor dynamics at the single-
molecule level in a living cell. *Science (80-)* **316**: 1191–1194.

Dong, D., Guo, M., Wang, S., Zhu, Y., Wang, S., Xiong, Z., *et al.* (2017) Structural basis of
CRISPR–SpyCas9 inhibition by an anti-CRISPR protein. *Nature* **546**: 436–439.

Govindarajan, S., Elisha, Y., Nevo-Dinur, K., and Amster-Choder, O. (2013) The general
phosphotransferase system proteins localize to sites of strong negative curvature in bacterial
cells. *MBio* **4**.

Guo, T.W., Bartesaghi, A., Yang, H., Falconieri, V., Rao, P., Merk, A., *et al.* (2017) Cryo-EM
structures reveal mechanism and inhibition of DNA targeting by a CRISPR-Cas surveillance
complex. *Cell* **171**: 414–426.

Helvoort, J.M. Van, Kool, J., and Woldringh, C.L. (1996) Chloramphenicol causes fusion of
separated nucleoids in Escherichia coli K-12 cells and filaments. *J Bacteriol* **178**: 4289–4293.

Hershko-Shalev, T., Odenheimer-Bergman, A., Elgrably-Weiss, M., Ben-Zvi, T., Govindarajan,
S., Seri, H., *et al.* (2016) Gifsy-1 Prophage IsrK with Dual Function as Small and Messenger
RNA Modulates Vital Bacterial Machineries. *PLoS Genet* **12**.

Hille, F., and Charpentier, E. (2016) CRISPR-Cas: biology, mechanisms and relevance. *Philos*
Trans R Soc B Biol Sci **371**: 20150496.

Holubova, I., Vejsadová, Š., Firman, K., and Weiserova, M. (2004) Cellular localization of type I
restriction–modification enzymes is family dependent. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **319**:
375–380.

Holubová, I., Vejsadová, Š., Weiserová, M., and Firman, K. (2000) Localization of the Type I
restriction–modification enzyme EcoKI in the bacterial cell. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **270**:
46–51.

Høyland-Kroghsbo, N.M., Paczkowski, J., Mukherjee, S., Broniewski, J., Westra, E., Bondy-
Denomy, J., and Bassler, B.L. (2017) Quorum sensing controls the Pseudomonas aeruginosa
CRISPR-Cas adaptive immune system. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* **114**: 131–135.

Jiang, F., and Doudna, J.A. (2017) CRISPR–Cas9 structures and mechanisms. *Annu Rev*
Biophys **46**: 505–529.

Jones, D.L., Leroy, P., Unoson, C., Fange, D., Ćurić, V., Lawson, M.J., and Elf, J. (2017)
Kinetics of dCas9 target search in Escherichia coli. *Science (80-)* **357**: 1420–1424.

Jore, M.M., Lundgren, M., Duijn, E. Van, Bultema, J.B., Westra, E.R., Waghmare, S.P., *et al.*
(2011) Structural basis for CRISPR RNA-guided DNA recognition by Cascade. *Nat Struct Mol*
Biol **18**: 529.

Landsberger, M., Gandon, S., Meaden, S., Rollie, C., Chevallereau, A., Chabas, H., *et al.*
(2018) Anti-CRISPR phages cooperate to overcome CRISPR-Cas immunity. *Cell* **174**: 908–916.

Lin, P., Pu, Q., Shen, G., Li, R., Guo, K., Zhou, C., *et al.* (2019a) CdpR Inhibits CRISPR-cas
adaptive immunity to lower anti-viral defense while avoiding self-reactivity. *iScience* **13**: 55–68.

Lin, P., Pu, Q., Wu, Q., Zhou, C., Wang, B., Schettler, J., *et al.* (2019b) High-throughput screen
reveals sRNAs regulating crRNA biogenesis by targeting CRISPR leader to repress Rho
termination. *Nat Commun* **10**: 1–12.

Makarova, K.S., Wolf, Y.I., Iranzo, J., Shmakov, S.A., Alkhnbashi, O.S., Brouns, S.J.J., *et al.*
(2019) Evolutionary classification of CRISPR–Cas systems: a burst of class 2 and derived
variants. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 1–17.

Marino, N.D., Zhang, J.Y., Borges, A.L., Sousa, A.A., Leon, L.M., Rauch, B.J., *et al.* (2018)
Discovery of widespread type I and type V CRISPR-Cas inhibitors. *Science (80-)* **362**: 240–
242.

Marraffini, L.A. (2015) CRISPR-Cas immunity in prokaryotes. *Nature* **526**: 55–61.

Martens, K.J.A., Beljouw, S.P.B. van, Els, S. van der, Vink, J.N.A., Baas, S., Vogelaar, G.A., *et*
al. (2019) Visualisation of dCas9 target search in vivo using an open-microscopy framework.
Nat Commun **10**: 1–11.

Maxwell, K.L., Garcia, B., Bondy-Denomy, J., Bona, D., Hidalgo-Reyes, Y., and Davidson, A.R.
(2016) The solution structure of an anti-CRISPR protein. *Nat Commun* **7**: 1–5.

Mendoza, S.D., Nieweglowska, E.S., Govindarajan, S., Leon, L.M., Berry, J.D., Tiwari, A., *et al.*

(2019) A bacteriophage nucleus-like compartment shields DNA from CRISPR nucleases.
Nature 1–5.

Mendoza, S.D., Nieweglowska, E.S., Govindarajan, S., Leon, L.M., Berry, J.D., Tiwari, A., *et al.*
(2020) A bacteriophage nucleus-like compartment shields DNA from CRISPR nucleases.
Nature **577**: 244–248.

Niu, Y., Yang, L., Gao, T., Dong, C., Zhang, B., Yin, P., *et al.* (2020) A Type IF Anti-CRISPR
Protein Inhibits the CRISPR-Cas Surveillance Complex by ADP-Ribosylation. *Mol Cell* .

Oost, J. Van Der, Westra, E.R., Jackson, R.N., and Wiedenheft, B. (2014) Unravelling the
structural and mechanistic basis of CRISPR–Cas systems. *Nat Rev Microbiol* **12**: 479–492.

Quax, T.E.F., Voet, M., Sismeiro, O., Dillies, M.-A., Jagla, B., Coppée, J.-Y., *et al.* (2013)
Massive activation of archaeal defense genes during viral infection. *J Virol* **87**: 8419–8428.

Ratner, H.K., Sampson, T.R., and Weiss, D.S. (2015) I can see CRISPR now, even when
phage are gone: a view on alternative CRISPR-Cas functions from the prokaryotic envelope.
Curr Opin Infect Dis **28**: 267.

Rauch, B.J., Silvis, M.R., Hultquist, J.F., Waters, C.S., McGregor, M.J., Krogan, N.J., and
Bondy-Denomy, J. (2017) Inhibition of CRISPR-Cas9 with bacteriophage proteins. *Cell* **168**:
150–158.

Redding, S., Sternberg, S.H., Marshall, M., Gibb, B., Bhat, P., Guegler, C.K., *et al.* (2015)
Surveillance and processing of foreign DNA by the Escherichia coli CRISPR-Cas system. *Cell*
163: 854–865.

Rollins, M.F., Chowdhury, S., Carter, J., Golden, S.M., Miettinen, H.M., Santiago-Frangos, A., *et*
al. (2019) Structure reveals a mechanism of CRISPR-RNA-guided nuclease recruitment and
anti-CRISPR viral mimicry. *Mol Cell* **74**: 132–142.

Rollins, M.F., Chowdhury, S., Carter, J., Golden, S.M., Wilkinson, R.A., Bondy-Denomy, J., *et*
al. (2017) Cas1 and the Csy complex are opposing regulators of Cas2/3 nuclease activity. *Proc*
Natl Acad Sci **114**: E5113–E5121.

Sashital, D.G., Wiedenheft, B., and Doudna, J.A. (2012) Mechanism of foreign DNA selection in
a bacterial adaptive immune system. *Mol Cell* **46**: 606–615.

Shao, Q., Hawkins, A., and Zeng, L. (2015) Phage DNA dynamics in cells with different fates.
Biophys J **108**: 2048–2060.

Shashkova, S., and Leake, M.C. (2017) Single-molecule fluorescence microscopy review:
shedding new light on old problems. *Biosci Rep* **37**: BSR20170031.

Vink, J.N.A., Martens, K.J.A., Vlot, M., McKenzie, R.E., Almendros, C., Bonilla, B.E., *et al.*
(2020) Direct visualization of native CRISPR target search in live bacteria reveals Cascade DNA
surveillance mechanism. *Mol Cell* **77**: 39–50.

Wang, X., Yao, D., Xu, J.-G., Li, A.-R., Xu, J., Fu, P., *et al.* (2016) Structural basis of Cas3
inhibition by the bacteriophage protein AcrF3. *Nat Struct Mol Biol* **23**: 868–870.

Weiss, D., and Sampson, T. (2014) CRISPR-Cas systems: new players in gene regulation and
bacterial physiology. *Front Cell Infect Microbiol* **4**: 37.

Wiedenheft, B., Duijn, E. van, Bultema, J.B., Waghmare, S.P., Zhou, K., Barendregt, A., *et al.*
(2011) RNA-guided complex from a bacterial immune system enhances target recognition

through seed sequence interactions. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* **108**: 10092–10097.

Workman, R.E., Pammi, T., Nguyen, B.T.K., Graeff, L.W., Smith, E., Sebald, S.M., *et al.* (2020)
A natural single-guide RNA repurposes Cas9 to autoregulate CRISPR-Cas expression. *bioRxiv*
.

Xue, C., Zhu, Y., Zhang, X., Shin, Y.-K., and Sashital, D.G. (2017) Real-time observation of
target search by the CRISPR surveillance complex Cascade. *Cell Rep* **21**: 3717–3727.

Young, J.C., Dill, B.D., Pan, C., Hettich, R.L., Banfield, J.F., Shah, M., *et al.* (2012) Phage-
induced expression of CRISPR-associated proteins is revealed by shotgun proteomics in
Streptococcus thermophilus. *PLoS One* **7**.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Live-cell fluorescence imaging of *P. aeruginosa* PA14 expressing type I-F Cas protein reporters from endogenous locus

(a) Fluorescence microscopy of wild-type PA14 expressing Csy1-sfCherry, Csy4-sfCherry, or Cas3-sfCherry. (b) Comparison of fluorescence in cells expressing Csy1-sfCherry, Csy4-sfCherry, or Cas3-sfCherry at low cell density (OD_{600} = 0.2 - 0.3) or high cell density (OD_{600} = 1 - 1.5). (c) sfCherry fluorescence (AU) in wild-type cells grown to high cell density expressing sfCherry-tagged Csy1, Csy4, or Cas3. More than 200 cells from each genotype were analyzed from two independent experiments. Means and standard deviations are shown. The statistical significance was calculated using unpaired t-test analysis (*** $p < 0.0001$). (d) Fluorescence microscopy of PA14 expressing Csy1-sfCherry (in dCas3 background) or dCas3-sfCherry with a JBD18 prophage. sfCherry fluorescence shown in raw as well as deconvolved images. Scale bar, 1 µm.

Figure 2. Csy complex is nucleoid-enriched in a crRNA-dependent manner while Cas3 is cytoplasmic

(a) A model for DNA damage induced nucleoid compaction. (b) Fluorescence microscopy of nucleoid compacted wild-type or ΔcrRNA cells expressing Csy1-sfCherry or Csy4-sfCherry and nucleoid compacted wild-type cells expressing Cas3-sfCherry. Fluorescence intensity map plotted against the long cell axis are shown. * indicates which cell is plotted in the map. (c) Fluorescence microscopy of nucleoid compacted ΔCas-crRNA cells expressing Csy1-sfCherry or Csy4-sfCherry from a plasmid. (d) Fluorescence microscopy of nucleoid compacted ΔcrRNA cells expressing Csy1-sfCherry and synthetic crRNAs. Scale bars, 1 µm.

Figure 3. AcrIF2 but not AcrIF1 or AcrIF3 blocks nucleoid localization of the Csy complex

Fluorescence microscopy of nucleoid compacted wild-type cells producing Csy1-sfCherry and expressing anti-CRISPR proteins AcrIF1, AcrIF2 or AcrIF3 from (a) a plasmid or (b) a prophage.

Figure 4. Phage infection does not affect Csy localization

(a) Fluorescence microscopy images of DMS3 phages with capsid labelled with GpT-mNeonGreen and DNA labelled with DAPI. Fluorescence microscopy of Csy1-sfCherry producing cells (in dCas3 background) infected with labelled phages (b) DMS3 (0 protospacers) or (c) or DMS3m (1 protospacer). Scale bar, 1 µm.

Figure 5. Nucleoid localization is conserved for SpyCas9

Fluorescence microscopy of nucleoid compacted *P. aeruginosa* PA01 cells producing Cas9-sgRNA, ApoCas9, or Cas9-sgRNA co-expressed with anti-CRISPR protein AcrIIA4. Fluorescence intensity map plotted against the long cell axis are shown. Scale bar, 1 µm.

Figure 6. A model for subcellular organization of Type I and Type II CRISPR-Cas systems in bacteria

The subcellular localization of CRISPR-Cas systems are presented for Type I (left panel) and Type II (right panel) systems.

Figure S1. sfCherry-tagged endogenous type I-F reporters are functional
A spot titration of DMS3, DMS3m and DMS3m engineered phages that expresses Acr proteins
AcrIF1, AcrIF2, AcrIF3 or AcrIF4 on sfCherry-tagged, WT PA14, and crRNA deletion strains.

Fig. S2. Nucleoid enrichment of Csy complex is not due to DNA damage
Fluorescence microscopy of wild-type cells expressing Csy1-sfCherry, Csy4-sfCherry or Cas3-
sfCherry in chloramphenicol-treated nucleoid compacted cells.

Fig. S3. AcrIF11 blocks nucleoid localization of the Csy complex
Fluorescence microscopy of nucleoid compacted wild-type cells producing Csy1-sfCherry and
expressing anti-CRISPR proteins AcrIF11 from a plasmid.

Fig. S4. Phage infection does not modulate Csy1 localization
Fluorescence microscopy Csy1-sfCherry (in dCas3 background) or dCas3-sfCherry expressing
cells infected with JBD18.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

a

GpT-mNG | DAPI | Merge | Overlay

b

Untargeted infection

Phase | Csy1-sfCherry | DMS3 | Merge | Overlay

c

Targeted infection

Phase | Csy1-sfCherry | DMS3m | Merge | Overlay

Figure 5

a

Figure 6

Type I CRISPR-Cas

Apo Csy proteins

Csy complex RNP

Csy complex RNP with target

Apo Csy proteins   Cas3   Csy complex   Csy complex + Cas3

Type II CRISPR-Cas

Apo Cas9

Cas9 RNP

Apo Cas9   Cas9 RNP

Figure S1

PA14::Csy1-sfCherry   PA14::Csy4-sfCherry   PA14::Cas3-sfCherry

DMS3
DMS3m
DMS3mF1
DMS3mF2
DMS3mF3
DMS3mF4

PA14   ΔcrRNA

DMS3
DMS3m
DMS3mF1
DMS3mF2
DMS3mF3
DMS3mF4

Figure S2

Figure S3

AcrIF11 expressed from plasmid

| Phase | Csy1-sfCherry | DAPI | Merge |

Figure S4