CTP and *parS* coordinate ParB partition complex dynamics and ParA-ATPase

activation for ParABS-mediated DNA partitioning

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Abstract

ParABS partition systems, comprising the centromere-like DNA sequence *parS,* the *parS*-binding

ParB-CTPase and the nucleoid-binding ParA-ATPase, ensure faithful segregation of bacterial

chromosomes and low-copy-number plasmids. F-plasmid partition complexes containing $ParB_F$

and *parS_F* move by generating and following a local concentration gradient of nucleoid-bound

$ParA_F$. However, the process through which $ParB_F$ activates $ParA_F$-ATPase has not been defined.

We studied CTP- and *parS_F*-modulated $ParA_F$—$ParB_F$ complex assembly, in which DNA-bound

$ParA_F$-ATP dimers are activated for ATP hydrolysis by interacting with two $ParB_F$ N-terminal

domains. CTP or *parS_F* enhances the ATPase rate without significantly accelerating $ParA_F$—$ParB_F$

complex assembly. Together, *parS_F* and CTP accelerate $ParA_F$—$ParB_F$ assembly without further

significant increase in ATPase rate. Magnetic-tweezers experiments showed that CTP promotes

multiple $ParB_F$ loading onto *parS_F*-containing DNA, generating condensed partition complex-like

assemblies. We propose that $ParB_F$ in the partition complex adopts a conformation that enhances

$ParB_F$—$ParB_F$ and $ParA_F$—$ParB_F$ interactions promoting efficient partitioning.

Introduction

Faithful segregation of replicated chromosomes is essential for efficient proliferation of cells. Accordingly, many bacteria are equipped with active chromosome and plasmid partition systems belonging to the ParABS family (Baxter and Funnell, 2014; Lutkenhaus, 2012; Vecchiarelli et al., 2012). Basic ParABS systems comprise two proteins, ParA and ParB, and a centromere-like, cis-acting DNA element called *parS*. The ParA proteins of this family are ATPases with a characteristic deviant Walker-A motif (Motallebi-Veshareh et al., 1990) and bind non-specific DNA (nsDNA) in an ATP-dependent manner by forming a DNA binding-competent dimer (Davey and Funnell, 1994; Leonard et al., 2005; Vecchiarelli et al., 2010). Accordingly, ParA proteins localize to the bacterial chromosome (the nucleoid) *in vivo* (Ebersbach and Gerdes, 2004; Hatano et al., 2007; Lim et al., 2014).

ParB is typically a dimeric sequence-specific DNA binding protein that binds tightly to the *parS* consensus sequences that mark the DNA cargo to be partitioned (Bouet et al., 2000; Mori et al., 1989; Pillet et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2015). Most ParABS systems have multiple copies of a ParB dimer binding consensus sequence that collectively constitute a *parS* site. F-plasmid has a *parS* sequence cluster (*parS_F*, also called *sopC*) composed of twelve repeats of a 16 bp consensus sequence, each separated by 27 base-pair spacer sequences (Helsberg and Eichenlaub, 1986). The ParBs of known chromosomal and plasmid Par systems such as P1 and F bind to *parS via* a helix-turn-helix motif (Schumacher and Funnell, 2005; Schumacher et al., 2010). These HTH-ParB proteins also associate with several kilobases of DNA surrounding a *parS* site *in vivo* in a proximity-dependent manner without obvious sequence specificity (Breier and Grossman, 2007;

Murray et al., 2006; Rodionov et al., 1999; Sanchez et al., 2015). This activity, known as ParB

spreading, is believed to be essential for proper function of these systems (Breier and Grossman,

2007; Graham et al., 2014) and results in the formation of a large nucleo-protein complex (the

partition complex) around the *parS* site on the DNA to be partitioned. Mutations in the *B. subtilis*

parB gene blocking spreading and causing partition deficiency have been identified within the Box

II region (GXRR) of the N-terminal domain (Breier and Grossman, 2007; Graham et al., 2014), a

highly conserved motif among HTH-ParB homologues (Yamaichi and Niki, 2000). Recently,

several groups reported that HTH-ParB proteins have CTPase activity and the Box II residues play

key roles in CTP binding and hydrolysis, suggesting that ParB spreading is driven by an active

process dependent on energy derived from CTP hydrolysis (Jalal et al., 2020; Osorio-Valeriano et

al., 2019; Soh et al., 2019).

ParB interacts with ParA *via* its N-terminal region (Ravin et al., 2003) and activates nsDNA-bound

ParA dimer's ATPase, releasing it from DNA (Ah-Seng et al., 2009; Davis et al., 1992; Scholefield

et al., 2011; Watanabe et al., 1992). In the absence of ParB stimulation, the ATP turnover of ParA

is low, typically around one ATP per hour (Ah-Seng et al., 2009; Davis et al., 1992; Fung et al.,

2001; Scholefield et al., 2011). Because of this slow basal ATPase rate, and since the majority of

cellular ParB molecules is concentrated at the partition complexes due to ParB spreading, ATP

hydrolysis by ParA and dissociation from the nucleoid is expected to occur principally in the

vicinity of partition complexes. Biochemical studies of P1 ParA ATPase showed a significant

time-delay before activation of ParA for DNA binding after ATP binding, predicting a significant

free bulk-diffusion period for ParA before reactivation for nsDNA binding (Vecchiarelli et al.,

2010). This, along with *in vivo* imaging observations (Hatano et al., 2007; Ringgaard et al., 2009),

led to a prediction that the nucleoid proximal to a partition complex would become depleted of

ParA (the ParA depletion zone) and the proposal of a diffusion-ratchet model for plasmid

segregation by the ParABS system (Vecchiarelli et al., 2010).

The diffusion-ratchet model is based on the premise that the nucleoid-bound ParA-ATPase

activation by plasmid-bound ParB generates a local ParA depletion zone on the nucleoid, forming

a nucleoid-bound ParA concentration gradient around the partition complex (Hu et al., 2017;

Vecchiarelli et al., 2010). The interaction of plasmid-bound ParB with the ParA gradient on the

nucleoid results in a cargo position-dependent free-energy difference (Sugawara and Kaneko,

2011). Binding of ParB to ParA reduces the system free-energy, therefore moving the cargo to a

higher ParA concentration lowers the system free-energy. This cargo position-dependent free-

energy difference translates to a directional motive force on the ParB bound cargo. The generation

of sufficient cargo motive force to overcome thermal diffusion was demonstrated in cell-free

reconstitution experiments showing that a bead coated with $parS_F$-containing DNA is driven across

an nsDNA-coated flow cell surface in the presence of $ParA_F$, $ParB_F$ and ATP (Vecchiarelli et al.,

2014). In some *in vivo* time-lapse imaging experiments ParA has been observed to undergo pole-

to-pole oscillations along the length of a nucleoid with a partition complex chasing the receding

edge of a ParA distribution zone on the nucleoid, further supporting the diffusion-ratchet model

(Hatano et al., 2007; Ringgaard et al., 2009). Variations of this model have also been proposed (Le

Gall et al., 2016; Lim et al., 2014; McLeod et al., 2017).

Generating persistent directional motion by the diffusion-ratchet model requires a balance between

the ParA—ParB association/dissociation dynamics prior to ATP hydrolysis and the steps and

kinetic parameters that govern ATP hydrolysis. For example, if every ParA—ParB association

resulted in instantaneous ATP hydrolysis and dissolution of the ParA—ParB bonds linking the

partition complex (cargo) and the nucleoid, no cargo driving force would result. Conversely, if

each bond persisted too long the cargo would remain immobile on the nucleoid (Hu et al., 2017).

However, the detailed biochemical reaction steps leading to ParB activation of DNA-bound ParA-

ATPase and the subsequent release of ParA have not been determined.

In order to advance our quantitative understanding of the ParABS system mechanism, we

investigated the assembly and disassembly kinetics of $ParA_F$—$ParB_F$ complexes that form prior to

ATP hydrolysis using F-plasmid $ParA_FB_FS_F$ (also called SopA/B/C) as a model system. Employing

a TIRF microscopy-based nsDNA-carpet assay (Vecchiarelli et al., 2013) we first examined the

stoichiometry of the nsDNA-bound $ParA_F$—$ParB_F$ complexes that accumulate in the absence of

ATP hydrolysis. We investigated impacts of different $ParB_F$-cofactors ($parS_F$ and CTP) or $ParB_F$

mutations that hinder $ParB_F$ dimerization, $parS_F$-binding, CTPase activity, or $ParA_F$ ATPase

activation. We then studied how the same set of cofactors or $ParB_F$ mutations influenced $ParA_F$-

ATPase activation by $ParB_F$. Our results showed that $ParB_F$ formed complexes with nsDNA-bound

$ParA_F$ in which both $ParB_F$-interacting faces of the $ParA_F$ dimers were occupied by the N-terminal

$ParA_F$-activation domain of $ParB_F$. All such complexes observed in the presence of ATPγS

exhibited similar, slow dissociation kinetics from nsDNA compared to $ParA_F$ dimers in the absence

of $ParB_F$ so long as both $ParB_F$-interacting faces of the $ParA_F$ dimers were occupied by $ParB_F$ N-

terminal domains. Binding of $ParB_F$ N-terminal domains at both $ParB_F$-interaction faces is also

necessary for efficient ATPase activation of nsDNA-bound $ParA_F$ dimers. Strikingly, the $ParB_F$

cofactors, CTP and $parS_F$, acted synergistically to accelerate the assembly of pre-ATP hydrolysis

$ParB_F$—$ParA_F$ complexes on nsDNA. In addition, a magnetic tweezers-based DNA condensation

assay revealed that stable DNA condensation by $ParB_F$ required both CTP and $parS_F$. These

observations suggested that CTP and $parS_F$ promote both $ParA_F$—$ParB_F$ and $ParB_F$—$ParB_F$

interactions. The compaction of $parS_F$-containing DNA by $ParB_F$ in the presence of CTP

recapitulated the salient features of the condensed ParB spreading partition complex observed *in*

vivo, suggesting that $ParB_F$ in the presence of $parS_F$ and CTP closely reflects the functional state

of $ParB_F$ in the partition complexes *in vivo*. Interestingly, $ParB_F$ in these conditions accelerated

ATP turnover by the nsDNA-bound $ParA_F$ no more than two-fold compared to $ParB_F$ without $parS_F$

and CTP, to a modest $\sim$80 h^{-1}. These findings have important implications for the diffusion-ratchet

model of F-plasmid partition by the ParAB*S* system.

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Results

Here, we investigated the ParA—ParB interactions that lead to accelerated ATP hydrolysis by

ParA and how they are impacted by $parS_F$ and CTP. First, we addressed the nature of nsDNA-

bound $ParA_F$—$ParB_F$ complexes. In the presence of ATP, $ParA_F$ forms DNA binding-competent

dimers and binds the nsDNA-carpet without $ParB_F$. Upon forming a complex with $ParB_F$, $ParA_F$

becomes activated for ATP hydrolysis and the complex rapidly disassembles (Vecchiarelli et al.,

2013), impeding characterization of the complex. Therefore, we studied DNA-bound $ParA_F$—

$ParB_F$ complexes that accumulate prior to ATP hydrolysis by using non-hydrolysable ATPγS.

$ParA_F$ is not expected to form DNA binding competent dimers efficiently in the presence of ATPγS

based on the study of the closely related $ParA_{P1}$ ATPase (Vecchiarelli et al., 2010). However, we

found $ParB_F$ promotes conversion of $ParA_F$ to a DNA binding competent state in the presence of

ATPγS (see below). Hence in this study, we infused ParA$_F$-eGFP and ParB$_F$-Alexa647, or other

fluorescent-labeled ParB$_F$ variants, preincubated at room temperature for 10 min with ATPγS into

an nsDNA-carpeted flow cell and quantified the densities of the two DNA-associated proteins by

imaging the flow cell surface with TIRF microscopy (Figure 1). ParA$_F$ alone at the concentration

used here (1 μM, all protein concentrations are expressed as monomer concentrations) does not

efficiently bind DNA in the presence of ATPγS as expected, and only low-level steady state

density (less than ~ 200 monomers per μm²) of ParA$_F$-eGFP was detected on the DNA-carpet

(Figure 2A, B). The observed DNA dissociation rate constant of ParA$_F$-ATPγS (~6 min^{-1}) is similar

to that of ParA$_F$-ATP estimated by FRAP, or by washing the flow-cell with nsDNA-containing

buffer (~4.5 – 6 min^{-1}, Vecchiarelli, 2013). ParB$_F$-Alexa647 (2 μM) did not bind the DNA-carpet

to a significant level in the 300 mM K-glutamate buffer used in this experiment.

The N-terminus of ParB$_F$ alone enhances DNA binding activity of ParA$_F$.

We first examined if the N-terminal ParA$_F$-activation domain of ParB$_F$ (ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$) alone can induce

the ParA$_F$ conformational changes necessary for DNA binding in the presence of ATPγS. The

activation domain includes Arginine 36, which is critical for activation of ParA$_F$ ATPase (Ah-Seng

et al., 2009; Leonard et al., 2005), but lacks the CTPase- (AA63-155), *parS$_F$*-binding- (AA160-

272), and dimerization- (AA276-323) domains. For these experiments we used ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$ fused to

the N-terminus of mCherry (ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$-mCherry). This protein is a monomer in solution as judged

by its elution profile on a gel filtration column (Figure 2—figure supplement 1). ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$-mCherry

(10 μM) and ParA$_F$-eGFP (1 μM) bound the DNA-carpet together in the presence of ATPγS to a

density of ~5000 monomers/μm² maintaining ~1:1 stoichiometry (Figure 2C). When washed with

a buffer containing ATPγS, $ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry dissociated first, with an apparent dissociation rate

constant of ~5.7 min^{-1}, closely followed (within a few seconds) by $ParA_F$-eGFP dissociation

(Figure 2D). On the other hand, when the wash buffer contained 10 μM $ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry and

ATPγS, both proteins dissociated together, significantly slower than $ParA_F$-eGFP bound to the

DNA-carpet alone, with an apparent rate constant of ~0.9 min^{-1}, maintaining ~1:1 stoichiometry

(Figure 2E). After essentially complete dissociation of $ParA_F$-eGFP from the DNA-carpet, 10 μM

$ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry present in the wash solution showed no significant binding to the DNA-carpet,

indicating low intrinsic affinity of this protein for DNA. FRAP measurements of $ParA_F$-eGFP—

$ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry bound in steady state to the DNA-carpet in the presence of ATPγS also

indicated rapid exchange of $ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry (Figure 2—figure supplement 2). Thus, at

saturating $ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry concentration, a $ParA_F$—ATPγS dimer is bound by two molecules of

$ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry occupying both sides of the $ParA_F$ dimer. The data also indicate that $ParA_F$

dimers adopt a state of slowed dissociation from nsDNA when both of the $ParB_F$-interacting faces

are occupied by the $ParB_F$ N-terminal domain. The nsDNA dissociation rate constants of $ParA_F$—

$ParB_F$ complexes (including those involving $ParB_F$ variants) and $ParB_F$:$ParA_F$ stoichiometry

reported above and in the following sections are summarized in Table 1.

$ParA_F$ ATPase activation requires binding of two copies of $ParB_F$ N-terminal domain to the $ParA_F$

dimer.

$ParB_F^{1-42}$ stimulated $ParA_F$-ATPase (1 μM) with a clear sigmoidal $ParB_F^{1-42}$ concentration

dependence and a half-maximum activation concentration of ~1.2 μM (Figure 2F; Table 2). Thus,

monomeric $ParB_F^{1-42}$ appears to activate $ParA_F$-ATPase when it binds on both sides of the DNA-

bound $ParA_F$ dimers. To test if the observed sigmoidal concentration dependence is due to the

monomeric nature of $ParB_F^{1-42}$, we prepared the N-terminal region of $ParB_F$ fused to mCherry and

the nuclease activity deficient $EcoRI^{E111Q}$, $ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry-$EcoRI^{E111Q}$ (see Figure—2 figure

supplement 3A). This construct, with expected EcoRI dimerization K_D < 20 pM (Modrich and

Zabel, 1976), efficiently activated $ParA_F$-ATPase at least to a similar maximum rate as $ParB_F^{1-42}$,

but with a K_{half} of ~0.15 μM, ~8-fold lower than $ParB_F^{1-42}$, and displayed no noticeable sigmoidal

concentration dependence (Figure 2G). Potential binding of the inactive EcoRI domain to DNA

did not appear to influence the ATPase activation properties of this construct; addition of EcoRI-

binding DNA fragment in the reaction did not impact the ATPase activation (Figure 2—figure

supplement 4). Based on these results, we conclude that both $ParB_F$-binding faces of a $ParA_F$ dimer

must be occupied by $ParB_F$ N-termini for stimulation of its ATPase activity.

$ParB_F^{1-42\ R36A}$ forms a rapidly disassembling complex with $ParA_F$ on the DNA carpet.

An R36A mutation was reported to significantly compromise $ParB_F$'s ability to activate $ParA_F$'s

ATPase (Ah-Seng et al., 2009). To test whether this mutation affected $ParB_F$'s ability to form a

complex with $ParA_F$ we repeated the experiments shown in Figure 2C-E using $ParB_F^{1-42\ R36A}$-

mCherry. $ParB_F^{1-42R36A}$-mCherry and $ParA_F$-eGFP bound with an approximately 1:1 stoichiometry,

similar to $ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry but reached a steady-state density on the DNA-carpet of less than

10% of the density observed with $ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry (Figure 3A). When washed with buffer

containing ATPγS, $ParB_F^{1-42\ R36A}$-mCherry disassociated first followed by $ParA_F$, similar to the

results obtained with $ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry but $ParB_F^{1-42\ R36A}$-mCherry dissociated ~10-fold faster,

followed by dissociation of $ParA_F$-eGFP within a few seconds (Figure 3B). When the wash buffer

also contained 10 μM $ParB_F^{1-42\ R36A}$-mCherry the two proteins dissociated in parallel maintaining

~1:1 stoichiometry (Figure 3C). Together these observations indicate that $ParB_F^{R36A}$ interacts with

$ParA_F$, but with a much faster dissociation rate constant compared to wild-type $ParB_F$. $ParB_F^{1-42\ R36A}$

could activate $ParA_F$-ATPase with an increased half-saturation concentration of 108 μM,

approximately 100-fold higher than $ParB_F^{1-42}$ (Figure 3D). These results explain the puzzling report

that while the R36A mutation severely compromised activation of $ParA_F$-ATPase by $ParB_F$, it did

not impede oscillation of $ParA_F$ on the nucleoid, and only mildly reduced plasmid stability (Ah-

Seng et al., 2013). At the interface between the $ParA_F$-bound nucleoid and partition complexes

containing many $ParB_F$ dimers, the local $ParB_F$ concentration is expected to be sufficiently high

for this mutant protein to activate $ParA_F$-ATPase to effectively generate a $ParA_F$ depletion zone

and motive force driving the partition complex as indicated by the repeated oscillation of the

nucleoid-bound $ParA_F$ distribution.

$ParA_F$ and $ParB_F$ bind to and dissociate from nsDNA together in the presence of ATPγS with ~1:1

stoichiometry.

When $ParA_F$-eGFP and full-length $ParB_F$-Alexa647 were incubated together at 1 μM and 2 μM,

respectively in the presence of ATPγS, they bound to the DNA-carpet in parallel maintaining ~1:1

stoichiometry up to a density of ~5000 monomers/μm² (Figure 4A). They also dissociated from

the DNA-carpet in parallel, maintaining ~1:1 stoichiometry, when washed with a buffer containing

ATPγS, with an apparent dissociation rate constant of approximately ~1 min^{-1} (Figure 4B). These

results show that $ParA_F$ and $ParB_F$ form a hetero-tetramer containing two monomers each of $ParA_F$

and ParB$_F$ (A$_2$B$_2$), or larger oligomers composed of the hetero-tetramers, that binds as a unit on

nsDNA in the presence of ATPγS.

Full-length ParB$_F$, which forms dimer with apparent K_D of ~ 19 nM (Figure 4—figure supplement

1), activated ParA$_F$-ATPase in the presence of nsDNA to ~50 hr^{-1} without significant sigmoidal

concentration dependence (Figure 4E). Based on the results of experiments with monomeric

ParB$_F^{1-42}$ proteins described earlier, we conclude that a single dimer of full-length ParB$_F$ can

straddle an nsDNA-bound ParA$_F$ dimer, permitting the two N-termini to interact with both of the

ParB$_F$-binding faces of the ParA$_F$ dimer to activate the ATPase.

In the presence of parS$_F$, ParB$_F$ forms a 2:1 complex with ParA$_F$.

We next asked if ParB$_F$ bound to *parS$_F$* interacts differently with ParA$_F$ on the DNA-carpet. We

preincubated ParA$_F$-eGFP, ParB$_F$-Alexa647, ATPγS and a 24 bp duplex DNA fragment containing

a single *parS$_F$* consensus sequence, at a slight molar excess over ParB$_F$ dimer, for 10 min at room

temperature. At the concentrations used, most of the ParB$_F$ dimers are expected to be bound to

parS$_F$. When infused into the DNA-carpeted flow cell, ParA$_F$-eGFP and ParB$_F$-Alexa647 bound to

and dissociated from the carpet with a stoichiometry of ~1:2 (Figure 4C, D), in sharp contrast to

the ~1:1 stoichiometry without *parS$_F$* DNA. The kinetic parameters of the complex assembly and

disassembly were not significantly affected. These results demonstrate that ParA$_F$ and ParB$_F$ form

a complex of one ParA$_F$ dimer and two ParB$_F$ dimers (A$_2$B$_4$) in the presence of *parS$_F$*.

Does the change in protein stoichiometry caused by *parS$_F$* translate to different levels of ParA$_F$-

ATPase activation? A previous study, comparing plasmid DNA with and without *parS$_F$* as the

cofactor, showed that $ParB_F$ activates $ParA_F$-ATPase a few-fold more efficiently in the presence

of plasmid DNA containing a full $parS_F$ site (Ah-Seng et al., 2009). We titrated $ParB_F$ in the

presence of $ParA_F$, pBR322 DNA and 24 bp $parS_F$ duplex at a stoichiometric excess concentration

over the $ParB_F$ dimer. In the presence of $parS_F$ DNA, $ParB_F$ activated $ParA_F$-ATPase to a maximum

turnover rate of ~80 hr^{-1}, a ~60% increase compared to reactions where the $parS_F$ fragment was

replaced with a scrambled sequence fragment (Figure 4E). These results indicate that a single $parS_F$

DNA-bound $ParB_F$ dimer cannot straddle an nsDNA-bound $ParA_F$ dimer to activate the ATPase,

but by binding two $ParB_F$ dimers the ATPase activation level reaches slightly higher level than in

the absence of $parS_F$ DNA.

We note that $ParB_F^{R121A}$, harboring a mutation in the conserved Box II region of the CTPase domain,

neither exhibited a change in the $ParB_F$/$ParA_F$ complex stoichiometry, nor a change in the $ParB_F$-

stimulated ATP turnover, in response to $parS_F$ (Figure 4—figure supplement 2), suggesting that

the effects of $parS_F$ binding described above are mediated through conformational changes in the

CTPase domain (see below for further discussion).

CTP alters the complex formed between $ParA_F$ and $ParB_F$ in a manner similar to $parS_F$, and

accelerates complex formation in the presence of $parS_F$.

ParB proteins have recently been reported to have CTPase activity that is coupled to changes in

their DNA binding properties and refolding of the CTPase domains into a globular dimeric

structure in the presence of CTP (Soh et al., 2019; Osorio-Valeriano et al., 2019) from the more

extended and poly-dispersed structure in the absence of nucleotide (Chen et al., 2015). We

therefore decided to test if the addition of CTP influences the $ParA_F$—$ParB_F$ complex formed on

the DNA-carpet in the presence of ATPγS. When $ParA_F$-eGFP and $ParB_F$-Alexa647 were

incubated together in the presence of ATPγS (1 mM) and CTP (2 mM), they bound to and

dissociated from the nsDNA-carpet with a stoichiometry of ~1:2 (Figure 5A, Figure 5—figure

supplement 1A). The assembly kinetics of the carpet-bound complex was roughly the same as in

the absence of CTP, however the apparent dissociation rate constant during buffer wash was

slightly but reproducibly slower by a factor of roughly two at ~ 0.6 min^{-1}. When $parS_F$ was included

together with CTP, the rate of A_2B_4 complex assembly on the DNA-carpet increased several-fold,

the binding density of the complex on the DNA-carpet reached a correspondingly higher level, and

the two proteins dissociated from the DNA-carpet maintaining a ~1:2 stoichiometry with apparent

dissociation rate constant similar to that in the absence of $parS_F$ (Figure 5B, Figure 5—figure

supplement 1B). When CTP was replaced by CDP in the presence of $parS_F$, although the

$ParB_F/ParA_F$ ratio remained above 2, unlike in the presence of CTP the complex assembly rate did

not increase (Figure 5C, Figure 5—figure supplement 1C), thus behaving similarly to the reaction

in the presence of $parS_F$ alone.

Next, we asked if the $parS_F$ DNA fragment was incorporated in the A_2B_4 complexes assembled in

its presence. The experiments in the presence of $parS_F$ were repeated in the presence or absence of

CTP with $ParA_F$ (1 μM), $ParB_F$-Alexa647 (2 μM) and Alexa488-$parS_F$ (1.1 μM), and the nsDNA-

carpet-bound ratio of $parS_F$ and $ParB_F$ after 240 sec sample infusion was measured (Figure 5D).

The observed $parS_F$ / $(ParB_F)_2$ ratio in the absence of CTP was ~0.2, while in the presence of CTP,

the ratio was only ~0.04. Thus, whereas the assembly of the A_2B_4 complex involving CTP-$ParB_F$

was accelerated by $parS_F$, a very small fraction of the resulting complex contained the $parS_F$-DNA

fragment, indicating that $parS_F$ plays a catalytic role in the activation of CTP-$ParB_F$ and accelerated

assembly of the A_2B_4 complex. This parallels the observation that a much lower concentration of

parS$_F$ fully activated the CTPase activity of ParB$_F$ (Figure 5—figure supplement 2C) as has also

been shown for ParB$_{Bsu}$ (Soh et al., 2019).

ParB$_F$ activates ParA$_F$-ATPase to the full extent without parS$_F$ in the presence of CTP.

The maximum ParB$_F$ activation of ParA$_F$-ATPase in the presence of CTP, with or without *parS$_F$*,

was comparable to that of *parS$_F$*-bound ParB$_F$ in the absence of CTP (Figure 5E, F). The half-

saturation concentration of ParB$_F$ in the presence of *parS$_F$* and CTP was significantly lower than

in the absence of CTP (~0.24 μM *vs* ~0.6 μM). Combined with the observation of faster assembly

of the complex on the DNA-carpet, a likely possibility is that in the presence of CTP and *parS$_F$*,

the ParB$_F$ dimer adopts a unique state that interacts with ParA$_F$ dimers with a higher association

rate constant. We note that the ParA$_F$-ATPase assays in this study measured radioactive γ-

phosphate release from γ-^{32}P-ATP, avoiding potential technical complications associated with

ATPase measurements in the presence of CTP.

We next measured the ParB$_F$-CTPase activity to estimate the apparent K_M and k_{cat} of ParB$_F$ for CTP

hydrolysis in the presence and absence of *parS$_F$*. ParB$_F$ had negligible activity for all NTPs other

than CTP (Figure 5—figure supplement 2A), and the CTP hydrolysis rate increased with a

hyperbolic CTP concentration dependence, which could be fit with the Michaelis-Menten equation

with apparent K_M of ~8 μM and ~18 μM and maximum turnover rates of ~14 h^{-1} and ~44 h^{-1} in the

absence and presence of *parS$_F$* DNA, respectively (Figure 5—figure supplement 2B). Thus, 2 mM

CTP used in the experiments of Figure 5 should have remained saturating ParB$_F$ for the duration

of the reaction. Stimulation of the CTPase activity by *parS$_F$* exhibited a pronounced sigmoidal

concentration dependence approaching saturation at ~ 60 nM, well below the ParB$_F$ concentration

in the reaction (0.84 µM) (Figure 5—figure supplement 2C).

During these experiments, which were prompted by a reviewer's comment, we also attempted to

characterize the interaction between CDP and ParB$_F$, but discovered that the CDP used here

contained ~2% contamination of a compound that released Pi upon incubation with ParB$_F$ (Figure

5—figure supplement 2D). The results shown in Figure 5C and Figure 5F suggest this

contamination did not strongly influence the reactions involving CDP, considering that they

generally paralleled the results obtained in the absence of C-nucleotides with only minor deviations.

However, this contamination prevented us from accurately determining the affinity of ParB$_F$ for

CDP.

321 Table 1.   *Apparent disassembly or exchange rate constants (min^{-1}) and ParB$_F$/ParA$_F$ ratio*

322 *from fits of TIRFM wash and FRAP experiments.*

Protein Measured	ParA$_F$	ParA$_F$ + ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$		ParA$_F$ + ParB$_F$$^{1-42\ R36A}$		FRAP		ParA$_F$ + ParB$_F$		ParA$_F$ + ParB$_F$ + CDP		ParA$_F$ + ParB$_F$ + CTP		ParA$_F$ + ParB$_F$^{R121A}	
	ParA$_F$-eGFP	*ParA$_F$-eGFP*	*ParB$_F$-Alexa647*	*ParA$_F$-eGFP*	*ParB$_F$$^{1-42\ R36A}$-mCherry*	*ParA$_F$-eGFP*	*ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$-mCherry*	*ParA$_F$-eGFP*	*ParB$_F$-Alexa647*	*ParA$_F$-eGFP*	*ParB$_F$-Alexa647*	*ParA$_F$-eGFP*	*ParB$_F$-Alexa647*	*ParA$_F$-eGFP*	*ParB$_F$^{R121A}-Alexa647*
k_{off} - parS$_F$	6.4± 0.6 N=4 (12)	5.2± 0.2 N=2 (9)	6.3± 0.3 N=2 (9)	29± 2 N=3 (9)	52± 4 N=3 (9)	2.00± 0.08 N=3 (11)	15± 2** N=3 (12)	0.93± 0.07 N=2 (6)	0.89± 0.09 N=2 (6)	N.D.	N.D.	0.63± 0.04 N=2 (7)	0.65± 0.1 N=2(7)	0.89± 0.01 N=3 (8)	0.78± 0.05 N=3 (8)
A:B		*1 : 1.27± 0.06 N=2 (8)*		*1 : 0.92± 0.02*** N=3 (9)*				*1 : 1.1± 0.1 N=3 (9)*				*1 : 2.2± 0.2 N=3 (10)*		*1 : 0.99± 0.01 N=3 (8)*	
k_{off} + parS$_F$	*N.D.*	*N.D.*		*N.D.*		*N.D.*		0.95± 0.04 N=2 (6)	0.82± 0.01 N=2 (6)	0.46± 0.02 N=2 (7)	0.53± 0.01 N=2 (7)	0.60± 0.08 N=2 (5)	0.83± 0.12 N=2 (6)	0.91± 0.01 N=3 (8)	0.78± 0.04 N=3 (8)
A:B								*1 : 2.2± 0.4 N=3 (9)*		*1 : 2.53± 0.07 N=2 (6)*		*1 : 2.2± 0.3 N=2(6)*		*1 : 1.12± 0.01 N=3 (12)*	
k_{off} ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$ or ParB$_F$$^{1-42\ R36A}$ in wash	*N.D.*	0.84± 0.01* N=1 (3)	0.89± 0.02* N=1 (3)	1.8± 0.4 N=3 (9)	1.8± 0.4 N=3 (9)	*N.D.*		*N.D.*		*N.D.*		*N.D.*		*N.D.*	

Table 2: ATPase fit parameters.

	ParB$_F$		ParB$_F$ CTP		ParB$_F$ CDP	ParB$_F$^{R121A}		ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$	ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$$_{R36A}$	ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$-mCherry-EcoRI^{E111Q}	
	Scram	*parS$_F$*	*Scram*	*parS$_F$*	*parS$_F$*	*Scram*	*parS$_F$*	N = 6	N = 3	*Scram*	*EcoRI DNA*
	N = 6	N = 6	N = 3	N = 3	N = 3	N = 3	N = 3			N = 3	N = 2
v_{max} (hr^{-1})	54 ± 5	79 ± 2	79 ± 8	78 ± 8	87 ± 5	60 ± 5	62 ± 5	83 ± 3	38 ± 2	131 ± 13	125 ± 9
K$_A$ (µM)	0.53 ± 0.09	0.59 ±0.03	0.41 ± 0.05	0.24 ±0.02	0.34 ±0.04	0.86 ± 0.1	1.1 ± 0.1	1.2 ± 0.1	108 ± 13	0.16 ± 0.04	0.16 ± 0.03
Cooperativity coefficient (n)	1.2 ± 0.2	1.4 ± 0.1	3.3 ± 1.0	3.6 ± 0.2	1.1 ± 0.1	2.5 ± 0.6	1.6 ± 0.3	2.5 ± 0.3	1.5 ± 0.2	1.4 ± 0.3	1.4 ± 0.2

In the presence of CTP, ParB$_F$ condenses DNA carrying parS$_F$ in cis.

The recently discovered CTP and *parS* dependent ParB conformational change appears to promote

ParB *parS*-DNA binding and spreading (Soh et al., 2019), impacting ParB-DNA partition complex

assembly. *In vivo*, spreading ParB forms condensed foci around *parS* sites indicating that *parS*

driven ParB spreading likely occurs *in cis*. Nonetheless, the possibility that *parS* can trigger ParB

spreading *in trans* has not been tested *in vitro*. Previous studies reported DNA condensation by *B*.

subtilis ParB *via* ParB—ParB interactions, but these studies were conducted in the absence of CTP

and did not observe a strong effect of *parS in cis* (Graham et al., 2014; Song et al., 2017; Taylor

et al., 2015). To see if $parS_F$ can act *in-trans* and to characterize how $parS_F$ and CTP influence

$ParB_F$—DNA interactions *in vitro*, we conducted single-molecule DNA pulling experiments

employing magnetic tweezers. $ParB_F$ at various concentrations was infused into a flow cell

containing ~ 5 kbp DNA tethers that anchored magnetic beads to the coverslip surface (Figure 6A).

The tethers contained either twelve $parS_F$ consensus sequence repeats at their midpoints ($parS_F$-

DNA), or no $parS_F$ sequence (nsDNA). The protein sample was infused while the DNA tethers

were stretched at 5 pN force, preventing DNA condensation. To allow DNA condensation by

bound $ParB_F$ molecules, the force was dropped to 0.05 pN and the tether extension was monitored

for 30 sec. To assess the stability of DNA condensation by $ParB_F$ dimers, tether extension was

monitored after increasing the force to 5 pN. In the absence of CTP, we only observed

condensation at very high concentrations of $ParB_F$ (>5 μM) and did not see a significant difference

between $parS_F$-containing and non-specific tethers (Figure 6B inset). However, in the presence of

CTP, 50 nM $ParB_F$ robustly condensed $parS_F$-containing DNA tethers (Figure 6B purple). These

condensed protein-DNA complexes resisted 5 pN extension force, requiring many minutes at 5 pN

tension to de-condense (Figure 6—figure supplement 1A). The slow de-condensation took place

through a series of abrupt steps, which we interpret as stepwise opening of large DNA loops held

by multiple $ParB_F$—$ParB_F$ interactions (Figure 6—figure supplement 1A). Condensation was

comparable for DNA molecules that were topologically constrained, i.e., could be supercoiled, or

unconstrained (nicked), suggesting that condensation is not a consequence of topological changes

in the DNA caused by $ParB_F$ translocating away from $parS_F$ sites (Figure 6—figure supplement 2).

We observed some condensation events with $parS_F$ containing tethers in the presence of CDP, but

these events were rarer, required higher $ParB_F$ concentrations, and were almost completely de-

condensed within 5 sec of raising the force to 5 pN, in stark contrast to condensation in the presence

of CTP (Figure 6B light blue, Figure 6—figure supplement 1B). Since this experiment was also

carried out using CDP that contained a compound hydrolysable by $ParB_F$, contribution of this

compound to the limited tether condensation cannot be ruled out.　In contrast, $ParB_F$ was unable

to substantially condense DNA tethers lacking $parS_F$ sequences, even in the presence of CTP, and

rare condensation events were quickly reversed by the application of 5 pN force (Figure 6B dark

blue). Addition of $parS_F$-containing DNA fragments together with $ParB_F$ and CTP did not rescue

the inability to condense tethers lacking $parS_F$, indicating that $parS_F$ cannot act *in trans* to promote

ParB spreading and condensation of DNA molecules (Figure 6—figure supplement 3). Together

these results indicate that $parS_F$ mediates loading of multiple CTP-bound $ParB_F$ dimers *in cis* onto

the DNA-tethers and these $ParB_F$ dimers are capable of forming DNA looping bridges likely *via*

inter-dimer interactions to form a condensed partition complex-like structure. As expected,

$ParB_F^{R121A}$ bearing a mutation at the critical Box II residue in the CTPase domain was unable to

condense DNA to a significant degree even with $parS_F$ containing tethers (Figure 6B red). We

propose that stable DNA condensation by $ParB_F$ is mediated by CTPase domain dimerization and

requires both $parS_F$ and CTP at moderate $ParB_F$ concentrations (~100 nM) (Figure 6C).

Discussion

In this report, we characterized facets of the $ParA_F$—$ParB_F$ interaction leading to the assembly of

the nsDNA-bound $ParA_F$—$ParB_F$ complex that is required to activate $ParA_F$ for ATP hydrolysis

and dissociation from nsDNA under the influences of $parS_F$ and CTP (Summarized in Figure 7).

Our results indicate that both $ParB_F$ binding faces of the nsDNA-bound $ParA_F$ dimers must be

occupied by a $ParB_F$ N-terminal domain for ATPase activation (Figure 2C-G and 7B). In principle,

two copies of the $ParB_F$ N-terminal domain activating a $ParA_F$ dimer could belong to one $ParB_F$

dimer as seen in the absence of CTP or $parS_F$ (Figure 4A-B and 7B middle). However, most $ParB_F$

dimers in partition complexes *in vivo* are likely in the CTP- and $parS_F$-activated state, spreading

over a $parS_F$-proximal DNA region. CTP or $parS_F$ binding alters the $ParB_F$ dimer structure to

prevent a single $ParB_F$ dimer from providing both copies of the N-terminal domain to occupy both

binding faces of a $ParA_F$ dimer, necessitating two $ParB_F$ dimers, each providing one N-terminal

domain to a $ParA_F$ dimer (Figure 4C-D, Figure 5 and Figure 7B bottom). Strikingly, $parS_F$ together

with CTP significantly increased the A_2B_4 complex assembly rate on nsDNA without strongly

affecting its disassembly rate. Although we have not analyzed the full kinetic details of the process

that leads to ATPase activation by $ParB_F$, we propose that a moderately slow transition separates

formation of the ATPase-activated A_2B_4 complex from the rapidly reversible $ParA_F$—$ParB_F$

interaction processes. Such a local slow step would partially decouple the reversible $ParA_F$—$ParB_F$

interaction dynamics from the irreversible ATP hydrolysis, thereby promoting dynamic

interactions between the nucleoid and partition complex that facilitate partitioning *via* the

diffusion-ratchet mechanism as elaborated below.

The clearest indication that both ParB$_F$-interacting faces of the nsDNA-bound ParA$_F$ dimer must

be occupied by the N-terminal domain of ParB$_F$ for ATPase activation came from experiments

using artificial ParB$_F$ constructs. We showed that monomeric ParB$_F^{1-42}$ stimulates ParA$_F$ ATPase

with a clear sigmoidal concentration dependence, indicating that one molecule of ParB$_F^{1-42}$ binding

to one side of a ParA$_F$ dimer cannot fully activate the ParA$_F$ ATPase (Figure 2F). When ATP

hydrolysis was blocked by using non-hydrolysable ATPγS, ParB$_F^{1-42}$-mCherry formed an

equimolar complex with ParA$_F$ (Figure 2C-E). Thus, the ParA$_F$ forms a complex with ParB$_F^{1-42}$-

mCherry bound at both ParB$_F$-interacting faces of the ParA$_F$ dimer prior to ATP hydrolysis (Fig

7B; top). Consistently, an artificially dimeric ParB$_F^{1-42}$ construct, ParB$_F^{1-42}$-mCherry-EcoRI^{E111Q},

efficiently activated ParA$_F$-ATPase with hyperbolic concentration dependence (Figure 2G).

In the absence of CTP or *parS$_F$*, the ParB$_F$ dimer is held together by the C-terminal self-

dimerization domain (Fig 7A bottom) with dimerization K_D of ~19 nM (Figure 4—figure

supplement 1). In this state, the N-terminal halves of the monomers are thought to be separate from

each other according to the SAXS envelope of the structure (Chen et al., 2015; also see Figure 2—

figure supplement 3B). Thus, one dimer could straddle a ParA$_F$-dimer with each N-terminal ParA$_F$-

interaction domain interacting with one of the two faces of a ParA$_F$-dimer (Figure 7B middle).

In contrast, when bound by CTP the CTPase domains in a ParB$_F$ dimer fold to form a single

globular domain (Figure 7A bottom) (Soh et al., 2019; see Figure 2—figure supplement 3C). The

two ParA$_F$-interaction domains emanating from this dimeric domain are unlikely to reach both

sides of a ParA$_F$ dimer, necessitating an A$_2$B$_4$ complex for ATPase activation (Figure 7B bottom).

In theory, it is possible that a chain of (A$_2$B$_2$)$_n$ might form, but the 1:2 protein stoichiometry

observed in the presence of ATPγS indicates such a configuration is unfavored. A$_2$B$_4$ complexes

formed in the presence of CTP and *parS$_F$* DNA fragments contained almost no *parS$_F$* DNA

fragments (Figure 5D). This is consistent with the notion that after binding *parS$_F$*, CTP-ParB$_F$

dimers convert to a low *parS$_F$*-affinity state while remaining topologically bound to the DNA and

spreading to surrounding DNA regions (Soh et al., 2019). The A$_2$B$_4$ complex formed in the

presence of *parS$_F$* DNA fragments, even without CTP, contained significantly less than a

stoichiometric amount of *parS$_F$* fragment (Figure 5D). This suggests that association with nsDNA-

bound ParA$_F$ dimer lowers the affinity of ParB$_F$ for *parS$_F$*, perhaps shifting the structure closer

toward *parS$_F$*-activated ParB$_F$-CTP.

The ParB : ParA stoichiometry change from 1:1 to 2:1 caused by *parS$_F$* (Figure 4C, D) did not

occur with the Box II mutant ParB$_F$^{R121A} (Figure 4—figure supplement 2). It is possible that when

a ParB$_F$ dimer binds *parS$_F$*, the adjacent CTPase domains of the two monomers adopt a mutually

interacting folded state akin to the CTP-bound state even without CTP, promoting a BoxII-

dependent dimerized domain structure. This may disfavor formation of the A$_2$B$_2$ complex, favoring

the A$_2$B$_4$ complex that was observed.

All the A$_2$B$_2$ and A$_2$B$_4$ complexes we observed in the presence of ATPγS dissociated from nsDNA

more slowly (k_{off} = 0.5 - 1 min^{-1}; Supplementary Table 1) compared to ParA$_F$ in the absence of

ParB$_F$ (~6 min^{-1}; Fig 2B). For the case of monomeric ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$, which dissociated from ParA$_F$ more

rapidly, the presence of 10 μM ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$ in the wash buffer restored the low apparent nsDNA

dissociation rate constant of the complex (Figure 2E). Nevertheless, $ParA_F$ dimers in these

complexes appear to be primed for further conformational change toward less stably DNA-

associated state. Upon dissociation of $ParB_F^{1-42}$ from the $A_2B^{1-42}{}_2$ complex, $ParA_F$ dissociated from

the DNA-carpet within a second or so, much faster than the ATPγS-$ParA_F$-dimer that has not yet

formed a A_2B_2 or A_2B_4 complex (Figure 2D, 3B).

Our single-molecule DNA condensation measurements indicate that CTP-bound $ParB_F$ dimers are

activated by contacting $parS_F$ to load *in cis* onto the $parS_F$-carrying DNA in numbers exceeding

the copy number of the $parS_F$-consensus sequence (ParB spreading) as shown by others for

chromosomal ParBs (Jalal et al., 2020; Soh et al., 2019), and condense the DNA forming an *in*

vivo partition complex-like structure (Figure 6). Although the magnetic tweezers instrument used

in this study did not allow direct measurement of the number of $ParB_F$ molecules contained in the

condensed DNA, the large number of de-condensation steps observed when high tension was

applied is consistent with the presence of a large number of $ParB_F$ dimers in the condensed DNA

(Figure 6, Figure 6—figure supplement 1A). CDP failed to support efficient condensation of

$parS_F$-carrying DNA by $ParB_F$ and the limited condensation observed, which could be due to the

contaminating material in the CDP used, was disrupted far more readily than CTP-supported

condensates (Figure 6, Figure 6—figure supplement 1B). Our results show that DNA-condensation

is caused by $ParB_F$—$ParB_F$ interactions forming DNA-looping bridges without requiring other

protein factors. Combined with evidence indicating that $parS_F$-activated $ParB_F$—CTP adopts a

unique conformational state (Soh et al., 2019), we favor the view that DNA-bridging capability,

mediated by inter-dimer $ParB_F$ interaction, is another attribute of this $ParB_F$ state.

Our observation indicates that the state of $ParB_F$ discussed above is maintained after release from

$parS_F$-containing DNA. $ParB_F$ associates with nsDNA-bound $ParA_F$ dimers forming the A_2B_4

complex with a faster apparent assembly rate in the presence of $parS_F$ and CTP together than with

either CTP or $parS_F$ alone. This observation is consistent with the decreased half-saturation

concentration in the ATPase activation assay (Figure 5F, Table 2). According to the sliding clamp

model of spreading ParB—CTP dimers proposed by Soh et al., (2019), $ParB_F$—CTP dimers loaded

onto a short $parS_F$ DNA fragments would quickly slide off the DNA as shown by Jalal et al., (2020).

Since our ATPase activation assay and the DNA-carpet-bound A_2B_4 complex assay in the presence

of CTP and $parS_F$ were done using a short linear $parS_F$ DNA fragment, the $parS_F$-activated state

of the $ParB_F$—CTP dimers we described in this study must remain in this "activated" state for an

extended period after sliding off the $parS_F$ fragment. Accordingly, the A_2B_4 complexes bound to

the DNA-carpet in the presence of CTP, ATPγS and $parS_F$ fragments contained almost no $parS_F$

fragments (Figure 5D). Thus, $parS_F$ acts as a catalyst to convert $ParB_F$—CTP dimers from a pre-

activation state to an activated state capable of faster A_2B_4 complex assembly. This notion is also

consistent with the observation that significantly less than a stoichiometric concentration of $parS$

DNA relative to ParB is sufficient for full activation of the ParB CTPase (Figure 5—figure

supplement 2C; Soh et al., 2019). Although the $ParB_F$ dimers in this activated state failed to load

efficiently onto DNA lacking $parS_F$ sequences *in trans* (Figure 6—figure supplement 3), in the

absence of contrary evidence, the parsimonious assumption is that this $ParB_F$ dimer retains the

conformation of spreading $ParB_F$ dimers that remain loaded on the $parS_F$-containing DNA *in cis*.

Thus, we propose that the functional properties of $ParB_F$ we observed in the presence of CTP and

parS_F, both in facilitating assembly of A_2B_4 complexes and activating $ParA_F$-ATPase, reflect those

of the majority of $ParB_F$ dimers in partition complexes *in vivo*.

Our study, together with previous studies, indicates that the ATP turnover rates of ParABS systems

are slow because of multiple, slow kinetic steps. These slow steps are strategically placed in the

reaction pathway in order to tune the system and drive the motion of the partition complex through

the diffusion-ratchet mechanism (Sugawara and Kaneko, 2011; Vecchiarelli et al., 2010). Even at

saturating concentrations of $ParB_F$ in the *parS_F*-activated CTP-bound state, the maximum ATP

turnover rate of $ParA_F$ remained modest (~80 ATP/$ParA_F$-monomer/hour; Figure 5). The slow

reactivation of ParA nucleoid binding after ATP hydrolysis likely dominates the overall ATPase

cycle time (Vecchiarelli et al., 2010). The presence of a large fraction of $ParA_F$ in DNA-unbound

state during the steady state ATPase assay was evidenced by the fact that the half-saturation

concentration of $ParB_F$ (in the presence of CTP and *parS_F*) forming the A_2B_4 complex was ~0.2

μM while the total $ParA_F$ concentration was 1 μM, suggesting less than ~20% of $ParA_F$ was in the

nsDNA-bound state ready to interact with $ParB_F$. *In vivo* the reactivation rate is likely lower since

nucleoid-bound ParA is only fully activated on encountering the partition complex, which lowers

the concentration of ParA in the cytosol waiting to be reactivated. The lower precursor

concentration slows the nucleoid rebinding rate of ParA non-linearly because reactivation involves

a relatively fast nucleotide-dependent reversible ParA dimerization with apparent K_D of ~2 μM,

followed by a slow conformational step. This makes the process dimerization-limited at lower

precursor ParA concentrations according to the study of $ParA_{P1}$ (Vecchiarelli, 2010). Whereas this

slow ParA reactivation and rebinding process, which allows the maintenance of the nucleoid-

bound ParA concentration gradient (Hu et al., 2017), is a critical element of chemophoresis driven

motility, the rate of ParA-ATPase activation by ParB is another important factor. In particular,

efficient chemophoresis force generation relies on $ParA_F$—$ParB_F$ interactions achieving a local

quasi-equilibrium prior to ATP hydrolysis (Sugawara and Kaneko, 2011). Therefore, we speculate

that there is a significant energy barrier associated with the conformational transition of a $ParA_F$—

$ParB_F$ complex to achieve ATPase activation (Figure 7C). The resulting local time delay, in

addition to the fact that two ParB dimers are required to bind a ParA dimer to activate its ATPase,

would partially decouple the pre-ATP hydrolysis $ParA_F$—$ParB_F$ reversible interaction steps from

the ATP hydrolysis step. This delay would in turn permit ParB—ParA binding to approach local

quasi-equilibrium, increasing the efficiency of ParA distribution gradient sensing and motive force

generation by the partition complex. In addition, this slow activation step would prevent possible

over-depletion of the local nucleoid-bound $ParA_F$ as the partition complex establishes the $ParA_F$

depletion zone.

Disassembly of the ATP-bound A_2B_4 complex might be slow prior to ATP hydrolysis considering

the stability of the complexes in the presence of ATPγS. Thus, we propose the energy barrier

postulated above is positioned immediately prior to formation of this complex rather than between

this complex assembly and ATP hydrolysis. A slow step after formation of the stable complex

would prolong the lifetime of the link between the nucleoid and the partition complex impeding

partition complex motion without permitting the reversible $ParA_F$—$ParB_F$ interaction to approach

equilibrium. We consider this conformational transition is likely the step synergistically

accelerated by CTP and *parS_F*. We note that CTP-activated $ParB_F$ stimulates $ParA_F$ ATPase with

sigmoidal concentration dependence (Figure 5E-F, Table 2) suggesting two $ParB_F$ dimers

separately bind a $ParA_F$ dimer during a pre-equilibrium binding phase, forming a transient $B_2A_2B_2$

complex. We imagine the slow conformational step proposed here might be assisted by the

property of the CTP/$parS_F$-activated ParB$_F$ dimers that promotes inter-dimer interactions as

suggested by the magnetic tweezers experiments, stabilizing the interaction between the two ParB$_F$

dimers within a complex, depicted as conversion of $B_2A_2B_2$ complex to A_2B_4 complex in Figure

7C. This might explain the higher assembly rate and stability of the complex formed with $parS_F$-

activated ParB$_F$-CTP. Yet, CTP and $parS_F$ DNA do not significantly increase the ATP turnover

rate of ~80 h^{-1}, indicating that the proposed kinetic delay time must be a small fraction of the

ATPase cycle time (~45 sec), for which we believe the rate limiting step resides in the reactivation

process of ParA for nsDNA binding after ATP hydrolysis (Vecchiarelli et al., 2010). Assembly of

the $A_2B^{1-42}_2$ complex perhaps does not experience this time delay due to fewer steric constraints,

but ParB$_F^{1-42}$ dissociates more readily compared to full-length ParB$_F$. If two CTP-bound and parS$_F$-

activated ParB$_F$ dimers independently associating with a nucleoid-bound ParA$_F$-ATP dimer is

important for efficient partition complex motive force generation by the chemophoretic principle

as proposed above, one might be able to design a mutant ParB$_F$ that can activate ParA$_F$-ATPase by

forming an A_2B_2 complex even in the presence of CTP, which would significantly affect plasmid

partition efficiency. Efforts to generate such ParB$_F$ mutants are currently under way.

This study demonstrates how $parS_F$, along with CTP, has wide-reaching roles in the F-plasmid

ParABS system; not only in ParB$_F$'s ability to spread from $parS_F$ and promote ParB$_F$—ParB$_F$

interactions for partition complex compaction, but also in ParB$_F$ dimer interactions with ParA$_F$.

However, we still need to investigate how the ParB$_F$ CTPase activity is impacted by $parS_F$ in

different states of the ParB$_F$—$parS_F$ complex and its interaction with the ParA$_F$-DNA complex.

More generally, in order to understand how the system is orchestrated to achieve system dynamics

that result in robust plasmid segregation, improved understanding of the microscopic kinetic

parameters is essential. Many details of the system dynamics still remain to be addressed to

understand the full picture of the ParABS partition mechanism.

Materials and Methods

Key Resources Table				
Reagent type (species) or resource	**Designation**	**Source or reference**	**Identifiers**	**Additional information**
strain, strain background (*Escherichia coli*)	BL21 DE3 AI	Invitrogen	C607003	protein expression strain
recombinant DNA reagent	pET11a	EMD Millipore	9436	protein expression vector
recombinant DNA reagent	pET28a-*parS*$_F$	This work		tether DNA PCR template
recombinant DNA reagent	pET28a	EMD Millipore	69865	tether DNA PCR template
recombinant DNA reagent	pBlueScript II KS(+)	Agilent	212207	tether DNA PCR template
recombinant DNA reagent	pX7	Vecchiarelli et al., 2013		ParA$_F$ overexpression plasmid
recombinant DNA reagent	pX2	Vecchiarelli et al., 2013		ParA$_F$-eGFP overexpression plasmid
recombinant DNA reagent	pX8	Vecchiarelli et al., 2013		ParB$_F$ overexpression plasmid
recombinant DNA reagent	pET11a-ParB$_F^{R121A}$	This work		ParB$_F^{R121}$ overexpression plasmid

recombinant DNA reagent	pET11a-ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$-mCherry	This work		ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$-mCherry overexpression plasmid
recombinant DNA reagent	pET11a-ParB$_F$$^{1-42\ R36A}$-mCherry	This work		ParB$_F$$^{1-42\ R36A}$-mCherry overexpression plasmid
recombinant DNA reagent	pET11a-ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$-mCherry-EcoRI^{E111Q}	This work		ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$-mCherry-EcoRI^{E111Q} overexpression plasmid
sequence-based reagent	*parS$_F$* DNA	This work		5'-AGTCTGGGACCAC GGTCCCACTCG
sequenced-based reagent	*parS$_F$* DNA Alexa 488	This work		5'-Alexa488-(HNS)-AGTCTGGGACCAC GGTCCCACTCG
sequenced-based reagent	*parS$_F$* DNA complement strand	This work		5'-CGAGTGGGACCGT GGTCCCAGACT
sequence-based reagent	Scrambled seq DNA	This work		5'-AGTCTGCAGCTACT ATACCACTCG
sequence-based reagent	Scrambled seq DNA complement strand	This work		5'-CGAGTGGTATAGT AGCTGCAGACT
sequence-based reagent	EcoR1 sequence + strand	This work		5'-GAATTCCGAGTGG GACCGTGGTCCCA GTCTGATTATCAGA CCGAGAATTCAAG TTGGGACCGTGGT CCCAAGAGAAT
sequence-based reagent	EcoR1 sequence - strand	This work		5'-ATTCTCTTGGGACC ACGGTCCCAACTT GAATTCTCGGTCTG ATAATCAGACTGG

				GACCACGGTCCCA CTCGGAATTC
sequence-based reagent	5kb DNA primer1	Seol et al., 2011		5'- GCTGGGTCTCGGTT GTTCCCTTTAGTGA GGGTTAATTG
sequence-based reagent	5kb DNA primer2	Seol et al., 2011		5'- GCTGGGTCTCGTG GTTTCCCTTTAGTG AGGGTTAATTG
sequence-based reagent	DNA handle primer1	Seol et al., 2011		5'- GGACCTGCTTTCGT TGTGGCGTAATCAT GGTCATAG
sequence-based reagent	DNA handle primer2	Seol et al., 2011		5'- GGGTCTCGTGGTTT ATAGTCCTGTCGG GTTTC
peptide, recombinant protein	ParB$_F^{1-42}$	This work		MKRAPVIPKHTLNT QPVEDTSLSTPAAP MVDSLIARVGVMA R
peptide, recombinant protein	ParB$_F^{1-42\ R36A}$	This work		MKRAPVIPKHTLNT QPVEDTSLSTPAAP MVDSLIAAVGVMA R
chemical compound, drug	ATP	Millipore-Sigma	A2383	
chemical compound, drug	GTP	Millipore-Sigma	G8877	
chemical compound, drug	UTP	Thermo Scientific	J23160	
chemical compound, drug	CTP	Millipore-Sigma	C1506	

chemical compound, drug	CDP	Millipore-Sigma	C9755	2-3% possible contamination of $ParB_F$-CTPase substrate detected
chemical compound, drug	$\gamma^{32}P$-ATP	Perkin-Elmer	NEG002A250UC	
chemical compound, drug	Dynabeads™ MyOne™ Streptavidin T1	Invitrogen	65601	
chemical compound, drug	Alexa Fluor 488 C5 Maleimide	Thermo Fisher	A10254	
chemical compound, drug	Alexa Fluor 594 C5 Maleimide	Thermo Fisher	A10256	
chemical compound, drug	Alexa Fluor 647 C2 Maleimide	Thermo Fisher	A20347	
chemical compound, drug	Antifoam Y-40 emulsion	Sigma	A5758	
chemical compound, drug	EDTA-free Sigmafast protease inhibitor cocktail tablet	Sigma	S8830	
chemical compound, drug	DOPC	Avanti polar lipids	850375C	
chemical compound, drug	DOPE-Biotin	Avanti polar lipids	850149P	
chemical compound, drug	Biotin-14-dCTP	Thermo Fisher	19518018	
chemical compound, drug	Biotin-16-dUTP	Roche	11093070910	
chemical compound, drug	Digoxigenin-11-dUTP	Roche	11093088910	

commercial assay or kit	EnzCeck Phosphate assay kit	Thermo Fisher	E6646	
software, algorithm	Prism 8	GraphPad	Prism 8	Used for curve fitting, and fitting parameters and their error estimation.
software, algorithm	Igro Pro 7	Wavemetrics	Igro Pro	Used for single molecule data analysis.
software, algorithm	LabVIEW	National Instruments	LabView NXG Full	Used for instrumental control in single molecule experiments.
software, algorithm	Metamorph 7	Molecular Devices	Metamorph 7	Used for TIRF michroscope data acquisition.
software, algorithm	ImageJ/Fiji	National Institutes of Health	ImageJ	Used for TIRF michroscope image analysis.
other (Instrument)	Prism type TIRF microscope	In house	Ivanov & Mizuuchi, 2010; Vecchiarelli et al., 2013	Used for ParAF-ParBF complex assembly-disassembly experiments.
other (Instrument)	Magnetic tweezers	In house	Seol et al., 2011 and 2016	Used for taking single molecule measurements of enzyme binding on 5kb DNA.
other (Instrument)	Plate reader	BMG Labtech	Clariostar Plus	Used for FRET-based ParBF dimerization K_D and CTP hydrolysis assays using EnxCheck Phosphate assay kit

 Plasmids and constructs for protein expression

All expression open reading frames were synthesized and subcloned into pET11a (Genscript).

$ParA_F$, $ParA_F$-eGFP, $ParB_F$, $ParB_F^{R121}$, $ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry, $ParB_F^{1-42\ R36A}$-mCherry and $ParB_F^{1-42}$-

mCherry-EcoRI^{E111Q} constructs were made with a hexa-histidine tag on their C-terminus. Protein

fusions were made with a SGGG linker between fused domains, with exception of $ParB_F^{1-42}$-

mCherry-EcoRI^{E111Q} which had a 4x (SGGG) linker between $ParB_F^{1-42}$ and mCherry. $ParB_F^{1-42}$ and

$ParB_F^{1-42\ R36A}$ were synthesized *de novo* (Genscript).

Oligonucleotides

The 24 bp double-stranded DNA fragments containing the *parS_F* consensus sequence and a

scrambled sequence used in this study were: 5'-AGT CTG GGA CCA CGG TCC CAC TCG; 5' -

AGT CTG CAG CTA CTA TAC CAC TCG, respectively and their complements. The

fluorescently labelled *parS_F* substrate was synthesized with Alexa-488 NHS coupled to the 5' of

the forward strand by the manufacturer (IDT).

Protein purification and fluorescent labelling

For expression of proteins 5 ml of an overnight culture of BL21 DE3 AI (Invitrogen) *E. coli* cells

transformed with the desired plasmid were inoculated into 500 ml Terrific Broth (Teknova)

supplemented with 100 µg/ml carbenicillin, antifoam Y-40 emulsion (Sigma), 1 g/l NaCl, 0.7 g/l

Na_2SO_4, 2.6 g/l NH_4Cl, and 0.24 g/l $MgSO_4$. The cultures were incubated at 37 °C in 2.5 l Fernbach

flasks and shaken at 120 rpm until they reached an OD_{600} of 1.8. Cultures were chilled on ice before

they were induced by the addition of 1 mM IPTG and 0.2 % L-arabinose. Following induction,

cultures were incubated at 16 °C for 16 hr and cells were harvested by centrifugation at 6000 x g

for 15 min at 4 °C. Cell pellets were frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C.

Frozen cells were thawed and resuspended to a density of 1 g cell pellet/10 ml in lysis buffer

(ParA$_F$, ParA$_F$-eGFP and ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$-mCherry-EcoRI^{E111Q}: 25 mM Tris.HCl pH 8, 1 M NaCl, 20 mM

imidazole, 2 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 10% glycerol; ParB$_F$ and ParB$_F$^{R121A}: 10 mM Sodium

Phosphate buffer pH 7, 1 M NaCl, 20 mM Imidazole , 2 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 10% glycerol;

ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$-mCherry and ParB$_F$$^{1-42/R36A}$-mCherry: 25 mM HEPES.KOH pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 6 M

guanidinium chloride, 20 mM Imidazole, 2 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 10% glycerol) containing

EDTA-free Sigmafast protease inhibitor cocktail tablet (Sigma) using a homogenizer. Lysozyme

and Benzonase (Sigma) were added to a concentration of 1 mg/ml and 50 u/ml, respectively, and

the cells were lysed *via* a microfluidizer. Cell debris were pelleted by centrifugation at 142,000 x

g for 45 min at 4 °C, and the supernatant passed through a 0.22 μm filter.

Lysate was loaded on to a 5 ml HisTrap HP cassette (GE Healthcare) equilibrated in lysis buffer.

The cassette was then washed with 10 column volumes of lysis buffer followed by 10 column

volumes HisTrap buffer (as lysis buffer without guanidinium hydrochloride and with the following

NaCl concentrations: ParA$_F$ proteins, 200 mM; ParB$_F$ proteins, 150 mM), and the protein eluted

with a gradient from 20 to 500 mM imidazole over 10 column volumes using an AKTA Pure (GE

Healthcare).

All proteins except ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$-mCherry and ParB$_F$$^{1-42\ R36A}$-mCherry were then subjected to ion-

exchange chromatography. The peak fractions from the HisTrap column were pooled and slowly

diluted whilst stirring with a Mono Q/S-buffer (as lysis buffer without imidazole or NaCl, but with

0.1 mM EDTA pH 8) until the conductivity of the sample was: 18 mS/cm for $ParA_F$ proteins, 5

mS/cm for $ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry-EcoRI^{E111Q} and 15 mS/cm for all other $ParB_F$ proteins. The

conductivity of the samples was monitored using a conductivity meter (Hanna). The sample was

loaded onto either a 1-ml Mono Q ($ParA_F$ proteins and $ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry-EcoRI^{E111Q}) or Mono S

(other $ParB_F$ proteins) 5/50 GL ion exchange column (GE Healthcare) pre-equilibrated with Mono

Q/S-buffer containing a NaCl concentration to match the conductivity of the sample. The column

was then washed with 10 column volumes of Mono Q/S-buffer + NaCl. The protein was eluted

with a gradient up to 500 mM NaCl over 10 column volumes.

Finally, all protein samples were purified by size-exclusion chromatography. The peak fractions

from the previous column were pooled and diluted 50:50 with concentration buffer (25 mM

HEPES.KOH pH 7.5, 2 M NaCl, 2 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 10% glycerol) and concentrated to ~2

ml using a Centriprep 10-kDa spin concentrator (Millipore). The sample was then injected onto an

S200 16/600 size exclusion column (GE Healthcare) pre-equilibrated in gel filtration buffer (25

mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.5, 0.1 mM EDTA pH 8, 0.5 mM TCEP and 10% glycerol with 600 mM

KCl for $ParA_F$ proteins and 150 mM KCl for $ParB_F$ proteins). Peak fractions were then pooled and

concentrated to ~100 μM (~5-10 mg/ml) as determined by UV 280 nm absorbance before being

aliquoted, frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at –80 °C. Protein aliquots were used once and not

subjected to freeze-thaw cycles.

To produce fluorescently labeled $ParB_F$ and $ParB_F^{R121A}$, $ParB_F$ protein was buffer exchanged into

gel filtration buffer without reducing agent and incubated with a two-fold molar excess of Alexa

Fluor 647 C2 Maleimide (Thermo Fisher) for 30 min at room temperature. The reaction was then

quenched by the addition of DTT to a final concentration of 10 mM. The protein solution was then

filtered through a 0.22 μm filter and free dye removed by buffer exchange into gel filtration buffer

in Amicon ultra 10 kDa spin concentrator (Millipore). The extent of labeling was estimated based

on absorbance at 280 and 647 nm.

Assaying contaminating activities in the protein preparations

Proteins purified by the above protocol had no significant DNA endonuclease activity. After 16 hr

incubation of supercoiled pBR322 with $2\,\mu$M ParA$_F$ and/or $10\,\mu$M ParB$_F$ at 37 °C in ATPase buffer

(see below) no linear DNA was observed and less than 10% of the supercoiled plasmid was

converted to a nicked-circular form. The contaminating ATPase activity for all ParB$_F$ proteins was

less than two mol ATP per mol ParB$_F$ per hour, as determined by the ATPase assay protocol

detailed below.

ATPase activity assays

Steady-state ATPase activity was measured as described (Vecchiarelli et al., 2016) with

modifications. ATP to be used for ATPase activity assays was purified after diluting 20 μCi ATP

γ-P^{32} (Perkin-Elmer) in $100\,\mu$l of 100 mM unlabeled ATP (Sigma) by passing through a 3 ml P2

resin size-exclusion column equilibrated with a buffer containing 50 mM HEPES·KOH pH 7.5,

150 mM KCl and 0.1 mM EDTA. The purity of fractions was determined by TLC. 1 μl of each

fraction was spotted on to a 10 x 8 cm piece of TLC PEI Cellulose F paper (Millipore) 1 cm above

the bottom of the paper and developed for 10 mins using 400 mM NaH$_2$PO$_4$ pH 3.6 as the solvent.

The fractions containing the minimum contamination of P^{32}-Pi were pooled and their concentration

determined by spectrometry before storage at -20 °C.

ParA$_F$ ATPase activity was measured in the presence of the combinations and concentrations of

proteins and DNA cofactors specified in the main text in ATPase buffer (50 mM HEPES·KOH pH

7.5, 150 mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl$_2$, 0.5 mM TCEP and 1 mM ATP γ-P^{32}). Reactions were incubated

at 37 ºC for 4 hrs and stopped by the addition of an equal volume of 1 M formic acid. The increase

of P^{32}-Pi was measured by TLC using PEI Cellulose F paper as detailed above.

ParB$_F$ NTPase activity assays

Steady state ParB$_F$ CTPase activity was measured in CTPase buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl

pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl, 2 mM MgCl$_2$, 1 mM DTT, 100 μg/ml BSA, 200 μM MESG (EnzChek

probe), 1 U/ml of purine nucleotide phosphorylase, and ParB$_F$, *parS$_F$* DNA and CTP at

concentrations specified in the figure, following the protocol of the supplier of the EnzChek

phosphate assay kit (ThermoFisher). Reactions were typically repeated three times using 96-well

microtiter plates and the 360 nm absorption signal increase was monitored at half to one min

intervals using Clariostar Plus plate reader (BMG Labtech). The absorption signal increase after

subtraction of background time course in the absence of enzyme was converted to released Pi

concentration increase based on phosphate titration measurements. The CTP hydrolysis rate was

calculated from the initial slope of the time course curve, which typically started after ~7 min

deadtime for the plate setting up. Substrate specificity was examined comparing Pi release from

four ribonucleoside triphosphates. Attempt to examine inhibition of the CTPase activity by CDP

or to detect CDP binding to ParB$_F$ was postponed when the CDP used in this study was found to

release Pi upon incubation with $ParB_F$. CDP obtained from two additional suppliers also generated

similar quantities of Pi upon incubation with $ParB_F$.

TIRF microscopy.

The general design of the TIRF microscopy setup was essentially as previously described (Ivanov

and Mizuuchi, 2010; Vecchiarelli et al., 2013). A prism-type TIRFM system was built around an

Eclipse Ti microscope (Nikon) with a 40x objective (S Fluor, 40x/1.30 oil, Nikon) and two-color

images captured by an Andor DU-897E camera through a dxcr630 insert DualView (Photometrics)

with the following settings: 3 MHz digitizer (grey-scale); 5.2 pre-amplifier gain, 2 MHz vertical

shift speed; +1 vertical clock range; electron-multiplying gain 30; EM CCD temperature set at -90

ºC; baseline clamp ON; and exposure time 100 ms.

The excitation for $ParA_F$-eGFP and Alexa647-$ParB_F$ were provided by a 488 nm diode-pumped

solid-state laser (Sapphire, Coherent) and a 633 nM HeNe laser (Research Electro-Optics),

respectively. The TIRF illumination had an elliptical Gaussian shape in the field of view therefore

intensity data for DNA-carpet-bound $ParA_F$-eGFP and Alexa647-$ParB_F$ signals were taken at or

near the middle of the illumination profile.

Movies were acquired using Metamorph 7 (Molecular Devices) and transferred to ImageJ

(National Institutes of Health) for analysis.

Flow cells were assembled using fused silica microscope slides with pre-drilled inlet/outlet ports

(Esco products), #1 glass cover slips (24 x 50 mm, Thermo Fisher) and 0.001"-thick acrylic

transfer tape (3M). The fused silica slide was cleaned by soaking overnight in a solution of

Nochromix (Sigma)-sulfuric acid, followed by extensive rinsing with de-ionized water, drying by

blowing nitrogen gas, followed by oxygen plasma treatment (South Bay Technology Inc). The Y-

shaped flow path pattern was cut out of the transfer tape using a laser cutter before the flow cell

assembly. Nanoports (Idex) were attached to the fused silica slide for the inlet and outlet tube

connections using Norland Optical Adhesive (Thorlabs), cured by 365 nm UV light. The

assembled flow cells were then baked at 80 °C with gentle compression for 2 hr.

To assemble a DNA-carpet in a flow cell, small unilamellar vesicles (SUVs) of 1,2-dioleoyl-*sn*-

glycero-3-phosphocholine (DOPC) and 1,2-dioleoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine-N-

(biotinyl) (DOPE-Biotin) (Avanti Polar Lipids) were prepared as follows. 0.5 ml of DOPC (25

mg/ml chloroform) was mixed with 5 μl of DOPE-biotin (25 mg/ml chloroform) in a glass test

tube and most of the solvent removed *via* evaporation under a nitrogen flow. The remaining solvent

was removed by drying in a SpeedVac (Savant) at 42 °C for 1 hr followed by a further 1 hr at room

temperature. 2.5 ml of degassed TK150 buffer (25 mM Tris.HCl pH 7.5, 150 mM KCl) was then

added and the lipids stored, covered under nitrogen gas overnight. The lipids were then

resuspended by vortexing and sonicated (70-80 watts, 30 sec on, 10 sec off) in a cup horn with

water chiller set to 16 °C (QSonica) until transparent. The resulting solution of SUVs was then

filtered through a 0.22 μm filter, aliquoted and stored under nitrogen gas at 4 °C for up to 4 weeks.

To prepare biotinylated salmon sperm DNA for DNA-carpets 10 mg/ml salmon sperm DNA

(Thermo Fisher) was sonicated for 5 min (110 watts, 10 sec on, 10 sec off) to produce short

fragments. Sonicated salmon sperm DNA was then diluted to 1 mg/ml in Terminal Transferase

buffer (NEB) with 0.25 mM $CoCl_2$, 40 μM Biotin-14-dCTP (Thermo Fisher) and 1 unit/μl

Terminal Transferase (NEB). The DNA was incubated at 37 °C for 30 min, then the reaction

stopped by heat inactivation at 75 °C for 20 min. Free Biotin-14-dCTP was removed by extensive

buffer exchange with TE buffer (10 mM Tris.HCl pH 8, 0.1 mM EDTA) in a 100 kDa Amicon

Ultra spin concentrator (Millipore). The biotinylated DNA was then concentrated to ~10 mg/ml

and stored at -20 °C until needed.

To assemble a DNA-carpet, the DOPC—DOPE-biotin SUV solution was diluted to 1 mg/ml in

500 μl degassed TN150MC buffer (25 mM Tris.HCl pH7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.1 mM

$CaCl_2$) and warmed to 37 °C. Approximately 300 μl of SUV solution was then infused into a pre-

warmed flow cell and incubated at 37 °C for 1 hr. Excess SUVs were washed out with 500 μl

warmed, degassed TN150MC buffer at 100 μl/min. 300 μl of a solution of 1 mg/ml neutravidin

(Thermo Fisher) in warmed, degassed TN150MC buffer was then infused at a rate of 100 μl/min

into the flow cell and incubated at 37 °C for 30 min. Excess neutravidin was washed out with

TN150MC buffer as above, and the flow cell infused with 100 μl of a solution containing 1 mg/ml

biotinylated sonicated salmon sperm DNA (as prepared above) in warmed, degassed TN150MC

buffer and incubated at 37 °C for 30 min. The ports of the flow cell were sealed with parafilm and

stored at 4 °C for up to a week.

Prior to use, excess DNA was removed by infusion of 300 μl 0.22 μm filtered and degassed TIRFM

buffer (50 mM HEPES.KOH pH 7.5, 300 mM K-glutamate, 50 mM NaCl, 10 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.1 mM

$CaCl_2$, 2 mM DTT, 0.1 mg/ml α-casein, 0.6 mg/ml ascorbic acid, 10% glycerol) with addition of

1 mg/ml α-casein and 1 mM ATPγS and the flow cell incubated at room temperature for 30 min.

Conversion of the fluorescence signal detected in TIRF microscopy to the DNA-carpet-bound

protein densities was done following the procedure described in the legend of Figure S4 in

(Vecchiarelli et al., 2016).

Fluorescence Recovery After Photobleaching (FRAP).

For FRAP experiments, 488 nm solid-state and 630 nm diode laser was focused to the back focal

plane of the objective through an appropriate dichroic mirror (Di01-R405/488/561/635-25x36,

Semrock) through the objective lens to illuminate a ~5 or ~10 μm (for 488 nm or 630 nm,

respectively) diameter spot in the center of the sample area. The laser power was adjusted for

~80 % bleaching with 5 s exposure for the eGFP or Alexa 647 signals, and four cycles of

bleaching/recovery were recorded for each sample and averaged.

Magnetic Tweezers-based DNA condensation assay.

The magnetic tweezer setup and assays conducted with it were performed as previously described

(Seol and Neuman, 2011; Seol et al., 2016).

The ability of $ParB_F$ to condense $parS_F$-containing DNA (spDNA) was tested by a custom-built

magnetic tweezer setup. In brief, two permanent magnets were used to apply force to micron sized

magnetic beads individually tethered to the coverslip of a one inlet flow cell by 5 kb pET28a

plasmid-derived DNA tethers. The distance the magnets were held from the beads, and hence the

force exerted upon them, was controlled by a linear motor that vertically positions the magnets.

5kb DNA substrates were generated by PCR using either pET28a-*parS$_F$* plasmid (for *parS$_F$*-

containing DNA) or pET28a as templates. pET28-*parS$_F$* DNA plasmid was generated by cloning

570 bp DNA segment containing 12 repeats of *parS$_F$* native sequence from F-plasmid into pET28a

between the BamHI and SphI restriction sites.

Primers used for the PCR contained an extra non-complementary 15 nt at their 5' ends to encode

BsaI restriction sites. The PCR reaction yields a 5.2 kb product incorporating two BsaI restriction

sites at its termini. Digestion of this product was followed by ligation with 500 bp DNA "handles"

containing either multiple biotin or digitoxin labels. These handles were also generated by Taq-

based PCR using pBlueScript II KS as the template, pBlueScript II KS forward (5'- GCT GGG

TCT CGG TTG TTC CCT TTA GTG AGG GTT AAT TG) and pBlueScript II KS reverse (5'-

GCT GGG TCT CGT GGT TTC CCT TTA GTG AGG GTT AAT TG) primers and either 60 μM

biotin-16-dUTP or digoxigenin-11-dUTP (Roche). This results in a 5 kb DNA tether which can be

attached to a streptavidin coated magnetic bead at one end and an anti-digoxigenin coverslip

surface at the other.

ParB$_F$ samples were prepared in modified ATPase buffer (50 mM HEPES.KOH pH 7.5, 100 mM

KCl, 5 mM MgCl$_2$, 2 mM DTT, 10 mg/ml BSA and 0.1% Tween-20) and infused into a flow cell

containing tethered magnetic beads held at 5 pN of force. After the chamber was filled, the flow

was stopped, and the force reduced to 0.05 pN. The height of beads was tracked by analysis of

diffraction rings generated by illumination of the beads from above and observed with an objective

positioned below the flow cell. The extent of condensation by ParB was monitored by the decrease

in the height of the beads at 0.05 and 5 pN as compared to controls without protein.

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Figure and Table legends

Figure 1. *Schematic of flow cell setup for visualizing the binding and dissociation of*

fluorescent proteins on DNA-carpet.

ParA$_F$-eGFP and ParB$_F$-Alexa647 proteins were flowed over a dense carpet of nsDNA attached to

the supported lipid bilayer coated surface of a flow cell. TIRF microscopy permits selective

detection of the DNA-carpet bound proteins. Sample solution and wash buffer, as specified for

each experiment, were infused *via* two syringes at different infusion rates from separate inlets into

a Y-shaped flow cell. A laminar boundary separates the two solutions downstream of the flow

convergence point at the Y-junction. At the midpoint across the flow channel, downstream but

close to the flow convergence point where the observations are made, the DNA-carpet area is

exposed to the syringe content of the higher infusion rate. When the infusion rates of the two

syringes are switched, the laminar boundary moves across the observation area and the solution

flowing over the area switches. By switching the infusion rates of the two syringes repeatedly,

multiple DNA-carpet-bound protein complex assembly and wash cycles can be recorded.

Figure 2.   *Monomeric ParB$_F^{1-42}$-mCherry can activate ParA$_F$ for nsDNA binding in the*

presence of ATPγS by forming a ~1:1 complex.

Protein sample solution in the presence of ATPγS (1 mM) was infused into nsDNA-carpeted flow

cell at a constant flow to monitor the protein binding to the nsDNA, and the sample solution was

switched to a wash buffer containing ATPγS to monitor protein dissociation from nsDNA. (A and

B) Binding to, and dissociation from, nsDNA of ParA$_F$-eGFP (1 μM) or ParB$_F$-Alexa647 (2 μM)

were measured separately. (C) ParB$_F^{1-42}$-mCherry (10 μM) and ParA$_F$-eGFP (1 μM) preincubated

with ATPγS were infused into the nsDNA-carpeted flow cell and (D) washed with buffer

containing ATPγS. (E) The washing experiment of D was repeated with wash buffer containing

ATPγS and ParB$_F^{1-42}$-mCherry (10 μM). For the parameters of the time courses of above

experiments and subsequent experiments of the same type in this study, see Table 1. The

ParB$_F$:ParA$_F$ ratio was calculated from carpet-bound densities of the two proteins measured in

parallel, and summarized in Table 1. (F) ParA$_F$-ATPase activity (expressed as turnover rate per

ParA$_F$ monomer) was measured in the presence of EcoRI-digested pBR322 DNA (60 μg/ml) and

different concentrations of ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$. Inset shows a plot with expanded abscissa. (G) ParA$_F$-ATPase

activity was measured as above in the presence of dimeric ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$-mCherry-EcoRI^{E111Q}. The

parameters of ATPase stimulation curves in these and subsequent figures are summarized in Table

2.

Source Data 1: Numerical data for figure 2 panels A-E (Microsoft Excel).

Source Data 2: Numerical data for figure 2 panels F, G (Microsoft Excel).

Figure supplement 1: *G*el filtration column elution profile of ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$-mCherry.

Figure supplement 2—Source data 1: FRAP of ParA$_F$-eGFP and ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$-mCherry on DNA-

carpet.

Figure supplement 3: Comparison of possible structural domain arrangements of artificially

dimeric ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$-mCherry-EcoRI^{E111Q} to ParB$_F$ structures in the absence or presence of C-

nucleotide.

Figure supplement 4—Source data 1: ParA$_F$ ATPase stimulation by ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$-mCherry-

EcoRI^{E111Q} is not influenced by the addition of DNA fragment containing EcoRI recognition

sequence.

Figure 3.   *ParB$_F$$^{1-42\ R36A}$-mCherry dissociates faster from nsDNA-carpet-bound ParA$_F$-ATPγS*

dimer, and ParA$_F$-ATPase activation requires higher ParB$_F$$^{1-42\ R36A}$ concentration.

(A) $ParB_F^{1-42\ R36A}$-mCherry (10 μM) and $ParA_F$-eGFP (1 μM) preincubated with ATPγS were

infused into the nsDNA-carpeted flow cell and then (B) washed with buffer containing ATPγS.

(C) The washing experiment of B was repeated with buffer containing ATPγS and $ParB_F^{1-42\ R36A}$-

mCherry (10 μM). (D) $ParA_F$-ATPase activity was measured in the presence of EcoRI-digested

pBR322 DNA (60 μg/ml) as a function of $ParB_F^{1-42\ R36A}$ concentration. See Figure 2 legend and

Tables 1 and 2 for additional details.

Source data 1: Numerical data for figure 3 panels A-C (Microsoft Excel).

Source data 2: Numerical data for figure 3 panels D (Microsoft Excel).

Figure 4.   *$parS_F$ DNA alters protein stoichiometry of the $ParA_F$—$ParB_F$ complex formed prior*

to ATP hydrolysis and the extent of $ParA_F$-ATPase activation by $ParB_F$.

(A) $ParA_F$-eGFP (1 μM) and $ParB_F$-Alexa647 (2 μM) preincubated with ATPγS were infused into

the nsDNA-carpeted flow cell and then (B) washed with buffer containing ATPγS. (C and D) As

A and B except the sample included 24bp *$parS_F$* DNA fragment (1.1 μM). (E) $ParA_F$-ATPase

activity was measured in the presence of EcoRI-digested pBR322 DNA (60 μg/ml), different

concentrations of $ParB_F$ and either a *$parS_F$*-DNA fragment or a DNA fragment with a scrambled

sequence (1.1-fold higher concentrations than the $ParB_F$ dimers). See Figure 2 legend and Tables

1 and 2 for additional details.

Source data 1: Numerical data for figure 4 panels A-D (Microsoft Excel).

Source data 2: Numerical data for figure 4 panels E (Microsoft Excel).

Figure supplement 1—Source data 1: Numerical data for Figure 4—figure supplement 1

(Microsoft Excel).

Figure supplement 2—Source data 1: Numerical data for Figure 4—figure supplement 2

(Microsoft Excel).

Figure 5.   *CTP and parS$_F$ together alter interactions between ParB$_F$ and ParA$_F$ dimers.*

(A) ParA$_F$-eGFP (1 μM) and ParB$_F$-Alexa647 (2 μM) preincubated with ATPγS and CTP (2mM)

were infused into the nsDNA-carpeted flow cell and then washed with buffer containing ATPγS

and CTP. (B) As in A, except a 24 bp *parS$_F$* fragment (1.1 μM) was added to the sample mixture.

(C) As in B, except CTP was replaced by CDP. For binding curves, see Figure 5—figure

supplement 1A-C. (D) ParA$_F$ (1 μM), ParB$_F$-Alexa647 (2 μM) and Alexa488-labeled 24 bp *parS$_F$*

fragment (1.1 μM) preincubated with ATPγS or ATPγS plus CTP (2mM) were infused into the

nsDNA-carpeted flow cell and after 240 sec, the ratio of the carpet-bound *parS$_F$* fragment and

ParB$_F$ dimer was measured. (E) ParA$_F$-ATPase activity was measured in the presence of EcoRI-

digested pBR322 DNA (60 μg/ml), different concentrations of ParB$_F$ and either no C-nucleotide,

or 2mM CTP. Inset shows data in the presence of CTP with expanded abscissa. (F) As in E except

the reactions also contained 24 bp *parS$_F$* fragment (1.1-fold higher concentrations than ParB$_F$

dimers). Inset shows data in the presence of *parS$_F$* and CTP with expanded abscissa. See Figure 2

legend and Tables 1 and 2 for additional details.

Source data 1: Numerical data for figure 5 panels A-D (Microsoft Excel).

Source data 2: Numerical data for figure 5 panels E, F (Microsoft Excel).

Figure supplement 1—Source data 1: Numerical data for Figure 5—figure supplement 1

(Microsoft Excel).

Figure supplement 2—Source data 1: Numerical data for Figure 5—figure supplement 2

(Microsoft Excel).

Figure 6.   *Magnetic tweezers measurements of parS_F and CTP-dependent DNA*

condensation by ParB_F.

(A) Schematic showing the magnetic tweezers DNA condensation assay. One end of a 5 kb DNA

molecule is attached to the surface of a flow-cell and the free end is attached to a 1 μm magnetic

bead (brown sphere). The DNA extension (Ex) was measured by tracking the bead height above

the cover glass surface at two different forces; 0.05 pN (low force, lf), and 5 pN (high force, hf).

The extent of DNA condensation was estimated from the difference in DNA extension with and

without ParB_F. (B) Changes in extension at low force ($dEx^{lf} = Ex^{lf} - Ex_0^{lf}$), left panel, and at high

force ($dEx^{hf} = Ex^{hf} - Ex_0^{hf}$), right panel, for 7 different conditions plotted as a function of ParB_F

concentration. The extension values were the averages of the last 5 seconds of the extension at low

force (circles) and the first 5 seconds of the extension at high force (triangles). Error bars represent

standard error of means (SEM). Different conditions are color coded as follows. Purple: *parS_F*-

DNA tether with WT ParB_F and CTP; light blue: *parS_F*-DNA tether with WT ParB_F and CDP; dark

blue: nsDNA tether with WT ParB_F and CTP; red: *parS_F*-DNA tether with ParB_F^{R121A} and CTP;

orange: nsDNA tether with ParB_F^{R121A} and CTP. For comparison with condensation in the presence

of CTP, dEx data of *parS_F*-DNA tether (purple) and nsDNA tether (blue) with WT ParB_F without

CTP are displayed (inset, open circles for 0.05 pN, triangle for 5 pN respectively). (C) The

condensation probabilities at 0.1 μM ParB_F for 5 different conditions at 0.05 pN and 5 pN. The

condensation probability was calculated by dividing the number of DNA tethers that exhibited

DNA condensation by the total number of DNA tethers for each measurement condition. Except

for *parS*$_F$-DNA with WT ParB$_F$ and CTP, all conditions show either minimal or negligible

condensation probabilities. The different conditions are color-coded as indicated in B and the

diagonal stripes indicates probabilities at 5 pN. Error bars represent standard error of means (SEM).

Source data 1: Numerical data for figure 6 panel A (Microsoft Excel).

Source data 2: Numerical data for figure 6 panel B-left (Microsoft Excel).

Source data 3: Numerical data for figure 6 panel B-right (Microsoft Excel).

Source data 4: Numerical data for figure 6 panel C (Microsoft Excel).

Figure supplement 1—Source data 1: Numerical data for Figure 6—figure supplement 1A

(Microsoft Excel).

Figure supplement 1—Source data 2: Numerical data for Figure 6—figure supplement 1B

(Microsoft Excel).

Figure supplement 2—Source data 1: Numerical data for Figure 6—figure supplement 2

(Microsoft Excel).

Figure supplement 3—Source data 1: Numerical data for Figure 6—figure supplement 3

(Microsoft Excel).

Figure 7. *Cartoon of the proposed pre-ATPase-activation complexes of ParA$_F$ and ParB$_F$.*

(A) Pictograms of nsDNA, *parS*$_F$-DNA, ParA$_F$ monomer/dimer and ParB$_F$ domains with binding

ligand designations. The CTPase domains of a ParB$_F$ dimer fold forming a single globular domain

on binding CTP, bringing the two ParA$_F$-binding domains into close proximity. (B) ParA$_F$-binding

domain, ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$ alone can convert ParA$_F$ monomers to DNA-binding-competent dimers in the

presence of ATPγS by forming an $A_2B^{1-42}{}_2$ complex (top). $ParB_F$ dimers in the absence of CTP

convert $ParA_F$ monomers to DNA-binding-competent dimers in the presence of ATPγS by

straddling a $ParA_F$ dimer to form an A_2B_2 complex (middle). In the presence of CTP, the close

proximity of the $ParA_F$-binding domains of the $ParB_F$ dimer prevents A_2B_2 complex formation and

instead an A_2B_4 complex assembles on nsDNA in the presence of ATPγS (bottom). (C) In the

presence of $parS_F$ and CTP, $ParB_F$ dimers load on to the $parS_F$-DNA and spread to adjacent DNA

regions while adopting a state that enables faster assembly of A_2B_4 complexes. Considering the

requirements for efficient partition complex motion by diffusion-ratchet mechanism based on the

chemophoretic principle of force generation, we propose a significant energy barrier that slows the

formation of the ATP hydrolysis-competent A_2B_4 complex. This energy barrier partially decouples

$ParA_F$—$ParB_F$ association-dissociation dynamics from ATP hydrolysis, which triggers $ParA_F$

dissociation from the nucleoid.

Table 1. *Apparent disassembly or exchange rate constants (min^{-1}) and $ParB_F/ParA_F$ ratio*

from fits of TIRFM wash and FRAP experiments.

The apparent dissociation (or FRAP) rate constants (k_{off}) were obtained for individual time-

trajectories by single-exponential curve fitting (except ** where the rate of the faster decay, (68

+/- 0.5%) of a double-exponential fit is shown), and the mean and SEM for the set of independent

experiments are shown in **bold** (except *where standard deviation among non-independent repeats

within an experiment is shown). (N is the number of separate experiments, with total number of

binding/wash cycles for repeated data collection in parenthesis.) ParA:ParB ratios were calculated

from the final phase of the individual association time-trajectories (except *** where it was based

on the beginning part of the washing phase in the presence of $ParB_F^{1-42\ R36A}$), and the mean and

SEM for the set of independent experiments are shown in *italics*. N.D., not done.

Table 2.   *ATPase fit parameters*.

ATPase measurements were performed with $ParA_F$ (1 μM) and different mutants of $ParB_F$, 60

μg/ml EcoRI-digested pBR322 DNA plus Scram- or *parS_F*-DNA fragment and CTP or CDP, as

indicated in the column headings. Assays were repeated "*N*" times, each data set of an assay was

fit after subtraction of background measured without $ParA_F$ to a modified Hill equation: $v - v_0 =$

$(v_{max}\ [B]^n) / (K_A^n + [B]^n)$, and the mean and standard error of the mean (SEM) of the fit parameters

for the *N* measurements are shown. For [B] on the x-axis, total $ParB_F$ concentration was used

instead of free $ParB_F$ concentration due to technical issues in estimating the free $ParB_F$

concentration and the meanings of $\mathbf{K_A}$ and the cooperativity factor $\mathbf{n}$ here differ from those in the

standard adaptation of the Hill equation. $\boldsymbol{v_{max}}$ is the maximum stimulated $ParA_F$ ATPase turnover

rate, $\mathbf{K_A}$ is the apparent <u>total</u> concentration of $ParB_F$ necessary for half maximum stimulation, and

$\mathbf{n}$ is the apparent cooperativity coefficient.

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 Figure Supplement Legends:

 Figure 2—figure supplement 1.

 *G*el filtration column elution profile of $ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry.

 The elution profile of $ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry on a Superose 6 3.2/300 column (GE Healthcare) with a

 standard curve generated using a protein standards kit (GE Healthcare). The molecular weight of

 $ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry was estimated to be ~35 kDa, close to the predicted molecular weight for a

 monomer of ~33 kDa.

 Figure 2—figure supplement 2.

 FRAP of $ParA_F$-eGFP and $ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry on DNA-carpet.

 $ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry exchanged significantly faster than $ParA_F$ after photo-bleaching. Data have been

 normalized to the maximum fluorescence recovery. The data were fitted to a single-exponential

 curve for $ParA_F$ and a double-exponential curve for $ParB_F$, which was not well fit with a single-

 exponential recovery curve. $ParA_F$ recovered with k_{excg} ~2.0 min^{-1}, and $ParB_F$ recovered with k_{excg}

 ~15 min^{-1} for the faster (68%), and ~2.0 min^{-1} for the slower, recovery components. Multi-

 exponential recovery kinetics can be explained by the relatively large bleached area causing

 variable diffusion distance for the unbleached molecules need to travel for full fluorescence

 recovery of the bleached area (this affects recovery of faster recovering components more

 significantly). An alternative explanation that assumes a 30% population of stable $ParA_F$-$ParB_F^{1-}$

 ^{42}-mCherry complex is unlikely since the buffer wash experiment (Figure 2D) did not support the

 presence of such a species.

Figure 2—figure supplement 3.

Comparison of possible structural domain arrangements of artificially dimeric ParB$_F^{1-42}$-mCherry-

EcoRI^{E111Q} (A), ParB$_F$ dimer structure in the absence (B) and presence (C) of C-nucleotide. This

figure depicts montages of domain structures connected by gray lines representing presumed

flexible linkers. The structures of the protein domains are based on the following PDB files: EcoR1

(dark green): 1qc9, mCherry (pale yellow): 2h5q, ParB dimerization domain (gray): 1zx4, ParB

DNA-binding domain (dark blue) plus CTPase domain (pale blue) in the absence of C-nucleotide:

4umk, ParB DNA-binding domain plus CTPase domain bound to CDP: 6sdk. The dark red helix

symbolizes the ParA$_F$ interaction domain, which is expected to form an α-helix upon binding ParA$_F$.

The domain arrangement in B is loosely based on the proposal by Chen et al., (2015), which is

based on the SAXS envelope of ParB$_{Hp}$ dimer in the absence of C-nucleotide.

Figure 2—figure supplement 4.

ParA$_F$ ATPase stimulation by ParB$_F^{1-42}$-mCherry-EcoRI^{E111Q} is not influenced by the addition of

DNA fragment containing EcoRI recognition sequence.

(A) ParA$_F$-ATPase activation curve of ParB$_F^{1-42}$-mCherry-EcoRI^{E111Q} in the absence of the EcoRI

sequence duplex (Figure 2G) is shown for comparison. (B) ParA$_F$-ATPase activity was measured

in the presence of EcoRI-digested pBR322 DNA (60 μg/ml), 77 bp duplex DNA fragment

containing two EcoRI recognition sequences (5'-

GAATTCCGAGTGGGACCGTGGTCCCAGTCTGATTATCAGACCGAGAATTCAAGTTGG

GACCGTGGTCCCAAGAGAAT, plus complement; 1.5 μM) and different concentrations of

dimeric $ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry-EcoRI^{E111Q}.

Figure 4—figure supplement 1.

Determination of $ParB_F$ monomer-dimer K_D by FRET.

In order to estimate the K_D for dimerization of $ParB_F$ two batches of protein were separately labeled

with Alexa 488 or Alexa 594 then mixed at equal concentrations, the sum of which are shown on

the x-axis. The FRET efficiency was measured using a fluorescence plate reader (Clariostar Plus,

BMG Labtech). Assuming the observed FRET efficiency linearly correlates to the fraction of the

protein in the dimer state, the apparent K_D for dimerization of $ParB_F$ was estimated to be ~18.5 nM.

Figure 4—figure supplement 2.

Mutation of a BoxII residue R121A does not affect the affinity of $ParB_F^{R121A}$ for $parS_F$, but neither

the protein stoichiometry of the $ParA_F$-$ParB_F^{R121A}$ complex assembled on nsDNA prior to ATP

hydrolysis, nor the extent of $ParA_F$-ATPase activation by $ParB_F^{R121A}$ is impacted by the presence

of $parS_F$.

$ParA_F$ (1 μM) and $ParB_F^{R121A}$ (2 μM) were preincubated in the presence of ATPγS either without

(A) or together with 24 bp $parS_F$ DNA fragment (1.1 μM, C), infused into to the DNA-carpeted

flow cell and washed with buffer containing ATPγS (B, D). (E) $ParA_F$ ATPase activation by

$ParB_F^{R121A}$ was measured in the presence of EcoRI-digested pBR322 DNA (60 μg/ml) and different

concentrations of $ParB_F^{R121A}$ either in the absence (black line) or presence (red line) of $parS_F$ (at

10% excess of the dimer concentrations of $ParB_F^{R121A}$). (F) The binding of $ParB_F$ or $ParB_F^{R121A}$ to

0.1 nM P^{32}-labeled 24 bp $parS_F$ DNA (left) or to 0.1 nM P^{32}-labeled 24 bp *scrambled* DNA (right)

was measured by EMSA. A 4-12% gradient acrylamide gel was run in 1x TBE + 5 mM Mg_2Ac at

4 °C for 1 hour, 150 V. The gels were quantified (bottom) to estimate the *parS* binding K_D of $ParB_F$

and $ParB_F^{R121A}$.

Figure 5—figure supplement 1.

Binding curves for $ParA_F$ and $ParB_F$ with CDP or CTP associating with the DNA-carpet.

(A) $ParA_F$-eGFP (1 μM) and $ParB_F$-Alexa647 (2 μM) preincubated in the presence of ATPγS and

2 mM CTP were infused into the nsDNA-carpeted flow cell. (B) $ParA_F$-eGFP (1 μM) and $ParB_F$-

Alexa647 (2 μM) preincubated in the presence of 24bp $parS_F$ DNA fragment (1.1 μM), ATPγS

and 2 mM CTP were infused into the nsDNA-carpeted flow cell. (C) $ParA_F$-eGFP (1 μM) and

$ParB_F$-Alexa647 (2 μM) preincubated in the presence of 24bp $parS_F$ DNA fragment (1.1 μM),

ATPγS and 2 mM CDP were infused into the nsDNA-carpeted flow cell.

Figure 5—figure supplement 2.

Nucleotide specificity and CTPase activity of $ParB_F$ in the presence of different concentrations of

CTP, in the presence or absence of $parS_F$.

(A) NTPase activities of $ParB_F$ (0.84 μM) in the presence of 100 μM ribonucleoside triphosphates

were measured in the CTPase buffer (Materials and Methods). (B) The CTP hydrolysis initial rate

by $ParB_F$ (0.84 μM) was measured at different CTP concentrations to estimate the apparent CTP

K_M with or without 100 nM $parS_F$ (24bp duplex with one copy of $ParB_F$ binding consensus

sequence). (C) $parS_F$ concentration dependence of the CTPase activity of $ParB_F$ (0.84 μM, 100 μM

CTP). Pronounced sigmoidal $parS_F$ concentration dependency of the CTPase stimulation was

observed. This is in contrast to the hyperbolic $parS_{Bsu}$ concentration dependency reported for

$ParB_{Bsu}$ (Soh et al., 2019). The mechanistic reason for this concentration dependency is currently

under investigation. (D) CDP used in this study contained a compound that can be hydrolyzed by

$ParB_F$ to release Pi. Time course of Pi production from 1 mM CDP in the presence of 0.84 μM

$ParB_F$ is compared to reactions containing 5 to 150 μM CTP.

Figure 6—figure supplement 1.

Stepwise de-condensation of condensed DNA tethers in the presence of CDP or CTP by tensile

force: condensation observed in the presence of CDP is unstable.

(A) The extension of 6 DNA tethers containing $parS_F$ sequences (colored solid lines, left y-axis)

were simultaneously measured at a force (green solid line, right y-axis) of 0.05 pN after the

introduction of $ParB_F$ (0.1 μM) and CTP (1 mM). The tethers remained condensed for at least 85 s

after the force was increased to 5 pN. Most increases in extension took place in discrete steps. (B)

The same measurement as in (A) except that the DNA was condensed with 10-fold more $ParB_F$ (1

μM) with CDP (1 mM). DNA condensation in the presence of CDP was quickly reversed under

high force (5 pN). After the force was increased to 5 pN (time 0) the extension of all five DNA

tethers increased to their full decondensed length (dashed line) within ~5 s.

Figure 6–figure supplement 2.

Tether condensation by $ParB_F$ is comparable for topologically constrained (supercoilable) and

unconstrained (nicked) DNA.

(A) The DNA tethers used for the condensation experiments were a mixture of torsionally

constrained and unconstrained. Prior to condensation measurements, the magnetic beads attached

to the end of the DNA molecules were rotated by rotating the external magnets in the magnetic

tweezers instrument. Rotationally constrained DNA molecules are supercoiled by rotating the

magnet, resulting in the formation of a plectoneme and a decrease in the extension of the DNA

molecule. Torsionally unconstrained (typically nicked) DNA molecules are insensitive to the bead

rotation and remain at the same extension (top). An example of this *in situ* discrimination between

torsionally constrained and unconstrained DNA tethers is shown in the graph displaying the

extension of 6 DNA molecules (bottom). The DNA extension decreased for 2 of the 6 DNA

molecules after imposing -10 turns, indicating that these two molecules are rotationally constrained

(left panel bottom). (B) Condensation, as measured by the change in extension reduction as a

function of $ParB_F$ concentration is comparable for the topologically constrained (black squares)

and unconstrained (grey squares) DNA molecules.

Figure 6—figure supplement 3.

DNA tethers without *parS_F* sequence are not condensed by $ParB_F$ and *parS_F in trans* in the

presence of CTP.

DNA tethers that did not contain a *parS_F* site were not significantly condensed by the addition of

parS_F DNA fragment *in trans* with $ParB_F$ in the presence of CTP. The decreases in extension at

0.05 pN (blue circle, left panel) and 5 pN (blue triangle, right panel) are plotted as a function of

the concentration of ParB and $parS_F$, which were added together at stoichiometric concentrations.

1156

1157   **Source Data Files**   (one Excel file with 19 sheets)

1158   Figure 2-Source Data 1:

1159   Numerical data for Figure 2 panels A-E (Microsoft Excel).

1160   Figure 2-Source Data 2:

1161   Numerical data for Figure 2 panels F, G (Microsoft Excel).

1162   Figure 2—figure supplement 2-Source Data 1:

1163   Numerical data for Figure 2—figure supplement 2 (Microsoft Excel).

1164   Figure 2—figure supplement 4-Source Data 1:

1165   Numerical data for Figure 2—figure supplement 4 (Microsoft Excel).

1166   Figure 3-Source Data 1:

1167   Numerical data for Figure 3 panels A-C (Microsoft Excel).

1168   Figure 3-Source Data 2:

1169   Numerical data for Figure 3 panels D (Microsoft Excel).

1170   Figure 4-Source Data 1:

1171   Numerical data for Figure 4 panels A-D (Microsoft Excel).

1172   Figure 4-Source Data 2:

1173   Numerical data for Figure 4 panels E (Microsoft Excel).

1174   Figure 4—figure supplement 1-Source Data 1:

1175   Numerical data for Figure 4—figure supplement 1 (Microsoft Excel).

1176   Figure 4—figure supplement 2-Source Data 1:

1177   Numerical data for Figure 4—figure supplement 2 panels A-D and F (Microsoft Excel).

1178   Figure 5-Source Data 1:

1179    Numerical data for Figure 5 panels A-D (Microsoft Excel).

1180  Figure 5-Source Data 2:

1181    Numerical data for Figure 5 panels E, F (Microsoft Excel).

1182  Figure 5—figure supplement 1-Source Data 1:

1183    Numerical data for Figure 5—figure supplement 1 (Microsoft Excel).

1184  Figure 5—figure supplement 2-Source Data 1:

1185    Numerical data for Figure 5—figure supplement 2 (Microsoft Excel).

1186  Figure 6-Source Data 1:

1187    Numerical data for Figure 6 panel A (Microsoft Excel).

1188  Figure 6-Source Data 2:

1189    Numerical data for Figure 6 panel B-left (Microsoft Excel).

1190  Figure 6-Source Data 3:

1191    Numerical data for Figure 6 panels B-right (Microsoft Excel).

1192  Figure 6-Source Data 4:

1193    Numerical data for Figure 6 panels C (Microsoft Excel).

1194  Figure 6—figure supplement 1-Source Data 1:

1195    Numerical data for Figure 6—figure supplement 1A (Microsoft Excel).

1196  Figure 6—figure supplement 1-Source Data 2:

1197    Numerical data for Figure 6—figure supplement 1B (Microsoft Excel).

1198  Figure 6—figure supplement 2-Source Data 1:

1199    Numerical data for Figure 6—figure supplement 2 (Microsoft Excel).

1200  Figure 6—figure supplement 3-Source Data 1:

1201   Numerical data for Figure 6—figure supplement 3 (Microsoft Excel).

1202

Binding

ParA_F
ParB_F
ATPγS

ATPγS ±
ParB_F

Washing

Waste

~150 nm

A₂B₂ A₂B₄

Binding

ParA_F
ParB_F
ATPγS

ATPγS ±
ParB_F

Washing

Waste

~150 nm

A₂B₂ A₂B₄

Figure S8

A

B

No nsDNA tether condensation by adding $ParB_F$ and $parS_F$ oligo