CTP and *parS* control ParB partition complex dynamics and ParA-ATPase activation for ParABS-mediated DNA partitioning

Running title: CTP- and *parS*-controlled F-plasmid partition

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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 of $ParB_F$ activation of $ParA_F$-ATPase has not been defined. We

studied CTP- and *parS$_F$*-stimulated $ParA_F$—$ParB_F$ complex assembly leading to $ParA_F$-ATPase

activation. Activation of DNA-bound $ParA_F$-ATP dimers for ATP hydrolysis requires binding of

two $ParB_F$ N-terminal domains. CTP or *parS$_F$* enhances the ATPase rate without increasing

$ParA_F$—$ParB_F$ assembly kinetics. Together, *parS$_F$* and CTP accelerate $ParA_F$—$ParB_F$ assembly

without further increasing the 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 fourteen 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, Soh

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

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

process dependent on energy derived from CTP hydrolysis (Jalal et al., 2020; 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 established 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 by substituting ATP with non-hydrolysable ATPγS in the presence of different

$ParB_F$-cofactors (*parS* and CTP) or introducing $ParB_F$ mutants that hinder $ParB_F$ dimerization,

parS_F-binding, 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 line with this, a

magnetic tweezers-based DNA condensation assay revealed that stable DNA condensation by

ParB$_F$ required both CTP and *parS$_F$*, suggesting that these cofactors promote both ParA$_F$—ParB$_F$

and ParB$_F$—ParB$_F$ interactions. This 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 ~80 h^{-1}. These findings have important implications

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

Figure 1.   *Schematic of flow cell setup for visualizing the binding and dissociation of fluorescent proteins on DNA-carpet.*

Figure 1.   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 by biotin-streptavidin linkages. Imaging the surface of the flow cell by TIRF microscopy permits selective detection of the DNA-carpet bound proteins. Sample solution and the 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.

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. 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 and low binding 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 1—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). FRAP measurements of $ParA_F$-eGFP—$ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry bound to the DNA-carpet

in the presence of ATPγS also indicated rapid exchange of $ParB_F^{1-42}$-mCherry (Figure 1—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.

Figure 2.   *Monomeric ParB_F^{1-42}-mCherry can activate ParA_F for nsDNA binding in the*

presence of ATPγS by forming ~1:1 complex.

Figure 2.   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 washing buffer containing ATPγS and ParB_F^{1-42}-mCherry (10 μM). Time courses of above experiments and

subsequent experiments of the same type in this study represent the average of several independent experiments

each comprising multiple repeated time-trajectory recordings. Error bars at each time point on the curve plots are SEM of all measurements. Dissociation rate constants (and the ParB$_F$:ParA$_F$ ratio where indicated) were calculated, unless otherwise noted, by first fitting individual time-trajectories with a single-exponential to obtain rate constants (or the B/A ratio of each carpet-bound protein density pair). The fit parameters were then averaged over repeated measurements within each experiment, and the mean and SEM for the set of experimental repeats were calculated. The calculated parameters shown in this figure, and other parameters calculated similarly, are summarized in Table 1. (F) ParA$_F$-ATPase activity (1 μM) was measured in the presence of EcoRI-digested pBR322 DNA (60 μg/ml) and different concentrations of ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$. (G) ParA$_F$-ATPase activity was measured as above in the presence of dimeric ParB$_F$$^{1-42}$-mCherry-EcoRI^{E111Q}. The ATPase stimulation curves in these and subsequent figures represent the average of three separate experiments unless otherwise specified (see Table 2), with error bars representing the SEM. Kinetic parameters were calculated as follows. ParB$_F$ dose-response curves, after subtraction of background without ParA$_F$, were fitted using a modified Hill equation: $v - v_0 = (v_{max} [B]^n) / (K_A^n + [B]^n)$, to account for the sigmoidal concentration dependence observed in some experiments. 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. v_0 represents ATPase activity in the absence of ParB$_F$. Combined with relatively high ParA$_F$ concentration needed for the assay, the meanings of K_A and the cooperativity factor *n* here differ from those in the standard adaptation of the Hill equation. The mean and SEM of the parameters extracted from repeated experiments were calculated. The kinetic parameters and number of experimental repeats are summarized in Table 2.

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}. This construct, with

expected dimerization Kd < 10 pM (Liu et al., 1998), 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). Possible binding of

the inactive EcoRI domain to DNA does 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 1—figure supplement 3). 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$_F^{1\text{-}42\,R36A}$-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$_F^{1\text{-}42\,R36A}$

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

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

that while the R36A mutation abrogated plasmid partitioning, it did not impede oscillation of ParA$_F$

on the nucleoid (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 be able to activate ParA$_F$-ATPase to support

oscillation of the nucleoid-bound ParA$_F$ distribution. However, the altered ParA$_F$—ParB$_F$

interaction dynamics prior to ATPase activation likely diminish the mechano-coupling efficiency

of the system that result in the observed partition defect.

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.

Figure 3.   (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.

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/μm^2 (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 size ParB$_F$, which forms dimer with apparent Kd 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.

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

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

Figure 4.   (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 (1 μM) 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.

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.

Both CTP and CDP alter the complex formed between ParA$_F$ and ParB$_F$ in a manner similar to

parS$_F$, and CTP accelerates complex formation in the presence of parS$_F$.

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

in their DNA binding properties and ordering of their unstructured CTPase domains (Soh et al.,

2019), we next tested 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 and CTP, 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 ~ 0.5 min^{-1}. The results were similar when CTP was replaced by CDP (Figure 5B,

Figure 5—figure supplement 1B). Inclusion of parS$_F$ DNA fragment in the reaction mixture

containing CDP did not dramatically change the results (Figure 5D, Figure 5—figure supplement

1D). However, when parS$_F$ was included together with CTP, the rate of A$_2$B$_4$ 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$_F$ (Figures 5C, Figure 5—figure supplement 1C).

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 5E).

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-$ParB_F$

is 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 assembly of the A_2B_4 complex.

$ParB_F$ 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 5F, G). 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.

Figure 5. *CTP and parS_F together alter the interactions between the ParB_F and ParA_F dimers.*

Figure 5. (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 CTP was replaced by CDP. (C) As in A, except 24 bp *parS_F* fragment (1.1 μM) was added to the sample mixture. (D) As in B, except 24 bp *parS_F* fragment (1.1 μM) was added to the sample mixture. For binding curves, see Figure 5—figure supplement 1A-D. (E) 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. (F) 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, 2mM CDP or 2mM

CTP. (G) As in F except the reactions also contained 24 bp *parS$_F$* fragment (1.1-fold higher concentrations than

ParB$_F$ dimers). See Figure 2 legend and Tables 1 and 2 for additional details.

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

from fits of TIRFM wash and FRAP experiments.

Table 1: Apparent disassembly or exchange rate constants (min^{-1}) and ParB$_F$/ParA$_F$ ratio from fits of TIRFM wash and FRAP experiments.

	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$_F^{R121A}$	
Protein Measured	*ParA$_F$*	*ParA$_F$*	*ParB$_F$*	*ParA$_F$*	*ParB$_F^{1-42 R36A}$*	*ParA$_F$*	*ParB$_F^{1-42}$*	*ParA$_F$*	*ParB$_F$*	*ParA$_F$*	*ParB$_F$*	*ParA$_F$*	*ParB$_F$*	*ParA$_F$*	*ParB$_F^{R121A}$*
- 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)	2.0± 0.08 N=3 (11)	15.3± 2.1** N=3 (12)	0.93± 0.07 N=2 (6)	0.89± 0.09 N=2 (6)	0.53± 0.02 N=3 (11)	0.59± 0.03 N=3 (12)	0.63± 0.04 N=2 (7)	0.65± 0.10 N=2(7)	0.89± 0.01 N=3 (8)	0.78± 0.05 N=3 (8)
		1 : 1.27± 0.06 N=2 (8)		*1 : 0.92± 0.02*** N=3 (9)*				*1 : 1.10± 0.13 N=3 (9)*		*1 : 1.49± 0.04 N=2 (7)*		*1 : 2.16± 0.15 N=3 (10)*		*1 : 0.99± 0.01 N=3 (8)*	
+ 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)
								1 : 2.17± 0.40 N=3 (9)		*1 : 2.53± 0.07 N=2 (6)*		*1 : 2.16± 0.27 N=2(6)*		*1 : 1.12± 0.01 N=3 (12)*	
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.*	

The apparent dissociation (or FRAP) rate constants were obtained for individual time-trajectories by single-exponential curve fitting (except ** where the rate of faster decay, (68 +/- 0.5%) of a double-exponential fitting is shown), averaged for repeats within an experiment, and the mean and SEM for the set of independent experiments are shown in **bold characters** (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$_F^{1-42 R36A}$), averaged for the repeats within an experiment, and the mean and SEM for the set of independent experiments are shown in *non-bold italicized characters*. N.D., not done.

Table 2.   ATPase kinetic 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 N = 6	*parS$_F$* N = 6	*Scram* N = 3	*parS$_F$* N = 3	*Scram* N = 3	*parS$_F$* N = 3	*Scram* N = 3	*parS$_F$* N = 3	N = 6	N = 3	*Scram* N = 3	*EcoRI DNA* N = 2
v_{max} (hr^{-1})	54 ± 4.6	79 ± 2.0	79 ± 8.1	78 ± 7.6	71 ± 8.5	87 ± 5.3	60 ± 4.8	62 ± 5.3	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	0.42 ± 0.06	0.34 ± 0.04	0.86 ± 0.11	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 ± 1.5	2.6 ± 0.8	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

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 were fit to a modified Hill equation as specified in the legend for Figure 2, and the mean and standard error of the mean (SEM) for the N measurements are shown. v_{max} is the maximum stimulated ATPase turnover number of ParA$_F$, K$_A$ is the apparent <u>total</u> concentration of ParB$_F$ necessary for half maximum stimulation and **n** is the apparent cooperativity coefficient.

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

A recent study showed that *B. subtilis* chromosomal ParB binds CTP *via* the highly conserved Box

II motif, which in turn triggers a conformational change in the N-terminal proximal regions in a

parS dependent manner (Soh et al., 2019). This CTP-*parS* dependent ParB conformational change

appears to promote ParB 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 have reported

DNA condensation by *B. subtilis* ParB via ParB—ParB interactions, but these studies were

conducted in the absence of CTP and did not see 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 were immobilized on the coverslip surface at

one end and attached to a magnetic bead on the other (Figure 6A). The tethers contained either

twelve $parS_F$ consensus sequence repeats of F-plasmid 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 tether-bound inter-

$ParB_F$ dimer bridges, the force was dropped to 0.05 pN and the DNA 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. The degree of condensation was

expressed as the decrease in magnetic bead height relative to the height prior to introduction of

$ParB_F$ (average extension measured over 5 sec immediately following force application). 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). 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). 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, Figure 5—figure supplement 1B). 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). 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 2).

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).

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).

Even in the absence of CTP or CDP, $ParB_F^{R121A}$/ $ParA_F$ complexes neither exhibited a change of

stoichiometry when assembled in the presence of ATPγS, nor a change in ATP turnover in

response $parS_F$ observed with wild type $ParB_F$ (Figure 4), suggesting a connection between

ParB$_F$—*parS$_F$* binding and the ParB$_F$ conformational change induced by C-nucleotide binding

(Figure 6—figure supplement 3).

Figure 6.   *Magnetic tweezers measurements of parS$_F$ and CTP-dependent DNA condensation by ParB$_F$.*

Figure 6.   (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 from the surface at two different forces; 0.05 pN (low force, lf), and 5 pN (high force, hf). The extent of DNA condensation was estimated by obtaining the difference in DNA extension with and without ParB$_F$ under high and low force conditions. (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. Error bars represent

standard error of means (SEM). Negative dEx^{lf} indicates DNA condensation by tether-bound ParB$_F$ dimers whereas negative dEx^{hf} indicates DNA condensation resisting the high (5 pN) pulling force, indicating stable ParB$_F$-ParB$_F$ DNA-looping interactions. The reported DNA extensions were the averages of the last 5 seconds of the extension at low force (0.05 pN; circles) and the first 5 seconds of the extension at high force (5 pN; triangles). 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 CDP; 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 and nsDNA tether with WT ParB$_F$ without CTP are displayed (inset, purple and blue open circles for 0.05 pN, purple and blue 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 pattern indicates probabilities at 5 pN. Error bars represent standard error of means (SEM).

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* would be CTP-bound and $parS_F$-activated, 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, 5 and Figure 7B bottom). Strikingly, $parS_F$ together with CTP significantly increased the A_2B_4 complex assembly rate on nsDNA without affecting its disassembly rate. Although we have not analyzed the kinetic details of the process that leads to the ATPase activation by $ParB_F$, we propose a moderately slow transition separates formation of the ATPase-activated A_2B_4 complex from 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.

353 **Figure 7.** *Cartoon of the proposed pre-ATPase-activation complexes of ParA_F and ParB_F.*

Figure 7. (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 by

binding CTP bringing the two ParA_F-binding domains to close proximity. (B) ParA_F-binding domain, ParB_F$^{1-42}$

by itself 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 (or CDP) 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 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$_2$B$_4$ 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$_2$B$_4$ complex. This energy barrier partially decouples ParA$_F$—ParB$_F$ association-dissociation dynamics from ATP hydrolysis, which triggers ParA$_F$ dissociation from the nucleoid.

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 $ParA_F$ dimers (Figure 2C). 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 half of the protein is thought to be mostly unfolded.

Thus, one dimer could straddle a $ParA_F$-dimer with the two N-terminal $ParA_F$-interaction domains

interacting the two faces of a $ParA_F$-dimer (Figure 7B middle).

In contrast, when bound by CTP or CDP the CTPase domains in a $ParB_F$ dimer fold to form a

single globular domain (Figure 7A bottom) (Soh et al., 2019). The two $ParA_F$-interaction domains

emanating from this folded domain are unlikely to reach both sides of a $ParA_F$ dimer, necessitating

an A_2B_4 complex for ATPase activation (Figure 7B bottom). In theory, it is possible that a chain

of $(A_2B_2)_n$ might form, but the 1:2 protein stoichiometry observed in the presence of ATPγS

indicates such a configuration is unfavored. A_2B_4 complexes formed in the presence of CTP and

parS$_F$ DNA fragments contained almost no *parS$_F$* DNA fragments (Figure 5E). 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).

Even in the absence of C-nucleotides, addition of *parS$_F$* promotes the formation of an A$_2$B$_4$

complex (Figure 4C, D). It is possible that when a ParB$_F$ dimer binds *parS$_F$*, the adjacent residues

that constitute the CTPase domains of the two monomers adopt a mutually interacting folded state

akin to the C-nucleotide-bound state even in the absence of the nucleotide as noted by Soh, et al.

(2019). This may prevent formation of the A$_2$B$_2$ complex, favoring the A$_2$B$_4$ complex that was

observed. Consistent with this interpretation, the shift from A$_2$B$_2$ to A$_2$B$_4$ complex by the addition

of *parS$_F$* did not occur with the Box II mutant ParB$_F$^{R121A}, which is expected to be unable to form a

stable nucleotide-binding fold (Figure S8). Even in the absence of CTP, the A$_2$B$_4$ complex formed

in the presence of *parS$_F$* DNA fragment contained significantly less than a stoichiometric amount

of *parS$_F$* fragment (Figure 5E). This suggests that association with nsDNA-bound ParA$_F$ dimer

lowers the affinity of ParB$_F$ for *parS$_F$*.

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 $A_2B_2^{1-42}$ 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). CDP-bound $ParB_F$ dimers were inefficient in

condensing *parS$_F$*-carrying DNA and the condensation observed was disrupted far more readily

than CTP-supported condensates, indicating $ParB_F$-CDP dimers do not efficiently load onto the

DNA tether in a state capable of DNA-condensation (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 for a unique

conformational state of the *parS$_F$*-activated $ParB_F$-CTP, we favor the view that DNA-bridging

capability, mediated by $ParB_F$-$ParB_F$ binding, is another attribute of this state of $ParB_F$.

Evidence indicates that *parS$_F$* interactions induce a unique conformational state in CTP-bound

$ParB_F$ dimers that promotes spreading, which retains this conformational state even after freed

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 5G, Table 2). According to the sliding clamp

model of the 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 5E). 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. 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 2), 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*, the majority of $ParB_F$ dimers in the partition complexes

in vivo. 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 by 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; Fig 5). The slow

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

time (Vecchiarelli et al., 2010). The presence of a large fraction of $ParA_F$ in an 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 activated. The lower precursor concentration

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

fast nucleotide-dependent ParA dimerization pre-equilibrium with apparent Kd 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 7F). 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.

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

to approach equilibrium. We consider this conformational transition likely is the step

synergistically accelerated by CTP and *parS_F*. We note that the CTP-bound and *parS_F*-activated

$ParB_F$ activates $ParA_F$ ATPase with clear sigmoidal concentration dependence (Figure 5G, Table

2) suggesting two $ParB_F$ dimers separately bind a $ParA_F$ dimer during pre-equilibrium binding

phase forming 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 its higher assembly rate by the *parS_F*-activated

$ParB_F$-CTP and slightly increased stability of the complex. Yet, CTP and *parS_F* DNA do not

significantly increase the ATP turnover number of ~80 h^{-1}, indicating that the proposed kinetic

delay time cannot be more than a few seconds. Assembly of $A_2B^{1-42}_2$ complex perhaps does not

experience this time delay due to less steric constraints, but $ParB_F^{1-42}$ dissociates more readily. Not

all the conditions we tested for ATPase activation by the formation of A_2B_4 complexes exhibited

clearly sigmoidal $ParB_F$ concentration dependence (Figures 4, Table 2). This could reflect

differences in the kinetic step and/or magnitude of the cooperative interactions between the two

$ParB_F$ (dimers) binding nsDNA-bound $ParA_F$ dimers along the assembly path of the $A_2B_{2/4}$

complex under different cofactor and $ParB_F$ mutation conditions.

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, in order to understand how the system is fine-tuned 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 remain to be addressed to understand

the full picture of the ParABS partition mechanism.

 Materials and Methods

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-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 monitored 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 μM $ParA_F$ and/or 10 μM $ParB_F$ 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 μl 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_2PO_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 °C 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.

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

°C; 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 Supplements:

Figure 2—figure supplement 1 *and legend*.

Figure 2—figure supplement 2 *and legend*.

Figure 2—figure supplement 3 *and legend*.

Figure 4—figure supplement 1 *and legend*.

Figure 5—figure supplement 1 *and legend*.

Figure 6—figure supplement 1 *and legend*.

Figure 6—figure supplement 2 *and legend*.

Figure 6—figure supplement 3 *and legend*.

Figure 2—figure supplement 1.   *Gel filtration column elution profile of ParB$_F^{1-42}$-mCherry.*

Figure 2—figure supplement 1.   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$_F^{1\text{-}42}$-mCherry on DNA-

carpet.

Figure 2—figure supplement 2.   ParB$_F^{1\text{-}42}$-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 did not fit 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 presence of 30% population of stable ParA$_F$-ParB$_F^{1\text{-}}$

^{42}-mCherry complex is unlikely since the buffer wash experiment (Figure 2D) did not support presence of such

species.

       Figure 2—figure supplement 3.   ParA$_F$ ATPase stimulation by ParB$_F^{1\text{-}42}$-mCherry-EcoRI^{E111Q}

       is not influenced by the addition of DNA fragment containing EcoRI recognition sequence.

Figure 2—figure supplement 3.   (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'-

ATTCTCTTGGGACCACGGTCCCAACTTGGATTCTCGGTCTGATAATCAGACTGGGACCACGGTCC

CACTCGGGATTC 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 Kd by FRET.

Figure 4—figure supplement 1.   In order to estimate the Kd for dimerization of ParB$_F$ two batches of protein

were separately labeled with Alexa 488 or Alexa 564 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 Kd for dimerization of ParB$_F$ was estimated to be ~18.5 nM.

Figure 5—figure supplement 1.   Binding curves for $ParA_F$ and either: $ParB_F$ with CDP or

$ParB_F$ with CTP associating with the DNA-carpet.

Figure 5—figure supplement 1.   (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 ATPγS and 2 mM CDP 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 CTP were infused into the nsDNA-carpeted flow cell.

(D) $ParA_F$-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 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.

Figure 6—figure supplement 1.   (A) The extension of 5 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 partial 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.   DNA tethers without parS_F sequence are not condensed by

ParB_F and parS_F in trans in the presence of CTP.

868   *Figure 6—figure supplement 2.*   DNA tethers that did not contain a *parS_F* site were not significantly condensed

869   by the addition of *parS_F* DNA fragment *in trans* with ParB_F in the presence of CTP. The decreases in extension

870   at 0.05 pN (blue circle, left panel) and 5 pN (blue triangle, right panel) are plotted as a function of the

871   concentration of ParB and parS_F, which were added together at stoichiometric concentrations.

Figure 6—figure supplement 3.   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$_F$.

Figure 6—figure supplement 3.   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. The 4-12% gradient acrylamide gel was run in 1x TBE + 5 mM Mg$_2$Ac at 4 °C for 1 hour, 150 V. The gels were quantified (bottom) to estimate the *parS* binding Kd of ParB$_F$ and ParB$_F^{R121A}$.

874   **Source Data Files**   (one Excel file with 19 sheets)

875   Figure 2-Source Data 1:

876   Numerical data for figure 2 panels A-E (Microsoft Excel).

877   Figure 2-Source Data 2:

878   Numerical data for figure 2 panels F, G (Microsoft Excel).

879   Figure 3-Source Data 1:

880   Numerical data for figure 3 panels A-C (Microsoft Excel).

881   Figure 3-Source Data 2:

882   Numerical data for figure 3 panels D (Microsoft Excel).

883   Figure 4-Source Data 1:

884   Numerical data for figure 4 panels A-D (Microsoft Excel).

885   Figure 4-Source Data 2:

886   Numerical data for figure 4 panels E (Microsoft Excel).

887   Figure 5-Source Data 1:

888   Numerical data for figure 5 panels A-E (Microsoft Excel).

889   Figure 5-Source Data 2:

890   Numerical data for figure 5 panels F, G (Microsoft Excel).

891   Figure 6-Source Data 1:

892   Numerical data for figure 6 panel A (Microsoft Excel).

893   Figure 6-Source Data 2:

894   Numerical data for figure 6 panel B-left (Microsoft Excel).

Figure 6-Source Data 3:

Numerical data for figure 6 panels B-right (Microsoft Excel).

Figure 6-Source Data 4:

Numerical data for figure 6 panels C (Microsoft Excel).

Figure 2-figure supplement 2-Source Data 1:

Numerical data for figure 2-figure supplement 2 (Microsoft Excel).

Figure 4-figure supplement 1-Source Data 1:

Numerical data for figure 4-figure supplement 1 (Microsoft Excel).

Figure 5-figure supplement 1-Source Data 1:

Numerical data for figure 5-figure supplement 1 (Microsoft Excel).

Figure 6-figure supplement 1-Source Data 1:

Numerical data for figure 6-figure supplement 1A (Microsoft Excel).

Figure 6-supplemental figure 1-Source Data 2:

Numerical data for figure 6-figure supplement 1B (Microsoft Excel).

Figure 6-supplemental figure 2-Source Data 1:

Numerical data for figure 6-figure supplement 2 (Microsoft Excel).

Figure 6-figure supplement 3-Source Data 1:

Numerical data for figure 6-figure supplement 3 panels A-D and F (Microsoft Excel).