Tetrameric UvrD helicase is located at the *E. coli* replisome due to frequent replication blocks

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SUMMARY

DNA replication in all organisms must overcome nucleoprotein blocks to complete genome duplication. Accessory replicative helicases in *Escherichia coli*, Rep and UvrD, help replication machinery overcome blocks by removing incoming nucleoprotein complexes or aiding the re-initiation of replication. Mechanistic details of Rep function have emerged from recent live cell studies; however, the division of UvrD between its multiple activities in DNA repair and its role as an accessory helicase remains unclear in live cells. Here, by integrating super-resolved single-molecule fluorescence microscopy with biochemical analysis, we find that UvrD self-associates into tetrameric assemblies and, unlike Rep, is not recruited to a specific replisome protein despite being found at approximately 80% of replication forks. Instead, its recruitment to forks is likely mediated by the very high frequency of replication blocks due to DNA bound proteins, including RNA polymerase and DNA damage. Deleting *rep* and DNA repair factor genes *mutS* and *uvrA*, and inhibiting transcription through

RNA polymerase mutation and antibiotic inhibition, indicates that the level of UvrD at

the fork is dependent on its function. Our findings show that UvrD is recruited to sites

of nucleoprotein blocks via different mechanisms to Rep and plays a multi-faceted role

in ensuring successful DNA replication.

INTRODUCTION

Replication and transcription of DNA occur simultaneously in *Escherichia coli,* making

conflicts between the bacterial replisome, the molecular replication machine

comprising in excess of 10 different proteins, and RNA polymerase (RNAP) inevitable

(1–4). Collisions between the replication and transcription machineries hinder

replication fork progression and cause genome instability (5–14). RNAP can pause,

stall and backtrack while actively transcribing, and any immobile RNAP molecules

present long-lived barriers to replisomes (15, 16). These factors make RNAP the most

common nucleoprotein obstacle for translocating replisomes. DNA is also frequently

damaged in normal growth conditions due to exposure to endogenous and exogenous

DNA damaging agents. The resulting DNA damage also presents significant obstacles

for normal replication (17–19).

Several mechanisms exist to reduce conflict between the replisome and obstacles

such as transcribing RNAPs. For example, transcription elongation and termination

factors reduce the number of immobile RNA polymerases on DNA (1, 18, 20–24).

Head-on collisions were originally thought to be more harmful (25–27) and therefore

more important to resolve; a view supported by the occurrence of highly transcribed

genes encoded on the leading strand, presumably to ensure co-directional

transcription and replication (26, 28, 29). However, co-directional collisions of the

replisome and transcription machinery also impact replication fork progression (3, 18,

30).

Accessory replicative helicases promote fork movement through nucleoprotein

barriers and have been identified in prokaryotes and eukaryotes (1, 12, 13, 31, 32).

The Rep and UvrD accessory helicases in *E. coli*, as well as the Pif1 helicase in

Saccharomyces cerevisiae, perform important roles in helping to clear nucleoprotein

complexes (33). More recently, Pif1 has been proposed to be a general displacement

helicase for replication bypass of protein blocks, a function similar to the Rep and UvrD

helicases (34). These helicases can reduce replisome pausing at several types of

native transcription complexes observed in living cells (13, 22, 35), and several types

of engineered nucleoprotein blocks in biochemical experiments *in vitro* (1, 31).

Rep is the primary accessory helicase in *E. coli*, however, UvrD can partially

compensate for the absence of Rep *in vivo* and has been shown to promote replication

through stalled transcription elongation complexes (1, 12, 13, 36, 37). UvrD is a

superfamily 1 helicase that translocates 3'-5' along ssDNA. The ability of UvrD to

compensate partially for the absence of Rep has been attributed to the high degree of

homology between these two helicases and the abundance of UvrD inside cells (12,

21, 38–40). The role of UvrD in nucleotide excision repair along with UvrABC proteins

as well as in methyl-directed mismatch repair along with the MutHLS proteins is well

characterised (41–46). UvrD interacts directly with RNAP but the functional

importance of this interaction has been unclear until recently (47–50). UvrD has been

suggested to promote backtracking of stalled RNAP as a first step in transcription-

coupled repair (50, 51); however, other studies argue against UvrD playing any role in

coupling nucleotide excision repair to stalled transcription complexes (48, 49, 52–56).

Here, we combined state-of-the-art *in vivo* imaging using single-molecule microscopy

with advanced biochemical activity and imaging experiments *in vitro* to elucidate how

UvrD resolves replicative blocks. We used super-resolved high-speed single-molecule

fluorescence microscopy of mGFP-UvrD in live cells co-expressing a fork marker,

DnaQ-mCherry, to reveal that 80% of DnaQ foci colocalise with UvrD. Stepwise

photobleaching intensity analysis revealed tetrameric UvrD foci *in vivo*, to be

compared with earlier observations performed *in vitro* using analytical

ultracentrifugation that found a mixture of UvrD dimers and tetramers (57). Surface

plasmon resonance (SPR) measurements of UvrD in combination with each replisome

component identified no specific replisome protein interaction partner that would

explain replisome-UvrD colocalisation. Deletion of Rep, mismatch repair protein MutS

and nucleotide excision repair protein UvrA, and disruption of transcription using either

mutation of RNAP or antibiotic inhibition, significantly reduces the number of UvrD or

level of observed colocalisation of UvrD with the fork. Coupled with *in vitro* block-

dependent differences in UvrD replication promotion efficiency, we conclude that UvrD

is most likely located at the *E. coli* replisome due to its role in resolving frequent blocks

to replication.

RESULTS

UvrD is present at the majority of replication forks

Figure 1: Super-resolved single-molecule light microscopy. (A). Slimfield microscope schematic and Slimfield micrographs of mGFP-UvrD, DnaQ-mCherry. Cell membrane and DnaQ/UvrD foci indicated as white dashed and non-dashed lines respectively. (B) and (C) Histogram showing the number of DnaQ and UvrD foci detected per cell respectively, SD errors. N=45 cells.

We investigated the role of UvrD in DNA replication using super-resolved single-molecule fluorescence microscopy to track dynamic patterns of fluorescently labelled UvrD localization relative to the replication fork in live cells (Figure 1A). We performed dual-colour Slimfield (58, 59) to assess the degree of colocalisation between UvrD and the replisome, using the same imaging protocol we used previously to confirm Rep colocalisation with the replisome (13). We employed DnaQ-mCherry as a fork marker (13) along with a genomically integrated mGFP-UvrD fluorescent protein fusion construct to report on the localization of UvrD. DnaQ encodes the epsilon subunit, a core component of the DNA polymerase and is well established as a marker for the replication fork (13, 60–63). These strains phenocopied the wild type strain for growth and in plasmid loss assays testing for mGFP-UvrD function retention (Supplementary Figures S1, S2, Tables S1-4). The helicase activity of mGFP-UvrD was comparable to the wild type enzyme in an *in vitro* unwinding assay (Supplementary Figure S3). Under Slimfield, we observed 1-2 DnaQ foci as in the previous study for Rep, corresponding to the two moving replication forks which appear as single foci near the start of replication when they are separated by less than the 200-300 nm diffraction limit of our microscope (Figure 1A,B Supplementary Figure S4). We also observed 1-2 UvrD foci per cell, of which $67 \pm 7\%$ ($\pm$SEM) were colocalised with DnaQ foci and $84 \pm 5\%$ of DnaQ foci were colocalised with UvrD (Figure 1B and C). We calculated the probability of random overlap between these foci, by modelling the nearest-

neighbour foci separation as a Poisson distribution (64), to be 20%. To confirm that

colocalisation between DnaQ and UvrD was not just a function of the nucleoid

association of UvrD, we performed Slimfield imaging of Heat-stable nucleoid-

structuring protein (H-NS) tagged with GFP dual labelled with DnaQ-mCherry. H-NS

associates with the nucleoid but not specifically with the fork. We found similar

numbers of H-NS foci to UvrD foci (Supplementary Figure S5) but only 38±4% DnaQ

foci were colocalised with H-NS implying that, similarly to the Rep helicase (13), UvrD

is present at the majority of replication forks.

UvrD foci are tetrameric assemblies in live bacteria

Figure 2 UvrD stoichiometry. The distribution of UvrD foci stoichiometry rendered as a
kernel density estimate for foci colocalised (A) and not colocalised (B) with DnaQ foci.
Distributions were fitted with multiple Gaussian peaks (black dotted lines) with the peak value
± error determined by the half width at half maximum indicated above each peak

Slimfield also enabled the stoichiometry of these foci to be determined by utilizing a

method involving stepwise photobleaching analysis (60). Here, we determined the

brightness of a single-molecule of mGFP or mCherry fluorescent protein under our

Slimfield imaging conditions (Supplementary Figure S7), and used these values to

normalize the initial brightness of all tracked foci as an estimate for the stoichiometry

in terms of number of fluorescently labelled molecules present. We found that DnaQ

had the same range of 2-6 molecules per focus (Supplementary Figure S8) as we

have found previously, corresponding to 2-3 polymerases per fork (13, 60). The

distribution of the stoichiometry of UvrD foci which are colocalised with DnaQ had a

distinct lowest-order peak corresponding to approximately four molecules, with

subsequent peaks at multiples of four (Figure 2A). UvrD foci that are not colocalised
with DnaQ also contained a distinct lowest-order peak at four, but subsequent peaks
were less clearly tetrameric.

Although we utilised a definitive monomeric variant of GFP which contained an A206K
mutation to inhibit dimerization (65), we did not want to dismiss possible non-
physiological influences of fluorescent protein labelling of UvrD in its self-assembly
process. Using Size Exclusion Chromatography Multi-Angle Laser Light Scattering
(SEC-MALLS) we found qualitatively that the majority of UvrD runs off in a monomeric
fraction for both purified wild type UvrD and for the labelled construct mGFP-UvrD.
However, SEC-MALLS has known limitations in differentiating between monomeric
and oligomeric fractions due to non-specific binding to the SEC resin (depending on
buffering conditions), resulting in proteins eluting later than expected and co-elution of
monomeric species and higher mass oligomers. In addition, there are sensitivity
difficulties for detecting components present in relatively small quantities.

To overcome these limitations, we performed high-precision high-sensitivity Slimfield
fluorescence microscopy of purified mGFP-UvrD conjugated to a glass coverslip via
anti-GFP antibody (66) enabling detection of fluorescent foci bound to the surface with
single molecule sensitivity. Slimfield images exhibited between ~10-20 surface-bound
foci per field of view (Supplementary Figure S9A), whose 200-300 nm width (half width
at half maximum, HWHM) was comparable to that determined for single purified GFP
molecules. We measured the fluorescence brightness of each focus using the same
automated single-particle tracking software as for Slimfield experiments *in vivo*
(Supplementary Figure S9B), whose tracks photobleached in a stepwise manner
consistent with the presence of just a single GFP molecule. The amplitude of the
probability distribution function of foci brightness values (Supplementary Figure S9B)
indicated that the proportion of dimers (corresponding to a brightness of approximately
twice the modal value) is ~3% that of the corresponding value for monomers. Although
it is not possible to entirely exclude non-physiological effects of any fluorescent protein
on the cellular activities of a tagged protein, the finding from this single-molecule assay
shows that the proportion of monomeric mGFP-UvrD is substantially higher than
dimeric mGFP-UvrD and so, if there is an influence of mGFP on the self-assembly
process of UvrD, it is unlikely to be a dominant factor.

At higher concentrations, UvrD has been observed to exist in a monomer-dimer-
tetramer equilibrium *in vitro* (57). DNA unwinding experiments *in vitro* suggest UvrD

must function as at least a dimer (67) or a trimer (68), however the oligomeric state of

functional UvrD is disputed (reviewed in (69)). Our results are consistent with UvrD

existing predominantly as a tetramer or a dimer of dimers, with multiple tetramers or

dimer-dimers sometimes present at forks. It should be noted that we often observe

only a single DnaQ focus corresponding to two replication forks which are separated

by less than the diffraction limit of our microscope (Supplementary Figure S8) such

that some multiple tetrameric UvrD foci correspond to two replication forks. The less

distinct peaks in the UvrD foci that are not colocalised with DnaQ may indicate that

other UvrD species (monomers, dimers or trimers) are also present.

We were also able to determine the total cell copy number of UvrD using a method

which determined the total contribution of mGFP-UvrD fluorescence to the observed

intensity in whole cells (70). We found approximately 800 molecules of UvrD per cell

(Supplementary Figure S10), similar to that which we reported previously for Rep (13).

This is a much lower level of UvrD than was reported using transcription rate

measurements (71) or high-throughput proteomics (72) but is comparable to recent

estimates using ribosome profiling (73).

There is no obvious interaction partner for UvrD at the fork

Our earlier findings concerning the accessory helicase Rep indicated that

colocalisation with the fork and recruitment to the replisome were mediated by specific

interaction with the replicative helicase DnaB (74), with Rep and DnaB both exhibiting

hexameric stoichiometry (13, 60). We sought to determine whether UvrD is also

recruited by interacting with a specific replisome component using SPR on purified

UvrD and each replisome component (Supplementary Figure S11). UvrD under

conditions consistent with predominantly monomeric UvrD (Supplementary Figure S9)

exhibited no direct interaction with primase, SSB, β sliding clamp, the DNA

polymerase III αε, χψ or γ complexes; or θ, δ, δ′, χ, and γ subunits (12). We did initially

identify a putative weak UvrD-Tau interaction. However, as a control we also tested

Rep, and found this also interacted with Tau to a similar extent, and with ~100x lower

affinity than UvrD with known interaction partner UvrB (Supplementary Figure S8). We

therefore conclude that the Tau interaction with UvrD is likely to be non-specific and

that, unlike Rep, UvrD does not have an obvious, direct interaction partner at the

replisome, at least from the suite of replisome proteins tested. Since our findings

suggest that UvrD may exist as as a tetramer at the replisome, it is also unlikely to be

recruited by Rep, which has shown putative interaction (75).

The presence of UvrD at the fork is mediated by specific replication blocks

Figure 3: UvrD perturbations. A. and B. The mean proportion of colocalised DnaQ and
UvrD or Rep foci per cell respectively. Error bars represent standard error in the mean and
statistical significance by Brunner-Munzel and Student's t-test p<0.05 indicated by *. Gray
bar indicates levels of predicted random colocalisation. C. and D. Jitter plots of colocalised
and not colocalised UvrD stoichiometry respectively. Bars show mean UvrD stoichiometry
with error bars showing the standard error in the mean and statistical significance by
Brunner-Munzel and Student's t-tests p<0.05 indicated by *. N=30 cells.

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Since our SPR observations indicated that UvrD most likely does not interact directly and specifically with any core replisome protein, we hypothesized that the association of UvrD with the replication fork might be dependent on its activity in resolving nucleoprotein blocks. To test this premise, we systematically impaired key DNA replication repair processes in which UvrD is implicated, as well as perturbing RNAP replicative blocks by disruption of transcription through both genetic mutation and antibiotic inhibition (Figure 3). We investigated how these perturbations altered fork association through levels of UvrD colocalisation with DnaQ. As a control, we compared these to levels of Rep colocalisation with DnaQ which can be abrogated down to random levels of colocalisation, indicating no interaction with the fork, by mutations which stop Rep interacting with DnaB and PriC (Figure 3A). We perturbed UvrD's activity in resolving DNA damage at replication blocks by deleting *mutS* or *uvrA*, rendering the strains defective in UvrD-associated mismatch repair or nucleotide excision repair respectively (43, 76). We reduced the need for UvrD to remove transcriptional blocks to replication (49) by introducing the *rpoB*35* mutation, which destabilizes open complexes formed during initiation of transcription (77, 78); and by using the antibiotic rifampicin, which blocks elongation of RNA transcripts (79). All of these strains were healthy under normal growth conditions (Supplementary Figure S1, Table S4) and displayed the same phenotype for DnaQ foci number and stoichiometry within measurement error (Supplementary Figure S8).

For the transcriptional block perturbations, the *rpoB*35* mutant dual labelled strain exhibited no difference in the proportion of colocalised DnaQ or UvrD foci (Figure 3A and B). This mutant and all others tested exhibited the same predominant tetrameric stoichiometry trends as wild type (Supplementary Figure S12), with clear peaks at tetramer intervals in the colocalised stoichiometry distribution and less clear but still largely tetrameric intervals in the stoichiometry distribution for UvrD foci that are not colocalised with DnaQ. This provides further evidence for tetrameric UvrD assemblies *in vivo*. We compared the mean stoichiometry for each mutant to that of wild type (Figure 3C and D). Unexpectedly, the *rpoB*35* mutant produced a slight but statistically significant increase in mean colocalised stoichiometry, corresponding to approximately one extra UvrD tetramer at the replication fork (Figure 3C). This finding may indicate the level of instability conferred by this mutation has multiple downstream effects that alter UvrD localisation significantly at the fork. Alternatively, it could mean that *rpoB*35* does not affect the formation of the types of transcriptional block that are

acted upon by UvrD. Rifampicin treatment produced a clearer response, reducing the number of DnaQ foci colocalised with UvrD by ~20% (Figure 3A) and the mean stoichiometry of colocalised and not colocalised UvrD foci by around one UvrD tetramer (Figure 3C and D). Single-molecule observations of RNAP have shown it to be significantly more mobile under rifampicin treatment (80), implying fewer RNAPs bound to DNA and fewer blocks to replication. Our rifampicin treatment results are consistent with fewer transcriptional blocks to replication reducing the amount of UvrD recruited to the replisome and support the hypothesis that UvrD is recruited by these replicative blocks.

By deleting *mutS* or *uvrA* we removed UvrD's role in mismatch repair and nucleotide excision repair respectively. In the Δ*mutS* mutant we observed no change in UvrD colocalisation with DnaQ, but did measure an increase the mean UvrD stoichiometry colocalised with DnaQ by around one tetramer (Figure 3A). In the Δ*uvrA* mutant we observed a decrease of ~25% in UvrD colocalisation with DnaQ (Figure 3B) with no change in the number of UvrD foci (Supplementary Figure S8), consistent with a model that UvrD association with the fork is dependent on actively resolving DNA damage induced blocks to replication. The minimal response in the Δ*mutS* strain may also suggest that UvrD at the fork is more involved in nucleotide excision repair than mismatch repair.

UvrD has been shown to compensate for Rep in *rep* null mutants (12). We also tested what effect this mutation would have in Slimfield *in vivo* imaging. Surprisingly, *rep* deletion resulted in a steep drop in UvrD copy number (Supplementary Figure S10). The degree of colocalisation between UvrD and DnaQ remained unchanged compared to wild type (Figure 3A and B) but the stoichiometry of foci was reduced to a single UvrD tetramer (Figure 3C and D and Supplementary Figure 11), which is consistent with the observed lower copy number and availability of UvrD. The drop in UvrD copy number may reflect complex regulatory shifts in response to losing such a key protein in Rep, although it is interesting that even at low copy numbers, a UvrD tetramer remains recruited to the fork. Double knockouts, deficient in both Rep and UvrD, are lethal (12) so this minimal helicase presence must be the limit required for survival.

Dynamic association of UvrD with the fork depends on DNA repair processing

Figure 4: UvrD dynamics. A. Distribution of time over which UvrD and DnaQ foci were colocalised (blue) fitted with an exponential (red) to yield a characteristic dwell time. B. Distribution of microscopic diffusion coefficients of wild type UvrD foci (gray) fitted with a three-state gamma distribution model containing a relatively immobile population with $D = 0.1$ μm^2/s (red), a transiently immobile population, $D = 0.5$ μm^2/s (blue) and a mobile population, D=1.2 μm^2/s (green). C. The dwell times for each UvrD strain. Error bars represent the 95% confidence intervals on the fit. D. The proportion of UvrD foci in the immobile

By tracking UvrD foci as a function of time using the rapid millisecond sampling enabled by Slimfield imaging, we were also able to characterize its dynamics in wild type and repair impaired cells. We measured the exposure time per frame multiplied by the number of image frames in which UvrD foci were colocalised with DnaQ foci positions and fitted the distribution of these times with a single exponential function. The corresponding time constant of this exponential fit we denote as the dwell time. We also calculated the apparent microscopic diffusion coefficient of individual foci (Figure 4 and Supplementary Figure S13). The UvrD dwell time at the fork for the wild type strain was measured to be approximately 4 ms, indicating a relatively dynamic association of UvrD at the replication fork. The apparent microscopic diffusion coefficients (D) were best fit with a three parameter Gamma model, containing a relatively immobile population with D = 0.1 μm^2/s, a transiently immobile population, D = 0.5 μm^2/s and a mobile population, D=1.2 μm^2/s, similar to Rep (13). In wild type, we found that approximately 10% of UvrD foci were immobile, whether colocalised with the DnaQ fork location or not, with the rest of the foci split between the other two populations.

We sought to use these molecular measurements to determine the effect of perturbing UvrD-mediated DNA replication repair and block resolution on UvrD dynamics. All deletions resulted in a marginal though statistically insignificant increase in dwell time to between 6-9 ms. The Δ*rep* and *rpoB*35* mutations resulted in no change in mobility from wild type. Rifampicin treatment however, resulted in an increase in the proportion of immobile foci both at and away from the fork. This finding appears counterintuitive as rifampicin treatment results in more mobile RNAP (80), however it is unclear what effect rifampicin has on the population of RNAP molecules that remain bound to DNA. These results may suggest that such blocks provide an increased barrier to replication, decreasing mobility of UvrD as it attempts to deal with these blocks. In the Δ*mutS* and Δ*uvrA* strains, the proportion of immobile foci decreased at the fork, again consistent with the hypothesis that UvrD association with the fork is dependent on DNA damage resolution activity. One alternative explanation for these results is that UvrD is less mobile when resolving DNA damage blocks to replication and more mobile when

resolving transcriptional blocks, as reducing or eliminating UvrD's role in these processes decreased or increased the immobile fraction in DNA repair and transcription impaired cells respectively (Figure 4).

In vitro biochemical experiments support the block-dependent UvrD function model

To further investigate the role of blocks in UvrD recruitment to the replisome, we performed a stalled replication assay *in vitro,* which allowed us to specifically vary the nucleoprotein block and the timing of UvrD recruitment i.e. before or after the replisome had encountered the block. *E. coli* replisomes can be reconstituted on plasmid DNA templates containing *oriC* and engineered stall sites. UvrD can be included from the start of replication or added after the replisome has encountered the nucleoprotein block. Blocked fork resolution was then probed by examining replication products by denaturing gel electrophoresis.

We first used an *oriC*-containing plasmid which contained a specific RNAP stall site ($P_{lacUV5\ 52C}$) to facilitate formation of a stalled transcription elongation complex via nucleotide deprivation. Stalled RNAP acts as a barrier to the replisome in both head-on and co-directional orientations and prevents the formation of full-length replication products (1). Arresting the replisome at this RNAP block resulted in replication products consisting of four truncated leading strands. The strand sizes matched those expected for replisomes moving clockwise or counter-clockwise from *oriC* and encountering $P_{lacUV5\ 52C}$ or the promoters within the *ColE1* plasmid origin of replication (Figure 5A, lane 2 and Figure 5C) (1).

Inclusion of UvrD before replication initiation enabled movement of replisomes through stalled RNAP and resulted in a decrease in all four truncated leading strand products and a concomitant increase in production of full-length leading strands (Figure 5A, lane 5 and 5E) (1). Addition of UvrD once the replisome had already encountered the block gave variable results that ranged from an inhibitory to a stronger effect, although differences were not statistically significant at $p < 0.05$ (Figure 5A, compare lane 5 with 6, Figure 5E). Similar results were also obtained for Rep (Figure 5A, compare lane 3 with 4, Figure 5E). In the absence of replication neither Rep nor UvrD are capable of pushing stalled RNAP from the $P_{lacUV5\ 52C}$ stall site (1). We found that the mGFP tag does not prevent UvrD from dislodging a protein block (Supplementary Figure S14).

Figure 5: Helicase pre-association affects the promotion of replication fork movement through different nucleoprotein blocks A. Denaturing agarose gel of replication products formed from pPM872 (1) in the absence and presence of RNAP block, Rep and UvrD added pre- and post-collision (*) as indicated. B. Denaturing agarose gel of replication products formed from pPM594 (12) in the absence and presence of EcoRI E111G block, Rep and UvrD added pre- and post-collision (*) as indicated. Truncated leading strand products formed by

391 replisomes originating from *oriC* and colliding with RNAP (C) and EcoRI E111G (D).
392 Quantification of lanes in (A) and (B) from three technical replicates shown in (E) and (F),
393 with standard error in the mean indicated and each replicate result shown as a cross.
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Since UvrD has been shown to interact with RNAP (47–49), we tested whether UvrD-
block pre-association is a requirement for its promotion of replication. EcoRI E111G is
a mutant restriction enzyme that binds to its recognition sequence but has reduced
cleavage activity (81). EcoRI E111G can thus act as an engineered replication fork
block that can be overcome by Rep or UvrD helicase activity (12). We tested whether
UvrD helicase could promote replication through this barrier when added before or
after initiation of replication on a plasmid template with an array of eight EcoRI sites
(Figure 5B and D). Adding UvrD post-collision did not impede its promotion of
replication; in fact, the resolution of these collisions appeared to be more efficient
because the proportion of full-length replication products increased (Figure 5B,
compare lane 5 and 6, 5F). Quantification of full-length replication products as a
proportion of reaction products showed that late UvrD addition increased full-length
replication products to 84% (n=6) from 41% (n=3) when UvrD is present before fork
collision. This contrasts with the RNAP block results where the UvrD-RNAP interaction
(47–50) might be responsible for localising UvrD to the block and facilitating resolution,
resulting in no difference when present pre- or post-collision. Similarly, Rep associates
directly with the replication fork, also resulting in no difference when present pre- or
post-collision, for both blocks. These results suggest that UvrD might recognize stalled
replication forks at nucleoprotein blocks using a different mechanism than Rep.
Combining these data with the lack of a specific replisome partner and reductions in
colocalisation between UvrD and DnaQ fork marker when replication blocks are
perturbed *in vivo*, leads us to propose that UvrD is present at the replication fork due
to the high frequency of different types of blocks to replication.
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DISCUSSION
Here, we show that the majority of replisomes are associated with UvrD; but unlike the
established Rep association, UvrD has no interaction partner in the replisome. UvrD
instead associates with the replisome through the frequent blocks to replication
encountered by the fork. Similarly to Rep, *in vitro* evidence suggests UvrD functions
poorly as a helicase when monomeric (82). We showed previously that functional Rep
foci were hexameric *in vivo* but that this oligomerisation is due to interactions with

hexameric DnaB (13). Again, UvrD functions differently and appears to self-associate into tetramers, as evidenced here by tetramer periodicity at and away from the fork (Figure 2 and Supplementary Figure 11) and previous ultracentrifugation experiments *in vitro* (57). It is possible that UvrD may not have evolved to fulfil exactly the same function as Rep. It is common in many enzyme-catalysed reactions that if one enzyme is depleted then another will be available to take its place, but with a reduced catalytic efficiency (83). On initial inspection, this might appear to be the case for Rep and UvrD, in light of the lower efficiency of block resolution for UvrD compared to Rep, noting that deletion of Rep has a profound impact on replication whereas lack of UvrD does not (84). However, we have shown that Rep and UvrD do have different modes of recruitment at a replication block. These differing mechanisms of replication promotion may suggest a model in which these accessory helicases have evolved to fulfil the same overall function (i.e. that of resolving a block to DNA replication) but in different ways. Even with different block removal efficiency, such redundancy may confer an increased level of robustness, helping to ensure that the vital process of DNA replication is carried out correctly by the cell.

We used single-molecule microscopy to show that a high proportion of forks, 80%, are associated with UvrD *in vivo*. Although the raw imaging data of our Slimfield microscopy is still subject to the optical resolution; the localization tracking algorithms applied can pinpoint fluorescently labelled UvrD to approximately 40 nm lateral precision, smaller than the 50 nm diameter of the replisome machinery itself (60) and equivalent to ~100 bp DNA. Thus, our measurements for colocalisation between UvrD and DnaQ are likely to be good indicators of a real interaction between the replication fork and UvrD. Importantly, the degree of colocalisation we observed is much higher than expectations of random overlap of the optical images of DnaQ-mCherry and mGFP-UvrD.

Through SPR, however, we could not find any obvious, direct interaction partners at the replisome apart from Tau. As a control, we tested Tau's interaction with a Rep helicase, and also found a positive interaction. Thus, we conclude that the interaction of UvrD with Tau is most likely to be non-specific and UvrD recruitment to the replisome is mediated by blocks, rather than an interaction partner at the replisome. However, we cannot know the oligomeric state of UvrD on the SPR chip and UvrD's tetrameric form may affect its interactions with replisome components.

We probed UvrD's function at the replication fork by perturbing its known DNA repair
processing functions, specifically by knocking out *mutS* and *uvrA*, thus blocking
mismatch and nucleotide excision repair respectively. We also introduced a mutant
RNAP with *rpoB*35* and treated the wild type with rifampicin to reduce the occurrence
of transcriptional blocks to translocating replication machinery. Deleting *uvrA* and
rifampicin treatment produced clear results, reduced fork colocalization, but deleting
mutS and introducing the *rpoB*35* mutation did not. However, these latter
perturbations did result in an identical phenotype of one extra UvrD tetramer per fork.
The *rpoB*35* mutation improves cell viability to increased DNA lesions (77). This
intriguing link between mutations requires further study, possibly of these dual labelled
strains in response to increased DNA lesions. These data support the hypothesis that
UvrD is recruited to the replisome by replicative blocks. This is substantiated by the
reduced frequency of colocalization observed when mismatch repair and nucleotide
excision repair pathways involving UvrD are disrupted. RNA polymerases are the most
frequently encountered barrier to replication and we also see a reduction in
colocalization when RNA polymerases are removed by the antibiotic.
The only function of UvrD we did not probe directly here was its role in RecA-mediated
recruitment. We believe the results from a *recA* knockdown would be difficult to
interpret due to its pleiotropic effects. RecA is the principal recombinase and induces
the complex SOS response resulting in the induction of UvrD expression (85, 86).
Furthermore, UvrD removes RecA from RecA-DNA complexes, thus functioning as an
antirecombinase (87–89). Dissecting these functions of UvrD from other effects that a
recA mutation may have on the cell would be difficult. Applying the perturbations in
combination, i.e. double knockdowns or knockdowns plus rifampicin, would likely lead
to confusing results since too many deleterious perturbations may be lethal or change
normal cell function too radically to be biologically relevant in the intended way.
For the suite of mutant strains investigated we found small but significant changes in
colocalisation of UvrD with the replication fork, implying that UvrD is recruited to the
replication fork by the frequent blocks to replication it encounters. For example, the
UvrD-RNAP interaction could localise UvrD to the vicinity of active transcription
machinery (50). Since RNA polymerase is the most common replication block, a
secondary consequence would be UvrD-fork colocalisation. This is in contrast to the
Rep accessory helicase which has a specific interaction partner in the replisome of
the replicative helicase DnaB (74). Recent biochemical findings *in vitro* show that

blocks to replication occur very frequently (1)(19)(90), potentially accounting for our
finding that UvrD colocalises with the fork more frequently than Rep, despite Rep
having a specific interaction partner at the fork.

We have shown that replication forks stalled at transcriptional blocks can be rescued
by addition of UvrD, prior to or post-stalling. If UvrD is to help perform this function
then it must be present during the resolution of collision between the replication and
transcription machinery, however, our estimate for dwell time at the fork of just a few
milliseconds (compared to seconds for DnaQ (61)) suggests a non-negligible
dissociation constant; UvrD is not processive *per se* but rather undergoes rapid
turnover at the fork such that there is a high likelihood for UvrD being present at any
given time, but not necessarily the same set of molecules. Interestingly we observed
a similar dwell time for Rep (13), despite it having a clear association partner in DnaB
at the fork. However, using a defective restriction enzyme EcoRI E111G block
produced a different effect, with late UvrD addition improving block resolution. This
restriction enzyme block is artificial and less biologically relevant but may indicate that
the known specific UvrD interaction with RNAP is important. Improved replication
resolution with late addition of UvrD is intriguing, implying increased affinity for or
activity at pre-stalled replication forks compared to UvrD being present as the fork
stalls. Complete understanding requires further study of replication block resolution in
different conditions.

Our findings support a model in which UvrD diffuses and transiently interacts with DNA
at random or through specific interactions such as with RNAP or a specific
conformation of the blocked replication fork. At the DNA, UvrD is predominantly
tetrameric, either pre-assembling in solution or on the DNA itself. The frequent
sampling leads to UvrD often being in the vicinity of the replisome, allowing UvrD to
resolve the frequent blocks to replication. It is also possible that certain barriers to
replication may be harder for Rep to resolve, and such barriers can possibly be more
efficiently removed by UvrD, however, it is still likely to be the case that they do not
directly challenge the ability of the cell to replicate the genome in light of *uvrD* deletion
still resulting in viable cells. Indeed, UvrD shares a high degree of structural similarity
with Rep, although the two proteins differ significantly in their amino acid sequences
(31, 91). While Rep is recruited to the fork through specific interactions with DnaB, no
such interaction could be identified for UvrD. Stochastic impairment of the ability of

Rep to interact with DnaB may necessitate block processing at the fork by UvrD. In
summary, our results highlight the contribution of UvrD action to facilitating accurate
genome duplication at active replisomes.

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546
547   **Declaration of interests**
548   The authors declare no competing interests.
549

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strain construction

All strains used in this study (listed in full in SI Table S1, with associated plasmids
and primers in SI Tables S2 and S3) are derivatives of the laboratory wild type strain
TB28. Tagging of *dnaQ-mCherry-<kan>* (C-terminally labelled) is described in (13).
mGFP-uvrD-<kan> (N-terminally labelled) was amplified from plasmid pAS79 (*uvrD*$^+$)

with primers oAS145 and oJGB383 having 50 bp homology to either end of the

native *uvrD* locus. The resulting PCR product had homology either side such that

recombination with the chromosome would result in integration of the PCR product at

the native locus under the control of the native promoter. Prior to integration, all PCR

products were treated with DpnI, gel purified, and introduced by electroporation into

cells expressing the lambda Red genes from the plasmid pKD46 (55). The

recombinants were selected for kanamycin resistance and screened for ampicillin

sensitivity. The colonies obtained were verified for integration by PCR and

sequencing. The *uvrD* recombinants were verified by PCR amplification using

primers oPM319 and oPM320, and sequencing using the primers oJGB417,

oJGB418, oPM407, oPM409, oPM411, and oMKG71. Where required, the

kanamycin resistance gene was removed by expressing Flp recombinase from the

plasmid pCP20 (92) to generate kanamycin sensitive strains carrying the fluorescent

protein (FP) fusions. Dual labelled strains were created by introducing the kanamycin

tagged FP alleles by standard P1 mediated transduction into single labelled strains

carrying the required FP allele after removing the linked kanamycin marker.

Determination of cell doubling time

E. coli strains were grown overnight in LB medium at 37°C at 200 rpm shaking. The

saturated overnight cultures were diluted 100-fold into fresh LB or washed once with

1X 56 salts and diluted 100-fold in fresh 1X 56 salts with 0.2% glucose as the carbon

source. Aliquots of 100 µl each of the diluted cultures in fresh media were pipetted

into individual wells of 96 well clear flat bottom sterile microplates (Corning). The

microplates containing the diluted cultures were incubated in a BMG LABTECH

SPECTROstar Nano microplate reader at 37°C and the optical density (A_{600}) values

were recorded at defined time intervals. The time taken for the optical density values

to increase 2-fold during the exponential growth phase of the culture was taken as

the cell doubling time (SI Table S4, Supplementary Figure S1).

Protein Overexpression and Purification

mGFP-uvrD was excised from pAS79 using XhoI and SalI and ligated into pET14b

cut with XhoI, creating pAS152 encoding N-terminal histidine-tagged mGFP-UvrD.

pAS152 was used to overexpress the mGFP-UvrD fusion in Rosetta™

2(DE3)/pLysS. The cells were grown in LB medium containing 100 µg/ml ampicillin

and 30 µg/ml chloramphenicol at 37ºC and 220 rpm to OD_{600} ~ 0.7. The cultures

were then equilibrated to room temperature and overexpression was induced by

adding 1 mM IPTG and incubating at 16ºC for 24 hours. Cells from the expressed

culture were collected by centrifugation at 4ºC and frozen at -80ºC. The cells were

later thawed on ice and resuspended in buffer A (20 mM Tris-Cl pH 8.3, 500 mM

NaCl, 5 mM imidazole, 10% glycerol) along with 0.1 mg/ml lysozyme, 1 mM AEBSF,

0.7 µg/ml pepstatin, 0.5 µg/ml leupeptin, 2.5 µg/ml DNase I and 20 µg/ml RNase A

and incubated on ice for 30 minutes. Brij-58 was then added to a final concentration

of 0.1% v/v and incubated on ice for another 20 minutes. The suspension was

sonicated and then clarified by centrifugation at 18,000 rpm for 60 minutes at 4ºC in

an SS-34 rotor to remove debris. The lysate containing mGFP-UvrD was applied to a

5 ml His-trap FF crude column (GE healthcare) and the protein was purified by

chromatography on an imidazole gradient in buffer A. Peak fractions were collected

and concentrated using a Vivaspin 500 concentrator (30 kDa MWCO) (Sartorius).

Samples were then aliquoted and flash frozen in liquid nitrogen before storage at -

80ºC. Protein concentration was determined by Bradford's assay.

UvrD was purified as previously described (55). Briefly UvrD was overexpressed in

BL21-AI from a pETDuet vector, via induction by IPTG and arabinose. UvrD was

purified from the soluble cell extract after lysis through the use of affinity (heparin

agarose), anion exchange (Q-sepharose), and gel filtration chromatography. Pure

UvrD was then stored at -80ºC after dialysis into storage buffer or used immediately

in Size Exclusion Chromatography - Multi-Angle Laser Light Scattering (SEC-

MALLS) analysis or subsequently diluted to 1 nM for single-molecule *in vitro*

experimentation.

Biotinylated UvrD and Rep were purified as previously described (12). Briefly, the

proteins were overexpressed in a BL21 (DE3) containing pBirAcm, encoding a biotin

ligase via induction by IPTG and the addition of biotin to the growth media. The

biotinylated proteins were then purified from the soluble cell extracts by ammonium

sulphate precipitation, and affinity chromatography (softlink avidin and heparin

agarose). Pure proteins were then dialysed into storage buffer overnight and stored

at -80°C

Helicase assay

Assays for unwinding of streptavidin-bound forks were performed using a substrate

made by annealing oligonucleotides oPM187B20 (5' end labelled with ^{32}P) and

oPM188B34. Reactions were performed in 10 µL volumes containing 40 mM HEPES

(pH 8); 10 mM DTT; 10 mM magnesium acetate; 2 mM ATP; 0.1 mg ml^{-1} BSA and

1 nM forked DNA substrate. Reactions were carried out as described earlier (13, 93).

Briefly, the reaction mixture was pre-incubated at 37°C for five minutes with or

without 1 µM streptavidin (Sigma-Aldrich), to which helicase (as indicated) and biotin

(Sigma-Aldrich) were added to 100 µM (acting as a trap for free streptavidin) and

incubated at 37°C for another 10 minutes. Reactions were stopped by addition of 2.5

µl of 2.5% SDS, 200 mM EDTA and 10 mg ml^{-1} of proteinase K. Reactions were then

analysed by non-denaturing gel electrophoresis on 10% polyacrylamide TBE gels.

The quantification of the unwinding and displacement of streptavidin from the fork

was carried out as described in (94).

Preparation of cells for microscopy

634   Cells were grown overnight in LB to saturation. The overnight cultures were

635   inoculated the next day at 1:1000 dilution in 1X 56 salts supplemented with 0.2%

636   glucose as the carbon source. The dilutions were then grown at 30°C to mid-log

637   phase.

Rifampicin treatment

639   Cells prepared for microscopy were treated with rifampicin at a final concentration of

640   50 µg/mL for 30 minutes at 30°C.

Microscopy and image analysis

Imaging was performed on a bespoke dual-colour single-molecule microscope (13).

Excitation from Obis 488 nm and 561 nm wavelength 50mW lasers (run at 20 mW)

was reduced to 10 µm at full width half maximum field in the sample plane producing

Slimfield illumination (58) producing a mean excitation intensity of ~0.25 mW/µm^2.

Lasers were digitally modulated to 5 ms period to produce alternating laser excitation

using National Instruments dynamic I/O module NI 9402. Excitation was coupled into

a Zeiss microscope body with the sample mounted on a Mad City Labs nanostage.

Images were magnified to 80nm/pixel and imaged using an Andor Ixon 128 emCCD

camera. Colour channels were split red/green using a bespoke colour splitter

consisting of a dual-pass green/red dichroic mirror centred at long-pass wavelength

560 nm and emission filters with 25 nm bandwidths centred at 542 nm and 594 nm.

Cells were imaged on agarose pads suffused with minimal media as described

previously (95). Foci were detected and tracked using previously described bespoke

MATLAB software (96). In brief, bright candidate foci were detected in each frame by

image transformation and thresholding based on Otsu's method. A 17x17 pixel

region of interest (ROI) is drawn around each candidate to define the local

background, while a radius 5 circle is drawn in the center (the foreground) and

subjected to iterative Gaussian masking (66). Foci were accepted if their signal to

noise ratio was above 0.4, defined as the mean intensity inside the foreground

divided by the standard deviation of the local background. Foci in successive frames

were linked together into trajectories based on nearest distance, provided it was < 5

pixels. Linked foci were accepted as "tracks" nominally if they persist for at least 4

consecutive image frames.

Characteristic intensity of mGFP or mCherry was determined from the distribution of

foci intensity values towards the end of the photobleach confirmed by overtracking

foci beyond their bleaching and applying an edge-preserving filter (97, 98) to the raw

intensity data to generate individual steps of the characteristic intensity, due to

photobleaching (Supplementary Figure S7). This intensity was used to determine the

stoichiometry of foci by fitting the first 3 intensity points with a straight line and

dividing the intercept by this characteristic intensity. The number of peaks in the

Gaussian fits to UvrD was set by running a peak fitting algorithm over the wild type

distribution. This number of Gaussians was then used for mutant distributions unless

two or more of the Gaussians converged on the same/similar peak value, in which

case they were removed. For DnaQ, two peaks were fit as used previously (60).

GFP and mCherry images were aligned based on the peak of the 2D cross

correlation between their respective brightfield images. Colocalisation between foci

and the probability of random colocalisation was determined as described previously

(64, 99).

The microscopic apparent diffusion coefficients (D) were determined by fitting a

straight line to the first three mean squared displacements (MSD) values constrained

through the equivalent localization precision MSD as determined from the intensity

(70, 100). *D* distributions were fit by three Gamma distributions as described

previously (101–103). Dwell time was calculated as the number of frames that each

trajectory was colocalised with the fork position, as determined by the DnaQ foci

detected at time zero.

Single-molecule *in vitro* imaging

10 µg/mL mouse anti-GFP (Roche. Cat no. 11814460001) in PBS was incubated on

a tunnel slide for 5 min at room temperature, before washing with 100 µL of imaging

buffer (20 mM Tris pH 7.8, 5 mM MgCl$_2$, 1 mM DTT). 1 nM of purified mGFP-UvrD in

imaging buffer was then flowed onto the slide and incubated at room temperature for

5 min before washing with 100 µL of imaging buffer. The ends of the channel were

then sealed for imaging. We used a similar single-molecule fluorescence microscope

design (99) which enabled Slimfield microscopy as for the live cell imaging in order

to image the antibody immobilised mGFP-UvrD.

SEC-MALLS

Size Exclusion Chromatography – Multi-Angle Laser Light Scattering (SEC-MALLS)

experiments used Wyatt HELEOS-II multi-angle light scattering and rEX refractive

index detectors linked to a Shimadzu HPLC system (SPD-20A UV detector, LC20-

AD isocratic pump system, DGU-20A3 degasser and SIL-20A autosampler) with a

G.E. Superdex S200 10/300 column at a flow rate of 0.5 mL/min in buffer of 20 mM

Tris pH 8.3 (at 4degC) 1 mM EDTA, 1 mm EGTA, 1 mM DTT, 200 mM NaCl, 5%

glycerol buffer. Data were analysed using Wyatt Astra 7 software. MWs were

estimated using the Zimm fit method with degree 1. A value of 0.182 mL/g was used

for protein refractive index increment (dn/dc).

Surface plasmon resonance (SPR)

SPR was performed at 25°C on a BIAcore T200 instrument as in (12). Immobilisation

of *E. coli* UvrD and Rep was performed onto streptavidin-coated SA sensor chips

whilst the indicated concentrations of Tau and UvrB were passed over in 10 mM

HEPES pH 7.4, 3 mM EDTA, 150 mM NaCl, 10 mM MgCl$_2$ and 0.05% Tween 20 at

20 µl min^{-1}. This buffer differed from that used in the DNA replication assays to

minimise non-specific interactions with the surface-immobilised streptavidin.

Replication assay

Replication assays were carried out using pPM872 as the template for RNAP blocks (1) or pPM594 (12) for EcoRI E111G blocks. Plasmid pPM872 contains $P_{lacUV5\ 52C}$, a strong promoter in which the first 52 nucleotides of the transcript lack cytosine residues and are then followed by four consecutive cytosines. This enables transcription of $P_{lacUV5\ 52C}$ to be stalled by the omission of CTP. Assays were performed in 40 mM HEPES (pH 8); 10 mM DTT; 10 mM magnesium acetate; 2 mM ATP; 0.2 mM GTP, 0.2 mM UTP; 0.04 mM dNTPs; and 0.1 mg/ml BSA. Reactions (15 µl) contained 2 nM plasmid template, 50 nM DNA polymerase III αεθ complex, 25 nM τ clamp loader complex, 160 nM DnaB and DnaC monomers, 1 µM SSB, 80 nM β clamp, 30 nM HU, 200 nM DnaG, 300 nM DnaA. Helicases were added as indicated. Rep and UvrD used at 200 nM. *E. coli* RNAP holoenzyme from NEB (1 U/µl) was used at 1/3 dilution. Dilution was determined empirically to match RNAP replication inhibition levels from (1). EcoRI E111G was purified as in (104) and used at 200 nM. Reactions were assembled on ice and initiated by addition of DnaA and incubation for 4 min at 37°C, followed by addition of 60 units SmaI (Promega) plus 0.4 MBq [α^{32}P] dCTP (222 TBq/mmol). Standard reactions with the helicase present in the initial protein mix were carried out at 37°C for 1 minute and then terminated by addition of 1 µl of 0.5 M EDTA. Delayed helicase addition was carried out by adding Rep/UvrD after 1 minute and incubation for a further minute at 37°C before termination with EDTA. Ethanol precipitated replication products were analysed by denaturing agarose gel electrophoresis (0.7% agarose in 2 mM EDTA, 30 mM NaOH for 400 volt hours, standard run was 16 hours at 25 V), phosphorimaging and autoradiography. 5'-labelled HindIII- digested lambda DNA was used as a marker. Gels were quantified using Quantity One® (Bio-Rad) software. Full-length plasmid replication products were quantified as a proportion of summed blocked products and normalised for length (for EcoRI E111G block), or total lane signal (RNAP block).

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Supplementary Information

Tetrameric UvrD helicase is located at the *E. coli* replisome due to frequent replication blocks

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 Supplementary Tables

1049 **Table S1 Strains used in this study**

Strain	Relevant genotype	Source or derivation
BW25113 derivatives:		
BW25113	*rrnB ΔlacZ4787 hsdR514 Δ(araBAD)567 Δ(rhaBAD)568 rph-1*	(1)
JW2703	*ΔmutS::<kan>*	(1)
JW3786	*ΔuvrD::<kan>*	(1)
JW4019	*ΔuvrA::<kan>*	(1)
MG1655 derivatives:		
TB12	*ΔlacIZYA::<kan>*	
TB28	*ΔlacIZYA*	(2, 3)
TB28 derivatives		
N6577	*ΔlacIZYA Δrep::cat*	(4)
N6661	*ΔlacIZYA::<> Δrep::dhfr* / pAM407 (*uvrD+ lacZ+*, a pRC7 derivative)	(4)
N6661	*ΔlacIZYA::<> Δrep::dhfr* / pAM407 (*uvrD+ lacZ+*, a pRC7 derivative)	(4)
N6644	*ΔlacIZYA::<> uvrD::dhfr Δrep::cat* / pAM407 (*uvrD+ lacZ+*, a pRC7 derivative)	(4)
JGB166	*ΔuvrD* / pKD46	JW3786 transformed with pKD46
AS97	TB28/pKD46	(5)
AS446	*dnaQ-mCherry-<kan>*	
AS448	*dnaQ-mCherry-<>*	(5)
AS512	*mGFP-uvrD-<kan>*	*mGFP-uvrD-<kan>* recombineered into JGB166
AS517	*ΔlacIZYA::<> Δrep::cat mGFP-uvrD-<kan>* / pAM407 (*uvrD+ lacZ+*, a pRC7 derivative)	N6661 X P1(AS512)
AS564	*dnaQ-mCherry-<kan> rpoB*35*	PM486 X P1(AS446)
AS571	*dnaQ-mCherry-<> rpoB*35*	AS564 to km^S with pCP20
AS580	*dnaQ-mCherry-<> mGFP-uvrD-<kan>*	AS448 X P1(AS512)
AS582	*dnaQ-mCherry-<> mGFP-uvrD-<kan> rpoB*35*	AS571 X P1(AS512)
AS590	*dnaQ-mCherry-<> mGFP-uvrD-<kan> Δrep::cat*	AS580 X P1(N6577)
AS650	*dnaQ-mCherry-<> mGFP-uvrD-<>*	AS580 to km^S with pCP20
AS656	*dnaQ-mCherry-<> mGFP-uvrD-<> ΔuvrA::<kan>*	AS650 X P1(JW4019)
AS658	*dnaQ-mCherry-<> mGFP-uvrD-<> ΔmutS::<kan>*	AS650 X P1(JW2703)

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1052 **Table S2 Plasmids used in this study**

Plasmid	Description	Antibiotic	Reference
pCP20	Yeast Flp recominase expression plasmid	Amp	(6)
pKD46	λ Red recombinase expression plasmid	Amp	(6)
pAS79	pUC18 *mGFP-uvrD-<kan>*	Amp, kan	This study
pAS152	pET14b-mGFP uvrD	Amp	This study

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1055 **Table S3 Oligonucleotides used in this study**

Primer	Sequence (5' - 3')
oJGB383	TGAATGATTTTTTAGGCCAAATAAGGTGCGCAGCACCGCATCCGGCAACGCATA TGAATATCCTCCTTAG
oJGB417	TACAAGACACGTGCTGAAGTC
oJGB418	TGCTAGTTGAACGCTTCCATC
oMKG71	CGGTGCCCTGAATGAACTGC
oPM319	CTTGTTGGATCAGACCGGAAAATG
oPM320	TGGCAACGCTATCCTTTTGTCA
oPM407	GCGGCAGGCAATGTGGTA
oPM409	CCTTTGAGCGTGTGGTGA
oPM411	CAGCGGCTACAAGCTCGG
oPM187B20	GTCGGATCCTCTAGACAGC(BiodT)CCATGATCACTGGCACTGGTAGAATTCGGC
oPM188B34	AACGTCATAGACGATTACATTGCTACATGGAGC(BiodT)GTCTAGAGGATCCGAC
oAS84	CCCGTCTCGATCTGGTGCAG
oAS85	TTGCTGCAAAAATCGCCCAAG
oAS132	CCCGTCTCGATCTGGTGCAGAAGAAAGGCGGAAGTTGCCTCTGGCGAGCAGGC TGGCTCCGCTGCTGG
oAS133	TTGCTGCAAAAATCGCCCAAGTCGCTATTTTTAGCGCCTTTCACAGGTATCATAT GAATATCCTCCTTAG
oAS145	AGGGCGTTGCGCTTCTCCGCCCAACCTATTTTTACGCGGCGGTGCCAATGAGTA AAGGAGAAGAACTT

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1058 **Table S4 Cell doubling times of labelled strains.** Values expressed are the means of three

1059 independent replicates, with standard deviation and standard errors indicated.

Strain (Relevant genotype)	LB medium			Minimal medium		
	Mean doubling time (min)	SD (min)	SEM (min)	Mean doubling time (min)	SD (min)	SEM (min)
WT	23.72	1.11	0.64	62.80	17.06	9.85
dnaQ-mCherry	26.85	0.91	0.52	62.22	18.63	10.76
mGFP-uvrD	24.79	0.37	0.22	59.45	1.80	1.04
dnaQ-mCherry mGFP-uvrD	25.27	1.51	0.87	71.03	7.59	4.38
ΔmutS	24.59	0.55	0.32	107.91	13.96	8.06
ΔuvrA	27.99	0.23	0.13	92.25	5.86	3.38
ΔrpoB*35	33.98	0.17	0.10	83.11	30.83	17.80
Δrep	24.30	2.03	1.17	62.74	1.20	0.70
dnaQ-mCherry mGFP-uvrD ΔmutS	26.85	0.68	0.39	110.84	34.91	20.16
dnaQ-mCherry mGFP-uvrD ΔuvrA	24.13	0.56	0.33	91.80	5.18	2.99
dnaQ-mCherry mGFP-uvrD ΔrpoB*35	32.81	0.70	0.40	99.11	78.68	45.42
dnaQ-mCherry mGFP-uvrD Δrep	26.54	1.90	1.10	62.17	2.98	1.72

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1066 **Supplementary figures**

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Supplementary Figure S1. Growth curves in LB medium. Cultures were grown in LB as

described in the text. The OD_{600} values are plotted on a log scale on the vertical axis with a

linear scale of time in hours on the horizontal axis. The genotypes of the strains are indicated

in boxes within the figures. SD error bars (shown just on every 5th consecutive point for clarity

here), taken from N=3 replicate cultures. Plots in panel A are growth curves of single and dual

labelled wild-type strains, while those in panel B are dual labelled and unlabelled mutant

strains. The unlabelled wild-type strain is included in all panels as a reference.

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<div align="center">

| uvrD⁺/ Δrep uvrD⁺ (N6577) | uvrD⁺/ Δrep ΔuvrD (N6644) | uvrD⁺/ Δrep mGFP- uvrD-<kan>/ (AS517) |

0.91 (1120/1228) 0.004 (17/4737) 0.66 (730/1099)

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Supplementary Figure S2: Testing of mGFP-UvrD fusions for retention of function. We

transformed the strain carrying a chromosomal *mGFP-uvrD* allele with a derivative of pRC7

carrying a wild-type *uvrD* allele (pPM407), which is an unstable low copy plasmid that also

carries the *lacZYA* genes (3). Presence of this plasmid confers blue colour to the colonies on

plates containing Xgal when strains are chromosomally deleted for the *lac* operon. In rapidly

growing cells, cells require either *rep* or *uvrD* for viability, and the loss of both is lethal (4, 7).

Thus, *Δrep* cells with a functional *uvrD* allele are viable and can lose pRC7*uvrD*, evidenced

by appearance of white colonies on LB Xgal IPTG plates, but cells lacking *uvrD* function

cannot survive upon loss of the plasmid resulting in recovery of only blue colonies. The *Δrep*

mGFP-uvrD cells produced white colonies on Xgal media, indicating that the *mGFP-uvrD*

fusion is functional.

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Supplementary Figure S3: mGFP-UvrD fusion is functional *in vitro*. (A)(i) Representative

native polyacrylamide TBE gel showing UvrD and mGFP-UvrD unwinding of forked DNA

containing biotin on both strands within the duplex region (8, 9). Lanes 1-2 contain markers

indicating the position of single stranded or forked DNA as indicated. Lanes 3-10 contain the

products of unwinding the forked DNA by the indicated helicase at 1, 10, 50 and 100 nM. (ii)

Quantification of the unwinding of the forked substrate by the indicated helicases. Data points

shown are averages of band intensities (taken from two gels in UvrD and four gels in mGFP-

UvrD) with standard errors indicated by bars on the points. (B)(i) Representative native

polyacrylamide TBE gels showing UvrD and mGFP-UvrD unwinding of forked DNA containing

biotin on both strands within the duplex region (8, 9). Lanes 1-4 contain markers indicating the

position of single stranded or forked DNA +/- streptavidin as indicated. Lanes 5-12 contain the

products of unwinding the forked DNA +/- streptavidin by the indicated helicase at 1, 10, 50

and 100 nM. (ii) Quantification of the unwinding of the forked substrate in the presence of

streptavidin by the indicated helicases. Data points shown are averages of band intensities

(taken from two gels in UvrD and four gels in mGFP-UvrD) with standard errors indicated by

bars on the points.

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1110 **Supplementary Figure S4: A. and B.** Dual colour Slimfield images of mGFP-UvrD:DnaQ-

1111 mCherry, scale bar 1 micron. Segmented outlines of cell bodies (white dash) and detected

1112 foci (white circles) indicated. C. Mean corrected intensity line profile through a colocalized

1113 foci in B.

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1116 **Supplementary Figure S5:** (A) Dual colour Slimfield images of H-NS-mGFP-:DnaQ-
1117 mCherry, scale bar 1 micron. Segmented outlines of cell bodies indicated (white dash). (B)
1118 Histogram showing the number of H-NS foci detected per cell, SD errors.
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Supplementary Figure S6: Brightness of single mGFP and mCherry molecules A. and B. Characteristic intensity distributions rendered as kernel density estimates of single mGFP-UvrD and DnaQ-mCherry obtained using Slimfield imaging. Peak±full width at half maximum indicated. Distributions calculated from the tracked foci intensity distributions from the end of the photobleach process such that only single fluorophore molecules are detected. Number of molecules per foci before bleaching is determined by dividing the initial foci intensity by these values for the equivalent fluorophore.

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1133 **Supplementary Figure S7: Single-molecule image analysis. A.** Chung-Kennedy filtered
1134 (squares) intensity traces for single UvrD tracks showing tetramers exhibiting multiple
1135 photobleach steps and monomers detected towards the end of photobleaching. Foci were
1136 'overtracked' beyond the last detected bright frame to illustrate steps. **B**. UvrD-GFP
1137 micrograph showing the full dynamic range (left) and adjusted to illustrate a foci (right)
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Supplementary Figure S8: DnaQ tracking characterization. Top row: Distribution of

DnaQ foci stoichiometry as a kernel density estimate for all strains and conditions (red) with

two Gaussian fit overlaid as black dotted lines. Peak ± half width at half maximum shown

above. Middle row: Corresponding histogram of number of foci detected per cell. Bottom

row: histogram of the total amount of DnaQ in foci per cell. N=30-50 cells per strain or

condition.

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Supplementary Figure S9: Single-molecule microscopy of purified mGFP-UvrD. A.

Representative Slimfield image of surface-immobilized mGFP-UvrD. B. Automated single-

particle tracking output for mGFP-UvrD showing probability distribution for mGFP-UvrD foci

brightness normalized by the single-molecule dye brightness, peak (±HWHM) corresponding

to 1 molecule indicated (arrow) for n=7,384 foci. *Inset*: example overlaid stepwise

photobleach traces for four different mGFP-UvrD foci indicating a consistent single-molecule

step to zero brightness whose size is comparable to the measured modal brightness across

all foci (dots: raw data, lines: Chung-Kennedy edge-preserving filter output).

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Supplementary Figure S10: A. Boxplot of the total number of mGFP-UvrD molecules per

cell, estimated by numerical integration of the whole cell fluorescence. Median is shown as

red line, bottom and top of the blue box mark the 25th and 75th percentiles and whiskers

extend to the most extreme points not considered outliers (2.7 standard deviations covering

99.3% of normally distributed data) with outliers beyond this shown as red +. N=30 cells per

strain. B Number of trajectories per cell used in the stoichiometry determination

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1175 **Supplementary Figure S11: Surface plasmon resonance measurements of helicase**
1176 **interactions with Tau** A. Titration response curves for UvrD:UvrB, UvrD:Tau and Rep:Tau
1177 with their affinities shown in B.

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1179   **Supplementary Figure S12:** Perturbed UvrD stoichiometry. The distribution of UvrD foci

1180   stoichiometry rendered as a kernel density estimate for foci colocalised (Left) and non-

1181   colocalised (Right) with DnaQ foci. Distributions were fitted with multiple Gaussian fits (black

1182   dotted lines) with the peak value $\pm$ half width at half maximum indicated above each peak.

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Supplementary Figure S13: UvrD perturbed dynamics. A-E Left, distribution of time UvrD
and DnaQ foci were colocalised (blue) fit with an exponential (red) to yield a characteristic
dwell time. Right, distribution of microscopic diffusion coefficients of UvrD foci (grey) fitted with
a three state gamma distribution model containing a relatively immobile population with
D = 0.1 μm^2/s (red), a transiently immobile population, D = 0.5 μm^2/s (blue) and a mobile
population, D=1.2 μm^2/s (green). Errors represent 95% confidence intervals. N~300
foci/condition.

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1195 **Supplementary Figure S14:** In vitro replication assay using mGFP-UvrD. Denaturing
1196 agarose gel of replication products formed from pPM872 (1) in the absence and presence of
1197 EcoRI E111G block, mGFP-UvrD and UvrD added pre- and post-collision (*) as indicated.
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Supplementary references

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