1   **Chromosome segregation in *Escherichia coli* involves DNA binding by the MinC-MinD**

2   **complex**

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Abstract

The *Escherichia coli* Min system, composed of the proteins MinC, MinD, and MinE, is crucial

for directing septum formation at mid-cell. MinD has also been implicated in chromosome

segregation due to its non-sequence-specific DNA binding ability. Here, we demonstrate that

the MinCD complex, rather than MinD alone, is the primary driver of Min-mediated

chromosome segregation and that MinE regulates the transient nature of this interaction. We

further reveal a critical function for the linker connecting MinC's N- and C-terminal domains

in both DNA binding and FtsZ polymerization inhibition. *E. coli* strains expressing MinC

linker variants from the native locus exhibit chromosome segregation defects. The defects are

more pronounced in strains where the nucleoid-associated protein HU is endogenously tagged

with GFP. These findings reinforce the involvement of the Min system in chromosome

segregation in *E. coli* and highlight a previously unrecognized role for the MinC linker.

Introduction

E. coli cells divide by constriction of the cell wall by a contractile ring structure called the Z-

ring. This structure is made of polymers of FtsZ, a conserved GTPase that shares structural

similarity with eukaryotic tubulin[1, 2]. In the absence of FtsZ's spatial regulators, the Z-ring

would form anywhere in the cell. To inhibit Z-ring formation at the poles and over the nucleoid

two machineries are at place in *E. coli*: the Min system and the nucleoid occlusion[3]. Other still

unclear mechanisms additionally ensure mid-cell determination in this bacterium[4, 5]. The

nucleoid occlusion mechanism is put in action by the protein SlmA, which binds DNA at

specific sites scattered along the chromosome with the exception of the terminus-containing

region and inhibits FtsZ polymerization there[6, 7]. The Min system comprises three proteins:

MinC, MinD and MinE. It owes its name from the observation that *E. coli* strains having

mutations in or deletion of the operon encoding these proteins –the *minB* operon– divide

asymmetrically giving rise to miniaturized cells deprived of chromosomal DNA[8, 9]. These

round, chromosome-less cells have been denominated minicells and the proteins forming the

machinery that ensures symmetric cell division and absence of minicells were called Min

proteins, and together the Min system.

MinC is a potent inhibitor of FtsZ polymerization. While it is able to do so on its own, a 25-50

times higher cellular concentration of MinC is needed to antagonize FtsZ efficiently in the

absence of MinD[10]. Indeed, MinC is *per se* a cytoplasmic protein and, if expressed in the

absence of MinD and MinE, it is simply diffused throughout the cell, thus requiring high

concentrations to counteract FtsZ, which is instead tethered to the cytoplasmic membrane by

its binding partners FtsA and ZapA[11-13]. Thanks to its association with MinD, an ATPase that

associates with the cytoplasmic membrane through its C-terminal amphipathic helix (also

called a membrane-targeting sequence or MTS)[14-17], MinC gets in close proximity to FtsZ and

can potently destabilize its polymers even at endogenous expression levels. MinC is composed

of two functional domains: an N-terminal domain (MinC^N) and a C-terminal domain (MinC^C)

connected by a linker allowing flexibility in the orientation of MinC^{N}[18, 19]. The boundaries of

these domains are not universally defined. Some reports define MinC^N as the region of the

protein comprising amino acids 1-120, while MinC^C as comprising amino acids 127-231[20];

others state MinC^N to comprise amino acids 1-115 of MinC and MinC^C to include amino acids

116-231[21]. So far, nothing is known about the role of this linker except that it imparts flexibility

between the two domains of MinC. No mutations in this region are known to impair MinC's

functionality. MinC^C contains a dimerization domain and interacts directly with MinD[22]. When

in complex with MinD, MinC^C interacts with the C-terminal tail of FtsZ, which is also involved

in the interaction with FtsA and ZapA[23], thus competing with these proteins and finally

destabilizing and disrupting the Z-ring[23, 24]. MinC^N is also dimeric due to a so-called domain

swap, whereby the first beta-strand of each monomer belongs to a beta-sheet located on the

other monomer[25]. MinC^N is a stronger FtsZ antagonist than MinC^C. It attacks and shortens FtsZ

polymers without affecting FtsZ's GTPase activity[21]. Taken together, it can be concluded that

MinC binds to FtsZ and destabilizes its polymers with both its N- and C-terminal domains[18,

26].

MinD forms ATP-dependent dimers[27]. Although ADP-bound monomeric MinD can associate

with the cytoplasmic membrane via its MTS, this interaction is weak. When in dimeric form,

the interaction becomes stable[14]. In the absence of MinE or when expressed at much higher

levels than MinE, MinD decorates the whole cytoplasmic membrane. MinE is recruited to the

membrane by membrane-bound MinD, which triggers a conformational change in MinE that

exposes a previously cryptic MTS, which allows MinE to also directly associate with the

membrane[28]. Subsequently, MinE stimulates the ATPase activity of MinD, which leads to the

dissociation of the MinD dimer and the release of MinD from the membrane[29, 30]. In the

cytoplasm, ADP is exchanged with ATP, and ATP-bound MinD rebinds to the membrane at

locations where MinE concentration is the lowest, that is, the opposite pole. This reaction-

diffusion mechanism leads to oscillations of MinD/MinE from one cell pole to the other[31, 32].

MinE and MinC compete for the same binding surface on MinD[33]. As a matter of fact, MinE

displaces MinC from MinD before activating MinD's ATPase activity[27, 34-36].

Beyond its role in Z-ring positioning, the Min system has been implicated in chromosome

segregation[37]. MinD was shown to bind DNA *in vitro* in a non-sequence-specific manner[37]. A

mutant MinD capable of DNA binding, but unable to bind to the membrane, was shown to co-

localize with the nucleoid in living *E. coli* cells[37]. Interestingly, MinD was found to bind to the

DNA and the membrane at the same time, an essential feature for the mechanism of

chromosome segregation that was put forward[37]. Later, the DNA-binding protein Noc, the

actuator of the nucleoid occlusion mechanism in *Bacillus subtilis*, was also shown to bind

simultaneously to the membrane and the DNA, thus suggesting that such "dual binders" might

be more widespread than previously anticipated[38]. MinD is part of the ParA-MinD family of

ATPases[39]. Members of this family are known to bind DNA to perform either plasmid or

chromosome segregation in various organisms[40]. MinD has been seen for a long time as the

exception, due to the fact that it was believed to bind to the membrane only and not to DNA

and to be responsible for mid-cell determination, but not chromosome segregation. *E. coli,*

however*,* does not possess a chromosomal Par system. The Min-mediated mechanism of

chromosome segregation involves repeated, transient DNA-membrane tethering events, which

impede the random backward movement of the duplicated chromosomes toward mid-cell[37].

This proposed mechanism still requires entropic forces to separate the duplicated chromosomes

at the beginning of the cell cycle. Once these forces become weaker due to the increased

physical separation of the duplicated chromosomes, the Min-mediated mechanism becomes

important to keep them away from mid-cell, each close to one pole.

So far, only MinD-DNA interaction was directly studied by various biochemical assays and

fluorescence microscopy in living *E. coli* cells[37]. Here we investigate the interaction of MinC

and MinE with DNA, alone or when together with the other Min proteins. We show that the

MinCD complex is the primary DNA-binding entity within the Min system, and that MinE and

FtsZ (at high concentrations) interfere with the binding. We find that the linker connecting

MinC^N and MinC^C is essential for MinCD-DNA binding, which is abolished *in vitro* by even

small perturbations to it. The linker is also important for MinC's function towards FtsZ. Using

the CRISPR/Cas9 and Lambda Red recombineering, we construct MG1655 and MG1655-

HUαGFP (Fishov)[40] strains expressing MinC linker mutants from the endogenous locus. All

strains have some degree of chromosome segregation defects, which become particularly

pronounced in the Fishov strain.

Together, these data corroborate the role of the Min system in chromosome segregation under

physiological conditions and reveal an unexpected role for the MinC linker in the binding to

DNA.

Results

The MinCD complex binds DNA *in vitro*

To test the ability of MinC, alone and with MinD, to bind to DNA, we cloned the *minC* and

minD genes in pET28a and purified the 6xHis-T7-tagged proteins from *E. coli* Rosetta cells

using Nickel-based affinity chromatography. We then performed electrophoretic mobility shift

assays (EMSAs) using a fluorescently labeled 30 bp DNA fragment. While MinC and MinD

alone bound DNA extremely weakly (Supplementary Fig. 1a,b), the MinCD complex bound

DNA strongly, in a concentration-dependent manner in the presence of ATP (Supplementary

Fig. 1b). When we used a longer DNA fragment (120 bp), we found that His-MinC at 2 μM

could also shift all the DNA probe (Supplementary Fig. 1c), albeit in this case the nucleoprotein

complex was found mostly in the well and not into the gel, as seen for the sample with MinC

and MinD (Supplementary Fig. 1d).

These EMSAs were performed with the His-tagged proteins. To test if the His-tag could

influence the binding, we removed it from both proteins using thrombin and performed the

EMSAs again (note that the T7 tag is still present at the N-terminus of the proteins). We found

that, indeed, both proteins had reduced DNA binding in the absence of the His-tag, yet the

binding was still strong when using both proteins together, especially when using a longer

DNA probe (Supplementary Fig. 1e and Fig. 1a). We decided to perform all further

experiments with purified proteins from which the His-tag was removed.

Titrating the proteins one at a time with a 52 bp DNA probe we saw that, when having MinD

at 4 μM, 1 μM MinC was sufficient to shift the vast majority of the DNA probe (Fig. 1a), while,

when having MinC at 4 μM, 4 μM MinD were necessary to observe a similar strong binding

(Fig. 1b). When we used a longer DNA probe, we observed the same pattern, although in this

case, 2 μM MinD were sufficient to shift all the DNA probe (Supplementary Fig. 1f,g). Taken

together, these data indicate that MinC has higher affinity for the DNA than MinD, although

this affinity is still rather weak when MinC is alone. In the presence of MinD, the affinity for

the DNA increases several folds. The concentration-dependent binding of the MinCD complex

with DNA was observed with probes of various lengths (Fig. 1c).

To confirm the results of the EMSA, we performed a liposome co-sedimentation assay in the

presence of plasmid DNA. We found that the plasmid DNA co-sedimented with the liposomes

when MinC and MinD were mixed together with ATP (Fig. 1d, lane 3, upper panel). The

MinCD-DNA complex was partially found in the pellet even in the absence of the liposomes

(Fig. 1d, lane 2, upper panel). In the presence of ADP, there was only a very weak signal for

the DNA in the pellet (Fig. 1d, lane 5, upper panel). While this could be due to binding to MinD

alone, considering that there was hardly any DNA in the pellet of the sample with only MinD

(Fig. 1d, lane 1, upper panel), we speculate the weak signal is rather due to some residual

MinCD complex in the pellet of the sample with ADP (Fig. 1d, lane 5, middle panel). When

the non-hydrolysable ATP-analogue ATP-γS was used instead of ATP, we found a decreased

amount of DNA in the pellet (Fig. 1d, lane 4, upper panel). Looking at the amount of MinC

and MinD in the pellet/supernatant (Fig. 1d, lane 4, middle panel), we conclude that ATP-γS

affects the binding between MinC and MinD more than the MinD-liposome interaction, leading

to reduced DNA binding. These results indicate that the MinCD complex is capable of binding

DNA while being associated with the membrane.

In the presence of DNA, the MinCD co-polymers assemble *in vitro* into sheets whose width

is proportional to the length of the DNA fragment

The results of the liposome co-sedimentation assay, which showed that a fraction of the

MinCD-DNA complex goes to the pellet even in the absence of liposomes, suggest that the

proteins form a high-molecular weight complex with the DNA. This is also evident in the

EMSAs, where the signal is often found in or very close to the well. To more directly observe

these structures, we performed negative-stain transmission electron microscopy. Upon

incubation of MinC, MinD, ATP and DNA, we observed the formation of sheets (Fig. 2a). We

believe these sheets are formed by a number of the previously reported MinCD co-polymers[41,]

[42]. Using DNA fragments of different lengths as well as plasmid DNA, we found that the width

of the sheets is proportional to the length of the DNA fragment used in the experiment (Fig.

2b). In the absence of added DNA, sheets are still visible, but they are found more sporadically

(Supplementary Fig. 2).

In the experiment described above, the DNA was not directly visible. To visualize the DNA,

we used 5 nm gold beads coated with poly-dT DNA via a sulfur-gold chemistry. These single-

stranded fiducials (ss fiducials) were annealed with an excess of poly-dA to form double-

stranded fiducials (ds fiducials). The MinCD co-polymers were formed by mixing purified

MinD and MinC proteins in the presence of ATP. After the addition of the fiducials, the

samples were plunge-frozen and observed in the electron microscope. We found that the ds

fiducials aligned along the co-polymeric filaments in a linear way (Fig. 2c, left panel) in

contrast to the random binding pattern of the ss fiducials (Fig. 2c, middle panel). This regular

pattern required the presence of the MinCD filaments (Fig. 2c, right panel). The ss fiducials

sometimes formed clusters, which could be reduced in number, but not eliminated by one

additional heating/annealing cycle. This treatment did not affect the regular line pattern seen

for the ds fiducials.

A statistical analysis of all inter-fiducial distances up to 250 pixels confirmed the visual

observations. The lines of ds fiducials appear to consist of beads at defined distances, and clear

peaks corresponding to multiples of this distance (manifolds) are evident in the histogram (Fig.

2c, lower left panel). In contrast, the distances between ss fiducials are random (Fig. 2c, lower

middle panel). While the overall binding of ss and ds fiducials to the filaments is comparable,

the ss fiducials tend to be more dispersed, resulting in fewer short-range interactions and the

disappearance of the peak at the primary distance. The few clusters of ss fiducials observed in

the absence of filaments also exhibit a peak at a short distance (18.5 nm), suggesting a potential

intrinsic tendency for these fiducials to form small aggregates. These results, together with our

EMSA data, support the conclusion that MinC and MinD bind to double-stranded DNA,

forming ordered structures.

MinE and FtsZ interfere with DNA binding by the MinCD complex

To investigate the ability of MinE to bind DNA, we cloned the *minE* gene into pET28a, and

purified the 6xHis-T7-tagged protein from *E. coli* Rosetta cells using Nickel-based affinity

chromatography. Also in this case, we decided to compare the binding of the His-tagged protein

and of the protein after removal of the His-tag. Consistent with what was observed for MinD

and MinC, the His-tag led to stronger DNA binding by MinE (Supplementary Fig. 1 and Fig.

3a). Co-incubation with MinD did not improve the binding (Fig. 3b).

Next we investigated the effect of MinE on DNA binding by the MinCD complex using the

liposome co-sedimentation assay. We found that MinE interferes with DNA binding by the

MinCD complex in a concentration-dependent manner (Fig. 3c). Since MinE competes with

MinC for the same binding surface on MinD and dislodges MinC from MinD, it is not

surprising that it leads to the dissociation of the MinC-MinD-DNA complex, which requires

MinC and MinD to be in a complex.

We also tested if FtsZ would interfere or enhance DNA binding by MinCD. To this aim, we

cloned the *ftsZ* gene into pET28a, purified the protein from *E. coli* Rosetta cells using Nickel-

based affinity chromatography and removed the His-tag. We then performed liposome co-

sedimentation assay in the presence of plasmid DNA. FtsZ was found in the pellet either when

alone or when co-incubated with MinC and MinD, albeit the amount of protein in the pellet

was higher for the sample with MinCD (Fig. 3d, compare lanes 3 and 4, middle panel). There

was no discernible difference in the results obtained with GDP and GTP (Fig. 3d). We speculate

this is due to the intrinsically high GTPase activity of FtsZ[43], which leads to the accumulation

of GDP in the sample that contained initially only GTP. Note that, in this assay, it is not possible

to discern polymers, which form in the presence of GTP, from shorter oligomers and/or

condensates, which form in the presence of GDP[44]. Upon incubation with 10 μM FtsZ, the

protein ratio MinC/FtsZ in the lipid-associated pellet was ± 2:1 and there was a small decrease

of DNA in the pellet (Fig. 3d, lower panel). Increasing the concentration of FtsZ to 30 μM

resulted in an equal amount of MinC and FtsZ in the pellet and highly reduced plasmid DNA

in the pellet (Fig. 3d, lower panel). Since FtsZ binds to both the N- and the C-terminal domains

of MinC, it most likely prevents DNA binding by blocking the binding sites on MinC (and

possibly MinD). We confirmed that FtsZ interferes with the DNA binding by the MinCD

complex using EMSA (Fig. 3e). Already two minutes of incubation were sufficient to prevent

all binding.

The linker connecting MinC N- and C-terminal domains is needed for DNA binding with

MinD and affects the activity of MinC towards FtsZ

Integrating the data obtained so far with the previously suggested role of the Min system in

chromosome segregation[37], we conclude that the real effector of the system in this process is

the MinCD complex and not MinD. As chromosome segregation defects were observed before

only in an *E. coli* strain overexpressing from plasmid a mutant MinD, we aimed to investigate

if chromosome segregation defects would be evident when expressing at endogenous, thus

physiological levels a mutant Min protein unable to bind DNA. To draw conclusions about

chromosome segregation defects due to failed DNA binding by MinCD rather than to

morphological issues, we needed a mutant protein (either MinC or MinD) affected only in its

ability to bind DNA, but retaining all other functionalities. Such a mutant would allow us to

study chromosome segregation in cells with otherwise normal Z-ring positioning. Since MinC

has the highest DNA binding affinity, and considering that MinD has to perform more activities

than MinC (interact with the membrane, MinC, and MinE, and hydrolyze ATP to oscillate from

pole to pole), we decided to focus on MinC. MinC is, as mentioned above, composed of two

domains separated by a linker (Fig. 4a). We decided to test the role of this linker in DNA

binding. We predicted that it would not be important for the binding to MinD, since this

happens via MinC^C[22]. We expected it, however, to play a role in MinC's activity towards FtsZ,

since both MinC domains destabilize FtsZ polymers and their correct positioning towards FtsZ

might be important[18, 26]. The linker region of MinC is always referred to as "flexible", because

attempts to crystallize full-length MinC failed so far and, for *T. maritima* MinC, two

orientations of MinC^N were found in the crystals, which was taken as a proof of the flexibility

of the linker[19]. Looking at two available crystal structures of MinC N and C-terminal domains,

we found that, in the isolated MinC^N, only residues 1-101 are resolved[25], and that, in the

isolated MinC^C, residues 121-231 are resolved[45]. This suggests that the linker region comprises

amino acids 102-120 (Fig. 4b). Interestingly, it is composed of several amino acids that are

found in rigid linkers such as alanine, lysine, and proline[46]; indeed, it is predicted to be rigid

by the MEDUSA web server[47]. Nonetheless, given the known flexibility between MinC^N and

MinC^C afforded by the linker, we decided to substitute it with flexible linkers made of various

repeats of glycine and serine. We cloned and purified the following MinC linker mutants: GS,

1x AGGSG, 2x AGGSG, 3x AGGSG, 4x AGGSG, and 19RL (Fig. 4b). In the GS construct,

MinC^N and MinC^C are separated by two amino acids, namely glycine (G) and serine (S). In the

1x AGGSG construct (from now on, 1x), the linker region comprises five amino acids, namely

alanine (A), glycine (G), glycine (G), serine (S) and glycine (G). In the 2x mutant, this sequence

is repeated twice, and so on. The linker in the 19RL mutant is identical to that in the 4x mutant,

but lacks the last glycine. Therefore, this mutant linker is as long as MinC's native linker (that

is, it is 19 amino acid long). We then performed EMSAs with wild-type and mutant MinC

proteins. We found that all linker variants lost their ability to bind DNA with MinD *in vitro*

(Fig. 4c). To investigate the importance of the length of the linker without changing its amino

acid sequence, we also constructed mutants of MinC carrying truncations of the linker (Fig.

4d). These mutant MinC proteins were also unable to bind DNA with MinD *in vitro* (Fig. 4e).

The linker seems, therefore, crucial for DNA binding. To test the role of the linker further, we

investigated the DNA binding ability of the isolated MinC^C containing the linker (Fig. 4f, upper

panel). This protein bound the DNA with MinD even better than full-length MinC (Fig. 4f,

lower panel).

We confirmed that all the MinC linker mutants were not affected in their ability to bind to

MinD and be recruited to the liposomes (Supplementary Fig. 3). For the flexible linker mutants

(1x-4x), we additionally checked that they could be dislodged off MinD by MinE

(Supplementary Fig. 4). These results corroborate our assumption that the linker is not involved

in the binding of MinC to MinD and MinE.

Finally, we investigated the ability of the linker mutants and truncations to destabilize FtsZ

polymers using the spot assay. We expressed either MinC (WT, linker truncations and mutants)

alone under the strong IPTG-inducible T7 promoter in *E. coli* Rosetta cells (Fig. 4g, upper

panel), or together with MinD under the arabinose-inducible P$_{BAD}$ promoter in MG1655ΔminB

cells (Fig. 4h, upper panel). When overexpressed alone, all the linker variants were impaired

in their interaction with FtsZ (Fig. 4g, lower panel). In the presence of MinD, the activity

towards FstZ improved for all but the GS linker mutant, whose overexpression did not cause

filamentation and consequently cell death (Fig. 4h, lower panel). Despite being somewhat

affected in their activity towards FtsZ, MinC linker mutants are able to block Z-ring formation

when overexpressed with MinD (leading to cell filamentation and cell death), thus they

represent a viable option to investigate the impact of DNA binding on chromosome segregation

in living cells for which Z-ring positioning by the Min system is likely in place.

303 *E. coli* **strains expressing MinC linker mutants from the endogenous locus show**

304 **chromosome segregation defects**

305 To construct strains expressing MinC linker mutants at endogenous levels, we applied a

306 genome engineering method based on the CRISPR/Cas9 and the Lambda Red recombination

307 systems[48], which allowed us to swap the native linker with the 1x-4x variants directly at the

308 endogenous locus. We used two donor strains: MG1655 and MG1655 where a *gfp* gene is

309 inserted in frame downstream of endogenous *hupA* (Fishov strain)[49]. This strain, therefore,

310 expresses the fusion of the alpha subunit of HU (HUα) with GFP and allows visualization of

311 the nucleoid without the use of further stains (e.g. DAPI). Since the procedure itself might

312 affect the cells, we additionally constructed a silent mutant of MinC in both genetic

313 backgrounds. In these strains, only the nucleotide sequence of the linker was mutated with

314 alternative codons for the same amino acids. Consequently, they both express wild-type MinC.

315 As a first characterization of the strains, we measured growth curves in LB and M9 media. We

316 found that all mutant strains, including those expressing the silent mutant, grew less than the

317 wild type (Fig. 5a). The 1x linker mutant grew less than all other mutants, for both strains and

318 in both media. Nonetheless, the difference in growth was very moderate.

319 We then measured cell length using the automated software BacStalk[50]. Note that, in this

320 measurement, minicells were explicitly excluded. We found a statistically significant

321 difference between the wild type and almost each mutant, with the exception of the 2x linker

322 mutant in the MG1655 background and the 4x linker mutant in the Fishov background (Fig.

323 5b). In the MG1655 background, the median was almost identical in all strains (Fig. 5b, upper

324 panel). In the Fishov background, the silent mutant, as well as the 2x and 3x mutants gave rise

325 to smaller cells than the wild type (Fig. 5b, lower panel). The 1x mutant, despite having a

326 similar median as the wild type, had many longer cells.

To look directly at chromosome segregation, we employed fluorescence microscopy using

DAPI to stain the nucleoid and constructed demographs of the DAPI signal (Fig. 5c,d). Note

that, albeit the Fishov strains express HUα-GFP, we opted for staining them also with DAPI

because, after fixation, the GFP signal was too weak. Moreover, we wanted to treat all samples

in the same way. Observation of the demographs with the naked eye revealed a clear defect for

several of the mutants in the Fishov background (Fig. 5d, lower panel). To resolve defects not

obvious to the naked eye, we decided to calculate a measure that would indicate the spread of

the DAPI signal in the cell. For less well segregated chromosomes, we expect a higher spread.

We therefore calculated the ratio between the number of black pixels (which indicate the area

of the cell without DNA) and the total number of pixels in the cell. We calculated the average

of this ratio for all cells and expressed it as a percentage (Fig. 5e,f). With this measure, it is

possible to appreciate that even in the MG1655 background there are chromosome segregation

defects, especially for the silent, 2x and 3x mutants (Fig. 5e). Nonetheless, clearly the defects

are much more pronounced in the Fishov background (Fig. 5f).

Discussion

The role of the Min system in mid-cell determination and Z-ring positioning is well established.

However, its contribution to chromosome segregation has been less acknowledged. One reason

for this might be the fact that, when the involvement of the Min system in chromosome

segregation was first proposed, the roles of MinC and MinE had not been studied, and

chromosome segregation defects had been shown only in MG1655Δ*minB* cells overexpressing

a mutant MinD with decreased DNA binding from plasmid[37]. Here we clarified the role of

MinC and MinE, showing that the real actuator driving chromosome segregation is the MinCD

complex, while MinE ensures that the binding is transient. Moreover, we used CRISPR/Cas9

coupled with the Lambda Red recombination to construct strains that are identical to the

parental ones except that endogeous MinC carries a modified linker, which we demonstrated

to abrogate DNA binding *in vitro*. Using these strains, we demonstrated chromosome

segregation defects for some of the linker mutants, with particularly severe defects in cells

expressing a GFP-tagged version of the alpha subunit of the histone-like protein HU. This could

be due to the fact that HU plays a role in maitaining the correct structure of the chromosome

and the fusion to GFP may not be as functional as the wild-type and therefore this strain may

already suffer from mild defects in chromosome structure/compaction or other processes

related to HU[51-54]. Indeed, comparison of demographs for wild-type strains shows better

separation in MG1655 than in MG1655::*huα-gfp* (Fig. 5c,d). These mild defects are

exacerbated in the MinC linker mutant strains.

As mentioned already, the mutant strains in the MG1655 background show only minor defects.

While the DNA binding activity of the mutants was assessed *in vitro*, translating these results

to the cellular context is challenging due to the complexity of cellular environments, including

varying protein concentrations and additional factors. It is possible that the mutations partially

impair DNA binding in the cell, leading to milder defects than observed *in vitro*.

It is difficult to entirely disentagle the activity of the Min system towards FstZ and in

chromosome segregation because, if altered, both processes lead to the formation of minicells.

As a matter of fact, there are several reports stating the presence of minicells as a consequence

of failed chromosome segregation[55-59]. By taking snapshots of all the constructed strains in the

microscope and quantifying the percentage of minicells formed, we found that, in the MG1655

background, all the linker mutants produced minicells compared to the wild-type strain and the

strain expressing the silent mutant, with the 2x linker mutant producing the highest amount of

minicells, followed closely by the 3x mutant (Supplementary Fig. 6). While this is consistent

with the segregation defects for these mutants (Fig. 5e), there is a discrepancy for the silent

mutant, which produces no minicells despite having the strongest segregation defects. The

same trend is found in the Fishov backround, although in this case the percentage of minicells

produced by the linker mutants is overall higher (Supplementary Fig. 7). Nonetheless, cells

with chromosome segregation issues may fail to divide all together, which could explain why

minicells are not formed. The demograph (Fig. 5d) and the cell length calculation (Fig. 5b,

lower panel) indicate that Fishov strain cells expressing the 1x mutant are much longer than

wild-type Fishov strain cells.

We were surprised to find differences between wild-type strains and those with silent mutations

in MinC linker. We excluded the possibility that these differences are due to protein levels

(Supplementary Fig. 8). Therefore, the phenotypic effects might be caused by the presence of

regulatory elements like small RNAs, which need further investigation in the future.

The electron microscopy results reveal that the DNA is bound by the MinCD co-polymers (Fig.

2). When using free dsDNA fragments, we observed sheets with widths proportional to the

DNA length, suggesting that DNA runs perpendicular or at an angle to the filaments. In

contrast, when using dsDNA fiducials attached to gold beads, these aligned along single

filaments without connecting neighbouring filaments. The linear arrangement of the beads

seems to follow the curved filaments and hardly switch to a neighboring filament. In fact,

neighboring filaments are hardly labeled at all. This also points to a cooperativity: the binding

of the first bead facilitates the binding of the following bead to the same filament, leading to

the formation of lines on selected filaments. Individual beads bound to filaments are rare. Such

cooperative binding could be advantageous during segregation, as MinCD filaments attached

to replicated chromosomes might bind increasingly stronger to longer streches, pulling these

stretches towards the cell poles. Albeit the role of the MinCD co-polymers in living cells has

been debated[60], it cannot be excluded they indeed form. We speculate that these filaments

might more effectively retain segregated chromosomes at the poles, leaving the mid-cell free

for the cytokinetic ring.

Materials and methods

Strains and growth conditions

The strains used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table 1. The *E. coli* TOP10 strain

was used for cloning, and the *E. coli* Rosetta™(DE3)pLysS (Novagen) strain was used for

overproduction and protein purification. All *E. coli* strains were grown in LB or M9 + 0.4%

glucose supplemented with the appropriate antibiotic(s) at 37 ºC with shaking.

Construction of plasmids

pET28a-MinD and pET28a-MinE plasmids were constructed as previously described[37, 61]. The

minC gene was amplified from *E. coli* MG1655 genomic DNA using *BamHI*_MinC_FP and

*NotI*_MinC_RP primers. The amplicon and pET28a empty plasmid were double digested using

BamHI and *NotI* and then ligated to get pET28a-MinC. Similarly, the *ftsZ* gene was amplified

from *E. coli* MG1655 genomic DNA using *BamHI*_FtsZ_FP and *HindIII*_FtsZ_RP primers.

The amplicon and pET28a empty plasmid were double digested using *BamHI* and *HindIII* and

then ligated to get pET28a-FtsZ. pET28a-MinC-GS was obtained by amplifying the whole

pET28a-MinC plasmid except the linker region (i.e., residues 102 to 120) using phosphorylated

primers MinC_GS_FP and MinC101_RP with the forward primer containing the codons for

"GS", and then self-circularizing the linear PCR product using T4 DNA ligase. Using the same

strategy and same reverse primer (i.e., MinC101_RP), pET28a-MinC-1xAGGSG (using

primer   MinC_1xAGGSG_FP),   pET28a-MinC-2xAGGSG   (using   primer

MinC_2xAGGSG_FP), pET28a-MinC-3xAGGSG (using primer MinC_3xAGGSG_FP),

pET28a-MinC-4xAGGSG (using primer MinC_4xAGGSG_FP), pET28a-MinC19RL (using

primer MinC_19RL_FP), pET28a-MinC-Δ4 (using primer MinC_del4_FP), pET28a-MinC-Δ8

(using primer MinC_del8_FP) and pET28a-MinC-Δ13 (using primer MinC_del13_FP) were

constructed. Also, using the same strategy, pET28a-MinC$^{C+linker}$ (using primers MinC102_FP

and pET28a_*BamHI*_RP) was constructed.

pBAD33-MinCD was obtained from a previously constructed pBAD33-MinCDE[61] by

removing the *minE* gene by linearization and self-circularization using phosphorylated primers

pBAD33_*HindIII*_FP and MinD_RP. Using the same strategy and primers mentioned above

for pET28a-MinC linker variants, pBAD33-MinCD-GS, pBAD33-MinCD-1xAGGSG,

pBAD33-MinCD-2xAGGSG, pBAD33-MinCD-3xAGGSG, pBAD33-MinCD-4xAGGSG,

pBAD33-MinCD-Δ4, pBAD33-MinCD-Δ8 and pBAD33-MinCD-Δ13 were constructed.

For all the PCR amplifications, high-fidelity Phusion polymerase (New England Biolabs) was

used. Plasmids were amplified by transforming them into chemically competent *E. coli* TOP10

cells (Invitrogen™) and were isolated using the QIAprep® Spin Miniprep Kit (Qiagen) as per

the manufacturer's protocol. The constructs were validated via Sanger sequencing (GATC

Biotech, Germany). The list of primers used in this study is given in Supplementary Table 2.

Constructions of strains with MinC linker variants

To generate strains expressing MinC linker mutants from the endogenous locus we employed

a method combining CRISPR/Cas9 and Lambda red homologous recombination[48]. The two

plasmids, pcas9 and pTarget (Lambda Red Homologous Recombination Plasmid and CRISPR

HR gRNA Plasmid), were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. pcas9 was transformed into wild-

type *E. coli* MG1655 and the cells were plated on LB agar plates with 50 μg/mL kanamycin.

The strain harbouring pcas9 was cultured overnight in LB medium at 30°C with shaking (250

r.p.m.). The next day, a fresh culture was started from the overnight culture using 3 mL fresh

LB medium with 50 μg/mL kanamycin. The culture was then grown at 30°C until the OD_{600}

reached 0.3-0.5. 1.5% arabinose was used to induce the expression of the Lambda red

recombination proteins for 1 hour. Cells were then collected and washed twice with 40 μL ice-

cold 20% glycerol to make them become electrocompetent. Donor DNA and pTarget were

transformed into the cells by electroporation. Cells bearing both pcas9 and pTarget were

selected on LB agar plates with 50 μg/mL kanamycin and 100μg/mL ampicillin. The donor

DNA was obtained by PCR using high-fidelity Phusion polymerase (ThermoFisher). After

electroporation, the cells were plated on LB agar plates with 50 μg/mL kanamycin and

100μg/mL ampicillin. A randomly selected colony for each strain was picked from the plate

and a PCR was performed to check for the presence of the mutations. This colony was grown

overnight and then a diluted culture was spread on a LB agar plate with 5% saccharose. The

plate was left overnight at 37 °C. The following morning, eight colonies for each strain were

randomly selected and streaked onto three plates: a LB agar plate with no antibiotic, a LB agar

plate with 100 μg/mL ampicillin, and a LB agar plate with 50 μg/mL kanamycin. The plates

were incubated overnight at 37 °C. The next day, the colonies that died on the plates with the

antibiotics were considered cured of pCas9 and pTarget and were therefore selected by using

the LB plate without antibiotic. The correctness of the sequence of every MinC linker mutant

was checked by colony PCR followed by Sanger sequencing.

Protein purification

Protein purifications were performed as previously described[37] with minor modifications.

Rosetta cells carrying the desired plasmid were grown to an OD600 of 0.5-0.9 and induced

with 1 mM IPTG for 3 hours at 37 °C. Cells were collected by centrifugation (4.000-5.000

r.p.m.) at 4 °C for 20 minutes and stored at -20 °C. Pellets were thawed on ice and resuspended

in lysis buffer. The buffers used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table 3. Cells were

then lysed by sonication and the crude lysate was clarified by centrifugation (20.000 r.p.m.) for

20 min at 4 °C. Proteins were purified using the Profinia™ Protein Purification System (Bio-

Rad), with a BIO-RAD® Bio-Scale™ Mini Profinity™ IMAC Cartridge (1 mL) and the BIO-

RAD® Bio-Scale™ Mini Bio-Gel® P-6 Desalting Cartridge (10 mL). The column was washed

with imidazole buffer and the protein was eluted with elution buffer, followed by exchange of

the elution buffer for storage buffer. The purified proteins were stored in small aliquots at -80

°C. Protein concentrations were estimated based on the absorbance at 280 nm with a NanoDrop

spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific). Proteins were cleared from any aggregates by

centrifugation (21.000 g) for 30 min at 4 °C prior to use.

Elimination of the His-tag

His-tag cleavage was performed for the other aliquot by incubating the proteins with thrombin

agarose beads (Thrombin CleanCleave™ Kit from Sigma-Aldrich) for 3 hours at room

temperature on a rotating wheel. After the His-tag removal, the proteins were stored at -80 °C

in 50 µL aliquots.

Electrophoretic mobility shift assays

Proteins were incubated with 50 nM 5' HEX-labelled (hexachloro-6-carboxy-fluoresceine)

DNA in a buffer containing 50 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.25, 150 mM KCl, 10 % glycerol, 0.1

mM EDTA pH 8.0, 1 mM ADP/ATP and 5 mM $MgCl_2$ at room temperature for 10 min. The

reaction mixture was then loaded on a 6 % native-PAGE gel. The gel was run in 0.5x TBE

buffer for 20 min at constant voltage (150 V). Finally, the gel image was obtained using an

Amersham Typhoon Gel and Blot Imaging Systems (GE Healthcare).

Preparation of double-stranded DNA probes for EMSAs

Two complementary oligos were mixed in NEB buffer 2 and the mixture was heated up to

98°C in a heat block. After 2 minutes, the heat block was switched off, and the samples were

left to gradually cool down. DNA probes longer than 120 bp were amplified via PCR using a

forward primer with a HEX label, followed by gel purification of the fragment using the Qiagen

PCR clean up kit.

Liposome preparation

E. coli total lipids (powder) were purchased from Avanti Polar Lipids. The lipids were

dissolved in liposome buffer (20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl and 5 mM β-

mercaptoethanol) to a final concentration of 20 mg/mL and left for 30 minutes at 37 °C. For

better hydration, the sample was frozen in liquid nitrogen and heated up to 37 °C in a heat

block a total of 5 times. Lipid vesicles were obtained using the Avanti Mini Extruser with a

200 nm filter. The sample was passed through the filter 20 times, aliquoted and stored at -80

°C.

Liposome co-sedimentation assay

We used a previously described protocol[37]. Liposomes (320 μg/mL in Figs. 1d and 3 c,d, 500

μg/mL in Supplementary Fig. 3 and 160 μg/mL in Supplementary Fig. 4) were incubated for

10 min with the proteins (6 μM MinC and MinD in Figs. 1d and 3 c,d, 2 μM MinC and MinD

in Supplementary Fig. 3, and 1 μM MinC and MinD in Supplementary Fig. 4) and 1 mM of

either ADP or ATP in 50 μL reaction volume in ATPase buffer (25 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 50

mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl2, 5% glycerol). The reactions were pelleted by centrifugation at 21.000

g for 15-30 min, the pellets were resuspended in 50 μL ATPase buffer, and supernatant and

pellet samples were analyzed by SDS-PAGE, followed by Coomassie staining to detect the

proteins.

Liposome co-sedimentation in the presence of plasmid DNA

Liposome co-sedimentation in the presence of plasmid DNA

Purified proteins (varying concentrations) were incubated with 800 µg/mL liposomes, 32 ng/

µL plasmid DNA and 1 mM ADP/ATP in storage buffer supplemented with 5 mM $MgCl_2$.

After 15 minutes of incubation at room temperature, the reaction mixture was spun down in a

table top centrifuge at 21.000 g for 20 minutes. The supernatant was removed and mixed in a

1:1 ratio with 2x Laemli buffer. The pellet was dissolved in 1x Laemli buffer with a volume

matching that of the supernatant. After heating the samples for 5 minutes at 95 °C, the protein

content of pellet and supernatant fractions was analysed with SDS-page followed by

Coomassie staining. A 1% agarose gel stained with Gel Red™ Nucleic Acid Stain was used to

analyse the DNA content. The intensity of the DNA and protein bands was quantified with

ImageJ.

Negative-stain transmission electron microscopy

The filaments were formed by incubating MinC (4 µM) with MinD (4 µM), 1 mM ATP, 10

mM MgCl2 and DNA (50 nM) for 15 minutes on ice. Grids with continuous carbon were glow

discharged and 3 µl of sample were pipetted on the grid. After 30 seconds, the liquid was

removed and 10 µl of 1% uranyl acetate in water were pipetted on the grid and incubated for

30 seconds. The excess stain was removed and the grids were dried. For each condition 25

images were randomly taken and the number of filaments in the sheets determined. Single

filaments were not counted.

Preparation of DNA fiducials

Single-stranded fiducials (ss fiducials) were prepared by coating citrate gold beads of 5 nm

(PROVIDER) with thiolated single-stranded dT DNA oligomers (HOW LONG?). To obtain

double-stranded fiducials (ds fiducials), an excess of dA oligomers (HOW LONG?) was added

and annealed to the ss fiducials.

Binding of DNA fiducials to MinCD co-polymers

MinCD co-polymeric filaments were produced by mixing 4 μM of MinD with 4 μM MinC.

Larger aggregates were removed by spinning the protein solutions at 15 000 x g for 30 minutes.

Polymerization was started by adding ATP (200 μM final concentration) and $MgCl_2$ (10 mM

final concentration) and incubating the mixture for 10 minutes on ice. An equal volume of the

fiducials was added and the 3 μl of the sample was plunge-frozen on Quantifoli grids (0.6/1,

2/1, 3.5/1) with blotting times between 5 and 15 seconds at 100% humidity. Grids were

observed in a Krios instrument (Thermo Fisher) and screened at low magnification (135x) to

identify good quality regions. Best grids were selected for targeted imaging (Latitude/Gatan)

or random imaging (EPU/FEI). For the analysis, 2x binned images were used at a pixel size of

2.74 Å. After manual exclusion of low-quality images, the gold beads were localized

(imodfindbeads) and all linear distances computed (imod-dist) with an ad-hoc script

(Supplementary Information). Occurring instances smaller than 250 pixels were counted (in

125 bins for smoothing the data) and plotted.

Heat treatment of ds fiducials

ds fiducials were heated to 95 °C and cooled to 4 °C over 30 minutes.

Spot assay

Spot assay was performed as previously described[16]. Briefly, the plasmids were transformed

into either *E. coli* ROSETTA or MG1655Δ*minB* strain. A colony was picked and suspended in

a nutrient broth without any antibiotic. The cells were then serially diluted and spotted on agar

plates with different IPTG or arabinose concentration. The plates were then incubated

overnight at 37 °C and imaged using a gel imaging system (Analytik Jena).

Growth curve measurement

Each strain was grown overnight at 37°C and shaken at 200 rpm in the selected medium (either

LB or M9 + 0.4% glucose). The cultures were diluted to OD_{600}=0.1 and added in triplicates to

a 96-well microplate. The OD_{600} of each well was measured every 10 minutes for 24 hours by

the CLARIOstar® Plus Microplate Reader from BMG labtech. The microplate was incubated

at 37°C and shaken before every measurement. The experiment was repeated three times.

Cell length measurement

The *E. coli* MG1655 and Fishov strains were grown overnight at 37°C and shaken at 200 rpm

in M9 + 0.4% glucose medium. The morning after, cultures were diluted to OD_{600}=0.1 and

incubated in the same conditions for 4 hours. After reaching an OD_{600} of approximately 0.4,

bacteria were fixed with a 37 % formaldehyde solution in PBS. 100 nM DAPI were added to

each sample prior to microscopy analysis. Microscopy pictures were taken on a Zeiss Axio

Observer Z1/7 (Carl Zeiss Microscopy). 3 µL of the bacteria-containing solution were spread

on a 1% agarose pad on metal microscope slides. The BacStalk software[50] was used to detect

cells and automatically measure their length. The size and position of nucleiods in the cells

were determined with the MicrobeJ plugin of ImageJ by measuring the intensity of the DAPI

fluorescence throughout the whole length of the bacteria.

Demographs

The demographs were created using the MicrobeJ plugin of ImageJ. Cells with a length

between 1.5 and 6 µm were selected using the selection parameters of the software. The cells

were sorted by cell length in ascending order from top to bottom. Only the pixels with a

fluorescence intensity greater than 0.7 were plotted to increase the readability of the graphs.

Sample preparation for mass spectrometry

An overnight culture of each mutant strain, plus the parental strains, was grown in LB at 37°C

and shaken at 200 r.p.m. The morning after, a fresh culture of 2 mL was started with OD_{600}=0.1,

and let grown at 37 °C and shaken at 200 r.p.m. for two hours. The cultures were then pelleted

at maximal speed in a table-top centrifuge. The pellet was resuspended in 4x Laemli buffer

diluted in PBS (to obtain 1x Laemli buffer) and boiled at 98 °C for ten minutes. The samples

were then loaded on a SDS gel, which, after the run, was stained with Coomassie and sent over

for mass spectrometry analysis.

Mass spectrometry

In-gel tryptic digestion

Upon SDS-PAGE, Coomassie-stained bands were manually excised from the gel and

processed as described before[62]. Two gel slices covering theoretical molecular weight from ±

18 kDa up to 37 kDa were collected per gel lane. The extracted peptides from each gel slice

were analyzed using LC-MS/MS, generating separate raw data files for each slice.

LC-MS/MS analysis

Nanoflow LC-MS[2] analysis was performed with an Ultimate 3000 liquid chromatography

system coupled to an Orbitrap QE HF (Thermo Fisher). An in-house packed analytical column

(75 µm x 200 mm, 1.9 µm ReprosilPur-AQ 120 C18 material (Dr. Maisch, Germany) was used.

Mobile phase solutions were prepared as follows, solvent A: 0.1% formic acid / 1% acetonitrile,

solvent B: 0.1% formic acid, 89.9% acetonitrile. Peptides were separated in a 60 min linear

gradient started from 3% B and increased to 23% B over 50 min and to 38% B over 10 min,

followed by washout with 95% B. The mass spectrometer was operated in data-dependent

acquisition mode, automatically switching between MS and MS2. MS spectra (m/z 400–1600)

were acquired in the Orbitrap at 60,000 (m/z 400) resolution and MS2 spectra were generated

for up to 15 precursors with a normalized collision energy of 27 and an isolation width of 1.4

m/z.

Database search and data processing

The MS/MS spectra were searched against the Swiss-Prot *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*

(UP000002311, November 2019) and *Escherichia coli (*UP000000625, November 2019)

protein databases and a customized contaminant database (part of MaxQuant, MPI Martinsried)

using Proteome Discoverer 2.5 with Sequest HT (Thermo Fisher Scientific). A fragment ion

mass tolerance was set to 0.02 Da and a parent ion mass tolerance to 5 ppm. Trypsin was

specified as an enzyme. Carbamidomethyl was set as fixed modification of cysteine and

oxidation (methionine), and deamidation (asparagine, glutamine) as variable modifications of

peptides. Acetylation, methionine-loss, and a combination of acetylation and methionine-loss

were set as variable modifications of the protein terminus. For feature linking and mapping,

RT tolerance [min] and mass tolerance [ppm] were set to 0.001 and 0.0005, respectively.

Peptide quantification was done using a precursor ion quantifier node with the Top N Average

method (N=3) set for protein abundance calculation. For each protein, the intensities recorded

in the two gel slices were summed to obtain the total protein abundance. This summation

approach was applied to account for any distribution of proteins between the gel slices. To

account for the measurement inconsistencies, median normalization was applied.

Statistics

Statistical analyses were performed in Origin Pro.

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Contributions

B.D.V. conceived the study. N.P. and L.K. purified the proteins, performed EMSAs and

liposome co-sedimentations. N.P. performed the spot assays. J.L. constructed the mutant

strains and prepared the samples for mass spectrometry. M.L. characterized the strains in terms

of growth, cell length and chromosome segregation. G.H. and J.Z. performed all the negative-

stain transmission microscopy. M.U. provided the DNA fiducials. M.A.Ö. helped with

structural analyses. S.M., M.L and T.R. performed mass spectrometry and data analysis.

B.D.V. supervised the work of N.P., L.K., M.L. and J.L., provided the funding and wrote the

manuscript. All authors commented on and approved of the manuscript.

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Figures and legends

Fig 1. The MinCD complex binds DNA *in vitro*.

a-c, Electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSAs) performed with the indicated proteins at the indicated

concentrations, and HEX-labelled DNA (50 nM) of the indicated length. All reactions were performed in the

presence of 1 mM ATP. **a,b,** Asterisk indicates the height at which a band is visible, which is observed when

incubating the DNA with MinD or MinC alone and does not represent binding by the MinCD complex. **d,**

Liposome co-sedimentation assay. Upper panel, gel red-stained agarose gel used to visualize the DNA. Middle

panel, Coomassie-stained polyacrylamide gel used to visualize the proteins. Lower panel, bar graph showing the

quantification of the % of the DNA found in the pellet. Data represent mean ± S.E.M. of three independent

experiments. S, supernatant. P, pellet.

Fig 2. The MinCD co-polymers assemble into sheets in the presence of DNA *in vitro*.

a, Negative-stain electron-micrographs of samples containing MinC (4 μM), MinD (4 μM), 1 mM ATP, 10 mM

MgCl$_2$ and DNA (50 nM) of the indicated length or plasmid DNA. Scale bar, 100 nm. **b**, Bar graph showing the

distribution of the number of filaments per sheet for the indicated DNA fragments. **c,** Negative-stain electron-

micrographs of samples containing MinC (4 μM), MinD (4 μM), 1 mM ATP and either ds-fiducials (ds DNA) or

ss-fiducials (ss DNA). Pixel size, 2.8 Å.

Fig 3. MinE and FtsZ interfere with DNA binding by the MinCD complex.

a-b, e Electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSAs) performed with the indicated proteins at the indicated

concentrations, and HEX-labelled DNA of the indicated length. **c,d,** Liposome co-sedimentation assays. Upper

panel, Gel-red-stained agarose gel used to visualize the DNA. Middle panel, Coomassie-stained polyacrylamide

gel used to visualize the proteins. Lower panel, bar graph showing the quantification of the % of the DNA found

in the pellet. Data represent mean ± S.E.M. of three (**c**) and two (**d**) independent experiments. In (**c**), the sample

corresponding to 4 μM MinE was measured only once. S, supernatant. P, pellet. **e**, The time indicates the point at

which FtsZ was added to the reaction. Total reaction time, 10 minutes. The asterisk indicates the height at which

a band is visible, which is observed when incubating the DNA with MinD or MinC alone and does not represent

binding by the MinCD complex.

Fig 4. MinC linker is needed for DNA binding with MinD.

a, Modelled structure of *E. coli* MinC. Crystal structures of MinC N-terminal (PDB ID 4l1c) and C-terminal (PDB ID 5xdm) domains were obtained from the protein data bank (https://www.rcsb.org/). Linker, MinC linker region represented with a dashed line. **b,d**,**f** (upper panel), Schematics of the constructs. **c,e,f** (lower panel), Electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSAs) performed with the indicated proteins at the indicated concentrations, and HEX-labelled DNA of the indicated length. All reactions were performed in the presence of 1 mM ATP. **c,e**, Asterisk indicates the height at which a band is visible, which is observed when incubating the DNA with MinD or MinC alone and does not represent binding by the MinCD complex. **f**, lower panel, White lines indicate unrelated bands that were deleted from the image. The full image is shown in the Supplementary Fig. 5. **g,h**, Upper panel, Schematic of the promoter used in the experiment. Lower panel, representative image of

890 a plate onto which Rosetta BL21 (**g**) or MG1655ΔminB (**h**) cells transformed with the indicated constructs were

891 spotted in a serial dilution. The experiment was repeated three times with similar results.

917 **Fig 5.** *E. coli* **strains expressing MinC linker mutants from the endogenous locus show chromosome**

918 **segregation defects.**

a, Growth curves of the indicated strains in the indicated media. **b**, Graphs showing the quantification of the cell length in the indicated strains. More than 500 individual cells were analyzed using the BacStalk software[48]. Shown is the median with the first and third quartiles, as well as outliers. n.s., non-significant. *, p-value < 0.5. **, p-value < 0.01. ***, p-value < 0.001. The p-value was calculated using the one-way ANOVA test. **c,d**, Demographs of the DAPI signal measured via fluorescence microscopy in the indicated strains created with the MicrobeJ plugin of ImageJ. **e,f**, Bar graph showing the average of the ratio between the number of black pixels and the total number of pixels in the cell. **a-f**, Silent mutation, strain carrying four silent mutations in the linker region of MinC at the chromosomal locus.

Figure 1

a

52 bp | 120 bp | 500 bp | Plasmid DNA

b

■ 52 bp ■ 120 bp ■ 500 bp ■ Plasmid DNA

Events

Number of filaments in a sheet

c

ds_Fiducials | ss_Fiducials | ds_Fiducials no ATP

100 nm

Events

Distance between beads (pixels) | Distance between beads (pixels) | Distance between beads (pixels)

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5