Single Domain Antibody Inhibitors Target the Coiled Coil Arms of the *Bacillus subtilis* SMC complex

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Abstract

Synthetic nanobodies—also called sybodies—have proven valuable for stabilizing conformations of purified proteins, advancing structural and functional studies for example of transmembrane protein complexes. However, their utility in modulating protein function in living cells has remained less well explored. Structural Maintenance of Chromosomes (SMC) complexes facilitate chromosome organization by DNA loop extrusion, a fundamental process in all domains of life. In this study, we target the bacterial SMC complex, Smc-ScpAB, in *Bacillus subtilis* with synthetic nanobodies, with the aim to identify key functional regions of the protein complex in a largely unbiased manner. We first isolate sybodies that specifically bind purified Smc-ScpAB and then express them in *B. subtilis* to select binders capable of disrupting Smc-ScpAB function, leading to chromosome segregation defects and cell death. Mapping and biochemical characterization show that the fourteen disruptive sybodies belong to one of three library designs, target the Smc subunit near the same coiled coil arm interface and modulate its ATPase activity in two principal ways, highlighting the mid-region of the Smc coiled coil as critical feature of the DNA folding process. These findings underscore the potential of sybodies—and, by extension, designed binders—as versatile tools for probing dynamic protein function in living cells, with potentially broad applications in cell and synthetic biology.

Introduction

Rapid and specific interference with protein activity and dynamics in living cells is essential for studying and understanding biological mechanisms. However, current approaches—primarily based on small-molecule inhibitors—remain laborious, time-consuming, and costly. The advent of conformation-specific synthetic nanobody (sybody) selection (I. Zimmermann *et al.*, 2018), and more recently, computational design of protein binders (Pacesa *et al.*, 2025), offer unique opportunities for protein-based inhibition and modulation of cellular targets. Here, we generate sybodies against the SMC complex in *B. subtilis* to efficiently inhibit its function within cells.

Structural Maintenance of Chromosomes (SMC) complexes are multi-subunit, ring-shaped ATP-hydrolyzing DNA motors that structure chromosomal DNA by loop extrusion. They are essential for chromosome organization and segregation, gene expression, DNA repair, and defense against non-self DNA across all domains of life loop (Yatskevich, Rhodes and Nasmyth, 2019). Each SMC protein (Smc in *B. subtilis, bsu*Smc) is a long polypeptide with its N- and C-termini folding together to form a globular ATP binding cassette (ABC) "head" domain. The head is connected to a "hinge" dimerization domain via a ~50 nm antiparallel coiled coil "arm", creating an elongated dimer (Figure 1Aii and 1Aiii). ATP binding promotes head engagement, bringing the heads together to form a functional ATPase. Non-SMC subunits, a kleisin (ScpA in *B. subtilis*) and a dimer of KITE (ScpB in *B. subtilis*) or two HAWK proteins, bridge the heads, together forming a ring around DNA (Figure 1Aiii). In *B. subtilis*, Smc-ScpAB is recruited to the origin of replication (*oriC*) region on the chromosome by ParB, a DNA-binding protein that recognizes centromere-like *parS* sequences (Figure 2A). Once loaded, Smc-ScpAB translocates at a rate of ~1 kb/s onto flanking DNA, aligning the two chromosome arms and individualizing nascent sister chromosomes (Gruber *et al.*, 2014; Bürmann and Gruber, 2015; Wang *et al.*, 2017), likely bypassing obstacles on the chromosome through the SMC hinge gate (Liu *et al.*, 2025). Null mutants of *smc*, *scpA*, or *scpB* fail to segregate chromosomes properly and lose viability

under conditions promoting rapid growth (Sullivan, Marquis and Rudner, 2009; Gruber *et al.*, 2014;

Wang *et al.*, 2014).

Several models have been proposed for the mechanism of DNA loop extrusion by SMC complexes,

including the "segment capture" model, in which DNA segments are transiently trapped between the

SMC arms in partially open states and fused into larger loops through iterative ATP-driven cycles

(Figure 1Aiii and S1B) (Minnen *et al.*, 2016; Diebold-Durand *et al.*, 2017; Marko *et al.*, 2019).

However, detailed structural understanding and experimental testing *in vivo* are lacking.

Antibodies can block biochemical reactions by stabilizing reaction intermediates. Synthetic single-

domain antibodies called sybodies are small, robust antigen-binding proteins that were engineered

based on three camelid nanobody structures (I. Zimmermann *et al.*, 2018). They are selected from

synthetic libraries that encode a wide diversity of binding surfaces and epitope shapes based on the

length and geometry of their CDR3 loop, allowing strong binding of diverse antigen surfaces (Figure

1Ai). Their small size (~15 kDa), stability, and ability to bind transient epitopes make them ideal tools

for targeting specific states of biomolecules (Søren G.F. Rasmussen *et al.*, 2011). Selection is carried

out using purified and immobilized Smc-ScpAB by ribosome display and phage display, typically

followed by an ELISA-based screening (I. Zimmermann *et al.*, 2018).

Here, we demonstrate that sybodies can be used to interfere with the function of *B. subtilis* Smc-

ScpAB *in vivo*. We first isolate binders that specifically target purified Smc-ScpAB *in vitro* and then

select those that eliminate Smc function when expressed in *B. subtilis*. Fourteen sybodies were found

to disrupt chromosome segregation, mimicking *smc* deletion phenotypes. Biochemical assays

confirmed that selected sybodies alter the ATP hydrolysis rate of Smc-ScpAB and its stimulation by

DNA addition, likely stabilizing otherwise rare intermediates of the conformational cycle. Mapping

experiments using chimeric Smc constructs revealed that most binders, unexpectedly, target the

coiled coil, specifically in a defined region near the Smc 4N arm-to-arm contact, highlighting the

potential of sybodies and designed binders, as genetic tools to identify essential functional domains

and underscoring the importance of coiled coil dynamics for Smc function.

Results

Generation of *bsuS*mc-ScpAB-specific sybodies

To isolate sybodies that impede the function of *B. subtilis* Smc-ScpAB complex, we first performed *in*

vitro selections with purified Smc-ScpAB under conditions favoring an ATP-bound state, using 40 bp

duplex DNA, and an ATPase-deficient mutant (E1118Q) of *bsuS*mc biotinylated at the hinge at residue

R643C for immobilization (Figure 1A and S1A) (Hirano and Hirano, 2004; Bürmann *et al.*, 2017; I.

Zimmermann *et al.*, 2018; Zimmermann *et al.*, 2020). Starting from three synthetic sybody libraries

encoding distinct epitope-binding geometries (denoted as concave, loop, convex, respectively, Figure

1A), we performed one round of ribosome display followed by two rounds of phage display, thereby

enriching sybodies that bind to ATP- and DNA-bound Smc-ScpAB (Table 1). From each library, 95

sybody-expressing *E. coli* clones were randomly chosen for *in vivo* characterization.

Identification of *bsuS*mc-ScpAB-blocking sybodies through phenotypic screening in *B. subtilis*

Despite containing a conserved disulfide bond, some sybodies can be expressed inside cells and bind

their targets in the reducing environment of the cytoplasm, likely owing to their robust folding

(Deneka *et al.*, 2021). To assess whether the selected sybodies interfere with Smc function *in vivo*,

each of the 285 sybody sequences was cloned under a xylose-inducible promoter (P_{xyl}) into an *E. coli*–

B. subtilis shuttle vector and integrated at the *amyE* locus of the wild-type 1A700 strain (Figure 1B)

(Diebold-Durand, Bürmann and Gruber, 2019). Fourteen sybodies from the loop library failed to yield

transformants in the presence (but not absence) of xylose, indicating cell lethality due to sybody

inhibition of Smc-ScpAB (Figure 1C, S2A). These Smc-disruptive sybodies (denoted as Sb002, 003, 006,

010, 015, 020, 021, 031, 156, 160, 162, 169, 188, and 194, respectively) harbor fourteen distinct

sequences, showing the absence of duplicates (Table S1). Intriguingly, no such disruptive sybodies

were isolated from the concave and convex libraries (Figure S2B), suggesting that the CDR3 geometry

as present in the loop library is particularly effective at targeting *bsuS*mc-ScpAB. Alternatively, the

other libraries did not produce good binders or these sybodies were not stably expressed in *B.*

subtilis. Notably, tendencies of preferential isolation of binders from one of the three libraries have

previously been observed, although at milder levels (I. Zimmermann *et al.*, 2018; Hutter *et al.*, 2019;

Deneka *et al.*, 2021).

Selected sybodies target *bsu*Smc-ScpAB function *in vivo*

To determine whether the fourteen sybodies indeed impair chromosome segregation, we used

fluorescence microscopy to monitor *oriC* positioning in a *B. subtilis* strain expressing a ParB-GFP

fusion protein together with a P_{xyl}-inducible sybody gene. In these strains, ParB-GFP marks the

replication origin region by binding to *parS* sites near *oriC* (Figure 2Ai). As expected, the *Δsmc* strain

displayed fewer ParB-GFP foci and elongated cells, consistent with delayed *oriC* separation (Figure

2Ai) (Table S2) (Gruber *et al.*, 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2014). A time course experiment using sybody Sb006

revealed chromosome organization defects as early as 30 minutes post induction, with a significant

reduction in ParB-GFP foci per µm cell length at 40 minutes (p = 0.0145) (Figure 2Aii). Subsequent

imaging was performed ~35 minutes after induction of sybody expression.

All disruptive sybodies reduced ParB-GFP foci density compared to the control (1.03 foci/µm), with

values ranging from 0.56 foci/µm (Sb020) to 0.22 foci/µm (Sb003). These defects were all robustly

detected, while being less severe than the *Δsmc* mutant (~0.05 foci/µm), conceivably due to the short

induction time or incomplete inhibition. Milder defects were also observed without induction, likely

attributed to leaky expression from the P_{xyl} promoter (Figure S3A). Sybody expression also caused cell

elongation and growth delays, both hallmarks of impaired Smc activity, consistent with chromosome

segregation defects that delay cell division (Figure S3B−C). Altogether, these results show that all

selected sybodies induce *Δsmc*-like phenotypes likely by interfering with *bsu*Smc-ScpAB activity *in*

vivo.

Selected sybodies specifically target *B. subtilis* Smc-ScpAB

To test whether sybodies specifically target *B. subtilis* Smc-ScpAB, we assessed their effects in a strain

expressing *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (*Spn*) Smc-ScpAB and ParB proteins in place of the endogenous

B. subtilis proteins. The *Spn* sequences can functionally replace the corresponding *Bsu* sequences

despite significant sequence divergence (~38% sequence identity) (Bock *et al.*, 2022). Strikingly, none

of the sybodies impaired growth in this background, even though a cognate ParAB pair is absent in

this strain (*S. pneumoniae* lacks *parA*), sensitizing cells to chromosome segregation defects (Figure

2C). These results confirm that the sybodies are specific to *bsu*Smc-ScpAB and that off-target toxicity

is not noticeable.

***bsu*Smc-ScpAB-disrupting sybodies target two distinct coiled coil regions adjacent to the *bsu*Smc 4N**

arm-to-arm contact

To map the sybody-binding site on the *bsu*Smc-ScpAB complex, we utilized five chimeric Smc

constructs (Smc Chimera 1-5), in which the hinge and progressively longer segments of the adjacent

coiled coils were replaced with the corresponding sequences from the *S. pneumoniae* Smc protein

(Figure 3A). Chimeric junctions were designed to preserve coiled coil integrity based on available

crystal structures, coiled coil predictions by DeepCoil, and AlphaFold2 structural models (L.

Zimmermann *et al.*, 2018; Gabler *et al.*, 2020; Jumper *et al.*, 2021). All chimeric Smc strains retained

the native *B. subtilis scpA*, *scpB*, and *parB* genes and were viable under conditions promoting fast

growth, demonstrating proper protein folding and functioning of chimeric Smc-ScpAB complexes

(Figure S4A).

Chimeras 1 and 2, which carry the central hinge and coiled coil sequences of *Spn* origin (residues 363-

812 and 339-836, respectively), showed the same sybody-induced growth defects as the wild-type

strain, indicating that the sybodies bind further away from the hinge, within the remaining *B. subtilis*

portion comprising of the Smc head and the first ~230 coiled coil residues, and ScpAB (Figure 3A). By

contrast, Chimera 5 (residues 248–927 of *Spn* origin), supported robust growth even in the presence

of the *bsu*Smc-disrupting sybodies, indicating that the region comprising the heads and first ~50

residues of the coiled coil (including the joint) does not comprise the binding site. The binding region

for the sybodies is thus located on the coiled coil between residues 248 and 339 (or 836 and 927),

demonstrating that all fourteen sybodies bind to a central region of the coiled coil.

Chimera 3 (*spn*Smc residues 318-857) and chimera 4 (*spn*Smc residues 276-899) revealed two distinct

sybody responses. Sb003, 031, 156, 160, 162, and 169 impaired growth of both strains, mapping their

binding sites to *B. subtilis* residues 248-276 (and 899-927), present in chimeras 1–4 but absent in

chimera 5. In contrast, Sb002, 006, 010, 015, 020, 021, 188, and 194 had no impact on the viability of

chimera 3 or 4, suggesting they target residues 318-339/836-857 (Figure 3A, 3D).

In sum, these experiments mapped the binding sites of all fourteen disruptive sybodies to one of two

~twenty amino acid segments in the central region of the *bsu*Smc coiled coil (Figure 3D). These

regions harbor relatively poorly conserved sequences but flank the 4N arm-arm contact (~at residue

295), previously proposed to serve as an essential structural switch between closed and open

conformations (Vazquez Nunez *et al.*, 2021). These results reveal that all isolated sybodies target the

same functional element of the Smc arms, and that interfering with this element disrupts Smc-

dependent chromosome organization *in vivo*.

Smc-disrupting sybodies affect the ATPase activity in one of two ways

To investigate how sybodies may influence *bsu*Smc-ScpAB, we next measured ATP hydrolysis rates

using purified proteins in the presence and absence of DNA. SMC ATPase activity serves as an indirect

readout for state transitions, including arm opening and head engagement. In absence of DNA,

*bsu*Smc-ScpAB hydrolyzes ATP at ~4 ATP/min/Smc (Vazquez Nunez *et al.*, 2021). DNA binding

stimulates ATP hydrolysis to ~9 ATP/min/Smc, presumably by DNA binding at the hinge promoting

arm opening and head engagement, creating a more open conformation.

All disruptive sybodies measurably affected the ATP hydrolysis rate of *bsu*Smc-ScpAB. Ten maintained

a near-basal ATPase rate even in presence of DNA (Sb002, Sb003, Sb010, Sb031, Sb156, Sb160,

Sb162, Sb169, Sb188, and Sb194) (Figure 3B-C and S4B). This suggests that they stabilize the complex

in a closed or partially closed conformation, thus hindering DNA-dependent ATPase stimulation.

Notably, in this group, Sb002 and Sb194 showed slightly elevated ATPase rates with DNA, hinting at a

mildly more flexible conformation.

In contrast, the other sybodies (Sb006, Sb015, Sb020, and Sb021) stimulated ATP hydrolysis in the

absence of DNA, with Sb006 reaching levels comparable to DNA-induced activation (~10 ATP/min).

This implies that these sybodies stabilize Smc-ScpAB in a more open state promoting head

engagement. Curiously, addition of DNA in the presence of Sb006 and Sb021 reduced—rather than

stimulated—ATPase activity (Figure 3B-C), suggesting that concurrent DNA and sybody binding may

trap the complex in a non-productive conformation, perhaps by favoring the open state excessively.

These findings are consistent with the idea that 4N contact region plays a critical role in arm opening

and ATPase stimulation.

Interestingly, the observed ATPase profiles correlate with distinct binding regions along the Smc arms.

All ATPase-stimulating sybodies (Sb006, Sb015, Sb020, Sb021) bind above the 4N contact

("Opening^{UP}"), while sybodies that hinder DNA stimulation fall into two subgroups: those binding

above the 4N contact (Sb002, Sb010, Sb188, Sb194—"Closing^{UP}") and those binding below it (Sb003,

Sb031, Sb156, Sb160, Sb162, Sb169—"Closing^{DOWN}") (Figure 3D). These results indicate that the

sybodies perturb *bsu*Smc-ScpAB in two principal ways: either by favoring the opening of the arms or

by constraining the arms in a more closed state. The results highlight arm opening and closure as

central regulatory features of bacterial Smc-ScpAB (Soh *et al.*, 2015; Minnen *et al.*, 2016; Diebold-

Durand *et al.*, 2017; Vazquez Nunez, Ruiz Avila and Gruber, 2019) and confirm the key role of the 4N

arm contact in balancing the opening and closing of SMC arms (Vazquez Nunez *et al.*, 2021).

Discussion

Over the past three decades, sybodies and their synthetic counterparts have transformed biomedical research and structural biology by enabling the targeting and stabilization of transient protein conformations. Despite these advances, their application to probing protein function in living cells has remained limited (Seeger *et al.*, 2012; Deneka *et al.*, 2021). Here, we expand the utility of synthetic sybody selection by employing it as a tool to screen for genetic probes targeting the function of selected molecular machines *in vivo*. This strategy combines the advantages of controlled biochemical reconstitution with the ability to study the function of proteins in their native context. Importantly, sybody selection requires no prior knowledge of vulnerable regions, providing an unbiased means to interrogate protein function that is difficult to achieve through rational design. Our study based on the *B. subtilis* Smc-ScpAB DNA motor as a model uncovers a central regulatory region in the coiled coil arms of Smc and highlight how distinct arm conformations shape SMC function in loop extrusion and chromosome segregation.

Revealing Smc arm dynamics through synthetic binders

All fourteen Smc-disrupting sybodies share the loop library design. Moreover, their Smc binding sites map to the two short coiled coil segments flanking the conserved 4N arm-to-arm contact, a region previously implicated in key conformational transitions during arm opening (Vazquez Nunez *et al.*, 2021). While the fourteen sybodies harbour different epitope binding sequences, we suspect that they may all bind to the Smc dimer in an analogous manner. With the long CDR3 loops known to bind narrow structural cavities (Søren G. F. Rasmussen *et al.*, 2011; Kruse *et al.*, 2013), we speculate that these sybodies may intercalate between the two coiled coil arms (Figure 3D). Structural studies are needed to test this hypothesis directly, however, our attempts at X-ray crystallography and electron microscopy of Smc-sybody complexes have failed so far.

Notably, while the coiled coil dimer appears similarly structured from the elbow to the hinge

(Diebold-Durand 2017) (Figure 3D), no Smc-disrupting sybodies mapped to regions further away from

the 4N contact (Figure 3D). This indicates that opening and closure of the Smc arms might be

dispensable at these places, although formal testing would require isolating binders efficiently

targeting these regions, potentially facilitated by binder design, and expressing them in *B. subtilis*.

This parallels with findings with the bacterial SMC defense system Wadjet, where hinge-proximal arm

opening is dispensable for loop extrusion, but essential for obstacle bypass (Liu *et al.*, 2025).

Alternatively, these arm-to-arm contacts might be more stable and thus less likely to be interfered

with by sybody binding. Similarly, sybodies targeting below the 4N contact all reduce the ATPase rate

(or rather its DNA stimulation), indicating that artificial opening at this position may not disrupt Smc

function (Figure S5). Again, these hypotheses need to be tested more directly. We envision that the

design of protein binders may allow us to confirm these observations and further dissect the

underlying mechanisms.

This work establishes sybodies as precision tools for blocking ATP-driven machines inside bacterial

cells. By targeting allosteric control points in Smc, they enable mechanistic dissection of loop

extrusion and open new avenues for studying dynamic complexes *in vivo*. More broadly, the study

demonstrates how synthetic binders can trap, stabilize, or block transient conformations of active

chromatin-associated machines, providing a powerful means to probe their mechanisms in living

cells. Looking ahead, the rational design of protein binders with tailored geometry and allosteric

potential could allow researchers to manipulate and visualize specific conformational states with

even greater control and refinement, across both prokaryotic and eukaryotic organisms, while the

generation and *in vivo* screening of sybodies remains an attractive approach to gain unexpected

biological insights in an unbiased manner.

Material and Methods

Bacillus subtilis **strains construction and growth**

B. subtilis strains used in this study were derived from the parental strain 1A700. Allelic replacement

was achieved via double-crossover recombination at the endogenous *smc* locus using the natural

competence method described by (Bürmann *et al.*, 2013). Chromosome-integration of sybody genes

were performed by transforming a vector containing an *amyE* homologous regions on each side of

the recombinant gene of interest, as described in (Diebold-Durand, Bürmann and Gruber, 2019).

Transformants were selected on ONA solid medium containing the appropriate antibiotics. Following

transformation, strains were purified by single colony isolation and verified through a combination of

marker testing, phenotype assessment, PCR, and Sanger sequencing of the *smc* locus, when

appropriate. For spot assays, cells were cultured to stationary phase in liquid LB medium, and 9^{-2} and

9^{-5} dilutions were then spotted onto solid ONA medium with chloramphenicol (5 ug/mL) and xylose

(0.5% w/v) when induction of the P_{xyl} promoter was required. The strains, primers and plasmids used

in this study are listed in Table S3, Table S4 and Table S5, respectively.

For viability assessment, 200 LB medium was inoculated with a 1:1000 dilution of a dense *B. subtilis*

culture and grown to stationary phase. The culture was then serially diluted in LB medium. From each

dilution (9^{-1} to 9^{-8}), 5 μL was spotted onto LB agar plates containing the appropriate antibiotic

selection. Plates were incubated, and viability was assessed by imaging the spots at 16- and 24-hours

post-incubation.

Sybody selection

Sybody selection was performed following the protocol by (Zimmermann *et al.*, 2020) , with

modifications to enrich binders specific for the ATP/DNA-stabilized "open" form of the *bsu*Smc-ScpAB

complex.

Ribosome Display

The standard WTB buffer (50 mM Tris/acetate pH7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 50 mM MgAc2) and its

derivatives were adjusted to 50 mM NaCl to facilitate *bsuS*mc-ScpAB binding to dsDNA. The target

complex was assembled by mixing 500 nM *bsuS*mc(C119S, C437S, C826S, E1118Q, R643C)-ScpAB, 2

mM ATP, and 5 µM 40 bp dsDNA in WTB-D-BSA buffer (WTB including 0.5% (w/v) BSA and 0.1%

Tween-20), incubated for 15 min at room temperature (RT). The ribosome display panning solution

was supplemented with 2 mM ATP and 5 µM dsDNA to maintain binding conditions. Solution panning

and biotinylated target capture were conducted at RT to optimize selection for the "open" complex.

Washing steps incorporated 2 mM ATP and 5 µm 40 bp dsDNA, while elution, reverse transcription,

and cDNA amplification followed the original protocol. Reverse transcribed RNA molecules were

quantified by qPCR.

First round of phage display

Phagemid libraries were cloned and electroporated into *E. coli* SS320 as previously described

(Zimmermann *et al.*, 2020). Phage production was performed using M13KO7 helper phage. The

phage display buffer (TBSM) consisted of 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 50 mM NaCl, and 2 mM MgCl2.

Target preparation involved incubating 500 nM biotinylated *bsuS*mc(C119S, C437S, C826S, E1118Q,

R643C)ScpAB with 2 mM ATP and 5 µM dsDNA in TBSM-BSA-D (TBSM including 0.5% (w/v) BSA and

0.05% Tween-20). Phages (10^{12}/ml) were incubated with the target at 50 nM for 20 min at RT before

immobilization on neutravidin-coated plates. Washing (with added 2 mM ATP and 5 µm 40 bp dsDNA)

and elution otherwise followed the original protocol, with enrichment assessed by qPCR. Amplified

phages were used for a second selection round.

Second round of phage display

Purified phages from the first round were used at 5×10^{13} phages/ml, and the target was prepared as

in the first round. Phage-target binding occurred at 50 nM in the presence of ATP and dsDNA,

followed by capture on magnetic beads. A competition step using non-biotinylated *bsuS*mc-ScpAB (1

µM) was included before washes with TBSM-D. Phages were eluted and enrichment was determined

by qPCR. Phagemids were purified, sub-cloned into the pNb_init vector, and transformed into *E. coli*

MC1061.

Growth curve analyses

Growth curves were generated from *B. subtilis* strains grown overnight to exponential phase in LB

medium supplemented with 0.5% glucose, incubated at 30°C with shaking. The following day, fresh 5

mL LB cultures were inoculated with the overnight culture to an OD of 0.005 and incubated at 37°C

with shaking until reaching an optical density (OD) of 0.05. Subsequently, each culture was subjected

to a twofold dilution in a 96-well plate (Costar #3596), achieving a final volume of 200 µL per well.

Where necessary, cultures were induced with 0.5% xylose. Plates were incubated at 37°C with

continuous shaking in a Thermo Scientific Multiskan FC plate reader. Growth curves were determined

by light scattering at 620 nm. The BactEXTRACT app was used to perform Analysis and visualization of

the data (Dénéréaz and Veening, 2024).

Protein purification

Purification of *bsu*Smc and biotinylated *bsu*Smc(C119S, C437S, C826S, E1118Q, R643C)

*bsu*Smc proteins were purified according to (Bürmann *et al.*, 2017). pET-22 or pET-28 plasmids

encoding the *Smc* recombinant sequences were transformed into *E. coli* BL21-Gold (DE3) cells.

Protein expression was carried out in ZYM-5052 autoinduction medium for 23 hours at 24°C. The cells

were harvested and resuspended in lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1

mM DTT, 10% (w/v) sucrose) supplemented with protease inhibitor cocktail. Cell lysis was achieved by

sonication, and the lysate was clarified by centrifugation. The supernatant was filtered through a 0.45

µm membrane and loaded onto two HiTrap Blue HP 5 mL columns connected in series. Elution was

performed using lysis buffer with 1 M NaCl. The main peak fractions were pooled and diluted with

salt-free buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5; 1 mM EDTA; 1 mM DTT) to a final conductivity equivalent to

50 mM NaCl (~8 mS/cm). This diluted sample, supplemented with protease inhibitor cocktail, was

applied to a HiTrap Heparin HP 5 mL column, and the proteins were eluted using a linear gradient up

to 2 M NaCl. The main peak fractions (~ 5 mL) were collected and subjected to further purification by

gel filtration using an XK 16/70 Superose 6 PG column equilibrated with 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 200

mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, and 1 mM TCEP. The peak fractions were collected, concentrated using a

Vivaspin 15 10K MWCO filter, flash frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C. Protein

concentration was determined by absorbance, utilizing theoretical molar absorption and molecular

weight values.

For the biotinylated bsuSmc(C119S, C437S, C826S, E1118Q, R643C) protein used in the sybody

selection, the protein was first purified as described above, except that the reducing agent (TCEP) was

omitted from the final gel filtration buffer. Labelling was performed by incubating 600 μL of

bsuSmc(C119S, C437S, C826S, E1118Q, R643C) (83 μM in 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 200 mM NaCl) with

1 mM PEG2-biotin maleimide for 10 minutes at 4 °C. The reaction was quenched by addition of 0.5

mM 2-mercaptoethanol. Excess label was removed using Zeba spin desalting columns (Thermo

Fisher) in multiple parallel runs due to volume limitations. The final yield was 600 μL at 72.35 μM

(subunit concentration). Labelled bsuSmc(C119S, C437S, C826S, E1118Q, R643C) was loaded onto a

Superose 6 10/300 Increase column pre-equilibrated in 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 200 mM NaCl. Peak

fractions were pooled and mixed with ScpA and ScpB at a 1:1:2 molar ratio relative to the bsuSmc

dimer. The final concentration of the full complex was adjusted to 5.7 μM. Complexes were aliquoted

in 100 μL portions, flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at –80 °C.

Purification of bsuScpA

ScpA was purified using the method described by (Vazquez Nunez, Ruiz Avila and Gruber, 2019). E.

coli BL21-Gold (DE3) cells, transformed with a pET-28 derived plasmid encoding the ScpA protein,

were used for expression. Cultivation was performed in ZYM-5052 autoinduction medium at 16°C for

28 hours. Cells were then harvested and resuspended in lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5; 200 mM

NaCl; 5% glycerol) supplemented with protease inhibitor cocktail. The cells were lysed by sonication,

and the lysate was clarified by centrifugation. The supernatant was applied to a 5 mL HiTrap Q ion

exchange column and eluted with a gradient up to 2 M NaCl. Peak fractions were pooled and adjusted

to a final concentration of 3 M NaCl by mixing with 4 M NaCl buffer. This mixture was loaded onto a

HiTrap Butyl HP column and eluted with a reverse gradient to 50 mM NaCl. Eluted peak fractions

were concentrated to 5 mL using Vivaspin 15 10K MWCO filters and further purified by size exclusion

chromatography (SEC) on a HiLoad 16/600 Superdex 75 pg column equilibrated with 20 mM Tris-HCl,

pH 7.5, and 200 mM NaCl. The purified protein was concentrated, flash frozen, and stored at -80°C.

Purification of *bsu*ScpB

ScpB was purified following the protocol outlined by (Vazquez Nunez, Ruiz Avila and Gruber, 2019).

The coding sequence of ScpB, cloned into a pET-22 derived plasmid, was transformed into chemically

competent BL21-Gold (DE3) *E. coli* cells. These cells were cultivated in ZYM-5052 autoinduction

medium at 24°C for 23 hours. Subsequently, the cells were harvested and resuspended in lysis buffer

(50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5; 150 mM NaCl; 1 mM EDTA; 1 mM DTT) supplemented with protease

inhibitor cocktail. Cell lysis was performed by sonication, followed by centrifugation to remove cell

debris. The resulting supernatant was diluted to a final NaCl concentration of 50 mM and loaded onto

a 5 mL HiTrap Q HP column. Elution was achieved using a gradient up to 2 M NaCl. The eluate was

then diluted with lysis buffer containing 4 M NaCl to achieve a final concentration of 3 M NaCl. This

sample was applied to two 5 mL HiTrap Butyl columns connected in series, and the protein was

eluted with a reverse gradient to 50 mM NaCl. The peak fractions from this column were

concentrated and subjected to size exclusion chromatography (SEC) using a HiLoad 16/600 Superdex

200 pg column equilibrated with 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl, and 1 mM DTT. Fractions

containing ScpB were concentrated, flash frozen, and stored at -80°C.

Medium scale sybody purification

Individual sybody plasmids were transformed into chemically competent *E. coli* MC1061 cells via heat

shock at 42 °C for 45 s, followed by recovery in LB medium at 37 °C. Transformed cells were cultured

overnight in TB medium supplemented with 25 µg/ml chloramphenicol. Precultures were used to

inoculate 50 mL TB cultures, which were grown at 37 °C before shifting to 22 °C. Expression was

induced with 0.02% (wt/vol) L-(+)-arabinose and continued overnight at 22 °C with shaking. Cells

were harvested by centrifugation and resuspended in periplasmic extraction buffer. Following

incubation at 4 °C, cells were pelleted, and the supernatant was supplemented with imidazole to 15

mM. The extract was incubated with His MultiTrap HP resin, followed by centrifugation and washing

with TBS containing 30 mM imidazole. Elution was performed using TBS with 300 mM imidazole.

Purified sybodies were analyzed on a Sepax SRT-10C SEC100 column at 1 ml/min flow rate.

Monomeric sybodies eluted between 11–12.5 ml, while retention volumes <11 ml indicated

oligomerization, and >14 ml suggested strong column interaction. Non-expressed, oligomeric, or

highly interacting sybodies were discarded. Typical yields ranged from 200 µg to 1 mg (Zimmermann

et al., 2020).

Fluorescence imaging of ParB-GFP strains

Image acquisition

B. subtilis cells were first cultured in LB supplemented with 5 µg/mL chloramphenicol and 0.5%

glucose at 30°C, from which a day culture was inoculated to 0.005 in LB with 5 µg/mL

chloramphenicol. When needed, cultures were induced at OD_{600} ~ 0.02 with 0.5% xylose and grown

an extra 30 minutes until imaging at an OD_{600} of 0.04. For microscopy analysis, 0.5 µL of the cell

suspension was spotted onto agarose-coated microscopy slides. Images were acquired using a Leica

DMi8 microscope equipped with an sCMOS DFC9000 (Leica) camera, a SOLA light engine (Lumencor),

and a 100×/1.40 oil-immersion objective. Exposure time for image acquisition was set to 600 ms.

Acquired images were processed using LAS X Office software (v.1.4.7.28982, Leica Microsystems).

Image analysis

Microscopy images were analyzed using a fully automated image processing pipeline. Cell

segmentation was performed with the pretrained Omnipose model (Cutler *et al.*, 2022) implemented

in Cellpose (Stringer *et al.*, 2021), which is optimized for bacterial morphologies. Prior to

segmentation, a normalization step was applied to standardize image contrast. Following

segmentation, intracellular foci were detected using Spotiflow (Mantes *et al.*, 2024), a dedicated

model trained for spot identification. Each detected spot was assigned to an individual cell based on

spatial location, enabling quantification of the number of foci per cell. Cell morphology analysis was

also performed to estimate cell length.

Quantitative results were compiled into a structured dataset, including the number of cells per image,

percentage of cells lacking foci, number of foci per cell, cell length, and number of foci per micron.

Data visualization and statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 10.4.1 (627).

ATPase measurements

ATPase activity was assessed using the coupled pyruvate kinase/lactate dehydrogenase reaction as

described by (Bürmann *et al.*, 2017). ADP production was monitored over a period of 1 hour by

measuring the absorbance changes of NADH at 340 nm. Data collection was performed using a

Synergy Neo Hybrid Multi-Mode Microplate Reader. The reaction mixture comprised 1 mM NADH, 3

mM phosphoenolpyruvic acid, 100 U pyruvate kinase, 20 U lactate dehydrogenase, and varying

concentrations of ATP. For assays requiring double-stranded oligonucleotides, a 40 bp oligonucleotide

(5'-TTAGTTGTTC GTAGTGCTCG TCTGGCTCTG GATTACCCGC-3') was added to a final concentration of 3

mM. The final protein concentration in the assay was 0.15 μM *bsuS*mc dimers in ATPase assay buffer

(50 mM HEPES-KOH, pH 7.5; 50 mM NaCl; 2 mM MgCl2). All measurements were conducted at 25°C.

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429 **Author contributions**

430 O.G. performed all *in vivo* experiments from sybody selection, fluorescence microscopy imaging,

431 chimeric phenotypic screen. M.T. and L.H-H. performed the *in vitro* sybody screening (ribosome

432 display, phage display, and first sybody purification). O.G. performed protein purifications, cross-

433 linking and ATPase measurements, as well as data analysis, figures and writing. O.G. wrote the first

434 manuscript draft. All authors reviewed and edited the manuscript. Funding acquisition and

435 supervision, S.G.

436 **Competing interests**

437 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

438 **Data and materials availability**

439 All raw data will be made available at Mendeley Data DOI: 10.17632/k6k62p7z2s.1

440 (https://data.mendeley.com/datasets/k6k62p7z2s/1).

Figure 1: Selection of sybodies targeting Smc-ScpAB in *B. subtilis*.

(A) (i) Structural design and randomization scheme of the three synthetic sybody libraries: concave,

loop, and convex. Complementarity-determining regions (CDRs) 1, 2, and 3 are shown in yellow,

orange, and red, respectively; randomized residues are shown as sticks. Adapted from (I.

Zimmermann *et al.*, 2018). **(ii)** SMC domain organization. The N- and C-terminal regions encode half

an ATPase head, while the middle domain constitutes the hinge dimerization domain. The elongated

sequence in-between encodes for long helical sequences that will form an antiparallel intramolecular

coiled coil. Hd: head, Hng: hinge, 4N: 4N arm-to-arm contact, J: joint. **(iii)** SMC complexes harbor

juxtaposed arms in their resting state. Upon ATP binding at the heads, the heads dimerize (head

engagement), leading to a conformational change of the entire complex in which the arms open. This

state is thought to fit a loop of DNA (not shown) in the S compartment formed by the SMC arms, that

will be pushed towards the K compartment formed by the heads and kleisin, after ADP release. We

hypothesized that SMC-blocking sybodies can stabilize distinct conformation of the *bsu*Smc-ScpAB

complex promoted by ATP hydrolysis and DNA binding, potentially inducing a *Δsmc*-like phenotype *in*

vivo and enabling biochemical characterization of trapped conformations *in vitro*. Blue: SMC dimer,

Green: kleisin ScpA. The ScpB KITE subunits are not represented for the sake of simplicity. HngDBS:

Hinge DNA-binding site, HdDBS: Head DNA-binding site.

(B) Framework for sybody selection. *In vitro* selection starts with ~10^{12} sybody variants per library

subjected to ribosome display for pre-enrichment, followed by two rounds of phage display. For *in*

vivo selection, 95 randomly selected sybody genes were integrated into the *B. subtilis* chromosome

under the control of a xylose-inducible promoter by allelic replacement at the *amyE* locus. Growth

defects on rich medium were tested on ONA agar plates with or without 0.5% xylose. Example

shown: Sb164 (loop library) did not affect growth, whereas Nb31 impaired growth upon induction,

suggesting interference with *bsu*Smc function.

(C) Growth assay results for the 95 *B. subtilis* strains expressing individual xylose-inducible sybodies of

the loop library. Bars show colony counts "without" (green) on top of "with" (pink) xylose. Strains are

ordered by their original position in the 96-well plate. Fourteen sybodies consistently impaired colony

formation under inducing conditions (marked by dotted lines). Sybody numbers indicated above the

plots correspond to selected candidates used in subsequent experiments, numbering according to

order of first use. Notably, the strain corresponding to the E09 sybody (Sb018), showed an absence of

colonies upon sybody induction. However, this sybody candidate gave intermediate phenotypes in

later experiments, which is why it was excluded from detailed analysis.

Figure 2: Sybody-induced chromosome segregation defects visualized by ParB-GFP imaging.

(A) i, *Top*: Schematic illustrating ParB-GFP binding near *oriC*, enabling visualization of origin

positioning. *Bottom*: Representative images showing ParB-GFP foci in wild-type and *Δsmc B. subtilis*.

Smc WT cells typically display 2–4 foci per cell, whereas *Δsmc* cells exhibit reduced foci numbers. ii,

Number of ParB-GFP foci per μm of cell length in a strain carrying inducible sybody Sb006. A

significant decrease in foci is detected from 40 minutes post-induction (p_{0-10} = 0.9674; p_{0-20} =

0.9033; p_{0-30} = 0.3744; p_{0-40} = 0.0145; p_{0-50} = 0.0004; p_{0-60} < 0.001). Based on this, a

standardized induction time of ~35 minutes was used in all subsequent experiments.

(B) ParB-GFP foci density (foci/μm) in WT, Δsmc, and sybody-expressing strains after 35 minutes of

xylose induction. Violin plots show distribution per condition; solid lines denote the mean, and

dotted lines indicate quartiles.

(C) Spot assay to assess colony formation of *B. subtilis* strains *bsu* or *spn* variants of Smc-ScpAB and

ParB. *Top*: Schematic shows gene origins (blue: *B. subtilis*; grey: *S. pneumoniae*). The leftmost column

corresponds to the parental *B. subtilis* strain 1A700 carrying the *S. pneumoniae* genes without

chloramphenicol resistance (non-growing). The next spots represent the same strains carrying no

sybody gene but the Cm resistance (EV for empty vector). Remaining spots are sybody-expressing

strains; sybody numbers are indicated above. Cells were grown for 16 h at 37 °C on ONA

supplemented with 0.5% xylose and chloramphenicol. Hd: head, Hng: hinge, 4N: 4N arm-to-arm

contact, J: joint.

Figure 3: Mapping sybody binding sites on Smc-ScpAB.

(A) Colony formation of *B. subtilis* strains expressing chimeric Smc-ScpAB complexes comprising *S.*

pneumoniae and *B. subtilis* sequences. The schematic above the spot assay depicts the species origin

of the *smc* gene, the *scpAB* operon and *parB* gene (blue: *B. subtilis*; grey: *S. pneumoniae*). "−"

indicates no insertion at the *amyE* locus; "EV" refers to the empty vector control containing only the

chloramphenicol resistance cassette that was inserted in *amyE*; numbered labels correspond to

sybodies. Cells were spotted on rich medium (ONA) supplemented with chloramphenicol and xylose

and incubated for 16 h at 37 °C. Hd: head, Hng: hinge, 4N: 4N arm-to-arm contact, J: joint.

(B) ATP hydrolysis rates of *bsu*Smc-ScpAB in the presence of sybodies but absence of DNA. Significant

effects by one-way ANOVA are indicated by p values.

(C) ATPase rates in the presence of 40 bp dsDNA. All sybodies significantly reduced DNA-stimulated

ATP hydrolysis. Reported p-values: Sb020 (p = 0.340), Sb194 (p = 0.0049), Sb002 (p = 0.0007), Sb015

(p = 0.0003); all others, p < 0.0001.

(D) Schematic summary of sybody binding sites mapped onto the Smc dimer, categorized by their

effect on ATPase activity. Sybodies are grouped based on functional impact and mapped to

corresponding structural regions: pink/yellow boxes indicate residues 318–339 and 836–857; green

boxes mark residues 248–276 and 899–927; and the red box highlights the 4N contact region (approx.

residues 290–320).

Figure 4: Proposed models for sybody interactions with *bsu*Smc-ScpAB during the ATPase cycle.

Model for sybodies of the Opening^{UP}, Closing^{UP} and Closing^{DOWN} group. Opening^{UP} sybodies, likely

prevent complete arm closure. In the presence of DNA, these sybodies may stabilize a suboptimal

conformation for head disengagement, resulting in reduced ATPase activity (not shown here).

Closing^{UP} and Closing^{DOWN} sybodies stabilize a closed-arm conformation. These likely hinder DNA

segments from entering the inter-arm space and accessing the hinge-proximal DNA binding site.

Figure S1: Preparation of *bsu*Smc(C119S, C437S, C826S, E1118Q, R643C)-ScpAB complex and loop

extrusion model

(A) Size-exclusion chromatography profile of biotinylated *bsu*SmcE(C119S, C437S, C826S, E1118Q,

R643C)-ScpAB complex. Peak fractions (elution at ~13 mL, pooled fractions indicated by dotted lines

for a final volume of 1.8 mL) were collected for downstream use; the final concentration was 5.9 µM

(dimer). * : A secondary peak appeared at ~14 mL; its identity was uncertain and was excluded from

the peak. SDS-PAGE confirms successful biotinylation of the *bsu*Smc(C119S, C437S, C826S, E1118Q,

R643C)-ScpAB complex.

(B) Segment-capture model for *bsu*Smc-ScpAB, in which ATP binding and hydrolysis drive transitions

between open and closed conformations to mediate loop extrusion.

Figure S2: Representative results from *in vivo* **sybody selection based on colony formation.**

(A) Representative examples of *in vivo* transformation assays for nine sybody-expressing *B. subtilis*

strains. Sybody genes were integrated into the *amyE* locus under xylose-inducible control.

Transformants were grown on oxoid nutrient agar (ONA) plates supplemented with chloramphenicol

and 0.5% xylose to assess growth defects. Shown are candidates from the concave library: Sb051

(well B08) and Sb078 (D12). Loop library: Sb007 (E05), Sb020 (E12), Sb031 (F05), Sb164 (D12) and

NbH07 (Sb194). Convex library: Sb239 (D12) and Sb248 (E10).

(B) Growth assay results for the 285 *B. subtilis* strains expressing individual xylose-inducible sybodies.

Bars show each colony counts "without" (green) on top of "with" (pink) xylose. Strains are ordered by

their original 96-well plate. Only the loop library yielded sybodies that consistently impaired growth

under inducing conditions (dotted line). Sybody numbers indicated above the plots correspond to

positive candidates used in subsequent experiments, numbered according to order of use. Notably,

the strain corresponding to the E09 M sybody (Sb018), also showed an absence of growth upon

sybody induction. However, this sybody candidate gave intermediate phenotypes in later

experiments, which is why it was excluded from this study. Results for the loop library are also shown

in Figure 1.

Figure S3: Functional impact of sybody expression on chromosome organization, cell length, and

growth in *B. subtilis*.

(A) Average number of ParB-GFP foci per µm of cell length in strains expressing individual sybodies,

with and without xylose induction. Most uninduced strains differed significantly from the Smc WT

control, likely due to leaky expression from the P_{xyl} ($p < 0.0001$), except Sb015 ($p > 0.9999$), Sb156

($p = 0.2345$), and Sb016 (negative control, $p > 0.9999$).

(B) Average cell length across the same conditions, measured in ParB-GFP strains with or without

Smc, and with or without each sybody. Bars indicate standard deviation. Tested sybodies caused cell

elongation, a characteristic phenotype of impaired Smc activity, as chromosome segregation defects

delay cell division, with mean lengths from 4.70 ± 2.16 µm (Sb020) to 8.68 ± 2.99 µm (Sb010),

compared to 4.51 ± 1.95 µm in wild-type and 9.96 ± 8.92 µm in Δsmc. **(C)** Growth curves of *B. subtilis*

strains expressing individual sybodies compared to the WT strain, with and without xylose induction.

Each curve represents the mean of two biological replicates. Six sybodies were randomly picked and

showed in this figure. Fluorophore-free strains showed wild type-like growth without xylose but

strong delays post-induction, followed by partial growth recovery after 12 hours, likely due to xylose

depletion or suppressor emergence. In sybody-expressing strains, a clear drop in cell density was

observed ~2.5 hours post-induction.

Figure S4: ATPase hydrolysis rate of the *bsuS*mc-ScpAB complex with each selected sybody and

viability of *B. subtilis* strains expressing chimeric Smc-ScpAB complexes in the absence of sybody

induction.

(A) Spotting assay assessing the growth of *B. subtilis* strains carrying chimeric Smc-ScpAB operons

composed of *S. pneumoniae* and *B. subtilis* components. Strains harbor individual sybody constructs

integrated at the *amyE* locus under control of a xylose-inducible promoter but were grown without

inducer. "–" indicates no integration at *amyE*; "EV" corresponds to an empty vector control containing

only the chloramphenicol resistance cassette. Numbered labels indicate strains carrying specific

sybody constructs. Cells were spotted on rich medium (ONA) containing chloramphenicol and

incubated for 16 h at 37 °C.

(B) Overall ATPase hydrolysis rate of the *bsu*Smc-ScpAB complex in presence of each sybody and +/-

DNA. Sb06, 021 and 194 triggered a significant difference in ATP hydrolysis between +/- dsDNA

conditions. The rest is non-significant.

Figure S5: Hypothetical model for an Opening^DOWN class of sybodies, not recovered in this study.

This may indicate that stabilizing an open conformation near the ATPase heads does not interfere

with Smc function.

Tables

Table 1: Sybody enrichments at different steps of the selection procedure.

Ribosome display output was quantified by qPCR, while phage display results include final phage

titers and enrichment values from rounds one and two, also measured by qPCR.

Table S1: Sybody sequences

Table S2: Percentage of cells lacking ParB-GFP foci, indicating the absence of chromosome due to

segregation defect. In presence and absence of xylose for sybody induction.

Table S3: Strains

Table S4: Plasmids

Table S5: Oligonucleotides

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

OpeningUP
006, 015, 020, 021

ClosingUP
002, 010, 188, 194

ClosingDOWN
003, 031, 156,
160, 162, 169

ATP
DNA

ADP

Figure 4

Figure S1

Figure S2

Figure S3

A

Sybody: - EV 002 003 006 010 015 020 021 031 156 160 162 169 188 194

*bsu*Smc-ScpAB

*spn*Smc-ScpAB

Smc chimera 1 2 3 4 5

ONA + CM
9⁻⁵ dilution
16hrs growth

B

** < 0.0001
* = 0.02
Rest = NS

ATP hydrolysis rate (min⁻¹)

- dsDNA₄₀
+ dsDNA₄₀

Nb# - 002 003 006 010 015 020 021 031 156 160 162 169 188 194

Figure S4

Opening^DOWN

?

Figure S5