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Gene-level resolution of bacterial and archaeal genomes folding

Charlotte Cockram^{1,} Agnès Thierry¹, Roxane Lestini², Romain Koszul^{1,*}

Affiliations:

1 Institut Pasteur, Unité Régulation Spatiale des Génomes, CNRS, UMR 3525, F-75015 Paris, France

2 Laboratoire d'Optique et Biosciences, École Polytechnique, CNRS UMR7645 - INSERM

U1182, IP Paris, 91128 Palaiseau Cedex, France

* All correspondence should be addressed to romain.koszul@pasteur.fr

1 Summary:

2 During the past decade, chromosome conformation capture (3C/Hi-C)-based methods have 3 been used to probe the average 3D structure and organization of prokaryotic genomes, 4 revealing fundamental aspects of chromosome dynamics. However, the current protocols are 5 relatively expensive and inefficient, limiting the resolution of bacterial contact maps. Here we 6 present a simple, cost-effective Hi-C approach that allows the exploration of bacterial and 7 archaeal chromosome folding at the gene or operon level. We first apply it to the well-studied 8 E. coli and V. cholera bacterial species, generating sub-kilobase resolution contact maps, and 9 unveiling previously undetected gene-level chromosomal structures. We then apply it to the halophilic euryarchaeal species, H. volcanii, generating highly reproducible Hi-C matrices at 10 11 a resolution of up to 1kb. The increase in resolution compared to available archaeal Hi-C maps 12 facilitated the identification of a novel chromosome conformation that is distinct to that seen 13 in crenarchaea, and more similar to bacterial chromosome conformations. We then explore 14 the processes responsible for this conformation, identifying a novel role for the H. volcanii SMC protein, and propose how these results may be reflective of the Euryarchaea phylum as 15 a whole. 16

17

18 Introduction

Due to their small size and dynamic architecture, the three-dimensional (3D) organization of microbial genomes have historically proved challenging to investigate. Archaeal genomes are similar to bacteria in terms of size and overall organization, with both possessing circular genomes that are unconfined by a membrane or nucleus^{1,2}. Yet in terms of DNA replication, 23 genome segregation, and cell division, these two kingdoms are quite different. Bacterial 24 genomes typically consist of a single chromosome with a unique origin of replication (oriC), although a few species also contain large secondary replicons comparable in size to the main 25 chromosome³, but relying on plasmid-based mechanisms for their replication⁴. In contrast, 26 27 archaea chromosomes commonly have multiple origins of replication and utilize the Orc1/Cdc6 initiator proteins, which are homologous to eukaryotic systems⁵. They also often 28 29 have large secondary replicons, but unlike bacteria, these mini-chromosomes rely on the same replication machinery as the main chromosome⁶. 30

31 Recently, the application of chromosome conformation capture (3C/Hi-C) approaches has provided the opportunity to further highlight the myriad of different processes responsible 32 for chromosome organization within these two domains. Notably, all bacteria chromosomes 33 34 display self-interacting chromosomal interaction domains (CIDs), ranging in size from 30 -420kb, and whose precise nature and function remain elusive ⁷⁻¹⁰. In addition, molecular 35 complexes called condensing, and belonging to the structural maintenance of chromosomes 36 (SMC) proteins family, bridge the chromosome arms of Bacillus subtilis and many other 37 species⁹⁻¹². Yet, despite the presence of the SMC homolog MukBEF, this phenomenon is 38 absent in E. coli⁸. More recently, the genomes of the hyperthermophile crenarchaeal species, 39 S. acidocaldarius, and S. islandicus, were investigated by Hi-C, resulting in the first archaeal 40 contact maps¹³. These maps show that the *Sulfolobus* species display a chromosomal 41 42 conformation distinct to that of bacteria, with the presence of compartments that somehow 43 correlate with their gene expression activity. These crenarchaea also appear to have evolved 44 a condensin-independent mechanism of chromosome organization in which a distant SMC 45 homolog protein, called coalescin (ClsN), maintains this bi-compartmentalization. Whether these results are common to all archaea or if, as in bacteria, different species display 46 47 significantly different genome organization remains unknown.

48 Taken together, the variability already observed across different prokaryotic species 49 demonstrate the need for more in-depth investigations of chromosome architecture in different clades of bacteria and archaea. But this is not necessarily easy, as many bacterial and archaeal 50 51 species exist in extreme environments which are difficult to manipulate in a laboratory setting. 52 In this respect, Hi-C has already proved a readily applicable tool to gain a first glance at the genome folding of species that are less amenable than the standard laboratory models. 53 54 However, despite key improvements to eukaryotic Hi-C protocols leading to the development of commercial kits, the prokaryotic assay remains highly inefficient and costly. Early Hi-C 55 56 experiments performed in the bacteria Caulobacter crescentus and B. subtilis used restriction enzymes that recognize six base-pair sequences to digest the genome into fragments of several 57 kilobases in size ^{7,9} and although these contact maps were informative, their resolution was 58 59 limited to ~10 kb (Supplementary Table 1). Our team concomitantly reached a slightly 60 better resolution by using four base-pair cutting enzymes which digest the genomes into smaller fragments but at a much higher cost (Supplementary Table 1)^{8,10}. Despite these 61 62 efforts, the highest resolution of published prokaryotic contact maps remains limited to ~4 kb 63 for bacteria and 30 kb for archaea, well above the average size of a gene or operon.

In the present work, we bypass the current limitations in bacterial and archaeal Hi-C 64 assays, by identifying several crucial steps and forging an optimized Hi-C protocol that results 65 66 in significantly improved contact maps at a fraction (1/5th) of the sequencing cost. Not only 67 is this approach more cost and time-effective compared to existing protocols, but most 68 importantly the resulting contact matrices display up to a 30-fold improvement in resolution. We validate this protocol on two model bacteria (E. coli and V. cholera), utilizing the 500 bp 69 70 resolution to reveal features previously unseen in published contact maps, and then apply it to the Euryarchaea Haloferax volcanii. This halophilic archaeon, first described in 1975 71 following isolation from the bottom sediment of the Dead Sea¹⁴, is one of the most widely 72

studied archaeal models, and as a polyploid is representative of the Euryarchaea phylum as a
whole¹⁵. We show that *H. volcanii* has a novel chromosome conformation, distinct to that of *S. acidocaldarius* and *S. islandicus*, and more similar to bacterial chromosome conformations.
We then explore the processes responsible for this conformation, identifying a novel role for
the *H. volcanii* SMC protein, and then propose how these results may be reflective of the
Euryarchaeal phylum as a whole.

79 **Results**

80 Improvements of microbial Hi-C contact maps

We pursued the development of a Hi-C protocol more suited to bacteria but that could 81 82 potentially be applied to archaea. We then benchmarked this protocol with published 3C contact maps of *E. coli* and *V. cholera*^{8,16} to determine the extent to which it facilitated higher-83 resolution studies of prokaryotic chromosomes. The level of improvement was measured in 84 85 two ways; firstly, by comparing the number of reads in the final contact map with the total 86 number of reads sequenced (Supplementary Table 1), and secondly by determining the 87 maximum resolution (defined here as bin size) of the final contact map. We tested and combined two different four-base cutting restriction enzymes with biotinylation to generate 88 Hi-C contact maps of E. coli (Figure 1a, b; Supplementary Figure 1 and Methods). 89 90 Compared to previously published 3C data, the use of 4-base cutting enzymes in a Hi-C 91 experiment did improve the number of informative reads, with HpaII and MluCI both 92 performing well (Supplementary Table 1). The HpaII digestion gave a better signal-to-noise 93 ratio for E. coli (Supplementary Figure 1) as well as the highest increase in informative 94 reads in the contact map (Supplementary Table 1) and therefore was retained to perform all subsequent experiments. Although it is worth noting that if a genome is particularly AT-rich, 95 96 or if a specific AT-rich region is under investigation, we would recommend using MluCI. We

97 also added modifications to the blunt-end ligation step (Figure 1a and Methods) to obtain a \sim 3-fold increase in informative reads compared to that previously reported⁸, allowing the 98 99 generation of higher resolution matrices with fewer empty bins (Supplementary Figure 1). 100 Finally, we modified the library preparation to include a streptavidin-mediated pull-down of biotinylated interactions immediately after sonication and size-selection of the library (Figure 101 102 1a). The preparation of the sequencing library was then done directly on the streptavidin beads carrying biotinylated chimeric DNA fragments, facilitating a further 3.5-fold enrichment of 103 informative reads^{17,18} and a ~10-fold increase overall (Supplementary Figure 1). 104

105 To evaluate the quality of the data generated through this approach, the resulting 106 bacterial contact maps (Figure 1b and c) were compared to published 3C/Hi-C datasets from 107 our lab and others, processed using the same computational pipeline (Supplementary Table 108 1). Firstly, we compared the total number of reads sequenced with the number of reads retained in the final contact maps after alignment and filtering¹⁹. We found that, starting with 109 110 a tenth of material, the protocol retained between five and twenty-fold more reads compared 111 to former experiments using the same strains and restriction enzymes (Supplementary Table 1)^{8,10,16}. This increase in informative reads means that for less than a fifth of the sequencing 112 cost, one can obtain Hi-C matrices as good as those published, making prokaryotic Hi-C 113 experiments much more cost-effective. More importantly, this increase in informative reads 114 115 means that contact maps can now easily be more covered and "filled-in" with informative 116 contacts, with an improved resolution and bins down to 500 bp resulting in up to a 10-fold increase in resolution compared to published bacterial 3C contact maps (Figure 1d-g, 117

118 Supplementary Figure 1 and Supplementary Table 1)^{8,16}.

Although all bacteria showed the same overall global chromosome organization as previously reported, our high-resolution Hi-C matrices were much crisper and carried more contrasted features ^{8,16}. In *E. coli* (binned at 5 kb and 500 bp), we observed that the thickness of the main-diagonal was much more heterogeneous compared to previous contact maps (Figure 1b)⁸. This improved visualization was particularly beneficial in highlighting local changes in chromosome organization. For example, we observed that the 800 kb region surrounding *dif* and constituting the Ter domain²⁰ exhibited enrichment in short to mid-range contacts compared with the rest of the chromosome (Figure 1b, c, and d). The 500 bp resolution contact maps also allowed us to further disclose new sub-structures in the Ter MD, such as the splitting of a domain exactly at the *dif* site.

The most exciting feature of a sub-kilobase resolution was the ability to study bacterial 129 130 chromosomes at the gene level. The 500 bp binned E. coli Hi-C maps facilitated the identification of new chromosomal borders the *fliF-R* and *flgB-J* flagella operons, (Figure 1f 131 and g). These operons are 7-10 kb in size, and appear to have similar structures, which are 132 133 characterized as dense signals along the diagonal, capable of insulating the neighboring 134 regions of the chromosome. Furthermore, we also observed signals corresponding to other highly expressed genes and smaller operons in the surrounding genome, indicating that this 135 method is capable of gene-level studies of bacterial chromosomes. This increased resolution 136 was also beneficial in studying V. cholera, facilitating an increased definition of structures 137 throughout the genome, such as the superintegron on chromosome 2 (Figure 1h). This 138 identification of these bacterial structures is only possible because, with the new Hi-C method, 139 140 these regions had fewer empty bins and a higher signal to noise ratio, making the visualization 141 of these structures much easier. Finally, to determine if our new method introduced biases 142 regarding the type of reads that were enriched, we compared the intra vs. inter-chromosomal contact ratio of the two chromosomes of V. cholera. We found that both inter- and intra-143 144 chromosomal contacts showed approx. a 10-fold increase compared to previously published data (Figure 1i), conserving the ratio of the two and indicating that the protocol does not bias 145 146 the type of contacts enriched. The increase in inter-chromosomal contacts, as seen for V.

cholera (Figure 1j), will be particularly important for studying prokaryotes with multiple
chromosomes or extra-chromosomal elements.

149 Features of chromosome organization in *H. volcanii*

The optimized Hi-C protocol was next applied to the archaeal species H. volcanii 150 growing in exponential phase. Despite the polyploid nature of these cells, highly reproducible 151 contact matrices with a resolution of up to 1 kb were generated (Figure 2a and 152 153 Supplementary Figure 2). The genome is composed of a 2.85Mb main chromosome, three smaller chromosomes ((pHV4 (636 kb), pHV3 (438 kb), pHV1 (85.1kb)), and the pHV2 154 plasmid $(6.4\text{kb})^{21}$. The main chromosome has three origins of replication (*oriC*1–3) and the 155 smaller chromosomes are distinct from the plasmid because they each carry a unique $oriC^1$, 156 whereas the plasmid has none. As expected, the contact maps of each chromosome displayed 157 a single, strong diagonal signal resulting from the enrichment of contacts between neighboring 158 loci. In agreement with previous reports²², our H26 strain no longer contained the pHV2 159 plasmid²³ and we observed that the pHV4 chromosome had integrated into the main 160 161 chromosome (coordinates: 249,185bp - 884,970 bp). The ~30-fold increase in resolution, compared to previously published archaeal Hi-C maps¹³, facilitated the visualization of much 162 more detailed structures (Figure 2a and Supplementary Figure 2), notably: 163

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Self-interacting domains

The Hi-C matrix displays self-interacting regions, that appear as squares along the main diagonal, reminiscent of CIDs in bacteria^{7–10,13}. A directional index analysis performed at 100 kb and 300 kb identified ~10 larger domains ranging from ~70 kb - 570 kb in size (**Figure 2b**) and ~23 domains ranging from ~25 kb to 200 kb in size (**Figure 2c**), scales that very similar to those observed previously in bacteria^{7–10}. To gain insight into the mechanisms responsible for this organization, we compared the Hi-C maps and DI analysis with the transcription profile of the cells and found a good correlation between the CID boundaries (100 kb scale) and gene expression (Figure 2c and d). Correlations between domain boundaries and transcription level have previously been shown in both prokaryotes and eukaryotes and are in good agreement with the idea that gene expression creates plectonemicfree regions that insulate adjacent regions of the chromosome^{24–26}

176

Plaid-like contact pattern

The H. volcanii contact matrix displays a striking plaid pattern involving very short 177 178 (~2-15 kb) DNA segments throughout the genome. Similar patterns, but involving much larger regions of DNA, have been found in both crenarchaea and some eukaryotes ^{13,27}. This 179 180 bipartite organization is associated with the compartmentalization of chromatin into active 181 and inactive compartments. To determine if the same is true for H. volcanii, Pearson 182 correlation matrices of Hi-C maps were computed and used to perform principal component 183 analysis (PCA; Figure 2e and Supplementary Figure 3). Although the effect was not as 184 sharp as previously reported, a separation of the H. volcanii genome into compartment-like structures emerged from the approach. Upon comparing the analysis to gene expression levels 185 186 characterized by RNA-seq (Figure 2d) we observed that the majority of the main 187 chromosome appeared to belong to the transcriptionally active compartment, whereas the small chromosomes pHV1, pHV3, and the integrated pHV4 seemed to mostly belong to a less 188 transcriptionally active compartment (Figure 2e). The exception was the region surrounding 189 190 the origin of replication of the integrated pHV4 (ori-pHV4) chromosome, which, like the rest 191 of the origins of replication on the main chromosome (oriC1-3), appeared to fall into the A compartment. To-test whether replication initiation could directly mediate compartment 192 organization, we performed Hi-C on a H26 strain lacking all origins of replication on the main 193 chromosome (*OriC1-3* and *ori-pHV4*)²². This strain has previously been shown to grow 194 significantly faster than wild-type cells because cells are capable of initiating replication at 195 sites dispersed throughout the genome²². When we compared the Δori mutant to WT cells, 196

we found that not only were the compartment-like structures unchanged (Supplementary
Figure 4) but that there was very little overall difference in chromosome structuring.
(Supplementary Figure 4). We, therefore, concluded that replication is not implicated in the
chromosome structuring of *H. volcanii*.

201 The Haloferax genome has an average GC content of ~65%, but there is extensive variation between coding and non-coding regions (Figure 2f). In addition, 102 AT-rich 202 203 regions corresponding to insertion sequence (IS) elements are scattered throughout the genome ²¹. A comparison between the GC content and the Hi-C contacts (Figure 2a) showed 204 205 a strong correlation between the plaid patterns, that could be attributed to compartment-like 206 structures, and the AT-rich regions of the genome which correspond to lowly transcribed regions (Figure 2d). This correlation was even more apparent for the pHV4 chromosome and 207 208 the surrounding main chromosome (Figure 2g). Indeed, the pHV4 chromosome, which 209 recently inserted into the main chromosome, is much more AT-rich than the surrounding sequence and contains nearly half of the 102 IS elements found in the genome. In fact, the 210 211 genomic rearrangement that led to the integration of the pHV4 chromosome occurred between two identical ISH18 sequences²² located in either chromosome. When we looked at the pHV1 212 and pHV3 chromosomes, we found a similar correlation. pHV3 is more GC-rich than the 213 other chromosomes, has fewer IS elements, and consequently has much fewer instances of 214 215 the plaid pattern within its ~438 kb (Figure 2h). The pHV1 chromosome, on the other hand, 216 is AT-rich, poorly transcribed, and contains 16 IS elements over 85 kb, resulting in a dense plaid pattern and many empty bins within the Hi-C matrix (Figure 2i). Since all Hi-C 217 experiments were performed with HpaII (C^CCGG), a possibility is that these patterns 218 219 associate with AT-rich sequences simply because they are devoid of HpaII sites and are therefore under-represented in the final Hi-C contact map. This hypothesis is not supported 220 by the fact that the 636 kb pHV4 chromosome contains over 4,900 HpaII sites (out of the 221

31,557 in the 4Mb genome) and that these sites occur at a similar density to the surrounding chromosome. Furthermore, the same plaid pattern persisted in the Hi-C matrix when Hi-C was done using a combination of HpaII and MluCI (^AATT). Taken together these observations suggest that the pattern likely results from the nature of the DNA in these regions and not the experimental system.

227

Discrete DNA loops scattered throughout the chromosomes

228 Finally, the increased resolution afforded by our improved Hi-C technique facilitated the visualization and characterization of finer structures such as DNA loops and chromosomal 229 230 borders (Figure 2j). To detect and quantify these structures we utilized Chromosight, a custom-made, computer-vision based program recently developed to call de novo DNA motifs 231 in Hi-C maps, and efficient on compact genomes ²⁸. Chromosight detected an average of 26 232 233 borders in Hi-C contact maps of WT H. volcanii cells across three biological replicates 234 (Figure 2k), in good agreement with the 23 CIDs detected by DI analysis (Figure 2c). Furthermore, and more intriguingly, Chromosight detected an average of 64 loop-like 235 structures in the *H. volcanii* genome (Figure 2k), most of which were detected on the main 236 237 chromosome.

238 Transcription drives chromosome structuring in H. volcanii

239 Since CID boundaries correlated well with gene expression (Figure 2a, c, and d) we sought to determine the influence of transcription on the different levels of chromosome structuring. 240 241 First, we compared the chromosome conformation of exponentially growing cells to cells in stationary phase. RNA-seq analysis showed a significant reduction in transcription in 242 stationary phase, while Hi-C displayed a concomitant reduction in short- to mid-range 243 contacts throughout the genome (Figure 3a-c). Also, a loss of chromosomal loops was 244 245 observed throughout the main chromosome and the smaller chromosomes (Figure 3d) suggesting that these structures form as a consequence of gene expression, presumably 246

through the loading of a protein involved in the maintenance of the contacts between pairs of 247 loci. To test for this hypothesis, we inhibited transcription in exponentially growing cells by 248 treating them with actinomycin D (Figure 3e and f). In agreement with stationary phase 249 250 cultures, we observed a decrease in short-mid range contacts, chromosomal borders, and a 251 disappearance of DNA loops throughout the genome compared to the untreated (DMSO) control (Figure 3g-i). We applied Chromosight to the different Hi-C matrices to quantify the 252 253 loss of these structures, showing that stationary phase and actinomycin-D treated cells displayed a ~90% decrease in the number of chromosomal loops and a significant reduction 254 in loop score (strength) for the remaining 10% ²⁸(Figure 3j). Chromosomal borders, on the 255 other hand, were less affected with a 32% and 65% reduction in the number of borders for 256 actinomycin D-treated and stationary phase cells respectively. No decrease in border score 257 258 was seen for those that remained (Supplementary Figure 5). Interestingly, despite the 259 reduction in the number of chromosomal borders and loops in stationary phase cultures and actinomycin D-treated cells (Supplementary Figure 5), there were very little differences in 260 the plaid patterning and assignment of A and B compartments across the genome. This is 261 contrary to that seen in crenarchaea, where the large plaid patterns were reduced in stationary 262 phase cultures and eliminated in cells treated with actinomycin D^{13} . This further strengthens 263 264 the conclusion that the plaid-like patterns seen in *H. volcanii* Hi-C maps are different from those seen in eukaryotes and crenarchaea and don't correspond to a partition of the genome 265 266 into active and inactive compartments. Instead, they are most likely due to the AT-rich nature 267 and increased density of IS-elements in these regions of the genome.

268 Role of SMC in chromosome organization

DNA loops have been identified in all eukaryotic genomes investigated using Hi-C so far, as
well as in bacteria that possess a canonical member of the SMC family, such as SMC-ScpAB
in *B. subtilis*¹⁰. Recently, SMC proteins have also been identified in archaea, with condensin

shown to be highly conserved throughout archaeal species, the notable exception being 272 Crenarchaea, which instead encodes a distant homolog coalescin (ClsN; Figure 4a)¹³. H. 273 volcanii contains two SMC proteins; SMC (HVO 0689) and RAD50 (HVO 0854), as well 274 275 as the SMC-like Sph4 (HVO B0173) protein. The SMC protein is highly conserved across the Halobacteria (>65% identity) and other Euryarchaea, whilst also possessing some (25-276 30%) sequence identity with members of the Asgard and TACK superphyla (Figure 4a). We 277 278 hypothesized that the link between transcription and DNA-loops in H. volcanii may be mediated by the SMC protein and so generated a strain in which the *smc* gene (HVO 0689) 279 280 had been deleted. Interestingly, and contrary to many species, the H. volcanii smc mutant was viable and grew similar to WT cells (Figure 4b). It also exhibited a normal cellular 281 morphology and DNA content by microscopy (Figure 4c). Hi-C experiments performed on 282 283 the *smc* mutant revealed a complex pattern of changes across the genome (Figure 4d). First, 284 there was an overall decrease in short-range contacts in Δsmc cells compared to wild-type. We also observed a reduction in both the number and strength of some loops across the 285 286 genome, although the effect was less than that seen in actinomycin D-treated or stationary 287 phase cultures. However, the most striking observation was the complete loss of several topological borders throughout the main chromosome (Figure 4e). Despite close inspection 288 of the sequences and gene annotations present at these borders (Supplementary Figure 6), 289 290 no pattern as to why these specific sites were affected in the Δsmc mutant could be identified. 291 To determine whether this pattern was conserved across the SMC family members present in *Haloferax*, we performed Hi-C on the published $\Delta rad50 \text{ mrell}$ mutant (Figure 4f)²⁹. Like 292 293 the SMC protein, Rad50 is conserved across most Euryarchaea but is less-well conserved in 294 the Asgard and TACK groups. We chose to focus on the rad50 mre11 double mutant because, in *H. volcanii*, both genes are expressed from the same operon, and the Mre11 Rad50 proteins 295 296 have previously been shown to work together as a complex that binds DNA to prevent the

repair of double-strand breaks by homologous recombination²⁹. The $\Delta rad50 mrell$ mutant 297 298 grows similar to WT and Δsmc cells (Figure 4b and c) and exhibits the same loss of shortrange contacts as the Δsmc mutant (Figure 4g). However, we did not observe the same loss 299 300 of borders in the $\Delta rad50 \text{ mrell}$ mutant, indicating that this phenotype was specific to the 301 Δsmc cells. When we applied Chromosight to these Hi-C matrices (Figure 4h), these results were confirmed, the smc mutant showed a 50% reduction in both borders and DNA loops, 302 303 whereas the rad50 mre11 mutant was very similar to WT cells (Figure 4i and j). Taken together these results highlight a new role for SMC, along with transcription, in shaping 304 305 Euryarchaeal genomes.

306

307 Discussion

308 The simple, cost-effective Hi-C approach described above allows the exploration of bacterial 309 and archaeal chromosome conformations at the gene or operon level. Applied to the wellstudied E. coli and V. cholera bacterial species, it resulted in sub-kilobase resolution contact 310 maps unveiling previously undetected gene-level structures^{8,16}. Applied to the less-studied 311 312 halophilic euryarchaeal species, H. volcanii, it generated reproducible Hi-C matrices at a resolution of up to 1kb. This 30-fold increase in resolution, compared to available archaeal 313 314 Hi-C maps of hyperthermophile species¹³, facilitated the identification of new chromosomal architectures in the Haloferax species. 315

316

317 The Haloferax genome is not organized into active and inactive compartments

The *Haloferax* genome is organized into CIDs, similar in size to those previously seen in bacteria. In addition, the contact map of *Haloferax* displays a plaid pattern reminiscent of that seen in the Hi-C contact maps of *Sulfolobus* and eukaryotes¹³. In *Sulfolobus*, this patterning was shown to correspond to the transcription-dependent organization of the genome into two, 322 active and inactive, spatial compartments. However, this type of compartmentalization seems 323 absent in *H. volcanii*, as the plaid patterns correspond to AT-rich regions of the chromosomes and likely result from the IS elements contained within these regions. A possible explanation 324 325 to these structures may come from Halobacterium salinarum, a halophilic archaeon isolated from salted fish. This archaeon is similar to H. volcanii because it too has a GC-rich genome 326 that is interspersed with AT-rich islands containing IS elements³⁰. The AT-rich regions of 327 Hbt. salinarum are hypermutable due to random transposition and recombination events 328 between the IS elements. Although this hypermutable phenotype is yet to be demonstrated for 329 *H. volcanii*³¹, it is quite conceivable that similar mechanisms exist. Many of the IS elements 330 between the two species contain similar inverted repeats³² and we know that the pHV4 331 chromosome integrated into the main chromosome via a recombination event between two 332 ISH18 elements²². These results suggest that the segregation of the hyperthermophile genome 333 334 into different chromatin domains could be a trait specific to this lineage, linked to the extreme temperature in its environment or the fact that, unlike many archaeal species including H. 335 volcanii, the crenarchaea do not contain histones¹⁵. This highlights that, as in bacteria, 336 different lineages present different types of genome arrangements. The availability of an 337 efficient protocol will allow the rapid sampling of multiple species to determine the specificity 338 of these different organizations in this kingdom. 339

340

341 Transcription and SMC organize the Haloferax genome into loops and domains

342 Discrete DNA loops structures were identified throughout the genome, whose strength and 343 visibility strongly correlate with the transactional status of the cells. We hypothesized that the 344 link between transcription and DNA-loops in *H. volcanii* may be mediated by an SMC 345 protein. In most species, disruption of the SMC proteins results in lethality or a severely 346 impaired growth phenotype. A *Haloferax* strain carrying a deletion of *smc* displays no obvious 347 defect, a phenotype previously described in several bacteria species. Indeed, in M. tuberculosis, M. smegmatis, C. glutamicum, and D. radiodurans smc mutations have also been 348 shown to have very little or no effect on cell growth or the frequency of anucleate cells^{11,33,34}. 349 350 This would indicate that there is a degree of redundancy in the proteins that ensure the correct organization and compaction of the nucleoid, for instance, through distant SMC homologs 351 such as the recently discovered condensin MksB^{11,35}. D. radiodurans is of particular interest 352 as, like *H.volcanii*, it is an extremophile containing a multipartite genome present in several 353 copies³⁶. D. radiodurans smc mutants are similar to WT cells in every way, except that they 354 355 are hypersensitive to DNA gyrase inhibitors, suggesting SMC is required to maintain the supercoiling equilibrium in these cells³⁴. Furthermore, in WT cells it was shown that SMC is 356 located at several foci on the nucleoid periphery and that these foci are unevenly distributed 357 358 throughout the cell, signifying that SMC may bind to a few distinct DNA regions throughout the D. radiodurans genome³⁴. Our data in H. volcanii agree with these observations, and the 359 chromosomal borders that are most severely disrupted in *smc* mutant cells may correspond to 360 specific SMC binding sites in the Haloferax genome. This would also explain why we don't 361 see the same phenotype in *rad50 mre11* mutant cells, and it would be interesting to see if the 362 SMC-like protein, Sph4 is also implicated at these sites. The peculiarities of these sites remain 363 an open question, as no conserved sequences could be found at the boundaries. A possibility 364 could be that these sites are implicated in chromosome segregation or cohesion between 365 366 homologous chromosomes, but this is difficult to test by Hi-C as the technique is not able to 367 discern between homologous chromosomes. The SMC protein is well conserved throughout the Euryarchaeal phylum, which consists mainly of polyploids. Here too, further studies will 368 369 determine whether these structures are conserved in these species.

370

371 This study pinpoints that understanding the chromosomal architecture of H. volcanii and archaea, in general, is still in its infancy. The stark contrast between this archaeon and the 372 Sulfolobus species may be pondered once high-resolution maps of the latter will be made 373 374 available, as some of the Haloferax features such as DNA loops could exist in Sulfolobus as well. However, the extreme and diverse environment of archaea also forecasts the 375 identification of even more discrepancies between the different lineages. Since Hi-C can be 376 377 applied to cells directly crosslinked in their natural environment, there should be no limitation to lab-based model organisms, and it would be of interest to generate high-378 379 resolution contact maps of species spanning the archaeal tree to reach a first broad overview 380 of their differences and similarities. The availability of high-resolution metagenomic Hi-C 381 assays will further allow the sampling of genome folding of hundreds of species from the 382 wild, including archaea. This technique will further boost the exploration of the evolutionary role of genome folding in the microbial world. 383

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385

386 Methods:

387 Strains, media and growth conditions

Detailed information about all strains, plasmids, and primers used in this study can be found 388 in Supplementary Table 2. Escherichia coli MG1655 K12³⁷ and Vibrio cholera N16961³⁸ 389 were both grown at 37°C in 1 x Minimal Media A supplemented with 0.2 % casamino acids 390 391 and 0.5 % glucose. The archaea, *Haloferax volcanii* H26 strain ($\Delta pyrE$) is referred to as "wildtype" during this study. H. volcanii strains were grown using enriched Hv-YPC media at 392 45°C, as described previously ³⁹. To block transcription, cells were exposed for 30 min to 393 Actinomycin D (Sigma Aldrich, 5 µg/ml final concentration, prepared in 100% DMSO). A 394 395 negative control was prepared in parallel by adding the same volume of 100% DMSO (Sigma Aldrich, 0.5% final concentration). Escherichia coli strains XL1-Blue MRF' and GM121 396 were used for cloning. GM121 was also used to prepare unmethylated plasmid DNA for 397 efficient transformation of *H. volcanii*. 398

399 Construction of the H. *volcanii* Δsmc strain

To generate the Δsmc (HVO 0689) construct, the upstream region (US) and downstream 400 region (DS) of smc were cloned into pTA131³⁹ to generate the pRL93 plasmid used to 401 construct the deletion strain by a gene knockout system⁴⁰. The US region was generated by 402 PCR on H26 genomic DNA using primers RL292 and RL296. The DS region was generated 403 by PCR on H26 genomic DNA using primers RL294 and RL295. Each PCR product 404 contained 30 bp homology with adjacent fragments for SLIC cloning⁴¹: (i) with the pTA131 405 406 linearized fragments after NotI and EcoRI double-digestion (contained in RL292) in the US 407 fragment, (ii) with the US fragment (contained in RL294) and with the pTA131 linearized fragments after NotI and EcoRI double-digestion (contained in RL295) in the DS fragment. 408 409 Following the SLIC method, PCR fragments and linearized plasmid were digested using T4

410 DNA polymerase for 45 minutes at 22°C to generate 3'-single-stranded extremities, then all 411 amplification products were mixed in a 1:1:1 molar ratio and incubated for 30 minutes at 37°C before transformation into E. coli XL1-blue. Transformants were selected on LB plates 412 413 containing 100 µg/ml ampicillin, 0.5 µM IPTG and 80 µg/ml X-Gal. The presence of the correct insert in the plasmid, as determined by white colonies, was tested by colony PCR 414 using primers pBSF2 and pBSR3. The sequence of one selected plasmid, dubbed pRL93, was 415 416 further confirmed by Sanger sequencing. Then pRL93 was used to transform H26 strain using the pop-in/pop-out method as described previously⁴⁰. Pop-out colonies were plated on Hv-Ca 417 418 plates containing 5-FOA and thymidine. The absence of the smc was tested by colony lift on 419 100 colonies from the pop-out plates using a probe targeting the *smc* gene. The DIG-labeled probe was generated by PCR on H26 genomic DNA using primers RL305 and RL310 and the 420 421 PCR DIG (digoxigenin) labeling Mix (Roche). Probe hybridization was detected using the 422 DIG Luminescent Detection Kit (Roche) and a ChemiDoc MP (BioRad). 10 colonies out of 100 were deleted for the *smc* gene. One Δsmc construct was conserved for further studies and 423 424 dubbed HvRL138.

425 **Optimized microbial Hi-C protocol**

426 Cell fixation

All Hi-C experiments were performed with $\sim 1 \times 10^8$ cells growing in the exponential growth 427 phase (OD_{600nm} ~0.2). Protein-DNA interactions were chemically crosslinked with fresh 428 429 formaldehyde (Sigma Aldrich; 3% final concentration) for 30 min at room temperature with gentle agitation. Crosslinking was quenched by the addition of glycine (Sigma Aldrich; 0.5 430 431 M final concentration) for 20 min at room temperature. For *H.volcanii*, which is very sensitive to salt concentrations, 2.5M glycine was prepared in 18 % (w/v) saltwater solution (2.5 M 432 NaCl, 90 mM MgCl₂.6H₂O, 90 mM MgSO₄.7H₂O, 60 mM KCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5) to 433 avoid cell lysis. Cells were then collected by centrifugation (4000 x g, 10 min, room 434

temperature) resuspended in 50 ml of 1 x PBS (18% (w/v) saltwater for *H. volcanii*) and centrifuged again. The pellet was resuspended in 1 ml 1 x PBS and transferred to a 1.5 ml Eppendorf tube before a final centrifugation step (4000 x g, 5 min, room temperature), the supernatant was then removed and the pellet stored at -80°C.

439 Cell lysis and DNA digestion

Cell pellets were removed from the -80°C freezer and allowed to completely thaw on ice. The 440 441 pellet was then resuspended in 1 ml of 1x TE + cOmplete protease inhibitor cocktail (EDTAfree, Sigma Aldrich) and transferred to a 2 ml Precellys tube containing 0.5 mm glass beads 442 (VK05, Ozyme). Cells were then subject to mechanical disruption using the Precellys 443 Evolution tissue homogenizer (V7500: 5 x 30s, 20s pause). Please note, that for Precellys 444 machines without the Cryolys cooling attachment (Ozyme), tubes need to be removed every 445 446 3 cycles and placed on ice for 5 min to stop sample overheating and subsequent degradation. The lysate (~1ml in volume) was then carefully transferred to a 5 ml Eppendorf tube, avoiding 447 448 the transfer of any glass beads. Proteins that were not crosslinked to DNA during 449 formaldehyde fixation were then degraded by the addition of SDS (Thermo Fisher, 0.5% final 450 concentration) for 10 min at room temperature. DNA was then prepared for digestion by the addition of 3 ml dH2O, 500 µl 10X Digestion buffer (200 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 100 mM 451 452 MgCl2, 10 mM DTT, 1 mg/ml BSA) and 500 µl 10 % Triton-X-100 (Thermo-Fisher). After thoroughly mixing the reaction, 400 µl was removed and transferred to a 1.5 ml Eppendorf 453 454 tube as a non-digested (ND) control. The restriction enzyme, HpaII (New England Biolabs, 1000 U) was then added to the remaining sample and the tube incubated with gentle agitation 455 for 3h at 37°C. 456

457 Choice of restriction enzymes for Hi-C

Previously, it has been shown that the frequency of restriction sites is correlated with the GC-458 content of a genome, and thus certain restriction enzymes can introduce significant bias into 459 3C/Hi-C contact maps. For this reason, eukaryotic Hi-C protocols typically use DpnII 460 (^GATC) to offer more uniform coverage, but this is not possible for bacterial species, such 461 as E. coli and V. cholera, whose genomes are subject to Dam methylation. We have previously 462 utilized both HpaII (GGC[^]C) and MluCI (A[^]ATT) for bacterial 3C and metagenomic 463 experiments^{12,42} and both these enzymes have between \sim 7,700 - 31,000 sites in all three of 464 organisms in this study, generating an average fragment length of 188 bp (Supplementary 465 466 Table 1). We decided to test these two enzymes in combination with biotinylation to see if we could improve our Hi-C resolution, we also combined both HpaII and MluCI in the same 467 experiment, which would, in theory, reduce the average fragment size to ~82 bp, further 468 469 increasing the resolution of the Hi-C data and covering both AT and GC-rich regions of the 470 genome in the same experiment. The biotinylation step and subsequent streptavidinenrichment was done using Biotin-14-dCTP and Biotin-14-dATP for HpaII and MluCI, 471 respectively. For the experiments performed using both enzymes, we used the same quantity 472 473 of enzyme as the single-enzyme experiments and combined the two biotinylated nucleotides in equal amounts for the enrichment step. Compared to previously published data, the 474 combination of the four base cutters with biotinylation did improve the number of informative 475 476 reads for each experiment (Supplementary Figure S1), with HpaII and MluCI performing 477 well. As expected, MluCI failed to digest the GC-rich H. volcanii genome and in all organisms, the combination of the two enzymes didn't add to the resolution, if anything it 478 made the contact maps nosier than using either enzyme alone (Supplementary Figure S1). 479

480 Biotinylation of DNA ends

Following digestion, 400μl of the sample was removed and transferred to a 1.5ml Eppendorf
as the digested (D) control. The remaining lysate was centrifuged (16,000 x g, 20 min, room

temperature) to pellet the insoluble fraction containing the protein-DNA complexes of
interest. After removing the supernatant, the pellet was resuspended in 400 µl dH2O. To this
the following was added; 50 µl 10x Ligation Buffer (500 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 100 mM
MgCl2, 100 mM DTT), 4.5 µl 10 mM dAGTTp, 37.5 µl Biotin-14-dCTP (Thermo Fisher),
50 Units of DNA Polymerase I - Large Klenow Fragment (New England Biolabs). After
briefly mixing, the reaction was incubated with agitation for 45 min at 37°C.

489 Blunt-end ligation

For further gains, we took inspiration from published human protocols and reduced the 490 volume of the blunt-end ligation step by 20-fold to mimic the conditions of 'in situ Hi-C' 491 protocols^{17,43}. Our rationale was that in a smaller volume there would be less spurious events 492 than in dilute conditions and, as a result, less noise in the resulting Hi-C matrices. Following 493 further trial-and-error optimization, we performed the ligation at room temperature and 494 495 reduced its duration (Figure 1a and Supplementary Figure 1). Once the fill-in reaction was complete, the ligation was set up by adding the following; 120µl 10x Ligation Buffer, 12 µl 496 497 10 mg/ml BSA, 12 µl 100mM ATP, 540 µl dH2O, 480 U T4 DNA ligase (Thermo Fisher). 498 The reaction was mixed gently and then incubated with gentle agitation for 3h at room 499 temperature.

500 Reverse crosslinking and DNA purification

Following ligation, proteins were denatured by the addition of 20 μ l 500 mM EDTA, 20 μ l 10 % SDS, and 100 μ l 20 mg/ml proteinase K (EuroBio). The non-digested (ND) and digested (D) controls were also treated using 20 μ l 500 mM EDTA, 20 μ l 10 % SDS and 10 μ l 20mg/ml proteinase K (EuroBio). All samples were incubated at 65°C overnight to reverse formaldehyde-mediated protein-DNA crosslinks. 506 The following day, DNA was purified by the addition of an equal volume of 507 Phenol:Chloroform: Isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1, Amresco), the mixture was vortexed for 30s and then centrifuged (12,000 x g, 5 min, room temperature). Following centrifugation, the 508 509 upper aqueous phase was carefully removed and transferred to a new Eppendorf tube. DNA 510 was precipitated by the addition of 2.5 x volume of ice-cold 100 % EtOH and 1/10 volume of 3 M NaOAc (pH 5.0). Samples were then incubated at -80°C for 30 min. Precipitated DNA 511 512 was then pelleted by centrifugation (12,000 x g, 20 min, 4°C), the supernatant removed and the pellets washed in 500 µl 70% EtOH. After a second centrifugation (12,000 x g, 5 min, 513 4°C), the EtOH was removed and the pellets dried on a 37°C heat block for 5-10 min. Once 514 the remaining EtOH had evaporated, pellets were resuspended in 140 µl 1X TE buffer + 515 1mg/ml RNase (Euromedex) and incubated for 30 min at 37°C with agitation. When the DNA 516 517 had been completely resuspended, 10 µl of HiC libraries and the ND and D controls were 518 checked on a 1 % agarose gel (Supplementary Figure 2e). This step is included to ensure the DNA isn't degraded, was successfully digested by the restriction enzyme, and subsequently 519 ligated after biotin integration. Once the quality of the HiC library has been confirmed, the 520 ND and D controls can be discarded. 521

522 **Preparation of sequencing libraries**

523 DNA sonication and size-selection

For efficient sonication, a maximum of 5 μ g of DNA should be used, if the HiC library exceeds this, then an aliquot should be taken and the remaining DNA stored at -20°C, as a backup. Once the correct quantity of DNA was obtained, the sample volume was adjusted to 130 μ l using 1x TE buffer. HiC samples were transferred to a sonication tube (microTUBE AFA Fiber Pre-Slit Snap-Cap, Covaris). The DNA was then sheared using the Covaris S220 Focused Ultrasonicator to yield an average fragment size of 300 bp (140 W peak incidence power, 10 % duty factor, 200 cycles per burst, 7°C). Following sonication, the DNA was 531 transferred to a 1.5 ml Eppendorf tube and an equal volume of AmPure XP beads (Beckman) added. The sample was mixed 10x by gentle pipetting and then incubated for 5 min at room 532 533 temperature to allow the DNA fragments to bind to the magnetic beads. The tube was then 534 transferred to a magnetic rack for 1 min or until the beads separated to the wall of the tube. The supernatant was then carefully removed and the beads washed 2x using freshly-prepared 535 70 % EtOH. The pellet was then allowed to airdry for 30s, to remove residual ethanol, before 536 537 being resuspended in 320 µl of elution buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8,5). Size-selection was checked by running 18 µl of the DNA on a 1% agarose gel (Supplementary Figure 2e) and 538 539 DNA quantity was checked by QuBit analysis, the remaining 300 µl was taken for sequencing library preparation. 540

541 **Biotin pull-down**

The biotin-streptavidin pull-down maximizes the number of "true" HiC contacts in an 542 543 experiment by selecting for chimeric DNA molecules that have been digested, biotin-filled 544 and blunt-end ligated. To do this, the HiC library was bound to Streptavidin C1 Dynabeads 545 (Thermo Fisher). First, the beads were mixed well by vortexing and then 30 μ l of beads were 546 aliquoted to a 1.5 ml Eppendorf. The beads were placed on a magnet and left for 1 min to clear the supernatant, the supernatant was then removed and 500 μ l of 1x Tween Wash Buffer 547 548 (TWB: 5 mM Tris-HCl pH7.5, 0.5 mM EDTA, 1M NaCl, 0.05% Tween 20) was added to rinse the beads. The solution was then separated on a magnet and the supernatant discarded, 549 550 the beads were then re-suspended in 300 µl of 2x Binding Buffer (BB: 10 mM Tris-HCl 551 pH7.5, 1 mM EDTA, 2 M NaCl), 300 µl of HiC sample was added and the mixture incubated on a tube rotator for 15 min at room temperature. The tube was then placed back on the magnet 552 553 for 1 min to separate the biotinylated DNA bound to the streptavidin beads from the 554 supernatant containing unbiotinylated DNA. The beads were then washed twice in 500 µl TWB in a thermomixer (2 min, 55°C, 1,000 rpm). Finally, the beads were resuspended in 100 555

μl of 1x T4 ligase buffer (New England Biolabs), and the mixture transferred to a new 1.5 ml
Eppendorf.

558 End-repair

559 The end-repair mix was prepared as follows: 85 µl 1x T4 ligase buffer, 5 µl 10mM dNTPs,

560 50 U T4 PNK, 12 U T4 DNA polymerase, 5 U DNA Polymerase I, Large Klenow Fragment.

561 After the HiC bank was placed on the magnet and the supernatant removed, the beads were

resuspended in the end repair mix and the reaction incubated for 30 min at room temperature.

563 A-tailing

Following end-repair, the beads were washed twice in 500 μl TWB and once in 100 μl 1x
NEB2 buffer using a thermomixer (2 min, 55°C, 1000 rpm). The beads containing the endrepaired DNA were then resuspended in 100 μl of A-tailing Mix (90 μl 1xNEB 2 buffer, 0.5
mM dATP, 25 U Klenow Fragment (3'-5'exo-)) and incubated for 30 min at 37°C.

569 Adapter ligation

After A-tailing, the beads were washed twice in 500 µl TWB and once in 50 µl 1x Quick 570 Ligase Buffer (New England Biolabs) using a thermomixer (2 min, 55°C, 1000 rpm). The 571 beads were then resuspended in the Ligation Mix (50 µl 1x Quick Ligase Buffer, 2 µl Quick 572 DNA Ligase) and 2 µl of sequencing adapter was added (NEXTflex Illumina Barcodes, Bioo 573 Scientific). The reaction was mixed well and then incubated at room temperature for 10 min, 574 the beads were washed twice in 500 µl TWB and once in 100 µl of 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8 575 using a thermomixer (2 min, 55°C, 1000 rpm). Finally, the beads were resuspended in 50 µl 576 of 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8 and transferred to a new tube. 577

578 Library amplification by PCR

25

The PCR reaction was set up as follows: 40 µl of Phusion 2x High Fidelity Master Mix (New 579 England Biolabs), 5 µl of 2 µM Primer Mix (NEXTflex, Bioo Scientific), 32 µl dH2O and 3 580 µl Streptavidin-beads containing the HiC library. The library was amplified for 12 cycles 581 582 following the manufacturers' instructions. After PCR, the reaction was placed on a magnet for 1 min to separate the streptavidin beads from the PCR reaction containing the amplified 583 library. The supernatant was transferred to a new tube and the beads discarded. The PCR 584 585 reaction was then purified by adding an equal volume of AmPure XP beads, the reaction was then mixed well and incubated at room temperature for 5 min. Following two washes with 80 586 % EtOH, the beads were mixed with 50 μl of 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8 and incubated for 5 min 587 at room temperature. Finally, the reaction was placed on the magnet and the DNA-containing 588 supernatant transferred to a new Eppendorf tube. The DNA was then checked on a 1% agarose 589 590 gel to determine the size of the final library and to check for the presence of primer dimers. 591 Once this was confirmed, the Hi-C library was ready to prepare for paired-end sequencing using the 75 cycle High-Output Kit v2.5. Sequencing was performed on a Nextseq500 592 593 according to Illumina's instructions.

594 **Processing of Hi-C sequencing data**

All data were processed as previously described ^{8,19}. So that our datasets could be compared 595 596 to those previously published, the raw reads were downloaded from the SRA database 597 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra) and re-processed using our pipeline (Supplementary Table 1). Briefly, reads were aligned independently by Bowtie2 using a very-sensitive and 598 599 iterative approach. Each read was then assigned to a restriction fragment, with uninformative events, such as self-circularized and uncut fragments discarded by filtering. The filtered 600 fragments were then binned into 500 bp, 1 kb or 5 kb segments, and the corresponding contact 601 602 maps generated and normalized using the sequential component normalization (SCN) procedure ¹⁹. 603

604 Calculating generation time of wild-type and mutant strains

Overnight cultures were diluted to $OD_{600nm} \sim 0.05$ and incubated at 45°C. Every 2h, aliquots 605 were collected and serial dilutions made in 18% saltwater (18% SW) containing 2.5M NaCl, 606 607 90 mM MgCl₂ 6H₂O, 90 mM MgSO₄ 7H₂O, 60 mM KCl, 10 mM Tris HCl pH 7.5. 20 µl cell aliquots were then spotted on Hv-YPC plates and individual colonies were counted after 4 608 days of incubation at 45 °C. The curve CFU/ml = f(time) was drawn. One early time-point 609 610 and one late time point were then selected to calculate generation time (G) using the formula: $G = [(t_{Late} - t_{Early})] / [(Log_{10}(N_{Late}) - Log_{10}(N_{Early}) / Log_{10}(2)], t designating time and N the$ 611 612 number of colonies per ml. Generation time measurements were performed at three independent times for each strain, to provide associated standard errors. 613

614 Wide-field microscopy and DNA staining of *H. volcanii* cells

615 DNA was labeled using the fluorescent Hoechst 33342 dye (excitation 361nm / emission 486 nm). Exponentially growing cells were centrifuged and resuspended in an equal volume of 616 18% SW containing 5 µg per ml of Hoechst 33342. Cells were incubated for 10 min in the 617 618 dark and then mounted onto glass slides covered with a thin layer of 1% agarose (suspended 619 in 18% SW solution). DIC and fluorescent images were obtained at room temperature using a ZEISS Axio Observer microscope equipped with a 40x, 1.4 NA oil immersion objective. 620 621 365 nm excitation at a maximum available intensity (2 W.cm⁻²) and filter set 49 (EX G 365, BS FT 395, EM BP 445/50) were used for fluorescence imaging of Hoechst signal. A Z-stack 622 623 (30 slices) centered on DIC focus was performed and data was collected sequentially for DIC and Hoechst signals at each plane. The optical slice with the maximum number of cells at the 624 focus was chosen for further study. 625

626 RNA-seq

Total RNA was extracted from H. volcanii using the Nucleospin RNA Extraction Kit 627 (Macherey-Nagel) according to manufacturers' instructions. After treatment with Turbo 628 DNase (Thermo Fisher), the RNA was purified by phenol extraction (pH 4.5, Amresco) and 629 ethanol precipitation. The RNA was then resuspended in DEPC-treated water. Ribosomal 630 RNA depletion, cDNA library preparation, and illumina PE150 sequencing was performed 631 by Novogene. Three biological replicates were generated for each condition and on average 632 ~7million reads were generated per sample. Clean reads were aligned to the reference genome 633 with HISAT2 using default parameters⁴⁴. Reads were then processed using bamCoverage 634 (implemented in deepTools2⁴⁵) to calculate Reads per Kilobase region per Million mapped 635 reads (RPKM) for genomic bins of a fixed size. Bin size was determined by the Hi-C map 636 that the RNA-seq data was being compared to (typically 1 kb or 5 kb bins). 637

638 Directional index analysis

The directional index (DI) is a statistical parameter that quantifies the degree of upstream and downstream contact biases for a genomic region⁴⁶. It is based on a t-test between vectors to the left and right of each bin, up to a certain scale. We utilized a workflow that has been described previously⁸ to perform a DI analysis for domains consistent with the scale of bacterial CIDs (100 kb) and larger structures such as macrodomains (300 kb).

644 Identification of compartments

The compartment index was calculated as described previously⁴⁷. For each Hi-C matrix, a distance-normalized matrix was generated. These matrices were then converted into Pearson correlation matrices and from this, the eigenvalues and first eigenvector were calculated. The eigenvector allows the A and B compartments to be attributed. Positive and negative eigenvalues were arbitrarily chosen to correspond to the A and B compartments respectively.

650 Detection of chromosomal loops and borders using Chromosight

651 Chromosight is an algorithm based on computer vision approaches that are capable of automatically detecting common patterns seen in Hi-C contact maps²⁸. These patterns are then 652 associated with a score (Pearson coefficient) which allows for the interpretation of results and 653 the comparison of different mutants/treatments. We applied Chromosight to each of our H. 654 volcanii matrices (5 kb bin) and searched for loops (Pearson: 0.38), borders (Pearson: 0.2), 655 and hairpins (default parameters). We detected both loops and borders in our Hi-C matrices 656 657 but failed to detect any hairpin structures. We then used Chromosight to compare loop and border scores between wild-type and mutant/treated cells to determine the effect on these finer 658 659 chromosome structures.

660 Phylogenetic tree of SMCs, Rad50, and ClsN in different archaeal lineages

The tree shown in Figure 4 has been adapted from two previous studies ^{13,48} with the addition 661 of details about the conservation of Rad50 in the different archaeal lineages. To identify 662 probable homologs of Rad50, we used the sequence of human Rad50 as a query (accession 663 number: AAB07119.1) to perform a BLAST search against available archaeal genomes⁴⁹. We 664 then classified the hits into one of four groups: i) present, ii) absent, iii) distant homologs 665 666 present in all species, iv) distant homologs present in some species. From this, we conclude that, like canonical SMCs, Rad50 is present in many euryarchaeal species and although Rad50 667 668 has been observed in the Asgard and Tack groups, it seems to be less conserved for the species within these groups. 669

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677 Author Contributions

- 678 C.C, R.L, and R.K conceived of the study and designed the experiments. C.C. and A.T,
- adapted the Hi-C protocol. C.C, A.T, and R.L performed experiments. C.C did the analysis.
- 680 C.C and R.K wrote the manuscript.
- 681

682 **Declaration of interest**

- 683 The authors declare no competing interests.
- 684

685 Data Availability

- 686 Sample description and raw sequences are accessible on SRA database through the following
- 687 accession number: PRJNA587586.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1: Improved bacterial contact maps using an optimized Hi-C assay

(a) Overview of the Hi-C protocol, highlighting the steps that have been optimized. Normalized Hi-C contact maps of asynchronously growing populations of WT bacterial cells. The X and Y axes represent the coordinates of the chromosome and the colorscale reflects the frequency of contacts between two regions of the genome (arbitrary units), from white (rare contacts) to dark red (frequent contacts). Features of interest are indicated along the top axis. (b) Hi-C contact matrix of WT E. coli binned at 5 kb. (c) Hi-C contact matrix of WT V. cholera binned at 5 kb. (d and e) Side-by-side comparison of the 800 kb region surrounding the terminus of replication dif, from both the new and originally published contact maps (Lioy et al., Cell, 2018). Matrices are binned at either 5 kb or 0.5 kb. (f) Side-by-side comparison of a 50 kb region surrounding the *fliF-R* operon from both the new and originally published contact maps (Lioy et al 2018), with 0.5 kb binning. (g) Side-by-side comparison of a 50 kb region surrounding the *flgB-J* operon from both the new and originally published contact maps (Lioy et al 2018), with 0.5 kb binning. (h) Side-by-side comparison of 250 kb region surrounding the superintegron located on chromosome 2 of V. cholera from both the new and originally published contact maps (Val et al., Science Advances, 2016). (i) Percentage of 3D intra- and 3D inter-chromosomal events obtained from V. cholera obtained through the new and published approaches. (j) Side-by-side comparison of inter-chromosomal contact maps (bin: 5 kb) centered on *dif* (top panels) or *ori* (bottom panels) of chromosomes 1 and 2 obtained from data obtained using the new and published approaches (Val et al., Science Advances, 2016). The crtS site is indicated.

Figure 2: Chromosomal organization of H. volcanii

Normalized Hi-C contact maps of asynchronously growing populations of WT *H. volcanii* cells. The X and Y axes represent the coordinates of the chromosome and the colorscale reflects the frequency of contacts between two regions of the genome (arbitrary units), from

white (rare contacts) to dark red (frequent contacts). Features of interest are indicated along the top axis. (a) Hi-C contact matrix of WT *H. volcanii* binned at 5 kb. (b) Directionality index analysis (300 kb scale), downstream (yellow), and upstream (grey) biases are indicated. (c) Directionality index analysis similar to that shown in (b) but at the scale of 100 kb. (d) RNAseq depicting the transcription levels across the genome. (d) Directionality index analysis similar to that shown in (b) but at the scale of 100 kb. (e) Principle component analysis of the matrices in (b and c) based on the Pearson correlation matrices. The first principle component is shown as a compartment index. (f) GC content (50 kb sliding window) of the genome. (gi) Magnifications of the 85 kb pHV1 chromosome, 437.9 kb pHV3 chromosome, and a 1 Mb region (coordinates: 65 kb - 1,065 kb) surrounding the pHV4 chromosome which has integrated into the main chromosome. For each magnification, the location of insertion (IS) elements, GC percentage (1 kb binning), and RNA-seq are shown. (j) Magnification of 1 Mb region of the main chromosome (coordinates 800kb - 1800 kb). The position of chromosomal loops and borders that have been detected with Chromosight are indicated in black and blue respectively. (k) Bar plot showing the average number of borders and loops detected in the entire genome of an exponentially growing culture of H. volcanii (detected using Chromosight, n=3). Associated pileup plots of windows centered on the detected loops in each condition are shown in the panels above.

Figure 3: Effect of transcription on the chromosome organization of *H. volcanii*

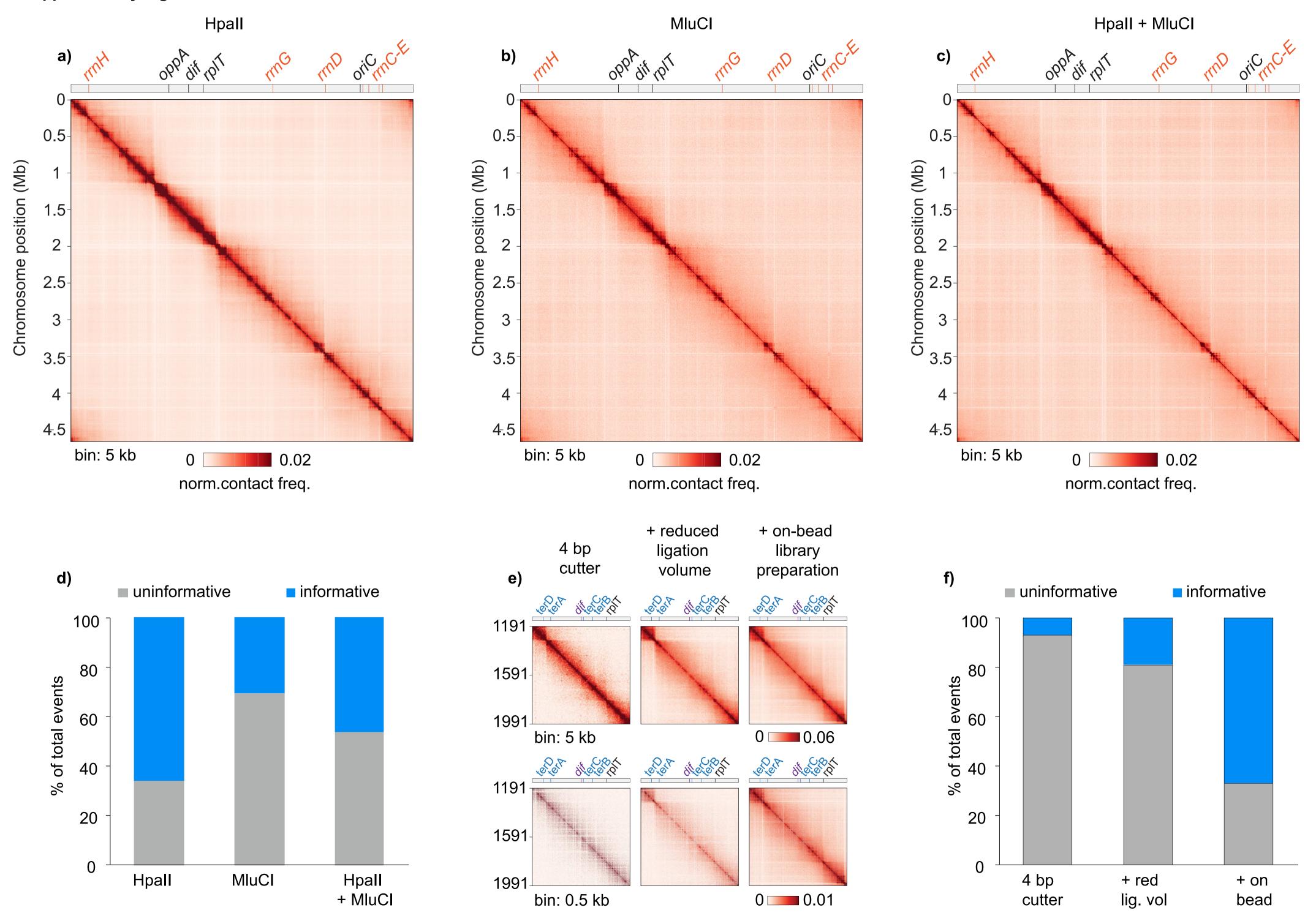
Normalized Hi-C contact maps of asynchronously growing populations of WT and mutant *H*. *volcanii* cells (5 kb bin). The X and Y axes represent the coordinates of the chromosome and the colorscale reflects the frequency of contacts between two regions of the genome (arbitrary units), from white (rare contacts) to dark red (frequent contacts). Features of interest are indicated along the top axis. (a and b) Hi-C contact matrix of WT *H. volcanii* growing in either exponential or stationary phase. For both conditions, the compartment index and RNA-seq are shown. (c) Differential contact map corresponding to the log2 ratio of Hi-C interactions

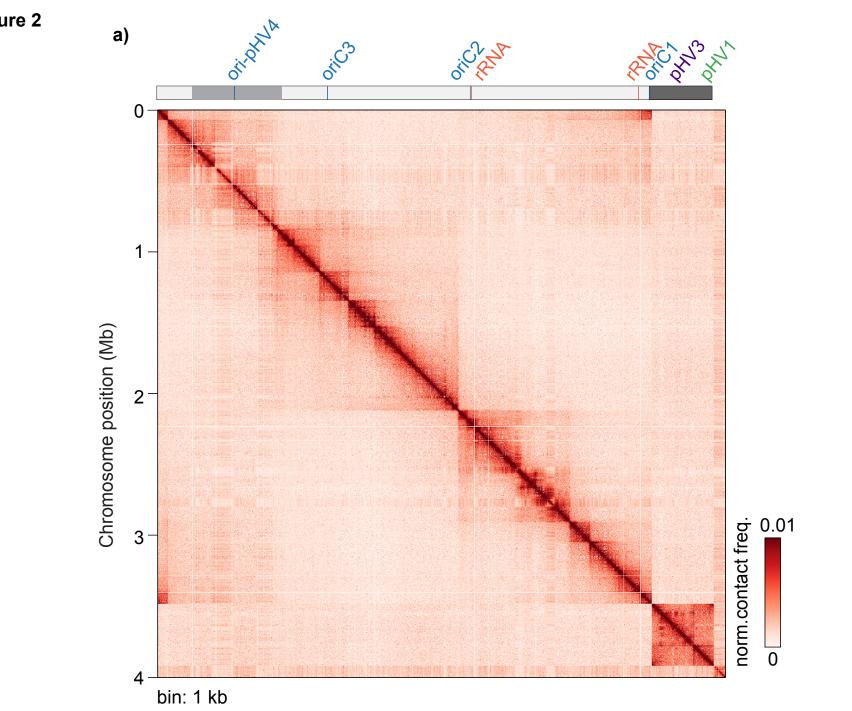
between exponential and stationary phase cultures. Blue to red colorscale reflects the enrichment in contacts in one population with respect to the other, white indicates no difference. (d) Magnifications of the 437.9 kb pHV3 chromosome, and a 1 Mb region of the main chromosome (coordinates: 800 kb – 1,800 kb) for exponential and stationary phase cultures. (e and f) Hi-C contact matrix of WT *H. volcanii* growing in the presence of DMSO (control) or actinomycin D. The compartment index is also shown for both conditions. (g) Differential contact map corresponding to the log2 ratio of Hi-C interactions between actinomycin D treated cells and the DMSO control. (h and i) Magnifications of the 437.9 kb pHV3 chromosome, and a 1 Mb region of the main chromosome (coordinates: 800 kb – 1,800 kb) for actinomycin D treated cells and the DMSO control. (j) Comparison of loop score distributions obtained using Chromosight for the Hi-C matrices shown in panels (a), (b), (e), and (f). The number of loops detected and the mean of the Pearson coefficient for each condition is shown above (n=2).

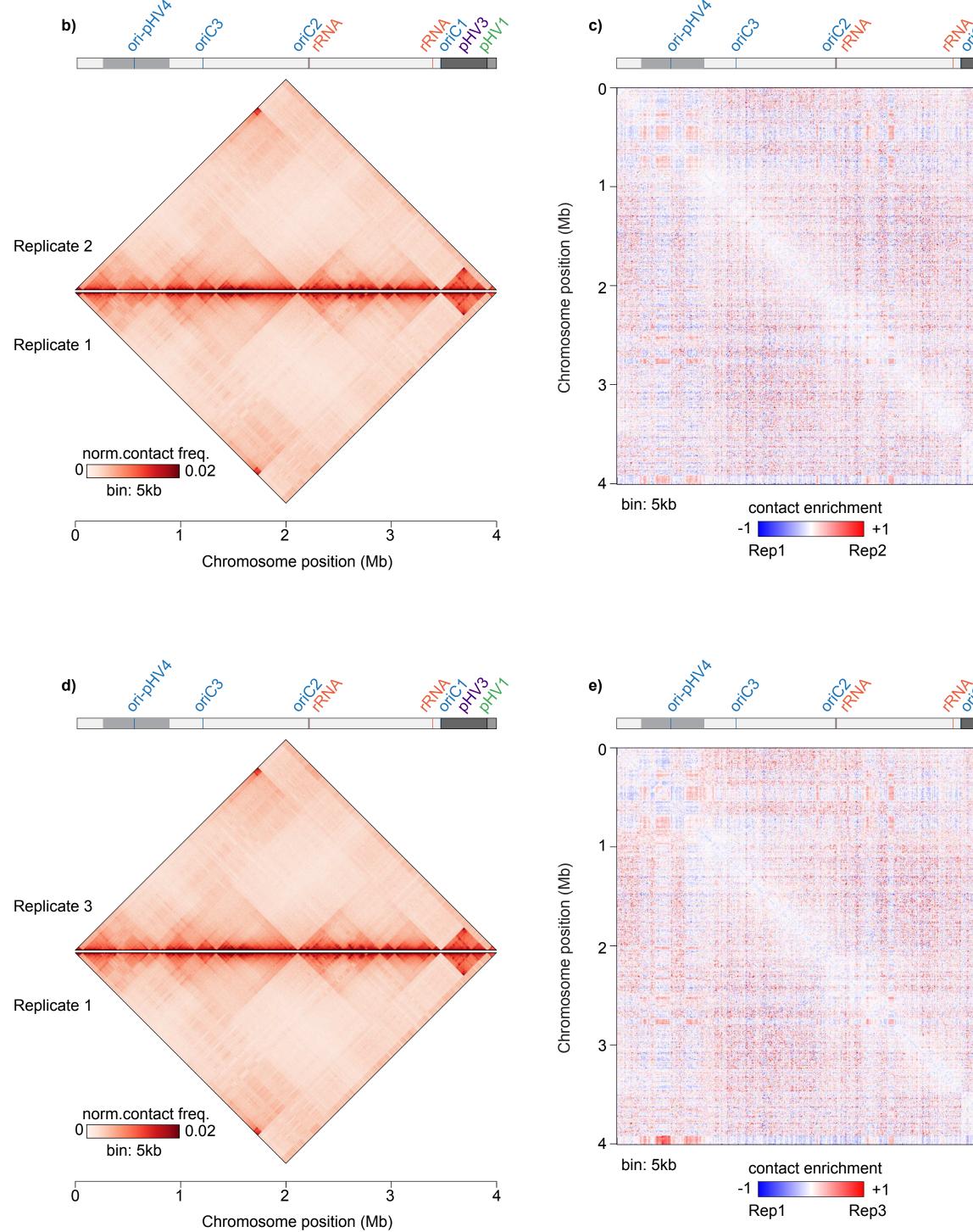
Figure 4: Role of SMCs in *H. volcanii* chromosome organization.

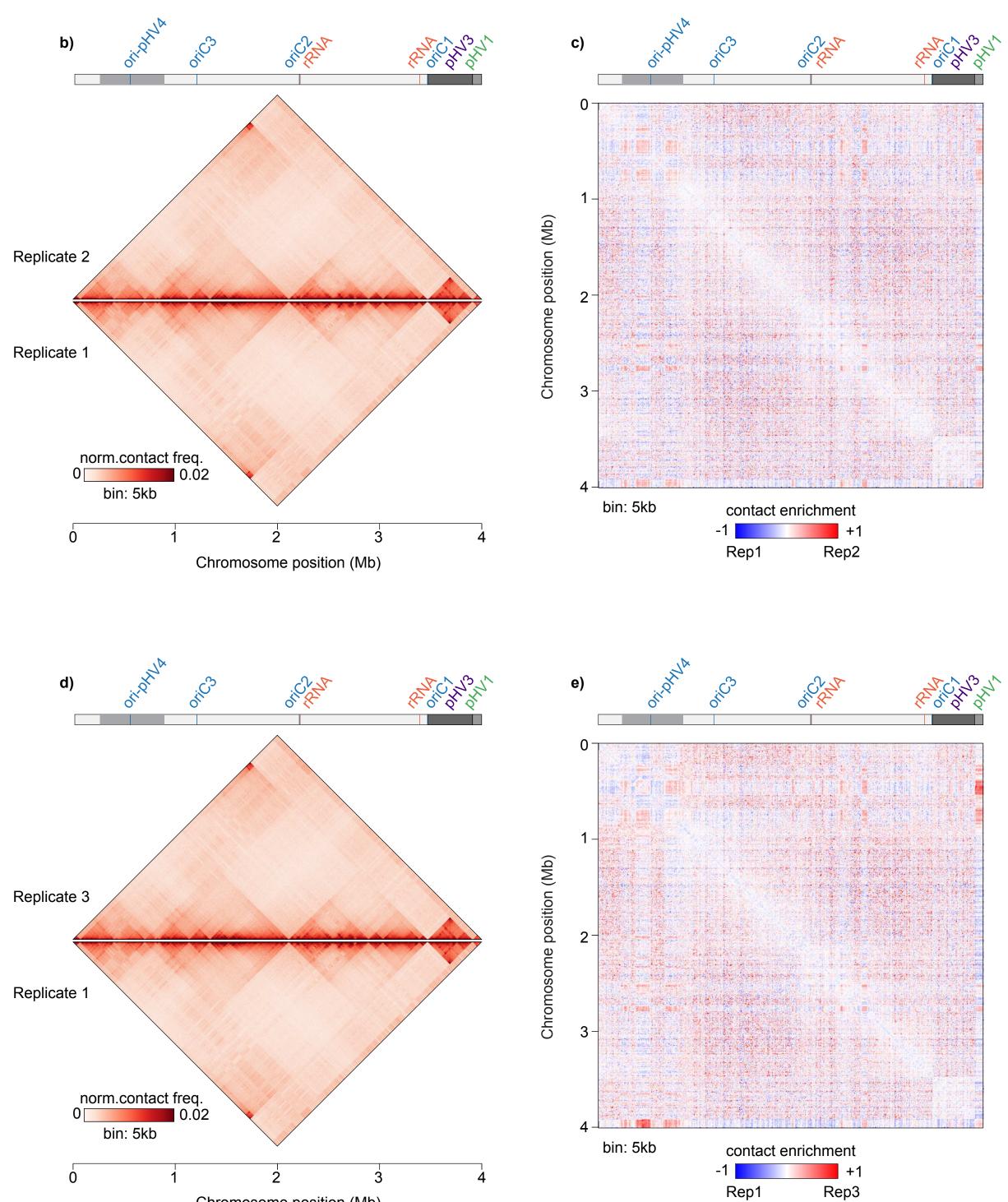
(a) Phylogenetic tree showing the conservation of canonical SMCs, Rad50, and the recently identified Coalescin (ClsN) proteins between different archaeal lineages. Adapted from ^{13,48} and explained in the Materials and Methods. (b) Generation times of wild-type (WT), Δ *smc*, and Δ *mre11 rad50*. Error bars represent the standard deviation of the mean where n >3. p values are based on t-test comparisons between each mutant and the WT strain. (c Images of DIC, Hoechst signal and the merge image (DIC signal in grey and the DNA signal in cyan) of WT, Δ *smc*, and Δ *mre11 rad50* cells. Scale bar = 5 µm. (d) Normalized Hi-C contact maps of asynchronously growing populations of WT and Δ *smc* mutant cells (5 kb bin). The X and Y axes represent the coordinates of the chromosome and the colorscale reflects the frequency of contacts between two regions of the genome (arbitrary units), from white (rare contacts) to dark red (frequent contacts). Features of interest are indicated along the top axis. (e) Differential contact map corresponding to the log2 ratio of Hi-C interactions between WT and

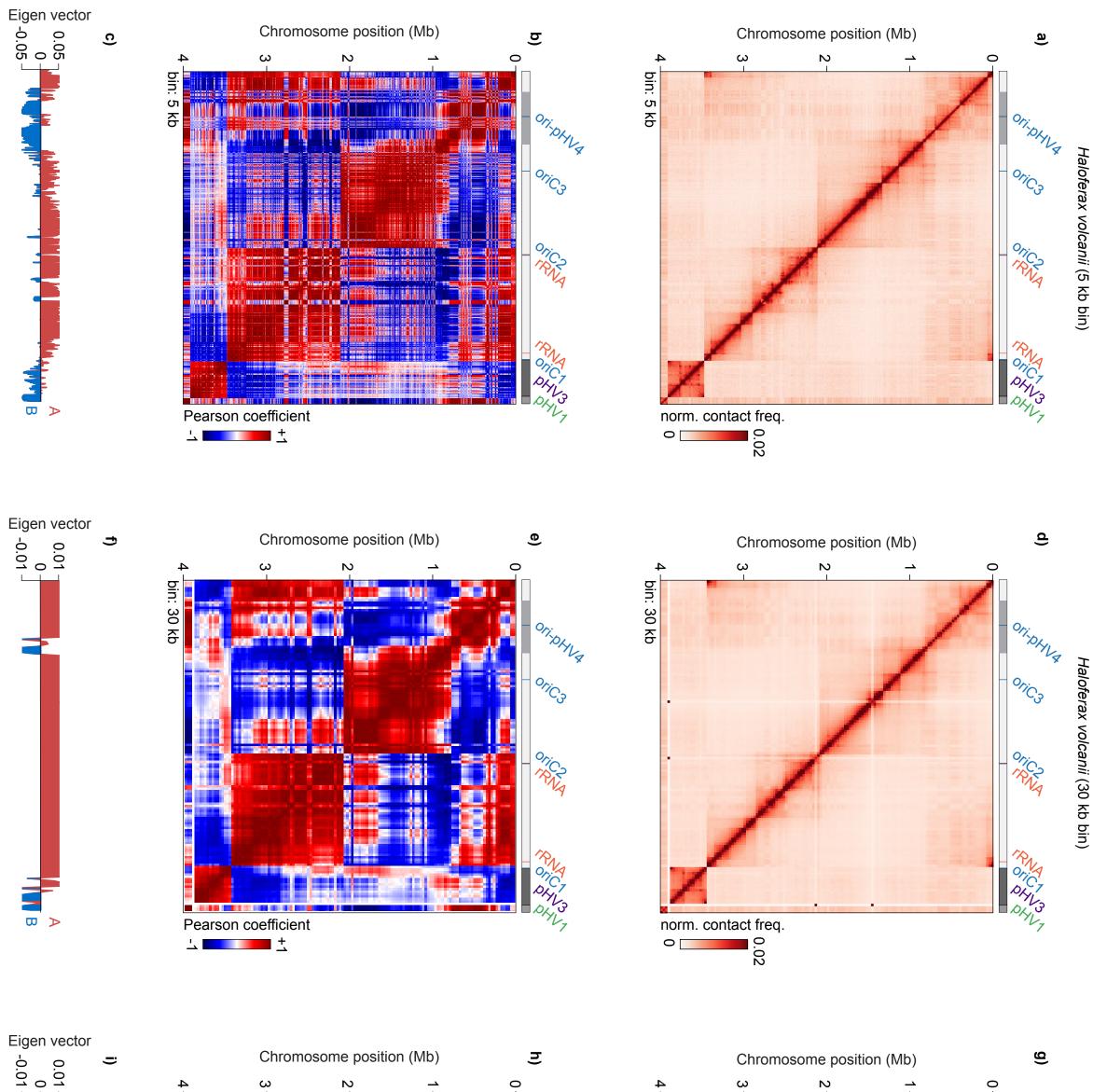
 Δsmc mutant cells. Blue to red colorscale reflects the enrichment in contacts in one population with respect to the other, white indicates no difference. (f) Normalized Hi-C contact maps of asynchronously growing populations of WT and $\Delta mre11 \ rad50$ mutant cells (5 kb bin). (g) Differential contact map corresponding to the log2 ratio of Hi-C interactions between WT and $\Delta mre11 \ rad50$ mutant cells. (h) Magnification of 1 Mb region of the main chromosome (coordinates 1620 kb – 2620 kb) for WT, Δsmc , and $\Delta mre11 \ rad50$ mutant cells. The position of chromosomal loops and borders that have been detected with Chromosight²⁸ are indicated in black and blue respectively. (i) Comparison of loop score distributions obtained using Chromosight for the Hi-C matrices shown in panels (d) and (f). The number of loops detected and the mean of the Pearson coefficient for each condition is shown above (n=2).









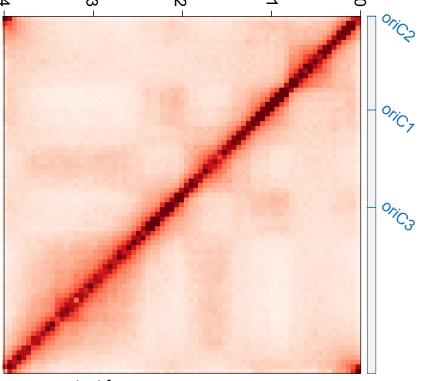


Haloferax volcanii (30 kb bin)



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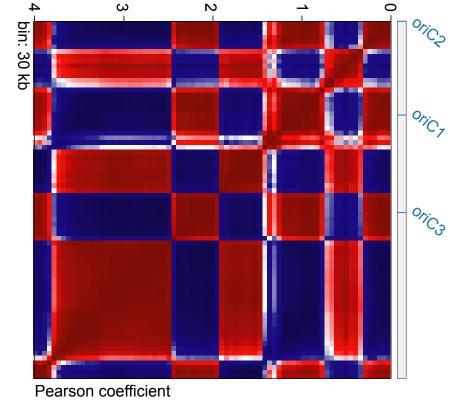
Chromosome position (Mb)

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ω



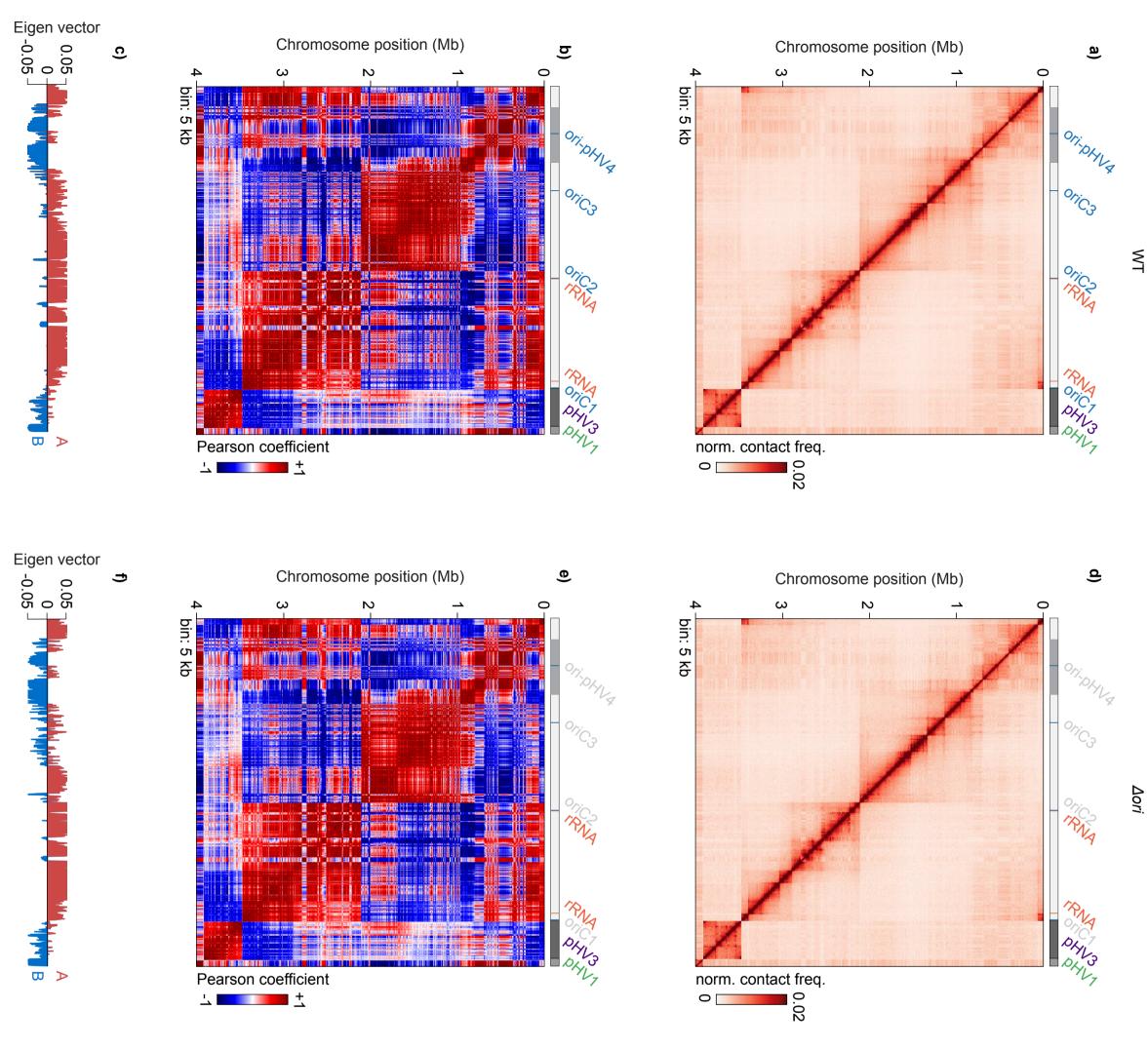
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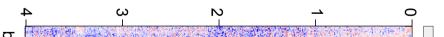


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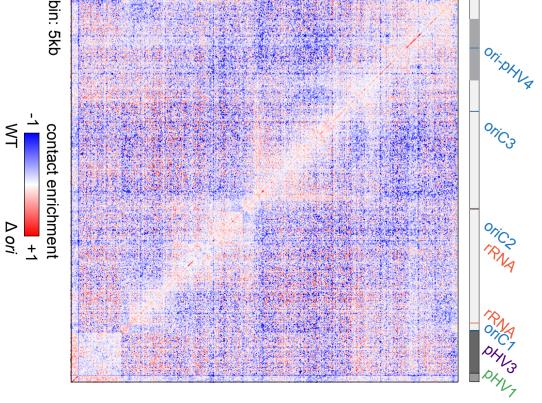




Chromosome position (Mb)

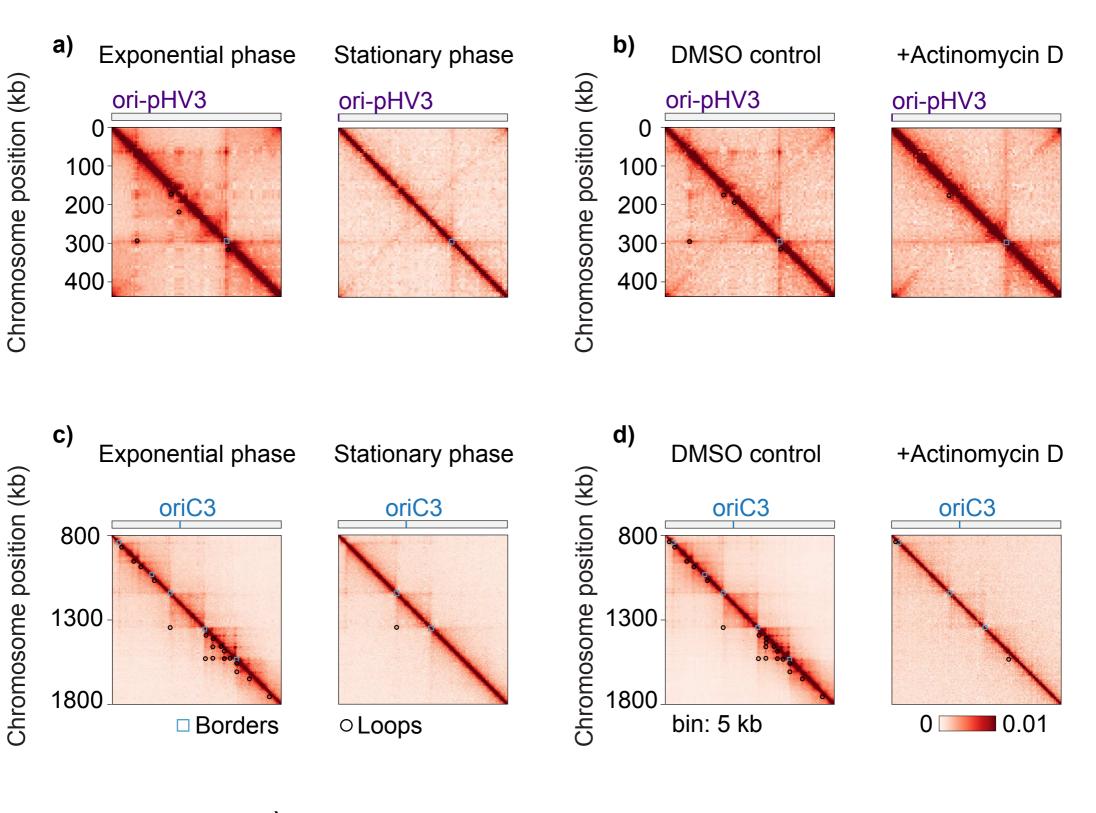


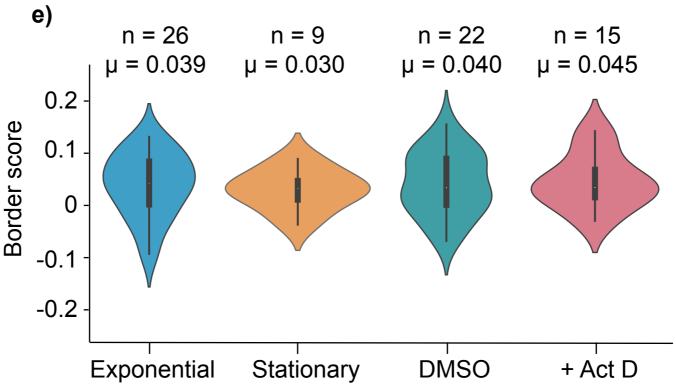
Supplementary Figure 4

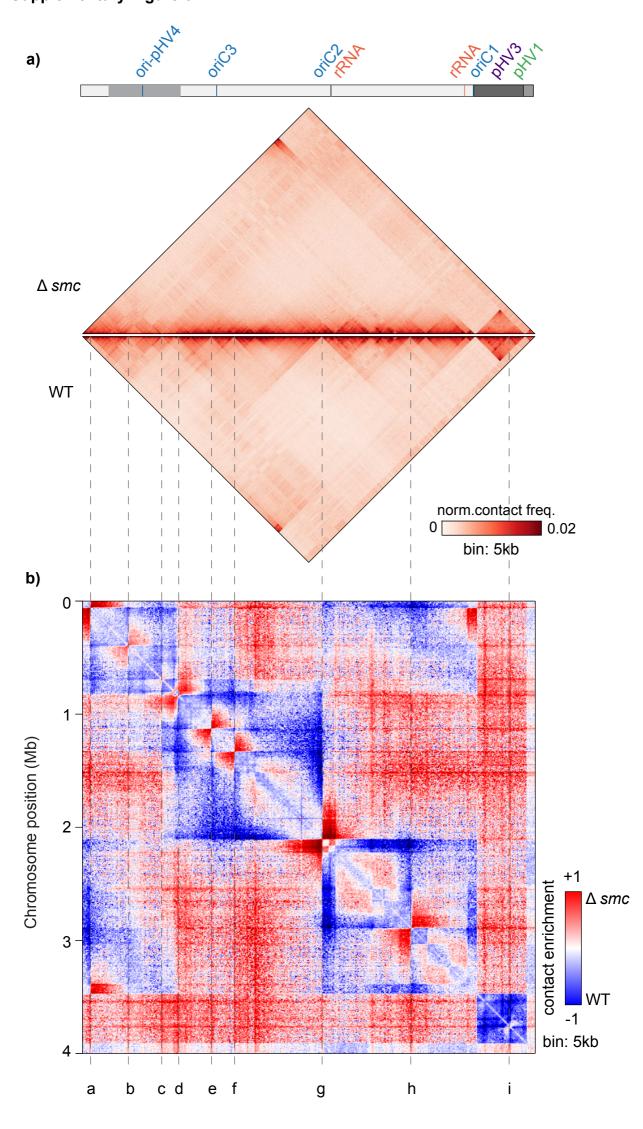


∆ori | WT

<u>g</u>)







c)

Border	Chromsome	Approx position (bp)	Closest gene	Proposed function
а	Main	71,500	HVO_0069	arylsulphatase
b	Main - pHV4	405,500	HVO_A0132	ISH16 transposase
с	Main - pHV4	701,000	HVO_A0463	rnh RNaseH
d	Main - pHV4	846,000	HVO_A0311	HalC8 putative halocin C8
е	Main	1,141,000	HVO_0568	Transcription regulator
f	Main	1,345,500	HVO_0791	ogt DNA methyltransferase
g	Main	2,120,000	HVO_1615	RNase H-like domain- containing protein
h	Main	2,904,500	HVO_2401	Glycine cleavage system P-protein
I	pHV3	295,500	HVO_B0248	SDR oxidoreductase

Supplementary Figure 1: Comparison of different 4bp cutting restriction enzymes on Hi-C contact maps

Normalized Hi-C matrices of asynchronously growing populations of WT *E. coli*. The X and Y axes represent the coordinates of the chromosome and the colorscale reflects the frequency of contacts between two regions of the genome (arbitrary units), from white (rare contacts) to dark red (frequent contacts). Features of interest are indicated along the top axis. (a-c) Whole-genome plot of *E. coli* Hi-C experiments using either HpaII, MluCI, or a combination of the two restriction enzymes (5 kb bin). (d) Percentage of uninformative (grey), and 3D intra-chromosomal (blue) events obtained using each of the enzymes described in panels a-c. (e) Side-by-side comparison of the 800 kb region surrounding the terminus of replication *dif*, demonstrating the contribution of each optimization step (shown in Figure 1a) to the resulting Hi-C contact maps and comparing them to previously published results (Lioy *et al.*, Cell, 2018). Matrices are binned at either 5 kb or 0.5 kb. (f) Bar chart showing the combined contribution of each improvement (shown in e) to the percentage of informative reads obtained from a given Hi-C experiment in *E. coli*.

Supplementary Figure 2: Reproducibility of H. volcanii Hi-C contact maps

(a) Normalized Hi-C contact map of asynchronously growing populations of WT *H. volcanii* cells (1 kb bin). The X and Y axes represent the coordinates of the chromosome and the colorscale reflects the frequency of contacts between two regions of the genome (arbitrary units), from white (rare contacts) to dark red (frequent contacts). Features of interest are indicated along the top axis. (b) Normalized Hi-C contact maps of asynchronously growing populations *H. volcanii* wild-type replicates 1 and 2 (5 kb bin). (c) Differential contact map corresponding to the log2 ratio of Hi-C interactions between replicate 1 and replicate 2 WT cultures. Blue to red colorscale reflects the enrichment in contacts in one population with respect to the other, white indicates no difference. (d) Normalized Hi-C contact maps of asynchronously growing populations *H. volcanii* wild-type replicates 1 and 3 (5 kb bin). (e)

Differential contact map corresponding to the log2 ratio of Hi-C interactions between replicate 1 and replicate 3 WT cultures.

Supplementary Figure 3: Comparison of compartment-like structures in *H. volcanii* and *S. acidcaldarius*

(a) Normalized Hi-C contact map of an asynchronously growing population of WT *H. volcanii* cells. The X and Y axes represent the coordinates of the chromosome and the colorscale reflects the frequency of contacts between two regions of the genome (arbitrary units), from white (rare contacts) to dark red (frequent contacts). Features of interest are indicated along the top axis (5 kb bin). (b) The matrix in (a) converted into a Pearson correlation matrix. (c) Principal component analysis was performed on the matrix in (b) and the first principle component is shown as a compartment index. (d-f) Hi-C contact matrix, Pearson correlation matrix, and principal component analysis using the same data as (a-c) but re-binned (30 kb bin). (g-i) Hi-C contact matrix, Pearson correlation matrix, and principal component analysis using the same data as (a-c) but re-binned (30 kb bin). (g-i) Hi-C contact matrix, Pearson correlation matrix, and principal component analysis of *S. acidocaldarius*¹³ using the same workflow as used for (a-f).

Supplementary Figure 4: The genome organization of *H. volcanii* is unaffected by replication inactivation

(a) Normalized Hi-C contact map of an asynchronously growing population of WT *H. volcanii* cells. The X and Y axes represent the coordinates of the chromosome and the colorscale reflects the frequency of contacts between two regions of the genome (arbitrary units), from white (rare contacts) to dark red (frequent contacts). Features of interest are indicated along the top axis (5 kb bin). (b) The matrix in (a) converted into a Pearson correlation matrix. (c) Principal component analysis was performed on the matrix in (b) and the first principle component is shown as a compartment index. (d-f) Hi-C contact matrix, Pearson correlation matrix, and principal component analysis of a Δori mutant (*oriC1-3* and *ori-pHV4* have been deleted). (g) Differential contact map corresponding to the log2 ratio of Hi-C interactions between WT and Δ *ori* mutant cells. Blue to red colorscale reflects the enrichment in contacts in one population with respect to the other, white indicates no difference.

Supplementary Figure 5: Measuring the effect of transcription on the *H. volcanii* chromosomal borders

Normalized Hi-C contact maps of asynchronously growing populations of WT and mutant *H. volcanii* cells (5 kb bin). The X and Y axes represent the coordinates of the chromosome and the colorscale reflects the frequency of contacts between two regions of the genome (arbitrary units), from white (rare contacts) to dark red (frequent contacts). Features of interest are indicated along the top axis. (a) Magnification of the 437.9 kb pHV3 chromosome from exponentially growing and stationary phase cultures. The position of chromosomal loops and borders that have been detected with Chromosight²⁸ are indicated in black and blue respectively. (b) Magnification of the 437.9 kb pHV3 chromosome from cells grown in the presence/absence of actinomycin D. (c) Magnification of a 1 Mb region of the main chromosome (coordinates: 800 kb – 1,800 kb) from exponentially growing and stationary phase cultures. (d) Magnification of a 1 Mb region of the main chromosome (coordinates: 800 kb – 1,800 kb) from exponentially growing and stationary phase cultures. (d) Magnification of a 1 Mb region of the main chromosome (coordinates: 800 kb – 1,800 kb) from exponentially growing and stationary phase cultures. (d) Magnification of a 1 Mb region of the main chromosome (coordinates: 800 kb – 1,800 kb) from cells grown in the presence/absence of actinomycin D. (e) Comparison of border score distributions obtained using Chromosight for the Hi-C matrices shown in panels (d) and (f). The number of borders detected and the mean of the Pearson coefficient for each condition is shown above (n=2).

Supplementary Figure 6: Mapping chromosomal borders in *Asmc* mutant cells

(a) Normalized Hi-C contact maps of asynchronously growing populations of WT and Δsmc mutant cells (5 kb bin). The X and Y axes represent the coordinates of the chromosome and the colorscale reflects the frequency of contacts between two regions of the genome (arbitrary units), from white (rare contacts) to dark red (frequent contacts). Features of interest are indicated along the top axis. (b) Differential contact map corresponding to the log2 ratio of Hi-C interactions between WT and Δsmc mutant cells. Blue to red colorscale reflects the enrichment in contacts in one population with respect to the other, white indicates no difference. Chromosomal borders that have been lost in Δsmc mutant are highlighted by dashed lines. (c) Table showing the location and approximate genomic coordinates of the borders lost in Δsmc mutant cells. The closest gene to each border and its proposed function is also noted.

Supplementary Table 1: Statistics of Hi-C experiments performed in this study compared to published data

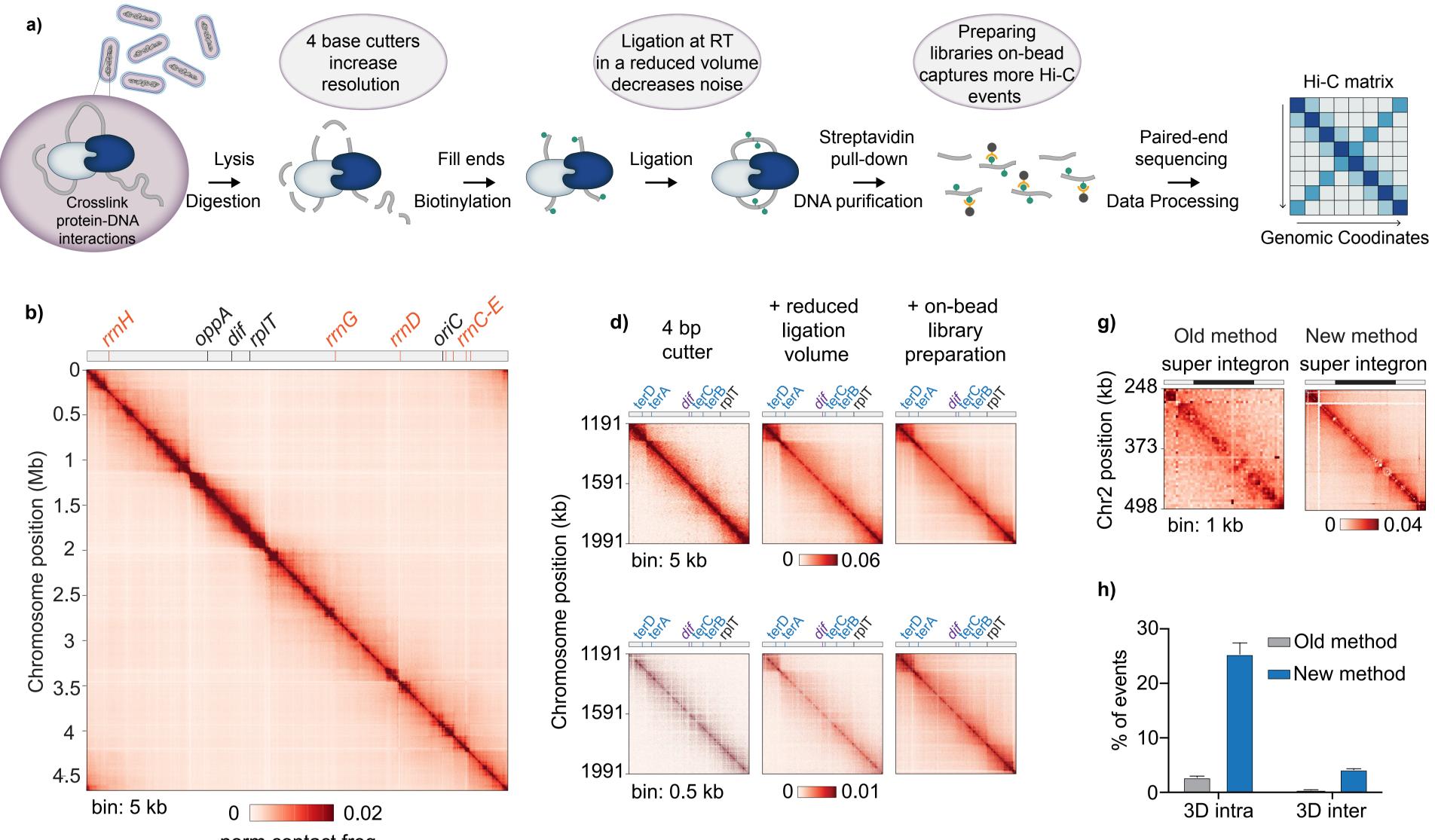
	ID cells	Total no. of	cells in Enzyme	Total no. of fragments	Median fragment size (bp)	Max. resolution of contact map	+/- biotin		Percentage of events		Percentage of reads in														
Organism								Total no. reads	uncut	3D intra	3D inter	final matrix/total no. reads	Reference												
	CC328								Heall	24312	100		+	136318986	35	65	0	44%	This study						
	CC334		Hpall	24312	122	0.5 kb	+	65791890	33	67	0	42%	This study												
E coli	CC335	1 x 10 ⁸	MluCl	19660	138		+	47649120	70	30	0	26%	This study												
E. coli	CC336		Hpall + MluCl	43971	72		+	53225732	49	51	0	41%	This study												
	SRR6354565	1-2 x 10 ⁹	Hpall	24312	122	5 kb	-	88615212	93	7	0	6%	8												
V. cholera	CC340	1 x 10 ⁸	Hpall	7713	318	1 kb	+	229263798	73	22	5	20%	This study												
v. cholera	SRR3180994	1 x 10 ⁹	прап	7715	510	5 kb	-	170426044	97	3	0	1%	16												
C. crescentus	SRR824843	2.5 x 10 ⁸	BgIII 701	3711	10 kb	+	34822386	30	70	0	37%	7													
C. Crescentus	SRR824846	2.5 X 10°	Ncol	2026	1299	TU KD	+	47673122	32	68	0	48%	7												
	CC363					+	296443022	46	43	11	26%	This study													
	CC364	-		all 31557	72						+	54669004	78	18	4	9%	This study								
	CC375										I	 	, I	, I	1	, I			+	140191394	58.22	35.78	6	20%	This study
	CC378											+	259909492	65.4	29.46	5.15	19%	This study							
	CC397		Hpall				+	137148304	64.6	29.08	6.32	21%	This study												
H. volcanii	CC398	1 x 10 ⁸				72	72	72	1 kb	+	131549348	51.59	39.83	8.58	31%	This study									
TT. VOICAIIII	CC399		прап	51557					12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	TKD	+	132842414	68.03	25.74	6.23	17%	This study
	CC400						+	157435870	73.35	22.69	3.96	14%	This study												
	CC401						+	130977656	76.93	19.77	3.31	11%	This study												
	CC402						+	135893168	60.43	32.57	7	25%	This study												
	CC403					-	+	92187088	85.46	11.3	3.06	8%	This study												
	CC404						+	110172672	61.58	30.96	7.46	21%	This study												
S. acidocaldarius	SRR8699877	4 x 10°	HindIII	808	1838	30 kb	+	117648700	47	53	0	10%	13												
S. islandicus	SRR8699887			1179	1477	<u> </u>	+	139639604	23	77	0	42%	13												

Strains					
Name	Genotype	Source			
E.coli K12 MG1655	F- lambda- ilvG- rfb-50 rph-1	37			
V. cholera N16961	Vibrio cholera O1 El Tor N16961	38			
H.volcanii (wild-type)	H. volcanii H26 ΔpyrE2	39			
H. volcanii Δ <i>mre11 rad50</i> (H161)	H26 ΔpyrE2 Δmre11 Δrad50	29			
H. volcanii Δ <i>ori</i> (H1546)	H26 ΔpyrE2 ΔtrpA ΔoriC1 ΔoriC2 ΔoriC3 Δori-pHV4::trpA	22			
H26 Δ <i>smc</i> (HvRL138)	H26 ΔpyrE2 Δsmc	This study			
XL1-Blue MRF'	ΔmcrA183 ΔmcrCB-hsdSMR-mrr173 endA1 supE44 thi-1 recA1 gyrA96 relA1 lac [F' proAB lacIqZΔM15 Tn10	Agilent technologies			
GM121	F ⁻ dam ⁻ 3 dcm ⁻ 6 ara ⁻ 14 fhuA31 galK2 galT22 hdsR3 lacY1 leu-6 thi-1 thr-1 tsx-78	50			

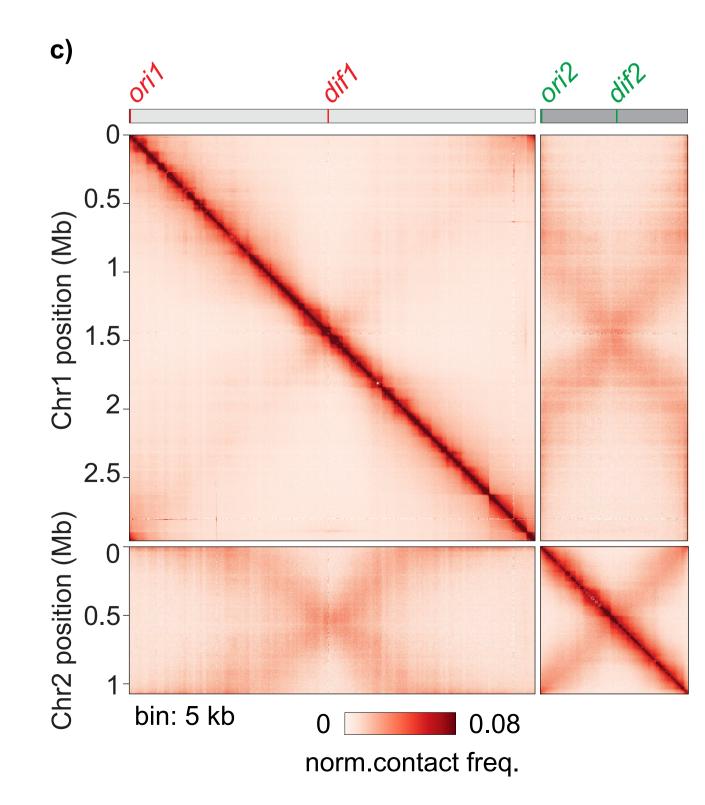
Plasmids					
Name	Genotype	Source			
pTA131	pBluescript II containing pyrE2 under ferredoxin promoter	39			
pRL93	PTA131 Δsmc	This study			

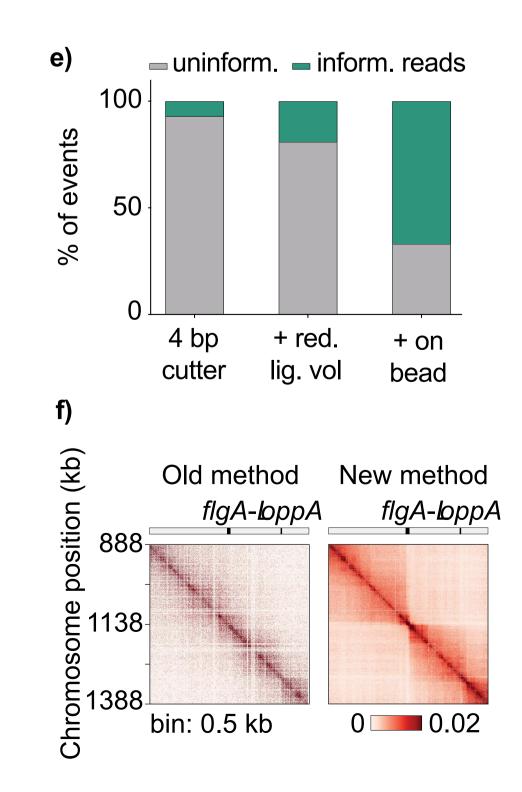
Primers				
Name	Sequence (5' - 3')	Source		
RL292	AGGTCGACGGTATCGATAAGCTTGATATCGGACGCACATTTATGTCTCACG	This study		
RL294	TGCGGGCGTCGCCCGCGTGAACACCAACCCATGACTGACGACATCCCCGAAC	This study		
RL295	AAAAGCTGGAGCTCCACCGCGGTGGCGGCCTCCAGCGCGTCGATTGGGTCG	This study		
RL296	GGGTTGGTGTTCACGCGGGCG	This study		
pBSF2	TTAAGTTGGGTAACGCCAGGG	This study		
pBSF3	ACCCCAGGCTTTACACTTTATGC	This study		
RL305	GCCGTCACGACCATCCTCAAC	This study		
RL310	GTTGTCGGGCTCGCGCGGCAG	This study		

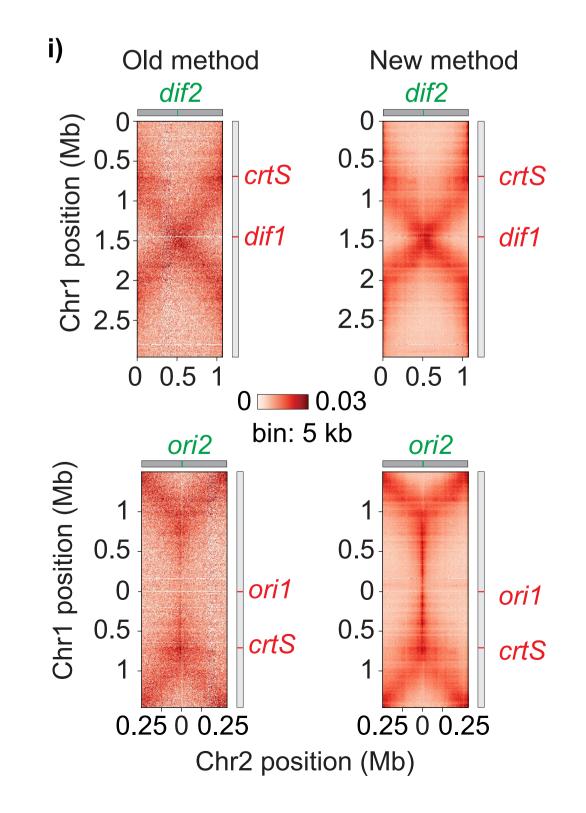
Figure 1

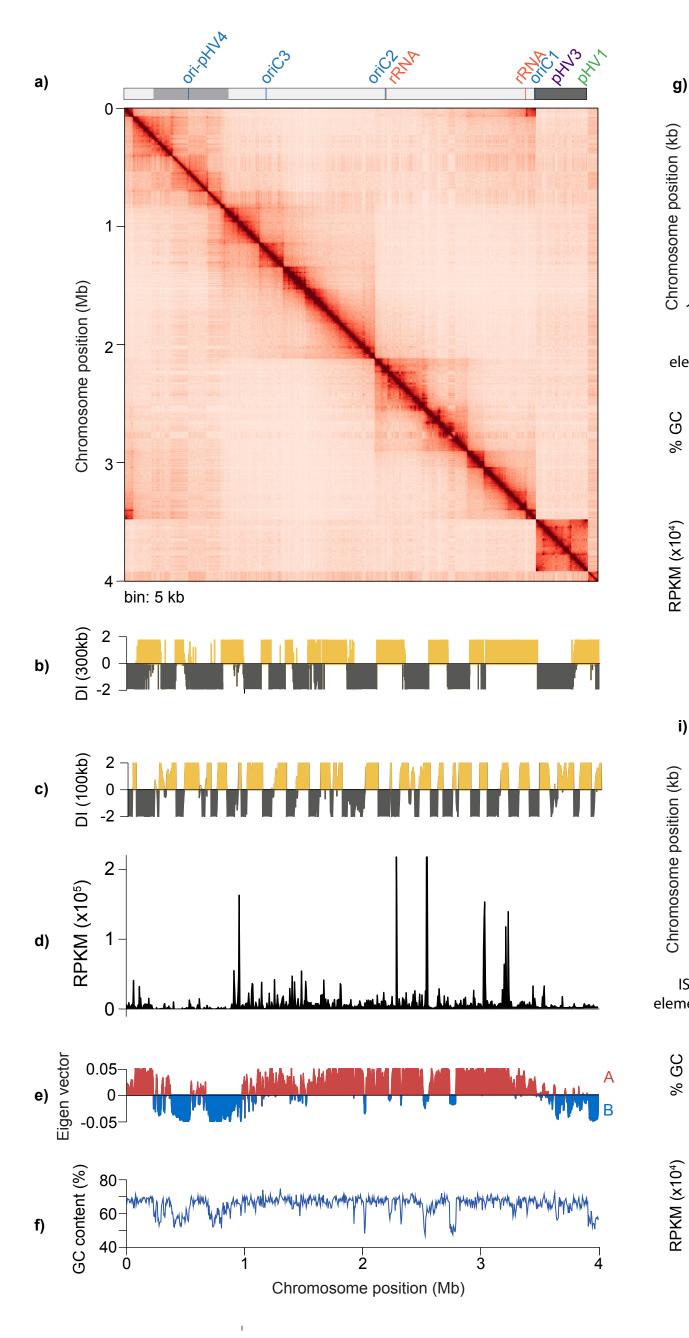


norm.contact freq.









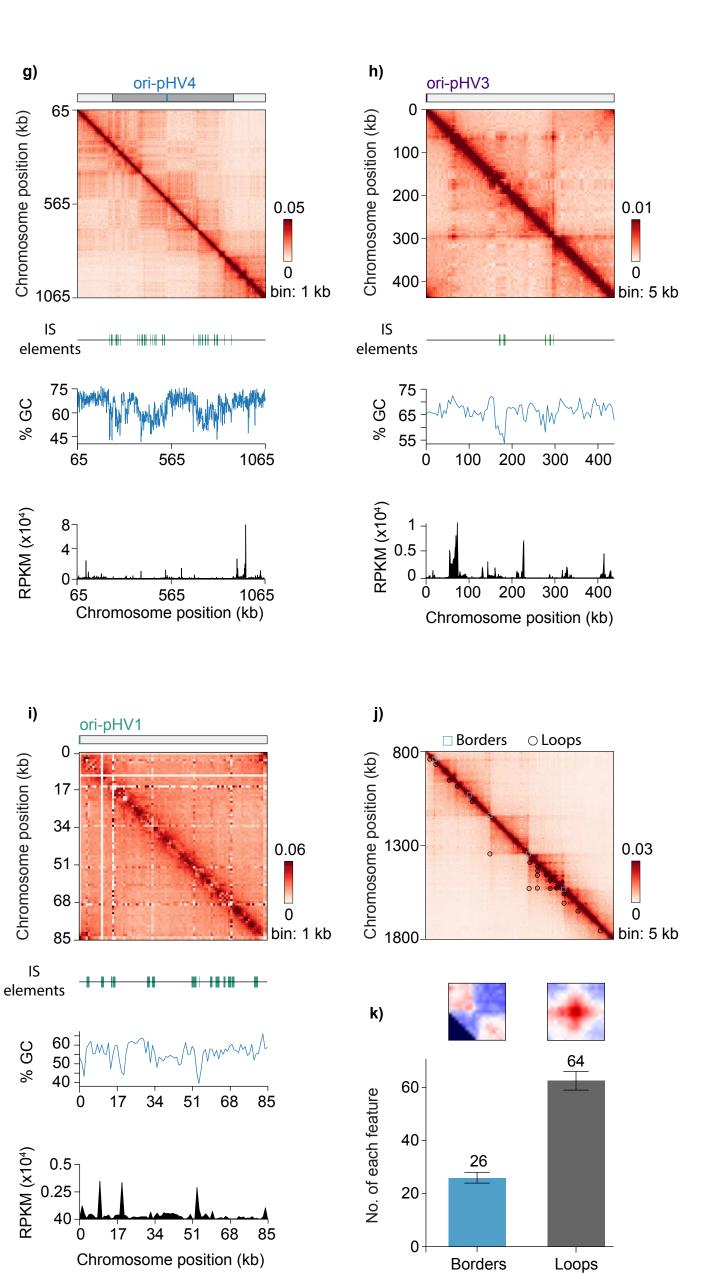
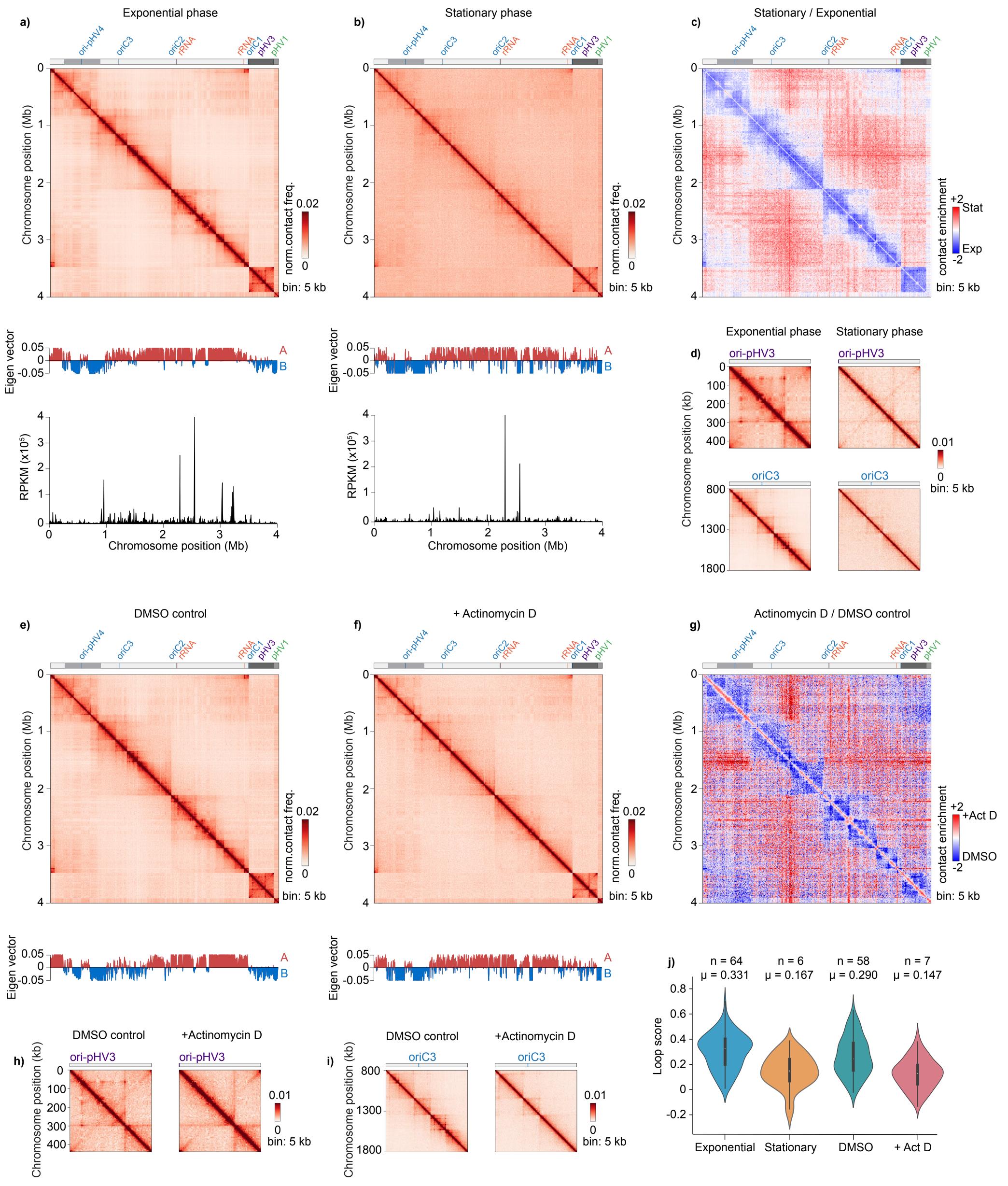
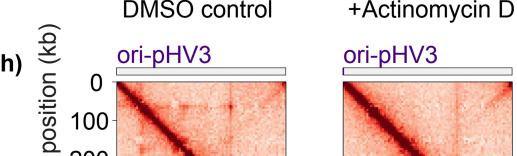
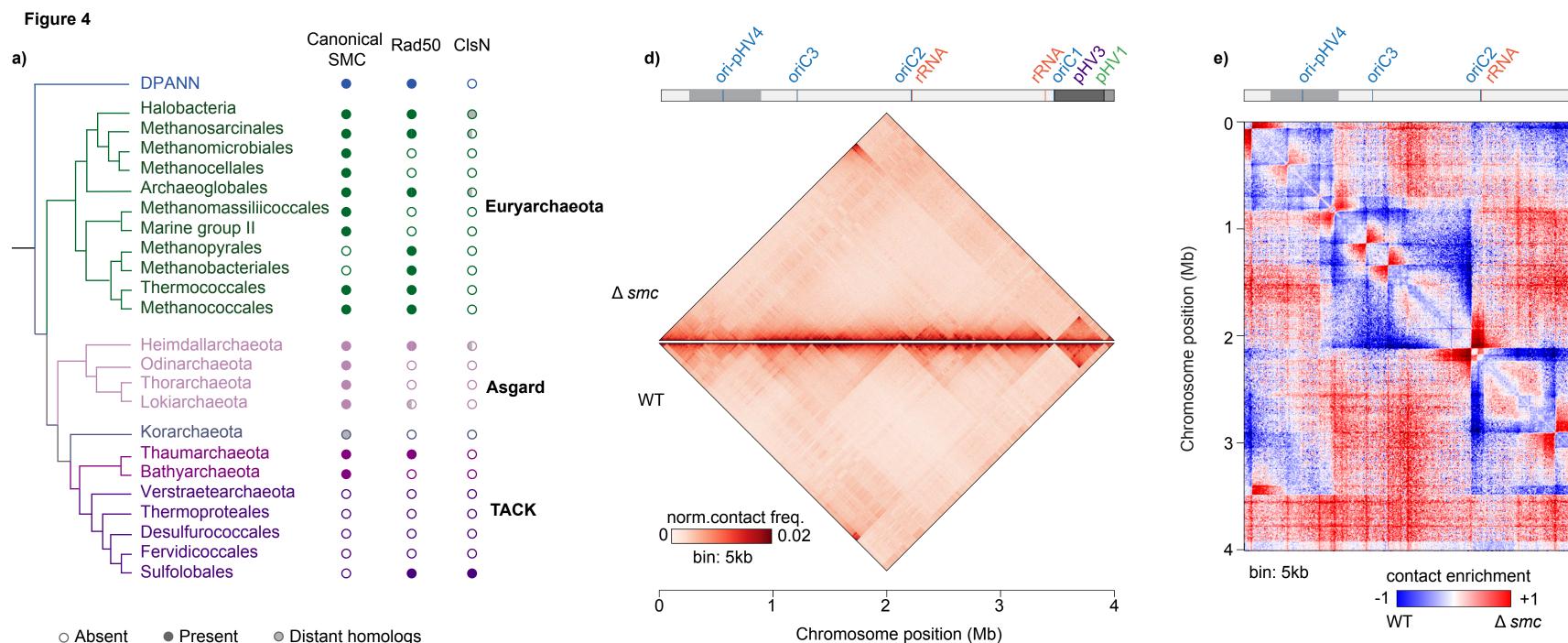


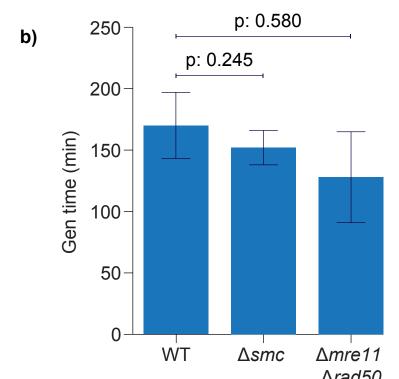
Figure 3

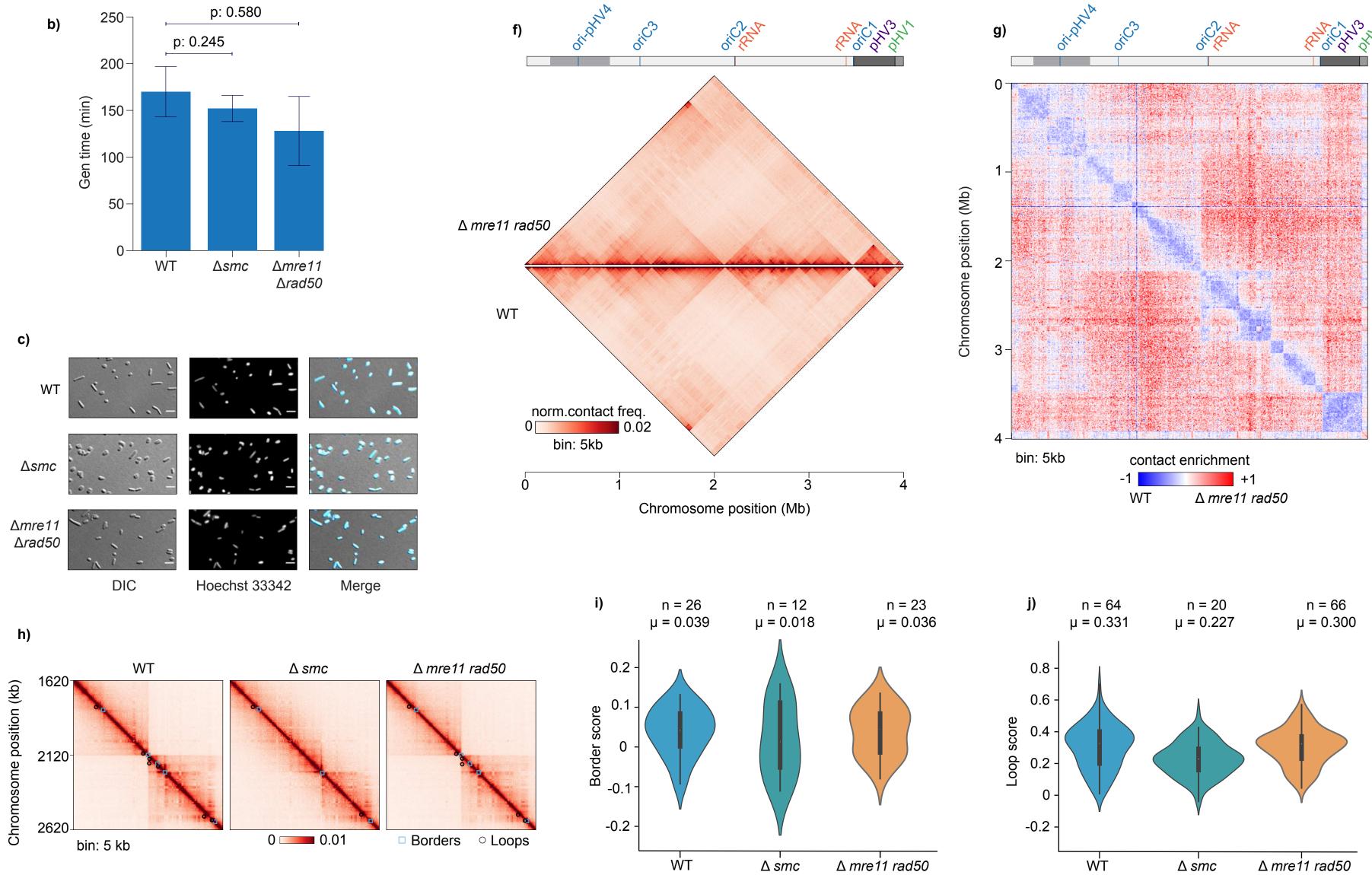


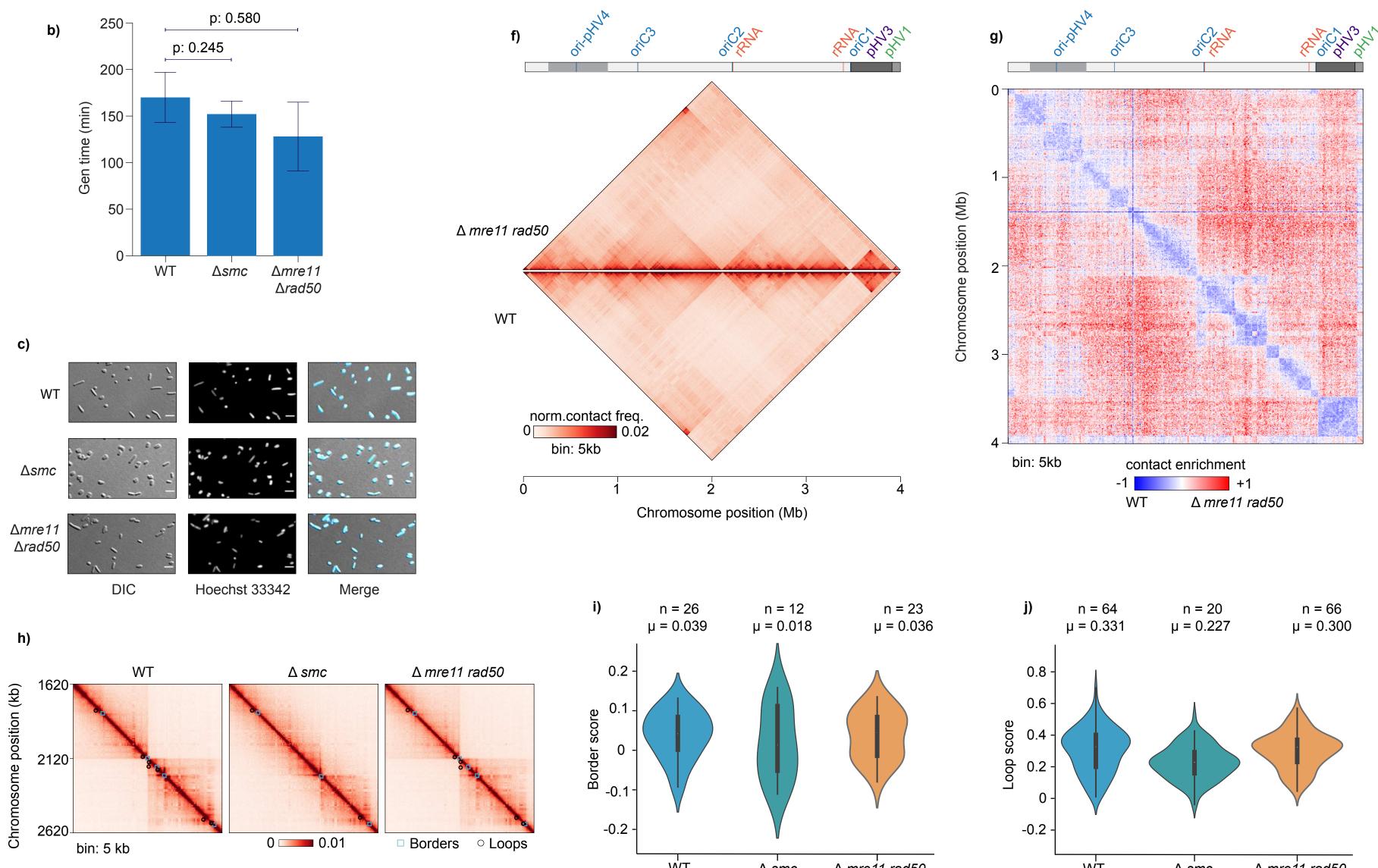


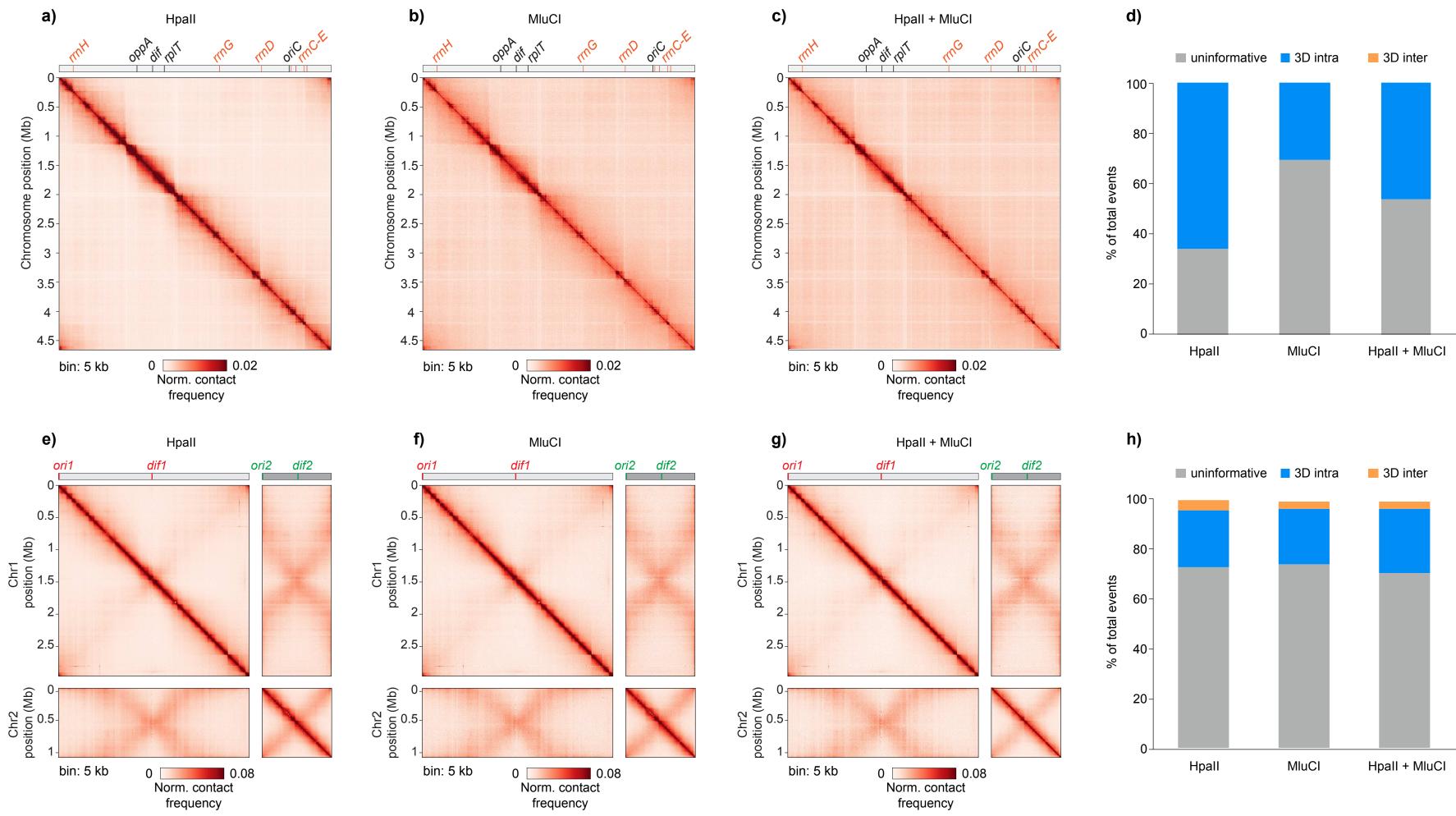


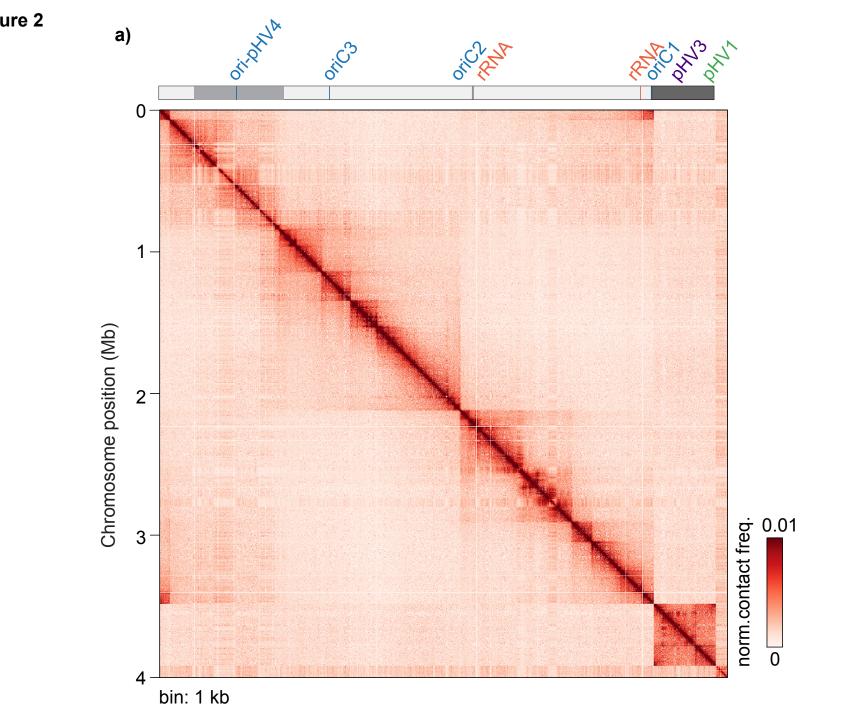
 Present Distant homologs Absent • Distant homologs in some species

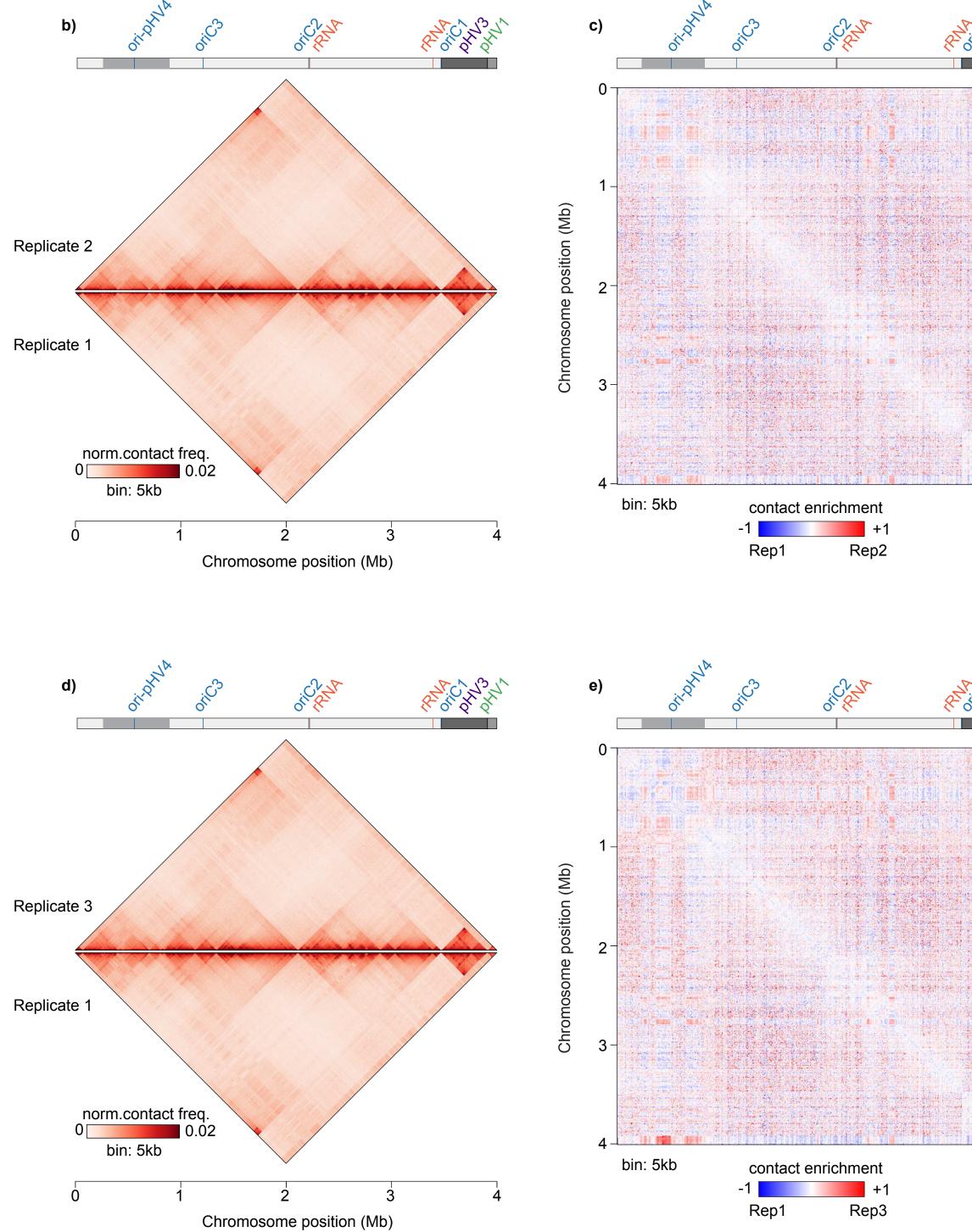


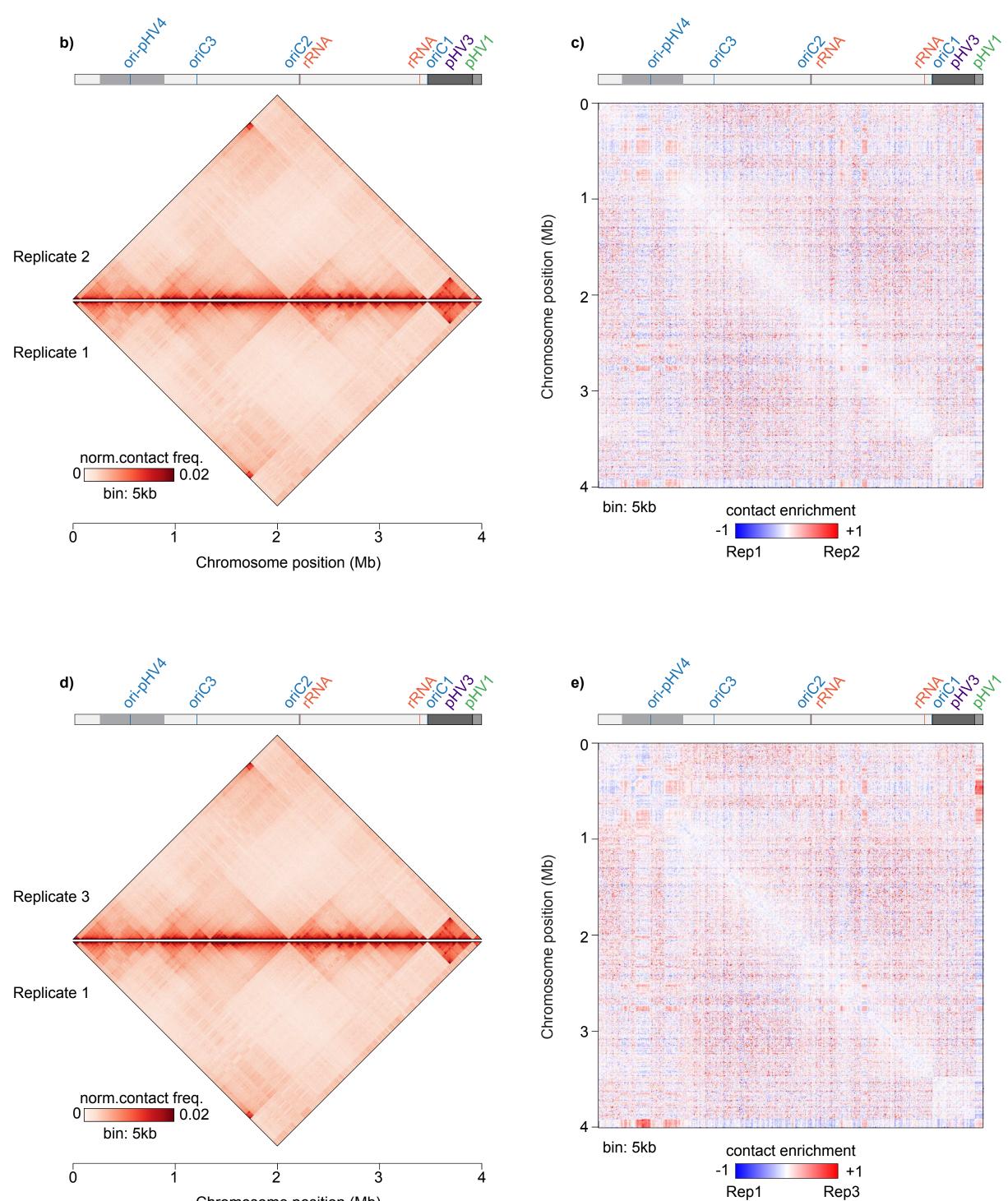


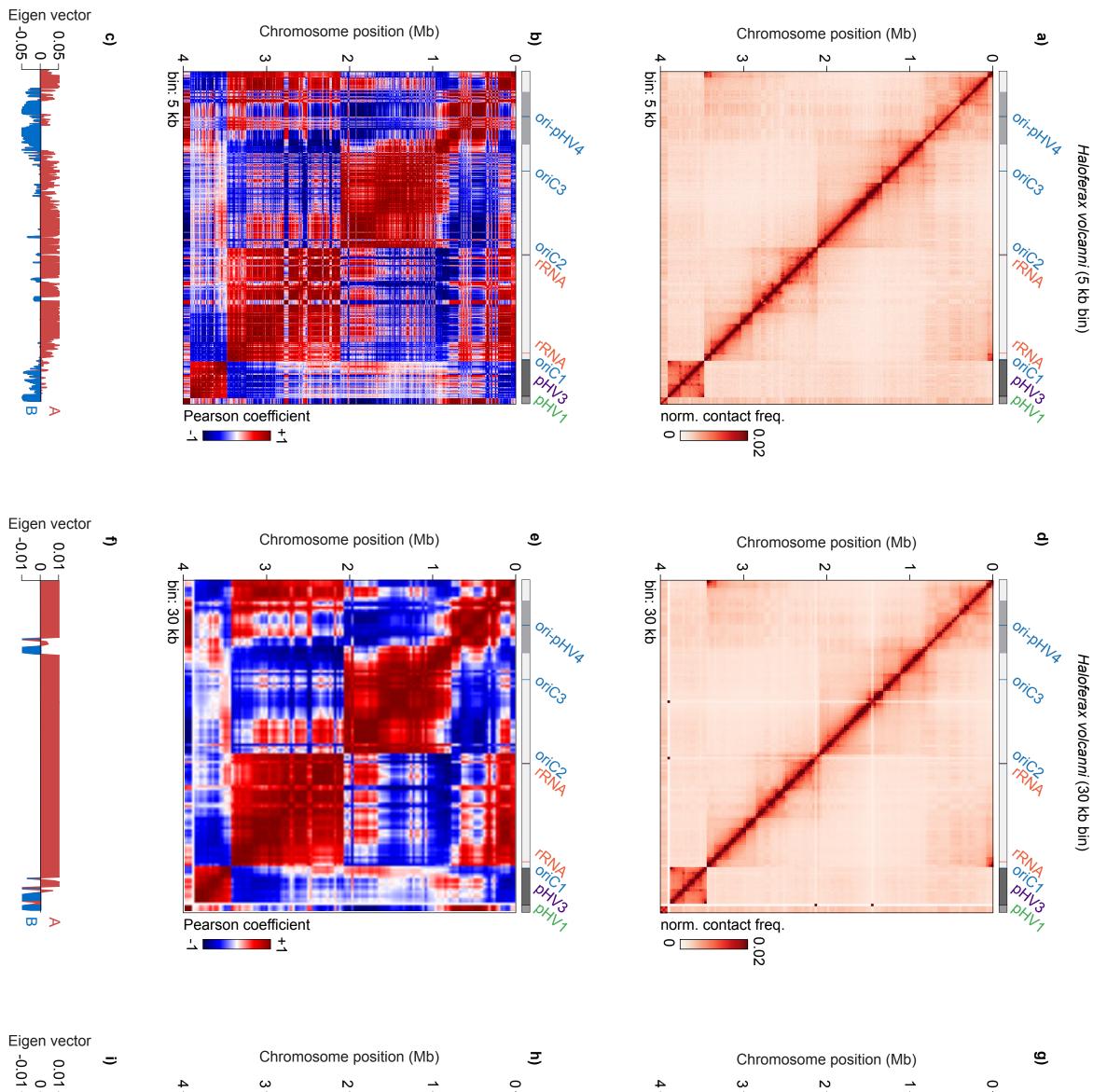












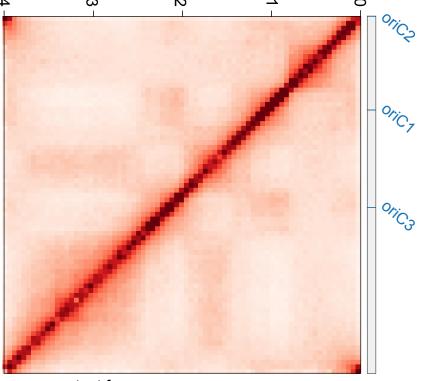
0

Supplementary Figure 3



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-



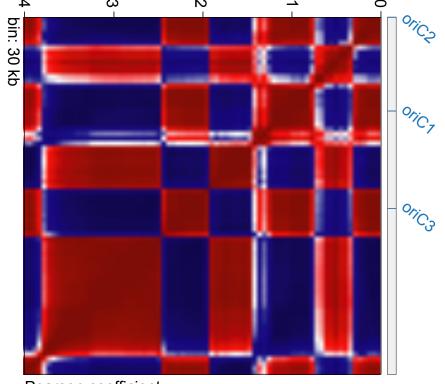
Chromosome position (Mb)

Ν

ω

bin: 30 kb

Ъ



Ν

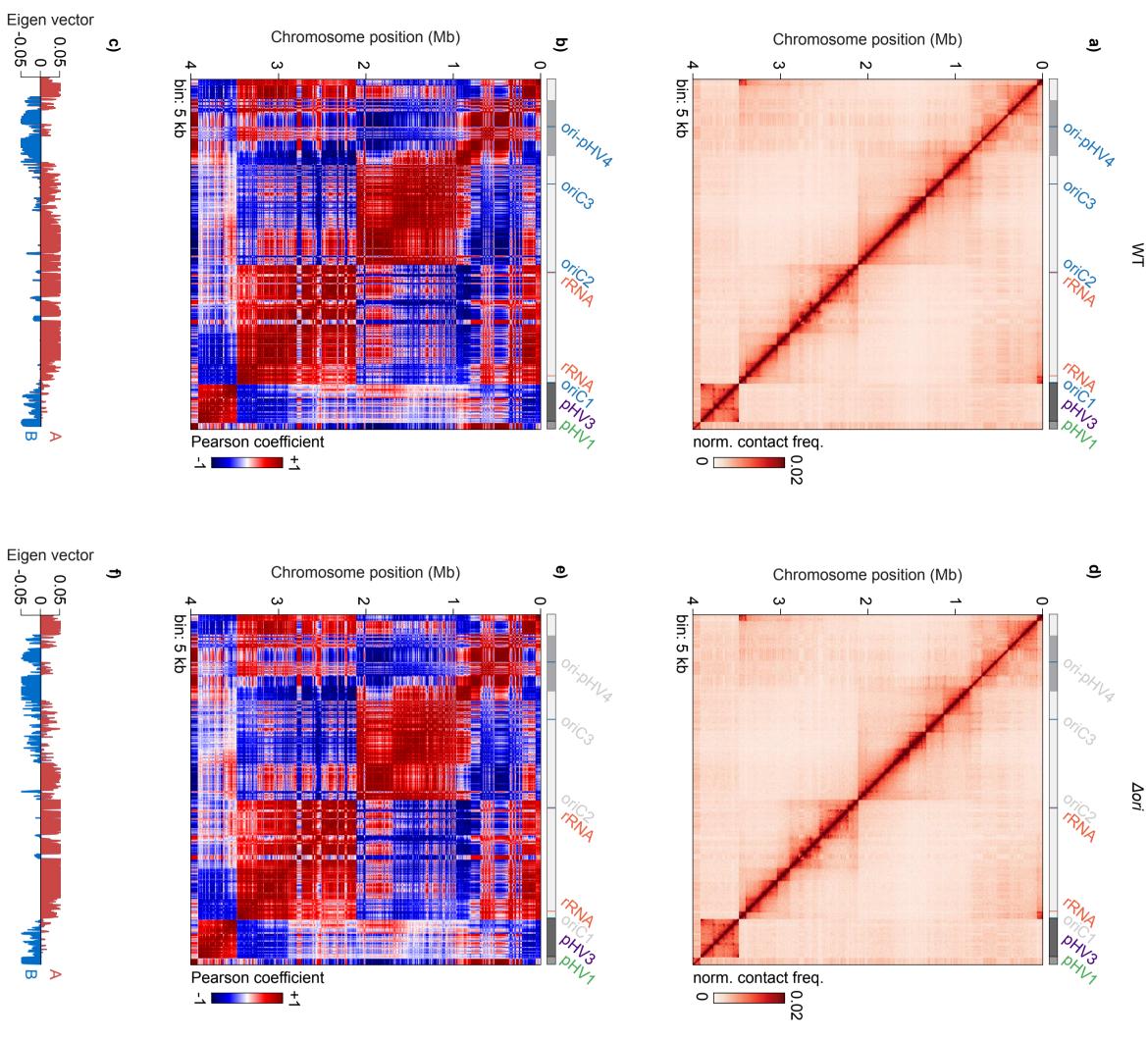
Pearson coefficient

ω



J

norm. contact freq.

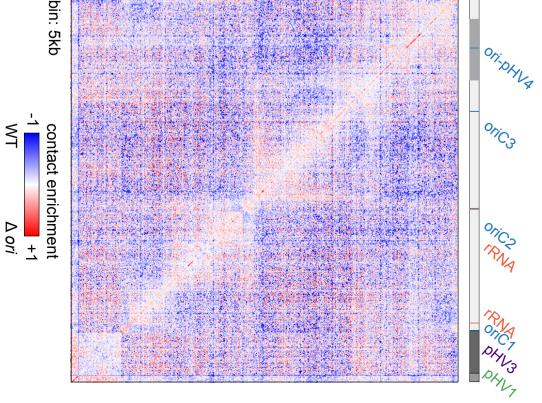


Chromosome position (Mb)



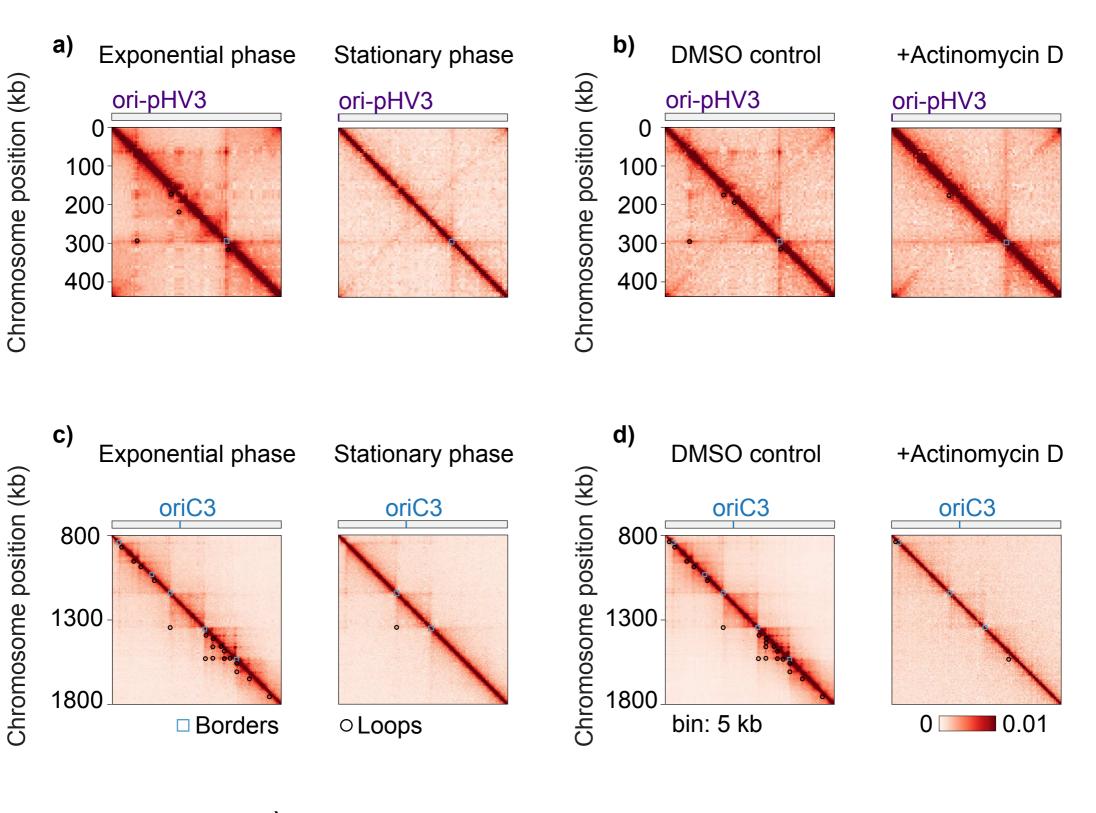
∆ori

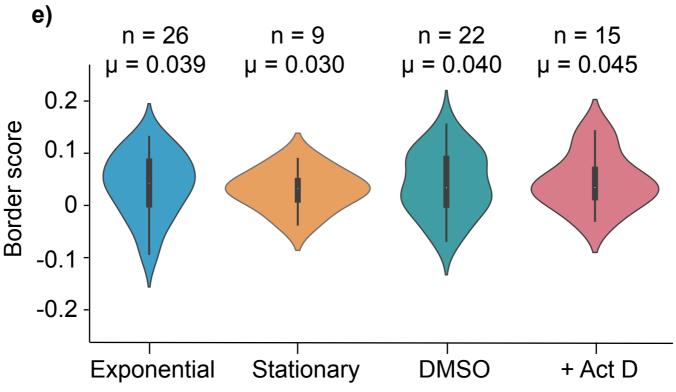
Supplementary Figure 4

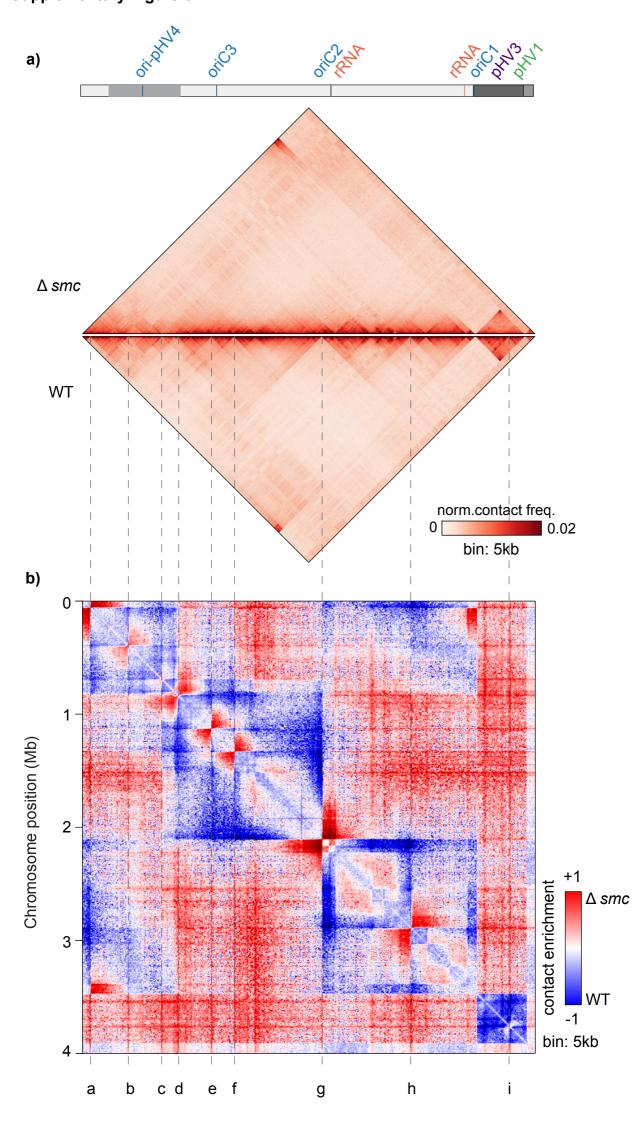


∆ori | WT

<u>g</u>)







c)

Border	Chromsome	Approx position (bp)	Closest gene	Proposed funcition
а	Main	71,500	HVO_0069	arylsulphatase
b	Main - pHV4	405,500	HVO_A0132	ISH16 transposase
с	Main - pHV4	701,000	HVO_A0463	rnh RNaseH
d	Main - pHV4	846,000	HVO_A0311	HalC8 putative halocin C8
е	Main	1,141,000	HVO_0568	Transcription regulator
f	Main	1,345,500	HVO_0791	ogt DNA methyltransferase
g	Main	2,120,000	HVO_1615	RNase H-like domain- containing protein
h	Main	2,904,500	HVO_2401	Glycine cleavage system P-protein
I	pHV3	295,500	HVO_B0248	SDR oxidoreductase