It has been unclear whether the TCR generates similar signals for the development of effector and memory T cells. Our results and others' (3-5) suggest that effector and memory differentiation require a different set of signals. Our data are consistent with a two-lineage model where memory or effector development is determined very early during the immune response by coordinating the recruitment of fate-determining proteins at the level of the IS.

Our studies suggest that different T cell programs are triggered by qualitatively distinct TCR signals, which implies that unique signaling pathways are important for T cell memory development. Several molecules, such as B cell lymphoma–6 (Bcl-6), the B and T lymphocyte attenuator (BTLA), and methyl-CpG binding domain protein 2 (MBD2), are selectively important for memory development but not for effector differentiation (*21–23*). Along the same lines, mutant T cells are uniquely defective in memory development and NF- $\kappa$ B signaling. Several studies have reported a role for members of the NF- $\kappa$ B signaling pathway in memory development (*24, 25*).

Our studies emphasize the importance of the TCR in regulating the NF- $\kappa$ B signal required for memory development. We show here that effector and memory programming can be dissociated by the induction of a different arrangement of

TCR signals in  $CD8^+$  T cells. Studying how these TCR signals are modulated by inflammatory signals or  $CD4^+$  help will be important in the design of better vaccination regimes.

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- Single-letter abbreviations for the amino acid residues are as follows: A, Ala; C, Cys; D, Asp; E, Glu; F, Phe; G, Gly; H, His; I, Ile; K, Lys; L, Leu; M, Met; N, Asn; P, Pro; Q, Gln; R, Arg; S, Ser; T, Thr; V, Val; W, Trp; and Y, Tyr.
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#### Supporting Online Material

www.sciencemag.org/cgi/content/full/323/5913/502/DC1 Materials and Methods Figs. S1 to S7 References

Movies S1 to S4

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# Secondary Replicative Function of CD8<sup>+</sup> T Cells That Had Developed an Effector Phenotype

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Models of the differentiation of memory CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells that replicate during secondary infections differ over whether such cells had acquired effector function during primary infections. We created a transgenic mouse line that permits mapping of the fate of granzyme B (gzmB)–expressing CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells and their progeny by indelibly marking them with enhanced yellow fluorescent protein (EYFP). Virus-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells express gzmB within the first 2 days of a primary response to infection with influenza, without impairment of continued primary clonal expansion. On secondary infection, virus-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells that became EYFP<sup>+</sup> during a primary infection clonally expand as well as all virus-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells. Thus, CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells that have acquired an effector phenotype during primary infection may function as memory cells with replicative function.

Data primary immune response, naïve, pathogen-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells replicate and generate effector cells that control the primary infection, and "memory" cells that persist after resolution of the primary infection and respond to secondary infections. Two types of memory cells have been identified: a subset

that resides in the peripheral tissues and has immediate effector function, such as production of interferon- $\gamma$  (IFN- $\gamma$ ) and cytolytic activity, but cannot replicate, and a subset that maintains a capacity for clonal expansion and generation of effector cells that are required for control of secondary or persistent infections (1). Because a single, antigen-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell can give rise to primary effector cells and both types of memory cells (2), only two models are possible for the development of memory cells with replicative potential: They arise directly from naïve CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells and avoid effector differentiation (3), perhaps by a process of asymmetrical division (4), or they come from proliferating cells that have acquired effector function but have not irreversibly lost replicative capability (5, 6). Determining which model is correct is necessary to guide experimental approaches to defining optimal vaccine strategies. We generated a mouse model that enables conditional, irreversible marking of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells that have acquired an effector function, the expression of the cytolytic granule protein, granzyme B (gzmB). In the asymmetrical division model, gzmB expression is considered to identify the daughter T cell that is committed to loss of secondary replicative function (4).

We created a transgenic mouse line using a bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) containing the gzmB gene, which had been modified by inserting at the start codon the tamoxifeninducible, site-specific recombinase, CreER<sup>T2</sup> (fig. S1) (7, 8). We crossed this  $gzmBCreER^{T2}$ BAC transgenic line with the ROSA26EYFP reporter line in which enhanced yellow fluorescent protein (EYFP) is expressed following CreERT2-mediated excision of a loxP-flanked stop codon (9). Thus, in gzmBER<sup>T2</sup>/ROSAEYFP mice, cells that transcribe the gzmB gene will express CreER<sup>T2</sup>, but such cells may become EYFP<sup>+</sup> only in the presence of tamoxifen. This enables the fate-mapping of such cells without the need for adoptive transfer, which may alter the dynamics of clonal expansion (10). Furthermore, a BAC transgene containing the gzmB gene for regulating expression of the

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Cre recombinase circumvents the problem of earlier studies (11) using a truncated human *GzmB* promoter that did not accurately reflect expression of the endogenous *gzmB* gene (12).

A requirement for both gzmB transcription and tamoxifen to induce EYFP was assessed by culturing CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells from gzmBCreER<sup>T2</sup>/ ROSA26EYFP mice in gzmB-inducing or noninducing conditions, with or without 4hydroxytamoxifen (4-OHT). EYFP was observed only with culture conditions that induced gzmB synthesis by CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells in the presence of 4-OHT (Fig. 1A). CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells from the lungs of mice on day 10 of influenza infection were EYFP<sup>+</sup> also only if tamoxifen had been present (Fig. 1B). EYFP was expressed only by antigenexperienced, CD44<sup>high</sup> CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells at day 10 and day 100 post infection (p.i.) (Fig. 1C), and by NK cells, but not by B cells, dendritic cells, or myelomonocytic cells (Fig. 1D). Therefore, induction of EYFP is stringently restricted to cells expressing gzmB in the presence of tamoxifen. The proportion of EYFP<sup>+</sup> cells correlated with the magnitude of gzmB expression (fig. S2), which suggested that inefficient Cre-mediated recombination accounted for the occurrence of gzmB-expressing CD8<sup>+</sup> T

cells that were EYFP<sup>-</sup>, despite the presence of tamoxifen.

To determine whether gzmB expression by CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells early during a primary response impairs clonal expansion, mice were infected intranasally with influenza, pulsed with tamoxifen on days 1 and 2 or days 7 and 8 p.i., and assessed on day 10 p.i. for the presence in the lungs and mediastinal lymph nodes (MLNs) of EYFP<sup>+</sup>  $CD8^+$  T cells that were specific for the H–2D<sup>b</sup>/ nucleoprotein (NP) peptide complex. D<sup>b</sup>/NPspecific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells in the MLNs were EYFP<sup>+</sup> even when tamoxifen was given only during the initial phase of clonal expansion, which indicated that gzmB is expressed by virus-specific  $CD8^+$  T cells in the first few cell cycles (13) and that such cells continue to proliferate and generate EYFP<sup>+</sup> cells that migrate to the lungs (Fig. 2A). Their continued replication was confirmed by incorporation of 5-bromo-2'-deoxyuridine (BrdU) during days 5 to 9 (Fig. 2B). Administering tamoxifen on days 7 and 8 induced only slightly higher percentages of EYFP<sup>+</sup> cells among the D<sup>b</sup>/NP-specific populations, corroborating that early gzmB expression does not impair subsequent clonal expansion. Finally, the pulse characteristics of tamoxifen-mediated CreER<sup>T2</sup> function were confirmed by the absence of EYFP<sup>+</sup> D<sup>b</sup>/NP-

specific  $CD8^+$  T cells in mice that had received tamoxifen on the 2 days preceding viral infection (Fig. 2A).

The capacity to mark irreversibly a cohort of cells that had expressed gzmB permitted an analysis of changes in their phenotypic characteristics over time. On day 10 of the primary response to influenza with tamoxifen administered on days 1 to 8, almost all EYFP<sup>+</sup> CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells in the lungs and spleen expressed gzmB, whereas a subset of EYFP<sup>+</sup> cells in the MLNs had become gzmB<sup>-</sup> (Fig. 3A). By day 49, most EYFP<sup>+</sup> CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells had lost expression of gzmB except for a small subpopulation in the lungs. A decrease in gzmB expression among virus-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells during the phase following clearance of a primary infection has been considered to exemplify a requirement for a "rest" period during which effector cells convert to memory cells (5). The present finding that CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells have the capacity to switch gzmB expression on and off during the acute phase of the primary response suggests that decreased biosynthesis may be caused by diminished inducing signals, at least within the MLN. Consistent with this possibility, when tamoxifen was administered on days 1 to 4 p.i. and BrdU during the last 12 hours, before analysis on day 8 p.i., the EYFP<sup>+</sup> CD8<sup>+</sup>



EYFP

T cells lacking expression of gzmB were mainly CD25<sup>-</sup> and BrdU<sup>-</sup>, whereas the gzmB<sup>+</sup> cells expressed high levels of CD25 and were BrdU<sup>+</sup> (Fig. 3B). Thus, loss of gzmB expression may

reflect interrupted signaling through the interleukin 2 (IL-2) receptor.

The loss of expression of CD62L and IL- $7R\alpha$  by CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells during the primary re-



**Fig. 2.** Clonal expansion by CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells that had expressed gzmB during the first days of influenza infection. (**A**) gzmBCreER<sup>T2</sup>/ROSA26EYFP mice were infected intranasally with the HKx/31 strain of influenza and were given tamoxifen for 2 days before infection, on days 1 and 2 p.i., or on days 7 and 8 p.i. On day 10 p.i., we determined the proportion (mean  $\pm$  SEM) of D<sup>b</sup>/NP-pentamer—binding CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells that was EYFP<sup>+</sup>. (**B**) Influenza-infected mice that had received tamoxifen on days 1 and 2 were given BrdU on days 5 to 9 p.i., and EYFP<sup>+</sup> CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells from the lungs were assessed on day 10 p.i. for incorporation of BrdU.



sponse correlates with diminished survival and replicative capability in the memory phase of the response (5, 6). On day 10, EYFP<sup>+</sup> CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells in the MLNs, the site of clonal expansion, but not in the spleen or lungs, remained CD62L<sup>high</sup> (Fig. 3A). Therefore, diminished expression of CD62L is not necessarily linked to expression of gzmB, as has been suggested (4). By day 49, CD62L<sup>high</sup> EYFP<sup>+</sup> CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells were also present in the spleen, but not in the lung, which indicated either that, during the memory phase, CD62L<sup>high</sup> cells from the MLNs migrate to the lymphoid areas of the spleen; that there is selective loss of CD62L<sup>low</sup> cells in the spleen; or that both occur. Similarly, by day 42, EYFP<sup>+</sup> CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells expressing IL-7Rα were present in the MLNs and spleen, but all EYFP<sup>+</sup> cells in the lungs lacked this receptor (Fig. 3A). Therefore, the phenotype of CD62L<sup>high</sup> and IL-7R $\alpha^+$  of memory cells that have expressed gzmB correlates with their anatomic site and not with whether they have exhibited this differentiated function.

We examined whether EYFP<sup>+</sup>  $D^b/NP$ -specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells persisted into the memory phase and responded secondarily to influenza infection. The proportion of  $D^b/NP$ -specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells in the lungs, MLNs, and spleen that were EYFP<sup>+</sup> did not change between days 10 and

Fig. 3. Expression of gzmB, CD62L, IL-7R $\alpha$ , and CD25 by EYFP<sup>+</sup> CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells responding to influenza infection. (A) gzmBCreER<sup>T2</sup>/ROSA26EYFP mice were infected intranasally with the HKx/31 strain of influenza and treated with tamoxifen on days 1 to 8 p.i. The EYFP<sup>+</sup> CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells from the lungs, MLNs, and spleen were analyzed for intracellular gzmB, CD62L, and IL-7R $\alpha$  at the peak of the primary response and during the memory phase (6 or 7 weeks p.i.). (B) Influenza-infected mice were given tamoxifen on days 1 to 4 p.i. and BrdU 12 hours before analysis on day 8 for BrdU incorporation and CD25 expression by EYFP+ CD8+ T cells from the MLNs.



49 p.i. (P > 0.4), which indicated that expression of gzmB during the primary response does not destine a cell for contraction (Fig. 4A). Furthermore, the proportion of EYFP<sup>+</sup> D<sup>b</sup>/NP-specific cells in the MLNs remained the same after secondary viral infection, which suggested that these cells replicated as well as all D<sup>b</sup>/NP-specific memory CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells. The modest decrease in the percentage of EYFP<sup>+</sup> cells in the lungs after secondary expansion may reflect the presence at day 49 of cells that had been labeled at this peripheral site during the primary infection and were unable to replicate during the secondary infection.

Equivalent replicative capability of the EYFP<sup>+</sup> and total D<sup>b</sup>/NP-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells was confirmed by finding ~500-fold expansion of both populations in the lungs on day 7 post secondary infection (Fig. 4B). There were lower, although again comparable, increases in these two populations in the MLNs (Fig. 4B), where most new effector cells in the lungs are likely to be generated, and also in the spleen.

The capacity to replicate secondarily was also determined for EYFP<sup>+</sup> D<sup>b</sup>/NP-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells that had been marked by tamoxifen pulses on days 1 to 3 and days 7 to 9, respectively, during primary influenza infection. On day 7 post secondary infection, the EYFP<sup>+</sup> D<sup>b</sup>/NP-specific

CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells in the two groups had similar fold increments in the MLNs, spleens, and lungs, and these were comparable to those of the total antigenspecific cells (fig. S3). This finding further excludes models of differentiation in which early expression of gzmB marks a CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell that has lost a capacity for secondary replicative function.

In summary, the conditional and indelible marking of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells that had previously expressed gzmB permitted their identification among all subsets of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells in the primary and memory phases of an antiviral response, including the subset that mediates secondary clonal expansion. Combined with the observation that a  $CD8^+$  T cell may express gzmB early in the primary response without preventing continued expansion (Fig. 2A), one may conclude that such cells can self-renew and serve as progenitors of the more differentiated, senescent cells that have diminished expression of CD62L and IL-7Ra (Fig. 3A). Although EYFP was not induced in all gzmB-expressing cells because of inefficient Cre-mediated recombination, the EYFP<sup>+</sup> memory CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell population was representative of the entire memory population with respect to survival and secondary expansion. Therefore, memory CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells that proliferate during secondary infections can be

derived from cells that had acquired an effector phenotype during the primary response, as has been proposed (5, 6). This conclusion is consistent with the IL-2R-dependence of gzmB expression (Fig. 3B) and development of memory cells with replicative function (14) and with the secondary replication of IFN-y-expressing memory  $CD4^+$  T cells (15). However, it does not support the asymmetrical division model in which the gzmB-expressing daughter cell of the first division of the activated naïve CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell is restricted to a nonreplicative memory cell fate (4). Thus, as-yet-undefined signals, in addition to those leading to acquisition of gzmB-dependent effector functions and that cannot be defined in this experimental system, must account for terminal differentiation and senescence of the CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell.

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### Supporting Online Material

www.sciencemag.org/cgi/content/full/323/5913/505/DC1 Materials and Methods Figs. S1 to S3 Table S1 References

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# Electron Cryomicroscopy of *E. coli* Reveals Filament Bundles Involved in Plasmid DNA Segregation

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Bipolar elongation of filaments of the bacterial actin homolog ParM drives movement of newly replicated plasmid DNA to opposite poles of a bacterial cell. We used a combination of vitreous sectioning and electron cryotomography to study this DNA partitioning system directly in native, frozen cells. The diffraction patterns from overexpressed ParM bundles in electron cryotomographic reconstructions were used to unambiguously identify ParM filaments in *Escherichia coli* cells. Using a low–copy number plasmid encoding components required for partitioning, we observed small bundles of three to five intracellular ParM filaments that were situated close to the edge of the nucleoid. We propose that this may indicate the capture of plasmid DNA within the periphery of this loosely defined, chromosome-containing region.

ne of the simplest known mechanisms by which newly replicated DNA molecules are moved apart is encoded by the bacterial low-copy number plasmid R1. This type II plasmid partitioning system includes three components that are both necessary and sufficient to confer genetic stability and are encoded in a tight gene cluster (1). ParM is an actin-like adenosine triphosphatase (ATPase) protein that forms double-helical filaments (2-4) and exhibits dynamic instability from both ends in the presence of ATP (5). Upon addition of both the small DNA-binding protein ParR and the centromerelike DNA region, parC, a ParRC protein-DNA complex caps and stabilizes both ends of the ParM filament (6-8). Thus stabilized, the ParM filament elongates at both ends and drives the plasmid-attached ParRC complexes to opposite poles of the bacterial cell. This system has been extensively studied both in cells using light microscopy (9-11) and in vitro (5, 6), and here we turn to a direct characterization of ParMRCdriven DNA segregation in situ using vitreous sectioning (12) and electron cryotomography.

First, we set about characterizing ParM filaments directly in *E*scherichia *coli* cells that had been immobilized in a near-to-native vitreous state by high-pressure freezing (13). ParM was overexpressed to very high concentrations in the absence of ParR or *parC*. ParM filaments form spontaneously at these high concentrations. Images of cryosections revealed that these cells contained a large volume of tightly packed bundles of filaments (Fig. 1A and fig. S1A). This packing is probably due to the crowded environment of the cell. A small amount of crowding agent is sufficient to induce bundling of purified ParM filaments (Fig. 1, B and C) (*14*). Unlike actin, no additional proteins that induce bundling by cross-linking along the filaments of ParM are known or required.

To verify the identity of the bundles of filaments as ParM protein, we compared the diffraction patterns from electron cryomicrographs of in vitro bundles with those extracted from in situ electron cryotomography reconstructions. The resulting lateral diffraction spacing corresponds to packing of the roughly 80 Å thick filaments and was determined to be 83 Å in the tomogram slice (Fig. 1, D and E) and smeared between 63 and 83 Å for the in vitro bundles (Fig. 1, E and F). This smear relates to the fact that in vitro bundles were several filaments thick, producing additional, smaller interfilament repeats in the diffraction pattern. The longitudinal repeat of filamentous ParM was measured to be 53 Å in the in vitro bundles (Fig. 1E), agreeing with previous measurements on single filaments (2, 4). We were able to measure the longitudinal repeat in tomographic slices, and this ranged from 41 to 53 Å, depending on the angle of rotation. The upper value confirmed the identity of these filaments. Bundles of filaments persisted in the presence of the MreB-depolymerizing drug A22 (fig. S1B), ruling out the possibility that these filaments were composed of the chromosomally encoded bacterial actin MreB.

As a comparison, we performed electron cryotomography on whole, intact plunge-frozen cells containing bundles of ParM (Fig. 1G). These cells expressed an ATPase-deficient mutant form of ParM [Asp<sup>170</sup>  $\rightarrow$  Ala<sup>170</sup> (D170A)] (11), which is unable to depolymerize, leading to strings of cells with blocked septa. Even here the sample was too thick to achieve resolutions comparable to those obtained using thin cryosections, and the longitudinal repeat in the diffraction pattern could not be detected (compare Fig. 1, E and G).

Having identified ParM filaments directly in cryo-immobilized cells, we next turned to studying intracellular ParM filaments that are actively involved in segregating plasmid DNA. We used three different systems, each moving closer to the situation of the original R1 low-copy plasmid system (Fig. 2A). The first system was T7-driven ParM overexpression (see above). Next, we put three copies of the ParMRC cluster on a high-copy number plasmid (pBR322 replicon). Finally, a low-copy number R1-derived plasmid stabilized by a single copy of the ParMRC partitioning complex was used (pKG491) (1, 15). A marked decrease in ParM levels was observed, moving from the overexpression system through the high-copy number plasmid to the low-copy number R1-derived plasmid (Fig. 2A). Cross sections through frozen cells overexpressing ParM protein clearly revealed tightly packed bundles of ParM (Fig. 2B, left, and fig. S1A). These images told us that ParM filaments would be best recognized in cross sections through the filaments (Fig. 2C). Cells carrying the ParMRCcontaining high-copy number plasmid contained a combination of small bundles and single filaments within a single cell (Fig. 2B, middle, and fig. S2, A to C). Moving to even lower ParM concentrations using cells carrying the low-copy number R1 plasmid pKG491, we anticipated that observing filaments would be an extremely rare event. Previous studies have shown that pole-topole filaments of ParM can be observed in only ~40% of cells, with the others localizing in discrete clusters or diffuse throughout the cell (11). Furthermore, our ParM overexpression experiments told us that filaments could only be confidently recognized in those sections where the filament is exactly perpendicular to the imaging plane. Given that cells are frozen and sectioned in a semi-random orientation, we therefore imaged 300 to 400 cells.

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