1. Title Page

(1) Title

Ribosome profiling in *Streptococcus pneumoniae* reveals the role of methylation of 23S

rRNA nucleotide G748 on ribosome stalling.

(2) Full name list

Tatsuma Shoji (1)*, Akiko Takaya (2,3,4), Yoko Kusuya (5), Hiroki Takahashi (3,5,6),

Hiroto Kawashima(1)

*Corresponding Author

(1) Laboratory of Microbiology and Immunology, Graduate School of Pharmaceutical

Sciences, Chiba University

(2) Department of Natural Products Chemistry, Graduate School of Pharmaceutical

Sciences, Chiba University, Chiba

(3) Plant Molecular Science Center, Chiba University

(4) Medical Mycology Research Center, Chiba University

(5) Division of Bio-resources, Medical Mycology Research Center, Chiba University

(6) Molecular Chirality Research Center, Chiba University

(3) Institutional addresses

(1) 1-8-1, Inohana, Chuo-ku, Chiba, 260-8675, Japan

(2) 1-8-1 Inohana, Chuo-ku, Chiba 260-8675, Japan

(3) 1-8-1 Inohana, Chuo-ku, Chiba 260-8675, Japan

(4) 1-8-1 Inohana, Chuo-ku, Chiba, 260-8673, Japan

(5) 1-8-1 Inohana, Chuo-ku, Chiba, 260-8673 Japan

(6) 1-33 Yayoi, Chuo-ku, Chiba 263-8522, Japan

(4) E-mail addresses

Shoji Tatsuma: tatsumashoji@bioinforest.com

Takaya Akiko: akiko@faculty.chiba-u.jp

Kusuya Yoko: y-kusuya@chiba-u.jp

Takahashi Hiroki: hiroki.takahashi@chiba-u.jp

Kawashima Hiroto: h-kawashima@chiba-u.jp

2. Abstract

(1) Background

Many nucleotides in 23S rRNA are methylated post-transcriptionally by methyltransferases and cluster around the peptidyltransferase center (PTC) and the nascent peptidyl exit tunnel (NPET) located in 50S subunit of 70S ribosome. Biochemical interactions between a nascent peptide and the tunnel may stall ribosome movement and affect expression levels of the protein. However, no studies have shown a role for NPET on ribosome stalling using an NPET mutant.

(2) Results

A ribosome profiling assay in *Streptococcus pneumoniae* demonstrates for the first time that an NPET mutant exhibits completely different ribosome occupancy compared to wild-type. We demonstrate, using RNA footprinting, that changes in ribosome occupancy correlate with changes in ribosome stalling. Further, statistical analysis shows that short peptide sequences that cause ribosome stalling are species-specific and evolutionarily selected. NPET structure is required to realize these specie-specific ribosome stalling.

(3) Conclusions

Results support the role of NPET on ribosome stalling. NPET structure is required to

realize the species-specific and evolutionary conserved ribosome stalling. These

findings clarify the role of NPET structure on the translation process.

3. Keywords

ribosome stalling

23S rRNA modification

Streptococcus pneumoniae

ribosome profiling

4. Background

Endogenous rRNA modifying enzymes methylate or pseudouridylate specific

rRNA nucleotides at functionally important regions in the ribosome, such as the

peptidyl transferase center (PTC) [1]. Approximately one-third of modified residues of

23S rRNA are clustered around the nascent peptide exit tunnel (NPET) [2]. While the

role of rRNA modification remains unclear, though it is generally believed that they

have fine-tune functions of the ribosome in translation [3], especially under the stress

conditions [4], via the biochemical interactions between the nascent peptide and tunnel

[5,6]. These interactions may stall ribosome movement and thus affect the expression

level of the protein [6]. However, no studies have shown the role of NPET in ribosome

stalling using an NPET mutant.

Some modifications of NPET are important for determining antibiotic

resistance or susceptibility [7,8]. While the role of the methylation at G748 (m^{1}G748) in

Streptococcus pneumoniae remains unclear, we previously showed that inactivation of

the methyltransferase RlmA^{II}, which methylates the N-1 position of nucleotide G748

located near the PTC, results in increased resistance to telithromycin (TEL) in

erm(B)-carrying *S. pneumoniae* [7].

We explored the role of NPET structure in translation initially by establishing

the ribosome profiling assay in *S. pneumoniae* and investigating ribosomal distribution

in both wild-type and RlmA^{II}-deficient *S. pneumoniae*. Subsequent analysis showed that

m^{1}G748 is responsible for ribosome stalling and plays a role in species specificity.

5. Results

(1) The loss of N-1 methylation at G748 greatly changes the distribution of

ribosomes.

We constructed two *S. pneumoniae* mutant strains, Sp284 and Sp379 to

investigate the role of NPET. Sp284 is a RlmA^{II}-disrupted mutant harboring pTKY1111

encoding *tlrB* of the S1 strain [7]. Sp379 is a RlmA^{II}-disrupted mutant harboring

pTKY1127 encoding *tlrB* of Sp44 [7]. The latter strains display no methyltransferase

activity because of the C23R mutation [7]. The difference between Sp284 and Sp379 is

only the capability to methylate G748.

We also performed a deep sequencing-based ribosome profiling analysis in

Sp284 and Sp379. Ribosome profiling captures a global snapshot of ribosome

positioning and density on template mRNAs with single-nucleotide resolution. The

erm(B) operon, where ribosomes stall at the *ermBL* region [9], was selected, for

example, to examine the distribution of ribosomes (Fig. 1A). Ribosome position and

density in the *erm*(B) operon in Sp379 was completely different from positions and

density in Sp284 (Fig.1A).

The difference in the ribosome occupancy between two strains in *erm*(B)

operon led us to speculate a general role of m^{1}G748 in the translation process.

Ribosome density across all ORFs in Sp379 was higher than in Sp284, especially

around the latter region, indicating an important role of m^{1}G748 in the translation

process, with differences in ribosome position and density across all open reading

frames (ORFs) being assessed using a metagene analysis (Fig. 1B).

(2) m^{1}G748 affects ribosome stalling.

A high number of ribosome-protected footprints (RPFs) mapping to the

transcriptome (mRNA-seq) at a unique position is indicative of ribosome stalling [10].

Thus, observed global changes imply a role for m^{1}G748 in ribosome stalling.

We tested this hypothesis by first constructing *erm*(B) operon-overexpression *S.*

pneumoniae strains Sp380 and Sp382 from Sp284 and Sp379 respectively, to clarify

differences between Sp284 and Sp379 (see Tables 1 and 2 for details). We then probed

ribosomes of Sp380 and Sp382 before and after extracting total RNA with dimethyl

sulfate.

Fig. 2A shows the secondary mRNA structure from the *ermBL* region that was

previously demonstrated [9]. Consistent with this report, nucleotides in the stems were

protected from chemical modification when probing after extracting total RNA in both

Sp380 and Sp382 strains. Conversely, these regions were not protected when probing

before extracting total RNA in Sp380 (Fig. 2B), but these regions remained unprotected

in Sp382 (Fig. 2B). Stems were likely disrupted in Sp380 *in vivo* presumably due to

ribosome stalling in the *ermBL* region. m^{1}G748 affects such stalling.

(3) Characterization of effects of m^{1}G748 on ribosome stalling

Ribosome stalling does not always mean an end to translation. Translation

resumes in some cases [11, 12]. Such cases are termed "transient stalling" [13] and may

contribute to cotranslational protein and be evolutionarily preferred [14, 15]. In contrast,

"strong stalling" does not appear to restart and requires rescue [16, 17]. We examined

the type of ribosome stalling affected by m^1G748 by first defining A-site peaks (see

Methods for details) and counted the number of A-site peaks across all CDSs (Figs. 3A

and 3B). Two populations observed in Sp284 (Fig. 3A) were consistent with a previous

report [16]. However, surprisingly, almost no transient stalling was observed in Sp379

(Fig. 3B), indicating a role for m^1G748 for keeping transient stalling. A slight decrease

in the number of peaks of strong stalling was observed compared to Sp284 (Figs. 3A

and 3B).

Stalling peptides were identified as previously described [13] to further

examine the role of m^1G748 on strong stalling. Briefly, we defined strong stalling as

described in Methods and collected nascent peptide sequences in the exit tunnel for

strong stalling events. We then calculated the probability of occurrence for 8,000

tripeptides and defined stalling peptides as tripeptides with a probability higher than

0.9999. Surprisingly, few stalling peptides were common between Sp284 and Sp379

(Fig. 3C), suggesting that the position of "strong stalling" is different between the two

strains.

Several known stalling peptides, such as PPP, KKK and KKR, are common

among some organisms, including *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Escherichia coli* [18,

19]. However, stalling peptides in Sp284 and Sp379 did not include these previously

reported molecules [see Additional file 1], indicating that ribosome stalling is

species-specific.

(4) m^1G748 is required to realize evolutionarily conserved ribosome stalling

Stalling peptides in *S. pneumoniae* were different in previous reports, which led

us to speculate on how they are distributed in the proteome. We examined relationships

between stalling peptides and proteome in *S. pneumoniae*, by initially identifying 360 of

over-represented and 382 under-represented examples for three amino acids in the *S.*

pneumoniae proteome as previously [13]. Enrichment of over- and under-represented

tripeptides in stalling peptides were investigated using Fisher's exact test (Fig. 4).

Over-represented peptides were significantly enriched in the set from Sp379, with

under-represented peptides being significantly enriched in the stalling peptide set of

Sp284, indicating that the strong stalling is not evolutionarily favored [see Additional

file 2]. m1G748 is likely required to realize evolutionarily conserved ribosome stalling.

6. Discussion

We investigated the role of NPET in translation using a ribosome profiling

assay in *S. pneumoniae*. The finding that the loss of the methyl group at m^1G748 had a

notable impact on the distribution of the ribosomes and ribosome stalling (Figs. 1 and 2)

highlights the importance of the NPET structure and explains why rRNA modifications

are clustered near the PTC and NPET. The role of NPET using other NPET mutants will

be investigated in the future.

Alteration of NPET results in changes to the stalling peptide set (Fig. 3C). Thus,

translation depends not only on mRNA sequence but also on the structure of NPET.

Prediction of ribosome stalling based only on mRNA sequence would be difficult.

Using NPET information is crucial because the structure of the NPET is not necessarily

unique in a cell [21], with some studies having tried to predict ribosome occupancy or

stalling [19,20], and performance of developed software could be improved with

additional parameters for NPET structure.

A global change in stalling position may result in a global effect on cell

proteome. This effect might explain why RlmA[II] mutants of *S. pnuemoniae* are rarely

clinically isolated [22]. The loss of the m^1G748 methyl group inhibits binding of

telithromycin to the exit tunnel [7], and may also cause a decrease in fitness of *S.*

pneumoniae in a clinical setting. This concept might be useful since antibiotics that

181 compromise targets that maintain healthy ribosomes would not cause resistant bacteria.

182 TEL-resistant *S. pneumoniae* ribosomes are unhealthy.

183  The ribosomopathy encompasses diseases caused by abnormalities in the

184 structure or function of ribosomal proteins or rRNA genes or other genes whose

185 products are involved in ribosome biogenesis [23-25]. Skeletal muscle atrophy [26],

186 Diamond–Blackfan anemia [24] and Treacher Collins syndrome [24] are examples of

187 ribosomopathy. However, no reports regarding exit tunnel-induced ribosomopathy exist.

188 The present study examined *S. pneumoniae*; however, exit tunnel-derived

189 ribosomopathy might be common among organisms, including humans. For example,

190 ribosomal protein L17 (RPL17) is upregulated in parallel with stress vulnerability [27].

191 RPL17 is located near the end of the exit tunnel [21]. Therefore, RPL17 could be

192 responsible for ribosome stalling. This concept, exit-tunnel-induced ribosomopathy,

193 might explain the mechanism of the disorder in the future.

195 **7. Conclusions**

196  We demonstrate the role of m^1G748 on ribosome stalling. m^1G748 is required

197 to realize species-specific and evolutionarily conserved stalling. This study is the first to

198 show the role of NPET using an NPET mutant.

8. Methods

(1) Bacterial strains, plasmids, and media

Bacterial strains and plasmids are shown in Tables 1 and 2, respectively. *S. pneumoniae*

strain S1 with reduced TEL susceptibility (MIC, 2μg/ml) was clinically isolated in

Japan [7]. Pneumococci were routinely cultured at 37°C and 5% CO_2 in air in a

brain-heart infusion with 0.5% yeast extract (BHI-Y) broth and BHI-Y agar,

supplemented with 5% horse blood. *E. coli* was grown in L broth (1% bact-tryptone,

0.5% bact yeast extract, 0.5% sodium chloride, pH 7.4) and L agar. When necessary,

medium was supplemented with kanamycin (25–500 μg/mL), spectinomycin (100

μg/mL) and ampicillin (25 μg/mL).

(2) Transformation

Synthetic competence-stimulating peptide (CSP) 1 and the method of Iannelli and Pozzi

[28] were used to transform *S. pneumoniae* S1 into a transformation-competent state.

(3) RNA-Seq

S. pneumoniae cultures were grown to log-phase; 2.8 mL of cultures were added to 2.8

mL of 100°C preheated RNA lysis buffer (1% SDS, 0.1 M NaCl and 8 mM EDTA) and

vortexed for 2 min. The resulting lysates were added to 5.6 mL of 100°C preheated acid

phenol (Sigma-Aldrich) and vortexed for 5 min. After centrifuging, RNA was extracted

from the aqueous phase using DirectZol (Zymo Research). rRNA was removed from

total RNA using MICROBExpress (Ambion). Resulting total mRNA (400 ng as an

input) was used for constructing the DNA library, using KAPA Stranded RNA-Seq

Library Preparation Kit Illumina platforms (KK8400). DNA libraries were sequenced

using the Illumina HiSeq 1500 system and single-end reads. Illumina libraries were

preprocessed by clipping the Illumina adapter sequence using Trimmomatic v.0.39 [29],

then aligned to the S1 genome sequence [7] using HISAT2 v.2.2.1 [30].

(4) Ribo-Seq

Libraries were prepared as previously described with some modifications (see below)

[10].

Cell growth and harvest

S. pneumoniae cultures (2.4 L) were grown to log-phase. Cells were pretreated for 2

min with ⁓ 100 µg/mL chloramphenicol. Immediately after chloramphenicol

pretreatment, cultures were placed on ice. Cells were pelleted by centrifugation at 8,000

$\times g$ for 15 min at 4°C. After decanting the supernatant, cell pellets were resuspended in

2.5 mL of prechilled resuspension buffer [10 mM $MgCl_2$, 100 mM NH_4Cl, 20 mM Tris

(pH 8.0), and 1 mM chloramphenicol].

Lysate preparation and Nuclease digestion

Cells were sonicated on ice and centrifuged at $12,000 \times g$ for 10 min at 4°C. Aliquots of

lysate, containing 25 Abs_{260} ribosome units (1 A_{260} = 12 µg/µL) [5] were digested with

60 U of MNase (Roche) and 60 U of SUPERase· In (Ambion) with the addition of

chloramphenicol to a final concentration of 1 mM to remove unprotected mRNA and

generate footprint fragments. Digestion reactions were incubated for 1 h at 25°C and

quenched with the addition of EGTA to a final concentration of 6 mM.

Sucrose fractionation

Linear sucrose gradients [5–40% (wt/vol)] were prepared with 7.6 mL of buffer A and

buffer B [10 mM $MgCl_2$, 100 mM NH_4Cl, 2 mM DTT, 20 mM, 0.2 mM

chloramphenicol, Tris pH 7.8 and 5% or 40% Sucrose, respectively], by loading Buffer

B on Buffer A in 16PA tube and placed vertically for 12 hr at 4°C the placed

horizontally for 2 hr at 4°C.

Digested samples were carefully loaded onto prepared gradients and centrifuged at

$124,700 \times g$ for 8 hr at 4°C in a P28S2 rotor. Sucrose gradients were fractionated

manually into 200 µL portions and A_{260} was recorded for each fraction. Absorbance

values were graphed in Microsoft Excel to determine ribosome footprint associated

fractions (RPF fractions). RPF were consequently pooled.

Ribosome footprint preparation

RNA was purified from RPF using the SDS/hot acid phenol. Three mL of samples were first denatured with SDS to a final concentration of 1% (wt/vol) and 2.7 mL of preheated acid phenol (65°C) (Sigma-Aldrich). Mixtures were vortexed for 5 min at 65°C. After centrifuging, aqueous phases were mixed with one volume of acid phenol, and 0.9 volumes of chloroform/isoamyl alcohol (24:1). RNA was precipitated with ethanol and resuspended in 10 µL of 10 mM Tris (pH 8.0).

Ribosome footprint samples were resolved on denaturing polyacrylamide gels for size selection of footprint fragments. RNA samples were prepared for electrophoresis by adding 2x Novex TBE-Urea Sample Buffer (Invitrogen). Ladder standards used a 0.05 µg/µL 10-bp DNA Ladder (Invitrogen), prepared in 2x Novex TBE-Urea Sample Buffer and 10 mM Tris (pH 8.0). Samples were resolved on a 15% TBE-Urea gel in $1 \times$ TBE buffer for 65 min at 200V. Gels were stained for 3 min with SYBR Gold Nucleic Acid Gel Stain (diluted from 10,000x in 1x TE; Invitrogen) and visualized by UV transillumination. A band between 20 and 45 was excised using the 10-bp DNA ladder to identify footprint fragments. RNA was recovered using the ZR small-RNA PAGE Recovery Kit (Zymo Research) following the manufacturer's protocol, except that RNA was eluted from the final spin column with 15 µL of 10 mM Tris (pH 8.0). Collected

RNA was quantified and characterized by using a small-RNA chip on the Agilent

BioAnalyzer (Agilent Technologies).

Dephosphorylation

Three hundred pmol of footprint were denatured for 2 min at 80°C and placed on ice.

The 3' ends were dephosphorylated with T4 polynucleotide kinase (T4 PNK; NEB) in

the following reaction mix: 1 × T4 PNK reaction buffer (without ATP), 20 U

SUPERase・In, and 10 U T4 PNK. Reactions were incubated at 37°C for 1 hr. The

enzyme was then heat-inactivated for 10 min at 75°C. RNA was precipitated with

isopropanol and resuspended in 10 μL of 10 mM Tris (pH 8.0).

Linker-1 Ligation

Twenty pmol of dephosphorylated RNA was prepared by diluting with 10 mM Tris (pH

8.0). One μg of Linker-1 (5'-App CTGTAGGCACCATCAAT ddC-d') was added to

RNA samples. Mixtures were denatured for 90 s at 80°C, then cooled to room

temperature for 15 min. Ligation of RNA to Linker-1 used the following reaction

components: 20% (wt/col) PEG, 10% DMSO, 1 × T4 Ligase reaction buffer, 20 U

SUPERase・In, and 10 U T4 Ligase 2, truncated (NEB). Reaction mixtures were

incubated at 37°C for 1 h. 2 × TBE-Urea sample buffer was added to reaction mixtures.

Samples were resolved on a 10% TBE-Urea gel in 1 × TBE buffer at 200V. Gels were

stained for 3 min in SYBR Gold Nucleic Acid Gel Stain and visualized by UV

transillumination. A band between 30 and 70 nt was excised using the 10-bp DNA

ladder to mark ligated product size. Ligated RNA was recovered using the ZR

small-RNA PAGE Recovery kit. Ligated products were eluted from the final spin

column with 6 μL of 10 mM Tris (pH 8.0).

Phosphorylation

The collected 3' ligated samples were incubated for 2 min at 80°C and placed on ice.

The 5' ends were phosphorylated by T4 PNK in the following reaction mix: $1 \times$ T4 PNK

Reaction Buffer, 20 U SUPERase・In, 10 U T4 PNK and 1 mM ATP. Reactions were

incubated at 37°C for 1 hr. The enzyme was heat-inactivated for 10 min at 75°C. RNA

was precipitated with isopropanol and resuspended in 6 μL of 10 mM Tris (pH 8.0).

Linker-2 ligation

1   μL   of   100   μM   Linker-2

(5'-GAGTCTGCGTGTGATTCGGGTTAGGTGTTGGGTTGGGCCA-3') was added to

phosphorylated RNA samples. Mixtures were denatured for 15 min at 65°C and placed

on ice. Ligation of RNA to Linker-2 used the following reaction mix: 17.5% (wt/vol)

PEG, $1 \times$ T4 ligase reaction buffer, 20 U SUPERase・In, and 10 U T4 RNA Ligase1

(NEB). Reaction mixtures were incubated at 37°C for 2.5 h. Two $\times$ TBE-Urea sample

buffer was added and ligated RNA resolved on 10% TBE-Urea gels in $1 \times$ TBE buffer at

200V. Gels were stained for 3 min in SYBR Gold Nucleic Acid Gel Stain and visualized

by UV transillumination. A band between 90 and 120 nt was excised using the 10-bp

DNA ladder to identify ligated products. Ligated RNA was recovered using the ZR

small-RNA PAGE Recovery kit. Products were eluted from the final spin column with 6

μL of 10 mM Tris (pH 8.0).

Reverse transcription

Four point five μL of ligated samples were mixed with 1 μL of 0.1 μM Linker-1-RT

(5'-ATTGATGGTGCCTACAG-3') and 1 μL of 0.5 mM dNTP. The resulting mixtures

were denatured for 2 min at 80°C then quickly cooled on ice. Samples were incubated at

room temperature for 10 min reverse transcription using SuperScript III Reverse

Transcriptase (Invitrogen) with the following reaction mix: $1 \times$ first strand buffer, 5 mM

DTT, 20 U SUPERase· In and 200 U SuperScript III Reverse Transcriptase. Reaction

mixtures (10 μL) were incubated for 1 hr at 47°C. RNA products were hydrolyzed by

adding 1 mM NaOH to a final concentration of 0.1 mM and incubated for 15 min at

95°C. cDNA products were resolved from the unextended primer on a 10% TBE-Urea

gel in $1 \times$ TBE buffer at 200V. Samples were prepared for electrophoresis by adding $2 \times$

TBE-Urea sample buffer and denaturing for 5 min at 95°C. Gels were stained for 3 min

in SYBR Gold Nucleic Acid Gel Stain and visualized by UV transillumination. A band

between 90 and 120 nt was excised using the 10-bp DNA ladder to identify reverse

transcription products. DNA was recovered using the ZR small-RNA PAGE Recovery

Kit. cDNA products were eluted from the final spin column with 6 µL of 10 mM Tris

(pH 8.0).

2nd strand DNA synthesis

cDNA (100 pg) was amplified with Q5 High Fidelity Polymerase (NEB) using

LInker-2-partial (5'-TTAGGTGTTGGGTTGGGCCA-3') and Linker-1 as primers.

Amplified PCR products were purified using AMPure Bead (Beackman Coulter).

Double-stranded DNA was eluted from beads with 10 µL of 10 mM Tris (pH 8.0).

Library preparation and sequencing

KAPA Hyper Prep Kits from Illumina (KK8500) were used to construct the library with

a slight modification to the manufacturer's protocol. The manufacturer's protocol

followed the EndRepair and A-tailing steps, where, briefly, 5 µL of KAPA frag buffer

was added to 45 µL of purified double-stranded DNA. The resulting DNA library was

quantified and characterized using the high-sensitivity DNA chip on an Agilent

BioAnalyzer (Agilent Technologies). Libraries were sequenced using an Illumina HiSeq

1500 system and single-end reads after adding PhiX (Illumina) to a final concentration

of 30% (vol/vol) to improve sequencing quality.

Sequence analysis

Illumina libraries were preprocessed by clipping adapter sequence (Linker-1 and

Linker-2) using TrimmomaticPE v.0.39 [29] for the Illumina adapters and CutAdapt

v.2.10 [31] for linker sequences. Sequencing reads were aligned to the S1 genome

sequence [7] using HISAT2 v.2.2.1 [30]. The S1 gene feature file [7] was used to

identify the CDS region. Sequencing data were deposited in the DDBJ database with

accession number DRA011224.

(5) Definition of the ribosome density

The ribosome density (RD) was calculated as previously described [32], except that

ribosome footprints between 24 and 30 nt were selected for calculations. This range was

chosen to assess as many footprints as possible to improve statistical power and to

exclude fragments suspected not to represent footprints (see Additional file 3 for the

detail).

(6) Metagene analysis

Each normalized RD profile was aligned by its start codon and averaged across each

position, with RD profiles first being scaled by their own mean density to obtain

metagene profiles (Fig. 1B).

(7) DMS modification of ribosomes

Dimethyl sulfate (DMS) modification was based on a previously published protocol [7].

S. pneumoniae cultures (2.4 L) were grown to log-phase. Cells were pelleted by

centrifugation at $8,000 \times g$ for 15 min at 4°C and washed and resuspended in 250 μL of

DMS buffer [10 mM $MgCl_2$, 50 mM sodium cacodylate pH 7.0]. For the modification

in vivo, DMS solution was added to a final concentration of 50 mM and incubated for 1

hr at 20°C. The reaction was quenched by the addition of 62.5 μL ice-cold stop buffer [1

M β-mercaptoethanol and 1.5 M sodium acetate, pH 7.0]. RNA was extracted using

SDS/hot acid phenol method. Preheated (100°C) acid phenol (0.9 volumes) was added

to the quenched mixture and vortexed for 5 min. After centrifugation, RNA was purified

from the aqueous phase using DirectZol (Zymo Research). For the modification *in vitro*,

RNA was first extracted from the cell suspension using the same method as for *in vivo*.

After purifying the total RNA, DMS solution was added to a final concentration of 50

mM in DMS buffer and incubated for 1 hr at 20°C then quenched. RNA was

precipitated with ethanol and resuspended in 20 μL of 10 mM Tris (pH 8.0).

(8) Primer extension

The degree of methylation of each RNA was assayed by primer extension initially

described by Morgan et al. [33]. Briefly, 210 μg of DMS-probed total RNA, 400 nM

concentration of an oligonucleotide primer containing 5' - linked fluorescein

isothiocyanate   (FITC)

(5'-[FITC]GAATTAATCTAACGTATTTATTTATCTGCGTAATCA -3'), and 500 μM

dNTP were mixed, heated to 95°C for 1 min, and cooled to allow annealing at 53°C. A

mixture containing SuperScript III Reverse Transcriptase was added, and the reaction

was continued at 53°C for an additional 20 min. Reactions were terminated by the

addition of 2 × TBE-Urea sample buffer after incubation at 70°C for 15 min. Extension

products were resolved on a 12.5% TBE-urea gel and visualized using a

TyphoonFLA9000 photoimager (GE Healthcare).

(9) Definition of A-site peaks

We first determined the A-site corresponding to each read by an offset of $[(15/27)\times(L)]$

from the 5' end of the read, where L is the length of each read. Then we used normalized

A-site count (ribo/mRNA) as A-site peaks.

(10) Definition of strong stalling

Strong stalling is defined as A-site peaks with a height of higher than eight because the

number of A-site peaks in the *ermBL* region was around eight. This region is where

ribosome stalling was confirmed by RNA footprinting. The results, however, remain

robust also for other cutoff values of A-site density.

(11) Enrichment of over-, under-represented peptide sequence

Over- and under-represented peptide sequences were identified as previously described

[13], except that p-value cutoff is 0.0001 for under-represented peptides and 0.9999 for

over-represented peptides.

10. Supplementary Information

Additional file 1: Supplementary Tables S1

Additional file 2: Supplementary Tables S2

Additional file 3: Supplementary Fig. S1

11. Declarations

(1) Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

(2) Consent for publication

Not applicable.

(3) Availability of data and materials

All data generated in this study have been deposited to the DDBJ depository

(DRA011224).

(4) Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

(5) Funding

This work was funded by Grant-in-Aid for Japan Society for the Promotion of Science

Research Fellow 16J02984.

(6) Author contributions

ST contributed to the conception and overall design of the work, all of experiments,

bioinformatics analysis and interpretation of Ribo-Seq data and drafting of the

manuscript. TA contributed to the design of Ribo-Seq experiments. KY contributed to

Ribo-Seq experiments. TH contributed to bioinformatics analysis, interpretation of

Ribo-Seq data, drafting of the manuscript and substantial revision of the manuscript. YT

contributed to the drafting of the manuscript. KH contributed to the conception and

overall design of the work, interpretation of data, and drafting and revision the

manuscript. The authors read and approved the final manuscript.

(7) Acknowledgments

We thank Tomoko Yamamoto for discussions and comments to the manuscript.

12. References

1. Xiong, Liqun, et al. "A ketolide resistance mutation in domain II of 23S rRNA

reveals the proximity of hairpin 35 to the peptidyl transferase centre." Molecular

microbiology 31.2 (1999): 633-639.

2. Kannan, Krishna, and Alexander S. Mankin. "Macrolide antibiotics in the ribosome

exit tunnel: species-specific binding and action." Annals of the New York Academy

of Sciences 1241.1 (2011): 33-47.

3. Sergiev, Petr V., et al. "Modifications of ribosomal RNA: From enzymes to function."

Ribosomes. Springer, Vienna, 2011. 97-110.

4. Baldridge, Kevin C., and Lydia M. Contreras. "Functional implications of ribosomal

RNA methylation in response to environmental stress." Critical reviews in

biochemistry and molecular biology 49.1 (2014): 69-89.

5. Nakatogawa, Hitoshi, and Koreaki Ito. "The ribosomal exit tunnel functions as a

discriminating gate." Cell 108.5 (2002): 629-636.

6. Tenson, Tanel, and Måns Ehrenberg. "Regulatory nascent peptides in the ribosomal

tunnel." Cell 108.5 (2002): 591-594.

7. Takaya, Akiko, et al. "Methylation of 23S rRNA nucleotide G748 by RlmAII

methyltransferase renders Streptococcus pneumoniae telithromycin susceptible."

Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy 57.8 (2013): 3789-3796.

8. Shoji, Tatsuma, et al. "RlmCD-mediated U747 methylation promotes efficient G748

methylation by methyltransferase RlmAII in 23S rRNA in Streptococcus

pneumoniae; interplay between two rRNA methylations responsible for

telithromycin susceptibility." Nucleic acids research 43.18 (2015): 8964-8972.

9. Min, Yu-Hong, et al. "Translational attenuation and mRNA stabilization as

mechanisms of erm (B) induction by erythromycin." Antimicrobial agents and

chemotherapy 52.5 (2008): 1782-1789.

10. Davis, Amber R., David W. Gohara, and Mee-Ngan F. Yap. "Sequence selectivity of

macrolide-induced translational attenuation." Proceedings of the National Academy

of Sciences 111.43 (2014): 15379-15384.

11. Kimchi-Sarfaty, Chava, et al. "A" silent" polymorphism in the MDR1 gene changes

substrate specificity." Science 315.5811 (2007): 525-528.

12. Tsai, Chung-Jung, et al. "Synonymous mutations and ribosome stalling can lead to

altered folding pathways and distinct minima." Journal of molecular biology 383.2

(2008): 281-291.

13. Sabi, Renana, and Tamir Tuller. "Computational analysis of nascent peptides that

induce ribosome stalling and their proteomic distribution in Saccharomyces

cerevisiae." Rna 23.7 (2017): 983-994.

14. Ciryam, Prajwal, et al. "In vivo translation rates can substantially delay the

cotranslational folding of the Escherichia coli cytosolic proteome." Proceedings of

the National Academy of Sciences 110.2 (2013): E132-E140.

15. Döring, Kristina, et al. "Profiling Ssb-nascent chain interactions reveals principles of

Hsp70-assisted folding." Cell 170.2 (2017): 298-311.

16. Richter, Joel D., and Jeff Coller. "Pausing on polyribosomes: make way for

elongation in translational control." Cell 163.2 (2015): 292-300.

17. Moore, Sean D., and Robert T. Sauer. "Ribosome rescue: tmRNA tagging activity

and capacity in Escherichia coli." Molecular microbiology 58.2 (2005): 456-466.

18. Charneski, Catherine A., and Laurence D. Hurst. "Positively charged residues are

the major determinants of ribosomal velocity." PLoS Biol 11.3 (2013): e1001508.

19. Liu, Tzu-Yu, and Yun S. Song. "Prediction of ribosome footprint profile shapes from

transcript sequences." Bioinformatics 32.12 (2016): i183-i191.

20. Zhang, Sai, et al. "Analysis of ribosome stalling and translation elongation dynamics

by deep learning." Cell systems 5.3 (2017): 212-220.

21. Wang, Minshi, et al. "Reduced expression of the mouse ribosomal protein Rpl17

alters the diversity of mature ribosomes by enhancing production of shortened 5.8 S

rRNA." Rna 21.7 (2015): 1240-1248.

22. Jalava, Jari, et al. "In vitro activities of the novel ketolide telithromycin (hmr 3647)

against erythromycin-resistant streptococcusspecies." Antimicrobial agents and

chemotherapy 45.3 (2001): 789-793.

23. Nakhoul, Hani, et al. "Ribosomopathies: mechanisms of disease." Clinical Medicine

Insights: Blood Disorders 7 (2014): CMBD-S16952.

24. Narla, Anupama, and Benjamin L. Ebert. "Ribosomopathies: human disorders of

ribosome dysfunction." Blood, The Journal of the American Society of Hematology

115.16 (2010): 3196-3205.

25. De Keersmaecker, Kim, Sergey O. Sulima, and Jonathan D. Dinman.

"Ribosomopathies and the paradox of cellular hypo-to hyperproliferation." Blood

125.9 (2015): 1377-1382.

26. Connolly, Martin, et al. "miR‑424‑5p reduces ribosomal RNA and protein synthesis

in muscle wasting." Journal of cachexia, sarcopenia and muscle 9.2 (2018):

400‑416.

27. Hori, Hiroaki, et al. "Integrated profiling of phenotype and blood transcriptome for

stress vulnerability and depression." Journal of psychiatric research 104 (2018):

202‑210.

28. Iannelli, Francesco, and Gianni Pozzi. "Method for introducing specific and

unmarked mutations into the chromosome of Streptococcus pneumoniae."

Molecular biotechnology 26.1 (2004): 81‑86.

29. Bolger, Anthony, and F. Giorgi. "Trimmomatic: a flexible read trimming tool for

illumina NGS data." Bioinformatics 30.15 (2014): 2114‑2120.

30. Kim, Daehwan, et al. "Graph‑based genome alignment and genotyping with

HISAT2 and HISAT‑genotype." Nature biotechnology 37.8 (2019): 907‑915.

31. Martin, Marcel. "Cutadapt removes adapter sequences from high‑throughput

sequencing reads." EMBnet. journal 17.1 (2011): 10‑12.

32. Basu, Arnab, and Mee-Ngan F. Yap. "Ribosome hibernation factor promotes

Staphylococcal survival and differentially represses translation." Nucleic acids

research 44.10 (2016): 4881-4893.

33. Sigmund, Curt D., et al. "Antibiotic resistance mutations in ribosomal RNA genes of

Escherichia coli." Methods in enzymology. Academic Press 164 (1988): 673-690.

34. Okada, Nobuhiko, et al. "Streptococcus pyogenes protein F promotes invasion of

HeLa cells." Microbiology 144.11 (1998): 3079-3086.

35. Takaya, Akiko, et al. "Mutational analysis of reduced telithromycin susceptibility of

Streptococcus pneumoniae isolated clinically in Japan." FEMS microbiology letters

307.1 (2010): 87-93.

13. Figure Legends

Fig. 1 Differences in ribosome density (RD) profiles between Sp284 and Sp379.

(A) RD in *erm*(B) in Sp284 or Sp379. (B) Metagene profile of RD in Sp284 or Sp379.

RD across all ORFs was aligned relative to the start position.

Fig. 2 RNA footprinting assay for the *ermBL* region.

(A) The secondary structure model of *ermBL* region in *erm*(B) mRNA suggested in [9].

Amino acids in at the A-site of stalled ribosomes in the *ermBL* region are boxed. (B)

RNA footprinting of the *ermBL* region indicates a difference in ribosome stalling

between Sp380 and Sp382. DMS was added to bacterial cultures (*in vivo*) or the total

RNAs (*in vitro*). Reactions were quenched, and total RNA was purified and used in

primer extension assays to detect base modifications. Unmodified RNA was used as a

control (DMS (-)). The gel shows primer extension products from bases 117 to 152. The

sequence around the calculated P-site and encoded amino acids are indicated on the side

of the gel.

Fig. 3 The effect of m1G748 on transient stalling and strong stalling. (A, B)

Histograms showing the distribution of A-site density in Sp284 and Sp379, respectively.

(C) Venn diagram for stalling peptide sequences in Sp284 and Sp379. The number of

stalling peptide sequences is shown in parentheses. The number in the intersection

region reflects common stalling peptides.

Fig. 4 Enrichment of over- and under-represented stalling peptides

The number of the stalling peptides are represented at the center of the donut. The

p-value represents statistical significance of the over- and under-represented fractions.

14. Supplementary Figure Legends

Fig. S1 Histograms showing the distribution of length of RFPs in Sp284 and Sp379,

respectively.

15. Supplementary Table Legends

Table S1 The list of stalling peptides.

The first and the second columns list stalling peptides in Sp284 and Sp379 respectively.

The third column shows the list of stalling peptides that are common between strains.

Table S2 The list of over- and under-represented peptides.

The first and the second columns list over-represented peptides and under-represented

peptides in *S. pneumoniae* proteome composition.

16. Tables

Table 1   Bacterial strains

Strain	Relevant characteristics	Reference of source
Streptococcus pneumoniae		
S1	TEL resistance clinical isolate	[7]
Sp36	TEL-resistant mutants of S1 isolated from 8 µg/mL TEL-containing BHI-Y agar plates	[7]
Sp274	Δ*tlrB*::*aad*(9) in S1	[7]
Sp284	Sp274 harboring pTKY1111	This study
Sp379	Sp274 harboring pTKY1127	This study
Sp380	S1 harboring pTKY1041	This study
Sp382	Sp274 harboring pTKY1041	This study

567 **Table 2** **Plasmids**

Plasmid	Relevant characteristics	Reference of source
pUC18	Cloning vector	Lab. collection
pLZ12-Km2	Shuttle vector	[34]
pTKY862	pLZ12-Km2 with Sp resistant cassette *aad*(9)	[35]
pTKY1041	pLZ12-Km2 with 1401 bp *erm*(B) fragment from S1	[7]

pTKY1109	pUC18 with 328 bp *tlrB* fragment	[7]
pTKY1110	pUC18 with disrupted *tlrB* fragment by insertion of an Sp resistant cassette *aad*(9)	[7]
pTKY1111	pLZ12-Km2 with 1065 bp *tlrB* fragment from S1	[7]
pTKY1127	pLZ12-Km2 with 1065 bp *tlrB* fragment from Sp44	[7]

(A)

(B)

Figure 1 Shoji et al.

(A)

(B)

Figure 2 Shoji et al.

Figure 3 Shoji et al.

Figure 4 Shoji et al.