Mechanism of transcription modulation by the transcription-repair coupling factor

Bishnu P Paudel[1,2], Zhi-Qiang Xu[1,2], Slobodan Jergic[1,2], Aaron J Oakley[1,2], Nischal Sharma[1,2],

Simon HJ Brown[1,2], James C Bouwer[1,2], Peter J Lewis[1,3], Nicholas E Dixon[1,2], Antoine M van

Oijen[1,2], Harshad Ghodke[1,2]*

[1]Molecular Horizons and School of Chemistry and Molecular Bioscience, University of Wollongong,

Wollongong, Australia

[2] Illawarra Health and Medical Research Institute, Wollongong, Australia

[3]School of Environmental and Life Sciences, University of Newcastle, Callaghan, NSW 2308, Australia

Correspondence:

Harshad Ghodke, Molecular Horizons and School of Chemistry and Molecular Bioscience, University

of Wollongong, Wollongong, New South Wales, 2522, Australia

Abstract

Elongation by RNA polymerase is dynamically modulated by accessory factors. The transcription-repair

coupling factor (TRCF) recognizes distressed RNAPs and either rescues transcription or initiates

transcription termination. Precisely how TRCFs choose to execute either outcome remains unclear.

With *Escherichia coli* as a model, we used single-molecule assays to study dynamic modulation of

elongation by Mfd, the bacterial TRCF. We found that nucleotide-bound Mfd chaperones the

elongation complex (EC) into a catalytically poised state, presenting the EC with an opportunity to

restart transcription. After long-lived residence in this catalytically poised state, ATP hydrolysis by Mfd

remodels the EC through an irreversible process leading to loss of the RNA transcript. Further,

biophysical studies revealed that the motor domain of Mfd binds and partially melts DNA containing

a template strand overhang. The results explain pathway choice determining the fate of the elongation

complex and provide a molecular mechanism for transcription modulation by TRCF.

Introduction

Gene expression involves synthesis of RNA transcripts by RNA polymerases across all domains of life. During elongation, RNA polymerase (RNAP) maintains a 9 – 10 nucleotide RNA:DNA hybrid within the transcription bubble through the templated addition of ribonucleotides (reviewed by (Belogurov and Artsimovitch, 2019)). Processive nucleotide addition cycles result in the growth of the RNA transcript that is then extruded from the polymerase through the exit channel, accompanied by translocation of the polymerase along the template. Finally, during termination, nucleotide addition ceases and RNAP is displaced from the template DNA and recycled for subsequent rounds of transcription.

Elongation is punctuated by sequence-dependent pausing, stalling at sites of damage on the DNA template or at sites of roadblocks in the form of DNA-bound proteins. Prolonged residence in paused states can lead to escape into backtracked states in which the catalytic site of RNAP loses register with the 3' end of the RNA transcript, allowing the newly synthesized transcript to invade the secondary channel of RNAP (Abdelkareem et al., 2019; Gabizon et al., 2018; Komissarova and Kashlev, 1997). Rescue from such backtracked states is catalyzed by processivity factors such as GreA and GreB (Abdelkareem et al., 2019; Borukhov et al., 1993). Elongation is modulated by the universally conserved elongation/pause factor, the bacterial NusG, homologous with Spt5 in eukaryotes (reviewed by (Wang and Artsimovitch, 2020)). In *Escherichia coli*, NusG maintains processive transcription (Burova et al., 1995) by suppressing backtracking through contacts on the upstream DNA (Herbert et al., 2010; Kang et al., 2018).

Elongation is also modulated by the transcription-repair coupling factor (TRCF) resulting in either transcription termination or rescue. The bacterial TRCF – Mfd is a multi-domain adaptor protein consisting of 7 domains connected by flexible linkers (Supplemental Figure 1A) (Deaconescu et al., 2006). Domains 1a/2/1b form the UvrB–homology module that bears structural homology to the nucleotide excision repair protein UvrB and enables contacts with the repair protein UvrA. Domain 3 serves as a structural element playing a role in orienting the UvrB-homology module during the

activation of the protein (Brugger et al., 2020), following interactions of domain 4, the RNAP

interaction domain, with distressed RNAP (Kang et al., 2021; Park et al., 2002). Domains 5 and 6

together form the motor domain, representing a (helicase) superfamily II ATPase that exhibits

structural homology to the RecG translocase (Deaconescu et al., 2006; Mahdi et al., 2003). Domain 7

is an auto-inhibitory domain that contacts the UvrB-homology module to maintain it in a closed

conformation, suppressing promiscuous DNA binding of Mfd in the absence of interactions with RNAP.

A detailed understanding of the activities of Mfd has been assembled through a combination

of molecular biology, biochemical (Chambers et al., 2003; Haines et al., 2014; Manelyte et al., 2010;

Park et al., 2002; Selby and Sancar, 1993a, b; Smith et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2007), structural methods

(Brugger et al., 2020; Deaconescu et al., 2006; Kang et al., 2021; Shi et al., 2020), as well as single-

molecule (Fan et al., 2016; Graves et al., 2015; Howan et al., 2012; Le et al., 2017) and live-cell imaging

techniques (Ghodke et al., 2020; Ho et al., 2018, 2020). Mfd acts in a complex role in modulating

transcription activity, including at hard-to-transcribe regions (Ragheb et al., 2021). At sites of DNA

damage, Mfd orchestrates premature transcription termination leading to an enhancement in repair

of DNA damage in the template strand − a phenomenon known as transcription-coupled DNA repair

(Fan et al., 2016; Ghodke et al., 2020; Haines et al., 2014; Ho et al., 2020; Mellon and Hanawalt, 1989;

Selby and Sancar, 1993a). In bacterial cells, the UvrA$_2$B nucleotide excision repair machinery is

recruited to the site of distressed RNAPs by Mfd, resulting in the site-specific loading of the damage

verification enzyme UvrB (Ghodke et al., 2020; Ho et al., 2020). This ability to recruit DNA-repair

machinery at sites of lesion-stalled RNAP to promote ATP-dependent premature transcription

termination is a property that is shared by eukaryotic functional homologs of Mfd – the yeast Rad26

(Duan et al., 2020; van Gool et al., 1994; Xu et al., 2017) and human CSB (van der Weegen et al., 2020;

Venema et al., 1990). Mutations in CSB protein result in deficient repair machinery recruitment

causing Cockayne syndrome in humans (Mayne and Lehmann, 1982; Troelstra et al., 1992; Venema et

al., 1990).

In addition to initiating transcription termination, the three best-studied TRCFs also serve as

elongation factors. Like Rad26 (Xu et al., 2017) and CSB (Selby and Sancar, 1997), Mfd has also been

shown to rescue transcription at pause sites *in vitro* through a 'release-and-catch up' mechanism (Le

et al., 2017; Park et al., 2002). Forward translocation of the elongation complex (EC) is central to TRCF

activities including rescue from backtracked states and transcription termination (Le et al., 2017; Park

et al., 2002; Selby and Sancar, 1997; Xu et al., 2017). Considering their membership in the class of

superfamily 2 helicases (Byrd and Raney, 2012), the structural homology of the TRCF motor domains

and a similar mode of engagement with the EC between Mfd (Brugger et al., 2020; Kang et al., 2021;

Shi et al., 2020) and Rad26 (Xu et al., 2017), it is plausible that the molecular mechanisms underlying

these outcomes are conserved.

However, precisely how TRCF activity results in transcription elongation versus rescue is

unknown. Two models have been proposed to explain forward translocation of RNAP by TRCFs: first,

the TRCF 'pushes' RNAP forward while translocating on dsDNA as proposed for Mfd (Park et al., 2002),

and second, the TRCF pulls the ssDNA template to effectively translocate the polymerase forward (Xu

et al., 2017). Recent structures of *Ec*Mfd approaching an *in vitro* reconstituted EC assembled on a non-

complementary bubble have demonstrated that following initial recognition of the EC, Mfd

translocates forward until it bumps into the RNAP, pushing the polymerase and resulting in global

remodeling of the EC (Kang et al., 2021). The structure of yeast Rad26 bound to upstream DNA in the

RNA Pol II EC (Xu et al., 2017) reveals direct contacts between dsDNA-bound Rad26 and the ssDNA

template strand. Based on the homology to the Swi2/Snf2-family core ATPase domains, and the

mechanism of Snf2 in chromatin remodeling, it has been proposed that Rad26 pulls template DNA in

the Pol II EC (Xu et al., 2017). Structures of DNA-bound Mfd have established the homology of its

motor domains to ATPases involved in chromatin remodeling (most notably Snf2); however it remains

unclear whether the proposed mechanism for Rad26 is conserved (Brugger et al., 2020). Since

available structures depict initial global remodeling of the EC but not transcription termination leading

to disassembly of the EC accompanied by loss of the transcript (Kang et al., 2021), it remains to be

seen whether a similar Mfd-ssDNA interaction underlies transcription termination. Further, while it is

clear that displacement of the polymerase in the absence of downstream binding partners of Mfd is a

slow event requiring several minutes *in vitro* (Graves et al., 2015; Howan et al., 2012)*,* the sequence

of events leading to loss of the transcript and its residence time in the EC during this remodeling

remains unclear.

Here, we set out to understand how Mfd dynamically remodels the EC by monitoring the fate

of the RNA transcript under various scenarios. We developed a single-molecule Förster resonance

energy transfer (smFRET)-based assay that directly visualizes dynamic changes in the distance

between donor-labeled upstream DNA and acceptor-labeled RNA transcript forming the transcription

bubble. We reconstituted catalytically-functional ECs *in situ* and monitored the FRET signal from

surface-immobilized molecules under conditions of partial or complete nucleotide starvation, and

probed global remodeling of the EC by NusG and Mfd on the timescale of minutes. NusG efficiently

rescued ECs from catalytically inactive states, consistent with its role as an elongation factor. On the

other hand, Mfd was able to rescue ECs from catalytically inactive states into a long-lived catalytically

poised state, prior to continued ATP-hydrolysis-dependent forward translocation consistent with

transcription termination. This catalytically poised state acts as a 'molecular timer', presenting the EC

with an opportunity to restart transcription. Further biophysical and structural biology studies reveal

a novel role for a conserved arginine residue as a "hook" in mediating contacts with ssDNA while the

nucleotide-bound motor domain melts the dsDNA on DNA substrates mimicking the transcription

bubble. Collectively, the studies enable us to propose a 'melt, hook and pull' model to rationalize how

ATP binding and hydrolysis by Mfd modulate transcription elongation or termination.

Results

Rationale for a smFRET assay to study transcription elongation

We monitored transcription elongation by assembling functional ECs on dye-labeled, fully-

complementary transcription bubbles *in situ* by adopting a previously described strategy to study RNA

Pol II dynamics (Andrecka et al., 2008) in combination with well-established approaches to

reconstitute functional *E. coli* ECs (Komissarova et al., 2003). Specifically, we introduced a Cy3 donor

dye on the upstream DNA and a Cy5 acceptor on the RNA (Figure 1A; Supplemental Figure 1B) at sites

that are predicted to exhibit high smFRET signals within the dynamic range of the technique

(Supplemental Note 1). Three features of this strategy enable precise dissection of the dynamics of

molecular mechanisms of Mfd-dependent remodeling of the EC: (i) the use of synthetic RNA and DNA

oligonucleotides enables site-specific introduction of dyes in the phosphodiester backbone that serve

as FRET pairs, and consequently, the ability to probe conformational changes between various parts

of this complex; (ii) smFRET affords sub-second temporal resolution (200 ms in our experiments)

enabling reliable measurements of dynamic interactions on the timescale of seconds to minutes, and

(iii) the ability to specify RNA sequences that cannot hybridize with upstream DNA limits extensive

backtracking of ECs. RNAP in the elongation phase can exist as a backtracked complex (where the 3'

end of the transcript is extruded into the secondary channel (Abdelkareem et al., 2019)), a pre-

translocated conformation prior to nucleotide addition, and a post-translocated conformation

following nucleotide incorporation. Since backtracking requires hybridization of the RNA transcript

with the upstream DNA, the choice of a non-complementary RNA sequence is expected to minimize

the heterogeneity in the observed population of ECs in this assay.

Monitoring transcription elongation by RNAP

Functional RNAP ECs were assembled *in situ* on the microscope stage at room temperature

(24°C) by flowing a solution containing RNAP that had been pre-incubated with the template:RNA

hybrid into a microfluidic device with surface immobilized biotinylated non-template DNA. After

complex assembly, the flow cell was washed with a high-ionic strength solution (1M KCl) followed by

rapid exchange with a buffer solution supporting transcription but without ribonucleotides (NTPs).

These steps enabled the retention of only completely reconstituted elongation complexes that each

contain a Cy3-labeled template and a Cy5-labeled transcript (see Table 1 for sequences). Subsequent

measurements of the smFRET signal between the Cy3 donor and the Cy5 acceptor (see Methods)

reveal that complexes assembled resided in stable high FRET states centered at 0.9 (Figure 1B top

panel, upper trace; Supplemental Figure 1C for example intensity traces). In addition, a small fraction

(14% of 318 trajectories) also exhibited mid-FRET states centered at 0.6 (Figure 1B top panel, lower

trace).

These states were recapitulated in temporal heat maps (Figure 1B, middle panel) that are

scatterplots describing how the smFRET signal evolves in time for the ensemble population. The heat

maps represent the raw data, and the projections on the Y-axis represent the ensemble FRET

measurements (of all FRET trajectories), while the projection on the X-axis displays the evolution of

all FRET signals in time measured with a time resolution of 0.2 s. The loss of signal over time is

attributable to the photobleaching of individual dyes during the course of the acquisition due to

continuous laser illumination (Figure 1B, middle panel). Here, the overlaid black lines reflect contours

parsing the data into deciles. These temporal heat maps are thus a convenient representation

presenting an overview of the progress of FRET trajectories and population density over time.

Since the majority of the complexes thus assembled exhibited time-FRET trajectories that

fluctuate around 0.9 FRET, and a minority exhibited transitions to the 0.6 FRET state, we pursued an

unbiased approach to visualize transitions between various FRET states. FRET trajectories were

idealized using vbFRET (http://vbfret.sourceforge.net/) and the detected states were plotted in

transition density plots (TDPs; Supplemental Figure 1D, 'EC alone') to visualize interconversion among

different states and the directionality of those changes (Bronson et al., 2009). In this representation,

features that are only present in one half of the plot on either side of the diagonal manifest as

asymmetric features and denote irreversible transitions between states on the timescale of the

observation. As demonstrated by the TDP, the interconversions between the states were reversible

(based on the displayed symmetry of the FRET populations across the diagonal), and were restricted

to the high FRET regime. Within the paradigm that FRET changes reflect conformational changes, a

straightforward interpretation of these data is that the complex undergoes relatively minor, but

reversible, conformational changes.

For convenience, here we assign smFRET signals between 0.7–1 as being 'high', 0.4–0.7 as

'mid' and 0–0.4 as being 'low'. Trajectories were then sorted as 'static' (black bars; bottom panel

Figure 1B) if the signal resided in exactly one state, and dynamic otherwise. Further, dynamic

trajectories were parsed into 'high', 'mid' or 'low' categories if all the states visited by the molecule

were within the ranges defined above. Molecules exhibiting transitions between two adjacent regimes

were classified as 'high–mid' or 'mid–low' as appropriate, and molecules exhibiting transitions among

all three regimes were classified in the 'high–low' class. Here, the lower panels represent the

percentages of the trajectories in each class, and the total number of molecules observed is indicated

in the top right in each panel. Here, for 'EC alone' 65% of the ECs exhibited static FRET signals. 10%

exhibited dynamics confined to the high-FRET regime, and 14% and 9% of observations respectively

exhibited transitions in the high–mid and mid–low FRET regimes. This visualization serves to provide

an overview of static and dynamic behavior by the individual molecules in the data set.

To assign states, and to test that the complexes are catalytically functional, we challenged

complexes with deoxyNTPs (dNTPs), 'wrong' (or non-complementary) NTPs and the complete set of

NTPs. In this assay, transcript elongation is expected to increase the distance between the FRET pair

dictated by the geometry of the EC, leading to a drop in FRET. Since dNTPs are selected against

incorporation into the transcript (Svetlov et al., 2004), we expected that smFRET signal from the

reconstituted ECs would not drop. Consistent with this expectation, complexes exposed to dNTPs

revealed a high-FRET population (Figure 1C). In contrast, non-complementary NTPs converted the

population of complexes in the high-FRET states to the mid-FRET states (Figure 1D). In both cases, the

interconverting populations exhibited symmetric peaks across the diagonal indicating that in the

presence of either dNTPs or the wrong NTPs, the ternary complex visits the observed states reversibly

(Supplemental Figure 1D).

'Walking' the complex by supplying a subset of the 'correct' complementary NTPs revealed

gradual conversion from the high-FRET to a mid-FRET population (Supplemental Figure 1E–G). When

presented with the complete set of NTPs, the ternary complex exhibited unidirectional conversion of

the FRET signal from high- to low-FRET values (Figure 1E and Supplemental Figure 1D). Notably, the

TDPs, and indeed the individual traces, often revealed a conversion of the high-FRET states to the low-

FRET states *via* the mid-FRET states. Of the 30% of trajectories exhibiting dynamics from the high to the low FRET regime, only 30% of the ECs exhibited a single direct transition, 57% exhibited a step-wise transition to the low-FRET regime by visiting the mid-FRET regime (intermediate; Supplemental Figure 1D, bottom right panel) and the remainder exhibited high-mid dynamic trajectories prior to a single-step transition from a high-FRET state to a low-FRET state. It is possible that trajectories exhibiting a single-step transition conceal a hidden intermediate step with a lifetime below our time resolution.

To better characterize the mid-FRET states observed in these experiments, we plotted distributions of lifetimes of individual states in each condition (Table 2, Supplemental Figure 1H and Supplemental Note 2). Here, the elongation complex exhibited a lifetime 5.0 ± 0.8 s, and this did not change appreciably in the presence of dNTPs (5.7 ± 1.5 s) and correct NTPs (5.5 ± 1.3 s) although, a slightly longer lifetime of 7.8 ± 0.9 s was detected in the presence of the wrong NTPs. In conjunction with the TDPs, we infer that despite comparable lifetimes, the exit from the mid-FRET states is favored toward entry into high-FRET states for all conditions except in the presence of the correct NTPs.

Collectively, the data indicate that the complexes assembled *in situ* represent functional ternary ECs that exist in a catalytically 'inactive' state and a catalytically 'poised' state. The observations that complexes often first transition to the mid-FRET state prior to addition of NTPs suggests that this represents a catalytically poised state. We tentatively assigned the high-FRET states centered at 0.9 to a catalytically inactive state. This catalytically inactive state may potentially represent a pre-translocated conformation of the EC. Estimates of the expected FRET efficiency based on the distances between the Cy3-Cy5 dye pair for the pre- and post-translocated conformations of the EC are in good agreement with the measured FRET efficiencies measured in our experiments (Supplemental Figure 1B and Supplemental Note 1).

NusG promotes residence of ECs in the catalytically poised state

Next, we tested this assignment of states by assessing the response of the complex to the elongation factor *Ec*NusG (Figure 2A), which is predicted to retain ECs in the catalytically poised state. Addition

of NusG indeed resulted in an increased occupancy of mid-FRET states accompanied by a reduction of

the high-FRET state (Figures 2B *cf*. 1B). Trajectories revealed a conversion from the high-FRET state

into the mid-FRET state and fluctuation around the mid-FRET state (Figure 2B), consistent with our

assignment of the mid-FRET as the catalytically poised state.

Incubation with incorrect NTPs in the presence of NusG revealed a greater population of

dynamic ECs with dynamic behavior across all FRET regimes (Figure 2C and Supplemental Figure 2A).

Reversible short-lived transitions to low-FRET states were also evident (Figure 2C and Supplemental

Figure 2A). The lifetime of this mid-FRET state (6.9 ± 0.9 s) was similar to that of the EC alone incubated

with the incorrect NTPs (7.8 ± 0.9 s) while being marginally longer than that of the EC incubated with

NusG alone (4.2 ± 0.4 s) in the absence of any nucleotide (Supplemental Figure 2B).

Importantly, the complete set of NTPs revealed efficient, irreversible conversion to the low-

FRET regime (0 − 0.4) from the mid-FRET regime (Figure 2D and Supplemental Figure 2A) in the

presence of NusG suggesting processive extension of the transcript through nucleotide incorporation

and associated forward translocation by RNAP. The lifetime of the EC in the presence of NusG and all

correct nucleotides was comparable to the lifetime of this state in the absence of any nucleotide or in

the presence of correct nucleotides (Table 2, Supplemental Figures 2B, 1H and Supplemental Note 2).

Overall, NusG led to a reduction in the number of static molecules, accompanied by a greater

fraction occupying states in the mid-FRET regime in the presence of correct NTPs. Together, these

observations are consistent with the role of *Ec*NusG as a suppressor of backtracking of RNAP (Burova

et al., 1995; Herbert et al., 2010; Kang et al., 2018). Overall, these results indicate that *Ec*NusG

modulates the equilibrium between the catalytically inactive and active states by promoting residence

of the complex in a catalytically poised conformation.

Remodeling of the elongation complex by Mfd

Next, we assessed the interactions of Mfd with ECs armed with the assignment of states in the high-

FRET regime as catalytically inactive states, and those in the mid-FRET states as a catalytically poised

states. To characterize the binding of Mfd to RNAP, we first measured the affinity of Mfd for pre-

260 assembled ECs or the dsDNA alone using surface plasmon resonance (SPR). Since Mfd interacts poorly

261 with DNA in bulk assays in the absence or presence of ATP, measurements of binding of purified Mfd

262 to either DNA or the EC were carried out in the presence of slowly hydrolyzable ATPγS. SPR

263 measurements revealed a dissociation constant (K_D) of 170 ± 20 nM (Supplemental Figure 2C) for 49-

264 mer dsDNA alone, consistent with measurements by other groups (Brugger et al., 2020; Le et al.,

265 2017). Binding to reconstituted RNAP ECs on a 49-mer exhibited similar affinity with a K_D of 127 ± 6

266 nM (Supplemental Figure 2C). These data are consistent with the model that dsDNA serves as a major

267 binding partner for Mfd-ATPγS in the context of the EC as previously demonstrated (Kang et al., 2021;

268 Le et al., 2017; Park et al., 2002; Shi et al., 2020). It is notable that whereas association curves of Mfd

269 to dsDNA exhibit fast saturation, binding of Mfd to RNAP ECs does not reach full saturation on the

270 timescale of the association phase. This may be attributable to the presence of two types of binding

271 substrates, for example, non-specific binding to ds DNA alone, or specific binding to the EC.

272  We then investigated how interactions of Mfd with RNAP influence the conformational

273 dynamics of the transcription bubble using our smFRET assay (Figure 3A). Consistent with the lack of

274 stable binding of Mfd with DNA in the absence of ATP, only 49% of ECs exhibited observable

275 interactions in the smFRET measurements (n_{obs} = 77, Figure 3B bottom panel). These trajectories

276 exhibited reversible transitions from the high- to mid-FRET states even in the absence of any

277 nucleotide co-factor (Figure 3B and Supplemental Figure 3A 'EC, Mfd'), reflecting failed attempts at

278 stable engagement of Mfd with the EC. Notably, differently from the EC alone (Supplemental Figure

279 1), dynamic trajectories exhibited transitions mainly in the high-mid and high-FRET regimes.

280  Mfd-ATPγS resulted in dynamic ECs visiting additional mid-FRET states (Figure 3C and

281 Supplemental Figure 3A 'EC, Mfd-ATPγS'). ATPγS alone did not account for these observations

282 (Supplemental Figure 3B). Curiously, Mfd-ATPγS exhibits apparently quantized transitions in the

283 transition density plot compared to Mfd alone, indicating that binding of Mfd-ATPγS displaces RNAP

284 forward (Supplemental Figure 3A 'EC, Mfd' *vs.* 'EC, Mfd-ATPγS'). Together the data reveal that Mfd

285 can isomerize RNAP merely upon binding to the nucleotide-starved EC. The efficiency of this

isomerization is appreciably greater in the presence of ATPγS.

Treatment of *in situ* assembled ECs with Mfd and ATP (1 mM) revealed a greater number of

molecules exhibiting dynamics across all three regimes, including molecules that exhibited efficient

conversion to the mid- and low-FRET regimes (Figure 3D). To further explore the nature of these

transitions, we visualized them in a transition density plot (Supplemental Figure 3A, 'EC, Mfd-ATP'),

which revealed a dynamic population in the mid-FRET regime. Measurement of the lifetime of Mfd-

ATP in the intermediate state revealed a lifetime of 6.2 ± 0.7 s, comparable to that of Mfd alone (7.1

± 2 s) or in the presence of ATPγS (6.1 ± 1.4 s) (Table 2, Supplemental Figure 3C and Supplemental

Note 2). Strikingly, the lifetime of this mid-FRET state did not exhibit a dependence on the

concentration of ATP in the range from 10 μM to 10 mM suggesting that stoichiometry amounts of

ATP are sufficient to promote conversion to low-FRET states (Table 2 and Supplemental Figure 3C).

ATP alone was not responsible for the conversion of the EC to low-FRET states in the absence of Mfd

(Supplemental Figure 3D).

Compared to the wild-type, the Mfd(R953A) mutant (Chambers et al., 2003), known to be

proficient in ATP hydrolysis while strikingly deficient in RNAP displacement and transcription

termination exhibited inefficient conversion to the low-FRET states (Figure 3E). Notably, unlike wild-

type Mfd, transitions were observed mainly in the high- to mid- FRET regime (Supplemental Figure 3A

'EC, Mfd(R953A)-ATP'). The lifetime of Mfd(R953A) in the mid-FRET regime was comparable to that of

Mfd in the absence of nucleotide (Supplemental Figure 3C). Intriguingly, Mfd(R953A)-ATP exhibited a

pattern of quantized transitions that is similar to that of Mfd-ATPγS in the transition density plots

(Supplemental Figure 3A, compare 'EC, Mfd-ATPγS' and 'EC, Mfd(R953A)-ATP'), suggesting that the

mutation in this residue serves to reveal distinct aspects of Mfd's binding to the EC.

Together, the data indicate that both wild-type and translocase deficient Mfd rescue RNAP

from the catalytically inactive states accessible in our substrate to catalytically-poised states, albeit

with varying efficiencies. However, only the wild-type Mfd can further process the EC in the presence

of ATP. The low-FRET states observed in our system represent circumstances in which the distance

between the donor–acceptor pair is outside the dynamic range of efficient FRET as might be expected

when the RNAP is forward translocated well past the stall site, and/or the Cy5-labeled RNA transcript

is lost. The observation that the EC fails to return to the mid- or high-FRET states in the presence of

ATP indicates the occurrence of an irreversible reaction, most consistent with an irreversible loss of

RNA. In this model, Mfd(R953A) fails to displace the transcript from the EC, consistent with prior

findings (Chambers et al., 2003).

To confirm that the exit from the mid-FRET regime observed in the Mfd-EC in the presence of

ATP corresponds to loss of the transcript and not photobleaching of the Cy5 dye, we measured the

residence time of the Cy5-labeled RNA through direct excitation using a 637 nm laser (see Methods).

Here, the distribution of the lifetimes of the Cy5 signal in samples containing RNAP ECs alone on the

surface exhibited a single species with a lifetime of 11.3 ± 0.1 s corresponding to the photobleaching

lifetime of Cy5 due to direct excitation by the laser. On the other hand, incubation with Mfd in the

presence of ATP (1 mM) revealed a distribution that was best fit by two exponentials: a short-lived

species with a lifetime of 4.6 ± 0.2 s (amplitude: 52 % of the population) in addition to the longer-lived

species detected previously, corresponding to the photobleaching of Cy5 with a mean lifetime of 11.3

± 0.1 s (Figure 3F). This short-lived species exhibits a lifetime that matches well the lifetime of the

catalytically poised intermediate measured using smFRET (4.6-6.2 s; Supplemental Figure 3). Further,

the fraction of dynamic trajectories observed in the FRET experiments (58%) agreed well with the

fraction of the population losing the RNA transcript. Thus, the data demonstrate that exit from this

intermediate indeed corresponds to loss of the RNA transcript. In essence this intermediate serves as

a 'molecular timer' counting down the time beyond which elongation is no longer an option.

Finally, we investigated whether nucleotide cofactor-bound Mfd was sufficient to chaperone

the EC into catalytically active conformations. To test whether ECs pre-incubated with Mfd-ATPγS for

10 minutes could further incorporate rNTPs, we introduced GTP and UTP into the flow cell and

measured the FRET signal. As expected, molecules exhibited a rapid conversion to low-FRET states

evidenced in individual trajectories, as well as in the ensemble heat map (Figure 3G). The characteristic

lifetime of the intermediate states was recovered from a gamma distribution to be 0.7 ± 0.2 s

(Supplemental Figure 3C), almost eight-fold lower than the mean lifetime of the intermediate state

for ECs incubated with NTPs (5.5 ± 0.9 s) recovered from a single-exponential distribution. A plausible

physical basis for this observation could be the restriction of backtracking following template slippage

by the physical presence of Mfd-ATPγS on the upstream edge of the transcription bubble.

To quantify the ability of ECs to incorporate nucleotides in the absence or presence of Mfd-

ATPγS, we compared histograms of the ensemble FRET states detected in the idealized trajectories for

the two conditions (Figure 3H). Fitting the histogram to a sum of Gaussians revealed three populations

centered at 0.91, 0.63 and 0.09 for the EC incubated with GTP, UTP and ATP. We assigned these as the

EC alone, catalytically poised EC and ECs that have extended the transcript following NTP

incorporation, respectively. Similarly, we recovered three populations centered at 0.93, 0.7 and 0.18

for ECs that were pre-incubated with Mfd-ATPγS followed by incubation with GTP and UTP. We

assigned these three populations as RNAP alone, ECs acted upon by Mfd-ATPγS and ECs that have

incorporated two NTPs.

In each case, the recovery of the population at 0.9 FRET indicates the presence of catalytically

inactive ECs. Further, the recovery of the two populations with mean FRET at 0.63 (95% confidence

intervals, lower bound (LB): 0.48, upper bound (UB): 0.77) and 0.7 (LB: 0.65, UB: 0.75) suggests that

the FRET signal of the catalytically poised state formed by the EC in the presence of NTPs is

indistinguishable from that of the intermediate formed by the EC in the presence of Mfd-ATPγS.

Importantly, a third population emerges in time (Figure 3G, Figure 1E and 3H) when NTPs are present.

This population exhibited a FRET state of 0.09 (LB: 0.05, UB: 0.12) when the EC was incubated with

GTP, UTP and ATP. In comparison, for ECs incubated with Mfd-ATPγS and GTP and UTP, this population

exhibited a FRET signal of 0.18 (LB: 0.15, UB: 0.2). The difference in the mean FRET values may reflect

the ability of ECs incubated with GTP, UTP and ATP to synthesize a longer transcript compared to ECs

incubated with only GTP and UTP.

Comparison of the fraction of the population in the low FRET states corresponding to

nucleotide incorporation by the RNAP EC or RNAP EC pre-incubated with Mfd-ATPγS (Figure 3H)

revealed a two-fold greater efficiency of incorporation after pre-incubation with Mfd-ATPγS: 35% of

all FRET states observed in the reaction corresponded to low FRET states when ECs were pre-incubated

with Mfd-ATPγS *vs* 15% in the absence of Mfd-ATPγS (Supplemental Note 3). Together the data enable

us to conclude that nucleotide-bound Mfd serves to promote the formation of a catalytically poised

state that is competent for transcription elongation when presented with NTPs.

Mfd specifically recognizes sense ssDNA

Structures of Mfd bound to dsDNA and ECs containing non-complementary transcription bubbles have

revealed a series of translocation intermediates that are formed prior to and leading up to stable

engagement of Mfd and initial disruption of the EC (Kang et al., 2021; Shi et al., 2020). Currently, little

is known about the intermediate states that follow this initial contact. We set out to identify whether

Mfd makes contacts with ssDNA in substrates mimicking the upstream edge of the transcription

bubble by employing a combination of approaches: First, we assessed whether Mfd exhibits a

preference for binding to sense ('S')/template or anti-sense ('AS')/non-template ssDNA overhangs at

junctions, second, we employed smFRET experiments to detect whether and how Mfd contacts

template ssDNA, and finally, we visualized Mfd bound to a primed DNA template using cryo-EM.

To investigate whether Mfd can recognize ssDNA in substrates mimicking the upstream edge

of the transcription bubble, we measured the DNA binding affinity of Mfd to 18-mer dsDNA substrates

containing either anti-sense or sense strand overhangs (Figure 4A, B; Table 1). First, we interrogated

whether length of the anti-sense strand overhang influenced the affinity of Mfd for the DNA substrate

(Figure 4A–C). We measured the dissociation constant of Mfd binding to dsDNA (18-mer) with varying

lengths of anti-sense strand overhangs (dT_x in which x = 0, 3, 6, 9, 12, or 15; Figure 4B). In the presence

of slowly-hydrolyzable ATPγS, the dissociation constant did not exhibit a dependence on the overhang

length (Figure 4C, green trace). Next, we measured binding affinity of Mfd-ATPγS to dsDNA substrates

(18-mer) with varying lengths of unpaired 5' sense strand overhangs (dT_x in which x = 0, 3, 6, 9, 12, or

15; Figure 4A–C). In this case, the binding curves revealed an inverse relationship between the length

of the ssDNA overhang and the strength of interaction: the longer the overhang, the weaker the

binding. K_D values increased from 90 ± 4 nM (for 18-mer ds DNA alone) to 220 ± 10 nM (for 18-mer

dsDNA with a 15 nt overhang) with a notable inflection point at 6 nt (Figure 4C). Finally, Mfd bound a

58-mer ssDNA with a K_D of ~4 μM (Supplemental Figure 4A) which is 20-fold weaker than binding to

dsDNA alone, consistent with prior estimates (Selby and Sancar, 1995).

In this assay, the R953A mutant similarly exhibited a loss of affinity as a function of sense

strand overhang length up to a dT6 overhang in the presence of ATPγS. The dissociation constant for

binding a substrate containing a 6 nt sense-strand overhang was 2.3-fold weaker than that for wildtype

Mfd. Overhang lengths larger than 6 nt were bound markedly more strongly, and approached the

binding affinity of Mfd for these substrates (Figure 4C). These data reveal that only contacts made by

Mfd on the template ssDNA overhang serve to antagonize its binding to dsDNA, establishing that the

non-hydrolyzable ATP analog-bound conformation of Mfd exhibits strand specificity at DNA forks.

Further, the results highlight a curious role of R953 in mediating these contacts on the sense strand

and a dependence on the length of the overhang.

To further understand these ATP-dependent contacts of Mfd with ssDNA we employed a

previously described smFRET assay to study translocase activity (Park et al., 2010). We used a DNA

substrate comprised of an 18-mer dsDNA duplex (mimicking upstream DNA) and a 5' dT$_{40}$ sense

overhang mimicking the template DNA (Figure 4D) with a FRET pair positioned on either end of the

ssDNA overhang (Table 1). Mfd binds this substrate with a K_D of 390 ± 10 nM (see Supplemental

Information and Supplemental Figure 4B−D). In smFRET experiments, this substrate exhibited an

average FRET of 0.33 ± 0.15 (Figure 4E) in the absence of Mfd, reflecting rapid sampling of various

conformations accessed by the entropic coil formed by ssDNA (Figure 4E and Supplemental Figure 4E

'template overhang DNA').

In the presence of ATPγS, the smFRET signal from the Mfd-bound substrate revealed

additional distinct populations at higher FRET values of 0.6 and 0.8 (Figure 4F and Supplemental Figure

4E 'Mfd-ATPγS'). Transitions among these states were further enhanced in the presence of ATP as the

substrate exhibited a continuous spectrum of mid- and high-FRET states (Figure 4G and Supplemental

Figure 4E 'Mfd-ATP'), in addition to the distinct states detected in the presence of ATPγS. In this case,

the higher FRET states were only transiently accessed indicating that ATP hydrolysis plays a role in

exiting from these high−FRET states to low−FRET states. This observation is consistent with a picture

in which Mfd-ATP contacts the ssDNA to bring the dyes close to each other, resulting in a high FRET

signal, and subsequent ATP hydrolysis induces a lower−affinity conformation in which Mfd-ADP binds

the ssDNA overhang very weakly resulting in a return to the baseline FRET value of 0.33.

To verify that the dynamics observed in this assay reflect a dependence on ATP hydrolysis, we

studied binding to this substrate by the ATPase-deficient but DNA-binding competent E730Q mutant

of Mfd (Deaconescu et al., 2012; Ho et al., 2018); this Mfd(E730Q)-bound template exhibited high-

FRET states extremely rarely compared to the wild-type protein (Supplemental Figure 4F, 4G).

Therefore, the observation that Mfd(E730Q)-ATP is unable to stably engage with sense ssDNA, unlike

Mfd-ATPγS suggests that the Mfd(E730Q)-ATP and Mfd-ATPγS pre-hydrolytic states are sufficiently

different that only the wild-type Mfd retains the ability to engage ssDNA efficiently in the ATP-bound

state.

Unexpectedly, the R953A mutant did not exhibit high FRET states in the presence of ATP,

indicating that the ability to hydrolyze ATP alone is insufficient to engage ssDNA on primed DNA

templates (Figure 4H). Therefore, we conclude that both, the ability to hydrolyze bound ATP and the

presence of an intact R953 are essential for Mfd to engage the ssDNA template DNA overhang. We

propose that R953 serves to 'hook' sense ssDNA, and ATP binding serves to 'pull' it closer to the

junction resulting in the high FRET signal detected in this assay with wild-type Mfd. In turn, ATP

hydrolysis leads to exit from the high-FRET state reflecting slippage of the ssDNA from the motor

domain. We note that the recent structures of Mfd translocating on dsDNA (Kang et al., 2021) indicate

that R953 along with key residues in the translocation motif (TRG: translocation in RecG (Mahdi et al.,

2003)) of Mfd, specifically R929 and Q963, contacts the anti-sense strand in dsDNA. From these

structures it is not immediately obvious how the sense strand overhang is contacted by Mfd in the

smFRET assays. The results presented here uncover a new role for R953 in making critical contacts

with sense ssDNA distinct from its previously described role in translocation on dsDNA. This role

explains the observed deficiency of this mutant of Mfd in coupling ATP hydrolysis to translocation of

RNAP.

Intriguingly, each of the three Mfd variants also exhibited a distinct sub-population of

molecules centered at ~0.1 FRET. Here, whereas ATPγS promoted the formation of this state almost

immediately, Mfd (or mutants) in the presence of ATP entered this state in a time window ~5–20 s

after introduction into the flow cell (Figure 4F-H and Supplemental Figure 4H). The presence of the

low-FRET peak and the excursions to high-FRET states suggested that multiple independent binding

modes may underlie the FRET signal observed here.

Mfd melts dsDNA in primed-DNA substrates

To further understand how Mfd binds sense overhang−containing DNA, we visualized Mfd

bound to the dye-labeled smFRET substrate by cryo-EM (Figure 5A, Table 1). Full-length Mfd bound to

the primed-template substrate in the presence of transition-state analog ADP-AlF$_x$ was subjected to

single particle cryo-EM analysis (Supplemental Figure 5A) and a ~5.2 Å resolution map was obtained

(real resolution ~8 Å, Supplemental Figure 5B, C). This reconstruction yielded EM density that could at

best accommodate the motor domains of Mfd (residues 575−956 representing domains 5 and 6);

other domains are presumably flexible and could not be seen in the EM density maps. In addition the

reconstruction could accommodate 18 bp of dsDNA and 11 nt of the 5' dT (sense) overhang (Figure

5B).

The cryo-EM map reconstructed here suggests the dsDNA on the upstream side of the motor

domains and the placement of the motor domains with respect to dsDNA to be consistent with

previously reported complexes (Brugger et al., 2020; Kang et al., 2021) (Figure 5B). However, EM

density for residues 917 onward, containing the TRG motif, appeared to be absent from the side of

domains 5 and 6, and the EM density of the DNA as it passes from the upstream to the downstream

side becomes inconsistent with dsDNA (Figure 5B). Using molecular dynamics flexible fitting

(Singharoy et al., 2016) to equilibrate the structure in density suggests that the TRG motif has dropped

into the path of the dsDNA (yellow ribbon, Figure 5C), resulting in the partial melting of the duplex.

The motif forms an arch that interacts with the template DNA (Figure 5C). There are precedents for

conformational plasticity in the TRG motif: the pair of helices forming the bulk of the TRG motif are

almost orthogonal in the apo-structure of Mfd (PDB ID 2EYQ; Figure 5C, orange) with the sulfonate

group from 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazine ethanesulfonic acid bound between the helices, and are

parallel in the complex with ATP- and ADP-bound conformations on upstream dsDNA (PDB ID 6X43

and 6X4W). These movements are attributable to both to shifts in domains 5 and 6 relative to each

other and to movements of the helices relative to each other. The conformation of domains 5 and 6

suggested here may represent a mode of engagement whereby Mfd grabs and stabilizes the template

DNA in the upstream edge of the transcription bubble, supporting the inferences drawn from the

biophysical investigations.

The molecular model derived from the cryo-EM investigations presents two aspects of Mfd

binding that can be experimentally validated. Despite the poor resolution of the cryo-EM data which

limits confident assignment of the position of R953, the model is consistent with and supports the

observation from the smFRET studies that R953 mediates scrunching of the 5' ssDNA overhang (Figure

4).

Additionally, the model suggests that Mfd partially melts about five nucleotides of the dsDNA

near the junction forming a 'TRCF bubble' (Figure 5D). An additional attempt to obtain an improved

higher resolution reconstruction with an unmodified dT_6 sense overhang-containing 18-mer ds

template yielded a low-resolution reconstruction of limited utility (data not shown). Considering these

limitations, we used an orthogonal approach to test the model prediction that binding of Mfd in the

presence of a non-hydrolyzable ATP analog-leads to melting of the dsDNA in sense-overhang

containing dsDNA substrates.

2-Aminopurine (2AP), is a fluorescent analog of adenine that has been previously used to

study protein-induced local conformational changes in DNA (Jones and Neely, 2015). 2AP readily base

pairs with dT and its fluorescence is quenched in dsDNA. We reasoned that local melting of DNA could be observed by monitoring the dequenching of the fluorescence signal that occurs when 2AP is exposed to the solvent. To test whether nucleotide-bound Mfd destabilizes primed DNA templates, we designed two sets of substrates (18 bp double-stranded with 6 nt of 5' sense strand overhang) – a first set comprised of completely complementary double stranded substrates ('ds') with 2AP at either position 11 or 12 (counted from the 5' end on the sense strand of the substrate; analogous positions are highlighted in the model in Figure 5D), and a matched set where the antisense strand contains a non-complementary sequence resulting in a 'bubble' opposite the introduced 2AP at position 11 or 12 (Figure 5D).

First, we measured the difference in the emission spectra between the bubble and ds substrates (2 μM each) for each of the substrates containing 2AP at position 11 or 12 (Figure 5E black trace) upon excitation at 330 nm. This difference spectrum demonstrates that the fluorescence of 2AP in the bubble substrates is greater than that in the double-stranded substrates, consistent with the expectation that 2AP is quenched in dsDNA. This signal reflects the maximum fluorescence enhancement resulting from exposure of 2AP upon local melting of ds DNA to form a bubble.

Next, the DNA substrate (2 μM, either ds or bubble) was incubated with Mfd (4 μM) in the presence or absence of ATPγS (0.5 mM), and emission spectra were measured at steady state. Incubation of the 2AP bubble substrates with Mfd and ATPγS resulted in a fluorescence enhancement (Figure 5E, purple trace) for both substrates. Importantly, in the presence of Mfd and ATPγS, both 2AP-containing dsDNA substrates exhibited an enhanced fluorescence (Figure 5E, green and yellow traces). The increase in fluorescence was greatest when 2AP was introduced at position 12, and was indistinguishable from the maximum fluorescence enhancement on this substrate. Together, the data provide independent confirmation of the prediction from the cryo-EM derived molecular model that Mfd melts DNA substrates containing a sense-strand overhang in the presence of non-hydrolyzable ATP analogs. Consistent with this scenario, Mfd-ATPγS binds a 49-mer dsDNA substrate containing a non-complementary bubble of 9 nucleotides with an affinity of 395 ± 7 nM as assessed by SPR

(Supplemental Figure 5D).

Together, the findings converge on a 'melt, hook and pull' model to describe how Mfd may

contact DNA substrates mimicking the upstream edge of the transcription bubble: SPR experiments

reveal that Mfd specifically recognizes the sense strand and this binding antagonizes binding to dsDNA.

Mutation of R953 weakens this interaction. Further, the cryo-EM data and 2AP fluorescence

experiments suggest that Mfd binds and partially melts the dsDNA near the junction, contacting the

unpaired template ssDNA *via* the conserved R953 residue in the TRG motif. Finally, the smFRET

experiments reveal that Mfd dynamically cycles between high- and low-affinity states in an ATP-

hydrolysis dependent manner on the template ssDNA overhang, pulling and scrunching the template

strand in this process, in an R953 dependent manner.

Discussion

In this work, we set out to understand dynamic modulation of EC activity by the action of interacting

partners. We detected that NusG promotes the residence of the EC in catalytically poised states. We

established that a 'molecular timer' intermediate is formed by Mfd, and ATP-hydrolysis-dependent

exit from this state determines the fate of the elongation complex. Our attempts to understand this

intermediate resulted in the discovery of a novel DNA-binding mode in which Mfd binds sense-strand

ssDNA in a transcription bubble mimic *via* a hook residue. Together, the results provide

unprecedented insight into the transcription termination reaction and enable us to propose a

comprehensive model describing how events unfold after initial engagement of the elongation

complex with the transcription-repair coupling factor.

Interactions of Mfd with the EC are complex. ATP-dependent remodeling of the EC by Mfd

proceeds *via* multiple stages: In the first stage, Mfd recognizes a distressed polymerase and is

recruited to the EC (Ho et al., 2018; Howan et al., 2012; Le et al., 2017; Park et al., 2002; Proshkin and

Mironov, 2016) through a conserved RNAP-interacting domain (Park et al., 2002) (Figure 6A). Mfd can

recognize extensively backtracked (Le et al., 2017), reversibly paused as well as stalled complexes

(Proshkin and Mironov, 2016). In the second stage, EC-tethered Mfd undergoes a series of concerted

conformational changes (Smith et al., 2012) that enable it to translocate on upstream dsDNA and

'load' onto the EC (Kang et al., 2021; Shi et al., 2020) (Figure 6B). In the third stage, Mfd either

reactivates paused transcription (Le et al., 2017; Park et al., 2002) or terminates transcription (Howan

et al., 2012; Selby and Sancar, 1993a). Alongside these activities, Mfd recruits its binding partners

UvrA$_2$B to the site during transcription-coupled DNA repair (Fan et al., 2016; Ghodke et al., 2020; Ho

et al., 2018, 2020; Selby and Sancar, 1993a).

Our studies shed light on hitherto mysterious aspects of Mfd-RNAP interactions central to this

reaction and present a new model for resolution of a critical intermediate. The smFRET-based

elongation modulation assay revealed that Mfd can engage the EC in an ATP independent manner,

albeit infrequently, and manifest transient, reversible conformational changes in the EC. Stable

association requires ATP or at minimum non-hydrolyzable ATP, likely required to impart a dsDNA

binding conformation in the motor domain. Indeed, a recent study reported the structural basis of

ATP-dependent translocation of Mfd following initial recognition of distressed elongation complexes

leading to docking of Mfd with the upstream edge of the transcription bubble (Kang et al., 2021). Our

findings reinforce these previous findings (Figure 6 A – C).

Following a period of dynamic remodeling in which the EC transits from high- to mid-FRET

states, Mfd-ATP, Mfd-ATPγS and Mfd(R953A)-ATP each chaperone the EC into a single long-lived

gating intermediate (Figures 3 and 6D) hovering in the mid-FRET range controlling the transition to

low-FRET states. Efficient entry into this state is granted to Mfd in the presence of ATP or ATPγS,

whereas Mfd(R953A)-ATP enters this state inefficiently. The observation that Mfd-ATPγS is sufficient

to promote entry into this state indicates that binding of ATP alone is a sufficient requirement for the

formation of the gating intermediate.

The suggestion from the cryo-EM derived molecular model that Mfd-ADP-AlF$_x^-$ might bind and

melt primed DNA templates to unwind dsDNA (Figure 5), and partial confirmation of this model in the

2AP fluorescence experiments provides insight into this transition. Only 13 nucleotides of the 18-mer

DNA template are consistent with being dsDNA, with the remainder being partially melted. The lack

of observations of dsDNA melting in a recently reported structure (Brugger et al., 2020) suggests that

Mfd requires access to unpaired ssDNA *via* critical residues in the TRG motif to melt the dsDNA.

We propose that in the context of the upstream dsDNA, ATP- or non-hydrolyzable analog-

bound Mfd partially melts about five nucleotides of dsDNA to produce a bubble, henceforth referred

to as the 'TRCF bubble' (Figure 5). Considering the three nucleotide proximity of the binding site of

Mfd to the upstream edge of the transcription bubble (Kang et al., 2021), the upstream DNA may

further melt allowing the TRCF bubble to fuse with the transcription bubble to produce the isomeric

TRCF-transcription ('TRCF-T') bubble (Figure 6D). Since prior experiments did not detect bubble

formation by Mfd on dsDNA lacking an overhang (Howan et al., 2012), a more likely possibility is that

Mfd merely extends the transcription bubble by further melting the upstream edge, resulting in

essentially a TRCF-T bubble. While our study was under review, an independent study reported that

'a highly negatively supercoiled domain forms between Mfd and RNAP', consistent with our report of

a TRCF-T bubble (Portman et al., 2021).

Although available structures of Mfd-[ATP or non-hydrolyzable analog]-EC do not report

melting of the upstream DNA or a TRCF-T bubble, and a structure of Mfd-EC bound to the TRCF-T

bubble is not as yet forthcoming, precisely such an intermediate has been observed in the Rad26-Pol

II structure where an extended TRCF-T bubble of 17 nucleotides is observed (Xu et al., 2017). Similarly,

human CSB was also reported to bind large transcription bubbles in a recent study (Kokic et al., 2021).

Our cryo-EM derived model suggests that R953 lines the path of the template overhang

(Figure 5). The observation that Mfd(R953A)-ATP fails to stably engage the ssDNA overhang in our

smFRET study supports a model in which this residue (potentially along with other residues in the

translocation motif) serves to stabilize the fork at the downstream edge of the TRCF bubble, or sense

ssDNA in the TRCF-T bubble. We propose that binding of R953 to the ssDNA template occurs

simultaneously with the melting of the upstream dsDNA. Evidently, along with a role in DNA

translocation, R953 has a newly discovered role in hooking and stabilizing ssDNA. Remarkably, a

similar element responsible for hooking the non-template DNA in the upstream fork in the case of CSB

was recently identified in a study published while ours was in revision (Kokic et al., 2021). Here, the

authors demonstrated that residue F796 in CSB serves as a hook by inserting itself in the upstream

fork in the non-template strand. In the yeast homolog Rad26, K613/R614 in the wedge motif together

serve to hook the template strand (Xu et al., 2017). While the wedge motif itself is absent in Mfd, R953

appears to play a functionally analogous role as a hook in the prokaryotic model. In all three cases,

this hook serves to couple ATP binding and hydrolysis to remodeling of the EC. These similarities – the

presence of a hooking element and destabilization of the upstream DNA – between the prototypical

members of this class of transcription-coupled DNA repair factors establish a more profound

conservation of mechanism of action.

We propose that the formation of the TRCF-T bubble results in forward translocation of the

EC (or at minimum restricts its backtracking) leading to the formation of the catalytically poised state

of the RNAP. Here, in the presence of the correct NTP and an intact R953, resumption of transcription

would lead to faster forward translocation of RNAP, leaving behind Mfd-ATP bound to the TRCF bubble

(Figure 6E). In effect this finding explains how Mfd can 'release' distressed polymerases in the so-

called 'release and catch-up' model for transcription rescue (Le et al., 2017). Indeed, this prediction of

our model was verified in the experiment demonstrating that Mfd bound to ATPγS leads to a

significantly truncated residence time in the intermediate state accompanied by loss of FRET

consistent with transcription rescue (Figure 3).

To understand what happens once the molecular timer intermediate (Figure 6D) forms, we

must first consider that exit from this intermediate is signified by a loss of FRET in the presence of ATP

but no other nucleotides. Our measurements of the residence time of the transcript through direct

excitation of the Cy5 matched the lifetime of the intermediate state, indicating that loss of FRET

corresponds to loss of the transcript from the complex. This interpretation is supported by previous

observations that loss of RNA from the EC occurs rapidly after Mfd binds the EC (Graves et al., 2015).

An important consequence of entry into this gating intermediate is that a finite time window

is available beyond which transcription restart is no longer possible. The prolonged residence in the

catalytically poised state prior to irreversible remodeling of the EC by Mfd may serve to provide an

opportunity to restart transcription at sites of pausing. This observation explains how Mfd can

orchestrate transcription restart (Le et al., 2017) or termination (Howan et al., 2012) on distressed

polymerases, discriminating paused ECs that can be substrates for transcription restart from

irreversibly or DNA damage-stalled ECs that are substrates for transcription termination.

It can be deduced that resolution of this gating intermediate during transcription termination

proceeds *via* at least partial, and potentially complete, shrinking of the TRCF-T bubble leaving behind

Mfd bound to the TRCF bubble. How might these events play out? Our results demonstrate that the

lifetime of this state is only ~6 s at 24°C. While entry into this state is dependent on the presence of

ATP, the observation that this lifetime is independent of ATP concentration in the range from 10 μM

to 10 mM suggests that hydrolysis of stoichiometric amounts of ATP, may be sufficient to promote

exit from this state. Further, an intact R953 is required for exit from this state. Since dissociation of

the 9-nt RNA:DNA hybrid (possessing a melting temperature significantly below RT) is expected to be

spontaneous at this temperature in the absence of stabilizing interactions with the EC, the loss of the

transcript signals the resolution of the molecular timer, accompanied by the formation of an

intermediate where RNAP is extensively remodeled, and the TRCF-T bubble is partially or completely

rewound. The cryo-EM derived model presented here sheds light on how Mfd may scrunch template

DNA in this process.

Mfd recruits the repair machinery to the site of distressed polymerases during transcription-

coupled nucleotide excision repair. During global genomic nucleotide excision repair, the damage

recognition enzyme UvrA$_2$ partially melts putative damage containing dsDNA and loads two copies of

the damage verification enzyme UvrB at the site (Kisker et al., 2013). Two UvrB helicases then examine

the unpaired ssDNA with single-nucleotide resolution to precisely identify the damaged strand (Jaciuk

et al., 2020; Pakotiprapha et al., 2012). In contrast, during transcription-coupled DNA repair, Mfd

recruits UvrA$_2$B to the site of the distressed polymerase (Ghodke et al., 2020; Ho et al., 2020).

Compared to global genomic nucleotide excision repair, only a single copy of UvrB is recruited to a site

of damage by Mfd through interactions with UvrA$_2$. Thus, sequestration of specifically the damage-

containing template by Mfd supports the intriguing possibility that Mfd possesses the intrinsic ability

to faithfully convey the identity of the damaged strand to complete the handoff to a single UvrB *via*

the adaptor UvrA$_2$. Further elucidation of transcription-coupled DNA repair intermediates will shed

light on this model.

Acknowledgments

We thank Rachel Ann Mooney and Robert Landick (UW Madison) for generously sharing expression

vectors for RNA polymerase and purified NusG used in these studies. HG is supported by NIH Grant

1RM1GM130450 and acknowledges UOW Small Project Grant (2020/SPGA-S/04). ND, AJO, PJL, HG

acknowledge support by the Australian Research Council (DP210100365). AMvO acknowledges

support by the NIH (1RM1GM130450) and Australian Research Council (DP210100167).

Author Contributions

Data curation: BPP, ZX, SJ, SB, HG; Data analysis: BP, ZQ, SJ, HG, AJO, PJL; Writing—Original draft: HG;

Writing—review and editing: all authors; Resources: JB, ND and AvO; Conceptualization: BP and HG;

Supervision: HG.

Declaration of Interests

No competing interests.

 Materials and Methods

 Proteins used in this study

 <u>Purification of RNA polymerase</u>

 RNA polymerase was purified essentially as described previously (Svetlov and Artsimovitch, 2015).

 pIA900 was a generous gift from Irina Artsimovitch (Addgene #104401)(Svetlov and Artsimovitch,

 2015). pIA900 was transformed into BL21(λDE3)*recA*⁻ cells. A single colony was isolated and streaked

 on an ampicillin plate (100 mg L^{-1}). Four clones were then tested for small scale protein expression (25

 mL) and were found to produce similar levels of overexpressed RNAP. One colony was then used for

 overproduction in 6 L of LB medium, inoculated with an overnight culture and shaken for 2.5 h at 37

 °C to reach A_{595} = 0.6, followed by induction with a final concentration of 1 mM IPTG for an additional

 3 h, followed by pelleting. Overproduced protein was purified from cells following the exact protocols

 described in (Svetlov and Artsimovitch, 2015). Following chromatographic separation over the Mono-

 Q column, two fractions were isolated, one corresponding to the RNAP core complex, and a second

 smaller fraction corresponding to the holoenzyme. For this work, the RNAP core complex was isolated

 at a concentration of 35.7 mg mL^{-1} corresponding to 92 μM in storage buffer (50 mM Tris/HCl pH 7.6,

 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM dithiothreitol and 50% *v/v* glycerol). Purified protein was stored at

 -80 °C following snap freezing with liquid N$_2$. Aliquots in use were stored at –20°C.

 <u>Overproduction and purification of Mfd variants</u>

 Sequence verified *mfd-ypet, mfd(E730Q)-ypet* and *mfd(R953A)-ypet* genes were obtained from

 Aldevron. Plasmids for overexpression of Mfd, Mfd(E730Q) and Mfd(R953A) were created as follows:

 first, *mfd* or mutant gene inserts (lacking the *ypet* gene) were amplified using PCR from the custom

 synthesized constructs using the primers (pETMCSII_Mfd_F and pETMCSII_Mfd_R; Table 1). PCR

 products were digested with with *Bam*HI and *Eco*RI and purified using a Qiagen miniprep kit. The *mfd*

 (or mutant) fragments were inserted between the same restriction sites in vector pSH1017 (Hamdan

 et al., 2002), previously isolated using electrophoretic separation and an extraction from a 1% (*w/v*)

 agarose gel. Ligations were performed with T4 DNA ligase at 16 °C overnight, followed by

694   transformation into *E. coli* DH5α cells; colonies were screened for the presence of insert by colony

695   PCR and intact *mfd* sequences in plasmids pHG4137 (coding for wildtype Mfd), pHG42305

696   (Mfd(R953A)) and pHG42306 (Mfd(E730Q)) were confirmed by sequencing.

697   A generalized procedure for the expression and purification of Mfd variants used in this study

698   is best exemplified by the methods used in the production of Mfd(E730Q). *E. coli* strain

699   BL21(λDE3)*recA*/pHG42306 (E730Q) was grown at 37°C in LB medium supplemented with thymine

700   (50 mg L^{-1}) and ampicillin (200 mg L^{-1}) to A_{600} = 0.6. To induce Mfd(E730Q) overproduction, 1 mM IPTG

701   was added to the shaking culture. Cultures were grown for a further 3 h, and then chilled in ice. Cells

702   were harvested by centrifugation (11,000 x g; 6 min), frozen in liquid N$_2$ and stored at –80 °C.

703   After thawing, cells (17.1 g, from 6 L of culture) were resuspended in 120 mL lysis buffer (50

mM Tris/HCl, pH 7.6, 2 mM dithiothreitol, 0.5 mM EDTA, 20 mM spermidine) and lysed by two

passages through a French press operated at 12000 psi. Cell debris was removed from the lysate by

centrifugation (35,000 x g; 30 min) to yield the soluble Fraction I. Proteins in Fraction I that were then

precipitated by addition of solid ammonium sulfate (0.38 g mL^{-1}), followed by stirring for 30 min, were

collected by centrifugation (38,000 x g; 30 min) and dissolved in 45 mL buffer A (50 mM Tris/HCl, pH

7.6, 2 mM dithiothreitol, 0.5 mM EDTA, 10% *v/v* glycerol) containing 180 mM NaCl. The solution was

dialyzed against 2 L of the same buffer to yield Fraction II.

711   Fraction II was divided into two sub-fractions (23 mL each), which were successively applied

712   at 1 mL min^{-1} onto a column (2.5 x 15 cm) of Toyopearl DEAE-650M resin that had been equilibrated

713   in buffer A + 190 mM NaCl. Fractions containing proteins that did not bind to the resin (50 mL per sub-

714   fraction; 100 mL in total) were pooled and dialyzed against two changes of 2 L of buffer A to yield

715   Fraction III.

716   Fraction III was loaded at 1 mL min^{-1} onto the same DEAE column that had been equilibrated

with buffer A. After the column was washed with 80 mL of the same buffer, Mfd(E730Q) was eluted

at 2.5 mL min^{-1} using a linear gradient (700 mL) of 0 − 500 mM NaCl in buffer A. The Mfd(E730Q)

eluted in a single, relatively narrow, peak centered around 80 mM NaCl. Fractions containing

Mfd(E730Q) (40 mL) were pooled and dialyzed against four changes of 1.2 L of buffer B (50 mM

Na/MES, pH 6.5, 2 mM dithiothreitol, 0.5 mM EDTA, 10% *v/v* glycerol) to yield Fraction IV.

Fraction IV (40 mL) was loaded at 1.5 mL min^{-1} onto a SP Sepaharose FastFlow column (Cytiva;

2.5 x 13 cm) that had been equilibrated with buffer B. After washing the column with 80 mL of buffer

B, Mfd(E730Q) was eluted at 2.5 mL min^{-1} using a linear gradient (700 mL) of 0−500 mM NaCl in buffer

B. The Mfd(E730Q) eluted in a single peak centered around 100 mM NaCl. Fractions containing highly

purified Mfd(E730Q) were pooled and dialyzed against four changes of 1.2 L of storage buffer (40 mM

Tris/HCl, pH 7.6, 100 mM NaCl, 4 mM dithiothreitol, 0.5 mM EDTA, 30% *v/v* glycerol) to yield final

product containing 130 mg of protein at a final concentration of 46.7 μM. The same protocol yielded

51.5 mg of Mfd(R953A) at a final concentration of 18 μM. Final protein preparations were snap frozen

in liquid N$_2$ and stored at −80 °C.

In case of wildtype Mfd, a modified purification procedure was used whereby the fractions

containing Mfd from the second DEAE (40 mL) column were pooled and directly applied at 1 mL min^{-}

^{1} onto a 2.5 x 10 cm column of heparin Sepharose 4B that had been equilibrated with buffer A + 50

mM NaCl. Mfd was eluted at 1 mL min^{-1}, in a broad peak centered around ~120 mM NaCl, using a

linear gradient (450 mL) of 50−400 mM NaCl in buffer A. Fractions containing highly purified Mfd were

pooled and dialyzed against 2 L of storage buffer (40 mM Tris/HCl, pH 7.6, 100 mM NaCl, 4 mM

dithiothreitol, 0.5 mM EDTA, 25% *v/v* glycerol) to yield 115 mg of protein at a final concentration of

40 μM. Purified Mfd was snap frozen in liquid N$_2$ and aliquots were stored at −80 °C.

NusG was a generous gift from Prof Robert Landick (University of Wisconsin-Madison) (Kang

et al., 2018).

Oligonucleotides and DNA substrates

All oligonucleotides were purchased from Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT, Singapore). Primed DNA template for smFRET and cryo-EM was first annealed by hybridizing bio_AS18_Cy5 and Cy3_dT40_S18 in 10 mM Tris/HCl 7.6, 50 mM NaCl, 5 mM MgCl$_2$ at a final concentration of 10 μM of Cy3_dT40_S18 and 1.05-fold excess of the bio_AS18_Cy5 complementary strand. Sequences are presented in Table 1.

Single molecule FRET measurements

smFRET TIRF microscope setup

A home built objective-type TIRF microscope based on a Nikon TiE2 model was used to record single molecule movies. FRET was measured by excitation with a 532 nm laser and the emissions at 555 and 637 nm were collected using a band-pass filter at 555 nm and a long-pass filter at 650 nm. Scattered light was removed by using a 560 nm long pass filter. Cy3 and Cy5 signals were separated by a 638 nm dichroic using photometrics dual view (DV-2) and both signals were focused onto a CCD camera (Hamamatsu C9 100–13), simultaneously. Data were collected at 5 frames s^{-1}. A power density between 50−150 W cm^{-2} was used in typical experiments.

Preparation of flow cells for imaging

Coverslips were prepared as described previously (Johnston et al., 2020). Quartz coverslips were cleaned with 100% ethanol and 1 mM KOH. Aminosilanization of cleaned coverslips was carried out using a 1% (*v/v*) (3-aminopropyl)triethoxy silane (Alfa Aesar, A10668, UK) solution in acetone. PEGylation was carried out by incubating a mixture of biotinPEG-SVA MW 5000 and mPEG-SVA MW 5000 (Laysan Bio, AL) at a ratio of 1:10 prepared in 50 mM MOPS pH 7.5 solution on the top of the silanized coverslip for 3–4 h. PEGylated coverslips were stored under dry nitrogen gas at −20 °C.

Neutravidin solution was prepared in transcription buffer (1 × TB; 20 mM Tris/HCl pH 8.0, 40 mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl$_2$ and 1 mM β-mercaptoethanol) and spread on the top of dry a PEGylated coverslip followed by a 10 min incubation. Sample flow chambers were created by sandwiching polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) on the top of the streptavidin coated coverslip. Then, blocking buffer (1

× TB + 0.25% (*v/v*) Tween 20) was injected into the channel to reduce non-specific binding of proteins

on the surface followed by 10–15 min incubation. This was then followed by washing with 1 × TB to

remove unbound Tween 20.

In situ reconstitution of ECs for smFRET measurements:

Protocols described by (Komissarova et al., 2003) were adapted for *in situ* reconstitution of ECs in

single-molecule FRET studies. Template DNA (1 μM) was annealed to RNA primer (3 μM) in 1 × TB by

heating to 65 °C for 5 min followed by 3 °C drops in temperature every 2 min until the reaction

temperature reached 27 °C, followed by a hold step at 25 °C. Typically, 200 μL of reaction were

prepared at a time. To form the RNAP:template (T70_31Cy3):RNA(R15_4Cy5) complex, 0.22 μL of 92

μM RNAP was incubated with 2 μL of template:RNA hybrid in 1 × TB at room temperature for 30 min.

Meanwhile, 200 μL of 100 pM of NT70_bio (Table 1) were immobilized on the neutravidin-coated

surface. Following this, the RNAP:template:RNA mixture was diluted serially 6000 × in a final

suspension of 200 μL of 1 × TB and introduced into the flow cell and incubated for at least 5 min to

promote annealing of the template DNA to the biotinylated non-template DNA resulting in formation

of the EC. At the end of this incubation step, the flow cell was washed with 200 μL of 1 × TB + 1 M KCl

and subsequently with 1 × TB supplemented with an oxygen-scavenging system (OSS) consisting of

protocatechuic acid (2.5 mM) and protocatechuate-3, 4-dioxigenase (50 nM) to reduce photo-

bleaching of the fluorophores and 2 mM Trolox to reduce photo-blinking of dyes, followed by imaging.

All elongation experiments in Figures 1 and 2 were performed at 100 μM of each NTP or dNTP (where

indicated). smFRET experiments involving NusG were performed at 500 nM of NusG in 1 × TB (Figure

2). smFRET experiments involving wildtype Mfd (Figures 3 and 4) were performed at 500 nM of Mfd

in 1 × TB. Experiments involving Mfd(R953A) (Figure 3 and 4) and Mfd(E730Q) (Figure 4) were

performed at 1 μM of Mfd mutant in 1 × TB . Concentrations of ATP and ATPγS were at 1 mM and 0.5

mM respectively unless otherwise specified.

Primed DNA template (Figure 4):

Primed DNA substrate (bio_AS18_Cy5: Cy3_dT40_S18) used in smFRET experiments in Figure 4 was

diluted to 50 pM in 200 μL of 1 × TB prior to immobilization in the flow cell.

<u>637 nm transcript lifetime experiments</u>

Lifetime of the Cy5 dye was measured by directly exciting *in situ* assembled ECs with a 637 nm laser

illumination with a flux of 4 W cm^{-2} (140 mW Vortran, Sacramento, CA, USA) with 200 ms time

resolution. Emissions were collected using a dichroic mirror (Dio1-R405/488/561/635, Semrock,

Rochester, NY, USA). 100-150 molecules were imaged for each condition. Images were corrected for

non-homogeneous laser illumination, and the fluorescence of the molecules (corrected for

background) in the entire field of view was calculated on a per pixel basis as a function of time using

Fiji, and is presented as mean and standard deviation in Figure 3.

A single exponential decay process best described the observed decay of the signal for the EC alone,

but insufficiently described the decay in case of ECs incubated with Mfd and ATP. Therefore, we

proceeded with globally fitting the data with a sum of two exponential decay processes. Global fitting

was performed by fitting the signals to equation (1) for the two conditions (subscript 1 ≡ EC alone, and

2 ≡ EC incubated with Mfd and ATP):

808
$$y_i(t) = A_{1,i}e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} + A_{2,i}e^{-\frac{t}{\tau_{2,i}}} \ \dots\dots \ (1)$$

while specifying $A_{2,1}$ = 0 and $\tau_{2,1} = 0$ for the signal measured from the elongation complex alone.

Here, τ represents the photobleaching rate, and $\tau_{1,1}$ describes additional processes influencing the

lifetime of the Cy5. Global fitting was performed in OriginPro 2018 using the Levenberg-Marquardt

iteration algorithm and iterations were terminated when Chi-square reached a tolerance of 10^{-9}

signifying convergence. Optimized values are for EC alone (A_1 = 0.973 ± 0.005; τ_1 = 11.3 ± 0.1 s) and

for EC incubated with Mfd and ATP (A_1 = 0.49 ± 0.02, τ_1 = 11.3 ± 0.1 s; A_2 = 0.52 ± 0.02, τ_2 = 4.6 ± 0.2

s).

smFRET Data Analysis

Single-molecule data acquisition was carried out using NIS element software. Then, single-molecule

intensity time trajectories and FRET-time trajectories were generated in MASH-FRET software

(https://rna-fretools.github.io/MASH-FRET). Heat maps represent aggregated FRET signal for FRET-

ting molecules detected in the experiment. Overlaid contour plots represent population deciles, *i.e,*

the smallest contour represents the top 10th percentile of the population, the next largest contains

the 20th percentile and so on. The projection on the time axis represents the number of observations

over time, and the projection on the FRET axis represents the ensemble FRET signal. Transition density

plots (TDPs) represent transitions between states fit to individual, idealized trajectories using vbFRET.

Plotted here are kernel density plots of the 2D histograms of the data representing transitions

between consecutive states. Data analysis and figures are plotted using custom written Python scripts

provided in the supplemental methods.

Surface plasmon resonance

<u>Activation of SPR chip</u>:

SPR experiments used a BIAcore T200 instrument (Cytiva) using a streptavidin (SA) coated sensor chip

to study the binding kinetics of Mfd to reconstituted ECs, or various DNA substrates. All experiments

were carried out at 20 °C with a flow rate of 5 μL min^{-1}, unless specified otherwise. The SA chip was

activated with three sequential 1 min injections of 1 M NaCl, 50 mM NaOH, then stabilized by 1 min

treatment with 1 M MgCl$_2$.

<u>Immobilization of 49-mer dsDNA substrates (Supplemental Figure 2)</u>:

The 49-mer dsDNA substrate was prepared by hybridizing NT_49_bio (final concentration of 1 μM)

with two-fold excess of TS_49 (Table 1) in 1 × TB in a final volume of 120 μL by heating in a heat block

at 90 °C for 5 min followed by slow cooling until room temperature was reached. NT_49_bio:TS_49

dsDNA substrate was resuspended in 1 × SPR buffer (30 mM Tris/HCl, pH 7.6, 40 mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl$_2$,

0.005% (*v/v*) surfactant P20, 0.25 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM dithiothreitol) to a final concentration of 2.5 nM

(of the biotinylated oligo) and introduced onto the SPR chip for immobilization, followed by a wash

step with 1M KCl. The signal from the dsDNA template corresponded to 106 response units (RU).

Measurement of the Mfd binding affinity for the immobilized dsDNA ligand was performed as

described below.

<u>Immobilization of reconstituted EC on biotinylated 49-mer dsDNA (Supplemental Figure 2)</u>:

The RNAP:template (TS_49):RNA(RNA_15) complex was formed using the procedure described for *in*

situ reconstitution of ECs for smFRET measurements. Following this, biotinylated non-template strand

(NT49_bio; 10 μL of 10 μM working stock in water) was added to the mixture, which was incubated at

room temperature for 15 min. Next, 50 μL of nickel NTA resin suspension were washed and

equilibrated with 1 × TB. This resin resuspended in 50 μL of 1 × TB was then added to the mixture

containing the RNAP, template:RNA hybrid and non-template strand followed by incubation at 37 °C

for 15 min to allow binding of His-tagged RNAP complexes to the resin. The remaining steps were then

performed at room temperature. First, supernatant from this suspension was isolated by

centrifugation on a mini-benchtop centrifuge for 10 s. The pelleted resin was washed with 150 μL of

1 × TB supplemented with 1 M KCl for 2 min. This suspension was then subjected to centrifugation

and the supernatant was discarded. Following this, 150 μL of elution buffer (1 × TB + 500 mM

imidazole) were then applied to the resin followed by gentle mixing by pipetting. Finally, the

suspension was centrifuged and the eluate containing reconstituted elongation complexes was

collected. All reactions containing RNAP were performed in LoBind microcentrifuge tubes (Eppendorf).

The eluate was then applied to a size exclusion column (Wyatt SEC analytical column 030S5) previously

equilibrated with 30 mM Tris/HCl, pH 7.6, 150 mM KCl, 15% (*v/v*) glycerol, 0.5 mM EDTA, 1 mM

dithiothreitol to separate biotinylated elongation complexes from RNAP alone and collected in 200 μL

fractions. Fraction 7 (F7) was found to contain the elongation complex as verified by smFRET studies.

Immobilization of these reconstituted ECs was performed by resuspending 40 μL of F7 in 200 μL of

SPR buffer and introduction into the flow cell. Immobilization was stopped when the signal reached

1380 RU over the background. This was followed by treatment with 1M KCl (10 μL min^{-1}) that served

to displace incorrectly assembled or non-specifically bound RNAP from the chip surface. The resulting

signal corresponded to 550 RU over the background. ECs thus immobilized were found to be stable

for several days. Measurement of Mfd binding affinity for the immobilized EC ligand was performed

as described below.

<u>Immobilization of primed DNA (Supplemental Figure 4):</u>

Primed DNA templates were assembled *in situ* (on the chip surface) in two stages. First, the

biotinylated strand was immobilized in three of the four channels in the chip. Single-stranded

biotinylated DNA substrates (bio_dT40_S18, bio_AS18, and bio_AS18_Cy5; Table 1) were diluted to 1

nM in SPR buffer and immobilized in channels 2, 3, and 4 respectively. This corresponded to 150 RUs

of bio_dT40_S18 (channel 2), 75 RU of bio_AS18 (channel 3), and 80 RU of bio_AS18_Cy5 (channel 4).

Next, the complementary non-biotinylated strand (2 μM in 1 × SPR buffer) was introduced into the

flow cell to hybridize the template *in situ* at 5 μL min^{-1}. This led to a further increase in signal

corresponding to 39 RU (channel 2, complementary strand: AS18), 138 RU (channel 3, complementary

strand: dT40_S18) and 115 RU (channel 4, complementary strand: Cy3_dT40_S18) upon complete

hybridization. Following this step, the flow cell was washed with 1 M MgCl$_2$. Measurement of Mfd

binding affinity to immobilized primed DNA template was performed as described below.

Single-stranded biotinylated DNA substrate (bio_AS18) was diluted to 1 nM in SPR buffer and

immobilized (~48 RU) onto the flow cell of the SA chip by flowing at 5 μL min^{-1}. This was followed by

flowing in the complementary non-biotinylated strand (5 μM in 1 × SPR buffer) with defined lengths

of the ssDNA $(dT)_{0,3..15}$ overhang until the signal reached saturation indicating complete hybridization

(typically corresponding to a comparable increase in RU). Following this step, the flow cell was washed

with 1 M MgCl$_2$. Measurement of Mfd binding affinity was performed as described below.

<u>Titration of Mfd (Supplemental Figures 2 and 4)</u>:

Following the immobilization of the DNA substrates or the EC, in each case, binding studies were

performed by injecting increasing amounts of Mfd in the indicated concentration range in the SPR

buffer supplemented with 0.5 mM ATPγS. For measurements of Mfd binding to dsDNA (Supplemental

Figure 2: NT_49_bio: TS_49), reconstituted EC (Supplemental Figure 2) and primed DNA substrates,

an optimized concentration range of [0, 10, 20, 40, 80, 160, 320, 640] μM of Mfd was used. For

measurements of Mfd binding to ssDNA substrate (bio_dT40_S18), an optimized concentration range

of [0, 0.25, 0.5, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16] μM was used.

Two conditioning steps of flushing the flow cell with 300 mM KCl for 30 s at 10 μL min^{-1} were carried

out prior to injection of Mfd. Mfd-ATPγS was flowed in for 150 s in the association phase, and

dissociation was observed for 200 s in 1 × SPR buffer lacking any Mfd or nucleotide cofactor.

Analysis of sensorgrams:

Sensorgrams were subtracted from the signal from unmodified flow cell (flow channel 1), then zero-

subtracted (injection at 0 μM Mfd or mutant) and R_{eq} values, generated by averaging response values

in the sensorgram's steady-state region from the appropriate Mfd concentration range, fit against

[Mfd] using a 1:1 steady state affinity (SSA) model incorporated in the BIAevaluation software 4.0.1

(Cytiva):

$$R_{eq} = R_{max} \left(\frac{[A]}{[A] + K_D} \right) \ldots\ldots\ldots (2)$$

where R_{max} corresponds to the response when all the immobilized DNA ligands on the surface are

saturated with the analyte A, K_D is the dissociation constant, and $[A]$ is the concentration of analyte

(Mfd or mutant) in solution. In general, raw sensorgrams and fit curves (where applicable) were

exported using Excel, then plotted in Origin, and final Figures prepared in Adobe Illustrator CC.

Sample preparation for electron microscopy

Electron microcopy data acquisition:

Mfd stock (40 μM; 30 μL) was dialyzed overnight in 1 L of 1 × TB at 4 °C in a Slida-A-lyzer mini dialysis

unit with 3,000 MWCO (Thermo Fisher) to reduce the amount of glycerol in the sample. Following this,

protein was recovered and concentrated to a 1.67 mg mL^{-1}. For the sample with ADP-AlF$_x$, to the

mixture of Mfd (7.8 μL at 1.6 mg mL^{-1}) and fluorescent oligonucleotides (10 μL of 10 μM stock), ADP,

NaF and AlCl$_3$ were added to final concentrations of 2, 5 and 0.5 mM, respectively. This reaction

mixture was incubated at 37°C for 5 min to allow binding of Mfd to the template. The samples were

clarified by centrifugation at 20,000 × g for 10 min at 4 °C before grid preparation. Samples (3 μL) were

applied to glow-discharged Quantifoil R 1.2/1.3, Au 400 grids. The grids were blotted at 6 °C for 3.5 s

at 100% humidity with no extra blot force in an FEI Vitrobot Mark IV and plunged into liquid ethane.

The grids were stored in liquid nitrogen until use.

Electron microcopy data acquisition and image processing

Data were collected using Thermo Fisher Talos Arctica microscope at 200 kV equipped with a Falcon

III (Thermo Fisher) camera in electron counting mode. Micrographs were acquired at a nominal

defocus range of -1.0 to -1.9 μm, with a pixel size of 0.74 Å and a total dose of 50 e$^-$ Å^{-2} accumulated

over 50 s and fractionated across 50 movie frames.

Data were processed in cryoSPARC v2 (Punjani et al., 2017). For the sample with ADP-AlF$_x$, 472 images

were manually selected after motion correction and CTF estimation for final processing. A total of

110562 particles were selected after 2D classification and subjected to 3D classification in *ab initio*

reconstruction followed by heterogeneous refinement using four *ab initio* classes. Particles (31718)

from class 3 were used for 3D refinement, which resulted in a 3D reconstruction at 5.2 Å resolution

(0.143 FSC gold standard; Supplemental Figure 5A-C).

<u>Model fitting</u>

Molecular dynamics with explicit solvent was used to fit the model of Mfd on primer DNA into the

cryo-EM density map (Singharoy et al., 2016). The starting model was comprised of the Mfd motor

domain (PDB ID 2EYQ) with idealized B-DNA with the same sequence as used for the cryo-EM

experiments but with a dT$_{12}$ overhang instead of dT$_{40}$. The system was equilibrated for 10 ns. The

resulting model was then used as the basis for modeling the complex in COOT (Emsley et al., 2010)

with minimal distortions to protein secondary structure and DNA. The model was then subjected to

restrained positional refinement in phenix real_space_refine (Liebschner et al., 2019). The final model

is comprised of 382 residues from Mfd and 47 nucleotide residues. The model was visualized in

Chimera (Pettersen et al., 2004).

Measurement of 2AP fluorescence

Double-stranded (ds) and bubble substrates used in 2AP experiments were hybridized at a

concentration of 20 μM in 1 × TB by heating to 95 °C on a heat block for 5 minutes followed by turning

off the heat source and allowing the reaction to cool down to room temperature overnight.

dT6_S18_v2_11_2AP or dT6_S18_v2_12_2AP were hybridized with either AS18_v2_2AP or

AS18_v2_2AP_bubble (sequences are provided in Table 2) to create four substrates: (a) 11_2AP_ds ≡

dT6_S18_v2_11_2AP: AS18_v2_2AP   (b)   11_2AP_bubble   ≡   dT6_S18_v2_11_2AP:

AS18_v2_2AP_bubble (c) 12_2AP_ds ≡ dT6_S18_v2_12_2AP: AS18_v2_2AP and (d) 12_2AP_bubble ≡

dT6_S18_v2_12_2AP: AS18_v2_2AP_bubble. Starting with a stock concentration of 40 μM of Mfd and

20 μM of DNA substrates, protein and DNA were diluted 10-fold into 1 × TB in a total sample volume

of 120 μL and 100 mM ATPγS stock was supplemented to a final concentration of 0.5 mM as

appropriate. For purposes of background subtraction, we collected emission spectra of Mfd (4 μM)

alone, Mfd (4 μM) and ATPγS (0.5 mM), or ds or bubble substrates alone (2 μM). All samples were

incubated for at least 20 minutes at room temperature (24 °C) prior to measurements.

Spectra were collected on a Cary Eclipse in FP8300 emission mode. Samples were deposited in a clean

quartz cuvette with a total sample volume of 120 μL. Samples were excited at 330 nm (slit width 5

nm) and emission spectra were collected in the range from 350 nm − 460 nm with a slit width of 5 nm

and a scan rate of 30 nm/min. The averaging time for each measurement was set as 1 s and data were

collected at an interval of 0.5 nm. The PMT voltage was set to 800.

Two independent repeats were collected for each of the ds and bubble substrates (11_2AP_ds,

11_2AP_bubble, 12_2AP_ds, 12_2AP_bubble). Each spectrum was blanked for buffer, and the

difference spectrum was calculated by subtracting the blanked spectrum of the ds substrate from that

of the bubble substrate. Fluorescence enhancement was calculated by subtracting the signal

measured in the presence of Mfd and ATPγS from the signal measured in the presence of Mfd alone

for both substrates. The fluorescence emission of either ds or bubble DNA substrate (2 μM) was

measured in the presence of Mfd (4 μM) alone or with 0.5 mM ATPγS and blanked by subtracting the

corresponding emission spectrum of a sample of either Mfd (4 μM) or with 0.5 mM ATPγS in 1 × TB,

and lacking the DNA substrate. Three repeats were performed for 11_2AP_ds, 11_2AP_bubble and

12_2AP_bubble and two repeats were performed for the 12_2AP_ds substrate. The average

difference spectrum was then calculated at each wavelength in the emission spectrum and a five point

moving average was further used to smooth this signal for purposes of visualization. In the figures,

individual corrected measurements are plotted as points, and the average is plotted as a line.

References

Abdelkareem, M., Saint-Andre, C., Takacs, M., Papai, G., Crucifix, C., Guo, X., Ortiz, J., and
Weixlbaumer, A. (2019). Structural Basis of Transcription: RNA Polymerase Backtracking and
Its Reactivation. Mol Cell *75*, 298-309 e294.
Andrecka, J., Lewis, R., Bruckner, F., Lehmann, E., Cramer, P., and Michaelis, J. (2008). Single-
molecule tracking of mRNA exiting from RNA polymerase II. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *105*, 135-
140.
Belogurov, G.A., and Artsimovitch, I. (2019). The Mechanisms of Substrate Selection,
Catalysis, and Translocation by the Elongating RNA Polymerase. J Mol Biol *431*, 3975-4006.
Borukhov, S., Sagitov, V., and Goldfarb, A. (1993). Transcript cleavage factors from *E. coli*. Cell
72, 459-466.
Bronson, J.E., Fei, J., Hofman, J.M., Gonzalez, R.L., Jr., and Wiggins, C.H. (2009). Learning Rates
and States from Biophysical Time Series: A Bayesian Approach to Model Selection and Single-
Molecule FRET Data. Biophys J *97*, 3196-3205.
Brugger, C., Zhang, C., Suhanovsky, M.M., Kim, D.D., Sinclair, A.N., Lyumkis, D., and
Deaconescu, A.M. (2020). Molecular determinants for dsDNA translocation by the
transcription-repair coupling and evolvability factor Mfd. Nat Commun *11*, 3740.
Burova, E., Hung, S.C., Sagitov, V., Stitt, B.L., and Gottesman, M.E. (1995). *Escherichia coli*
NusG Protein Stimulates Transcription Elongation Rates In Vivo and In Vitro. Journal of
bacteriology *177*, 1388-1392.
Byrd, A.K., and Raney, K.D. (2012). Superfamily 2 helicases. Front Biosci (Landmark Ed) *17*,
2070-2088.
Chambers, A.L., Smith, A.J., and Savery, N.J. (2003). A DNA translocation motif in the bacterial
transcription-repair coupling factor, Mfd. Nucleic Acids Res *31*, 6409-6418.
Deaconescu, A.M., Chambers, A.L., Smith, A.J., Nickels, B.E., Hochschild, A., Savery, N.J., and
Darst, S.A. (2006). Structural Basis for Bacterial Transcription-Coupled DNA Repair. Cell *124*,
507-520.
Deaconescu, A.M., Sevostyanova, A., Artsimovitch, I., and Grigorieff, N. (2012). Nucleotide
excision repair (NER) machinery recruitment by the transcription-repair coupling factor
involves unmasking of a conserved intramolecular interface. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *109*,
3353-3358.
Duan, M., Selvam, K., Wyrick, J.J., and Mao, P. (2020). Genome-wide role of Rad26 in
promoting transcription-coupled nucleotide excision repair in yeast chromatin. Proc Natl
Acad Sci U S A *117*, 18608-18616.
Emsley, P., Lohkamp, B., Scott, W.G., and Cowtan, K. (2010). Features and development of
Coot. Acta Crystallogr D Biol Crystallogr *66*, 486-501.
Fan, J., Leroux-Coyau, M., Savery, N.J., and Strick, T.R. (2016). Reconstruction of bacterial
transcription-coupled repair at single-molecule resolution. Nature *536*, 234-237.

Gabizon, R., Lee, A., Vahedian-Movahed, H., Ebright, R.H., and Bustamante, C.J. (2018). Pause
sequences facilitate entry into long-lived paused states by reducing RNA polymerase
transcription rates. Nat Commun *9*, 2930.

Ghodke, H., Ho, H.N., and van Oijen, A.M. (2020). Single-molecule live-cell imaging visualizes
parallel pathways of prokaryotic nucleotide excision repair. Nat Commun *11*, 1477.

Graves, E.T., Duboc, C., Fan, J., Stransky, F., Leroux-Coyau, M., and Strick, T.R. (2015). A
dynamic DNA-repair complex observed by correlative single-molecule nanomanipulation and
fluorescence. Nat Struct Mol Biol *22*, 452-457.

Haines, N.M., Kim, Y.I., Smith, A.J., and Savery, N.J. (2014). Stalled transcription complexes
promote DNA repair at a distance. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *111*, 4037-4042.

Hamdan, S., Bulloch, E.M., Thompson, P.R., Beck, J.L., Yang, J.Y., Crowther, J.A., Lilley, P.E.,
Carr, P.D., Ollis, D.L., Brown, S.E.*, et al.* (2002). Hydrolysis of the 5'-p-nitrophenyl ester of TMP
by the proofreading exonuclease (epsilon) subunit of Escherichia coli DNA polymerase III.
Biochemistry *41*, 5266-5275.

Herbert, K.M., Zhou, J., Mooney, R.A., Porta, A.L., Landick, R., and Block, S.M. (2010). *E. coli*
NusG Inhibits Backtracking and Accelerates Pause-Free Transcription by Promoting Forward
Translocation of RNA Polymerase. J Mol Biol *399*, 17-30.

Ho, H.N., van Oijen, A.M., and Ghodke, H. (2018). The transcription-repair coupling factor Mfd
associates with RNA polymerase in the absence of exogenous damage. Nat Commun *9*, 1570.

Ho, H.N., van Oijen, A.M., and Ghodke, H. (2020). Single-molecule imaging reveals molecular
coupling between transcription and DNA repair machinery in live cells. Nat Commun *11*, 1478.

Howan, K., Smith, A.J., Westblade, L.F., Joly, N., Grange, W., Zorman, S., Darst, S.A., Savery,
N.J., and Strick, T.R. (2012). Initiation of transcription-coupled repair characterized at single-
molecule resolution. Nature *490*, 431-434.

Jaciuk, M., Swuec, P., Gaur, V., Kasprzak, J.M., Renault, L., Dobrychlop, M., Nirwal, S., Bujnicki,
J.M., Costa, A., and Nowotny, M. (2020). A combined structural and biochemical approach
reveals translocation and stalling of UvrB on the DNA lesion as a mechanism of damage
verification in bacterial nucleotide excision repair. DNA Repair (Amst) *85*, 102746.

Johnston, C.L., Marzano, N.R., Paudel, B.P., Wright, G., Benesch, J.L.P., van Oijen, A.M., and
Ecroyd, H. (2020). Single-molecule fluorescence-based approach reveals novel mechanistic
insights into human small heat shock protein chaperone function. J Biol Chem.

Jones, A.C., and Neely, R.K. (2015). 2-Aminopurine as a fluorescent probe of DNA
conformation and the DNA-enzyme interface. Q Rev Biophys *48*, 244-279.

Kang, J.Y., Llewellyn, E., Chen, J., Olinares, P.D.B., Brewer, J., Chait, B.T., Campbell, E.A., and
Darst, S.A. (2021). Structural basis for transcription complex disruption by the Mfd
translocase. Elife *10*.

Kang, J.Y., Mooney, R.A., Nedialkov, Y., Saba, J., Mishanina, T.V., Artsimovitch, I., Landick, R.,
and Darst, S.A. (2018). Structural Basis for Transcript Elongation Control by NusG Family
Universal Regulators. Cell *173*, 1650-1662 e1614.

Kisker, C., Kuper, J., and Van Houten, B. (2013). Prokaryotic Nucleotide Excision Repair. Cold
Spring Harb Perspect Biol *5*, a012591.

Kokic, G., Wagner, F.R., Chernev, A., Urlaub, H., and Cramer, P. (2021). Structural basis of
human transcription-DNA repair coupling. Nature.

Komissarova, N., and Kashlev, M. (1997). Transcriptional arrest: Escherichia coli RNA
polymerase translocates backward, leaving the 3' end of the RNA intact and extruded. Proc
Natl Acad Sci U S A *94*, 1755-1760.

Komissarova, N., Kireeva, M.L., Becker, J., Sidorenkov, I., and Kashlev, M. (2003). Engineering

of elongation complexes of bacterial and yeast RNA polymerases. Methods Enzymol *371*, 233-
251.

Le, T.T., Yang, Y., Tan, C., Suhanovsky, M.M., Fulbright, R.M., Jr., Inman, J.T., Li, M., Lee, J.,
Perelman, S., Roberts, J.W.*, et al.* (2017). Mfd Dynamically Regulates Transcription via a
Release and Catch-Up Mechanism. Cell.

Liebschner, D., Afonine, P.V., Baker, M.L., Bunkoczi, G., Chen, V.B., Croll, T.I., Hintze, B., Hung,
L.W., Jain, S., McCoy, A.J.*, et al.* (2019). Macromolecular structure determination using X-rays,
neutrons and electrons: recent developments in Phenix. Acta Crystallogr D Struct Biol *75*, 861-
877.

Mahdi, A.A., Briggs, G.S., Sharples, G.J., Wen, Q., and Lloyd, R.G. (2003). A model for dsDNA
translocation revealed by a structural motif common to RecG and Mfd proteins. EMBO J *22*,
724-734.

Manelyte, L., Kim, Y.I., Smith, A.J., Smith, R.M., and Savery, N.J. (2010). Regulation and Rate
Enhancement during Transcription-Coupled DNA Repair. Mol Cell *40*, 714-724.

Mayne, L.V., and Lehmann, A.R. (1982). Failure of RNA synthesis to recover after UV
irradiation: an early defect in cells from individuals with Cockayne's syndrome and xeroderma
pigmentosum. Cancer Res *42*, 1473-1478.

Mellon, I., and Hanawalt, P.C. (1989). Induction of the *Escherichia coli* lactose operon
selectively increases repair of its transcribed DNA strand. Nature *342*, 95-98.

Pakotiprapha, D., Samuels, M., Shen, K., Hu, J.H., and Jeruzalmi, D. (2012). Structure and
mechanism of the UvrA-UvrB DNA damage sensor. Nat Struct Mol Biol *19*, 291-298.

Park, J., Myong, S., Niedziela-Majka, A., Lee, K.S., Yu, J., Lohman, T.M., and Ha, T. (2010). PcrA
helicase dismantles RecA filaments by reeling in DNA in uniform steps. Cell *142*, 544-555.

Park, J.S., Marr, M.T., and Roberts, J.W. (2002). *E. coli* Transcription Repair Coupling Factor
(Mfd protein) Rescues Arrested Complexes by Promoting Forward Translocation. Cell *109*,
757-767.

Pettersen, E.F., Goddard, T.D., Huang, C.C., Couch, G.S., Greenblatt, D.M., Meng, E.C., and
Ferrin, T.E. (2004). UCSF Chimera--a visualization system for exploratory research and
analysis. J Comput Chem *25*, 1605-1612.

Portman, J.R., Brouwer, G.M., Bollins, J., Savery, N.J., and Strick, T.R. (2021). Cotranscriptional
R-loop formation by Mfd involves topological partitioning of DNA. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A
118.

Proshkin, S.A., and Mironov, A.S. (2016). Stalled RNA Polymerase Is a Target of the Mfd Factor.
Mol Biol (Mosk) *50*, 381-384.

Punjani, A., Rubinstein, J.L., Fleet, D.J., and Brubaker, M.A. (2017). cryoSPARC: algorithms for
rapid unsupervised cryo-EM structure determination. Nat Methods *14*, 290-296.

Ragheb, M.N., Merrikh, C., Browning, K., and Merrikh, H. (2021). Mfd regulates RNA
polymerase association with hard-to-transcribe regions in vivo, especially those with
structured RNAs. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *118*.

Selby, C.P., and Sancar, A. (1993a). Molecular Mechanism of Transcription-Repair Coupling.
Science *260*, 53-58.

Selby, C.P., and Sancar, A. (1993b). Transcription-Repair Coupling and Mutation Frequency
Decline. Journal of bacteriology *175*, 7509-7514.

Selby, C.P., and Sancar, A. (1995). Structure and Function of Transcription-Repair Coupling
Factor. I. Structural Domains and Binding Properties. J Biol Chem *270*, 4882-4889.

Selby, C.P., and Sancar, A. (1997). Cockayne syndrome group B protein enhances elongation
by RNA polymerase II. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *94*, 11205-11209.

Shi, J., Wen, A., Zhao, M., Jin, S., You, L., Shi, Y., Dong, S., Hua, X., Zhang, Y., and Feng, Y. (2020).
Structural basis of Mfd-dependent transcription termination. Nucleic Acids Res.
Singharoy, A., Teo, I., McGreevy, R., Stone, J.E., Zhao, J., and Schulten, K. (2016). Molecular
dynamics-based refinement and validation for sub-5 A cryo-electron microscopy maps. eLife
5.
Smith, A.J., Pernstich, C., and Savery, N.J. (2012). Multipartite control of the DNA translocase,
Mfd. Nucleic Acids Res *40*, 10408-10416.
Smith, A.J., Szczelkun, M.D., and Savery, N.J. (2007). Controlling the motor activity of a
transcription-repair coupling factor: autoinhibition and the role of RNA polymerase. Nucleic
Acids Res *35*, 1802-1811.
Svetlov, V., and Artsimovitch, I. (2015). Purification of bacterial RNA polymerase: tools and
protocols. Methods Mol Biol *1276*, 13-29.
Svetlov, V., Vassylyev, D.G., and Artsimovitch, I. (2004). Discrimination against
Deoxyribonucleotide Substrates by Bacterial RNA Polymerase. J Biol Chem *279*, 38087-38090.
Troelstra, C., van Gool, A., de Wit, J., Vermeulen, W., Bootsma, D., and Hoeijmakers, J.H.
(1992). ERCC6, a member of a subfamily of putative helicases, is involved in Cockayne's
syndrome and preferential repair of active genes. Cell *71*, 939-953.
van der Weegen, Y., Golan-Berman, H., Mevissen, T.E.T., Apelt, K., Gonzalez-Prieto, R.,
Goedhart, J., Heilbrun, E.E., Vertegaal, A.C.O., van den Heuvel, D., Walter, J.C.*, et al.* (2020).
The cooperative action of CSB, CSA, and UVSSA target TFIIH to DNA damage-stalled RNA
polymerase II. Nat Commun *11*, 2104.
van Gool, A.J., Verhage, R., Swagemakers, S.M., van de Putte, P., Brouwer, J., Troelstra, C.,
Bootsma, D., and Hoeijmakers, J.H. (1994). RAD26, the functional S. cerevisiae homolog of the
Cockayne syndrome B gene ERCC6. EMBO J *13*, 5361-5369.
Venema, J., Mullenders, L.H., Natarajan, A.T., van Zeeland, A.A., and Mayne, L.V. (1990). The
genetic defect in Cockayne syndrome is associated with a defect in repair of UV-induced DNA
damage in transcriptionally active DNA. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *87*, 4707-4711.
Wang, B., and Artsimovitch, I. (2020). NusG, an Ancient Yet Rapidly Evolving Transcription
Factor. Front Microbiol *11*, 619618.
Xu, J., Lahiri, I., Wang, W., Wier, A., Cianfrocco, M.A., Chong, J., Hare, A.A., Dervan, P.B.,
DiMaio, F., Leschziner, A.E.*, et al.* (2017). Structural basis for the initiation of eukaryotic
transcription-coupled DNA repair. Nature *551*, 653-657.
1140

1141

1142   **Figure legends**

Figure 1

Figure 1: Reconstitution of a functional EC.

(A) Schematic of the transcription bubble used in this study. The sequence of the four next correct

incorporations is G, U, A and A. ECs were assembled on dye-labeled nucleic acids by flowing in pre-

incubated RNAP-template:RNA complexes into a flow cell with immobilized biotinylated non-template

strand (EC shown in grey). Following initial immobilization, a high-salt wash step was used to remove

poorly hybridized ECs from the surface. Here, only complexes containing both the Cy3-labeled

template strand and Cy5-labeled transcript are observed when stably associated with the biotinylated

non-template strand (shown in orange).

(B-E) Two example FRET trajectories (black) and idealized fits (red) (top panel), temporal heat maps

(middle panel) and column plots indicating percentages of trajectories exhibiting static or dynamic

behavior (exhibiting transitions between or within high, mid, or low FRET regimes) (bottom panel) are

provided for (B) ECs alone (n = 318 molecules) or in the presence of (C) dNTPs (n = 79 molecules), (D)

non-complementary ('wrong') NTPs (n = 179 molecules) and (E)the full set of NTPs (n = 81 molecules)

respectively.

1159

Supplemental Figure 1

Supplemental Figure 1: Walking the EC with subsets of correct rNTPs. *Related to Figure 1.*

(A) Crystal structure of apo Mfd (PDB 2EYQ) colored by functional modules: UvrB homology module

(blue), domain 3 (coral), domain 4 (RNAP interacting domain; purple), motor domains 5 (tan) and 6

(olive), auto-inhibitory domain7 (dark red).

(B) Schematic of the *E coli* transcription bubble (non-template: light gray, template: dark gray, RNA:

gold) with label positions highlighted. Blue spheres represent Cy3 and magenta/pink spheres

represent Cy5 inserted in the backbone of the nucleic acids. The distances between the cyanine dyes

are indicated for the pre-translocated register (1.7 nm) and post-translocated register (3.9 nm) (see

also Supplemental Note 1).

(C) Two example FRET trajectories of the EC alone (as shown in Figure 1B) and corresponding intensity

traces for the Cy3 donor signal (green) and Cy5 acceptor (magenta). Trajectories are truncated at the

photobleaching step.

(D) Transition density plots for RNAP alone (n = 318 molecules), in the presence of dNTPs (n = 79

molecules), with non-complementary ('wrong') NTPs (n = 179 molecules) and the full set of NTPs (n =

81 molecules) respectively.

(E) Schematic of *in situ* assembled FRET-pair labeled ECs incubated with GTP (the next correct NTP) (n

= 63 molecules) or with GTP, ATP and UTP (n = 87 molecules). Temporal heat maps of the reaction for

experiments conducted in the presence of GTP (F) or GTP, ATP and UTP (G) are presented here.

(H) Lifetimes of FRET intermediates observed in indicated conditions in the FRET range from 0.35 to

0.5. See Supplemental Note 2 and Table 2.

1181

Figure 2

1182

1183

Figure 2: Interactions between NusG and the EC

(A) Schematic of FRET-pair labeled ECs incubated with NusG (purple).

(B-D) Two example FRET trajectories (black) and idealized fits (red) (top panel), temporal heat maps

(middle panel) and column plots indicating percentages of trajectories exhibiting static or dynamic

behavior (exhibiting transitions between or within high, mid, or low FRET regimes) (bottom panel) are

provided for (B) EC and NusG alone (n = 461 molecules), (C) EC and NusG in the presence of wrong

NTPs (n = 231 molecules), and (D) EC and NusG with the full set of NTPs (n = 426 molecules). NusG

promotes the residence of the EC in a catalytically poised state, and enhances transitions to low FRET

states.

1193

1194

1195

Supplemental Figure 2: Measurement of binding affinity of Mfd for dsDNA and the EC. *Related to*

Figures 2 and 3.

(A)Transition density plots for EC and NusG alone (n = 461 molecules), EC and NusG in the presence

of wrong NTPs (n = 231 molecules), and EC and NusG with the full set of NTPs (n = 426 molecules).

(B) Lifetimes of FRET intermediates observed in indicated conditions in the FRET range from 0.35 to

0.5. See Supplemental Note 2 and Table 2.

(C, D) Schematic and SPR sensorgrams show association (150 s) and dissociation phases of serially-

diluted 10 – 640 μM Mfd-ATPγS, including a 0 μM control for (C) biotinylated 49-mer dsDNA, and (D)

in vitro reconstituted EC on biotinylated 49-mer DNA flowed into the SPR chip. Responses at

equilibrium averaged over the steady region of sensorgrams (R_{eq}) were fit (insets) using a steady-state

affinity (SSA) model (Equation 1, Materials and Methods) to derive values of K_D (as indicated)*. Errors

are S.E. of the fit.

1208

Figure 3

Figure 3: Interactions between Mfd and the EC.

(A) Schematic of FRET-pair labeled, surface-immobilized ECs incubated with Mfd in solution.

(B-E) Two example FRET trajectories (black) and idealized fits (red) (top panel), temporal heat maps (middle panel) and column plots indicating percentages of trajectories exhibiting static or dynamic behavior (exhibiting transitions between or within high, mid, or low FRET regimes) (bottom panel) are provided for (B) EC and Mfd alone (n = 77 molecules), (C) EC and Mfd in the presence of 0.5 mM ATPγS (n = 68 molecules), (D) EC and Mfd in the presence of 1 mM ATP (n = 174 molecules) and (E) EC and DNA-binding competent but translocase-deficient Mfd(R953A) in the presence of 1 mM ATP (n = 81 molecules).

(F) Normalized intensity of Cy5 fluorescence in the field of view following direct red laser excitation of the EC alone (blue circles) or incubated with Mfd and 1mM ATP (yellow circles). Single (blue) and double (brown) – exponential fits to the EC alone or when incubated with Mfd and 1 mM ATP are indicated as dashed lines. Error bars represent standard error of the fit.

(G) Example FRET trajectories of ECs incubated with Mfd and ATPγS followed by addition of 100 μM each of GTP and UTP. Corresponding heat map shows an overview of the transition to low-FRET states upon incorporation of GTP and UTP.

(H) Histograms (gray bars) of FRET states accessed by the EC when incubated with 100 μM each of GTP, UTP and ATP (top panel), or pre-incubated with Mfd-ATPγS (10 min) followed by 100 μM each of GTP and UTP. Each histogram was fit to the sum of three individual Gaussian curves (see Supplemental Note 3).

Supplemental Figure 3

Supplemental Figure 3: Interactions of ATP with the EC alone or in the presence of Mfd. *Related to*

Figure 3.

(A) Transition density plots for EC and Mfd alone (n = 75 molecules), EC and Mfd in the presence of 1

mM ATPγS (n = 68 molecules), EC and Mfd in the presence of 1mM ATP (n = 174 molecules), and EC

and Mfd(R953A) in the presence of 1 mM ATP (n = 234 molecules).

(B) Temporal heat map (upper panel) and transition density plot (lower panel) of FRET pair labelled

RNAP EC in the presence of 0.5 mM ATPγS alone (n = 124 molecules).

(C) Lifetimes of FRET intermediates observed in indicated conditions in the FRET range from 0.35 to

0.5. See Supplemental Note 2 and Table 2.

(D) Temporal heat maps of FRET pair labelled RNAP EC when titrated with ATP in the range of 0.1 µM

to 1 mM (n = 151, 82, 81, 76, 157 molecules respectively) as indicated.

1245

Figure 4

1246

1247

Figure 4: Interactions between Mfd and a primed-DNA template

(A) Schematic of transcription bubble.

(B) Schematic of SPR experiments to assess the strength of interaction between Mfd-ATPγS or R953A-

ATPγS and primed DNA templates with 18 bp dsDNA and either anti-sense or sense strand overhangs

(dT_3, dT_6, dT_9, dT_{12} or dT_{15} overhangs).

(C) Plot depicting K_D of interaction as a function of overhang length for sense strand overhang (blue)

or anti-sense strand overhang (green) containing DNA substrates. Error bars represent S.E.

(D) Schematic of FRET-pair labelled primed DNA substrate comprised of an 18-mer dsDNA and a 5' 40-

mer poly-dT overhang to assess interactions of Mfd with ssDNA.

(E-H) Two example FRET trajectories (top panel) and temporal heat maps (bottom panel) are

presented for (E) primed DNA alone (n = 100 molecules), (F) Mfd in the presence of ATPγS (n = 94

molecules), (G) Mfd in the presence of 1 mM ATP (n = 203 molecules), and (H) Mfd(R953A) in the

presence of 1 mM ATP (n = 105 molecules).

1261

Supplemental Figure 4: Interactions between Mfd and a primed-DNA template. *Related to Figure 4.*

Schematic and SPR sensorgrams show association (150 s) and dissociation phases of serially-diluted

$10 - 640$ μM Mfd-ATPγS, including a 0 μM control for (A) 58-mer ssDNA containing the dT_{40} sequence,

(B) FRET pair labeled primed DNA substrate (biotinylated 18-mer dsDNA with dT_{40} overhang), (C)

primed DNA substrate (biotinylated 18-mer dsDNA with dT_{40} overhang) and (D) "flipped" primed DNA

substrate (18-mer dsDNA with biotinylated dT_{40} overhang). Responses at equilibrium averaged over

the steady region of sensorgrams (R_{eq}) were fit (insets) using a steady-state affinity (SSA) model to

derive values of K_D (as indicated)*.* Errors are S.E. of the fit.

(E) Transition density plots for FRET-pair labeled primed DNA alone (n = 100 molecules), or bound to

Mfd in the presence of ATPγS (n = 94 molecules), or ATP (n = 203 molecules), and Mfd(R953A) in the

presence of ATP (n = 105 molecules) are presented here. The DNA substrate is the same as described

in Figure 4.

(F, G) Temporal heat map (F) and transition density plot (G) for ATPase mutant Mfd(E730Q) binding

to FRET pair labelled primed DNA template used in Figure 4 (n = 103 molecules).

(H) For convenience, kernel density estimations of the ensemble FRET distributions read as projections

along the ordinate in the heat-maps presented in Figure 4 are presented to enable direct visual

comparisons.

1281

Figure 5

1282

1283

Figure 5: Interactions between Mfd and primed DNA

(A) Sequence of primed DNA substrate and schematic of complex subjected to cryo-EM.

(B) Front view of the molecular model derived from the cryo-EM reconstruction showing Mfd (residues 575-956) including domains 5 (tan) and, 6 (olive), sense (dark red) and anti-sense (pink) DNA. DNA (template: residues 28−58; non-template: 1−18) are shown in ribbon representation to illustrate the path of the DNA.

(C) Comparisons of the conformations of the TRG motif in apo (orange; PDB 2EQY); ADP-bound (green, PDB 6X4W); ATP-bound (olive; PDB 6X43) and on primed-DNA (yellow, ADP.AlFx) in structures aligned to the motor domain in PDB 6X43. R953 is shown as blue spheres. The primed DNA substrate is shown in ribbon and surface representation.

(D) The model suggests dsDNA near the junction is melted to form the TRCF bubble. Position 11 from the 5' end of the template is shown in green, and position 12 is shown in yellow on the sense strand.

(E) Difference spectra are shown for the fluorescence of 2AP in bubble substrates compared to the respective ds substrates in the absence of Mfd or ATPγS (black). Difference spectra showing increase in fluorescence upon addition of ATPγS to a sample containing Mfd and either the bubble substrate (purple) or ds substrate (panels show data for substrate containing 2AP at position 11(left; green in panel D) or 12 (right; yellow in panel D)). Lines indicate five-point moving averages, and individual squares/circles indicate data from 2-3 independent repeats.

Supplemental Figure 5

1303

1304

Supplemental Figure 5: EM reconstruction of Mfd. *Related to Figure 5.*

(A) Overview of image processing using CryoSPARC. A set of 110562 particles were selected after 2D

classification for *ab initio* reconstruction and heterogeneous refinement leading to four classes of 3D

reconstructions. Of these, 31718 particles that yielded the most complete reconstruction were

subjected to homogenous refinement to generate the map presented here. The colormap applied to

the reconstruction represents local resolution.

(B) Fourier shell correlation curves of the reconstruction reported an apparent resolution of 5.2 Å

(gold-standard 0.143 FSC).

(C) Angular distribution of particle projections

(D) Measurement of the dissociation constant of Mfd for a 49-mer dsDNA template containing a 9

nucleotide non-complementary bubble where the complementary residues were replaced by dT_9. The

errors reflect S.E of the fit.

1317

Figure 6

1318

Figure 6: Model for Mfd-mediated transcription modulation

Mfd interacts with the (A) elongation complex weakly in the absence of ATP, however, (B, C) ATP

binding and hydrolysis are required for stable association of Mfd with the EC. Following, a brief period

of ATP-hydrolysis dependent translocation of Mfd on upstream dsDNA, Mfd loads on to the EC. This

results in chaperoning of the EC from catalytically inactive state(s) into a catalytically poised molecular

timer intermediate (D) with a lifetime of ~6 s. In this ATP-bound state, we propose that Mfd melts the

upstream DNA to form an extended transcription-repair coupling factor – transcription ("TRCF-T")

bubble. In this state R953 contacts the template ssDNA in the TRCF-T bubble. Melting of this upstream

DNA is sufficient to promote residence of the EC in a catalytically poised state. (E) In the presence of

NTPs on an undamaged template, transcription can be resumed. (F) On damaged templates or under

conditions of nucleotide starvation or in the presence of impediments to the progress of the EC, the

bound ATP is hydrolyzed to promote transcription termination. In our experiments this is seen as the

loss of RNA. We propose that in either case continued translocation occurs in a manner in which the

ATPase activity of Mfd translocates the TRCF bubble forward until Mfd interacts with its binding

partners in the repair machinery.

1334

Supplemental Information

Mechanism of transcription modulation by the transcription-repair coupling factor

1338

Bishnu Paudel[1,2], Zhi-Qiang Xu[1,2], Slobodan Jergic[1,2], Aaron J Oakley[1,2], Nischal Sharma[1,2],

Simon HJ Brown[1,2], James C Bouwer[1,2], Peter J Lewis[1,3], Nicholas E Dixon[1,2], Antoine M van

Oijen[1,2], Harshad Ghodke[1,2]*

[1]Molecular Horizons and School of Chemistry and Molecular Bioscience, University of Wollongong,

Wollongong, Australia

[2] Illawarra Health and Medical Research Institute, Wollongong, Australia

[3]School of Environmental and Life Sciences, University of Newcastle, Callaghan, NSW 2308, Australia

Correspondence:

Harshad Ghodke, Molecular Horizons and School of Chemistry and Molecular Bioscience, University

of Wollongong, Wollongong, New South Wales, 2522, Australia

Supplemental Note 1

To assess whether the calculated distances are consistent with the FRET state assignments for the pre-

vs. post- translocated states, we built an *in silico* model (Supplemental Figure 1B) based on available

structures of the *E. coli* elongation complex (Abdelkareem et al., 2019) and structures of the Cy3 and

Cy5 dyes (Liu and Lilley, 2017). The distances between the Cy3 and Cy5 dyes in the pre- and post-

translocated states were then estimated to be 1.7 nm and 3.9 nm respectively. Using these distances,

and available estimates for R_0 for Cy3–Cy5 dye pairs introduced into protein-DNA complexes in the

range of 4.7 – 6.5 nm (Levitus and Ranjit, 2011), we estimate FRET efficiencies for the pre- and post-

translocated states to be: 0.99 and 0.75 (for R_0 = 4.7 nm) and 0.99 and 0.95 (for R_0 = 6.5 nm). The

measured FRET efficiencies are ~0.9 and ~0.6 (Figure 1), which agree well with the lower estimates

for R_0.

Supplemental Note 2

To measure the lifetime of the intermediate state we first chose to analyze trajectories with

intermediates in the mid-FRET regime. However, examination of individual trajectories revealed that

this mid-FRET regime is populated by molecules exhibiting high-mid FRET state dynamics as well as

mid-low FRET dynamics. We therefore selected molecules in the 0.35−0.5 FRET range which mostly

accommodated molecules exhibiting mid-low FRET dynamics. The mean lifetimes (and standard error)

of the intermediates states were best estimated by fitting the distributions to single-exponential fits.

In the case of one notable condition − Mfd in the presence of ATPγS followed by incubation with

correct nucleotides – the lifetime distributions was found to be better fit by a gamma distribution. In

this case, the scale parameter was used to report the lifetime (Table 2).

Supplemental Note 3

To compare the efficiency of transcription by the elongation complex following incubation with Mfd-

ATPγS upon addition of 100 μM each of GTP and UTP to that in the presence of GTP, UTP and ATP, we

plotted histograms of the FRET states observed in the system (gray bars in Figure 3L). The histogram

for each condition was best fit with a sum of three Gaussian terms of the form:

1375
$$f(x) = ae^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

1376   Here a_i represents the amplitude, μ_i represents the mean of the distribution and σ_i the standard

1377   deviation of the ith distribution. In the absence of Mfd-ATPγS, the three Gaussians (a_i, μ_i, σ_i) were:

1378   (25.36, 0.91, 0.11); (16.5, 0.63, 0.33) and (15.14, 0.09, 0.10) with an R-square of 0.88. In the presence

1379   of Mfd-ATPγS and rGTP, rUTP, the three Gaussians were: (17.15, 0.93, 0.19), (10.94, 0.70, 0.27) and

1380   (9.82, 0.18, 0.10) with an R-square of 0.85. For each Gaussian the area was calculated as:

1381
$$A_i = \sqrt{2\pi} a_i \sigma_i$$

Next, each area was normalized by the sum of the areas of the three Gaussians to obtain the fractional

area occupied by each Gaussian. Efficiencies were calculated by comparing the fractions of the

populations corresponding to each of the Gaussians across the two conditions. Since transcript

elongation is reflected in the low-FRET states, we compared the fraction of the population in the

Gaussian with the smallest mean FRET.

Supplemental Note 4

SPR measurements of the strength of interaction between Mfd and this DNA substrate in the presence

of ATPγS revealed a dissociation constant that is somewhat higher (K_D = 300 ± 10 nM) than that of

dsDNA (170 ± 20 nM; Supplemental Figure 4B–D compared to Supplemental Figure 2C). To monitor

changes in the distance between the junction and the 5' end, we introduced a FRET pair on either end

of the ssDNA overhang (Figure 4D). SPR measurements revealed an affinity of 390 ± 10 nM for the

binding of Mfd to the FRET-pair labelled substrate (Supplemental Figure 4B).

1394

1395   **Table 1: Nucleic Acid substrates used in this study**

Experiment	DNA	Sequence
pETMCSII_Mfd_F	Cloning primer	GTT TAA TCG GAT CCT AAG GAG GTT AAT TCC CGC TAT GCC TGA ACA ATA TCG TTA TAC G
pETMCSII_Mfd_R	Cloning primer	GGGAGCTCGAATTCTTAAGCGATCGCGTTCTCT
smFRET (Figures 1−3)	Non-template (NT70_bio)	ATC GAG CAA CTA CTC AGA CAG CAC TAC TGC GAC TTA CAG ACA TCG AGA GGG TAA TGG CGA ATA GCA CTG A /3 bioTEG/
smFRET (Figures 1−3)	Template (T70_31Cy3)	TCA GTG CTA TTC GCC ATT ACC CTC TCG ATG T/iCy3/CT GTA AGT CGC AGT AGT GCT GTC TGA GTA GTT GCT CGAT
smFRET (Figures 1−3)	RNA(R15_4Cy5)	rArUrArU/iCy5/rArU rArUrC rGrArG rArGrG
smFRET (Figure 4)	bio_AS18_Cy5	/5Biosg/ TGG CGA CGG CAG CGA GGC/3Cy5Sp/
smFRET (Figure 4)	Cy3_dT40_S18	/5Cy3/TT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTG CCT CGC TGC CGT CGC CA
SPR (Supplemental Figure 4)	bio_AS18	/5Biosg/ TGG CGA CGG CAG CGA GGC
SPR	dT40_S18	TT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTG CCT

SPR (Supplemental Figure 4)		CGC TGC CGT CGC CA
SPR (Supplemental Figure 4)	bio_dT40_S18	/Biosg/TT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT TTG CCT CGC TGC CGT CGC CA
SPR (Supplemental Figure 4)	AS18	TGG CGA CGG CAG CGA GGC
SPR (Supplemental Figure 2)	TS_49	TCA GTG CTA TTC GCC ATT ACC CTC TCG ATG T/iCy3/CT GTA AGT CGC AGT AGT G
SPR (Supplemental Figure 2)	NT_49_bio	CAC TAC TGC GAC TTA CAG ACA TCG AGA GGG TAA TGG CGA ATA GCA CTG A /3 bioTEG/
SPR (Supplemental Figure 5)	NT_49_bio _bubble	CAC TAC TGC GAC TTA CAG ACT TTT TTT TTG TAA TGG CGA ATA GCA CTG A /3BioTEG/
SPR (Supplemental Figure 2)	RNA_15	rArUrAr UrArU rArUrC rGrArG rArGrG
SPR (Figure 4)	S18	GCC TCG CTG CCG TCG CCA
SPR	dT3_S18	TTT GCC TCG CTG CCG TCG CCA

(Figure 4)		
SPR (Figure 4)	dT6_S18	TTT TTT GCC TCG CTG CCG TCG CCA
SPR (Figure 4)	dT9_S18	TTT TTT TTT GCC TCG CTG CCG TCG CCA
SPR (Figure 4)	dT12_S18	TTT TTT TTT TTT GCC TCG CTG CCG TCG CCA
SPR (Figure 4)	dT15_S18	TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT GCC TCG CTG CCG TCG CCA
SPR (Figure 4)	S18_bio	GCC TCG CTG CCG TCG CCA /3Bio/
SPR (Figure 4)	AS18_dT3	TGG CGA CGG CAG CGA GGC TTT
SPR (Figure 4)	AS18_dT6	TGG CGA CGG CAG CGA GGC TTT TTT
SPR (Figure 4)	AS18_dT9	TGG CGA CGG CAG CGA GGC TTT TTT TTT
SPR (Figure 4)	AS18_dT12	TGG CGA CGG CAG CGA GGC TTT TTT TTT TTT
SPR (Figure 4)	AS18_dT15	TGG CGA CGG CAG CGA GGC TTT TTT TTT TTT TTT
2AP Bulk fluorescence	dT6_S18_v 2_11_2AP	TTT TTT GAC T/i2AmPr/A CAG CCG ACG CGT

(Figure 5)		
2AP Bulk fluorescence (Figure 5)	dT6_S18_v 2_12_2AP	TTT TTT GAC TA/i2AmPr/ CAG CCG ACG CGT
2AP Bulk fluorescence (Figure 5)	AS18_v2_2 AP	ACG CGT CGG CTG TTA GTC
2AP Bulk fluorescence (Figure 5)	AS18_v2_2 AP_bubble	ACG CGT CGG CTG AAA GTC

1396

1397

 Table 2: Lifetimes of mid-FRET states

	Condition	Distribution	Fit Parameter				
			Mean (τ) [Exp]/ scale parameter (Gamma)	S.E.	Shape	S.E.	log likelihood
1	EC (n_states = 42)	exp	5.0	0.8			−109.9
2	EC dNTPs (n_states = 14)	exp	5.7	1.5			−38.4
3	EC wrong (n_states = 70	exp	7.8	0.9			−213.7
4	EC right (n_states = 19)	exp	5.5	1.3			−51.6
5	NusG (n_states = 99)	exp	4.2	0.4			−242.1
6a	NusG wrong (n_states = 57)	exp	6.9	0.9			−166.9
7a	NusG correct (n_states = 129)	exp	5.9	0.5			−356.965
8	Mfd (n_states = 13)	exp	7.1	2.0			−38.5

9	Mfd-ATPγS (n_states = 20)	exp	6.1	1.4			−56.1
10	Mfd(R953A) (n_states = 21)	exp	7.2	1.6			−62.3
11	Mfd-ATP [10μM] (n_states = 29)	exp	4.8	0.9			−74.9
12	Mfd-ATP [100μM] (n_states = 23)	exp	6.1	1.3			−64.5
13	Mfd-ATP [1 mM] (n_states = 77)	exp	6.2	0.7			−216.9
14	Mfd-ATP [10 mM] (n_states = 27)	exp	4.6	0.9			−68.1
15	ATPgS_rG_rU (n_states = 17)	Gamma	0.7	0.2	5.20	1.73	−29.6

1399

1400

Python scripts for Data Analysis

1. Concatenating .dat files

```python
import os
from natsort import natsorted
import pandas as pd
import seaborn as sns
import matplotlib as plt
import glob
path = ("")  # location of .dat files
all_files = glob.glob(path + "/*.dat")
li = []
for filename in all_files:

    df = pd.read_fwf(filename, index_col=None)
    df1 = pd.DataFrame(df)
    df1.columns = ["Time(s)", "Donor", "Acceptor", "FRET", "Idealized-FRET"]
    li.append(df1)

frame = pd.concat(li, axis=0, join = 'outer', ignore_index=False)
frame = pd.DataFrame(frame)
frame.to_csv(" ", index=None) # provide location to save .csv file
```

```
1424    2. Heatmap (Time-FRET density map)
1425
1426    from scipy.stats import norm
1427    import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
1428    import seaborn as sns
1429    from scipy import stats
1430    import pandas as pd
1431    import numpy as np
1432    from matplotlib import rc
1433
1434    filename = " "   # provide path of .csv files for heat map saved from concate scripts above
1435    x = pd.read_csv(filename)
1436    x.columns = ['Time (s)', 'Donor', 'Acceptor', 'FRET', 'Idealized FRET']
1437    x = x.loc[(x['FRET']<=1) & (x['FRET']>0)]
1438    T = x['Time (s)']/5
1439    FRET = x['FRET']
1440    sns.set(style = 'whitegrid', font_scale = 1.5)
1441    sns.jointplot(x = T, y = FRET, data=x, kind="kde", fill=True, gridsize = 100, color = 'skyblue', reverse =
1442    False, xlim = (0,160), ylim = (0, 1.1), shade_lowest = False)
1443    plt.show()
1444
```

3. Transition Density Plot (TDP)

```python
from scipy.stats import norm
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import seaborn as sns
from scipy import stats
import pandas as pd
import numpy as np

filename = "_dwelldata.txt"
A = pd.read_table(filename, header = None)
print(A.head(5))
A.columns = ['Molecule', 'FRET before transition', 'FRET after transition', 'Time']
print(A.head(5))
# Creating bins
x = A['FRET before transition']
y = A['FRET after transition']
z = A['Molecule']
x_min = np.min(x)
x_max = np.max(x)

plt.figure(figsize = (6, 6))
kdeplot = sns.jointplot(x, y, ratio = 6, gridsize = 100, xlim = (0, 1.2), kind = 'kde', ylim = (0, 1.2), color =
'skyblue', shade_lowest = False)

kdeplot.ax_joint.set_xticks([0, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1.0])
kdeplot.ax_joint.set_yticks([0, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1.0])

plt.show()

Plot Traces
import seaborn as sns
from scipy.stats import norm
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import seaborn as sns
from scipy import stats
import pandas as pd
from scipy.signal import savgol_filter

import numpy as np
filename = " "  # provide path either .dat file or .csv file
x = np.loadtxt(filename)
D = x[:, 1]
A = x[:, 2]
F = x[:, 3]
IF = x[:, 4]
Time = x[:, 0]/5
# smoothing
F = savgol_filter(F, 5, 2)
A = savgol_filter(A, 5, 2)
D = savgol_filter(D, 5, 3)
```

```
1496
1497    #Intensity-time plot
1498    plt.figure(figsize = (5, 2))
1499    sns.set(style = 'darkgrid', font_scale = 1.5)
1500    plot1 = plt.figure(1)
1501    sns.lineplot(Time, D, color = 'blue')
1502    sns.lineplot(Time, A, color = 'purple')
1503    plt.xlabel("Time (s)")
1504    plt.ylabel("Intensity (a.u.)")
1505    plt.xlim(0, 42, 10)
1506    plt.ylim(-200, 6000, 2000)
1507
1508    #FRET-time plot
1509    plt.figure(figsize = (5, 2))
1510    plot2 = plt.figure(2)
1511    plt.xlim(0, 42, 10)
1512    plt.ylim(0, 1.1, 0.2)
1513    sns.lineplot(Time, F, color = 'black')
1514    sns.lineplot(Time, IF, color = 'red')
1515    plt.xlabel("Time (s)")
1516    plt.ylabel("FRET")
1517    plt.legend()
1518    plt.show()
1519
1520
```

```
1521    4. Exponential Fit
1522    from scipy.stats import norm
1523    import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
1524    import seaborn as sns
1525    from scipy import stats
1526    import pandas as pd
1527    import numpy as np
1528    from matplotlib import rc
1529    import os
1530    from natsort import natsorted
1531    import glob
1532    from scipy.optimize import curve_fit
1533    import sympy as sym
1534
1535    #Load data using path for the list of files
1536    path = src_path
1537
1538    all_files = glob.glob(path + "/*.dat")
1539
1540    li = []
1541
1542    # filtering data using for loop
1543    for filename in all_files:
1544
1545        df = pd.read_fwf(filename, index_col=None)
1546        df1 = pd.DataFrame(df)
1547        df1.columns = ["Time(s)", "Donor", "Acceptor", "FRET", "Idealized-FRET"]
1548        df2 = df1[(df1["FRET"]>0.35) & (df1["FRET"]<0.5)]
1549
1550        length = len(df2)/5
1551
1552        li.append(length)
1553    # converting list inot dataframe
1554    li1 = pd.DataFrame(li)
1555    li2 = li1[li1[:]>1]
1556    li3 = li2.dropna()
1557
1558    li3.to_csv(".csv", index=None) # provide path
1559    # Making counts of histogram
1560    hist = np.histogram(li3, density=True)[0]
1561
1562    # choosing x length to fit entire histogram
1563    x = np.arange(0, len(hist), 1)
1564
1565    x_fit = x + x/2
1566
1567    # Defining single exponential function
1568    def exp_fit(x, a, b):
1569        return a*np.exp(-b*x)
1570
1571    # plotting and fitting data
```

```
1572    plt.figure(figsize=(5,4))
1573    fit = curve_fit(exp_fit, x_fit, hist, p0=[2,0.5]) # parameter should optimize here
1574    fit_eq = fit[0][0]*np.exp(-fit[0][1]*x_fit)
1575    plt.bar(x_fit, hist, align="edge")
1576    plt.plot(x_fit, fit_eq, color="red")
1577    plt.xlabel("time (s)")
1578    plt.ylabel("Density")
1579    plt.xlim(0,40)
1580
1581    plt.show()
1582
```

```
1583    5. Violin plots
1584    import pandas as pd
1585    import numpy as np
1586    import seaborn as sns
1587    import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
1588    df = pd.read_csv("midFRET_kinetics.csv")
1589    sns.set_style("whitegrid")
1590    plt.figure(figsize=(5,5))
1591    sns.violinplot(data=df, cut=0)
1592    plt.xticks(rotation=45, ha="right")
1593    plt.ylabel("Time (s)")
1594
1595    plt.savefig(save_path, dpi=600)
1596    plt.savefig(save_path, dpi=600)
1597
```

```
1598   6: Trajectory sort
1599   from scipy.stats import norm
1600   import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
1601   import seaborn as sns
1602   from scipy import stats
1603   from scipy.stats import expon
1604   import math
1605   import pandas as pd
1606   import numpy as np
1607   from matplotlib import rc
1608   import os
1609   import glob
1610   from scipy.optimize import curve_fit
1611   import sympy as sym
1612   from shutil import copyfile
1613
1614   # dataset_name = "500nM_NusG_alone"
1615   # dataset_name = "500nM_NusG_all_correct_NTPs"
1616   # dataset_name = "500nM_NusG_wrong_NTPs"
1617
1618   # dataset_name = "RNAP_alone"
1619   # dataset_name = "RNAP_dNTPs"
1620   # dataset_name = "RNAP_wrong_NTPs"
1621   # dataset_name = "RNAP_all_NTPs"
1622
1623   # dataset_name =  "500nM_Mfd"
1624   # dataset_name = "Mfd_ATPgS"
1625   # dataset_name = "Mfd_10uMATP"
1626   # dataset_name = "Mfd_100uMATP"
1627   # dataset_name = "Mfd_1mMATP"
1628   # dataset_name = "Mfd_10mMATP"
1629   dataset_name = "RNAP_Mfd_ATPgS_rG_rU"
1630   # dataset_name = "MfdR953A_1mMATP"
1631
1632
1633
1634   #define range for FRET values
1635   a = 0.4
1636   b = 0.7
1637   spf = 0.2        #seconds per frame
1638   #Load data using path for the list of files
1639   src_path = **source path**
1640   #Save file path
1641   save_path_static = os.path.join(src_path, 'static')
1642
1643   if not os.path.isdir(save_path_static):
1644      os.mkdir(save_path_static)
1645
1646   save_path_dynamic = os.path.join(src_path, 'dynamic')
1647   if not os.path.isdir(save_path_dynamic):
1648      os.mkdir(save_path_dynamic)
```

```
1649
1650    save_path_dynamic_high = os.path.join(save_path_dynamic, 'dynamic_high')
1651    if not os.path.isdir(save_path_dynamic_high):
1652        os.mkdir(save_path_dynamic_high)
1653
1654    save_path_dynamic_mid = os.path.join(save_path_dynamic, 'dynamic_mid')
1655    if not os.path.isdir(save_path_dynamic_mid):
1656        os.mkdir(save_path_dynamic_mid)
1657
1658    save_path_dynamic_low = os.path.join(save_path_dynamic, 'dynamic_low')
1659    if not os.path.isdir(save_path_dynamic_low):
1660        os.mkdir(save_path_dynamic_low)
1661
1662    save_path_dynamic_high_mid = os.path.join(save_path_dynamic, 'dynamic_high_mid')
1663    if not os.path.isdir(save_path_dynamic_high_mid):
1664        os.mkdir(save_path_dynamic_high_mid)
1665
1666    save_path_dynamic_high_low = os.path.join(save_path_dynamic, 'dynamic_high_low')
1667    if not os.path.isdir(save_path_dynamic_high_low):
1668        os.mkdir(save_path_dynamic_high_low)
1669
1670    save_path_dynamic_mid_low = os.path.join(save_path_dynamic, 'dynamic_mid_low')
1671    if not os.path.isdir(save_path_dynamic_mid_low):
1672        os.mkdir(save_path_dynamic_mid_low)
1673
1674
1675    #Open files
1676    all_files = glob.glob(src_path + "/*.dat")
1677
1678    li_states_all = []
1679    li_lifetimes_all = []
1680    li_dFRET_all = []
1681
1682    # filtering data using for loop
1683    for filename in all_files:
1684    # for filename in all_files[29:30]:
1685        # print(filename)
1686      # if os.path.basename(filename) == '40.dat':
1687        with open(filename, 'r') as file:
1688            data = np.loadtxt(filename)                          #["Time(s)", "Donor", "Acceptor", "FRET",
1689    "Idealized-FRET"]
1690        # print("Trajectory data")
1691        # print(data)
1692        #Sort trajectories
1693        #does trajectory have photobleaching step included? Classify trajectory as 'static' if only one other
1694    state exists, and it survives for less-equal 5 frames
1695        unique_states, counts = np.unique(data[:,4], return_counts = True)        #this seems to return
1696    unique_states in ascending order[!]
1697        # print("Unique states are: "+str(unique_states))
1698        # print(counts)
1699        if len(unique_states) == 1:                              #do nothing in case of trajectories with a
```

```
1700    single step
1701            print("static - do nothing")
1702        elif (len(unique_states) == 2) and (counts[0]<5):          #do nothing in case of trajectories
1703    with a single step
1704            print("static_pb - do nothing")
1705        else:
1706            print("analyse dynamic trajectory")
1707            for state in unique_states:
1708                # print(counts[np.where(unique_states == state)[0]])
1709                if counts[np.where(unique_states == state)[0]]>1:          #apply the requirement that a
1710    state has to last at least 2 frames
1711                    data_state = data[data[:,4]==state]
1712                    # print(data_state)
1713                    # print(state)
1714                    # print("----------------------------------------------------------------------")
1715                    frames = data_state[:,0]                    #extract timeprints for frames
1716                    states = data_state[:,4]
1717
1718                    frames_1 = np.zeros(frames.shape)                #Create a new array shifted by 1
1719                    frames_1[1:] = frames[:-1]
1720                    # print(frames)
1721                    # print(frames_1)
1722                    del_frames = frames-frames_1
1723                    # print(del_frames)
1724
1725                    change_pts = np.where(del_frames>1)
1726                    # print("Change_pts: " + str(change_pts))
1727                    ch_pts = np.asarray(change_pts)
1728                    ch_pts_1 = np.zeros(ch_pts.shape)
1729                    ch_pts_1[0][:-1] = ch_pts[0][1:]
1730                    # print(ch_pts)
1731                    # print(ch_pts_1)
1732                    lifetimes = ch_pts_1[0][:-1] - ch_pts[0][:-1]          #this is a tuple corresponding to
1733    number of instances of the intermediate being formed
1734                    # print("lifetimes are: " + str(lifetimes))
1735
1736                    # Identify whether the next state has higher or lower FRET
1737                    li_dFRET = [5]*len(lifetimes)
1738                    index = 0
1739                    for val in range(1, len(change_pts[0])):
1740                        index = int(frames[change_pts[0][val]-1]-1)
1741                        index_1 = index+1
1742                        dFRET = data[index_1][4]-data[index][4]
1743                        if dFRET>0:
1744                            li_dFRET[val-1] = 1
1745                        else:
1746                            li_dFRET[val-1] = 0
1747
1748
1749                    # # Create lists of entries
1750                    li_lifetimes = lifetimes.tolist()
```

```
1751                    li_state = [state]*len(lifetimes)
1752
1753                    # Extend master list by adding entries of states
1754                    li_states_all.extend(li_state)
1755                    li_lifetimes_all.extend(li_lifetimes)
1756                    li_dFRET_all.extend(li_dFRET)
1757                    # print("Next intermediate")
1758                    # print("-----------------------------------------------------------------------")
1759
1760    df = []
1761    df = pd.DataFrame()
1762    df['States'] = li_states_all
1763    df['lifetimes'] = li_lifetimes_all
1764    df['lifetimes'] = spf*df['lifetimes']
1765    df['dFRET'] = li_dFRET_all
1766    df['in_range'] = (df['States']>0.4)&(df['States']<0.7)
1767    df = df.sort_values('dFRET')
1768    df = df[df['lifetimes']>spf]
1769    # df.to_csv(os.path.join(src_path, 'all_state_lifetimes.csv'), index=None)
1770    # print(df.head)
1771    sns.displot(df, x = "lifetimes", hue = "in_range", kind = "hist")
1772    ax2 = plt.twinx()
1773    sns.ecdfplot(df, x = "lifetimes", hue = "in_range", ax = ax2)
1774    plt.xlim(0, 10)
1775
1776    # sns.displot(df, x = "lifetimes", hue = "dFRET", kind = "hist")
1777    # ax2 = plt.twinx()
1778    # sns.ecdfplot(df, x = "lifetimes", hue = "dFRET", ax = ax2)
1779    # plt.xlim(0, 10)
1780
1781    plt.title(dataset_name)
1782
1783
1784
```