Mechanism of transcription modulation by the transcription-repair coupling factor

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Abstract

Elongation by RNA polymerase is extensively 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 active 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, electron

cryo−microscopy 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 (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). Domains 5 and 6 together form the motor domain, representing a superfamily II

ATPase that exhibits structural homology to the RecG translocase (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.

Through 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), and

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; Ho Wan et al., 2012; Le et al., 2017)

and live-cell imaging techniques (Ghodke et al., 2020; Ho et al., 2018, 2020), a picture has been formed

of the bacterial TRCF Mfd acting 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 (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; Xu et al., 2017) and human CSB (van der Weegen et al.,

2020). 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 elongation complex (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 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 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) (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 complex forms during 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; Ho Wan 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-labelled RNA transcript forming the transcription

bubble. We reconstituted catalytically active 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 collectively

reveal that in addition to the previously described dsDNA binding mode, Mfd makes contacts with

ssDNA on DNA substrates mimicking the transcription bubble.

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) at sites that are predicted to

exhibit high smFRET signals within the dynamic range of the technique. 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 nucleotides enables site-specific introduction of dyes in

the phosphodiester backbone that serve as FRET pairs, and along with it, the ability to probe

conformational changes between various parts of this complex (ii) smFRET affords sub-second

temporal resolution (200 ms) 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 nucleic acid addition, and a post-

translocated conformation following nucleic acid 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* 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). Subsequent measurements of the smFRET signal between the Cy3

donor and the Cy5 acceptor (see Methods) reveals complexes assembled resided in stable high FRET

states centered at 0.9 (Figure 1B upper trace). In addition, a small fraction (15% of 318 trajectories)

also exhibited mid-FRET states centered at 0.6 (Figure 1B lower trace). These states were recapitulated

in temporal heatmaps (Figure 1C) that are scatterplots describing how the smFRET signal evolves in

time for the observed population. These temporal heat maps are a convenient representation

presenting an overview of the progress of FRET trajectories over time. Here, the overlaid black lines

reflect contours parsing the data into deciles.

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 1A, 'RNAP 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, and were restricted to the high FRET regime. Together, the observed symmetry of these

peaks and their proximity to the diagonal, and to each other indicate that the complex thus

reconstituted transitions between states reversibly. Within the paradigm that FRET changes reflect

conformational changes, a simple 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'.

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 1D, 1E). In contrast, non-complementary NTPs converted the

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

the interconverting populations were found to be symmetric 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 1A).

'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 1B−D). 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 1H, 1I and Supplemental Figure 1A). Notably,

the transition density plots, and indeed the individual traces, revealed a conversion of the high-FRET

states to the low-FRET states *via* the mid-FRET states.

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 first transition to the mid-FRET state (0.6) prior upon 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 represent a pre-

translocated or backtracked conformation of the EC. Considering that the sequence of the 5' end of

the transcript is non-complementary to the upstream DNA, we expect that extensive backtracking is

disfavored on this substrate. We propose that the likeliest explanation is that the high- and mid- FRET

states detected here represent pre- and catalytically poised post-translocated states accessed by the

EC during the nucleotide addition cycle.

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

into the mid-FRET state and fluctuation around the mid-FRET state (Figure 2B). This behavior confirms

our assignment of the mid-FRET state as the catalytically active state. The reverse transition from mid-

FRET to high-FRET states that would reflect unbinding of NusG appears to be disfavored in this

experimental condition as the detected asymmetric features in the transition density plot are

unidirectional (Supplemental Figure 2A). These trajectories are readily explained if binding of NusG

restricts conformational rearrangements of the EC.

Incubation with incorrect NTPs in the presence of NusG revealed enrichment of molecules

exhibiting the 0.6 FRET state (Figure 2E, 2F), similar to that observed in the case of incorrect NTPs

alone (Figure 1F, 1G). Reversible short-lived transitions to low-FRET states were also evident in this

data set (Figure 2D, 2E and Supplemental Figure 2A). These transitions may reflect changes in the path

of the upstream DNA that have been detected previously (Kang et al., 2018). Importantly, the

complete set of NTPs revealed efficient, irreversible conversion to the low-FRET states (0 – 0.2) from

the mid-FRET state (Figure 2F, 2G and Supplemental Figure 2A) in the presence of NusG suggesting

processive extension of the transcript through catalysis and associated forward translocation by RNAP.

212   Together, these observations are consistent with the role of EcNusG as a suppressor of

backtracking of RNAP (Burova et al., 1995; Herbert et al., 2010; Kang et al., 2018). Overall, these results

indicate that EcNusG promotes residence of the complex in a catalytically poised conformation. The

loss of high-FRET states upon binding of NusG supports the interpretation that the high-FRET states

represent inactive states.

Remodeling of the elongation complex by Mfd

With the assignment of the high-FRET state as a catalytically inactive state, and the mid-FRET state as

a catalytically poised state, we next assessed the interaction of Mfd with ECs. To characterize the

binding of Mfd to RNAP, we first measured the affinity of Mfd for pre-assembled ECs, or the dsDNA

alone using surface plasmon resonance (SPR). Since Mfd interacts poorly with DNA in bulk assays in

the absence or presence of ATP, measurements of binding of purified Mfd to either DNA or the EC

were carried out in the presence of slowly hydrolyzable ATPγS. SPR measurements revealed a

dissociation constant (K_D) of 170 ± 20 nM (Supplemental Figure 2B) for 49-mer dsDNA alone,

consistent with recent measurements by other groups (Brugger et al., 2020; Le et al., 2017). Binding

to reconstituted RNAP ECs on a 49-mer exhibited similar affinity with a K_D of 127 ± 6 nM (Supplemental

Figure 2C). These data are consistent with the model that dsDNA serves as a major binding partner for

Mfd-ATPγS in the context of the EC as previously demonstrated (Kang et al., 2021; Le et al., 2017; Park

et al., 2002; Shi et al., 2020).

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

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

stable binding of Mfd with DNA in the absence of ATP, Mfd engaged the EC poorly in the smFRET

measurements with 58% of trajectories (n_{obs} = 75) presenting no observable interactions with Mfd

(Figure 3B lower panel). The remaining trajectories exhibited reversible transitions from the high- to

mid-FRET states even in the absence of any nucleotide co-factor (Figure 3B upper panel, 3C and

Supplemental Figure 3A 'RNAP, Mfd') reflecting attempts at stable engagement of Mfd with the EC.

Notably, differently from the EC alone (Supplemental Figure 1A), dynamic trajectories exhibited

transitions mainly in the mid-FRET region (Figure 3B upper panel, Supplemental Figure 3A 'RNAP,

Mfd').

Mfd-ATPγS resulted in dynamic ECs visiting additional mid FRET states (Figure 3D, 3E and

Supplemental Figure 3A 'RNAP, Mfd, ATPγS'; 59% of 69 trajectories presented dynamic behavior).

ATPγS alone did not account for these observations (Supplemental Figure 3B). Curiously, Mfd-ATPγS

exhibits quantized transitions in the transition density plot compared to Mfd alone, indicating that

binding of Mfd-ATPγS displaces RNAP forward (Supplemental Figure 3A 'RNAP, Mfd' *vs.* 'RNAP, Mfd,

ATPγS'). Together the data reveal that Mfd 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 revealed four distinct types of

trajectories in the data set: (i) static trajectories that exhibited high FRET values throughout the

observation reflecting molecules that are presumably unaffected by Mfd-ATP (54/176 observations;

31%), (ii) dynamic trajectories exhibiting high FRET values at the start of the observation resulting in a

direct transition to low-FRET states (24/176 trajectories, 14%; Figure 3F lower panel), (iii) dynamic

trajectories starting at a high-FRET value but transiting to a low-FRET state through a single mid-FRET

intermediate (56/176 trajectories; 32%, Figure 3F upper panel) and (iv) dynamic trajectories that are

at the mid-FRET state at the start of the observation (42/176 corresponding to 24%; compared to 14%

of observations in the absence of Mfd). Since the dataset presented here represents a pooled data set

from several videos collected after Mfd-ATP was introduced to the flow chamber, this last category of

trajectories likely reflects ECs that are already being remodeled by Mfd at the start of the observation.

We characterized the trajectories describing efficient and stepwise conversion of the

population of ECs from the high- to the mid-FRET state, with further conversion to low-FRET states for

individual ECs (Figure 3F, upper panel). The intermediate step was randomly distributed in the range

of FRET from 0.35 to 0.5 (Supplemental Figure 3C). 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

(Supplemental Figure 3D). To further explore the nature of these transitions, we visualized them in a

transition density plot (Supplemental Figure 3A, 'RNAP, Mfd, ATP'; entire data set is plotted here).

Notably, irreversible transitions manifesting as asymmetric features in these plots appeared mainly as

transitions from the mid-FRET to low-FRET states (Supplemental Figure 3A, 'RNAP, Mfd, ATP', red

ellipse). As a control, titration of ATP in the absence of Mfd resulted in RNAP complexes exhibiting

primarily a high-FRET population, with a gradual increase in the mid-FRET state at millimolar

concentrations (Supplemental Figure 3E). 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 3H, 3I and Supplemental Figure 3A 'RNAP, Mfd(R953A), ATP'). Notably, unlike wild-type Mfd,

irreversible transitions were observed mainly in the high- to mid- FRET regime (Supplemental Figure

3A 'RNAP, Mfd(R953A), ATP', red ellipse). 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 'RNAP, Mfd, ATPγS' and 'RNAP, 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 (potentially pre-translocated or weakly backtracked) 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-labelled RNA transcript is lost. The observation that the EC fails to

return to the mid- or high-FRET states rules out a scenario where this low-FRET state simply reflects

an over-wound transcription bubble, or a bent upstream DNA conformation as is seen in the case of

NusG (Kang et al., 2018). Hence, this loss of FRET is 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).

Mfd contacts template 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 employed smFRET experiments to detect

whether and how Mfd contacts template ssDNA. Second, we visualized Mfd bound to a primed DNA

template using cryo-EM.

To detect 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} overhang mimicking the template

DNA (Figure 4A) with a FRET pair positioned on either end of the ssDNA overhang (Table 1:

bio_AS18_Cy5: Cy3_dT40_S18, see Materials and Methods). In smFRET experiments, this substrate

exhibited an average FRET of 0.33 ± 0.15 (Figure 4B) in the absence of Mfd reflecting rapid sampling

of various conformations accessed by the entropic coil formed by ssDNA (Figure 4C and Supplemental

Figure 4A 'template overhang DNA'). Mfd binds this substrate with a K_D of 390 ± 10 nM (see

Supplemental Information and Supplemental Figure 4B−D).

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 4D, 4E and Supplemental

Figure 4A '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 4F, 4G and

Supplemental Figure 4A '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 very weakly resulting in a return to the baseline FRET value of 0.33.

In the presence of the ATPase-deficient but DNA-binding competent E730Q mutant of Mfd

(Deaconescu et al., 2012; Ho et al., 2018), this 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 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.

The RNAP-displacement deficient R953A mutant (Chambers et al., 2003) 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, 4I). 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' ssDNA, and ATP binding serves to

'pull' ssDNA closer to the junction resulting in the high FRET signal detected in this assay with wild-

type Mfd. We note that the recent structures of Mfd translocating on dsDNA 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 non-template strand in dsDNA. From these structures it is

not immediately obvious how the template 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 the template

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

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

seconds after introduction into the flow cell (Figure 4E, 4G, 4I and Supplemental Figure 4H). The

presence of the low-FRET peak and the excursions to high-FRET states suggested that multiple

independent events may underlie the FRET signal observed here. Whereas all conditions involving Mfd

(or mutant) exhibited the low-FRET peak, the excursions to the high FRET states were only observed

for wild type Mfd in the presence of ATP or non-hydrolyzable analog.

Mfd melts dsDNA upon contacting template ssDNA

To further understand how Mfd binds to 5' overhang−containing DNA, we visualized Mfd

bound to the dye labelled smFRET substrate by cryo-EM (Table 1: bio_AS18_Cy5: Cy3_dT40_S18, see

Materials and Methods). 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 (Figure 5A) and a

~5.2 Å resolution map was obtained (real resolution ~8 Å, Supplemental Figure 5A−C). This

reconstruction yielded electron 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 electron density maps.

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

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

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

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

5 and 6, and the density of the DNA as it passes from the upstream side 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, 5D). 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) with the sulfate group from 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazine

ethanesulfonic acid bound between the helices, and are parallel in the complex with ADP-AlF$_x$ and

dsDNA (PDB 6XEO). 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.

The model suggests that Mfd partially melts about five nucleotides of the dsDNA near the

junction forming a 'TRCF bubble' (Figure 5E). Residues R953 and R929 line the path of the template

ssDNA three and six nucleotides away from the junction respectively (Figure 5C, 5F). ADP-AlF$_x$−bound

Mfd scrunches the template ssDNA (Figure 5D−F), explaining the basis of the high−FRET signal

observed in the smFRET experiments (Figure 4). The proximity of R953 to the ssDNA in the model also

explains how R953 can hook the template ssDNA in an ATP-dependent manner (Figure 5C, 5F) and in

case of the distressed EC, transform the energy of ATP binding and hydrolysis into forward

translocation of RNAP.

Several highly conserved basic residues (H842, R846, R848, H890, H897, R900; Figure 5E,

residues indicated as blue spheres) line the path of the template ssDNA along with absolutely

conserved polar (N817, T868) (Figure 5G, residues indicated as yellow spheres) and aromatic residues

(Y816, F891) (Figure 5G, residues indicated as green spheres) capable of base stacking interactions or

H-bonding interactions with ssDNA (Figure 5G, residues indicated as spheres). A cluster of highly

conserved basic residues in domain 5 (R685, K690, H711, K712, H732, R733, R737, K739, R761) (Figure

5G, blue spheres) along with polar (T710) (Figure 5G, yellow spheres) and aromatic (F734) (Figure 5G,

green spheres) residues comprise the surface in contact with the non-template DNA strand (Figure

5E). The binding mode proposed here is partially validated by prior observations implicating several

key conserved residues in domain 6 (Y816, N817, H842, T868 and R887) as well as domain 5 (R685,

K690, T710, H711 and K712) implicated in DNA binding (Brugger et al., 2020; Le et al., 2017). 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 describe how Mfd contacts DNA substrates mimicking the upstream

edge of the transcription bubble: the cryo-EM data suggest that Mfd binds and partially melts the

dsDNA near the junction, contacting the unpaired template ssDNA via the conserved R929 and R953

residues in the TRG motif, and 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.

Discussion

In this work, we established that a 'molecular timer' intermediate formed by Mfd and the transcription

elongation complex 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 ssDNA in a

transcription bubble mimic. 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 RNAP 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; Ho Wan 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 (Ho

Wan 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 and

manifest transient, reversible conformational changes in the EC. Stable association requires ATP or at

minimum non-hydrolysable 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 agree well with these

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 only 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 that Mfd-ADP-AlF$_4$ might bind and melt primed DNA templates to unwind

dsDNA (Figure 5), provides insight into this transition. Only 13 nucleotides of the 18-mer DNA template

are consistent with 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 Mfd has not been reported to melt dsDNA

lacking an overhang, 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.

Binding of Mfd to bubble substrates has hitherto escaped extensive characterization, although

we documented that Mfd binds a nine nucleotide bubble with a dissociation constant that is only two-

fold weaker compared to dsDNA, consistent with this cryo EM−derived model. Several independent

pieces of evidence in the literature support our finding: (i) A previous study investigating specificity of

binding of Mfd to a 12 nucleotide bubble reported a comparable but not enhanced binding affinity to

a 12−nucleotide bubble substrate (Selby and Sancar, 1995). This observation is consistent with our

finding that binding to bubble substrates is only marginally weaker than to dsDNA. (ii) Although the

authors do not interpret the observations as a TRCF-T bubble, Mfd-dependent exposed ssDNA in the

20 nucleotides coinciding with Mfd's footprint in the upstream DNA is evident in potassium

permanganate sensitivity assays aimed at monitoring Mfd-dependent rewinding of the transcription

bubble (Ho Wan et al., 2012), and (iii) ATPγS−mediated a 12−base pair movement in the footprint of

bound Mfd toward the EC in unzipping mapper experiments (Le et al., 2017). This effect was attributed

by the authors to a nucleotide dependent conformational change in Mfd, consistent with the

formation of the TRCF-T bubble described here.

Our cryo-EM derived model suggests that R953 and R929 line 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

template 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. Our structure also

predicts a critical role for R929 in this activity.

A clear prediction from our model is that ATP− (or non-hydrolyzable analog)-bound Mfd

contacts upstream DNA in the EC and this results in the formation of an extended TRCF-T bubble and

a contact through R953. 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). The conserved motor domains of Rad26 contact three nucleotides each from partially unwound

upstream DNA in this structure. Analogous to R953 in Mfd, R613 in Rad26 makes a contact with ssDNA

in the TRCF-T bubble. These similarities between the prototypical members of this class of

transcription-coupled DNA repair factors hint to 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 backtracking of the EC) 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). A

prediction of our model is that Mfd bound to a non-hydrolyzable ATP analog should be sufficient to

induce transcription rescue.

To understand what happens once this gating intermediate (Figure 6D) forms, we must first

consider that exit from this intermediate is signified by a loss of FRET. To what might this irreversible

loss of FRET correspond? This catalytically poised intermediate formed prior to irreversible remodeling

of the EC is directly comparable to the Mfd-concentration independent intermediate detected in

nanomanipulation assays (Ho Wan et al., 2012). However, two key differences are immediately

apparent: first, whereas the lifetimes of the intermediate detected in our FRET studies follows a single

exponential distribution with a lifetime of 6 s (reflecting a process with a single dominant rate-limiting

step), the lifetimes of the intermediate observed in the previous study exhibit a Gaussian distribution

(reflecting a stepwise process with several comparable reaction rates). Second, the lifetime of the

intermediate in the nanomanipulation assays (335 ± 3s) is much longer than the lifetime of the

intermediate detected here (6 s). To reconcile these differences, we note that the nanomanipulation

assays reflect the extension of the supercoiled DNA as a proxy for rewinding of the transcription

bubble, while our smFRET measurements reflect the distance between the dye pair positioned on the

upstream DNA and the RNA transcript. Thus loss of FRET observed once the complex exits from the

gating intermediate can reflect either loss of the transcript, or forward translocation of the polymerase

to a point where the acceptor is no longer within the dynamic range of the technique. Since the

lifetime of the intermediate formed during complete rewinding of the transcription bubble (335 s) (Ho

Wan et al., 2012) is much longer than measured here, the irreversible process detected here likely

describes loss of the RNA transcript (Figure 6D, F). 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 (Ho Wan et al., 2012) via a kinetic

proofreading mechanism (Hopfield, 1974) whereby paused ECs can be substrates for transcription

restart, and irreversibly or DNA damage-stalled ECs are substrates for transcription termination. In

effect, this gating intermediate serves as a molecular timer determining the fate of the EC.

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 20 °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 of 15 °C) 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.

A model for transcription termination that accounts for these observations is as follows: Entry

into the gating intermediate reflects a configuration in which Mfd-ATP binds the EC on an extended

TRCF-T bubble intermediate in which the 3'-OH of the RNA transcript is aligned with the active site of

the polymerase, and R953 hooks the template ssDNA. Based on the structures of translocation

intermediates of Mfd (Kang et al., 2021), we propose that ATP hydrolysis leads to unhooking of ssDNA

(Figure 4), completing the pull stroke. This in turn leads to re-zipping of the upstream edge of the TRCF

bubble and advancement of the TRCF bubble toward the EC. This ATP hydrolysis event triggers

catastrophic remodeling of the EC (Figure 3 and Supplemental Figure 3), exposing the template-RNA

(potentially through a rearrangement of the β' lid of RNAP) and enabling its rapid dissociation from

the former EC. While this model awaits further validation, a prediction is that Mfd must possess an

annealase activity as has been documented for the human homolog CSB (Muftuoglu et al., 2006).

What happens to Mfd after this ATP hydrolysis event? Single-molecule nanomanipulation

assays monitoring the extension of the DNA during the resolution of the Mfd-RNAP intermediate

suggest that the transcription bubble shrinks by two-thirds of its size (Graves et al., 2015; Ho Wan et

al., 2012). The observation that the transcription bubble was rapidly rewound upon interaction with

Mfd led the authors to suggest that this residual DNA extension reflects "bending/wrapping

interactions". Alternately, this residual DNA extension might reflect Mfd binding to a TRCF bubble and

translocating forward via continued ATP hydrolysis.

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 $UvrA_2B$ to the site of the distressed polymerase (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 the damage–containing template by Mfd, as suggested

here, raises 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.

Exposed ssDNA in the TRCF bubble may be more susceptible to DNA damage, and consistent

with this expectation, overexpression of Mfd was found to sensitize cells to 4-nitroquinoline,

ultraviolet light and nitrofurazone (Kamarthapu et al., 2016). Based on the findings of our study, we

can propose a model in which high cellular concentrations of Mfd lead to indiscriminate binding of

Mfd to ECs, leading to deposition of TRCF bubble-bound translocating Mfd molecules in the wake of

transcription elongation. Treatment with DNA damaging agents may serve to damage the exposed

nucleobases in single-stranded DNA. Thus, the TRCF bubble may explain a hitherto mysterious

property of Mfd: the ability to promote mutagenesis (Ragheb et al., 2019).

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Author Contributions

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

Writing—review and editing: all authors; Resources: 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. Colony 1 was then used for overproduction. 6 L of culture were inoculated with an overnight culture of colony 1 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. Following induction, cultures were grown 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 over 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. Reactions were then

transformed into *E. coli* DH5α cells, colonies were screened for the presence of insert by colony PCR

and intact *mfd* sequences in plasmids pHG4137 (coding for wildtype Mfd), pHG42305 (Mfd(R953A))

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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.

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

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

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

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

Fraction III.

The dialysate (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 onto a 2.5 x 13 cm SP Sepaharose FastFlow

column (GE Healthcare) that had been equilibrated with buffer B. After washing the column with 80

mL of the same 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 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).

Table 1: Nucleic Acids 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 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 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

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.

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

647 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}.

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. 1 μM template DNA was annealed to 3 μM RNA primer 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.

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). Further data analysis and figures are plotted using

custom written Python scripts.

Surface plasmon resonance

Activation of SPR chip:

SPR experiments were performed using a BIAcore T200 instrument (GE Healthcare) 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$_2$.

Immobilization of 49-mer dsDNA substrates (Supplemental Figure 2):

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

two-fold excess of TS_49 in 1 × TB in a final volume of 120 μL by heating in a heat block at 90 °C for 5

min followed by a slow cooling step until the 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 RUs. Measurement of the

Mfd binding affinity for the immobilized dsDNA ligand was performed as described below.

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

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 and the reaction was

incubated at room temperature for 15 min. Next, 50 μL of nickel 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) 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 RUs of bio_AS18 (channel 3), and 80 RUs 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 RUs (channel 2, complementary strand: AS18), 138 RUs (channel 3,

complementary strand: dT40_S18) and 115 RUs (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.

<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.

<u>Analysis of sensorgrams:</u>

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:

$$R_{eq} = R_{max} \left(\frac{[A]}{[A] + K_D} \right) \ldots\ldots\ldots (1)$$

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

<u>Electron microcopy data acquisition</u>:

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

dialysis unit with a 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$_x$, ADP, NaF and AlCl$_3$ were added to the mixture of Mfd (7.8 μL at 1.6 mg mL^{-1}) and fluorescent

oligonucleotides (10 μL of 10 μM stock) 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 centrifuged at 20,000 × g for 10 min at 4 °C to clear any precipitate 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 on an FEI Vitrobot Mark IV and

plunged into liquid ethane. The grids were stored in liquid nitrogen until use.

<u>Electron microcopy data acquisition</u>:

Data were collected using FEI Talos Arctica microscope at 200 kV equipped with a Falcon III (FEI)

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 frames.

<u>Image processing of EM micrographs</u>

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. 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. 31718 particles

from class 3 were used for 3D refinement, which resulted in a 3D reconstruction of 5.2 Å (0.143 FSC

gold standard).

<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 equillibrated for 10 ns. The

resulting model was then used as the basis for modelling 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. Model was visualized in

Chimera(Pettersen et al., 2004).

 Figure legends

Figure 1: Reconstitution of a functional EC.

(A) ECs were assembled on dye-labelled 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 1 M KCl wash step was introduced to remove poorly hybridized ECs

from the surface. Here, only complexes containing both the Cy3-labelled template strand and Cy5-

labelled transcript will be observed when stably associated with the biotinylated non-template strand

(shown in orange). Two example FRET trajectories and temporal heat maps are provided for RNAP (B,

C) (n = 318 molecules), RNAP in the presence of dNTPs (D, E) (n = 80 molecules), RNAP with non-

complementary ('wrong') NTPs (F, G) (n = 179 molecules) and the full set of NTPs (H, I) (n = 81

molecules) respectively. Fits to detected states in the FRET trajectories are shown in red. The sequence

of the four next correct incorporations is G, U, A and A.

Supplemental Figure 1: Walking the EC with subsets of correct rNTPs. *Related to Figure 1.*

(A) Transition density plots for RNAP alone (n = 318 molecules), in the presence of dNTPs (n = 80

molecules), with non-complementary ('wrong') NTPs (n = 179 molecules) and the full set of NTPs (n =

81 molecules) respectively.

(B) Schematic of *in situ* assembled FRET pair labelled 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 (C) or GTP, ATP and UTP (D) are presented here.

Figure 2: Interactions between NusG and the EC

(A) Schematic of FRET pair labelled ECs incubated with NusG (purple). Example FRET trajectories and

temporal heat maps for RNAP and NusG alone (B, C) (n = 461 molecules), RNAP and NusG in the

presence of wrong NTPs (D, E) (n = 268 molecules), and RNAP and NusG with the full set of NTPs (F, G)

(n = 425 molecules). Here, NusG promotes the residence of the EC in a catalytically poised state (EC

shown in blue).

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 RNAP and NusG alone (n = 461 molecules), RNAP and NusG in the

presence of wrong NTPs (n = 268 molecules), and RNAP and NusG with the full set of NTPs (n = 425

molecules). Here, NusG promotes the residence of the EC in a catalytically poised state (EC shown in

blue). Red ellipse highlights unidirectional transitions.

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 (B) biotinylated 49-mer dsDNA, and (C) *in vitro*

reconstituted EC on biotinylated 49-mer DNA flown 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 to derive values of K_D (as indicated). Errors are *S.E* of the fit.

Figure 3: Interactions between Mfd and the EC.

(A) Schematic of FRET pair labelled surface immobilized ECs incubated with Mfd in solution. Two

example FRET trajectories and temporal heat maps are presented for RNAP and Mfd alone (B, C) (n =

75 molecules), RNAP and Mfd in the presence of 1 mM ATPγS (D, E) (n = 68 molecules), RNAP and Mfd

in the presence of ATP (F, G) (n = 174 molecules), and RNAP and DNA-binding competent but

translocase-deficient Mfd(R953A) in the presence of 1 mM ATP (H, I) (n = 234 molecules).

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 RNAP and Mfd alone (n = 75 molecules), RNAP and Mfd in the presence

of 1 mM ATPγS (n = 68 molecules), RNAP and Mfd in the presence of ATP (n = 174 molecules), and

RNAP and DNA-binding competent but translocase-deficient Mfd(R953A) in the presence of 1 mM ATP

(n = 234 molecules). Red ellipses highlight irreversible transitions.

(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) Distribution of the catalytically-poised mid-FRET state for the indicated concentrations of ATP and

(D) Dependence of the lifetime (τ_{off}) of mid-FRET state for Mfd-RNAP ECs as a function of ATP

concentration in the range from 10 μM to 1 mM ATP (n = 43, 24, 77, 32 molecules respectively). Plots

represent dwell-time distributions of the surviving fraction of the population in the mid-FRET state fit

to a single exponential decay (red curve) to the data. Errors represent S.E to the fit.

(E) 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.

Figure 4: Interactions between Mfd and a primed-DNA template

(A) Schematic of FRET pair labelled primed DNA template comprised of an 18-mer dsDNA and a 5' 40-

mer poly-dT overhang to assess interactions of Mfd with ssDNA. Two example FRET trajectories,

temporal heat maps and transition density plots for primed DNA alone (B, C) (n = 100 molecules), Mfd

in the presence of ATPγS (D, E) (n = 94 molecules), Mfd in the presence of ATP (F, G) (n = 203

molecules), and Mfd(R953A) in the presence of ATP (H, I) (n = 105 molecules) are presented here.

Supplemental Figure 4: Interactions between Mfd and a primed-DNA template. *Related to Figure 4.*

(A)Transition density plots for FRET pair labelled 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. DNA substrate is the same as described in

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 (B) primed DNA substrate (biotinylated 18-mer

dsDNA with dT$_{40}$ overhang) (C) "flipped" primed DNA substrate (18-mer dsDNA with biotinylated dT$_{40}$

overhang) (D) FRET pair labelled primed DNA substrate (biotinylated 18-mer dsDNA with dT$_{40}$

overhang) and (E) 58-mer ssDNA containing the dT$_{40}$ sequence. 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.

(F) Temporal heat map and (G) transition density plot 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 (panels C, E, G, I) are presented to enable

direct visual comparisons.

Figure 5: Interactions between Mfd and primed DNA

(A) Views of the cryo-EM reconstruction of Mfd bound to the FRET pair labelled DNA substrate (used

in Figure 4).

(B) Front view of the molecular model derived from the cryo-EM reconstruction showing domain 5

(tan), domain6 (olive), template (dark red) and non-template (pink) DNA. Mfd (residues 575-956) and

DNA (template: residues 28-58; non-template: 1-18) are shown in surface representation to illustrate

the path of the DNA.

(C) Top view of molecular model showing TRG motif straddling the DNA. The unpaired 5' poly dT

overhang is colored as follows: dT1−dT3 (pink), dT4−dT6 (salmon), dT7−dT9 (sandy brown) and

dT11−dT12 (brown). R953 and R929 are positioned to contact the ssDNA overhang at 3 and 6 residues

away from the junction respectively.

(D) Model suggests dsDNA near the junction is melted to form the TRCF bubble. (F) Path of the DNA is

lined by highly conserved residues in Mfd across bacteria: basic residues (Lys, Arg, His) are shown in

blue, polar residues (Thr, Asn) are shown in gold, and aromatic residues (Phe, Tyr) are shown in green.

Domain 5 corresponds to residues 549 – 780, and domain 6 corresponds to residues 781-990 in Mfd.

Labels are provided in (G).

Supplemental Figure 5: EM reconstruction of Mfd. *Related to Figure 5.*

(A) Overview of image processing using CryoSPARC. 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) Gold-standard Fourier shell correlation curves of

the reconstruction reported a resolution of 5.2 Å (C) angular distribution of particle projections (D)

Measurement of 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. Errors reflect

S.E of the fit.

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 interacting

partners in the repair machinery.

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Supplemental Information

Mechanism of transcription modulation by the transcription-repair coupling factor

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Supplemental Note 1

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 2B). 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 4A). SPR measurements revealed a binding affinity of 390 ± 10 nM for

the binding of Mfd to the FRET pair labelled substrate (Supplemental Figure 4D).

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Figure 1

Supplemental Figure 1

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Figure 2

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A

B

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Figure 3

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Supplemental Figure 3

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Figure 4

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Supplemental Figure 4

Figure 5

Supplemental Figure 5

A

110562 particles after 2D classification

Ab-initio reconstruction

Heterogeneous refinement

21161
19 %

25104
23 %

31718
29 %

32579
29 %

Homogeneous refinement

Structure with local resolution

B

Fourier Shell Correlation

GSFSC Resolution: 5.20Å

- No Mask (8.4Å)
- Spherical (7.9Å)
- Loose (6.9Å)
- Tight (5.5Å)
- Corrected (5.2Å)

C Angular distribution

D. bubble DNA–Mfd

$K_D = 395 \pm 7$ nM

[Mfd]
640 nM

0 nM

1141

Figure 6