1 **Structural Requirements for Reverse Transcription by a Diversity-generating**
2 **Retroelement**
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Abstract

Diversity-generating retroelements (DGRs), which are pervasive among microbes, create

massive protein sequence variation through reverse transcription of a protein-coding RNA

template coupled to frequent misincorporation at template adenines. For cDNA synthesis, the

template must be surrounded by up- and downstream sequences. Cryo-EM revealed that this

longer RNA formed an integral ribonucleoprotein (RNP) with the DGR reverse transcriptase

bRT and associated protein Avd. The downstream, noncoding (nc) RNA formed stem-loops

enveloping bRT and laying over barrel-shaped Avd, and duplexes with the upstream and

template RNA. These RNA structural elements were required for reverse transcription, and

several were conserved in DGRs from distant taxa. Multiple RNP conformations were

visualized, and no large structural rearrangements occurred when adenine replaced guanine as

the template base, suggesting energetics govern misincorporation at adenines. Our results explain

how the downstream ncRNA primes cDNA synthesis, promotes processivity, terminates

polymerization, and stringently limits mutagenesis to DGR variable proteins.

Introduction

Diversity-generating retroelements (DGRs) produce the greatest level of protein sequence variation in the natural world (*2*), up to 10^{30} potential sequences in one case (*1*), surpassing variation in the vertebrate adaptive immune system. They occur in ecologically diverse bacteria, archaea, and their viruses, and are especially enriched in the human gut microbiome (*3, 4*) and nano-sized microbes, which appear to comprise a major fraction of microbial life and maintain DGRs despite reduced genomes (*5, 6*). A recent survey identified ~31,000 DGRs from >1,500 bacterial and archaeal genera, constituting >90 environment types (*3*). Half to 75% of these DGRs showed signs of recent activity, and in some organisms, were responsible for >10% of all amino acid changes. The prototypical DGR of *Bordetella* bacteriophage (BΦ) can produce ~10^{13} variants of its receptor-binding protein Mtd (*7, 8*), which enables BΦ to use alternative receptors when its usual receptor is missing due to gene expression changes in *Bordetella.* This rapid adaptation to a dynamic environment is likely the general function of DGRs, as it is with the adaptive immune response.

Variation by DGRs occurs through mutagenic retrohoming, in which protein-coding information in an RNA template region (*TR*) is reverse transcribed to cDNA, with errors made specifically at template adenines (Fig. 1a). The resulting adenine (A)-mutagenized *TR*-cDNA then replaces a homologous variable region (*VR*) in a DGR variable protein locus (e.g., *mtd*) (*7*), giving rise to a protein variant. *TR* is nearly identical to *VR*, differing almost exclusively at adenines, and serves as an invariant source of genetic information. Reverse transcription by the BΦ DGR is carried out by a complex of bRT and Avd proteins (*9*). bRT belongs to a monophyletic clade of DGR reverse transcriptases (RTs) most closely related to group II intron RTs (*3, 10, 11*). Unlike other RTs, bRT lacks reverse transcription activity on its own and requires association with Avd (*9*). Avd forms a pentameric, positively-charged barrel-like structure that is similar to S23 ribosomal proteins (*12*), and Avd-like proteins occur in the great majority of DGRs (*1*). The bRT-Avd complex A-mutagenizes both *TR* and non-cognate RNA templates, indicating it has intrinsic A-mutagenesis activity (*9*). The *in vitro* A-misincorporation frequency is remarkably high at ~50% as measured *in vitro* (*13*), similar to observations made *in vivo* (*7, 14*). Even in the case of correct incorporation, bRT-Avd has a ~30-fold lower catalytic efficiency at a template adenine as compared to guanine, cytosine, and uracil (*13*), further emphasizing its adenine-specificity.

Fig. 1. DGR and bRT-Avd/RNA^Δ98 complex. a. Schematic of BΦ DGR. Transcription yields an RNA containing *TR* (134 nt) surrounded by up- and downstream sequences composed of at least 20 nt of *avd* and 140 of Sp, respectively. *TR* is reverse-transcribed by bRT-Avd, which introduces errors at template adenines. Reverse transcription initiates at ^TRG117 and ^SpC56A acts as the priming site. A-mutagenized *TR*-cDNA homes to the DGR variable protein locus (e.g., *mtd*) and replaces *VR*. **b and c.** Cryo-EM density (b) and cartoon (c) of bRT-Avd/RNA^Δ98 complex (bRT, blue; Avd, slate; RNA^Δ98 light green for *avd*, cyan for *TR*, orange for Sp). **d and e.** Schematic of RNA elements overlaid on a surface rendering of bRT-Avd (d) and a linear representation of RNA elements (e). Positions of the priming site (56 in Sp) and initiation site (117 in *TR*) are indicated. Dotted lines indicate sections that were either too flexible to model or were absent in the complex.

Significantly, *TR* is insufficient for cDNA synthesis by bRT-Avd and must instead be

surrounded by *cis*-acting elements (*9*). Most prominent is a 140-nucleotide (nt) noncoding (nc)

RNA segment called Spacer (Sp) immediately downstream of *TR* (Fig. 1a). The first ~30 Sp nts

bind Avd (*9*), and ^SpA56 primes cDNA synthesis from ^TRG117 (*9, 14*). The 2'-OH of ^SpA56 is

necessary for cDNA synthesis (*9*), suggesting that it acts as the priming nucleophile, while other

evidence argues for the 3'-OH in cleaved RNA (*14*). In either case, reverse transcription is *cis-*

primed and produces a covalently linked RNA-cDNA molecule. The role of the remaining

portions of Sp is unknown. Likewise, just upstream of *TR*, a 20 nt segment from *avd* is required

for *cis*-primed reverse transcription (*c*PRT), but its role is unknown. We use the term 'DGR

RNA' to refer to the minimal RNA required for *c*PRT, containing 20 *avd* and 140 Sp nts

surrounding *TR*. Complementary DNAs produced from the DGR RNA are up to ~120 nt in

length, spanning *TR* and terminating just within *avd* (*9*). In contrast, cDNAs synthesized from

non-cognate RNA templates require an exogenous primer and yield only short cDNAs of 5-30

nts (*9*). Complementary DNAs primed exogenously from positions other than ^{TR}G117 in the

DGR RNA or from the DGR RNA truncated at ^{Sp}A56 are similarly short. These results indicate

that the DGR RNA uniquely confers *cis*-priming and processive polymerization.

Structure Determination

It is not known how the DGR RNA combines with bRT and Avd to produce *TR*-cDNA.

To address this question, we turned to cryo-EM, but initial efforts were hampered by RNA

flexibility, preferred particle orientation, and particle denaturation. Nevertheless, initial low-

resolution maps provided clues for overcoming these problems. A portion of the RNA appeared

to be highly flexible, which we surmised corresponded to *TR* because of its informational rather

than functional role (*15*). Accordingly, the central 98 *TR* nts (^{TR}10-107) of the DGR RNA were

deleted (yielding RNA$^{\Delta 98}$). Results from 2D and 3D classification suggested increasing the mass

of the ~176 kDa complex as a means for achieving higher resolution, and thus fusions were

constructed to the Avd C-terminus, which had been visualized to be unhindered. These entailed

several pentameric barrel-forming proteins, with the best results coming from *Methylobacterium*

extorquens formaldehyde activating enzyme (Fae). The complex formed by bRT, Avd-Fae, and

RNA$^{\Delta 98}$ (~258 kDa) yielded maps that extended to as high as ~3.1 Å resolution limit (Table S1

and Figs. S1, S2). bRT-(Avd-Fae) was active in reverse transcribing RNA$^{\Delta 98}$, but interestingly,

Fae interfered with reverse transcription of the longer DGR RNA (Fig. S3a), suggesting that

intact *TR* clashed with Fae (Figs. S3b, c). Adenine-mutagenesis by bRT-(Avd-Fae) was

evaluated with RNA$^{\Delta 98}$ containing ^{TR}G117A, as RNA$^{\Delta 98}$ lacked *TR* adenines that could be

reverse transcribed. Complexes containing Avd or the Avd-Fae fusion had the same adenine

misincorporation frequency (Fig. S2d) (*13*). Fae, despite relieving the preferred particle

orientation problem, varied in position with respect to the rest of the complex and was masked

out (Fig. S3b). For this reason, we refer hereafter to Avd rather than Avd-Fae.

Active Conformation

The bRT-Avd/RNA$^{\Delta 98}$ complex was visualized in several conformational states. We start

with a state that was fortuitously visualized in a complex containing RNA$^{\Delta 98}$ with a ^{TR}U114A

substitution that had been incubated with dCTP, dATP, and ddGTP (Table S1, Complex 1). The

intent was to visualize a short cDNA strand and ^{TR}U114A at the template site, but the population

of such complexes was too sparse for class-averaging, consistent with <2% of templates yielding

cDNA (*13*). However, in this same sample, a complex in which cDNA synthesis had not yet

commenced and had dCTP bound was well populated, amenable to class-averaging, and

produced the best maps.

Most strikingly, in this and all complexes, bRT, Avd, and RNA$^{\Delta 98}$ formed an integral

ribonucleoprotein (RNP) with the Sp ncRNA segment playing a predominant role (Fig. 1). Sp

RNA formed stem-loops that enveloped bRT and lay over the narrow end of the Avd barrel,

interacting with these proteins specifically through bases flipped-out from the stem-loops. Sp

RNA also formed duplexes with *TR* and the upstream *avd* segment. As predicted (*11*), bRT most

closely resembled group II intron RTs (*16-18*) (Fig. S4a), and shared with these proteins and

non-LTR RTs (*19*) an N-terminal extension subdomain (NTE, amino acids 1-59). Following the

NTE subdomain were the canonical finger (60-102), palm (103-272), and thumb (273-328)

subdomains of nucleotide polymerases (Fig. S4b). The bRT NTE subdomain was responsible for

contacting two protomers of pentameric Avd through an extensive (~2300 Å^2 total buried surface

area) and mainly electrostatic interface. One Avd protomer, called Avd1, nestled its N-terminal

10 amino acids into a crook within the four helix-bundle bRT NTE (Fig. S4c). This N-terminal

region was disordered in other Avd protomers and in free Avd. Bound and free Avd were

structurally similar (1.4 Å rmsd, 456 Cα) (*12*). Avd R79 and R83 are required for bRT

interaction (*12*), and consistent with these results, these amino acids in the second protomer,

Avd2, formed salt bridges with bRT E40 (Fig. S4d). While Avd is required for reverse

transcription (*9*), it was positioned ~40 Å from the bRT catalytic site, suggesting that Avd has no

direct role in chemistry.

Fig. 2. Active Site Duplex and *c*PRT Stop. a. *TR*:Sp duplex (cyan and orange, respectively) and dCTP (magenta) in the active site of bRT (NTE, light blue; finger, yellow; palm, green; thumb, red) and contacted by Avd1 (salmon), shown in cartoon representation. Portions of the finger and palm subdomain were made partially transparent for clarity. **b.** Schematic of *TR*:Sp duplex with base pairs (solid bar, Watson-Crick; open circle, wobble; and closed circle, non-standard) shown. Base-specific (sold lines) and non-specific (dotted lines) contacts from bRT or Avd are shown. Color of labels correspond to coloring in panel a. **c.** Interactions between ^{TR}G117 (carbons and phosphorus colored cyan) at the T site and dCTP (carbons and phosphorus colored magenta) at the N site (for both nucleotides, nitrogens colored blue, and oxygens red), and with bRT amino acids (colored as in panel a), shown in bonds representation. Hydrogen bonds are shown as black dotted lines. **d.** Interactions between the *c*PRT stop (*avd*:Sp duplex and stem-tetraloop) and bRT shown in cartoon representation. ^{Sp}U63 and bases that are contacted by bRT are shown in bonds representation (2'- and 3'-OH of riboses omitted here and in other figures for clarity), as are the bRT amino acids responsible for these

contacts. **e.** Schematic of *c*PRT stop, consisting of an *avd*:Sp duplex and stem-UNCG tetraloop. Depiction is as in panel b. The base preceding [avd]G370 is [avd]A369, which can base pair with [Sp]U70, but was a guanine in RNA[Δ98] for technical reasons; for this reason, [avd]A369 is colored gray. The red lines indicate tertiary contacts between the stem-loop and duplex. **f.** *c*PRT activity of mutant DGR RNA relative to wild-type DGR RNA. Data are from experiments that were repeated three independent times, and means and standard deviations shown.

containing the initiating nucleotide [TR]G117 and the other ([Sp]47-56) the priming nucleotide [Sp]A56

(Figs. 2a and 2b). The *TR*:Sp duplex was grasped by NTE, finger, and thumb subdomains, and

rested on the palm subdomain. Avd1 also contacted the active site duplex, and may thus function

in reverse transcription by enforcing proper positioning of the duplex or the NTE subdomain, or

both. Connections between the active site duplex and the rest of the RNA lacked cryo-EM

density, likely due to flexibility. The *TR*:Sp duplex formed seven canonical base pairs (bps), as

predicted (*9, 14*), along with three non-standard pairs (Fig. 2b). Only three of these base pairs (at

[Sp]56, 55, and 52) are essential for *c*PRT (*9, 14*). In addition, a guanine at [Sp]53 is required for

*c*PRT, and the structure revealed a specific contact to this base by bRT S302, which is highly

conserved in DGR RTs (*1*).

[TR]G117 occupied the template (T) site in bRT and formed hydrogen bonds to dCTP

which occupied the incoming dNTP (N) site (Figs. 2c and S5a). dCTP stacked coaxially against

the priming nucleotide [Sp]A56, adjacent to catalytic bRT aspartates 138, 215, and 216. Several

base-specific contacts were made to [TR]G117 and incoming dCTP by highly conserved fingertips

loop (F66, R74, and I76) and palm (I181, G182, and Q187) amino acids. In addition, the NTE

subdomain contacted the phosphate of [TR]G117 through the conserved amino acid K29. A cation,

presumably Mg^{2+}, was positioned between the α- and β-phosphates of the incoming dCTP and

coordinated by bRT D138 and D215 (Fig. 2c). Thus, this complex appeared poised for catalysis

and we termed it the 'Active' conformation (Table S1, Complex 1). Ala-substitution of R74 and

Asn-substitution of I181 decrease A-mutagenesis, while Ile-substitution of A78 increases A-

mutagenesis (*13*). These effects are consistent with non-specific stabilization of nucleotides,

involving either electrostatic interactions by R74 with dNTP phosphates, or hydrophobic

contacts by I181 and A78 to N and T site riboses, respectively.

The Active conformation also occurred when the N site was empty or poorly occupied

(Fig. S5b). This particular conformation was seen in RNPs containing wild-type RNA[Δ98] and

incubated with the nonhydrolyzable dCTP analog dCpCpp (Table S1, Complex 3). The Active,

N-empty conformation differed from the Active, N-occupied conformation in having an even

greater mobility in the two most mobile bRT subdomains, the fingertips loop and thumb, as

assessed by Q-scores (*20*) (Fig. S5c and Table S2). [TR]G117 was also more mobile with the N site

empty (Fig. S5c). These observations suggest that the Active conformation does not absolutely

depend on N site occupancy but does seem to be stabilized by the correct incoming dNTP.

Noncoding Sp RNA

The nc Sp RNA formed functionally significant structures along its entire length (Figs. 1d

and e). The location and flexibility of some these structures depended on the conformational

state of the RNP. We describe the path of the RNA in the Active conformation first and

differences in other conformations afterwards.

cPRT Stop. The 5' end of the DGR RNA composed of the upstream sequence from *avd* ([avd]370-

379) formed an 11-bp duplex with [Sp]59-70 (Figs. 2d and e), just beyond the priming site. [Sp]U63

was unpaired but accommodated within the coaxial stack. Immediately following in Sp was a

short stem-tetraloop ([Sp]71-78) and unpaired bases ([Sp]80-81) that contacted the *avd*:Sp duplex.

The tetraloop belonged to the highly abundant UNCG class (*21*). This duplex and stem-tetraloop

structure, together termed '*c*PRT Stop', appears to create a physical block to polymerization

beyond *TR*, readily explaining why *c*PRT terminates within [avd]383-387 (*9*).

Deletion of the *avd* strand ([avd]368-379) eliminates *c*PRT (*9*). We asked whether this was

due to loss of DGR RNA binding. We found that wild-type and Δ[avd]368-379 DGR RNA were

gel-shifted by bRT-Avd, and that the gel-shifted bands contained both bRT and Avd (Fig. S6),

indicating no significant alteration in protein binding strength. This result tallies with the

observation that the *avd*:Sp duplex is hardly contacted by bRT (Fig. 2d). We next asked whether

base pairing between *avd* and Sp was functionally sufficient. Substitutions that disrupted 12

potential base pairs between *avd* and Sp resulted in loss of *c*PRT, but reversion of the base pairs

through complementary substitutions failed to restore *c*PRT (Fig. S7). A similar result was seen

for disruption of just six Watson-Crick base pairs (Fig. S7), suggesting that the structure of the

*c*PRT Stop is more functionally crucial than base pairing *per se*.

Unlike the *avd*:Sp duplex, the adjacent stem-tetraloop was contacted by bRT through

numerous non-specific and base-specific interactions. Deletion of the stem-tetraloop (Δ[Sp]71-78)

in DGR RNA reduced *c*PRT to 2% of wild-type (Figs. 2f and S8). Together these results

Fig. 3. Avd-binding, Thumb Ring, and bRT-binding RNA. a. Avd-binding RNA (orange) in contact with Avd protomers 1-5, in cartoon representation. Flipped-out bases shown in bonds representation. **b.** Schematic of Avd-binding RNA, consisting of Sp stem-UNCG tetraloop. Depiction is as in Fig. 2b. **c.** Interaction between flipped-out base ^{Sp}U7 (bonds representation) in Avd-binding RNA (orange, cartoon representation) and Avd protomers 3 (light yellow) and 4 (light blue), both in ribbons representation. Side chains of Avd that contact ^{Sp}U7 are in bonds representation. **d.** Interaction of Thumb ring and bRT-binding RNA elements (orange, cartoon representation) with bRT (cartoon representation coloring as in Fig. 2a). Bases in the Thumb ring that contact bRT and flipped-out bases in the bRT-binding element are shown in bonds representation. **e.** Schematic of Thumb ring and bRT-binding RNA elements. Depiction is as in Fig. 2b. **f.** cPRT activity of mutant DGR RNAs relative to wild-type DGR RNA. Data are from experiments that were repeated three independent times, and means and standard deviations shown.

suggested that the *avd*-Sp duplex and stem-tetraloop elements not only functioned as a *c*PRT

Stop but were important for proper positioning of the DGR RNA.

Avd-binding. The first 30 nts of Sp ([Sp]3-33) formed an 11-bp stem capped by a UNCG tetraloop,

with the stem-loop extensively engaged by all five Avd protomers (Fig. 3). Several of these

protomers supplied a common set of amino acids that interacted with bases that were flipped out

from the stem-loop (Fig. 3c). For example, a crevice between Avd1 and Avd2 used Q32, R36, and

K37 among others to bind the flipped-out base [Sp]U3 (Fig. 3b), while a crevice between Avd3 and

Avd4 provided the same amino acids to bind the flipped-out base [Sp]U7. This last base made the

most crucial contacts, as evidenced by [Sp]U7A decreasing *c*PRT in the DGR RNA to 13% of

wild-type (Figs. 2e and S8). This reduction was similar to one resulting from a deletion of the

entire Avd-binding segment (Δ[Sp]5-32) (Figs. 2e and S8), indicating that the Avd-binding duplex

enhances *c*PRT efficiency but is not absolutely required. This deletion also showed that the

RNA-binding and catalytic functions of Avd are dissociable. Substitution of other flipped-out

bases decreased *c*PRT less dramatically (i.e., [Sp]U3A, [Sp]A19U, and [Sp]A19U/G21C), and one

increased *c*PRT ([Sp]G4C) (Figs. 2e and S8).

Thumb Ring. Following the *c*PRT Stop, a single-stranded portion of Sp ([Sp]82-94) wrapped

around the base of the bRT thumb and was called the 'Thumb Ring' (Fig. 3d). Nine of 13

consecutive bases in the Thumb Ring were contacted by bRT, with [Sp]C92 and U94 being the

most significant. Substitutions at these bases, which were contacted by the conserved bRT amino

acid R127, reduced *c*PRT in the DGR RNA to 4% of wild-type (Figs. 3f and S8). Other bases in

the Thumb Ring were also contacted by well conserved bRT amino acids, and substitutions at

these likewise reduced *c*PRT (average of 25% of wild-type, Figs. 3f and S9).

bRT-binding. Sp continued from the Thumb Ring into a bRT-binding element composed of a

long stem ([Sp]95-113 and 121-139) interrupted by two interior loops ([Sp]100-103:130-131 and

[Sp]108-112:122-125), and capped by a heptaloop ([Sp]114-120) (Figs. 3d and e), the most common

type of loop after tetraloops (*21*). The interior loops mostly had non-canonical base-base

interactions. Bases flipped-out from the stem and heptaloop were contacted by bRT palm and

NTE subdomains. Substitutions at these bases ([Sp]U110 and G131 in stem, [Sp]U120 in heptaloop)

decreased *c*PRT, with the greatest effect at [Sp]G131 (Fig. 3f, 13%). Deletion of the Thumb Ring

along with the bRT-binding stem-loop (Δ[Sp]83-140) or the bRT-binding stem-loop alone (Δ[Sp]96-

140) eliminated *c*PRT almost completely (Fig. 3f). The latter also resulted in loss of bRT-binding

while Avd-binding was maintained (Fig. S6).

RNA Dynamics. To determine whether the DGR RNA was inherently ordered, selective 2'-

hydroxyl acylation analyzed by primer extension and mutational profiling (SHAPE-MaP) (*22*)

was carried out in the absence and presence of bRT-Avd. In free RNA, about half of the

nucleotides had low reactivity (<0.3), indicative of inherent structuring (*23*) (Fig. S9a). bRT-Avd

had little effect on the overall RNA reactivity (0.90 correlation coefficient ± bRT-Avd). In

general, nucleotides with low flexibility were interspersed with those with high flexibility, with

some exceptions. The Avd-binding region in the free RNA was much less flexible than average,

and even less so when bound to bRT-Avd, especially ^{Sp}U7. In addition, the connection (^{Sp}39-46)

between the Avd-binding region and the active site duplex, which was not clearly visible in the

structure, as well as the Thumb Ring were much more flexible than average in both free and

bound RNA. We looked for correlation between reactivity and misincorporation frequency at *TR*

adenines, as the latter varies between 12-75% depending on the position (*13*), but found no clear

relationship (Fig. S9b), suggesting that factors other than RNA flexibility are at play.

Conservation of RNA elements. We asked whether RNA structures observed for the BΦ DGR

existed in other DGRs. We examined 274 DGRs from complete genomes that had predicted Avd

homologs (*1*), and identified 32 with equivalents of the Avd-binding stem-loop in the sequence

immediately downstream of *TR* (Fig. S10 and Table S3). The 32 DGRs spanned *Proteobacteria*,

Firmicutes, *Cyanobacteria*, *Nanoarchaeota*, and members of the Candidate Phylum Radiation

(CPR). The stems had at least one bulged nucleotide, as in the BΦ DGR, and most loops had the

sequence (C/U)ACG (UNCG class). We examined 29 of these DGRs, excluding three redundant

CPR ones, and found in all, structures similar to the *c*PRT Stop duplex formed by sequences

upstream and downstream of *TR* (*avd* and Sp equivalents, respectively) (Fig. S10 and Table S4).

These duplexes had an average of 10 bps. Additionally, equivalents of the *TR*:Sp active site

duplex, which sets the cDNA start site and contains mostly paired but also some mismatched

bases, were found in all but two of the 29 DGRs (Table S4).

Resting and Pre-Active Conformations

247   Two RNP conformations in addition to the Active conformation were visualized. In one,

248 the bRT thumb subdomain was collapsed into the active site and occupied both N and T sites,

Fig. 4. Resting and Pre-active Conformations, and template adenine. a. (Left) Resting and (right) Active conformation, with bRT and active site *TR*:Sp duplex shown in cartoon representation (coloring as in Fig. 2a). The locations of catalytic D138, D215, and D216 identify the active site. The thumb subdomain was translated ~19 Å and rotated ~117° relative to the active conformation. **b.** Pre-Active 1 conformation, with bRT palm subdomain and active site *TR*:Sp duplex and *c*PRT stop elements shown in cartoon representation, and interacting bases in bonds representation. **c.** Interactions between (left) *TR*G117A and (right) *TR*G117, in bonds representation (carbons and phosphates cyan, oxygens red, and nitrogens blue) at the T site in the Active conformation. bRT main and side chains shown in cartoons and bonds representation, respectively. **d.** Schematic of DGR architectures, as in Wu et al. (*1*). *VP*, variable protein; *RT*, reverse transcriptase. In the B3 architecture, *avd* is encoded on the opposite strand. **e.** Schematic of bRT-Avd/RNA conformational states, shown as a pathway from Resting to Active. In the Resting conformation, the thumb subdomain (red) blocks the active site and the *TR*:Sp duplex is localized to the bRT surface. Other RNA elements, besides the Avd- and bRT-binding elements, are disorganized. In Pre-Active 1, the *TR*:Sp duplex is in the active site but *Sp*57 occupies the N site while *TR*G117 occupies the T site. In Pre-Active 2, the *c*PRT stop and Thumb ring are properly positioned, and *Sp*57 is more mobile. In the Active, N-empty conformation *Sp*57 is dissociated from the N site and flexible, and in the Active, N-occupied conformation dCTP occupies the N site.

having displaced the fingertips loop, which was mostly disordered (Figs. 4a and S11). The *TR*:Sp

duplex, instead of entering the active site, skirted the surface of bRT. This conformation, called

'Resting', was present in the population of RNPs incubated with no dNTPs (Table S1, Complex

8). Density for ^{TR}G117 was poor but the rest of *TR* through its junction with Sp could be

modeled, as could the entirety of Sp. The bRT thumb and palm were highly flexible compared to

the Active conformation, as was the bRT-binding RNA (Fig. S11c). The *c*PRT Stop and Thumb

Ring RNA were also in different locations than in the Active conformation (Fig. S11d).

In the second additional conformation, the *TR*:Sp duplex was within the bRT active site

but had ^{Sp}G57 occupying the N site and forming a base-base interaction with ^{TR}G117 (Figs. 4b

and S12, Table S1, Complexes 2 and 4). In the Active conformation ^{Sp}G57 was disordered as was

^{Sp}C58, which instead here formed a base pair with ^{avd}G380, slightly extending the *avd*:Sp duplex

in the *c*PRT Stop structure (Fig. 4b). Additionally, the *c*PRT stop was rotated 19° and translated

30 Å away from bRT relative to the Active conformation (Figs. S12d, e), such that the UNCG

tetraloop no longer interacted with bRT, and the Thumb Ring was too flexible to be modeled.

This conformation was called 'Pre-Active 1' to distinguish it from a variant of this conformation

in which ^{Sp}G57 occupied the N site but the *c*PRT Stop and Thumb Ring were positioned as in the

Active conformation, interacting with bRT; this latter variant was called 'Pre-Active 2' (Table

S1, Complex 7). The Pre-Active 2 conformation appeared to be transitional to the Active

Conformation, as the density for ^{Sp}G57 was weaker than in Pre-Active 1 (Fig. S12f) and ^{Sp}C58

was too flexible to be modeled, consistent with the N site becoming free for occupancy by a

dNTP. Interestingly, cytosine-substitution of ^{Sp}G57 eliminates *c*PRT (*8*). This loss occurs with

either guanine or adenine at ^{TR}117, indicating that base pairing or lack thereof between ^{Sp}57 and

^{TR}117 is not important (*8*). The occurrence of the Pre-Active conformation suggests that ^{Sp}G57 is

functionally required because it stabilizes the N site prior to complete organization of Sp into the

Active conformation.

Template Adenine

To visualize the effect of an adenine at the T site, we examined a complex containing

RNA^{Δ98} in which ^{TR}G117 was substituted with adenine. An Active conformation was seen, with

^{TR}G117A at the T site (Figs. 4c and S13; Table S1, Complex 5). The RNP had been incubated

with dCpCpp, and broken density was observed at the N site but could not be confidently

modeled as dCpCpp or ^{Sp}G57 (Fig. S13a). Adenine at the T site formed contacts with bRT that

were very similar to those formed by guanine, however adenine appeared to be more disordered

than guanine (Fig. S13d). A Resting conformation was also visualized for ^{TR}G117A (Table S1,

Complexes 6 and 9), which was not substantially different from the one described above for

wild-type RNA (Table S1, Complex 8), except for higher flexibility in certain regions of the

RNA which could not be modeled (*c*PRT stop, Thumb ring, and parts of *TR*) (Fig. S13e).

Discussion

We sought to understand how the essential DGR components bRT, Avd, and DGR RNA

combine for reverse transcription of *TR*, and especially why *cis*-acting sequences surrounding *TR*

are required for cDNA synthesis. Our work revealed a paramount role for the nc Sp RNA, which

had essential functions distributed across its entire length. At its 5' and 3' ends, Sp formed stem-

loops that acted as protein grapples for Avd and bRT, respectively, binding specifically to these

proteins through flipped-out bases. In between, Sp formed duplexes with *TR* to prime synthesis

and with *avd* to terminate synthesis (i.e., *c*PRT Stop). Structures resembling the Avd-binding

stem-loop and *c*PRT Stop and active site duplexes were identified in DGRs from distant taxa and

with varying genetic architectures (Fig. 4d) (*1*). In the B1 DGR architecture of BΦ DGR and

some *Proteobacteria* DGRs (Fig. 4d), a segment of *avd* is both information-carrying (encoding

Avd) and structure-forming (*c*PRT Stop duplex). More remarkably, in the B3 architecture of

CPR bacteria, the predicted Avd-binding stem-loop is encoded by the reverse complement of

avd, suggesting strict constraints on this sequence due to its dual information-carrying and

structure-forming roles (Fig. 4d).

The Avd- and bRT-binding grapples of Sp were structurally invariant across all

conformations visualized and provide a plausible means for initial association of the DGR RNA

with bRT-Avd, as observed in the Resting conformation (Fig. 4e). In this conformation, the Avd-

binding grapple is in place as is the bRT-binding grapple but more mobile, while other RNA

elements, such as the conformationally variable *c*PRT Stop and Thumb Ring, are disorganized

and the *TR*:Sp duplex blocked from entering the bRT active site by the thumb subdomain. The

grapples provide a ready explanation for the processivity endowed by the DGR RNA, enabling

the RNA to maintain association with bRT-Avd through multiple polymerization cycles.

Notably, bRT and other DGR RTs lack the processivity-promoting α-loop found in group II

intron RTs (Fig. S14) (*24*). The Resting conformation likely proceeds to the Pre-Active 1

conformation, with the thumb receding and *TR*:Sp entering the active site, but with [Sp]57G

apposed to [TR]G117 in the N and T sites, respectively. The Pre-Active 2 conformation then results

from organization of the *c*PRT Stop and Thumb Ring to contact bRT. [Sp]57G remains at the N site

in this conformation but with greater apparent mobility. The transition to the Active

conformation requires full displacement of [Sp]57G from the N site (N-empty), freeing it for an

incoming dNTP (N-occupied) and for chemistry to occur. Thus, reverse transcription of *TR*

appears to depend on a multitude of precise interactions between bRT-Avd and DGR RNA

structural elements. The extreme specificity thereby conferred likely serves to stringently limit

A-mutagenesis to the DGR RNA and curtail potentially damaging mutagenesis of host RNAs.

A complex with adenine at the template was nearly indistinguishable from one with

guanine at the template site (i.e., Active, N-empty). This indicates that A-mutagenesis is unlikely

to be due to major structural rearrangements. What then leads to A-mutagenesis? Our previous

experiments using nucleobase analogs showed that the substituent at the purine C6 position is

crucial (*13*). An amine at C6 (as in adenine) is functionally equivalent to having no substituent at

this position (i.e., purine), resulting in significant misincorporation, while replacement of the C6

amine with a carbonyl (i.e., hypoxanthine) leads to largely correct incorporation. Notably, the C6

substituent is not contacted directly by bRT (Fig. 4c). In contrast, bRT does contact the C2 amine

in guanine (Fig. 4c), and installation of an amine at the C2 position of adenine (2-amino adenine)

leads to more homogenous incorporation, albeit with a preference for wobble over Watson-Crick

pairing.

How does bRT sense the substituent at the C6 position if no atoms are in direct contact?

While several possibilities exist, a strong one is the dipole moment. Infidelity-promoting adenine

and purine have low dipole moments (μ of 2.5 and 3.7, respectively), while fidelity-promoting

guanine and hypoxanthine have high dipole moments (6.8 and 5.6, respectively) (*25, 26*). A high

dipole moment is likely to present an energetic cost at the largely hydrophobic T site, but one

that can be paid by hydrogen bonding to the correct incoming dNTP, which would favor the

Active conformation and stabilization of the catalytic site to promote chemistry. A mispaired

dNTP would be unable to reduce the energetic cost, and therefore most likely dissociate before

chemistry occurred. In contrast, a low dipole moment would incur a lower energetic cost,

enabling a mispaired dNTP to remain bound sufficiently long enough for misincorporation to

occur. Supporting this hypothesis is our observation that 6-methyladenine, which increases the

hydrophobicity at the C6 substituent, increases misincorporation frequency (*13*). A low dipole

moment would also mean that adenine is mostly unoriented in the T site, consistent with the

greater flexibility observed for adenine compared to guanine and explaining why even correct

incorporation for adenine is more catalytically inefficient than for other bases. Like guanine,

cytosine and uracil have high dipole moments (7.0 and 4.7, respectively) (*25, 26*), and are thus

likely to be ordered in the active site as well. In light of this, it appears significant that adenine

has only one exocyclic group while the other RNA bases have two, enabling easier evolution of

base-specific misincorporation. With the structure of bRT in hand, it should be possible to

identify the set of amino acids that lead to A-mutagenesis and differentiate bRT and other DGR

RTs from high-fidelity RTs.

Materials and Methods

Protein expression and purification, RNA synthesis, and reverse transcription

Coding sequences for the Avd fusion partner *Methylobacterium extorquens* formaldehyde

activating enzyme (Fae) was synthesized with codons optimized for *E. coli* expression

(Genewiz). The coding sequence, starting from the codon for Fae amino acid 4, was inserted

after the Avd codon for amino acid 124. bRT and Avd or Avd-fusion protein were co-expressed

in *E. coli* BL21 Gold (DE3) and purified as described (*9*). RNA was produced through *in vitro*

transcription using T7 RNA polymerase and gel-purified, and reverse transcription reactions with

bRT and Avd or Avd-fusion protein were carried out, as described (*9*). RNA and cDNA were

examined by denaturing gel electrophoresis, as described (*9*), and in some cases, cDNA was

subjected to short-read next-generation sequencing (Amplicon EZ, Genewiz), as described (*13*).

SHAPE-MaP

SHAPE-MaP experiments were carried out using 10 mM N-methylisatoic anhydride

(NMIA, Millipore-Sigma). Thirty-five µL of core DGR RNA (500 ng/µL) in water was

denatured at 95 °C for 3 min and then immediately placed on ice for 5 min. The RNA was

refolded by incubation at 37 °C for 20 min in 110 mM KCl, 70 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, 4 mM

$MgCl_2$ in a total volume of 270 µL. Five µL of 300 mM $(NH_4)_2SO_4$, 20 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, 5

mM $MgCl_2$, 2 mM DTT, and 10% glycerol, either containing bRT-Avd (2 mg/mL) or not, was

added to 40 µL of refolded RNA, whereupon the sample was incubated at 37 °C for 1 h. Five µL

NMIA (100 mM in DMSO) was then added to the samples, which were further incubated at

37 °C for 1 h. After this time, NMIA was quenched by the addition of DTT to a final

concentration of 50 mM. A negative control for the reaction was carried out similarly, but with 5

µL of DMSO instead of NMIA. Reactions were then incubated with 2 µL of proteinase K

(Ambion, 0.4 mg/ml) at 50 °C for 30 min, and proteinase K was then quenched with a final

concentration of 1 mM PMSF. The resulting samples were purified with a desalting column (G-

25).

A denaturing control was carried out by incubating 2 µL of RNA (500 ng/µL), 10 µL

formamide, 2 µL of 10x denaturing buffer (500 mM HEPES, pH 8.0, and 40 mM EDTA) in a

total volume of 18 µL. The sample was incubated at 95 °C for 1 min, and 2 µL of NMIA (100

mM) was added and further incubated at 95 °C for 1 min. The sample was placed on ice for 5

min, and then purified with a desalting column (G-25) after adjusting the volume to 50 µL.

Reverse transcription reactions were carried out by first annealing 8 µL of purified RNA

from the previous step with 1 µL of reverse transcription primer P1 (2 µM, GACTGGAGTTC

AGACGTGTGCTCTTCCGATCTGAAGTCGGCCCCGCCTTT) and 3 µL water at 65 °C for 5

min and cooling on ice for 5 min. To these annealed reactions, 8 µL of 2.5x MaP buffer (50 mM

Tris, pH 8.0, 75 mM KCl, 6 mM MnCl2, 10 mM DTT, and 0.5 mM dNTPs) and 1 µL of

ProtoScript® II Reverse Transcriptase (NEB) was added. These reactions were incubated at 42

°C for 3 h and then at 70 °C for 15 min. These samples were then purified with a desalting

column (G-25) after adjusting the volume to 50 µL.

The cDNAs resulting from the reverse transcription reactions were amplified in a 100 µL

PCR reaction using 10 µL of the purified sample from the previous step, 50 µL of Q5® High-

Fidelity 2X Master Mix (NEB), 5 µL each of 10 µM primer P1 and P2

(ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTAAGGGCA GGCTGGGAAAT). The

PCR conditions used for amplification were: 98 °C for 30 s; 30 cycles of 98 °C for 10 s, 60 °C

for 30 s, and 72 °C for 20s; followed by 72 °C for 2 min. The amplified DNA was gel purified

and the samples were deep-sequenced in multiplexes using the Illumina MiSeq platform (2 × 250

bp, paired-end, Genewiz). Demultiplexed fastq files were processed using ShapeMapper 2.0

pipeline (27).

Cryo-EM sample preparation and data collection

For assembly of complexes, 150 µL of RNA$^{\Delta 98}$ (14 µM) was incubated in 1.2 mL of 75 mM KCl, 3 mM MgCl$_2$, 10 mM DTT, 50 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, and 10 % glycerol at 37 °C for 15 min. bRT-Avd-Fae (150 µL of 14 µM) was added and the mixture was further incubated at 37 °C for 2 h. The concentration of the complex was determined using A$_{280}$ measured with a NanoDrop (Thermo Scientific) and a calculated molar extinction coefficient of 206,960 M^{-1}cm^{-1}. The sample was passed through a 0.22 µm filter and concentrated to 100 µL using a 30-kDa molecular weight cutoff membrane. The complex was resolved by gel filtration at 4 °C with a Superdex 200 10/300 column (GE Healthcare) equilibrated with 75 mM KCl, 30 mM (NH$_4$)$_2$SO$_4$, 50 mM Tris, pH 7.5, 3 mM MgCl$_2$, and 2 mM DTT. Eluted fractions were analyzed by SDS-PAGE to visualize proteins, and denaturing gel electrophoresis (8 M urea containing 8 % polyacrylamide gels in 1× TBE buffer) to visualize RNA. Fractions containing bRT-Avd-Fae/RNA$^{\Delta 98}$ complexes were concentrated to ~2 µM using a 30-kDa molecular weight cutoff membrane. The concentration of bRT-Avd-Fae/RNA$^{\Delta 98}$ was determined by measuring absorbance at A$_{260}$ with a NanoDrop (Thermo Scientific), assuming a 1:5:1 bRT:Avd-Fae:RNA$^{\Delta 98}$ stoichiometry. The concentration of the complex was adjusted to 1 µM and left either unincubated or incubated with the following dNTP analogs or dNTPs at 37 °C for 2 h. For complexes containing wild-type RNA$^{\Delta 98}$, 100 µM of non-hydrolyzable dCTP (2'-deoxycytidine-5'-[(α,β)-methyleno]triphosphate, Jena Bioscience) was used. For complexes containing *TR* G117A RNA$^{\Delta 98}$, 2 mM non-hydrolyzable dCTP (as above) or 2 mM non-hydrolyzable dTTP (2'-deoxythymidine-5'-[(α,β)-methyleno]triphosphate, Jena Bioscience) was used. For complexes containing *TR* U114A RNA$^{\Delta 98}$, 2 mM each of dCTP, dATP, and ddGTP was used. Complexes (4 µL) were then applied manually 2-3x in quick succession to Quantifoil^{TM} R 1.2/1.3 Au grids, which had been freshly plasma cleaned in Gatan Solarus II (under Ar/O$_2$ mixture) for 10 sec. After application, grids were blotted with varying force and times using a Vitrobot Mark IV (Thermo Fisher) at 4 °C and 100% humidity, and then immediately plunge-frozen in liquid ethane.

Cryo-EM data were collected on either a 300 keV Titan Krios cryo-transmission electron microscope at the Pacific Northwest Center for Cryo-EM (PNCC) equipped with GIF quantum energy filters attached to either a K3 electron counting direct detector (Gatan) using Serial EM software, or a 300 keV Titan Krios cryo-transmission electron microscopes (FEI Company) at

the University of California San Diego Cryo-EM facility equipped with GIF quantum energy

filters attached to a K2 electron counting direct detector (Gatan) using EPU (Thermo Fisher).

Images were acquired at a magnification of ~130,000, corresponding to a calibrated raw pixel

size of ~0.5 Å, in EFTEM mode with an energy filter slit width of 10-20 eV. Movie image stacks

with a total electron dose of ~55 e^-/Å^2 were saved in non-super resolution counting mode.

Cryo-EM data processing and analysis

The collection and processing of raw data is outlined in detail in Fig. S1a and Table S1.

Briefly, raw movies of each independent dataset were imported in cryoSPARC 3.1.1 (*28*),

RELION 3.0, or both (*29*); motion-corrected using patch motion correction (multi) of

cryoSPARC or MotionCor2; and CTF estimated using patch CTF estimation (multi) in

cryoSPARC, or GCTF or CTFFIND4 in RELION. A list of micrographs for each dataset

(removing poor quality micrographs using various criteria e.g., CTF fit of <8 Å, astigmatism

<1200, motion distribution <60, and motion curvature <40) was prepared. Data were collected at

a relative ice thickness of ~1-1.2 μm, as thin ice led to particle denaturation whereas thick ice led

to high background noise. Particles were picked from curated micrographs using various

methods and iterative strategies outlined in Fig. S1a. Duplicate particles were removed in

cryoSPARC, and binned or un-binned particles were extracted from micrographs depending on

the purpose and stage of analysis. Multiple rounds of 2D classification were performed to

eliminate poor quality particles that could not be classified. Selected particles from 2D classes

were used for initial 3D classification (with different number of classes) using *ab initio*

reconstruction. Particles belonging to poorly resolved *ab initio* 3D class averages were discarded.

Particles from 3D classes which indicated the presence of all domains were used for

heterogeneous classification with various plausible models. Good classes from heterogeneous

refinements were fed back into refined template picking using programs outlined in Fig. S1.

Iteration of the above processes provided a refined set of particles, which were classified into

probable 3D classes (judged from shape profiles of 3D models of heterogenous classification),

and eventually particles from final 3D class sets were extracted without binning with a 320-pixel

box size for consecutive refinement using homogeneous, non-uniform, and local refinement

algorithms in cryoSPARC with appropriate masks. Per-particle defocus refinement was also

performed, although resulting in little to no discernible improvement in map quality. Trials of

particle subtraction did not indicate any improvement of maps and thus this step was omitted

from refinement. The total number of movies, number of particles used for final refinement of

each class, orientation distribution, half-map-based correlation, global resolution estimate, and

several other parameters are provided in Fig. S1 and Table S1. Density sharpened versions of the

maps were used for model building.

Model building and refinement

The model building pipeline is depicted in detail in Fig. S1b. In brief, an initial model of

bRT was built manually using PDB templates of poliovirus RNA-dependent RNA polymerase

(3OL9) and group II intron RT GsI-IIC (6AR1), and the initial model of Avd was based on the

structure of the free form of the pentamer (PDB 4DWL). For modeling RNA, the secondary

structure for DGR RNA was first predicted through iterative rationalization from initial map

features and finalized using RNAstructure (*30*) incorporating refined SHAPE-MaP data and

biochemical results (e.g., base pairing in the *TR*:Sp active site duplex) (*9, 14*). The dot bracket

files defining plausible RNA stem regions were used with simRNA (*31*) and RNAComposer (*32*)

to obtain initial 3D templates of RNA stems, which were docked in the sharpened maps. Rigid

body fitted models of bRT subdomains, Avd protomers, RNA stems and the connecting single

stranded RNA regions were iteratively (re)built in real space in Coot (*33*). In addition, a

pentameric model of Fae (PDB 1Y60) was placed into the diffuse density contiguous to the

density for the Avd pentamer. The models of complexes composed of bRT, Avd, and RNA$^{\Delta98}$

were finally refined in CCPEM (*34*). Model geometry was validated using MolProbity package

within the Phenix suite (*35*). This final model displays good stereochemistry (Table S1), except

for regions of high flexibility. RNA structure was analyzed using RNAPdbee (*36*). Q-scores (*37*)

were computed using Chimera (*38*). Derived B-factors were calculated as $150 \cdot (1 - Q)$, with the

scale factor of 150 empirically identified to provide the highest map correlation coefficient, as

calculated with Phenix (*35*). Figures of molecular models were made with PyMOL (The PyMOL

Molecular Graphics System, Schrödinger, LLC).

EMSA and Mass Spectrometry

Reverse transcription was carried out at 37 °C for 20 min in 20 µL volume containing 1.4

µM RNA, varying concentrations of bRT-Avd (0-2.0 µM), and 20 units RNase inhibitor (NEB)

in 75 mM KCl, 3 mM MgCl$_2$, 10 mM DTT, 50 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, 10% glycerol. The reaction

contents were centrifuged at 12,000 x *g* for 10 min, and 15 µL was loaded on a native 6%

polyacrylamide gel and resolved for 90 min at 100 V. The gel was stained with GreenGlo™ Safe

DNA Dye (Thomas Scientific) and imaged on a Bio-Rad Chemidoc™ system. Gel-shifted bands

(Fig. S5, black arrow) were extracted from the gel, and subjected to mass spectrometry on an

Orbitrap Fusion Lumos MS at the UCSD Biomolecular and Proteomics Mass Spectrometry

facility. Mass spectrometry data were analyzed using Peaks Studio 10.6 software.

Conservation of RNA elements

The subset of DGR sequences from Wu et al. (*1*) that contain an Avd-like gene and a

non-coding gap between *TR* and RT were examined for a structure similar to the BΦ DGR Avd-

binding stem-loop. RNA folds were predicted with Vienna RNAFold tool v. 2.4.18 (*39*) with

default parameters. Structural predictions were parsed and inspected using a custom python

script, resulting in 32 DGRs with putative Avd-binding stem-loops. Twenty-nine of these DGRs,

excluding three near-redundant CPR sequences from the 32, were examined for structures

similar to *avd*:Sp duplex in the BΦ DGR *c*PRT Stop. Potential base pairing was examined

between 20 nt upstream of *TR* (in some cases 40 nt, when only a few base pairs were found at the

5' end of the segment) and 100 nt downstream of *TR* (i.e., non-coding gap between *TR* and RT).

For this, the *TR* sequence was deleted and upstream and downstream sequences were

concatenated into 120 or 140 nt segments, and potential base pairing in these segments was

predicted using Mfold (*40*). To identify the putative active site duplex, a search for

complementary sites was conducted in the 29 DGRs that was predicted to have a *c*PRT stop

duplex. Two 30 bp windows were extracted from each DGR RNA sequence, consisting of the 3'-

end of *TR* and the start of the putative Sp (15 bp + 15 bp), and the reverse complement of a 30 bp

region immediately upstream of the putative *c*PRT stop duplex site in Sp. The two 30bp

windows were then locally aligned and assessed for potential duplex pairing, as above.

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Conflict of Interest.

No conflicts to declare.

Author Contributions.

Conceptualization: SH and PG

Investigation: SH, TB, JC, BGP, PG

Visualization: SH, TB, BGP, PG

Funding acquisition: PG

Project Administration: PG

Supervision: PG

Writing – original draft: SH, TB, BGP, PG

Writing – review & editing: SH, TB, BGP, PG

Supplementary Information

Supplementary Figures S1-S14.

Supplementary Tables S1-S4.

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