Human ribosome interactions reframe neomycin toxicity

Xinyi Zhang[1,#], Lingfan Zhu[1,#], Changfeng Jia[1,#], Keqin Wu[1], Yuanjie Bai[1], Shuangli Sun[1], Zhe Zhang[1], Lei Guo[2], Xuben Hou[3]*, Meng Wu[1]*, Alexey Amunts[4,5,*], Wenfei Li[1,2,*]

1 School of Basic Medical Sciences, Cheeloo College of Medicine, Shandong University, Jinan, Shandong, China.

[2] Children's Hospital Affiliated to Shandong University, Jinan, Shandong, China

[3] Department of Medicinal Chemistry, Shandong Key Laboratory of Druggability Optimization and Evaluation for Lead Compounds, School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Cheeloo College of Medicine, Shandong University, Jinan, Shandong, China.

[4] University of Münster, Schlossplatz 8, 48143 Münster, Germany

[5] Department of Structural Biochemistry, Max Planck Institute of Molecular Physiology, Otto-Hahn-Str. 11, 44227 Dortmund, Germany

[#] Equal contribution

[*] Correspondence to: wenfeili@sdu.edu.cn; alexey.amunts@gmail.com

Abstract

Aminoglycosides like neomycin are widely used but clinically limited due to toxicity, traditionally attributed to mitoribosome inhibition. Here, we demonstrate that this assumption requires re-evaluation by comparing neomycin's interactions with human ribosomes *in vitro* and in cells. While cryo-EM and biochemical assays reveal strong *in vitro* binding to both mitoribosomes and cytosolic ribosomes, especially at conserved regions such as the helix 44 (h44) decoding center despite sequence divergence, and H69. Cellular analyses show minimal impact on global translation, reduced occupancy on cytosolic ribosomes, and a complete absence of neomycin on mitoribosomes. These discrepancies suggest limited mitochondrial permeability rather than direct mitoribosome inhibition underlies neomycin's toxicity. Our findings redefine the mechanistic basis of aminoglycosides side effects and call for a reassessment of their cellular targets.

Introduction

Precise control of protein synthesis is fundamental to cellular life, and its disruption is a common target for antibiotics[1–4]. Although aminoglycosides are highly effective against bacteria, their systemic clinical use is constrained by significant oto- and nephrotoxicity in patients[5,6]. While selectivity of aminoglycosides for bacterial ribosomes is often attributed to structural variations within h44 decoding site compared to their eukaryotic counterparts[7,8], the structural similarity between bacterial and mitochondrial translation apparatus suggests a potential for off-target effects may underlie the observed human toxicities[9–15]. Aminoglycosides have been reported to interact with eukaryotic ribosomes, influencing translation fidelity or inducing premature termination codon readthrough[16–20]. Derivatives of aminoglycosides could further enhance specificity to eukaryotic ribosome for therapeutic purposes, such as leishmania targeting[21] or nonsense mutation suppression for genetic diseases[22].

Neomycin is a 4,5-linked aminoglycoside antibiotic[16,23] that inhibits bacterial translation primarily by binding to the decoding A site[24,25]. This involves binding to h44 of the small subunit (SSU) and H69 of the large subunit (LSU), thereby causing codon misreading and translation inhibition[3,24,26–28]. Molecular dynamics simulations of the decoding site showed that the catalytic activity also depends on rRNA A-site dynamics[29]. Despite the assumption that mitochondrial translation is the primary site of aminoglycoside toxicity, neomycin has also been shown to disrupt mitochondrial lipid metabolism, and promote pathological interactions with lipid droplets, leading to oxidative stress and impaired fatty acid utilization[30]. Thus, the understanding of neomycin's impact for guiding the development of safer therapeutic strategies warrants critical re-evaluation. A detailed investigation of neomycin's interaction with both human mitochondrial and cytosolic ribosomes is crucial for a complete picture of its cellular impact and for guiding the development of safer therapeutic strategies.

Previous studies successfully used addition of antibiotics streptomycin[31] and quinupristin/dalfopristin[32] directly to the cell culture to define their structures in the mitoribosome-bound form. In this study, we systematically investigate neomycin's action on mitoribosomes and cytosolic ribosomes from HEK (human embryonic kidney) 293-

derived cells. We determined the cryo-EM structures of human mitoribosomes and

cytosolic ribosomes bound to neomycin *in vitro*, then analyzed native ribosomes isolated

from drug-treated cells to assess neomycin's occupancy *in vivo.* Our results reveal

striking discrepancies between *in vitro* and *in vivo* drug behavior, including limited

engagement and selective loss of binding at key functional sites, such as h44, in the

cellular environment. These findings challenge the conventional views of neomycin's

mitochondrial toxicity and indicate that additional factors, including cellular bioavailability

barriers, redox-dependent binding plasticity, and ribosomal dynamics should be taken

into account when considering therapeutic strategies.

Results

Distinct neomycin-binding landscape on human mitoribosome

To investigate the molecular basis of neomycin's interaction with human mitoribosomes,

we performed cryo-EM on mitoribosomes rapidly isolated from HEK293F cells[33] and

incubated with 50 µM neomycin. This yielded six maps with nominal resolutions ranging

from 2.9−3.3 Å. These states were designated as "non-rotated A/A-P/P", "non-rotated

A/A-P/P-E/E", "partially rotated A/A-P/P-E/E", "partially rotated hybrid A/P-P/E", "rotated

empty", "rotated hybrid A/P-P/E" (**Supplementary Fig. 1, Supplementary Table 1**). The

map quality allowed us to consistently identify cofactors, including polyamines and Fe-S

clusters, associated with rRNA and proteins, in agreement with previous reports[15,31]

(**Supplementary Fig. 1c-d**). Neomycin composed of four linked monosaccharide rings

(I-IV), including a central 2-deoxystreptamine (ring II), and three amino-modified sugars

(**Fig. 1a**). Across the six states, we identified nine distinct densities corresponding to

neomycin molecules: three on the mitochondrial small ribosomal subunit (mtSSU) (Neo1-

3) and six on the mitochondrial large ribosomal subunit (mtLSU) (Neo4-9) (**Fig. 1b**,

Supplementary Table 2).

Specifically, Neo1 displayed well-defined density for all four rings (I-IV) and bound to h44

adjacent to the A-tRNA binding site within the decoding center (**Fig. 1c, Supplementary**

Fig. 2). This binding effectively blocks proper pairing of tRNA with mRNA, consistent with

observations in bacterial ribosomes[24,25] (**Supplementary Fig. 3a**). Neo1 establishes

potential hydrogen bonds with several nucleotides from the mtSSU including G1489,
U1490, C1491, A1555, A1557, A1558, G1559 and U1560 (**Fig. 1c, Supplementary Fig.**
2d). Notably, ring I of Neo1 forms stable π-π stacking with the nucleobase C1556 (**Fig.**
1c, Supplementary Fig. 2d). Furthermore, two conserved nucleotides, A1447 and A1558
(equivalent to A1492/A1493 in bacteria), are observed to flip out of h44 (**Fig. 1c**), a
characteristic of sampling the codon-anticodon interaction that facilitates near cognate
tRNA incorporation of incorrect amino acid during protein synthesis[34–36].

The Neo2 molecule, situated in a pocket formed by h1 and h44, displayed well-identified
density for all four rings (**Fig. 1d, Supplementary Fig. 3c**). It establishes potential
hydrogen bonds with the nucleobase of C1481 and sugar-phosphate backbone of U656,
G657, G658 and G899 from the mtSSU (**Fig. 1d**). Similarly, the Neo3 molecule binds to
h28 near the P-tRNA, stabilized by hydrogen bonds with nucleotides from the mtSSU
(specifically, the phosphate group of G1469 and A1470; and the nucleobases from G1472,
C1473, G1474, G1178, U1180 and C1182 (**Fig. 1e, Supplementary Fig. 3c**). Neo4 binds
to the terminal hairpin of H69, stabilized by nucleotides from both the mtSSU (G1079
U1081 and G1582) and mtLSU (C2583 and U2586) (**Fig. 1f, Supplementary Fig. 2e,**
Supplementary Fig. 3c). H69 is recognized as another critical binding pocket for
aminoglycosides. Consistent with previous bacterial structural data[24,25], Neo1 and Neo4
represent conserved neomycin binding sites in human mitoribosomes, located within the
h44 and H69 regions, respectively (**Supplementary Fig. 3a-b**).

Fig. 1| Structural analysis of neomycin binding to mitoribosome *in vitro*. a Chemical structure of neomycin. **b** Overall structure of the neomycin-bound mitoribosome in non-rotated state comprising the mtSSU (yellow), mtLSU (blue), mRNA (red), A-site tRNA (magenta) and P-site tRNA (green). rRNA helices h44 and H69 are shown as cartoon in gold and blue, respectively. **c** Close-up view of Neo1 occupying the conserved pocket formed by h44. **d** Close-up view of Neo2 binding pocket formed by residues from h1 and h44. **e** Close-up view of Neo3 binding pocket in h28. **f** Close-up view of Neo4 binding pocket formed by H69 and stabilized by both H69 and nucleotides from the mtSSU. Key interacting nucleotides are represented as sticks (oxygen in red, nitrogen in blue).

The engagement of neomycin, particularly h44 and H69, was found to be dependent on the rotational state of the mitoribosome (**Supplementary Table 2**). Specifically, Neo1 binds to h44, exhibited well-defined density for all four of its rings across various non-rotated and partially rotated states (**Supplementary Table 2**). However, it was notably absent in the functional rotated state containing A/P and P/E tRNAs (**Supplementary Table 2**). This suggests that neomycin binding to h44 preferentially stabilizes non-rotated

or partially rotated conformations, thereby preventing the mitoribosome from fully entering

the functional rotated state. This observation aligns with findings in bacterial systems,

where neomycin binding to h44 is known to restrict subunit rotation and maintain a non-

rotated state, providing a structural basis for its inhibitory mechanism[24,27].

For H69, discernible densities for rings I to III of neomycin were observed in both rotated

and non-rotated states only when tRNAs occupied the A and P sites (**Fig. 1f,**

Supplementary Table 2). Intriguingly, H69 binding was absent in partially rotated states

(**Supplementary Table 2**). This indicates that H69 binding is contingent upon specific

tRNA occupancy and ribosomal conformation, favoring either the non-rotated or fully

rotated states with engaged tRNAs. Collectively, this conformational state-dependent

binding of neomycin to both h44 and H69 on the mitoribosome suggests a dynamic

interplay between drug association and the ribosome's structural landscape, paralleling

similar mechanisms observed in bacterial ribosomes.

Structural analysis reveals canonical and novel neomycin-binding sites on the

human cytosolic ribosome

To understand the impact of neomycin on human cellular translation and its potential

toxicity, we assessed its interaction with human cytosolic ribosomes (**Supplementary Fig.**

4, Supplementary Table 3). While previous studies have indicated sequence differences

in the critical h44 region of human ribosomes compared to their bacterial counterparts

(**Supplementary Fig. 2a-c**), potentially affecting aminoglycoside binding[3,24,26–28], our *in*

vitro translation (IVT) assays revealed that neomycin significantly inhibits cytosolic

ribosomes activity, with a half-maximal inhibitory concentration (IC_{50}) of approximately 50

µM (**Fig. 2a**). This finding suggests that neomycin can effectively target human cytosolic

ribosomes and inhibit its translation.

Fig. 2| Structural analysis of neomycin binding to cytosolic ribosomes *in vitro*. a Luciferase reporter assays of cytosolic ribosomes in response to neomycin at different concentrations of 1, 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 40, 50 and 100 µM (data present mean ± s.d., n = 3 independent experiments). **b** Overall structure of neomycin-bound cytosolic ribosomes in rotated state comprising the SSU (yellow), LSU (blue), mRNA (red), A/P-site tRNA (magenta) and P/E-site tRNA (green). rRNA helices h44 and H69 are shown as cartoon in gold and blue respectively. **c** Close-up view of Neo1 bound to h44. **d** Close-up view of Neo11 bound to a novel pocket within h44 in the rotated state. **e** A different conformation of Neo11 bound to in the partially rotated state. **f** A novel pocket accommodating three neomycin molecules (Neo13, Neo14, and Neo18), with G1940 adopting a unique conformation upon neomycin binding (orange represents the conformation before binding, blue represents the conformation after binding). **g** Close-up view of Neo19 bound to a pocket formed by H53 and H54 from the LSU. **h** Comparison showing that in the mitoribosome, the Neo19 site is preoccupied by mitochondrial protein mL30 (PDB: 7QI5[15]).

To further elucidate the molecular mechanism of this inhibition and the specific binding

modes of neomycin on the cytosolic ribosome, we subsequently performed cryo-EM

analysis of cytosolic ribosome complexes incubated with 50 μM neomycin (**Fig. 2**,

Supplementary Fig. 4, Supplementary Table 3). Our single-particle analysis yielded

structures of ribosomes in three distinct translational states: non-rotated, partially rotated

and rotated (**Supplementary Fig. 4a**). Across these maps, we identified neomycin

molecules bound at 17 distinct pockets: three on the small ribosomal subunit (SSU) (Neo1,

Neo10 and Neo11) and fourteen on the large ribosomal subunit (LSU) (Neo12-Neo25)

(**Fig. 2b, Supplementary Table 4**). Notably, the majority of these binding pockets were

consistently occupied by neomycin across the different ribosomal states (**Supplementary**

Table 4).

A well-established mechanism for aminoglycoside action in bacteria involves binding to

the decoding center, primarily formed by h44 of the small subunit[3,24,26–28]. We observed

analogous binding in the human cytosolic ribosome despite sequence differences (**Fig. 2,**

Supplementary Fig. 2a-c). Our structures of the neomycin-bound human cytosolic

ribosome revealed Neo1 at the universally conserved aminoglycoside binding pocket

within h44 (**Fig. 2b-c, Supplementary Table 4**). While the overall binding mode is

conserved, superimposition of human and bacterial h44 structures indicated slight

conformational changes and subtle differences in the precise neomycin binding pose

(**Supplementary Fig. 5a-c**). Neo1 interacts with U1821-U1827 of h44, with A1824 and

A1825 (equivalent to A1492/A1493 in bacteria) flipped out from the helix, consistent with

observations in bacteria and mitoribosomes (**Fig. 1c, Fig. 2c**).

Intriguingly, we also identified a second neomycin molecule (Neo11) bound to a novel,

distinct pocket located centrally on h44, away from the canonical A-site tRNA binding

region (**Fig. 2d-e**). The conformation of Neo11 within this pocket exhibited significant

differences between the partially rotated and rotated states (**Fig. 2d-e**). Specifically, in

the rotated ribosome, ring I of Neo11 directly interacts with G437 from the SSU via a

hydrogen bond, while ring IV forms hydrogen bonds with h44 residues, including G1726,

G1727 and A1806 (**Fig. 2d**). In contrast, in the partially rotated state (characterized by an

approximate 5° rotation of the SSU relative to the one from the rotated state), this pocket

undergoes a spatial displacement of approximately 3 Å. Meanwhile, Neo11 undergoes a

180° flip with its ring I approaching the A1806 direction (**Fig. 2e**). This conformational rearrangement leads to entirely distinct interactions between Neo11 and h44: ring I forms a hydrogen bond with C1807, ring II interacts with U1730 and G1805 (proximal of A1806), and ring IV engages with the phosphate group of G1726 and G1727 (**Fig. 2e**). These latter interactions, where nucleobases stabilize neomycin, occur specifically in the rotated state. These dynamic binding characteristics suggest a potential link between the novel Neo11 binding site and ribosome dynamics. Notably, unlike in bacterial ribosomes and mitoribosomes where H69 is a conserved aminoglycoside pocket, no neomycin binding was observed to H69 of the human cytosolic ribosome, likely due to sequence differences in human H69 causing a relatively smaller pocket and potential steric clash (**Supplementary Fig. 5d**).

Beyond these h44-proximal sites, we identified a large, previously uncharacterized pocket, formed by helices H89 and H72 of the LSU rRNA and a conserved rRNA loop (C1928-C2053) (**Fig. 2f**). This pocket simultaneously accommodates three neomycin molecules (Neo13, Neo14, and Neo18) (**Fig. 2f**). Upon neomycin binding within this pocket, we observed a distinct conformational change in nucleotide G1940 (**Fig. 2f**). This specific conformational alteration of G1940 was consistently present across all structural classes of neomycin-bound ribosomes. Analyzing the identified binding pockets revealed significant differences compared to those observed in mitoribosomes, with the exception of the universally conserved Neo1 site (**Supplementary Tables 2 and 4**). Several neomycin-binding pockets appeared to be specific to the human cytosolic ribosome, occupying regions that correspond to different ribosomal proteins in the bacterial ribosome or mitoribosome (**Fig. 2g-h, Supplementary Fig. 5e-g**). For example, Neo19 binds to a pocket formed by LSU nucleotides, a pocket absents in mitoribosomes as it is occupied by the mL30 protein (**Fig. 2g-h**). These differences highlight the distinct structural landscapes of various ribosomes. Collectively, these multiple binding interactions, particularly at the h44 decoding center, provide a structural rationale for the neomycin-induced inhibition of cytosolic translation observed in our IVT assays (**Fig. 2**).

Absence of neomycin binding to mitoribosomes in cells

While our cryo-EM data analysis revealed multiple binding of neomycin to both mitoribosomes and cytosolic ribosomes *in vitro* (**Figs. 1 and 2**), its effects on cellular translation were mild. Cell viability assays (CCK8) indicated limited cytotoxicity upon short-term neomycin exposure with an IC_{50} of approximately 1.2 mM after prolonged (72 h) treatment (**Fig. 3a**). Consistent with this, L-azidohomoalanine (L-AHA) labeling assay (a method for detecting newly synthesized nascent chains)[37–39] showed no significant change of global mitochondrial translation (**Fig. 3b**).

Fig. 3| *In vivo* effects and structural dynamics of neomycin on human mitoribosomes. **a** Cell viability of HEK293T cells measured by the CCK-8 assay after

treatment with increasing concentrations of neomycin for 3 h, 24 h, and 72 h respectively (data present mean ± s.d., n = 3 independent experiments). **b** *De novo* mitochondrial nascent protein synthesis measured via L-AHA labeling. **c** Overall cryo-EM structure of native mitoribosome with different tRNAs and cofactors. Coloring is consistent with previous figures. **d** MD simulations depicting the temperature-dependent binding stability of neomycin molecules (Neo1, Neo2, and Neo3) within the mtSSU, illustrating the relative movement of the neomycin molecules within their binding pocket. The changes in distance between the ligand mass center and the binding pocket mass center (defined as the centroid of residues within 3 Å of the ligand in initial cryo-EM structure) during molecular dynamics simulations at temperatures ranging from 90 K to 310 K. **e** Calculated linear interaction energy for neomycin within the mtSSU.

To investigate this discrepancy between *in vitro* potency and *in vivo* cellular effects, we conducted comprehensive structural, biochemical and computational analysis of the native ribosome (**Supplementary Figs. 6-10**). We isolated the native translation complexes from the kidney-derived HEK293F cells treated with 1 mM neomycin. This concentration, while higher than typical plasma levels (up to ~0.13 mM), is clinically relevant as neomycin accumulates to millimolar concentrations in the kidney—a primary site of its toxicity[40,41]. As previously shown[31,42,43] this approach implies that the antimicrobial would have to be imported into mitochondria, preserving more native states. Mitoribosomes were then isolated and subjected to a cryo-EM analysis (**Supplementary Fig 6, Supplementary Table 5**).

The cryo-EM analysis of mitoribosomes from treated cells yielded six distinct translational states characterized by varying SSU rotations and associated translation factors (**Fig. 3c, Supplementary Fig. 6**). Consistent with our biochemical data showing limited cellular toxicity and effect on mitochondrial translation upon neomycin treatment (**Fig. 3a-b**), our structural analysis revealed a striking absence of bound neomycin molecules on human mitoribosomes isolated from these treated cells (**Fig. 3c, Supplementary Table 2**). This indicates that under the cellular conditions, neomycin does not stably associate with or significantly inhibit human mitoribosomes *in vivo*.

At physiological temperatures, biomolecules can access a broader range of conformations, and the rates of conformational switching are generally faster than at lower temperatures[44]. Although rapid cooling during cryo-EM sample preparation can kinetically trap molecules in states representative of the room-temperature ensemble[3,44]. It remains crucial to assess if the binding pocket for neomycin adopts a non-binding-competent conformation specifically at physiological cellular temperatures *in vivo*. To investigate this, we performed all-atom explicit-solvent molecular dynamics (MD) simulations of the mtSSU with bound neomycin, focusing on the decoding center (**Fig. 3d-e, Supplementary Fig. 9**). Molecular dynamics (MD) simulations were initiated from the cryo-EM structure and performed across a range of temperatures up to physiological conditions. For each temperature, five independent replicates were conducted, accumulating a total simulation time of 0.5 µs. As anticipated, the fluctuation of the antibiotic's atomic positions, quantified by root mean square deviation (RMSD) analysis, increased with rising temperature (**Supplementary Fig. 9b**). Despite these thermal fluctuations, the neomycin molecules remained stably associated with their binding sites within the mitoribosome, and the average conformations of the bound drugs were consistent with those observed in the cryo-EM structure (**Fig. 3d**). The consistent association of neomycin with its mitoribosomal binding sites even at physiological temperatures effectively rules out temperature-driven conformational changes as the sole reason for its observed absence *in vitro*. Furthermore, comparative analysis of the MD trajectories revealed enhanced binding stability of neomycin at the Neo1 site relative to Neo2 and Neo3, evidenced by lower ligand RMSD values and reduced calculated linear interaction energy (**Fig. 3e**).

Reduced engagement of neomycin with human cytosolic ribosomes *in vivo*

Despite strong *in vitro* inhibition of cytosolic ribosomes and observed binding to the key h44 site in *in vitro* incubated structures (**Fig. 2**), neomycin treatment did not markedly inhibit nanoluciferase expression in cells, even at high concentrations (**Fig. 4a, Supplementary Fig. 8a and c**). This suggests a limited overall effect on cellular translation. Although L-AHA labeling assay showed no significant change of global

cytosolic translation, we did observe an increase in stop codon readthrough in a reporter cell line upon neomycin treatment (**Fig. 4b-c, Supplementary Fig. 8b**). This suggests that neomycin can influence cytosolic translation fidelity, even with minimal overall inhibition. To further understand neomycin's cellular effect on cytosolic translation, we isolated cytosolic ribosomes from the same batch of neomycin-treated cells used for mitoribosome analysis. Our analysis revealed ribosomes in four different states, with the rotated state being the most prevalent (**Supplementary Fig. 7, Supplementary Table 5**). We detected 15 neomycin molecules bound to the ribosomes, occupying some of the same pockets identified in our *in vitro* incubation experiments (**Supplementary Table 4**). Notably, densities for some sites such as Neo21 and Neo19 were diminished or absent in the cellular samples compared to the *in vitro* incubated ribosomes (**Supplementary Table 4**). Strikingly, the Neo1 site within the canonical h44 decoding center, a key binding site *in vitro*, was completely devoid of neomycin in the cellular dataset (**Supplementary Table 4, Fig. 4d**). This absence occurred despite no significant conformational changes in the h44 pocket or novel post-translational modifications in the decoding center (**Supplementary Fig. 8e**). We performed temperature-dependent MD simulations on the SSU was conducted for the SSU with its bound neomycin molecules, including Neo1. Although the neomycin molecules and their binding pocket displayed conformational change with increasing temperatures (**Supplementary Fig 9d and f**), their binding relative to their pockets remained stable with minor RMSD during simulations (**Fig. 4e**), excluding temperature-driven conformational changes as the sole cause for its *in vitro* absence. Additionally, neomycin binding at Neo1 site exhibited significantly stronger affinity than at Neo10 or Neo11 from the SSU, evidenced by much lower interaction energies (**Fig. 4f**), indicating that the lack of h44 bound neomycin is not due to weak binding affinity.

Our *in vivo* structural findings, particularly the reduced occupancy on cytosolic ribosomes (**Supplementary Table 4**), suggest that the cellular environment critically modulates neomycin's interactions, contrasting with direct incubation experiments. One notable difference is the cellular redox state, maintained by glutathione (GSH), which is altered upon cell lysis for *in vitro* studies. Our *in vitro* translation assays showed that the reducing agent TCEP or GSH provided a protective effect against neomycin's inhibitory action at

certain concentrations (**Fig. 4g, Supplementary Fig. 8d**), consistent with research that GSH can reduce neomycin toxicity[45,46]. This suggests that the reducing intracellular environment may diminish its binding for this site *in vivo* (**Supplementary Table 4**). Moreover, at higher concentrations (3 mM) and prolonged exposure, neomycin binding became restricted to only two pockets (**Supplementary Tables 4-5, Supplementary Fig. 10**), suggesting that cellular mechanisms, such as drug efflux, may actively limit neomycin's interaction with its targets.

Fig. 4| *In vivo* effects and structural analysis of neomycin with human cytosolic ribosomes. a *In vivo* translation assays using the NLuc cell line at various time points following treatment with different concentrations of neomycin (data present mean ± s.d., n = 3 independent experiments). **b** *De novo* nascent protein synthesis measured via L-AHA labeling. **c** Quantification of CFTR nonsense allele readthrough in cultured HEK293T cells treated with increasing concentrations of neomycin for 24 h and 48 h (data present mean ± s.d., n = 3 independent experiments). **d** Overall cryo-EM structure of native cytosolic ribosomes with different tRNAs and cofactors. Coloring is consistent with previous figures. **e** MD simulations depicting the temperature-dependent binding stability of neomycin molecules (Neo1, Neo10, and Neo11) within the SSU, illustrating the relative movement of the neomycin molecules within their binding pocket. The changes in distance between the ligand mass center and the binding pocket mass center (defined as the centroid of residues within 3 Å of the ligand in initial cryo-EM structure) during molecular dynamics simulations at temperatures ranging from 90 K to 310 K. **f** Calculated linear interaction energy for neomycin within the SSU. **g** *In vitro* translation assays with luciferase reporters in the presence of 0.02 mM neomycin under varying redox conditions (data present mean ± s.d., n = 3 independent experiments). The grey bar indicates an increasingly reducing environment, established by increasing concentrations of TCEP (lane 1: 0.1 mM H_2O_2; lane 2: 0 mM TCEP; lane 3: 0.1 mM TCEP; lane 4: 1 mM TCEP; lane 5: 5 mM TCEP). **h** Cell viability of HEK293T cells measured by the CCK-8 assay after treatment with increasing concentrations of neomycin in the presence or absence of H_2O_2 (data present mean ± s.d., n = 3 independent experiments). **i** *In vivo* translation assays with luciferase reporters in response to different concentrations of neomycin in a 0.3 mM H_2O_2 environment (data present mean ± s.d., n = 3 independent experiments).

Discussion

This study provides insights into neomycin's interaction with human ribosomes by uncovering the differences between its *in vitro* binding properties and in-cell behavior. We show that neomycin's activity is modulated by the cellular environment, which can diminish or prevent its engagement with key ribosomal targets. Our findings highlight a clear divergence between *in vitro* and *in vivo* neomycin-ribosome interactions. *In vitro*,

neomycin robustly binds conserved sites on both mitoribosomes and cytosolic ribosomes, including the bacterial-like decoding center at h44 (**Figs. 1-2, Supplementary Tables 2 and 4**). Crucially, however, in cells neomycin fails to occupy these sites, most notably h44 in cytosolic ribosomes, and is undetectable on mitoribosomes (**Fig. 3-4**, **Supplementary Table 2**). These observations correlate with minimal inhibition of global translation, suggesting intracellular factors, such as limited mitochondrial permeability and redox balance may restrict neomycin's effective access. We propose that the cellular reducing environment alters neomycin's binding affinity, a hypothesis supported by translation assays showing redox-dependent modulation of neomycin activity (**Fig. 4**, **Supplementary Fig. 8**). Moreover, restricted engagement at higher drug concentrations implies additional resistance mechanisms, further limiting neomycin's impact. Beyond direct ribosomal inhibition, other potential toxicity mechanisms exist, as exemplified by a recent finding that neomycin induces toxicity by mediating PGC-1α imbalance of mitochondria-lipid droplet homeostasis[30].

Expanding on these insights into cellular accessibility, our observations reveal that neomycin binds the decoding center (h44 and H69) in a ribosomal state-dependent manner. This suggests that its interactions with both mitoribosomes and cytosolic ribosomes are influenced by subunit rotation, aligning with the known mechanism by which 4,5-linked aminoglycosides antibiotics stabilize the non-rotated state and thereby inhibit translocation[24,27]. Furthermore, while the binding of neomycin to mitoribosomes and cytosolic ribosomes differs overall, except for Neo1 in the canonical h44 pocket, the fundamental contact modules of neomycin remain conserved. To investigate this in detail, we quantified the interacting frequency of each neomycin atom across previously reported bacterial ribosome structures and human ribosome structures (mitoribosome and cytosolic ribosome) determined in our study. Our analysis revealed that, consistent with prior bacterial studies, rings I and II of neomycin are the most frequently utilized moieties for ribosomal interaction[24,27], playing a crucial role in neomycin's binding (**Supplementary Fig. 9g-i**). Specifically, these two -NH$_2$ groups from ring II (2-DOS ring, the core of aminoglycosides) exhibit the highest frequency of interactions across all three ribosome types, closely followed by the -OH and 6'-NH$_2$ groups from ring I (**Supplementary Fig. 9g-i**). The strong binding capabilities of these amino groups stem from their ability to form

hydrogen bonds with phosphate oxygen atoms within the ribosome's rRNA backbone or with nucleotide hydroxyl groups. Furthermore, their typical positive charge enables robust electrostatic interactions with the negatively charged phosphate backbone of the ribosome.

Collectively, our study demonstrates that neomycin-ribosome interactions are not static but highly sensitive to various factors like the ribosomal state and cellular redox environment, indicating an additional level of complexity in the ribosome-antibiotic binding studies. Moreover, our findings challenge the prevailing assumption that mitochondrial translation inhibition is the primary cause of neomycin toxicity, as neomycin was notably absent on native mitoribosomes *in vivo*. Instead, toxicity may involve metabolic disturbances or drug accumulation under pathological conditions. The resilience of mitoribosomes to neomycin may also arise from an adaptive cellular response, inherent insensitivity to certain threshold levels, or a limited import into mitochondria. However, the specific mechanistic processes essential for neomycin binding warrant further investigation. In the future, the structural studies of native samples will help to better understand the related pathological dysfunctions.

Methods

Cell lines and cell culture

HEK293T cells were cultured at 37 °C and 5% CO_2 in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM, Gibco, C11995500BT) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Excell Bio, FSP500). HEK293F cells were cultured in SMM 293-TII expression medium (Sino Bio, M293TII) in shake flasks at 37 °C, 5% CO_2 and 110 rpm.

Plasmid construction and generation of stable cell lines

Clonal stable cell lines expressing NanoLuciferase (NLuc) or Cystic Fibrosis Transmembrane Conductance Regulator (CFTR) were generated as previously described[47]. The NLuc expression construct was generated by PCR amplification of NLuc-Flag fragments, subsequently assembled into a linearized vector (originally derived

from Jamie H. D. Cate's laboratory) via Gibson Assembly. For the *CFTR* plasmid, *CFTR-*
G542X (UGA) along with the G542X context (seven codons upstream and downstream)
was fused to mEGFP and NLuc. This recombinant fragment was cloned into the same
laboratory-derived backbone vector using Gibson Assembly. The CFTR-G542X mutant
was created through site-directed mutagenesis of wild-type *CFTR* cDNA templates. The
plasmid construct was subsequently transfected into HEK293T cells and stable
transfectants were selected using 1 µg/ml puromycin for two weeks.

***In vivo* translation assays**

The effect of neomycin on cytosolic translation was evaluated using the NLuc cell lines,
which were exposed to different concentrations of neomycin (0.5, 1, 2 and 3 mM) or
DMEM as a control. Luciferase activity was quantified after 1, 4, and 24 h using microplate
luminometer (BERTHOLD, Centro XS3 LB 960). To access the impact of the redox
environment on neomycin toxicity, 0.3 mM H_2O_2 was co-administered with varying
concentrations of neomycin (0.1, 1, and 3 mM) for 1 h. Additionally, to determine the
readthrough effect of neomycin, the CFTR cell lines were treated with different
concentrations of neomycin (0.5, 1, 2, and 3 mM) for 24 h and 48 h respectively.

***In vitro* transcription and translation assays**

The DNA template for *in vitro* transcription was PCR-amplified from plasmid pGM_EMCV-
NLuc using primers encoding T7 RNA polymerase promoter and poly-A tail sequences.
The *in vitro* transcription reaction was performed as previously described[47]. mRNA
transcripts were assessed for quality and size by gel electrophoresis, quantified
spectrophotometrically (Implen spectrophotometer, Nanophotometer NP80), diluted to 1
µg/µL, aliquoted, and preserved at -80 °C prior to *in vitro* translation reactions.

HEK293T cells were harvested at ~80% confluency and resuspended in ice-cold lysis
buffer (10 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.5, 10 mM KOAc, 0.5 mM Mg(OAc)$_2$, 5 mM DTT) at a
1:1 (v/v) ratio. The HEK293T cell lysates and IVT reaction systems were prepared as
described previously[48,49]. Neomycin (MCE, HY-17624A) was introduced at different

concentrations as experimental variables in the reaction system at final concentrations of

1 µM, 5 µM, 10 µM, 15 µM, 25 µM, 30 µM, 40 µM, 50 µM and 100 µM. Reactions were

equilibrated at 30 °C for 25 min prior to luciferase activity measurement using a microplate

luminometer (BERTHOLD, Centro XS3 LB 960). Lysates and mRNA aliquots from

identical preparation lots were used for comparative assays within individual experimental

series to control batch variability.

Cell counting kit-8 (CCK-8) cell growth assay

The cytotoxicity of neomycin was measured in HEK293T cell lines using the CCK-8 assay.

Approximately 8000 cells per well were seeded in a 96-well plate in DMEM medium

supplemented with 10% FBS. After 24 h of adhesion, the cells were treated with different

concentrations of neomycin dilutions versus DMEM vehicle control. After 72 h of

incubation, culture medium was replaced with fresh DMEM medium supplemented with

CCK-8 (10% v/v reagent: medium ratio) for an additional 2 h of light-protected incubation.

Cellular viability was determined by measuring at 450 nm using a microplate reader. The

cytotoxic concentration that inhibits 50% viability (IC_{50}) of neomycin was calculated by

fitting the dose-response curve using GraphPad Prism software. All experiments were

performed in biological triplicates (n = 3).

L-AHA labeling of nascent polypeptides

L-AHA labeling of mitochondrial-encoded nascent polypeptides was performed as

described previously[39]. Briefly, the cells were treated with different concentrations of

neomycin and 50 µg/mL cycloheximide (CHX, MCE, HY-12320), which selectively inhibits

eukaryotic cytosolic ribosome activity by blocking translational elongation. Fluorescence

signals were analyzed using an Amersham Typhoon 5 (Cytiva).

For the cytosolic nascent polypeptide labeling, the procedure mirrored that used for

mitochondrial-encoded nascent polypeptides, with cells treated with 50 µg/mL CHX as a

positive control. Following the labeling, cells were harvested and resuspended in buffer

containing 60 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 50 mM NaCl, 2 mM $MgCl_2$, 40 mM KCl, 5% glycerol,

0.1% NP-40 and 1× protease inhibitor and were subsequently homogenized on ice using

a glass dounce homogenizer. The resulting cell lysate was cleared by centrifugation at

15,000 ×g for 15 min at 4 °C, and the supernatant was transferred to new 1.5 mL tubes.

The click reaction and the following protein signal detection were performed as described

above. All experiments were performed in triplicate (n = 3 independent experiments).

Isolation of mitochondria and purification of mitoribosomes

Mitochondria isolation was performed as described previously[42]. A final volume of 1L

HEK293F cells at a density of 3× 10^6 cells/ml was harvested, washed with Phosphate

Buffered Saline (PBS) buffer, and resuspended in 60mL mitochondrial isolation buffer (50

mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.5, 10 mM KCl, 1.5 mM $MgCl_2$, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM EGTA, 1 mM

DTT, protease inhibitors). Cells were lysed by grinding in a glass dounce homogenizer

and lysate was clarified by centrifugation at 1000 ×g for 15 min, then 10,000 ×g for 15min

at 4°C to get the crude mitochondria in the pellet. The resulting pellet was resuspended

in 10 mL resuspension buffer (50 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.5, 10 mM KCl, 1.5 mM $MgCl_2$,

1 mM EDTA, 1 mM EGTA, 1 mM DTT, 70 mM sucrose, 210 mM mannitol, and 1× protease

inhibitor). Genomic DNA was removed by adding of 100 U RNase-free DNase I and

centrifugation at 10,000 ×g for 15 min at 4 °C. The crude mitochondria were gently

resuspended in 1 mL buffer containing 20 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.5, 1 mM EDTA, 250

mM sucrose and loaded onto sucrose gradients comprising 1.5 mL 60% (w/v), 4 mL 32%

(w/v), 1.5 mL 23% (w/v) and 1.5 mL 15% (w/v) sucrose solutions in 20mM HEPES-KOH

pH 7.5, 1mM EDTA. The gradients were centrifuged at 28,000 rpm for 1h at 4 °C using

an SW41Ti rotor (Beckman Coulter). The brown band containing mitochondria migrating

to the interface of 32% and 60% sucrose was collected.

The fresh isolated mitochondria were resuspended in lysis buffer (25 mM HEPES-KOH

pH 7.5, 100 mM KCl, 10 mM Mg(OAc)$_2$, 1.7% Triton X-100, 2 mM DTT, 1× protease

inhibitor) at a mitochondria-to-buffer ratio of 1:2 (v/v). The mixture was homogenized with

a glass dounce homogenizer. The lysate was cleared by centrifugation at 30,000 ×g for

20 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was then loaded onto the top of sucrose cushion (1 M

sucrose in 20 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.5, 100 mM KCl, 20 mM Mg(OAc)$_2$, 1% TX-100, 2

mM DTT) and centrifuged at 339,200 ×*g* for 45 minutes at 4°C using an MLA130 rotor (Beckman Coulter). The pellet was rinsed and resuspended in Grid buffer (20 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.5, 100 mM KCl, 10 mM Mg(OAc)$_2$, 0.02% DDM, 1 mM DTT). Mitoribosomes (280 nM) were incubated with 50 µM neomycin (~178-fold excess) for 30 min at 4 °C prior to the cryo-EM sample preparation (molar ratio of ribosome to neomycin around 1:170).

Human cytosolic ribosome purification

The human cytosolic ribosome was isolated using a modified protocol adapted from a previously published paper[50]. HEK293T cells were harvested at ~80% confluency, centrifuged at 1000 ×*g* for 10 minutes at 4 °C, and washed twice with ice-cold PBS. The cell pellet was resuspended in an equal volume of lysis buffer (10 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.5, 10 mM KOAc, 0.5 mM Mg(OAc)$_2$, 5 mM DTT). Following 20 min incubation on ice, the resuspended cells were mechanically lysed by grinding in a glass homogenizer. Lysates were centrifuged at 1,000 ×*g* for 10 min to remove cell debris, and cleared by centrifugation at 10,000 ×*g* for 15 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was then loaded onto a sucrose cushion (10mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.5, 50mM KCl, 5mM Mg(OAc)$_2$, 0.02% DDM, 1mM DTT, 1M sucrose) and centrifuged at 603,000 ×*g* for 45 min at 4 °C in an MLA130 Rotor (Beckman Coulter). The pellets obtained were washed and sequentially resuspended in Grid buffer (20 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.5, 50 mM KCl, 5 mM Mg(OAc)$_2$, 0.02% DDM) and measured using an Implen spectrophotometer. Cytosolic ribosomes (294 nM) were incubated with 50 µM neomycin (~170-fold excess) for 30 min at 4 °C prior to the cryo-EM sample preparation (molar ratio of ribosome to neomycin around 1:170).

Isolation of mitoribosome and cytosolic ribosome from neomycin treated cells

HEK293F was scaled up sequentially, by inoculating at 1×10^6 cells/mL and subsequently splitting at a cell density of 3.0×10^6 cells/mL until achieving 300 mL final culture volume. Neomycin was added to HEK293F cells to a final concentration of 1 mM for 1 hour prior to utilization. Native human mitoribosomes purification was performed as described for the "Isolation of mitochondria and purification of mitoribosomes" part. And no extra neomycin was added during the purification. The same batch of cells were used for

cytosolic ribosome isolation to make strict comparison, meaning we have native
mitoribosomes and cytosolic ribosomes from the same cells. After cells harvest and lysis,
the supernatant was applied for cytosolic ribosome isolation and the pellet was for crude
mitochondria isolation. The protocol for purification of cytosolic ribosomes is the same as
described in "Human cytosolic ribosome purification". For the high concentration
neomycin treated cells, we treated the cells with 3mM neomycin for 3 h and then
conducted the cytosolic ribosomes isolation as described.

Cryo-EM grids preparation

The concentration of the mitoribosomes and cytosolic ribosomes used for cryo-EM grid
preparation was 280nM and 160 nM. Approximately, 3.2 µL aliquots were applied to a
plasma-cleaned holey carbon grid (R1.2/1.3, 300 mesh, Quantfoil) for 1 min, on which a
homemade continuous carbon film was precoated. Grids were blotted for 2.5 s under 100%
humidity at 4 °C and plunge-frozen in liquid ethane using Vitrobot Mark IV (Thermo Fisher
Scientific).

Cryo-EM data collection and processing

Cryo-EM micrographs of all samples were collected on a Titan Krios transmission electron
microscope (Thermo Fisher Scientific) operated at 300 kV using a slit width of 20 eV on
a GIF quantum energy filter (Gatan). The micrographs were recorded using a Falcon 4i
direct electron detector at a pixel size of 0.81 Å. A total electron dose of 50 electrons per
Å² was fractionated over 40 frames with a total exposure time of 5.9 s. Data were acquired
using EPU software[50] with a defocus ranging from 1.0 to 2.0 µm.

All datasets were processed using cryoSPARC v.4.2.1[51]. The movie stacks were first
corrected for motion using the patch motion correction tool of cryoSPARC. Contrast
transfer function (CTF) parameters were estimated using the patch CTF estimation tool.
Manual curation was performed to exclude suboptimal micrographs. From the curated
micrographs, particles were initially identified through blob-based template-free picking,
followed by iterative template-based particle picking using averaging projections selected
from 2D classification. The extracted particles underwent multiple rounds of 2D
classification to remove non-ribosomal contaminants and ice artifacts. Particles were then

used for 3D auto-refinement yielding a map for further classification.

Focused 3D classification was carried out using a mask on the SSU to facilitate
conformational sorting, enabling separation of rotated versus non-rotated ribosome states.
Another round of focused 3D classification using a spherical mask on the tRNA binding
sites was performed, separating the particles into different tRNA binding states. H69 and
h44 are key binding sites of aminoglycoside antibiotics. Therefore, a spherical mask of
radius 23 Å was generated for H69 and h44, respectively, for 3D classification to improve
the local resolution. Masks with smoothed edges were generated with the
"relion_mask_create" tool in RELION4.0.0[52]. After one round of CTF refinement, particles
of each class were further processed by focused refinements with different masks applied.
All reported map resolutions were determined by the FSC = 0.143 cutoff criterion.

Model building and refinement

In general, the structures of cytosolic ribosomes (PDB:8QOI[53]) and mitoribosome (PDB:
7QI5[15]) were used for rigid body docking into the cryo-EM density map using UCSF
ChimeraX v1.8[54]. The docked coordinates were realigned to match map orientation and
saved as models for manual building and adjustment in Coot v0.9.8.1[55]. The neomycin
ligand was fetched from the Coot ligand library using the three-letter code: NMY and
manually positioned according to the density maps. Conformational changes induced by
neomycin binding were also manually adjusted. And the unknown continuous density was
analyzed using CryFold[56] to predict the sequence and three-dimensional structure, which
was subsequently added into the model. Final models were further subjected to
refinement with Phenix.real_space_refine v1.13_2998[57,58]. The figures were prepared
with ChimeraX[54]. Figures were compiled using Adobe Illustrator.

Computational methods

mtSSU molecular dynamics (MD) simulations were performed using the AMBER package.
The system comprised ribosomal proteins, rRNA, and three neomycin molecules (Neo1,
Neo2, Neo3) solvated in an orthorhombic TIP3P water box extending 12 Å beyond the
solute. The ff19SB force field was applied to proteins, OL3 to RNA, and GAFF2

parameters with AM1-BCC charges to ligands. After energy minimization and stepwise

heating, production runs were conducted at 90 K, 280 K, 290 K, 300 K, and 310 K under

NPT conditions using a 2-fs timestep with SHAKE constraints. Five independent 100-ns

replicates per temperature were acquired. Binding free energies were calculated via the

linear interaction energy method using the *cpptraj* module in Ambertools. And the MD of

the SSU of the cytosolic ribosome with three neomycin molecules (Neo1, Neo10, and

Neo11) were performed as described for the mtSSU.

Reporting summary

Further information on research design is available in the Nature Research Reporting

Summary linked to this paper.

Data availability

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding

authors upon reasonable request. The cryo-EM maps have been deposited in the

Electron Microscopy Data Bank under the following accession numbers, respectively:

EMD-65426 (*in vitro* dataset, mitoribosomes in non-rotated state with A/A P/P E/E-site

tRNA), EMD-65433 (*in vitro* dataset, mitoribosomes in non-rotated state with A/A P/P-site

tRNA), EMD-65428 (*in vitro* dataset, mitoribosome in partially rotated state with A/P P/E-

site tRNA), EMD-65427 (*in vitro* dataset, mitoribosome in partially rotated state with A/A

P/P E/E-site tRNA), EMD-65431 (*in vitro* dataset, mitoribosome in rotated state with A/P

P/E-site tRNA), EMD-65429 (*in vitro* dataset, mitoribosome in rotated); EMD-65419 (*in*

vitro dataset, cytosolic ribosome in non-rotated state with P/P E/E-site tRNA), EMD-65412

(*in vitro* dataset, cytosolic ribosome in partially rotated state with eEF2, SERBP1 and E/E-

site tRNA), EMD-65434 (*in vitro* dataset, cytosolic ribosome in rotated state with A/P P/E-

site tRNA), EMD-65411 (1mM native dataset, cytosolic ribosome in non-rotated state with

P/P E/E-site tRNA), EMD-65413 (1mM native dataset, cytosolic ribosome in partially-

rotated state with eEF2, SERBP1 and E/E-site tRNA), EMD-65415 (1mM native dataset,

cytosolic ribosome in rotated state with A/P P/E-site tRNA), EMD-65414 (1mM native

dataset, cytosolic ribosome in rotated state with A/A P/E-site tRNA); EMD-65416 (3mM

native dataset, cytosolic ribosome in non-rotated state with P/P E/E-site tRNA), EMD-65417 (3mM native dataset, cytosolic ribosome in partially-rotated state with eEF2, SERBP1 and E/E-site tRNA), EMD-65418 (3mM native dataset, cytosolic ribosome in rotated state with A/P P/E-site tRNA); EMD-65421 (1mM native dataset, mitoribosome in non-rotated state with P/P E/E-site tRNA), EMD-65422 (1mM native dataset, mitoribosome in non-rotated state with A/A P/P E/E-site tRNA), EMD-65423 (1mM native dataset, mitoribosome in partially rotated state with A/A P/P-site tRNA); EMD-65424 (native dataset, mitoribosome in partially rotated state with A/P P/E-site tRNA), EMD-65425 (native dataset, mitoribosome in rotated state with P/E-site tRNA), EMD-65420 (native dataset, LSU of the mitoribosome). The corresponding atomic coordinates have been deposited in the Protein Data Bank with accession codes 9VXM (mitoribosome in non-rotated state with A/A P/P -site tRNA, corresponding map EMD-65433) and 9VXN (cytosolic ribosome in rotated state with A/P P/E-site tRNA, corresponding map EMD-65434). Source data are provided with this paper.

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Contributions

X.Z., L.Z., C.J. and M.W. performed the sample preparation, acquired cryo-EM data, and

carried out image processing and structure refinement. L.Z., C.J., W.M. and W.L. did the

model building and structural analysis. X.Z., L.Z. and K.W. conducted biochemistry and

cell-based experiments. X.H. performed the MD experiment. L.Z., W.L., C.J., W.M. and

A.A. prepared the figures. W.L. and A.A. wrote the initial draft of the paper. All authors

analyzed the data and edited the paper.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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