D-amino acid-mediated translation arrest is modulated by the identity of the incoming aminoacyl-tRNA

Rachel C. Fleisher, Virginia W. Cornish, and Ruben L. Gonzalez, Jr.*

Department of Chemistry, Columbia University, New York, New York 10027, USA

*To whom correspondence should be addressed: Ruben L. Gonzalez Jr., Department of Chemistry, Columbia University, 3000 Broadway, MC3126, New York, NY 10027, USA, Tel.: (212) 854-1096; Fax: (212) 932-1289; Email: rlg2118@columbia.edu

Fleisher, R.C., Cornish, V.W., and Gonzalez, R.L., Jr.

<u>Abstract</u>

A complete understanding of the determinants that restrict D-amino acid incorporation by

the ribosome, which is of interest to both basic biologists as well as the protein engineering

community, remains elusive. Previously, we demonstrated that D-amino acids are successfully

incorporated into the C-terminus of the nascent polypeptide chain. Ribosomes carrying the

resulting peptidyl-D-aminoacyl-tRNA (peptidyl-D-aa-tRNA) donor substrate, however, partition

into subpopulations that either undergo translation arrest through inactivation of the ribosomal

peptidyl-transferase center (PTC) or remain translationally competent. The proportion of each

subpopulation is determined by the identity of the D-amino acid sidechain. Here, we demonstrate

that the identity of the aminoacyl-tRNA (aa-tRNA) acceptor substrate that is delivered to

ribosomes carrying a peptidyl-D-aa-tRNA donor further modulates this partitioning. Our discovery

demonstrates that it is the pairing of the peptidyl-D-aa-tRNA donor and the aa-tRNA acceptor that

determines the activity of the PTC. Moreover, we provide evidence that both the amino acid and

tRNA components of the aa-tRNA donor contribute synergistically to the extent of arrest. The

results of this work deepen our understanding of the mechanism of D-amino acid-mediated

translation arrest and how cells avoid this precarious obstacle, reveal similarities to other

translation arrest mechanisms involving the PTC, and provide a new route for improving the yields

of engineered proteins containing D-amino acids.

Peptide bond formation is catalyzed by the ribosomal peptidyl-transferase center (PTC).

This reaction involves transfer of the nascent polypeptide chain from the peptidyl-tRNA donor in

the ribosomal peptidyl-tRNA binding (P) site to the aminoacyl-tRNA (aa-tRNA) acceptor in the

ribosomal aa-tRNA binding (A) site (Fig. 1A). Although the PTC has evolved to catalyze peptide

bond formation with a remarkable diversity of proteinogenic amino acids, these substrates are

exclusively L enantiomers or achiral. Nonetheless, D-amino acids can be found in the cell at high

concentrations[1]. Moreover, it is well-established that at least some aa-tRNA synthetase enzymes

are capable of aminoacylating D-amino acids onto tRNAs[2,3], suggesting the possibility that the

translation machinery (TM) may have to contend with D-aa-tRNAs *in vivo*. Consistent with this

possibility, a D-aa-tRNA deacylase enzyme has been identified that is nearly universally

conserved and serves to remove D-amino acids from the tRNAs onto which they have been

misacylated[4]. Although these observations suggest that D-aa-tRNAs might present a challenge to

the TM, how D-aa-tRNAs that are successfully delivered to the translating ribosome impact protein

synthesis remains poorly understood, with reported D-amino acid incorporation efficiencies

ranging anywhere from zero to 40% or higher for incorporation of a single D-amino acid[3,5–7].

Nonetheless, continued efforts to develop a complete mechanistic understanding of how D-aa-

tRNAs impede translation and/or how the TM might be engineered to facilitate the incorporation

of D-aa-tRNAs are important for elucidating the limits of basic biology and enabling new directions

in protein engineering[5,8].

Using a highly purified, *Escherichia coli*-based, *in vitro* translation system devoid of D-aa-

tRNA deacylase and a series of biochemical assays reporting on the major steps of the translation

elongation cycle (Fig. 1A), we recently published a mechanistic study of D-amino acid

incorporation by the TM[9]. The results of this study demonstrated that D-aa-tRNA acceptors in

complex with the GTP bound-form of elongation factor (EF)-Tu (*i.e.*, EF-Tu(GTP)D-aa-tRNA

complexes) can be delivered to the A site and participate in peptide bond formation with yields

mirroring those obtained from delivery of the corresponding L-aa-tRNA acceptors. Nonetheless,

EF-G(GTP)-catalyzed translocation of the resulting peptidyl-D-aa-tRNA from the A- to P sites

resulted in ribosomal elongation complexes (ECs) that partition into two subpopulations. One

subpopulation is unable to undergo peptidyl transfer with the next aa-tRNA acceptor and becomes

translationally arrested. The second subpopulation can undergo peptidyl transfer with the next

aa-tRNA acceptor and remains translationally competent. Remarkably, the fraction of ECs that

undergo translation arrest or remain translationally competent is dependent on the side chain of

the D-amino acid, suggesting that the observed arrest arises from a D-amino acid side chain-

dependent stabilization of an inactive conformation of the PTC. This conclusion was supported

by chemical probing experiments and molecular dynamics simulations indicating that the peptidyl-

D-aa-tRNA donor stabilizes conformations of 23S ribosomal RNA nucleotides A2058, A2059,

A2062, A2063, G2505, and U2506 that are different from those which the corresponding peptidyl-

L-aa-tRNA donor stabilizes. These nucleotides comprise part of the ribosomal nascent

polypeptide exit tunnel entrance (ETE), a region of the ribosome that evidence suggests is

conformationally and functionally coupled to the PTC[10].

A striking feature of the study described above is that several of the nucleotides we

identified are also implicated in macrolide[11]-, chloramphenicol[12]-, and nascent polypeptide-

mediated translation arrest mechanisms[13,14]. Perhaps most interestingly, a growing number of

studies are finding that the extent of arrest in these mechanisms is modulated by the identity of

the peptidyl-aa-tRNA donor and aa-tRNA acceptor pair in the P- and A sites of the arrested EC[15–

17]. Motivated by these studies, we hypothesized that such a 'pairing effect' may likewise modulate

the extent of D-amino acid-mediated translation arrest. To test this hypothesis, we have

investigated whether and how the identity of the aa-tRNA acceptor can modulate the fraction of

ECs carrying a peptidyl-D-aa-tRNA donor that undergo translation arrest or remain translationally

competent.

Using our previously described *in vitro* translation system[9], we began our investigation by

performing fMet-L-Lys-X and fMet-D-Lys-X tripeptide synthesis reactions in which the identity of

the third amino acid, denoted by the 'X', was varied by delivering EF-Tu(GTP)aa-tRNAs formed

using one of four different aa-tRNA acceptors (Supporting Materials and Methods and Figs. S1

and 1B). The choice of a peptidyl-D-Lys-tRNA^{Lys} donor in these experiments was driven by our

previous demonstration that the fraction of ECs that undergo translation arrest is closest to 50 %

when a peptidyl-D-Lys-tRNA^{Lys} donor is paired with a Phe-tRNA^{Phe} acceptor[9]. We therefore

reasoned that using the peptidyl-D-Lys-tRNA^{Lys} donor and Phe-tRNA^{Phe} acceptor pairing as a

reference would allow us to most easily detect both increases and decreases in the fraction of

ECs that undergo translation arrest. For the aa-tRNA acceptors, we chose aa-tRNAs in which the

amino acids differed by hydrophobicity (Phe-tRNA^{Phe}), electrostatics (Arg-tRNA^{Arg} and Glu-

tRNA^{Glu}), and beta-branching (Val-tRNA^{Val}). To validate our experimental system, we performed

an initial pair of tripeptide synthesis reactions using Phe-tRNA^{Phe} as the aa-tRNA acceptor (Figs.

S2 and 2). The fMet-L-Lys-Phe and fMet-D-Lys-Phe tripeptide synthesis reactions exhibited end-

point yields of 89 ± 1 % and 64 ± 1 %, respectively, in excellent agreement with our previous

observations of 80 ± 1 % and 58 ± 5 %, respectively[9].

Subsequently, we performed tripeptide synthesis reactions using Arg-tRNA^{Arg} as the aa-

tRNA acceptor (Figs. S2 and 2). In this case, the fMet-L-Lys-Arg and fMet-D-Lys-Arg tripeptide

synthesis reactions exhibited end-point yields of 83 ± 1 % and 5 ± 2 %, respectively. The latter

result stands in stark contrast to the end-point yield of 64 ± 1 % observed in the fMet-D-Lys-Phe

tripeptide synthesis reaction, revealing that the fraction of ECs that undergo D-amino acid-

mediated translation arrest depends on the identity of the aa-tRNA acceptor.

Given the striking effect that we observed when the aa-tRNA acceptor carried a positively

charged amino acid, we used the next tripeptide synthesis reactions to test the performance of

an aa-tRNA acceptor carrying a negatively charged amino acid, Glu-tRNA^{Glu} (Figs. S2 and 2).

Here, we observed end-point yields of 92 ± 1 % and 19 ± 2 % for the synthesis of the fMet-L-Lys-

Glu and fMet-D-Lys-Glu tripeptides, respectively. The data we have obtained here using aa-tRNA

acceptors carrying charged amino acids are notably similar to our previous findings in which

delivery of a Lys-tRNA^{Lys} acceptor to an EC carrying either fMet-D-Phe-tRNA^{Phe} or fMet-D-Val-

tRNA^{Val} donors results in 18 ± 3 % and 11 ± 1 % of the ECs undergoing translation arrest,

respectively[9]. Collectively, our results strongly suggest that charged aa-tRNA acceptors

exacerbate D-amino acid mediated translation arrest.

We next performed tripeptide synthesis reactions in which Val-tRNA^{Val} served as the

incoming aa-tRNA (Figs. S2 and 2). Surprisingly, the fMet-L-Lys-Val and fMet-D-Lys-Val tripeptide

synthesis reactions exhibited end-point yields of 88 ± 6 % and 97 ± 5 %, respectively. This result

again highlights the ability of the aa-tRNA acceptor to modulate the extent of D-amino acid-

mediated translation arrest. Perhaps most interestingly, these findings demonstrate that, by

judiciously choosing the identity of the aa-tRNA acceptor, it is possible to completely bypass D-

amino acid-mediated translation arrest and incorporate a D-amino acid into a ribosome-

synthesized protein or polypeptide as effectively as the corresponding L-amino acid can be

incorporated.

The ability of the aa-tRNA acceptor to modulate the extent of D-amino acid-mediated

translation arrest can originate from either its amino acid- or tRNA component. In order to dissect

the contributions of these components, we misacylated phenylalanine onto tRNA^{Glu} to generate

Phe-tRNA^{Glu} (Supporting Materials and Methods and Fig. S1)[9,18] and used it as the aa-tRNA

acceptor in the next tripeptide synthesis reactions (Figs. S2 and 3). If the phenylalanine

component is the major contributor, then we would expect an fMet-D-Lys-Phe tripeptide end-point

yield that is similar or identical to that obtained upon delivery of Phe-tRNA^{Phe} (*i.e.*, 64 ± 1 %). In

contrast, if the tRNA^{Glu} component is the major contributor, then we would expect an fMet-D-Lys-

Phe tripeptide end-point yield that is similar or identical to that obtained upon delivery of Glu-

tRNA^{Glu} (*i.e.*, 19 ± 2 %). Contrary to either expectation, fMet-L-Lys-Phe and fMet-D-Lys-Phe

tripeptide synthesis reactions using Phe-tRNA^{Glu} as the aa-tRNA acceptor exhibited end-point

yields of 95 ± 3 % and 95 ± 2 %, respectively. These results demonstrate that both the amino acid

and tRNA[19] components of the aa-tRNA acceptor contribute to modulating the extent of D-amino

acid-mediated translation arrest and do so synergistically.

In this communication, we demonstrate that the identity of the incoming aa-tRNA acceptor

can modulate the fraction of ECs carrying a peptidyl-D-aa-tRNA donor that undergo D-amino acid-

mediated translation arrest. In addition, we show that the amino acid- and tRNA components of

the incoming aa-tRNA contribute synergistically to modulating the extent of translation arrest.

Extending our previously proposed model for D-amino acid-mediated translation arrest[9], our data

strongly suggests that translocation of the peptidyl-D-aa-tRNA into the P site alters the

conformational dynamics of the PTC. Specifically, the peptidyl-D-aa-tRNA likely limits the

conformational space that the PTC can sample and, to an extent that depends on the identity of

the D-amino acid side chain, predisposes the PTC to stably adopt an inactive conformation. The

incoming aa-tRNA acceptor can then further modulate the dynamics of the PTC, biasing the PTC

towards stably adopting an inactive conformation that induces translation arrest or an active

conformation that enables continued translation. The ability of a particular aa-tRNA acceptor to

bias the PTC towards stably adopting an inactive conformation establishes the fraction of ECs

that will undergo translation arrest. Thus, the extent of D-amino acid-mediated translation arrest

is not determined solely by the side chain of the D-amino acid, as we originally proposed, but

rather by the identity of a particular peptidyl-D-aa-tRNA donor and aa-tRNA acceptor pair (Fig. 4).

Previously, we have demonstrated that translocation of a peptidyl-D-aa-tRNA into the P

site allosterically induces a conformational change of 23S rRNA nucleotides that comprise the

ETE. Intriguingly, several other translation arrest mechanisms involving these same ETE

nucleotides likewise demonstrate a pairing effect similar to that described here. For example, in

their studies of a nascent polypeptide-mediated translation arrest mechanism involving contacts

of the nascent polypeptide with these ETE nucleotides[20], Mankin and co-workers demonstrated

that the extent to which they could exacerbate or relieve the corresponding nascent polypeptide-

mediated translation arrest depended on the identity of the aa-tRNA acceptor[16]. Surprisingly, they

observed that Val-tRNA[Val] and Phe-tRNA[Phe] acceptors exhibited among the lowest arrest

efficiencies, while Arg-tRNA[Arg] and Glu-tRNA[Glu] acceptors exhibited among the highest, a trend

that is consistent with the trend that we have observed here. Mankin and co-workers have also

shown that binding of a macrolide antibiotic to these ETE nucleotides robustly induces translation

arrest primarily in the context of specific, problematic peptidyl-aa-tRNA donor and aa-tRNA

acceptor pairs[15]. Similar conformational and pairing effects were observed in the context of the

PTC-binding antibiotics chloramphenicol and linezolid[11,17]. Thus, our findings contribute to an

emerging understanding of a conformational and functional link between the ETE and the PTC,

in which translation arrest can be induced by particular peptidyl-aa-tRNA donor and aa-tRNA

acceptor pairs. In addition, the results we report here demonstrate the potentially devastating

effects that incorporation of a D-amino acid into the nascent polypeptide chain can have on

translation and highlight the important role of that D-aa-tRNA deacylase enzymes play in

protecting ECs under stress conditions in which D-amino acids may be misacylated onto tRNAs

and delivered to ECs[21]. Finally, our results reveal a straightforward approach for improving the

efficiency with which D-amino acids can be incorporated into proteins or polypeptides for protein

engineering applications: By simply optimizing the pairing of peptidyl-D-aa-tRNA donors and aa-

tRNA acceptors, the efficiency of incorporation can be improved dramatically without the need for

complex engineering of the TM.

Fleisher, R.C., Cornish, V.W., and Gonzalez, R.L., Jr.

References

(1) Lam, H., Oh, D.-C., Cava, F., Takacs, C. N., Clardy, J., de Pedro, M. A., and Waldor, M. K.

(2009) D-amino acids govern stationary phase cell wall remodeling in bacteria. *Science 325*,

1552–5.

(2) Soutourina, J., Plateau, P., and Blanquet, S. (2000) Metabolism of D-aminoacyl-tRNAs in

Escherichia coli and Saccharomyces cerevisiae cells. *J. Biol. Chem. 275*, 32535–32542.

(3) Calendar, R., and Berg, P. (1967) D-Tyrosyl RNA: Formation, hydrolysis and utilization for

protein synthesis. *J. Mol. Biol. 26*, 39–54.

(4) Wydau, S., van der Rest, G., Aubard, C., Plateau, P., and Blanquet, S. (2009) Widespread

distribution of cell defense against D-aminoacyl-tRNAs. *J. Biol. Chem. 284*, 14096–14104.

(5) Tan, Z., Forster, A. C., Blacklow, S. C., and Cornish, V. W. (2004) Amino acid backbone

specificity of the Escherichia coli translation machinery. *J. Am. Chem. Soc. 126*, 12752–3.

(6) Noren, C. J., Anthony-Cahill, S. J., Griffith, M. C., and Schultz, P. G. (1989) A General Method

for Site-Specific Incorporation of Unnatural Amino Acids into Proteins *244*, 182–188.

(7) T. Fujino, Y. Goto, H. Suga, H. M. (2013) Reevaluation of the D-amino acid compatibility with

the elongation event in translation. *J. Am. Chem. Soc. 135*, 1830.

(8) Ellman, J.A., Mendel, D., Schultz, P. G. (1992) Site-Specific Incorporation of Novel Backbone

Structures into Proteins. *Science. 255*, 197–200.

(9) Englander, M. T., Avins, J. L., Fleisher, R. C., Liu, B., Effraim, P. R., Wang, J., Schulten, K.,

Leyh, T. S., Gonzalez, R. L., and Cornish, V. W. (2015) The ribosome can discriminate the chirality

of amino acids within its peptidyl-transferase center. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. 112*, 6038–6043.

(10) Sothiselvam, S., Liu, B., Han, W., Ramu, H., Klepacki, D., Atkinson, G. C., Brauer, A., Remm,

M., Tenson, T., Schulten, K., Vázquez-Laslop, N., and Mankin, A. S. (2014) Macrolide antibiotics

allosterically predispose the ribosome for translation arrest. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 111*,

9804–9809.

(11) Moazed, D., and Noller, H. F. (1987) Chloramphenicol, erythromycin, carbomycin and

202 vernamycin B protect overlapping sites in the peptidyl transferase region of 23S ribosomal RNA.

203 *Biochimie 69*, 879–884.

204 (12) Ettayebi, M., Prasad, S.M., and Morgan, E. A. (1985) Chloramphenicol-erythromycin

205 resistance mutations in a 23S rRNA gene of Escherichia coli. *J Bacteriol 162*, 551–557.

206 (13) Nakatogawa, H., and Ito, K. (2002) The ribosomal exit tunnel functions as a discriminating

207 gate. *Cell 108*, 629–636.

208 (14) Yang, R., Cruz-Vera, L. R., and Yanofsky, C. (2009) 23S rRNA nucleotides in the peptidyl

209 transferase center are essential for tryptophanase operon induction. *J. Bacteriol. 191*, 3445–3450.

210 (15) Kannan, K., Kanabar, P., Schryer, D., Florin, T., Oh, E., Bahroos, N., Tenson, T., Weissman,

211 J. S., and Mankin, A. S. (2014) The general mode of translation inhibition by macrolide antibiotics.

212 *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 111*, 1–6.

213 (16) Ramu, H., Vázquez-Laslop, N., Klepacki, D., Dai, Q., Piccirilli, J., Micura, R., and Mankin, A.

214 S. (2011) Nascent Peptide in the Ribosome Exit Tunnel Affects Functional Properties of the A-

215 Site of the Peptidyl Transferase Center. *Mol. Cell 41*, 321–330.

216 (17) Marks, J., Kannan, K., Roncase, E. J., Klepacki, D., Kefi, A., Orelle, C., Vázquez-Laslop, N.,

217 and Mankin, A. S. (2016) Context-specific inhibition of translation by ribosomal antibiotics

218 targeting the peptidyl transferase center. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 113*, 12150–12155.

219 (18) Murakami, H., Ohta, A., Ashigai, H., and Suga, H. (2006) A highly flexible tRNA acylation

220 method for non-natural polypeptide synthesis. *Nat. Methods 3*, 357–359.

221 (19) Katoh, T., Tajima, K., and Suga, H. (2017) Consecutive Elongation of D-Amino Acids in

222 Translation. *Cell Chem. Biol. 24*, 46–54.

223 (20) Ramu, H., Mankin, A., and Vazquez-Laslop, N. (2009) Programmed drug-dependent

224 ribosome stalling: MicroReview. *Mol. Microbiol. 71*, 811–824.

225 (21) Soutourina, O., Soutourina, J., Blanquet, S., and Plateau, P. (2004) Formation of D-tyrosyl-

226 tRNATyr accounts for the toxicity of D-tyrosine toward Escherichia coli. *J. Biol. Chem. 279*, 42560–

227 42565.

Fleisher, R.C., Cornish, V.W., and Gonzalez, R.L., Jr.

Acknowledgements

We thank Dr. Colin Kinz-Thompson for his assistance in data analysis. R.C.F was

supported by the Training Program in Molecular Biophysics at Columbia University (T32

GM008281). This work was supported in part by funds to V.W.C. and R.L.G. from Columbia

University as well as National Institutes of Health (NIH) Grant R01 GM090126 (to R.L.G. and

V.W.C.) and R01 GM119386 (to R.L.G.).

Author Contributions

R.C.F. and R.L.G. designed the research; R.C.F. performed the experiments and

analyzed the data; R.C.F. and R.L.G. interpreted the results. R.C.F. and R.L.G. wrote the

manuscript; all three authors approved the final manuscript.

Competing Financial Interests

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

Fleisher, R.C., Cornish, V.W., and Gonzalez, R.L., Jr.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. The experimental framework used to examine the role of the incoming aa-tRNA

acceptor in D-amino acid-mediated translation arrest. (A) The translation elongation cycle

begins with delivery of EF-Tu(GTP)aa-tRNA complexes to an EC carrying a peptidyl-tRNA donor

at the P site. Following selection of the correct, mRNA-encoded EF-Tu(GTP)aa-tRNA, GTP is

hydrolyzed, EF-Tu(GDP) dissociates from the aa-tRNA and the EC, and the aa-tRNA is

accommodated into the A site. Upon accommodation, peptide bond formation results in transfer

of the nascent polypeptide chain from the peptidyl-tRNA donor at the P site to the aa-tRNA

acceptor at the A site. Subsequently, EF-G(GTP) catalyzes translocation of the P- and A-site

tRNAs into the ribosomal tRNA exit (E) and P sites, with concomitant movement of the mRNA by

one codon. (B) Tripeptide synthesis reactions were performed by delivering a mixture of either

EF-Tu(GTP)L-Lys-tRNA^{Lys} (top row) or EF-Tu(GTP)D-Lys-tRNA^{Lys} (bottom row), EF-Tu(GTP)X-

tRNA^{X}, and EF-G(GTP) to ribosomal initiation complexes programmed with an mRNA encoding

an fMet-Lys-X tripeptide (Table S1) and carrying a P-site f-[^{35}S]-Met-tRNA^{fMet} (Supporting

Materials and Methods).

Figure 2. The identity of the incoming aa-tRNA acceptor modulates the extent of D-amino

acid-mediated translation arrest. (A) Tripeptide synthesis reaction products were collected at

reaction time points spanning 0–60 min in order to ensure that the reactions had gone to

completion and we were measuring true end-point yields. Products were separated using

electrophoretic thin layer chromatography (eTLC) and visualized by phosphorimaging (Supporting

Materials and Methods). (B) End-point yields of tripeptide synthesis reactions. Reaction time

courses were performed in duplicate and in all cases were observed to go to completion by 30

min (Fig. S2). Consequently, the duplicate yield measurements collected at the 30 and 60 min

time points for each tripeptide synthesis reaction were clustered, averaged, and reported as the

mean reaction end-point. Error bars represent the standard deviation of the mean (Supporting

Materials and Methods).

Figure 3. The amino acid- and tRNA components of the aa-tRNA acceptor contribute

synergistically to the extent of D-amino acid-mediated translation arrest. (A) eTLC of the

fMet-L-Lys-Phe and fMet-D-Lys-Phe tripeptide synthesis reactions performed using Phe-tRNA$^{\text{Glu}}$

as the aa-tRNA acceptor. (B) End-point yields of tripeptide synthesis reactions. Reaction time

courses were performed in duplicate and in all cases were observed to go to completion by 30

min (Fig. S2). Consequently, the duplicate yield measurements collected at the 30 and 60 min

time points for each tripeptide synthesis reaction were clustered, averaged, and reported as the

mean reaction end-point. Error bars represent the standard deviation of the mean (Supporting

Materials and Methods).

Figure 4. Extended mechanistic model for D-amino acid-mediated translation arrest.

Translocation of a peptidyl-D-aa-tRNA donor into the P site predisposes the PTC to stably adopt

an inactive conformation. Pairing of a particular peptidyl-D-aa-tRNA donor with an aa-tRNA

acceptor that facilitates the ability of the PTC to stably adopt an inactive conformation results in a

large fraction of ECs undergoing translation arrest (red aa-tRNA acceptor and pathway), whereas

pairing with an aa-tRNA acceptor that interferes with the ability of the PTC to stably adopt an

inactive conformation results in a large fraction of ECs remaining translationally competent (green

aa-tRNA acceptor and pathway).

Figures

Figure 1

299 **Figure 2**

301 **Figure 3**

306   **Figure 4**