Escherichia coli **NusG links the lead ribosome with the transcription elongation**

complex

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Abstract

It has been known for more than 50 years that transcription and translation are physically coupled in bacteria, but whether or not this coupling may be mediated by the two-domain protein N-utilization substance (Nus) G in *Escherichia coli* is still heavily debated. Here, we combine integrative structural biology and functional analyses to provide conclusive evidence that NusG can physically link transcription with translation by contacting both RNA polymerase and the ribosome. We present a cryo-electron microscopy structure of a NusG:70S ribosome complex and nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy data revealing simultaneous binding of NusG to RNAP and the intact 70S ribosome, providing the first direct structural evidence for NusG-mediated coupling. Furthermore, *in vivo* reporter assays show that recruitment of NusG occurs late in transcription and strongly depends on translation. Thus, our data suggest that coupling occurs initially via direct RNAP:ribosome contacts and is then mediated by NusG.

Introduction

Gene expression is a universal process in all cells and consists of transcription, i.e. the synthesis of RNA based on the DNA, and − if RNA is not the final gene product − translation, i.e. the messenger RNA (mRNA)-guided synthesis of a protein. Since the late 1960s it has been known that the rates of transcription and translation are synchronized in *Echerichia coli* so that mRNA is translated while being transcribed (Das et al., 1967; Mehdi and Yudkin, 1967; Miller et al., 1970; Proshkin et al., 2010; Vogel and Jensen, 1994, 1995). This process,called transcription:translation coupling, is possible due to the lack of a physical barrier between transcription and translation in bacteria (reviewed in (Conn et al., 2019)). Only recently, direct physical interactions between RNA polymerase (RNAP) and the ribosomes have been demonstrated (Demo et al., 2017; Fan et al., 2017; Kohler et al., 2017), consistent with earlier observations that transcriptional events may control translation activity and *vice versa*(Proshkin et al., 2010). As transcription and translation are closely connected to other central processes in a bacterial cell, such as DNA repair (Pani and Nudler, 2017) and protein folding (Thommen et al., 2017), transcription:translation coupling constitutes one of the key resulatory functions in bacterial gene expression.

However, there are also indications that transcription:translation coupling may involve a member of the family of N-utilization substance (Nus) G proteins, which serves as adapter connecting RNAP and the lead ribosome (Burmann et al., 2010, 2012; Saxena et al., 2018; Zuber et al., 2019). *E. coli* Nus G, member and eponym of the only universally conserved class of transcription factors (Werner, 2012), consists of two

domain, an N- and a C-terminal domain (NTD and CTD, resepectively) connected v*ia* a

flexible linker, which move independently (Burmann et al., 2011; Mooney et al., 2009a).

NusG-NTD binds RNAP and accelerates transcription elongation (Burova et al., 1995;

Kang et al., 2018; Mooney et al., 2009a). Structural studies demonstrate that NusG-CTD,

which is a five-stranded β-barrel with a Kyrpides-Ouzounis-Woese motif (Kyrpides et al.,

1996), is a versatile binding platform for different transcription factors. By binding to

protein S10, which is part of the 30S subunit of the ribosome, NusG may link

transcription and translation (Burmann et al., 2010). Saxena *et al* also demonstrated

specific 1:1 binding of NusG to 70S ribosomes both *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Saxena et al.,

2018).

S10 is identical with transcription factor NusE and forms a ribosome-free

complex with NusB, NusA and NusG which suppresses transcription termination

(Dudenhoeffer et al., 2019; Krupp et al., 2019; Said et al., 2017; Squires et al., 1993).

Finally, NusG-CTD binds to termination factor Rho and is required for most Rho activity

in vivo (Burmann et al., 2010; Lawson et al., 2018; Mitra et al., 2017).

Transcription:translation coupling prevents Rho factor from terminating transcription by

sequestering the NusG-CTD and by blocking Rho access to RNAP via untranslated

mRNA. Cryptic *E. coli* Rho-dependent terminators located within open reading frames

(orfs) are revealed when ribosomes are released by polar nonsense mutations (Cardinale

et al., 2008; Newton et al., 1965).

Nevertheless, there is evidence for intragenic uncoupling and Rho-dependent

transcription termination in the absence of nonsense mutations. Washburn and

Gottesman (Washburn and Gottesman, 2011) and Dutta et al. (Dutta et al., 2011) found

that Rho resolves clashes between transcription and replication. Such conflicts are likely

to occur within, rather than at the end of, genes. Uncoupling would allow Rho to release

the stationary transcription elongation complexes (TECs).

Mutations in *nusE* or *nusG* that uncouple transcription from translation increase

sensitivity to chloramphenicol (Saxena et al., 2018). This antibiotic retards translation,

breaking the bond between the lead ribosome and TEC. Uncoupled TEC may backtrack

or terminate prematurely (Dutta et al., 2011).

In this report, we present a cryo-electron microscopy (cryo-EM) structure

showing NusG binding to the S10 subunit in a 70S ribosome. The NusG-CTD binding

site of S10 is also target of the ribosome-release factor, transfer-messenger (tmRNA),

raising the possibility that tmRNA might displace NusG at rare codons, thereby

uncoupling transcription from translation (Roche and Sauer, 1999). We also show by

solution-state nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy that NusG, once bound to

RNAP, can interact with S10 or with a complete ribosome, setting the structural basis for

coupling.

NusG couples transcription with translation *in vivo*, as proposed earlier (Burmann

et al., 2010). Uncoupling of RNAP from the lead ribosome is enhanced when translation

is compromised. Importantly, we demonstrate that uncoupled RNAP can outpace

translation, leading to Rho-dependent transcription termination. This intragenic

termination explains the necessity for the apparent perfect synchronization between

transcription and translation (Proshkin et al., 2010).

Results

Structural evidence of NusG binding to the ribosomal S10 subunit on a 70S ribosome.

We assembled a NusG:70S complex by incubating 70S ribosomes with an excess of NusG and determined the structure of this complex by cryo-EM and single-particle reconstruction. Overall, 188,127 particles were extracted from 1327 images and ~5% of these particles showed an extra mass of density attached to the mass identified as protein S10 (Fig. 1A,B). This additional density perfectly matches the size of NusG-CTD, suggesting that NusG binds at the site predicted from the solution NMR structure of NusG-CTD bound to the free ribosomal protein S10 in a 1:1 stoichiometry (Fig. 1A,B; (Burmann et al., 2010)). The density map reconstructed from the class of NusG:70S particles was refined to an average resolution of 6.8 Å. No density could be observed for NusG-NTD, indicating that it is flexibly bound to the NusG-CTD and does not interact with the ribosome.

During translation ribosomes may stall on incomplete mRNAs, i.e. they reach the 3' end of an mRNA without terminating, resulting in an unproductive translation complex. Together with the small protein B (SmpB) tmRNA can bind to these stalled ribosomes in order to rescue them and to tag the nascent polypeptide chain for degradation in a process called trans-translation (Weis et al., 2010). Interestingly, the NusG-CTD binding site overlaps with the region of S10 that is contacted by the tmRNA when it is bound to a ribosome in its resume state (Fig. 1C; (Burmann et al., 2010; Fu et al., 2010; Rae et al., 2019; Weis et al., 2010)). From this we conclude that NusG-CTD and tmRNA share binding sites on S10, raising the possibility that, in addition to

releasing stalled ribosomes, tmRNA competes with NusG for ribosome binding, thus

preventing NusG from maintaining a linkage between the lead ribosome and RNAP. In

other words, tmRNA might be able to displace NusG and thereby facilitate uncoupled

transcription.

Simultaneous binding of NusG to S10 and RNAP

In the cryo-EM structure of *E. coli* NusG bound to a paused TEC (Kang et al., 2018) only

the density of NusG-NTD was observable, indicating that NusG-CTD moves freely and

does not interact with RNAP. Binding of NusG-CTD to S10 was observed both in a

binary system (Burmann et al., 2010) and a λN-dependent antitermination complex

(Krupp et al., 2019; Said et al., 2017).

Since the NusG-CTD:S10 interaction is a prerequisite for NusG-mediated

transcription:translation coupling, we probed this contact when NusG was bound to

RNAP - but not in an antitermination context - by solution-state NMR spectroscopy. We

employed NusG samples where [^{1}H,^{13}C]-labeled methyl groups of Ile, Leu, and Val

residues in perdeuterated proteins served as NMR-active probes ([ILV]-NusG) to

increase sensitivity, allowing us to study large systems.

In the methyl-transverse relaxation optimized spectroscopy (methyl-TROSY)

spectrum of free [ILV]-NusG (Fig. 2A), signals of the NusG-NTD and NusG-CTD

perfectly superimpose with the signals of the isolated [ILV]-labeled protein domains,

suggesting that the domains move independently, confirming a previous report stating

that there are no intramolecular domain interactions (Burmann et al., 2011). Upon

addition of RNAP in a two-fold molar excess, [ILV]-NusG signals were significantly

decreased in the one-dimensional methyl-TROSY spectrum (Fig. 2B, inset), indicating

[ILV]-NusG:RNAP complex formation. Binding of RNAP increases the molecular mass

of [ILV]-NusG dramatically, resulting in enhanced relaxation, which ultimately leads to

drastic line broadening and a decrease in signal intensity. Interestingly, the two-

dimensional spectra revealed a non-uniform signal decrease (Fig. 2B), which is caused by

a combination of several effects. First, there is a general loss of signal intensity due to the

increase in molecular mass upon complex formation, as discussed above. Second, upon

binding, methyl groups of Ile, Leu, and Val residues located in the binding surface come

into close proximity of RNAP protons. Dipole-dipole interactions contribute to relaxation

processes so that the signal intensity of these methyl groups is decreased more strongly

than that of methyl groups located elsewhere in [ILV]-NusG. Finally, signal intensities

may be affected by chemical exchange processes. We analyzed the signal intensity of

[ILV]-NusG signals in the presence of RNAP quantitatively by calculating relative signal

intensities, i.e. the ratio of the remaining signal intensity of [ILV]-NusG in the presence

of RNAP to the signal intensity of free [ILV]-NusG (Figure 2-figure supplement 1).

The average relative intensity of NusG-NTD signals was significantly lower than

that of the linker or the NusG-CTD, suggesting that NusG-NTD binds to RNAP whereas

NusG-CTD remains flexible and moves independently, able to interact with other

partners, as indicated by the NusG:TEC structure (Kang et al., 2018). The signal intensity

of all Ile, Leu, and Val residues in the RNAP binding site of NusG was completely

extinguished, confirming that NusG-NTD binds to RNAP at its known binding site

(Drögemüller et al., 2015; Kang et al., 2018; Krupp et al., 2019; Said et al., 2017).

To test if NusG-CTD can bind to S10 while being tethered to RNAP *via* NusG-NTD,

we titrated the [ILV]-NusG:RNAP complex with S10ᴬ (Fig. 2C). In order to increase

stability, we used this S10 variant lacking the ribosome binding loop in complex with

NusB (Luo et al., 2008). Chemical shift changes of [ILV]-NusG-CTD signals upon

titration of [ILV]-NusG:RNAP with S10ᴬ:NusB were determined (Fig. 2D) and affected

residues were mapped onto the three-dimensional structure of NusG-CTD (Fig. 2E).

Strongly affected residues are found to be located in β-strands 3 and 4 as well as in the

connecting loop, in agreement with the binding site observed in the binary NusG-

CTD:S10ᴬ complex (Burmann et al., 2010). The loop between β-strands 1 and 2 is also

part of the NusG-CTD:S10ᴬ binding site, but as it does not contain any Ile, Leu, or Val

residues, no NMR-active probes are available in this region; nevertheless, affected

residues can be found in β-strand 1, directly preceding this loop. This suggests that the

CTD:S10ᴬ binding surface in the RNAP:NusG:S10ᴬ:NusB complex is identical to the one

determined in the binary system. Importantly, the NusG-NTD signals do not change

when S10 is added to the NusG:RNAP complex, indicating that S10 binding does not

release the bound RNAP.

We conclude that the S10 interaction site of NusG-CTD is accessible in the

NusG:RNAP complex and thus can promote ribosome binding and formation of a

ribosome:NusG:RNAP complex.

To look for a ribosome:NusG-RNAP complex, we repeated the experiment using

intact 70S ribosomes instead of S10ᴬ:NusB (Figure 3). In a first test, we titrated [ILV]-

NusG with 70S ribosomes (Figure 3A). As in the [ILV]-NusG:RNAP experiment, signal

intensity of [ILV]-NusG methyl groups was significantly, but not uniformly, decreased.

In the presence of a twofold molar excess of ribosomes some NusG-NTD signals

remained visible, whereas most NusG-CTD signals were nearly completely extinguished.

Quantitative analysis of the [ILV]-NusG methyl group signal intensity in the presence of

0.5 equivalents of 70S ribosomes clearly shows that the relative intensity of NusG-CTD

signals was in a narrow range < 2 %, whereas the relative intensity of NusG-NTD signals

covered values from 0-4 %, and was higher on average (Figure 3B). Relative intensities

of zero of NusG-NTD signals can be attributed to the fact that these signals are weak

even in free NusG, and can thus not be quantified upon ribosome binding. Due to the

flexibility of the linker, signals corresponding to amino acids in this region had the

highest relative signal intensities. From these results we conclude that NusG binds to the

ribosome via its CTD, in agreement with our cryo-EM structure (Figure 1). Due to the

drastic increase in molecular mass we were unable to determine a binding site from these

experiments, but nevertheless, the pattern of intensity changes of NusG-CTD signals was

similar to that resulting form the titration of RNAP-bound NusG with S10, i.e. the most

drastic decrease of signal intensity can be observed for residues 160-170, which are part

of β-strands 3 and 4 and the intervening loop. Consequently, we conclude that the

ribosome binding site is identical with the binding site for isolated S10.

Next, we formed a complex of [ILV]-NusG and RNAP (molar ratio 1:2). The 2D

methyl-TROSY spectrum of the complex revealed a decrease of signal intensities typical

for NusG binding to RNAP (see Fig. 2C), i.e. primarily NusG-CTD signals remained

visible. When we then added one equivalent of 70S ribosomes nearly all [ILV]-NusG

signals were diminished (e.g. the signal corresponding to I164, which is in the loop

responsible for ribosome binding). Strikingly, the spectrum differs from the spectrum of

[ILV]-NusG in the presence of 70S ribosome (Fig. 3A). These results can be explained

by three scenarios: (i) NusG-NTD is bound to RNAP, NusG-CTD is bound to a

ribosome, and the ribosome directly interacts with RNAP, (ii) NusG-NTD is bound to

RNAP, NusG-CTD is bound to the ribosome, but the ribosome does not interact with

RNAP, (iii) NusG-NTD is bound to RNAP, the ribosome directly interacts with RNAP,

and NusG-CTD is free, but is in the vicinity of the ribosome. To exclude the last scenario

we repeated the experiment using a NusG variant, NusG^{F165A}, in which F165, essential

for ribosome binding (Burmann et al., 2010; Knowlton et al., 2003), is substituted by an

Ala. Having ensured that the amino acid substitution does not influence the structure of

NusG (Fig. 3-figure supplement 1A) we tested in a control experiment [ILV]-NusG^{F165A}

binding to S10$^\Delta$. Indeed, we could detect no interaction (Fig. 3-figure supplement 1B,C).

When we added 70S ribosomes to a preformed [ILV]-NusG^{F165A}:RNAP complex (molar

ratio 2:1), the spectrum corresponding to the [ILV]-NusG^{F165A}:RNAP complex did not

significantly change and, in particular, NusG-CTD signals remained visible, suggesting

that the ribosome was not bound. However the general decrease in signal intensity

indicated a direct RNAP:ribosome interaction. Thus, we conclude that NusG can serve as

physical linker between ribosome and RNAP, although it remains elusive if a direct

interaction between RNAP and a ribosome occurs in this NusG-coupled complex.

Translation promotes NusG attachment to TEC.

Chromatin Immuno Precipitation (ChIP) analysis showed that NusG binds to TEC well

after transcription and translation initiation (Mooney et al., 2009b). Thus, we asked

whether translation was, in fact, required for attachment of NusG to TEC. To approach

this question, we examined the effects of translation on NusG-mediated Rho-dependent

termination within the *lac* operon (Fig. 4A, Table 1) as NusG recruitment to the TEC is

necessary for efficient Rho-dependent termination. Rho-dependent termination occurs

within *lacZ* both *in vitro* (Burns and Richardson, 1995) and, upon the introduction of *lacZ*

nonsense mutations, *in vivo* (Adhya and Gottesman, 1978; Newton et al., 1965). Polarity

was measured using a probe to *lacA*, comparing mRNA levels with or without treatment

with the Rho inhibitor bicyclomycin (BCM). Wildtype (WT) cells revealed no detectable

termination (Table 1, Fig. 4A-I), which may be attributed to (i) sequestering of NusG-

CTD by the ribosome, (ii) binding of the ribosome to the nascent RNA, or (iii) both. In

all scenarios, however, the presence of the translating ribosome prevents Rho binding.

We interfered with translation initiation by mutating the ribosome-binding site, i.e. the

Shine-Dalgarno (SD) sequence (Fig. 4A-II), or translation elongation by introducing six

successive rare arginine codons at two different locations in *lacZ* (Fig. 4A III, IV).

Introduction of two G to A mutations in the *lacZ* SD sequence prohibits translation

initiation of *lacZ* (Fig. 4A-II). *lacA* mRNA measurements gave a read-through of 21%,

indicating that Rho-dependent termination occurs, but was inefficient in the absence of

translation of *lacZ* mRNA. Introduction of the six in-frame rare arginine residues at the

+4 position of *lacZ* (Fig. 4A-III, Table 1) allowed 29% read-through, i.e. Rho-dependent

termination is present, but still inefficient if translation of *lacZ* mRNA is interfered with

at early elongation. In contrast, introduction of the rare arginine residues 200 nt from the

start site of transcription (Fig. 4A-IV, Table 1) resulted in high polarity, yielding < 1 %

read-through. As efficient Rho-dependent termination requires NusG our results suggests

that NusG binding to TEC occurs late and is dependent on translation.

To confirm the hypothesis that NusG failed to attach to TEC in the absence of

translation, we asked if a complex comprising Nus factors A, B, and E (Nus complex)

assembled at a λ *nutL* site was able to recruit NusG so that it associates with TEC.

Accordingly, we introduced the λ *nutL* site just upstream of the flawed *lacZ* SD sequence

and measured *lacA* mRNA (Figure 4B, Table 1). Indeed, Rho-dependent termination was

highly efficient, indicating that NusG had been recruited to TEC. Thus,

counterintuitively, the Nus complex, which normally suppresses transcription termination

in ribosomal (*rrn*) operons and, together with λN, on the phage λ chromosome,

stimulates termination in this case.

We finally demonstrated that reduced termination efficiency in the mutant with

the non-functional SD sequence was due to the failure of NusG recruitment to the TEC.

In this assay we monitored Rho-dependent termination in a fusion construct that carries

λ *cro,* the λ *nutR* site, the Rho-dependent λ *tR1* terminator and a *lacZ* reporter, with *lacZ*

expression being heat-inducible (Fig. 5). Termination at the λ *tR1* site is poor when *cro* is

translated, as seen with the *cro ms27* fusion (Table 2A, Fig. 5A-I; in the presence of an

intact SD sequence we used *cro ms27*, where codon 27 carries a missense mutation so

that the resulting protein is non-functional). The 3' end of *cro* is adjacent to the λ *tR1*

terminator, limiting the amount of free RNA available for Rho attachment if *cro* mRNA

is translated. When λ *cro* carried a SD mutation translation initiation was ablated, but

nevertheless there was significant termination at λ *tR1* (Table 2A, Figure 5A-II, compare

read-through values with and without BCM). Formation of the Nus complex at λ *nutR*

allows NusG recruitment and efficient termination. In the absence of NusB, the complex

does not assemble, and there is extensive read-through at λ *tR1*.

The *boxA69* mutation also reduces Nus complex formation at λ *nutR*, and like the

nusB- mutation, enhances read-through of λ *tR1* (Table 2B, Fig. 5B). In this experiment,

we suppressed termination at λ *tR1* with λ N antitermination factor instead of BCM.

Finally, we showed that expression of *nusG-NTD*, which competes with NusG for

binding to RNAP, enhances read-through (Table 2C, Fig. 5C). Taken together, these

results strongly support the idea that NusG can be supplied by the Nus complex

assembled at λ *nutR* in the absence of translation, inducing Rho-dependent termination at

λ *tR1*.

Discussion

We determined a cryo-EM structure of a NusG: 70S complex showing binding of one

molecule NusG per ribosome, consistent with previous results (Saxena et al., 2018).

NusG binds to the S10 protein on the 30S subunit via its CTD as indicated by the study of

isolated NusG-CTD and S10 (Burmann et al., 2010); density for NusG-NTD was not

observable, suggesting that it remains flexible. We must attribute the low occupancy of

the NusG-CTD on the 70S ribosome in the cryo-EM experiment to weak binding

adversely affected by the conditions of sample preparation. Notably, although tmRNA

contacts the ribosome at various sites, the binding of NusG-CTD and tmRNA on S10 is

mutually exclusive. This suggests a model in which uncoupling at rare codons, at which

tmRNA releases ribosomes, is promoted by tmRNA-induced release of NusG (Roche and

Sauer, 1999). The freed NusG:TEC complex exposes the NusG-CTD, and is then subject

to Rho-dependent transcription termination.

Simultaneous binding of NusG to S10 and RNAP has been demonstrated by

solution-state NMR studies, confirming the S10 binding site on NusG-CTD as identified

in a binary NusG-CTD:S10 system (Fig. 2) (Burmann et al., 2010). Moreover, we show

that NusG can bind RNAP and 70S ribosome simultaneously; this is the first direct

structural evidence for NusG-mediated transcription:translation coupling. The flexibility

of the linker between the NusG-NTD and the NusG-CTD permits these interactions.

The operon-specific *E. coli* NusG paralog, RfaH, likewise simultaneously binds S10 and

RNAP in the context of a paused TEC (Burmann et al., 2012; Zuber et al., 2019). RfaH,

which also comprises an NTD and a flexibly-connected CTD (Belogurov et al., 2007;

Burmann et al., 2012), uses the same binding sites as NusG to interact with RNAP and

S10 (Burmann et al., 2010, 2012; Kang et al., 2018; Sevostyanova et al., 2011; Zuber et

al., 2019). However, RfaH, unlike NusG, complexes with TEC early after transcription

initiation, when TEC pauses at an operon polarity suppressor (*ops*) site, a representative

of the *E. coli* consensus pause sequence (Larson et al., 2014; Vvedenskaya et al., 2014).

Located in the untranslated leader region of RfaH-controlled operons, *ops* is responsible

for sequence-specific recruitment of RfaH (Zuber et al., 2018). Importantly, RfaH-

dependent operons lack a consensus SD sequence . To initiate translation, RfaH recruits a

ribosome to these mRNAs, making coupling essential for translation activation and

efficient gene expression (Burmann et al., 2012). The binding modes of RfaH and NusG

to RNAP and S10 are very similar, indicating that coupling as observed for RfaH can also

be mediated by NusG and vice versa. However, once recruited, RfaH excludes NusG

(Kang et al., 2018), thus preventing intra-operon Rho-dependent transcription termination

in RfaH-controlled operons (see (Artsimovitch and Knauer, 2019)).

We have confirmed the results of Mooney et al that NusG binds to TEC only after

significant RNA synthesis (Mooney et al., 2009b). As postulated by these authors,

binding depends on active translation of the mRNA. Thus efficient Rho-dependent

transcription termination, which requires the attachment of Rho to the NusG-CTD, does

not occur at the end of an untranslated gene. We have shown that the failure of NusG to

bind TEC is responsible for the absence of termination. Thus, placing a λ *nut* site at the

start of the gene recruits NusG and restores termination. At present, it is not understood

why NusG appears to be delivered to TEC by ribosomes *in vivo*, whereas it binds directly

to RNAP in a purified system lacking ribosomes. A possible explanation would be that

NusG binds to RNAP discontinuously in an on-and-off mode in the untranslated leader

region and that the NusG:RNAP interaction is only stabilized when the ribosome is

coupled upon translation initiation. We should recall that NusG has two binding sites in

the coupled system, which significantly increases its affinity.

A direct connection between transcription and translation was first predicted in

1964 (Byrne et al., 1964). Transcription:translation coupling is necessary to coordinate

gene expression and to maintain genome stability (McGary and Nudler, 2013). In 1970,

Miller *et al.* performed electron miscroscopy analyses of lysed *E. coli* cells (Miller et al.,

1970). They demonstrated that all mRNA molecules are connected to the *E. coli* genome,

and that the ribosome at the newly synthesized end of a polyribosome is almost always

immediately adjacent to the putative RNAP molecule. They concluded that translation is

completely coupled with transcription. Coupling could allow RNAP to monitor the

translation rate while providing newly synthesized mRNA to the ribosome. The structural

basis of this coupling is, however, still only poorly understood. Our results strongly

suggest that NusG may mediate coupling. However, since NusG attaches to the TEC

downstream to the translation initiation site, the coupled transcription:translation complex

must initially consist of a ribosome bound directly to TEC, in agreement with two cryo-

EM structures and *in vitro* data (Demo et al., 2017; Fan et al., 2017; Kohler et al., 2017).

One cryo-EM structure shows the so-called "expressome", an RNAP:70S complex

generated by letting a ribosome translate until it encounters a stalled RNAP (Fig. 6A;

(Kohler et al., 2017)). In this complex RNAP directly binds to the 30S subunit with the

RNA exit region of RNAP docking onto the ribosome near the mRNA tunnel entry

between ribosomal proteins S3, S4, and S5. In this structure, mRNA exiting from RNAP

can directly enter the ribosome. Another cryo-EM structure showed an RNAP:30S

complex generated by mixing 30S subunit with a 3-fold excess of RNAP (Fig. 6B;

(Demo et al., 2017)). In this structure RNAP is bound to the 30S subunit near the mRNA

binding site between the head and the platform domains, contacting ribosomal proteins

S1, S2, S18, S21, and hairpin loop 40 of 16S rRNA, in agreement with crosslinking data

(Fan et al., 2017). Strikingly, this position is located more than 80 Å from the binding site

observed in the expressome structure, i.e. on the opposite side of the 30S head.

Importantly, it ensures that RNAP interacts with the cytosolic site of the 30S ribosomal

subunit so that the nascent RNA exiting from RNAP is directly guided to the entry site on

the ribosome. Assuming that the RNAP:30S complex corresponds to a coupling complex

at translation initiation and the expressome structure to a translation elongation complex,

a would require a massive relocalization of RNAP.

Interestingly, neither the RNAP:30S nor the expressome structures allow NusG- (or

RfaH-) mediated coupling: the linker of NusG/RfaH is too short (Fig. 6). However, as the

cryo-EM structures suggest that the position of RNAP on the 30S subunit might be

flexible, these structures could be snapshots of distinct situation during translation. Thus,

we suggest that at some distance downstream of the translation initiation site, NusG

recognizes and enters the coupling complex.

In summary, we hypothesize that two coupling modes exist, a direct coupling between the

ribosome and TEC during translation initiation and early elongation and a NusG-

mediated coupling mode later in translation. The question of whether the 70S ribosome

still directly contacts TEC in the NusG-mediated system remains elusive. The

expressome structure (Kohler et al., 2017) does not allow simultaneous NusG binding to

TEC and the 70S ribosome, thus the relative orientation of 70S ribosome to TEC might

be different in the direct and the NusG-mediated system. The latter may thus require a

reorientation of the TEC and the 70S ribosome and confer the system more flexibility,

necessary to keep transcription and translation synchronized, even if these processes are

differently regulated or occur at different rates.

Methods

Strain Construction. Standard bacteriological techniques used in strain construction

(e.g., transformation, transduction and media preparation) are as described in Silhavy et

al. (1984). Standard molecular biology techniques were as described in Sambrook and

Russell (Sambrook and Russel, 2001). N10780 was constructed by P1 transduction of

rpoC-his:kanR nusGF165A from NB885 into MDS42. N11158 was constructed by P1

transduction of Δ*ssrA::camR* from RSW943 into MDS42. N11816 was constructed by

P1 transduction of Δ*relA::kanR* from RLG847 into N11158. RSW1008 was constructed

by P1 transduction of Δ*ssrA::camR* from RSW943 into N4837. RSW1010 was

constructed by P1 transduction of *rpoC-his:kanR nusGF165A* from NB885 into N4837.

RSW1012 was constructed by P1 transduction of Δ*ssrA::camR* from RSW943 into

RSW1010. RSW1175 was constructed by P1 transduction of Δ*relA::kanR* and

Δ*spoT::camR* from RLG847 into MDS42. RSW1245 was generated using

recombineering (Sharan et al., 2009) to introduce six rare arginine codons (atg-acc-atg-

AGG-AGA-CGA-AGG-AGA-CGA-att-acg-gat) into the 5'end of *lacZ* in MDS42

changing the amino acid sequence of the aminoterminus from MTMITD to

MTMRRRRRRITD with six inefficiently translated arginine codons. RSW1225 was

produced using recombineering to introduce two G to A mutations in the ribosome

binding site of *lacZ* in MDS42. This resulted in a change from

…TTCACACA<u>GG</u>AAACAGCTatgaccatg… to …TTCACACA<u>CC</u>

AAACAGCTatgaccatg…inactivating the ribosome binding site. RSW1225 is *lac⁻*.

Cloning. The plasmid encoding NusG-F165A was generated by site-directed

mutagenesis according to the QuikChange Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit (Stratagene),

using vector pET11A_nusG_ (Burmann et al., 2011) as template and primers Fw_NusG-

F165A (5' GTG TCT GTT TCT ATC GCG GGT CGT GCG ACC CCG 3') and

Rv_NusG-F165A (5' CGG GGT CGC ACG ACC CGC GAT AGA AAC AGA CAC 3';

both primers were obtained from metabion, Martinsried, Germany).

Protein production and isotopic labeling. NusG and NusG-NTD were produced as

described (Burmann et al., 2011) as were NusG-CTD (Burmann et al., 2010) and RNAP

and S10$_Δ$:NusB used for NMR spectroscopy (Zuber et al., 2019). Production of NusG-

F165A was analogous to NusG (Burmann et al., 2011). For unlabeled proteins, bacteria

were grown in lysogeny broth (LB) medium. [^{1}H,^{13}C]-labeling of methyl groups of Ile,

Leu, and Val residues in perdeuterated proteins was accomplished by growing bacteria in

M9 medium (Meyer and Schlegel, 1983; Sambrook and Russel, 2001) prepared with

increasing amounts of D$_2$O (0 % (v/v), 50 % (v/v), 100 % (v/v); Eurisotop, Saint-Aubin,

France) and (^{15}NH$_4$)$_2$SO$_4$ (CortecNet, Voisins-Le-Bretonneux, France) and d$_7$-glucose

(Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, Inc., Tewksburgy, USA) as sole nitrogen and carbon

sources, respectively. Amino acid precursors (60 mg/l 2-keto-3-d$_3$-4-^{13}C-butyrate and 100

mg/l 2-keto-3-methyl-d$_3$-3-d$_1$-4-^{13}C-butyrate; Eurisotop, Saint-Aubin, France) were

added 1 h prior to induction. Expression and purification protocols were identical to those

of the non-labeled proteins.

Intact 70S ribosomes were produced as follows. *E. coli* strain MRE600 cells grown in LB

medium were harvested, lysed by passing through the French Press 3x at ~800 PSI, and

clarified by a short centrifugation (20,000 rpm, 40min) in opening buffer (20 mM Tris-

HCl pH=7.5, 100mM NH_4Cl, 10.5 mM Mg acetate, 0.5 mM EDTA, with half a protease

inhibitor cocktail tablet (Roche, EDTA-free), and 1mM TCEP added just before use). The

lysate was loaded onto the top of 5 mL sucrose cushion (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH=7.5, 500

mM NH_4Cl, 10.5 mM Mg acetate, 0.5 mM EDTA, 1.1 M sucrose, and 1 mM TCEP

added before use) and centrifuged for 24 h at 28,000 rpm in a 70Ti rotor (Beckman

Coulter, Inc.). The pellets were suspended in washing buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH=7.5;

500mM NH_4Cl, 10.5mM Mg acetate, 0.5mM EDTA and 1 mM TCEP added before use),

and centrifuged through a 10–35% sucrose gradient for 19 h at 16,000 rpm in a SW28

rotor (Beckman Coulter, Inc.). Fractions containing the 70S peaks were pooled and kept

at -80℃ for further use.

Ribosomes for NMR experiments were obtained from New England Biolabs.

Electron Microscopy

Purified 70S ribosomes were incubated with full-length NusG at a ratio of 1:7 for 40 min

at room temperature, prior to blotting and plunge-freezing as previously described

(Grassucci et al., 2007). Data were collected on a TF30 Polara electron microscope (FEI,

Portland, Oregon) at 300kV using a K2 Summit direct electron detector camera (Gatan,

Pleasanton, CA). Images were recorded using the automated data collection system

Leginon (Suloway et al., 2005) in counting mode, and taken at the nominal magnification

of 32,000x, corresponding to a calibrated pixel size of 1.66Å.

Image processing

A total of 188,127 particles were automatically extracted from 1327 images using

Arachnid (Langlois et al., 2014). RELION (Scheres, 2012) 3D classification was used to

resolve the heterogeneity of the particle images, and auto-refinement to further improve

resolution for each class. The final refinement for the NusG-bound 70S class containing

17,122 particles yielded an average resolution of ~6.8Å (FSC=0.143; following "gold

standard" protocol).

Model building

The starting model was assembled from the X-ray structure of the *E. coli* 30S ribosomal

subunit (PDB ID 4GD2) and the NMR solution structure of the NusG-CTD (PDB 2KVQ

chain G). This starting model was first docked into the segmented maps of our 70S

density map as a rigid body using UCSF Chimera (Pettersen et al., 2004). Then it was

fitted into the segmented map using the Molecular Dynamic Flexibly Fitting (MDFF)

method (Trabuco et al., 2008) and run using the NAMD program (Phillips et al., 2005) for

0.5 ns of simulation time, followed by 5,000 steps of energy minimization.

NMR spectroscopy. NMR experiments were conducted on Bruker Ascend Aeon 900 and

1000 MHz spectrometers equipped with cryogenically cooled, inverse triple resonance

probes at 298 K. NMR data was converted and processed using in-house software. 2D

correlation spectra were visualized and analyzed with NMRViewJ (One Moon Scientific,

Inc., Westfield, NJ, USA), 1D spectra were plotted using MatLab (The MathWorks, Inc.,

Version 9.2.0.538062). Resonance assignments for NusG methyl groups were taken from

a previous study (Mooney et al., 2009a).

[ILV]-NusG-CTD was in 10 mM K-phosphate (pH 7.5), 50 mM KCl, 1 mM MgCl$_2$, 99.9

% (v/v) D$_2$O, [ILV]-NusG-NTD in 50 mM Na-phosphate (pH 7.5), 50 mM KCl, 0.3 mM

EDTA, 5 % (v/v) d$_7$-glycerol, 0.01 % (w/v) NaN$_3$, 99.9 % D$_2$O. For the titration of [ILV]-

NusG with RNAP and S10^D:NusB, all proteins were in 50 mM Na-phosphate (pH 7.5),

50 mM KCl, 0.3 mM EDTA, 99.9 % (v/v) D$_2$O and 5 mM MgCl$_2$ and 2 mM DTT were

added to the NMR sample to increase the-long-term stability of RNAP. For all interaction

studies involving ribosomes and for the titration of [ILV]-NusG-F165A with S10^Δ:NusB,

all components were in 20 mM HEPES-KOH (pH 7.6), 10 mM Mg-acetate, 30 mM KCl,

7 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 10 % D$_2$O. The titration of [ILV]-NusG-F165A with

S10^Δ:NusB was conducted in a 5 mm tube with an initial sample volume of 550 µl. All

other measurements were carried out in 3 mm NMR tubes with an (initial) volume of 200

µl.

1D and 2D titration experiments were evaluated quantitatively by analyzing either

changes in signal intensity or changes in chemical shifts. If chemical shift changes were

in the fast regime on the chemical shift the normalized chemical shift perturbation

(Δδ$_{norm}$) was calculated according to equation 1.

$$\Delta\delta_{norm} = \sqrt{\left(\Delta\delta\ ^1H\right)^2 + \left[0.25\left(\Delta\delta^{13}C\right)\right]^2} \quad (1)$$

with Δδ being the resonance frequency difference between the initial and final state of the

titration (i.e. [ILV]-NusG:RNAP:S10^D:NusB = 1:2:0:0 *vs.* 1:2:2:2) in ppm.

If the system was in slow or intermediate chemical exchange the signal intensities were

analyzed quantitatively. First, the intensity of each 1D spectrum or methyl group signal,

respectively, was normalized by the concentration of the [ILV]-labeled protein, the

receiver gain, the number of scans, and the length of the 90° ^{1}H pulse. Then the relative

intensity, i.e. the ratio of the normalized signal intensity of [ILV]-labeled protein in the

respective titration step to the normalized signal intensity of free [ILV]-labeled protein,

was calculated and plotted against the sequence of NusG or the NusG variant,

respectively.

qRT-PCR. Total RNA was extracted from cells grown in M9 medium supplemented

with casamino acids (0.2%) at 37^{0}C to mid-log phase (O.D. 600=0.3). Fold-increase of

the PCR product was determined using qRT-PCR. cDNA was synthesized using RNA

was extracted from logarithmically growing cultures (O.D.$_{600}$=0.2-0.3) Where indicated,

cells were treated with BCM (100μg/ml) 1 min before induction with 1mM IPTG for

lacZ. Samples were removed (0.5ml) at the indicated times and total RNA extracted

RNA extracted using Qiagen RNeasy and Qiagen RNAprotect Bacteria Reagent (Qiagen,

Germantown, MD). cDNA was synthesized from the samples using High Capacity RNA

to cDNA kit (ThermoFisher, Waltham, MA). qRT-PCR reactions were performed using

Taqman Gene Expression Master Mix (Thermofisher, Waltham, MA) and Biorad DNA

Engine Opticon2 Real-Time Cycler (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA) and

PrimeTime qPCR probes (Integrated DNA Technologies, Coralville, IA).   The *lacA*

transcript was probed with the following: probe:5'-/56-

FAM/CCACATGAC/ZEN/TTCCGATCCAGACGTT/3IABkFQ/-3'; primer1:5'-

ATACTACCCGCGCCAATAAC;   primer2:5'-CCCTGTACACCATGAATTGAGA).

The   reference   gene   was   *ompA*(probe:5'-/56-

FAM/CAACAACAT/ZEN/CGGTGACGCACACAC   /3IABkFQ/-3';   primer1:5'-

TGACCGAAACGGTAGGAAAC; primer2:5'-ACGCGATCACTCCTGAAATC).   The

PCR was performed using the following conditions: 50 $^{\circ}$C for 10 min., 95 $^{\circ}$C for 2 min,

followed by 40 cycles each of 95 °C for 15s, and 60 °C 1min. All reactions were

performed in duplicate. Fold increases were calculated from measured C_t values using

the $\Delta\Delta C_t$ method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001). Values are the average of three or more

independent experiments.

β−galactosidase assays. Cultures were grown in LB to early log phase (O.D. 600 =0.3)

at 37 ^{0}C. Where indicated bicyclomycin (BCM) (100μg/ml) was added to inhibit Rho-

dependent transcription termination prior to induction of *lacZ* with 1mm IPTG.   Where

indicated λN was expressed by incubation at 42 $^{\circ}$C. Reactions were terminated 15 min.

after induction. β-galactosidase was measured using a modification of the method of

Miller (Zhang and Bremer, 1995). Readthrough was calculated from the ratio of β-

galactosidase activity +/- BCM.

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experiments. J.F., Y.H., M.S., R.W. P.K.Z. S.H.K. and M.G. designed the experiments

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Figures

Figure 1. Structure of NusG-CTD bound to 70S ribosome. (A) Cryo-EM density of

the 70S ribosome:NusG complex. The density of the 50S subunit is shown in light blue,

the density of the 30S subunit in yellow, the density corresponding to NusG-CTD in red.

(B) Close-up view of the region boxed in **(A)**. 70S (yellow), S10 (blue), and NusG-CTD

(red) are in ribbon representation, cryo-EM density is shown as transparencies. **(C)**

Superposition of the 70S:NusG complex with the 70S:tmRNA complex (tmRNA is in

ribbon representation, purple and dark blue; EMD 5234, PDB: 3IZ4). 30S and NusG-

CTD are displayed as in **(B)**.

Figure 2. RNAP-bound NusG interacts with S10. (A) Superposition of 2D [^{1}H, ^{13}C]-

methyl-TROSY spectra of [ILV]-NusG (black, 20 μM), [ILV]-NusG-NTD (orange, 100

µM), and [ILV]-NusG-CTD (cyan, 30 µM). **(B)** 2D [^{1}H, ^{13}C]-methyl-TROSY spectra of

[ILV]-NusG in the absence (black, 20 µM) and presence (orange, 18 µM) of two

equivalents of RNAP. Inset: Normalized 1D [^{1}H,^{13}C]-methyl TROSY spectra, colored as

2D spectra. **(C)** 2D [^{1}H, ^{13}C]-methyl-TROSY spectra of [ILV]-NusG alone (20 µM), in

the presence of a twofold molar excess of RNAP (18 µM [ILV]-NusG), and upon

titration of [ILV]-NusG:RNAP with 218 µM S10$_{Δ}$:NusB. The molar ratio of [ILV]-

NusG:RNAP:S10$_{Δ}$:NusB is indicated in color. The panel on the right shows an

enlargement of the boxed region. Selected signals are labeled and arrows indicate

chemical shift changes upon S10$_{Δ}$:NusB addition. **(D)** [^{1}H,^{13}C]-methyl-TROSY-derived

normalized chemical shift changes of [ILV]-NusG-CTD methyl group signals of RNAP-

bound [ILV]-NusG upon complex formation with S10$_{Δ}$:NusB. Asterisks mark the values

of individual methyl group signals, bars represent the highest values. Red bars indicate

vanishing signals. Horizontal lines are thresholds for affected methyl groups: slightly

affected (0.04 ppm ≤ $\Delta\delta_{norm}$ < 0.07 ppm; black), moderately affected (0.07 ppm ≤ $\Delta\delta_{norm}$

< 0.1 ppm; orange), and strongly affected ($\Delta\delta_{norm}$ ≥ 0.10 ppm; red). **(E)** Mapping of

affected methyl groups on the structure of isolated NusG-CTD (left; PDB ID: 2JVV) and

NusG-CTD in complex with S10$_{Δ}$ (right; PDB ID 2KVQ). NusG-CTD is shown in ribbon

(gray), S10$_{Δ}$ in ribbon and surface (blue) representation. Affected Ile, Leu, and Val

residues are colored according to **(D),** non-affected Ile, Leu, and Val residues are gray.

Side chains of Ile, Leu, and Val residues are depicted as sticks, their methyl groups as

spheres. Strongly affected Ile, Leu, and Val residues are labeled. The orientation of

NusG-CTD in the complex relative to the isolated state is indicated.

Figure 2-figure supplement 1: Binding of [ILV]-NusG to RNAP. [^{1}H,^{13}C]-methyl-

TROSY derived relative signal intensities of [ILV]-NusG methyl groups after addition of

two equivalents of RNAP (see Fig. 2B). Red, dashed horizontal lines indicate average

relative signal intensities of NusG-NTD, the linker, and NusG-CTD (domain organization

is indicated at the top). Related to Figure 2B.

Figure 3: RNAP-bound NusG interacts with the 70 S ribosome. (A,B) NusG interacts

with 70S ribosome via its CTD. **(A)** 2D [^{1}H, ^{13}C]-methyl-TROSY spectra of free [ILV]-

NusG (11 µM, black) and [ILV]-NusG in the presence of 70S ribosome (molar ratio

[ILV]-NusG:ribosome = 1:0.5 (6.6 µM [ILV]-NusG, orange); = 1:1 (7.5 µM [ILV]-

NusG, blue); =1:2 (4 µM [ILV]-NusG, red). Arrows indicate [ILV]-NusG-NTD signals

that are well visible in the [ILV]-NusG:ribosome complex. **(B)** Quantitative analysis of

[ILV]-NusG methyl group signal intensities in the presence of 0.5 equivalents of 70S

ribosome. Relative signal intensities are plotted versus the sequence position of NusG.

The domain organization of NusG is indicated above the diagram. **(C)** 2D [^{1}H, ^{13}C]-

methyl-TROSY spectra of [ILV]-NusG (11 μM, black), [ILV]-NusG in the presence of

RNAP (molar ratio 1:2, 6 μM [ILV]-NusG, blue), and [ILV]-NusG in the presence of

RNAP and 70S ribosome (molar ratio 1:2:1, 6 μM [ILV]-NusG, red). **(D)** 2D [^{1}H, ^{13}C]-

methyl-TROSY spectra of [ILV]-NusG^{F165A} (20 μM, black), [ILV]-NusG^{F165A} in the

presence of RNAP (molar ratio 1:2, 6 μM [ILV]-NusG^{F165A}, blue), and [ILV]-NusG^{F165A}

in the presence of RNAP and 70S ribosome (molar ratio 1:2:1, 6 μM [ILV]-NusG^{F165A},

red). The inset shows the normalized 1D spectra of the corresponding titration step.

Figure 3-figure supplement 1: NusG-F165A does not interact with S10ᐃ/NusB. (A)

2D [^{1}H, ^{13}C]-methyl-TROSY spectra of [ILV]-NusG (11 μM, black) and [ILV]-

NusG^{F165A} (20 μM, red). Arrows and labels indicate NusG-CTD methyl groups affected

in their resonance frequencies by the F165A amino acid substitution. **(B,C)** 2D **(B)** and

normalized 1D **(C)** [^{1}H, ^{15}N]-HSQC spectra of 20 μM [ILV]-NusG^{F165A} upon titration

with 432 μM S10ᐃ/NusB (colors as indicated).

Figure 4: Translation is required for NusG recruitment to the TEC. (A, B) Left: Organization of the *E. coli lac* operon in strains MDS42 (A-I; wild type *lacZ*), RSW1225 (A-II; mutant (inactive) *lacZ* SD sequence), RSW1245 (A-III; in-frame insertion of six rare Arg codons (*arg6*) at position +4 of *lacZ*), RSW1276 (A-IV; in-frame insertion of λ*cro* and six rare Arg codons at position +4 of *lacZ* (equivalent to *arg6* being at position +200 of the gene)), and RSW1297 (B; λ*nutL* site upstream of mutant *lacZ* SD sequence). SD sequences of *lacY* and *lacA* were omitted for clarity. qPCR primers specific to the 3' end of *lacA* (position indicated in A-I) were used to measure mRNA levels and thereby

read-through of *lacA* (see Table 1). Right: Schemes of possible effects on

transcription:translation coupling and Rho-dependent termination within *lacZ*. A-I, top:

Ribosomes are recruited in the early elongation phase, leading to a directly coupled

RNAP:ribosome complex (left) or uncoupled transcription and translation (right). A-I,

bottom: NusG is recruited in late elongation, resulting in a NusG-coupled complex with

(left) or without direct RNAP:ribosome contacts (middle), or modifying the pre-existing

RNAP:ribosome complex without establishing an CTD:S10 interaction (right). A-II:

Failure of NusG recruitment results in inefficient Rho-dependent termination and high

lacA read-through. A-III: *arg6* stops the translating ribosome at position +4, whereas

transcription elongation proceeds (left), resulting in ribosome dissociation and no NusG

recruitment. Transcription proceeds and is only inefficiently terminated by Rho (right).

A-IV: NusG couples transcription and translation (left) until *arg6* stops the ribosome at

position +200 (middle), allowing efficient, NusG-stimulated Rho-dependent termination

(right). B: λ*nutL* recruits NusA, NusG and the S10/NusB dimer, creating a Nus complex

(left). NusG can thus support Rho-dependent termination.

Figure 5: NusG can be recruited *via* a Nus complex. Genetic constructs used to monitor NusG mediated Rho-dependent termination are shown with the corresponding strains and their properties indicated on the right side. Transcription is started from the λ*pR* promoter, followed by WT-λ*cro* or λ*cro* carrying a missense mutation at codon 27 (λ*cro27*), a WT or mutant λ*nutR* site (B), the Rho-dependent terminator λ*tR1* and a λ*cII::lacZ* transcriptional fusion with corresponding SD site. All strains encode a temperature sensitive λcI construct (λ*cIts*) to allow temperature-controlled induction of gene expression from the λ*pR* promoter. λ*N*[+] strains listed in (B) further encode the λN protein; NusG-NTD for strains listed in (C) was supplied from plasmid pRM442. See also tables 2A-C.

Figure 6: Structures of coupling complexes. Structures of the expressome (A) and an RNAP:30S complex (B) determined by cryo-EM are shown. RNAP and ribosomal subunits are in surface representation, NusG is shown as ribbon. α_I, orange; α_{II} green; β, cyan; β', light violet; 30S, yellow; 50S, light blue; β'CH, pink; S10, dark blue. PDB IDs: expressome, 5MY1 and 6O9J; RNAP:30S, 6AWD; NusG-NTD: 2K06; NusG-CTD: 2JVV

Tables

Table 1. NusG couples late after transcription initiation. β-galactosidase was induced
for 20 min from the *lac* operon with1mM IPTG. Where indicated, Rho-dependent
termination was inhibited by adding 100μg/ml BCM 1 minute prior to induction. Read-
through was calculated from the fold-increase of *lacA RNA* compared to *ompA* RNA in
the presence or absence of BCM. RNA levels were measured using qRT-PCR and the
fold- increase calculated using the $\Delta\Delta C_t$ method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001).
RSW1225 carries two G to A mutations in the *lacZ* ribosome-binding site. RSW1245
carries an insertion of six rare arginine codons (atg-acc-atg-AGG-AGA-CGA-AGG-
AGA-CGA) at the amino terminus of *lacZ*. RSW1276 contains six rare arginine codons
200nt distal to the start of translation. RSW1297 carries an insertion of λ*nutL*
immediately 5' to the mutated ribosome binding site.

strain	*lacZ*	*nutL*	BCM⁻	BCM⁺	RT (%)
MDS42	wt	-	.25	.26	99
RSW1225	SD⁻	-	.12	.56	21
RSW1245	arg(6) - early	-	.13	.49	29
RSW1276	arg(6) - late	-	<.01	.12	<1
RSW1297	SD⁻	+	.01	.59	1

Table 2. NusG recruitment depends on translation. (A) NusG coupling at *nutR* requires

NusB. Expression of β-galactosidase was induced from a chromosomal *cII*::lacZ

transcriptional fusion (λ*cIts-pR-cro-nutR-tR1-cII::lacZ*) by incubating at 42^0 C for 30 min.

N9743 and N12580 carry a missense mutation at *cro* codon 27, N9739 and 9976 have a G

to C mutation in the *cro* Shine Dalgarno sequence (*SD-*), N12580 and N9976 are deleted

for *nusB*. Where indicated, bicyclomycin (BCM) was added to 100μg/ml prior to

induction of β-galactosidase. Read-through (RT) was calculated from the ratio of β-

galactosidase activity in the presence or absence of BCM. **(B)** BoxA mutations block

NusG coupling at *nutR*. Expression of β-galactosidase was induced from a chromosomal

cII::lacZ transcriptional fusion (λ*cIts-pR-cro* (*SD⁻*) *-nutR-tR1-cII::lacZ*) by incubating at

42^0 C for 30 min. Strains N10672, N10674, N10677 and N10679 express the λN

transcription termination inhibitor. *boxA69* and Δ*nusB* strain numbers are indicated in

Table 3. Read-through (RT) was calculated from the ratio of β-galactosidase activity in the

presence or absence of λN. **(C)** NusG-NTD uncouples. Expression of β-galactosidase was

induced from a chromosomal *cII*::lacZ transcriptional fusion (λ*cIts-pR-cro(*SD⁻*)-nutR-tR1-*

cII::lacZ) by incubating at 42^0 C for 30 min. The NusG-NTD was induced from the

plasmid pRM442 *tac* promoter with 1mM IPTG for 10 min prior to induction of

β−galactosidase in strains RSW1397 and RSW 1399. Strains RSW1396 and RSW1398

carried an empty vector (p*trc99A*) and were exposed to IPTG as above. Where indicated

bicyclomycin (BCM) was added to 100μg/ml prior to induction of β-galactosidase. Read-

through (RT) was calculated from the ratio of β-galactosidase activity in the presence or

absence of BCM.

A	strain	*cro*	*nusB*	BCM⁻	BCM⁺	RT (%)
	9743	*ms27*	+	530	680	78
	12580	*ms27*	D	890	1150	78
	9739	SD-	+	141	613	**23**
	9976	SD-	D	1191	1290	92

B	strain	*boxA*	*nusB*	λN⁻	λN⁺	RT (%)
	10673, 10672	+	+	126	946	**13**
	10675, 10674	*69*	+	1212	2211	55
	10678, 10677	+	D	2874	2616	100
	10680, 10679	*69*	D	1896	2416	78

C	strain	*nusG-NTD*	*nusB*	BCM⁻	BCM⁺	RT (%)
	RSW1396	-	+	247	862	**29**
	RSW1397	+	+	944	1013	93

| | RSW1398 | – | Δ | 2013 | 2314 | 93 |
| | RSW1399 | + | Δ | 2360 | 2760 | 86 |