

HHS Public Access

Author manuscript *Mol Cell.* Author manuscript; available in PMC 2016 September 03.

Published in final edited form as:

Mol Cell. 2015 September 3; 59(5): 768–780. doi:10.1016/j.molcel.2015.06.037.

Crosslink Mapping at Amino Acid-Base Resolution Reveals the Path of Scrunched DNA in Initial Transcribing Complexes

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Summary

RNA polymerase binds tightly to DNA to recognize promoters with high specificity but then releases these contacts during the initial stage of transcription. We report a site-specific crosslinking approach to map the DNA path in bacterial transcription intermediates at amino acid and nucleotide resolution. After validating the approach by showing that the DNA path in open complexes (RP_O) is the same as in high resolution X-ray structures, we define the path following substrate addition in 'scrunched' complexes (RP_{ITC}). The DNA bulges that form within the transcription bubble in RP_{ITC} are positioned differently on the two strands. Our data suggest that the non-template strand bulge is extruded into solvent in complexes containing a 5-mer RNA, whereas the template strand bulge remains within the template strand tunnel, exerting stress on the β flap- β' clamp- $\sigma_{3,2}$ interaction. We propose that this stress contributes to $\sigma_{3,2}$ displacement from the RNA exit channel, facilitating promoter escape.

Graphical abstract

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Supplemental Information: Supplemental Information includes 6 figures, 4 tables, and Supplemental Experimental Procedures and can be found with this article at...

Author Contributions: JTW, JB, MFM, and AYC performed experiments, BTW performed the computational modeling, all authors contributed to the design and interpretation of the data, and JTW, WR, BTW, and RLG prepared the manuscript.

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Introduction

Organisms in all 3 domains of life utilize multisubunit RNA polymerases with similar overall structures that recognize promoters and initiate transcription. In bacteria, the catalytic subunits of the RNA polymerase (RNAP) associate with initiation proteins called σ factors. The *E. coli* holoenzyme containing the major s, $E\sigma^{70}$, binds to promoter DNA as a closed complex (RP_C) which then undergoes a series of conformational changes that ultimately result in melting of ~13 bp of DNA to form an open complex (RP_O). RNAP begins synthesis of RNA as an initial transcribing complex (RP_{ITC}) that usually undergoes multiple rounds of synthesis and release of short abortive RNA products without releasing its contacts to promoter DNA. RNAP is able to move away from the promoter to form a mature transcription elongation complex (TEC) only after RNAP-promoter contacts are released (Murakami et al., 2002a; Kapanidis et al., 2006; Revyakin et al., 2006; Werner and Grohmann, 2011).

RP_O has been characterized structurally in bacteria, using constraints generated by crosslinks from specific positions in DNA to large segments of RNAP (Naryshkin et al., 2000), by fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET) (Mekler et al., 2002), as well as by x-ray crystallography of promoter complexes (e.g. Campbell et al., 2002; Murakami et al., 2002b; Hudson et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2012; Feklistov and Darst, 2011; Basu et al., 2014; Zuo and Steitz, 2015). Together, these studies have provided us with a detailed model of RP_O that has been immensely useful for interpreting the large set of genetic and biochemical information that has accumulated in the last 30 years. However, such a detailed picture does not exist for any of the other intermediates in the transcription initiation pathway.

RNA synthesis begins after RP_O formation, but the complex proceeds through additional intermediate states preceding promoter escape. The intermediates following RP_O formation but preceding TEC formation are referred to here as initial transcribing complexes, RP_{ITC}. Early footprinting studies attempted to address the structures of promoter-RNAP complexes following nucleotide addition (Krummel and Chamberlin, 1989; Spassky, 1986). However, only relatively recently has a general picture emerged of the intermediates that occur following nucleotide addition. Kapanidis and colleagues demonstrated using a single

molecule fluorescence resonance energy transfer (smFRET) approach that the distance between the RNAP leading edge and downstream DNA and the distance between upstream DNA and downstream DNA change, whereas the distance between the RNAP trailing edge and upstream DNA does not change (Kapanidis et al., 2006). Revyakin and colleagues demonstrated using a magnetic tweezers approach that the number of DNA bp unwound by RNAP increases during productive initiation as well as during abortive initiation (Revyakin et al., 2006).

The picture that emerged indicates that RNAP pulls downstream DNA into itself one bp per phosphodiester bond formed after formation of the first dinucleotide; therefore, the length of DNA pulled into the enzyme during initial transcription is 2 nt fewer than the length of the transcribed RNA (the "n-2 rule"; Revyakin et al., 2006). A subset of contacts between RNAP and promoter DNA is maintained as DNA is pulled into RNAP, resulting in expansion of the single-stranded bubble. The accumulated DNA on each strand in these "scrunched" intermediate states is proposed to be accommodated as single-stranded bulges within the unwound region (Kapanidis et al. 2006).

The template strand DNA was pictured as being extruded from RNAP into bulk solvent at or near template strand positions -9 to -10 at the entrance to the template strand tunnel (Kapanidis et al., 2006) or alternatively as being accommodated within the template strand tunnel (Zuo and Steitz, 2015). On the non-template strand it was suggested that the bulged DNA might be extruded near -5 to -6 (Kapanidis et al., 2006). However, the previous studies did not unambiguously identify the locations of the bulges; we do not know which nucleotides in RP_{ITC} deviate from the path followed by single-strand DNA in RP_O and whether these nucleotides remain in the main channel or alternatively are extruded onto the surface of RNAP during scrunching. The promoter escape mechanism is much less understood in eukaryotes, although a scrunching-like mechanism has been proposed (reviewed by Jonkers and Lis, 2015).

Here we use a solution-based crosslinking approach to monitor the interface between RNAP and promoter DNA in an open complex and in an initial transcribing complex that has synthesized a 5-mer RNA (RP_{ITC5}). By incorporating a crosslinkable amino acid at specific positions in RNAP and mapping the crosslinks to promoter DNA at nucleotide resolution, we first show that the path of DNA in RP_O obtained from our crosslinking approach agrees with and extends the information about protein-nucleic acid interactions from crystal structures. We then use this approach to identify the path of the DNA in a scrunched intermediate, defining the bulged out nucleotides in RP_{ITC5} whose path deviates from that in RP_O in order to accommodate the extra DNA within the enzyme.

We further show that the scrunched template strand DNA in RP_{ITC5} remains within the channel; i.e. it is not extruded but rather approaches the entrance to the RNA exit channel. We predict that an effect of the template strand bulge on a tripartite complex consisting of the β flap, β' clamp, and $\sigma_{3,2}$ facilitates the removal of $\sigma_{3,2}$ from the RNA exit channel thereby contributing to promoter escape. Thus, our work introduces a method for identifying the path of DNA or RNA in protein-nucleic acid complexes, provides a snapshot of a critical

step in transcription initiation, and suggests that the template strand bulge may promote a conformational rearranagement that contributes to the mechanism of promoter escape.

Results

Bpa Incorporated at Specific Positions in RNAP Crosslinks to DNA in RNAP-Promoter Complexes

To characterize the surface of RNAP in proximity to DNA in transcription initiation intermediates, we used a crosslinking-based method to identify promoter positions near specific amino acids. The non-natural, UV-crosslinkable amino acid Bpa was incorporated site-specifically at amber stop codons introduced into the plasmid-encoded β , β' , or σ subunits of RNAP in strains expressing an evolved tRNA and tRNA synthetase pair (Ryu and Schultz, 2006) (Figures 1A and 1B). 152 RNAP variants were constructed containing single Bpa substitutions at solvent-accessible positions on the enzyme faces of RNAP that bind to the -35 hexamer, the -10 hexamer, and the -10/-35 spacer in RP_O, as well as on the surfaces of RNAP that line the main DNA channel. These substitutions included 45 positions in β , 51 in β' , and 56 in σ^{70} (Figure 1C, Table S1). Each of these 152 proteins was purified as core enzyme ($\alpha_2 \beta\beta'\omega$) or σ^{70} , and holoenzymes ($\alpha_2\beta\beta'\omega s^{70}$) were assembled by combining purified core RNAP-Bpa variants with σ^{70} or core RNAP with σ^{70} -Bpa variants.

Complexes of Bpa-containing holoenzymes and a radiolabeled DNA fragment were irradiated with 365 nm UV light under solution conditions that generated RP_O or RP_{ITC} on two variants of the *rrnB* P1 promoter, *rrnB* con and *rrnB* C-7G (Fig. 1D), that form more stable open complexes than the wild-type promoter, and the reactions were analyzed by SDS-PAGE (Figure 1E). RNAP-Bpa variants that covalently crosslinked to promoter-containing DNA were detected as a band with retarded mobility. 50 of the 152 variants formed crosslinks (Figure 1F and Table S1). Crosslinking required UV treatment and an RNAP that contained Bpa (Figure 1E and data not shown). The 37 variants that crosslinked most efficiently in RP_O or RP_{ITC} were chosen for further analysis (Table S2).

The Path of DNA in the RP_O Model Defined by Bpa Crosslinking Matches that in RP_O Models from Crystal Structures

To validate our approach for identifying the path of DNA in a promoter complex, we compared the path determined by Bpa crosslinking with that in published crystal structures of RP_O. We analyzed results from 33 of the 37 Bpa-substituted RNAPs that crosslinked most efficiently to DNA (see above). The RP_O complexes used for crosslinking contained *E. coli* RNAP holoenzyme and the near-consensus promoter, *rrnB* con (Figures 1D, S1A). KMnO₄ footprints with the Bpa-containing RNAPs indicated that all formed normal open complexes (Figures S1, S2A).

To identify promoter residues crosslinked by the Bpa residue in RNAP, the crosslinked complex was heat-denatured, a radiolabeled strand-specific primer was annealed to the DNA, and the primer was extended with Taq DNA polymerase (Figure 2A). Comparison of the length of the extension product to sequence markers on a high resolution polyacrylamide gel identified the promoter position where a crosslink impeded the DNA polymerase (Figure

2B). The representative gel shown in Figure 2B identified crosslinks by 7 different Bpasubstituted RNAPs to promoter positions from -21 to +13 on the template strand of *rrnB* con. Results from the other 26 Bpa-RNAPs are provided in Figure S2C and Table S2.

A single primer extension band was observed for RNAPs containing Bpa substitutions at some positions, e.g. β R175 (Figure S2C panel 14), β R151 (S2C, 6), β Q148 (S2C, 5), or β 'T212 (S2C, 34). However, there were often several primer extension products that differed by one or a few nucleotides (Figure 2B, lanes 5-11). The different length extension products could indicate that crosslinks to the same nucleotide can stop Taq DNA polymerase extension at multiple positions on the DNA, that one Bpa is able to sample and crosslink to multiple adjacent DNA positions, or that there are multiple slightly different conformations of the complex. As shown below, even when crosslinks mapped to several positions on the DNA, the resolution was sufficient to identify the path of DNA relative to the enzyme.

Identification of the residues in RNAP (shown in orange in Figures 2C-2F) and the promoter nucleotides to which they crosslinked (Figures 2A, 2B, S2) provided a set of distance constraints that reduced the number of possible paths of the DNA in the complex. The path was then optimized computationally to produce a model of RP_O (see Experimental Procedures and Supplementary Methods; see Figure 2 legend for color coding). Figures 2C and 2D display the overall path of the double-stranded DNA in the complex (blue ribbon), and Figures 2E and 2F provide close-ups of the single-stranded regions (shown as blue spheres since we had little information about the orientation of different atoms within each nucleotide). The path of the DNA from the downstream fork-junction x-ray structure (Zhang et al., 2012) (red ribbon) is shown for comparison.

The trajectory, orientation, and rotational phasing of the double-stranded DNA downstream from the transcription bubble in the crosslinking-based model are essentially the same as in the downstream fork-junction crystal structure. However, the information from the crystal structures ends at +12 (Zhang et al., 2012; Zuo and Steitz, 2015), whereas data for our crosslinking-based model extends to +18. Our model is consistent with previous suggestions that positions in the β' jaw (e.g. β' K1170 and β' M1189) come into very close proximity to double-stranded DNA downstream of +12 (Ederth et al., 2002; Drennan et al., 2012).

The path of the single-stranded portion of non-template strand DNA in our model is constrained by crosslinks from Bpa substitutions in the β 2 domain (at β Q148, β R151, β R175, β R201, β R180, and β R394) and in σ_2 (σ T395, σ K392, and σ W434). Together, these crosslinks position the non-template strand in a very similar place to that observed in the crystal structure (Zhang et al., 2012) (Figures 2E and 2F).

The trajectory of the single stranded portion of the template strand in our crosslinking-based model is also in good agreement with existing crystal structures. The crosslinks from Bpa substitutions at β G1261, β A1263, β Q1264, or β' K334 to singlestranded template strand DNA from -4 to +2 of *rrnB* con constrain the path of the template DNA in our model, matching the path in the structure (Zhang et al., 2012) (Figures 2E-2F). The crosslinks from Bpa substitutions at σ R436, σ R465, σ N461, σ R397, σ R448, β G1261, β A1263, β' D256, and β Q1264 to promoter positions -11 to -5 define the path of the upstream section of the

template strand bubble and are consistent with models and a crystal structure that position the template strand in a protein tunnel formed primarily by β and σ (Hudson et al., 2009; Murakami et al., 2002b; Naryshkin et al., 2000; Zuo and Steitz, 2015).

Crosslinks from RNAPs to double-stranded DNA upstream of the transcription bubble (e.g. from σ T552-Bpa to -38 and β 'T48-Bpa to -17 and -18 on the non-template strand and from σ T572-Bpa to -29 and β 'T48-Bpa to -20 and -21 on the template strand) are consistent with the crystal structure of the open complex (Zuo and Steitz. 2015) and the structure of s₄ bound to the -35 element DNA (Campbell et al., 2002). Our crosslinking–constrained computational model showed the expected close approach of the -35 hexamer to σ region 4.2. However, our model of this part of the complex did not replicate the precise path in the crystal structure, presumably because our program did not have the ability to deform double-stranded DNA.

We also built a crosslinking-based model of RP_O containing *rrnB* C-7G, another *rrnB* P1 variant, and we generated data from RP_O complexes containing two other promoters, λP_R and *lac*UV5. The latter crosslinking datasets were not as extensive as that for *rrnB* C-7G, but the data for all 3 were consistent with the data for *rrnB* con and the crystal structure (Figures S4, S5 and data not shown).

We conclude that our Bpa-crosslinking approach is able to identify sites of promoter-RNAP interaction at individual amino acid and nucleotide resolution in solution and that the Bpa-crosslinking approach provides a means of determining the path of DNA in transcription initiation complexes. Below we report a Bpa crosslinking-based model of the path of DNA in an intermediate for which there is limited structural information, a scrunched" complex that forms during the process of promoter escape.

A Stable Scrunched Intermediate Complex Forms on rrnB C-7G

In order to determine the precise locations of the DNA bulges in a scrunched intermediate (RP_{ITC}), we added limiting combinations of substrate NTPs to a series of promoters (*rrnB* con, *rrnB* C-7G, λP_R , *lacUV5*). Only *rrnB* C-7G formed a stable-enough RP_{ITC} upon addition of the initial substrates, ATP and CTP, to be useful for tracking the path of the DNA (Figure 3, S1, and data not shown).

The *rrnB* C-7G complex with ATP and CTP had the properties of an initial transcribing complex (RP_{ITC}). The DNaseI protection boundary of the RP _{ITC} extended further downstream than in RP_O (to +19 instead of +16; promoter numbering in RP_{ITC} is relative to the transcription start site in RP_O), consistent with the prediction that it should synthesize a 5-mer RNA with the sequence 5'-ACCAC-3' under these conditions (Figure 3A; Chandrangsu, 2012; see also Borukhov et al., 1993). Therefore, we refer to this complex as RP_{ITC5}. The upstream DNaseI boundary of this complex was the same as in RP_O (data not shown). Although the reactivities of template strand thymines to KMnO₄ at -10, -8 and -7 were the same in RP_{ITC5} and RP_O, the non-template strand thymine at position +6 was reactive to KMnO₄ in the presence of ATP and CTP but not in RP_O (Figures 3C, D). Taken together, the DNase I and KMnO₄ footprinting results suggest that 3 bp of DNA on both strands are pulled (scrunched) into the enzyme in RP_{ITC5}, thereby increasing the length of

the unwound region. These results are fully consistent with the n-2 rule (see above and Revyakin et al., 2006).

Because the RNAPs used for the crosslinking studies are mutants (they contain a Bpa substitution), we confirmed that they made normal RP_O and RP_{ITC5} complexes on the *rrnB* C-7G promoter. Thirty-two of the 33 Bpa-substituted RNAPs tested exhibited RP_{ITC5} footprints in the presence of ATP and CTP like WT RNAP (Figures 3E and S3). The remaining one, β G1261-Bpa, formed a mixture of RP_O and RP_{ITC5} .

Mapping of Crosslinks Reveals the Positions of the DNA Bulges Formed During Scrunching

The set of Bpa-RNAPs used to characterize RP_O were used to determine the path of DNA in the *rrnB* C-7G RP_{ITC5} complex (with the exception of σ T572-Bpa RNAP, which did not crosslink to *rrnB* C-7G). We also used 4 additional RNAPs with Bpa substitutions in the β 2 domain (β E379, β A380, β S383, and β N387) in order to map the path of the non-template strand more precisely between -5 and -1, creating a library of 36 Bpa-RNAP crosslinks for DNA path modeling purposes (Figure S4).

For each RNAP, primer extension was used to monitor the positions of the crosslinked nucleotides on each strand, as described for RP_O in Figure 2A. We expected three classes of primer extension patterns from comparison of the crosslinked positions in RP_{TTC5} relative to those in RP_O . (i) We predicted that formation of a 5-mer RNA should not change the promoter-RNAP interface upstream of the scrunched region so the crosslinks should be the same in RP_O and RP_{TTC5} . (ii) We predicted that crosslinks downstream of the bulges in RP_{TTC5} would involve the same RNAP residues as in RP_O , but they would map ~3 nt further downstream, reflecting the length of DNA pulled into the enzyme. (iii) We predicted that some DNA residues within the transcription bubble might form bulges that would crosslink to Bpa-RNAPs in RP_{TTC5} but not in RP_O .

Representative primer extension examples that displayed these predicted patterns are shown in Figures 4A and B. The crosslinking results for all 36 Bpa-substituted RNAPs are shown in Figure S4, summarized in Figure 5, and the crosslinks in RP_O and RP_{ITC5} are compared in Figures 4C and 4D. We inferred the precise locations of the bulges by determining which contacts are lost, maintained, or created in the scrunched complex.

On the non-template strand, RNAP-DNA crosslinks whose positions remained unchanged in RP_{ITC5} relative to RP_O were observed for 5 Bpa-substituted RNAPs (σ T552, β 'T48, σ W434, β E379, and β A380; Figures 4A, 5A), the most downstream of which were to DNA position -5 from β E379-Bpa and β A380-Bpa. Thus, the DNA bulge in the scrunched complex is downstream of -5 (indicated by the dotted red line in Figures 4D, 5A).

Crosslinks to the non-template strand in duplex DNA positions downstream of the transcription bubble were shifted downstream by \sim 3 bp (e.g. from β /R1148 and β /M1189; Figure 4A, lanes 5-6 and 7-8). Other downstream positions that displayed this characteristic shifted pattern in RP_{ITC5} vs RP_O are shown in Figures 5A and S4B. These results are consistent with DNA being pulled into RNAP during synthesis of the 5 nt RNA. Since the

last KMnO₄-reactive nucleotide in RP_{ITC5} is at +6 (corresponding to the second position after the end of the DNA-RNA hybrid, using the numbering for nucleotide positions in RP_O), the single-stranded bulge must include or be upstream of position +6.

We next mapped the bulge in RP_{ITC5} more precisely within the sequence between -4 to +6 on the non-template strand. Most importantly, β Y62 did not crosslink to DNA in RP_O, but it crosslinked to positions -2 to +1 in RP_{ITC5}, indicating that the locations of these DNA residues must have changed enough to come into the proximity of a new amino acid residue in RNAP (Figure 4D). Six other Bpa-substituted RNAPs (β R180, β S383, β N387, σ T395, β R394, β R201) crosslinked to nucleotides within the interval -3 to +3 in both RPo and RP_{ITC5}, but these Bpa residues also crosslinked to additional nucleotides, 1 or 2 positions downstream (Figure 4A lanes 3-4; in Figure 5A). The gain of additional crosslinked DNA positions without loss of the crosslinks in RP_O suggests that there is movement of these DNA positions relative to the enzyme. This pattern could reflect accessibility of multiple nucleotide residues in a single distorted scrunched state or alternative conformations of scrunched DNA in different molecules in the population. Taken together, these data suggest that the DNA region that bulges is from -3 to +3 on the non-template strand.

Four other Bpa-RNAPs crosslinked to positions -4 to +6 on the non-template strand in the *rrnB* C-7G promoter RP_{ITC5} complex and not in the RP_O complex (σ K392, β Q148, β R175, β R151). These crosslinks could be bulge-specific on the *rrnB* C-7G promoter like those formed by β Y62. However, we favor the interpretation that they reflect subtle differences in the open complexes formed by the *rrnB* C-7G and *rrnB* con promoters since, unlike β Y62, these 4 Bpa residues crosslink to the RP_O formed by *rrnB* con (Figure S2).

On the template strand, RNAP-DNA crosslinks from several Bpa-substituted RNAPs (e.g. β 'T48, σ R436, σ R465, σ N461, and σ R448; Figures 4B, 5B) remained unchanged in RP_{ITC5} relative to RP_O, the most downstream of which was to DNA position -7 from σ R448 (Figures 5, S4; boundary indicated by dotted red line in Figures 4D, 5B). Thus, the template strand bulge is most likely downstream of -7. Crosslinks were identified from Bpa residues at β 'Q1326, β 'K118, β K203, β H165, and β 'T212 to residues on the template strand downstream of the bubble in RP_O. These crosslinks were shifted downstream by ~3 nt in RP_{ITC5}, as observed for Bpa-RNAPs that crosslinked to the non-template strand (see above). These results constrain the downstream boundary of the bulge to +6.

Template strand scrunched complex–specific crosslinks further localized the bulged residues. Since the bulge is single-stranded, it must be upstream of +1, the start of the RNA-DNA hybrid in RP_{ITC5}. β A837 crosslinked to nucleotides -6 to -3 only in RP_{ITC5} (Figure 4B), consistent with the model that the bulge is bounded by residues -6 and the RNA-DNA hybrid starting at +1.

Four other Bpa-substituted RNAPs crosslinked to the region from -6 to -1 on the template strand (β Q1264, β 'D256, β A1263, β G1261) and showed crosslinking patterns consistent with DNA bulging. First, 2 Bpa-substituted RNAPs showed single nucleotide shifts in crosslinking that indicated that the DNA was distorted nearby (β A1263 and β 'D256, Figures 4B, 5). Second, RNAP containing a Bpa substitution for β Q1264 only crosslinked in RP_O

(predominantly to -6 to -4), indicating that template strand nucleotides -6 to -4 moved elsewhere in RP_{ITC5} (Figure 5B). [The Bpa-containing enzyme that only produced crosslinks in RP_{O} nevertheless formed RP_{ITC5} footprints (Figure S3), indicating that the absence of crosslinking did not result from an enzyme unable to form the complex.] Taken together, these data indicate that the DNA bulge on the template strand in RP_{ITC5} is somewhere between -6 and -1.

Model of RPITC5

We next computationally modeled the DNA path in RP_{ITC5} by using all crosslinked amino acid-nucleotide pairs shown in Figure 5 as distance constraints (see Experimental Procedures and Supplementary Methods), and we compared the resulting RP_{ITC5} model to the *rrnB* C-7G RP_O model (Figure 6). The resulting model depicts the DNA-protein interfaces within the scrunched complex. The trajectory of upstream duplex DNA, the path of non-template single-stranded DNA from -10 to -3, and the path of the template single-stranded DNA from -10 to -3, and the path of the template single-stranded DNA from duplex DNA does not change, but the identities of the downstream nucleotides that interact with the enzyme are shifted by 3 positions in RP_{ITC5} because the downstream DNA is pulled toward the enzyme (Figure 6A).

The non-template strand bulge in RP_{ITC5} is bounded by the crosslinks to position -5 from the Bpa substitutions at β E379 and β A380 on the upstream end in RP_O and RP_{ITC5} and to +7 from β R151 on the downstream end. The interaction of β Y62-Bpa in β 1 with the DNA bulge in our RP_{ITC5} model accounts for the most obvious difference in the path of the nontemplate strand DNA in RP_{ITC5} compared to RP_O (Figure 6B). In summary, the model illustrates how 3 extra nucleotides of non-template strand DNA can be accommodated between the β 1 and β 2 domains in the scrunched intermediate (Figure 6B).

For the template strand in our RP_{ITC5} model, the most obvious deviation from the path in RP_O is the bulge that includes nucleotides -6 to -1, which brings the template strand closer to β -flap residue β A837 (Figure 6D). Switch region residue β 'K334 approaches positions -1 to +3 in RP_O but approaches positions +6 and +7 in the scrunched complex, whereas residues at the entrance to the template strand tunnel (σ R436, σ R465, σ N461, and σ R448) are near promoter positions -8 to -12 in both RP_O and RP_{ITC5}. Thus, the template strand bulge occurs just upstream of +1, approaching the entrance to the RNA exit channel (junction of β ' lid, β flap, and $\sigma_{3,2}$ in Figure 6D) rather than the entrance to the template strand tunnel.

In summary, our model localizes the DNA bulges within a scrunched complex containing a 5-mer RNA, indicates that they differ in their relative positions on the template vs non-template strands, shows that the non-template strand bulge projects into the space between the $\beta 1$ and $\beta 2$ domains, and suggests that the template strand bulge in RP_{ITC5} is accommodated within the template strand tunnel rather than extruded at its entrance.

Discussion

We developed a crosslinking approach that defined the interfaces between RNAP and promoter DNA at amino acid and nucleotide resolution. Our crosslinking data for RP_O were consistent with available structural information, validating the use of our library of Bpacontaining RNAPs to analyze RNAP-promoter transcription initiation intermediates for which there is little or no structural information. We then used this library to analyze the path of DNA during initial transcription, thereby mapping the location of the DNA bulges in scrunched complexes. We found that the template and non-template strand bulges within the transcription bubble in the scrunched complex are different numbers of nucleotides from the -10 hexamer. Furthermore, although the non-template strand bulge appears to be extruded to the enzyme surface, the template strand bulge is accommodated entirely within the template strand tunnel, at least in RP_{ITC5} . Its location may have implications for the mechanism of promoter escape.

The Non-template Strand Bulge

In the initial transcribing complex, our data indicate that a bulge on the non-template DNA strand, including but not limited to DNA positions -2 to +1, interacts with β Y62 in RP_{ITC5}. The bulged region is downstream of the σ region 2.3, 2.4, and 1.2 interactions with the promoter and projects into the gap between the β 1 and β 2 domains. Because the space between β 1 and β 2 is accessible to solvent (Figure 6B), we suggest that the growing bulge in the non-template strand during early transcription can be accommodated without causing significant strain on the structure of the enzyme.

The location of the non-template strand bulge from positions -3 to +6 is consistent with a report that this region is deformable and becomes disordered when RNAP, in complex with a downstream fork-junction DNA, synthesizes a 6 nt RNA *in crystallo* (Basu et al., 2014). Our proposal that non-template DNA extrusion toward the enzyme surface would not create strain is consistent with the finding that introduction of a flexible linker into the non-template strand (thus potentially eliminating strain) does not affect promoter escape (Ko and Heyduk, 2014; Samanta and Martin, 2013). Furthermore, nicks in the non-template strand (thus reducing potential strain in promoter DNA) did not affect abortive synthesis, consistent with the model that non-template strand scrunching does not play a role in promoter escape (Samanta and Martin, 2013). Finally, we note that a relatively unstructured bulge extruded into bulk solvent could accommodate intramolecular base-pairing, pair with trans-acting regulatory RNAs, or interact with protein factors to increase or decrease the rate of promoter escape.

A Role for the Template Strand Bulge in Promoter Escape

The promoter specificity factor σ binds very tightly to core RNAP with region 3.2 ($\sigma_{3,2}$) threading through the RNA exit channel, a channel formed by the β -flap and β' -clamp domains (Figure 7). The presence of $\sigma_{3,2}$ in the exit channel was previously shown to be important for abortive transcription (Murakami et al., 2002a) and must be displaced at some point during productive transcription initiation. Structural studies suggest that the first 5 nt of RNA can be synthesized without clashing with the N-terminal portion of $\sigma_{3,2}$, but each

subsequent nucleotide addition would require movement of $\sigma_{3,2}$ to prevent clash between the growing RNA and $\sigma_{3,2}$ (Basu et al., 2014). It is still unclear how $\sigma_{3,2}$ moves and is ultimately displaced from the RNA exit channel. Furthermore, it is unclear precisely how RNA synthesis and DNA scrunching contribute to the displacement of $\sigma_{3,2}$.

It has been proposed that the growing RNA provides the force to displace $\sigma_{3.2}$ during initial transcription (Murakami et al., 2002a). We suggest here that the growing RNA may not supply the entire force. We show that the bulged DNA remains within the template strand tunnel upon formation of a 5-mer RNA and that the bulged DNA moves towards the base of the RNA exit channel. We suggest that impingement of the template strand bulge on the $\sigma_{3.2}$ - β flap- β' clamp complex might alter interactions between them, thereby contributing to displacement of $\sigma_{3.2}$. More specifically, this impingement could cause expansion of the RNA exit channel by favoring movement of the β' clamp and/or the β flap. Alternatively, the bulge could destabilize the interaction of the β flap with the region of the β' clamp domain termed the lid, which provides one of the major steric barriers to $\sigma_{3.2}$ displacement.

Thus, in contrast to the non-template strand bulge, we suggest that the template strand bulge plays a critical role in promoter escape. The concerted effects of the growing DNA bulge and the growing RNA on $\sigma_{3.2}$ within the RNA exit channel together might provide the energy for promoter escape (Kapanidis et al., 2006; Straney and Crothers, 1987) (Figure 7B-D).

Our data are limited to an initial transcribing complex with a 5-mer RNA. When RNAs longer than 5 nucleotides are synthesized, the bulge has to move, since the RNA-DNA hybrid would occupy the space accommodating the bulged DNA in our model for RP_{ITC5} (compare Figure 7B and 7C). As longer RNAs are synthesized, the bulge could continue to move towards, and into, the RNA exit channel where it could continue to play an active role in σ displacement (Figure 7C), or alternatively, as the length of RNA increases the bulge could be extruded out of the template strand tunnel into bulk solvent where it would no longer play an active role in σ displacement (Figure 7D). Distinguishing between these two models would require analysis of initial transcribing complexes with longer RNAs and thus larger bulges, but our attempts to identify stable complexes with RNAs longer than 5-mers have been unsuccessful thus far. We also note that the bulges likely are dynamic during the course of initial transcription, not at static locations corresponding to each single nucleotide addition. Our model of the positions of the bulges in RP_{ITC5} represents a highly occupied state of this complex, but not necessarily the only state.

During initial transcription, many promoters go through rounds of synthesis and release of short RNA products (abortives) prior to escaping from the promoter. It is possible that formation of a 5-mer represents a critical juncture in the decision to make abortive vs productive transcripts. However, the exact length and distribution of abortive products likely depends on the network of DNA contacts and the energetic barriers to continued elongation of nascent transcripts at a particular promoter (Hsu et. al. 2003)

During initial transcription by Pol II in eukaryotes, similar intermediates may occur. The complex appears to have a similar architecture, with a promoter specificity factor, TFIIB, like σ in bacteria, occupying the RNA exit channel. As in initial transcribing complexes in bacteria, bubble expansion has been reported (Pal et al., 2005). By analogy to our model for *E. coli* transcription, we suggest that bubble expansion and impingement of the template strand bulge on TFIIB might help displace TFIIB from the RNA exit channel and facilitate promoter escape.

Prospect

The approach described here can be used to map the interface between many nucleic acid binding proteins and their DNA or RNA targets. This approach is especially useful for providing structural information about complexes that are recalcitrant to crystallographic analysis, as well as for confirming that structures formed in crystals are relevant to complexes in solution. We are currently using the library of Bpa-substituted RNAPs described here to map the interfaces between RNAP and promoters in other transcription initiation intermediates, namely the closed complex and the complex that forms in the presence of the transcriptional regulator DksA (Rutherford et al., 2009), the 6S RNA-RNAP interface (Cavanagh and Wassarman, 2014), and protein-protein interfaces formed by core RNAP and alternative σ factors.

Experimental Procedures

Materials

Table S1 contains strain and oligo information for creation of amber stop codon (TAG) mutations for Bpa incorporation, and Table S4 contains other *E. coli* strain, plasmid, and oligo information. Plasmids were constructed using standard procedures for cloning and mutagenesis and were verified by DNA sequencing.

Expression and Purification of Bpa-substituted Proteins

Bpa was incorporated into core RNAP and core RNAP was purified essentially as described in Lennon et al., 2012. (see Supplemental Experimental Procedures). To incorporate Bpa into σ^{70} , DH10B cells were co-transformed with σ^{70} overexpression plasmid pRLG13105 (which codes for an N-terminal 10His-tag) or its derivatives and the plasmid coding for the amber suppressor tRNA and its evolved cognate tRNA synthetase. Cells were grown in LB with 1 mM Bpa at 30°, induced with 0.2% arabinose, and grown for 1.5 hr at 30°C before harvesting cells. σ^{70} and its derivatives were purified from cleared lysates using Ni-agarose affinity chromatography, followed by cleavage of the 10His-tag with PreScission protease (GE Healthcare), and Ni-agarose affinity chromatography. The flowthrough from the second Ni-agarose column was collected, concentrated, and exchanged into storage buffer (see Supplementary information).

Crosslinking

10 μ l crosslinking reactions were performed by incubating a Bpa-RNAP (40 nM) with promoter DNA (either 2 nM negatively-supercoiled plasmid, 2 nM linear PCR-produced DNA, or ~0.5 nM radiolabeled DNA fragment) in transcription buffer (10 mM Tris-Cl pH 8.0, 30 mM KCl, 10 mM MgCl₂, 0.2 mg/ml BSA, 1 mM DTT) for 5 min at 37°. Sample tubes were placed directly onto the surface of handheld UV lamp and irradiated with 15 W 365 nm UV light for 10 min total (10 cycles of 1 min UV-irradiation and 1 min of water bath incubation).

Primer Extension Mapping of Crosslinks

Crosslinked samples (2 μ l), or enriched crosslinked samples (see supplemental experimental procedures), were used as template in 12.5 μ l primer extension reactions that also contained 1.25 units of *Taq* DNA polymerase (NEB), 1X Taq buffer (NEB), 250 μ M of each dNTP, 2 M betaine, 5% DMSO, and ~1 pmol of radiolabeled primer (5910 to monitor crosslinks to non-template strand and 5853 to monitor crosslinks to the template strand). Reactions went through 18 cycles of 30 σ at 95°C, 30 σ at 53°, and 30 σ at 72°. An equal vol of primer extension reaction and loading solution (8 M urea, 0.5X TBE, 0.05% bromophenol blue, 0.05% xylene cyanol) were mixed, and 5 μ l was loaded onto a 40 cm, 9.5% acrylamide, 0.5X TBE, 7M urea gel, and electrophoresed for ~2.5 hr at 2000 V. Gels were dried and analyzed by phosphorimaging.

Structure Modeling

The structure modeling involved the minimization of a function that consisted of two parts: 1) the sum of the distances between each crosslinked amino-acid nucleotide pair and 2) the degree of overlap between DNA and RNAP atoms. Minimization of the objective function thus brought all crosslinked amino acid-nucleotide pairs as close as possible without generating clash between the DNA and RNAP. Details are provided in Supplemental Experimental Procedures.

Footprinting

DNaseI and KMnO4 footprints were performed as described (Bartlett et al., 1998; Newlands et al., 1991). See Supplemental Experimental Procedures for details.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

We thank Peter Schultz for the pSupT/BpF plasmid, C. Lennon, M. Bartlett, A. Didychuk for advice for advice on Bpa incorporation, crosslink mapping, and structure modeling, respectively, and R. Ebright, R. Landick, K. Wassarman, and J.D. Winkelman for comments on the manuscript. J.T.W. was supported by a Molecular Biosciences Training Grant from the NIH and by a fellowship from the Department of Bacteriology. Work in the Gourse/Ross lab is supported by NIH R37 GM37048.

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Highlights

- We report a high resolution method to define the DNA path in protein-DNA complexes
- The non-template strand bulge in scrunched promoter complexes is surface extruded
- The template strand bulge in the initial scrunched complex remains in the tunnel
- We propose that template strand bulge-RNAP clash aids σ ejection and promoter escape





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rrnB P1	
rrnB P1 C-7G	TCTTGTCAGGCCGGAATAACTCCCTATAATGGGCCACCACTGACACGGAA
rrn P1 con	TCTTGACAGGCCGGAATAACTCCCCTATAATGGGCCATTACTGACACGGAA

Figure 1. Identification of Bpa positions that crosslink to DNA

(A) Structure of *p*-benzoyl-L-phenylalanine (Bpa). (B) SDS-PAGE of protein lysates from cells with TAG mutations at codons 201 or 203 of *rpoB*. Full-length β was only observed when core RNAP was overexpressed in cells grown in medium containing Bpa. (C) The 152 positions where Bpa substitutions were constructed in RNAP are shown as yellow spheres on a structure of *E. coli* RNAP holoenzymes (Zuo et al., 2013; PDB 4JKR; see also Table S1). Note that the wild-type amino acids are illustrated, not Bpa. (D) Sequences of *rrnB* P1 and the two promoters utilized here because they form more stable complexes with RNAP. The -10 and -35 hexamers are in red, differences from *rrnB* P1 are in bold, and predicted start sites are indicated by bent arrows. (E) Representative SDS-PAGE gel showing a ³²P-labeled DNA fragment containing the *rrnB* C-7G promoter crosslinked to RNAP. Lane 1: no RNAP+UV. Lane 2: β 'T48Bpa-RNAP no UV. Lane 3: WT RNAP +UV. Lane 4: β 'T48Bpa-

RNAP + UV. (F) 50 positions in *E. coli* RNAP where Bpa crosslinked to DNA are shown as red spheres. Related to Table S1.



Figure 2. DNA Path in RP_O Determined by Bpa Crosslinking and Computational Modeling Agrees with RNAP-DNA X-ray Structures

(A) Schematic diagram of primer extension mapping of crosslinks to DNA. (B) Representative gel showing primer extension analysis using a primer annealing to the template strand. Lanes 1-4, sequencing ladder; lanes 5-11, extension products generated from crosslinks to the indicated Bpa-RNAP. (C-F) Surface representations of *E. coli* RNAP holoenzyme (Bae et al., 2013; PDB 4LJZ) with downstream fork-junction DNA (Zhang et al., 2012; PDB 4G7Z) in red ribbon (non-template strand DNA from -12 to +12 and template strand DNA from -4 to +12). The double-stranded DNA regions (blue ribbon) and single-stranded DNA regions (blue spheres) were positioned computationally using the crosslinks as constraints (see Experimental procedures). The *E. coli* RNAP and *T. thermophilus* RNAP coordinates from the PDB database were aligned, and the *T. thermophilus* RNAP was hidden from view. Residues in RNAP where Bpa substitutions crosslinked to promoter DNA are shown in orange and labeled. Labels of the Bpa residues

used in the experiment in panel B are boxed. σ is tan, α , β , β' , and ω are gray. The wild-type amino acids are illustrated, not Bpa. (C-D) Overall views of RP_O model rotated by ~90°. Box in (D) indicates area sh own in close-ups in (E-F). Expanded view of single-stranded DNA and downstream duplex DNA. (E) β' and σ^{70} are shown, but most of β is eliminated for clarity. (F) β is shown, but β' and σ are eliminated for clarity. The complex is rotated 180° from the view in (E). T emplate strand positions -12 to -5 were not present in this crystal structure. Model was generated from footprinting and crosslinking data provided in Figure S2 and Table S2. Table S3 compares the DNA-RNAP interactions in our RP_O model derived from Bpa crosslinking to those from the X-ray structure (Zhang et al., 2012). A few DNA positions are numbered for orientation purposes. Related to Figures S1, S2, and S5, and Tables S2 and S3.

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Figure 3. Formation of open and initial transcribing complexes at the *rrnB* C-7G promoter (A) Sequence and footprinting summary of complexes formed by the *rrnB* C-7G promoter. *rrnB* C-7G differs from wild-type *rrnB* P1 at only one position, a C to G change 2 bp downstream from the -10 hexamer (Haugen et al., 2006). Transcription start site (arrow). The -35 and -10 hexamers are in red. ACCAC (green): expected transcript formed with ATP and CTP. Thymines reactive with KMnO₄ in the absence (black asterisk) or presence (green asterisk) of ATP and CTP. Template strand region protected from DNase I in complexes formed with no ATP, CTP (RPo; black line) or with ATP, CTP (RP_{ITC}; green line). DNase I (B) or KMnO4 (C,D) footprints of complexes formed with or without ATP and CTP. Lanes 1, A+G sequence ladder. The DNA fragment was 3' end-radiolabeled on the template strand (TS) or the non-template strand (NTS). (E) DNase I footprints of RPo formed with wild-type RNAP (lane 3) or RP_{ITC5} formed with wild-type or BPA-containing RNAPs in the presence of ATP, CTP (lanes 4-11). Downstream edge of DNaseI footprints is at +16 for RPo (lane 3), or at +19 for RP_{ITC5} (lanes 4-11). Footprinting data for the other 26 RNAPs analyzed are in Figure S3.



Figure 4. Crosslink mapping localizes the scrunched DNA

(A, B) Crosslinks on the non-template (A) or template (B) strands from representative Bpa-RNAPs to *rrnB* C-7G in the absence or presence of ATP and CTP (RPo or RP_{ITC5}) were mapped by primer extension. Crosslinks to DNA upstream of the scrunched region mapped to the same positions in RPo and RP_{ITC5} (lanes 1 vs 2). Crosslinks to downstream duplex DNA were shifted by ~3 positions in RPo vs RP_{ITC5} (Lanes 5 vs 6, 7 vs 8). Novel crosslinks to portions of the transcription bubble in RP_{ITC5} reflect DNA positions altered by scrunching (lanes 3 vs 4; 9 vs 10). Bulged regions are indicated by red bars along gel lanes in A, B. (C, D) Schematic diagrams of results from panels A, B, and Figure S4. (C) Crosslinks in RP₀. Circles represent nucleotides, with crosslinked nucleotides coloredcoded to match Bpa-RNAP positions (squares) to which they crosslinks in RP_{ITC5}. Lines represent crosslinks between nucleotides and RNAP residues. (D) Crosslinks in RP_{ITC5}, but

nucleotides are colored as in RP_O to illustrate that some of their positions with respect to RNAP have changed in RP_{ITC5}. Non-template strand nucleotides downstream of -3 and template strand nucleotides downstream of -7 move with respect to RNAP in the transition from RP_O to RP_{ITC5}. Aqua nucleotides are within the non-template strand bulged region. Dark blue nucleotides are within the template strand bulged region. Green circles represent the 5 nt RNA made in the presence of ATP and CTP. Additional crosslinking data for the *rrnB* C-7G promoter are in Figure S4, and all crosslinking data are summarized in Table S2 and Figure 5.





1-19 20-39 40-59 60-79 80-100 to specific position

Figure 5. Summary of rrnB C-7G RPO and RPITC crosslinking data

Positions of crosslinks to the non-template strand (A) or the template strand (B) for each of 36 Bpa-RNAPs (listed to left of panels). β /T48-Bpa crosslinks to both strands. DNA sequences are shown above each panel. Crosslink positions in RPo (- A&C) and RP_{ITC5} (+A&C) are illustrated by blue-shaded bars for each crosslinked nucleotide position. The fraction of crosslinking for each position is indicated by color shading intensity (key at bottom of figure). Crosslink patterns for RP_O and RP_{ITC5} are identical for positions upstream of the red dotted line (i.e. upstream of the scrunched bulges), become different between the red and blue dotted lines (the region containing the bulge), and are shifted by ~3 nt downstream of the blue dotted lines (the region pulled into the enzyme after nucleotide addition). The data on which Figure 5 is based are shown in Figures 4, S4, and Table S2.



Figure 6. Computational Model of the DNA path in the scrunched complex $\rm RP_{ITC5}$ based on crosslink data

The model was constructed using an *E. coli* RNAP holoenzyme structure (Bae et al., 2013; PDB 4LJZ). (A) and (C) Two overviews of the RP_O and RP_{ITC5} models, rotated by ~180 degrees. (B) and (D) Expanded views of regions with proposed locations of non-template strand (B) or template strand (D) bulges in the scrunched DNA. In (B), the small diagrams show that the view in (A) has been rotated to view the enzyme from the β' side, and β' and σ are hidden. In (D), the view from (C) is rotated 90 degrees and then β is sliced (grey areas) to reveal the main channel. RNAP subunits are white, except β 1 is blue, β 2 is purple, the β flap is cyan, the β' clamp is pink, and the β' lid is dark pink ribbon. σ^{70} is tan, with region 3.2 in dark tan. Amino acid positions where Bpa substitutions crosslinked to DNA are in orange. Upstream or downstream duplex DNA is shown in ribbon form, and single-stranded residues are shown as spheres (blue for RP_O or red for RP_{ITC5}). The RNA 5-mer in RP_{ITC5} is green (position aligned using X-ray structure (Basu et al., 2014).



Figure 7. Models for $\sigma_{3,2}$ Displacement During Initial transcription

Core RNAP (gray), σ regions 2 and 4 (tan), $\sigma_{3,2}$ (brown), non-template DNA strand (light blue), template DNA strand (dark blue), RNA (green). The RNA exit channel is depicted as a tube composed of the β flap (cyan) and the β' clamp (pink). (A) RP_O. $\sigma_{3,2}$ approaches the active site and is then threaded through the RNA exit channel. (B) The template strand impingement model for RP_{ITC5}. The 5' end of the 5-mer RNA comes close to $\sigma_{3,2}$. The template strand bulge approaches the entrance to the RNA exit channel and disrupts β flap- β' clamp- $\sigma_{3,2}$ interactions. (C) The template strand impingement model for longer initial transcripts (RP_{ITC>5}). The template strand (TS) bulge continues into the RNA exit channel as the bulge is pushed upstream by the growing RNA-DNA hybrid resulting in further disruption of β flap- β' clamp- $\sigma_{3,2}$ interactions. This impingement, along with growth of the RNA chain (green), could help displace $\sigma_{3,2}$ from the RNA exit channel. (D) Template strand extrusion model for RP_{ITC>5}. As the RNA-DNA hybrid lengthens, the TS bulge is

extruded out of the TS tunnel into bulk solvent, and the growing RNA chain (green arrow) continues $\sigma_{3.2}$ displacement from the RNA exit channel (see Discussion). In C and D we do not mean to imply that σ is lost from the complex upon formation of a 5-mer, only that $\sigma_{3.2}$ is displaced during promoter escape.