## **EXTENDED DISCUSSION**

### **State of UvrA in pre-TCRC and TCRC**

The UvrA "tight dimer" has been described for a DNA-bound *activated* UvrA in complex with a nucleotide cofactor when it adopts a more stable dimer conformation<sup>1</sup>. In other settings, UvrA-UvrA appears to be in a transient state<sup>2,3</sup>. At low, more physiological, concentrations and without a cofactor, UvrA is predominantly *monomeric* in solution<sup>4</sup>. Notably, the available UvrA crystal structures were obtained using highly concentrated preps of UvrA bound to ADP (PDB ID: 2R6F)<sup>5</sup> and damaged DNA (PDB ID: 3PIH)<sup>1</sup>. Our XLMS analysis uncovers two separate RNAP-UvrA interfaces: (i) RNAP-UvrA1 interface near the β' jaw and C-terminus clamp arm, captured by XLMS *in vitro* and *in vivo* under normal growth conditions and (ii) RNAP-UvrA2 near the secondary channel, captured predominantly after genotoxic stress, which supports a second UvrA (UvrA2) bound to RNAP, as well as the UvrA1-UvrA2 dimer. The majority of RNAP-UvrA2 crosslinks were obtained *after* genotoxic stress. Although we cannot rule out a possibility that a fraction of pre-TCRC containing UvrA1-UvrA2 forms before genotoxic stress (it can certainly be the case), XLMS data in combination with the results of Fig.1c and Extended Data Fig. 2 support a model where most of UvrA dimerization *in vivo* occurs upon the transition from a pre-TCRC to a TCRC.

## **Effect of rifampicin on NER**

It has been shown previously that Rif can inhibit NER, although the extent of inhibition varied depending of the experimental conditions<sup>6,7</sup>. It is likely that Crowley and Hanawalt<sup>6</sup> failed to detect a near absolute inhibition of NER by Rif, as reported by Lin et al.<sup>7</sup> and by us here and in Martinez et al.<sup>8</sup> due to a low amount of the drug used (50  $\mu$ g/ml). This concentration is enough to stop *E. coli* growth, but not enough to stop all transcription. Moreover, the authors pre-incubated cells with Rif for only 10 min, which is not sufficient to saturate them with Rif. We used 750  $\mu$ g/ml of Rif for at least 40 min of preincubation. To illustrate the difference between "high" (750 µg/ml) and "low" (50 µg/ml) Rif on transcription and NER, we performed the experiments shown in **Extended Data Fig. 9.** Using RT-qPCR we show that there is an approximately 100-fold difference in "residual" transcription at a representative highly active gene (IPTG-induced *lacZ*) between cells treated with high and low Rif (**Extended Data Fig. 9a)**. Accordingly, quantitative CPD immunostaining shows that in contrast to high Rif, which prevented virtually any repair during 40 min of recovery from UV, low Rif still allowed much of the repair to occur (**Extended Data Fig. 9b**). These results explain the only partial NER inhibition by Rif in Crowley and Hanawalt<sup>6</sup>. It is hard to achieve a high intracellular concentration of Rif in Gram-negative bacteria, which is the reason why Rif is bacteriostatic (it is bactericidal in Gram-positive). We therefore used a very high dose of Rif to almost completely stop ongoing transcription, which resulted in nearly complete abolishing of NER. And because Lin *et al* used *ex vivo* nucleoid fraction, not intact bacteria, even a relatively low amount of Rif was sufficient to completely abolish repair<sup>7</sup>.

### **Pervasive TCR in** *E. coli*

In the accompanied paper, Martinez *et al*<sup>8</sup> have adopted a NGS assay, "CPD-seq", to monitor genome-wide NER in *E. coli* at a single nucleotide resolution. In accord with the present results (**Fig. 5**), Martinez *et al* demonstrated that the high doses of Rif severely suppressed NER in *both* the template strand (TS) and non-template strand (NTS). The effect of Rif was comparable to that

of *uvrD* and *uvrA* deletions. The intracellular levels of UvrABCD were not reduced during Rif treatment and the SOS response has a relatively minor effect on NER. These results mean that TCR occurs *everywhere* in the *E. coli* genome, including NTS (antisense) parts and intergenic regions, i.e. NER and TCR are essentially the same process, whereas GGR must be very inefficient, if it exists at all in *E. coli*. Thus, the traditional definition of TCR as the ratio between repair in TS vs NTS is *fundamentally* flawed, as both strands must be transcribed for NER to occur. It is the rate of local transcription that determine NER efficiency.

Martinez *et al* also explain *how* "NTS" and intergenic regions become accessible for transcription to permit NER in those genomic areas by uncovering a hitherto unknown mechanism of antitermination that becomes activated in response to UV stress and enables *global* transcriptional readthrough.

### **Role of backtracking in TCR**

UvrD-deficient cells are a million times more sensitive to UV than *mfd* cells (e.g. **Extended Data Fig. 1a**), yet they are somewhat less UV sensitive and less deficient in NER than *uvrA* cells (Fig. 4c)8 , suggesting that UvrD-mediated backtracking is critical, but not absolutely required for NER. The fact that the deletion of anti-backtracking *greAB* and *mfd* partially suppresses *uvrD* phenotype9,10, argues that spontaneous RNAP backtracking occurs at UV lesions *in vivo*, partially alleviating the necessity for UvrD. Furthermore, such spontaneous backtracking is promoted by ppGpp and Dks $A^9$ . The former is strongly induced upon genotoxic stress<sup>9</sup> whereas the latter competes with GreAB for the same binding site on RNAP (e.g. Molodtsov et al) $^{11}$ . These and other pro-backtracking factors (including NusA) are likely to contribute to UvrD-independent, but backtracking-dependent NER. It is also possible that with some probability the TCRC recognizes lesions and initiates NER on the spot, i.e., before any backtracking could occur. In this case, UvrD would be dispensable, but the elongating RNAP is still essential, serving as a scaffold for the NER complex assembly and delivery to the lesion site.

### **Role of Mfd in NER: a unifying model**

The traditional model of TCR postulates that (i) Mfd recruits UvrA to the lesions sites after terminating stalled RNAP; (ii) Mfd is necessary and sufficient for TCR in bacteria<sup>12</sup>. Although our results do not formally rule out the first postulate of the Mfd-centric model, they do demonstrate that Mfd-mediated TCR must be a minor auxiliary pathway, which is independent of the TCRC mechanism proposed in this study (**Extended Data Fig. 14; Movie 2**). The TCRC pathway appears to be responsible for most NER events in *E. coli*. To explain the effects of Mfd on NER, we propose an alternative model that accommodates and reconciles existing biochemical and *in vivo* evidence connecting Mfd to NER. In this model, UvrA of the pre-TCRC facilitates Mfd recruitment to DNA *in vivo*. Mfd then acts as a *cleanup* factor that removes obstructive RNAP molecules stalled in front of the pre-TCRC/TCRC, thereby facilitating the access of pre-TCRC/TCRC to damage sites (**Extended Data Figs. 15, 16; Movie 3**). This model explains the strand bias of Mfd observed *in vivo* and *in vitro* and the importance of Mfd interaction with Uvr $A^{8,13-15}$ . It also explains why the stimulating effect of Mfd on NER is noticeable early during the recovery phase with the most highly expressed genes, but not with mid- or low-expressed genes (**Fig. 5c,d**; 8,12), even though the repair of all those genes is still fully depended on ongoing local transcription (**Fig. 5**;  $8$ ).

### *UvrA-mediated recruitment of Mfd*

The function of Mfd as a TCR factor capable of recruiting UvrA to DNA was postulated based on *in vitro* observations<sup>15,16</sup>. Those experiments, however, did not demonstrate Mfd-mediated recruitment of UvrAB. Instead, they relied on excess of Mfd to "clean" DNA from pre-bound proteins, such as stalled RNAP, thereby providing UvrAB with more accessible DNA. However, the number of Mfd molecules per *E. coli* cell is at least 10 times smaller than the number of RNAP molecules engaged in elongation at any given moment (**Extended Data Fig. 2**; 17,18. Thus, Mfd must be always limited *in vivo*. Yet, the overexpression of Mfd renders cells more sensitive to UV and genotoxic agents<sup>9</sup> and drastically *inhibits* NER (**Extended Data Fig. 8b**)<sup>8</sup>. Furthermore, *mfd* deletion *suppresses uvrD/pcrA* phenotypes<sup>9,10</sup> and *reduces* mutagenesis<sup>19-23</sup>. These phenotypes are difficult to rationalize if Mfd were the TCR factor. Moreover, as Mfd interacts with elongating RNAPs indiscriminately and regardless of DNA damage<sup>17,24-26</sup>, the chances it can be rapidly recruited to a small fraction of RNAPs stalled exactly at the site of damage *in vivo* are negligible.

Our *in vivo* results show that it is UvrA of the TCRC that helps in recruiting Mfd (**Fig. 1d; Extended Data Figs. 15, 16**), not the other way around<sup>16</sup>. Indeed, it is the initial binding to DNA that unmasks the UvrA-binding domain of Mfd<sup>27,28</sup>. Interaction between Mfd and UvrA of the pre-TCRC may activate Mfd processive conformation<sup>27</sup>. Mfd would then translocate to the next stalled RNAP downstream of the TCRC (**Extended Data Figs. 16; Movie 3)** 24. By pushing/terminating multiple queuing RNAPs, even a relatively small number of Mfd molecules could "cleanup" DNA ahead of the TCRCs to facilitate NER (**Extended Data Fig. 16; Movie 3**) 24,25. This model explains why Mfd contribution is noticeable only at the most highly transcribed genes, where the congestion on DNA is the highest (**Fig. 5d) (Martinez et al., co-submitted)**29. It also explains why Mfd overexpression inhibits NER (**Extended Data Fig. 8b**) – too many Mfd molecules would inadvertently push/terminate pre-TCRCs. Mfd is also expected to facilitate post-repair transcription recovery by eventually pushing backtracked TCRCs forward after repair has been completed (**Extended Data Fig. 16; Movie 3**) 9 . Indeed, the role of Mfd in transcription recovery from UV stress has been demonstrated *in vivo*<sup>30</sup>. Note, that TCRCs are likely to be protected from Mfd by UvrD2, which interacts with the same  $\beta$  pincer domain of RNAP as Mfd does<sup>26</sup>. Once UvrD2 has been displaced, possibly by UvrB that also binds UvrD-CTD31 (**Extended Data Figs. 5 and 14; Movie 2)**, and the lesion is repaired, the complex becomes accessible to Mfd for a prompt recovery from its backtracked state (**Extended Data Fig. 16; Movie 3**).

### *Mfd as a "DNA cleaning" factor*

There is a difference in the rate of repair at the very early time points between  $\Delta mfd$  and wt (**Fig. 5**), which can be readily explained in terms of our model of Mfd, in which it functions as a DNA cleaning factor, not as a TCR factor *per se*. Note, the difference is *only* noticeable at the *highest* transcriptional output from pTet promoter ( $\geq 200$  ng of the inducer; **Fig. 5c,d**). Already at the 100 ng of the inducer, the NER difference between  $\Delta mfd$  and wt disappears, even though in both wt and  $\Delta mfd$  cells NER remained *fully* dependent on local transcription, as no repair can be detected without the inducer (**Fig. 5c,d**). These results show that Mfd contributes to NER only when a target gene is most highly transcribed, but not when transcription is less efficient. These results are consistent with our genome-wide results<sup>8</sup> where we show that Mfd accelerates NER of the most highly transcribed genes, but has no effect on the majority of genes that are less efficiently transcribed, and can even be detrimental to NER for many of those genes. Therefore, the net effect of Mfd on repair is very *modest* (matching its marginal NER phenotype), whereas most of TCR occurs independently of Mfd, as all those genes still *require* active transcription for NER to occur<sup>8</sup>.

If Mfd were to bring UvrA to the site of damage after terminating RNAP (the traditional model), it is unclear why Mfd would only contribute to repair of the most highly transcribed genes. As UvrA of the pre-TCRC/TCRC helps to recruit Mfd (**Fig. 1**), we propose a model where Mfd acts not as a TCR factor *per se*, but as a *cleanup* factor that terminates multiple RNAP in front of TCRC giving the latter an unimpeded access to the lesion sites (**Extended Data Figs 15 and 16**; **Movie 3**). This model appears to reconcile all the available findings and explains why Mfd acts early to accelerate repair of the most highly transcribed genes, where DNA clogging with multiple queuing RNAPs is most pronounced.

Of note, the mutations in Rho that compromise its transcription termination activity behave very similar to  $\Delta m f d$ : they compromise repair at the most highly transcribed genes, but improve repair of poorly transcribed genomic regions<sup>8</sup>. Rho has not been considered as a TCR factor, yet it behaves similarly to Mfd with respect to NER.

Although we cannot completely rule out a traditional model of Mfd as a parallel minor TCR pathway, in light of all the above-mentioned findings this traditional model seems highly unlikely. NER-related Mfd phenotypes (strand specificity and stimulation of repair at the most highly transcribed genes) can be explained by Mfd acting as a cleanup/termination factor, similar to Rho.

## *Role of Mfd-RNAP interactions in NER*

Mfd is а constitutively expressed protein that plays a housekeeping role as a general antibacktracking factor. For example, it normally rescues transcription elongation complexes at hardto-transcribe sequences32,33. UvrA is not needed for Mfd to act on backtracked or stalled RNAPs25,34. However, in case of pre-TCRC/TCRC, UvrA ensures Mfd to be recruited faster and to act immediately downstream of the pre-TCRC/TCRC, thereby establishing directionality and strand-specificity (**Extended Data Figs. 15 and 16)**. In our model, TCRC itself is protected from Mfd- (or Rho) mediated termination by UvrD2. Once recruited by pre-TCRC/TCRC, Mfd then interacts with multiple stalled RNAPs in front of TCRC, terminating them one by one, hence the UvrA-mediated enrichment of Mfd in the RNAP pulldowns post-UV (**Fig. 1d**). Note, that without UV damage, RNAPs won't be a subject to Mfd-mediated *termination*, as they are free to move to their natural termination sites unimpeded by CPDs. In other words, Mfd would not be able to catch up and interact with multiple unblocked elongating RNAPs, which explains why UvrA-mediated Mfd enrichment occurs only after UV stress (**Fig. 1d**).

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# **Supplementary Table 1. List of** *in vivo* **and** *in vitro* **crosslinks used for XLMS-guided docking**













# **Supplementary Table 3. Plasmids and oligonucleotides used in this study**



#### **Supplementary Table 4. Statistics of X-ray crystal structures**

\* Highest resolution shell is shown in parenthesis.