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3	<b>Cryo-EM structures reveal how ATP and DNA binding in MutS</b>
4	coordinate the sequential steps of DNA mismatch repair
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## 14 Abstract (186 of max 200)

15 DNA mismatch repair detects and removes mismatches from DNA reducing the error rate 16 of DNA replication a 100-1000 fold. The MutS protein is one of the key players that scans for mismatches and coordinates the repair cascade. During this, MutS undergoes multiple 17 18 conformational changes that initiate the subsequent steps, in response to ATP binding, 19 hydrolysis, and release. How ATP induces the different conformations in MutS is not well 20 understood. Here we present four cryo-EM structures of Escherichia coli MutS at sequential 21 stages of the ATP hydrolysis cycle. These structures reveal how ATP binding and hydrolysis 22 induces a closing and opening of the MutS dimer, respectively. Additional biophysical analysis furthermore explains how DNA binding modulates the ATPase cycle by preventing hydrolysis 23 24 during scanning and mismatch binding, while preventing ADP release in the sliding clamp 25 state. Nucleotide release is achieved when MutS encounters single stranded DNA that is 26 produced during the removal of the daughter strand. This way, the combination of the ATP binding and hydrolysis and its modulation by DNA enable MutS to adopt different 27 28 conformations needed to coordinate the sequential steps of the mismatch repair cascade.

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## 32 Introduction

DNA mismatch repair is an evolutionary conserved mechanism that removes mispaired 33 bases from the DNA after DNA replication. Doing so, it reduces the mutation frequency a 100 34 to a 1000-fold, preventing cancer and drug resistance. It also plays roles in regulation of 35 36 recombination, triplet repeat expansion and DNA damage signalling <sup>1,2</sup>. The repair process consists of a cascade of proteins that act sequentially. The MutS protein scans the DNA for 37 mismatches, and upon recognition recruits a second protein MutL. In Escherichia coli (E. coli), 38 39 MutL subsequently activates the endonuclease MutH that creates a nick in the newly synthesized strand on hemi-methylated GATC sites <sup>3-5</sup>. In other species, including eukaryotes, 40 the endonuclease activity resides in the MutL homologs themselves <sup>6,7</sup> and is directed to the 41 newly synthesized strand by the DNA sliding clamp ( $\beta$  or PCNA)<sup>8,9</sup>. In bacteria, the single 42 43 stranded nick then forms the entry point for the UvrD helicase, or RecD2 in some Bacillus species <sup>10,11</sup>, that with the aid of a 5'-3' or 3'-5' exonuclease will excise the newly synthesized 44 strand <sup>12,13</sup>. The removed stretch of DNA will then be resynthesized by a DNA polymerase and 45 the remaining nick sealed by a DNA ligase <sup>14</sup>. In the eukaryotic system the strand removal 46 process is less well understood but involves the replicative DNA polymerase  $\delta$  and exonuclease 47 EXO1 <sup>15</sup>. 48

Throughout this process, MutS is the master coordinator that initiates the subsequent steps 49 50 of the repair cascade. First, it scans the genome in search for a mismatch. Once it is bound to a 51 mismatch it undergoes a conformational change into a sliding clamp that recruits the second protein MutL<sup>16,17</sup>. In the clamp state, MutS remains on the DNA for prolonged times and only 52 releases the DNA when it encounters a DNA ends <sup>18,19</sup> or a ssDNA gap <sup>20,21</sup>. This way, MutS 53 54 molecules will remain present on the DNA until the mismatch has been removed and the repair process is terminated. Recently we have determined multiple cryo-EM structures of MutS on 55 DNA at different stages of the repair process, revealing the multiple conformations that enable 56

57 it to perform its different tasks <sup>22</sup>. ATP binding and hydrolysis are essential for MutS to switch between the different states <sup>23</sup>, but the molecular basis of these transitions and how they are 58 regulated remains unresolved. To gain insight into the ATP-induced conformational changes 59 60 in MutS we determined four structures of apo MutS at sequential stages of the ATP hydrolysis cycle: ADP-bound, ATP-bound, bound to a non-hydrolysable ATP analogue AMPPNP and 61 bound to the transition state analogue ADP-vanadate <sup>24</sup> (ADP-VO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> / ADP-Vi). These 62 structures show how an open MutS dimer in the ADP-bound form closes upon binding to a 63 single ATP but does not reach a hydrolysis competent active site in this structure. Only upon 64 65 binding of two triphosphate nucleotides the complete active site is formed that can hydrolyse ATP. 66

Additional biochemical analysis combined with the recently determined structures of DNA-67 68 bound MutS, explains how ATP and DNA binding work together to initiate the subsequent 69 steps of the repair cascade. During both the scanning of the DNA as well as mismatch binding, 70 the DNA keeps the ATPase domains in an open, non-catalytic state where the nucleotide 71 binding sites are free to exchange ADP for ATP. Two ATP molecules are needed to transform MutS into the sliding clamp conformation that recruits MutL. In this clamp state, the ATPase 72 73 active sites are completed and can hydrolyse ATP. However, the dsDNA itself keeps the nucleotide binding sites closed and prevents nucleotide release until MutS reaches a stretch of 74 75 ssDNA where the interactions with the dsDNA are lost. This enables the dimer to open up and 76 reset the ATPase site for a new round of ATP and DNA binding.

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# 78 **Results**

79 Structures apo MutS at sequential stages of the ATP hydrolysis cycle

80 In order to gain insight into the mechanism of ATP hydrolysis in MutS, we determined four cryo-EM structures of the MutS dimer in absence of DNA at sequential stages of the hydrolysis 81 cycle: 1) bound to two ADP molecules, 2) bound to one ADP and one ATP, 3) bound to two 82 83 AMPPNP molecules, a non-hydrolysable ATP analogue, and 4) bound to two ADP-vanadate (ADP-Vi) molecules, a transition state analogue (Fig. 1, Table 1, and Extended Data Figs. 1-84 4). The four structures were determined to a resolution of 4.8, 3.3, 3.4, and 3.7 Å, respectively. 85 86 All structures were obtained by incubating 4 µM MutS with 3 mM of the nucleotide for 5 min at 4 °C in buffer containing Mg<sup>2+</sup> before plunge freezing in liquid ethane. In the resulting cryo-87 88 EM data, we find that three of the four conditions show a single conformational state: an open 89 form for ADP<sub>2</sub> and a closed form for both AMPPNP<sub>2</sub> and ADP-Vi<sub>2</sub>. In contrast, in the sample incubated with ATP we observe both the open ADP<sub>2</sub>-bound form and the closed ATP:ADP-90 91 bound form indicating that under these conditions MutS can hydrolyse ATP.

92 In all four structures, the clamp domains are poorly resolved, indicating that in the absence 93 of DNA these domains are flexible. The flexibility is most pronounced in the structure of ADP-94 bound MutS, where the lever and clamp domains adopt different conformations that can be 95 discerned by negative stain electron microscopy (Fig 1i). The four structures show an increasing compaction going from the open form in the ADP<sub>2</sub>-bound state, to ATP:ADP-bound 96 state, to the most compact form in the AMPPNP<sub>2</sub> and ADP-Vi<sub>2</sub>-bound state that both adopt an 97 98 identical conformation. The transition from the ADP<sub>2</sub>-bound to ATP:ADP-bound is characterized by a 35° rotation of the two monomers towards each other around a pivot point 99 100 located at the interface of the two ATPase domains (Fig. 1j-k, Supplementary Video 1). It is noteworthy that the addition of a single PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> ion (from ADP to ATP) results in a dramatic 101 increase in resolution, from 4.8 to 3.3 Å, due to the more stable conformation MutS adopts in 102 the ATP-bound form. The ATP:ADP to AMPPNP2/ADP-Vi2 transition is the result of an 103 additional  $\sim 6^{\circ}$  twist of the ATPase domains along the axis of the helix at the bottom of the 104

105 ATPase domain (Fig. 11), resulting in a further closing of the nucleotide binding site (Supplementary Video 1-2). This second rotation would result in a clash of the mismatch-106 107 binding domains of the two monomers (Fig. 1m), which may be the reason that the connector-108 and mismatch domains in one of the two monomers rotate towards the ATPase domains (Fig. 1n, Supplementary Video 3). This rotation is identical to that observed in the ATP-induced 109 DNA-bound, clamp state MutS<sup>22,25</sup>. However, in clamp state MutS both monomers have 110 rotated the connector and mismatch domains. Of the four structures, only the ADP-bound state 111 112 is compatible with DNA binding, as the closing of the lever domains in the ATP and 113 AMPPNP/ADP-Vi bound structures blocks the entry channel for the DNA. This suggests that both monomers need to have hydrolysed ATP before MutS can bind DNA. 114

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### 116 Closing of the MutS dimer completes the ATPase active site for hydrolysis

Like all ABC ATPases, the MutS ATPase domains are composite active sites where residues 117 from both monomers are required for ATP hydrolysis <sup>26</sup>. The four structures presented in this 118 119 work illustrate how the two ATPase domains of both monomers come together to complete the 120 MutS active site during ATP hydrolysis (Fig. 2a). The completion of the ATPase active site is driven by the negative charge of the  $\gamma$ -phosphate in ATP that forms an attractive force to the 121 positive charge of the helix dipole <sup>27</sup> that is deposited via a serine (Ser668 in MutS) in the 122 opposing monomer <sup>28</sup> (Fig. 1j-k, 2f). In the open, ADP<sub>2</sub>-bound form, the nucleotide is exposed 123 124 and free to exchange with ATP molecules from solution (Fig. 2b). In contrast, in the closed 125 ATP:ADP-bound and AMPPNP<sub>2</sub>/ADP-Vi<sub>2</sub>-bound structures the nucleotides in both monomers are encapsulated and likely slowed down in leaving the active site (Fig. 2c). 126

In the ATP-bound site of the ATP:ADP structure the signature motif (GxSTF, residues 666670) <sup>29</sup> of the opposing monomer is further away from the tri-phosphate tail when compared to

the structure with AMPPNP and ADP-Vi (Fig. 2a). In addition, only weak density for Mg<sup>2+</sup> is 129 observed, indicative of a low occupancy (Fig. 2d). In contrast, in the structures of 130 AMPPNP<sub>2</sub>/ADP-Vi<sub>2</sub>-bound MutS the signature loop has moved closer to the phosphate tail of 131 132 the nucleotide in the opposing monomer and aids in the coordination of the magnesium ion that shows well-defined density (Fig. 2d-f). These two states of the nucleotide binding site (e.g., a 133 sub-optimal conformation in the ATP: ADP state and an optimal conformation in the AMPPNP<sub>2</sub> 134 135 and ADP-Vi<sub>2</sub> state) may be the reason for the bi-phasic ATP hydrolysis rate observed in stop-136 flow experiments on E. coli and Thermus aquaticus (Taq) MutS. Here an initial burst of ATPase activity is followed by a slower steady state activity <sup>30,31</sup>. It is possible that these two 137 rates represent an initial double ATP occupancy of the nucleotide binding sites that are optimal 138 139 for hydrolysis, followed by a slower rate that may be caused by an asymmetric occupancy 140 (ADP:ATP) that is less optimal for hydrolysis and dictated by the alternating ATPase domains 32. 141

142 The active site conformation of the AMPPNP<sub>2</sub> and ADP-Vi<sub>2</sub> structures are identical except for the position of the  $\gamma$ -phosphate that in the ADP-Vi<sub>2</sub> structure is replaced by the VO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> ion 143 that adopts a pentavalent coordination and has moved away from the β-phosphate, mimicking 144 145 a post-hydrolysis transition state (Fig. 2d). As the AMPPNP<sub>2</sub>/ADP-Vi<sub>2</sub> structures represent the hydrolysis competent form, we will discuss the nucleotide binding site in these structure in 146 147 more detail. The adenosine moiety of the nucleotide is held in place by Phe596 of monomer A (Phe596<sup>A</sup>) and His760<sup>A</sup> that stack on the base, while Asp616<sup>A</sup>, Lys620<sup>A</sup> and Thr622<sup>A</sup> of the 148 Walker A motif (P-loop, residues 614-622) bind the phosphate tail. The Mg<sup>2+</sup> is coordinated 149 by oxygens of the  $\beta$ - and  $\gamma$ - phosphate of ATP<sup>A</sup> and Ser621<sup>A</sup>. The three water molecules that 150 complete the octahedral coordination of Mg<sup>2+</sup> that are observed in the crystal structure of MutS 151 bound to a mismatch and ATP<sup>33</sup> are not defined in the cryo-EM maps but are compatible with 152 the position of Asp693<sup>A</sup> and Asp661 from monomer B (Asp661<sup>B</sup>, Fig. 2e-f). Asp661<sup>B</sup> can 153

154 complement the nucleotide binding site of monomer A due to the closing of the MutS dimer that also brings Ser668<sup>B</sup> in close proximity of the *γ*-phosphate of ATP<sup>A</sup>. Ser668 is part of the 155 signature motif found in ABC ATPases (sequence GxSTF<sup>29</sup>) and located immediately 156 upstream of a helix that is pointed with its N-terminus towards the nucleotide in the opposite 157 monomer. This helix deposits the positive charge of its helix dipole onto the negatively charged 158 phosphate tail of the nucleotide through Ser668<sup>B</sup> (Fig. 2f). With the reduced charge on the 159 phosphate tail and the proper coordination of the Mg<sup>2+</sup>, an activated water molecule can 160 perform a nucleophilic attack on the y-phosphate. It has been proposed that in the ABC ATPase 161 Rad50, the equivalent of histidine 728<sup>A</sup> can activate a water molecule to perform the 162 nucleophilic attack on the  $\gamma$ -phosphate <sup>34</sup>. This was corroborated by recent quantum mechanical 163 164 and molecular mechanical modelling of the ABC transporter HlyB <sup>35</sup>. Accordingly, in our structure His728 is well positioned to activate a water molecule as it is pointing towards the  $\gamma$ -165 phosphate of AMPPNP. Mutation of any of the residues in the ATP active site described above 166 results in a reduction or loss of ATPase activity (see Table 2). 167

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### 169 Two ATP molecules are needed to bring about clamp-state MutS

The structures of AMPPNP<sub>2</sub>-bound and ADP-Vi<sub>2</sub>-bound MutS show a large conformational 170 change of the mismatch and connector domain in one of the monomers (Fig. 1n) that is identical 171 to the conformational change observed in clamp-state MutS<sup>22,36</sup>. In the ATP:ADP-bound 172 structure however, this conformational change is absent suggesting that a single ATP bound in 173 174 the MutS dimer is not sufficient to generate enough force to displace the mismatch and 175 connector domains, which is consistent with the observation that in yeast MSH2-MHS6, both monomers need to bind ATP to transform it into a DNA sliding clamp <sup>37</sup>. To determine if this 176 is indeed the case, we measured the Förster resonance energy transfer (FRET) signal between 177

178 two fluorophores located on the connector domain (residue 246) of one monomer and on the ATPase domain (residue 798) of the opposing monomer (Fig. 3). Rotation of the connector 179 domain reduces the distance between these two residues and consequently will increase the 180 181 energy transfer between the two fluorophores. In the presence of ADP, we observe a low FRET signal as predicted from the distance in the ADP-bound structure (Fig 3). Similarly, in the 182 presence of ATP there is no increase in the FRET signal. In contrast, using the non-183 184 hydrolysable analogue AMPPNP we observe an increase in the FRET signal as expected from the predicted rotation of the mismatch and connector domain observed in the AMPPNP-bound 185 186 structures.

187 In the presence of mismatched DNA and ADP, we observe an increase in the FRET signal, 188 possibly due the reduced flexibility of MutS on DNA, compared to apo MutS that is highly flexible in absence of DNA (Fig. 1i). In the presence of mismatched DNA and ATP, we observe 189 190 a strong increase of the FRET signal, brought about by the formation of clamp state MutS in 191 which the mismatch and connector domains of both monomers have moved closer to the ATPase domains <sup>22,25</sup>. In the presence of DNA and AMPPNP we also observe an increase in 192 193 the FRET signal, although not as strong, possibly due to DNA-free MutS dimers that in the presence of AMPPNP are prevented from binding DNA (Fig. 1n). 194

195 Taken together, these results indicate that in the absence of DNA during steady state hydrolysis the MutS dimer binds only one ATP, consistent with the alternating ATPase 196 domains of MutS that have been observed in multiple species <sup>32,38,39</sup> and the slow steady state 197 ATP hydrolysis rate <sup>40</sup>. The single ATP occupancy in the MutS dimer is not enough to bring 198 199 about a conformational change. This is also observed in mismatch bound MutS that can exist with a single nucleotide triphosphate bound, but not with two<sup>41</sup>. Concurrently, in the cryo-EM 200 structure of clamp-state MutS, both monomers contain nucleotide triphosphate in their 201 nucleotide binding site <sup>22</sup>. Moreover, the binding to DNA may actually promote the binding 202

two ATP molecules that are needed to induce the conformational change into the clamp state:
the structures of MutS bound to homoduplex and mismatched DNA show the open
conformation of the ATPase domains <sup>22</sup> that allows for the free exchange with ATP, giving
MutS the possibility to load two ATP molecules. This is consistent with the fast release of ADP
from mismatch-bound MutS, but not from free MutS <sup>17,42</sup>

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#### 209 In clamp state MutS, dsDNA prevents nucleotide release from the ATPase active site

210 Upon mismatch and ATP binding, MutS transform into the sliding clamp, that remains trapped on the DNA but can freely slide on the DNA until it reaches a stretch of ssDNA or a 211 double strand break where it can dissociate <sup>18-21</sup>. How MutS is able to remain in the clamp state 212 on DNA for prolonged periods is not known. One possibility is that ATP cannot be hydrolysed 213 in the clamp state, thus keeping MutS in a closed state. However, comparison of the recent 214 structure of clamp state MutS on DNA <sup>22</sup> reveals that the position of the ATPase domains is 215 identical to that found in our ADP-Vi2 structure, which mimics a post-hydrolysis transition 216 217 state (Extended Data Fig. 4f). This implies that clamp-state MutS is able to hydrolyse and that 218 therefore it is not ATP that keeps the dimer clamped around the DNA, in agreement with recent observation that Taq MutS can hydrolyse ATP in the clamp state <sup>43</sup>. Instead, it appears that it 219 220 is the DNA that keeps the dimer closed. In the sliding clamp structure, the lever domains of the two monomers form an arc that surrounds the DNA duplex and interact with the DNA 221 backbone through numerous residues with a footprint of  $\sim 10$  base pairs (Fig. 4a-b). In this 222 223 conformation the ATPase domains are closed, and the nucleotides trapped in the nucleotide binding sites (Fig. 2c). Correspondingly, clamp-state MutS can only release the DNA at open 224 ends or single stranded DNA<sup>18-21</sup>. Large stretches of ssDNA are produced during downstream 225 226 events of the mismatch repair cascade through the action of A DNA helicase and DNA exonucleases, which are likely to be encountered by clamp-state MutS, in contrast to double 227

228 strand breaks, that are not known to play a role in mismatch repair. To measure the minimal 229 length of the ssDNA gap needed to release clamp-state MutS from DNA, we used bio-layer interferometry to measure the release from a DNA substrate containing a mismatch and 230 231 different sizes of ssDNA gaps in presence of 2 mM ATP (Fig. 4c). The dissociation rate of MutS clamps increases with the size of the single stranded gap, from 0.02 s<sup>-1</sup> on dsDNA or 232 nicked DNA until it reaches a plateau at 0.08 s<sup>-1</sup> at a gap of 10 nucleotides or longer (Fig. 4d-233 e). The ten-nucleotide gap is equal in size to the DNA footprint of the MutS dimer (Fig. 4b), 234 235 fitting with the notion that as the interactions with the dsDNA are lost, the dimer is no longer 236 able to remain clamped around the DNA and consequently falls off. Hence, by generating 237 ssDNA gaps, UvrD and exonuclease do not only remove the mismatch, but also generate a simple release mechanism for MutS that would otherwise remain trapped on the DNA. 238

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### 241 **Discussion**

### 242 DNA and ATP work together to coordinate the sequential steps of the repair cascade.

The four structures presented here provide a detailed view on the mechanism of ATP 243 244 hydrolysis and how the opening and closing of the dimer is at the core of the catalytic activity. 245 Combined with our recent structures of DNA-bound MutS during different stages of the repair 246 process <sup>22</sup>, these new structures reveal how ATP hydrolysis and DNA binding co-operate to 247 coordinate the sequential steps of the mismatch repair pathway. In the absence of DNA, the two MutS monomers freely open and close during ATP binding and hydrolysis (Fig. 5a). Due 248 249 to the alternating ATPase domains of MutS, only one ATP is bound by the dimer, preventing 250 it from assuming the most compact form, which is only reached with the non-hydrolysable ATP analogues AMPPNP or ATP<sub>γ</sub>S. When MutS associates with homoduplex DNA in search 251

for a mismatch, the DNA holds the dimer in an open form thus preventing ATP hydrolysis (Fig. 5b). In this open conformation, the two nucleotide binding sites are freely accessible enabling the loading of two ATP molecules. This open conformation of the ATPase domains is retained when MutS first encounters a mismatch. However, mismatch binding induces a small rearrangement of the clamp domains that acts as a licensing step that enable MutS to transform into the sliding clamp <sup>22</sup> but not before both monomers bind ATP.

This transformation into the clamp-state involves a ~160° rotation of the mismatch and 258 connector domains of both monomers a  $\sim 20$  Å translation of the DNA towards the centre of 259 the dimer as the lever domains cross each other firmly locking the DNA in the MutS clamp 260 (Fig. 5c)<sup>22</sup>. In the clamp state, the ATPase active sites are compatible with ATP hydrolysis, 261 262 yet due to the interactions between the MutS lever domains, the two monomers cannot open 263 up, presumably keeping the ADP-Pi trapped in the nucleotide binding site and preventing the ATPase cycle to continue. Only when MutS encounters ssDNA, generated by UvrD and 5'-3' 264 265 or 3'-5' exonucleases during excision of the newly synthesized strand it is able to release itself 266 from the DNA and resume the hydrolysis cycle.

Thus, as the repair process continues, the size of the ssDNA is increased towards the mismatch, reducing the time that MutS molecules reside on the DNA, until the mismatch is removed and no more loading of MutS molecules takes place. Due to the low processivity of UvrD in the absence of MutS and MutL, the excision of the DNA will soon cease after the removal of a mismatch leaving the DNA open to be resynthesized by a DNA polymerase, completing the repair process.

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285	Author contributions
286	M.H.L. and A.B. conceived the overall experimental design; A.B. prepared samples,
287	collected and processed cryo-EM data; A.B. purified proteins and performed BLI experiments.
288	V.K. performed FRET experiments; A.B. and M.H.L. wrote the manuscript with contributions
289	from all authors.
290	
291	Competing interests
292	The authors declare no competing interest.
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297	Methods

298 Materials

All chemicals were purchased from Sigma Aldrich, unless indicated otherwise. Allchromatography columns were purchased from Cytiva.

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### **302 Protein Expression and Purification**

The dimeric version of E. coli MutS, R840E <sup>36</sup> was cloned into vector pETNKI-his3C-LIC-303 amp<sup>44</sup>. Plasmids were transformed in *E. coli* BL21(DE3) pLysS cells and plated onto LB-agar 304 305 with 50  $\mu$ g/ml chloramphenicol and 100  $\mu$ g/ml ampicillin. All the colonies were scraped from the plate and distributed over 6 x 500 ml Terrific Broth supplemented with 50 µg/ml 306 307 chloramphenicol, 100 µg/ml ampicillin, 1 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub> and 1% glucose. Cells were grown at 308  $37^{\circ}$ C to OD<sub>600</sub> ~7, diluted with 1 volume Terrific Broth and induced with a final concentration of 1 mM isopropyl 1-thio-β-D-galactopyranoside (IPTG) for 2 hrs at 30 °C. The proteins were 309 purified using a modified procedure from <sup>45</sup>. All subsequent steps were performed using basic 310 buffer (25 mM Hepes pH 7.5, 5mM MgCl2, 2 mM DTT) supplemented with NaCl or Imidazole 311 as indicated. 312

313 Harvested cells were resuspended in basic buffer with 500 mM NaCl and 10 mM imidazole and lysed by sonication, followed by centrifugation at 14k x g. The supernatant was injected 314 315 onto a 5 ml HisTrap HP column and eluted with a gradient to 500 mM Imidazole in basic buffer 316 with 500 mM NaCl. Pooled fractions where diluted in ten volumes of basic buffer, injected 317 onto 5 ml HiTrap Heparin column and eluted with a gradient to 1 M NaCl in basic buffer. Pooled fractions were concentrated and injected into a gel filtration column Superdex 200 318 319 16/600 equilibrated in basic buffer with 100 mM NaCl. Pooled fractions were injected onto a 5 ml HiTrap Q column equilibrated in the same buffer and eluted with a gradient to 1M NaCl 320 321 in basic buffer.

## 323 Cryo-EM sample preparation and imaging

324 Purified MutS was diluted to 4 µM in 20 mM Tris pH 8.5, NaCl 150 mM, 5mM MgCl2, 2 325 mM DTT and 0.01% (w/v) Tween 20. The diluted protein was incubated with 3 mM of either ADP, ATP, AMPPNP or ADP-Vi. Cu R1.2/1.3 or R2/1 holey carbon grids (Quantifoil, 326 327 Groslöbichau, Germany) were glow discharged at 25 mA for 45 seconds using an Emitech 328 K950 apparatus (Quorum, Laughton, United Kingdom). 3 µl of MutS-nucleotide sample were 329 adsorbed onto glow-discharged grids and blotted for 1 second at 80% humidity at 4°C and flash 330 frozen in liquid ethane using an EM GP plunge freezer (Leica). All cryo-EM data was collected 331 at the The Netherlands Center for Electron Nanoscopy (NeCEN). The grids were loaded into a Titan Krios (FEI) electron microscope operating at 300 kV with a K2 or K3 direct electron 332 detector equipped with a Bioquantum energy filter (Gatan, Pleasonton USA). The slit width of 333 the energy filter was set to 20 eV. Images were recorded with EPU software (Thermo Fisher 334 335 Scientific) in counting mode. Dose, magnification and effective pixel size are detailed in Table 336 1.

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### 338 Cryo-EM image processing

All image processing was performed using Relion 3.1  $^{46}$  . The images were drift corrected 339 using Relion's own (CPU-based) implementation of the UCSF Motioncor2 program, and 340 defocus was estimated using gCTF<sup>47</sup>. LoG-based auto-picking was performed on a subset of 341 342 micrographs and picked particles where 2D classified. Selected classes from the 2D classification were used as references to autopick particles from the full data sets. After two or 343 344 three rounds of 2D classification, classes with different orientations were selected for initial model generation in Relion. The initial model was used as reference for 3D classification into 345 different classes. The selected classes from 3D classification were subjected to 3D auto 346

refinement. The defocus values were further refined using CTF Refinement in Relion followed 347 by Bayesian polishing. Another round of 3D auto refinement was performed on these polished 348 particles. The density for MutS ADP-Vi was improved by using focused classification without 349 350 image alignment. All maps were post-processed to correct for modulation transfer function of the detector and sharpened by applying a negative B factor, as determined automatically by 351 Relion. A soft mask was applied during post processing to generate FSC curves to yield maps 352 of average resolutions of 3.4 Å for MutS AMPPNP, 4.8 Å for MutS ADP, 3.8 Å for MutS 353 ADP-Vi and 3.3 Å for MutS ATP. 354

Model building was performed using Coot<sup>48</sup>, REFMAC5<sup>49</sup>, the CCPEM-suite<sup>50</sup> and Phenix 355 <sup>51</sup>. For the ATP:ADP, AMPPNP<sub>2</sub> and ADPVi<sub>2</sub> structures we could build detailed model into 356 357 the high-resolution maps, while for the ADP<sub>2</sub> was limited to rigid body fitting of existing 358 structures and restrained refinement with REFMAC. Details on model refinement and 359 validation are in Table 1. In brief, model building started by rigid-body fitting known crystal 360 structures (PDB 1E3M and PDB 5AKB) into the different maps using Coot. Next, we carried out one round of refinement in Refmac5 using jelly-body restraints, and the model was further 361 adjusted in Coot. After initial refinement, we generated improved-resolution EM maps using 362 the SuperEM method <sup>52</sup>, which aided in model building and refinement. A final refinement 363 364 round and validation of the model and data were carried out using Refmac5 with proSmart 365 restraints within the CCPEM suite, with additional model validation using MolProbity within Phenix. 366

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## **368** Negative stain EM sample preparation and imaging

Purified MutS was diluted to 0.04 μM in 20 mM Tris pH 8.5, NaCl 150 mM, 5mM MgCl2,

370 2mM DTT, 0.01% Tween20 and 1 mM ADP. Grids were glow discharged 60 seconds at 25

371 mA using an EMITECH K950 apparatus. Three µl of sample were absorbed to glowdischarged carbon-coated copper grids (C-Flat200-CU) and incubated for 30 s, before being 372 partially blotted. The grids were sequentially stained with three µl of 2.3% uranyl acetate, 373 incubated for 30 s and then blotted dry. Micrographs were collected on an FEI Tecnai Biotwin 374 electron microscope equipped with a LaB6 filament and operated at 120 kV and 49,000× 375 nominal magnification. The total dose was 20 e-/Å2 and the defocus values ranged from -0.5 376 377 to -3.0 µm. Images were collected with a FEI Eagle 4k x 4K CCD camera with final pixel size 378 of 4.44 Å.

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### 380 Negative stain image processing

All image processing was performed using Relion 3.1 <sup>46</sup>. Contrast transfer function estimation was performed with CTFFIND4.1 <sup>53</sup>. A small set of particles were manually picked, 2D classified and used as references for the auto picking procedure. 7845 particles were extracted from a total of 73 micrographs. The extraction procedure was performed without inverting contrast. Extracted particles were subjected to reference-free 2D average without performing CTF correction.

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## 388 Biolayer Interferometry DNA substrates

Six different DNA substrates with different gap lengths were prepared for the assays (Supplementary Table 1). The substrates were prepared as follows: monovalent streptavidin and a 5' biotinylated primer were mixed in a 1:1 ratio at a nominal concentration of 20 µM and purified via analytical gel filtration using a Superdex 200 increase (3.2/30) column (Cytiva) equilibrated in Tris 10 mM pH 8.0, NaCl 50 mM, EDTA 1mM. Fractions containing biotinylated primer were mixed with the 5' biotinylated DNA template to create the final DNA 395 substrate. The efficient annealing of primer and template was confirmed with a 15% 396 polyacrylamide 0.5 x Tris Borate EDTA gel. Annealed substrates were stored at -20°C at a 397 concentration of 5  $\mu$ M.

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### **399 Biolayer Interferometry DNA assay**

Association and dissociation kinetics between MutS and DNA were observed using the 400 401 Octet RED96 (Sartorius, Göttingen, Germany). All interactions studies were performed with 402 Streptavidin biosensors (Sartorius, Göttingen, Germany) conjugated to the biotinylate DNA 403 substrates. All the experiments were performed in the following buffer: Hepes 25 mM pH 7.5, NaCl 150 mM, MgCl2 5mM, DTT 2mM, BSA 0.5 mg/ml, Tween 20 0.01%. The DNA 404 substrates were added in the loading step at 100 nM, until the threshold value of 0.36 nm was 405 406 reached. The association step was performed with MutS 200 nM in presence of 2 mM ATP. 407 The dissociation step was performed in buffer with 2mM ATP. Kinetic analysis were 408 performed using the Octet Data Analysis software package version 7.1.

409

#### 410 FRET assay

Förster Resonance Energy Transfer (FRET) between labelled connector domain of one 411 subunit and the ATPase domain of the other subunit was measured using heterodimeric MutS 412 dimers similar as described before  $^{36}$ . For labelling, proteins were diluted to 40  $\mu$ M in 150  $\mu$ l 413 of buffer (10 mM HEPES/KOH (pH 8.0), 200 mM KCl and 1 mM EDTA) and labelled with a 414 5-fold molar excess of Alexa Fluor 488 maleimide or Alexa Fluor 647 maleimide (Invitrogen, 415 Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) for 2 hours on ice in the dark according to the 416 417 manufacturer's instruction. Excessive dye was removed using Zeba Spin Desalting columns 418 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA). The degree of labelling was determined from the

419 absorbance spectra recorded from 220-700 nm (nanodrop) according to the manufactures instructions as described previously  $^{36}$ . Heterodimers were allowed to form by mixing 10  $\mu$ M 420 of MutS798C labelled with Alexa Fluor 488 and MutS246C labelled with Alexa Fluor 647, 421 422 and incubation on ice for at least 1.5 hours in the absence of nucleotides in buffer (25 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.5, 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 150 mM KCl, and 0.05 % (v/v) Tween 20). Aliquots of 423 424 the reaction were flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C. A 30-bp DNA substrate with a central G:T mismatch was prepared by annealing T-strand (5' 425 dig-426 AATTGCACCGAGCTTGATCCTCGATGATCC-dig 3') with G-strand (5' 427 GGATCATCGAGGATCGAGCTCGGTGCAATT 3'). Underlines mark the G:T mismatch. The T-strand contains digoxigenin on either side, so that both DNA ends are blocked with 200 428 429 nM anti-digoxigenin Fab fragments (Roche Diagnostics, F. Hoffmann-La Roche Ltd, 430 Switzerland)

MutS heterodimers (50 nM monomer) were pre-incubated in 200 µl of FB150 buffer (25
mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.5, 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 150 mM KCl, and 0.05 % (v/v) Tween 20) in 96well plates at room temperature for 120 seconds. Next, 50 nM of the G:T DNA substrate was
added, followed by addition of 1 mM ATP, ADP, or AMPPNP (Jena Bioscience,
Jena, Germany, and AMPPNP from Sigma-Aldrich).

FRET was determined by measuring the fluorescence signals in microplate reader (TECAN
infinite F200, Tecan Group Ltd, Switzerland) before and 10 minutes later after the addition of
the dNTPs. Fluorescence signals were measured in three channels (donor, acceptor, FRET)
with the following filter combinations: (donor ex. 450 nm (width 20 nm) em. 535 nm (width
25 nm), acceptor ex. 620 nm (width 10 nm) em. 670 nm (width 25 nm), FRET ex. 485 nm
(width 20 mm) em. 670 nm (width 25 nm) filter.

Table 1   Cryo-EM data collection, refinement and validation statistics					
	ADP	ATP:ADP	AMPPNP	ADP-Vi	
Data collection and processing					
Magnification	x130,000	x105,000	x130,000	x130,000	
Voltage (kV)	300	300	300	300	
Electron exposure e <sup>-</sup> /Å <sup>2</sup>	57	54	54	34	
Defocus range (µm)	-1 to -2.5	-0.5 to -2	-1 to -2.5	-0.5 to -2	
Pixel size (Å)	1.06	0.866	1.06	0.66	
Symmetry imposed	C1	C1	C1	C1	
Initial particle images (no)	110,730	527,979	294,231	496,416	
Final particle images (no)	41,730	151,672	147,899	81,316	
Map resolution (Å)	4.8	3.3	3.4	3.8	
FSC threshold	1.43	1.43	1.43	1.43	
Map resolution range (Å)	4.5 to >10.7	3.3 to >4.8	3.4 to >4.3	3.7 to >6.9	
Refinement					
Initial model used (PDB code)	1E3M	AMPPNP	1E3M	AMPPNP	
Model resolution (Å)	7.8	3.6 3.4		4.0	
FSC threshold	0.5	0.5 0.5		0.5	
Map sharpening B factor (Å <sup>2</sup> )	-50	-80 -80		-70	
Model comparison					
Nonhydrogen atoms	10338	10955	10336	10800	
Protein residues	1320	1393	1318	1373	
B factors (Å <sup>2</sup> )					
Protein	35-159	35-337	34-307	21-306	
r.m.s deviations					
Bond lengths (Å <sup>2</sup> )	0.013	0.012	0.014	0.013	
Bond angles (°)	1.552	1.492	1.783	1.627	
Validation					
MolProbity score	1.20	1.31	1.16	1.26	
Clashscore	4.19	5.73	3.71	4.94	
Poor rotamers (%)	0.09	0.96	0.00	0.09	
Ramachandran plot					
Favored (%)	98.46	98.39	98.46	97.64	
Allowed (%)	1.46	1.61	1.46	2.36	
Disallowed (%)	0.08	0.00	0.08	0.00	

Table 2   Effect of mutations on the ATPase activity of E. coli MutS				
Mutation	<b>Reduction (fold)</b>	Reference		
Phe596Ala	2	Yang 2001		
Lys620Ala	26	Haber 1991		
Asp661Ala	1	Acharya 2008		
Ser668Ala	4	Lamers 2004		
Asn616Ala	5	Lamers 2004		
His728Ala	25	Lamers 2004		
Asp693Ala	22	Yang 2001		

Reduction in ATPase activity compared to wild type MutS.

#### 445

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**Fig. 1** | **Structures of MutS at sequential steps of the ATP hydrolysis cycle.** Cryo-EM maps of **a**, ADP-bound MutS, **b**, ATP-bound MutS, **c**, AMPPNP-bound MutS and **d**, ADP-Vi-bound MutS. Monomer A is shown in green, monomer B in blue. Transparent outlines show the same cryo-EM maps at lower contour level. **e-h**, Models of ADP, ATP, AMPPNP, and ADP-Vi bound MutS. Grey ribbon part of the models indicate approximate position of the missing clamp and lever domains that are poorly defined in the cryo-EM map. A central helix in the connector domain (residues 231 to 248) is colored in orange, with N- and C-termini colored in blue and red, respectivily. **i**, Negative stain 2D classes of ADP-bound MutS showing the flexibility of the MutS dimer. **j-k**, Transition of the ATPase domains from ADP<sub>2</sub> to ATP:ADP-bound MutS that is a result of a 35° rotation of the two monomers. Yellow arrows indicate helix dipole that is attracted by the negative charge of the triphosphate in the opposite monomer. **k**, Transition of the AMP-PNP<sub>2</sub>-bound MutS without the movement of the mismatch and connector domain. The red star indicated the clash the between mismatch binding domain of monomer A (coloured green) and monomer B. (coloured grey). Core domain and ATPasee domain omitted for clarity. **n**, The rotation of mismatch and connector domain circumvents the clash with monomer A.



**Fig. 2** | **Closing of the MutS dimer completes the ATPase active site. a**, Movement of the signature loop and helix of monomer B towards the nucleotide in monomer A. Monomer A in green, with AMPPNP and residues Asp661 and Ser668 shown as sticks. Monomer B in dark blue (ADP-bound), light blue (ATP-bound), and pale blue (AMPPNP-bound). b, Surface representation of nucleotide binding site of ADP<sub>2</sub>-bound MutS. Monomer A in green, monomer B in blue, and ADP molecule shown in sticks. **c**, Same representation for ATP:ADP-bound MutS. **d**, Close up of the cryo-EM maps at the nucleotide binding sites in ADP<sub>2</sub>-, ATP:ADP-, AMPPNP<sub>2</sub>-, and ADP-Vi<sub>2</sub>-bound state. The dashed curved line show the boundary of the electron density map in the ADP-Vi<sub>2</sub>-bound state. **e**, Close up of the composite ATP binding site showing the interactions with AMPPNP. Interacting residues are shown in yellow sticks and hydrogen bonds shown as dashed lines. Green stars mark predicted position of water molecules **f**, 90° rotation of the view shown in panel e.



**Fig. 3 | Two ATPs are needed for the MutS clamp formation. a-c**, Structures of ADP<sub>2</sub>, ATP:ADP, and AMP-PNP<sub>2</sub>-bound MutS. Position of residues 246 and 798 are shown in red and green spheres, respectivily. **d-f**, Structures of DNA-bound MutS in presence of ADP, ATP, and AMPPNP<sup>22</sup>. **g**, Förster Resonance Energy Transfer (FRET) values between flurorescently labeled residues 246 and 798 in the presence of different nucleotides and DNA. Higher FRET values indicate a closer distance.



**Fig. 4 | Release of MutS from DNA at a single stranded gap. a**, Close-up of the protein-DNA interaction in the clamp state of MutS. Arginines and lysines that contact the DNA are shown in yellow sticks. **b**, Footprint of clamp-state MutS dimer on DNA covers 10 base pairs. **c**, Schematic representation of different DNA oligos used in the DNA release experiment. **d**, Association and dissociation of MutS on different DNA substrate in the presence of 2 mM ATP as measured by bio-layer interferometry. **e**, Dissocation rates derived from the binding curves shown in panel d. Dots mark rates calculated from three independent experiments.



**Fig. 5** | **ATP and DNA co-operate to create sequential steps of the repair cascade.** Cartoon style respresentation of the different steps of the DNA mismatch repair cascade derived from current and recent cryo-EM work. Red dots indicate structures presented in this work. Blue dots indicate cryo-EM structures presented in previous work <sup>22</sup>. Red circle indicate predicted structure based on data presented in Fig. 4. a, In absence of DNA, the two monomers can freely close and open upon ATP binding and hydrolysis. **b**, When bound to homoduplex DNA the MutS dimer can no longer close and is thereofore not able to hydrolyse ATP (indicated with faded cartoon). The open form of MutS on DNA can freely exchange ADP for ATP. c, Upon mismatch binding, MutS transforms into a sliding clamp that can hydrolyse ATP but is locked by double stranded DNA. Only upon encountering single stranded DNA, MutS can dissociate from the DNA and return to the open, ADP-bound form that can re-bind a new DNA substrate.



**Extended Data Fig. 1 | CryoEM data analysis of ADP bound MutS. a**, Representativ micrograph. **b**, 2D class averages from full dataset. **c**, Schematic representation of main data processing procedures. See methods section for more details. **d**, Fourier Shell Correlation between half-maps from subsequent refinements in the processing procedures. **e**, Detail of model fit to map. **f**, Final map obtained applying SuperEM code to Relion post-processed map. **g**, final map colored by local resolution. **h**, Orientation distribution in final set of refined particles.



**Extended Data Fig. 2 | CryoEM data analysis of ADP-ATP bound MutS. a**, Representativ micrograph. **b**, 2D class averages from full dataset. **c**, Schematic representation of main data processing procedures. See methods section for more details. **d**, Fourier Shell Correlation between half-maps from subsequent refinements in the processing procedures. **e**, Detail of model fit to map. **f**, Final map obtained applying SuperEM code to Relion post-processed map. **g**, final map colored by local resolution. **h**, Orientation distribution in final set of refined particles.



**Extended Data Fig. 3 | CryoEM data analysis of ANPPNP bound MutS. a**, Representativ micrograph. **b**, 2D class averages from full dataset. **c**, Schematic representation of main data processing procedures. See methods section for more details. **d**, Fourier Shell Correlation between half-maps from subsequent refinements in the processing procedures. **e**, Detail of model fit to map. **f**, Final map obtained applying SuperEM code to Relion post-processed map. **g**, final map colored by local resolution. **h**, Orientation distribution in final set of refined particles.



**Extended Data Fig. 4 | CryoEM data analysis of ADP-Vi bound MutS. a**, Representativ micrograph. **b**, 2D class averages from full dataset. **c**, Schematic representation of main data processing procedures. See methods section for more details. **d**, Fourier Shell Correlation between half-maps from subsequent refinements in the processing procedures. **e**, Detail of model fit to map. **f**, Superimposition of nucleotide binding domains of MutS in ADP-Vi conformation and MutS in sliding clamp MutL bound conformation (**Fernandez-Leiro 2021**). **g** Final map obtained applying SuperEM code to Relion post-processed map. **h**, final map colored by local resolution. **i**, Orientation distribution in final set of refined particles.