A modular RNA interference system for gene regulation and robust dynamic feedback control

Ari Dwijayanti[1,3], Marko Storch[1,3,4], Guy-Bart Stan[2,3]*, Geoff S. Baldwin[1,3]*

[1] Department of Life Sciences, Imperial College London, London SW7 2AZ, United Kingdom

[2] Department of Bioengineering, Imperial College London, London SW7 2AZ, United Kingdom

[3] Imperial College Centre for Synthetic Biology, Imperial College London, London SW7 2AZ, United Kingdom

[4] London BioFoundry, Imperial College Translation & Innovation Hub, White City Campus, 80 Wood Lane, London W12 0BZ, United Kingdom

* To whom correspondence should be addressed. Email: g.baldwin@imperial.ac.uk; g.stan@imperial.ac.uk

Keywords: sRNA; post-transcriptional regulation; feedback control; modular design; synthetic biology

Abstract

The behaviour of engineered biological systems can be subject to deviation from design due to unpredictable changes in growth conditions, host response and metabolic load. Control engineering approaches are key to automatically maintain robust performance of designed systems despite such variations. RNA-controlled gene expression creates new possibilities for systematic, fast-responding and resource-efficient implementations of synthetic biology systems in living cells. Here, we demonstrate that a rational, modular design framework can provide an extensible platform for **m**odular **A**rtificial **R**NA **i**nterference (mARi) for robust, portable and multiplexed post-transcriptional regulation in *Escherichia coli.* We used mARi to construct a host-aware negative feedback control system that regulated protein production in response to cellular stress. We demonstrated that this mARi-based feedback control system resulted in an improvement in protein production up to 5-fold and was robust to perturbations in temperature, medium, scale, cell strain and gene product without further tuning. We anticipate that the use of robust RNA-based genetic control within an extensible DNA assembly framework, such as mARi, will have widespread applications in the realisation of sophisticated engineered biological systems, where dynamic regulation can provide improvements in gene circuit stability and microbial production.

Main

Cells use complex regulatory networks to appropriately sense, respond, and adapt to changes in their internal states and environment. One widely employed mechanism for adaptation relies on post-transcriptional regulation via small RNAs (sRNAs)[1,2]. sRNAs facilitate rapid, reversible, dynamic, and efficient signal propagation and typically act to coordinate and synchronize multiple signals through sequence-specific and transient RNA-RNA interactions[2,3], frequently leading to down-regulation of target gene expression[4]. In bacterial systems, *trans*-acting sRNAs rather than *cis*-acting sRNAs are reported to be especially effective in silencing gene expression due to their longer half-life[5].

The features of natural *trans*-encoded sRNAs have inspired versatile genetically encoded controllers for metabolic engineering and synthetic biology purposes[6–11]. sRNAs have a modular structure that lends itself to targeting of different genes. Specifically, the seed sequence that targets an mRNA can be altered to bind new targets, while retaining the native sRNA scaffold[12–14] (**Figs. 1a** and **2a**). The scaffold sequence is responsible for recognition by RNA chaperones, such as the host factor-1 (Hfq) protein. These abundant helper proteins are highly conserved in a range of organisms[15–18] as part of natural cellular regulation[19,20]. Use of endogenous regulatory machinery makes synthetic sRNA-based regulation portable, fast and lean when compared to other regulators such as transcription factors, zinc fingers, or CRISPRi, where the expression of accessory proteins creates delay, adds metabolic load and can cause toxicity[4,21–23].

Despite the fundamentally attractive features of sRNA-based regulatory systems, current approaches for implementing specific targeted artificial sRNAs are hampered by the need for bespoke design[7,9,12], leader sequences[13], or target insertions[6,8]. Here, we set out to design a universal, modular framework for the facile implementation of RNA-based control using verified, re-usable target sequences. To this effect, we used BASIC DNA assembly, which provides a modular, standardised framework for genetic structure based on orthogonal, computationally designed linkers[24].

Informed by the BASIC-derived gene architecture, we systematically designed, built, and characterised post-transcriptional regulation based on **m**odular **A**rtificial **R**NA **i**nterference (mARi) (**Fig. 1c**). The modular nature of the design enabled control of different genes and facilitates multiplexing of target genes. The system functioned across different *E. coli* strains and growth phases, demonstrating portability and robustness. By combining mARi with a stress-responsive promoter[25], we designed and built a dynamic, stress-driven, negative feedback system able to modulate the expression of stress-causing proteins at a post-transcriptional level. This host-aware feedback control increased overall yield and was robust to perturbations in host strains, conditions, and gene products.

Results

Design and implementation of a modular Artificial RNA interference regulation system

BASIC assembly relies on standardised linkers between interchangeable DNA parts (**Fig. 1a**,**b**)[24]. Expression cassettes and operons can be tuned using functional DNA linkers that encode a ribosome binding site (RBS) within a defined 5' untranslated region (UTR; UTR-RBS linker; **Fig. 1b**). Since BASIC UTRs are computationally designed to be orthogonal to the host genome and exclude secondary structure[26], they provide an ideal target for mARi (**Fig. 1c**).

mARi sequences were designed with two core components: the seed sequence that is complementary to the target sequence on an mRNA of interest and an sRNA scaffold for recruiting the RNA chaperone Hfq[27] (**Fig. 2a**). We chose the MicC scaffold, a native sRNA that regulates outer membrane protein (OmpC and OmpD) expression in *E. coli* via Hfq[28,29], as it was successfully used to construct artificial RNA interference systems[7,9,12,30]. To evaluate this approach, seed sequences were designed to target different positions in the translation initiation region of the mRNA (**Fig. 2b**). Positions 1-3 addressed gene-independent targets within the BASIC framework, while position 4 was specific to the GOI, *superfolder-gfp* (*sfgfp*; **Fig. 2b**). The reverse complements of the target sequences were combined with the MicC scaffold to create a series of mARi sequences (**Fig. 2a**).

To investigate the repression efficiency of mARi targets, sfGFP expression cassettes were assembled with P_{J23101_BASIC} and UTR-A-RBSc linker, while mARi expression was driven by P_{J23101} (**Fig. 1b**). Measurement of reporter expression demonstrated that all mARi target sequences led to repression of sfGFP, compared to the control lacking mARi (**Fig. 2c**). The intra-gene target at position 4 showed significant repression as anticipated[7,9,12]. However, targeting this position would require bespoke design and optimisation for each new expression cassette; a less desirable strategy from a modular engineering perspective. Position 1, which targets the UTR upstream of the RBS was as effective as position 4. Targeting this standardised UTR component of the BASIC framework is ideal for modular engineering since it is independent of both the GOI and RBS.

To evaluate the independence of position 1 UTR target, a set of constructs with 5 different RBS

strengths (RBSa-RBSe) controlling sfGFP translation were assembled both with and without the

position 1 mARi cassette. The *sfgfp* gene-only constructs resulted in a series of fluorescence intensities

reflecting RBS strength variation (**Fig. 2d**). The position 1 UTR-targeted mARi cassette reduced the

fluorescence signal in all cases (**Fig. 2d**). The relative repression remained constant across the series,

demonstrating that the repression activity of mARi-A at position 1 was independent of RBS strength

(**Fig. 2d**).

mARi activity is tuneable via genetic design parameters

With the underlying principle and design for modular RNA established, we sought to

investigate the response of mARi to different genetic design parameters. We first investigated the

relative abundance of mARi in relation to its target mRNA. The relative expression ratio for different

promoter combinations was calculated by determining the relative strengths of the promoters used

(**Supplementary Fig. 2b**). To assess the impact of the mARi:mRNA ratio, a matrix of designs with four

different promoter strengths for both mARi and mRNA were constructed (**Fig. 3a,b**). The resulting

sfGFP expression showed a consistent trend, with sfGFP fluorescence decreasing as the mARi:mRNA

ratio increased (**Fig. 3c** and **Supplementary Fig. 2c**). The relative abundance of mARi in relation to its

target mRNA is thus an important factor in repression, presumably because an excess of mARi is

required to saturate binding of target mRNA.

A further variable affecting intracellular transcript abundance is copy number. Designs with

different copy number plasmids were constructed using both high (blue box in **Fig. 3a**) and low (grey

box in **Fig. 3a**) expression ratios to exemplify two different levels of transcript abundance. These

systems were first assembled with both mARi and its target in a single plasmid, with varying plasmid

copy numbers from low to high: pSC101, p15A and pMB1[31] (**Fig. 3d**). In all cases the high-expression

ratio showed greater repression than the low-expression ratio (**Fig. 3e** and **Supplementary Fig. 4a**).

We next reasoned that by placing the mARi on a second, higher copy vector, repression should

be more efficient. The mRNA expression cassette was placed on a p15A backbone, with mARi on higher

copy pMB1 and pUC backbones (**Fig. 3d**), with both high- and low-expression ratios. Despite mARi

being in excess, the double-plasmid systems all showed less repression than that observed with the

corresponding single-plasmid systems (**Fig. 3f**). This suggests a role for spatial organization in post-

transcriptional repression, as anticipated from recent theoretical analysis[32]. We hypothesize that tight

spatial correlation of mARi and its target decreases their diffusion search space and hence their

effective binding rate, thus competing with the alternative pathways of mRNA translation and mARi

degradation.

mARi-based regulation is robust to different contexts

mARi-based gene regulation utilizes the native *E. coli* Hfq chaperone to regulate gene

expression. The intracellular abundance of these components is influenced by several factors,

including the genotype and growth phase of the host strain[33–35]. We therefore sought to evaluate the

portability of this system between four commonly used *E. coli* strains: DH5α, DH10b, BL21(DE3), and

BL21star(DE3). mARi constructs were transformed into each strain and the resulting sfGFP expression

was evaluated as before. mARi was functional in all strains (**Fig. 3f**), and it was active across all phases

of cell growth (**Fig. 3g**), although repression activity in the B strains was higher than in the K-12 strains

(Supplementary Fig. 4). The mARi design lacks an RNase E cleavage site, and no difference on

repression activity due to RNase E was observed in strains both with (BL21(DE3)) and without

(BL21star(DE3)) RNase E **(Supplementary Fig. 4)**.

Modularity and orthogonality of mARi enables simultaneous, multiplexed gene

regulation

The simultaneous regulation of multiple genes requires each gene to be addressed

independently, and with minimal cross-talk between them. The standardised linker sequences that

define the UTR have been computationally generated to ensure their orthogonality in the DNA

assembly process[26]. Computational evaluation of five selected UTR (UTR A-E) sequences

demonstrated minimal similarity/identity scores between the set **(Supplementary Fig. 5a)** and the

corresponding mARis (mARi A-E) were predicted to have minimal off-target interactions with three

different *E. coli* genomes **(Supplementary Table 3).**

To evaluate target specificity, we constructed all possible combinations of mARi-A and target

UTR upstream of *sfgfp*; in each case maintaining the same promoter and RBS (**Fig. 4a**). This

demonstrated that significant repression was only observed between a given mARi and its cognate

UTR (**Fig. 4b**).

Since the mARis exhibited specificity in the context of a single gene, we evaluated their ability

to operate on two different genes simultaneously in a multiplexed design. Initially this was evaluated

with both *sfgfp* and *mcherry* genes organised as separate transcriptional units (**Figs. 4c,d**). Specific and

independent repression by each mARi towards its cognate target was observed, with UTR-A-*sfgfp*

being selectively targeted by mARi-A and UTR-B-*mcherry* being targeted by mARi-B (**Fig. 4e** and

Supplementary Fig. 6a).

A two-gene operon was then constructed with UTR-A-RBSc driving the expression of *sfgfp*,

upstream of UTR-B-RBSc driving the expression of *mcherry* (**Fig. 4f**). With both genes on a single

transcript, regulation of the upstream sfGFP follows a simple correlation to the cognate mARi-A; whilst

the downstream mCherry is most strongly attenuated by its cognate mARi-B, it is also subject to

transcriptional read-through, which is somewhat attenuated by mARi-A (**Fig. 4d** and **Supplementary**

Fig. 6b).

Stress-driven mARi improves protein production yields by enabling host-responsive

adaptation

Protein expression typically causes depletion of shared cellular resources, which can lead to

reduced growth, diminished protein production yields or failure of designed circuits[36–40]. Negative

feedback systems are used in both engineering and biology to address this type of situation, where robust performance is required despite perturbations and uncertainties[41,42]. The rapid and reversible nature of RNA-based regulation makes it ideal as an actuator in biomolecular feedback control systems[7,11,43]. We therefore sought to evaluate mARi as a dynamic negative feedback controller in protein production, by placing the mARi system under control of the stress-inducible P_{htpG1} promoter[25].

A fusion protein of VioB and mCherry has previously been shown to trigger a host stress response from P_{htpG1}, whilst enabling the simultaneous monitoring of expression levels by fluorescence[25]. To validate P_{htpG1} activation, VioB-mCherry was placed under the control of an inducible P_{Tet} promoter with both high and medium RBS strengths. A reporter plasmid with *sfgfp* under the control of P_{htpG1} was used to determine the degree of P_{htpG1} response[25]. VioB-mCherry expression leads to a response from P_{htpG1}-controlled sfGFP expression, which increases with increasing transcript levels through induction of the Tet promoter with anhydrous tetracycline (aTc; **Supplementary Figs. 7,8**). The higher strength RBS caused a stronger P_{htpG1} response than the medium RBS at all induction levels (**Supplementary Fig. 8**). Importantly, P_{htpG1} shows a progressive response to load (**Supplementary Fig. 8**), a desirable characteristic for gain control in negative feedback.

Given the strong response of P_{htpG1} to VioB-mCherry, we sought to determine if a closed-loop negative feedback system, whereby P_{htpG1} modulates VioB-mCherry production via an mARi actuator, would increase the yield of protein production. A single plasmid system was assembled with the UTR-A-VioB-mCherry being targeted by mARi-A, which was itself under the control of P_{htpG1} (**Fig. 5a**). The equivalent plasmids lacking the mARi module were also constructed and both were transformed into BL21(DE3).

mARi-based negative feedback improves the overall production of VioB-mCherry as seen by the increase in total fluorescence, when compared to the system without mARi (**Fig. 5**). Feedback control delivers increased protein expression per cell across all growth phases, but there is also an extension of exponential growth, resulting in higher overall cell density (**Fig. 5c** and **Supplementary Fig. 9**): single-cell analysis determined that increased fitness was not caused by non-producing mutants

(Supplementary Fig. 11). There was a notable shift in response to aTc induction of VioB-mCherry, with

significantly improved expression per cell at lower levels of induction with mARi feedback (**Fig. 5b**),

and overall up to a 5-fold increase in total protein (**Fig. 5c,d** and **Supplementary Fig. 9)**, confirmed by

SDS-PAGE **(Supplementary Fig. 10).**

mARi-based negative feedback enables portable, robust and modular regulation

across different contexts

A critical factor for the wide adoption of feedback control systems is the robust performance

and portability they impart when used in different contexts and conditions. We therefore sought to

test mARi-based negative feedback control under various perturbations, i.e. temperature, media, host

strains, culture volume and GOI.

mARi-based negative feedback maintained the productivity improvement of VioB-mCherry at

both 37°C and 30°C, over a 24 h incubation period (**Fig. 5e** and **Supplementary Fig. 13**). The

improvement was also observed in different culture media and in different strains of *E. coli* (**Figs. 5c,**

d, f and **Supplementary Figs. 12,14**). We also tested the performance of mARi-based negative

feedback at different scales by comparing a 100 µl culture grown in 96 well-plate and a 50 ml culture

grown in 250 ml shaking flasks. In both culture volumes the strains with mARi-based feedback

exhibited a significant improvement of VioB-mCherry production, when compared to cells without

mARi feedback (**Fig. 5g** and **Supplementary Fig. 15**).

To demonstrate the portability of the mARi-based feedback control systems, we deployed

P_{htpG1}-mARi to control the expression of a different GOI (*lacz-mcherry*). The expression of LacZ-

mCherry resulted in different P_{htpG1} activation, total protein production, and growth profiles,

compared to the previous VioB-mCherry (**Supplementary Fig. 16**). Nonetheless, the mARi-based

feedback system enhanced the productivity of LacZ-mCherry expression up to 2-fold compared to

strains lacking the feedback (**Fig. 5h** and **Supplementary Fig. 17**). Remarkably, these productivity

improvements were achieved with no specific tuning of the system, beyond assembly of the GOI in

the BASIC framework with a UTR that is cognate to the mARi.

Discussion

Here we report the development, characterization, and implementation of a modular post-

transcriptional regulation system based on *trans*-acting small RNAs. Gene repression is achieved by

directing mARi to computationally designed, orthogonal UTR-RBS linkers in the BASIC DNA assembly

framework[24]. The target site was located upstream of the RBS and demonstrated effective repression

whilst being independent from both RBS and GOI contexts (**Fig. 2d** and **4**). The modular and orthogonal

nature of the design framework removes the need to design or insert bespoke target sites upstream

of target genes, a drawback of previous works focused on reusable *trans*-encoded small RNAs[6–8,11,13].

By directing mARi to the standardised UTR of the mRNA target, the RNA chaperone Hfq is

recruited to the translation initiation region of the mRNA. Hfq-mediated repression is thought to occur

either via steric occlusion of the RBS, preventing ribosome recruitment[28], or by facilitated active

degradation of the mRNA[29]. With the operon architecture that we investigated, there was clear

evidence that translation was attenuated by a combination of both target sites, with the effects being

largely independent and additive (**Fig. 4g**). This behaviour is consistent with steric hindrance of the

RBS being the main mode of action in the absence of an RNase E site. Facilitated degradation would

be expected to induce a similar repression level on both genes, whereas we observe that targeting of

the downstream gene has only a minor effect on the upstream gene (**Fig. 4g**). The enhanced repression

with occlusion of both UTR sites indicates that a bound sRNA is not completely effective as a roadblock

to ribosomes.

To evaluate the features of mARi, we characterised its responsiveness to design parameters and

robustness to different genetic contexts and conditions. Repression was modulated by both relative

transcript abundance and spatial organisation (**Fig. 3**). mARi proved to be a portable and robust

controller in different *E. coli* strains and across different growth phases (**Fig. 3**). We also demonstrated

that mARi can be multiplexed across multi-gene and operon systems (**Fig. 4**). This extensibility is

essential for the simultaneous regulation of multiple genes in metabolic engineering, layered genetic

control, and advanced genetic circuit applications.

We deployed mARi in a host-adaptive negative feedback system that responds to cellular stress

caused by protein over-expression. The heat-shock σ^{32}-dependent P_{htpG1} promoter was used as a stress

sensor[25]; while native Hfq is controlled by both σ^{32}-dependent and σ^{70}-dependent promoters, so it is

responsive to both growth and stress induced by protein misfolding[44]. Consequently, both the mARi

actuator and Hfq chaperone are activated by host stress in a bimolecular feedback control system.

Using P_{htpG1} as the sensor driving our mARi-actuated negative feedback reduced the translational load

in response to cellular stress. The resulting dynamic control optimised shared cellular resources,

leading to an increase in protein production up to 5-fold compared to without feedback (**Fig. 5d**).

Furthermore, the feedback control was robust to perturbations in temperature, media, culture

volume, as well as changes in host strains and gene products, without any further tuning of the system.

The ubiquity of sRNA control in biological systems demonstrates their importance in critically

important cellular processes of homeostasis and adaptation[1,11,45–47]. The programmability of sRNAs

makes them attractive candidates for the design of synthetic biological systems. Their fast and

dynamic response[4] makes them ideal sensors and actuators in both natural[45–48] and synthetic[7,11]

feedback control systems. Dynamic pathway regulation is an important application of biological

control engineering for the enhanced productivity and robustness of cellular production platforms[10,49–

53]. We have here demonstrated the applicability of mARi to improving protein production in a

feedback control system by adapting a native stress response to control the feedback circuit. The use

of alternative stress-responding promoters provides a mechanism for adapting this approach to

metabolic engineering applications[49], while the extensible modular framework and orthogonality of

mARi provide a platform for the rapid and efficient engineering of dynamic host-aware feedback

control biosystems for robust biomanufacturing and advanced genetic control applications.

Online Methods

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

The following *E. coli* strains were used for plasmid construction and expression: DH5α (F⁻ *endA1 glnV44 thi-1 recA1 relA1 gyrA96 deoR nupG purB20* φ80d*lacZ*ΔM15 Δ(*lacZYA-argF*)U169, hsdR17($r_K^-m_K^+$), λ⁻), DH10b [F-*mcr*A Δ (*mrr-hsd*RMS-*mcr*BC) φ80*lacZ*ΔM15 Δ*lac*X74 *rec*A1 *end*A1 *ara*D139 Δ (*ara leu*) 7697 *gal*U *gal*K *rps*L *nup*G λ-], BL21(DE3) (F⁻*omp*T *hsd*S$_B$ (r$_B^-$, m$_B^-$) *gal dcm* (DE3)), and BL21star(DE3) (F⁻*omp*T *hsd*S$_B$ (r$_B^-$, m$_B^-$) *gal dcm rne*131 (DE3)). *E. coli* colonies were grown from single-colony isolates in LB (Luria Bertani) medium supplemented with the appropriate antibiotic, shaken at 220 rpm and grown at 37°C (unless specified otherwise). The antibiotics used for plasmid maintenance were Chloramphenicol, Carbenicillin, and Kanamycin at a concentration of 25 µg/ml, 100 µg/ml and 50 µg/ml, respectively. Anhydrous tetracycline (aTc) from a stock concentration of 100 µg/ml in DMSO was used as an inducer.

Design and analysis of mARi sequences

The sequences of UTR-RBS linkers used in BASIC DNA assembly[24] were designed and validated using R2o DNA designer[26]. Secondary structures of the mARis were predicted using RNAFold WebServer (http://rna.tbi.univie.ac.at/cgi-bin/RNAWebSuite/RNAfold.cgi) and visualized using VARNA GUI[50] (http://varna.lri.fr/index.php?lang=en&page=tutorial&css=varna). The predicted interactions between mARis and their mRNA targets were simulated through IntaRNA[51,52] (http://rna.informatik.uni-freiburg.de/IntaRNA/Input.jsp). The Free binding energy of mARi and its mRNA target site was estimated using a web-based service of the RNA folding software DINAMelt[53] (http://mfold.rna.albany.edu/?q=DINAMelt/Two-state-melting) using default parameters. The percent identity of mARi-UTR pairs was calculated using the EMBOSS needle method (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/psa/emboss_needle/). The predicted expression strength of the UTR-RBS linker was simulated using EMOPEC[54] and RBS calculator v2.0[55,56] with the input sequence starting from the Transcription Start Site (+1) to 100 bp of the downstream CDS. The off-target effect was

computed using CopraRNA[52,57,58] (http://rna.informatik.uni-freiburg.de/CopraRNA/Input.jsp).

NC_000913 (*E. coli* MG1655), NC_010473 (*E. coli* DH10b), NC_012892 and NC_012971 (*E. coli*

BL21(DE3)) were used as inputs references for host-background off-target prediction.

Plasmid assembly

Plasmids were constructed using the BASIC DNA assembly method[24,59]. New DNA parts with

prefix and suffix sequences were synthesised as gBlocks by Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT), or gene

fragments by TWIST Bioscience, or derived by PCR mutagenesis. The gBlocks and gene fragments were

directly cloned into pJET1.2 or pUC AmpR_plasmid as BASIC bioparts. Linkers for BASIC assembly were

provided by Biolegio or IDT **(Supplementary Table 5)**. All constructs were transformed into chemically

competent *E. coli* DH5α. Sequence verification of BASIC bioparts was carried out using Sanger

sequencing (Source Bioscience). PCR mutagenesis for generating new BASIC parts were carried out

using Phusion Polymerase (NEB) and phosphorylated oligonucleotides (IDT). Details of the BASIC

bioparts used to construct the plasmids are provided in **Supplementary Table 4**. Maps of plasmids

used in this study are provided in **Supplementary Fig. 18**.

The *viob-mcherry fusion* gene was extracted from plasmid pSB1C3-H3[25] (Addgene plasmid #

109381; http://n2t.net/addgene:109381; RRID:Addgene 109381) using a touchdown PCR method.

Briefly, target DNA was amplified using 10 µl of 5X HF Buffer, 1 µl of 10mM of dNTPs 10 mM, 2.5 µl of

forward primer 10 µM, 2.5 µl of reverse primer 10 µM, 50 pg of template DNA, 0.5 µl DNA Phusion

Polymerase (NEB), and ddH$_2$O up to 50 µl. A pair of primers, forward (5'-

tctggtgggtctctgtccatgagcattctggatttcccgcgtat-3') and reverse (5'-

cgataggtctcccgagccttaggtggagtggcggccctcg-3') were used to amplify specific region flanking *viob-*

mcherry gene with BASIC prefix and suffix. The following touchdown PCR protocol in the thermal cycler

was used for site-directed mutagenesis; (1) 95°C for 3 min, start loop 25 cycles, (2) 95°C for 30 sec, (3)

gradient from 65 to 70°C for 30 sec, (4) 72°C for 2 min, close loop, (5) 72°C for 10 min, and (6) 4°C hold

forever. The PCR product was then confirmed through gel agarose electrophoresis. Subsequently, a

gel purification was performed to a band with a size of ~3.7 kb. The purified DNA fragment was then

assembled by BASIC with methylated iP and iS linkers (Biolegio) into a pUC-AmpR backbone to create

a *viob-mcherry* fusion as a BASIC biopart.

The *lacz* gene was extracted from *E. coli* BL21(DE3) genome using touchdown PCR. The template

for fragment amplification was obtained from a single colony of BL21(DE3) diluted into 50 µl of dH_2O.

A pair of primers, forward (5'-tctggtgggtctctgtccatgaccatgattacggattcactggccgtc-3') and reverse (5'-

cgataggtctcccgagcctttttgacaccagaccaactggtaatggta-3') were used to amplify specific region flanking

the *lacz* gene with BASIC prefix and suffix. The PCR product was then confirmed through gel agarose

electrophoresis. Subsequently, a gel purification was performed to a band with a size of ~3 kb. The

purified DNA fragment was used to create a *lacz-mcherry* fusion in BASIC format by assembling the

lacz and *mcherry* with a fusion linker (FL2; **Supplementary Table 5**) into a pUC-AmpR backbone,

flanked by methylated iP and iS BASIC linkers (Biolegio).

A P_{htpG1}-sfGFP plasmid was used to detect the host-stress caused by overexpression of

recombinant protein (Addgene plasmid # 109387; http://n2t.net/addgene:109387;

RRID:Addgene_109387).

Flow cytometry assay

Cellular expression of sfGFP and mCherry was performed in 96 well plates with biological

triplicates for each construct. *E. coli* carrying an empty backbone (containing only an origin of

replication and an antibiotic resistance gene) was used as a negative control. *E. coli* colonies were

inoculated from glycerol stock into LB media supplemented with appropriate antibiotics. The colonies

were grown for 13 h at 30°C and 600 rpm in a benchtop shaker (Mikura). The culture was then diluted

200x (10 µl into 190 µl, then 10 µl into 90 µl) in LB media using an automated liquid handling robot

(CyBio Felix). The plate was grown at 37°C and 600 rpm in a benchtop shaker (Mikura). After 6 h of

incubation, the Abs600 was measured. Abs600 typically reached values in the range 0.6–0.7. Two

microliters of liquid culture were taken and diluted into 200 µl Phosphate Buffer Saline (PBS)

supplemented with 2 mg/ml Kanamycin. The fluorescence data of single cells was collected using a BD

Fortessa flow cytometer. The flow cytometer settings used were: 650 volts for forward scattered (FSC),

225 volts for side scattered (SSC), 520 volts for Alexa Fluor 488, 500 volts for mCherry and threshold

1200 for FSC and 200 SSC. In total 10,000 events were collected for each sample. The data was stored

as an FCS file 3.0 and analysis was done using FlowJo V10. Single cell population gating was performed

after plotting FSC-H against SSC-H and histograms of Alexa Fluor and mCherry channel of fluorescence.

The chosen gating covered 90-98% of the total population. The fluorescence intensity of the sample

was calculated by subtracting the geometric mean fluorescence of the control (strains with empty

backbone). The normalised fluorescence was calculated by dividing the fluorescence intensity of the

sample with mARi by the fluorescence of the sample without mARi expression.

Plate reader assay

For continuous growth assay, samples were first diluted 200x in LB media, then the plate was

incubated in a microplate reader (Clariostar, BMG Labtech) with continuous shaking at 37°C and 600

rpm for 12-24 h. Absorbance at 600 nm, GFP fluorescence (F:482-16/F:530-40) and RFP fluorescence

(F:540-20/F:590-20) were measured every 15 min. The normalised Abs600 was calculated by

subtracting the mean Abs600 of media only control from the Abs600 of each well. The fluorescence

intensity was corrected by subtracting the mean fluorescence value of negative control at equivalent

Abs600. The value Fl/Abs600 was calculated by dividing the value of corrected fluorescence by

corrected Abs600.

P$_{htpG1}$ response assay

For the measurement of P$_{htpG1}$ activity, BL21(DE3) cells carrying VioB-mCherry inducible

expression plasmid and P$_{htpG1}$-sfGFP plasmid, were cultured for 13 h at 30°C and 600 rpm in a benchtop

shaker (Mikura). After 200x dilution, plates were grown for outgrowth at 37°C with agitation at 600

rpm for 1 h and aTc inducer was added. The plate was placed in a microplate reader followed by

continuous incubation with continuous shaking at 37°C and 600 rpm for 12-24 h. Absorbance at 600

nm, sfGFP fluorescence (F:482-16/F:530-40) and mCherry fluorescence (F:540-20/F:590-20) were

measured continuously every 15 min. The normalised Abs600 was calculated by subtracting the mean

Abs600 of media only control from the Abs600 of each well. The fluorescence intensity was corrected

by subtracting the mean fluorescence value of negative control at equivalent Abs600. The value

Fl/Abs600 was calculated by dividing the value of corrected fluorescence by corrected Abs600.

Measurement of VioB-mCherry and LacZ-mCherry production

For the inducible expression of the recombinant protein assay, cells carrying inducible

expression plasmid with and without P_{htpG1}-mARi, were cultured for 13 h at 30°C and 600 rpm in a

benchtop shaker (Mikura). After 200x dilution, plates were grown for outgrowth at 37°C with agitation

at 600 rpm for 1 h and aTc inducer was added. Absorbance at 600 nm and mCherry fluorescence

(F:540-20/F:590-20) were measured continuously every 15 min. The normalised Abs600 was

calculated by subtracting the mean Abs600 of media only control from the Abs600 of each well. The

fluorescence intensity was corrected by subtracting the mean fluorescence value of negative control

at equivalent Abs600. The value Fl/Abs600 was calculated by dividing the value of corrected

fluorescence by corrected Abs600.

During continuous measurement of VioB-mCherry, 2 microliters of liquid culture were taken

at 6 h, 12 h, and 26 h post-induction. The samples were diluted into 200 μl Phosphate Buffer Saline

(PBS) supplemented with 2 mg/ml Kanamycin. The PBS-diluted samples were analysed on an Attune

NxT flow cytometer to obtain single-cell data. The flow cytometer settings used were as follows: 500

volts for forward scattered (FSC), 420 volts for side scattered (SSC), 550 volts for yellow light (YL), and

a threshold of 0.3x1000. In total 10,000 events were collected for each sample. The data was stored

as an FCS file 3.0 and analysis was done using FlowJo V10. Single cell population gating was performed

after plotting FSC-H against SSC-H and histograms of YL2 channel of fluorescence.

For assays in different host strains, the mARi-based negative feedback circuits (open and closed

loop) were propagated into BL21(DE3) and DH10b cells. Both engineered strains were incubated in LB

medium at 37°C and 600 rpm. aTc inducer with different concentration (0-100 ng/ml for BL21(DE3)

cells and 0-10 ng/ml for DH10b cells) was added after 1 h of outgrowth.

For different growth temperatures, the DH10b cell containing VioB-mCherry expression

plasmids with and without mARi were incubated at 30°C or 37°C in LB medium. To induce the

expression of VioB-mCherry, 5 ng/ml aTc inducer was added after 1 h of outgrowth. The plates were

incubated in a microplate reader with shaking at 600 rpm for 24 h post-induction.

For different growth media, the engineered DH10b cell were tested in three mediums: LB, 2YT

supplemented with 4% (w/v) glucose, and EZ MOPS RDM supplemented with 4% glucose. After 1 h

outgrowth, 5 ng/ml aTc inducer was added. The plate was incubated at 30°C and 600 rpm for 24 h

post-induction.

SDS-PAGE assay

Confirmation of total VioB-mCherry production was done using SDS-PAGE[60]. An overnight

culture was diluted 200x in 10 ml LB media supplemented with Chloramphenicol. After 1 h outgrowth,

aTc inducer at final concentration 5 ng/ml was added. The culture was then grown at 37°C and 600

rpm for 12 h. 1 ml of each culture was normalised to an Abs600 of 1.0 and centrifuged (13,000 g for 1

min). 100 µl of 1 x SDS-loading buffer supplemented with beta-mercaptoethanol was added to the

pellet followed by 2 min vortexing and 5 min boiling at 99°C. 5 µl of sample mix was then loaded into

SDS-PAGE with a concentration of 12% for the separating gel and 5% for the stacking gel. After running

the gel at 100 V for 2 h in 1x SDS running buffer, the gel was stained with Coomassie Brilliant Blue

solution (1.2 mM Coomassie Blue R-250 dye, 45% Methanol, 10 % glacial acetic acid) followed by de-

staining (20 % methanol, 10 % glacial acetic acid). The gel image was captured using a Fuji LAS-3000

imaging system. The molecular weight of VioB-mCherry was calculated using Protein Molecular

Weight Calculator (https://www.sciencegateway.org/tools/proteinmw.htm). A full amino acid

sequence of VioB-mCherry with 1244 residue sequence resulted in protein weight of 138.64 kDa.

Shake-flask growth

The DH10b cell containing VioB-mCherry expression plasmids with and without mARi were

inoculated into 5 ml of LB media supplemented with Chloramphenicol. Cultures were grown

overnight at 30°C before being diluted 200x in 50 ml LB media supplemented with Chloramphenicol,

in 250 ml shake flasks. After 1 h outgrowth, aTc inducer at final concentration 5 ng/ml was added. The

cultures were then grown at 30°C in a shaking incubator (Innova: 220 rpm) for 24 h. At the end of

the experiment, absorbance at 600 nm and RFP fluorescence (F:540-20/F:590-20) were measured. 1

ml of culture was spun down to obtain a pellet for visualisation.

Author Contributions

A.D.: Designed and performed all experiments and data analysis and contributed to the experimental

strategy and the writing of the manuscript.

M.S.: Contributed to the experimental strategy and design, assisted with the experiments and data

interpretation and contributed to the writing of the manuscript.

G.-B.S.: Contributed to the experimental strategy, assisted with experimental design and data

interpretation and contributed to the writing of the manuscript.

G.S.B.: Contributed to the experimental strategy, assisted with the experimental design and data

interpretation and wrote the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Acknowledgements

A.D. received a PhD scholarship from Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education (LPDP). G.-B.S. gratefully acknowledges the support of the UK EPSRC through the EPSRC Fellowship for Growth EP/M002187/1 and of the Royal Academy of Engineering through the Chair in Emerging Technology programme. The authors would like to thank Prof Tom Ellis (Department of Bioengineering, Imperial College London) for providing DNA template for the amplification of VioB-mCherry.

References

1. Storz, G., Vogel, J. & Wassarman, K. M. Regulation by Small RNAs in Bacteria: Expanding Frontiers. *Molecular Cell* (2011). doi:10.1016/j.molcel.2011.08.022

2. Beisel, C. L. & Storz, G. Base pairing small RNAs and their roles in global regulatory networks. *FEMS Microbiol. Rev.* **34**, 866–882 (2010).

3. Nitzan, M., Rehani, R. & Margalit, H. Integration of Bacterial Small RNAs in Regulatory Networks. *Annu. Rev. Biophys.* **46**, 131–148 (2017).

4. Levine, E., Zhang, Z., Kuhlman, T. & Hwa, T. Quantitative Characteristics of Gene Regulation by Small RNA. *PLoS Biol.* **5**, (2007).

5. Man, S., Cheng, R., Miao, C., Gong, Q., Gu, Y., Lu, X., Han, F. & Yu, W. Artificial trans-encoded small non-coding RNAs specifically silence the selected gene expression in bacteria. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **39**, e50–e50 (2011).

6. Ghodasara, A. & Voigt, C. A. Balancing gene expression without library construction via a reusable sRNA pool. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **45**, 8116–8127 (2017).

7. Kelly, C. L., Harris, A. W. K. K., Steel, H., Hancock, E. J., Heap, J. T. & Papachristodoulou, A. Synthetic negative feedback circuits using engineered small RNAs. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **46**, 9875–9889 (2018).

8. Ceroni, F., Furini, S., Stefan, A., Hochkoeppler, A. & Giordano, E. A synthetic post-transcriptional controller to explore the modular design of gene circuits. *ACS Synth. Biol.* **1**, 163–71 (2012).

9.   Na, D., Yoo, S. M., Chung, H., Park, H., Park, J. H. & Lee, S. Y. Metabolic engineering of

Escherichia coli using synthetic small regulatory RNAs. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **31**, 170–174 (2013).

10. Boo, A., Ellis, T. & Stan, G. B. Host-aware synthetic biology. *Curr. Opin. Syst. Biol.* **14**, 66–72

(2019).

11. Huang, H. H., Qian, Y. & Del Vecchio, D. A quasi-integral controller for adaptation of genetic

modules to variable ribosome demand. *Nat. Commun.* **9**, 1–12 (2018).

12. Yoo, S. M., Na, D. & Lee, S. Y. Design and use of synthetic regulatory small RNAs to control gene

expression in Escherichia coli. *Nat. Protoc.* **8**, 1694–707 (2013).

13. Lahiry, A., Stimple, S. D., Wood, D. W. & Lease, R. A. Retargeting a Dual-Acting sRNA for Multiple

mRNA Transcript Regulation. *ACS Synth. Biol.* **6**, 648–658 (2017).

14. Sharma, V., Yamamura, A. & Yokobayashi, Y. Engineering artificial small RNAs for Conditional

gene silencing in escherichia coli. *ACS Synth. Biol.* **1**, 6–13 (2012).

15. Franze De Fernandez, M. T., Eoyang, L. & August, J. T. Factor fraction required for the synthesis

of bacteriophage Qβ-RNA. *Nature* **219**, 588–290 (1968).

16. Sun, T., Li, S., Song, X., Pei, G., Diao, J., Cui, J., Shi, M., Chen, L. & Zhang, W. Re-direction of

carbon flux to key precursor malonyl-CoA via artificial small RNAs in photosynthetic

Synechocystis sp. PCC 6803. *Biotechnol. Biofuels* **11**, 1–16 (2018).

17. Huis in 't Veld, R. A. G., Kramer, G., van der Ende, A., Speijer, D. & Pannekoek, Y. The Hfq regulon

of Neisseria meningitidis. *FEBS Open Bio* **7**, 777–788 (2017).

18. Puerta-Fernández, E. & Vioque, A. Hfq is required for optimal nitrate assimilation in the

cyanobacterium Anabaena sp. strain PCC 7120. *J. Bacteriol.* **193**, 3546–3555 (2011).

19. Vytvytska, O., Moll, I., Kaberdin, V. R., Gabain, A. Von & Bla, U. Hfq (HF1) stimulates ompA

mRNA decay by interfering with ribosome binding. 1109–1118 (2000).

20. Moll, I. & Bla, U. D. O. Translational autocontrol of the Escherichia coli hfq RNA chaperone

gene. 976–984 (2005). doi:10.1261/rna.2360205.crystallography

21. Zhang, S. & Voigt, C. A. Engineered dCas9 with reduced toxicity in bacteria: implications for

genetic circuit design. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **46**, 11115–11125 (2018).

22.   Liu, Q., Schumacher, J., Wan, X., Lou, C. & Wang, B. Orthogonality and Burdens of Heterologous

and Gate Gene Circuits in E. coli. *ACS Synth. Biol.* **7**, 553–564 (2018).

23.   Cho, S., Choe, D., Lee, E., Kim, S. C., Palsson, B. & Cho, B. K. High-Level dCas9 Expression Induces

Abnormal Cell Morphology in Escherichia coli. *ACS Synth. Biol.* **7**, 1085–1094 (2018).

24.   Storch, M., Casini, A., Mackrow, B., Trewhitt, H., Ellis, T. & Baldwin, G. S. BASIC: a new Biopart

Assembly Standard provides accurate, single-tier DNA assembly for synthetic biology. *ACS*

Synth. Biol. 4–10 (2015). doi:10.1021/sb500356d

25.   Ceroni, F., Boo, A., Furini, S., Gorochowski, T. E., Borkowski, O., Ladak, Y. N., Awan, A. R., Gilbert,

C., Stan, G. B. & Ellis, T. Burden-driven feedback control of gene expression. *Nat. Methods* **15**,

387–393 (2018).

26.   Casini, A., Christodoulou, G., Freemont, P. S., Baldwin, G. S., Ellis, T. & MacDonald, J. T. R2oDNA

Designer: Computational design of biologically-neutral synthetic DNA sequences. *ACS Synth.*

Biol. 140131140734008 (2014). doi:10.1021/sb4001323

27.   Updegrove, T. B., Zhang, A. & Storz, G. Hfq: The flexible RNA matchmaker. *Curr. Opin. Microbiol.*

30, 133–138 (2016).

28.   Chen, S., Zhang, A., Blyn, L. B. & Storz, G. MicC , a Second Small-RNA Regulator of Omp Protein

Expression in Escherichia coli MicC , a Second Small-RNA Regulator of Omp Protein Expression

in Escherichia coli. *J. Bacteriol.* **186**, 6689–6697 (2004).

29.   Pfeiffer, V., Papenfort, K., Lucchini, S. & Hinton, J. C. D. Coding sequence targeting by MicC RNA

reveals bacterial mRNA silencing downstream of translational initiation. **16**, (2009).

30.   Hussein, R. & Lim, H. N. Direct comparison of small RNA and transcription factor signaling.

Nucleic Acids Res. **40**, 7269–7279 (2012).

31.   Jahn, M., Vorpahl, C., Hübschmann, T., Harms, H. & Müller, S. Copy number variability of

expression plasmids determined by cell sorting and Droplet Digital PCR. *Microb. Cell Fact.* 1–

12 (2016). doi:10.1186/s12934-016-0610-8

32. Teimouri, H., Korkmazhan, E., Stavans, J. & Levine, E. Sub-cellular mRNA localization modulates

the regulation of gene expression by small RNAs in bacteria. *Phys. Biol.* **14**, (2017).

33. Yoon, S. H., Han, M., Jeong, H., Lee, C. H., Xia, X., Lee, D., Shim, J. H., Lee, S. Y., Oh, T. K. & Kim,

J. F. Comparative multi-omics systems analysis of Escherichia coli strains B and K-12. *Genome*

Biol. **13**, R37 (2012).

34. Kajitani, M., Kato, A., Wada, A., Inokuchi, Y. & Ishihama, A. Regulation of the Escherichia coli

hfq gene encoding the host factor for phage Q(β). *J. Bacteriol.* **176**, 531–534 (1994).

35. Moon, K. & Gottesman, S. Competition among Hfq-binding small RNAs in Escherichia coli. *Mol.*

Microbiol. **82**, 1545–1562 (2011).

36. Gorochowski, T. E., Avcilar-Kucukgoze, I., Bovenberg, R. A. L., Roubos, J. A. & Ignatova, Z. A

Minimal Model of Ribosome Allocation Dynamics Captures Trade-offs in Expression between

Endogenous and Synthetic Genes. *ACS Synth. Biol.* **5**, 710–720 (2016).

37. Scott, M., Klumpp, S., Mateescu, E. M. & Hwa, T. Emergence of robust growth laws from

optimal regulation of ribosome synthesis. *Mol. Syst. Biol.* **10**, 747–747 (2014).

38. Darlington, A. P. S., Kim, J., Jiménez, J. I. & Bates, D. G. Design of a translation resource

allocation controller to manage cellular resource limitations. *IFAC-PapersOnLine* **50**, 12653–

12660 (2017).

39. Carbonell-Ballestero, M., Garcia-Ramallo, E., Montañez, R., Rodriguez-Caso, C. & Macía, J.

Dealing with the genetic load in bacterial synthetic biology circuits: Convergences with the

Ohm's law. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **44**, 496–507 (2016).

40. Kafri, M., Metzl-Raz, E., Jona, G. & Barkai, N. The Cost of Protein Production. *Cell Rep.* **14**, 22–

31 (2016).

41. Reeves, G. T. & Fraser, S. E. Biological Systems from an Engineer's Point of View. *PLoS Biol.* **7**,

e1000021 (2009).

42. Becskei, A. & Serrano, L. Becskei Serrano Nature 2000 Autoregulation. *Nature* **405**, 590–593

(2000).

43.   Stevens, J. T. & Carothers, J. M. Designing RNA-Based Genetic Control Systems for Efficient

Production from Engineered Metabolic Pathways. *ACS Synth. Biol.* **4**, 107–115 (2015).

44.   Valentin-Hansen, P. & Eriksen, M. MicroReview The bacterial Sm-like protein Hfq : a key player

in RNA transactions. **51**, 1525–1533 (2004).

45.   Thompson, K. M., Rhodius, V. A. & Gottesman, S. σE regulates and is regulated by a small RNA

in Escherichia coli. *J. Bacteriol.* **189**, 4243–4256 (2007).

46.   Tu, K. C., Long, T., Svenningsen, S. L., Wingreen, N. S. & Bassler, B. L. Negative Feedback Loops

Involving Small Regulatory RNAs Precisely Control the Vibrio harveyi Quorum-Sensing

Response. *Mol. Cell* **37**, 567–579 (2010).

47.   Brosse, A., Korobeinikova, A., Gottesman, S. & Guillier, M. Unexpected properties of sRNA

promoters allow feedback control via regulation of a two-component system. *Nucleic Acids*

Res. **44**, 9650–9666 (2016).

48.   Kalamorz, F., Reichenbach, B., März, W., Rak, B. & Görke, B. Feedback control of glucosamine-

6-phosphate synthase GlmS expression depends on the small RNA GlmZ and involves the novel

protein YhbJ in Escherichia coli. *Mol. Microbiol.* **65**, 1518–1533 (2007).

49.   Dahl, R. H., Zhang, F., Alonso-Gutierrez, J., Baidoo, E., Batth, T. S., Redding-Johanson, A. M.,

Petzold, C. J., Mukhopadhyay, A., Lee, T. S., Adams, P. D. & Keasling, J. D. Engineering dynamic

pathway regulation using stress-response promoters. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **31**, 1039–1046 (2013).

50.   Darty, K., Denise, A. & Ponty, Y. VARNA : Interactive drawing and editing of the RNA secondary

structure. **25**, 1974–1975 (2009).

51.   Busch, A., Richter, A. S. & Backofen, R. IntaRNA: Efficient prediction of bacterial sRNA targets

incorporating target site accessibility and seed regions. *Bioinformatics* **24**, 2849–2856 (2008).

52.   Wright, P. R., Georg, J., Mann, M., Sorescu, D. A., Richter, A. S., Lott, S., Kleinkauf, R., Hess, W.

R. & Backofen, R. CopraRNA and IntaRNA: Predicting small RNA targets, networks and

interaction domains. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **42**, 119–123 (2014).

53.   Markham, N. R. & Zuker, M. DINAMelt web server for nucleic acid melting prediction. *Nucleic*

Acids Res. **33**, 577–581 (2005).

54.   Bonde, M. T., Pedersen, M., Klausen, M. S., Jensen, S. I., Wulff, T., Harrison, S., Nielsen, A. T.,

Herrgård, M. J. & Sommer, M. O. A. Predictable tuning of protein expression in bacteria. *Nat.*

Methods **13**, 233–236 (2016).

55.   Salis, H. M., Mirsky, E. A. & Voigt, C. A. Automated design of synthetic ribosome binding sites

to control protein expression. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **27**, 946–950 (2009).

56.   Espah Borujeni, A., Channarasappa, A. S. & Salis, H. M. Translation rate is controlled by coupled

trade-offs between site accessibility, selective RNA unfolding and sliding at upstream standby

sites. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **42**, 2646–2659 (2014).

57.   Raden, M., Ali, S. M., Alkhnbashi, O. S., Busch, A., Costa, F., Davis, J. A., Eggenhofer, F.,

Gelhausen, R., Georg, J., Heyne, S., Hiller, M., Kundu, K., Kleinkauf, R., Lott, S. C., Mohamed, M.

M., Mattheis, A., Miladi, M., Richter, A. S., Will, S., Wolff, J., Wright, P. R. & Backofen, R. Freiburg

RNA tools: A central online resource for RNA-focused research and teaching. *Nucleic Acids Res.*

46, W25–W29 (2018).

58.   Wright, P. R., Richter, A. S., Papenfort, K., Mann, M., Vogel, J., Hess, W. R., Backofen, R. & Georg,

J. Comparative genomics boosts target prediction for bacterial small RNAs. *Proc. Natl. Acad.*

Sci. **110**, E3487–E3496 (2013).

59.   Storch, M., Casini, A., Mackrow, B., Ellis, T. & Baldwin, G. S. *BASIC: A simple and accurate*

modular DNA assembly method. *Methods in Molecular Biology* **1472**, (2017).

60.   Sambrook, J. *Molecular cloning : a laboratory manual*. (Third edition. Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y. :

Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, [2001] ©2001).

Fig. 1. mARi-based regulation integrated into the BASIC modular design-assembly framework.

(**a**) BASIC DNA assembly is based on standardised DNA parts and computationally designed linkers: standardised backbones including Origin of Replication (ORI), antibiotic resistance, and bioparts; linkers are either neutral, encode UTR-RBS or are methylated to regenerate the BASIC prefix (LMA) and suffix (LMB) during assembly. mARi-based regulators were composed as BASIC parts consisting of a promoter, seed sequence (grey), sRNA scaffold (purple) and terminator. (**b**) Plasmids were constructed from the interchangeable DNA parts using BASIC DNA assembly[24]: a representative assembled plasmid shows a functional UTR-RBS linker controlling expression of a downstream gene of interest (GOI). (**c**) Expression of mARi leads to repression of a target gene with a cognate UTR by base-pairing between the 5ʹuntranslated region and mARi seed sequence.

Fig. 2. Design and development of mARi-based gene regulation.

(**a**) Sequence and secondary structure of mARi containing a seed sequence (grey) and MicC RNA scaffold (purple). (**b**) Schematic design of target site selection of mARi-mediated repression. Four positions within the translation initiation region were selected as target sites (Positions 1-4; **Supplementary Table 1**). The numbers indicate the relative position of the mARi downstream of the transcription start site (+1). (**c**) Functional characterization of mARi-based gene regulation showing the silencing activity of mARi-A for the different target positions vs a sfGFP-only control without mARi. (**d**) The fluorescence intensity (top) and normalised fluorescence (bottom) when position 1 mARi-A was used to target UTR-A with varying RBS strength. All sfGFP fluorescence measurements were performed by flow cytometry after 6 h growth. Data are shown with error bars for the mean ± SD of triplicate measurements (black dots).

 Fig. 3. Characterization of mARi-A across different genetic architectures.

 (**a**) Heat-map showing relative expression ratio calculated from the relative strength of promoters

 driving mARi and mRNA expression across a matrix of constructs (**Supplementary Fig. 2b**). The

 representative conditions used for set-point high and low expression ratios are highlighted with a blue

 square (P_{J23119}-mARi:$P_{J23101BASIC}$-mRNA) and grey square (P_{J23101}-mARi:$P_{J23101BASIC}$-mRNA), respectively.

 (**b**) Schematic of mARi repression constructs used to investigate the effect of transcript ratio using four

 different strength constitutive promoters driving both mARi and mRNA in a single plasmid system. (**c**)

 Heat-map showing the measured relative expression levels (mean normalised fluorescence) of the

 mARi expression ratio matrix from (**a**). (**d**) Schematic of the mARi-based repression system with high

 and low expression ratios constructed in single- and double-plasmid systems with different copy

 numbers. Reporter expression was measured for the single (**e**) and double (**f**) plasmid systems for high

and low ratio mARi against a control construct without mARi; sfGFP fluorescence measurements were

performed by flow cytometry assay. (**g**) Reporter expression of the high-ratio mARi was measured in

different *E. coli* strains against a control construct without mARi. (**h**) The repression activity of mARi in

two representative strains (DH10b and BL21(DE3)) across three different growth phases

(**Supplementary Fig. 3**). Assays in **g** and **h** were performed by plate reader assay. All error bars show

the mean ± SD of triplicate measurements (black dots).

Fig. 4. mARi enables multiplex and simultaneous control of gene expression in a multi-gene system.

(**a**) Schematic of experimental design to evaluate the target specificity of modular mARi-mRNA pairs.

(**b**) Fluorescence response of matrix of all possible mARi/UTR pairs measured by flow cytometry assay

with triplicate repeats (**Supplementary Fig. 5c**). (**c**) Schematic of mARi expression cassettes (mARi-A

and/or mARi-B). (**d**) Schematic of reporters in dual transcription units. (**e**) The fluorescence response

of dual reporters in a double transcriptional unit system when combined with all possible mARi-A and

mARi-B regulators was measured by flow cytometry assay. (**f**) Schematic of dual reporters in an operon

system. (**g**) The fluorescence response of dual reporters in an operon system when combined with all

possible mARi-A and mARi-B regulators was measured by flow cytometry assay. All error bars show

the mean ± SD of triplicate measurements (black dots).

Fig. 5. Host-responsive mARi negative feedback robustly improves protein production.

(**a**) Schematic of the dynamic feedback control system in a single plasmid system; mARi-A is controlled by the host stress responsive P$_{htpG1}$ promoter; GOI fused to mCherry under Tet-inducible promoter with UTR-A-RBSa in high copy number plasmid (pSB1C3). (**b**) VioB-mCherry production per cell as a function of aTc induction at 12 h post induction in BL21(DE3) was measured by plate-reader assay. (**c** and **d**) The accumulation of VioB-mCherry (top) and growth profile (bottom) over induction time with 5 ng/ml aTc in BL21(DE3) (**c**) and DH10b (**d**). (**e-g**) Expression of VioB-mCherry in BL21(DE3) was measured with 5 ng/ml aTc under different conditions of temperature (**e**); growth media (**f**) and culture volumes (**g**), measured by plate-reader assay after 24 h and in shake flask for (**g**). (**h**) The

694   accumulation of LacZ-mCherry (top) and growth profile (bottom) over induction time with 5 ng/ml aTc

695   in BL21(DE3). All error bars show the mean ± SD of triplicate measurements (black dots).