Effects of individual base-pairs on *in vivo* target search and destruction kinetics of small RNA

Anustup Poddar[1], Muhammad S. Azam[2,6], Tunc Kayikcioglu[1], Maksym Bobrovskyy[2,7], Jichuan Zhang[1], Xiangqian Ma[2], Piyush Labhsetwar[3,8], Jingyi Fei[4], Digvijay Singh[1,9], Zaida Luthey-Schulten[3], Carin K. Vanderpool[2,*] and Taekjip Ha[1,5,*]

[1]Department of Biophysics and Biophysical Chemistry, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, Maryland 21205

[2]Department of Microbiology, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana, Illinois 61801

[3]Department of Chemistry, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana, Illinois 61801

[4]Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois 60637

[5]Howard Hughes Medical Institute, Baltimore, Maryland 21205

[6]Present Address: Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois 60637

[7]Present Address: Department of Microbiology, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois 60637

[8]Present Address: The Land Institute, Salina, Kansas 67401

[9]Present Address: Division of Biological Sciences, University of California, San Diego, San Diego, California 92093

* Corresponding authors

Taekjip Ha, Ph.D. (tjha@jhu.edu)

Carin K. Vanderpool, Ph.D. (cvanderp@life.illinois.edu)

Abstract

Base-pairing interactions mediate intermolecular target recognition in many biological systems

and applications, including DNA repair, CRISPR, microRNA, small RNA (sRNA) and antisense

oligo therapies. Even a single base-pair mismatch can cause a substantial difference in biological

activity but presently we do not yet know how the target search kinetics *in vivo* are influenced by

single nucleotide level changes. Here, we used high-throughput sequencing to identify

functionally relevant single point mutants of the bacterial sRNA, SgrS, and quantitative super-

resolution microscopy to probe the mutational impact on the regulation of its primary target,

ptsG mRNA. Our super-resolution imaging and analysis platform allowed us to further dissect

mutational effects on SgrS lifetimes, and even subtle changes in the *in vivo* rates of target

association, k_{on}, and dissociation, k_{off}. Mutations that disrupt Hfq binding and are distal to the

mRNA annealing region still decreased k_{on} and increased k_{off}, providing an *in vivo* demonstration

that Hfq directly facilitates sRNA-mRNA annealing. Single base-pair mismatches in the

annealing region reduced k_{on} by 24-31% and increased k_{off} by 14-25%, extending the time it

takes to find and destroy the target mRNA by about a third, depending on whether an AU or GC

base-pair is disrupted. The effects of disrupting contiguous base-pairing are much more modest

than that expected from thermodynamics, suggesting that Hfq also buffers base-pair disruptions.

Introduction

Myriad biological systems use base-pairing interactions for target recognition where proteins mediate base-pairing interactions between two physically separated strands. Such base-pairing-mediated targeting is found in a wide range of processes including DNA repair[1], noncoding RNA-based gene regulation[2,3], bacterial immunity using CRISPR[4], and therapies using anti-sense oligonucleotides[5]. They all rely on base-pairing interactions above a threshold for specificity. How do they achieve both accuracy and speed to sample through thousands of potential targets and rapidly reject non-targets? Recent advances in single-molecule imaging technologies made it possible to explore the kinetic parameters of target recognition and non-target rejection *in vitro*[6–12], and in a limited number of cases, inside living cells[13]. However, we do not yet know the impact of single nucleotide changes in *in vivo* target search kinetics, even though such minute changes can have large functional consequences. Our goal here is to quantify the mutational impact on base-pairing-mediated target search kinetics *in vivo* using bacterial gene regulation by small RNA (sRNA) as a model system.

Among the many examples of non-coding RNA-based gene regulation are microRNAs and long non-coding RNAs in eukaryotes and sRNAs in bacteria and archaea[14,3,15]. Often, bacterial sRNAs regulate gene expression at a post-transcriptional level during stress, for example, in iron limitation stress[16], osmotic and acid stress[17], and oxidative stress[18]. Our work, here, studied the sRNA SgrS, which is produced in response to glucose-phosphate stress.[19]

A disparity between sugar uptake and its metabolism gives rise to stress; a faster uptake rate leads to an accumulation of glucose-6-phosphate and activation of SgrR, a transcription factor. This stimulates the *sgrS* gene to transcribe SgrS, which reduces sugar transport, promotes efflux and reroutes cellular metabolism[20–22]. Sugar stress conditions are provoked in most studies by

subjecting cells to α-methylglucoside (αMG), a sugar analogue that gets phosphorylated during

import to form αMG-6-phosphate, which cannot be further processed metabolically. *E. coli*

SgrS, a 227-nt sRNA, binds reversibly and dynamically to its primary target, *ptsG* mRNA[23],

which codes for the EIICB domain of the glucose phosphotransferase system. Binding between

the RNAs, aided by a hexameric RNA chaperone protein Hfq, blocks the *ptsG* ribosome binding

site, thereby inhibiting translation of new glucose transporters (Fig. 1a). This sRNA-mRNA

complex also gets degraded by endoribonuclease RNase E, thus reducing the cellular

concentration of *ptsG* mRNA. Hfq is important for the stability of sRNAs in general and *in vitro*

studies have shown that Hfq increases the rate of annealing between sRNA and its target mRNA

sequences[24–26]. Whether Hfq also directly facilitates annealing between sRNA and mRNA *in*

vivo is unknown for any sRNA because it has not been possible to separate the effects of Hfq on

sRNA stability and sRNA-mRNA annealing.

SgrS contains a 3′ Hfq-binding region predicted to contain two stem-loops, the small stem-loop

and the terminator stem-loop that is larger, followed by a U-rich tail (Fig. 1b)[27,28]. An optimal

length of U-rich tail, with seven nucleotides or more[27,29], is required for the formation of

functional sRNAs and for efficient Hfq binding, and Hfq binding to the two stem-loops is critical

for target regulation[27,28,30–32].

Nucleotides 168-187 of SgrS are partially complementary to the *ptsG* 5′-UTR (Fig. 1c).[20]

Nucleotides 168-181, if presented as a 14 nt long oligonucleotide alone, are sufficient for full

repression of *ptsG* translation *in vitro* and *in vivo*[33]. Among these, G176 and G178 have been

shown to be most important for the annealing between SgrS and *ptsG* mRNA[24].

Previously, we developed a two-color 3D super-resolution imaging and modeling platform to determine *in vivo* target search kinetics of wild-type SgrS regulation on *ptsG*[34]. The bimolecular association rate constant k_{on} between the RNAs was $2 \times 10^5\,M^{-1}s^{-1}$, which is within the wide range of reported Hfq-mediated sRNA and target mRNA association rates *in vitro* despite the crowded cellular environment and large excess of non–target RNA molecules. The dissociation rate constant k_{off} was $0.2\,s^{-1}$; 10 to 100-fold larger than *in vitro* estimates of other sRNA-mRNA pairs[32,35,36]. Its non-zero value showed that even for the correct target, binding is reversible. The large dissociation constant K_D ($=k_{off}/k_{on}$) of ~1 µM explained why more than a hundred SgrS molecules are needed for rapid *ptsG* mRNA regulation. The rate constant for co-degradation, k_{cat}, was surprisingly high, $0.4\,s^{-1}$, suggesting that RNA degradation machineries accompany the target search complex formed between SgrS and Hfq so that as soon as RNAs bind each other, RNAs can be degraded without waiting for the arrival of downstream degradation machineries. Here, by expanding the scale of this quantitative imaging-based investigation by an order of magnitude to include 10 SgrS mutants, we aimed to determine how k_{on}, k_{off} and k_{cat} are affected by single nucleotide changes.

We formulated a pipeline of experiments to identify and examine the key regions in SgrS responsible for the annealing and regulation of *ptsG*. We used Sort-Seq, a high-throughput method that can estimate the impact of different mutations on the overall activity of the fluorescence reporter system chosen[37–39]. From the Sort-Seq results, we identified the regions in the SgrS sequence important for the overall regulation and chose nine single nucleotide substitution mutants. *E. coli* strains containing these mutations or one double substitution mutation in their endogenous chromosomal copy were constructed and studied using single-molecule fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (smFISH) followed by 2-color 3D super-resolution

imaging and modeling to determine k_{on}, k_{off} and k_{cat}. Our results show that the two stem-loops at

the 3′ end of SgrS play important roles in the activity of the sRNA. We also provide *in vivo*

evidence that Hfq directly facilitates SgrS-*ptsG* mRNA base-pairing. Importantly, we were able

to unambiguously ascribe relative contributions of single base-pairs to sRNA lifetimes and target

search kinetics, allowing us to quantify by how much the rates of mRNA binding and rejection

are influenced by eliminating a single base-pair between them.

Results

Sort-Seq reveals SgrS nucleotides important for target regulation

We employed a high-throughput Sort-Seq approach to identify SgrS regions important for *ptsG*

regulation. We created a low copy number reporter plasmid containing a partial *ptsG* sequence

(105 nt 5′- UTR along with the first 30 nt coding sequence of *ptsG* mRNA) and superfolder

GFP-coding sequence (*ptsG-sf*GFP)[40] (Supplementary Fig. 1) and transformed it into *E. coli*

strain MB1 (Δ*ptsG*, Δ*sgrS*, *lacI*[q], *tet*[R]). The *sgrS* mutation library was constructed by random

mutagenesis PCR of a plasmid[40] containing the *sgrS* sequence (Supplementary Fig. 1) and was

then transformed into the MB1 strain containing the reporter plasmid (Fig. 2a). The expression of

*ptsG-sf*GFP and *sgrS* were under the control of $P_{Llac-O1}$ and $P_{Ltet-O1}$, respectively, and were

induced by Isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) and anhydrotetracycline (aTc). Upon

induction by IPTG, cells containing the target reporter (*ptsG-sf*GFP) alone showed bright

fluorescence, while those co-transformed with the plasmid containing wild-type *sgrS* showed

weak GFP fluorescence in the presence of both IPTG and aTc in single-cell imaging

(Supplementary Fig. 2) and flow cytometry analysis (Fig. 2b), indicating an effective repression

of the reporter. Cells co-transformed with the *sgrS* mutant library showed a broad distribution of

GFP fluorescence indicating highly variable levels of regulation by mutants (Fig. 2b). Based on

the flow cytometry results, the cells were collected in five intensity bins, and the plasmids were

extracted from the cells. For each bin, the mutated *sgrS* sequence from position 149 to 227 was

amplified by PCR and sequenced. Sequencing was limited to this region because the 5′ region,

up to nucleotide 153 and coding for the 43 amino acid peptide SgrT, is not involved in base-

pairing-dependent mRNA regulation[41,42].

Using the relative abundance of sequences in each bin and the GFP fluorescence levels from the

flow cytometry analysis, we calculated, for each single point mutation, the average fluorescence

intensity of cells sharing the same mutation as a measure of the regulation defect (Fig. 2d).[39]

High average single cell fluorescence would correspond to SgrS mutants that are highly

defective in regulation of *ptsG* reporter expression and vice versa. The degree of perturbation to

the regulatory capacity is color-coded in the heatmap grid, ranging from the least (blue) through

intermediate (white) to the most (red). Nucleotides 149 to 174 showed little to no perturbation of

SgrS regulation as shown by the blue squares (Fig. 2d). In contrast, the region where SgrS can

base-pair with *ptsG* mRNA (U175 to G186) displayed perturbations across a wide range as

shown by the white and red squares in the grid. Specifically, previous studies showed that

G176C or G178C eliminates the SgrS's ability to downregulate *ptsG* while C174G and G170C

only weakly perturbs SgrS function *in vivo* and *in vitro*[24,31]. The corresponding squares in our

heatmap grid (Fig. 2d) show red or dark red for G176C and G178C, and white or light blue for

C174G and G170C, validating our Sort-Seq results. We also see that SgrS regulation is

hampered if there are mutations in the small stem-loop region (nts 183-196 (Fig 1b)), the

terminator stem-loop region (nts 199-219) and the poly-U tail (nts 220-227). The largest effect is

seen in the stem region of the terminator stem-loop, C199 to G205 and C213 to G219, where we

see the darkest red, highlighting the importance of this stem-loop. These stem-loop regions and

the poly-U tail play a role in Hfq binding[27,28], and our Sort-Seq analysis therefore confirms that

Hfq interaction is important for SgrS function in the cell.

Based on Sort-Seq results, we picked nine single point mutations for further investigation. These

include mutations in the target annealing region (A177U, G178A, G178U, U181A), U-rich

region upstream of the small stem-loop (U182A), the small stem-loop (G184A), the terminator

stem-loop (G215A) and the poly-U tail (U224G, U224A).

SgrS mutation effects on regulation of *ptsG* reporter

To examine the effect of the selected SgrS mutations on *ptsG* regulation, we monitored the effect

of wild-type and seven of the SgrS mutants (plasmid-encoded and expressed from an inducible

promoter) on the activity of a chromosomal *ptsG'-'lacZ* translational fusion (Fig. 3a). The wild-

type SgrS almost completely eliminated β-galactosidase activity whereas the mutants showed

regulation defects of various degrees consistent with the Sort-Seq data. SgrS G215A, which

disrupts the terminator stem-loop structure, showed the largest defect. To test if the regulatory

defects can be explained by a reduction of SgrS levels, for example, due to shorter cellular

lifetimes associated with impaired Hfq binding, we performed Northern blot analysis. We found

that SgrS abundance is not affected for four of the mutants (A177U, G178U, G178A and

G184A) and is reduced by 40-50% for mutations in the terminator stem-loop or poly-U tail

(G215A, U224G and U224A) (Fig. 3c). Interestingly, the latter three mutants showed large

increases in readthrough transcription, suggesting that transcription termination is defective (Fig.

3d). These observations are consistent with a previous study which showed that SgrS molecules

with an extended 3′ region do not interact with Hfq[43]. Overall, single point mutations outside the

large terminator stem-loop and poly-U tail have minimal impact on SgrS abundance and their

regulatory defects cannot be explained by SgrS abundance changes.

Super-resolution imaging of specific chromosomal SgrS mutants

A set of 9 single point mutants of SgrS were chosen for further analysis using quantitative

imaging (A177U, G178A, G178U, G184A, U181A, U182A, G215A, U224A, U224G). To avoid

potential complications arising from SgrS overexpression, we created these mutations in the

endogenous chromosomal copy of SgrS. A177, G178 and U181 are in the seed (target base-

pairing) region, G184 is in the small stem-loop region. U181 and U182 are in the U-rich region

upstream of the small stem-loop, previously shown to bind Hfq[27]. We also constructed a double-

mutant G184A-C195U which restores the small stem-loop structure. G215 is in the terminator

stem-loop region and U224 is in the poly-U tail, both of which provide major binding sites for

Hfq. These mutant alleles in the background of strains with wild-type RNase E or a C-terminal

truncated RNase E were grown, and glucose-phosphate stress was induced using αMG for a

varied amount of time before cell fixation and permeabilization. We performed two-color 3D

super-resolution imaging of the SgrS sRNAs labeled with up to 9 FISH probes conjugated to

Alexa Fluor 647 and the *ptsG* mRNAs labeled with up to 28 FISH probes conjugated to CF568.

Δ*sgrS* and Δ*ptsG* strains were also examined to correct for the background arising from

nonspecific binding of FISH probes. The wild-type strain showed an increase in SgrS copy

number over time after sugar stress induction (Fig. 4, Supplementary Fig. 3). At the same time,

the copy number of *ptsG* mRNA showed a decrease (Fig. 4, Supplementary Fig. 3). We used a

density-based clustering algorithm[34] to determine the copy numbers of RNAs along with the

copy number of SgrS-*ptsG* mRNA complexes. Super-resolution imaging was especially

important for quantifying sRNA-mRNA complexes because at conventional microscopy

resolution there was too much false co-localization between sRNA and mRNA.

The accumulation of the mutant SgrS sRNAs was lower than for wild-type SgrS with an

accompanying impairment in *ptsG* mRNA degradation for all single point mutants examined,

showing that their regulatory functions are perturbed. The single cell distribution of RNA copy

numbers also showed a decreased accumulation of SgrS, with the histogram peaking at lower

copy numbers 20 min after αMG induction, and the histograms for *ptsG* mRNA peaked at higher

copy numbers per cell compared to the wild-type (Fig. 5b, d, h). The lowest accumulation of

SgrS was seen for G184A and G215A, and they also showed the most impaired mRNA

degradation (Fig. 4, 5a, c, g, Supplementary Fig. 9, 11). These two mutations occur in two

separate stem-loop regions, both of which participate in Hfq binding.[27,28] The double mutant,

G184A-C195U, which restores base-pairing in the small stem-loop via a compensatory mutation,

eliminated the negative impact of G184A as seen by recovery of SgrS accumulation and

regulation of *ptsG* mRNA (Fig. 4, 5e, f, Supplementary Fig. 10). This suggests that the

disruption of the stem-loop structure, not of G184 basepairing with *ptsG* mRNA, is primarily

responsible for regulatory defects of G184A.

These imaging data by themselves cannot tell us whether regulatory defects are due to changes in

target binding kinetics or due to changes in the SgrS stability. Therefore, we next determined the

lifetimes of wild-type and mutant SgrS molecules.

Intrinsic lifetimes of SgrS mutants

In order to calculate the target-independent lifetime of SgrS, we induced SgrS expression using αMG and then added rifampicin to stop transcription globally. RT-qPCR was performed vs time after rifampicin treatment to quantify the SgrS level. The wild-type SgrS showed minimal intrinsic degradation over a period of 2 hours after the addition of rifampicin but it showed rapid degradation in the presence of ongoing transcription (10.4 ± 0.7 min), suggesting that SgrS degradation is normally dominated by co-degradation with its various target mRNAs (Fig. Supplementary Fig. 25). The intrinsic degradation was also minimal for SgrS A177U mutant (Supplementary Fig. 25), suggesting that in the absence of co-degradation, a mutation in the target-annealing region does not destabilize SgrS. In contrast, intrinsic degradation of G184A was rapid (lifetime of 6.3 min) and so was the intrinsic degradation of wild-type SgrS in Δhfq strain (lifetime of 5.1 min) (Supplementary Fig. 25), indicating that Hfq is required for the target-independent stability of SgrS and the small stem-loop is important for Hfq binding.

Lifetime of SgrS mutants

In order to determine the effective lifetime of SgrS mutants, which includes the contributions from intrinsic degradation and co-degradation with target mRNA, the strains carrying chromosomal mutations were treated with αMG for 10 minutes before rinsing it away. SgrS decay over time was then monitored through imaging of fixed cells. The wild-type SgrS showed a degradation rate of 0.0016 ± 0.0001 s^{-1} (lifetime of 10.4 ± 0.7 min) and all of the mutants showed higher rates, the highest being for G184A with 0.0046 ± 0.0003 s^{-1} (lifetime of 3.6 ± 0.2 min), followed by G215A with 0.00345 ± 0.0003 s^{-1} (lifetime of 4.8 ± 0.4 min) (Fig. 6a,

Supplementary Fig. 26-32, 34-36). Because G184A and G215A disrupt the small and terminator

stem-loop regions, respectively, our data suggest that both stem-loop regions are important for

SgrS stability *in vivo*. G184A-C195U recovered the stability of SgrS to the wild-type level with

an identical degradation rate within error (Fig. 6a, Supplementary Fig. 33). Rifampicin-chase

experiments did not show any difference in the lifetime of *ptsG* mRNA between all mutant

strains (Supplementary Fig. 26-37), showing that the mutations in SgrS have no effect on *ptsG*

mRNA stability when SgrS is not induced.

The degradation rate of SgrS in Δ*hfq* strains was much higher, about 0.022 ± 0.004 s^{-1} (lifetime

of 0.76 ± 0.14 min), for wild-type and all SgrS mutants (Fig. 6a, Supplementary Fig. 38-40) [23].

This 14-fold increase in degradation rate for sRNAs in Δ*hfq* strains confirms that Hfq is

indispensable for the stability of SgrS[27,44]. Because none of the SgrS mutants in the *hfq*$^+$ cells

showed degradation rates as high as in Δ*hfq* strains, these SgrS mutations are only partially

deleterious to the interactions with Hfq.

Mutations in the base-pairing regions (A177U, G178U and G178A) reduced the lifetime of SgrS

in the imaging-based experiment even though they are not expected to alter Hfq binding.

Because our Northern blot analysis of overexpressed SgrS showed that these mutations do not

change SgrS abundance, the intrinsic degradation is unlikely to be affected by the mutations.

Instead, we attribute the discrepancy to mutation-induced alterations in co-degradation of SgrS

with other SgrS target mRNAs.

Target search and destruction kinetics of SgrS mutants

Once we obtain the average copy numbers of SgrS, *ptsG* mRNA and the SgrS-*ptsG* complex per

cell as a function of time after SgrS induction, we can use a previously developed deterministic

kinetic model to describe the SgrS-*ptsG* regulation kinetics (Fig. 1a)[34]. We used the

experimentally-determined degradation rate for *ptsG* mRNA, β_p, to calculate the *ptsG*

transcription rate α_p using $\alpha_p = \beta_p \times [p]_0$, where $[p]_0$ is the steady state copy number of *ptsG*

mRNA at t=0. By globally fitting the six time courses of the three RNA species with or without

RNase E mutation that inhibits co-degradation, we obtained k_{on}, k_{off} and k_{cat} for the wild-type and

mutant SgrS.

k_{on} for the wild-type strain was $(1.9 \pm 0.2) \times 10^5$ M^{-1}-s^{-1} and k_{off} was 0.22 ± 0.02 s^{-1} giving a

K_D of 1.16 ± 0.14 μM, comparable to the previously published results (Fig. 6b-d)[34]. k_{on} was

lower for all single point mutants compared to the wild-type and the reduction ranged from 24%

for A177U to 53% for G184A. k_{off} was higher for all the mutants and the increase ranged from

14% for A177U to 33% for G184A giving a dissociation constant, K_D of 1.67 ± 0.13 μM and

3.08 ± 0.33 μM, respectively (Fig. 6b-d). k_{cat} was not affected by the mutations within error

(Supplementary Fig. 43). To test the possibility that the apparent changes in k_{on} and k_{off} are due

to fitting errors and that the regulatory deficiencies can be explained solely by reduction in SgrS

lifetimes, we repeated the global fitting procedure while keeping the k_{on} and k_{off} values fixed at

the wild-type values. The fits were considerably worse, and were especially poor for copy

number curves of *ptsG* mRNA and SgrS/mRNA complex (Supplementary Fig. 44-51).

Therefore, our procedure of obtaining the mutation effects on k_{on} and k_{off} is robust.

When we attempted to restore the base-pairing in the small stem-loop by adding a compensatory

mutation to G184A that showed the largest changes to k_{on} and k_{off} (G184A-C195U), k_{on} and k_{off}

returned to the wild-type values within error (Fig. 6c-d). Nucleotides 168-187 in SgrS were

originally proposed to participate in base-pairing with the *ptsG* mRNA[20] but a subsequent study

showed that only nucleotides 168-181 are required for basepairing[33]. Here we found that binding

kinetics is similar between the wild-type and G184C-C195U, strongly suggesting that a mutation

at G184 primarily acts through disruption of the small stem-loop structure, thereby affecting Hfq

binding, instead of through direct disruption of base-pairing of G184 with the target strand. Even

though our data suggest that G184 is not involved with SgrS-*ptsG* mRNA base-pairing, its

mutation negatively affected annealing kinetics, decreasing k_{on} and increasing k_{off}. Therefore, our

results support the dual roles of Hfq: first to increase sRNA stability (Fig. 6a) and second to

directly facilitate SgrS-*ptsG* binding.

The A to U mutation at position 177 removes an AU base-pair, breaking 8 base-pairs, the longest

stretch of contiguous base-pairing between SgrS and *ptsG* mRNA into segments of 4 and 3 base-

pairs. This disruption gives a reduction in association rate of 24% and an increase in dissociation

rate by 14%. The two mutations at position 178 eliminate a GC base-pair and breaking the same

8 base-pairs into segments of 3 and 4 base-pairs. G178A and G178U mutants gave a reduction of

association rate by 31-32% and an increase of dissociation rate by 23-25%. The larger effects of

G178 mutations compared to A177U are likely due to the loss of GC over AU base-pair.

Consistent with this suggestion, a mutation at U181, losing an AU base-pair, decreased the

association rate by 26% and increased the dissociation rate by 18%, very similar to A177U

values.

The G215A mutation in the terminator stem-loop and the mutations U224A and U224G in the

poly-U tail showed k_{on} decreases and k_{off} increases even though they should not change

complementarity between SgrS and *ptsG* mRNA. The substantial effects on binding kinetics

must therefore be due to defects in Hfq's ability to facilitate the annealing reaction, further

providing *in vivo* evidence of direct facilitation of base-pairing between sRNA and mRNA by

Hfq.

Difference in regulation outcome between imaging and Sort-Seq experiments

To examine if the regulation outcomes for SgrS mutants is consistent between our quantitiave

imaging experiments and Sort-Seq analysis, we used the fractional decrease of *ptsG* mRNA over

the first 20 min after sugar stress induction as a measure of the SgrS regulation of *ptsG* mRNA

target in imaging-based analysis. (Fig. 6e-g). Plotting these values vs the inferred GFP signals

obtained from the Sort-Seq experiments, we observed a relatively weak correlation (Pearson's R

= 0.71), suggesting that the translation reporter-based Sort-Seq method is not able to faithfully

capture the regulation defects of SgrS mutations. For example, G178A which had a large

deficiency in regulation in imaging experiments showed almost the wild-type level regulation in

Sort-Seq. A large defect in regulation was shown in previous studies where nucleotide 178 was

mutated and our imaging-based approach is in accordance to this finding[24]. SgrS overexpression

in Sort-Seq may have overcome the negative effect of mutations through mass action when the

defect is primarily in binding kinetics. For the G215A, U224A and U224G mutant strains,

however, Sort-Seq showed large regulatory deficiencies, suggesting that their defects cannot be

overcome by overexpression. There are several possible explanations. First, because Sort-Seq

relies on the translational output, mutations that disrupt translational inhibition but not RNA co-

degradation may not be scored well in imaging-based experiments. However, *in vitro* translation

experiments showed that mutation of G178 to C eliminates translation inhibition by SgrS[33],

making it unlikely that defects in RNA-RNA annealing do not affect translational repression.

Second, even when these mutants can bind Hfq, the complex may be defective in mediating

RNA annealing. Third, these mutations also interfere with proper termination as shown by

readthrough transcripts (Fig. 3). It was shown previously that the readthrough products of SgrS

transcription do not bind Hfq *in vivo* and *in vitro*[43]. Weakening of the terminator stem-loop or

reduction of the slippery Us must be causing transcription readthroughs that produce regulation-

defective products, and much of the effect of G215A, U224A or U224G may be due to improper

termination. It has also been shown that readthrough transcription of SgrS is suppressed under

stress conditions, providing an additional layer of regulation[43]. Finally, the incorporation of the

GFP in the reporter system may have affected the stability of the mRNA.

Discussion

Previous studies have measured the effect of mutations in the regulation of mRNA targets of

SgrS[45–47] and have shown the importance of Hfq, sequence complementarity between SgrS and

its targets, and RNA secondary structures[27,33,48,49]. Hfq has also been shown to promote structural

changes to the RNAs, which in turn helps in the annealing and, consequently, regulation[50–52].

Our study provides a quantitative description of the process of target search and off-target

rejection by determining the kinetic parameters as a function of single nucleotide changes in

functionally important regions in SgrS. The k_{on} and k_{off} values determined in this study depict the

apparent rate constants because we did not explicitly include Hfq binding in our model. k_{on} in

particular should have contributions from Hfq binding to SgrS, target search by SgrS/Hfq and

subsequent annealing.

We used IntaRNA[53–56] to predict the energy of interaction between SgrS and *ptsG* mRNA and

found that it changes by ~6.4 kcal/mol for the G178 point mutations whereas the change is only

around ~4.3 kcal/mol for A177U. Our study agreed with the ranking because we saw lower rates

of association and higher rates of dissociation for G178 than A177U. However, the magnitude of

the effect is much more modest compared to a simple prediction based on the energetic penalty.

Both mutations introduce a mismatch within eight contiguous base-pairs, incurring large

energetic penalties. For example, 6.4 kcal/mol would correspond to a change in the equilibrium

binding constant by a factor ~60,000 instead of ~2 we observed. Therefore, Hfq must be

buffering the effect of breaking internal base-pairs in short helices. How this is achieved is

presently unknown.

We found that the rate of co-degradation remains high, ~0.3 s^{-1}, even with SgrS mutations. The

co-degradation of the SgrS-*ptsG* complex is brought about by the degradosome, in which RNase

E is a key component. Hfq copurifies with RNase E and SgrS[57], and at least one sRNA (MicC)

has been shown to mediate the interaction between Hfq and the C-terminal part of RNase E *in*

vitro[58] and *in vivo*[59]. It has been hypothesized that the sRNA-Hfq-RNase E complex forms first

and subsequently the complementary mRNA binds to this complex, aided by Hfq, followed by a

coupled or sequential degradation of the RNA pair[58]. The changes in k_{on} and k_{off} in our study

account for the disruption of the SgrS-*ptsG* mRNA annealing, but once a stable complex with all

four components forms, the co-degradation occurs at the same rate irrespective of the SgrS

mutations.

Because k_{cat} did not change with SgrS mutations, the probability that a single binding event will

cause co-degradation of sRNA and mRNA decreases with a mutation-induced increase in k_{off}. On

average, the wild-type SgrS would take 1.73 (= $(k_{off}+k_{cat})/k_{cat}$) binding events before co-

degradation. This number increases to 1.81 when AU basepairing is disrupted by a mutation and

increases further to 1.9 when GC basepairing is disrupted. In addition, the binding rate at the full

SgrS accumulation condition, 100-200 copies per cell, would correspond to 0.48 μM (assuming

0.7 μm³ per cell), and the wild-type SgrS would take about 11 s to bind *ptsG* mRNA. If a mutant

SgrS were present at the same concentration, it would take ~13.6 s and ~14.4 s to bind for

disrupting a single AU and GC base-pair, respectively. The overall time it takes to degrade the

target would increase from 19 s to 24.6 s and 27.4 s for disrupting an AU and GC base-pair,

respectively. Although we examined only the effect of SgrS mutation in this study, if we assume

that a mutation in the target mRNA breaking a single base-pair has a similar impact, we can

conclude that target search and destruction will take 29-44 % longer for nearly cognate off-target

RNA containing a single base-pair mismatch.

The poly-U sequence at the 3' end of sRNAs is an important Hfq binding module[29,43] and binds

to the proximal face of the ring-shaped Hfq hexamer[29,50] . Because Hfq forms a stable 1:1

complex with SgrS[27], a single Hfq hexamer must bind the poly-U tail, both of the stem-loops,

and the UA-rich region upstream of the small stem-loop simultaneously. How this is achieved

requires further structural studies, but the UA-rich region has been found in other sRNAs and has

been proposed to bind the rim of the Hfq hexamer[27,51,60–62]. The binding of Hfq with target

mRNAs, however, has been studied extensively and it is known that Hfq brings about a

distortion in the mRNA structure, promoting the base-pairing between the RNAs[63,64]. In this

study we showed that the U224 mutations in the poly-U tail caused the rate of association of the

RNAs to decrease and the rate of dissociation to increase. Because U224 is distant from the

mRNA annealing region of SgrS, our data showed that Hfq directly facilitates RNA-RNA

annealing *in vivo*. The same effect was observed from other mutants that disrupt Hfq binding

without changing the mRNA annealing region of SgrS, and collectively our work presents the

first *in vivo* evidence that Hfq directly facilitates target binding. It should be emphasized that a

careful accounting of SgrS mutations' effects on SgrS lifetimes was necessary to reach this

conclusion. Microscopic mechanisms for Hfq's role in sRNA-mRNA annealing are still a subject

of active research[60,65,66], and may be investigated in the future using our analysis platform.

Materials and Methods

Construction of plasmids for Sort-Seq studies

A ptsG-*sf*GFP reporter system was constructed, containing 105 nt 5′ UTR and 30 nt coding

sequence of *ptsG* mRNA, which coded for the first 10 amino acids of PtsG protein, and this was

fused by a 42 nt linker sequence and the superfolder GFP coding sequence. The reporter system

was subcloned from the pZEMB8 plasmid. A plasmid, pAS06 was constructed by inserting this

reporter sequence into the low copy plasmid pAS05 between the XhoI and XbaI restriction sites

and the expression of the reporter system was under the control of $P_{Llac-O1}$.

The SgrS sRNA sequence was inserted in between the NdeI and BamHI restriction sites of the

medium copy plasmid pZAMB1 and its expression was under the control of $P_{Ltet-O1}$. The sgrS

mutation library was prepared by using the plasmid pZAMB1 as a template for mutagenesis PCR

and also as a vector to insert the sgrS mutation sequence.

Cell culture and induction for Sort-Seq studies

The *E. coli* MB1 strain ($\Delta ptsG$, $\Delta sgrS$, *lacI^q*, *tet^R*) was transformed with plasmids (pAS06 for

ptsG-*sf*GFP and pZAMB1 for *sgrS* or the SgrS mutation library) and grown at 37 ºC in LB Broth

Miller (EMD) overnight with the respective antibiotics (100 µg/ml ampicillin (Gold

Biotechnology, Inc.) for pAS06 plasmid and 30 µg/ml chloramphenicol (Sigma-Aldrich) for

pZAMB1 plasmid and the *sgrS* mutation library). The following day, the cell culture was diluted

200-fold into fresh LB Broth with respective antibiotics and were grown until OD_{600} reached 0.1-

0.2 as measured using an Educational Spectrophotometer (Fisher Scientific Education). The

culture was diluted again to an OD_{600} of 0.001 and supplemented with 1 mM IPTG (Sigma-

Aldrich) to induce the expression of PtsG-*sf*GFP and 50 ng/ml aTc to induce the expression of

SgrS or the SgrS mutation library. The *E. coli* cells were collected and treated further for the next

set of experiments.

SgrS sRNA mutagenesis experiment

Agilent Genemorph II Random Mutagenesis Kit (Agilent Technologies) was used to perform

mutagenesis PCR on SgrS using the protocol adapted from previously published work from

Levine's lab[39]. 1 ng of pZAMB1 plasmid, with the sgrS sequence, was used to conduct

mutagenesis PCR for 15 cycles. The yields of the individual mutants were increased by

amplifying the product using Phusion® High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (New England Biolabs)

and purified using QIAquick Spin Columns (Qiagen) . The PCR products were then digested

with NdeI (New England Biolabs) and BamHI (New England Biolabs) and purified by QIAquick

Spin Columns (Qiagen). The pZAMB1 vector was also prepared by digestion with NdeI and

BamHI followed by purification using QIAquick Spin Columns (Qiagen). The vector and the

PCR insert were used to prepare 4 ligation reactions by mixing with T4 Ligase (New England

Biolabs).

The products from all the reactions were combined and purified using QIAquick Spin Columns

(Qiagen) into water. 5 μl of the purified ligation product was then transformed into MB1 strain,

which was pre-transformed with pAS06 plasmid expressing ptsG-*sf*GFP. These transformed cells

were then recovered and diluted into LB Broth supplemented with 100 μg/ml ampicillin and 30

μg/ml chloramphenicol and grown overnight at 37 ºC. The following day, the culture was

centrifuged, aliquoted as frozen stocks and used for imaging and flow cytometry experiments.

Epifluorescence Imaging

1 ml culture of the *E. coli* strain to be imaged was grown from an overnight culture till OD_{600} =

0.1-0.2. It was then chilled on ice followed by centrifugation at 6000 g, 4 ºC for 1 minute to form

a cell pellet. Then they were washed with ice-cold 1X PBS twice and resuspended in 100 μl 1X

PBS.

1.5% (w/v) agarose gel was prepared by dissolving agarose in 1X PBS. A few μl cell suspension

was sandwiched between a No. 1.5 glass coverslip (VWR) and a thin slab of the agarose gel. The

sample was then imaged.

The epifluorescence images were acquired by a Nikon Ti Eclipse microscope (Nikon

Instruments, Inc.) using an oil immersion objective (1.46 NA, 100X) which spans an area of

around 133x133 μm^2 for DIC (no filter, autofluorescence) and fluorescence imaging (Ex 480-

500 nm, Em 509-547 nm, exposure time 200 ms). The images were acquired using an EMCCD

camera (Andor). They were processed using the NIS-Element AR software (Nikon Instruments,

Inc.).

Fluorescence-Activated Cell Sorting

The *E. coli* strain to be sorted was cultured overnight in LB Broth with appropriate antibiotics.

The following day, the liquid culture was diluted 200-fold and cultured with antibiotics until

OD_{600} = 0.1-0.2. The cells were then diluted to OD_{600} = 0.001 in LB Broth with antibiotics and 1

mM IPTG and/or 50 ng/ml aTc were added corresponding to the strain of *E. coli* and the

plasmids it is carrying. They were grown till OD_{600} = 0.1-0.2, washed with ice-cold 1X PBS

twice and kept on ice before flow cytometry analysis or fluorescence-activated cell sorting. The

sorting and analysis were done in a MoFlo XDP Cell Sorter (Beckman Coulter) using a 488nm

200mW laser.

Preparation of the sample for sequencing

The cells sorted into the batches were grown in LB Broth supplemented with 30 μg/ml

chloramphenicol to saturation. We extracted the plasmids with E.Z.N.A. Plasmid Mini kit

(Omega, D6942-02). To generate sequencing amplicons, we followed Illumina 16S sequencing

protocol. We used 5 ng of each plasmid elute as PCR template and amplified out the portion of

interest using 0.5 μM of primers annealing to the region of the *sgrS* sequence under

consideration with Phusion 2X Mastermix (NEB, M0531L). We employed 20 cycles of 10 s at

98 ºC denaturation, 20 s at 63 ºC primer annealing, 10 s at 72 ºC elongation phases preceded by

additional initial denaturation at 98 ºC for 30 s and followed by 72 ºC final extension for 2 min.

To clean up the product, we incubated the PCR product with 20 μl Ampure XP beads (Beckman

Coulter, A63880) for 5 min. We retained the bead-bound material after keeping for 2 minutes on

a magnetic rack (GE, 1201Q46). We washed the beads twice with 80% ethanol, air-dried for 10

min and eluted the material in 53 μl 10 mM Tris pH 8.5 by incubation for 2 min. We collected

45-50 μl bead-free liquid 2 min after placing the material on a magnetic rack.

Illumina Next-Gen Sequencing

We performed 8 additional cycles of PCR with Nextera 24-Index kit for indexing before sample

pooling (Illumina, FC-121-1011), for which we used 7.5 μl of the above elute as template, 7.5 μl

each of the suitable i5 and i7 primers with 38 μl Phusion 2X Mastermix. We followed

manufacturer's recommended thermal cycling protocol (95 ºC 3min, 98 ºC 30s, 55 ºC 30s, 72 ºC

30s, 72 ºC 5min). We also bead-purified 55 μl of this final product with 56 μl Ampure-XP beads

and eluted with 28 μl 10 mM Tris pH 8.5 buffer. We pooled the final products based on their

Nanodrop reading at equal molar stoichiometry and diluted the sample down to 4 nM in 10 mM

Tris buffer. We alkaline-denatured by mixing 5 μl DNA sample with 0.2 M NaOH and

incubating for 5 min at room temperature. We diluted this product down to 20 pM in Hbf buffer.

We loaded a final mixture of 465 μl Hbf buffer, 120 μl pooled 20 pM library and 15 μl denatured

20 pM PhiX control library (Illumina, FC-110-3001) after a 2 minute heat treatment at 96 ºC

followed by a 5 min incubation on ice. We used a 150 cycles MiSeq v3 reagent kit (Illumina,

MS-102-3001) to perform a single-end sequencing for 150 cycles. We used the manufacturer's

default algorithm for base calling and de-multiplexing of the constituent samples.

Intensity Moment Calculation

We parsed the raw .fastq output files via a simple home-made C++ script compiled with GCC v.

7.5 and plotted with GNU Octave v. 4.2. The analysis scripts can be accessed via the Gitlab page

https://gitlab.com/tuncK/sortseq/-/tree/master and the raw data can be obtained from TH upon

request.

We only imported the base calls of each read, thus including all sequences regardless of their

quality factors. We directly extracted from each read the subsequence excluding the PCR

adaptors, i.e. bases 23 to 128. Out of this list of subsequences, we detected ones that are exact

duplicates of each other by building a red-black binary search tree. Among all such groups, we

only considered SgrS sequence variants that are represented by at least 10 distinct reads in the

data. We compared the observed sequence of each group with the wild-type SgrS sequence i.e.

that of the plasmid used as error-prone PCR template.

We normalized the raw number of reads of each group by both the total number of reads and the

fraction of cells falling under each gate. As such, we defined a weighted average intensity to

each individual mutant along this 106 base long SgrS segment that we probed. Referred to as the

"intensity moment" from now on, we calculated the following quantity:

517
$$K_{ij} = \frac{\sum_{k=-2}^{2} \langle I_k \rangle c^k n_{ij}^k / N^k}{\sum_{k=-2}^{2} c^k n_{ij}^k / N^k} \qquad (1)$$

where, K_{ij} is the intensity moment of the mutant carrying a single substitution mutation at the i'th

base position to nucleotide type j rather than the wt base. c^k is the overall fraction of cells that

are sorted into the k'th bin based on the GFP intensity histogram that FACS acquisition

software reports. n^k is the number of reads carrying a single substitution mutation at base

position i to base type j and detected in the k'th FACS bin. N^k is the total number of acceptable

reads in the dataset. $N^k \geq \sum_{ij} n_{ij}^k$ due to experimental errors as well as reads carrying multiple

substitutions due to the stochastic nature of error-prone PCR. $\langle I_k \rangle$ is the median intensity of

the cells falling into the k'th bin as reported by FACS. For the representative intensity of

each bin, we used the median intensity reported by the FACS device.

In the figures, we reported the standard score of each entry given by

529
$$z = \frac{K_{ij} - \langle K_{ij} \rangle}{\sigma_{ij}(K_{ij})} \qquad (2)$$

Construction of bacterial strains

The oligonucleotides, plasmids, and strains used in this study are listed in Supplementary Tables 1 and 2. *E. coli* K12 MG1655 derivatives were used for all experiments. P1 transduction[67] or λ-red recombination[68] were used to move alleles between strains. DNA fragments were PCR amplified using Q5® Hot Start High-Fidelity 2X Master Mix (NEB) and oligonucleotides described in Supplementary Table 2. A set of plasmids (Supplementary Table 1) were used as templates to PCR amplify the wild-type and *sgrS* mutants A177T, G178T, G178A, and G184A using single-stranded oligos (Supplementary Table 2) containing 5' and 3′ homology to the flanking regions of *cat-sacB* cassette (MB205). DNA fragments containing the *sgrS* mutants G215A, T224G, T224A, T181A, and T182A were PCR amplified from MG1655 genomic DNA using oligonucleotides listed in Supplementary Table 2.

Measurement of intrinsic degradation rates of SgrS Strain DB166, MB206, MB209 and XM199 were cultured overnight at 37 °C and diluted 1:100 to a fresh LB medium and the cultures were grown at 37 °C to $OD_{600} \sim 0.3$. To induce SgrS expression, αMG was added to final concentration of 0.5% and the cells were grown for additional 30 minutes. Rifampicin was added to final concentration of 250 µg/ml and the cells were grown for another 5 minutes. At this point, cells were harvested (t=0 timepoint) for RNA extraction. Three biological replicates were harvested for each time-point.

Cells from 1.0 ml of culture were mixed with 2 ml of RNA protect reagent (Qiagen). The mixture was pelleted at 4000 rpm for 10 minutes and then discard the supernatant. Total RNA was isolated using Direct-Zol RNA miniPrep (Zymo) kit following the manufacturer's instruction. Genomic DNA was removed by DNaseI provided by the Kit. Finally total RNA

was eluted in 40 µl of nuclease free water. First-strand cDNA was synthesized from 1 µg of total

RNA using Superscript™ IV First-Strand cDNA Synthesis SuperMix kit according to the

manufacturer's protocol (Invitrogen, USA).

The primers used to amplify SgrS are: OSA499 (GATGAAGCAAGGGGGTGCCC) and

OSA500 (CAATACTCAGTCACACATGATGCAGGC)

The primers used to amplify housekeeping gene *rrsA* are: OXM187

(ATTCCGATTAACGCTTGCAC) and OXM188 (AGGCCTTCGGGTTGTAAAGT)

Real-time PCR was performed using SYBR Green master mix (Fisher) and Eppendorf Realplex

in a 96-well plate. Each reaction is comprised of 1x SYBR Green master mix, 100 nM of each

primer, 2 µl of 1:50 diluted cDNA in a total of 10 µl reaction volumes. Each plate contains "no

template" controls for individual transcripts as well as housekeeping transcripts such as *rrsA* for

every sample as an internal control.

Delta delta Ct method was used to analyze the qPCR data. The transcripts turnover rates were

calculated based on the non-linear fit with one phase exponential decay curves using GraphPad

software.

Cell culture, fixation and permeabilization for smFISH and super-resolution imaging

The wild-type *E. coli* strain (DJ480) was grown overnight at 37 ºC, 250 rpm in LB Broth Miller

(EMD), the RNase E mutant was grown in 25 µg/ml kanamycin (Kan) (Fisher Scientific), the

SgrS A177U, G178U, G178A, U181A, U182A, G184A, G184A-C195U, G215A, U224A,

U224G mutants were grown in LB Broth with 50 µg/ml spectinomycin (Spec) (Sigma-Aldrich)

and the RNase E mutants of the respective SgrS mutations were grown in LB Broth with 25

µg/ml kanamycin and 50 µg/ml spectinomycin. The following day, the overnight cultures were

diluted 100-fold into MOPS EZ rich defined medium (Teknova) with 0.2% glucose and the

respective antibiotics, and allowed to grow at 37 ºC and 250 rpm until the OD_{600} reached 0.15-

0.25. α-methyl D-glucopyranoside (αMG) (Sigma-Aldrich) was used to introduce sugar-

phosphate stress and subsequently induce SgrS sRNA expression. A specific volume of liquid

was taken out of the culture after 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 15, 20 minutes of incubation and mixed with

formaldehyde (Fisher Scientific) to a final concentration of 4% for the fixation of the cells.

Δ*sgrS* and Δ*ptsG* strains were grown overnight in LB Broth Miller (EMD) at 37 ºC and 250 rpm

using 25 μg/ml kanamycin and 10 μg/ml tetracycline (Tet) (Sigma-Aldrich) respectively. The

next day the cultures were diluted 100-fold into MOPS EZ rich defined medium (Teknova) with

0.2% glucose (Sigma-Aldrich) and the respective antibiotics and left to grow at 37 ºC and 250

rpm again till the OD_{600} reached 0.2. The cells were then mixed with formaldehyde (Fisher

Scientific) to a final concentration of 4% to fix the cells.

Following the formaldehyde fixation, the cells were incubated at room temperature for 30

minutes and subsequently centrifuged at 3214 x g for 10 minutes at room temperature. The

pellets were resuspended in 200 μl 1X PBS and then washed 3 times, each time performing

centrifugation at 600 x g for 4 minutes and resuspending in 200 μl 1X PBS. The cells were then

permeabilized with 70% ethanol, shaken at room temperature for 1 hour and stored at 4 ºC prior

to fluorescence *in situ* hybridization.

Single-molecule fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (smFISH)

Stellaris Probe Designer was used to design the smFISH probes and they were ordered from

Biosearch Technologies (https://www.biosearchtech.com/). The probe labeling was performed

by using equal volumes of each probe. The final volume of sodium bicarbonate was adjusted to

0.1 M by adding 1/9 reaction volume of 1 M sodium bicarbonate (pH = 8.5). 0.05-0.25 mg of

Alexa Fluor 647 succinimidyl ester (Life Technologies) or CF 568 succinimidyl ester (Biotium)

dissolved in 5 µl DMSO was mixed with the probe solution. The dyes were kept at a molar

excess of 20-25 fold relative to the probes. The reaction mixture was incubated in the dark at 37

ºC with gentle vortexing overnight. The following day the reaction was quenched by using 1/9

reaction volume of 3 M sodium acetate (pH = 5). Ethanol precipitation followed by P-6 Micro

Bio-Spin Columns (Bio-Rad) were employed to remove unconjugated dyes.

60 µl of permeabilized cells were centrifuged at 600 x g for 4 minutes and the pellets were

washed with FISH wash solution (10% formamide in 2X Saline Sodium Citrate (SSC) buffer).

They were then resuspended along with the probes in 15 µl of FISH hybridization buffer (10%

dextran sulfate (Sigma-Aldrich), 1 mg/ml *E. coli* tRNA (Sigma-Aldrich), 0.2 mg/ml Bovine

Serum Albumin (BSA) (NEB), 2 mM vanadyl ribonucleoside complexes (Sigma-Aldrich), 10%

formamide (Fisher Scientific) in 2X SSC). The number of probes used for sRNA SgrS was 9,

they were labeled with Alexa Fluor 647 and the concentration of the labeled probes was 50 nM.

The number of probes used for *ptsG* mRNA was 28, they were labeled with CF 568 and the

labeled probe concentration was 15 nM. The reaction mixtures were incubated in the dark at 30

ºC overnight. The following day, the cells were suspended in 20X volume FISH wash solution

and centrifuged. They were resuspended in FISH wash solution, incubated at 30 ºC for 30

minutes and centrifuged, and this was repeated 3 times. After the final washing step, the cells

were pelleted and resuspended in 20 µl 4X SSC and stored at 4 ºC prior to imaging.

Single-molecule localization-based super-resolution imaging

The labeled cells were immobilized on 1.0 borosilicate chambered coverglass (Thermo Scientific

Nunc Lab-Tek) treated with poly-L-lysine (Sigma-Aldrich) and imaged with imaging buffer (50

mM Tris-HCl (pH = 8.0), 10% glucose (Sigma-Aldrich), 1% β-mercaptoethanol (Sigma-

Aldrich), 0.5 mg/ml glucose oxidase (Sigma-Aldrich) and 0.2% catalase (Sigma-Aldrich) in 2X

SSC).

3D super-resolution imaging was performed using an Olympus IX-71 inverted microscope with a

100X NA 1.4 SaPo oil immersion objective. Sapphire 568-100 CW CDRH (568 nm) (Coherent)

and DL-640-100-AL-O (647 nm) (Crystalaser) were used for two-color imaging and DL405-025

(405 nm) (Crystalaser) was used for the reactivation of the dyes. The laser excitation was

controlled by mechanical shutters (LS6T2, Uniblitz). The laser lines were reflected to the

objective using a dichroic mirror (Di01-R405/488/561/635, Semrock) The emission signal was

collected by the objective and then they passed through an emission filter (FF01-594/730-25,

Semrock for Alexa Fluor 647 or HQ585/70M 63061, Chroma for CF 568) and the excitation

laser was cleaned using notch filters (ZET647NF, Chroma; NF01-568/647-25x5.0, Semrock and

NF01-568U-25, Semrock). The images were captured on a 512x512 Andor EMCCD camera

(DV887ECS-BV, Andor Tech). 3D imaging was achieved by introducing astigmatism using a

cylindrical lens with focal length 2 m (SCX-50.8-1000.0-UV-SLMF-520-820, CVI Melles Griot)

in the emission path between two relay lenses of focal lengths 100 mm and 150 mm. Each pixel

corresponded to 100 nm in this setup. The z-drift of the setup was controlled by the CRISP

(Continuous Reflective Interface Sample Placement) system (ASI) and the region of interest for

imaging was selected using an xy-sample stage (BioPrecision2, Ludl Electronic Products). The

storm-control software written in Python by Zhuang's group and available at GitHub

(https://github.com/ZhuangLab/storm-control) was used for image acquisition.

After acquiring a DIC image of the sample area, two-color super-resolution imaging was

performed. 568 nm laser excitation was used for CF 568 after completing the image acquisition

for Alexa Fluor 647 using 647 nm laser excitation. Fluorophore bleaching was compensated and

moderate signal density was maintained by increasing the 405 nm laser power slowly. Imaging

was completed when most of the fluorophores had photobleached and the highest reactivation

laser power was reached.

Fluorescent nanodiamonds (140 nm diameter, Sigma Aldrich) were utilized for mapping of the

two channels. These nanodiamonds nonspecifically attached to the surface of the imaging

chambers and were excited by both 647 nm and 568 nm lasers. They generated localization spots

in the final reconstructed images that was used for mapping.

Image Analysis

The raw data was acquired using the Python-based acquisition software and it was analyzed

using a data analysis algorithm which was based on work published previously by Zhuang's

group.[69,70] The peak identification and fitting were performed using the method described

before.[34] The z-stabilization was done by the CRISP system and the horizontal drift was

calculated using Fast Fourier Transformation (FFT) on the reconstructed images of subsets of the

super-resolution image, comparing the center of the transformed images and corrected using

linear interpolation.

Clustering Analysis and copy number calculation

A density-based clustering analysis algorithm (DBSCAN) was employed to calculate the RNA

copy numbers. The algorithm used was the same as previously published,[34] but the Nps and Eps

values were updated for the SgrS and *ptsG* images, since, we used CF 568 instead of Alexa Fluor

568 and we also used a different 405 nm laser to reactivate the dyes. The SgrS (9 probes labeled

with Alexa Fluor 647) images were clustered using Nps = 3 and Eps = 15 and the *ptsG* (28

probes labeled with CF 568) images were clustered using Nps = 10 and Eps = 25 and these

numbers were empirically chosen. A MATLAB code was used as before for the cluster analysis.

Δ*sgrS* and Δ*ptsG* strains were grown, prepared, imaged and analyzed in the same manner as

before and they were used for the measurement of the background signal due to the non-specific

binding of Alexa Fluor 647 and CF 568.

The SgrS image with no αMG induction for the wild-type *E. coli* cells (DJ480) was considered to

be the low SgrS copy number sample, where it was assumed that one cluster was equivalent to

one RNA and the *ptsG* image with 20 minute αMG induction for the wild-type *E. coli* cells was

considered to be the low *ptsG* copy number sample. The copy numbers of the RNAs were

calculated in the same manner using MATLAB codes as described previously.[34]

Colocalization analysis

To calculate the copy number of SgrS-*ptsG* complexes, colocalization analysis was performed in

order to calculate the percentage of *ptsG* colocalized with SgrS. The average radius of a *ptsG*

mRNA cluster was calculated to be around 40 nm. That value was used as the radius to consider

a 3D spherical volume from the center of the *ptsG* cluster. The SgrS spots corresponding to

clusters found in this volume were taken to be colocalized with the *ptsG* cluster. The base-

pairing mutant strain was considered a negative control (Supplementary Fig. 41a) and percentage

of colocalization was plotted against SgrS copy number and fit with a line (y = a*x) to act as a

calibration for colocalization by chance (Supplementary Fig. 41b). The coefficient, a, was used a

correction factor for colocalization calculation as, final colocalization = calculated colocalization

– a*SgrS copy number.

SgrS and *ptsG* mRNA half-life measurements

The *ptsG* mRNA degradation rates were calculated using a rifampicin-chase experiment. The

wild-type (DJ480) *E. coli* cells, the SgrS A177U, G178A, G178U, U181A, U182A, G184A,

G184A-C195U, G215A, U224A, and U224G were grown in LB Broth with the respective

antibiotics at 37 ºC, 250 rpm overnight. The following day, the overnight cultures were diluted

100-fold in MOPS EZ rich defined medium supplemented with 0.2% glucose and they were

grown at 37 ºC, 250 rpm. When the OD_{600} reached 0.15-0.25 rifampicin (Sigma-Aldrich) was

added to a final concentration of 500 µg/ml. This was taken as the 0-minute time point for the

experiment and aliquots were taken at 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 15, 20 minutes after the addition of

rifampicin and fixed in the same manner described before. The cells were labeled by FISH

probes, imaged and analyzed by the same process mentioned. The natural logs of the copy

numbers were plotted against time and the slope of the linear fitting was used to calculate the

lifetime of the RNA. The reciprocal of the lifetimes gave the degradation rates.

The SgrS degradation rates were calculated for the above strains and the wild-type Δ*hfq*, A177U

Δ*hfq*, G184A Δ*hfq* mutants by stopping the transcription of SgrS by removing αMG from the

media. The wild-type *E. coli* cells, the mutants and the RNase E mutants were grown overnight

as described before in LB Broth with the respective antibiotics. The cells were diluted the

following day and grown in MOPS EZ rich defined medium with the respective antibiotics till

OD_{600} 0.15-0.25. SgrS transcription was induced in the cells using αMG and growing them for

10 minutes. The cells were then washed twice with centrifugation and resuspension with cold,

fresh media devoid of αMG and finally resuspended in pre-warmed media at 37 ºC. Aliquots

were taken at 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 15, 20 minutes (0, 2, 4, 6, 8 minutes for the Δ*hfq* strains) and fixed

as described before. The cells were then treated, imaged and analyzed to calculate the

degradation rates as mentioned before.

Modeling of SgrS-induced *ptsG* mRNA degradation

710   Kinetic model and experimental measurements of the parameters

711   The mass-action equations used for the wild-type *E. coli* cells and the chromosomal mutations

712   are shown below:

$$\frac{d[p]}{dt} = \alpha_p - \beta_p[p] - k_{on}[S][p] + k_{off}[Sp] \qquad (3)$$

$$\frac{d[S]}{dt} = \alpha_S - \beta_{S,p}[S] - k_{on}[S][p] + k_{off}[Sp] \qquad (4)$$

$$\frac{d[Sp]}{dt} = k_{on}[S][p] - k_{off}[Sp] - k_{cat}[Sp] \qquad (5)$$

In the above equations, the changes in the concentration of *ptsG*, SgrS and the SgrS-*ptsG*

complex over time are shown. α_p, α_S are the transcription rates of the *ptsG* mRNA and SgrS

respectively; $\beta_p, \beta_{S,p}$ are respectively the endogenous degradation rate of ptsG mRNA and the

degradation rate of SgrS excluding the co-degradation with *ptsG* mRNA; k_{on}, k_{off} are the rates

of association and dissociation of SgrS and *ptsG* mRNA and k_{cat} is the RNase E-mediated co-

degradation of SgrS-*ptsG* complex.

We calculated the endogenous degradation rate of *ptsG* mRNA (β_p) of the wild-type *E. coli*,

chromosomal mutations and the RNase E mutants from the super-resolution imaging and

analysis. The degradation rate of SgrS for the cells were calculated by stopping the transcription

of SgrS, but this method takes into account target-dependent and target-independent degradation

($\beta_{S,total}$). We also calculated the degradation rate for the respective RNase E mutant strains and

this measurement gave us target-independent degradation and other RNase E–independent

degradation (β_{S0}). These two values provided a higher and lower bound for the endogenous

degradation rate of SgrS ($\beta_{S,p}$).

The transcription rate of *ptsG* mRNA was calculated using $\alpha_p = \beta_p \times [p]_0$ and in this equation

$[p]_0$ is the concentration of *ptsG* mRNA before the induction of sugar stress in all of the cases.

This was done because it was observed previously[34] that the *ptsG* mRNA reached an equilibrium

in the cells without SgrS-induced degradation. We calculated this for all the cases, viz., wild-type

E. coli, SgrS mutants and the RNase E mutants and the transcription rate of *ptsG* mRNA did not

show any significant change.

RNase E mutant cells are not able to degrade SgrS-*ptsG* complex efficiently, but it is a

possibility that the complex can degrade endogenously or via other minor degradation pathways.

We kept k_{cat} as a fitting parameter and used the measured parameters, α_p, β_p, $\beta_{S,total}$ and β_{S0}

and the above equations to fit the time courses for all the strains to estimate the 5 parameters; α_S,

$\beta_{S,p}$, k_{on}, k_{off} and k_{cat}.

<u>Parameter search</u>

Poisson weighting (total sum of the squares, $SS_{tot} = \Sigma_i(y_i - \bar{y})^2$ and residual sum of the

squares, $SS_{res} = \Sigma_i(y_i - f_i)^2$, where y_i is the experimental data and f_i is the fitted data) was

used in the fitting of global R^2 according to the equation:

$$R^2 \equiv 1 - \frac{SS_{res}}{SS_{tot}} \qquad (6)$$

so that no bias was introduced for a particular species. The parameters were selected to maximize

the global R^2 for the time course curves of each of the species. The concentrations of the SgrS-

ptsG complex in all the strains were very close to the background and as a result the total

variance became small. R^2 was not helpful to estimate the quality of the fit in these cases.

Instead, χ^2's were calculated as

$$\chi^2 \equiv \sum_i \frac{(y_i - f_i)^2}{f_i} \qquad (7)$$

for all those cases and the significance levels (α) were reported.

References

1.   Malkova, A. & Ira, G. Break-induced replication: Functions and molecular mechanism.

Current Opinion in Genetics and Development (2013). doi:10.1016/j.gde.2013.05.007

2.   Geisler, S. & Coller, J. RNA in unexpected places: Long non-coding RNA functions in

diverse cellular contexts. *Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology* (2013).

doi:10.1038/nrm3679

3.   Storz, G., Vogel, J. & Wassarman, K. M. Regulation by Small RNAs in Bacteria:

Expanding Frontiers. *Molecular Cell* **43**, 880–891 (2011).

4.   Wiedenheft, B., Sternberg, S. H. & Doudna, J. A. RNA-guided genetic silencing systems

in bacteria and archaea. *Nature* (2012). doi:10.1038/nature10886

5.   Askari, F. K. & McDonnell, W. M. Antisense-Oligonucleotide Therapy. *N. Engl. J. Med.*

334, 316–318 (1996).

6.   Singh, D. *et al.* Real-time observation of DNA target interrogation and product release by

the RNA-guided endonuclease CRISPR Cpf1 (Cas12a). *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.*

115, 5444–5449 (2018).

7.   Singh, D., Sternberg, S. H., Fei, J., Doudna, J. A. & Ha, T. Real-time observation of DNA

recognition and rejection by the RNA-guided endonuclease Cas9. *Nat. Commun.* **7**, 1–8

(2016).

8.   Globyte, V., Lee, S. H., Bae, T., Kim, J. & Joo, C. CRISPR /Cas9 searches for a

protospacer adjacent motif by lateral diffusion . *EMBO J.* **38**, (2019).

9.   Globyte, V., Kim, S. H. & Joo, C. Single-Molecule View of Small RNA–Guided Target

Search and Recognition. *Annu. Rev. Biophys.* **47**, 569–593 (2018).

10.   Ragunathan, K., Liu, C. & Ha, T. RecA filament sliding on DNA facilitates homology

search. *Elife* **2012**, (2012).

11.   Lee, J. Y. *et al.* Base triplet stepping by the Rad51/RecA family of recombinases. *Science*

(80-.). **349**, 977–981 (2015).

12.   Qi, Z. *et al.* DNA sequence alignment by microhomology sampling during homologous

recombination. *Cell* **160**, 856–869 (2015).

13.   Jones, D. L. *et al.* Kinetics of dCas9 target search in Escherichia coli. *Science (80-.).* **357**,

1420–1424 (2017).

14.   Richards, G. R. & Vanderpool, C. K. Molecular call and response: The physiology of

bacterial small RNAs. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta - Gene Regulatory Mechanisms*

1809, 525–531 (2011).

15. Desnoyers, G., Bouchard, M. P. & Massé, E. New insights into small RNA-dependent

translational regulation in prokaryotes. *Trends in Genetics* **29**, 92–98 (2013).

16. Massé, E., Vanderpool, C. K. & Gottesman, S. Effect of RyhB Small RNA on Global Iron

Use in Escherichia coli. *J. Bacteriol.* **187**, 6962–6971 (2005).

17. Lease, R. A., Smith, D., McDonough, K. & Belfort, M. The small noncoding DsrA RNA

is an acid resistance regulator in Escherichia coli. *J. Bacteriol.* **186**, 6179–6185 (2004).

18. Domenech, P., Honoré, N., Heym, B. & Cole, S. T. Role of OxyS of Mycobacterium

tuberculosis in oxidative stress: Overexpression confers increased sensitivity to organic

hydroperoxides. *Microbes Infect.* **3**, 713–721 (2001).

19. Zhang, A. *et al.* Global analysis of small RNA and mRNA targets of Hfq. *Mol. Microbiol.*

50, 1111–1124 (2003).

20. Bobrovskyy, M. & Vanderpool, C. K. The small RNA SgrS: Roles in metabolism and

pathogenesis of enteric bacteria. *Frontiers in Cellular and Infection Microbiology* **4**,

(2014).

21. Richards, G. R., Patel, M. V., Lloyd, C. R. & Vanderpool, C. K. Depletion of glycolytic

intermediates plays a key role in glucose-phosphate stress in escherichia coli. *J. Bacteriol.*

195, 4816–4825 (2013).

22. Bobrovskyy, M. *et al.* Determinants of target prioritization and regulatory hierarchy for

the bacterial small RNA SgrS. *Mol. Microbiol.* (2019). doi:10.1111/mmi.14355

23. Rice, J. B. & Vanderpool, C. K. The small RNA SgrS controls sugar-phosphate

accumulation by regulating multiple PTS genes. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **39**, 3806–3819

(2011).

24.   Kawamoto, H., Koide, Y., Morita, T. & Aiba, H. Base-pairing requirement for RNA

810   silencing by a bacterial small RNA and acceleration of duplex formation by Hfq. *Mol.*

811   *Microbiol.* **61**, 1013–1022 (2006).

812   25.   Panja, S. & Woodson, S. A. Hfq proximity and orientation controls RNA annealing.

813   *Nucleic Acids Res.* (2012). doi:10.1093/nar/gks618

814   26.   Zuzanna, W. & Mikolaj, O. Hfq assists small RNAs in binding to the coding sequence of

815   ompD mRNA and in rearranging its structure. *RNA* **22**, 979–994 (2016).

816   27.   Ishikawa, H., Otaka, H., Maki, K., Morita, T. & Aiba, H. The functional Hfq-binding

817   module of bacterial sRNAs consists of a double or single hairpin preceded by a U-rich

818   sequence and followed by a 3′ poly(U) tail. *RNA* **18**, 1062–1074 (2012).

819   28.   Morita, T., Nishino, R. & Aiba, H. Role of the terminator hairpin in the biogenesis of

820   functional Hfq-binding sRNAs. *RNA* **23**, 1419–1431 (2017).

821   29.   Otaka, H., Ishikawa, H., Morita, T. & Aiba, H. PolyU tail of rho-independent terminator

822   of bacterial small RNAs is essential for Hfq action. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **108**,

823   13059–13064 (2011).

824   30.   Horler, R. S. P. & Vanderpool, C. K. Homologs of the small RNA SGRS are broadly

825   distributed in enteric bacteria but have diverged in size and sequence. *Nucleic Acids Res.*

826   **37**, 5465–5476 (2009).

827   31.   Maki, K., Uno, K., Morita, T. & Aiba, H. RNA, but not protein partners, is directly

828   responsible for translational silencing by a bacterial Hfq-binding small RNA. *Proc. Natl.*

Acad. Sci. U. S. A. **105**, 10332–10337 (2008).

32.   Soper, T. J. & Woodson, S. A. The rpoS mRNA leader recruits Hfq to facilitate annealing

with DsrA sRNA. *RNA* (2008). doi:10.1261/rna.1110608

33.   Maki, K., Morita, T., Otaka, H. & Aiba, H. A minimal base-pairing region of a bacterial

small RNA SgrS required for translational repression of ptsG mRNA. *Mol. Microbiol.* **76**,

782–792 (2010).

34.   Fei, J. *et al.* Determination of in vivo target search kinetics of regulatory noncoding RNA.

Science (80-.). **347**, 1371–1374 (2015).

35.   Arluison, V. *et al.* Spectroscopic observation of RNA chaperone activities of Hfq in post-

transcriptional regulation by a small non-coding RNA. *Nucleic Acids Res.* (2007).

doi:10.1093/nar/gkl1124

36.   Hwang, W., Arluison, V. & Hohng, S. Dynamic competition of DsrA and rpoS fragments

for the proximal binding site of Hfq as a means for efficient annealing. *Nucleic Acids Res.*

(2011). doi:10.1093/nar/gkr075

37.   Rutherford, S. T., Valastyan, J. S., Taillefumier, T., Wingreen, N. S. & Bassler, B. L.

Comprehensive analysis reveals how single nucleotides contribute to noncoding RNA

function in bacterial quorum sensing. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **112**, (2015).

38.   Kinney, J. B., Murugan, A., Callan, C. G. & Cox, E. C. Using deep sequencing to

characterize the biophysical mechanism of a transcriptional regulatory sequence. *Proc.*

Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. **107**, 9158–9163 (2010).

39.   Peterman, N., Lavi-Itzkovitz, A. & Levine, E. Large-scale mapping of sequence-function

relations in small regulatory RNAs reveals plasticity and modularity. *Nucleic Acids Res.*

42, 12177–12188 (2014).

40.   Bobrovskyy, M. & Vanderpool, C. K. Diverse mechanisms of post-transcriptional

repression by the small RNA regulator of glucose-phosphate stress. *Mol. Microbiol.* **99**,

254–273 (2016).

41.   Wadler, C. S. & Vanderpool, C. K. A dual function for a bacterial small RNA: SgrS

performs base pairing-dependent regulation and encodes a functional polypeptide. *Proc.*

Natl. Acad. Sci. **104**, 20454–20459 (2007).

42.   Balasubramanian, D. & Vanderpool, C. K. Deciphering the interplay between two

independent functions of the small RNA regulator SgrS in Salmonella. *J. Bacteriol.*

(2013). doi:10.1128/JB.00586-13

43.   Morita, T., Ueda, M., Kubo, K. & Aiba, H. Insights into transcription termination of Hfq-

binding sRNAs of Escherichia coli and characterization of readthrough products. *RNA* **21**,

1490–1501 (2015).

44.   De Lay, N., Schu, D. J. & Gottesman, S. Bacterial small RNA-based negative regulation:

Hfq and its accomplices. *Journal of Biological Chemistry* **288**, 7996–8003 (2013).

45.   Sun, Y. & Vanderpool, C. K. Physiological consequences of multiple-target regulation by

the small RNA SgrS in escherichia coli. *J. Bacteriol.* **195**, 4804–4815 (2013).

46.   Rice, J. B., Balasubramanian, D. & Vanderpool, C. K. Small RNA binding-site

multiplicity involved in translational regulation of a polycistronic mRNA. *Proc. Natl.*

Acad. Sci. U. S. A. **109**, (2012).

47.   Wadler, C. S. & Vanderpool, C. K. Characterization of homologs of the small rna sgrs

reveals diversity in function. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **37**, 5477–5485 (2009).

48.   Gottesman, S. & Storz, G. Bacterial small RNA regulators: Versatile roles and rapidly

evolving variations. *Cold Spring Harb. Perspect. Biol.* **3**, (2011).

49.   Aiba, H. Mechanism of RNA silencing by Hfq-binding small RNAs. *Current Opinion in*

Microbiology **10**, 134–139 (2007).

50.   Sauer, E. & Weichenrieder, O. Structural basis for RNA 3′-end recognition by Hfq. *Proc.*

Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. **108**, 13065–13070 (2011).

51.   Panja, S., Schu, D. J. & Woodson, S. A. Conserved arginines on the rim of Hfq catalyze

base pair formation and exchange. *Nucleic Acids Res.* (2013). doi:10.1093/nar/gkt521

52.   Panja, S., Paul, R., Greenberg, M. M. & Woodson, S. A. Light-Triggered RNA Annealing

by an RNA Chaperone. *Angew. Chemie Int. Ed.* **54**, 7281–7284 (2015).

53.   Mann, M., Wright, P. R. & Backofen, R. IntaRNA 2.0: Enhanced and customizable

prediction of RNA-RNA interactions. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **45**, W435–W439 (2017).

54.   Wright, P. R. *et al.* CopraRNA and IntaRNA: Predicting small RNA targets, networks and

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

55.   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).

56.   Raden, M. *et al.* Freiburg RNA tools: A central online resource for RNA-focused research

and teaching. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **46**, W25–W29 (2018).

57. Morita, T., Maki, K. & Aiba, H. RNase E-based ribonucleoprotein complexes: Mechanical

basis of mRNA destabilization mediated by bacterial noncoding RNAs. *Genes Dev.* **19**,

2176–2186 (2005).

58. Bruce, H. A. *et al.* Analysis of the natively unstructured RNA/protein-recognition core in

the Escherichia coli RNA degradosome and its interactions with regulatory RNA/Hfq

complexes. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **46**, 387–402 (2018).

59. Caillet, J., Baron, B., Boni, I. V., Caillet-Saguy, C. & Hajnsdorf, E. Identification of

protein-protein and ribonucleoprotein complexes containing Hfq. *Sci. Rep.* **9**, 1–12 (2019).

60. Updegrove, T. B., Zhang, A. & Storz, G. Hfq: The flexible RNA matchmaker. *Current*

Opinion in Microbiology **30**, 133–138 (2016).

61. Schu, D. J., Zhang, A., Gottesman, S. & Storz, G. Alternative Hfq- sRNA interaction

modes dictate alternative mRNA recognition . *EMBO J.* (2015).

doi:10.15252/embj.201591569

62. Dimastrogiovanni, D. *et al.* Recognition of the small regulatory RNA RydC by the

bacterial Hfq protein. *Elife* **3**, (2014).

63. Geissmann, T. A. & Touati, D. Hfq, a new chaperoning role: Binding to messenger RNA

determines access for small RNA regulator. *EMBO J.* **23**, 396–405 (2004).

64. Peng, Y., Curtis, J. E., Fang, X. & Woodson, S. A. Structural model of an mRNA in

complex with the bacterial chaperone Hfq. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **111**, 17134–

17139 (2014).

65. Storz, G., Opdyke, J. A. & Zhang, A. Controlling mRNA stability and translation with

small, noncoding RNAs. *Current Opinion in Microbiology* **7**, 140–144 (2004).

66. Valentin-Hansen, P., Eriksen, M. & Udesen, C. The bacterial Sm-like protein Hfq: A key

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

67. Miller, J. H. *Experiments in molecular genetics*. ((Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.: Cold Spring

Harbor Laboratory, 1972).

68. Yu, D. *et al.* An efficient recombination system for chromosome engineering in

Escherichia coli. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **97**, 5978–5983 (2000).

69. Rust, M. J., Bates, M. & Zhuang, X. Sub-diffraction-limit imaging by stochastic optical

reconstruction microscopy (STORM). *Nat. Methods* **3**, 793–5 (2006).

70. Huang, B., Wang, W., Bates, M. & Zhuang, X. Three-dimensional super-resolution

imaging by stochastic optical reconstruction microscopy. *Science (80-.).* **319**, 810–813

(2008).

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank Erel Levine, Divya Balasubramanian, D. Jin for plasmids and strains.

We thank Hao Zhang at the Cell Sorting Core Facility (Bloomberg School of Public Health) for

helping us with the flow cytometry and sorting experiments. We appreciate and thank Prof.

Sarah Woodson for going through the manuscript and providing insightful suggestions. This

work was supported by grants from National Institutes of Health R01 GM112659 (M.B., M.S.A.,

T.H., J.Z., and A.P.), R35 GM122569 (T.H., J.Z., and A.P.), National Science Foundation PHY

1430124 (T.H., J.Z., and A.P). T.H. is an investigator with the Howard Hughes Medical Institute.

Author Contributions

A.P., C.K.V., T.H. designed the experiments, with help from M.B., J.Z. A.P., T.K., J.Z.

performed the Sort-Seq experiments and the Sort-Seq data was analyzed by A.P., T.K., P.L.

M.B. performed the β-galactosidase and Northern blot experiments. M.S.A., X.M. made the

strains that were used in this work. M.S.A., X.M. performed the qPCR experiments to calculate

RNA lifetimes. A.P. performed all super-resolution imaging experiments, with some help from

J.Z. A.P. performed the analysis for the imaging experiments with the MATLAB package

written by D.S., J.F. A.P., Z.L.S, C.K.V., T.H. discussed the data. A.P., T.K., M.S.A., X.M., J.F.,

C.K.V., T.H. wrote the manuscript.

Competing Interests

946   The authors declare no competing interests.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Target search kinetics of SgrS. (a) Kinetic scheme of *ptsG* mRNA degradation

induced by wild-type SgrS sRNA and the different point mutants of SgrS. The figure shows one

of the SgrS mutant strains, A177U. The steps are described in detail in the main text and the inset

shows the mutants used in this study. [*p*], [*S*] and [*Sp*] are the concentrations of *ptsG* mRNA,

SgrS and the SgrS-*ptsG* complex, respectively, in their mass-action equations. **(b)** Secondary

structure of SgrS sRNA from nucleotide 168 to the poly-U tail. **(c)** Base-pairing interaction

between SgrS and *ptsG* mRNA showing the complementary region, start site and ribosome

binding site.

Figure 2. Mapping efficacy of SgrS regulation of ptsG mRNA with respect to its sequence.

(a) Preparation of SgrS mutation library. Mutations are introduced into the SgrS plasmid using

mutagenesis PCR. This library is then transformed into an *E. coli* strain already transformed with

the *ptsG* mRNA plasmid fused with a GFP reporter. **(b)** Sorting of the cells and sequencing. The

cells with two-plasmid co-expression were sorted using flow cytometry. The SgrS library (blue)

shows GFP fluorescence that spans the region from the wild-type SgrS (black) to target (*ptsG*)-

only (green). Cells were sorted into 5 evenly spaced (log scale) fluorescence bins and the

occupancy percentages were 18.74%, 33.76%, 30.91%, 13.83% and 2.76% respectively. The

cells from each bin were amplified, DNA was purified, barcoded and sequenced using Illumina

sequencing platform. **(c)** Histogram of the Sort-Seq measurements from the SgrS library from

two replicates combined. The mean fluorescence for the wild-type SgrS is shown in red. **(d)** Heat

map showing the effect of mutations in SgrS regulation of *ptsG* mRNA starting from nucleotide

149 to 227. The color in the boxes are scaled from blue (low) to red (high), according to the level

of perturbation of SgrS regulation. Black squares represent the wild-type base at each position

and the black boxes with white crosses show the position of the mutants missing in the

experiment. Text shows the wild type sequence of SgrS. Insets show the four regions of SgrS,

viz. base-pairing region, small stem-loop, terminator stem-loop and the poly-U tail.

Figure 3. Regulation of *ptsG′-′lacZ* translational fusion by SgrS point-mutants. (a)

Regulation of chromosomal *ptsG′-′lacZ* translational fusion by wild-type SgrS and A177U,

G178U, G178A, G184A, G215A, U224A, U224G mutant variants (plasmid-encoded) was

assessed using β-galactosidase activity assay. Standard error was calculated based on data from

four biological replicates. **(b)** RNA was extracted simultaneously with β-galactosidase activity

assay and Northern blot was performed using probes specific for SgrS sRNA and 5S rRNA

(control). Full-length (227 nt), properly terminated SgrS transcripts are labeled as "termination"

products, and longer transcripts that arose due to transcriptional readthrough are labeled as

"readthrough" products. **(c)** Band intensities of total SgrS transcripts (termination+readthrough)

were measured, and 5S-normalized values were plotted as "SgrS abundance" (steady state

transcript abundance of SgrS mutants). **(d)** Band intensities of SgrS termination and readthrough

products were measured and 5S-normalized ratios (readthrough/termination) were calculated and

plotted for each SgrS mutant as "SgrS readthrough ratio".

Figure 4. 3D super-resolution images projected in 2D planes. The panels show SgrS (red) and

ptsG mRNA (green) labeled by smFISH for the wild-type and the mutant strains, A177U,

G178A, G178U, U181A, U182A, G184A, G184A-C195U, G215A, U224A, U224G before and

after 20 minutes of αMG (non-metabolizable sugar analogue) induction. Cell boundaries are

denoted by white solid lines. Scale bar is 2 μm.

Figure 5. Time dependent changes in the copy numbers of SgrS and *ptsG* mRNA and

estimation of kinetic parameters. Time course changes and corresponding modeling curves for

the SgrS, *ptsG* mRNA and SgrS-*ptsG* complex in **(a)** wild-type, **(c)** G184A mutant strain, **(e)**

G184A-C195U mutant strain, **(g)** G215A mutant strain. Average copy numbers per cell are

plotted against time. Rate constants obtained for these mutants are shown in Figure 6 and in

Supplementary Table 3. Weighted R^2's for modeling are also reported in Supplementary Table 4.

Error bars in **(a)**, **(c)**, **(e)**, **(g)** are standard errors from 80 to 150 cells in each case. Histograms

showing the change in distribution of SgrS and *ptsG* mRNA copy numbers for **(b)** wild-type, **(d)**

G184A mutant strain, **(f)** G184A-C195U mutant strain, **(h)** G215A mutant strain for 80-150 cells in each case.

Figure 6. Calculation of various parameters and correlation with Sort-Seq. (a) Degradation rates of SgrS for the wild-type and the strains A177U, G178A, G178U, U181A, U182A, G184A, G184A-C195U, G215A, U224A, U224G, Δ*hfq* wild type, Δ*hfq* A177U, Δ*hfq* G184A for full length RNase E and RNase E mutants. Error bars represent standard deviation from two experimental replicates. **(b-d)** k_{on}, k_{off}, K_D measured from the time dependent modeling curves of the SgrS, *ptsG* mRNA and SgrS-*ptsG* mRNA complexes for the wild-type and strains A177U, G178A, G178U, U181A, U182A, G184A, G184A-C195U, G215A, U224A, U224G. These were determined simultaneously in the wild-type and RNase E mutants. Error bars report standard deviation from the independent fitting on two replicates. **(e)** Time course changes in *ptsG* mRNA for the wild-type, G184A, G184A-C195U, G215A mutant strains. Error bars represent standard errors from 80-150 cells in each case. **(f)** Fractional change in *ptsG* mRNA copy numbers for the wild-type and the mutants A177U, G178A, G178U, U181A, U182A, G184A, G184A-C195U, G215A, U224A, U224G before and after 20 minutes αMG induction. Error bars represent standard errors from 80-150 cells in each case. **(g)** Comparison of the SgrS regulation efficacy calculated from Sort-Seq assay and the imaging-based analysis. Error bars in the x-axis are standard deviations calculated from two experimental replicates and those in the y-axis are as described in **(f)**. The fitting is shown in blue and the grey region shows the 95% confidence region.

a

$$\frac{d[p]}{dt} = \alpha_p - \beta_p[p] - k_{on}[S][p] + k_{off}[Sp]$$

$$\frac{d[S]}{dt} = \alpha_S - \beta_{S,p}[S] - k_{on}[S][p] + k_{off}[Sp]$$

$$\frac{d[Sp]}{dt} = k_{on}[S][p] - k_{off}[Sp] - k_{cat}[Sp]$$

Mutants used in this study

A177U	G184A
G178A	G184A-C195U
G178U	G215A
U181A	U224A
U182A	U224G

b

c

SgrS   5′ . . . GCCUGCAUCAU GUGU GA CUGAGUAU GGUGUAAAAUC . . . 3′

ptsG mRNA   3′ . . . GUA UUAACUCUCA CG GA CUCAUA CCACGAAAAAA . . . 5′

Green nucleotides form the Start Site
Blue nucleotides form the Ribosome Binding Site

Figure 1. Target search kinetics of SgrS. (a) Kinetic scheme of *ptsG* mRNA degradation induced by wild-type SgrS sRNA and the different point mutants of SgrS. The figure shows one of the SgrS mutant strains, A177U. The steps are described in detail in the main text and the inset shows the mutants used in this study. [*p*], [*S*] and [*Sp*] are the concentrations of *ptsG* mRNA, SgrS and the SgrS-*ptsG* complex, respectively, in their mass-action equations. **(b)** Secondary structure of SgrS sRNA from nucleotide 168 to the poly-U tail. **(c)** Base-pairing interaction between SgrS and *ptsG* mRNA showing the complementary region, start site and ribosome binding site.

Figure 2. Mapping efficacy of SgrS regulation of *ptsG* mRNA with respect to its sequence.

(a) Preparation of SgrS mutation library. Mutations are introduced into the SgrS plasmid using mutagenesis PCR. This library is then transformed into an *E. coli* strain already transformed with the *ptsG* mRNA plasmid fused with a GFP reporter. **(b)** Sorting of the cells and sequencing. The cells with two-plasmid co-expression were sorted using flow cytometry. The SgrS library (blue) shows GFP fluorescence that spans the region from the wild-type SgrS (black) to target (*ptsG*)-only (green). Cells were sorted into 5 evenly spaced (log scale) fluorescence bins and the occupancy percentages were 18.74%, 33.76%, 30.91%, 13.83% and 2.76% respectively. The cells from each bin were amplified, DNA was purified, barcoded and sequenced using Illumina sequencing platform. **(c)** Histogram of the Sort-Seq measurements from the SgrS library from two replicates combined. The mean fluorescence for the wild-type SgrS is shown in red. **(d)** Heat map showing the effect of mutations in SgrS regulation of *ptsG* mRNA starting from nucleotide 149 to 227. The color in the boxes are scaled from blue (low) to red (high), according to the level of perturbation of SgrS regulation. Black squares represent the wild-type base at each position and the black boxes with white crosses show the position of the mutants missing in the experiment. Text shows the wild type sequence of SgrS. Insets show the four regions of SgrS, viz. base-pairing region, small stem-loop, terminator stem-loop and the poly-U tail.

Figure 3. Regulation of *ptsG'-'lacZ* translational fusion by SgrS point-mutants. (a) Regulation of chromosomal *ptsG'-'lacZ* translational fusion by wild-type SgrS and A177U, G178U, G178A, G184A, G215A, U224A, U224G mutant variants (plasmid-encoded) was assessed using β-galactosidase activity assay. Standard error was calculated based on data from four biological replicates. **(b)** RNA was extracted simultaneously with β-galactosidase activity assay and Northern blot was performed using probes specific for SgrS sRNA and 5S rRNA (control). Full-length (227 nt), properly terminated SgrS transcripts are labeled as "termination" products, and longer transcripts that arose due to transcriptional readthrough are labeled as "readthrough" products. **(c)** Band intensities of total SgrS transcripts (termination+readthrough) were measured, and 5S-normalized values were plotted as "SgrS abundance" (steady state transcript abundance of SgrS mutants). **(d)** Band intensities of SgrS termination and readthrough products were measured and 5S-normalized ratios (readthrough/termination) were calculated and plotted for each SgrS mutant as "SgrS readthrough ratio".

SgrS   *ptsG* **mRNA**   54

Figure 4. 3D super-resolution images projected in 2D planes. The panels show SgrS (red) and *ptsG* mRNA (green) labeled by smFISH for the wild-type and the mutant strains, A177U, G178A, G178U, U181A, U182A, G184A, G184A-C195U, G215A, U224A, U224G before and after 20 minutes of αMG (non-metabolizable sugar analogue) induction. Cell boundaries are denoted by white solid lines. Scale bar is 2 μm.

Figure 5. Time dependent changes in the copy numbers of SgrS and *ptsG* mRNA and estimation of kinetic parameters. Time course changes and corresponding modeling curves for the SgrS, *ptsG* mRNA and SgrS-*ptsG* complex in **(a)** wild-type, **(c)** G184A mutant strain, **(e)** G184A-C195U mutant strain, **(g)** G215A mutant strain. Average copy numbers per cell are plotted against time. Rate constants obtained for these mutants are shown in Figure 6 and in

Supplementary Table 3. Weighted R^2's for modeling are also reported in Supplementary Table 4. Error bars in **(a)**, **(c)**, **(e)**, **(g)** are standard errors from 80 to 150 cells in each case. Histograms showing the change in distribution of SgrS and *ptsG* mRNA copy numbers for **(b)** wild-type, **(d)** G184A mutant strain, **(f)** G184A-C195U mutant strain, **(h)** G215A mutant strain for 80-150 cells in each case.

Figure 6. Calculation of various parameters and correlation with Sort-Seq. (a) Degradation rates of SgrS for the wild-type and the strains A177U, G178A, G178U, U181A, U182A, G184A, G184A-C195U, G215A, U224A, U224G, Δ*hfq* wild type, Δ*hfq* A177U, Δ*hfq* G184A for full length RNase E and RNase E mutants. Error bars represent standard deviation from two experimental replicates. **(b-d)** k_{on}, k_{off}, K_D measured from the time dependent modeling curves of the SgrS, *ptsG* mRNA and SgrS-*ptsG* mRNA complexes for the wild-type and strains A177U,

G178A, G178U, U181A, U182A, G184A, G184A-C195U, G215A, U224A, U224G. These were

determined simultaneously in the wild-type and RNase E mutants. Error bars report standard

deviation from the independent fitting on two replicates. **(e)** Time course changes in *ptsG* mRNA

for the wild-type, G184A, G184A-C195U, G215A mutant strains. Error bars represent standard

errors from 80-150 cells in each case. **(f)** Fractional change in *ptsG* mRNA copy numbers for the

wild-type and the mutants A177U, G178A, G178U, U181A, U182A, G184A, G184A-C195U,

G215A, U224A, U224G before and after 20 minutes αMG induction. Error bars represent

standard errors from 80-150 cells in each case. **(g)** Comparison of the SgrS regulation efficacy

calculated from Sort-Seq assay and the imaging-based analysis. Error bars in the x-axis are

standard deviations calculated from two experimental replicates and those in the y-axis are as

described in **(f)**. The fitting is shown in blue and the grey region shows the 95% confidence

region.