Acetylation regulates the oligomerization state and activity of RNase J, the major ribonuclease of *Helicobacter pylori*

Alejandro TEJADA-ARRANZ[1,2,+], Maxime BOUILLOUX-LAFONT[1], Xue-Yuan PEI[3], Thibaut DOUCHÉ[4], Mariette MATONDO[4], Allison WILLIAMS[5], Bertrand RAYNAL[6], Ben F LUISI[3] and Hilde DE REUSE[1]*

[1] Unité Pathogenèse de *Helicobacter*, CNRS UMR2001, Département de Microbiologie, Institut Pasteur, Paris, France.

[2] Université de Paris, Sorbonne Paris Cité, Paris, France.

[3] Department of Biochemistry, University of Cambridge, Tennis Court Road, Cambridge CB2 1GA, UK.

[4] Plateforme Protéomique, Unité de Spectrométrie de Masse pour la Biologie, C2RT, USR CNRS 2000, Institut Pasteur, Paris, France.

[5] University of California San Francisco, Cellular Molecular Pharmacology School, School of Medicine, San Francisco CA, USA

[6] Plateforme de biophysique moléculaire, Département de Biologie structurale et chimie, Institut Pasteur, Paris, France.

+ Present address: Biozentrum, University of Basel, Switzerland

*Corresponding author: hdereuse@pasteur.fr

Institut Pasteur, Unité Pathogenèse de *Helicobacter*

28, rue du Docteur Roux

75724 PARIS Cedex 15 FRANCE

Tel: +33 1 40 61 36 41

Abstract

In the pathogenic bacterium *Helicobacter pylori*, post-transcriptional regulation is dominated by the activity of a protein complex, known as the RNA degradosome, composed of the essential ribonuclease RNase J and the DEAD-box RNA helicase RhpA. Here, we describe post-translational modifications of this protein complex that affect its activity. Cell-extracted RNase J is acetylated on multiple residues, one of which, K649, impacts strongly on RNase J oligomerization, which in turn influences recruitment into the degradosome and ribonuclease activity. Corroborating the link between oligomerization and activity, mutations targeting K649 and other residues affect the dimerization and *in vitro* activity of RNase J. Our crystal structure of RNase J reveals loops that gate access to the active site and rationalizes how oligomerization state influences activity. We show that the acetylated residues of RNase J are important for *H. pylori* morphology, highlighting that the modifications affect the cellular function of RNase J. We propose acetylation as a regulatory level controlling the activity of RNase J and the *H. pylori* RNA degradosome.

Introduction

Post-transcriptional regulation is one of the most important levels of control of gene expression in every kingdom of life. Ribonucleases (RNases) are key enzymes in this regulation, that are involved in RNA maturation and degradation. In several bacteria, major RNases act in concert with DEAD-box RNA helicases, that help to unfold RNA secondary structures, within protein machines called RNA degradosomes (Tejada-Arranz et al., 2020a).

We previously demonstrated the existence of a minimal RNA degradosome in *Helicobacter pylori* (Redko et al., 2013). This Gram-negative bacterial pathogen chronically colonizes the stomach of half of the human population worldwide. Infection leads to chronic gastritis and, in some cases, to further gastric pathologies such as peptic ulcers, MALT lymphoma, or gastric adenocarcinoma that causes 800,000 deaths each year worldwide (Amieva and Peek, 2016). *H. pylori* possesses a small genome (1.6 Mb) with few transcriptional regulators, and several lines of evidence indicate that post-transcriptional regulation plays a major role in gene expression control in this organism (Eisenbart et al., 2020; Sharma et al., 2010; Tejada-Arranz and De Reuse, 2021). The *H. pylori* RNA degradosome is composed of RNase J, a 77.6 kDa enzyme that possesses both 5'-3' exoribonuclease and endoribonuclease activities, and RhpA, a DEAD-box RNA helicase, with a molecular weight of 55.8 kDa (El Mortaji et al., 2018; Redko et al., 2013). RNase J is essential in *H. pylori* and plays a major role in the degradation of both mRNAs and antisense RNAs (Redko et al., 2016). RhpA is the sole DEAD-box RNA helicase encoded by the *H. pylori* genome and is essential for colonization in the mouse infection model (El Mortaji et al., 2018). Furthermore, we recently demonstrated that, in *H. pylori*, the RNA degradosome is compartmentalized into clusters at the inner membrane whose formation is regulated and likely represents a major level of control of its activity (Tejada-Arranz et al., 2020b).

RNase J-encoding genes are present in 57 % of sequenced bacteria (Tejada-Arranz et al., 2020a), including the Gram-positive organisms *Bacillus subtilis*, *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Deinococcus radiodurans*. *B. subtilis* and *S. aureus* encode two paralogues of RNase J, called J1 and J2 while *H. pylori*, *Streptomyces pyogenes* and *D. radiodurans* possess only one gene for this protein. Compared to the RNase J proteins of these three organisms, the *H. pylori*

enzyme possesses a unique N-terminal extension of 132 residues that is predicted to be predominantly disordered (Redko et al., 2013; Tejada-Arranz et al., 2020b). In *B. subtilis*, while both RNase J paralogues have equivalent endoribonuclease activities, RNase J2 seems to lack the 5'-3' exoribonuclease activity that predominates in RNase J1 (Mathy et al., 2010). Furthermore, these two proteins interact and form a complex that has different cleavage specificity *in vitro* than each protein alone (Mathy et al., 2010). *B. subtilis* RNases J1 and J2 (*Bsu*RNases J1 and J2) form a heterotetramer *in vitro* (Mathy et al., 2010). *In vitro* analysis of the RNase J1 enzyme from *S. aureus* showed that it predominantly assembles into dimers, but also forms tetramers, independently of divalent cations (Hausmann et al., 2017a). The single RNase J from *S. pyogenes* forms dimers and tetramers *in vitro* without divalent cations being observed in the dimerization surface (Pei et al., 2015). In *D. radiodurans*, RNase J forms a dimer in a Mn-dependent fashion *in vitro*, and the interaction between the two monomers is mediated by the C-terminal domain of *Dra*RNase J (Zhao et al., 2015). Several crystal structures of RNase J proteins have been published (Newman et al., 2011; Pei et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2015), where RNase J is generally found to be a tetramer (dimer of dimers). However, it is unknown whether the different oligomeric states of RNase J detected *in vitro* have differences in activity.

Almost nothing is known about post-translational modification of these protein complexes and whether this might influence their activity. Acetylation has emerged as a major post-translational regulatory mechanism in bacteria (Carabetta and Cristea, 2017; Wolfe, 2016). Although the acetylation of lysine, cysteine, serine and threonine residues has been reported, lysine acetylation is the most prominent modification, particularly on its ε-amino group (Wolfe, 2016). This modification has been shown to regulate multiple properties of the target proteins, including enzymatic activity, DNA-binding capability or stability, among others (Carabetta and Cristea, 2017). Interestingly, some proteins involved in RNA metabolism have been reported to be lysine acetylated, including (i) *Escherichia coli* RNase R, whose acetylation regulates its stability (Liang et al., 2011); (ii) *E. coli* RNase II, regulated at the activity level (Song et al., 2016); and (iii) the CshA DEAD-box RNA helicase from *B. subtilis*, where acetylation has been proposed to influence its interaction with RNA polymerase independently

from its association with RNase Y, the major ribonuclease of the *B. subtilis* RNA
degradosome (Ogura and Asai, 2016).

The central importance of RNase J in post-transcriptional regulation in *H. pylori*
and its participation in an RNase J-based degradosome prompted us to
investigate the structure, oligomeric state and post-translational regulation of the
H. pylori RNase J and to assess its stoichiometry in the RNA degradosome. Here,
we report the crystal structure of *H. pylori* RNase J without its N-terminal
extension. We also showed that RNase J is in equilibrium between monomeric
and dimeric states *in vitro* and that, together with its monomeric RNA helicase
partner RhpA, assembles into a minimal degradosome complex with a 1:1
stoichiometry. Our data suggest that the dimeric form constitutes the active form
of RNase J *in vitro*. Furthermore, we found for the first time that RNase J is
acetylated at several residues by multiple mechanisms. We concluded that the
acetylation state regulates the oligomerization state and activity of RNase J *in*
vitro and its activity in *H. pylori*, and thereby constitutes an important level of
control of the RNA degradosome.

Results

Structure of the *H. pylori* RNase J

Several attempts to purify sufficient amounts of full-length RNase J from *H. pylori* to obtain crystals were unsuccessful. As we previously reported (Tejada-Arranz et al., 2020b), the N-terminal part of RNase J (first 120 amino acids) that is specific of the *Helicobacter* species is predicted to be an intrinsically disordered region (IDR). After truncating this region, well diffracting crystals were obtained from this RNase J form comprising residues 137-691 (from *H. pylori* strain 26695, uniprot P56185). The crystal structure of *H. pylori* RNase J was solved at 2.75 Å by molecular replacement using the *Streptomyces coelicolor* homologue as a search model (Table S1). One molecule occupies the asymmetric unit of the crystal, and through crystal symmetry a homotetramer can be generated that is organized as a dimer-of-dimers (Figure 1A). The core region of the enzyme, residues 137-586, encompasses the beta-CASP and beta-lactamase domains that define this family (Callebaut et al., 2002), but there are no detectable metal cofactors in the map at the catalytic site. An X-ray Zn-peak scan also confirmed that there are no detectable Zn ions in the crystal.

The structure predicted by the Robetta server, based on machine learning (Baek et al., 2021), is in excellent agreement with the X-ray model for the core, with the notable exception of the three loop regions 174-183, 431-441 and 575-586 at the entrance to the active site, for which the predicted loop positions are closer to those seen in the crystal structure of the *S. coelicolor* RNase J (Figure 1B-C). The electron density over these regions is well defined in the *H. pylori* map and modelled with high confidence. Comparing the structures, it is apparent that the position of the loops will enforce a different path for the RNA substrate in *H. pylori* RNase J compared with the *S. coelicolor* enzyme (Figure 1C).

The C-terminal domain, from residues 587 to 691, is poorly ordered in the crystal lattice and the density was not sufficiently well resolved to model the polypeptide. The Robetta model for the C-terminal domain fits well and fitted into the map, showing good agreement with the predicted helical segments. The predicted model is also in agreement with a high confidence homology model prepared by PHYRE2 using the *Thermus thermophilus* homolog as template (PDB 3BK2). This domain makes a self-complementary interaction through

crystal lattice contact. The Robetta model predicted with low confidence an extended helical region of the N-terminal residues 1-136 that were not included in the crystallized protein, and this region seems unlikely to have a compact fold. The final model to fit the X-ray data is a fusion of the fitted crystal structure of the core and the Robetta model for the C-terminal domain with side chains removed due to poor resolution of this part of the electron density map.

In the dimeric unit, the protomer interfaces are formed by self-complementary interactions made mostly by the CTD. The surface area buried at the CTD-CTD interface is estimated to be 1165 $Å^2$. The beta-CASP and beta-lactamase domains of RNase J also make a self-complementary interface in the principal dimer, with an estimated area of 672 $Å^2$ that is a little more than half of the CTD-CTD contribution. Stronger interactions typically have a surface area of more than 2000 $Å^2$ (Nooren and Thornton, 2003). The interface between the beta-CASP and beta-lactamase domains is very similar to that seen in other dimers of RNase J, for instance in the homologue of *S. coelicolor* (Pei et al., 2015). The interfaces that are formed between the dimer units to make the tetramer are also made by the beta-CASP and beta-lactamase interfaces, and these have a total buried area of 2070 $Å^2$.

An overlay of RNase J of *H. pylori* and of *S. coelicolor*, where an RNA substrate is bound, suggests that the path of the RNA to the active site cannot be the same for the two enzymes, and that the nucleic acid would need to be rerouted in the *H. pylori* enzyme. The obstructions are caused by exposed peptide loop regions that are positioned to accommodate the CTD. It is possible that changes in the oligomerization state will impact on the loops and access to the active site.

It is notable that the CTD has extensive charged side chains on the surface of proteins that likely form complementary charge interactions. Such an organization may stabilize the fold of the small domain (Perutz, 1978; Perutz and Raidt, 1975; Zhou and Pang, 2018). As the self-complementary interactions of the C-terminal domain are a key component of the assembly, any changes in the stability of the CTD may impact on the oligomeric state. We will return to this point below when discussing the structural impact of modification of the surface exposed residues.

Figure 1 Structure of RNase J from *H. pylori*. Crystals were prepared from *H. pylori* RNase J residues 139-691, encompassing the beta-CASP, metallo-beta-lactamase and C-terminal domains. (A) View of the tetramer, which is a dimer-of-dimers. A monomer occupies the asymmetric unit, and the tetramer is generated through crystallographic symmetry. (B) Overlay

of the predicted structure from Robetta server (beige) and the refined crystal structure (blue). The individual beta-CASP and metallo-beta-lactamase domains overlay well, but there are noted differences in the orientation of the three loop regions 174-183, 431-441 and 575-586 at the entrance to the active site (shifts indicated by orange arrows). The predicted structure is closer to the orientation seen in *Streptomyces coelicolor* RNase J, shown in overlay with *H. pylori* enzyme in the left panel of (C). The *S. coelicolor* enzyme structure (beige) is in complex with RNA, and the path of the RNA substrate along a channel to the active site in shown in the right panel. The *H. pylori* RNase J (blue) cannot bind RNA with the same orientation seen for the *S. coelicolor* enzyme due to steric clashes with the loops (left panel). The two zinc ions at the active site of the *S. coelicolor* enzyme are indicated in the right panel.

In vitro analysis of the oligomeric state of the two partners of the *H. pylori* RNA degradosome

Several crystal structures of RNase J proteins described to date correspond to tetramers. However, other oligomeric states (dimers and monomers) were found in solution and the activity of the different forms was unclear. Therefore, we decided to evaluate the oligomeric state of RNase J and RhpA *in vitro*. For that, His-tagged versions of RNase J and RhpA were expressed and purified from *E. coli* (Supp Figure S1), and then subjected to analytical ultracentrifugation (AUC). The sedimentation coefficient distribution of RNase J indicates that this protein forms two oligomeric species *in vitro* with concentration-independent sedimentation coefficients (S_0) of 5.8 and 8.8. These two species were compatible with a monomer and a dimer, which was confirmed by calculation of the theoretical sedimentation coefficients with the HYDROPRO software. Based on the structural data of *H. pylori* RNase J presented above, the calculation of the sedimentation coefficient was 5.4 and 8.9 for a monomer and dimer respectively. On the other hand, the calculated sedimentation for the dimer is fully compatible with the extended arrangement of the C-terminal end, showing that dimerization locks the structure in an extended conformation. Therefore, we concluded that the two forms of RNase J observed by AUC are indeed a monomer and a dimer (Figure 2A) that have a structural arrangement in solution which is compatible with the observed crystal structure. The monomeric population predominates (~60%) over the dimer (~40%) independently of the protein concentration, showing that these species were not under equilibrium but were dependent on other modifications.

AUC of RhpA shows behavior as a monomer independent of concentration
with an S_0 of 3.85 (Figure 2B).

Figure 2. **The solution oligomerization state of RNase J, RhpA and the degradosome**
assembly. The profiles are from analytical ultracentrifugation sedimentation of (A) RNase J, (B)
RhpA and (C) the degradosome complex at different ratios of RNase J and RhpA. The profiles
were recorded at 230 nm wavelength.

RNase J and RhpA form a 1:1 minimal degradosome complex

Next, we wanted to evaluate the stoichiometry of the protein complex formed by RNase J and RhpA. We mixed both proteins at 5:1, 1:1 and 1:5 ratios and subjected them to AUC (Figure 2C). When using a 5:1 RNase J:RhpA ratio, we identified three peaks corresponding to both proteins alone (RNase J monomer and dimer and RhpA monomer). With a 1:1 RNase J:RhpA ratio, three peaks could be detected. Based on the previous calculations, these peaks are proposed to correspond to (i) RhpA monomer alone for the 3.85S peak, (ii) a dimer of RNase J for the 8.8S peak, and (iii) a minor peak with a sedimentation coefficient of 4.8S that would correspond to the RNase J-RhpA complex. This latter peak was much more prominent when using a 1:5 ratio of RNase J:RhpA, where only two peaks could be detected, corresponding to RhpA alone and most probably the complex with a coefficient of 4.8S. From this peak and the available frictional coefficients, we calculated a mass for the complex of approximately 124 kDa that is only compatible with a complex with a 1:1 stoichiometry. Interestingly, neither the monomer nor the dimer of RNase J was detected under this condition, and all RNase J was involved in complex formation. We thus conclude that RNase J and RhpA form a 1:1 stoichiometry complex *in vitro*.

Bacterial two hybrid (BACTH) to identify residues important for the oligomerization of RNase J

As AUC results show that oligomerization is not controlled by kinetics, we then searched for the potential residues involved in the self-interaction of RNase J using bacterial two hybrid (BACTH) experiments that test the interaction of protein pairs in *E. coli*. First, a consistent interaction of wild type RNase J with itself was detected (Figure 3A). Then, different RNase J mutants were constructed and tested. As previously reported for other RNase J proteins (Zhao et al., 2015), we found that the C-terminal region of RNase J is essential for this interaction. Next, in order to pinpoint residues that are important for RNase J multimerization, we constructed RNase J mutants in which nine charged residues of this C-terminal domain were individually replaced by alanine residues. As shown in Figure 3A, several mutants were significantly affected in their capacity to homo-oligomerize, including RNase J E618A, E654A, K660A, E663A and K649A. These data show that charged residues at the C-terminal domain of RNase J are important for its self-interaction.

285   These residues are not at the predicted dimerization interface of the C-terminal
286   domain, but they are likely to be involved in stabilizing the domain through
287   interactions with side chains of complementary charge.
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290   **Figure 3**. **Point mutations modify the oligomeric state of RNase J.** (A) BACTH two hybrid
291   experiments to asses homo-oligomerization of WT and mutant RNase J proteins. Differences in
292   the beta-galactosidase activity units are indicated with ns (non-significant) ** p-value<0.005, ***
293   p-value<0.0005, **** p-value<0.0001. (B) Analytical ultracentrifugation sedimentation profiles of
294   RNase J WT and variant K649A at 230 nm wavelength. (C) Analytical ultracentrifugation

sedimentation profiles of RNase J WT and variants K649R and K649Q at 230 nm wavelength.

RNase J is acetylated at several lysine residues

RNase R and RNase II from *E. coli* have been reported to be post-translationally modified by acetylation but no such modification was reported on RNase J. A mass spectrometry (MS) analysis was performed on an RNase J-FLAG fusion protein expressed from the *H. pylori* chromosome (Supp Figure S1) under the control of its native promoter. The RNase J-FLAG protein was pulled down from crude lysates using anti-FLAG antibodies and extracted from a polyacrylamide gel. The experiment was performed on three biological replicates from cultures in exponential phase. We found that nine lysine residues of RNase J, spread across all protein domains, are consistently acetylated: K134, K140, K323, K337, K397, K511, K547, K634 and K649 (Supp Figure S2 and Supp Table S2).

Lysine 649 is important for the oligomerization state of RNase J

Lysine 649 (K649), localized at the RNase J C-terminal domain, was particularly interesting since this residue was both acetylated and required for RNase J homo-oligomerization in two hybrid experiments. Therefore, AUC analyses were performed with purified RNase J variants (Supp Figure S1) to test the importance of K649 in RNase J homo-oligomerization. As shown in Figure 3B, the purified RNase J K649A mutant assembles exclusively as a dimer *in vitro*, with a complete loss of the monomeric population seen with the WT protein. Circular dichroism was performed to verify that this effect was not due to a defect in the folding of RNase J K649A. The circular dichroism spectra of wild-type and K649A variants of RNase J did not show significant differences (Supp Figure S3) and the estimated proportions of the different secondary structure elements were maintained (Supp Table S3). This shows that mutation K649A does not introduce a major folding defect in RNase J secondary structure. Thus, K649 is important for RNase J dimerization both *in vitro* and in *E. coli*.

Acetylation mimicry of Lysine 649 affects the oligomeric state of RNase J

Given that K649 is acetylated, we next investigated whether RNase J
acetylation at this residue could represent a control level of its oligomeric state.
Therefore, we constructed an RNase J mutant in which K649 was either replaced
by an arginine residue (K649R), that mimics a non-acetylated state but maintains
a positive charge at this position, or replaced by a glutamine residue (K649Q)
which mimics an acetylated state while neutralizing the positive charge [a
previously validated strategy (Kamieniarz and Schneider, 2009)]. As shown in
Figure 3C, the AUC sedimentation profile of RNase J K649R is similar to that of
the wild type enzyme. In contrast, RNase J K649Q shows a significantly
increased proportion of dimers over the monomers, similarly to the K649A mutant
(Figure 3B-C). These data show that the positive charge of K649 is important for
the stability of the RNase J monomer and that oligomerization is controlled by the
charge state of K649.
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Mutations in K649 alter the exoribonuclease activity of RNase J
Since RNase J WT forms both monomers and dimers *in vitro*, we next
assessed whether the oligomeric state and the presence of a charge at position
649 were correlated with differences in the *in vitro* activity of this protein. The
exoribonuclease activity of RNase J was measured with a 24-nt long single
stranded RNA substrate from the 5'-untranslated region (UTR) of *rnj*, upon which
we previously found RNase J to be active (Redko et al., 2016). This substrate
was labeled with 6-carboxyfluorescein (6FAM) at either the 3' or 5'-ends. As a
control, a mutant inactivated at the RNase J active site, D299A, was constructed.
We found, as expected, that the D299A inactive mutant did not degrade the
substrate while the wild type RNase J was active in its 5'-3' exoribonucleolytic
mode (Figure 4A-B). This activity is evident from the rapid depletion in the intact
substrate bands labelled in 5' (Figure 4A) or 3' (Figure 4B) and, from the
additional accumulation of the 1nt product upon digestion of the 5'-labeled
substrate (Figure 4A).
The RNase J mutant with K649 replaced by R, that mimics a non-acetylated
state, and which behaves as monomers and dimers like the WT protein, was
strongly affected in its exoribonuclease activity (Figure 4).
In contrast, the protein variants with K649 replaced either by A (that abolishes
both the positive charge at this position and the acetylation) or by Q (acetylation-

mimicking mutation) and that both mainly assembled into dimers, presented an
activity that was significantly higher than that of the RNase J K649R variant. The
half-lives of the substrates were calculated from three independent experiments
for the wild type and for every RNase J variant and are shown in Table 1.

From these data, we conclude that, for these mutants, the dimeric form of
RNase J is most probably the active form *in vitro*. Altogether, we identified a
residue, K649, whose charge is important for RNase J activity and
oligomerization and that is acetylated in *H. pylori* cells. This indicates a
mechanism of control of RNase J activity that is based on the allosteric control of
its dimerization by acetylation.

Figure 4. Exoribonuclease activity of RNase J wild type and mutants. (A) Exoribonuclease
activity of RNase J WT and different variants using a 24-nt RNA substrate labeled with 6-
carboxyfluorescein (6-FAM) at its 5'-end over the course of 30 min. (B) Exoribonuclease activity
of RNase J WT and different variants using a 24-nt RNA substrate labeled with 6-FAM at its 3'-
end over the course of 30 min.

Table 1. Half-lives of fluorescent RNA substrates in the presence of wild type RNase J and
different variants either alone or in complex with RhpA.

RNase J variant	Half-life ± SD (min)			
	5'-labeled substrate (exo)	3'-labeled substrate (exo)	3'-labeled substrate (endo)	3'-labeled substrate + RhpA (complex)
WT	18.77 ± 3.16	7.37 ± 3.36	31.36 ± 17.57	6.29 ± 2.92
D299A	>30 [165.04 ± 93.36]	>>>30	>75 [231.05 ± 163.38]	n.d.
K649A	4.52 ± 0.52	2.75 ± 0.82	10.3 ± 0.56	6.95 ± 0.49
K649R	>30 [222.80 ± 175.05]	>30 [36.61 ± 12.04]	>75 [81.83 ± 6.81]	27.70 ± 5.4
K649Q	>30 [56.80 ± 13.02]	14.82 ± 9.11	>75 [92.52 ± 26.85]	37.33 ± 28.89
D185A	9.14 ± 4.83	4.56 ± 1.15	28.6 ± 9.67	n.d.

The activity of the RNase J-RhpA complex is not affected by K649 mutations

Next, we wanted to determine whether mutations of K649 affect the activity of the RNase J-RhpA complex. For this, we used a 45-nt long RNA substrate with hairpin structures at both ends to prevent the exoribonuclease activity from the 5'-extremity and labeled it with 6FAM at the 3' end [as in (17), Supp Figure S4A]. First, the activity of RNase J WT and mutant proteins alone was tested on this substrate. As compared to the linear substrate, the degradation kinetics of this substrate by RNase J was significantly reduced but not abolished, suggesting that RNase J might attack this substrate by its endoribonuclease activity and then proceeds by exoribonuclease activity. As we previously reported, in a functional degradosome complex, RhpA will unwind the secondary structure elements and allow RNase J to act in its exoribonucleolytic mode. Most interestingly, the activity tests with a mixture of RNase J and RhpA in a 1:1 ratio resulted in a significant decrease in the half-life of the substrate to 6.3±2.9 min as compared to the activity of RNase J alone (approx. 31.4±17.6 min), compatible with a functional complex (Table 1). The half-life of the structured substrate incubated with the complex between RhpA and the RNase J K649A variant (that has increased exoribonuclease activity) was not affected (half-life 6.7±0.5 min) (Supp Figure S4B and Table 1). We conclude that the activity of the RNase J-RhpA complex is not significantly affected by the K649A mutation.

Residue D185 is important for oligomeric state and the activity of RNase J

The RNase J structure suggests that residue D185 may indirectly support dimerization. The residue is in an interaction network that supports a helical extension involving residues 584-594 that supports interactions with the C-terminal domain. In agreement with our predictions, the AUC analysis of the RNase J D185A mutant revealed a much smaller proportion of the monomer, with a predominating dimeric population, as compared to the wild type protein (Figure 5). Consistently with what we found for mutant K649A, this was correlated with higher exoribonucleolytic activity of RNase J D185A (Figure 4A-B and Table 1), suggesting again that the structural destabilization of the monomer leads to an increased amount of dimer with an enhanced enzymatic activity.

Figure 5. Impact of D185A mutation on RNase J oligomeric state. Analytical ultracentrifugation sedimentation profiles of RNase J WT and variant D185A, recorded at 230 nm wavelength.

Analysis of the consequences of RNase J mutations on *H. pylori* morphology

We next wanted to examine the consequences of the mutations affecting RNase J oligomerization and/or acetylation state in live *H. pylori* cells. Since RNase J is an essential protein, strains carrying mutations in the acetylated residues identified above were constructed with the following strategy. *H. pylori* strain B128 was transformed with plasmid pILL2157 derivatives either expressing wild type or mutant variants of RNase J under the control of an IPTG-inducible promoter. Then, the chromosomal wild type copy of RNase J was deleted by

homologous recombination and replacement with a kanamycin resistance cassette.

In *B. subtilis*, mutants deficient in RNase J1 present an altered cell morphology (Figaro et al., 2013). Therefore, the morphology of our *H. pylori* RNase J mutant strains was examined by phase contrast microscopy and quantified with the MicrobeJ software (Ducret et al., 2016). The wild type B128 strain presents cells that are relatively heterogeneous in shape and with an average length of 2.15±0.67 µm. We observed that, in a strain expressing wild type RNase J from the system described above, the *H. pylori* cells were longer in the absence of IPTG [lower amount of RNase J as compared to the WT strain (Redko et al., 2016)], than upon induction with 1 mM IPTG (where the expression of RNase J is induced), 2.44±0.61 µm vs. 2.05±0.51 µm, respectively (Figure 6). This indicates that in *H. pylori*, RNase J is also regulating a factor required to maintain wild type cell morphology. Interestingly, we noted that the observed phenotype is not dependent on the activity of RNase J alone but rather on the RNA degradosome complex, as IPTG induction of RNase J WT in a strain lacking RhpA fails to complement this phenotype (average length of 3.41±0.83 µm) (Figure 6A).

When we performed these tests with strains that expressed different RNase J variants, we identified two groups of mutations. In the first group, the RNase J variants behaved similarly to the wild type enzyme, as their expression upon IPTG addition resulted in a reduction of bacterial length. This was the case for RNase J K323A, K547A and K649A and, to a lesser extent, RNase J K634A. In the second group, that includes variants K134A, K140A, K337A, K397A and K511A, the strains presented a strong growth defect and substantial cell lysis and cellular debris were observed. In these cases, the cells were short with a tendency towards a coccoid morphology that is typical of *H. pylori* cultures under stress (El Mortaji et al., 2020). This phenotype was particularly evident in the case of cells expressing variant K397A. For these cultures, addition of IPTG favored bacterial growth but failed to restore the typical helical form of healthy *H. pylori* cells, suggesting that RNase J function is strongly impaired.

464　These results show that RNase J activity is important for the correct regulation
465　of growth and cell morphology in *H. pylori* and that several of the residues that
466　we found to be acetylated are important for RNase J function.

Figure 6. *Helicobacter pylori* cell morphology is affected by RNase J abundance and point
mutations at lysine residues that are acetylation targets. (A) Phase contrast microscopy images
of *H. pylori* Δ*rnj* B128 strains expressing WT or mutant versions of RNase J from plasmid
pILL2157 without (top panels) or with IPTG induction (bottom panels). The phenotype of a *H.*
pylori Δ*rnj-*Δ*rhpA* strains expressing WT RNase J from a plasmid is also shown. The scale bar

473   represents 2 μm. (B) Dot plots showing the distribution of the cell lengths of wild type and the

474   different mutants without or with IPTG. Horizontal lines indicate the mean length and the error

475   bars are the standard deviation. ns (non-significant), ***p-value<0.0005, ****p-value<0.0001.

477   RNase J is acetylated through a range of mechanisms in *H. pylori*

Several pathways contribute to acetylation in bacteria (Christensen et al.,

2019a). We tried to elucidate which are the enzymes responsible for the different

acetylation events that occur on the RNase J of *H. pylori*. Therefore, we used the

H. pylori strain expressing an RNase J-FLAG fusion from the chromosome to

introduce deletions in genes that we predicted as acetylase candidates. The

RNase J-FLAG protein was enriched from these strains and analyzed by MS as

explained above. The tests were performed from three biological replicates. The

acetylase candidate genes were *hpb8_615* [henceforth referred to as *rimI*, as it

presents homology to *rimI* from *E. coli* (Christensen et al., 2018)] and *hpb8_1270*

[that contains two Gcn5-acetyltransferase (GNAT) domains]. Non-enzymatic

acetylation by acetyl-CoA and acetyl-phosphate also occurs in bacteria

(Christensen et al., 2019b, 2019a). The impact of this pathway was assessed in

H. pylori by constructing a mutant in the *pta-ackA* operon that is in charge of

acetyl-phosphate synthesis and metabolism. As shown in Figure 7, we found that

several pathways influence the acetylation of RNase J lysine residues. RimI is

partially responsible for the acetylation of RNase J residues K323, K397 and

K649. The HPB8_1270 protein is partially responsible for the acetylation of

residues K323, K397, K511 and K649. Acetyl phosphate-mediated non-

enzymatic acetylation participated in the acetylation of K134, K323, K397 and

K511 and K649. For other residues, namely K140, K337, K547 and K634, no

change in acetylation levels was detected in the mutants, suggesting that other

acetylation mechanisms are likely at play in *H. pylori*. These results suggest a

high redundancy of the different acetylation mechanisms that act on RNase J,

particularly on residues K323, K397 and K649.

Thus, multiple mechanisms participate in the acetylation of RNase J on

different residues.

Figure 7. RNase J peptides containing acetylated residues. The normalized intensities were

obtained by mass spectrometry from strains expressing FLAG-tagged RNase J in a wild-type

background or in a mutant strain lacking different acetylation mechanism. ns (non-significant) p-

value>0.05, *p-value<0.05, **p-value<0.005, ***p-value<0.0005, ****p-value<0.0001. Error bars

represent the standard deviation.

Discussion

In this study, we defined the structure of the major *H. pylori* ribonuclease

RNase J and its *in vitro* oligomerization state alone and in the RNA degradosome

with its RhpA RNA helicase partner. We also identify *in vivo* acetylation patterns

of RNase J and demonstrate that these impact on oligomerization and activity *in*

vitro and *in vivo*.

We found, by AUC, that RNase J is in equilibrium between monomeric and

dimeric states. Earlier studies showed that *D. radiodurans* RNase J also is

distributed between monomers and dimers (Zhao et al., 2015). *Bsu*RNase J1

forms dimers and tetramers *in vitro* (Newman et al., 2011) and, when mixed with

*Bsu*RNase J2, heterotetramers (Mathy et al., 2010). Similarly, RNase J1 from *S.*

aureus forms homodimers and homotetramers *in vitro* (Hausmann et al., 2017b).

RNase J of *S. pyogenes* crystalizes as tetramers that are composed of a dimer-

of-dimers (Pei et al., 2015). In the present study, at the studied *H. pylori* RNase

J concentrations, no trace of tetramerization could be seen by AUC. It is likely

that the observed tetrameric structure in the X-ray structure is due to crystal

packaging and that it does not reflect the arrangement of RNase J in solution, as

the dimer seems to be the active form. In addition, RhpA alone behaves as a

monomer in solution by AUC. Together, RNase J and RhpA form a complex that

is compatible with a 1:1 stoichiometry.

Acetylation has emerged in recent years as a major post-translational

regulatory mechanism in prokaryotes (Carabetta and Cristea, 2017), and a few

examples of its influence in RNases and RNA-degrading enzymes have been

described, including *E. coli* RNase R (Liang et al., 2011) and RNase II (Song et

al., 2016) and *B. subtilis* CshA (Ogura and Asai, 2016). Here, we found that, in

H. pylori, as many as 9 lysine residues of RNase J were consistently acetylated,

although probably not at the same time, which constitutes the first evidence of

protein acetylation in *H. pylori*. One of these residues is K649, which we also

found to be involved in the oligomerization state of RNase J by BACTH in *E. coli*.

Interestingly, this residue is located at the C-terminal domain of RNase J (Supp

Figure S2). This region was also shown to be important for the oligomerization

and exoribonucleolytic activity of the RNase J of *D. radiodurans* (Zhao et al.,

2015). Therefore, we examined the role of K649 in RNase J oligomerization (by

AUC) and exoribonuclease activity. Three mutants were analyzed, RNase J

K649A that abolishes the side chain of the lysine residue, K649R that mimics a

non-acetylated state while maintaining the positive charge and K649Q that

mimics an acetylated state (Kamieniarz and Schneider, 2009). Whereas the

K649R variant maintains a sedimentation profile similar to that of the wild type

enzyme, variants lacking a positive charge in K649, either K649Q or K649A, had

an increased proportion of dimer or displayed no monomeric form, respectively.

Interestingly, we observed that the K649R variant is less active than the wild type

RNase J whereas variants K649Q and K649A are more active than the K649R

variant.

Our model indicated that residue K649 is not located at the interaction surface

between the subunits of the dimer, but that it rather plays a structural role in the

integrity of the overall structure. We conclude that elimination of the positive

charge at residue 649 leads to a higher stabilization of the dimeric species. In

agreement with this hypothesis, we observed that D185A, another mutation in a

structurally important residue, had the same effect and favors the dimeric

species. Interestingly, in *D. radiodurans*, the corresponding residue (D61) had

already been identified as key for RNase J dimerization (Zhao et al., 2015).

Electrostatic interactions of charged side chains on the surface of proteins can

strongly contribute to the fold stability (Perutz, 1978; Perutz and Raidt, 1975;

Zhou and Pang, 2018). We propose that the network of surface electrostatic

interactions stabilizes the CTD of RNase J, which in turn supports the homodimer.

The CTD is the primary self-complementary interface of the dimer, and the

interface between the core (amino acids 137-586) and between the dimer-of-

dimers formed by the core both have marginal stability in isolation. Thus,

changes in the charge, through acetylation, can thereby impact on stability of the

CTD fold and oligomerization state.

The question naturally arises of how the catalytic activity of RNase J is affected

by its oligomerization state. A clue is suggested in the overlay of the structure of

H. pylori RNase J with the *S. coelicolor* homologue, in which there is a bound

RNA substrate engaged at the active site (Pei et al., 2015) (Figure 1D). There

are marked differences in the positions of loops at the entrance to the catalytic

site that would obstruct the RNA from following the same route in the *H. pylori*

enzyme, but the nucleic acid could approach the site from the opposite rim of the

entrance. The exposed peptide loop regions are positioned to accommodate the

CTD. It is possible that changes in the oligomerization state, through changes in
CTD stability, will impact on the presentation of those loops and access to the
active site in a gating mechanism.

Altogether, our results suggest that mutations that favor the dimeric RNase J
conformation also increase the activity of RNase J of *H. pylori in vitro*. As the
charge of residue 649 is important for dimerization, acetylation of K649 might tilt
the balance of the RNase J species towards the dimeric form and potentially
increase its activity. In this way, acetylation on K649 can modulate the activity of
RNase J in *H. pylori* cells. Formation of the RNase J-RhpA complex is not
affected by mutations or modifications of residue K649 in the ribonuclease, and
thus such mutations do not significantly alter the activity of this complex. Earlier
studies indicate that RNase J and the RNase J-RhpA complex can act on different
transcripts (Redko et al., 2013, 2016; Tejada-Arranz et al., 2021). It can be
envisaged that acetylation of K649 would therefore have a differential impact on
the subset of free RNase J that is not part of a degradosome assembly.

Furthermore, we addressed the role of the acetylated residues that we
identified in *H. pylori* cells. It has been described that *B. subtilis* cells lacking
RNase J1 show morphology defects with a tendency to filament (Figaro et al.,
2013). We thus evaluated the morphology of *H. pylori* cells expressing RNase J
variants, in which each acetylated lysine was replaced by an alanine residue. We
observed that cells with a reduced concentration of wild type RNase J are longer
than those in which RNase J expression is induced. This revealed that RNase J,
most probably indirectly, is involved in the control of *H. pylori* length. Interestingly,
this phenotype does not depend on the activity of RNase J alone, but rather on
the RNA degradosome complex, since the overexpression of RNase J WT in a
Δ*rhpA* strain does not reduce cell length. Given that we previously showed that
about 80% of *H. pylori* mRNAs are at least two times more abundant in an RNase
J-depleted mutant, it is difficult to define the target mRNA that is causing the
observed elongation phenotype (Redko et al., 2016). One possibility would be
the overexpression of MreC (9.3-fold upregulated in an RNase J-depleted strain),
that has been shown to cause cell filamentation in *H. pylori* (El Ghachi et al.,
2011).

Alanine replacement of the different acetylated positions of RNase J leads to
different phenotypes, showing that acetylation is indeed important for RNase J

activity in *H. pylori*. Variant K649A behaves like the wild type enzyme in this test, in agreement with the notion that the morphology phenotype depends on the activity of the whole RNA degradosome complex, which is not affected by whether there is a charge in this position or not. The phenotype of the K134A mutant suggests that it is affected in RNase J activity; interestingly this residue is located within the N-terminal extension of *Hp*RNase J (Supp Figure S2), that we previously found to be very important for efficient RNase J activity (Redko et al., 2016). However, it is not known how these acetylated residues impact RNase J properties. They could affect its stability, activity, oligomerization, degradosome complex formation, compartmentalization, binding of other partners or RNA, or a combination of these.

We found that several mechanisms participate in the acetylation of the different residues of RNase J. Our results indicate that HPB8_1270 and the *H. pylori* RimI homologue indeed function as acetylases. In addition, we uncovered a role of non-enzymatic acetylation by acetyl phosphate that is produced and metabolized by the Pta and AckA enzymes. The *E. coli* RimI protein is a multifunctional acetyltransferase, that can perform ε-lysine acetylation and Nα acetylation on the L31 and S18 ribosomal proteins, respectively (Christensen et al., 2018; Isono and Isono, 1980), with high substrate specificity. In contrast, RimI from *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* is an Nα acetylase with more relaxed substrate specificity *in vitro* (Pathak et al., 2016). Here, we found that the *H. pylori* RimI targets K323, K397 and K649 of RNase J. HPB8_1270 is a protein belonging to the DUF2156 family, containing two GNAT domains. It presents homology with the BT_3689 protein from *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron*, which contains an acetyl-CoA molecule in its active site (PDB 2HQY), suggesting its function as an acetyltransferase. Here, we found that HPB8_1270 is involved in the acetylation of K323, K397, K511 and K649, showing that in *H. pylori* this protein is most likely an acetyltransferase. Lastly, acetyl phosphate-mediated acetylation, which is responsible for most acetylation events in *E. coli* and *B. subtilis* (Christensen et al., 2019b, 2019a), was important for the acetylation of K134, K323, K397, K511 and K649.

These data demonstrate that multiple mechanisms can target the same lysine residue and that there is a high redundancy in the functions of these acetylation mechanisms. Acetylation at residue K649 was strongly dependent on three such

mechanisms; this redundancy could testify of a critical importance of acetylation
at this position. In addition, other acetylation mechanisms could occur in *H. pylori*
that might account for some of these acetylation events. More work is needed, in
particular using multiple mutants to determine how many of these mechanisms
can target the different residues and the influence of the different acetylation
mechanisms on the activity and regulation of RNase J and the RNA
degradosome.

Using Clustal Omega 1.2.4 (Sievers et al., 2011), we performed an alignment
of the RNase J proteins of *H. pylori* and of the closely related organism
Campylobacter jejuni, but also of the more distant *B. subtilis*, *S. aureus*, *S.*
pyogenes and *D. radiodurans*. Interestingly, this revealed that most of the
acetylated lysines are conserved in *H. pylori* and *C. jejuni* RNase J proteins, and
some of them are also conserved in more distant organisms (Supp Figure S5).
The case of K511 is particularly interesting, as it is conserved in *S. pyogenes*, *B.*
subtilis, *H. pylori* and *C. jejuni*, and in the case of *S. aureus* this position is a Q
residue which might behave as a "permanently-acetylated" lysine. In *H. pylori*,
the mutant expressing RNase J K511A variant presents a strong growth defect.
The relevance of lysine acetylation in the regulation of the activity of the RNases
J from other organisms remains to be addressed.

In conclusion, we have established that RNase J is acetylated on multiple
lysine residues through different mechanisms, and that its acetylated residues
affect the activity of RNase J and phenotypes such as cell morphology.
Furthermore, our data suggests that acetylation on K649 can influence the
oligomeric state and activity of RNase J, and that the dimeric form could be the
most active one. Thus, acetylation is an important player in the modulation of the
activity of RNase J and of the RNA degradosome of *H. pylori*.
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Materials and methods

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

The bacterial strains used in this study are summarized in Supp Table S4. *H. pylori* strains were derivatives of strain B128 (Farnbacher et al., 2010; McClain et al., 2009). Plasmids (Supp Table S4) were constructed and amplified using *E. coli* XL1-Blue (Agilent Technologies). *H. pylori* strains were grown on Blood agar base 2 (Oxoid) plates supplemented with 10% defibrinated horse blood and with an antibiotic-antifungal cocktail composed of 2.5 µg/mL amphotericin B, 0.31 µg/mL polymyxin B, 6.25 µg/mL trimethoprim and 12.5 µg/mL vancomycin. *H. pylori* mutants were selected using 20 µg/mL kanamycin, 10 µg/mL apramycin or 6 µg/mL chloramphenicol. For liquid cultures, we used Brucella broth supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (FCS) (Eurobio), the antibiotic-antifungal cocktail and, when necessary, chloramphenicol to select for plasmid-containing bacteria. *H. pylori* cells were grown at 37°C under a microaerophilic atmosphere (6% O_2, 10% CO_2, 84% N_2) using an Anoxomat (Mart Microbiology) atmosphere generator.

Plasmid preparation and transformations

A NucleoBond Xtra midi kit (Macherey-Nagel) and a QIAamp DNA minikit (Qiagen) were used for plasmid preparations for *H. pylori* transformation and genomic DNA extractions, respectively. For plasmid preparations for *E. coli* transformation and sequencing, a QIAprep Spin Miniprep kit (Qiagen) was used. PCR was carried out with either DreamTaq DNA polymerase (Thermofisher) or with Q5 High-Fidelity DNA polymerase (NEB) when the product required a high-fidelity polymerase. A list of the oligonucleotides that were used can be found in Supp Table S5.

Construction of H. pylori mutants and fusions

The cassette for the construction of the *H. pylori* RNase J-FLAG strain was constructed by the isothermal assembly technique (Gibson et al., 2009), by assembling in frame the last 500 bp of the *rnj* gene followed by the FLAG-tag, the apramycin resistance gene and the 500 bp immediately downstream from *rnj*. The resulting fragment was PCR-amplified and 1 µg of the product was introduced into *H. pylori* by natural transformation. Transformants were selected

on plates with apramycin. Strains carrying the pILL2157 plasmid carrying wild

type *rnj* gene (Redko et al., 2013) and its derivates with the different *rnj* mutants

(constructed following standard procedures with the primers compiled in Supp

Table S5) were transformed in the same manner with 1.5 µg of the plasmids and

selected in plates with chloramphenicol. The resulting strains were then used to

transform by cassettes constructed in a similar manner to delete the *rnj* gene and

replace it by a kanamycin resistance gene [as in (Redko et al., 2013)]. The

transformants were selected on plates containing kanamycin, chloramphenicol

and 1 mM IPTG to allow the expression of the copy of *rnj* from the plasmid.

Plasmids for BACTH were constructed from plasmids pUT18 and pKNT25

(Karimova et al., 1998) by inserting wild type or mutant variants of the *rnj* gene in

the *Pst*I and *Kpn*I restriction sites following standard techniques using plasmids

indicated in Supp Table S4.

Deletion of the genes of interest, construction of fusions and/or insertion of

cassettes was verified by PCR and sequencing of the region of interest.

Purification and crystallography of RNase J

A vector co-expressing residues 21-465 of RhpA with a C-terminal 3C-HALP-

his6 tag and residues 139-691 of RNase J (C1hRSEj) (from strain 26695 gene

HP1430, UniProt P56185) with a C-terminal hexa-histidine tag was generated by

the Oxford Protein Production Facility at Harwell. Cells were grown in terrific broth

supplemented with 0.5 M NaCl and 1 mM betain, 30 µg/mL kanamycin, 50 µg/mL

carbenicillin and 20 µg/mL chloramphenicol. Cells were grown at 37°C until

optical density at 600 nm reached 0.3, then moved to 20°C and induced with 0.2

mM IPTG (isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside) for 24 hours. Cells were

harvested by centrifugation, then suspended in 50 mM Tris pH 7.4, 50 mM

HEPES (4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid) pH 7.4, 500 mM

NaCl, 1 mM TCEP (tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine), 0.05% v/v Triton X-100, 5%

v/v glycerol and 10 mM imidazole and stored frozen. The suspension was

thawed, passed 5 times through a cell disruptor (Avestin Emulsiflex C5

homogeniser, 1000 bars) and clarified by centrifugation at 37000 g for 30

minutes, 5°C. The supernatant was applied to a HiTrap Ni chelating column,

washed with lysis buffer containing 0.01% v/v Triton X-100, and 15 mM imidazole,

then eluted with a gradient in imidazole. The optimal fractions were pooled and

cleaved with 3CP-GST protease cleavage, using 300 µl of 0.85 mg/mL protease

to cleave C1/RSE protein isolated from 1 L culture, at 4ºC overnight. This step

removes HALO-Chis-tag on RhpA. The 3CP-cleaved protein was loaded onto

HALO-RESIN and the flow-through collected, which contained the RNase

J/helicase complex. The sample was concentrated with a 30kD MWCO

centrifugal concentrator and applied to a S200 SEC column equilibrated in 20

mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 20 mM HEPES pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 5% glycerol, 0.1%

v/v Triton X-100, 1 mm TCEP. The sample was concentrated with a 30kD MWCO

centrifugal concentrator to optical density at 280 nm of 3.38 and used in

crystallization screens. Crystals were found in PEG I screen 0.1 M HEPES pH

7.5, 25% wt/v polyethylene glycol 1000.

Diffraction data were collected at I24 at Diamond Light source at wavelength

0.9778 Å using a Pilatus6M detector. Crystals are in space group P4122 with cell

dimensions a=b=158 c=214.26 Å. The structure was solved by molecular

replacement *Streptomyces* RNase J (PDB 3BK2) with PHASER and the CCP4

suite (McCoy et al., 2007; Winn et al., 2011). There was no space in the lattice

for the RhpA protein. The model of RNase J 139-691 was built using COOT

(Emsley et al., 2010) and refined with PHENIX (Afonine et al., 2012). A homology

model for the C-terminal domain, residues 587 to 691, was prepared using

PHYRE2 (Kelley et al., 2015), and the structure of the full-length protein was

predicted using the ROBETTA server (Baek et al., 2021). The C-terminal domain

from the ROBETTA model was docked into the map and fitted as a rigid body

and then linked to the model of the well resolved core (139-586). As the density

for the C-terminal domain was poorly resolved due to disorder, the side chains

were removed. A final cycle of refinement using the core only (137-586) and not

the disordered C-terminal domain were used to provide the refinement

parameters summarized in the supplementary Table S1. A monomer of RNase J

139-691 occupies the asymmetric unit, and the tetramer is generated through

crystallographic symmetry. Estimates of buried surface area were made using

the PISA program in the CCP4 suite (Krissinel and Henrick, 2007). The model

and structure factors have been deposited in the PDB with accession code 7PCR.

Beta-galactosidase assays

Bacterial two hybrid assays were carried out in *E. coli* strain BTH101 as
previously described (Karimova et al., 1998). Briefly, strains carrying derivatives
of the two vectors, pUT18 and pKNT25, were grown overnight in 1 mL LB with
40 µg/mL kanamycin, 100 µg/mL ampicillin and 0.1 mM IPTG. The OD at 600 nm
of the resulting cultures was measured in a TECAN plate reader and the beta-
galactosidase activity was calculated by mixing 500 µL of the cultures with 500
µL of buffer Z, 100 µL of chloramphenicol and 50 µL of 0.1% SDS, vortexing the
cells and then adding 200 µL of 4 mg/mL ONPG. The reactions were incubated
at 28ºC until they turned yellow and the reactions were stopped by adding 500
µL of 1 M Na_2CO_3. Samples were centrifuged for 5 min at 14,000 rpm and the
OD at 420 and 550 nm of the upper fraction was measured in a TECAN plate
reader. The beta-galactosidase activity (Miller units) was calculated as described
(Miller, 1972).
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Protein expression and purification

Wild type and variant versions of RNase J and RhpA were cloned into a
pET28a+ vector in *E. coli* XL1-Blue and then transformed in *E. coli* Bli5 for
expression. The strains were grown in 800 mL cultures in LB with 40 µg/mL
kanamycin and 25 µg/mL chloramphenicol and, once they reached an OD of 0.5-
0.8, were induced with 1 mM IPTG. The cultures were incubated at 30ºC and 160
rpm during 3 h. The cells were collected by centrifugation at 4000 rpm in an Avanti
J-E centrifuge (Beckman Coulter) with a JA-14 rotor at 4ºC during 30 min and
pellets were frozen at -80ºC until further processing.

Pellets were thawed on ice and resuspended on lysis buffer containing 25 mM
Tris-HCl pH 7.8 for RNase J and pH 8 for RhpA, 500 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, 20
mM imidazole, 1 mM dithiothreitol (DTT), 50 U benzonase and protease inhibitor
cocktail (c0mplete EDTA-free, Roche). Cells were lysed by sonication and
centrifuged for 30 min at 4000 rpm in a 5810R centrifuge (Eppendorf) at 4ºC to
eliminate cellular debris. The supernatant was then incubated overnight at 4ºC
and under agitation with 2 mL Ni-NTA resin (50% v/v, Thermofisher) pre-
equilibrated with lysis buffer.

Resins were packed onto Poly-Prep Chromatography columns (Bio-Rad) and
washed with 10 volumes of 25 mM Tris-HCl at the appropriate pH, 300 mM NaCl,
1 mM DTT and 20 mM imidazole, 10 volumes of the same buffer with 50 mM

imidazole and 10 volumes of the same buffer with 100 mM imidazole. The elution

was carried out with an elution buffer containing 25 mM Tris-HCl at the

appropriate pH, 300 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT and 500 mM imidazole, in 1 mL

fractions. Aliquots of the resulting fractions were run on a 4-20% Mini-Protean

TGX stain-free precast protein gel (Bio-Rad) at 200V for 30 min and stained by

Imperial protein stain (ThermoFisher). After destaining, the corresponding purest

fractions were chosen, mixed and concentrated using Vivaspin 20 tubes (MWCO

30,000 Da, GE Healthcare) down to 1 mL volumes. The buffer was replaced using

G-25 columns (PD MidiTrap G-25, GE Healthcare) with 25 mM Tris-HCl, 300 mM

NaCl, 1 mM DTT and 10% glycerol. Samples were aliquoted and frozen at -80ºC.

Analytical ultracentrifugation

Samples of purified proteins were thawed on ice and the buffer was replaced

using G-25 columns (PD MiniTrap G-25, GE Healthcare) with 25 mM Tris-HCl pH

8, 300 mM NaCl and 0.5 mM Tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine (TCEP, Sigma).

Appropriate amounts of the different proteins were mixed and diluted in the same

buffer with a final volume of 300 µL that was charged into 2 sector analytical

ultracentrifugation cells. The concentration of the proteins was 3 mM when there

was only one protein, 3 mM:3 mM when two proteins were in equimolar amounts

and 1 mM:5 mM when the proteins were mixed at a 1:5 ratio. The centrifugation

was performed for 16 h on an Optima analytical ultracentrifuge (Beckman-

Coulter) with an 8-hole AnTi50 rotor, at 42,000 rpm and 20ºC, measuring the

optical density at 230 nm in order to determine the sedimentation profile of the

protein or complex. The data was analyzed with the Sedfit software (NIH) using

a diffusion deconvoluted continuous sedimentation coefficient distribution c(s)

with one discrete component model (Schuck, 2000). The model was chosen in

order to take in consideration the signal due to TCEP absorption. The presented

graphs correspond to a resolution of 300 points with a confidence interval of 0.9.

For the individual proteins, the sedimentation coefficient independent of the

concentration (S_0) was calculated.

The partial specific volume ($\overline{v}$) of the proteins was estimated by the software

Sednterp (Laue et al., 1992) based on the amino acid sequence. This software

was also used for the calculation of the density and viscosity of the buffer used

throughout the experiments. Calculation of sedimentation coefficients for protein

structures was performed with the program Hydropro (Ortega et al., 2011).

Circular dichroism

The near-UV absorption spectra (195-260 nm) were measured, in the same

buffer as for the AUC experiments, by circular dichroism with a Circular Dichroism

Spectrometer Model 215 (Aviv instruments) using 0.2 mm optical path cells with

5 mM of RNase J WT and K649A mutant. The proportions of the different

secondary structure elements were determined with the BeStSel software

(Micsonai et al., 2015, 2018) based on the amino acid sequence.

Ribonuclease activity tests

The endoribonuclease and exoribonuclease activities were measured using 6-

carboxyfluorescein (6FAM)-labeled RNA substrates either in 5' or in 3' as listed

in Supp Table S5. 500 nM RNA substrate were incubated with 500 nM protein in

a total volume of 10 µL with a buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.8, 100 mM

NaCl, 8 mM MgCl$_2$, 0.1 mM and 0.1 mg/mL bovine serum albumin (BSA). The

reactions were carried out at 37ºC for 0-30 min for the exoribonuclease activity

tests and 0-75 min for endoribonuclease activity tests. Reactions were stopped

by adding 98% formamide and 10 mM ethylene diamine tetraacetic acid (EDTA)

and by incubating for 15 min at 95 ºC.

The degradation products were run on a Mini-Protean TBE-Urea gels (Bio-

Rad) that was pre-run for 60 min at 200 V. The samples were run for 5 min at 50

V and then for 30 min at 200 V. Gels were visualized on a Chemidoc MP Imaging

System (Bio-Rad) with 0.2 s exposure at 488 nm. The gels were then stained

with ethidium bromide to reveal the molecular weight marker (ssRNA molecular

weight marker, Takara). Experiments were performed in triplicate and images

were quantified ImageLab (Bio-Rad, version 6.1). Decay coefficients, λ, were

calculated with the formula $N(t) = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$, where *N(t)* is the amount of substrate

at time *t* and *N$_0$* is the initial amount. The half-lives, *t$_{1/2}$* were then calculated with

the formula $t_{1/2} = \frac{Ln(2)}{\lambda}$.

Phase contrast microscopy

Phase contrast microscopy was performed with an Axio Observer microscope
(Zeiss) equipped with an Axiocam camera with X100 magnification. Image
acquisition was performed with the axiovision software. Images were cropped
and adjusted using FiJi software. The length of wild type cells and that of cells
expressing wild type or mutant versions of RNase J from a plasmid, with or
without 1 mM IPTG, was measured by using the MicrobeJ plugin of ImageJ
(Ducret et al., 2016) with the following parameters: cell area above 0.7 μm^2,
minimal length of 1 μm and cell width between 0.4-1 μm.

Pulldown and mass spectrometry

H. pylori cultures of strains expressing FLAG-tagged RNase J were grown in
15 mL of Brucella medium until an $OD_{600\ nm}$ of 0.6-1.2 for exponential phase
cultures. Cells were pelleted by centrifugation for 10 min at 4 ºC and 4000 rpm
and resuspended in PBS to an $OD_{600\ nm}$ of 10. Cells were lysed by sonication and
cell debris were eliminated by centrifugation for 10 min at 13000 rpm and 4 ºC.
The supernatant constitutes the total extract fraction.

Pulldowns were performed using 2 μL of monoclonal anti-FLAG M2 antibodies
produced in mice (F3165, Sigma) per reaction and 50 μL of magnetic protein G-
coated Dynabeads according to the supplier's instructions (Dynabeads Protein G
for Immunoprecipitation, 10003D, ThermoFisher). Proteins were eluted in the
denaturing mode and run in a 4-20% Mini-Protean TGX stain-free precast protein
gel (Bio-Rad) at 200V for 30 min and stained by Imperial protein stain
(ThermoFisher) and destained.

Each band corresponding to RNase J-FLAG was cut and washed several
times in 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate (ABC)-acetonitrile (ACN) (1:1) for 15 min
at 37 °C. Disulfide bonds were reduced with 10 mM DTT and cysteines alkylated
with 55 mM chloroacetamide. Trypsin (V5111, Promega) digestion was
performed overnight at 37 °C in 50 mM ABC. Peptides were extracted from the
gel by two incubations in 50 mM ABC-ACN-formic acid (FA) (50:50:0.5) for 15
min at 37 °C. After ACN evaporation in a Speed-Vac, resulting peptides were
desalted with stage-tip (Rappsilber et al., 2007) using C18 Empore disc and
eluted with 80% ACN, 0.1% FA. Peptides were resuspended in 2% ACN, 0.1%
FA prior to liquid chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS)
analysis.

For LC-MS/MS, a nanochromatographic system (Proxeon EASY-nLC 1200 - ThermoFisher Scientific) was coupled on-line to a Q Exactive™ Plus Mass Spectrometer (ThermoFisher Scientific) using an integrated column oven (PRSO-V1 - Sonation GmbH, Biberach, Germany). For each sample, peptides were loaded on an in-house packed 26 cm nano-HPLC column (75 μm inner diameter) with C18 resin (1.9 μm particles, 100 Å pore size, Reprosil-Pur Basic C18-HD resin, Dr. Maisch GmbH, Ammerbuch-Entringen, Germany) after an equilibration step in 100 % solvent A (H_2O, 0.1% FA).

Peptides were eluted with a multi-step gradient using 2 to 7 % solvent B (80% ACN, 0.1% FA) during 5 min, 7 to 23% during 70 min, 23 to 45% during 30 min and 45 to 95% during 5 min at a flow rate of 300 nL/min over 132 min. Column temperature was set to 60°C.

MS data were acquired using Xcalibur software using a data-dependent Top 10 method with a survey scans (300-1700 m/z) at a resolution of 70,000 and a MS/MS scans (fixed first mass 100 m/z) at a resolution of 17,500. The AGC target and maximum injection time for the survey scans and the MS/MS scans were set to 3E6, 20 ms and 1E6, 60 ms respectively. The isolation window was set to 1.6 m/z and normalized collision energy fixed to 28 for HCD fragmentation. We used a minimum AGC target of 1E4 for an intensity threshold of 1.7E5. Unassigned precursor ion charge states as well as 1, 7, 8 and >8 charged states were rejected and peptide match was disable. Exclude isotopes was enabled and selected ions were dynamically excluded for 30 seconds.

Raw data were analyzed using MaxQuant software version 1.6.6.0 (Tyanova et al., 2016) using the Andromeda search engine (Cox et al., 2011). The MS/MS spectra were searched against a UniProt *Helicobacter pylori* [strain B8 (Farnbacher et al., 2010; McClain et al., 2009)] database (download in 24/06/2019, 1,719 entries) and tagged RNase J. Usual known mass spectrometry contaminants and reversed sequences of all entries were included.

Andromeda searches were performed choosing trypsin as specific enzyme with a maximum number of five missed cleavages. Possible modifications included carbamidomethylation (Cys, fixed), oxidation (Met, variable), Nter acetylation (variable) and K acetylation (Lys, variable) for in-gel peptides. The mass tolerance in MS was set to 20 ppm for the first search then 4.5 ppm for the

main search and 20 ppm for the MS/MS. Maximum peptide charge was set to
seven and five amino acids were required as minimum peptide length.

A false discovery rate (FDR) cutoff of 1 % was applied at the peptide and
protein levels.

Raw files and MaxQuant files (msms.txt) were processed in Skyline-daily
20.1.9.268 (MacLean et al., 2010) to generate MS1-XIC and perform peak
integration for each K-acetylated peptide. Normalization across samples was
performed by using the mean of the ratios from non-modified peptides (Supp
Table S2).

The mass spectrometry data have been deposited to the
ProteomeXchange Consortium via de PRIDE partner repository (Perez-Riverol
et al., 2019) with the dataset identifier PXD027670.

Statistical analyses

Statistical analysis was performed using Prism 9. We applied one-way
ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test in Figure 2A, one-way ANOVA
with Sidak's multiple comparisons test in Figure 6B and two-way ANOVA with
Dunnett's multiple comparisons test in Figure 7.

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