Title: The BR-body proteome contains a complex network of protein-protein and protein-RNA interactions

Authors: Nandana, V.[1]#, Rathnayaka-Mudiyanselage, I.W.[1,2]#, Muthunayake, N.S.[1*], Hatami, A.[3]
Mousseau, C.B.[4], Ortiz-Rodríguez, L.A.[5], Vaishnav, J.[3$], Collins, M.[6], Gega, A.[1&], Mallikaarachchi, K.S.[1],
Yassine, H.[1], Ghosh, A.[1], Biteen, J.S.[5], Zhu, Y.[3], Champion, M.M.[4], Childers, W.S.[6], Schrader, J.M.[1]

[1]Wayne State University, Department of Biological Sciences, Detroit, MI
[2]Wayne State University, Department of Chemistry, Detroit, MI
[3]Wayne State University, Department of Chemical Engineering and Materials Science, Detroit, MI
[4]University of Notre Dame, Department of Chemistry, Notre Dame, IN
[5]University of Michigan, Department of Chemistry, Ann Arbor, MI
[6]University of Pittsburgh, Department of Chemistry, Pittsburgh, PA
#These authors contributed equally
&Current affiliation: University of Toledo Medical School
$Current affiliation: University of Massachusetts-Amherst
*Current affiliation: Wayamba University of Sri Lanaka, Faculty of Medicine, Department of Biochemistry
Corresponding Author: Schrader@wayne.edu

Highlights

1. BR-body proteomics identified 111 proteins enriched in BR-bodies.
2. BR-bodies associate with an interconnected network of RNP condensates.
3. BR-body condensation is modulated by its interaction network.
4. RNA is required for rapid BR-body condensation.

Abstract

Bacterial RNP bodies (BR-bodies) are non membrane-bound structures that facilitate mRNA decay by concentrating mRNA substrates with RNase E and the associated RNA degradosome machinery. However, the full complement of proteins enriched in BR-bodies has not been defined. Here we define the protein substrates of BR-bodies through enrichment of the bodies followed by liquid chromatography-mass spec (LC-MS) proteomic analysis. We found 111 BR-body enriched proteins, including many RNA binding proteins, many of which are also recruited directly to *in vitro* reconstituted RNase E droplets, suggesting BR-bodies are more complex than previously assumed. While most BR-body enriched proteins cannot phase separate, we identified five which can undergo RNA dependent phase separation *in vitro*, suggesting other RNP condensates interface with BR-bodies. The RNA degradosome protein clients are recruited more strongly to RNase E droplets than that of the other RNP condensates, suggesting that client specificity is largely achieved through direct protein-protein interactions. We observe that some RNP condensates assemble unidirectionally, suggesting that RNA may be trafficked through RNP condensates in an ordered manner to facilitate mRNA processing/decay, and that some BR-body associated proteins have the capacity to dissolve the condensate. Finally, we find that RNA dramatically stimulates the rate of RNase E phase separation *in vitro*, explaining the observed dissolution of BR-bodies after cellular mRNA depletion observed previously. Altogether, these results suggest that a complex network of protein-protein and protein-RNA interactions controls BR-body phase separation while coordinating this mode of organization with RNA processing.

Introduction:

Biomolecular condensates have shown to be an important mode of subcellular organization in eukaryotes and bacteria[1–3]. As bacteria often lack membrane bound organelles, biomolecular condensates may provide a generalized strategy to their subcellular organization. Indeed, many bacterial biomolecular condensates have been recently identified in various species, including BR-bodies, signaling condensates, DNA replication condensates, RNApol condensates, Hfq condensates, Rubisco condensates, etc.[4–10]. Biomolecular condensates typically assemble through the physical process of phase-separation, which involves association of macromolecular scaffolds and segregation of other cellular components, ultimately leading to distinct non-membrane bounded structures[11]. Recent analyses of condensate physical properties appear to be consistent with a model of percolation-coupled phase separation, which includes both associative interactions as well as segregative[12] leading to phase separation[13]. Macromolecules which have the capacity to phase separate are referred to as scaffolds, which generally provide a platform for multi-valent interactions leading to phase separation and molecules that are recruited to condensates but cannot phase separate themselves are called clients[14] with the composition of scaffolds and clients that make up a condensate will determine the biochemical and cellular function. Importantly, molecules inside of condensates can often show diffusive dynamics, suggesting biomolecular condensates can facilitate biochemical processes within them[15,16]. Models have been suggested for how condensates might help accelerate enzyme catalyzed processes, including acceleration of reaction rates by local concentration, increased reaction specificity by selective recruitment of certain substrates and avoidance of others, and the ability to prevent release of pathway intermediates[17–19]. Conversely, they have been proposed to sequester substrate molecules from their enzymes leading to a reduction in reaction rates[20,21]. To determine the biochemical consequences of biomolecular condensate organization, an important goal is to be able to purify and reconstitute the essential molecular components of the condensate.

Despite advances in biomolecular condensate biochemistry, many *in vitro* studies have focused on purified scaffolds, and often lack the full suite of molecules identified to interact *in vivo*. This is potentially problematic, as proteomic/transcriptomic investigations of eukaryotic biomolecular condensates have revealed that biomolecular condensates are enriched in hundreds of different molecular species that may alter their biochemical or cellular functions. For example, P-bodies have been found to have >125 proteins and >6000 RNA transcripts[22], and importantly appear to help concentrate mRNA decay enzymes (including decapping enzymes, LSM proteins, Xrn1 nuclease, deadenylases, etc.) together with decapped translationally repressed mRNAs. Stress granules have been found to contain >300 proteins and >1800 RNA transcripts[23–25], often including a partially overlapping set of components with P-bodies[22,26], yet the differences in composition and slower dynamics[27] suggests that these structures likely have distinct functions. Through careful quantitative measurements, the core set of P-body proteins has recently been reconstituted *in vitro*, with similar dynamic propertiess[28]. In bacteria, BR-bodies were found to be enriched in long, poorly translated cellular mRNAs and sRNAs, a class of translational repressors, together with the RNA degradosome proteins[4,29]. Therefore, it was assumed that this structure might have a small set of protein clients that could be amendable to full *in vitro* reconstitution, however, the full complement of proteins in BR-bodies were not defined[27].

To define the proteome of *Caulobacter crescentus* BR-bodies, we performed a cellular enrichment by differential centrifugation[30] followed by quantitative liquid chromatography tandem mass

spectrometry (LC-MS). Similar to eukaryotic condensates, we identified over 100 proteins which were
enriched in BR-bodies. Enriched proteins tend to localize into foci *in vivo* and enter RNase E
condensates *in vitro*, suggesting many are likely direct clients of RNase E, the main scaffold of the BR-
body. While most enriched proteins do not assemble into biomolecular condensates *in vitro*, we
identified five BR-body associated proteins which can undergo phase-separation (phase separate
without RNase E), suggesting they form distinct RNP condensates in the cell that interact with RNase E.
By assaying the pairwise ability of each scaffold protein to mix with the others, we observed that some
pairs of scaffolds have strong associations, and that certain pairs show directional recruitment which
likely impacts RNP assembly order, leading to heterogenous RNP condensates *in vivo*. We also identified
two proteins which can dissolve BR-bodies both *in vivo* and *in vitro*, suggesting that they may negatively
regulate the cell's ability to assemble BR-bodies. Despite the identification of many BR-body associated
proteins, the RNA degradosome proteins are the only proteins identified that stoichiometrically bind to
RNase E[31], suggesting a minimal BR-body may be possible to reconstitute. Minimal BR-body phase
separation was kinetically stimulated by RNA, and showed similar RNase E FRAP dynamics to RNase E-
RNA droplets. Overall, this suggests that BR-bodies have similar complex interaction network to
eukaryotic RNP condensates, and the reconstitution of the "core" minimal BR-body components
provides an exciting framework to begin assessing their biochemical functions and how they might be
altered by the addition of BR-body associated proteins.

Results

LC-MS Proteomics to characterize the BR-body proteome

In order to define the *C. crescentus* BR-body associated proteome, BR-body enrichment was
performed as in[30] and subjected to bottom-up proteomics preparation and analysis (Fig 1A). Here we
compared enriched BR-body samples to a mock treated lysate using a mutant that is unable to assemble
BR-bodies due to the deletion of the C-terminal IDR of RNase E[30]. 100 μg protein was prepared in
triplicate for either condition and converted into peptides via enzymatic digestion using S-Traps[32]. Each
sample was analyzed by LC-MS/MS in technical triplicate. Peptide-spectral matching, protein inference
and Label Free Quantification (LFQ) was performed using FlashLFQ in MetaMorpheus[33]. Data were
filtered to an FDR of 1.0% and exported as text for analysis. Using these parameters, a total of 1079
proteins were identified in both samples, and the ratio of signal in the BR-body enriched sample (JS299)
over the negative control (JS221) was plotted (Fig 1B). 111 proteins were identified to be enriched in
BR-bodies. These enriched proteins had Log2 BR-body enrichment value of >1 (>2-fold enrichment) with
a >95% confidence interval (resulting p-values subject to Benjamini-Hochberg correction) or were
identified in all three biological replicates in BR-body enriched samples but were not detected in the
negative control. These enriched proteins were predominantly cytoplasmic, while proteins derived from
other cellular compartments were depleted, suggesting reasonable enrichment of BR-bodies occurred in
the sample. In addition, we observed significantly higher scores for known RNase E associated proteins,
while proteins that interact with polar biomolecular condensates were highly depleted (Fig 1B),
suggesting that the enrichment is likely not contaminated with all cellular condensates. Of all the
enriched proteins, go-term enrichment found proteins with RNA binding, ATP binding, GTPase activity,
or RNA degradation functionalities (Fig 1B). To validate whether BR-body enriched proteins localize into
BR-bodies *in vivo*, we expressed a set of YFP-tagged proteins that were enriched in BR-bodies together
with a set of other RNA related proteins that were not enriched in BR-bodies from the vanillate locus
(Fig S1) and determined the average number of foci/cell (Fig 1C). Interestingly, 7/11 proteins from the

BR-body enriched set assembled into foci in the cells, while only 3/11 proteins from the negative control
set showed foci. Amongst the 4 known BR-body clients we found that 3/4 were enriched within these
assemblies. RNase D1 was found to be RNase E associated[34] and showed foci within cells, however, was
depleted in the BR-body proteomics data. Of the 4/11 proteins that were enriched but did not form
foci, it is possible that the C-terminal YFP tag might interfere with their ability to form foci, as SmpB
which was found to form foci by immunofluorescence[35] and did not form foci when fused to YFP.
Interestingly, MetK has been found to form foci previously[36] and RNase HI may be associated with the
replisome foci, so both of these foci are unlikely to be BR-bodies, and likely represent other structures.
Overall, the larger abundance of foci in the BR-body enriched set suggest the BR-body enriched
proteomic data represents many true-positive BR-body associated proteins with limited false-positives.

Identification of BR-body associated scaffolds that condense independent of RNase E

Since the C-terminal IDR of RNase E was found to be necessary and sufficient to form BR-bodies,
we tested whether RNase E was required for BR-body enriched proteins to form foci (Fig 2). Since RNase
E is essential, we used an RNase E depletion strain where the sole copy of RNase E is under control of
the xylose promoter[4]. While most proteins maintained similar YFP fluorescence, RhlB, Aconitase,
PNPase, and RNase H1-YFP proteins were expressed at levels that were too low to detect in the
depletion strain. To overcome low expression for aconitase, we utilized a different strain in the lab used
previously in which Aconitase-YFP was present at its native loci in the same xylose dependent RNase E
depletion strain[4]. We observed and quantified foci for each of the YFP fusions, however, RNase D1
appeared to show localization to the inner membrane with a lower number of foci as compared to the
other strains tested. For Aconitase, RNase D1, Hfq, and Rho, fluorescent foci levels dropped significantly
upon RNase E depletion, suggesting that these proteins likely require RNase E to assemble into foci.
Interestingly, for MetK and RhlE, foci levels were similar or higher upon RNase E depletion, suggesting
that these two proteins assemble into foci independent of RNase E.

As MetK and RhlE proteins were identified to assemble RNase E independent foci *in vivo*, we
tested whether these proteins could directly self-assemble into condensates *in vitro*. In addition to MetK
and RhlE, we also included several additional proteins from the BR-body enrichment dataset or which
were known to interact with RNase E (Figs 3, S2A). Each protein was incubated near their estimated *in
vivo* concentration[37], and was incubated with or without 20 ng/µL of *C. crescentus* total RNA. We
identified that RhlE, DeaD, Hfq, MetK, and FabG all assembled RNA stimulated condensates *in vitro* (Figs
3A, B), suggesting that these proteins are scaffolds that can drive RNA dependent condensation.
Conversely, a majority of the proteins tested including PNPase, Aconitase, RhlB, RNase D1, ribosomal
protein S1, NudC, RppH, Rho, NusG, DnaK, and tyrosyl tRNA synthetase (TyrRS) did not undergo phase
separation regardless of the presence of RNA (Fig S2B). Consistent with the phase-separation of RhlE,
DeaD, and Hfq, the homologous proteins from *E. coli* were recently found to assemble into condensates
in vitro or when overexpressed *in vivo*[7,38]. To test whether these structures are condensates, we
performed high-salt and RNase treatment (Fig 3C), and in each case all the structures were strongly
dissociated, suggesting multivalent electrostatic interactions with RNA are likely important for driving
phase separation, like in RNase E condensates[4]. RhlE, DeaD, and Hfq contain intrinsically disordered
regions (IDRs) (Fig 3A) that have been characterized as important for their *E. coli* homologues to be able
to form droplets[38,39]. Prior experiments also showed that the IDR of RNase E was both necessary and
sufficient for phase separation[4]. To test the function of these IDRs on phase-separation we deleted the
IDRs of *C. crescentus* RhlE, DeaD, and Hfq and tested for their ability to phase-separate and found that

for Hfq and DeaD the IDR deletions showed reduced phase-separation, while for RhlE the IDR deletion
was indistinguishable from wild-type (Fig S2C). We did not include FabG and MetK in these experiments
as no disordered regions were predicted in their sequences (Fig 3A). Overall, this suggests that for some
of these scaffold proteins, IDRs provide a positive influence of phase separation, but are not strictly
required for phase separation.

A complex network of molecular interactions regulates RNP condensate

To better understand which proteins can enter BR-bodies, we selected a set of 18 proteins (Fig
S2A) to test further for their recruitment directly into RNase E droplets (Fig 4A). We picked proteins
enriched from the BR-body proteomics dataset with known RNA-processing roles, proteins known to
have protein-protein interactions with RNase E but not detected in the BR-body proteomics experiment,
as well as negative control proteins with low BR-body enrichment and no known/predicted interaction.
In these experiments RNase E and RNA were added to form an RNase E condensate, followed by the
incubation of a Cy5 labeled test protein. The partition coefficient was calculated from the images for
each protein assayed based on the Cy5 fluorescence (Figs 4B, S4A). Here we observed that the core RNA
degradosome proteins PNPase, Aconitase, RhlB, and RNase D1 all had positive partition coefficients
ranging from 2.7 to 4.7 showing they enter RNase E condensates, while our negative controls of BSA or,
SpmX which forms a polar signaling condensate[6], did not enter and yielded a partition coefficient near 1
indicating no enrichment. We also identified partition coefficients at similar levels to the core
degradosome proteins for RhlE, DnaK, and FabG.   In contrast NudC, RppH, Rho, NusG, and TyrRS all
contained partition coefficients close to 1, similar to the negative control BSA and SpmX (Fig 4B). The
low partition coefficients for RppH and NudC are consistent with their lack of enrichment in the BR-body
proteomics assay, however, Rho, NusG, and TyrRS all had significant enrichment in the BR-body
proteomics data suggesting they may enter BR-bodies indirectly through another protein. Despite the
finding that many proteins were able to enter BR-bodies, none of these proteins altered the partition
coefficient of RNase E (Fig S3B), suggesting that a majority of BR-body associated proteins are not
dramatically influencing RNase E's condensation.

As some BR-body proteins were found to assemble into RNA dependent condensates on their
own, we tested which BR-body associated proteins might induce condensation in the absence of RNA
(Fig S4). To test each client's ability to stimulate RNase E condensation, we added each protein at their
in-vivo concentration[37]. Interestingly, we found that PNPase, RhlB, and RhlE stimulated RNase E
condensates rather robustly in the absence of RNA (Fig S4A). In addition, FabG and Hfq stimulated
irregularly shaped condensates in the absence of RNA while Aconitase, RNase D1, NudC, RppH, Rho,
NusG, DnaK, TyrRS, ribosomal protein S1, and MetK did not stimulate RNase E condensation (Fig S4A).
This suggests that a subset of BR-body associated proteins can stimulate condensation independent of
RNA.

Interestingly, we observed that the addition of ribosomal protein S1 (RpsA) or MetK, which were
not BR-body enriched (Table S1) but were previously found to associate with RNase E via CoIP[40], could
dissolve RNase E droplets *in vitro* (Figs 4A,5A). Ribosomal protein S1 could only dissociate the droplets if
the condensates contained total RNA, while MetK showed strong dissolution if RNase E was condensed
with RNA or with the protein PNPase. To test whether the differences between S1 and MetK were
related to their inherent RNA binding interactions, we examine the apparent binding on 9s rRNA, a
known RNase E substrate[31]. Based on the native gel shifts we found that ribosomal protein S1 bound

RNA with tighter apparent affinity than MetK (Fig 5B). The tighter apparent affinity with RNA may
explain why ribosomal protein S1 preferentially dissolves RNase E condensates in the presence of RNA.
We also used a coIP assay with MBP-RNase E to test MetK and ribosomal protein S1 association with
MBP-RNase E. Indeed, as compared to the core BR-body protein aconitase which is thought to
stoichiometrically bind to RNase E[30], we found that both ribosomal protein S1 and MetK showed lower
CoIP than aconitase. However, MetK showed a faint band of protein retained on the resin, while
ribosomal protein S1 showed no detectable retention (Fig 5C). Overall, these data suggest that MetK
dissociates BR-bodies through interactions with the RNase E protein (Fig 5). To examine whether this
observed *in vitro* dissolution effect is relevant *in vivo*, we inserted the ribosomal protein S1 and *metK*
genes into the pBXMCS-2 overexpression vector[41] and transformed the plasmid into a strain harboring a
tagged BR-body marker (Aconitase-mCherry)[4]. We observed *in vivo* that both MetK and ribosomal
protein S1 overexpression strongly reduced Aconitase-mCherry foci (Fig 5D), confirming that their
dissolution of BR-bodies observed *in vitro* can also occur *in vivo*.

As some BR-body enriched proteins were able to assemble into RNP condensates independent
of RNase E (Fig 4B), the client specificity of these RNP condensates was unknown. As the RNA
degradosome client proteins are known to be stoichiometrically bound to RNase E via direct protein-
protein interaction sites[31,40], we tested the specificity of each driver/scaffold to each core RNA
degradosome protein labeled with Cy5 dye (Fig 6A). Here we observed a larger partition coefficient for
all Cy5 degradosome clients to RNase E condensates as compared to any of the other scaffolds/drivers
(Figs 6A, S4B), suggesting that the degradosome proteins have a specificity for RNase E condensates,
likely through their protein-protein interactions.

Next, the miscibility of the scaffolds/drivers of each single RNP condensate was examined (Fig 6B).
First, we pre-formed a condensate using an unlabeled scaffold and then added in a Cy5 labeled scaffold
in all pairwise combinations and assayed the partition coefficients. We induced condensation in the
presence or absence of RNA to test the RNA dependency of each interaction. In the presence of RNA we
assayed condensate formation using the predicted *in vivo* protein concentrations[37], and in the absence
of RNA condensates were stimulated by increasing the protein concentration above its *in vivo*
concentration. For the RNase E condensate, we observed similar recruitment of other scaffolds
regardless of whether the condensates were formed with RNA or protein only (Figs 6B, S4B). The
partition coefficients for these scaffolds into RNase E condensates tracked with the BR-body enrichment
measured previously. RhlE was recruited strongest into the RNase E condensate (11 partition
coefficient) and had the highest observed BR-body enrichment (10 fold), while Hfq (7.5 partition
coefficient, 3.2 BR-body enrichment), FabG (3.8 partition coefficient, 2.2 fold BR-body enrichment), and
DeaD (1.5 partition coefficient, 1.6 fold BR-body enrichment). For RhlE, we observed that it was
recruited strongly into other RNP condensates, with partition coefficients ranging from 4.3 to 11, while
the other scaffolds were recruited poorly into RhlE-RNA condensates, with partition coefficients ranging
from 1.5 to 2.5. In the absence of RNA, RhlE strongly recruited RNase E (12) or DeaD (9.8) while Hfq and
FabG maintained similar partition coefficients (Fig S4B). DEAD condensates showed strong recruitment
of RhlE and lower recruitment of the other scaffolds, with subtle changes in the presence or absence of
RNA. While RhlE and FabG were similarly recruited to Hfq condensates regardless of the presence of
RNA, RNase E dissolved Hfq-RNA condensates while Hfq protein only condensates strongly recruited
RNase E (6.9 partition coefficient) while DEAD was recruited at a low level in Hfq-RNA condensates (1.8
partition coefficient) and dissolved Hfq only condensates. FabG condensates only formed in the

presence of RNA and showed strongest recruitment of RhlE (7.4) and Hfq (3.4). In summary, the scaffold
proteins which assemble diverse RNP condensates show specificity of recruitment, suggesting that some
RNP condensates can intermix, while others likely do not.

The asymmetric recruitment/dissolution (Fig 6B) and specificity of clients (Fig 6A) observed may
help shape the composition of heterogeneous RNP condensates in the cell. We chose to study RhlE-
RNase E pair further because it showed the strongest directional recruitment in the presence of RNA (Fig
6B). First, we altered the order of addition of RhlE and RNase E in which we could either mix both
proteins together before triggering phase separation (Fig 6C). If the proteins are mixed before
condensation with RNA, we observed that RNase E and RhlE mix uniformly. We also changed the order
of addition and pre-assembled each protein into condensates with RNA before mixing both RNP
condensates together (Fig 6C). When each protein was pre-assembled into a condensate, we observed
that RNase E and RhlE condensates did not readily mix with each other. This contrasts with the prior
observation that free RhlE readily entered RNase E condensates (Fig 6B), suggesting that the order of
assembly influences the composition of these RNase E and RhlE condensates.

To test whether RhlE forms condensates separate from BR-bodies *in vivo*, we coexpressed RhlE-
YFP together with Aconitase-mCherry (a marker for BR-bodies) and imaged them in the same cells (Fig
6D). As a control, we imaged RNase E-YFP together with Aconitase-mCherry, which are known to
strongly colocalize[4]. In general, we observed a heterogeneous mixture of RhlE foci, RNase E foci, and
mixed RhlE/RNase E foci. For each YFP focus we observed, we drew line traces and calculated the
Pearson correlation between the YFP and mCherry channels across the line trace. The RNase E signal
was strongly colocalized with Aconitase-mCherry (R=0.9), and for a strain lacking YFP, we found that the
correlation between YFP autofluorescence and Aconitase-mCherry was near zero. Interestingly, we
observed that RhlE and Aconitrase had an intermediate correlation (R=0.4), with some RhlE foci strongly
correlating with Aconitase, and other RhlE foci totally lacking Aconitase (Fig 6D). In addition to
colocalization, we also examined the assembly order of RNase E and RhlE condensates formation *in vivo*
with taking time-lapse movies of cells. To do this, we took time-lapse movies of cells and examined the
order of RhlE and RNase E foci formation in cells. As a positive control, we observed that RNase E-YFP
and Aconitase-mCherry foci appear simultaneously (Fig 6E, S5A). When BR-bodies appear first, as
indicated by Aconitase-mCherry foci, we consistently observed RhlE-YFP signal within these foci (Fig 6E),
consistent with the ability of RNase E condensates to recruit RhlE *in vitr*o (Fig 6B). In contrast, RhlE-YFP
foci that appeared first generally lacked a colocalized Aconitase-mCherry focus, also consistent with the
lack of *in vitro* recruitment (Fig 6B). Taken altogether, these observations suggest that the network of
interactions driving RhlE and RNase E condensation likely controls the ability of these condensates to
coassemble and mix both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. To further test how the network of interactions affects the
condensates, we performed *in vitro* FRAP on RhlE and RNase E droplets (Fig S5B). We observed that
RNase E rapidly recovers either in RNase E-RNA condensates or in mixed RNase E-RhlE-RNA
condensates, while RhlE showed little to no recovery in RhlE-RNA condensates or RNase E-RhlE-RNA
condensates (Fig S5B). To test whether RhlE ATPase activity might influence its dynamics, we found the
addition of ATP-Mg^{2+} did not alleviate RhlE recovery (Fig S5B). Overall, this suggests that the material
properties of RhlE-RNA and RNase E-RNA condensates contribute to the unidirectional mixing observed
in vitro and *in vivo*.

As RNase E did not appear to readily enter other associated RNP condensates (Fig 6A), we
wanted to better understand the role of RNA and the associated degradosome proteins on its

condensation. We therefore examined the kinetics of condensation via time-lapse microscopy (Fig 7A,
7B). This assay likely reflects the kinetic processes of phase-separation and surface wetting of the
microscope slide. When incubated alone at its predicted *in vivo* concentration, RNase E did not phase
separate *in vitro* even after long incubations of several minutes. RNase E was able to phase separate
without RNA after prolonged incubation of many minutes, and at concentrations much higher than its
predicted *in vivo* concentration the extent of phase separation was enhanced (Fig S6). The addition of
RNA strongly stimulated the rate of condensation, occurring on the sub-minutes timescale, consistent
with the known importance of RNA for condensation *in vivo* and in end-point *in vitro* assays[4,29].
Importantly though, RNase E is known to scaffold the RNA degradosome protein complex, and the
degradosome proteins stoichiometrically bind to RNase E[31] and are homogeneously present with RNase
E in BR-bodies[4]. To test the effects of degradosome proteins on condensation kinetics, we added either
PNPase or the full set of core degradosome proteins (PNPase, Aconitase, RhlB, and RNase D1) to the
condensation assembly experiment. The addition of PNPase or the full set of core RNA degradosome
proteins still allowed for rapid RNA stimulated condensation on the sub-minute timescale. This suggests
that the combined interactions with the RNA degradosome proteins likely do not dramatically alter
RNase E's condensation kinetics in the presence of RNA. This may be due to the degradosome protein
binding sites being located outside the Arg-rich RNA binding sites in the C-terminal domain[31]. As noted
previously, we observed that the degradosome protein PNPase was able to stimulate RNase E
condensation *in vitro* in the absence of RNA (Fig S4A). We therefore assayed the kinetics of RNase E
PNPase condensation in the absence of RNA and found that the kinetics were dramatically slower than
in the presence of RNA. Overall, this suggests that RNA provides the strongest stimulation in
condensation, and the RNA degradosome clients can provide a slight further enhancement in RNA-
mediated condensation.

To understand if RNA or degradosome protein interactions alter the mobility of molecules in the
condensed state, we performed FRAP experiments (Fig 7C). RNase E condensates lacking RNA had the
slowest recovery, at 2.4 min $\tau_{1/2}$, while the addition of RNA accelerated the FRAP recovery $\tau_{1/2}$ to 0.23
[27]min. Interestingly, the addition of PNPase and RNA, or all degradosome proteins and RNA showed fast
mobility between 0.34 and 0.42 min $\tau_{1/2}$, similar to the RNase E with RNA sample. This suggests that the
addition of RNA significantly increases the mobility of RNase E condensates, regardless of the presence
of degradosome clients. Interestingly, the addition of RNase E and PNPase in the absence of RNA
showed a recovery $\tau_{1/2}$ of 0.38 min. This suggests that even though the degradosome proteins don't
dramatically stimulate the rate of condensation, the degradosome protein interactions likely do
influence the mobility of RNase E within the droplets, either indirectly through altering the structure of
the CTD or directly by influencing the multivalent protein-protein interactions in the condensed state.
Altogether, RNA appears to stimulate the rate of RNase E condensation, while the recruitment of RNA or
protein clients helps to increase the mobility of RNase E within the condensate which may help promote
enhanced biochemical activity.

Discussion

A complex protein interaction network impacts BR-body condensation and composition

BR-body proteomics revealed >100 different proteins of various biochemical functions are enriched,
suggesting they are more complex than previously assumed. Importantly, many other scaffolds that can
undergo heterotypic phase separation with RNA are also enriched in BR-bodies, which suggests that

many cellular RNP condensates exist and interact with BR-bodies. Five proteins which interact with
RNase E were identified as scaffolds that can phase separate with RNA *in vitro*, including RhlE, DeaD,
Hfq, FabG, and MetK. Together with RNApol condensates identified previously[5], this suggests that
bacteria contain many RNP condensates likely help coordinate multi-step reactions in RNA processing[3].
As observed for yeast P-bodies, a set of "core" proteins were found to be quantitatively enriched[27] and
likely homogeneously represented in these structures, were successfully reconstituted *in vitro* with
similar dynamics properties and stoichiometries identified[28]. We observed that a subset of BR-body
enriched proteins known to stoichiometrically assemble the RNA degradosome (RNase E, RhlB,
Aconitase, and PNPase), appear to be uniformly enriched in BR-bodies *in vivo*[4] and selectively recruited
to RNase E condensates *in vitro* (Fig 6). This suggests that the RNA degradosome likely composes the
"core" set of proteins making up each BR-body. An important goal working forward will be to define the
role of BR-body localization to each of the core enzymes involved in the RNA decay process. Indeed, by
using a two protein BR-body system using only RNase E and PNPase, PNPase activity was observed to be
directly stimulated via condensation with RNase E[17], suggesting organization in BR-bodies may help to
stimulate RNA degradosome activity. By testing the full complement of "core" BR-body proteins and also
the set of "accessory" BR-body associated proteins, we will likely be able to delineate the normal vs
specialized functions of BR-bodies.

As DEAD box RNA helicases appear to be important players in biomolecular condensates[38,42], we
observed that RhlE and DeaD act as scaffolds that undergo RNA dependent phase-separation *in vitro*,
while RhlB did not, similar to what was observed for their *E. coli* homologues[38], suggesting phase
separation is a conserved feature of these proteins. Interestingly, we observed strong recruitment of
RhlE and RhlB into RNase E condensates, while DeaD was observed to be recruited to a lower extent (Fig
4). While RhlB foci were dissociated in cells after RNase E depletion and showed strongly correlated
localization with RNase E[4], RhlE remained localized in foci even after RNase E depletion and showed
heterogenous partially overlapping localization with RNase E (Fig 2). Taken together, this suggests all
BR-bodies likely contain RhlB, a core part of the RNA degradosome, while the heterogeneity of RhlE
colocalization suggests that some BR-bodies lack this protein. The function of DEAD box proteins in BR-
bodies is not well understood, however, RhlE becomes more highly expressed when *C. crescentus* is
grown in the cold[40] which may alter the composition and function of BR-bodies in these conditions.

As the BR-body transcriptome previously revealed that poorly translated mRNAs and small RNAs
were highly enriched substrates, the BR-body proteomics identified Hfq as a BR-body enriched protein.
Interestingly, the protein Hfq which is known to chaperone small RNAs to base-pair to their target
mRNAs and repress translation/induce decay[43–47], was found to be enriched in BR-bodies, to form foci in
C. crescentus, and to phase separate with RNA *in vitro*. *E. coli* Hfq was recently found to phase separate
with DNA ,polyphosphate[39], and RNA[10], and its condensation is promoted *in vitro* by its intrinsically
disordered CTD[39].   Interestingly, *E. coli* Hfq foci were previously identified to colocalize with RNase E in
Nitrogen starved *E. coli* cells[7], and while Hfq is not a core member of the *E. coli* or *C. crescentus* RNA
degradosome, it has been found to associate with RNase E in multiple species[48]. Interestingly, we
observed that *C. crescentus* Hfq is readily recruited into RNase E-RNA condensates, but RNase E was not
recruited into Hfq-RNA condensates, suggesting directionality in forming a mixed condensate. *E. coli*
Hfq condensates were found to promote sRNA-mRNA annealing[10] and RNase E IDR mutants that prevent
BR-body phase separation were found to prevent sRNA-mRNA silencing[49]. Therefore the coordination of

Hfq with BR-bodies likely helps to degrade translationally repressed mRNAs as has been proposed for
miRNA/siRNA/lsm enrichment in P-bodies[22].

The identification of BR-body associated proteins which can dissolve BR-bodies (ribosomal protein
S1 and MetK) suggests they may play important regulatory roles in controlling BR-body assembly.
Ribosomal protein S1 appears to dissolve RNase E condensates via its RNA binding capacity, while MetK
appears to dissolve RNase E via protein-protein interaction with RNase E (Fig 5). Ribosomal protein S1 is
present in a ribosome bound and a ribosome free form where it is known to unfolds structured mRNAs
in preparation for translation initiation[50], and protect mRNAs from RNase E dependent decay[51]. Since
BR-bodies and ribosomes compete for mRNA substrates[4], ribosomal protein S1 may prevent BR-body
condensation on highly translated mRNAs by locally disrupting RNase E condensation when in
polysomes. Alternatively, if ribosomal protein S1 dissociates from the ribosome, it may be able to
globally dissolve BR-bodies, potentially acting as a sensor of translation. MetK an essential enzyme in
which generates S-adenosyl-methionine and which we identified could assemble RNP condensates.
While it was identified as an RNase E binding protein from CoIP in cells grown in the cold, we identified a
weak *in vitro* CoIP of RNase E and MetK proteins (Fig 5), suggesting MetK likely inhibits RNase E
condensation directly from blocking multivalent interactions, or indirectly by altering the conformation
of RNase E. Despite its rather weak RNA binding observed *in vitro*, MetK from *C. crescentus* phase
separated in the presence of RNA, and homologs from *S. meliloti* and *E. coli* were identified to bind
RNA[52]. Since MetK is the sole enzyme creating SAM in *C. crescentus*, perhaps it might act as a metabolic
sensor that could tune the number of BR-bodies to Carbon availability. In line with this hypothesis, its
levels are dramatically altered upon Carbon starvation[53].

Critical importance of RNA in bacterial RNP body condensation

Excitingly, reconstitution of minimal BR-body cores revealed that RNA, which was hypothesized
to play a key role in BR-body assembly *in vivo*[4], also plays a key role in BR-body assembly *in vitro*. We
observed that RNA can kinetically stimulate the rate of BR-body condensation on the sub-minutes
timescale (Fig 7), further suggesting rifampicin-induced RNA depletion is likely the main cause of RNase
E's robust foci dissolution and not other cellular perturbations from this drug (such as nucleoid
expansion[54]). The addition of RNA degradosome proteins does not alter the rate of RNase E
condensation, however, does appear to enhance RNase E mobility by FRAP (Fig 7). Based on BR-body
transcriptomics, these structures are mostly enriched for long poorly translated mRNAs and small RNAs
and depleted of rRNA and other highly structured ncRNAs[29]. This suggests that at least under
logarithmic growth conditions, availability of poorly translated RNA helps catalyze rapid BR-body
assembly. Interestingly, BR-bodies could be induced with some client proteins in the absence of RNA,
such as PNPase, however, the rate of the condensation was far slower than in the presence of RNA.
While likely not relevant under log phase growth conditions as BR-bodies were observed to have sub-
minutes dynamics[4], such assemblies might occur under non-growing conditions, like stationary phase.

The identification of five new RNP condensates associated with BR-bodies suggests these
structures likely have a broader role in bacterial cell organization than previously anticipated. Indeed,
recent high-throughput methods designed to detect proteins crosslinked to RNA identified >1100 RNA
binding proteins in *E. coli* including many metabolic enzymes[55,56]. Indeed, we identified two metabolic
enzymes, MetK and FabG, which have the capacity to phase separate with RNA (Fig 3). While the ability
of metabolic enzymes to bind to RNA is referred to as "moonlighting" RNA binding activity[57], it's possible

that due to large number of RNA binders RNP condensates plays a broad role in organizing metabolic
pathways in the bacterial cytoplasm. While experimentation to identify and characterize new
condensates is slow, bioinformatic prediction of proteins that can undergo phase separation is making
progress, however, even next generation algorithms do not accurately predict the phase separation of
all five of these proteins. Perhaps current phase separation prediction algorithms rely too much on IDR
predictions, which appear to often affect phase separation, but are not always required[58]. In developing
next generation algorithms to predict phase separation, it will be important for the training data sets to
include bacterial phase separating proteins so we can begin to make accurate estimates for the fraction
of the bacterial proteome that is able to phase separate.

Materials and Methods

***Caulobacter crescentus* cell growth**

All *C. crescentus* strains used in this study were derived from the wild-type strain NA1000[59], and were
grown at 28°C in peptone-yeast extract (PYE) medium or M2 minimal medium supplemented with 0.2%
D-glucose (M2G)[60]. When appropriate, the indicated concentration of vanillate (500 mM), xylose (0.2%),
gentamycin (Gent) (0.5 mg/mL), kanamycin (Kan) (5 mg/mL), spectinomycin (Spec) (25 mg/mL), and/or
streptomycin (Strp) (5 mg/mL) was added. Strains were analyzed at mid-exponential phase of growth
(OD 0.3-0.6). Optical density was measured at 600 nm in a cuvette using a Nanodrop 2000C
spectrophotometer.

BR-body enrichment assay and LC-MS proteomics

BR-body enrichment was performed as in[30]. Enriched BR-bodies were then resuspended in buffered SDS
before proteomics sample preparation.

Suspension Trapping (S-Trap) Sample Preparation:

100 µg protein lysate (JS221 or JS299) was prepared in triplicate according to the manufacturer's
instructions. Trypsin was resuspended in a 50 mM ABC buffer and added to S-Traps at a 1:50
(enzyme:protein w/w) ratio and incubated for 8 hours at 37˚C. After the digestion, peptides were eluted
according to the manufacturer's protocol and vacuum centrifuged to dryness prior to desalting.

Solid Phase Extraction (SPE):

All samples were desalted prior to MS analysis with 10mg HLB cartridges according to manufacturer's
instructions as in [61]. Samples were dried prior to analysis and stored at -80˚C until re-suspension for LC-
MS/MS.

Analysis via nano UHPLC-MS/MS:

Dried digests were resuspended in 0.1% formic acid in water to a concentration of 250 ng/µL. 2 µL of
solution was injected onto a 100mm x 100µm C_{18} BEH reverse phase chromatography column with an
autosampler (nanoACQUITY, Waters Corporation). Peptides were separated over a 95 minute
segmented gradient from 4-35% B (A= H_2O + 0.1% FA, B=acetonitrile + 0.1% FA) MS-MS/MS was
performed on a Q-Exactive HF mass spectrometer via electrospray ionization (Thermo Fisher Scientific).
Samples were collected in biological triplicate, and data was acquired in technical triplicate injections
using a TOP17 data-dependent method (DDA).

Peptide-Spectrum Matching (PSM):

RAW files from technical and biological triplicates were processed for peptide identification, protein

inference, and false-discovery rate using the MetaMorpheus search engine[62]. A *C. crescentus* FASTA

from UniProt (proteome ID UP000001364) was used with a common contaminant file. Data were first

calibrated prior to search ('Traditional') using the default parameters. For 'Main' search, additional

parameters included a maximum of two missed cleavages, two variable modifications per peptide, and a

minimum peptide length of seven amino acids. The precursor mass tolerance was set to 5 ppm and the

product mass tolerance was set to 20 ppm. The 'common' fixed and 'common' variable modifications

were selected, and identifications were filtered to a q-value of <0.01. RAW data files are available

through MassIVE with accession number (MSV000090894).

In vivo localization of BR-body associated proteins

All *C. crescentus* protein fusion strains were grown in PYE-Kan or PYE-Gent media overnight. The next

day, from the log-phase cultures, a few dilutions were done in M2G media containing appropriate

amount of Kan or Gent and grown for overnight. The next day, the mid log-phase cultures were induced

with 500 mM vanillate and grown for 6 hours. 1μL of the cells were spotted on a M2G 1.5% agarose pad

and imaged using a YFP filter cube.

RNase E depletion

Depletion strains containing the xylose inducible copy of RNase E were first grown overnight in M2G-

Kan-Gent media containing 0.2% xylose. The next day, from the log-phase cultures, a few dilutions were

done in M2G-Kan-Gent media containing 0.2% xylose overnight. Mid-log phase cells were then washed 3

times with 1 mL growth media and resuspended in growth media and split into two tubes and one

treated with 0.2% xylose. Depletion strains were analyzed at mid-exponential phase of growth (OD 0.3-

0.6) and after 24 hours of depletion of xylose. 1 μL of the cells under each condition was spotted on a

M2G 1.5% agarose pad and imaged using a YFP filter cube.

Colocalization of YFP tagged proteins with BR-body marker Aconitase-mCherry

Dual-labeled strains expressing YFP tagged proteins with BR-body marker Aconitase-mCherry were first

grown overnight in PYE-Kan-Spec-Strp media in 3 dilutions. Mid log-phase cells were split into two tubes,

and one was treated with 0.02% xylose and grown for 3.5 hours. 1 μL of the cells under each condition

was spotted on a M2G 1.5% agarose pad and imaged using YFP and TX-Red filter cubes. Fluorescence

level analysis of the droplets was performed using MicrobeJ[63]. The correlation analysis was performed

in Microsoft Excel.

Dissolution of MetK and ribosomal protein S1

Strains expressing MetK and ribosomal protein S1 with BR-body marker Aconitase-mCherry were first

grown overnight in PYE-Kan-Spec-Strp media in 3 dilutions. Mid log-phase cells were split into two tubes,

and one was treated with 0.2% xylose and grown for 6 hours. 1 μL of the cells under each condition was

spotted on a M2G 1.5% agarose pad and imaged using TX-Red filter cubes.

Cell imaging

Around 1 µL of cells were immobilized on 1.5% agarose pads made with M2G medium on microscope
slides (Thermo SCIENTIFIC 3051), air dried and imaged with immersion oil on a coverslip. All images were
collected using a Nikon Eclipse NI-E with CoolSNAP MYO-CCD camera and 100x Oil CFI Plan Fluor (Nikon)
objective, driven by Nikon elements software. The filter sets used for YFP, CFP and mCherry imaging
were chroma 96363, 96361, and 96322 models respectively. Cell image analysis was performed using
Microbe-J[63].

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Foci quantification

In vivo protein fusion foci were quantified using Microbe J[63]. Cell outlines were first identified using the
medial axis algorithm in the phase channel with minimal cell length of 1.35 µm and the segmentation
option. Cell outlines were then manually curated to remove cells containing erroneous outlines. Next,
the maxima function was used with ''foci'' option with minimal area of 0.01 $µm^2$ and minimal length of
0.1 µm with the segmentation option on and the association inside option on. Tolerance and Z-score
parameters tuned for each protein fusion type.

To quantify the average foci per cell of each strain, three replicates were performed in three different
days and 3 images were analyzed from each day. We summed all foci identified in each cell, divided by
the total of the cell to calculate number of foci per cell.

RNA extraction

For RNA extraction mid-log phase cells (0.3 to 0.5 OD600) were pelleted at 20,000 g for 10 minutes in a
microcentrifuge. Then, cells were resuspended in 1mL 65°C Trizol (1mL for each 1 mL of NA1000 cell)
and incubated at 65°C for 10 min in a heat block. 200mL of chloroform was added and incubated for 5
min at room temperature. The samples were then spun at max speed (20,000 g) in a microcentrifuge for
10 min at room temperature. The aqueous layer was removed and RNA samples were precipitated using
700 mL isopropanol at -80°C for 1 hour and spun at 20,000 g for 1 hour at 4°C. The supernatant was
removed and the pellet was washed with 1 mL of 70% ethanol. The samples were then spun again for 10
min at 20,000 g at 4°C, the supernatant was removed, and the pellet was resuspended in RNase-free
water. RNA samples were run on 1X TBE/7M Urea denaturing PAGE gels and visualized with SYBR-Gold
nucleic acid gel stain.

Protein purifications:

The protein coding genes were cloned into pET His6 MBP TEV or pET His6 G TEV or pET28a plasmids and
the expressed proteins are purified by His tag affinity purification followed by the removal of MBP or G
tag by TEV proteolysis. RNase E CTD, RhlB, RhlE -IDR were expressed as N-terminal MBP fusions, all the
other proteins were expressed as N-terminal G protein fusions. Briefly, the proteins are expressed in
BL21 DE3 cells by inducing with 0.5mM IPTG at 37° C for 3.5 hours in 2X Luria-Bertani media, and the
cells pelleted at 5000 rpm for 20 minutes were lysed in a lysis buffer (20mM Tris pH 7.4, 500mM NaCl,
10% Glycerol, 10mM Imidazole, 1mM PMSF, 1 tablet protease inhibitor cocktail and DNase I) at 4° C
using a sonicator with 10 seconds pulse on and 30 seconds pulse off times for 18 cycles. The lysed cells
were centrifuged at 15000 rpm for 45 minutes and the resultant supernatant was loaded onto
equilibrated Ni-NTA resin, the protein bound resin was washed with 10 column volumes each of lysis

buffer, chaperone buffer (20 mM Tris pH 7.4, 1 M NaCl, 10% Glycerol, 10 mM Imidazole, 5 mM KCl, 10
mM MgCl2, 2 mM ATP) and low salt buffer (20 mM Tris pH 7.4, 1 M NaCl, 10% Glycerol, 10 mM
Imidazole) respectively. The proteins were eluted in elution buffer (20 mM Tris pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl,
10% Glycerol, 250 mM Imidazole) and dialyzed into storage buffer (20 mM Tris pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl).
The contaminant proteins were removed by passing through S200 size exclusion column. The
concentrated proteins were stored in -80° C freezer.

RNase E CTD purification: His6-MBP-TEV-RNase E CTD was expressed and purified in the same way as
described above except the lysis buffer additionally contained 1M NaCl and 0.1% Triton X-100.

Hfq purification: Hfq protein was expressed at 18° C for 16 hours. Lysis buffer and elution buffer
contained 1 M NaCl instead of 150 mM and 500 mM NaCl respectively. To remove the contaminating
nucleic acids, the His tag affinity purified protein was treated with 30 μg/mL RNase A and 5 U/mL DNase
I for 1 hour at 37° C, concentrated and loaded onto HiLoad 16/60 Superdex 200 size exclusion column
(GE healthcare). The absence of RNase A was further validated by incubating RNA with the protein.

Protein labeling:

Cyanine 5 NHS ester labeling of proteins:

Labeling reactions were carried out according to manufacturer's protocol (Lumiprobe). Cy5 NHS ester
dye dissolved in DMSO was incubated with proteins at an equal ratio in 0.1M sodium bicarbonate buffer
pH 8.5 at room temperature for 4 hours. Protein labeling calculator
https://www.lumiprobe.com/calc/protein-labeling was used to calculate the amount of protein and
dye used in the labeling reactions. The excess of dye was removed by dialyzing against protein storage
buffer (20mM Tris pH 7.4, 150mM NaCl) using a 3 kDa cut off dialysis cassette. Degree of labeling was
calculated using the formula:

560
$$number\ of\ cy5\ dye\ per\ protein = \frac{molarity\ of\ cy5\ dye}{molarity\ of\ protein}$$

561
$$[molarity\ of\ cy5\ dye] = \frac{A650}{\varepsilon 650}$$

562
$$molarity\ of\ protein = \frac{A280c}{\varepsilon 280}$$

563
$$A650 = conjugate\ absorbance\ at\ 650nm$$

564
$$\varepsilon 650 = molar\ extinction\ coefficient\ of\ Cy5\ dye$$

565
$$A280c = conjugate\ corrected\ absorbance\ at\ 280nm = A280 - \left(A650 * (0.05)\right)$$

566
$$\varepsilon 280 = molar\ extinction\ coefficient\ of\ protein$$

In vitro **phase separation experiments and droplet assays**

Proteins at their *in vivo* concentrations are incubated in the presence or absence of *C. crescentus* total
RNA (20 ng/μL) in 20mM Tris pH 7.4, 100mM NaCl for 30 minutes at room temperature. The mixture
was pipetted onto glass slide, covered with a cover slip, and imaged using Nikon epifluorescence

microscope. For quantification of number and distribution of droplets, 10 images for each protein were
analyzed using 'analyze particles' function in Image J. See table 1 for detailed protocol.

For recruitment assays, 6 µM RNAse E CTD was incubated with 20 ng/ µL of *C. crescentus* total RNA in
20mM Tris pH 7.4, 100mM NaCl for 20 minutes at room temperature, followed by the addition of Cy5
labeled client proteins and additional incubation for 20 minutes before imaging. The level of recruitment
was assessed by calculating the partition coefficient of client proteins. 30 droplets were analyzed in each
case.

578
$$partition\ coefficient = \frac{mean\ fluorescence\ intensity\ inside\ the\ droplets}{mean\ fluorescence\ intensity\ outside\ the\ droplets}$$

ImageJ software was used to quantify the mean fluorescence and the data was plotted in PlotsOfData[64].
Coassembly experiments were performed by mixing all the components and incubated for 30 mins at
room temperature before imaging.

For salt and RNA dependency experiments, preformed protein and RNA condensates were incubated
with either varying concentrations of NaCl or RNase A for 30 minutes at room temperature before
imaging the solution on a glass slide using phase contrast microscope.

RNase E condensation induction in the absence of RNA was carried out by adding client proteins at
varied concentrations to 6 µM RNase E CTD in 20mM Tris, 100mM NaCl and incubated for 30 minutes at
room temperature. The solution was imaged on a glass slide using phase contrast microscope.

In-vitro protein pull down assay

RNAse E CTD tagged with Maltose Binding Protein (MBP) or MBP only was incubated with bait proteins
in pull down binding buffer (20mM Hepes pH 7.4, 100mM NaCl, 2% Glycerol, 2mM DTT) for 60 mins at
room temperature. 100 µL of Dextrin Agarose resin was added to the above mixture and incubated for
another 90 minutes at 4°C on a tube rotator. The samples were washed four times with 1 mL of wash
buffer (20mM Hepes pH 7.4, 100mM NaCl) each time. Bound proteins were eluted with 100 µL of
elution buffer (20mM Hepes pH 7.4, 150mM NaCl, 10mM Maltose) at 30ºC with constant shaking. The
eluted proteins were resolved on SDS PAGE gel.

Electrophoretic mobility shift assay

RNA (50 nM) was incubated with specified concentrations of proteins for 30 mins at room temperature
in binding buffer consisting of 20mM Tris pH 7.4, 150mM NaCl, 5% Glycerol, 2mM DTT, 1mM EDTA, 10
µg/mL BSA. The incubated samples were resolved on a 5% Acrylamide/Bis-acrylamide native gel
(prepared in TBE buffer) at 4ºC in 0.5X TBE running buffer. The gel was stained with SYBR GOLD for
20mins and scanned using a Typhoon scanner for RNA/RNA-protein complexes detection.

Determination of order of assembly of RhIE, RNase E and Aconitase foci

C. crescentus JS716 (RhIE-YFP/Aconitase-mCherry) and JS452 (RNase E-YFP/Aconitase-mCherry) were
grown overnight in PYE medium containing kanamycin (5 µg/mL), spectomycin (25 µg/mL) and
streptomycin (5 µg/mL) until the cultures reached mid log-phase (OD~0.3). Prior to imaging, the cells were
diluted to 0.05 OD in PYE media and induced with 0.02% xylose for 15 minutes at 28 °C. Aliquots of 1.5 µL
of culture were spotted onto pads of 2% agarose in M2G medium and sandwiched between two

coverslips. Cells were imaged with an Olympus IX71 inverted epifluorescence microscope with a 100×
objective (NA 1.40, oil immersion) kept at 28 °C using at objective heater (Bioptechs). The YFP fusion
proteins were imaged under excitation from a 488-nm laser (Coherent Cube 488-50; 0.4 W cm^{-2}) and the
mCherry fusions were imaged under excitation from a 561-nm laser (Coherent Sapphire 561-50; 2.0 W
cm^{-2}). Both channels were imaged simultaneously on a 512 × 512 pixel Photometric Evolve electron-
multiplying charge-coupled device (EMCCD) camera, using an OptoSplit II image splitter (Cairn Research)
with a 635-nm long pass filter and a 525/50 nm bandpass filter. An integration time of 250 ms with a delay
between frames of 5 s was used, where a shutter blocked irradiation during the delay time to minimize
photobleaching of YFP and mCherry.

To analyze the fluorescence intensities, the mean intensity of each cell in each channel was first
subtracted from the movies. Foci were then detected by eye in the background-subtracted movies, and
the mean and maximum intensities within the 9 × 9 pixel region of interest (ROI) surrounding each focus
was measured in both channels. Time zero was set to be the frame immediately preceding the first
frame with an ROI mean intensity at least 10% higher than the maximum intensity value in the ROI in
the previous frame. This time zero was also assigned as time zero on the other channel. Subsequently,
the maximum intensity within the ROIs were divided by the maximum intensity of the ROI in the time
zero frame to determine the fluorescence intensity enhancement of each focus at each time.

Condensate growth kinetic assays

Time lapse images were acquired using Zeiss LSM 800 microscope. 6 µM of RNase E CTD YFP (RCY) was
spotted onto a glass slide, and either the RNA or proteins or both at specified concentrations was
pipetted onto RCY solution. The image acquisition was started before the addition of RNA or proteins or
both, but the zero-minute time point was calculated from the time they are added to RCY solution on
glass slide. The zero-minute time point for 'RCY only' started from the time the sample was spotted onto
glass slide. The images were acquired for 2.5 minutes with 50 ms time interval. The data was quantified
in Image J and plotted in MS Excel.

FRAP assays

FRAP was performed according to a standard protocol (Jing et al., 2018). Briefly, the measured F(t) over
the bleached circular area of d = 2 µm in diameter, normalized by that of the unbleached region of the
same diameter, F(0), was fitted by a one-phase exponential function using the "Bottom to (SpaZeisn +
Bottom)" analysis as $F(t)/F(0) = Bottom + Span*(1 - \exp(-t \ln 2/\tau_{1/2}))$, where $\tau_{1/2}$ is the halftime for
diffusion. The apparent diffusion coefficient, D, of f-dextran in PSBMA–{W12} coacervates was obtained
from $\tau_{1/2}$ according to $D = d2/(4\tau_{1/2})$.

Figure Legends
Figure 1. BR-body enrichment proteomics identifies BR-body associated proteins. A) *Caulobacter*
crescentus BR-body enrichment[30] was performed, followed by LC-MS/MS proteomics to identify BR-body
associated proteins. JS299 (an RNase E active site mutant) was used to isolate BR-bodies, and JS221 (an
RNase E mutant lacking the C-terminal disordered region that cannot form BR-bodies) was used as a
negative control. B) BR-body enrichment analysis from the LC-MS/MS proteomics data. The RNA
degradosome proteins were identified by pulldown from[31,34,40]. Polar proteins were identified as
interactors with PopZ[65] or polar condensates with interactions with PopZ, PodJ, or SpmX. Polar proteins

measured in the negative control but undetected in the BR-body enriched samples were plotted at <-5.
T-tests with uneven variance were used for statistical comparison. GO-term enrichment for localization
and protein function were performed using NCBI DAVID[66]. C) Localization pattern of foci-forming YFP
fusions. All genes were placed under control of the vanillate promoter grown in M2G minimal media. *In*
vivo protein fusion strains were analyzed at mid-exponential phase of growth (OD 0.3-0.6) following 6-
hours of induction with 0.5mM vanillate and quantified using Microbe J[63]. Three replicates were
performed in three different days and 3 images were analyzed from each day to calculate the average
number of foci/cell. A minimum of 150 cells were used for the analysis. Error bars represent standard
error. Raw images in supplementary figure 1(Fig S1).

Figure 2. RNase E is required for foci localization of most BR-body associated proteins. A) Subcellular
localization patterns of *C. crescentus* protein-YFP strains expressed from the *vanA* locus in the RNase E
depletion background where the sole copy of the RNase E gene is controlled by the xylose promoter.
The YFP intensity of aconitase-YFP was too low to measure when expressed from the vanillate promoter,
so a native gene fusion was used instead. YFP intensity of each image was normalized from its brightest
level relative to its background level. Depletion strains were analyzed at mid-exponential phase of
growth (OD 0.3-0.6) and after 24 hours of depletion of xylose. B) Quantitation of the number of *Ccr*
protein-YFP foci per cell measured in M2G minimal media with xylose (+Xyl) and M2G minimal media
lacking xylose (-Xyl) for the same strains in panel A. All images were quantified using Microbe-J[63]. Three
replicates were performed in three different days and 3 images were analyzed from each day to
calculate the average # foci/cell. A minimum of 175 cells were used for the analysis. Error bars represent
standard error. Observed dependence on RNase E is indicated on the right.

Figure 3. Some BR-body enriched proteins can drive RNA dependent biomolecular condensation. A)
(Left) Domain organization of proteins that undergo LLPS. The red line indicates disordered region as
predicted by PONDR. (Right) Disorderness[67], Pscore[62], Catgranule[68] and DeePhase[69] scores to predict the
propensity of LLPS B) Phase contrast microscopy images of the purified proteins incubated at their *in*
vivo concentrations in standard buffer (20mM Tris pH 7.4, 100mM NaCl, 1mM DTT) in the presence and
absence of *C. crescentus* total RNA (30ng/uL). Scale bar is 5 μm. C) Droplets are dissolved by NaCl and
RNase A. The dissolution of droplets was tested at different NaCl concentrations (0.1, 0.5 and 1M) and
RNase A (1 μg). All the proteins were found to be NaCl and RNase sensitive.

Figure 4. Many BR-body associated proteins are directly recruited to RNase E condensates *in vitro.* A)
Cartoon showing the *in vitro* RNase E droplet recruitment assay. Cy5 labeled proteins are added to
preformed RNase E CTD+RNA droplets. Microscopy images of the droplets are taken in Phase contrast
and Cy5 fluorescence, and the partition coefficients of the fluorescence signal is calculated for each
droplet. B) Partition coefficient (PC) of Cy5 labeled client proteins in RNase E CTD droplets. Negative
controls BSA Cy5 and SpmX Cy5 have partition coefficients of 1. The black horizontal line through the
plot indicates a PC of 1 which indicates the no enrichment baseline. PC of ribosomal protein S1 and
MetK proteins could not be determined because of the dissolution of droplets. The data was quantified
in imageJ software and plotted in PlotsofData[64]. For the example images presented, left image is phase
contrast and the right image is Cy5 channel of each indicated protein. Scale is 10 μm for all images.

Figure 5. Ribosomal protein S1 and MetK dissolve BR-bodies *in vitro* and *in vivo.* A) Microscopy images of
in vitro RNase E droplets incubated with either ribosomal protein S1 or MetK. RNA induced RNase E
droplets are shown on the top, while PNPase induced RNase E droplets are shown below. Scale is 10 μm

for all images. Below is a proposed cartoon of the RNA dependence of dissolution of each protein. B)
RNA and protein binding data for ribosomal protein S1 and MetK with 1 µM RNA. RNA was visualized by
sybr gold staining. C) RNase E coIPs with Acontiase and MetK. Co-IP of mbp-RNase using 1 µM RNase E
incubated with 5 µM of the indicated proteins. Eluates were run on SDS-PAGE and stained with simply
blue safestain (thermofisher). MBP mock reactions were used as a negative control. D) BR-bodies
(marked with aconitase-mCherry) are dissolved upon overexpression of ribosomal protein S1 or MetK
from the pBX multicopy plasmid. Quantitation of the average Aconitase-mChy foci/cell was performed
using Microbe-J and is plotted on the right (error bars represent standard error). A minimum of 700
cells were used for the analysis.

Figure 6. BR-body associated drivers have distinct condensation and client recruitment profiles. A)
Scaffold proteins recruit a distinct subset of client proteins. Each RNA degradosome client labeled with
Cy5 was tested for recruitment into each BR-body associated scaffold. Each dot in (A) and (B) plots
indicate the partition coefficient in a single droplet. Partition coefficient was calculated from at least 50
droplets in each case. The data was quantified in imageJ and plotted in PlotsofData. B) BR-body
associated scaffolds drive a complex network of dependencies controlling phase separation. Each
protein scaffold was incubated with RNA and allowed to phase separate. Then a small concentration of
Cy5 labeled proteins were tested for entry into the condensate by measuring the partition coefficients
of the Cy5 channel. C) Order of assembly experiments using GFP-RNase E and RhlE-Cy5 condensates.
Condensed simultaneously indicates that both proteins were added together before the addition of RNA
to trigger condensation, "condensed separately" indicates that both proteins were incubated with RNA
yielding separate condensates that were then mixed together. D) Colocalization of YFP tagged proteins
with BR-body marker Aconitase-mCherry. Colored arrows indicate the pattern of localization observed
for induvial foci. Correlation plot with the correlation value of each channel for many line traces across
Aconitase-mCherry Foci. The correlation of YFP and mCherry signal is calculated for each line trace, and
each line trace correlation value is plotted as a single dot on the plot. The median value is represented
as a black line. Statistics were based upon 2-tailed T-test with unequal variance. E) *In vivo* order of foci
assembly. Time-lapse two-color imaging of RhlE-YFP and Aconitase-mCherry proteins was performed, ,
and the evolution of the intensity of each focus after formation is plotted. (i) Intensity evolution in cells
in which both Aconitase-mCherry and RhlE-YFP condensates are formed approximately at the same
time. The middle line indicates the average value, and the colored region represents the standard
deviation between all replicate events. N is the number of events imaged. (ii) Cells in which RhlE-YFP
condensates were formed first and the subsequent appearance of Aconitase-mCherry in RhlE-YFP
condensates was tracked. (iii) Cells in which Aconitase-mCherry condensates were formed first and the
subsequent appearance of RhlE-YFP in Aconitase-mCherry condensates was tracked.

Figure 7. RNA stimulates rapid BR-body condensation *in vitro*. A) Time lapse imaging of RNase E CTD YFP
(RCY) condensate formation. 6 µM RCY assembly was monitored either alone or with different
combinations of 100ng/µL RNA, 3 µM PNPase, or all degradosome proteins (3 µM PNPase, 2 µM RhlB, 5
µM RNase D1, and 5 µM Aconitase) as indicated on the left. All the images were captured at 20X
magnification at the time points indicated above. The scale bar is 20 µm. B) Quantification of
condensate growth by calculation of % area occupied in the time lapse experiments from panel A. The
data was quantified in imageJ, averaged from three independent replicates, and plotted in MS Excel. C)
Apparent FRAM recovery for droplets with the indicated composition. Since no RCY condensates are

present at 6 µM, the concentration was increased to 30 µM to induce condensates. The values are
averages from at least six different droplets, and error bars represent the standard deviation.

Graphical Abstract. Summary of BR-body protein interactome. Scaffolds/Drivers of phase separation
are drawn as blue circles, Protein inhibitors of phase separation are drawn in red circles, and clients of
BR-bodies are drawn in green circles. Lines between two protein circles represent a direct interaction.

Authors Contribution:

VN performed protein purifications, all *in vitro* experiments, and *in vivo* experiments. IWR performed
protein purifications, *in vivo* experiments (*in vivo* expression experiments, *in vivo* depletion experiments,
and colocalization experiments), and made plasmids and strains for *in vivo* experiments. VN, AH, JV
performed droplet kinetic assays and FRAP experiments. KM, AG, and YH purified proteins. NM purified
BR bodies for BR-body proteomics. CBM and MC performed LC-MS data collection and analysis. LAOR
performed RhlE *in vivo* assemble experiments.

Acknowledgements:

745   NIH grant R35GM124733 to JS. NIH grants R01GM143182 and R01GM144731 to JB. NIH Grant
746   R01GM136863 to WSC. NSF grant CMMI-1914436 to YZ. NIH grant R01GM139277 to MC. We would like
747   to acknowledge the Mass Spectrometry and Proteomics Facility at Notre Dame.

References:

1.   Azaldegui, C.A., Vecchiarelli, A.G., and Biteen, J.S. (2021). The emergence of phase separation as
an organizing principle in bacteria. Biophysical Journal *120*, 1123–1138. 10.1016/j.bpj.2020.09.023.

2.   Banani, S.F., Lee, H.O., Hyman, A.A., and Rosen, M.K. (2017). Biomolecular condensates:
organizers of cellular biochemistry. Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology *18*, 285–298.
10.1038/nrm.2017.7.

3.   Nandana, V., and Schrader, J.M. (2021). Roles of liquid–liquid phase separation in bacterial RNA
metabolism. Current Opinion in Microbiology *61*, 91–98. 10.1016/j.mib.2021.03.005.

4.   Al-Husini, N., Tomares, D.T., Bitar, O., Childers, W.S., and Schrader, J.M. (2018). α-
Proteobacterial RNA Degradosomes Assemble Liquid-Liquid Phase-Separated RNP Bodies. Molecular Cell
71, 1027-1039.e14. 10.1016/j.molcel.2018.08.003.

5.   Ladouceur, A.-M., Parmar, B.S., Biedzinski, S., Wall, J., Tope, S.G., Cohn, D., Kim, A., Soubry, N.,
Reyes-Lamothe, R., and Weber, S.C. (2020). Clusters of bacterial RNA polymerase are biomolecular
condensates that assemble through liquid–liquid phase separation. PNAS *117*, 18540–18549.
10.1073/pnas.2005019117.

6.   Lasker, K., von Diezmann, L., Zhou, X., Ahrens, D.G., Mann, T.H., Moerner, W.E., and Shapiro, L.
(2020). Selective sequestration of signalling proteins in a membraneless organelle reinforces the spatial
regulation of asymmetry in Caulobacter crescentus. Nature Microbiology *5*, 418–429. 10.1038/s41564-
019-0647-7.

7.   McQuail, J., Switzer, A., Burchell, L., and Wigneshweraraj, S. (2020). The RNA-binding protein
Hfq assembles into foci-like structures in nitrogen starved Escherichia coli. Journal of Biological
Chemistry *295*, 12355–12367. 10.1074/jbc.RA120.014107.

8.   Monterroso, B., Zorrilla, S., Sobrinos-Sanguino, M., Robles-Ramos, M.A., López-Álvarez, M.,
Margolin, W., Keating, C.D., and Rivas, G. (2019). Bacterial FtsZ protein forms phase-separated
condensates with its nucleoid-associated inhibitor SlmA. EMBO reports *20*, e45946.
10.15252/embr.201845946.

9.   Wang, H., Yan, X., Aigner, H., Bracher, A., Nguyen, N.D., Hee, W.Y., Long, B.M., Price, G.D., Hartl,
F.U., and Hayer-Hartl, M. (2019). Rubisco condensate formation by CcmM in β-carboxysome biogenesis.
Nature *566*, 131–135. 10.1038/s41586-019-0880-5.

10. Goldberger, O., Szoke, T., Nussbaum-Shochat, A., and Amster-Choder, O. (2022). Heterotypic phase
separation of Hfq is linked to its roles as an RNA chaperone. Cell Reports *41*, 111881.
10.1016/j.celrep.2022.111881.

11.   Feng, Z., Chen, X., Wu, X., and Zhang, M. (2019). Formation of biological condensates via phase
separation: Characteristics, analytical methods, and physiological implications. Journal of Biological
Chemistry *294*, 14823–14835. 10.1074/jbc.REV119.007895.

12.   Mittag, T., and Pappu, R.V. (2022). A conceptual framework for understanding phase separation
and addressing open questions and challenges. Molecular Cell *82*, 2201–2214.
10.1016/j.molcel.2022.05.018.

13.   Kar, M., Dar, F., Welsh, T.J., Vogel, L.T., Kühnemuth, R., Majumdar, A., Krainer, G., Franzmann,
T.M., Alberti, S., Seidel, C.A.M., et al. (2022). Phase-separating RNA-binding proteins form
heterogeneous distributions of clusters in subsaturated solutions. Proceedings of the National Academy
of Sciences *119*, e2202222119. 10.1073/pnas.2202222119.

14.   Ditlev, J.A., Case, L.B., and Rosen, M.K. (2018). Who's In and Who's Out—Compositional Control
of Biomolecular Condensates. Journal of Molecular Biology *430*, 4666–4684. 10.1016/j.jmb.2018.08.003.

15.   Hubatsch, L., Jawerth, L.M., Love, C., Bauermann, J., Tang, T.D., Bo, S., Hyman, A.A., and Weber,
C.A. (2021). Quantitative theory for the diffusive dynamics of liquid condensates. eLife *10*, e68620.
10.7554/eLife.68620.

16.   Taylor, N.O., Wei, M.-T., Stone, H.A., and Brangwynne, C.P. (2019). Quantifying Dynamics in
Phase-Separated Condensates Using Fluorescence Recovery after Photobleaching. Biophysical Journal
117, 1285–1300. 10.1016/j.bpj.2019.08.030.

17.   Collins, M., Tomares, D.T., Schrader, J.M., and Childers, W.S. (2022). RNase E biomolecular
condensates stimulate PNPase activity. 2022.06.06.495039. 10.1101/2022.06.06.495039.

18.   Peeples, W., and Rosen, M.K. (2021). Mechanistic dissection of increased enzymatic rate in a
phase-separated compartment. Nat Chem Biol *17*, 693–702. 10.1038/s41589-021-00801-x.

19.   Tibble, R.W., Depaix, A., Kowalska, J., Jemiely, J., and Gross, J.D. (2021). Biomolecular
condensates amplify mRNA decapping by biasing enzyme conformation. Nat Chem Biol *17*, 615–623.
10.1038/s41589-021-00774-x.

20.   Moon, S.L., Morisaki, T., Khong, A., Lyon, K., Parker, R., and Stasevich, T.J. (2019). Multicolour
single-molecule tracking of mRNA interactions with RNP granules. Nat Cell Biol *21*, 162–168.
10.1038/s41556-018-0263-4.

21.   Pitchiaya, S., Mourao, M.D.A., Jalihal, A.P., Xiao, L., Jiang, X., Chinnaiyan, A.M., Schnell, S., and
Walter, N.G. (2019). Dynamic Recruitment of Single RNAs to Processing Bodies Depends on RNA
Functionality. Molecular Cell *74*, 521-533.e6. 10.1016/j.molcel.2019.03.001.

22.   Hubstenberger, A., Courel, M., Bénard, M., Souquere, S., Ernoult-Lange, M., Chouaib, R., Yi, Z.,
Morlot, J.-B., Munier, A., Fradet, M., et al. (2017). P-Body Purification Reveals the Condensation of
Repressed mRNA Regulons. Molecular Cell *68*, 144-157.e5. 10.1016/j.molcel.2017.09.003.

23.   Jain, S., Wheeler, J.R., Walters, R.W., Agrawal, A., Barsic, A., and Parker, R. (2016). ATPase-
Modulated Stress Granules Contain a Diverse Proteome and Substructure. Cell *164*, 487–498.
10.1016/j.cell.2015.12.038.

24.   Khong, A., Matheny, T., Jain, S., Mitchell, S.F., Wheeler, J.R., and Parker, R. (2017). The Stress
Granule Transcriptome Reveals Principles of mRNA Accumulation in Stress Granules. Molecular Cell *68*,
808-820.e5. 10.1016/j.molcel.2017.10.015.

25.   Markmiller, S., Soltanieh, S., Server, K.L., Mak, R., Jin, W., Fang, M.Y., Luo, E.-C., Krach, F., Yang,
D., Sen, A., et al. (2018). Context-Dependent and Disease-Specific Diversity in Protein Interactions within
Stress Granules. Cell *172*, 590-604.e13. 10.1016/j.cell.2017.12.032.

26.   Youn, J.-Y., Dunham, W.H., Hong, S.J., Knight, J.D.R., Bashkurov, M., Chen, G.I., Bagci, H., Rathod,
B., MacLeod, G., Eng, S.W.M., et al. (2018). High-Density Proximity Mapping Reveals the Subcellular
Organization of mRNA-Associated Granules and Bodies. Molecular Cell *69*, 517-532.e11.
10.1016/j.molcel.2017.12.020.

27.   Xing, W., Muhlrad, D., Parker, R., and Rosen, M.K. (2020). A quantitative inventory of yeast P
body proteins reveals principles of composition and specificity. eLife *9*, e56525. 10.7554/eLife.56525.

28.   Currie, S.L., Xing, W., Muhlrad, D., Decker, C.J., Parker, R., and Rosen, M.K. (2022). Quantitative
reconstitution of yeast RNA processing bodies. 2022.08.13.503854. 10.1101/2022.08.13.503854.

29.   Al-Husini, N., Tomares, D.T., Pfaffenberger, Z.J., Muthunayake, N.S., Samad, M.A., Zuo, T., Bitar,
O., Aretakis, J.R., Bharmal, M.-H.M., Gega, A., et al. (2020). BR-Bodies Provide Selectively Permeable
Condensates that Stimulate mRNA Decay and Prevent Release of Decay Intermediates. Molecular Cell
78, 670-682.e8. 10.1016/j.molcel.2020.04.001.

30.   Muthunayake, N.S., Al-Husini, N., and Schrader, J.M. (2020). Differential Centrifugation to Enrich
Bacterial Ribonucleoprotein Bodies (BR bodies) from Caulobacter crescentus. STAR Protocols *1*, 100205.
10.1016/j.xpro.2020.100205.

31.   Hardwick, S.W., Chan, V.S.Y., Broadhurst, R.W., and Luisi, B.F. (2011). An RNA degradosome
assembly in Caulobacter crescentus. Nucleic Acids Res *39*, 1449–1459. 10.1093/nar/gkq928.

32.   Canestrari, J.G., Lasek-Nesselquist, E., Upadhyay, A., Rofaeil, M., Champion, M.M., Wade, J.T.,
Derbyshire, K.M., and Gray, T.A. (2020). Polycysteine-encoding leaderless short ORFs function as

cysteine-responsive attenuators of operonic gene expression in mycobacteria. Molecular Microbiology
114, 93–108. 10.1111/mmi.14498.

33.   Mousseau, C.B., Pierre, C.A., Hu, D.D., and Champion, M.M. (2022). Miniprep assisted
proteomics (MAP) for rapid proteomics sample preparation. Anal. Methods, 10.1039.D2AY01549H.
10.1039/D2AY01549H.

34.   Voss, J.E., Luisi, B.F., and Hardwick, S.W. (2014). Molecular recognition of RhlB and RNase D in
the Caulobacter crescentus RNA degradosome. Nucleic Acids Research *42*, 13294–13305.
10.1093/nar/gku1134.

35.   Russell, J.H., and Keiler, K.C. (2009). Subcellular localization of a bacterial regulatory RNA.
Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences *106*, 16405–16409. 10.1073/pnas.0904904106.

36.   Werner, J.N., Chen, E.Y., Guberman, J.M., Zippilli, A.R., Irgon, J.J., and Gitai, Z. (2009).
Quantitative genome-scale analysis of protein localization in an asymmetric bacterium. Proceedings of
the National Academy of Sciences *106*, 7858–7863. 10.1073/pnas.0901781106.

37.   Aretakis, J.R., Gega, A., and Schrader, J.M. (2019). Absolute Measurements of mRNA Translation
in Caulobacter crescentus Reveal Important Fitness Costs of Vitamin B12 Scavenging. mSystems *4*,
e00170-19. 10.1128/mSystems.00170-19.

38.   Hondele, M., Sachdev, R., Heinrich, S., Wang, J., Vallotton, P., Fontoura, B.M.A., and Weis, K.
(2019). DEAD-box ATPases are global regulators of phase-separated organelles. Nature *573*, 144–148.
10.1038/s41586-019-1502-y.

39.   Beaufay, F., Amemiya, H.M., Guan, J., Basalla, J., Meinen, B.A., Chen, Z., Mitra, R., Bardwell,
J.C.A., Biteen, J.S., Vecchiarelli, A.G., et al. (2021). Polyphosphate drives bacterial heterochromatin
formation. Science Advances *7*, eabk0233. 10.1126/sciadv.abk0233.

40.   Aguirre, A.A., Vicente, A.M., Hardwick, S.W., Alvelos, D.M., Mazzon, R.R., Luisi, B.F., and
Marques, M.V. (2017). Association of the Cold Shock DEAD-Box RNA Helicase RhlE to the RNA
Degradosome in Caulobacter crescentus. Journal of Bacteriology *199*, e00135-17. 10.1128/JB.00135-17.

41.   Thanbichler, M., Iniesta, A.A., and Shapiro, L. (2007). A comprehensive set of plasmids for
vanillate- and xylose-inducible gene expression in Caulobacter crescentus. Nucleic Acids Res. *35*, e137.
10.1093/nar/gkm818.

42.   Tauber, D., Tauber, G., Khong, A., Van Treeck, B., Pelletier, J., and Parker, R. (2020). Modulation
of RNA Condensation by the DEAD-Box Protein eIF4A. Cell *180*, 411-426.e16. 10.1016/j.cell.2019.12.031.

43.   Assis, N.G., Ribeiro, R.A., Silva, L.G. da, Vicente, A.M., Hug, I., and Marques, M.V. (2019).
Identification of Hfq-binding RNAs in Caulobacter crescentus. RNA Biology *16*, 719–726.
10.1080/15476286.2019.1593091.

44.   Møller, T., Franch, T., Højrup, P., Keene, D.R., Bächinger, H.P., Brennan, R.G., and Valentin-
Hansen, P. (2002). Hfq: A Bacterial Sm-like Protein that Mediates RNA-RNA Interaction. Molecular Cell *9*,
23–30. 10.1016/S1097-2765(01)00436-1.

45. Updegrove, T.B., Zhang, A., and Storz, G. (2016). Hfq: the flexible RNA matchmaker. Curr Opin
Microbiol *30*, 133–138. 10.1016/j.mib.2016.02.003.

46. Urban, J.H., and Vogel, J. (2008). Two Seemingly Homologous Noncoding RNAs Act Hierarchically
to Activate glmS mRNA Translation. PLOS Biology *6*, e64. 10.1371/journal.pbio.0060064.

47. Vogel, J., and Luisi, B.F. (2011). Hfq and its constellation of RNA. Nat Rev Microbiol *9*, 578–589.
10.1038/nrmicro2615.

48. Ikeda, Y., Yagi, M., Morita, T., and Aiba, H. (2011). Hfq binding at RhlB-recognition region of
RNase E is crucial for the rapid degradation of target mRNAs mediated by sRNAs in Escherichia coli.
Molecular Microbiology *79*, 419–432. 10.1111/j.1365-2958.2010.07454.x.

49. Fei, J., Singh, D., Zhang, Q., Park, S., Balasubramanian, D., Golding, I., Vanderpool, C.K., and Ha,
T. (2015). Determination of in vivo target search kinetics of regulatory noncoding RNA. Science *347*,
1371–1374. 10.1126/science.1258849.

50. Duval, M., Korepanov, A., Fuchsbauer, O., Fechter, P., Haller, A., Fabbretti, A., Choulier, L.,
Micura, R., Klaholz, B.P., Romby, P., et al. (2013). Escherichia coli Ribosomal Protein S1 Unfolds
Structured mRNAs Onto the Ribosome for Active Translation Initiation. PLOS Biology *11*, e1001731.
10.1371/journal.pbio.1001731.

51. Delvillani, F., Papiani, G., Dehò, G., and Briani, F. (2011). S1 ribosomal protein and the interplay
between translation and mRNA decay. Nucleic Acids Res *39*, 7702–7715. 10.1093/nar/gkr417.

52. Robledo, M., García-Tomsig, N.I., Matia-González, A.M., García-Rodríguez, F.M., and Jiménez-
Zurdo, J.I. (2021). Synthetase of the methyl donor S-adenosylmethionine from nitrogen-fixing α-rhizobia
can bind functionally diverse RNA species. RNA Biology *18*, 1111–1123.
10.1080/15476286.2020.1829365.

53. Britos, L., Abeliuk, E., Taverner, T., Lipton, M., McAdams, H., and Shapiro, L. (2011). Regulatory
Response to Carbon Starvation in Caulobacter crescentus. PLOS ONE *6*, e18179.
10.1371/journal.pone.0018179.

54. Cabrera, J.E., Cagliero, C., Quan, S., Squires, C.L., and Jin, D.J. (2009). Active Transcription of
rRNA Operons Condenses the Nucleoid in Escherichia coli: Examining the Effect of Transcription on
Nucleoid Structure in the Absence of Transertion. Journal of Bacteriology *191*, 4180–4185.
10.1128/JB.01707-08.

55. Queiroz, R.M.L., Smith, T., Villanueva, E., Marti-Solano, M., Monti, M., Pizzinga, M., Mirea, D.-
M., Ramakrishna, M., Harvey, R.F., Dezi, V., et al. (2019). Comprehensive identification of RNA–protein
interactions in any organism using orthogonal organic phase separation (OOPS). Nat Biotechnol *37*, 169–
178. 10.1038/s41587-018-0001-2.

56. Shchepachev, V., Bresson, S., Spanos, C., Petfalski, E., Fischer, L., Rappsilber, J., and Tollervey, D.
(2019). Defining the RNA interactome by total RNA-associated protein purification. Molecular Systems
Biology *15*, e8689. 10.15252/msb.20188689.

57. Hentze, M.W., Castello, A., Schwarzl, T., and Preiss, T. (2018). A brave new world of RNA-binding
proteins. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol *19*, 327–341. 10.1038/nrm.2017.130.

58. Riback, J.A., Katanski, C.D., Kear-Scott, J.L., Pilipenko, E.V., Rojek, A.E., Sosnick, T.R., and
Drummond, D.A. (2017). Stress-Triggered Phase Separation Is an Adaptive, Evolutionarily Tuned
Response. Cell *168*, 1028-1040.e19. 10.1016/j.cell.2017.02.027.

59. Evinger, M., and Agabian, N. (1977). Envelope-associated nucleoid from Caulobacter crescentus
stalked and swarmer cells. Journal of Bacteriology *132*, 294–301. 10.1128/jb.132.1.294-301.1977.

60. Schrader, J.M., and Shapiro, L. (2015). Synchronization of Caulobacter Crescentus for
Investigation of the Bacterial Cell Cycle. JoVE (Journal of Visualized Experiments), e52633.
10.3791/52633.

61. Cronin, R.M., Ferrell, M.J., Cahir, C.W., Champion, M.M., and Champion, P.A. (2022). Proteo-
genetic analysis reveals clear hierarchy of ESX-1 secretion in Mycobacterium marinum. Proceedings of
the National Academy of Sciences *119*, e2123100119. 10.1073/pnas.2123100119.

62. Vernon, R.M., Chong, P.A., Tsang, B., Kim, T.H., Bah, A., Farber, P., Lin, H., and Forman-Kay, J.D.
(2018). Pi-Pi contacts are an overlooked protein feature relevant to phase separation. eLife *7*, e31486.
10.7554/eLife.31486.

63. Ducret, A., Quardokus, E.M., and Brun, Y.V. (2016). MicrobeJ, a tool for high throughput
bacterial cell detection and quantitative analysis. Nat Microbiol *1*, 1–7. 10.1038/nmicrobiol.2016.77.

64. Postma, M., and Goedhart, J. (2019). PlotsOfData—A web app for visualizing data together with
their summaries. PLOS Biology *17*, e3000202. 10.1371/journal.pbio.3000202.

65. Holmes, J.A., Follett, S.E., Wang, H., Meadows, C.P., Varga, K., and Bowman, G.R. (2016).
Caulobacter PopZ forms an intrinsically disordered hub in organizing bacterial cell poles. Proceedings of
the National Academy of Sciences *113*, 12490–12495. 10.1073/pnas.1602380113.

66. Sherman, B.T., Hao, M., Qiu, J., Jiao, X., Baseler, M.W., Lane, H.C., Imamichi, T., and Chang, W.
(2022). DAVID: a web server for functional enrichment analysis and functional annotation of gene lists
(2021 update). Nucleic Acids Research *50*, W216–W221. 10.1093/nar/gkac194.

67. Romero, P., Obradovic, Z., Kissinger, C., Villafranca, J.E., and Dunker, A.K. (1997). Identifying
disordered regions in proteins from amino acid sequence. In Proceedings of International Conference on
Neural Networks (ICNN'97), pp. 90–95 vol.1. 10.1109/ICNN.1997.611643.

68. Bolognesi, B., Lorenzo Gotor, N., Dhar, R., Cirillo, D., Baldrighi, M., Tartaglia, G.G., and Lehner, B.
(2016). A Concentration-Dependent Liquid Phase Separation Can Cause Toxicity upon Increased Protein
Expression. Cell Reports *16*, 222–231. 10.1016/j.celrep.2016.05.076.

69. Saar, K.L., Morgunov, A.S., Qi, R., Arter, W.E., Krainer, G., Lee, A.A., and Knowles, T.P.J. (2021).
Learning the molecular grammar of protein condensates from sequence determinants and embeddings.
Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences *118*, e2019053118. 10.1073/pnas.2019053118.

A. BR-body enrichment assay

Cell lysis → Cell lysate → Differential centrifugation → BR-body enrichment → protein isolation → LC/MS analysis → Data analysis

B.

P = 0.006
P = 0.003
P = 2.82E-04

Log2 BR-body enrichment (JS299/JS221)

ALL   DEGRADOSOME   POLAR

Enriched	Number of proteins	p-value
Cytoplasm	32	9.40E-11
Depleted		
Membrane	160	3.90E-23
Transmembrane	126	2.30E-12
Cell inner membrane	33	3.00E-12
Transmembrane helix	121	3.80E-11
Cell membrane	40	4.30E-11
Cell outer membrane	7	1.30E-03
Cell wall	5	6.40E-02

Enriched	Number of proteins	p-value
RNA Binding	14	9.00E-07
ATP Binding	19	8.80E-03
RNA Degradation	5	9.90E-03
GTPase Activity	5	3.80E-03

C.

Foci
Phase   RNase E YFP
3 µm

Diffuse
Phase   NudC YFP

Average # Foci/cell

RNase E, PNPase, Aconitase, RhlB, RNase D1, RhlE, Rho, Hfq, TyrRS, NusG, RHF, SmpB, MetK, RNase HI, NudC, RppH, RNase HII, RNaseP, RNase R, RNase III, PAP I, RNase J

Degradosome   Enriched   Not Enriched

Figure 2

A.

Xylose Dependent RNase E Depletion strain

+Xyl   -Xyl

Aconitase YFP

3 μm   3 μm

RNase D1 YFP

Hfq YFP

Rho YFP

MetK YFP

RhlE YFP

B.

+Xyl   -Xyl   RNase E Dependence

P = 0.021   +++

P = 0.029   +++

P = 4.89E-05   +++

P = 0.033   ++

P = 0.14   -

P = 0.25   -

Figure 3

A.

Protein	Disorderness %	Pscore	Catgranule	Deephase
RNase E	35.9	3.72	1.26	0.79
RhlE	17.23	1.29	1.04	0.58
deaD	32.79	4.48	1.04	0.76
Hfq	0	-0.83	-1.06	0.1
FabG	0	-0.02	0.96	0.1
MetK	0	0.15	-0.068	0.22

B.

C.

A.

B.

Figure 5

A.

		+ S1	+ MetK
RNase + RNA			
RNEase E + PNPase			

B.

	S1 protein		MetK
μM	0 1 2 3		1 2 3 0

RNA

RNA

C.

MBP RNase E   MBP

+Aconitase +S1 +MetK +Aconitase +S1 +MetK M

MBP-RNase E
Aconitase

MBP
MetK

S1 protein dissolution occurs via RNA binding

MetK dissolution occurs via RNase E binding

D

	Phase	Aconitase-mChy
pBXMCS-2		
pBXMetK-2		
pBXS1-2	3 μm	

P = 0.029
P = 0.030

Average # Foci/cell Aconitase mChy

0.6
0.5
0.4
0.3
0.2
0.1
0

pBXMCS-2   pBXMetK-2   pBXS1-2

Figure 6

A.

Labeled scaffold

Unlabeled scaffold + RNA condensate

+RNA Scaffold	Labeled Scaffold				
	RNase E	RhlE	DeaD	Hfq	FabG
RNase E	X	11	1.5	7.5	3.8
RhlE	1.6	X	1.5	2.5	2.5
DeaD	1.7	7.6	X	3.3	2.6
Hfq	ND	4.3	1.8	X	2.4
FabG	1.9	7.4	1.5	3.4	X

Partition Coefficient

15	High
10	
5	
1	Low

B.

Labeled client

Unlabeled scaffold + RNA condensate

-RNA Scaffold	Labeled client			
	RhlB	PNP	Aco	RND
RNase E	4.7	2.6	4	4
RhlE	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
DeaD	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
Hfq	2.3	1.7	2.5	1.7
FabG	1.5	1.7	1.5	1.6

C.

Condensed separately

Phase   Merge

Condensed simultaneously

Phase   Merge

GFP RNase E
RhlE Cy5

D.

Phase   Aconitase mCherry   RNaseE YFP

Phase   Aconitase mCherry   RhlE YFP

2μm

→ Equal Aconitase/Equal RhlE
→ High Aconitase/Low RhlE
→ Low Aconitase/High RhlE

p= 5.37E-94
p= 6.27E-28   p= 1.35E-22

Correlation (YFP and mChy)

RNase E-YFP Acon-mChy   RhlE-YFP Acon-mChy   Aconitase mChy

E.

(i)

RNase E-YFP
Aconitase-mCherry
$N = 20$

Fluorescence intensity enhancement vs Time (s)

(ii)

RhlE-YFP
Aconitase-mCherry
$N = 20$

Fluorescence intensity enhancement vs Time (s)

(iii)

RhlE-YFP
Aconitase-mCherry
$N = 20$

Fluorescence intensity enhancement vs Time (s)

A.

Kinetics of RNase E Condensation

| Time (minutes) | 0 | 0.16 | 0.5 | 1 | 1.5 | 2 | 2.5 |

Rows: RNase E; RNase E+ RNA; RNase E+ RNA+ PNPase; RNase E+RNA+ All Degradosome; RNase E+ PNPase

B.

Relative intensity vs Time in minutes

RNase E
RNase E + RNA

C.

Recovery time (mins)

RNase E; RNase E +RNA; RNase E +RNA + PNP; RNase E + PNP; RNase E +RNA +all degradosome proteins