

Mechanisms for Hfq-Independent Activation of *rpoS* by DsrA, a Small RNA, in *Escherichia coli*

Wonkyong Kim, Jee Soo Choi, Daun Kim, Doohang Shin, Shinae Suk, and Younghoon Lee*

Department of Chemistry, Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (KAIST), Daejeon 34141, Korea *Correspondence: Younghoon.Lee@kaist.ac.kr https://doi.org/10.14348/molcells.2019.0040

www.molcells.org

Many small RNAs (sRNAs) regulate gene expression by base pairing to their target messenger RNAs (mRNAs) with the help of Hfg in Escherichia coli. The sRNA DsrA activates translation of the rpoS mRNA in an Hfg-dependent manner, but this activation ability was found to partially bypass Hfg when DsrA is overproduced. The precise mechanism by which DsrA bypasses Hfg is unknown. In this study, we constructed strains lacking all three rpoS-activating sRNAs (i.e., ArcZ, DsrA, and RprA) in hfg⁺ and Hfg⁻ backgrounds, and then artificially regulated the cellular DsrA concentration in these strains by controlling its ectopic expression. We then examined how the expression level of rpoS was altered by a change in the concentration of DsrA. We found that the translation and stability of the rpoS mRNA are both enhanced by physiological concentrations of DsrA regardless of Hfg, but that depletion of Hfg causes a rapid degradation of DsrA and thereby decreases rpoS mRNA stability. These results suggest that the observed Hfg dependency of DsrA-mediated rpoS activation mainly results from the destabilization of DsrA in the absence of Hfg, and that DsrA itself contributes to the translational activation and stability of the rpoS mRNA in an Hfg-independent manner.

Keywords: DsrA, Escherichia coli, Hfq, rpoS, small RNAs

INTRODUCTION

There are about 100 small noncoding RNA (sRNA) in

Escherichia coli. Many sRNAs are involved in fine tuning gene regulation for different growth environments, thereby helping the cell survive under various stress conditions (Bobrovskyy and Vanderpool, 2013; De Lay et al., 2013; Gottesman and Storz, 2011; Majdalani et al., 2005; Murina and Nikulin, 2015; Storz et al., 2011; Wassarman et al., 1999; Waters and Storz, 2009). Base pairing between an sRNA and a messenger RNA (mRNA) can regulate gene expression by changing the accessibility of the ribosomebinding site or altering the RNA-turnover rate (Majdalani et al., 2005; Santiago-Frangos et al., 2016). In most cases, sRNA-mediated regulation requires the presence of Hfg, a host protein that is required for QB bacteriophage replication (Vogel and Luisi, 2011). Hfg is an Sm-like protein that forms a homohexameric ring-like structure (Brennan and Link, 2007; Link et al., 2009; Sauter et al., 2003). A uridine-rich RNA sequence in an sRNA can bind to the proximal face (Lorenz et al., 2010; Panja et al., 2015; Sauer and Weichenrieder, 2011; Updegrove et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2013) and outer rim (Panja et al., 2015; Sauer et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2013) of Hfq, whereas an (ARN)n sequence motif of an mRNA can bind to its distal face (Małecka et al., 2015; Mikulecky et al., 2004; Schu et al., 2015; Updegrove et al., 2016). Hfg participates in sRNA-dependent translational regulation in various ways. First, Hfg can accelerate the base pairing between sRNAs and their mRNA targets (Hopkins et al., 2011; Panja and Woodson, 2012; Ross et al., 2013; Schu et al., 2015). While the binding of Hfq to sRNAs can prevent them from being degraded (Ikeda et al., 2011; Møller et

Received 8 March, 2019; accepted 11 March, 2019; published online 19 April, 2019

elSSN: 0219-1032

©The Korean Society for Molecular and Cellular Biology. All rights reserved.

©This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 3.0 Unported License. To view a copy of this license, visit http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/3.0/.

al., 2002; Sledjeski et al., 2001; Vogel and Luisi, 2011), Hfq can also accelerate degradation of both sRNA and mRNA by recruiting the degradosome to sRNA-mRNA complexes (Andrade et al., 2012; Folichon et al., 2003; Ikeda et al., 2011). Moreover, Hfq reportedly plays more sophisticated roles in the sRNA-mediated translational regulation of the mRNAs for Spot42, SgrS, and RyhB (Bandyra et al., 2012; Desnoyers and Massé, 2012; Salvail et al., 2013).

DsrA, which is an 84-nucleotide Hfg-dependent RNA that can regulate multiple mRNAs (Lalaouna and Massé, 2016; Lalaouna et al., 2015; Lease et al., 1998; Sledjeski et al., 2001; Soper and Woodson, 2008), has been shown to activate the expression of the rpoS mRNA by an antiantisense mechanism (Lease and Belfort, 2000; Majdalani et al., 1998; McCullen et al., 2010; Sledjeski et al., 1996). DsrA synthesis is increased at low temperatures, contributing to high levels of RpoS under these conditions (Hämmerle et al., 2013; Repoila and Gottesman, 2001; Sledjeski et al., 1996). The increases of both the *dsrA* promoter activity and the DsrA stability at low temperatures are responsible for the enhanced DsrA expression (Hämmerle et al., 2013; Repoila and Gottesman, 2001; Sledjeski et al., 1996). Therefore, it was thought that DsrA may be functional only under cold shock conditions. Nevertheless, DsrA can act on rpoS activation at 37°C (Mandin and Gottesman, 2010). Since DsrA is also induced by acid stress at 37°C (Bak et al., 2014), its activity is not limited to cold shock stress conditions. The rpoS mRNA usually forms a large stem-loop structure upstream of the start codon, which inhibits ribosome binding (Lease and Woodson, 2004; Soper et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2011). When DsrA binds to an upstream region in the 5'-UTR of rpoS, this stem-loop is disrupted, the ribosome binding site (RBS) is revealed, and translation of the rpoS mRNA is efficiently activated (Lease and Woodson, 2004). The DsrAmediated activation of rpoS translation is Hfg-dependent at 30°C (Sledjeski et al., 2001) as well as at 25°C and 37°C (Supplementary Fig. S1). Hfq forms a stable ternary complex

Table 1. Strains and plasmids used in this s	tudy
----------------------------------------------	------

with DsrA and the *rpoS* mRNA, and this complexation increases the annealing rate of DsrA to the *rpoS* mRNA *in vitro* (Resch et al., 2008). However, overexpressed DsrA has also been shown to partially bypass the requirement of Hfq for *rpoS* activation (Soper et al., 2010; Večerek et al., 2010). In this respect, DsrA differs from two other *rpoS*-activating sRNAs, RprA and ArcZ, which stringently require Hfq for *rpoS* activation (McCullen et al., 2010). It has been proposed that the ability of overexpressed DsrA to partially bypass the requirement of Hfq for *rpoS* activation may be related to the ability of DsrA to tightly bind the 5'-UTR of the *rpoS* mRNA even in the absence of Hfq (Soper et al., 2010). However, the precise mechanism underlying the ability of overexpressed DsrA to bypass the requirement for Hfq remains unknown.

In the present work, we investigated the detailed mechanism underlying the requirement for Hfg in DsrAmediated rpoS activation. For this purpose, we constructed strains lacking all three rpoS-activating sRNAs (i.e., ArcZ, DsrA, and RprA) in hfg^{\dagger} and hfg^{\dagger} backgrounds, and controlled the cellular DsrA concentrations in these cells by ectopic expression. We then examined how the expression level of rpoS changed according to alterations in the concentration of DsrA. We found that the DsrA-mediated translational activation of *rpoS* occurred at similar levels in *hfg*⁻ and hfg^+ cells, but that DsrA and the *rpoS* mRNA both showed instability in hfg cells. Our results suggest that the in vivo Hfg dependency of DsrA-mediated rpoS activation mainly results from the destabilization of DsrA in the absence of Hfg, but that DsrA itself contributes to the translational activation and stabilization of the rpoS mRNA in an Hfg-independent manner.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains and plasmids

The bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Table 1. Strain PM1409 carrying a chromosomal *rpoS*-

Name	Description	Source
Strains		
PM1409	Escherichia coli PM1205 lacl'::PBAD-rpoS-lacZ	(Soper et al., 2010)
PM1409∆hfq	PM1409 ∆hfq∷kan [®]	This study
PM1409∆ <i>3</i>	РМ1409 arcZ∷kan ^R ∆rprA ∆dsrA	This study
PM1409∆ <i>3∆hfq</i>	PM1409 arcZ ⁻ .::kan ^R ΔrprA ΔdsrA Δhfq	This study
PM1409∆ <i>a∆r</i>	РМ1409 arcZ ⁻ ::kan ^R ΔrprA	This study
PM1409∆ <i>a∆d</i>	PM1409 arcZ∷kan ^R ∆dsrA	This study
PM1409∆ <i>d∆r</i>	PM1409 $\Delta dsrA$::kan ^R $\Delta rprA$	This study
PM1409∆a∆r∆hfq	PM1409 arcZ∷kan ^R ∆dsrA ∆hfq	This study
Plasmids		
pHMB1	A derivative of pHM1 (54), Amp ^R , IPTG-inducible transcription from immediately after	(Bak et al., 2014)
	the EcoRI site, modified rnpB terminator (GAUUU to GGAGU) next to the Xbal site.	
pArcZ	pHMB1 derivative expressing ArcZ	(Bak et al., 2014)
pRprA	pHMB1 derivative expressing RprA	(Bak et al., 2014)
pDsrA	pHMB1 derivative expressing DsrA	(Bak et al., 2014)
pCP20	FLP ⁺ , λ cl857 ⁺ , λ P _R Rep ^{ts} , Amp ^R , Cm ^R , expression of site-specific Flp recombinase	(Cherepanov and
	under control of a heat inducible promoter, temperature sensitive replication.	Wackernagel, 1995)

lacZ translational fusion was gifted by Dr. S. Gottesman and referred to WT. The PM1409 Δhfg mutant was obtained by P1 transduction (Moore, 2011; Thomason et al., 2007) using the deletion strain, which was obtained from the $E_{\rm c}$ coli Keio strain collection (Baba et al., 2006). PM1409 (a mutant strain having deletion of dsrA and rprA, and an arcZ promoter mutation) was obtained by P1 transduction using the relevant deletion strains (Bak et al., 2014). Briefly, kanamycin-marked mutations were transferred into the desired strain background using P1 transduction. The FRTflanked kanamycin cassette introduced into the first dsrA deletion strain was removed using the Flp recombinase from pCP20 plasmid (Cherepanov and Wackernagel, 1995). The second rprA deletion was introduced by P1 transduction (Müller-Hill, 1985), and the kanamycin cassette was once again removed. To construct PM1409 $\Delta 3\Delta hfg$, an additional hfg deletion was introduced. The arcZ promoter mutation was finally introduced by P1 transduction. PM1409 $\Delta a \Delta r$ was constructed by the first rprA deletion and the second arcZ promoter mutation through P1 transduction. PM1409 $\Delta a \Delta d$ and PM1409 $\Delta d\Delta r$ were constructed by the first dsrA deletion and the second *arcZ* promoter mutation or *rprA* deletion PM1409 $\Delta a \Delta r \Delta h f q$ was constructed by the first *rprA* deletion. the second hfg deletion, and the final arcZ promoter mutation.

LacZ activity assay

Three colonies for each strain were cultured in LB medium containing ampicillin (100 μ g/ml) at 37°C or 25°C when necessary, and the overnight culture was diluted to 1:100 and cultured with the fresh medium. Arabinose (0.02%) and isopropyl β -D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) were added at 2 h and 3.5 h, respectively, and the culture was incubated further for 0.5 h. LacZ activity was assayed as described previously (Zhang and Bremer, 1995). At least three independent measurements were performed for each strain.

RNA purification

Three colonies for each strain were cultured in LB medium containing ampicillin (100 μ g/ml) at 37°C, and the overnight culture was diluted to 1:100 and cultured with the fresh medium. Arabinose (0.02%) and IPTG were added at 2 h and 3.5 h, respectively, and the culture was incubated further for 0.5 h. Total cellular RNAs were extracted using the acidic hot-phenol method, as described previously (Kim et al., 1996).

In vitro transcription

To prepare DsrA and LacZ200 (a transcript consisting of 200 nt of the *lacZ* mRNA), DNA templates were obtained via polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using appropriate primer pairs (Supplementary Table S1) and *in-vitro* transcription was carried out using T7 RNA polymerase (Promega, USA).

Northern blot analysis

For sRNA analysis, 0.5 to 20 µg of total RNAs were fractionated on a 7 M urea, 5% polyacrylamide gel, and electrotransferred onto a Hybond-XL membrane (Amersham Biosciences, UK), as previously described (Park et al., 2013). Known amounts of *in vitro*-transcribed DsrA were loaded along with RNA samples for quantification standards. For mRNA analysis, total RNAs (10 µg) were loaded on an agarose gel (1%, 1× MOPS) and transferred onto a Hybond-XL membrane through capillary diffusion (Streit et al., 2009). The membrane was hybridized with ³²P-labeled DNA probes in PerfectHyb Plus Hybridization Buffer (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Hybridization signals were analyzed using an Image Analyzer FLA7000 (Fuji, Japan). The utilized probes are listed in Supplementary Table S1.

Quantitative real-time PCR

To measure the levels of transcripts, 5 μ g of total RNA were DNase treated using a TURBO DNA-*free* Kit (Ambion, USA).





Complementary DNAs (cDNAs) were synthesized from 0.5 ug of DNase-treated RNA using a SuPrimeScript RT-PCR premix (Genet Bio, Korea), cDNAs were amplified with SuPrimeScript gRT-PCR Premix (Genet Bio) using a Bioneer Exicycler 96 Real-Time Quantitative Thermal Block (Bioneer, Korea). Primer pairs specific to the lacZ ORF, rpoS ORF, rpoS 5'ORF, or rrsA mRNA were used for quantitative real-time reverse transcription-PCR (gRT-PCR). The used primers are listed in Supplementary Table S1. Cycle threshold (Ct) data were normalized to rrsA (16S rRNA gene) expression. To generate guantification standards of rpoS-lacZ mRNA, total cellular RNAs isolated from non-induced (without arabinose) PM1409 Δ 3 cells and PM1409 Δ 3 Δ hfg cells were mixed with known amounts of in vitro-transcribed LacZ200 and used for gRT-PCR, as described previously (Park et al., 2013). The abundance of rpoS-lacZ mRNA was estimated using the standard curves.

RNA stability assay

RNA stability was assessed as described previously (Kim et al., 1996). Briefly, three colonies for each strain were cultured in LB medium containing ampicillin (100 μ g/ml) at 37°C, and



Fig. 2. Half-lives of DsrA in $\Delta 3$ and $\Delta 3\Delta hfq$ cells. (A) Total cellular RNA was prepared from 0.02% arabinose- and 0.1 mM IPTGinduced cells containing pDsrA, which were grown at 37°C, at the indicated times after rifampicin treatment. Cellular levels of DsrA were measured using Northern blot analysis. DsrA was probed with an anti-DsrA oligonucleotide and the 5S ribosomal RNA was detected as a loading control. Representative blots are shown. $\Delta 3$, arcZ dsrA⁻ rprA⁻ hfq⁺; $\Delta 3\Delta hfq$, arcZ dsrA⁻ rprA⁻ hfq⁻.(B) The % RNA remaining against time are presented relative to that in cells before rifampicin treatment on a semi-log scale. Three Northern experiments were conducted and the mean DsrA concentrations ± SD were calculated.

the overnight culture was diluted to 1:100 and cultured with the fresh medium. Arabinose (0.02%) and IPTG were added at 2 h and 3.5 h, respectively, and the culture was incubated further for 0.5 h. For DsrA and *rpoS* transcription were halted by the addition of rifampicin (Milligan and Uhlenbeck, 1989) at a final concentration of 500 µg/ml. For *rpoS-lacZ* mRNA, the cultured cells were washed with LB medium lacking arabinose and then cultured for different time periods in LB medium containing ampicillin (100 µg/ml) and 0.1 mM IPTG. Total cellular RNAs were prepared and subjected to Northern blot analysis or qRT-PCR.

RESULTS

Activation of rpoS by ectopically expressed sRNAs

E. coli expresses three rpoS-activating sRNAs: ArcZ, DsrA, and RprA. It was previously shown that rpoS activation occurs in arcZ⁻ rprA⁻ cells but not in arcZ⁻ rprA⁻ hfg⁻ cells, suggesting that the activation of rpoS by DsrA is Hfgdependent (Majdalani et al., 1998; McCullen et al., 2010; Repoila and Gottesman, 2001; Sledjeski et al., 1996). However, it is not known whether this dependency on Hfg reflects an impact on DsrA stability, translational activation, or both due possible coincident effects of Hfg and DsrA on rpoS activation. To clarify the role of DsrA on rpoS activation, we first constructed arcZ⁻ dsrA⁻ rprA⁻ strains in hfg⁺ and hfg⁻ backgrounds carrying a rpoS-lacZ translational fusion; this generated PM1409 Δ 3 and PM1409 Δ 3 Δ hfg, RNA expression plasmids expressing each of the three sRNAs under IPTG induction were introduced into the generated strains, and the expression of the LacZ fusion was measured (Fig. 1). The lack of all three *rpoS*-activating sRNAs in hfq^+ cells (PM1409 Δ 3 cells) decreased the LacZ activity arising from the rpoS-lacZ translational fusion to less than 20% of the level in sRNAexpressing cells (PM1409 cells). Ectopic overexpression of any one of the sRNAs restored LacZ activity and even further stimulated rpoS-lacZ translation (Fig. 1B). In contrast, hfg cells (PM1409 Δ hfg or PM1409 Δ 3 Δ hfg cells) exhibited sharply decreased LacZ activity regardless of sRNA gene knockout (Fig. 1C). Then we examined overexpression effects of three sRNAs on *rpoS-lacZ* translation in *hfg*⁻ cells. Ectopic overexpression of ArcZ and RprA in these cells had relatively minor effects on rpoS-lacZ expression, regardless of sRNA gene knockout: about 2-fold decrease and increase by ArcZ and RprA, respectively. However, overexpression of DsrA in hfg^{-} cells highly activated rpoS expression, increasing it by ~7fold although it is approximately 50% of the level activated by DsrA overexpression in hfq^+ cells (Fig. 1C).

Protection from degradation of DsrA by Hfq

Ectopic expression of DsrA from pDsrA by induction with 0.1 mM IPTG was capable of stimulating *rpoS* translation in *hfq*⁻ cells (PM1409 Δ *hfq* or PM1409 Δ *3\Deltahfq* cells), but the expression level achieved in these cells was significantly lower than that obtained in *hfq*⁺ cells (PM1409 or PM1409 Δ 3 cells) (Figs. 1B and 1C). The level of *rpoS* activation seen in *hfq*⁻ cells was consistent with that described in the previous report showing that overexpression of DsrA could bypass the requirement of Hfq for *rpoS* activation (Soper et al., 2010).

The observed weaker *rpoS* activation in *hfq* cells might be in some part due to the low level of DsrA. Since endogenous DsrA was shown to be rapidly decayed in *hfq* cells (Sledjeski et al., 2001), we speculated that overexpressed DsrA might be also rapidly degraded in *hfq* cells. We found that the half-life of ectopically overexpressed DsrA was 1.5 min in *hfq*

cells (PM1409 $\Delta 3\Delta hfq$ cells), compared to 14 min in hfq^+ cells (PM1409 $\Delta 3$ cells) (Fig. 2). These data indicated that Hfq helps protect DsrA against degradation *in vivo* even when DsrA is overexpressed. This is contrast with the previous results that ectopically overexpressed DsrA had comparable stability to endogenous one (Sledjeski et al., 2001).



Fig. 3. Cellular levels of DsrA in *hfq*⁺ **and** *hfq*⁻ **cells.** (A) Total cellular RNA was prepared from 0.02% arabinose- and IPTG-treated cells grown at 37°C, and subjected to Northern blot analysis as in Figure 2B. *In vitro* DsrA transcripts were used as standards for the quantitation of *in vivo* DsrA levels. Cells containing pDsrA were treated with IPTG at increasing concentrations from 0 to 0.1 mM. Representative blots are shown. The spliced image from the same Northern membrane was shown with the insertion of a dividing line between spliced lanes. (B) Standard curves for quantification of cellular DsrA. For the standard curve, the data with *in vitro* transcribed DsrA transcripts were used. Relative northern signals of DsrA of 0.0008 to 0.2 pmol were measured and graphs of relative northern signals vs. DsrA amounts were drawn. The standard curve equations for Northern membranes of PM1409Δ3 (Δ3) and PM1409Δ3Δ*hfq* (Δ3Δ*hfq*) cells and of PM1409ΔaΔ*r* (ΔaΔ*r*) cells from panel (A) were represented on the left and right graphs, respectively. R-squared means coefficient of determination. (C) The quantity of DsrA in a cell was estimated using the standard curve shown in (B). Three Northern experiments were conducted and the mean DsrA concentrations ± SD were calculated. Δ3, *arcZ dsrA⁻ rprA⁻ hfq⁺; Δ3Δhfq, arcZ dsrA⁺ rprA⁻ hfq⁺; V, vector control.*

Effects of Hfq on the activation of *rpoS* by different cellular levels of DsrA

Next, we used different IPTG concentrations to change the cellular levels of ectopic DsrA expressed from pDsrA in PM1409 $\Delta 3$ and PM1409 $\Delta 3\Delta hfq$ cells, which were referred to hfq^+ (or $\Delta 3$) and hfq^- (or $\Delta 3\Delta hfq$) cells in the subsequent studies, respectively, unless specified, and monitored the activation of *rpoS*. We found that pDsrA was a bit leaky so that it could produce a small amount of DsrA without the IPTG treatment. The steady-state concentration of DsrA increased with the concentration of IPTG in both hfq^+ and hfq^- cells, but the saturation level of DsrA was about 5-fold lower in hfq^- cells. This might be due to the rapid decay of DsrA in hfq^- cells. Interestingly we found that the level of DsrA was much lower in hfq^+ cells exposed to no IPTG or to 0.0001 mM IPTG, compared to equivalently treated hfq^- cells,





Fig. 5. Northern analysis of effects of DsrA on *rpoS-lacZ* mRNA accumulation in $\Delta 3$ and $\Delta 3\Delta hfq$ cells. (A) Total cellular RNA was prepared from 0.02% arabinose- and IPTG-treated cells grown at 37°C, and subjected to Northern blot analysis. Cells containing pDsrA were treated with IPTG at increasing concentrations from 0 to 0.1 mM. The *rpoS-lacZ* mRNA was probed with an anti-lacZ oligonucleotide and the 23S ribosomal RNA was detected as a loading control. Representative blots are shown. (B) Northern signals were presented in a bar graph. $\Delta 3$, arcZ dsrA⁻ rprA⁻ hfq⁺; $\Delta 3\Delta hfq$, arcZ dsrA⁻ rprA⁻ hfq⁻; $\Delta a\Delta r$, arcZ dsrA⁺ rprA⁻ hfq⁺; V, vector control. Three Northern experiments were conducted and the mean *rpoS-lacZ* concentrations ± SD were calculated.

whereas DsrA was highly accumulated in hfg^+ cells exposed to 0.001 mM or higher IPTG concentrations. This may imply that Hfg uses some DsrA RNAs to bind other target mRNAs (e.g., mreB, hns, and/or rbsD), which could lead to the rapid decay of DsrA in the presence of Hfg (Lalaouna and Massé, 2016). The steady-state concentration of DsrA in hfq^+ cells exposed to 0.001 mM IPTG was equivalent to that in hfg cells exposed to 0.01 mM IPTG (Fig. 3). The LacZ activity in hfg⁺ cells exposed to 0,001 mM IPTG was 2-fold higher than that in hfg⁻ cells exposed to 0.01 mM IPTG (Fig. 4). Moreover, Northern blot analysis (Fig. 5) and gRT-PCR (Fig. 6) revealed that the mRNA level of rpoS-lacZ was 2- to 3-fold higher in hfq^+ cells than in hfq^- cells at the above-listed IPTG concentrations. Since we also found that the endogenous level of DsrA in PM1409 $\Delta a \Delta r$ (arcZ⁻ dsrA⁺ rprA⁻ hfg⁺) cells was comparable to the ectopic DsrA level resulting from basal expression in PM1409 $\Delta 3\Delta hfg$ (arcZ dsrA rprA hfg) cells without IPTG induction (Fig. 3), we compared the LacZ activity and the level of rpoS-lacZ mRNA between these two cells. Both the LacZ activity and the rpoS-lacZ mRNA level in PM1409 $\Delta a \Delta r$ (hfg⁺) cells were about 2.5-fold higher than those in PM1409 $\Delta 3\Delta hfg$ (hfg⁻) cells (Figs. 4 and 6). Therefore, it is likely that the LacZ activities were correlated to the rpoS-lacZ mRNA levels regardless of the presence of Hfq, implying that the effects of Hfg on the translatability of rpoS*lacZ* mRNA would be rather slight. Altogether, these data suggest that the higher-level activation of rpoS by DsrA in hfq^+ cells is mainly due to the presence of higher rpoS mRNA levels.

The level of *rpoS-lacZ* in *hfq*⁻ cells that lacked any DsrA expression was about 2-fold lower than that in *hfq*⁺ cells (Figs. 5 and 6C), suggesting that Hfq alone could protect the *rpoS-lacZ* mRNA from degradation or translation enhanced by Hfq could lead to a stabilization of *rpoS-lacZ* mRNA. We also examined how the ectopic expression of DsrA affected the endogenous *rpoS* mRNA level (Fig. 6D and Supplementary Fig. S2). Our results indicated that the endogenous *rpoS* mRNA level showed an increasing pattern similar to that of the *rpoS-lacZ* mRNA under DsrA overexpression, suggesting that the 5' leader sequence of the *rpoS* mRNA level. We also found that the level of endogenous *rpoS* mRNA increased with the level of DsrA, regardless of the presence of Hfq.

Effects of DsrA on the premature transcription termination of *rpoS* in the absence of Hfq

DsrA, ArcZ, and RprA have all been shown to suppress premature Rho-dependent transcription termination by binding the 5' leader sequence of the *rpoS* mRNA (Sedlyarova et al., 2016), suggesting that the ability of DsrA to increase the *rpoS* mRNA level might result from an inhibition of Rhodependent transcriptional termination. We thus examined the effect of Hfq on this DsrA-mediated antitermination. We selected two *rpoS* regions that had been amplified in previous studies (Sedlyarova et al., 2016), and used them as amplicons for qRT-PCR to assess the amounts of *rpoS* mRNA carrying the 5' region and the internal region. The selected regions comprised the 5' proximal sequence of +37 to +134 of the rpoS ORF ("5'ORF" amplicon) and the internal ORF sequence of +484 to +593 relative to the +1 translation start site ("ORF" amplicon) (Figs. 6A and 7). The final product ratio of the two amplicons was taken as representing the Rho-dependent termination efficiency. The [5'ORF]/[ORF] ratio was not significantly altered by the deletion of hfq in the absence of all three sRNAs, but DsrA overexpression decreased it by 20% in both hfg^+ and hfg^- cells. This suggests that DsrA-mediated antitermination occurs in the absence of Hfg and contributes to increasing the rpoS mRNA level. The antitermination effect first appeared at a low concentration of DsrA, but did not increase further as the concentration of DsrA increased (Fig. 7). Although future work may be warranted to examine why this effect does not increase with the concentration of DsrA, our present results suggest that DsrA-mediated antitermination seems to have only a minor contribution to increasing rpoS mRNA levels.

Effects of Hfq and DsrA on rpoS-lacZ decay

We also examined how Hfg and DsrA might increase the rpoS-lacZ mRNA level. To examine whether this effect reflected a simple increase in the half-life of the rpoS-lacZ mRNA, we determined the half-life of rpoS-lacZ mRNA produced under the control of pBAD by monitoring its disappearance after the removal of arabinose. Our results revealed that the half-life of the *rpoS-lacZ* mRNA was slightly increased in the presence of Hfg and also by overexpression of DsrA, regardless of Hfg (Fig. 8 and Table 2). Although the more common rifampicin chase-experiment could potentially mask the precise effects of DsrA because rifampicin might also inhibit the transcription of DsrA (Milligan and Uhlenbeck, 1989), we performed rifampicin chase experiments to see any effects of DsrA on stability of rpoS mRNA (Supplementary Fig. S3 and Supplementary Table S2). We found that DsrA also increased the half-live of rpoS mRNA. These results altogether suggest that the binding of DsrA to the rpoS mRNA inhibits the decay of the rpoS mRNA regardless of the presence of Hfg although Hfg may inhibit the decay of the rpoS mRNA. However, it should be noted that the inhibitory effect of DsrA or Hfg on the rpoS mRNA decay could be indirectly achieved through the increased translation in the presence of DsrA or the decreased translation in the absence of Hfg because the alteration of translation efficiency can affect mRNA stability.

Translational activation of rpoS by DsrA

Finally, we examined whether DsrA activates the translation of *rpoS* in the absence of Hfq. To determine how DsrA affected the translation of LacZ from the *rpoS-lacZ* mRNA (Fig. 9), we defined translation efficiency as the ratio of LacZ activity to the amount of *rpoS-lacZ* mRNA. The relative translational efficiencies obtained in hfq^+ and hfq^- cells expressing various amounts of DsrA were calculated relative to that obtained in the absence of DsrA, which was given an arbitrary value of 1. Ectopic expression of DsrA increased the relative translation efficiency to about 1.5 regardless of Hfq unless the *rpoS-lacZ* mRNA was abundant (Fig. 9). Higher translation efficiencies were observed at very low concentrations of DsrA, but these increased efficiencies were reduced as the DsrA concentration



Fig. 6. qRT-PCR analysis of effects of DsrA on *rpoS* **mRNA accumulation in** *hfq*⁺ **and** *hfq*⁻ **cells.** (A) Schematic diagrams of the *rpoS*::*lacZ* chromosomal reporter fusion and the *rpoS* gene structure. The P_{BAD} promoter is indicated by PBAD, while the *rpoS* promoter is located within the *nlpD* gene. TSS, transcription start site; ATG, translation start codon. The locations of the qRT-PCR amplicons are indicated by ellipse below each diagram. (B) To generate the standard curve for quantitation of the *rpoS-lacZ* mRNA, total cellular RNA prepared from PM1409Δ3 and PM1409Δ3Δhfq cells grown at 37°C with no arabinose was mixed with known amounts of LacZ200, an *in vitro* transcript consisting of 200 nucleotides from *lacZ* mRNA, and also subjected to qRT-PCR using the lacZ amplicons. Cycle threshold (Ct) data of *lacZ* mRNA were normalized to *rrsA* expression. Graphs of relative Ct values vs. amounts of the *lacZ* transcript were drawn. The standard curve equations, y1 and y2, shown on the graph, represent equations for *hfq*⁺ and *hfq*⁻ respectively. R-squared means coefficient of determination. (C) Total cellular RNA was prepared from arabinose-and IPTG-treated cells, which were grown at 37°C, and subjected to qRT-PCR. After normalization to *rrsA* expression the amount of *rpoS-lacZ* transcript per µg of total cellular RNA was estimated using the standard curve of (B). Values are means ± SD; n = 3; **P < 0.01, *P < 0.05; ns, non-significant (Student's t-test, equal variance with the V/Δ3 value for *hfq*⁺ cells and with the V/Δ3Δ*hfq* value for *hfq*⁻ cells. (D) Levels of the *rpoS* transcript in PM1409Δ*a*Δ*r*, PM1409Δ*3*, and PM1409Δ*3*Δ*hfq*, arcZ *dsrA*⁻ *rprA*⁻ *hfq*⁺; V, vector control.



Fig. 7. Effects of DsrA on premature termination of *rpoS* transcription in hfq^+ and hfq^- cells. (A) Levels of *rpoS* transcripts in PM1409 Δ 3 and PM1409 Δ 3 Δ hfq cells grown at 37°C, were determined by performing qRT-PCR of the 5' ORF amplicon, as described in Figure 6A. After cycle threshold (Ct) data were normalized to *rrsA* expression, the normalized values were divided by those of the *rpoS* ORF amplicon. An increase in the [5'ORF]/[ORF] ratio corresponds to an increase in the Rho-dependent termination efficiency, whereas a decrease in the [5'ORF]/[ORF] ratio corresponds to a decrease in the Rho-dependent termination efficiency. Values are means ± SD; n = 3; **P < 0.01, *P < 0.05; ns, non-significant (Student's *t*-test, equal variance with V/ Δ 3 Δ hfq value). (B) The [5'ORF]/[ORF] ratio was plotted against the concentration of DsrA fmol/µg of total RNA. Δ 3, arcZ dsrA⁻ rprA⁻ hfq⁺; Δ 3 Δ hfq, arcZ dsrA⁻ rprA⁻ hfq⁺; V, vector control.

increased. This contrasts with our observation that the rpoSlacZ mRNA level increased with the DsrA level until a plateau was reached at 7-fold and 4-fold increases in rpoS-lacZ mRNA at DsrA concentration of about 20 fmol/µg of total RNA in hfg^+ and hfg^- cells, respectively (Fig. 9B). Therefore, it seems likely that a small amount of DsrA can activate translation of the rpoS mRNA, but that more DsrA is required to stabilize the rpoS mRNA. Translational activation of the rpoS-lacZ mRNA by DsrA was observed at up to rpoS-lacZ mRNA concentrations of 0.55 fmol/ μ g of total RNA in *hfg*⁺ cells and at up to 0.65 fmol/ μg in hfg⁻ cells, but was not observed at 1.5 fmol/ μg in hfg⁺ cells (Figs. 6C and 9). Therefore, DsrA-mediated translational activation may not be effective at more than rpoS-lacZ mRNA concentration of 1.5 fmol/µg of total RNA. Endogenous DsrA activated the translation of the rpoS-lacZ mRNA with a relative translation efficiency of 1.34 at rpoS-lacZ mRNA concentration of 0.55 fmol/µg of total RNA.

DISCUSSION

To determine the precise mechanism underlying the Hfqindependent DsrA-mediated regulation of *rpoS* translation at 37°C, we herein expressed ectopic DsrA in *hfq*⁺ and *hfq* strains lacking all three *rpoS*-activating sRNAs (i.e., ArcZ, DsrA, and RprA). We then examined the translational regulation of *rpoS* mostly using an *rpoS-lacZ* translational fusion, as the translation of the 5' leader sequence of the *rpoS* mRNA fused to *lacZ* can be taken as representing the regulatory characteristics of *rpoS* translation (McCullen et al., 2010; Peng et al., 2014; Resch et al., 2008; Soper et al., 2010). First, we found that ectopically expressed DsrA was very unstable in cells lacking Hfq. This is consistent with a previous report that the stability of endogenous DsrA is markedly decreased in the absence of Hfq at 30°C (Sledjeski et al., 2001). However, the previous authors reported that



Fig. 8. Effects of DsrA on the stability of the *rpoS-lacZ* mRNA in hfq^+ and hfq^- cells. Total cellular RNA was prepared from 0.02% arabinose- and 0.1 mM IPTG-induced DsrA-expressing cells grown at 37°C, at the indicated times after arabinose was washed. Cellular levels of *rpoS-lacZ* mRNA were analyzed by qRT-PCR of PM1409 $\Delta 3$ cells containing control vector and pDsrA (A), PM1409 $\Delta 3$ and PM1409 $\Delta 3\Delta hfq$ cells containing control vector (B), PM1409 $\Delta 3\Delta hfq$ cells containing control vector and pDsrA (C), and PM1409 $\Delta 3$ and PM1409 $\Delta 3\Delta hfq$ cells containing pDsrA (D). Cycle threshold (Ct) values were normalized to *rrsA* expression. The normalized values are used to calculate the fraction (%) of RNA remaining. The % RNA remaining was plotted on a semi-log scale as a function of time. Values are means ± SD; n = 3. $\Delta 3$, *arcZ dsrA⁻ rprA⁻ hfq⁺; \Delta 3\Delta hfq, arcZ <i>dsrA⁻ rprA⁻ hfq⁺; V*, vector control.

Table 2. Half-lives of the rpoS-lacZ mRNA

Strain -	Half-liv	es (min) ^a
Strain	Vector	pDsrA
hfq+	1.76 ± 0.08	2.64 ± 0.49
hfq	1.22 ± 0.33	2.35 ± 0.22

Values are means ± SD for three independent experiments. ^aHalf-lives were determined by linear regression analysis from the data presented in Figure 7. We assumed that the disappearance of *rpoS-lacZ* mRNA after arabinose washing followed a firstorder decay.

plasmid-expressed DsrA did not show a significant decrease of stability in the *hfq*⁻ background (Sledjeski et al., 2001), which contrasts with our present findings. Although future work is needed to resolve this discrepancy, it is likely that ectopically expressed DsrA in our system mimics endogenous DsrA. Second, we found that the absence of Hfq was associated with a decrease in *rpoS* mRNA stability, which

should contribute to the observed decrease in its translation. Binding of Hfg to rpoS mRNA may contribute to increasing rpoS mRNA stability because its 5' leader sequence has Hfqbinding sites (Hämmerle et al., 2013; Lease and Woodson, 2004; Soper et al., 2010; Updegrove and Wartell, 2011). Alternatively, the reduction of rpoS translation by altered ribosome biogenesis in the absence of Hfg (Andrade et al., 2018) could also contribute to the decrease in rpoS mRNA stability because a lower abundance of translating ribosomes would mean that fewer mRNAs would be undergoing translation at a given moment, and more non-translating mRNAs would be vulnerable to RNases. In addition, since the Hfg binding to the 5' leader sequence of rpoS mRNA can remodel the RBS structure of rpoS mRNA for efficient translation (Hämmerle et al., 2013), this binding can in turn enhance rpoS mRNA stability by increasing translation. Third, we showed that rpoS mRNA stability is enhanced by DsrA regardless of the presence of Hfg. The DsrA-mediated increase of rpoS mRNA stability resulted in accumulation of the rpoS mRNA. The DsrA-mediated accumulation of rpoS mRNA could be achieved through protection from RNase E







Fig. 10. A model for DsrA-mediated *rpoS* activation and the role of Hfq. Hfq stabilizes *rpoS* messenger RNA (mRNA) and is required for efficient translation of *rpoS* mRNA, while it inhibits degradation DsrA. The efficient translation can cause an increase of the stability of *rpoS* mRNA. Binding of DsrA to the *rpoS* mRNA enhances the stabilization and translation of the *rpoS* mRNA. Translational activation of *rpoS* mRNA occurs in the presence of a small amount of DsrA, while stabilization of *rpoS* mRNA requires more DsrA. The translational activation activation can further contribute to stabilization of *rpoS* mRNA.

degradation (McCullen et al., 2010) or the alternative RNase III processing (Resch et al., 2008). It is possible that the impact of DsrA on *rpoS* mRNA stability, to some extent, can result from the DsrA-mediated translation activation. However, the DsrA-mediated translation activation in both hfq^+ and $hfq^$ cells appears not to make a major contribution to *rpoS* mRNA stability because we showed here that the amount of *rpoS* mRNA was not correlated to translation efficiency but to the amount of DsrA in each strain. Rather, base-pairing between DsrA and *rpoS* mRNA to a large extent contributes to the stability of *rpoS* mRNA, leading to the increased levels of *rpoS* mRNA.

We found that the increased levels of rpoS mRNA by the same amount of DsrA was lower in hfq^- cells than in hfq^+ cells. The similar reduction of rpoS mRNA with its decreased half-life was also observed in the absence of DsrA, suggesting that Hfq affects rpoS mRNA stability regardless of the presence of DsrA.

Furthermore, we found that suppression of Rho-dependent transcription termination by DsrA can occur in the absence of Hfg, also resulting in rpoS activation. Finally, we found that the translational activation of the rpoS mRNA by DsrA is Hfg-independent. Although it has been reported that a ternary complex of DsrA-rpoS mRNA-Hfg forms well in vitro (Hämmerle et al., 2013; McCullen et al., 2010; Peng et al., 2014; Soper and Woodson, 2008; Updegrove and Wartell, 2011), the complex, even if formed in vivo, may not be required for translational activation. Instead, it may be related to the stabilization of the rpoS mRNA. Interestingly, translational activation of rpoS mRNA occurs in the presence of a small amount of DsrA, while stabilization of rpoS mRNA requires more DsrA, suggesting that DsrA may have the concentration-dependent dual actions. Another interesting finding of the present work is that translational activation was effective only at low concentrations of the rpoS mRNA. Although we do not yet know why translational activation by Hfq does not occur at high levels of the rpoS mRNA, we speculate that this activation could be coupled with ribosome loading. If an mRNA is relatively abundant, the ribosomeloading rate would be a rate-limiting step due to competition among available mRNAs.

Our results that DsrA itself can contribute to the translational activation and stabilization of the rpoS mRNA in an Hfg-independent manner in vivo may be contradictory to previous in vitro findings: Hfg interacts specifically with the 5' leader sequence of rpoS mRNA to accelerate annealing of DsrA and rpoS mRNA (Soper and Woodson, 2008), and induces conformational changes of DsrA, potentially allowing for efficient base-pairing with rpoS mRNA (Večerek et al., 2008). The relatively high stability of DsrA-rpoS mRNA complex in the absence of Hfq (Soper et al., 2010) may allow DsrA to stimulate rpoS activation without Hfg in vivo even though Hfg is essential for activating the annealing process between DsrA and rpoS mRNA in vitro. In this regard, it is noteworthy that we cannot exclude additional roles of Hfg in DsrA-mediated rpoS activation through enhancement of rpoS mRNA stability or facilitation of ribosome loading on the mRNA in vivo.

A previous study (Hämmerle et al., 2013) reported that

RpoS synthesis was sharply reduced at early exponential phase at 24°C in the absence of Hfg despite DsrA-rpoS mRNA duplex formation by overexpressed DsrA and that this sharp reduction is due to the lack of Hfg that is required to re-structure the RBS of the rpoS mRNA for efficient ribosome loading at low temperatures. However, data from other study (Soper et al., 2010) as well as ours (Supplementary Fig. S4) showed that *rpoS* activation by DsrA overexpression in the absence of Hfg (as assayed using rpoS-lacZ translational fusions) was almost half of that seen in the presence of Hfg at 25°C. Although the basis of the difference in levels of DsrA-mediated RpoS synthesis at low temperatures remains to be clarified, it seems likely that DsrA-rpoS mRNA basepairing without Hfg still can contribute to a large extent (at least at specific growth phases) to rpoS activation at the low temperatures.

It was reported that RpoS synthesis is rather independent of Hfg and DsrA at 37°C because synthesis of RpoS in hfg⁻ cells was found to be moderately reduced compared to that in *hfg*⁺ cells at the early exponential phase (Hämmerle et al., 2013). Nevertheless, since there was still a reduction of RpoS synthesis in *hfg*⁻ cells at this specific growth phase, the reduction should be due to the absence of Hfg and the absence of rpoS activation by DsrA itself and possibly by other Hfg-dependent RpoS-activating sRNAs AcrZ and RprA. We found that the basal level of DsrA among three rpoSactivating sRNAs had the largest positive effects on the rpoS*lacZ* translational fusion in hfg^+ cells at the late exponential phase at 37°C (Supplementary Fig. S5) and similar results were also previously reported by Mandin and Gottesman (2010). Cells expressing only DsrA ($\Delta a \Delta r$ cells) synthesized LacZ from the *rpoS-lacZ* fusion 3-fold higher than $\Delta 3$ cells (Supplementary Fig. S5). When the $\Delta a \Delta r$ cells were shifted from 37°C to 25°C for 1.5 h, the rpoS-lacZ expression was slightly lowered at 25°C although a larger fold increase (about 4-fold) was observed in cells kept growing at 37°C (Supplementary Fig. S5D). Furthermore, DsrA is induced following acid challenge during the exponential phase at 37°C (Bak et al., 2014). Therefore, it is likely that DsrAmediated rpoS activation plays an important role in RpoS synthesis at 37°C as well as at low temperatures.

While DsrA activates rpoS expression by binding to the 5'-UTR of its mRNA, it negatively regulates the hns mRNA by binding to the translation initiation region to inhibit translation. When DsrA represses hns and rbsD expression, Hfg is essential even if DsrA is overexpressed (Lalaouna et al., 2015; Lease and Belfort, 2000). This difference may reflect the presence of a repression mechanism in which the pairing of an sRNA with its mRNA targets most often results in degradation of those mRNAs. Since Hfq is believed to be involved in recruiting the RNA degradation machinery, it would be essential for the DsrA-mediated repressions of hns or rbsD. Alternatively, Hfg may play a critical role in facilitating DsrA-hns or rbsD mRNA interactions. In this regard, we note that while DsrA binds well to the rpoS mRNA in the absence of Hfq, the other two rpoS-activating sRNAs, ArcZ and RprA, which absolutely require Hfq for rpoS mRNA binding (McCullen et al., 2010).

To summarize, we herein dissected the coincident effects

of Hfg and DsrA on rpoS activation to gain novel insights into the mechanisms underlying the DsrA-mediated translational activation of the rpoS mRNA. As shown in a proposed model (Fig. 10), we reveal that the translation and stability of the rpoS mRNA are enhanced by DsrA regardless of the presence of Hfq, although Hfq depletion causes a rapid degradation of DsrA and decreases the stability of the rpoS mRNA. This Hfg-independent DsrA-mediated rpoS activation occurs not only at the overexpression levels but also at the endogenous levels. These results suggest that the observed Hfg dependency of DsrA-mediated rpoS activation mainly results from the destabilization of DsrA in the absence of Hfg, but that DsrA itself can contribute to the translational activation and stability of the rpoS mRNA in an Hfg-independent manner. We further found that the proper concentrations of DsrA and rpoS mRNA can modulates the levels of the translational activation and of stability of rpoS mRNA. This work expands our understanding of the functions of sRNAs and their relationships with those of Hfg.

Note: Supplementary information is available on the Molecules and Cells website (www.molcells.org).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This study was supported by grants from the National Resear ch Foundation of Korea (NRF) Grant by the Korean governme nt (MSIT) (2017R1A2B4010713; 2019R1H1A2039730) and the Intelligent Synthetic Biology Center of Global Frontier Proj ect funded by MSIT (2013M3A6A8073557). The authors wo uld like to thank NBRP-*E. coli* at NIG for providing *E. coli* stra ins containing the Keio knockout library and Dr. S. Gottesm an for providing strain PM1409. We also would like to thank Dr. D. Lalaouna for giving some information useful for *rpoS* mRNA northern blotting.

ORCID

Younghoon Lee https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3841-719X

REFERENCES

Andrade, J.M., Dos Santos, R.F., Chelysheva, I., Ignatova, Z., and Arraiano, C.M. (2018). The RNA-binding protein Hfq is important for ribosome biogenesis and affects translation fidelity. EMBO J. *37*, e97631.

Andrade, J.M., Pobre, V., Matos, A.M., and Arraiano, C.M. (2012). The crucial role of PNPase in the degradation of small RNAs that are not associated with Hfg. RNA *18*, 844-855.

Baba, T., Ara, T., Hasegawa, M., Takai, Y., Okumura, Y., Baba, M., Datsenko, K.A., Tomita, M., Wanner, B.L., and Mori, H. (2006). Construction of *Escherichia coli* K-12 in-frame, single-gene knockout mutants: the Keio collection. Mol. Syst. Biol. *2*, 2006.0008.

Bak, G., Han, K., Kim, D., and Lee, Y. (2014). Roles of rpoS-activating small RNAs in pathways leading to acid resistance of *Escherichia coli*. Microbiologyopen *3*, 15-28.

Bandyra, K.J., Said, N., Pfeiffer, V., Górna, M.W., Vogel, J., and Luisi, B.F. (2012). The seed region of a small RNA drives the controlled destruction of the target mRNA by the endoribonuclease RNase E. Mol. Cell *47*, 943-953.

Bobrovskyy, M., and Vanderpool, C.K. (2013). Regulation of bacterial metabolism by small RNAs using diverse mechanisms. Annu. Rev.

Genet. 47, 209-232.

Brennan, R.G., and Link, T.M. (2007). Hfq structure, function and ligand binding. Curr. Opin. Microbiol. *10*, 125-133.

Cherepanov, P.P., and Wackernagel, W. (1995). Gene disruption in *Escherichia coli*: TcR and KmR cassettes with the option of Flpcatalyzed excision of the antibiotic-resistance determinant. Gene *158*, 9-14.

De Lay, N., Schu, D.J., and Gottesman, S. (2013). Bacterial small RNAbased negative regulation: Hfq and its accomplices. J. Biol. Chem. *288*, 7996-8003.

Desnoyers, G., and Massé, E. (2012). Noncanonical repression of translation initiation through small RNA recruitment of the RNA chaperone Hfg. Genes Dev. *26*, 726-739.

Folichon, M., Arluison, V., Pellegrini, O., Huntzinger, E., Régnier, P., and Hajnsdorf, E. (2003). The poly(A) binding protein Hfq protects RNA from RNase E and exoribonucleolytic degradation. Nucleic Acids Res. *31*, 7302-7310.

Gottesman, S., and Storz, G. (2011). Bacterial small RNA regulators: versatile roles and rapidly evolving variations. Cold Spring Harb. Perspect. Biol. *3*, a003798.

Hämmerle, H., Veečrek, B., Resch, A., and Bläsi, U. (2013). Duplex formation between the sRNA DsrA and rpoS mRNA is not sufficient for efficient RpoS synthesis at low temperature. RNA Biol. *10*, 1834-1841.

Hopkins, J.F., Panja, S., and Woodson, S.A. (2011). Rapid binding and release of Hfq from ternary complexes during RNA annealing. Nucleic Acids Res. *39*, 5193-5202.

Ikeda, Y., Yagi, M., Morita, T., and Aiba, H. (2011). Hfq binding at RhIB-recognition region of RNase E is crucial for the rapid degradation of target mRNAs mediated by sRNAs in *Escherichia coli*. Mol. Microbiol. *79*, 419-432.

Kim, S., Kim, H., Park, I., and Lee, Y. (1996). Mutational analysis of RNA structures and sequences postulated to affect 3' processing of M1 RNA, the RNA component of *Escherichia coli* RNase P. J. Biol. Chem. *271*, 19330-19337.

Lalaouna, D., and Massé, E. (2016). The spectrum of activity of the small RNA DsrA: not so narrow after all. Curr. Genet. *62*, 261-264.

Lalaouna, D., Morissette, A., Carrier, M.C., and Massé, E. (2015). DsrA regulatory RNA represses both hns and rbsD mRNAs through distinct mechanisms in *Escherichia coli*. Mol. Microbiol. *98*, 357-369.

Lease, R.A., and Belfort, M. (2000). Riboregulation by DsrA RNA: trans-actions for global economy. Mol. Microbiol. *38*, 667-672.

Lease, R.A., Cusick, M.E., and Belfort, M. (1998). Riboregulation in *Escherichia coli*: DsrA RNA acts by RNA:RNA interactions at multiple loci. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. *95*, 12456-12461.

Lease, R.A., and Woodson, S.A. (2004). Cycling of the Sm-like protein Hfg on the DsrA small regulatory RNA. J. Mol. Biol. *344*, 1211-1223.

Link, T.M., Valentin-Hansen, P., and Brennan, R.G. (2009). Structure of *Escherichia coli* Hfg bound to polyriboadenylate RNA. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. *106*, 19292-19297.

Lorenz, C., Gesell, T., Zimmermann, B., Schoeberl, U., Bilusic, I., Rajkowitsch, L., Waldsich, C., von Haeseler, A., and Schroeder, R. (2010). Genomic SELEX for Hfq-binding RNAs identifies genomic aptamers predominantly in antisense transcripts. Nucleic Acids Res. *38*, 3794-3808.

Majdalani, N., Cunning, C., Sledjeski, D., Elliott, T., and Gottesman, S. (1998). DsrA RNA regulates translation of RpoS message by an antiantisense mechanism, independent of its action as an antisilencer of transcription. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. *95*, 12462-12467.

Majdalani, N., Vanderpool, C.K., and Gottesman, S. (2005). Bacterial small RNA regulators. Crit. Rev. Biochem. Mol. Biol. 40, 93-113.

Małecka, E.M., Stróżecka, J., Sobańska, D., and Olejniczak, M. (2015). Structure of bacterial regulatory RNAs determines their performance in competition for the chaperone protein Hfg. Biochemistry *54*, 1157-1170.

Mandin, P., and Gottesman, S. (2010). Integrating anaerobic/aerobic sensing and the general stress response through the ArcZ small RNA. EMBO J. *29*, 3094-3107.

McCullen, C.A., Benhammou, J.N., Majdalani, N., and Gottesman, S. (2010). Mechanism of positive regulation by DsrA and RprA small noncoding RNAs: pairing increases translation and protects rpoS mRNA from degradation. J. Bacteriol. *192*, 5559-5571.

Mikulecky, P.J., Kaw, M.K., Brescia, C.C., Takach, J.C., Sledjeski, D.D., and Feig, A.L. (2004). *Escherichia coli* Hfq has distinct interaction surfaces for DsrA, rpoS and poly(A) RNAs. Nat. Struct. Mol. Biol. *11*, 1206-1214.

Milligan, J.F., and Uhlenbeck, O.C. (1989). Synthesis of small RNAs using T7 RNA polymerase. Methods Enzymol. *180*, 51-62.

Møller, T., Franch, T., Højrup, P., Keene, D.R., Bächinger, H.P., Brennan, R.G., and Valentin-Hansen, P. (2002). Hfg: a bacterial Smlike protein that mediates RNA-RNA interaction. Mol. Cell *9*, 23-30.

Moore, S.D. (2011). Assembling new *Escherichia coli* strains by transduction using phage P1. Methods Mol. Biol. *765*, 155-169.

Müller-Hill, B. (1985). Experiments with gene fusions. Trends Genet. 1, 61.

Murina, V.N., and Nikulin, A.D. (2015). Bacterial small regulatory RNAs and Hfg protein. Biochemistry (Mosc) *80*, 1647-1654.

Panja, S., Santiago-Frangos, A., Schu, D.J., Gottesman, S., and Woodson, S.A. (2015). Acidic residues in the Hfq chaperone increase the selectivity of sRNA binding and annealing. J. Mol. Biol. *427*, 3491-3500.

Panja, S., and Woodson, S.A. (2012). Hfq proximity and orientation controls RNA annealing. Nucleic Acids Res. *40*, 8690-8697.

Park, H., Bak, G., Kim, S.C., and Lee, Y. (2013). Exploring sRNAmediated gene silencing mechanisms using artificial small RNAs derived from a natural RNA scaffold in *Escherichia coli*. Nucleic Acids Res. *41*, 3787-3804.

Peng, Y., Soper, T.J., and Woodson, S.A. (2014). Positional effects of AAN motifs in rpoS regulation by sRNAs and Hfq. J. Mol. Biol. *426*, 275-285.

Repoila, F., and Gottesman, S. (2001). Signal transduction cascade for regulation of RpoS: temperature regulation of DsrA. J. Bacteriol. *183*, 4012-4023.

Resch, A., Afonyushkin, T., Lombo, T.B., McDowall, K.J., Bläsi, U., and Kaberdin, V.R. (2008). Translational activation by the noncoding RNA DsrA involves alternative RNase III processing in the rpoS 5'-leader. RNA 14, 454-459.

Ross, J.A., Ellis, M.J., Hossain, S., and Haniford, D.B. (2013). Hfq restructures RNA-IN and RNA-OUT and facilitates antisense pairing in the Tn10/IS10 system. RNA *19*, 670-684.

Salvail, H., Caron, M.P., Bélanger, J., and Massé, E. (2013). Antagonistic functions between the RNA chaperone Hfq and an sRNA regulate sensitivity to the antibiotic colicin. EMBO J. *32*, 2764-2778.

Santiago-Frangos, A., Kavita, K., Schu, D.J., Gottesman, S., and Woodson, S.A. (2016). C-terminal domain of the RNA chaperone Hfg drives sRNA competition and release of target RNA. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. *113*, E6089-E6096.

Sauer, E., Schmidt, S., and Weichenrieder, O. (2012). Small RNA binding to the lateral surface of Hfq hexamers and structural rearrangements upon mRNA target recognition. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. *109*, 9396-9401.

Sauer, E., and Weichenrieder, O. (2011). Structural basis for RNA 3'end recognition by Hfq. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. *108*, 13065-13070.

Sauter, C., Basquin, J., and Suck, D. (2003). Sm-like proteins in Eubacteria: the crystal structure of the Hfq protein from *Escherichia coli*. Nucleic Acids Res. *31*, 4091-4098.

Schu, D.J., Zhang, A., Gottesman, S., and Storz, G. (2015). Alternative Hfq-sRNA interaction modes dictate alternative mRNA recognition. EMBO J. *34*, 2557-2573.

Sedlyarova, N., Shamovsky, I., Bharati, B.K., Epshtein, V., Chen, J., Gottesman, S., Schroeder, R., and Nudler, E. (2016). sRNA-mediated control of transcription termination in *E. coli*. Cell *167*, 111-121.e13.

Sledjeski, D.D., Gupta, A., and Gottesman, S. (1996). The small RNA, DsrA, is essential for the low temperature expression of RpoS during exponential growth in *Escherichia coli*. EMBO J. *15*, 3993-4000.

Sledjeski, D.D., Whitman, C., and Zhang, A. (2001). Hfq is necessary for regulation by the untranslated RNA DsrA. J. Bacteriol. *183*, 1997-2005.

Soper, T., Mandin, P., Majdalani, N., Gottesman, S., and Woodson, S.A. (2010). Positive regulation by small RNAs and the role of Hfq. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. *107*, 9602-9607.

Soper, T.J., and Woodson, S.A. (2008). The rpoS mRNA leader recruits Hfg to facilitate annealing with DsrA sRNA. RNA *14*, 1907-1917.

Storz, G., Vogel, J., and Wassarman, K.M. (2011). Regulation by small RNAs in bacteria: expanding frontiers. Mol. Cell *43*, 880-891.

Streit, S., Michalski, C.W., Erkan, M., Kleeff, J., and Friess, H. (2009). Northern blot analysis for detection and quantification of RNA in pancreatic cancer cells and tissues. Nat. Protoc. *4*, 37-43.

Thomason, L.C., Costantino, N., and Court, D.L. (2007). *E. coli* genome manipulation by P1 transduction. Curr. Protoc. Mol. Biol. *Chapter 1*, Unit 1.17.

Updegrove, T.B., and Wartell, R.M. (2011). The influence of *Escherichia coli* Hfq mutations on RNA binding and sRNA • mRNA duplex formation in rpoS riboregulation. Biochim. Biophys. Acta *1809*, 532-540.

Updegrove, T.B., Zhang, A., and Storz, G. (2016). Hfq: the flexible RNA matchmaker. Curr. Opin. Microbiol. *30*, 133-138.

Vecerek, B., Beich-Frandsen, M., Resch, A., and Bläsi, U. (2010). Translational activation of rpoS mRNA by the non-coding RNA DsrA and Hfq does not require ribosome binding. Nucleic Acids Res. *38*, 1284-1293.

Vecerek, B., Rajkowitsch, L., Sonnleitner, E., Schroeder, R., and Bläsi, U. (2008). The C-terminal domain of *Escherichia coli* Hfg is required for regulation. Nucleic Acids Res. *36*, 133-143.

Vogel, J., and Luisi, B.F. (2011). Hfq and its constellation of RNA. Nat. Rev. Microbiol. *9*, 578-589.

Wang, W., Wang, L., Zou, Y., Zhang, J., Gong, Q., Wu, J., and Shi, Y. (2011). Cooperation of *Escherichia coli* Hfq hexamers in DsrA binding. Genes Dev. *25*, 2106-2117.

Wassarman, K.M., Zhang, A., and Storz, G. (1999). Small RNAs in *Escherichia coli*. Trends Microbiol. *7*, 37-45.

Waters, L.S., and Storz, G. (2009). Regulatory RNAs in bacteria. Cell 136, 615-628.

Zhang, A., Schu, D.J., Tjaden, B.C., Storz, G., and Gottesman, S. (2013). Mutations in interaction surfaces differentially impact *E. coli* Hfq association with small RNAs and their mRNA targets. J. Mol. Biol. *425*, 3678-3697.

Zhang, X., and Bremer, H. (1995). Control of the *Escherichia coli* rrnB P1 promoter strength by ppGpp. J. Biol. Chem. *270*, 11181-11189.