

# Optimized expression of Hfq protein increases *Escherichia coli* growth by enhancing acid resistance

Phuong Vo<sup>1</sup> and Dokyun Na<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Chung-Ang University

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## Abstract

*Escherichia coli* is a widely used platform for metabolic engineering, for fast growth and well-established engineering techniques. However, there has been a demand for faster growing *E. coli* for higher production of desired substances. Here, we optimized Hfq protein expression, which plays an essential role in stress response, to increase stress tolerance by designing the ribosome binding site of the *hfq* gene thereby increasing cell growth. As a result, Hfq expression correlated with growth rate, and its optimal expression increased the maximal optical density in the stationary phase by 30.9% relative to that in the wild-type *E. coli*. RNA-seq and network analyses revealed the upregulation of stress response genes specifically that of the *gadE* gene, a transcription factor involved in acid resistance. The optimized *gadE* expression also increased the optical density of *E. coli* by 22.8%, while co-expression of *hfq* and *gadE* genes increased growth by up to 29.7%. In conclusion, our optimized Hfq increased *E. coli* optical density by improving cellular stress response, specifically acid tolerance. The fast-growing *E. coli* constructed in this study would be a useful metabolic engineering platform for the production of proteins and other desired substances.

## Introduction

The production of chemical substances and proteins from genetically engineered bacteria has been studied for decades for practical use (Schein, 1989), and metabolic engineering has proven the essential role of bacteria engineering and its practical usefulness in the industry (Jozala et al., 2016; Quianzon & Cheikh, 2012; Sanchez-Garcia et al., 2016). For instance, recent advances in metabolic engineering make it possible to engineer bacteria or yeast cells for high and cost-effective production of recombinant therapeutic proteins such as insulin and growth hormones (Baeshen et al., 2014; Ferrer-Miralles et al., 2009; Rezaei & Zarkesh-Esfahani, 2012) and biofuels such as alcohols and fatty acid methyl and ethyl esters (Kalscheuer et al., 2006; S. K. Lee et al., 2008; Yoshimoto et al., 2002). Regarding recombinant protein production, there have been several strategies to increase protein titers. High copy-number plasmids have been used to produce larger amounts of desired proteins (Ramos et al., 2004; Son et al., 2016), but high copy-number plasmids often place a metabolic burden on host cells, which eventually decreases cell growth, reduces plasmid stability (Glick, 1995), and consequently decreases protein productivity (Bentley et al., 1990; Birnbaum & Bailey, 1991). Optimization of promoter strength has been also used to obtain a high protein titer. Depending on the properties or activities of desired proteins, *e.g.*, toxicity, transcriptional optimization often increases overall protein titers (Briand et al., 2016; Studier & Moffatt, 1986; Tegel et al., 2011; Tolentino et al., 1992). Recently, the increase in bacterial growth rate or cell density has gained great interest to achieve higher production of proteins (Shiloach & Fass, 2005). Several strategies for improving cell density of *Escherichia coli* are summarized in Table 1.

In this study, we developed an *E. coli* strain that had a higher growth rate by optimizing the expression level of Hfq protein. Hfq protein was originally discovered as a host factor for phage Q<sub>β</sub> replication in *E. coli* (Kajitani & Ishihama, 1991). The chaperone Hfq is an abundant 11 kDa protein that forms hexameric rings and presents in several but not all bacteria (Dambach et al., 2013; Sittka et al., 2007). There have

been several studies indicating that Hfq promotes the ability of host cells to resist stresses such as oxidative stress and low pH (Chao & Vogel, 2010). In addition, studies have described the role of Hfq in the control of growth-related genes (Ali Azam et al., 1999; Kajitani et al., 1994). Therefore, we hypothesized that the optimization of Hfq expression could increase bacterial growth rate.

We designed the ribosome-binding site (RBS) of the *hfq* gene to change its expression level by using RBS-Designer (Na & Lee, 2010). Its native promoter remained intact so that its regulation was not disrupted, as the Hfq promoter is regulated in response to several diverse cellular circumstances, thus, replacement of the Hfq promoter may result in disruption of cellular systems and unexpected outcomes. Therefore, we designed various RBS sequences to control the level of Hfq protein expression without modifying its promoter. Thereafter, we investigated whether Hfq expression levels affect the growth rate of *E. coli* by cell growth rate measurement and RNA-seq data analysis.

## Material and Methods

### Bacterial strains, plasmids, and antibiotics

Bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Table S1. The media used for *E. coli* cultures were Luria-Bertani broth (10 g Bacto Tryptone, 5 g yeast extract, and 10 g NaCl/L) (Sezonov et al., 2007) and cells were cultured in 50-mL Erlenmeyer flasks at 37 °C shaking incubator. Antibiotics were added at the following concentrations: chloramphenicol, 25 mg/mL; and ampicillin, 100 mg/mL.

### Various *hfq* and *gadE* RBS sequences and plasmid construction

Different *E. coli hfq* variants with a variety of translation efficiencies were designed by RBSDesigner. All constructed sequences of *hfq* variants are described in Table S3. The *gadE* variants were constructed by the same process as *hfq* variants. Three different *gadE* variants were designed by RBSDesigner (Table S3). Details of plasmids constructed are described in the Supporting Information. Sequences of primers and genes are shown in Table S2.

### *E. coli* growth measurement

The growth of *E. coli* was determined by measuring the OD at 600 nm (OD<sub>600</sub>) with a spectrophotometer every 2 h for 14 or 16 h on the U-5100 UV-Visible spectrophotometer (Hitachi, Japan). All experiments were performed in triplicate. The *[?]**hfq E. coli* DH5 $\alpha$  with a *hfq* variant was compared with *E. coli* DH5 $\alpha$  and *[?]**hfq E. coli* DH5 $\alpha$  in which an empty vector was introduced. *E. coli* DH5 $\alpha$  with *gadE* variants was compared with *E. coli* DH5 $\alpha$ .

### Fluorimetry

To confirm expression levels of *hfq* variants, the *egfp* gene was cloned downstream of the *hfq* coding sequence. To increase the flexibility between Hfq and green fluorescent protein (GFP), a stretch of Gly and Ser residues (“GS” linker) was used to connect *hfq* and *egfp*. Thereafter, the fluorescence intensity (Guava EasyCyte HT BG Flow Cytometer, EMD Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA) of GFP was measured to determine the expression level of Hfq variants.

### mRNA-seq analysis

To investigate the effect of *hfq* variants on cellular gene expressions of *E. coli*, RNA-seq analysis was conducted. The *hfq* variant 4, which showed the highest growth rate was compared with *[?]**hfq E. coli* DH5 $\alpha$  harboring an empty vector.

The number of reads for each gene was determined using HTSeq (Anders et al., 2015). To reduce gene length bias, Reads Per Kilobase Million (RPKM) of each gene were calculated by dividing the total number of read count aligned to a gene by 1,000,000 and by the length of the gene in kilobase (Mortazavi et al., 2008).

To identify differentially expressed genes (DEGs), genes were filtered as the following criteria:  $|(\text{fold change})| > 2$ ;  $p$ -value  $< 0.05$ ; and normalized read count  $\geq 10$ . Gene Ontology (GO)

and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) enrichments of DEGs were analyzed by the Database for Annotation, Visualization and Integrated Discovery (DAVID) (Huang da et al., 2009). Enriched GO terms and KEGG pathways were selected by a p-value < 0.05.

The protein–protein interaction (PPI) network of DEGs was constructed using the STRING database (Szklarczyk et al., 2017) and Cytoscape (Shannon et al., 2003). Highly interconnected clusters were identified using Molecular Complex Detection (MCODE) (Bader & Hogue, 2003).

## Results and Discussion

### Role of Hfq protein in cell growth

The host factor for phage Q<sub>β</sub> replication is known as a global regulator. Hfq has been shown to be involved in the stability of several RNAs (Caron et al., 2010; Hernandez-Arranz et al., 2016), the activity of some proteins involved in mRNA turnover such as RNase E (Vytvytska et al., 1998), polynucleotide phosphorylase, and poly(A) polymerase (Folichon et al., 2003). RNase E has been shown to play an important role in *E. coli* cell growth (Li & Deutscher, 2002; Ow & Kushner, 2002). Some other studies have shown that Hfq protein is closely related with cell growth (Ali Azam et al., 1999; Jain et al., 2002) and is also associated with stress resistance in *E. coli* (Chao & Vogel, 2010). Moreover, Hfq has been shown to be crucial for cell survival under nutrient limitation (Gottesman et al., 2006).

Therefore, we hypothesized that increased Hfq protein expression may promote cell growth by enhancing resistance to environmental stresses such as pH. However, as the over-expression of Hfq protein may disrupt cellular physiology by extensive protein expression alteration, which may retard cell growth, we also hypothesized that the expression of Hfq protein must be exceptionally optimized.

### Design of various RBS sequences to diversify the expression level of Hfq protein in *E. coli*

We designed five RBS variants of the *hfq* gene to achieve the desired expression levels to modify Hfq protein production (Fig. 1A) and thereby increase cell growth. To avoid disrupting the inherent regulation of *hfq* transcription, its native promoter was used without modification. Hence, five different *hfq* RBS variants with different translational efficiencies were constructed using RBSDesigner (Table S3) (Na & Lee, 2010). To maintain a low copy number of the *hfq* gene, the constructed genes were introduced into the pSC101 plasmid with only 1–2 copies in *E. coli*.

To confirm the expression levels of designed RBS variants, the *egfp* gene was fused at the C-terminal of the *hfq* gene with a Gly-Ala linker. As *E. coli* already has one copy of the *hfq* gene in its genome, the genomic *hfq* gene was knocked out (Table S1).

As shown in Figure 1B, the *hfq* RBS variants predicted to have a higher translation efficiency demonstrated higher expression levels with the exception of variant 5. The cells harboring *hfq* variant 4 displayed the highest GFP signal. Expression level of *hfq* variant 4 was approximately 6-fold higher than that of the wild-type *hfq*RBS in the exponential phase, whereas *hfq* variant 1 demonstrated the lowest GFP intensity as expected, which was 135-fold lower than that of *hfq* variant 4. This indicates that our variants successfully expressed Hfq proteins with the desired expression levels. However, variant 5, which was designed to have the highest expression level demonstrated a relatively low expression. As Hfq protein is a global regulator, over-expression may disrupt the physiological homeostasis and therefore retard cell growth. However, this is yet to be elucidated.

### Fine optimization of Hfq expression increased *E. coli* growth

Variant 4 recorded the highest OD<sub>600</sub> ( $4.59 \pm 0.13$ ) in the stationary phase, which was 30.9% higher than that of wild-type *E. coli* DH5 $\alpha$  (OD<sub>600</sub> =  $3.51 \pm 0.095$ ) (Fig. 1C). This indicates that variant 4 had improved cell growth and density. The *hfq* variant 1, which was designed to express the Hfq protein at the lowest level (Table S3), demonstrated the maximum OD<sub>600</sub> of  $3.23 \pm 0.19$ . Other variants (*hfq* variants 2, 3, and 5) demonstrated lower expression levels than variant 4, and consequently, a lower maximum OD<sub>600</sub> ( $3.80 \pm 0.16$ ,  $3.70 \pm 0.10$ , and  $3.87 \pm 0.20$ , respectively) than variant 4. However, the OD<sub>600</sub> values of variants 2, 3, and

5 were still higher than that of wild-type cells. Consequently, the results signify that the optimal expression of Hfq protein resulted in increasing cell growth and achieving the highest cell density.

### Differentially expressed genes and enrichment analyses

To determine the biological effect of Hfq expression levels on cellular physiology leading to an increase in bacterial growth, we performed RNA-seq analysis to discover up- and down-regulated genes of the two strains (*hfq* variant 4 and *[?]**hfq E . coli*) in the stationary phase. We found 446 DEGs with a  $|\log_2$  (fold-change)  $> 2$  and  $p$ -value  $< 0.05$ . Of the 446 genes, 200 genes were up-regulated, and the remaining 246 genes were down-regulated. We performed enrichment analyses of GO terms and KEGG pathways to determine physiological differences between variant 4 and *[?]**hfq E . coli*. We used DAVID bioinformatics tool (Huang et al., 2009) to identify the functions enriched within DEGs. The enriched terms are listed in Table 2.

Up-regulated DEGs were significantly enriched within cellular processes that are attributed to the ability of the cell to respond to stimulus, specifically acid stress. The GO enrichment results show that the genes involved in response to pH condition were up-regulated [*intracellular pH elevation* (GO:0051454,  $p$ -value = 0.021) and *response to pH* (GO:0009268,  $p$ -value = 0.031)]. In addition, other biological processes were also enriched. The tRNA methylation pathway (GO: 0030488,  $p$ -value = 0.018) was up-regulated when Hfq was expressed. tRNA methylation protects tRNAs from degradation by RNaseT<sub>1</sub> and RNaseA (Yokoyama et al., 1987). The *putrescine catabolic process* is one of the pathways that was significantly enriched (GO:0009447,  $p$ -value = 0.010) within up-regulated DEGs. Putrescine is a polyamine and an essential biological molecule. Putrescine accounts for the majority of polyamines in *E . coli* and is associated with bacterial growth (Schneider et al., 2013; Takahashi & Kakehi, 2009; Yoshida et al., 2004) by protecting *E . coli* against oxidative stress (A. Tkachenko et al., 2001). Specifically, putrescine was shown to be involved in the regulation of RpoS protein stability and at its translational level (A. G. Tkachenko & Shumkov, 2004). RpoS is a general stress sigma factor  $\sigma^S$  (Battesti et al., 2011; Loewen et al., 1998), and the 5' UTR of *rpoS* mRNA interacts with the Hfq protein for efficient translation by opening a stem-loop structure that represses its translation initiation (Muffler et al., 1997). These enriched biological processes suggest that the optimal expression of Hfq protein enhances cell tolerance to cellular stresses.

The enrichment analysis of KEGG pathways identified 18 pathways (Table 2). Up-regulated DEGs were primarily involved in carbohydrate and energy metabolism pathways, particularly the “*Glycolysis/Gluconeogenesis*” and “*Starch and sucrose metabolism*.” Alternatively, down-regulated DEGs were found to be significantly enriched in the “*Citrate cycle (TCA cycle)*,” ( $p$ -value = 5.45E-9) which were consistent with the result of GO analysis (Table 2). In both GO and KEGG analyses, pathways related to energy metabolism were significantly enriched in down-regulated DEGs. As cells were sampled in the stationary phase, the main energy metabolism was repressed while secondary metabolite production was promoted, such as “*Biosynthesis of antibiotics*,” owing to depletion of carbon sources and accumulation of toxic materials.

In conclusion, GO and KEGG analyses indicated that variant 4 increased the growth rate of *E . coli* by enhancing stress responses to mitigate harsh environments at high cell density.

### Protein-protein interaction analysis

To identify the core functional modules in DEGs, we mapped the DEGs onto the PPI network obtained from the STRING database (Szklarczyk et al., 2015). Four highly interconnected sub-networks were identified using Cytoscape (Shannon et al., 2003) and MCODE (Bader & Hogue, 2003). Three of the modules were composed of down-regulated genes, and one module was mostly composed of up-regulated ones (Fig. 2).

The up-regulated sub-network included proteins mostly involved in the acid resistance system of *E . coli* (Masuda & Church, 2003): *dctR*, *gadA*, *gadB*, *gadC*, *gadE*, *gadW*, *gadX*, *hdeA*, *hdeB*, *hdeD*, *slp*, and *yhiD*. In RNA-seq analysis comparing the *hfq* variant 4 with *[?]**hfq E . coli* DH5 $\alpha$ , up-regulated genes were in the sub-network, *hdeA*, *hdeB*, and *gadE* demonstrated the highest fold-change. HdeA, HdeB, and HdeD are known as acid-resistance-related proteins (Table 3). Furthermore, the sub-network included the

glutamate decarboxylase system (*gad* regulon) (M.-P. Castanie-Cornet et al., 1999; Lin et al., 1996). GadA and GadB encode for isozymes of glutamate decarboxylases catalyzing the conversion of glutamate to  $\gamma$ -aminobutyrate. GadC encodes a putative glutamate: $\gamma$ -aminobutyrate antiporter (Hersh et al., 1996). GadE, GadX, and GadW were identified as a transcriptional activator of glutamate decarboxylase genes (M. P. Castanie-Cornet et al., 2010; Hommais et al., 2004; Tramonti et al., 2006). A recent study reported that the glutamate decarboxylase system is required for the protection of *E. coli* against metabolite stress in high-density cells (Mates et al., 2007).

Highly inter-connected down-regulated sub-networks were associated with succinate dehydrogenase (*sdhABD*), TCA cycle enzymes (*sucABCD*), maltose transport activity, and glutamate synthase-related activity (Table 3). The *sdh* and *suc* genes belong to a single operon (*sdhABD-sucABCD*) transcribed primarily from the *sdh* promoter (Cunningham & Guest, 1998). SdhA, SdhB, and SdhD complex is a succinate dehydrogenase used in oxidative phosphorylation of the TCA cycle. The *sucAB* and *sucCD* encode for  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate dehydrogenase and succinyl coenzyme A synthetase, respectively (Cronan & Laporte, 2005). Both enzymes are involved in the cyclic flow of carbon from acetyl-CoA to carbon dioxide during aerobic growth. Thus, down-regulation of succinate dehydrogenase (*sdhABD*) and TCA cycle enzymes (*sucABCD*) indicates that energy metabolism was repressed in the stationary phase (Szenk et al., 2017).

Only five genes were inter-connected in the last sub-network, including *carA/B*, *glnA*, and *gltB/D*. The *carA* and *carB* are in the *car* region and encode for two subunits of carbamoyl-phosphate synthetase (Mergeay et al., 1974), which catalyze the hydrolysis of glutamine to glutamate and ammonia (Thoden et al., 1998). The *glnA* and *gltB/D* encode for a glutamine synthase that catalyzes the reaction of glutamate synthesis. Glutamate in *E. coli* is synthesized from  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate, an intermediate in the TCA cycle. The TCA cycle and other related processes were down-regulated, and it is understandable that glutamate synthesis enzymes were consequently under expressed.

#### Optimized expression of GadE, a regulator of acid resistance

RNA-seq and network analyses identified an up-regulated subnetwork. Notably, node genes are mostly under the control of the GadE transcription factor, which is related to acid resistance. With the same logic, we additionally attempted to optimize the expression level of GadE. The RBS nucleotides of GadE were designed using RBSDesigner (Fig. 3A) to generate six variants (Table S3).

To investigate the effect of *gadE* on cell growth, plasmids harboring designed *gadE* variants were introduced into the DH5 $\alpha$  cell, and their cell growth was measured at OD<sub>600</sub>. As expected, expression of wild-type *gadE* and all *gadE* variants resulted in an increase in their cell densities, indicating that additional expression of *gadE* helps cells grow better. As shown in Fig. 3B, additional expression of *hfq* variant 4 in wild-type DH5 $\alpha$  resulted in higher growth (OD<sub>600</sub> = 4.22  $\pm$  0.14) than that of wild-type DH5 $\alpha$  (OD<sub>600</sub> = 3.60  $\pm$  0.075). Similarly, additional expression of wild-type *gadE* in DH5 $\alpha$  increased cell growth (OD<sub>600</sub> = 4.30  $\pm$  0.14). Among the *gadE* variants, *gadE* variant 4 resulted in the maximum cell growth, by approximately 22.8% and 4.8% relative to that by wild-type DH5 $\alpha$  and *hfq* variant 4 expressed in wild-type DH5 $\alpha$ , respectively. The *gadE* variant 4 was designed to have a translational level of 0.1, while that of wild-type *gadE* was 0.012. Seemingly, additional expression of *gadE* (aside from genomic *gadE*) with optimized translation efficiency increases cell growth (Fig. 3B).

Co-expression of *gadE* variants with *hfq* variant 4 also demonstrated higher OD than wild-type DH5 $\alpha$  (Fig. 3C). Of the six *gadE* variants, *gadE* variants 4 and 6 co-expressed with *hfq* variant 4 increased cell density by 27.5% and 29.7%, respectively, when compared with that by wild-type DH5 $\alpha$ . Thus, co-expression of both *gadE* and *hfq* variants provided a better result. This could be because of the effect of *hfq* on *gadE* and its function as an acid resistant regulator, which helps ease cellular stress allowing the cells to grow better. However, none of the variants had higher OD than *hfq* variant 4 expressed in *hfq* DH5 $\alpha$ . These results suggest that optimizing the expression of GadE also confers *E. coli* with the ability to grow faster and achieve greater cell density. This is consistent with the results of RNA-seq analysis: when *hfq* expression is fine-regulated, cells grow faster by expressing more GadE proteins.

Overall, the result confirmed our hypothesis that optimized Hfq expression promotes cell growth by enhancing acid resistance to overcome unflavored pH condition. We obtained higher increase in OD than previous strategies carried out at the same scale (Table 1) such as focusing on carbon flux redirection (Farmer & Liao, 1997) and down-regulation of PTA and ACK using antisense RNA (Kim & Cha, 2003).

## Conclusion

This study proves the strong correlation between Hfq expression and *E. coli* growth and that the optimization of Hfq expression improves *E. coli* growth and regulates several pathways that participate in cellular stress tolerance at the highest cell density. However, one of our limitation in this study was the scale of experiments, which was performed in shaking flask, and flask culture provides limited environments and controls over cell growth. Thus, for further industrial application, it is feasible to scale-up from flask to bioreactor or fermentor in which we can regulate culture conditions. In addition, our approach to increase cell growth would be beneficial for constructing microbial cell factories with slow growing bacteria.

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## Conflict of Interest Statement

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interests.

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## Figure Legends

### Figure 1. Constructed *hfq* variants and their effect on cell growth

(A) Constructed *hfq* gene structure and RBS variants. We designed nucleotides denoted as ‘N’: four nucleotides upstream of Shine Dalgarno (SD) and eight nucleotides downstream of SD. The designed translation efficiencies were 0.0001, 0.001, 0.01, 0.1, and 0.3. To avoid prolonged transcription downstream of the *hfq* gene, a transcription terminator was added to the gene construct. (B) Green fluorescent protein (GFP)-tagged Hfq expression levels. The *hfq* variant 4 demonstrates higher Hfq expression (>4-fold) levels than the wild-type strain and other variants, while *hfq* variant 1 demonstrated the lowest GFP intensity. Although variant 5 was designed to have the highest translational efficiency, its expression was similar to that of *hfq* variants 2 and 3. (C) Growth measurements of the [?]*hfq* *Escherichia coli* strain (control strain) with and without *hfq* variants. The control strain and *hfq* variant 1 demonstrate the lowest growth. The *hfq* 2, 3, and 5 variants and wild-type *E. coli* DH5 $\alpha$  demonstrate similar growth rates. Alternatively, the *hfq* variant 4 demonstrate higher growth and maximum OD<sub>600</sub> than those of the control strain (66.8% higher than the control strain). EV denotes an empty vector.

### Figure 2 . Protein–protein interaction (PPI) network and four highly interconnected sub-networks.

Red and blue denote up-regulated and down-regulated genes, respectively.

### Figure 3. Constructed *gadE* variants and their effect on cell growth

(A) Constructed *gadE* gene structure and its ribosome-binding site (RBS) variants. We designed the nucleotides denoted as ‘N’: four nucleotides upstream of Shine Dalgarno (SD) and eight nucleotides downstream SD. The designed translation efficiencies were 0.0001, 0.001, 0.01, 0.1, 0.2, and 0.3. To avoid prolonged transcription downstream of the *gadE* gene, a transcription terminator was added to the gene construct. (B) Maximum OD<sub>600</sub> of DH5 $\alpha$  cells expressing the wild type *gadE*, *gadE* variants, and *hfq* variant 4. (C) Maximum OD<sub>600</sub> of [?]*hfq* DH5 $\alpha$  cells co-expressing the wild-type *gadE* or *gadE* variants +*hfq* variant 4.

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