Genes for Small, Noncoding RNAs under Sporulation Control in Bacillus subtilis†

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Received 14 September 2005/Accepted 24 October 2005

The process of sporulation in the bacterium *Bacillus subtilis* is known to involve the programmed activation of several hundred protein-coding genes. Here we report the discovery of previously unrecognized genes under sporulation control that specify small, non-protein-coding RNAs (sRNAs). Genes for sRNAs were identified by transcriptional profiling with a microarray bearing probes for intergenic regions in the genome and by use of a comparative genomics algorithm that predicts regions of conserved RNA secondary structure. The gene for one such sRNA, SurA, which is located in the region between *yndK* and *yndL*, was induced at the start of development under the indirect control of the master regulator for entry into sporulation, Spo0A. The gene for a second sRNA, SurC, located in the region between *dnaJ* and *dnaK*, was switched on at a late stage of sporulation by the RNA polymerase sigma factor σ^{K} , which directs gene transcription in the mother cell compartment of the developing sporangium. Finally, a third intergenic region, that between *polC* and *ylxS*, which specified several sRNAs, including two transcripts produced under the control of the forespore-specific sigma factor σ^{G} and a third transcript generated by σ^{K} , was identified. Our results indicate that the full repertoire of sporulation-specific gene expression involves the activation of multiple genes for small, noncoding RNAs.

Protein-coding genes are the traditional focus of interest in microbial genetics, but increasing evidence points to the importance of genes that specify small, untranslated RNAs (sR-NAs) (40). sRNAs range in size from approximately 30 nucleotides (nt) to 600 nt in bacteria, and in a growing number of cases functions have been elucidated for specific sRNAs. For example, in Escherichia coli, where sRNAs have been studied most extensively, functions have been reported for 15 of the approximately 80 sRNAs so far identified (12, 19). Among these are 6S RNA, which binds to and inhibits RNA polymerase containing σ^{70} and was found to play a role in long-term cell survival (42); OxyS, which is induced under oxidative stress and regulates the expression of at least 40 genes, including the mRNAs for the transcriptional regulator FhIA and the stationary-phase sigma factor σ^{s} (1, 2); DsrA, which enhances the translation of the mRNA for σ^{s} and inhibits the translation of the mRNA for the global repressor H-NS (22, 38); and finally, RyhB, which targets mRNAs for proteins involved in the tricarboxylic acid cycle and iron storage and the mRNA for superoxide dismutase (28, 29). sRNAs have been detected in other bacteria, such as Staphylococcus aureus (18), Pseudomonas aeruginosa (45), Vibrio cholerae (7, 24), and Borrelia burgdorferi (32).

sRNAs have also been reported for the spore-forming bacterium *Bacillus subtilis*, the subject of this report. Examples of sRNA that are similar to small, untranslated RNAs found in non-spore-forming genera are SsrA (21), small cytoplasmic RNA (31), P RNA (26), two 6S-like RNAs called 6S-1 and 6S-2 (3, 5, 41–43), and a 5S-like RNA (11). A recent example of an sRNA that is unique to *B. subtilis* is RatA, an antisense RNA for the mRNA for the peptide toxin TxpA (37).

In light of these examples, we wondered whether sRNAs are a feature of complex pathways of gene control, such as sporulation in B. subtilis. Sporulation is governed by a cascade of transcriptional regulatory proteins (27). The master regulator for entry into sporulation is the response regulator Spo0A. Shortly after the start of sporulation, the developing cell is divided into compartments called the forespore and the mother cell. Gene expression in the forespore is principally controlled by the successive appearance of the alternative sigma factors σ^{F} and σ^{G} . Meanwhile, gene expression in the mother cell is governed in a somewhat more complex manner by a hierarchical regulatory cascade involving the appearance in alternating order of two alternative sigma factors, $\sigma^{\rm E}$ and σ^{K} , and two DNA-binding proteins, SpoIIID and GerE. Genome-wide transcriptional profiling experiments have identified over 500 protein-coding genes that are activated over the course of sporulation, and much progress has been made in assigning individual genes to the direct control of one or another of the aforementioned regulatory proteins (10, 30).

These transcriptional profiling experiments were carried out with microarrays embedded with probes for the annotated protein-coding genes in the *B. subtilis* genome. To search for additional genes under sporulation control that could specify sRNAs, we took two complementary approaches, one involving a microarray designed to detect transcripts arising from intergenic regions of the genome (that is, from in between annotated protein-coding sequences) (23) and the other a comparative genomics approach involving the prediction of

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[†] Supplemental material for this article may be found at http://jb .asm.org/.

Strain or plasmid	Genotype	Reference, source, or construction
B. subtilis strains		
PY79	Wild type; prototrophic	46
JS88	$surA\Delta$::spc	This study
JS99	$amyE::P_{surA}-lacZ$ (cat)	pJS9→PY79
JS101	amyE::P _{surA} -lacZ (cat) spo0A::spc	RL2242→JS99
JS103	amyE::P _{surA} -lacZ (cat) spo0H::kan	RL2201→JS99
JS107	<i>amyE</i> ::P _{surA} -lacZ (cat) abrB::erm	RL620→JS99
JS108	amyE::P _{surA} -lacZ (cat) abrB::erm spo0A::spc	RL2242→JS107
JS109	$amyE::P_{yndL}-lacZ$ (cat)	pJS14→PY79
JS113	$surA\Delta$::spc	This study
JS115	amyE::P _{surA} -lacZ (cat) spo0H::kan abrB::erm	RL620→JS103
JS122	$amyE::P_{yndL}-lacZ$ (cat) $spoIVCA\Delta::erm$	RL33→JS109
JS123	$yndL\Delta$::tet	This study
CR1	$polC$ -ylxS-IGR Δ ::spc	This study
RL33	$[JH642]$ spoIVCA Δ ::erm trpC2 pheAI	Laboratory stock
RL560	spoIIIG::cat	Laboratory stock
RL620	$abrB\Delta$::erm	Laboratory stock
RL1061	spoIIGB::erm	Laboratory stock
RL1275	spoIIAC::erm	Laboratory stock
RL2201	$spo0H\Delta::kan$	Laboratory stock
RL2242	$spo0A\Delta$::spc	Laboratory stock
RL3217	$gerE\Delta$::cat	Laboratory stock
RL3218	gerE\Delta::cat spoIVCBA::erm	Laboratory stock
RL3230	spoIVCA::erm	Laboratory stock
<i>E. coli</i> strain DH5α	Cloning host	Laboratory stock
Plasmids		
pDG1661	Permits transcriptional fusion to $lacZ$ (cat)	13
pDG1514	Contains tet antibiotic cassette	14
pDG1727	Contains spc antibiotic cassette	14
pGEM-3Zf(+)	Permits in vitro transcription from SP6 and T7 RNA polymerase promoters (<i>amp</i>)	Promega
pBSIIKS(+)	Cloning vector (<i>amp</i>)	Stratagene
pJS9	pDG1661 with surA	This study
pJS14	pDG1661 with yndL	This study
pJS50	pGEM-3Zf(+) with <i>polC-ylxS</i> IGR	This study
pJS72	pBSIIKS(+) with surC and upstream sequence for dideoxy sequencing	This study
pCR1	pBSIIKS(+) with <i>polC-ylxS</i> IGR and upstream sequence for dideoxy sequencing	This study

TABLE 1. Strains and plasmids used in this study

RNAs with conserved secondary structures (34). The combined approaches led to the identification of three intergenic regions containing sequences for several small, apparently untranslated RNAs produced during sporulation and under the direct or indirect control of three sporulation regulatory proteins. We speculate that sporulation-controlled genes for many additional sRNAs are waiting to be discovered and that the full repertoire of sporulation gene expression may be more complex than previously appreciated.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Affymetrix arrays. All Affymetrix array data were obtained from previously published experiments (23). Probe sets specific to both strands of 603 intergenic ("gap") regions larger than 250 nucleotides were represented on an "antisense" oligonucleotide array complementary to the *Bacillus subtilis* genome. The array was custom designed by Affymetrix (Santa Clara, CA) using a published DNA sequence (GenBank accession no. NC_000964). A general description of Affymetrix GeneChip microarrays has been previously reported (8, 9, 25).

Growth conditions. Strains were grown at 37°C in Luria-Bertani, Difco sporulation (DS) medium (36), or hydrolyzed casein growth medium and induced to sporulate by resuspension in Sterlini-Mandelstam medium (15, 39). Ampicillin (100 μ g ml⁻¹), chloramphenicol (5 μ g ml⁻¹), tetracycline (10 μ g ml⁻¹), spectinomycin (100 μ g ml⁻¹), and MLS (1 μ g ml⁻¹ erythromycin and 25 μ g ml⁻¹ lincomycin) were added to agar plates where appropriate. **Plasmid and strain construction.** Strains and plasmids used for this study are listed in Table 1. Standard techniques were used for stain construction (15). All plasmids were transformed into *Escherichia coli* DH5 α using standard methods. All PCR products were amplified from chromosomal DNA from strain PY79. Primers used for the generation of PCR products indicated below are listed in Table S1 in the supplemental material. All transformations with cells of *B. subtilis* were carried out by the two-step transformation procedure (15).

To generate the *lacZ* transcriptional fusion for the SurA promoter (pJS9), a PCR fragment containing the start site and upstream DNA sequence was amplified with oligonucleotide primers oJS229 and oJS230, ligated to the HindIII/ BamHI sites of pDG1661, and transformed into PY79 to create JS99. To observe the transcriptional activity of P_{surA} -*lacZ* in various null mutant backgrounds, competent JS99 cells were subsequently transformed with chromosomal DNA from a $\Delta spo0A$ strain (RL2242) to create JS101, a $\Delta spo0H$ strain (RL2201) to create JS103, a $\Delta abrB$ strain (RL620) to create JS107, a $\Delta spo0A$ $\Delta abrB$ strain to create JS108, and a $\Delta spo0H$ $\Delta abrB$ strain to create JS115. A *lacZ* transcriptional fusion for the *yndL* promoter (pJS14) was generated as for SurA above using oligonucleotide primers oJS253 and oJS254 to create JS109. To observe the transcriptional activity of P_{yndL} -*lacZ* in a σ^{K} null background, competent JS109 cells were transformed with chromosomal DNA from a $\Delta spoIVCA$ strain (RL3230) to create JS122.

To generate a dideoxy sequencing ladder for primer extension experiments, a PCR fragment containing the SurC intergenic region and upstream sequence was amplified with oligonucleotide primers oJS445 and oJS446 and ligated to the BamHI/PstI sites of pBSIIKS(+) to create pJS72. For dideoxy sequencing of the *polC-ylxS* region, a PCR fragment containing the *polC-ylxS* intergenic region and

upstream sequence was amplified with oligonucleotide primers oCR9 and oCR10 and ligated to pBSIIKS(+) as above to create pCR1.

Deletion/insertion mutants were created by the technique of long-flankinghomology PCR (44) using the following primers: oJS154, oJS254b, oJS255, and oJS157 for Δ *surA* (JS113); and oJS260, oJS261, oJS262, and oJS263 for Δ *yndL* (JS123). Primers and oligonucleotides are listed in Table S1 in the supplemental material. pDG1514 was utilized for the tetracycline resistance cassette and pDG1727 for the spectinomycin cassette.

RNA isolation. All RNA purifications were performed as previously described (37).

Northern blot analysis and probe labeling. Northern blots and radioactive probe labeling were performed as previously described (37). The double-stranded PCR probes were amplified with oligonucleotides oJS74 and oJS75 for SurA, oJS321 and oJS322 for SurC, and oJS325 and oJS326 for the *polC-ylxS* region.

β-Galactosidase assays. One-milliliter aliquots of each culture were grown in hydrolyzed casein growth medium, resuspended in Sterlini-Mandelstam sporulation medium (15, 39), and harvested by centrifugation at different times before and during sporulation. The cell pellets were stored at -80° C until further analysis. β-Galactosidase activity was measured as previously described (15).

Primer extension and dideoxy sequencing. Primer extension and dideoxy sequencing experiments were performed as previously described (37). Ten to 40 μ g of RNA was analyzed using the following end-labeled primers: oJS265 for *yndL*, oJS435 for SurC, and oCR12 for the *polC-ykS* region. Plasmid templates for dideoxy sequencing were pJS17 for *yndL*, pJS72 for SurC, and pCR1 for the *polC-ykS* region. Primers and oligonucleotides are listed in Table S1 in the supplemental material.

5' and 3' RACE PCR. 5' rapid amplification of cDNA ends (RACE) assays were carried out using tobacco acid pyrophosphatase (TAP) (Epicenter Technologies) and a 5' RNA adaptor (JSA3; Dharmacon Research) as previously described (4, 6, 37). Reverse transcription was conducted using oJS435 for SurC and oCR12 and oCR13 for the polC-ylxS region. PCR amplification was conducted using the adaptor-specific primer JS517 and the gene-specific primers oJS522 for SurC and oCR12 or oCR13 for the polC-ylxS region. Non-TAPtreated 5' RACE was performed as described previously (10) for SurA. RNA was purified from samples collected at hour 2.5 of sporulation by the resuspension method. The primers used were oJS2 and oJS193. 3' RACE assays were carried out as previously described using the 3' RNA adaptor JSE1 (Dharmacon Research) (4, 6, 37). Reverse transcription was conducted with a primer complementary to the 3' RNA adaptor sequence (JS518). PCR amplification was conducted with primer JS18 and the gene-specific primers oJS523 for SurC and oJS525 for the polC-ylxS region. Sequencing was conducted using primers M13-For and M13-Rev. Primers and oligonucleotides are listed in Table S1 in the supplemental material.

QRNA. The QRNA comparative genomic program can be downloaded from http://www.genetics.wustl.edu/eddy/software. A detailed mathematical description of the program can be found in reference 34. The sequenced genomes used for comparison at the time of the study were *B. subtilis* strain 168 (GenBank accession no. NC_000964), *Bacillus anthracis* A2012 (GenBank accession no. NC_003995), *Bacillus halodurans* C-125 (GenBank accession no. NC_002570), *Bacillus cereus* ATCC 14579 (GenBank accession no. NC_004722), *Oceanobacillus iheyensis* HTE831 (GenBank accession no. NC_004193), *Clostridium acetobutylicum* ATCC 824 (GenBank accession no. NC_003030), and *Listeria mono-cytogenes* EGD-e (GenBank accession no. NC_003210). All annotated intergenic sequences for *B. subtilis* that were \geq 50 nt were compared in a pairwise fashion to the annotated intergenic sequences of the related genomes above using BLASTN (WU-BLAST version 2.2.6). The *B. subtilis* genome contains ~4,100 annotated genes and ~2,359 intergenic regions of at least 50 nt.

Standard default parameters were used for collecting QRNA alignments (*P* value of <0.01, length of conservation of \geq 50 nt, and overall identity of \geq 65%), and each alignment was analyzed as described previously (34, 35). Scanning windows of 150 nt, moving 50 nt at a time, were also utilized for some genomes to look for any further hits. Regions classified as "RNA" by the program with a log odds score of \geq 5 bits were kept. Many hits were classified as "RNA/other" and contained log odds scores of <5 bits. Several of the "RNA/other" hits least a utilized for some genomes to classified as utilized as putative structural RNAs, since the known structural RNA *ssrA* was also classified as "RNA/other" and reported a lower score. Hits classified as "COD" were not examined further. Once a list of putative structural RNA regions was compiled, the flanking genes for each of the intergenic regions with known RNA secondary structure, such as amino acid biosynthetic operons, aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases, rRNA spacers, transcriptional attenuators of ribo-somal protein, riboswitch-containing genes, or other *cis*-regulatory RNA ele-

ments, were not pursued. The most promising "RNA" hits were considered to be those in which one or both of the flanking genes were conserved for both of the compared genomes. Table S2 in the supplemental material contains the complete list of regions predicted to contain conserved RNA secondary structure.

RNA secondary structure prediction. Secondary structures were predicted using the Zuker Mfold program version 3.1. The prediction with the highest folding free energy value was utilized.

RESULTS

Identifying genes for sporulation-specific sRNAs. We took two complementary approaches to identifying candidate genes for sporulation-specific sRNAs. In one approach, we searched for transcripts from intergenic regions (IGRs) using an Affymetrix microarray that contained probes for many IGRs in the genome that were ≥ 250 bp in length (23). Northern blot analysis was then carried out using PCR-generated doublestranded DNA probes corresponding to IGRs (a total of 13) for which transcripts had been detected. In this way, nine putative sRNAs were detected, one of which is a 280-nt-long transcript from the IGR between *yndK* and *yndL* named SurA (for small, *untranslated RNA A*) (Fig. 1A) and which increased markedly in abundance at the start of sporulation (Fig. 1B).

In the second approach, we used the algorithm QRNA to search for potential conserved RNA secondary structures by comparing IGRs in the B. subtilis genome with corresponding IGRs in the genomes of B. anthracis, B. halodurans, B. cereus, O. iheyensis, C. acetobutylicum, and L. monocytogenes (see Table S2 in the supplemental material). We restricted the analysis to cases for which conserved RNA secondary structures were not previously known and for which the IGR was flanked by protein-coding genes that were orthologous between the species being compared. Northern blot analysis revealed candidate sRNAs in 8 of 12 cases that met these criteria. In two of the eight cases, a transcript(s) that was absent in RNA from vegetative cells but present in RNA from cells undergoing sporulation was observed. One such case was the IGR between dnaJ and dnaK, which was identified by QRNA on the basis of the predicted conservation of RNA secondary structure with that for a corresponding IGR of *B. anthracis*, leading to the discovery of a sporulation-controlled gene for an sRNA designated SurC (see below). The other case was the IGR between *polC* and *ylxS*, which was identified by QRNA on the basis of conservation with *B. halodurans* (see below).

Characterization of the gene for an sRNA from the yndKyndL intergenic region. We mapped the 5' end of the 280-nt sRNA SurA by carrying out 5' RACE and primer extension and found an apparent start site for a promoter recognized by RNA polymerase containing the housekeeping sigma factor σ^A (Fig. 1C). The apparent start site was located at an appropriate distance downstream of a strong match (TGTTAcAAT, representing an eight-out-of-nine match) to a canonical "extended -10" sequence (TGNTATAAT) and a partial match (TTGAtg [lowercase letters indicate nonmatching nucleotides], representing a four-out-of-six match) to a canonical "-35" sequence (TTGACA), which were separated from each other by an appropriate spacing of 17 bp (that is, between TTGAtg and the traditional hexameric -10 sequence TATAAT) (16). We verified that this was a σ^{A} -controlled promoter by runoff transcription using purified σ^A -containing RNA polymerase and DNA templates containing the surA promoter (data not shown). Also, and as judged by Northern blot analysis, SurA



FIG. 1. Developmental regulation of SurA. (A) Orientation of SurA and flanking genes. Bent arrows indicate transcriptional start sites. The same stem-loop terminator is predicted for both the SurA and *yndK* sequence. The diagram is drawn to scale. (B) Northern blot of total RNA (5 μ g) isolated from wild-type cells grown in DS medium at 37°C and collected during exponential growth (log) and at hour 0.5 and hours 1 to 5 of sporulation. RNAs were detected using a double-stranded PCR probe for the SurA intergenic region. The molecular weight marker was 5'-end-labeled MspI fragments of pBR322 DNA that had been denatured. (C) Depiction of the 5' end of the SurA transcript (+1; underlined) found using 5' RACE and the predicted upstream promoter (-10 and -35) that resembles a σ^{A} recognition sequence. (D) β -Galactosidase activity for transcriptional SurA *lacZ* fusions for wild-type (\bigcirc) (JS99), *spo0A* (\blacksquare) (JS101), *spo0A abrB* (\square) (JS108), *abrB* (\triangle) (JS107), and *abrB spo0H* (\blacktriangle) (JS115) cells. All cultures were sporulated by the resupension method at 37°C.

was absent from cells in which the -35 sequence was mutated to T_cGAtg (lowercase italic letters indicate additional mutations) and the -10 sequence to TgcAAT (data not shown). A putative terminator for *surA* was identified by Mfold analysis, which revealed a potential stem-loop structure with a predicted ΔG of -10 kcal/mol followed by a string of U's at an appropriate distance downstream from the start site to terminate the 280-nt transcript.

Knowing the start site for *surA*, we searched for potential open reading frames (ORFs) in the transcript in which a putative initiation codon (ATG, TTG, or GTG) was preceded at an appropriate distance by a ribosome-binding site. The longest open reading frame that began with a potential initiation codon (ATG) was 38 codons in length, but it was not preceded by a sequence that significantly resembled a ribosome-binding site. Several shorter ORFs of 18, 19, 20, and 21 codons in length that were preceded by a putative initiation codon were also seen, but these also lacked an appropriately positioned ribosome-binding site. Thus, it is unlikely that SurA encodes a peptide.

The gene for SurA is under the indirect control of Spo0A. Because the abundance of SurA increased markedly upon entry into sporulation, we sought to determine whether transcription of the *surA* gene was under sporulation control. A *lacZ* fusion was created in which the reporter gene was joined to the promoter (P_{surA}) for *surA*. The results in Fig. 1D (top panel) show that the accumulation of β -galactosidase from the transcription fusion increased sharply after the start of sporulation. This P_{surA}-directed enzyme synthesis was almost completely blocked in cells that had a mutation in the master regulator Spo0A (Fig. 1D, middle panel). The dependence on Spo0A was, however, indirect, in that high-level and constitutive expression of the P_{surA}-lacZ fusion was observed in cells doubly mutant for Spo0A and the transition state regulator AbrB. AbrB is a repressor whose synthesis is under the negative control of Spo0A. We therefore conclude that *surA* is induced during sporulation by a mechanism involving Spo0A-mediated repression of the gene for AbrB.

AbrB is also known to repress the gene (*spo0H*) for the alternative sigma factor $\sigma^{\rm H}$. It was therefore conceivable that *surA* is under $\sigma^{\rm H}$ control and that the increase in P_{surA} -*lacZ* expression seen in an AbrB mutant was due to an increase in $\sigma^{\rm H}$ levels. However, the results in Fig. 1D (bottom panel) show that the patterns of P_{surA} -*lacZ* expression were similar between cells mutant for AbrB alone and cells doubly mutant for AbrB and $\sigma^{\rm H}$. In toto, the results indicate that *surA* is transcribed by $\sigma^{\rm A}$ -RNA polymerase and that it is activated during sporulation by relief of AbrB-mediated repression.

The gene for SurA overlaps with the σ^{K} -controlled gene *yndL*. The start site for SurA is internal to, and in divergent orientation with, the open reading frame for the adjacent gene *yndL* such that the two genes overlap by about 50 nt (Fig. 1A).



FIG. 2. Developmental regulation of *yndL*. (A) Northern blot of total RNA (5 μ g) isolated from wild-type (WT), *surA* (JS113), and *yndL* (JS123) cells grown in DS medium at 37°C and collected at hour 1 of sporulation. RNAs were detected using a double-stranded PCR probe for the SurA intergenic region. (B) Northern blot of total RNA (5 μ g) isolated from wild-type cells grown in DS medium and collected during exponential growth (log) and at hour 0.5 and hours 1 to 5 of sporulation at 37°C. RNAs were detected using a double-stranded PCR probe for *yndL*. The molecular weight marker for panels A and B was 5'-end-labeled MspI fragments of pBR322 DNA that had been denatured. (C) Primer extension analysis for *yndL*. Seventeen micrograms of total RNA was isolated from both a wild-type ($\Delta gerE$, RL3217) and a *sigK* ($\Delta gerE \Delta spoIVCB$, RL3218) strain sporulated by resuspension at 37°C and collected at hour 5 for use as a template for extension with end-labeled primer (oJS265). A, C, G, and T indicate the dideoxy sequencing ladders generated with the same primer and terminated with the corresponding dideoxynucleoside triphosphate. The corresponding cDNA sequence is listed as determined from the DNA sequencing ladder. +1 indicates the 5' end of the message. The -10 and -35 sequences resemble those recognized by σ^{K} -associated RNA polymerase. (D) β -Galactosidase activity for a transcriptional *yndL-lacZ* fusion in a wild-type (WT) (\bigcirc) (JS109) and σ^{K} mutant (*sigK*) (\bullet) ($\Delta spoIVCA$, JS122) background. Cultures were sporulated by the resuspension method at 37°C.

In confirmation of the idea that the 5' regions of both genes overlap, deletions that precisely removed *surA* or *yndL* eliminated the presence of the SurA transcript as judged by Northern blot analysis (Fig. 2A and Materials and Methods).

Next, we investigated the pattern of expression of *yndL*, which has been identified as a member of the σ^{K} regulon in gene microarray experiments (10). The open reading frame for the gene is 756 bp long, and Northern blot analysis revealed a large transcript (>622 nt) that accumulated to high levels late in sporulation (Fig. 2B). Primer extension analysis revealed an apparent transcription start site that was located at an appropriate distance downstream of sequences that significantly conformed to the canonical "-35" [GAACA, versus the consensus sequence (G/T)(C/A)AC(C/A)] and "-10" (GtATANNNT,

versus the consensus sequence GCATANNNT) sequences for promoters recognized by the late-stage sporulation sigma factor σ^{K} . Also, the spacing (15 bp) between the -35 and -10sequences was consistent with that (14 to 16 bp) observed for σ^{K} -controlled promoters (10) (Fig. 2C). Consistent with the idea that *yndL* is transcribed from a σ^{K} -controlled promoter, the primer extension product was absent in RNA from cells with a σ^{K} mutation (Fig. 2C). Also, a transcriptional fusion of *lacZ* to *yndL* was switched on at hour 3 of sporulation in a σ^{K} -dependent manner (Fig. 2D).

Conceivably, SurA functions as an antisense RNA to *yndL* mRNA, but efforts to detect an effect of the *surA* promoter mutation described above on the level of *yndL* mRNA were unsuccessful. Alternatively, SurA acts to inhibit translation of



FIG. 3. $\sigma^{\rm K}$ dependence of SurC. (A) Schematic diagram of SurC and its neighboring genes. The $\sigma^{\rm K}$ promoter identified by primer extension and 5' RACE is indicated. A predicted stem-loop terminator is indicated. The diagram is drawn to scale. (B) The upper panel displays a Northern blot of total RNA (5 µg) isolated from wild-type cells grown in DS medium and collected during exponential growth (log) and hours 0 to 6 of sporulation at 37°C. RNAs were detected using a double-stranded PCR probe for the SurC intergenic region. The bottom panel is a control probed with a double-stranded probe for an unrelated small RNA of ~50 nt. (C) Northern blot of total RNA (5 µg) isolated from wild-type and *spo0A* (RL2242) cells grown in DS

yndL mRNA, a possibility that has not been investigated. Finally, mutants of *surA* and *yndL*, which were created by replacing the genes with antibiotic resistance cassettes, sporulated at efficiencies that were indistinguishable from the wild type.

An sRNA produced under σ^{κ} control from the *dnaJ-dnaK* intergenic region. Next, we turn to the *dnaJ-dnaK* IGR (Fig. 3A). Northern blot analysis using double-stranded DNA probes and strand-specific riboprobes revealed five transcripts (~450, 180, 170, 150, and 90 nt) all oriented in a left-to-right direction (opposite to that of *dnaJ* and *dnaK*) whose appearance commenced at hour 4 of sporulation (Fig. 3B and data not shown). The transcripts were absent in RNA from a deletion of the IGR (data not shown) and in RNA from a *spo0A* mutant (Fig. 3C), which indicates that their accumulation was under sporulation control. As a control, the bottom of Fig. 3B shows the same RNA samples probed for an unrelated sRNA that was present throughout growth and sporulation.

A 5' terminus was detected by primer extension analysis, which revealed extension products corresponding to adjacent G and A nucleotides (Fig. 3D). That these nucleotides corresponded to the transcription start site was shown in 5' RACE experiments that were carried out in the presence or absence of treatment with TAP (4, 6). TAP converts the 5' triphosphate of the initiating nucleotide(s) in an RNA chain to a 5' monophosphate, allowing for the ligation of an RNA adaptor (4, 6). RNA to which the adaptor is appended is then reverse transcribed, and the resulting cDNA is subjected to PCR using probes to the adaptor and to the gene whose transcript is being amplified. PCR products whose amplification occurs in a TAPdependent manner are inferred to originate from a transcription start site. Using this protocol, we detected the same, adjacent nucleotides (G and A) that had been observed by primer extension analysis (Fig. 3D) and in a TAP-dependent manner (data not shown).

The transcription start site revealed by this analysis was located at an appropriate distance downstream of sequences that significantly conformed to the canonical "-35" [TCACt, versus the consensus sequence (G/T)(C/A)AC(C/A)] and "-10" (aCATANNNT versus the consensus sequence GCAT ANNNT) sequences for promoters recognized by the late-stage sporulation sigma factor σ^{K} . The spacing (14 bp) between the -35 and -10 sequences was consistent with that (14 to 16 bp) observed for σ^{K} -controlled promoters (10). Consistent with the idea that this was a σ^{K} -controlled promoter, the extension products were absent when RNA was prepared from a mutant lacking the sporulation sigma factor (Fig. 3D). Henceforth, we refer to the RNA (or RNAs) originating from

medium and collected at hours 5 and 6 of sporulation at 37°C. The molecular weight marker for panels B and C was 5'-end-labeled MspI fragments of pBR322 DNA that had been denatured. (D) Forty micrograms of total RNA was isolated from wild-type (WT), *sigK* ($\Delta spoIVCA$, RL3230), and *gerE* (RL3217) strains grown in DS medium at 37°C and collected at hour 5 for use as a template for extension with end-labeled primer (oJS435). Dideoxy sequencing was conducted as described in the legend to Fig. 2C using primer oJS435. +1 indicates the position of the 5' end of the transcript. The boxed -10 and -35 sequences resemble the sequence predicted by QRNA for *B. an-thracis* is also displayed.

the σ^{K} -controlled promoter as SurC. As further support for the idea that the region close to and upstream of the start site contained the promoter for *surC*, we created a strain in which the IGR and an additional 40 bp of upstream sequence were inserted into the chromosome at the *amyE* locus and from which *surC* at its normal location had been removed by deletion. When primer extension analysis was carried out with this strain, the same extension products as those detected in the original, wild-type strain were observed.

The simplest hypothesis to explain the results of the Northern blot analysis in Fig. 3B is that all of the transcripts originated from the same *surC* promoter. We note the presence of a putative rho-independent terminator (with predicted stemloop secondary structure with a ΔG of ~10 kcal/mol) located about 90 bp downstream of the start site, and that could account for the 90-nucleotide transcript. Also, a 3' terminus at position +90 was observed in 3' RACE experiments (see Table S3 in the supplemental material), which also revealed a 3' terminus at position +150 (and hence accounted for the 150-nucleotide transcript). Additional 3' termini corresponding to the other larger transcripts were not detected.

SurC was originally identified by use of the QRNA algorithm, which had detected a region of conserved secondary structure between the 199-bp-long *dnaJ-dnaK* IGR of *B. sub-tilis* and the corresponding 206-bp-long IGR of *B. anthracis*. Extending this analysis, we note the presence of a putative σ^{K} -controlled promoter at a similar position in the *B. anthracis* IGR (Fig. 3D) and that the predicted region of conserved secondary structures lies within the 90-bp SurC transcript (data not shown).

Some genes that are turned on by σ^{κ} are also subject to repression by the DNA-binding protein GerE, the product of a gene that is itself under σ^{κ} control (10). We therefore wondered whether *surC* was similarly subject to repression by GerE. Indeed, and as seen in Fig. 3D, the level of primer extension products for *surC* was higher in a *gerE* mutant than in the wild type. In keeping with our previous analysis, we infer that *surC* is transcribed in a pulse late in sporulation when its transcription is turned on by σ^{κ} and then off again by the product of a gene in the σ^{κ} regulon (10).

Efforts to investigate a function for SurC were complicated by the presence of the promoter for the flanking gene *dnaJ* in the IGR. A *dnaJ* null mutant was found to be temperature sensitive for sporulation, sporulating normally at 37° C and at reduced efficiency compared to the wild type at 50° C on solid DS medium (data not shown). A similar phenotype was observed for a mutant in which the IGR (and hence the promoter for *dnaJ*) was replaced with a spectinomycin resistance cassette. A test of whether the absence of SurC alone causes a measurable defect in sporulation will require the construction of a mutation that eliminates *surC* without impairing expression of *dnaJ*.

Finally, we examined the *surC* sequence for the possible presence of protein-coding sequences. A 60-codon-long open reading frame that started with an ATG at position +69 was found, and an 86-codon-long open reading frame that started with a GTG at position +113 was found. Neither was preceded by a sequence that resembled a ribosome-binding site, and *lacZ* fused in frame to both generated little β -galactosidase activity. Also, no significant similarities with any other ge-

nomes were found using protein-protein BLAST (http://www .ncbi.nlm.nih.gov) for these putative ORFs, including specifically with the *B. anthracis* genome. These results suggest that the SurC transcripts are not protein-coding genes.

sRNAs produced under σ^{G} and σ^{K} control from the *polC*ylxS intergenic region. Lastly, we consider the *polC*-ylxS intergenic region (Fig. 4A). Northern blot analysis using doublestranded DNA probes and strand-specific riboprobes revealed transcripts of approximately 217, 210, 135, 130, and 110 nucleotides and several short transcripts of ~50 nt (Fig. 4B and data not shown). All of the transcripts were oriented in the same direction (left to right in Fig. 4A) as the flanking genes, and all were absent in RNA isolated from a mutant in which the intergenic region was deleted, indicating that the transcripts originated from the *polC*-ylxS IGR (data not shown). At least three of the transcripts, those of 217 nt, 135 nt, and 110 nt, were delayed in their appearance until hour 2 of sporulation, raising the possibility that their synthesis was under developmental control.

In an effort to detect transcripts arising from promoters under sporulation control, we carried out primer extension analysis, using as template RNA from cells collected at hour 4 of sporulation. This led to the detection of four extension products designated E1 to E4 (Fig. 4C and D). The shortest product (E1) was also detected using RNA from cells collected at hour 3 of sporulation but not with RNA from cells in the exponential phase of growth (data not shown). E1 corresponded to a 5' terminus that was located at an appropriate distance downstream of a perfect match (GCATA) to a canonical "-35" sequence [GNAT(A/G)] and a perfect match (CA TCGTA) to a canonical "-10" sequence [CA(A/T)NNTA] for promoters under σ^{G} control. Also, the putative -10 and -35sequences were separated from each other by an appropriate spacing of 17 to 18 bp for σ^{G} -controlled promoters (17; S. Wang, personal communication). Mutant analysis revealed that the E1 extension product was present using RNA from cells lacking σ^{K} (RL3230) but was absent using RNA from cells lacking $\sigma^{\rm F}$ (RL560) and $\sigma^{\rm G}$ (RL1275). In toto, and because $\sigma^{\rm G}$ is produced under the control of σ^{F} but not σ^{K} , the simplest interpretation of these results is that the E1 extension product corresponds to a transcript that arises from a σ^{G} -controlled promoter.

Next, we consider the E3 extension product, which was absent in extension reactions using RNA from all three sporulation mutants (Fig. 4C). This could indicate that E3 corresponded to a promoter under σ^{K} control, as the production of σ^{K} is known to depend on σ^{F} and σ^{G} . Indeed, E3 defined a 5' terminus that was located at an appropriate distance downstream of a partial match [GCttC] to the canonical "-35" sequence [(G/T)(A/C)AC(A/C)] and a strong match (GCAaA AAGT) to the canonical "-10" sequence (GCATANNNT) for promoters recognized by σ^{K} . Further, the spacing between the two sequences (15 bp) was similar to that observed for σ^{K} controlled promoters (14 to 16 bp) (10). Thus, E3 appeared to correspond to a promoter under the control of the late-appearing mother cell sigma factor. Likewise, E2, which like E3 was absent in extension reactions carried out with RNAs from all three mutants and which defined a 5' terminus that was only 3 bp downstream of that for E3, is most easily understood as arising from the same σ^{K} -controlled promoter. If so, then E2



FIG. 4. Developmental regulation of *polC-yks* transcripts. (A) Schematic diagram of the *polC-yks* intergenic region. The putative transcriptional start sites, sigma factor regulators, and a rho-independent terminator are indicated. The diagram is drawn to scale. (B) Northern blot of total RNA (5 μ g) isolated from wild-type cells grown in DS medium and collected during exponential growth (log) and hours 0 to 6 of sporulation at 37°C. RNAs were detected using a double-stranded PCR probe for the *polC-yks* intergenic region. Transcript sizes are indicated to the right of the blot. The molecular weight marker was 5'-end-labeled MspI fragments of pBR322 DNA that had been denatured. (C) Eleven micrograms of total RNA was isolated from wild-type (WT), *sigF* (Δ *spoIIAC*, RL1275), *sigG* (Δ *spoIIIG*, RL560), and *sigK* (Δ *spoIVCA*, RL3230) strains grown in DS medium, collected during hour 4 of sporulation, and used as a template for extension with end-labeled primer oCR12. Dideoxy sequencing was conducted as described in the legend to Fig. 2C using primer oCR12. E1 to E4 indicate the four extension products observed. (D) The corresponding cDNA sequence is listed as determined from the DNA sequencing ladder in panel C. The putative +1 start sites for E1 to E4 are boxed. The -10 and -35 regions resembling sigma factor recognition sequences are underlined upstream of each +1 (dotted line for E1) (E1, σ^{G} ; E2-E3, σ^{K} ; and E4, σ^{G}). Arrows below the boxed nucleotides indicate the direction of transcription.

likely represents an incomplete extension product or a processed form of the primary transcript.

Next, we consider the case of the E4 extension product, which like E1 was absent from extension reactions carried out with RNAs from mutants lacking σ^{F} and σ^{G} but was present with RNA from a mutant lacking σ^{K} (Fig. 4C and D). E4

defined a 5' terminus that was located at an appropriate distance downstream of a weak match (GAtcA) to the canonical "-35" sequence [GNAT(A/G)] and a five-out-of-seven position match to the canonical "-10" sequence [CA(A/T)NNTA] for σ^{G} -controlled promoters. We note that σ^{F} - and σ^{G} -controlled promoters strongly resemble each other, but in toto and taking into account the results of the mutant analysis, we infer that E4 likely corresponds to a promoter under the control of σ^{G} . We conclude that the *polC-ylxS* IGR contains at least three sporulation-specific promoters.

Using 3' RACE, we identified a principal 3' terminus that mapped to a position located ~207 nt from the left end of the IGR (see Fig. S3 in the supplemental material). This 3' end was located just after a putative rho-independent terminator with a predicted ΔG of -16 kcal/mol. Because of the complexity of the transcription pattern from the *polC-ykS* intergenic region, we could not definitively assign particular transcripts from the Northern analysis to this putative termination site. Nonetheless, a simple and appealing interpretation of the results is that the ~135-nt transcript seen in the Northern blot analysis of Fig. 4B that appeared at hour 2 of sporulation corresponds to an sRNA that arose under σ^{G} control from the E1 start site and terminated at the inferred, rho-independent terminator.

To investigate a function for these RNAs, we created a deletion mutant in which we replaced the *polC-ylxS* IGR with a spectinomycin resistance cassette. The results showed that the level of sporulation by the mutant was similar to that for the corresponding wild-type strain (data not shown).

Finally, we address the question of whether the sRNAs are protein-coding sequences. Starting with the left-most putative transcription start site (that defined by E4), we searched for open reading frames in which a putative initiation codon was preceded at an appropriate distance by a ribosome-binding site. Several small open reading frames with potential initiation codons (ATG and TTG) were found between the E4 transcriptional start site and the start codon for the adjacent, proteincoding gene ylxS. Those beginning with ATG were of lengths of 51, 48, 19, and 17 codons. The putative ORFs beginning with TTG were of lengths 50, 32, 27, and 19 codons. Of these, only the 17- and 27-codon-long ORFs were preceded by a sequence that resembled a ribosome-binding site. All of the putative ORFs were analyzed using protein-protein BLAST to look for conservation with other genomes, but significant similarities were not detected, including, in particular, with the corresponding IGR of *B. halodurans*. We created an in-frame *lacZ* fusion to the 17-codon open reading frame, which was adjacent to the strongest match for a ribosome-binding site consensus at an appropriate distance from the start codon, but it did not direct the synthesis of significant levels of β-galactosidase (data not shown). Thus, it is likely that the developmentally regulated transcripts from the polC-ylxS IGR are untranslated RNAs.

DISCUSSION

We have presented evidence for the existence of several small, apparently untranslated RNAs that are produced during sporulation and under the control of sporulation-specific regulatory proteins. The production of these sRNAs was found to involve a wide range of transcriptional control mechanisms operating at the start of sporulation and in a cell-specific manner at intermediate to late stages of development. Thus, an sRNA (SurA) from the *yndK-yndL* IGR, which was produced under the indirect control of Spo0A by a pathway involving AbrB-dependent repression from a promoter recognized by

the housekeeping sigma factor σ^A , was identified. The gene for SurA is partially overlapping with, and in divergent orientation to, an adjacent gene, yndL, that is under the control of the mother cell sigma factor σ^{K} . Thus, SurA could represent an antisense RNA for an mRNA that appears late in sporulation. As a second example, an sRNA from the region between the dnaJ and dnaK genes that was synthesized from a promoter under the control of σ^{K} was found. Like some other members of the regulon, the gene for SurC was additionally under the negative control of GerE, a late-appearing DNA-binding protein that is itself produced under the control of σ^{K} . Genes that are activated by σ^{K} and repressed by GerE are thought to be expressed in a pulse at a late stage of development (10). Lastly, a complex pattern of sRNAs for the intergenic region between *polC* and *ylxS* was discovered. In this instance, we were able to assign only one sRNA (a species of 135 nt) to a particular promoter (a σ^{G} -controlled promoter). Nonetheless, the evidence indicates that the *polC-ylxS* intergenic region contains two promoters under the control of the forespore-specific transcription factor σ^{G} and one under the control of σ^{K} .

In no case did we succeed in uncovering a function for the sRNAs detected in this investigation. This is likely to be a significant challenge, as small untranslated RNAs often play a subtle, fine-tuning role in the control of gene expression (12), and not infrequently their function is masked by redundancy (24). Nevertheless, among the sRNAs reported here, the one most likely to be of functional significance is SurC, in that it and its $\sigma^{\text{K}}\text{-controlled}$ promoter are conserved with the distantly related endospore-forming bacterium B. anthracis. We interpret this conservation as indicating that SurC somehow contributes to spore formation. An appealing possibility is that the longest of the transcripts (\sim 450 nt) apparently originating from the *surC* promoter extends into the downstream, and convergently oriented, dnaK gene. Conceivably, these transcripts act as antisense RNAs, promoting the degradation of dnaK mRNA or impeding its translation. If so, then perhaps the function of SurC is to attenuate the production of the DnaK molecular chaperone (33) at a time when the synthesis and assembly of protein components of the spore coat are taking place in the mother cell chamber of the sporangium.

Generally speaking, we speculate that sporulation-specific sRNAs, such as those described here, play a fine-tuning role in sporulation gene expression, helping to optimize the efficiency of spore formation. Sporulation is orchestrated by the temporally and spatially controlled expression of over 500 genes. It is appealing to imagine that sRNAs help coordinate the levels of expression of various developmental genes with each other. Additionally, sRNAs could play a regulatory role in helping to adjust the levels of expression of various sporulation genes in response to environmental conditions. It is commonly assumed that the program of sporulation is hard-wired after the initiation phase (that is, after the stage of asymmetric division). Conceivably, however, the levels of expression of certain sporulation genes are responsive to environmental conditions at intermediate to late stages of development. If so, then some sRNAs could play a role in adjusting sporulation gene expression in response to nutritional or other conditions.

Given the relative ease with which we uncovered sRNAs produced under sporulation control, it is not unreasonable to imagine that many more sporulation-specific sRNAs are waiting to be discovered. This raises the intriguing possibility that the known protein-coding genes under sporulation control (of which there are more than 500) may represent an incomplete picture of the full repertoire of developmentally controlled genes. An important challenge for the future will be to exhaustively identify developmentally regulated genes for sRNAs and to elucidate the roles of these sRNAs in sporulation.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank M. Laub for his guidance in setting up and running the QRNA program, C. Roehrig for helping to dissect the polC-ylxS IGR, S. Wang for sharing data regarding σ^{F} and σ^{G} recognition sequences, M. Wyss for comments on the paper, and the members of the Losick laboratory for helpful advice and discussion. We also thank J.-M. Lee and A. Muffler for microarray analysis of B. subtilis.

This work was supported by NIH grant GM18568 to R.L.

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