Supported the Contract of the

Lim et al. 10.1073/pnas.1105692108

SI Materials and Methods

Construction of the Plasmids and Strains. Full details of the strains and plasmids are provided in [Tables S1](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1105692108/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201105692SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=ST1) and [S2](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1105692108/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201105692SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=ST2) and [Fig. S1](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1105692108/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201105692SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF1) A and [B](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1105692108/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201105692SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF1). The oligonucleotide sequences used to construct the plasmids are provided in [Table S3](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1105692108/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201105692SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=ST3). The lacZ sequence (with the ΔM15 mutation) was PCR amplified from pLEX/LacZ (Invitrogen). The mCFP, mYFP, and mCherry sequences were PCR amplified from plasmids provided by R. Tsien (University of California at San Diego, La Jolla, CA). The fluorescent proteins are monomeric (1, 2) and thus the fluorescence signal should be proportional to their concentration. There was no significant "bleedthrough" between the fluorescence channels except from RFP to CFP but the magnitude was small [\(Fig. S1\)](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1105692108/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201105692SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF1).

The st7 (3) and T710RBS7 ribosome binding sequences were created synthetically. The latter is a fusion of part of the noncoding sequence of the T7 10 gene to st7 (5' cgccagcgcacaacggtttccctctagaaataattttgtttaactttaaggaggaaaaaaaATG 3′, with the start codon in uppercase and st7 sequence in boldface type). The T710RBS7 sequence was created because expression of the fluorescent proteins from the unmodified RBS and noncoding sequence of the T7 10 gene was very high and toxic to the cell when the gene was located on a medium-copy plasmid. (Note: it was not toxic when a single copy was inserted into the chromosome). The T1 terminator that was located at the end of each operon, the ColE origin, and the antibiotic resistance genes were obtained from the pZ system (4).

The chromosomal strains were constructed by inserting the promoter, the fluorescent gene, and the terminator via the lambda Red method at the *intS* and galK sites $(5, 6)$. To create the two gene operons we first inserted one gene and then integrated the second gene immediately downstream. We then removed the promoter and terminator sequences in between the two genes to create a two-gene operon. The full 5′-UTR sequence from T7 10, which was used to regulate the translation of fluorescent reporters inserted into the chromosome, was obtained from the pET-11a plasmid (Stratagene).

The lacZ1 panel strains are HL2434, HL2763, HL2764, HL2765, HL2766, HL2767, and HL2433. The lacZ2 panel strains are HL2434, HL3251, HL3252, HL3253, HL3254, and HL3255.

Further Details on the Measurement of Gene Expression. Single colonies were grown overnight in LB media with 50 μg/mL kanamycin and diluted 1/25,000 in fresh LB media with antibiotic $(\pm$ IPTG) and then grown for 4 h at 37 °C at 200 rpm to the early exponential growth phase ($OD_{600} = 0.1$). Dynamic experiments were performed in duplicate in the same manner except overnight cultures were diluted $1/1,500$ in LB media with 50 μ g/mL kanamycin and grown for 3 h. Several different dilutions of cells were then made $(1/5-1/625)$ with fresh LB media and 50 μ g/mL kanamycin and 1 mM IPTG so that there were flasks of different cell densities at the specified time points. We selected the flask with cells in early to midexponential growth at each time point for measurement.

For each sample, images of ∼500 cells were captured across 5– 10 fields of view per slide. The measurement error without biological variation was $5.6 \pm 2.5\%$ (SEM). The error was determined from five separate measurements of CFP and YFP expression (with background autofluorescence subtracted) from a single flask for two different exponentially growing strains (HL3015 and HL1240).

The sets of excitation filter/dichroic mirror/emission filter used for fluorescence microscopy were 436 ± 10 nm/455 nm/480 \pm 20 nm (CFP), 500 ± 10 nm/515 nm/535 \pm 15 nm (YFP), and 575 \pm 25 nm/610 nm/640 \pm 25 nm (mCherry).

mRNA Measurements by Quantitative RT-PCR. Total RNA was extracted from five exponentially growing cell cultures using TRIzol (Invitrogen). The RNA was treated with DNase I (New England Biolabs) to remove contaminating DNA and then cDNA was synthesized using the iScript select cDNA synthesis kit and random primers (Bio-Rad). The concentration of cDNA was quantified by PCR using iQ SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-Rad) with the iQ5 Real-Time PCR detection system (Bio-Rad). A −RT sample was also prepared using an identical amount of DNase I-treated RNA without reverse transcriptase. The −RT sample was amplified in parallel with the cDNA sample to measure the concentration of any residual contaminating DNA.

The *cfp* and *cfp-lacZ* mRNAs were amplified with oligonucleotides located at the 5′ end of cfp (cyfp18F and cyfp122R). The stable 16S ribosomal RNA (encoded by the $rrsB$ gene) was also measured to normalize for differences in RNA extraction, loading, and the efficiency of cDNA synthesis between samples. The amount of mRNA was calculated by

$$
\frac{E_{CY\!F\!P}^{CT(\mathrm{CDNA})} - E_{C\!Y\!F\!P}^{CT(-\mathrm{RT})}}{E_{\mathit{rrsB}}^{CT(\mathrm{CDNA})} - E_{\mathit{rrsB}}^{CT(-\mathrm{RT})}},
$$

where E_{CYFP} and E_{rrsB} are the PCR efficiencies for the *cfp* and $rrsB$ oligonucleotide pairs, respectively. The PCR efficiencies were determined from three samples at five different dilutions. The CT values were determined automatically by the iQ5 software.

Northern Blots. The steady-state mRNA concentration was measured in three separate cultures for each strain at $OD_{600} = 0.2{\text -}0.5$. Total RNA was extracted using the RNeasy mini kit and treated with RNase-free, DNase I (Qiagen). A 1:1 or 1.5:1 volume of RNA and loading buffer (250 μ L 100% formamide, 83 μ L 37% formaldehyde, 50 μL $10 \times$ Mops, 50 μL 100% glycerol, 10 μL 2.5% bromophenol blue, and 57 μ L H₂O) plus a 1:4 ratio of RNA Molecular Weight Marker I DIG labeled (Roche) and loading buffer were electrophoresed on 1% agarose gels with 2% formaldehyde in $1\times$ Mops buffer. The RNA was transferred to Hybond N+ membranes (GE Healthcare Life Sciences), using standard upward capillary transfer. The cfp and rrsB PCR products (which were the same as used for quantitative RT-PCR) and full-length *cfp* without the RBS were used as probes. The probes were labeled with DIG-11-dUTP by random-primed DNA labeling. The membranes were fixed with UV light (5 min exposure at 302 nm in the Bio-Rad Gel Doc XR imaging system) and then hybridized, washed, and detected according to the protocol described in the DIG High Prime DNA Labeling and Detection Starter Kit II (Roche). The membranes were visualized on radiographic film and then digital images were captured by transillumination of the film using the Gel Doc XR imaging system. Band intensity was quantified on nonsaturated exposures with an algorithm based on the area and intensity of the bands, using Quantity One Analysis software (Bio-Rad).

To measure mRNA decay, rifampicin (Fisher Bioreagents) was added to exponentially growing cultures to a final concentration of 560 μM to terminate transcription. Cells were harvested at the specified times and 0.25 vol of stop solution was added (95% ethanol and 5% phenol). The extraction of total RNA and the measurement of the mRNA concentration by Northern blotting were performed as described above.

General Model for the Translation of Operons. We created a model from first principles that examines the potential effect of the transcription distance on gene expression. The model takes into account that bacterial translation occurs both during transcription ("transcriptional translation") and after mRNA release ("posttranscriptional translation"). There is also a period of transition when ribosomes bind during mRNA transcription but do not complete translation until after the mRNA has been released. Translation during this transition phase is referred to as "intransit translation" because the ribosomes are in transit at the time of mRNA release. In all translation phases, the mRNA is simultaneously translated by multiple ribosomes moving at approximately the same rate (7, 8).

Transcriptional translation can commence once the coding sequence of a gene begins to be transcribed and continues until the RNA polymerase encounters a terminator causing mRNA release. Therefore, the maximum time available for transcriptional translation is proportional to the distance between a gene's start codon and the end of the operon (i.e., the transcription distance, λ , measured in nucleotides) divided by ρ , the average transcription rate in nucleotides per second. A complete protein cannot be generated until the full length of the gene has been transcribed and the ribosome reaches the end of the gene (L) is the gene length in nucleotides). Therefore, there is a lag time before the first complete protein is made that is determined by the length of the gene measured in codons (i.e., L/μ , where $\mu = 3$ nt/codon) divided by the translation rate σ_1 in units of codons per second. That is, the time available to produce complete proteins from a gene during mRNA transcription is the total time minus the lag time,

$$
\frac{\lambda}{\rho} - \frac{L}{\mu \sigma_1},
$$
 [S1]

where by definition $L \leq \lambda$. The first ribosome cannot progress faster than the RNA polymerase is creating the mRNA; therefore assuming the translation rate and transcription rate are constant, μσ₁ ≤ ρ. Experimentally, the evidence indicates that μσ₁ ~ ρ (9, 10), which is used below to simplify the equations. The time between the transcription of the RBS and the binding of the first ribosome is assumed to be very short and therefore was ignored.

If the translation rate during transcription is constant, then the number of proteins generated after the lag time $(L/\mu\sigma_1)$ will simply be determined by the rate at which ribosomes are successfully loaded onto the mRNA at the RBS (i.e., the translation initiation rate), that is, after the lag time translation termination occurs at the same rate as translation initiation. The translation initiation rate during transcription in units of events per mRNA per second, ω_1 , is determined by the strength of the RBS. Some of the ribosomes that initiate translation may dissociate during translation; therefore a term, θ_1 (units: proteins per event) is included in the model to account for the fraction remaining $(0 \le$ $\theta_1 \leq 1$). Therefore, the amount of transcriptional translation per mRNA is

$$
\omega_1 \theta_1 \left(\frac{\lambda}{\rho} - \frac{L}{\mu \sigma_1} \right). \tag{S2}
$$

If $\lambda/\rho \leq L/(\mu \sigma_1)$, there will be no transcriptional translation and all of the translation that is initiated during transcription will contribute to in-transit translation.

In-transit translation is the amount of protein produced by ribosomes that bound during transcription but did not complete the synthesis of the full-length protein until after the mRNA was released. If the mRNA is released before the first full-length protein is created [i.e., $\lambda/\rho \leq L/(\mu \sigma_1)$], then the number of partially completed proteins is simply determined by the number of ribosomes that have bound (which is the product of the translation initiation rate and the fraction of ribosomes that do not dissociate) during the amount of time determined by the transcription distance. Therefore, the amount of in-transit translation per mRNA is

$$
\omega_1 \theta_1 \frac{\lambda}{\rho}
$$
, where $\lambda \ge L$. [S3]

When λ/ρ is equal to or exceeds the lag time $[L/(\mu\sigma_1)]$, then ribosomes can span the entire gene length (see below). If $\lambda/\rho < L/$ $(\mu \sigma_1)$, then only fraction f of the gene can be covered by ribosomes. f is the ratio of the transcription time (λ/ρ) to the lag time $L/(\mu \sigma_1)$. Consequently, [Eq.](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1105692108/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201105692SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=STXT) **S3** can be rewritten as

$$
\frac{\omega_1 \theta_1 L f}{\mu \sigma_1}, \text{ where } 0 \le f \le 1.
$$
 [S4]

If mRNA release occurs after the first full-length protein is created, then there is enough time for ribosomes to span the full length of the gene sequence in the mRNA. The number of ribosomes (and therefore the number of partially translated proteins that will complete translation after mRNA release) is determined by the length of the gene (in codons) and the average spacing between each ribosome on an mRNA. The spacing is determined by the translation rate (σ_1) divided by the time between successful translation initiation events $[1/(\omega_1\theta_1)]$. Therefore, when the transcription time is equal to or exceeds the lag time, the amount of in-transit translation per mRNA is equal to

$$
\frac{L}{\mu(\sigma_1/\omega_1\theta_1)} = \frac{\omega_1\theta_1L}{\mu\sigma_1}.
$$
 [S5]

Note that [Eq.](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1105692108/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201105692SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=STXT) **S5** is the same as Eq. **S4** when $f = 1$, that is, when the transcription distance time is equal to or exceeds the time lag. As stated above, $f = 1$ in most cases because typically $\rho \sim \mu \sigma_1$.

Posttranscriptional translation follows the release of an mRNA until it is degraded. Therefore, the maximum amount of time available for posttranscriptional translation is determined by δ, the mean mRNA lifetime measured in seconds. The mRNA lifetime does not depend on its length as we and others have shown (11). The key components of the RNA degradosome appear to be located at the cell membrane (12–14) away from the site of transcription (15); therefore mRNA degradation during transcription was not incorporated into the model. Once mRNA degradation has been initiated, it is fast (16) compared with the mRNA lifetime.

A lag time also exists for posttranscriptional translation. The lag time between the binding of the first ribosome following mRNA release and the release of the first full-length protein is determined by the length of the gene in codons [i.e., L/μ] divided by the translation rate during posttranscriptional translation (σ_2) . As above with transcriptional translation, the time taken to bind the first ribosome following mRNA release is assumed to be very short. Therefore, the time available for posttranscriptional translation is the mRNA lifetime minus the lag time, which is equal to

$$
\delta - \frac{L}{\mu \sigma_2}.
$$
 [S6]

The amount of posttranscriptional translation per mRNA will therefore be

$$
\omega_2 \theta_2 \left(\delta - \frac{L}{\mu \sigma_2} \right), \tag{S7}
$$

where ω_2 is the translation initiation rate during posttranscriptional translation in units of events per mRNA per second and θ_2 is the fraction of ribosomes not dissociating during translation of the free mRNA, resulting in translation termination and the release a complete protein ($0 \le \theta_2 \le 1$; units are proteins per event). If the mRNA lifetime is equal to or less than the lag time (i.e., $\delta \le L/\mu \sigma_2$), then no full-length protein will be generated during posttranscriptional translation.

The total protein per mRNA is the sum of the protein produced by transcriptional, in-transit, and posttranscriptional translation, respectively, which is equal to

$$
\omega_1 \theta_1 \left(\frac{\lambda}{\rho} - \frac{L}{\mu \sigma_1} \right) + \frac{\omega_1 \theta_1 L f}{\mu \sigma_1} + \omega_2 \theta_2 \left(\delta - \frac{L}{\mu \sigma_2} \right).
$$
 [S8]

Experimentally, we measure the total amount of protein in the cell at steady state rather than the amount of protein per mRNA. The total protein in the cell is equal to

$$
\frac{m[\omega_1\theta_1(\lambda/\rho - L/\mu\sigma_1) + \omega_1\theta_1Lf/\mu\sigma_1 + \omega_2\theta_2(\delta - L/\mu\sigma_2)]}{\gamma},
$$
[S9]

where m is the number of mRNAs produced per second (which is determined by the promoter's strength) and γ is the degradation rate of the protein in seconds. In our experiments m and γ are constant.

It has been established in several studies that proteins are translated at a rate that is equivalent to transcription (i.e., $\rho \sim$ $\mu\sigma_1$) (9, 10). Therefore, the lag time is generally about the same amount of time as the transcription of a gene; consequently $f \sim 1$. The translation initiation rates and the fraction of ribosomes that do not dissociate during translation can be grouped, resulting in $\beta_1 = \omega_1 \theta_1$ and $\beta_2 = \omega_2 \theta_2$. β_1 and β_2 are the number of proteins produced per mRNA per second during transcriptional translation and posttranscriptional translation. With these assumptions and simplifications $Eq. S9$ $Eq. S9$ can be rewritten as

total protein per cell =
$$
\frac{m[\beta_1(\lambda/\rho) + \beta_2(\delta - L/\mu\sigma_2)]}{\gamma}.
$$
 [S10]

The numerator in this expression corresponds to ϕ in [Eq.](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1105692108/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201105692SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=STXT) **S14.** The equation can be simplified to

total protein per cell =
$$
b\lambda + c
$$
, [S11]

where $b = (m\beta_1)/(\rho\gamma)$, and $c = [m\beta_2(\delta - L/(\mu\sigma_2)]/\gamma$. This form of the expression clearly shows the total amount of protein increases linearly with the transcription distance.

As stated in the main text, the different contributions of transcriptional, in-transit, and posttranscriptional translation can be obtained from a plot of total protein as a function of transcription distance (Fig. 3B). The CFP and YFP fluorescence levels in each cell are assumed to be directly proportional to the total amount of protein per cell. The extrapolated amount of protein at $\lambda = 0$ is the amount generated by posttranscriptional translation. The difference in the amount of protein at $\lambda = L$ and $\lambda = 0$ is the amount of protein due to in-transit translation (with the assumption that $\rho \sim \mu \sigma_1$). The amount of transcriptional translation is the amount of protein at transcription distances exceeding the gene length, again assuming that $\rho \sim \mu \sigma_1$.

Normalizing the total protein by the amount of protein from posttranscriptional translation gives

$$
\frac{\beta_1}{\beta_2 \rho(\delta - L/\mu \sigma_2)} \lambda + 1 = \varepsilon \lambda + 1. \quad \textbf{[S12]}
$$

The advantage of this normalization is that the slope, termed the translation coefficient (ε) , is now independent of the rates of mRNA production and protein degradation as well as the quantum efficiency of the fluorescent reporter. Therefore, the translation coefficient can be compared across the different datasets.

The translation coefficient can be used to determine the ratio of transcriptional and posttranscriptional protein production by

$$
\frac{\beta_1}{\beta_2} = \varepsilon \rho \bigg(\delta - \frac{L}{\mu \sigma_2} \bigg), \qquad \qquad \textbf{[S13]}
$$

which is derived from [Eq.](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1105692108/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201105692SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=STXT) S12. The ratio of β_1 and β_2 will reflect differences in ribosome recruitment, translation initiation, and ribosome dissociation. The values for $β_1$ and $β_2$ will depend on the strength of the RBS but their ratio would be expected to remain constant. That is, altering the RBS may increase or decrease the stability of ribosomes bound to the mRNA or the proportion of the bound ribosomes that actually progress to translation initiation. If the RBS has the same proportional effect on both transcriptional and posttranscriptional translation then the β_1/β_2 ratio and consequently the translation coefficient will be independent of RBS efficiency (as was observed).

Modeling the Dynamics of Gene Expression Within an Operon. The position of a gene within an operon determines its transcription distance and therefore its average protein production rate (protein per cell per unit time). The protein production rate also determines the dynamics of expression. The standard dynamic equation for gene expression is

$$
\frac{dP}{dt} = \phi - \gamma P, \qquad \qquad \textbf{[S14]}
$$

(17), where ϕ is the production rate of protein P and γ is its degradation rate. This equation assumes the mRNA concentration is at steady state because mRNAs typically have shorter lifetimes than proteins. This assumption holds for our experiments; the mean mRNA lifetime was 352 s (Results) and the mean protein (CFP and YFP) lifetime that is determined by the cell growth rate (17) is ~2,256 \pm 180 s.

Integrating the above equation yields the total protein concentration as a function of time,

$$
P(t) = \frac{\Phi}{\gamma} (1 - e^{-\gamma t}), \qquad \textbf{[S15]}
$$

with the initial amount being zero. Therefore, a higher production rate ϕ due to a longer transcription distance results in higher expression at any time point after induction. This prediction was confirmed experimentally by measuring expression at the first and third positions in two operons (5′ cfp-rfp-yfp 3′ and 5′ yfp-rfpcfp 3[']) after induction of transcription with IPTG.

The higher expression of the first gene at any time point after induction could possibly be due to a difference in the degradation rate of the protein or a time delay between the induction of a gene at positions 1 and 3 instead of being due to a difference in protein production. To exclude the former two mechanisms we normalized the protein concentration at each time point $P(t)$ by the amount at the final time point $P(T)$ to eliminate the prefactor ϕ/γ . This relative expression R at gene position j, R_j , is equal to

$$
\frac{1 - e^{-\gamma_j(\tau_j + t)}}{1 - e^{-\gamma_j(\tau_j + T)}}.
$$
 [S16]

 R_i is independent of protein production and depends only on γ_i and any time delay τ_i that might exist. Therefore, if the degradation rates for proteins produced at positions 1 and 3 are the same ($\gamma_1 = \gamma_3$) and there is no difference in the delay in the induction at position 3 compared with position 1 ($\tau_1 = \tau_3$), then R at positions 1 and 3 (R_1 and R_3 , respectively) will have an identical function. That is, R_1 and R_3 will have the same values at all time points; analysis of the data showed that this was indeed the case (Fig. 4 D and E). Therefore, the observed difference in the expression levels of genes at positions 1 and 3 during induction is not due to a time delay or different protein degradation rates; therefore it must be due to differences in protein production.

Although we have shown that the observed difference in the expression levels of genes at positions 1 and 3 is not due to a time delay, it is still possible that a time delay exists that is the same for

- 1. Shaner NC, et al. (2004) Improved monomeric red, orange and yellow fluorescent proteins derived from Discosoma sp. red fluorescent protein. Nat Biotechnol 22: 1567–1572.
- 2. Zacharias DA, Violin JD, Newton AC, Tsien RY (2002) Partitioning of lipid-modified monomeric GFPs into membrane microdomains of live cells. Science 296:913– 916.
- 3. Vellanoweth RL, Rabinowitz JC (1992) The influence of ribosome-binding-site elements on translational efficiency in Bacillus subtilis and Escherichia coli in vivo. Mol Microbiol 6:1105–1114.
- 4. Lutz R, Bujard H (1997) Independent and tight regulation of transcriptional units in Escherichia coli via the LacR/O, the TetR/O and AraC/I1-I2 regulatory elements. Nucleic Acids Res 25:1203–1210.
- 5. Datsenko KA, Wanner BL (2000) One-step inactivation of chromosomal genes in Escherichia coli K-12 using PCR products. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 97:6640–6645.
- 6. Elowitz MB, Levine AJ, Siggia ED, Swain PS (2002) Stochastic gene expression in a single cell. Science 297:1183–1186.
- 7. Slayter H, Kiho Y, Hall C, Rich A (1968) An electron microscopic study of large bacterial polyribosomes. J Cell Biol 37:583–590.
- 8. Miller OL, Jr., Hamkalo BA, Thomas CA, Jr (1970) Visualization of bacterial genes in action. Science 169:392–395.
- 9. Lacroute F, Stent GS (1968) Peptide chain growth of -galactosidase in Escherichia coli. J Mol Biol 35:165–173.
- 10. Young R, Bremer H (1976) Polypeptide-chain-elongation rate in Escherichia coli B/r as a function of growth rate. Biochem J 160:185–194.

the genes at both positions. Furthermore, it is possible that there is a difference in the time delay at positions 1 and 3 that is too small to be detected with the fluorescent reporters (and also too small to explain the difference in expression at different gene positions) due to their slow maturation times (1, 18) and long lifetimes (19).

- 11. Bernstein JA, Khodursky AB, Lin PH, Lin-Chao S, Cohen SN (2002) Global analysis of mRNA decay and abundance in Escherichia coli at single-gene resolution using twocolor fluorescent DNA microarrays. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 99:9697–9702.
- 12. Khemici V, Poljak L, Luisi BF, Carpousis AJ (2008) The RNase E of Escherichia coli is a membrane-binding protein. Mol Microbiol 70:799–813.
- 13. Lewis PJ, Thaker SD, Errington J (2000) Compartmentalization of transcription and translation in Bacillus subtilis. EMBO J 19:710–718.
- 14. Liou GG, Jane WN, Cohen SN, Lin NS, Lin-Chao S (2001) RNA degradosomes exist in vivo in Escherichia coli as multicomponent complexes associated with the cytoplasmic membrane via the N-terminal region of ribonuclease E. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 98:63–68.
- 15. Pogliano J (2002) Dynamic cellular location of bacterial plasmids. Curr Opin Microbiol 5:586–590.
- 16. Cannistraro VJ, Kennell D (1994) The processive reaction mechanism of ribonuclease II. J Mol Biol 243:930–943.
- 17. Alon U (2007) An Introduction to Systems Biology: Design Principles of Biologica Circuits (Chapman & Hall/CRC, London).
- 18. Heim R, Cubitt AB, Tsien RY (1995) Improved green fluorescence. Nature 373:663–664. 19. Andersen JB, et al. (1998) New unstable variants of green fluorescent protein for
- studies of transient gene expression in bacteria. Appl Environ Microbiol 64:2240–2246. 20. Peters JE, Thate TE, Craig NL (2003) Definition of the Escherichia coli MC4100 genome
- by use of a DNA array. J Bacteriol 185:2017–2021. 21. Franchini AG, Egli T (2006) Global gene expression in Escherichia coli K-12 during short-term and long-term adaptation to glucose-limited continuous culture condi-

tions. Microbiology 152:2111–2127.

Fig. S1. The construction of synthetic operons and measurements of fluorescence "bleed-through". Data are presented as the mean fluorescence \pm SEM. The mean fluorescence values were corrected for autofluorescence by subtracting the values measured at 0 mM IPTG (uninduced). Linear regression was performed using Origin 7.5 and the P value was determined using the two-tailed t test with the null hypothesis that the slope is 0. (A) The cfp, yfp, and rfp genes were assembled in different combinations to create monocistronic and polycistronic operons with various lengths and gene orders, using the restriction enzyme sites shown. Black boxes indicate the st7 ribosome binding site. (B) The organization of the plasmid carrying the operons showing the KpnI and HindIII restriction enzyme sites where the operons were inserted. (C) The mean CFP, YFP, and RFP fluorescence produced by the monocistronic cfp, yfp, and rfp genes, respectively, at different IPTG concentrations. Transcription was regulated by the pLlacO-1 promoter in a strain carrying the Lac repressor. (D) The amount of RFP and YFP fluorescence measured at different levels of monocistronic CFP fluorescence. There was no statistically significant linear correlation between CFP fluorescence and YFP (R^2 = 0.38, P = 0.19) or RFP fluorescence (R^2 = 0.06, P = 0.65). (E) The amount of CFP and RFP fluorescence measured at different levels of monocistronic YFP fluorescence. There was no statistically significant correlation between YFP fluorescence and CFP (R^2 = 0.50, P = 0.11) or RFP (R^2 = 0.03, P = 0.73) fluorescence. (F) The amount of CFP and YFP fluorescence at different levels of monocistronic RFP expression. A statistically significant correlation was identified between RFP fluorescence and CFP (R^2 = 0.91, P = 0.002, slope = 0.33 \pm 0.05, y-intercept = 1.92 \pm 1.48 a.u.) but the magnitude compared with the CFP expression that was generally observed was small. There was no statistically significant correlation between RFP fluorescence and YFP fluorescence ($R^2 = 0.32$, $P = 0.24$).

Fig. S2. Comparison of mRNA concentrations with the modified T7 10 sequence and the RBS st7 sequence. Data are presented as the mean fluorescence \pm SEM. (A) The mRNA concentrations as measured by quantitative RT-PCR for strains with the 5′-UTR, the RBS, and part of the coding sequence of the T7 10 gene and with the st7 sequence. The red bars show the cfp or yfp mRNA concentrations and the black bars indicate the levels of the 16S loading control. (B) The normalized mRNA levels (cfp or yfp mRNA concentration divided by the 16S concentration).

Fig. S3. Northern blot using the complete cfp sequence as a probe. The blot shown in Fig. 5D was stripped and hybridized with a probe generated using the full length of the cfp sequence. The contrast of the whole image was altered to aid the visualization of the full-length cfp and cfp-lacZ mRNA transcripts in the absence of backlight.

Table S1. Plasmids

PNAS PNAS

*Unless otherwise stated all genes have the RBS st7 sequence. [†]See ref. 4.
[‡]PCR amplified from pKD13 (5).
[§]PCR amplified from pkD3 (5).
[¶]AspA term amplified from pLEX (Invitrogen).

PNAS PNAS

term, terminator.

Table S3. Oligonucleotides

PNAS PNAS

*Sequence from ref. 21.

PNAS PNAS