

For submission to the Journal of Molecular Biology

Structural Characterization of the RNase E S1 Domain and Identification of its Oligonucleotide-Binding and Dimerization Interfaces

Mario Schubert^{1,4}, Robert E. Edge¹, Paula Lario¹, Michael A. Cook¹, Natalie C.J. Strynadka^{1,3}, George A. Mackie¹, and Lawrence P. McIntosh^{1,2,3,4*}

¹Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, ²Department of Chemistry, ³The Biotechnology Laboratory, and ⁴The Protein Engineering Network of Centres of Excellence, The University of British Columbia, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada V6T 1Z3.

* To whom correspondence should be addressed

Tel. +604-822-3341

E-Mail: mcintosh@otter.biochem.ubc.ca

Keywords: RNase E, S1 domain, OB-fold, RNA binding, protein structure, protein dynamics, NMR spectroscopy, X-ray crystallography, PNPase.

Running Title: RNase E S1 Domain

Abbreviations: CD, circular dichroism; HSQC, heteronuclear single quantum correlation; HX, hydrogen exchange; NMR, nuclear magnetic resonance; *Rne*, the gene encoding *E. coli* RNase E; RneS1²⁵⁻¹²⁵, residues 25-125 from RNase E encompassing its S1 domain; rmsd, root-mean-squared deviation; SAD, single wavelength anomalous dispersion; T_m, midpoint thermal unfolding temperature; WT, wild type.

Summary

S1 domains occur in four of the major enzymes of mRNA decay in *Escherichia coli*: RNase E, PNPase, RNase II, and RNase G. Here, we report the structure of the S1 domain of RNase E, determined by both X-ray crystallography and NMR spectroscopy. The RNase E S1 domain adopts an OB-fold, very similar to that found with PNPase and the major cold shock proteins, in which flexible loops are appended to a well-ordered 5-stranded β -barrel core. Within the crystal lattice, the protein forms a dimer stabilized primarily by intermolecular hydrophobic packing. Consistent with this observation, light scattering, chemical crosslinking, and NMR spectroscopic measurements confirm that the isolated RNase E S1 domain undergoes a specific monomer-dimer equilibrium in solution with a K_D value in the mM range. The substitution of glycine 66 with serine dramatically destabilizes the folded structure of this domain, thereby providing an explanation for the temperature-sensitive phenotype associated with this mutation in full length RNase E. Based on amide chemical shift perturbation mapping, the binding surface for a ssDNA dodecamer ($K_D = 160 \pm 40 \mu\text{M}$) was identified as a groove of positive electrostatic potential containing several exposed aromatic side chains. This surface, which corresponds to the conserved ligand-binding cleft found in numerous OB-fold proteins, lies distal to the dimerization interface, such that two independent oligonucleotide-binding sites can exist in the dimeric form of the RNase E S1 domain. Based on these data, we propose that the S1 domain serves a dual role of dimerization to aid in the formation of the tetrameric quaternary structure of RNase E (Callaghan et al., *Biochemistry* 42, 13848-13855) and of substrate binding to facilitate RNA hydrolysis by the adjacent catalytic domains within this multimeric enzyme.

Introduction

The metabolic instability of mRNA is an important, albeit infrequently appreciated, aspect of gene expression. mRNA lifetimes are short relative to cellular doubling times, whereas “stable RNAs” such as tRNA and rRNA remain intact and functional for at least several generations. The stability of an mRNA controls its rate of accumulation and its maximal steady-state level independently of promoter strength. In the current model of mRNA decay in *E. coli*, the critical first step is usually an endonucleolytic cleavage catalyzed by RNase E^{1; 2; 3}. In addition to its crucial role in mRNA degradation, this enzyme also participates in the maturation of rRNA, tRNA, and other small RNAs. The specificity of RNase E has been addressed several times, yet a simple consensus sequence has never been found. Although RNase E seems to have a broad specificity with a preference for AU-rich sequences⁴, a G in position –2 relative to the cleavage site can significantly improve the efficiency of cleavage. More significantly, the rate of substrate hydrolysis by RNase E is strongly influenced by RNA elements that are distinct from the actual site of cleavage, such as adjacent stem-loops, phosphorylation at the 5' terminus, and signals for translation initiation.

RNase E can be divided into three functionally distinct regions: an N-terminal segment (residues 1-498) containing the single-strand-specific endonuclease activity⁵; an arginine- and proline-rich central region (residues ~ 500-650); and a C-terminal portion (residues ~650-1061) that provides a scaffold on which RhIB, enolase, and PNPase assemble^{6; 7}. The N-terminal segment of RNase E can process rRNA and is sufficient to support cell growth in the absence of the full-length protein.

Based on sequence comparisons, residues 37 to 119 in the N-terminal segment of RNase E are predicted to correspond to an S1 domain⁸. In particular, these residues show 30% sequence identity to the S1 domain of PNPase, for which a three-dimensional structure has been determined by NMR spectroscopy⁸. S1 domains are RNA-binding modules, originally identified in the ribosomal protein S1, that represent a subclass of the OB-fold (oligonucleotide/oligosaccharide-binding fold) family⁹. This fold, built on a distinctive β -sheet scaffold with appended loops or helices, is found in a wide variety of proteins that are involved principally in the recognition of carbohydrates and nucleic acids^{10; 11}.

Beyond an expected role in mediating RNA binding, the precise function of the S1 domain in RNase E is not understood. Two separate point mutations within this domain, *rne-3071* (L68F) and *ams-1* (G66S), are both lethal at elevated temperatures, indicating that the S1 domain is crucial for the activity of RNase E¹². More recently, using homology modelling and site-directed mutagenesis, Diwa et al.¹³ identified two distinct surface regions of the S1 domain. One is of general importance for its ribonuclease activity, while the other is entirely dispensable for catalysis in vitro yet important for feedback regulation of the expression of *rne*, the gene encoding this enzyme. Thus, based on even the limited information available to date, it would appear that the role of the RNase E S1 domain may be more complex than simply providing an RNA-binding surface.

So far there is no experimentally determined three-dimensional structural model available for any part of RNase E. A very recent biophysical study indicates that the N-terminal segment of RNase E (residues 1-529) forms a tetramer and that the S1 domains are readily susceptible to proteolytic attack. Although the quality of the crystals formed by this fragment were insufficient for solving its high-resolution structure, using X-ray solution scattering and crystallographic data, Callaghan et al.¹⁴ proposed that four RNase E monomers pack with approximate D_2 point symmetry. A salient feature of their model involved the positioning of the S1 domains at the periphery of the tetramer; i.e., at maximal separation from each other. To better understand the role of the S1 domain in RNase E, we have determined its structure using both X-ray crystallography and NMR spectroscopy. In parallel, we have demonstrated that the isolated domain weakly dimerizes in vitro, and have identified its oligonucleotide- and dimerization-interfaces. The implications of these results for understanding the quaternary structure of RNase E and the functional role played by this domain are presented within this paper.

Results

Using the SMART database¹⁵ residues 37-119 of RNase E were predicted to form an S1 domain.

Allowing for possible variation in its precise boundaries, the DNA encoding residues 35-125 of RNase E

was cloned into the expression vector pET15b. The resulting construct, denoted as RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵, encompasses the entire sequence of the predicted S1 domain, flanked by a small number of N- and C-terminal residues. After expression, purification, and cleavage of a His₆-affinity tag, the construct produced a soluble, well-folded protein as judged by the data presented below. This confirms that residues 35-125 encompass a structural domain within RNase E.

Structure determination by X-ray crystallography

During the determination of the solution structure of the RNase E S1 domain, by serendipity, RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ crystallized in the buffer used for these NMR spectroscopic studies. Therefore, we undertook a parallel structural analysis by X-ray crystallography. Although the NMR-derived solution structure of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ was calculated independently and before completion of the X-ray crystallographically-derived structure, for simplicity we will begin by describing the structure of this protein in the crystalline state.

The crystal structure of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ was determined to 2.0 Å resolution, using single anomalous dispersion (SAD) of a trimethyl lead (IV) acetate derivative. The crystallographic R and R_{free} values of 18.2% and 23.2%, respectively and the stereochemical parameters are in the range expected for structures determined at a comparable resolution (Table 1). The asymmetric unit contains two copies of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵, denoted as monomer A (residues 39-125) and monomer B (residues 39-80 and 88-125), related by a non-crystallographic 2-fold axis. Residues N-terminal to A39 in both monomers, as well as residues 81-87 in monomer B, are apparently disordered, giving no detectable electron density. The two superimposed monomers are shown in Figure 1a, while their main-chain rms deviations and B-factors are presented in Figure 2.

RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ is composed of five β-strands, hydrogen bonded in a 1-2-3-5-4-1 topology diagnostic of the OB-fold (β1 residues 42-50; β2 55-59; β3 66-69; β4 99-106; β5 115-117; Figure 1c). The strands contain two bulges, located around residues 47/48 and 105/106, which allow β1 and β4 to kink and thereby to form a closed β-barrel. In comparison with the prototypical OB-fold of a five-stranded mixed β-barrel capped on one end with an α-helix, RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ shows some distinct features. The most notable deviation

is the absence of an α -helix connecting strands β 3 and β 4. RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ uses instead three short 3_{10} -helices, or equivalently type III β -turns (70-72, 75-77, 90-92), and two additional β -turns (83-86 type VIII, 95-98 type II) in an exposed loop denoted as L₃₄. The position of strand β 5 varies within the members of the OB-fold family, either being hydrogen bonded with β 3 in a parallel orientation to extend the β -sheet formed by β 1- β 2- β 3, or pairing antiparallel with β 4 to expand the β 1- β 4 sheet, or both. In RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵, β 5 is very short, yet still hydrogen bonds with both β 3 and β 4. However, instead of pairing with β 4 in a more extended fashion, the residues following β 5 turn outwards to form a dimerization interface (see below).

Although monomers A and B superimpose well over their core β -stands (rmsd 0.24 Å on 116 main chain atoms), there are several noteworthy differences between the two RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ molecules within the asymmetric unit (Figures 1 and 2). In addition to the dramatic disorder of residues 81-87 in monomer B, the flanking regions within the exposed L₃₄ loop (residues 79, 80, 88, and 89) also adopt different conformations due to crystal packing. L₃₄ in monomer A packs against another dimer, whereas in monomer B it faces towards a solvent channel. Furthermore, the single-turn 3_{10} helix formed by residues 90-92 at the end of this loop in monomer A is a distorted α -helix (residues 90-93) in monomer B. The position of the loop L₁₂, which also contains a short 3_{10} helix (51-53), is different between the monomers due to crystal packing. Finally, the precise conformations of residues in loops L₂₃ and L₄₅ differ, likely due to local dynamic behaviour as evident by their elevated main-chain B-values, as well as their high rms deviations within the ensemble of NMR-derived structures and their distinctive ¹⁵N relaxation properties (see below).

Structure determination by NMR spectroscopy

Nearly complete assignments of the ¹H, ¹³C and ¹⁵N resonances of nuclei in the backbone and side chains of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ were obtained through a standard set of ¹H/¹³C/¹⁵N scalar correlation experiments (Supplementary material). This process was greatly facilitated by using a suite of MUSIC experiments that provided amino acid-selective identification of many peaks within the ¹H-¹⁵N HSQC spectrum of the protein^{16; 17}. Under the experimental conditions the N-terminal residues GSHM, as well as S52 and N111,

likely display rapid hydrogen exchange and thus do not have detectable $^1\text{H}^{\text{N}}$ resonances. Residues H65, H85, G86, and G110 also show weak broad $^1\text{H}^{\text{N}}$ signals.

The tertiary structure of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ in solution was calculated independently with ARIA/CNS version 1.2¹⁸ using distance restraints from an extensive set of 3D ^{15}N - and ^{13}C -resolved NOESY spectra, combined with TALOS-derived¹⁹ backbone dihedral angle restraints, J coupling-derived χ_1 dihedral angle restraints, and a limited set of hydrogen bond restraints. A summary of the structural refinement statistics, corresponding to the final energetically best 10 structures, is listed in Table 2. The structural ensemble is shown in Figure 1b,d.

Overall, the NMR-derived secondary and tertiary structure of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ is very similar to that determined by X-ray crystallography. The rms deviation of the core β -strands between the average NMR structure and the monomer A of the crystal structure is 0.67 Å for the 116 main-chain and 1.95 Å for the 110 side chain heavy atoms. However, variations both within the ensemble of solution structures and between the solution- and crystal-state structures are evident for residues at the termini of the protein, as well as in the loops L₂₃, L₄₅ and especially L₃₄. As discussed below, NMR relaxation measurements indicate that this reflects the conformational mobility of these exposed amino acids (Figure 2). In addition, the C-terminal residues of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ fold back to the third 3_{10} helix (75-77), rather than forming intermolecular contacts within the crystal dimer.

Although the structures of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ determined by NMR spectroscopy and X-ray crystallography are similar, the NMR-derived coordinates could not be used successfully for molecular replacement to overcome the crystallographic phase problem. In addition to the recognized difficulties in using NMR-based structures for molecular replacement²⁰, the uniform nature of the barrel shaped RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ is especially problematic in allowing for the unique determination of the correct rotation and translation functions in this phasing method.

Dimerization of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵

Crystalline RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ forms a homodimer within the asymmetric unit. As illustrated in Figure 3, the dimer interface is formed by the packing of surface side chains from strands β 1 and β 4 (A39, I41, K43, E99, I101), the short 3_{10} helix (E76, Y77) in L₃₄, and the C-terminus (I120, L122). In addition, 3 pairs of intermolecular hydrogen bonds (K43 N ζ /S120 O; E99 O ϵ /A123 N; E99 N/A123 O), and a bridging water molecule between the side chains of E76 in both monomers, was observed. The formation of this interface leads to the burial of a total (A+B) surface area of 1380 Å², of which 1020 Å² is associated with hydrophobic residues. Given that this value, which represents 12.2% of the total surface area of the two monomers, is on the lower end of the range observed for many homodimeric protein-protein interfaces²¹, we undertook further studies to determine the oligomerization state of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ in solution. Initially, light scattering measurements with protein at concentrations ranging from 50 μ M to 300 μ M revealed a monodisperse species with an apparent molecular weight of approximately 12 kDa. These data (not shown) indicate that RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ adopts a predominantly monomeric state when in dilute solution. However, upon mild treatment with glutaraldehyde, 45 μ M RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ readily, although not quantitatively, formed cross-linked homodimers (Figure 4, lanes 2 and 6). In contrast, under the same conditions, the isolated S1 domain from PNPase underwent crosslinking to itself with much less efficiency (lanes 3 and 7) and did not form heterodimers with RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ (lanes 4 and 8). These data reveal that RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ has the propensity to specifically self-associate in vitro.

To further investigate the oligomerization of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵, ¹H-¹⁵N HSQC spectra of the protein were measured at sample concentrations ranging from 0.1 to 1.2 mM. Upon dilution, the signals from several amides showed clear, albeit small (e.g. \sim 12 Hz in ¹H), changes in chemical shift (Figure 5a, c). When mapped onto the crystal structure of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵, the amides exhibiting such chemical shift perturbations all cluster within the dimer interface (Figure 3b, c). This strongly indicates that, in solution, RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ exists in an equilibrium between monomeric and dimeric forms, the latter adopting a structure represented closely by that observed within the crystal lattice. Furthermore, since the chemical shift perturbations occur across the entire concentration range examined, the K_D for this equilibrium must be on the order of mM. Additional support for this conclusion is provided below by ¹⁵N relaxation measurements, as discussed below.

Dynamics of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ from ¹⁵N relaxation measurements

Amide ¹⁵N T₁ and T₂ lifetimes and steady-state ¹H{¹⁵N}-NOE values were measured at concentrations of 0.6 mM and 1.2 mM for 81 backbone amide nitrogens of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵. Excluding amides exhibiting anomalous T₁/T₂ ratios or ¹H{¹⁵N}-NOE values indicative of internal mobility, the average T₁ and T₂ lifetimes, with standard deviations, were 0.48 ± 0.03 and 0.097 ± 0.01 s at 0.6 mM and 0.52 ± 0.02 and 0.087 ± 0.01 s at 1.2 mM, respectively. These lifetimes correspond to isotropic correlation times of 7.4 ± 0.03 ns and 8.3 ± 0.02 ns for global tumbling at 0.6 mM and 1.2 mM, respectively. The values of these correlation times, which are higher than expected for a monomeric 10.6 kDa protein, yet lower than expected for a dimeric protein²², combined with their concentration dependence provide further evidence of an equilibrium between monomeric and dimeric forms of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ with a K_D in the mM range.

In addition to yielding information about the global hydrodynamic properties of a protein, ¹⁵N relaxation measurements also provide insights into local backbone mobility. Due to the equilibrium between the monomeric and dimeric states of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵, an analysis of these data by the usual Lipari-Szabo model-free formalism to obtain local order parameters cannot be applied²³. However the steady-state ¹H{¹⁵N}-NOE is a sensitive indicator of motions on a sub-ns timescale. As shown in Figure 2c and mapped onto the structure of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ in Figure 1d, residues at the N- and C-termini of the protein, as well as in the L₃₄ (residues 82-89) and L₄₅ (residues 108-133) loops, and to a lesser extent, the L₂₃ loop, exhibit reduced ¹H{¹⁵N}-NOE values indicative of local flexibility. Excluding the L₁₂ loop, which appears relatively well-ordered in solution yet differs in conformation between monomers A and B due to crystal packing, there is a close correlation between the residues with reduced ¹H{¹⁵N}-NOE values and those with elevated crystallographic B-factors, with high rms deviations between the monomers in the crystal dimer, and with high rms deviations between members of the NMR-derived structural ensemble (Figure 2). This strongly indicates that the ¹H{¹⁵N}-NOE values, crystallographic B-factors, and structural rms deviations all reflect the local mobility of the backbone of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵. A similar correlation has been observed between the crystallographically- and spectroscopically-determined structures of the major *E. coli* cold-shock protein CspA²⁴, which adopts an OB-fold closely related to that of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵.

Temperature-sensitive mutants of RNase E

Previous studies indicated that the mutations G66S and L68F impart a temperature-sensitive phenotype on the activity of RNase E¹². From the structure of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵, residues 66 and 68 are located with strand β 3, such that substitution with a Ser or Phe, respectively, would likely disrupt the packing of the hydrophobic core of the protein (Figure 7b). To test this hypothesis, the G66S substitution was introduced into RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ and CD spectropolarimetry was used to monitor the conformation of wild type and mutant proteins as a function of temperature. Whereas wild type RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ showed a cooperative unfolding transition with a $T_m \sim 51$ °C and a ΔH of approximately 100 kJ/mol, the G66S mutant exhibited a very broad transition with no clear midpoint unfolding temperature (Supplementary material). Furthermore, in contrast to the ¹H-¹⁵N HSQC spectrum of the wild type protein, with well dispersed peaks indicative of a folded species, the spectra of the G66S mutant recorded between 10 and 35 °C show a predominance of amides with ¹H chemical shifts characteristic of a predominantly unstructured random coil polypeptide (Supplementary material). Together these data reveal that the introduction of a serine at position 66 of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ severely destabilizes the folded conformation of this protein fragment, and strongly suggest that the temperature-sensitive phenotype of the G66S mutation in RNase E results from the disruption of the structure and hence function of its S1 domain.

Identification of the oligonucleotide-binding interface

To test the hypothesis that the RNase E S1 domain is involved in oligonucleotide binding, a filter binding assay was used to screen a variety of RNA and DNAs for association with RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ (R.E.E. and G.A.M, unpublished). The studies revealed that, at neutral pH and in low ionic strength buffer, RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ binds RNA polynucleotides (80-180 nucleotides) including *rpsT*(268-447)-polyA₃₀²⁵, SL9A RNA²⁶, polyA, polyU, and polyC. The apparent K_D values for all five RNA ligands ranged from 2 to 4 μ M. DNA oligonucleotides also bind to RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ in this assay, but with affinities at least an order of magnitude weaker.

To identify the oligonucleotide-binding interface of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵, ¹H-¹⁵N HSQC NMR spectroscopy was used to monitor the titration of the protein with an ssDNA decamer, 5'-d(ACAGTATTTG)-3'. This corresponds to the RNase E cleavage site of RNAI²⁷. ssDNA, rather than ssRNA, was utilized to avoid degradation by trace contaminating ribonucleases, including PNPase, whose presence was confirmed by western blotting (data not shown). As shown in Figure 5, several amides exhibit progressive chemical shift perturbations upon addition of the ssDNA. When mapped on the structure of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵, these amides cluster to a surface region of positive electrostatic potential that is rich in exposed basic (K106, R109, K112) and aromatic (F57, F67) residues (Figure 6). Since amide chemical shifts are exquisitely sensitive to structural changes, this perturbation mapping provides a qualitative identification of the oligonucleotide binding surface as being formed primarily by residues in β -stands β 2 and β 3 and the mobile loops L₂₃ and L₄₅. In parallel, a quantitative analyses of titration data for 5 residues with the largest shift changes (R64, L68, R109, A115, L116) yields a K_D of $160 \pm 40 \mu\text{M}$ for the binding of this ssDNA by RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵.

Discussion

Structural features of Rne S1³⁵⁻¹²⁵

S1 domains have been found in or are predicted to occur in four of the major enzymes of RNA processing and/or degradation in *E. coli*: RNase E, PNPase, RNase II, and RNase G⁸. Here we report experimentally determined crystalline and solution state structures for the isolated S1 domain of RNase E. Together, these provide the first high resolution conformational and dynamic information available for this important enzyme, and verify the major features of this domain that were predicted by threading¹³. In particular, a high quality structure of the RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ dimer was solved crystallographically, whereas a structural ensemble of the monomeric species in solution was calculated using spectroscopic data. Both techniques revealed that RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ adopts an OB-fold with conformationally mobile loops linking successive β -strands of a well-ordered β -barrel core. Furthermore, NMR spectroscopy was used to define a previously unrecognized equilibrium between monomeric and dimeric forms of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵, to identify the

oligonucleotide-binding interface of this S1 domain, and to demonstrate that the G66S substitution found in the temperature-sensitive *ams-1* mutant disrupts the folded state of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵.

Tertiary structure comparisons using DALI²⁸ reveal a very close relationship between RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ and a variety of OB-fold proteins including the *E. coli* major cold shock protein CspA (1MJC; rmsd 2.2 Å; 21% sequence identity over A39-G61, A62-E76, V93-E107 and K112-F119), the S1 domain of PNPase (1SRO; rmsd 2.4 Å; 30% sequence identity over A39-P51, L53-A56, V58-E76, P88-E107 and R109-F119), and an archaeal homolog of the eukaryotic RNA polymerase II RPB4/RPB7 complex (1GO3, rmsd 2.8 Å; 20% sequence identity over N40-P51, E54-G61, E63-E76, F78-N81 and D92-L122). This similarity places the S1 domain of RNase E within the “cold-shock DNA-binding” family of OB-folds, as annotated in the SCOP (Structural Classification of Proteins) database^{10; 29}. All of these proteins adopt a closed β -barrel structure, yet lack the pronounced α -helix cap between β -strands β 3 and β 4 found in the prototypical OB-fold⁹. Although the position and length of stand β 5 and loop L₃₄ varies somewhat between these proteins, many of them share a type II β -turn preceding β 4 and have a short α or 3_{10} helix following β 3. In Figure 7a, the sequence of the RNase E S1 domain is aligned against selected members of this cold-shock DNA-binding family in order to highlight conserved residues important for the OB-fold, as well as those involved in the dimerization and nucleic acid binding interfaces of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵. This information is also summarized in a cartoon representation of the RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ structure, shown in Figure 7b.

In addition to tertiary structure, the similarity of RNase E S1 domain to other cold-shock DNA-binding OB-fold family members extends to dynamics. For example, as with RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ (Figure 2), high rms deviations are observed for the loop regions within the ensemble of NMR-derived structures of the *E. coli* major cold shock protein CspA²⁴ and the human Y-box protein YB-1³⁰. The electron densities of residues within the L₃₄ loop of the former protein are also ill-defined by X-ray crystallography³¹. Furthermore, despite their low sequence identity, corresponding residues in RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ and CspA display strikingly similar patterns of amide ¹⁵N relaxation rates (Figure 2 and ref. ²⁴). In particular, the backbone forming the long loop L₃₄ and the oligonucleotide-binding loop L₄₅ of both proteins exhibit considerable conformational flexibility on a sub-ns timescale. These features may provide a degree of plasticity necessary for

functions, such as the binding of single-stranded nucleic acids, common to the cold-shock DNA-binding family members.

Dimerization of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵

RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ dimerizes within the crystallographic asymmetric unit through intermolecular hydrogen bonding and van der Waals packing of hydrophobic surface side chains contributed primarily from strands β 1 and β 4 and its C-terminal sequence. Our structural analysis thus expands the diverse repertoire of recognized mechanisms by which the surface of the OB-fold has evolved to mediate macromolecular association^{10; 11}. Several lines of evidence demonstrate that the protein undergoes a monomer-dimer equilibrium in solution. Interestingly, similar to RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵, NMR spectroscopic studies of the major cold shock protein CspB from *B. subtilis* yielded a monomeric structure³², whereas X-ray crystallographic studies demonstrated a dimer formed via intermolecular hydrogen bonding between residues along strand β 4 of its OB-fold³³. Subsequent biophysical studies confirmed that CspB exhibits a phosphate-dependent monomer-dimer equilibrium in solution³⁴.

Isolated RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ dimerizes in solution with a K_D in the mM range. This is consistent with the modest amount of hydrophobic surface area buried within the dimer interface, combined with a limited number of intermolecular hydrogen bonding interactions (Figure 3). We recognize that such a K_D value is too weak to be of physiological significance on its own. Nevertheless, based on three observations, we hypothesize that S1 domain dimerization is important in the context of native RNase E. First, this endonuclease is active as an oligomer. Thus the S1 domains may form stable dimers in synergy with additional self-associating domains of the protein. Second, the side chains involved in the dimerization interface of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ are conserved among RNase E homologs from a variety of organisms, but not among other cold-shock DNA binding OB-fold family members such as PNPase (Figure 7). In particular, in RNase G, a closely related paralog of RNase E³⁵, highly conserved residues include those important for the OB-fold as well as those involved in the dimerization interface of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵. These data suggest that the dimerization surface adopted by RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ is a distinct feature of the S1 domain of RNase E and its functional homologs. Third, Diwa et al.¹³ observed that the substitutions K37A and Y60A within the RNase

E S1 domain disrupted feedback inhibition of *rne* expression, but not the catalytic activity of the native enzyme. These two residues lie along the dimerization interface of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵, near its C₂ symmetry axis, such that K37 of one monomer would be proximal to Y60 of the other (Supplementary material). We thus speculate that these residues form a surface of the S1 domain dimer important for feedback inhibition of RNase E synthesis.

Nucleic acid binding

Using both filter binding assays and NMR spectroscopy, we demonstrated that RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ associates with a variety of oligomeric and polymeric single stranded RNA and DNA ligands. In general agreement with predictions made by Bycroft et al.⁸ and Diwa et al.¹³, these results confirm that the S1 domain of RNase E indeed functions as a nucleic acid binding module with affinities similar to those of other cold-shock OB-fold family members³⁶. The binding surface of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ was identified as a groove of positive electrostatic potential extending across strands β 2 and β 3 (Figures 5b,d and 6a,b). Part of the binding surface is also formed by the flexible loops L₂₃ and L₄₅, possibly allowing an induced fit oligonucleotide-binding mechanism with a broad specificity²¹. Importantly, this surface is located opposite to the dimerization interface of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵, indicating that two independent oligonucleotide-binding sites can exist in the dimeric form of this protein (Figure 3c and Supplemental material).

As seen in Figures 6 and 7, RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ maintains the conserved nucleic acid binding features documented for the OB-fold^{10;11}, both in the location of its oligonucleotide-binding interface and by the presence of exposed aromatic (F57, H65, F67), hydrophobic (L53, A55, A115), and positively charged side chains (R64, K106, R109, K112) along this interface. Mutations made previously to key residues within this site show a significant effect on RNase E feedback regulation in vivo and/or on ribonuclease activity in vitro¹³. In particular, alanine substitutions of F57, F67, or K112 located on strands β 2, β 3, and in the flexible loop L₄₅, respectively, strongly impair both functions of this enzyme. Likewise, alanine substitutions of R64 or R109 in the flexible loops L₂₃ and L₄₅ partially impair feedback regulation.

Temperature-sensitive mutations of RNase E

Early studies of RNase E identified two conditional mutations, *rne-3071* (L68F) and *ams-1* (G66S), each leading to a lethal phenotype at elevated temperatures. Both of these residues lie within strand $\beta 3$ of the S1 domain (Figure 7 a,b), and thus the amino acid substitutions, which would introduce bulkier groups into the hydrophobic core of this domain, could potentially disrupt RNA binding by perturbing the precise conformation of its oligonucleotide binding interface. However, our analyses of wild type and mutant RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ indicate that the G66S, and by inference, the L68F mutations act more globally by destabilizing the folded structure of the RNase E S1 domain. Positions 66 and 68 are generally occupied by hydrophobic residues that contribute to the interior of the OB-fold (Figure 7a). However, in the case of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵, G66 packs against the side chains of Y60 (in loop L₂₃), A114 (loop L₄₅), and L116 (strand $\beta 5$). Replacing an H ^{α} of this glycine with a polar serine side chain leads to the observed unfolding of isolated G66S-RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ (Supplementary material), most likely due to unfavourable steric clashes with these three residues, as well as the introduction of a hydroxyl group with an unsatisfied hydrogen bond. Within the context of the full length RNase E, the S1 domain may be stabilized by additional interactions, allowing the mutant to be sufficiently functional at permissive temperatures. Similarly, L68 is involved in an extensive set of van der Waals interactions with V58 (strand $\beta 2$), I73 (loop L₃₄), V100 (strand $\beta 4$), and T118 (after strand $\beta 5$). The substitution of a planar phenylalanine aromatic ring at this position would likely also destabilize the folded S1 domain by disrupting its core packing.

Implications for the quaternary structure and function of RNase E

In this study, we both confirmed previous predictions that Rne³⁵⁻¹²⁵ encodes an independently-folded nucleic acid binding domain and discovered that it dimerizes with a K_D in the mM range. These two findings may be key to understanding the role of the S1 domain in RNase E. Recent data have shown that the N-terminal 529 residues of RNase E can form a tetramer¹⁴; in addition, RNase G is at least a dimer³⁷. Moreover, multimerization is required for the activity of both enzymes^{14; 37}. Accordingly, we propose that in native RNase E, (i) dimerization of two S1 domains occurs co-operatively along with the self-association of other domains in the protein to produce an initial stable dimer and subsequent higher order oligomer; and (ii) this structural arrangement positions the S1 domains, which are required for substrate binding, adjacent to the catalytic domains. Two cartoon models of possible quaternary

structures of RNase E are presented in Figure 8. Consistent with the crystallographic data of Callaghan et al.¹⁴, each of these models exhibits D_2 point symmetry. However, in contrast to the hypothesis by these authors that the monomeric S1 domains are maximally separated from one another on the periphery of the tetramer, we propose that these domains self-associate to form at least pairs of dimers. Furthermore, based on the crystal structure of Rne³⁵⁻¹²⁵, the S1 domain of one monomer may lie in proximity to the catalytic domain of its partner monomer. In addition to contributing to the tetrameric structure of RNase E, the close positioning of these S1 domains to one another and to two catalytic domains could increase the overall affinity and specificity of the enzyme for its substrates. The models of Figure 8 also provide a novel explanation for the temperature-sensitive phenotypes of the *rne-3071* (L68F) and *ams-1* (G66S) mutations. Namely, disruption of the structure of the S1 domain leads to the disruption of the quaternary structure of the entire RNase E enzyme. Finally, we note that Callaghan et al.¹⁴ cite their observation that Y82 of RNase E is sensitive to cleavage by chymotrypsin as support for the placement of the S1 domains at the exposed edges of the tetramer. However, our structural analysis of Rne³⁵⁻¹²⁵ shows that this residue lies in the large, flexible loop L₃₄, and thus could be accessible to proteolysis even within a dimeric state.

The combined X-ray crystallographic and NMR spectroscopic analyses of Rne³⁵⁻¹²⁵ provide a much needed structural and dynamic framework for understanding the precise functions of the S1 domain in RNase E. More importantly, these data prompt readily testable hypotheses regarding the roles of dimerization and oligonucleotide binding by this OB-fold domain in establishing the quaternary structure and substrate specificity of RNase E, a model enzyme for RNA metabolism.

Materials and Methods

Expression and purification

A DNA fragment encoding residues 35-125 of *E. coli* RNase E (RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵) was ligated into the bacterial expression vector pET15b (Novagen) as a fusion protein with an N-terminal His₆ sequence and thrombin

cleavage site. The protein encoded by the ensuing plasmid had the sequence MGSS-(H)₆-SSGLVPRGSHML-(³⁵EQKKANIYKKGKITRIEPSLEAAFVDYGAERHGFLPLKEIAREYFPANYSAGHRPNIK DVLREGQEVIVQIDKEERGNGKAALTTFISLAGS¹²⁵). The G66S mutation was subsequently introduced into this plasmid using PCR-based site-directed mutagenesis. The BL21(λDE3) *E. coli* host strain containing either recombinant plasmid was grown at 37° C in LB media for unlabelled protein and M9 minimal medium supplemented with the following: 1 g/l (¹⁵N, 99%)-NH₄Cl for uniform ¹⁵N labelling; 1 g/l (¹⁵N, 99%)-NH₄Cl and 3 g/l (¹³C₆, 99%)-glucose for uniform ¹³C-¹⁵N labelling; and 0.3 g/l (¹³C₆, 99%)-glucose and 2.7 g/l (¹²C₆)-glucose for non-random 10% ¹³C-labelling. At an OD₆₀₀ of 0.75, protein expression was induced by addition of 1 mM isopropyl β-thiolactopyranoside, followed by growth for 5 h at 37° C.

After harvesting by centrifugation, the cell pellet was suspended in a buffer of 50 mM HEPES (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl, 10 mM imidazole, and 5% (v/v) glycerol, and lysed by freeze-thawing (-80° C), passage through a French press, and sonication. Lysates were cleared by centrifugation at 15,000 x g for 60 minutes, followed by filtration through a 0.8 μm cut-off membrane. RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ was purified from the lysate by Ni²⁺-affinity chromatography (Amersham Biosciences) using a buffer of 50 mM HEPES (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl, and 5% (v/v) glycerol with 10, 30 and 100 mM imidazole for loading, washing, and elution, respectively. After dialysis into a loading buffer of 50 mM HEPES (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl, and 5% (v/v) glycerol without imidazole, the His₆-tag was removed by incubation with thrombin. The extent of proteolysis was monitored by a reduction in apparent molecular mass by using SDS-PAGE, and upon completion (2 days), was terminated with a 30 minutes incubation with 300 μl p-aminobenzamidine beads (Sigma). 1 ml of water-rinsed Talon beads (Clontech) was added to the samples to remove the cleaved His₆-tag and any uncleaved full-length protein.

Electrospray ionization mass spectroscopy yielded a mass of 10,687 Da for the unlabeled wild type protein, which is consistent with the expected value of 10,687 Da for the RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ construct with five additional residues (Gly-Ser-His-Met-Leu) remaining at its N-terminus after proteolytic cleavage. Protein

concentrations were determined by absorbance spectroscopy using a predicted $\epsilon_{280} = 5120 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (ProtPara; <http://www.expasy.org/tools/protparam.html>).

Crystallization and diffraction data

Large crystals (up to 400 μm diameter) of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ initially grew in the NMR buffer (1.65 mM protein concentration, 20 mM phosphate, pH 6.5, 50 mM NaCl, and 0.05% NaN_3) during 4 weeks of storage at 4 °C. However, difficulties with cryo-protecting these large crystals led us to pursue different crystallization conditions. Subsequently, isomorphous crystals were obtained by the hanging drop vapour diffusion method at 18° C using a 1.3 mM protein solution (in 20 mM HEPES, 50 mM NaCl, pH 6.5) and a well solution consisting of 0.17 M sodium acetate, 85 mM sodium cacodylate, 50% (w/v) PEG8000, 15% (v/v) glycerol, pH 6.5. Crystals had a typical size of 60x60x130 μm . No additional cryo-protection was necessary. A Pb-derivative was obtained by soaking a crystal for 30 minutes in a solution of 20 mM trimethyl lead (IV) acetate, 0.14 M sodium acetate, 68 mM sodium cacodylate, 40% (w/v) PEG8000, 12% (v/v) glycerol.

Diffraction data for the native crystals were collected at 100 K on an ADSC Quantum 210 CCD detector at beamline 8.2.1 of the Advanced Light Source, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory. A single anomalous dispersion (SAD) dataset of the Pb-derivative was collected at 100 K on an ADSC Quantum 4 CCD detector at beamline X8-C of the National Synchrotron Light Source, Brookhaven National Laboratory. All diffraction patterns were indexed and scaled with the HKL program package³⁸, which revealed a tetragonal $P4_12_12$ space group in both cases. The asymmetric unit contains two protein molecules in accordance with a calculated Matthew coefficient of 2.6 $\text{\AA}^3/\text{Da}$ and assuming 51.6% solvent.

Crystal structure analysis and refinement

Using SAD phasing methods, the Pb sites were located and refined with SOLVE³⁹. Phase extension including solvent flattening and non-crystallographic symmetry averaging with RESOLVE⁴⁰ produced a clearly interpretable electron density map, from which an initial model was built using XtalView⁴¹ and improved by iterative rounds of manual fitting in Xtalview and refinement in Refmac5⁴². Non-

crystallographic symmetry averaging did not improve the model. Initial phases for the native model were obtained from the Pb-derivative. The refined structures of the native and derivative crystals yielded comparable R and R_{Free} values and superimposed with an rms deviation of 0.187 Å on the 672 main chain and 0.573 Å on all 1327 observed atoms. However, the data from the Pb-derivative refined to a significantly more ordered structure with lower overall and individual B-factors, and was therefore chosen for subsequent analyses. Statistics on the X-ray diffraction data and resulting structures are summarized in Table 1.

NMR data collection and analysis

Prior to data collection, RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ was dialyzed at 4° C in 20 mM phosphate buffer, pH 6.5, containing 50 mM NaCl and 0.05% NaN₃, and concentrated using a 1K filter (Pall Filtron). The final samples had a protein concentration of 1.4 – 1.65 mM, and contained 8% or 99% D₂O for signal lock. Except where noted, all NMR spectra were recorded with the ¹³C/¹⁵N-labelled RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ at 30°C on a 600 MHz Varian INOVA spectrometer equipped with an inverse triple resonance probe and pulsed-field gradient accessory. NMR data were processed using NMRpipe⁴³ and analyzed using the program SPARKY⁴⁴. ¹H and ¹³C chemical shifts were referenced to an external sample of DSS (sodium 2,2-dimethyl-2-silapentane-5-sulfonate) and ¹⁵N referenced indirectly via magnetogyric constant ratios⁴⁵.

Assignments of the resonances from the ¹H, ¹³C, and ¹⁵N nuclei of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ were obtained using a conventional set of sensitivity-enhanced heteronuclear NMR spectra, including the ¹³C- and ¹⁵N-HSQC, HNCACB, CBCA(CO)NH, HNCO, H(CCO)NH, C(CO)NH, HCCH-TOCSY and HACAN experiments, as described previously^{46; 47}. In addition, a suite of MUSIC experiments provided amino acid selective amide resonance assignments^{16; 17}. The assignments of resonances from aromatic side chains were obtained using ¹H-¹³C CβHδ and CβHε experiments^{48; 49}, combined with a nonsensitivity-enhanced ¹H-¹⁵N HSQC experiment with delays (1/4J ~ 11 ms) optimized for long-range couplings within histidine imidazole rings⁵⁰. Stereospecific assignments of the diastereotopic methyls of the valine and leucine residues were determined using a constant time ¹H-¹³C HSQC spectrum acquired on a non-randomly 10% ¹³C-labeled sample, combined with long-range C'-C^γ and N-C^γ spin echo spectra, as described previously⁴⁶.

Stereospecific assignments of non-degenerate β -methylene protons were based upon HNHB and short mixing time ^{15}N -TOCSY-HSQC ($\tau_m = 32$ ms) experiments recorded on a 500 MHz Varian UNITY spectrometer with a ^{15}N -labelled sample, as described previously⁴⁶. Stereospecific assignments of side chain Gln and Asn amide protons were obtained from an EZ-HMQC-NH₂ spectrum⁵¹.

NMR-based structure calculations

Structural calculations were completed using ARIA/CNS version 1.2¹⁸. Distance restraints were acquired from three-dimensional ^{15}N -HSQC-NOESY, aliphatic ^{13}C -HSQC-NOESY, simultaneous ^{13}C - and ^{15}N -HSQC-NOESY, aromatic ^{13}C -HSQC- and constant time methyl-methyl NOESY (simultaneous $^{13}\text{C}/^{13}\text{C}/^1\text{H}$ and $^{13}\text{C}/^{15}\text{N}/^1\text{H}$)⁵² spectra, all with 100 ms mixing times. NOE lists from each of these individual NOESY spectra, consisting in total of 1044 manually assigned and of 3407 unassigned peaks, were merged by ARIA to yield 2113 unambiguously and 597 ambiguously assigned distances restraints for the calculation of the final structural ensemble. Backbone dihedral angles were determined using TALOS¹⁹. The χ_1 side chain dihedral angles for residues with β -methylene protons were determined from the analysis of the short mixing time ^{15}N TOCSY-HSQC ($\tau_m = 32$ ms) and HNHB spectra, χ_1 dihedral angles for Ile, Val, and Thr residues on the bases of $^3J_{\text{NC}\gamma}$ and $^3J_{\text{C}\gamma\text{C}\gamma}$ coupling constants, as described previously⁴⁶. All Xaa-Pro amides were constrained to the trans conformation based upon the proline chemical shifts using the program POP⁵³. Hydrogen bond restraints were included for amides located in elements of regular secondary structure. Using these restraints, a total of 200 structures was calculated, of which the 10 energetically best were further refined in a water box using Lennard-Jones potentials. Statistics on the NMR spectroscopic data and resulting structures are summarized in Table 2.

NMR relaxation analysis

Amide ^{15}N T_1 , T_2 and steady-state heteronuclear $^1\text{H}\{^{15}\text{N}\}$ NOE relaxation parameters for 0.6 mM and 1.2 mM ^{15}N -labelled RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ were acquired on a 500 MHz NMR spectrometer at 30 °C, as previously described⁵⁴. In addition, steady-state heteronuclear $^1\text{H}\{^{15}\text{N}\}$ NOE relaxation parameters were measured with a 1.5 mM $^{13}\text{C}/^{15}\text{N}$ sample of this protein on a 600 MHz NMR spectrometer. Relaxation rates and isotropic correlation times were calculated using SPARKY⁴⁴ and TENSOR2⁵⁵, respectively.

Structural analysis, comparison and graphical representation

Analysis of the completed structures were performed using WHATCHECK⁵⁶, VADAR⁵⁷, PROCHECK⁵⁸ and PROCHECK_NMR⁵⁹. Secondary structure boundaries for the ensemble were defined according to PROMOTIF⁶⁰. Surface areas were calculated with VADAR⁵⁷. Structural comparisons were done by ARIA¹⁸ and LSQKAP within the CCP4 program suite⁶¹. Figures were prepared using MOLMOL⁶² and GRASP⁶³.

Static light scattering

The oligomerization state of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ was analyzed using a Superdex 75 HPLC gel exclusion column interfaced to a WYATT Technology MiniDawn light-scattering unit with an in-line Optilab DSP interferometric refractometer. The varying concentrations of protein were suspended in a solution containing 20 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, and 150 mM NaCl.

Glutaraldehyde crosslinking

Chemical crosslinking reactions were carried out by incubating 50 μ l of 45 μ M total protein in 20 mM phosphate buffer, pH 6.5, 50 mM NaCl with 0.01% glutaraldehyde at 37°C for 2 minutes. The reactions were quenched with 10 μ l of 300 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0 and stored on ice. The proteins were subsequently concentrated by the addition of 40 μ l of 17.5% trichloroacetic acid, storage on ice for 30 minutes, centrifugation at 13,000 rpm for 15 minutes at 4°C, and washing of the precipitate twice with 200 μ l of 80% acetone. Samples were dissolved in 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 6.8 containing 15% SDS, 50 mM DTT, 5% glycerol and boiled prior the separation on a 15 % SDS-polyacrylamide gel.

Oligonucleotide binding studies

The titration of 300 μ M ¹⁵N-labelled RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ with 0, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1, 1.1, 1.5, 2.0 and 3.0 equivalents of single stranded 5'-d(ACAGTATTTG)-3' DNA (Sigma/Genosys) was monitored using ¹H-¹⁵N HSQC spectra recorded at 30° C on a 500 MHz spectrometer. Equilibrium K_D values were obtained by

non-linear least squares fitting of the data to the Langmuir isotherm describing the binding of one DNA molecule to a single protein site in the fast exchange limit⁶⁴.

Data deposition

The atomic coordinates of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ (accession codes 1SLJ, 1SMX, 1SN8) have been deposited in the Protein Data Bank of the Research Collaboratory for Structural Bioinformatics (<http://www.rcsb.org/>), and the NMR chemical shifts (entry number 6122) in the BioMagResBank (<http://www.bmrb.wisc.edu/>).

Acknowledgments

The authors wish to thank Phil Webster, Cameron Mackereth, Manuela Schärpf, and Jan Hankins for their assistance with molecular biological techniques, Greg Lee, Michele Fossi, and Jens Linge for their help with the software ARIA, Lewis Kay for providing NMR pulse sequences, Shouming He for mass spectrometric analyses, Richard Pfuetzner for light scattering measurements, Gunnar Olovson for initial collection of X-ray data, and Michela Bertero and Doug Briant for beneficial discussions. This research was funded by grants from the Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR) to N.C.J.S. and G.A.M., the Howard Hughes Medical Institute to N.C.J.S., and from the Government of Canada's Network of Centres of Excellence Program, supported by the CIHR and the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council (NSERC) through the Protein Engineering Network of Centres of Excellence (PENCE, Inc.), to L.P.M. M.S. acknowledges an Alexander von Humboldt-Fellowship. L.P.M. and N.C.J.S. are CIHR Scientists.

Tables

Table 1: X-ray crystallographic statistics for RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵

	Native	Pb derivative
Data collection		
Wavelength (λ , Å)	1.0781	0.947390
Space group	P4 ₁ 2 ₁ 2	P4 ₁ 2 ₁ 2
Cell axes a, b, c (Å)	70.4 / 70.4 / 87.9	70.6 / 70.6 / 87.9
Resolution (Å) ^a	50-1.8 (1.86-1.80)	25-2.0 (2.07-2.00)
No. of observed reflections	162,333	106,555
No. of unique reflections	20,912 (1,921)	15,387 (1,309)
$\langle I/\sigma \rangle$ ^a	18.3 (4.65)	10.8 (2.6)
Rsym ^{a,b}	0.050 (0.378)	0.091 (0.338)
Overall completeness (%) ^a	99.0 (93.5)	98.5 (86.7)
Refinement		
R / R _{free} ^c	0.199 / 0.231	0.182 / 0.232
rms deviations, bond lengths (Å)/angles (°)	0.013 / 1.3	0.014 / 1.4
Average B-factor (Å ²), main-chain/side chain/water/lead	30.6 / 33.4 / 46.2 / -	23.0 / 25.4 / 35.2 / 31.5
Side-chains with multiple conformations	1 (Y82A)	2 (Y82A, E50B)
Protein atoms	1327	1327
Water molecules with occupancy 1.0 or 0.5	203/ 2	224/ 5
Pb ions	-	2
Ramachandran region population (%) for non-glycine, non-proline residues		
Most favoured regions	94.2	92.1
Additionally allowed regions	5.8	7.9
Generously allowed regions	0	0
Forbidden regions	0	0

^a Values in parentheses correspond to the highest resolution shell.

^b $R_{sym} = \sum |I_j - \langle I \rangle| / \sum \langle I \rangle$, where I_j is the intensity for reflection j , and I is the mean intensity.

^c $R = || Fo| - |Fc|| / |Fc|$, calculated with the working set. R_{free} is similarly calculated but with 5% of the data excluded from the calculation of R.

Table 2: NMR spectroscopic statistics for RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵

Summary of restraints	
Unambiguous (ambiguous) distance restraints assigned/used by ARIA	2113 (597)
Average number of unambiguous distance restraints per residue	22.0
Dihedral restraints $\phi/ \psi/ \chi_1$	67/ 67/ 25
Hydrogen bond restraints	15
Deviation from restraints	
Averaged rmsd from distance restraints (Å)	0.026 ± 0.0006
rmsd from experimental torsion angle restraints (deg.)	0.93 ± 0.084
Number of distance restraint violations > 0.5 Å	0 ± 0
Number of torsion angle restraint violations > 0.5°	1.4 ± 0.685
Average rms deviations from idealized covalent geometry	
Bonds (Å)	0.0046 ± 0.0001
Angles (deg.)	0.589 ± 0.018
Impropers (deg.)	2.011 ± 0.17
Atomic rms deviations versus average structure (Å)	
Heavy atoms of core residues ^a	0.538 ± 0.065
Backbone atom of core residues ^a	0.20 ± 0.027
Heavy atoms all residues	1.85 ± 0.23
Backbone atoms all residues	1.57 ± 0.33
Ramachandran region population (%) for non-glycine, non-proline residues	
Most favoured regions	72.4
Additionally allowed regions	24.6
Generously allowed regions	1.7
Forbidden regions	1.2

^aCore residues (13-21, 26-30, 37-43, 70-77, 86-88) were used to superimpose the structure ensemble.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Tertiary structure of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵. a) A backbone representation of the crystal structure of the Pb-derivative of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ showing a superimposition of monomers A (yellow) and B (green) from the asymmetric unit. b) A backbone representation of the ensemble of 10 NMR-derived structures of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵, superimposed on monomer A (yellow) from the crystal structure. The secondary structure of the ensemble is highlighted with β -strands in red and helices in blue. c) A cartoon representation, using chain A, of the secondary structure of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵. The β -strands (arrows) are named consecutively β 1 to β 5, while the intervening loops are L₁₂ through L₄₅. As drawn, the RNA binding interface lies on the back of the molecule and the dimerization interface in front. d) The amides of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ showing enhanced mobility on a sub-ns timescale, as evident by reduced ¹H{¹⁵N}-NOE values, are highlighted in colour on the backbone representation of the ensemble of NMR-derived structures. Residues with ¹H{¹⁵N}-NOE values < 0.2 (highest mobility) are shown in red, between 0.2 and 0.4 in orange, between 0.4 and 0.6 in yellow, and over 0.6 in grey. Prolines or residues where no data are available (e.g. due to spectral overlap) are identified in light blue.

Figure 2. The termini and loop regions of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ exhibit conformational mobility as evident by both X-ray crystallography and NMR spectroscopy. a) The main-chain (C ^{α} , C', N) B-factors for monomers A and B in the crystal structure of Pb-derivative are plotted versus residue number. b) The C ^{α} rms deviations between chains A and B in the X-ray crystallographically-determined structure of the Pb-derivative are plotted versus residue number, along with the main-chain (C ^{α} , C', N) rms deviations between members of the NMR-derived ensemble and the average solution structure of this protein. c) The backbone heteronuclear ¹H{¹⁵N}-NOE relaxation values of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ acquired on a 600 MHz spectrometer at a protein concentration of 1.5 mM and 30 °C. A cartoon representation of the secondary structure of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ is shown on the top with β -strands as arrows and helices as cylinders.

Figure 3: Quaternary structure of the crystallographic dimer of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ presented as a ribbon diagram. a) An expanded view of side chains contributing to the dimerization interface with monomer A on the left

and B on the right. As shown by the top (b) and side (c) views of the dimer, amides experiencing significant ^1H - ^{15}N chemical shift perturbations upon changing the protein concentration from 0.1 to 1.2 mM (see Figure 6) map to this interface (green, $\Delta\delta > 10$ Hz; yellow, $7 \text{ Hz} < \Delta\delta < 10 \text{ Hz}$). The nucleic acid binding interface lie along the shallow groove opposite to the dimerization interface (see Figure 6).

Figure 4: The S1 domain from RNase E, but not PNPase, can form a glutaraldehyde-crosslinked homodimer. Samples (45 μM) of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ and the PNPase S1 domain (residues 617-700) were with 0.01% glutaraldehyde, separated on a 15% SDS-PAGE gel, and stained with Coomassie blue. Lanes 1 and 5 contain standard molecular weight markers; lanes 2 - 4, the S1 domains without glutaraldehyde; and lanes 6 - 8, the same proteins treated with glutaraldehyde. Lanes 2 and 6 contain RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵; lanes 3 and 7 contain the PNPase S1 domain; and lanes 4 and 8 contain a 1:1 mixture of these two S1 domains. The arrow (\leftarrow) in the right margin denotes the position of the putative RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ homodimer.

Figure 5: Identifying the dimerization and oligonucleotide-binding interfaces of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ from amide chemical shift perturbations. a) RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ exists in an equilibrium between monomer and dimer in solution. Portions of twelve ^1H - ^{15}N HSQC spectra of uniformly ^{15}N -labeled protein at concentrations of 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9, 1.0, 1.1 and 1.2 mM are overlaid. The arrows indicate the directions in which the ^1H - ^{15}N peaks shift with increasing protein concentration. b) NMR titration of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ with the ssDNA 10-mer 5'-d(ACAGTATTTG)-3'. Portions of ten ^1H - ^{15}N HSQC spectra of uniformly ^{15}N -labeled protein at an initial concentration of 0.3 mM in the presence of 0, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1.0, 1.1, 1.5, 2.0 and 3.0 equivalents of DNA are overlaid. The arrows indicate the directions in which the ^1H - ^{15}N peaks shift with added DNA. c) A histogram of the amide ^1H - ^{15}N chemical shift changes ($\Delta\delta = (\Delta\delta_{\text{N}}^2 + \Delta\delta_{\text{HN}}^2)^{0.5}$) of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ accompanying the concentration of the protein from 0.1 to 1.2 mM is shown, along with a cartoon representation of the secondary structure of this protein. d) A histogram of the amide ^1H - ^{15}N chemical shift changes RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ resulting from the addition of 3 equivalents of ssDNA. These data are mapped on the tertiary structure of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ in Figure 6.

Figure 6: The oligonucleotide-binding site of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ was identified by NMR chemical shift perturbation mapping. a) The positions of amides experiencing significant ¹H-¹⁵N chemical shift changes upon titration with 5'-d(ACAGTATTTG)-3' are mapped on the crystal structure of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ (green, $\Delta\delta > 30$ Hz; yellow, $15 \text{ Hz} < \Delta\delta < 30 \text{ Hz}$; see Figure 5d). The exposed side chains along this binding site are shown in magenta. b) A surface representation of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵, in the same orientation as in (a), is shown with regions of positive and negative electrostatic potential color coded in blue and red, respectively.

Figure 7. Sequence analyses of residues crucial for the OB-fold and the dimerization and oligonucleotide-binding interfaces of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵. a) Alignments based on sequence (ClustalW)⁶⁵ and three-dimensional structure comparisons (DALI)²⁸ of a subset of cold-shock DNA-binding family OB-fold proteins, including: RNase E, RNase G and PNPase of *E. coli*; major cold shock proteins CspA, CspB, CspC, and CspE of *E. coli*; cold shock domain of the Y-Box protein YB-1 of *Homo sapiens*; NusA of *Thermotoga maritima*; archaeal RNA polymerase II RPB4/RPB7 complex of *Methanococcus jannaschii*; initiation translation factor IF-5a of *Pyrobaculum aerophilum*; ribosomal protein L2 of *Pyrobaculum aerophilum*; and the ribosomal protein S17 of *Haloarcula marismortni*. Nonconserved insertions are indicated by an X. Numbers at the top correspond to amino acid residues in *E. coli* RNase E, and those to the right indicate the actual range for each sequence. Residues highlighted in black, dark grey and light grey are similar in over 90%, in 60-90%, and in 40-60% of the proteins, respectively. The secondary structure of RNase E is indicated on the top. G66 and L68 are marked by black triangles. Hydrophobic residues crucial for the OB-fold according to Theobald et al.¹¹ are indicated at the bottom by orange letters T, M or B, which correspond to the top, middle and bottom part of the hydrophobic core, respectively. Additional residues that extend the hydrophobic core in RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ are highlighted (purple asterisk). The characteristic type II β -turn preceding strand β 4 is indicated (green #). Residues which are part of the dimerization interface in the crystallographic dimer of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ are indicated by D, and exposed residues on the RNA/DNA binding interface of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ by N. The red and blue lines indicate residues in RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ whose ¹H-¹⁵N chemical shifts change together more than 10 Hz or 30 Hz upon dimerization or DNA binding, respectively. Note the variable length of loop L₃₄. b) Ribbon diagram of the crystal structure (monomer A) of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ with hydrophobic side chains crucial for the OB-fold according to Theobald et al.¹¹ shown in

orange. Additional residues that extend the hydrophobic core in RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ are highlighted in purple. These residues are conserved in a subset of OB-fold proteins including major cold shock proteins and some S1 domains. A characteristic feature for this subset of S1 domains is a type II β -turn before strand β 4 (indicated in green) that is formed by the sequence EGQ. The conserved Gly98 within this turn is marked by #. The positions of the temperature-sensitive mutations L68F and G66S are also marked.

Figure 8. Models of the quaternary structure of an RNase tetramer incorporating the dimeric association of S1 domains. Each RNase E monomer is drawn with an N-terminal S1 domain, represented by a barrel, and the remaining fraction of the protein, including the catalytic domain, represented by an oval. In model (a), this latter fraction forms the core of the tetramer, whereas in model (b), this role is played by a hypothetical dimer of S1 domain dimers. The S1 domain RNA-binding sites are indicated in light grey along the sides of the barrels.

References

1. Coburn, G. A. & Mackie, G. A. (1999). Degradation of mRNA in *Escherichia coli*: an old problem with some new twists. *Prog. Nucleic Acid Res. Mol. Biol.* **62**, 55-108.
2. Steege, D. A. (2000). Emerging features of mRNA decay in bacteria. *RNA* **6**, 1079-90.
3. Regnier, P. & Arraiano, C. M. (2000). Degradation of mRNA in bacteria: emergence of ubiquitous features. *Bioessays* **22**, 235-44.
4. McDowall, K. J., Lin-Chao, S. & Cohen, S. N. (1994). A+U content rather than a particular nucleotide order determines the specificity of RNase E cleavage. *J. Biol. Chem.* **269**, 10790-6.
5. McDowall, K. J. & Cohen, S. N. (1996). The N-terminal domain of the rne gene product has RNase E activity and is non-overlapping with the arginine-rich RNA-binding site. *J. Mol. Biol.* **255**, 349-55.
6. Ow, M. C. & Kushner, S. R. (2002). Initiation of tRNA maturation by RNase E is essential for cell viability in *E. coli*. *Genes Dev.* **16**, 1102-15.
7. Vanzo, N. F., Li, Y. S., Py, B., Blum, E., Higgins, C. F., Raynal, L. C., Krisch, H. M. & Carpousis, A. J. (1998). Ribonuclease E organizes the protein interactions in the *Escherichia coli* RNA degradosome. *Genes Dev.* **12**, 2770-81.
8. Bycroft, M., Hubbard, T. J., Proctor, M., Freund, S. M. & Murzin, A. G. (1997). The solution structure of the S1 RNA binding domain: a member of an ancient nucleic acid-binding fold. *Cell* **88**, 235-42.
9. Murzin, A. G. (1993). OB(oligonucleotide/oligosaccharide binding)-fold: common structural and functional solution for non-homologous sequences. *EMBO J.* **12**, 861-7.
10. Arcus, V. (2002). OB-fold domains: a snapshot of the evolution of sequence, structure and function. *Curr. Opin. Struct. Biol.* **12**, 794-801.
11. Theobald, D. L., Mitton-Fry, R. M. & Wuttke, D. S. (2003). Nucleic acid recognition by OB-fold proteins. *Annu. Rev. Biophys. Biomol. Struct.* **32**, 115-33.
12. McDowall, K. J., Hernandez, R. G., Lin-Chao, S. & Cohen, S. N. (1993). The ams-1 and rne-3071 temperature-sensitive mutations in the ams gene are in close proximity to each other and cause substitutions within a domain that resembles a product of the *Escherichia coli* mre locus. *J. Bacteriol.* **175**, 4245-9.
13. Diwa, A. A., Jiang, X., Schapira, M. & Belasco, J. G. (2002). Two distinct regions on the surface of an RNA-binding domain are crucial for RNase E function. *Mol. Microbiol.* **46**, 959-69.
14. Callaghan, A. J., Grossmann, J. G., Redko, Y. U., Ilag, L. L., Moncrieffe, M. C., Symmons, M. F., Robinson, C. V., McDowall, K. J. & Luisi, B. F. (2003). Quaternary structure and catalytic activity of the *Escherichia coli* Ribonuclease E amino-terminal catalytic domain. *Biochemistry* **42**, 13848-13855.
15. Letunic, I., Goodstadt, L., Dickens, N. J., Doerks, T., Schultz, J., Mott, R., Ciccarelli, F., Copley, R. R., Ponting, C. P. & Bork, P. (2002). Recent improvements to the SMART domain-based sequence annotation resource. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **30**, 242-4.
16. Schubert, M., Smalla, M., Schmieder, P. & Oschkinat, H. (1999). MUSIC in triple-resonance experiments: amino acid type-selective ^1H - ^{15}N correlations. *J. Magn. Reson.* **141**, 34-43.
17. Schubert, M., Oschkinat, H. & Schmieder, P. (2001). MUSIC, selective pulses, and tuned delays: amino acid type-selective ^1H - ^{15}N correlations, II. *J. Magn. Reson.* **148**, 61-72.
18. Linge, J. P., O'Donoghue, S. I. & Nilges, M. (2001). Automated assignment of ambiguous nuclear Overhauser effects with ARIA. *Methods Enzymol.* **339**, 71-90.
19. Cornilescu, G., Delaglio, F. & Bax, A. (1999). Protein backbone angle restraints from searching a database for chemical shift and sequence homology. *J. Biomol. NMR* **13**, 289-302.
20. Chen, Y. W. (2001). Solution solution: using NMR models for molecular replacement. *Acta Cryst. D* **57**, 1457-61.
21. Bahadur, R. P., Chakrabarti, P., Rodier, F. & Janin, J. (2003). Dissecting subunit interfaces in homodimeric proteins. *Proteins* **53**, 708-19.
22. Wagner, G. (1997). An account of NMR in structural biology. *Nat. Struct. Biol.* **4** Suppl., 841-4.
23. Schurr, J. M., Babcock, H. P. & Fujimoto, B. S. (1994). A test of the model-free formulas. Effects of anisotropic rotational diffusion and dimerization. *J. Magn. Reson. B* **105**, 211-24.
24. Feng, W., Tejero, R., Zimmerman, D. E., Inouye, M. & Montelione, G. T. (1998). Solution NMR structure and backbone dynamics of the major cold-shock protein (CspA) from *Escherichia coli*: evidence for conformational dynamics in the single-stranded RNA-binding site. *Biochemistry* **37**, 10881-96.

25. Coburn, G. A., Miao, X., Briant, D. J. & Mackie, G. A. (1999). Reconstitution of a minimal RNA degradosome demonstrates functional coordination between a 3' exonuclease and a DEAD-box RNA helicase. *Genes Dev.* **13**, 2594-603.
26. Spickler, C. & Mackie, G. A. (2000). Action of RNase II and polynucleotide phosphorylase against RNAs containing stem-loops of defined structure. *J. Bacteriol.* **182**, 2422-7.
27. McDowall, K. J., Kaberdin, V. R., Wu, S. W., Cohen, S. N. & Lin-Chao, S. (1995). Site-specific RNase E cleavage of oligonucleotides and inhibition by stem-loops. *Nature* **374**, 287-90.
28. Holm, L. & Sander, C. (1995). Dali - a network tool for protein-structure comparison. *Trends Biochem. Sci.* **20**, 478-480.
29. Murzin, A. G., Brenner, S. E., Hubbard, T. & Chothia, C. (1995). SCOP: a structural classification of proteins database for the investigation of sequences and structures. *J. Mol. Biol.* **247**, 536-40.
30. Kloks, C. P., Spronk, C. A., Lasonder, E., Hoffmann, A., Vuister, G. W., Grzesiek, S. & Hilbers, C. W. (2002). The solution structure and DNA-binding properties of the cold-shock domain of the human Y-box protein YB-1. *J. Mol. Biol.* **316**, 317-26.
31. Schindelin, H., Jiang, W., Inouye, M. & Heinemann, U. (1994). Crystal structure of CspA, the major cold shock protein of *Escherichia coli*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **91**, 5119-23.
32. Schnuchel, A., Wiltschek, R., Czisch, M., Herrler, M., Willimsky, G., Graumann, P., Marahiel, M. A. & Holak, T. A. (1993). Structure in solution of the major cold-shock protein from *Bacillus subtilis*. *Nature* **364**, 169-71.
33. Schindelin, H., Marahiel, M. A. & Heinemann, U. (1993). Universal nucleic acid-binding domain revealed by crystal structure of the *B. subtilis* major cold-shock protein. *Nature* **364**, 164-8.
34. Makhatadze, G. I. & Marahiel, M. A. (1994). Effect of pH and phosphate ions on self-association properties of the major cold-shock protein from *Bacillus subtilis*. *Protein Sci.* **3**, 2144-7.
35. Condon, C. & Putzer, H. (2002). The phylogenetic distribution of bacterial ribonucleases. *Nucleic Acids Res* **30**, 5339-46.
36. Phadtare, S. & Inouye, M. (1999). Sequence-selective interactions with RNA by CspB, CspC and CspE, members of the CspA family of *Escherichia coli*. *Mol. Microbiol.* **33**, 1004-14.
37. Briant, D. J., Hankins, J. S., Cook, M. A. & Mackie, G. A. (2003). The quaternary structure of RNase G from *Escherichia coli*. *Mol. Microbiol.* **50**, 1381-90.
38. Otwinowski, Z. & Minor, W. (1997). Processing of X-ray diffraction data collected in oscillation mode. *Macromol. Cryst. A* **276**, 307-326.
39. Terwilliger, T. C. & Berendzen, J. (1999). Automated MAD and MIR structure solution. *Acta Cryst. D* **55**, 849-61.
40. Terwilliger, T. C. (2000). Maximum-likelihood density modification. *Acta Cryst. D* **56**, 965-72.
41. McRee, D. E. (1999). XtalView/Xfit--A versatile program for manipulating atomic coordinates and electron density. *J. Struct. Biol.* **125**, 156-65.
42. Murshudov, G. N., Vagin, A. A. & Dodson, E. J. (1997). Refinement of macromolecular structures by the maximum-likelihood method. *Acta Cryst. D* **53**, 240-255.
43. Delaglio, F., Grzesiek, S., Vuister, G. W., Zhu, G., Pfeifer, J. & Bax, A. (1995). NMRPipe: a multidimensional spectral processing system based on UNIX pipes. *J. Biomol. NMR* **6**, 277-93.
44. Goddard, T. D., Kneeler, D. G. (1999). Sparky 3, University of California 3 edit., San Francisco.
45. Wishart, D. S., Bigam, C. G., Yao, J., Abildgaard, F., Dyson, H. J., Oldfield, E., Markley, J. L. & Sykes, B. D. (1995). ¹H, ¹³C and ¹⁵N chemical shift referencing in biomolecular NMR. *J. Biomol. NMR* **6**, 135-40.
46. Johnson, P. E., Joshi, M. D., Tomme, P., Kilburn, D. G. & McIntosh, L. P. (1996). Structure of the N-terminal cellulose-binding domain of *Cellulomonas fimi* CenC determined by nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy. *Biochemistry* **35**, 14381-94.
47. Kanelis, V., Donaldson, L., Muhandiram, D. R., Rotin, D., Forman-Kay, J. D. & Kay, L. E. (2000). Sequential assignment of proline-rich regions in proteins: application to modular binding domain complexes. *J. Biomol. NMR* **16**, 253-9.
48. Yamazaki, T., Forman-Kay, J. D. & Kay, L. E. (1993). Two-Dimensional NMR experiments for correlating ¹³Cβ and ¹Hδ/ε chemical shifts of aromatic residues in ¹³C-labeled proteins via scalar couplings. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **115**, 11054-11055.
49. Slupsky, C. M., Gentile, L. N. & McIntosh, L. P. (1998). Assigning the NMR spectra of aromatic amino acids in proteins: analysis of two Ets pointed domains. *Biochem. Cell. Biol.* **76**, 379-390.

50. Pelton, J. G., Torchia, D. A., Meadow, N. D. & Roseman, S. (1993). Tautomeric states of the active-site histidines of phosphorylated and unphosphorylated IIIIGlc, a signal-transducing protein from *Escherichia Coli*, using two-dimensional heteronuclear NMR techniques. *Protein Sci.* **2**, 543-558.
51. McIntosh, L. P., Brun, E. & Kay, L. E. (1997). Stereospecific assignment of the NH₂ resonances from the primary amides of asparagine and glutamine side chains in isotopically labeled proteins. *J. Biomol. NMR* **9**, 306-312.
52. Zwahlen, C., Gardner, K. H., Sarma, S. P., Horita, D. A., Byrd, R. A. & Kay, L. E. (1998). An NMR experiment for measuring methyl-methyl NOEs in ¹³C-labeled proteins with high resolution. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **120**, 7617-7625.
53. Schubert, M., Labudde, D., Oschkinat, H. & Schmieder, P. (2002). A software tool for the prediction of Xaa-Pro peptide bond conformations in proteins based on ¹³C chemical shift statistics. *J. Biomol. NMR* **24**, 149-54.
54. Farrow, N. A., Muhandiram, R., Singer, A. U., Pascal, S. M., Kay, C. M., Gish, G., Shoelson, S. E., Pawson, T., Forman-Kay, J. D. & Kay, L. E. (1994). Backbone dynamics of a free and phosphopeptide-complexed Src homology 2 domain studied by 15N NMR relaxation. *Biochemistry* **33**, 5984-6003.
55. Dosset, P., Hus, J. C., Blackledge, M. & Marion, D. (2000). Efficient analysis of macromolecular rotational diffusion from heteronuclear relaxation data. *J. Biomol. NMR* **16**, 23-8.
56. Hooft, R. W., Vriend, G., Sander, C. & Abola, E. E. (1996). Errors in protein structures. *Nature* **381**, 272.
57. Willard, L., Ranjan, A., Zhang, H., Monzavi, H., Boyko, R. F., Sykes, B. D. & Wishart, D. S. (2003). VADAR: a web server for quantitative evaluation of protein structure quality. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **31**, 3316-9.
58. Laskowski, R. A., Macarthur, M. W., Moss, D. S. & Thornton, J. M. (1993). Procheck - a program to check the stereochemical quality of protein structures. *J. Appl. Cryst.* **26**, 283-291.
59. Laskowski, R. A., Rullmann, J. A., MacArthur, M. W., Kaptein, R. & Thornton, J. M. (1996). AQUA and PROCHECK-NMR: programs for checking the quality of protein structures solved by NMR. *J. Biomol. NMR* **8**, 477-86.
60. Hutchinson, E. G. & Thornton, J. M. (1996). PROMOTIF--a program to identify and analyze structural motifs in proteins. *Protein Sci.* **5**, 212-20.
61. Bailey, S. (1994). The CCP4 suite - programs for protein crystallography. *Acta Cryst. D* **50**, 760-763.
62. Koradi, R., Billeter, M. & Wuthrich, K. (1996). MOLMOL: a program for display and analysis of macromolecular structures. *J. Mol. Graph.* **14**, 51-5, 29-32.
63. Nicholls, A., Sharp, K. A. & Honig, B. (1991). Protein folding and association: insights from the interfacial and thermodynamic properties of hydrocarbons. *Proteins* **11**, 281-96.
64. Johnson, P. E., Tomme, P., Joshi, M. D. & McIntosh, L. P. (1996). Interaction of soluble cellooligosaccharides with the N-terminal cellulose-binding domain of *Cellulomonas fimi* CenC 2. NMR and ultraviolet absorption spectroscopy. *Biochemistry* **35**, 13895-906.
65. Thompson, J. D., Higgins, D. G. & Gibson, T. J. (1994). CLUSTAL W: improving the sensitivity of progressive multiple sequence alignment through sequence weighting, position-specific gap penalties and weight matrix choice. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **22**, 4673-80.

Supplementary Material

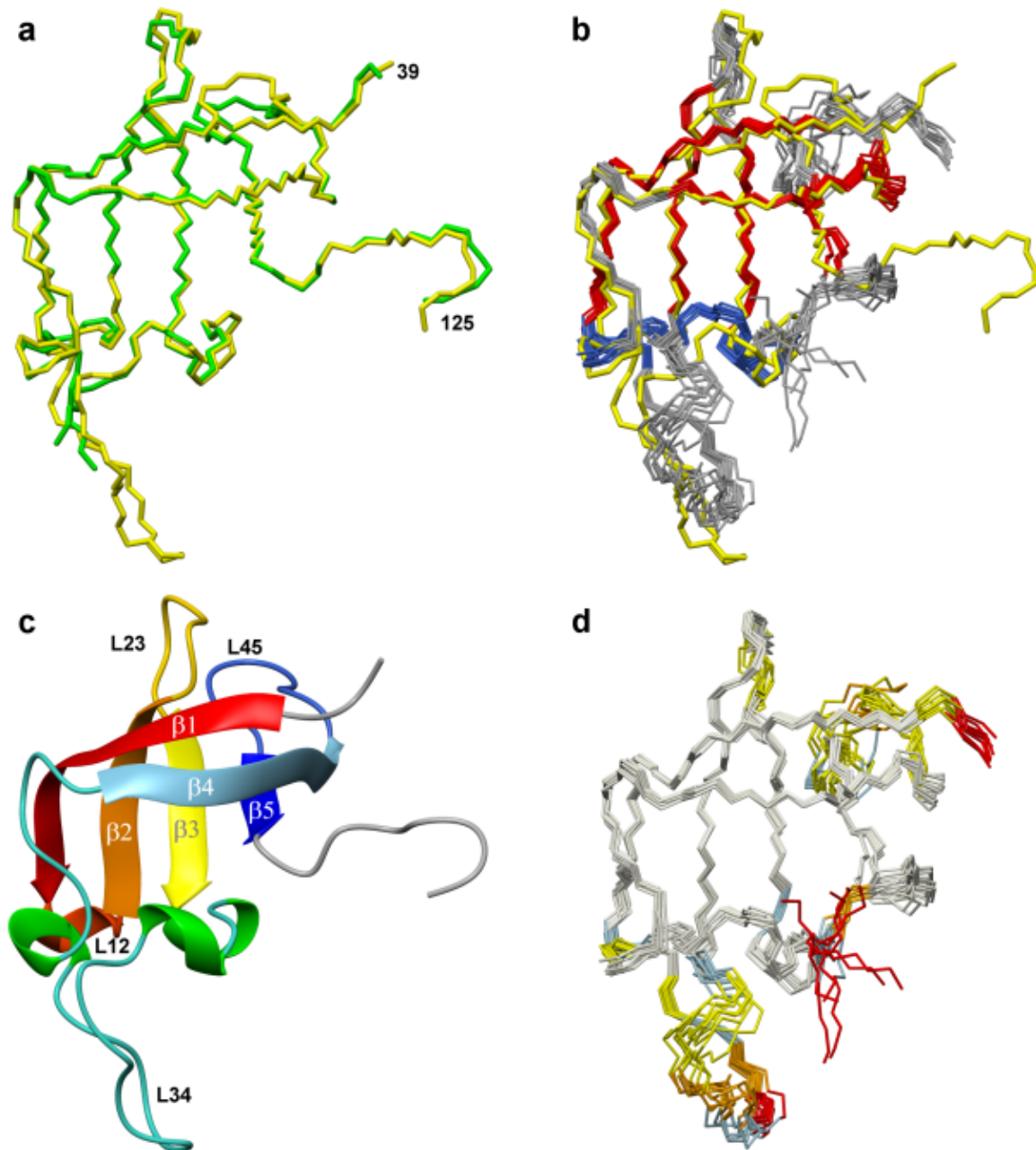
Supplementary Material for this paper, comprising 4 Figures illustrating the ^1H - ^{15}N HSQC spectra and CD-monitored thermal denaturation profiles of WT and G66S RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵, as well as the location of the nucleic acid binding sites within the protein dimer, is available on Science Direct.

Figure S1: The assigned ^1H - ^{15}N HSQC spectrum of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ (pH 6.5, 30 °C, 0.4 mM protein). The peaks from the Asn and Gln side chain $^{15}\text{NH}_2$ groups are connected by a horizontal line. Assignments of the crowded central region are given in the lower right corner (dashed box). The only signal detectable from the N-terminal GSHML sequence is that of the Leu (indicated by a '#'). The peaks from H65, H85, and G110 (+) are too weak to be seen at this contour level.

Figure S2: The thermal denaturation profiles of WT and G66S RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ in 20 mM phosphate buffer, pH 6.5, and 50 mM NaCl, monitored by CD spectropolarimetry. Circular dichroism spectra were measured as a function of increasing temperature (2 °C/minute) with 0.25 mg/ml samples of protein in 20 mM phosphate buffer, pH 6.5, and 50 mM NaCl, using a Jasco J-810 spectropolarimeter.

Figure S3: The ^1H - ^{15}N HSQC spectrum of G66S RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ indicates that the single amino acid substitution leads to protein unfolding at pH 6.5 and 30 °C.

Figure S4: The position of the oligonucleotide-binding site, color coded by chemical shift perturbations as in Figure 7A is shown in context of the quaternary structure of crystalline RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵. Two S1 domain mutants identified by Diwa et al. ¹³ that affect RNase E autoregulation, but not catalytic activity, include Y60 (indicated by an #), and K37 which lies in the disordered N-terminal region of this construct (indicated by an N).

**Fig 1**

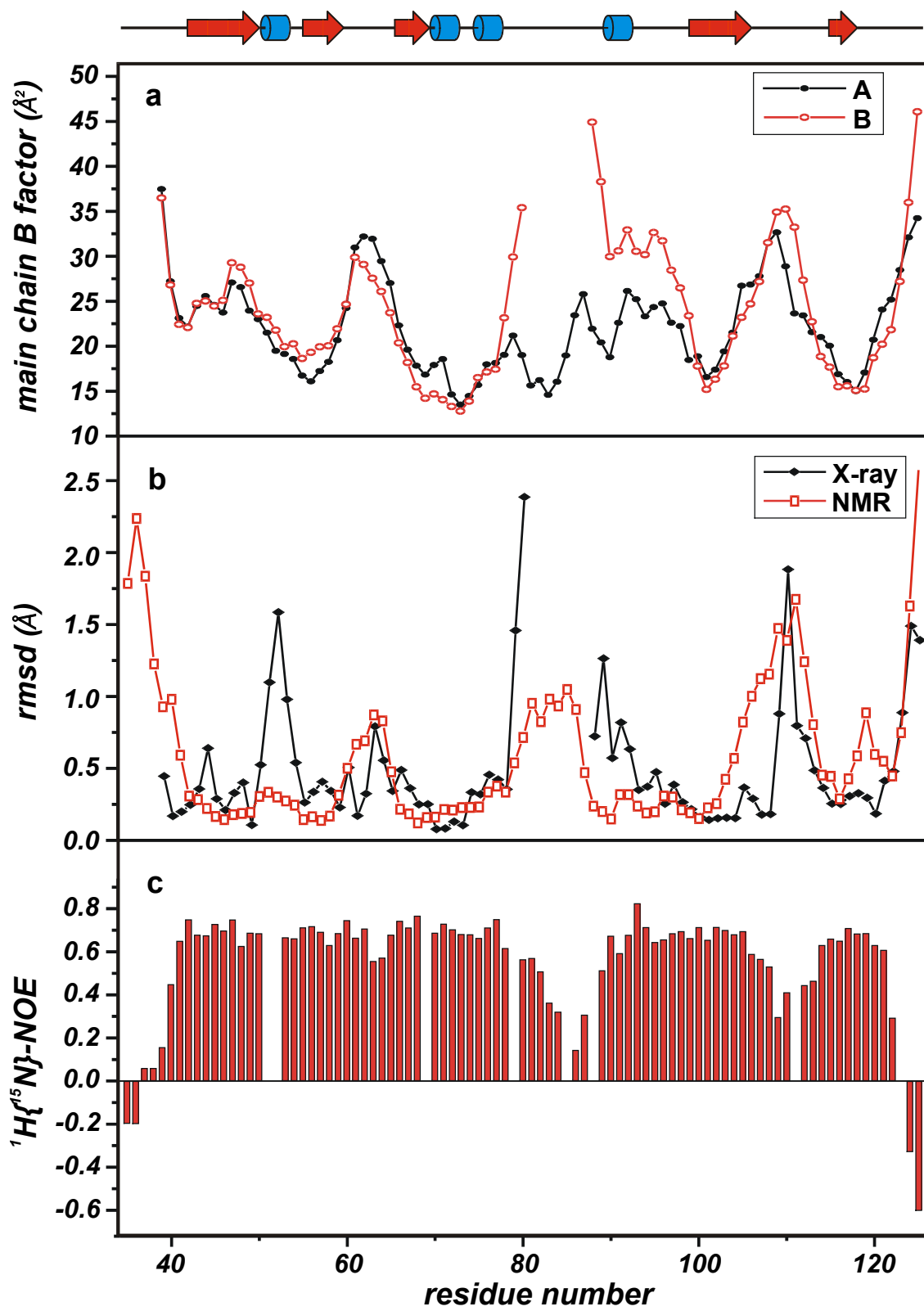
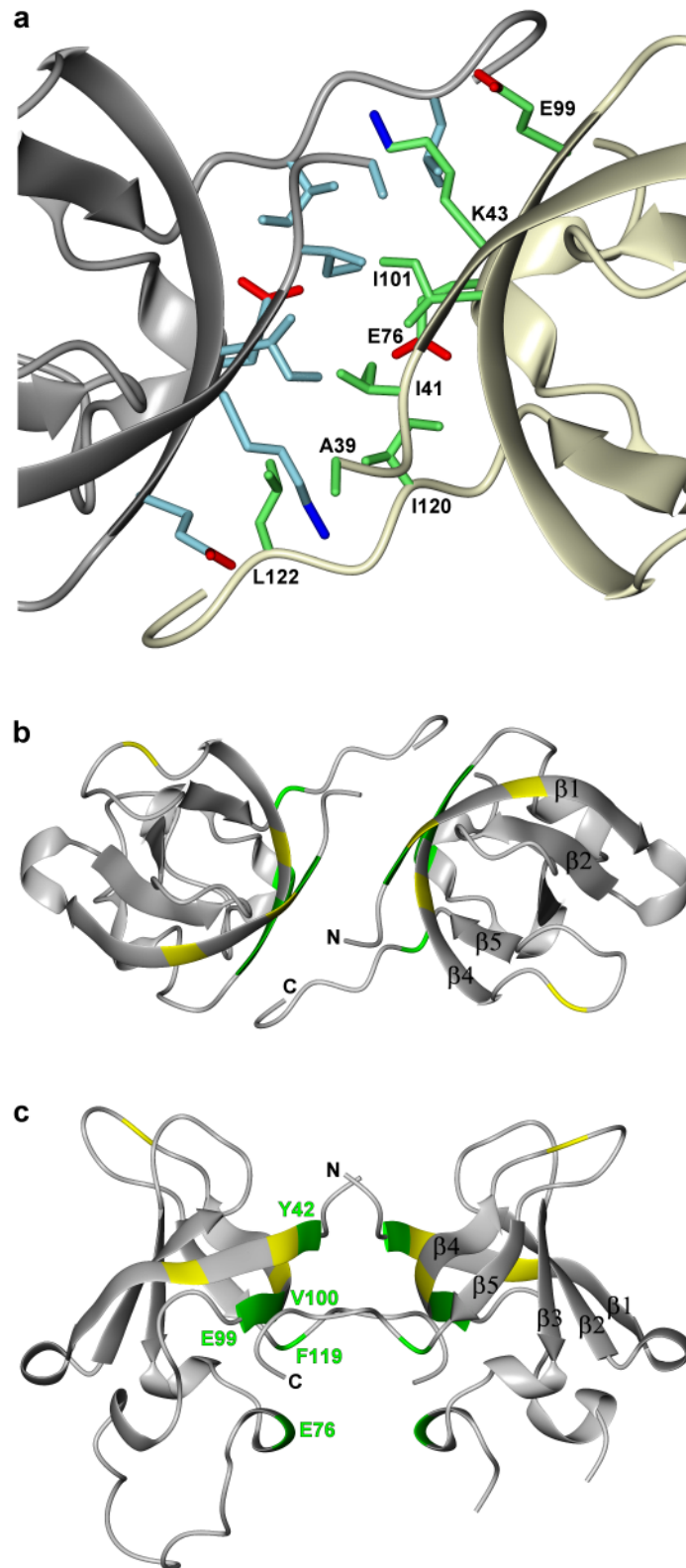


Fig 2

**Fig 3**

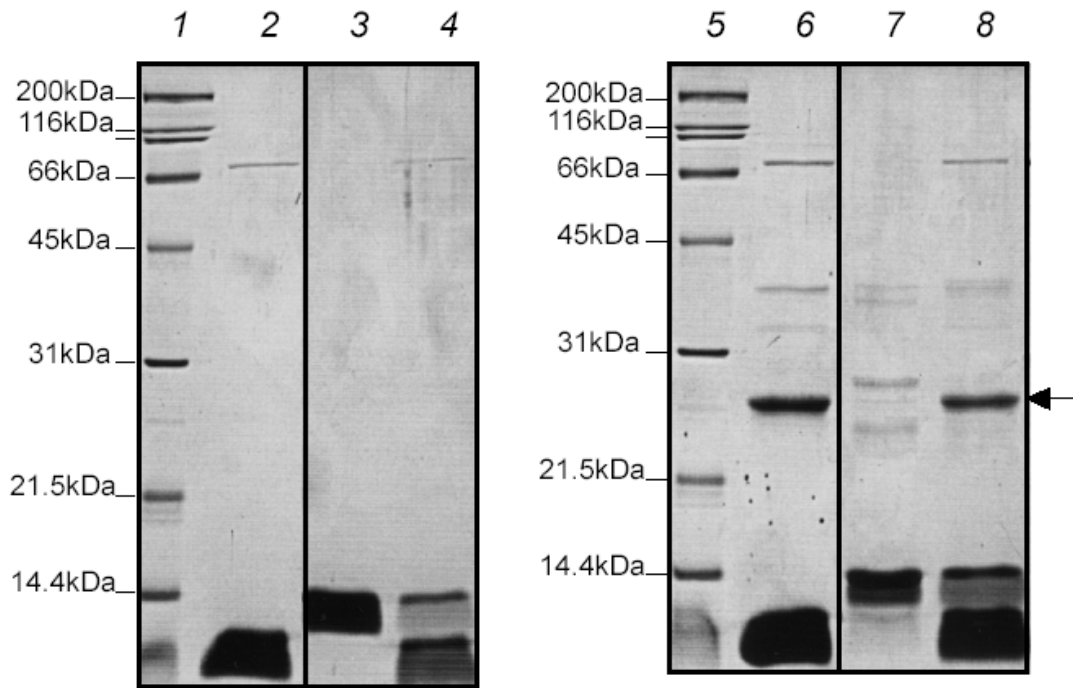
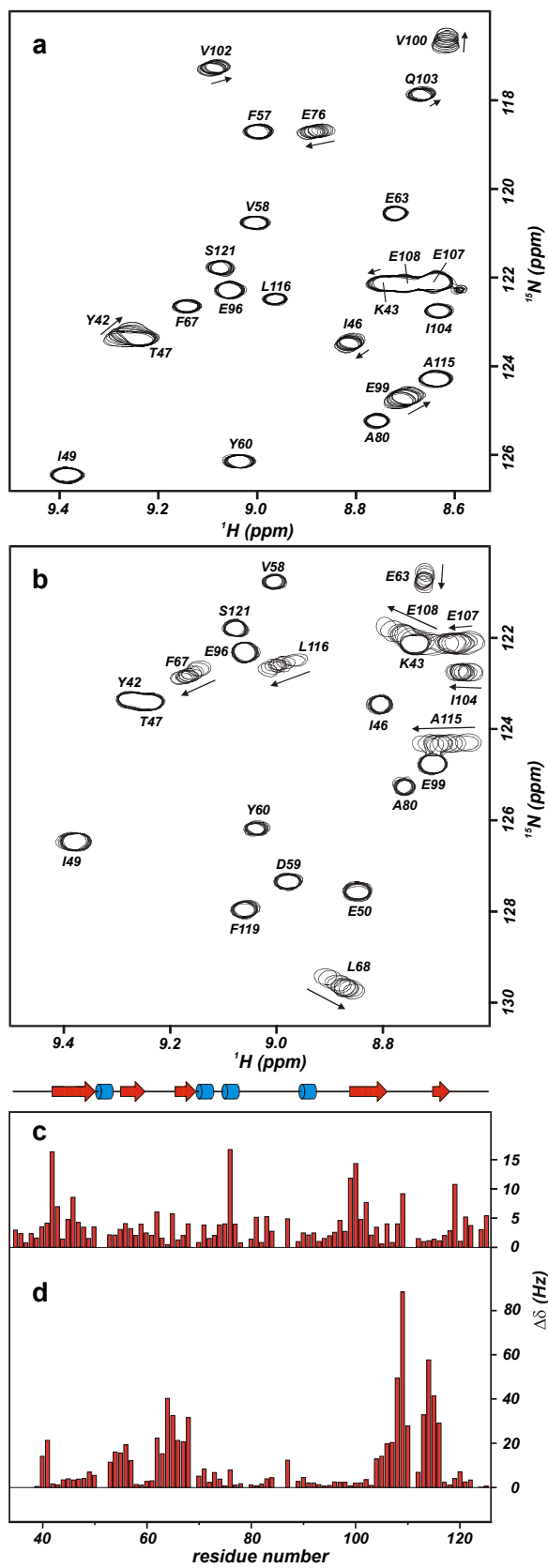
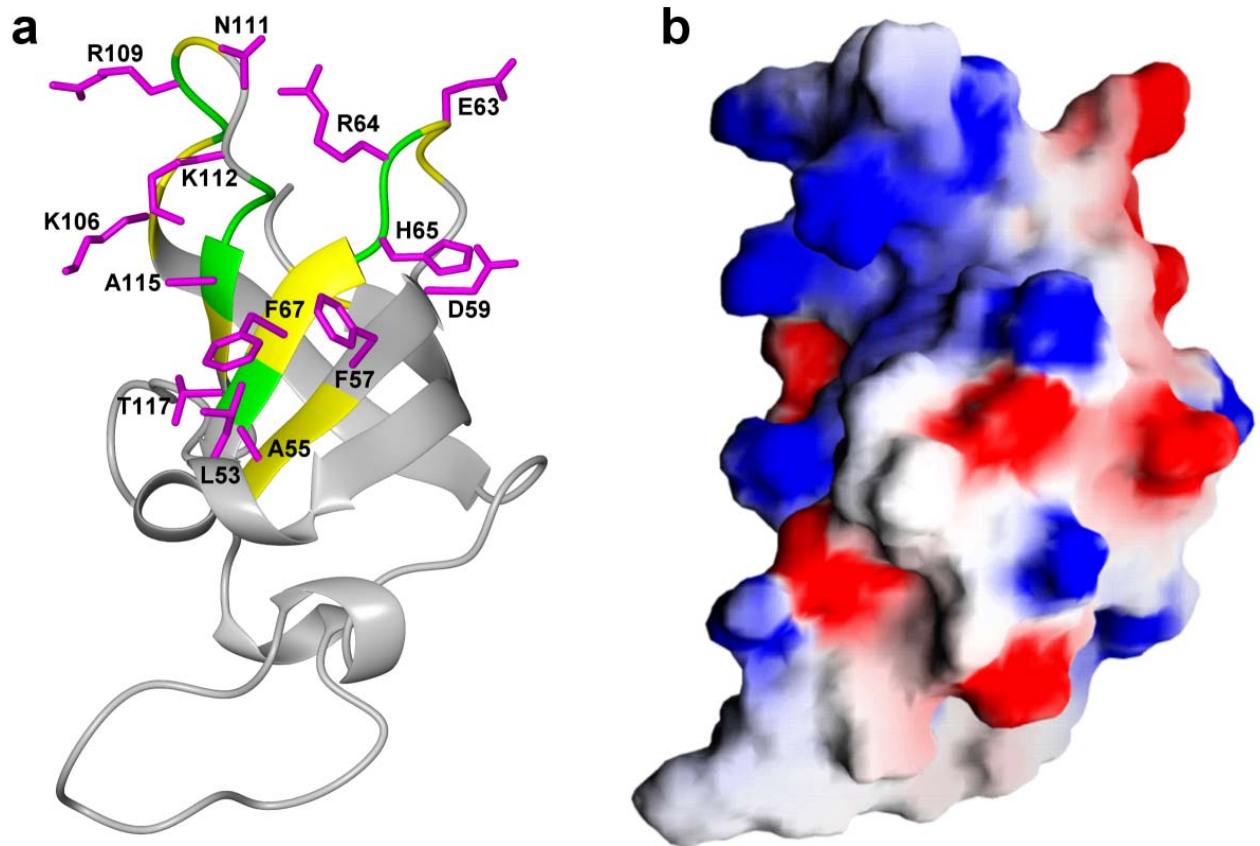


Fig 4



**Fig 6**

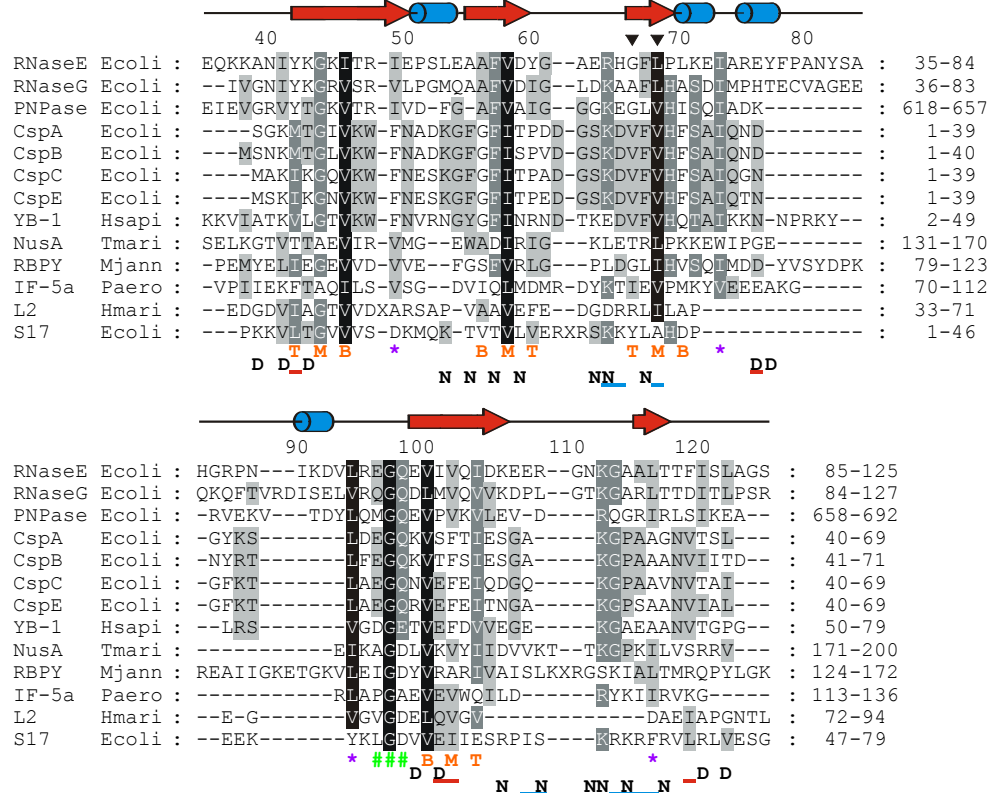


Fig 7a

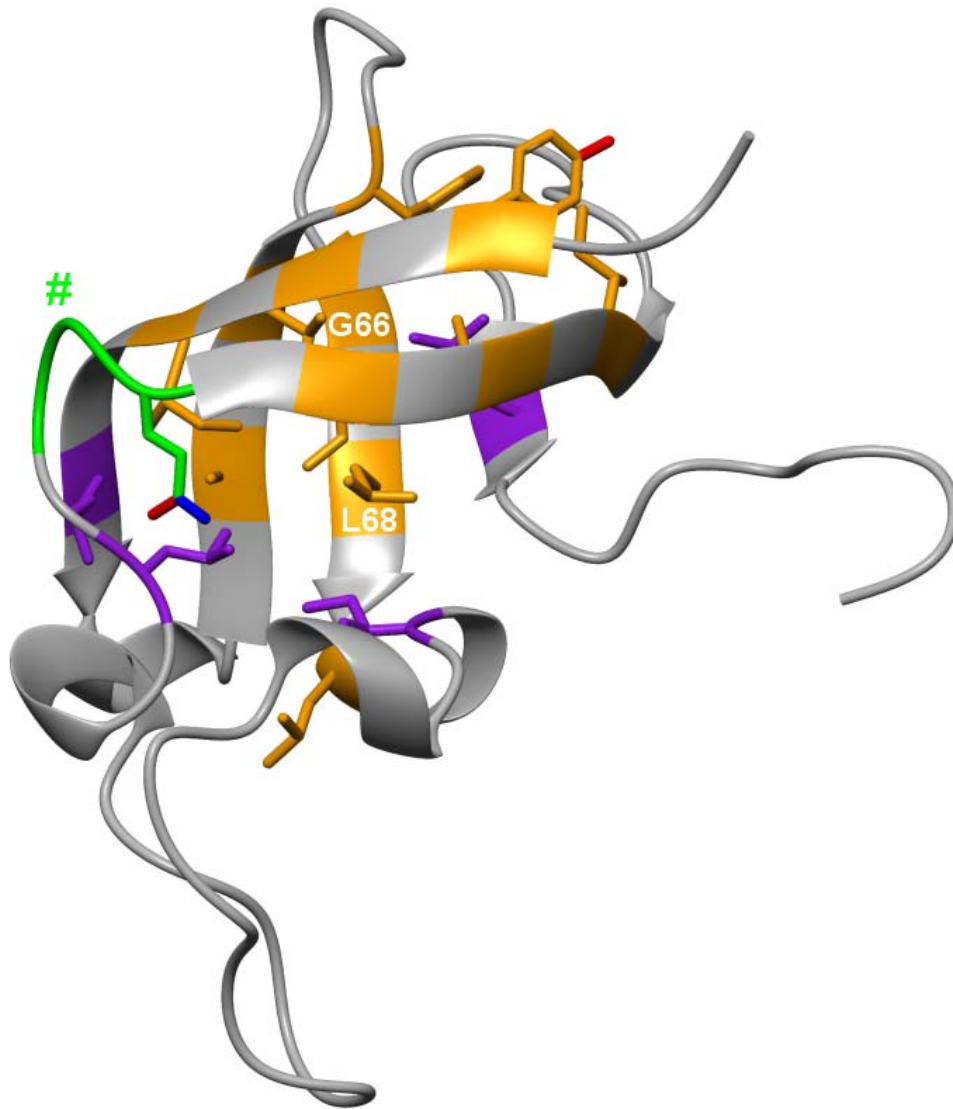


Fig 7b

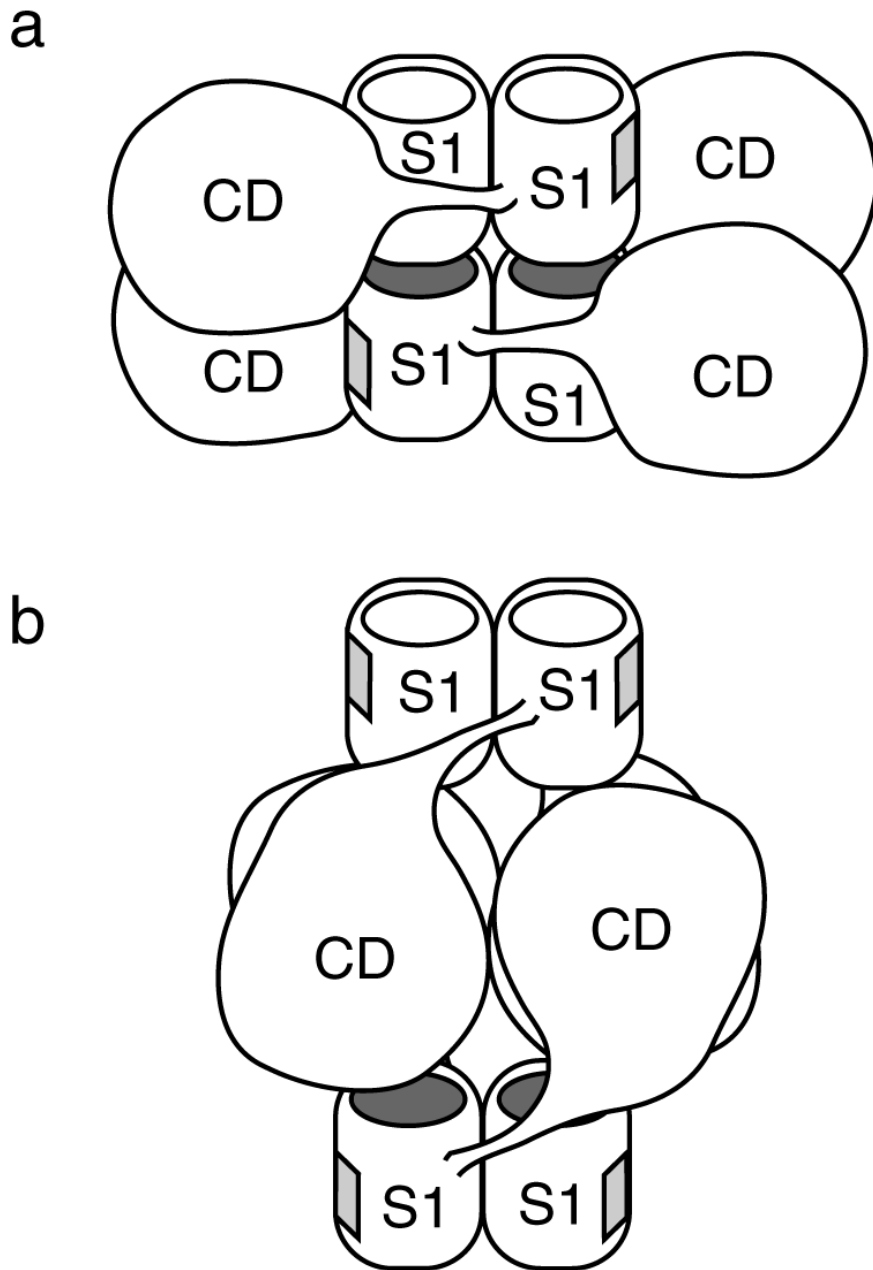


Fig 8

Supplementary Material

Structural Characterization of the RNase E S1 Domain and Identification of its Oligonucleotide-Binding and Dimerization Interfaces; Mario Schubert, Robert E. Edge, Paula Lario, Michael A. Cook, Natalie C.J. Strynadka, George A. Mackie, and Lawrence P. McIntosh

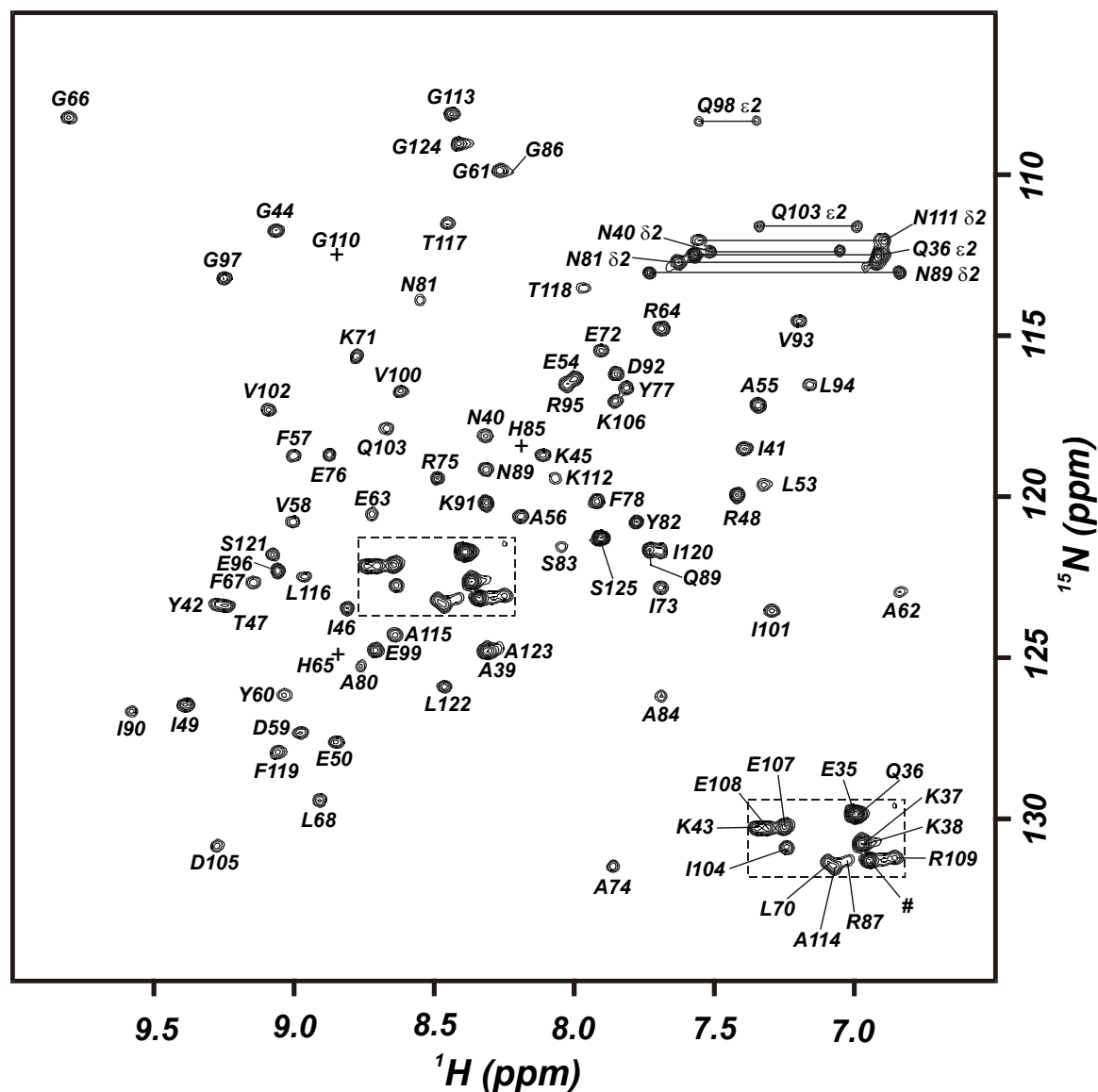


Figure S1: The assigned ^1H - ^{15}N HSQC spectrum of RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ (pH 6.5, 30 °C, 0.4 mM protein). The peaks from the Asn and Gln side chain $^{15}\text{NH}_2$ groups are connected by a horizontal line. Assignments of the crowded central region are given in the lower right corner (dashed box). The only signal detectable from the N-terminal GSHML sequence is that of the Leu (indicated by a '#'). The peaks from H65, H85, and G110 (+) are too weak to be seen at this contour level.

Supplementary Material

Structural Characterization of the RNase E S1 Domain and Identification of its Oligonucleotide-Binding and Dimerization Interfaces; Mario Schubert, Robert E. Edge, Paula Lario, Michael A. Cook, Natalie C.J. Strynadka, George A. Mackie, and Lawrence P. McIntosh

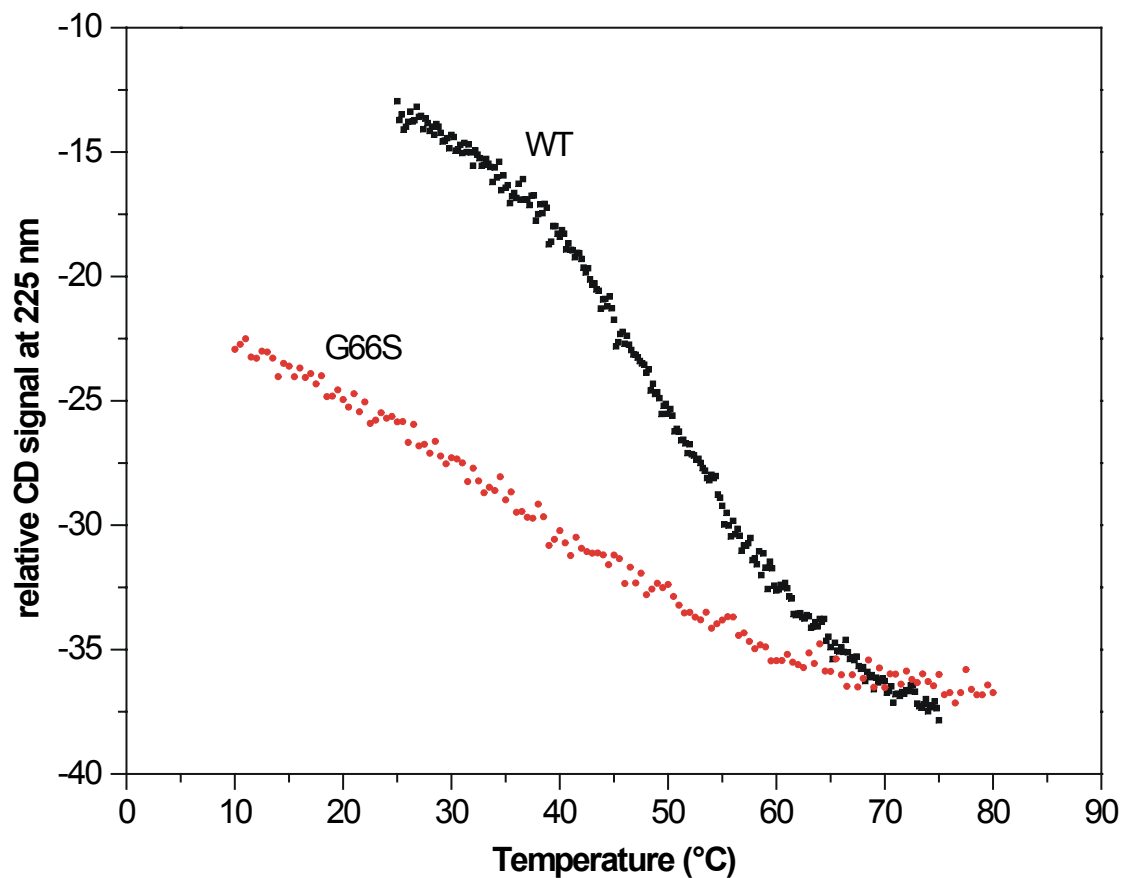


Figure S2: The thermal denaturation profiles of WT and G66S RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ in 20 mM phosphate buffer, pH 6.5, and 50 mM NaCl, monitored by CD spectropolarimetry (225 nm, 2 °C/min heating).

Supplementary Material

Structural Characterization of the RNase E S1 Domain and Identification of its Oligonucleotide-Binding and Dimerization Interfaces; Mario Schubert, Robert E. Edge, Paula Lario, Michael A. Cook, Natalie C.J. Strynadka, George A. Mackie, and Lawrence P. McIntosh

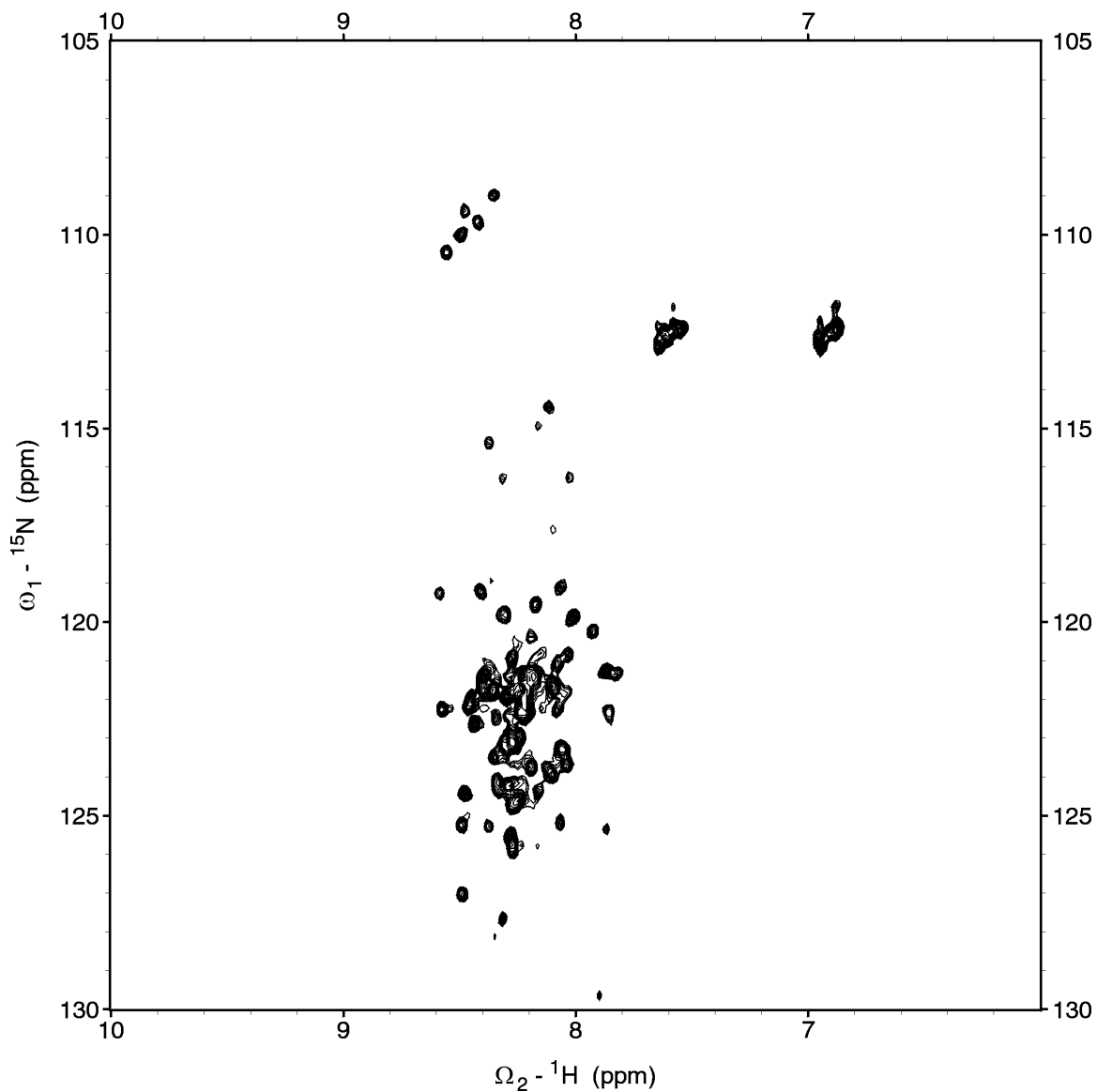


Figure S3: The ^1H - ^{15}N HSQC spectrum of G66S RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵ indicates that the single amino acid substitution leads to protein unfolding at pH 6.5 and 30 °C.

Supplementary Material

Structural Characterization of the RNase E S1 Domain and Identification of its Oligonucleotide-Binding and Dimerization Interfaces; Mario Schubert, Robert E. Edge, Paula Lario, Michael A. Cook, Natalie C.J. Strynadka, George A. Mackie, and Lawrence P. McIntosh

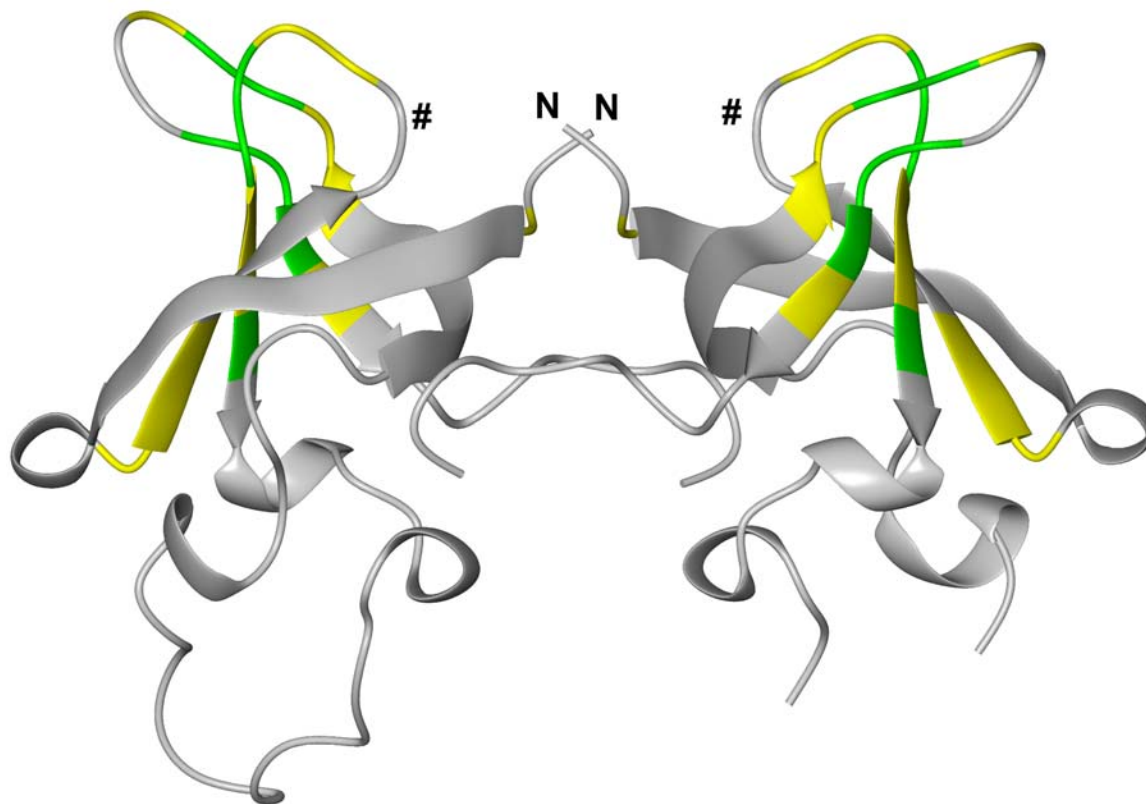


Figure S4: The position of the oligonucleotide-binding site, color coded by chemical shift perturbations as in Figure 7A is shown in context of the quaternary structure of crystalline RneS1³⁵⁻¹²⁵. Two S1 domain mutants identified by Diwa et al. that affect RNase E autoregulation, but not catalytic activity, include Y60 (indicated by an #), and K37 which lies in the disordered N-terminal region of this construct (indicated by an N).