

# Quantitative Estimation of Long-living Fluorescent Molecules from Temporal Fluorescence Intensity Data Corrupted by Nonzero-mean Noise

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**Abstract:** We present a new quantitative method of estimation of fluorescent molecule numbers from time-lapse, single-cell, fluorescence microscopy data. Its main aim is to eradicate backward propagation of noise, which is present in previous methods. The method is first validated using Monte Carlo simulations. These tests show that when the time-lapse data are corrupted with negative noise, the method obtains significantly more precise results than current techniques. The applicability of the method is demonstrated on novel time-lapse, single-cell measurements of fluorescently tagged ribonucleic acid (RNA) molecules. Interestingly, we find that the intervals inferred by the new method have the same mean but reduced variability when compared to the previously existing method, which, in accordance to human observers, is a more accurate estimation.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Gene expression is a complex, multi-step process (McClure, 1985; Lutz and Bujard, 1997; DeHaseth et al., 1998; Yarchuk et al., 1992; Wen et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2014). In addition, the underlying steps of this process are stochastic in nature, generating a variability in RNA and protein numbers that mostly explains the phenotypic diversity of monoclonal cell populations (McAdams and Arkin, 1997; Elowitz et al., 2002; Rao et al., 2002; Raser and O'Shea, 2005). To study this process, specialised techniques in molecular biology (Golding and Cox, 2004; Yu et al., 2006), microscopy (Rutter et al., 1998; Chowdhury et al., 2012), image analysis (Chowdhury et al. 2013; Häkkinen et al., 2013), computational biology (Zhu et al., 2007) and signal processing (Häkkinen and Ribeiro, 2014) were developed.

Methods of signal processing should consider the characteristics of the underlying processes. For example, in the RNA tracking technique based on MS2-GFP tagging, the MS2-GFP proteins (composed of the bacteriophage MS2 coat protein fused to the GFPmut3 protein (Golding et al., 2005)) bind to multiple MS2 binding sites of the target RNA soon after its production, and once formed, those RNA-MS2-GFP complexes remain in a cell

for the duration of the experiment (Golding and Cox, 2004; Muthukrishnan et al., 2012). Thus, in this case, when estimating the numbers of target RNAs, any signal reduction can be classified as noise.

Since complexes can co-localize, the number of target RNAs in each cell is estimated from the total fluorescence of the complexes at a given moment (Golding and Cox, 2004; Kandhavelu et al., 2012; Häkkinen and Ribeiro, 2014). However, the signal can be disrupted (i.e. subject to nonzero-mean noise), which hampers an exact determination of fluorescent molecules' numbers. That is, though the number of RNA-MS2-GFP complexes in a cell is considered as a monotonic non-decreasing function during the experiment (Muthukrishnan et al., 2012), the total fluorescence intensity of the tagged RNA molecules can decrease, transiently or permanently, in the course of an experiment. These decreases are usually caused by the RNA complexes moving away from the focal plane, or as a result of photobleaching. While the latter corrupts the data permanently, the former are isolated events in single cell time series and usually cause a steep, transient decrease in the fluorescence intensity of tagged RNA molecules.

Here, we present a new quantitative method of estimation of fluorescent molecule numbers from single-cell fluorescent intensity data obtained by

time-lapse microscopy. The method aims to eliminate backward noise propagation, caused by molecules ‘moving out of focus’, which currently is one of the main sources of noise in the estimation of the numbers of fluorescent molecules from time-lapse, live cell images.

## 2 METHODS

The technique of RNA detection by MS2-GFP tagging allows observing individual RNA molecules in live cells, soon after they are transcribed (Golding et al., 2005). In order to extract information from the images in an automated fashion, it is necessary to detect the tagged RNA molecules, which appear as bright spots in the image. Then, the intensity of the spots is extracted and summed, so as to obtain the “total RNA intensity signal” in a cell, at a given point in time.

This RNA intensity signal from non-degradable fluorescent tagged RNA molecules contains noise accumulated through each step of signal registration (microscope settings, image registration and image processing). From observation of the data (Muthukrishnan et al., 2012; Kandhavelu et al., 2012; Häkkinen et al., 2014), we assume that the signal behaves as a monotonic non-decreasing function corrupted with three types of noise:

1. Consistent, normally distributed independent noise (probability of occurrence  $p_1 = 1$ ), with zero mean and given standard deviation, which is introduced by imprecisions of the microscope and detector (Chowdhury et al., 2012; Waters, 2009).

2. Negative noise, which in our measurements corresponds to fluorescent molecules moving out of focus and remaining there for a certain amount of time. Probabilities  $p_{2\ out}$  of going out of focus and  $p_{2\ in}$  of returning to focus depends, e.g., on the type of fluorescent molecule, temperature, etc.

3. Inconsistent positive noise (low probability of occurrence,  $p_3 < 0.01$ ), caused, for instance, by false-positive detection of fluorescent molecules. These events are independent from each other, so the probability of occurring  $n$  times is  $p_3^n$ , which is negligible for  $n \geq 3$ . Note that, the limit value of  $p_3$  is set by empirical observations that these events are rare.

### 2.1 Previous Computational Methods

In (Häkkinen and Ribeiro, 2014), a method was proposed for estimating RNA numbers and production intervals from temporal data of tagged

RNAs fluorescence intensity in individual cells. This method, here denominated as a ‘reference method’, has three steps. First, a monotonically increasing curve is fitted to the time series, and temporal information on related samples is extracted. Second, the intensity of a single fluorescent molecule, or a ‘jump size’, is estimated from the information obtained at the first step. In the third and final step, a quantized curve is fit to the time series, given the parameters, enforcing the quantization to the fit. From this, the RNA numbers are extracted.

The third step in (Häkkinen and Ribeiro, 2014) goes as follows. Given the jump size, time series are fitted quantitatively, and the fit obtained is an estimation of the number of fluorescent molecules.

For the fits performed throughout the method, one can use least squares (LSQ) or least absolute deviations (LD) fitting. The LD was found to be more robust to signal disruptions.

In order to exploit the characteristics of the empirical data, this method assumes that all fluorescent molecules have the same intensity and that, once formed, they do not degrade before the end of the measurements (experimental evidence for this assumption is provided in (Muthukrishnan et al., 2012)). The first assumption is equivalent to assuming that the jump size is a constant. The second assumption corresponds to forbidding non-monotonic behaviour of quantitative estimation of the molecules over time.

This method fits full time series to a curve in one step, which aids in eliminating a consistent zero-mean noise, but also allows a backward propagation of any inconsistent disruption of the signal. Hence, although this method fully addresses the problems of the first and the third types of noise described in the Methods section, the problem of the second type of noise is addressed only to a limited extent (a fluorescent molecule is detectable only if it is in focus for at least more than 50% of the time series length).

## 2.2 Experimental Methods

### 2.2.1 Cells, Plasmids, Chemicals and Media

For live, single cell, time-lapse measurements of the RNA production times, the MS2d-GFP tagging system was used. Fluorescent RNA-MS2d-GFP complexes were observed in *Escherichia coli* DH5 $\alpha$ -PRO strain (generously provided by Ido Golding, University of Illinois, IL). The strain contains a single copy plasmid (coding for the RNA with 96 MS2d binding sites under the control of the

promoter  $P_{lac}$ ) and a high-copy reporter plasmid coding for MS2d-GFP under the control of the promoter  $P_{LtetO-1}$  (Golding and Cox, 2004).

For growth media, we used the following composition per 100 ml: 1.5 g tryptone, 0.75 g yeast extract and 1 g NaCl (pH of 7.0). Media components were purchased from LabM (UK), while antibiotics, Isopropyl  $\beta$ -D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG), arabinose, and anhydrotetracycline (aTc) are from Sigma-Aldrich (USA).

### 2.2.2 Cell Growth and Microscopy

Cells from the DH5 $\alpha$ -PRO strain, containing the target and the reporter plasmids, were grown overnight, diluted into fresh media to an  $OD_{600}$  of 0.1 (measured with an Ultraspec 10 cell density meter), and allowed to grow to an  $OD_{600}$  of  $\sim$ 0.3. For the reporter plasmid induction, aTc (100 ng/ml) was added 1 h before the start of the measurements. For the target plasmid, IPTG (1mM) was added 10 min before the start of the measurements. Cells were pelleted and resuspended into fresh medium. A few  $\mu$ l of the cells were placed between a coverslip and an agarose gel pad (2%), containing the respective inducers, in a thermal imaging chamber (FCS2, Biopetechs), heated to 37  $^{\circ}$ C. The cells were visualized using a Nikon Eclipse (Ti-E, Nikon, Japan) inverted microscope with a C2+ confocal laser-scanning system using a 100x Apo TIRF objective. Images were acquired using the Nikon Nis-Elements software. GFP fluorescence was measured using a 488 nm argon ion laser (Melles-Griot) and 514/30 nm emission filter. Phase contrast images were acquired with an external phase contrast system and a Nikon DS-Fi2 camera. Fluorescence images were acquired every 1 min for 2 hours. Phase-contrast images were acquired every 5 min.

### 2.2.3 Image Analysis

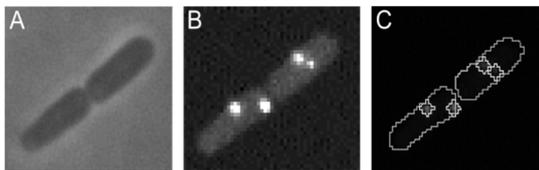


Figure 1. Panel A and B exemplify phase contrast and confocal images, correspondingly, of the same cells. Panel C shows masks of those cells and their fluorescent spots.

Cells were detected from phase contrast images as in (Gupta et al., 2014). First, the images were temporally aligned using cross-correlation. Next, an

automatic segmentation of the cells was obtained with MAMLE (Chowdhury et al., 2013). The results were corrected manually. Cell lineages were constructed by CellAging (Häkkinen et al., 2013). Alignment of the phase contrast images with the confocal images was done by manually selecting 5-7 landmarks in both images, and using thin-plate spline interpolation for the registration transform. After the registration, the cell masks were adjusted to the borders of corresponding cells from the confocal images based on the fluorescent intensity. Finally, fluorescent spots and their intensities were detected from confocal images using a Gaussian surface-fitting algorithm from (Häkkinen et al., 2014). Examples of original images and obtained masks are shown in Figure 1.

## 3 RESULTS

### 3.1 Algorithm

Our algorithm for the quantitative estimation of fluorescent molecules from the data is described in Figure 2.

#### 3.1.1 Initial Parameters

To obtain the intensity of one fluorescent molecule,  $\mu$ , we combine the first two steps of the ‘reference method’ in their original form with visual inspection of the time series of fluorescence intensity. Other methodologies could be used instead.

To account for positive noise (type 3 noise), the ‘trusted interval’,  $w$ , is introduced. If an increase in intensity persists for  $w$  frames, then we assume that this increase is not due to noise. Otherwise, the assumption that it is positive noise cannot be rejected.

The choice of the value of  $w$  is based on the standard deviation  $\sigma$  of a consistent noise (type 1). The optimum value of  $w$  rises with the increase of  $\sigma$  (Figure 4). Also, we found by inspection that, to be resistant to the type 3 noise,  $w$  should not be smaller than 5 data points.

The parameter  $v$  is introduced to account for deviations in the mean of type 1 noise. The exploration of the parameter space of the fit (Figure 4) shows that, for a signal without a consistent non-zero mean noise,  $v \approx 0.25$  is an optimal value. However, the optimal  $v$  increases up to 0.4 in the case of fitting a signal with  $\sigma = 2$ .

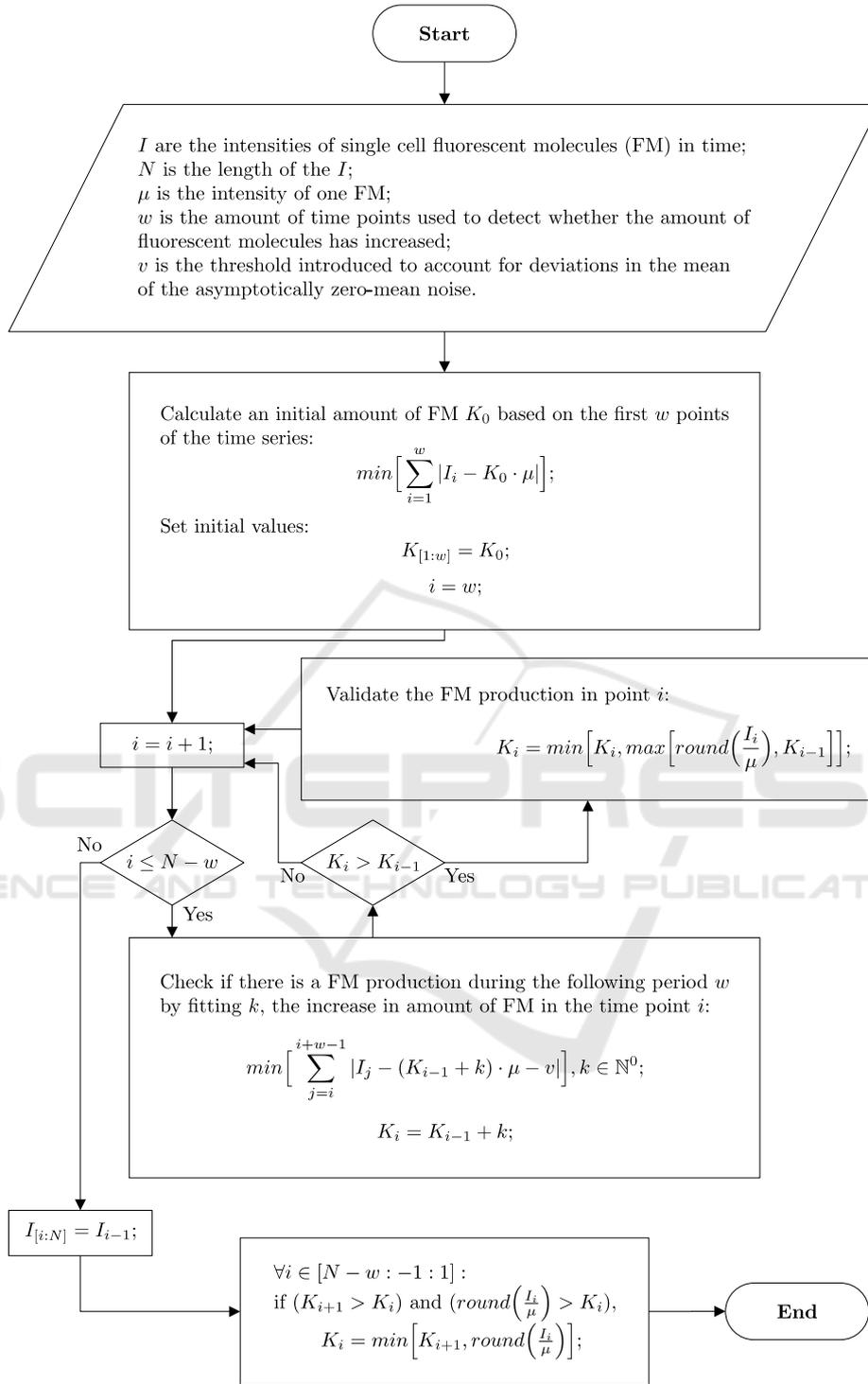


Figure 2: Algorithm used for the quantization of fluorescent molecules.

### 3.1.2 Computational Procedure

The procedure of the algorithm can be represented as a set of interval-fitting events. Each interval has

length  $w$ , the values of each fit at each time point are a constant proportional to  $\mu$ , the fit is performed using least absolute deviations and, the coefficient of proportion  $K$  of the best fit is an initial estimate of

the amount of fluorescent molecules. Given this, first, we estimate the amount of fluorescent molecules in the first  $w$  time points. For each following data point  $I_i$ , where  $w < i \leq N - w$ , the fit is performed. If  $K_i > K_{i-1}$ , then the estimated amount of fluorescent molecules at time point  $t_i$  is the maximum value of the estimated amount  $\text{round}(I_i/\mu)$  at  $t_i$ , and the estimated amount  $K_{i-1}$  at  $t_{i-1}$ .

Since it is not possible to determine whether any increase in the signal at the time points  $[N - w + 1: N]$  is caused by noise or by the production of fluorescent molecules, no estimation is performed on this interval.

Finally, the obtained time series of estimated amounts of fluorescent molecules  $K$  are checked at each time point  $i$  (from  $N$  to 1). If  $(K_{i+1} > K_i)$  and  $(\text{round}(I_i/\mu) > K_i)$  are true,  $K_i$  is set to  $\min(K_{i+1}, \text{round}(I_i/\mu))$ . We note that the production events at these moments were not detected during the fitting procedure because of the local disruptions of the signal in subsequent moments.

### 3.2 Analysis of *in Silico* Data

Monte Carlo simulations were performed using a model of transcription that assumes that RNA molecules are produced in exponentially distributed intervals (with mean interval of 15 min (Muthukrishnan et al., 2012)). The sampling frequency  $f$  used is  $10 \text{ sec}^{-1}$  and  $1 \text{ min}^{-1}$ , for comparison.

The obtained time series are then corrupted by adding zero-mean independent and normally distributed noise. To introduce significant, transient disruptions of the signal (i.e. to model RNA-MS2d-GFP complexes going out of focus), we set the RNA signal to zero at random moments, for a randomly selected duration. For that, we set the probability that an RNA goes out of focus to  $p_{2 \text{ out}} = 60 \text{ min}^{-1}$  and the probability of the zeroed RNA to be fully recovered to  $p_{2 \text{ in}} = 20 \text{ min}^{-1}$ .

In Figure 3 we exemplify the outcome of simulating the model for 120 min.

We use this model's ground truth data to test the accuracy of the RNA numbers estimation by our method. To quantify the accuracy, we define it to be the proportion of time moments where the RNA numbers in a cell were correctly detected (Häkkinen and Ribeiro 2014).

First, the parameter space of the proposed model was investigated in order to detect a combination of values of  $w$  and  $v$  that maximize the accuracy.

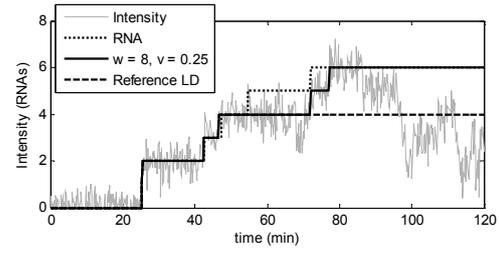


Figure 3: Simulated data.  $f = 10 \text{ sec}^{-1}$ .  $\sigma = 0.5$ .  $p_{2 \text{ out}} = 60 \text{ min}^{-1}$  and  $p_{2 \text{ in}} = 20 \text{ min}^{-1}$ ,  $w = 8$ ,  $v = 0.25$ .

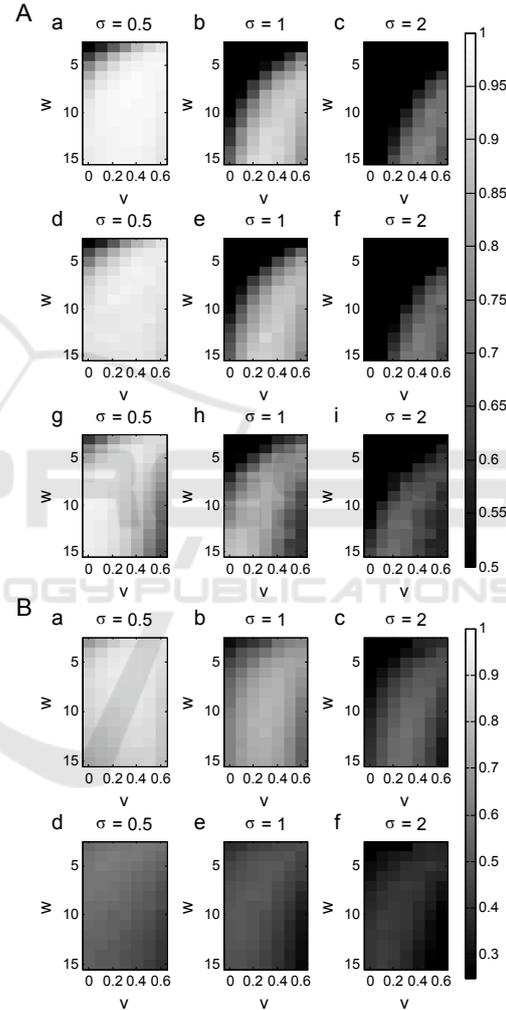


Figure 4: Mean accuracy along the parameter space of  $w$  and  $v$  for  $\sigma = 0.5$ ,  $\sigma = 1$ , and  $\sigma = 2$ . In panel A,  $f = 10 \text{ sec}^{-1}$  and in panel B,  $f = 1 \text{ min}^{-1}$ . In both panels, from a-c:  $p_{2 \text{ out}} = 0 \text{ min}^{-1}$  and  $p_{2 \text{ in}} = 0 \text{ min}^{-1}$ ; from d-f:  $p_{2 \text{ out}} = 60 \text{ min}^{-1}$  and  $p_{2 \text{ in}} = 20 \text{ min}^{-1}$ ; from g-i: 25% time series points were randomly selected and set to zero. In all sub-panels of panel A and in sub-panels a-c of panel B, each accuracy value is a mean of 1000 simulations. In sub-panels d-f of panel B, each accuracy value is a mean of 2500 simulations.

For that, we performed a set of at least 1000 simulations for each combination of values of  $v$ , in the range  $[0, 0.6]$ , and  $w$ , in the range  $[3, 15]$  for  $\sigma = 0.5, 1, 2$  for each of the following sets of parameter values: a)  $p_{2\text{ out}} = 0\text{ min}^{-1}$ ,  $p_{2\text{ in}} = 0\text{ min}^{-1}$  ( $f = 10\text{ sec}^{-1}$  and  $f = 1\text{ min}^{-1}$ ); b)  $p_{2\text{ out}} = 60\text{ min}^{-1}$ ,  $p_{2\text{ in}} = 20\text{ min}^{-1}$  ( $f = 10\text{ sec}^{-1}$  and  $f = 1\text{ min}^{-1}$ ); and c) 25% time series points randomly selected and set to zero ( $f = 10\text{ sec}^{-1}$ ). Results are shown in Figure 4.

From Figure 4,  $w$  depends on the variation of  $\sigma$  of the consistent noise (namely, as it increases monotonically with increasing  $\sigma$ ), whereas  $v$  depends on the mean consistent noise (which becomes negative due to zeroing 25% of the time moments). Also, the optimal trusted interval  $w$  suffered only a slight reduction with a sixfold decrease of the sampling frequency,  $f$ .

In addition, we found that for  $\sigma = 0, 0.5, 1, 1.5, 2$  and  $f = 10\text{ sec}^{-1}$ , we obtain  $w_{opt} = 5, 7, 13, 13, 13$ , respectively. Meanwhile, for  $f = 1\text{ min}^{-1}$ , we obtain  $w_{opt} = 5, 5, 10, 10, 12$ , respectively. Finally, we found that the optimal  $v \approx 0.25$ .

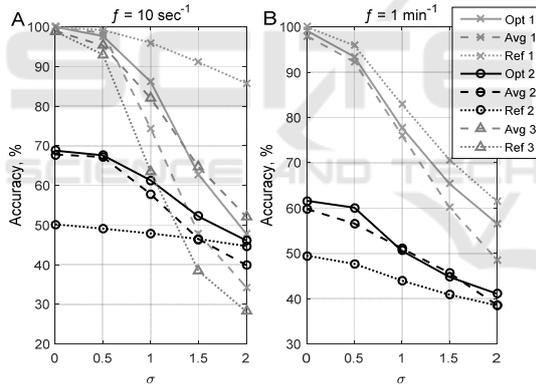


Figure 5: Mean accuracy of the counting of fluorescent molecules using a given method (Opt, Avg, or Ref) with a given noise model (1, 2, or 3) from STD  $\sigma$  of zero-mean noise. Panel A:  $f = 10\text{ sec}^{-1}$ ; panel B:  $f = 1\text{ min}^{-1}$ . Opt is the proposed method with  $w = w_{opt}$ ; Avg is the proposed method with  $w = 10$  (panel A) and  $w = 8$  (panel B); Ref is the reference method. In case 1,  $p_{2\text{ out}} = 0\text{ min}^{-1}$  and  $p_{2\text{ in}} = 0\text{ min}^{-1}$ . In case 2,  $p_{2\text{ out}} = 60\text{ min}^{-1}$  and  $p_{2\text{ in}} = 20\text{ min}^{-1}$ . In case 3, 25% of the data points are randomly selected and set to zero. Each accuracy value is a mean of 10000 simulations (using  $v = 0.25$  in case 3 and  $v = 0.25$  otherwise).

Next, we analysed the simulated data with and without going-out-of-focus events using the proposed method and the LD version of the reference method, and compared their accuracies.

In particular, we measured the accuracy of our method for  $\sigma = 0, 0.5, 1, 1.5, 2$ , along with an optimal  $w$  ('Opt' method) as well as with a mean  $w$  ('Avg' method), in order to study the impact of this parameter as a function of  $\sigma$ . An estimated optimal  $v$  was chosen separately for data with zero-mean noise and for data with negative-mean noise. Also, we measured the accuracy of the reference method ('Ref') on the same data, for comparison.

From Figure 5, in general, the proposed method has higher precision when analysing data with out-of-focus events (i.e. is more robust to type 2 noise). For  $\sigma = 0.5$ , its accuracy is improved from 49.1% to 67.6% for  $f = 10\text{ sec}^{-1}$ , and from 47.7% to 60.1% for  $f = 1\text{ min}^{-1}$ . However, our method is less robust to type 1 noise, which is expected because the data is processed piecewise.

Also from Figure 5, note how the precision is lowered for mean  $w$  versus optimal  $w$ . This difference in precision increases with increasing  $\sigma$ .

Finally, we made use of the *in silico* data to assess the timing of the proposed algorithm. For this, we measured the time required to analyse 10000 simulated time series with  $f = 1\text{ min}^{-1}$ ,  $\sigma = 1$ ,  $p_{2\text{ out}} = 60\text{ min}^{-1}$ ,  $p_{2\text{ in}} = 20\text{ min}^{-1}$ , and length of 120 min. For  $w = 4, 8, 16$  the duration was 16 s, 12 s, and 10 s respectively (processor Intel Core i5-2400, 3.10GHz), while  $v$  does not have a noticeable impact on the time length of this process.

### 3.3 Analysis of Empirical Data

We next applied our method to empirical data, obtained as described in the methods section. This data was processed using our method and the reference method, for comparison (Table 1). The fluorescent RNA complexes have a non-negligible tendency to go out of focus, which makes it possible to demonstrate the usefulness of the proposed method.

Table 1: Comparative analysis of the mean and variability of the intervals between consecutive RNA production events obtained by our method ( $w = 8$ ,  $v = 0.25$ ) and the reference method. The data was collected from 178 cells.

Method	No. intervals	Mean interval	Interval CV <sup>2</sup>
Our method	158	1047	1.15
Ref. method	153	1018	1.43

From the Table 1, the two methods differ in performance. Namely, while the two methods infer similar mean intervals between transcription events (the new method detected 3% more intervals), the

CV<sup>2</sup> of those intervals duration is significantly smaller when using the new method (19.6% smaller). Inspection of the data by two expert human observers indicated that the new method's detection process was the more accurate one (see example Figure 6).

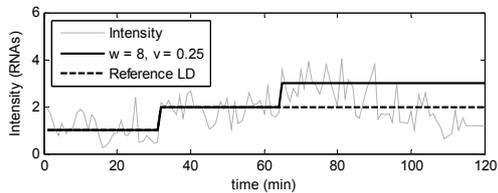


Figure 6: Example intensity series and estimated RNA numbers with the proposed method ( $w = 8$ ,  $v = 0.25$ ), and with the reference method (LD version).

## 4 CONCLUSIONS

Here we proposed a new method for the quantitative estimation of fluorescent molecules from temporal intensity microscopy data. This method was developed to handle transient, nonzero-mean noise in the data, i.e. it aims to cope with temporary absences of fluorescent molecules from the focal plane in time-lapse microscopy measurements. This is particularly important in studies requiring a consistent tracking of tagged molecules, such as studies of, e.g., chemotaxis mechanisms which rely on chemoreceptor clusters (Sourjik and Berg, 2004; Wadhams and Armitage, 2004; Parkinson et al., 2005; Kentner and Sourjik, 2006) and protein aggregates' accumulation, which is associated with cellular aging processes (Maisonneuve et al., 2008; Tyedmers et al., 2010; Winkler et al., 2010; Lindner et al., 2008; Gupta et al., 2014; Lloyd-Price et al., 2012).

We validated our method by tests on *in silico* data. Next, we applied it to empirical data to show that its results can differ from those of the previous method. By inspection, we found, as expected, that the reason why the results of the two methods differ is the enhanced robustness of our method to 'negative', inconsistent noise. Another reason is its weaker robustness to consistent, type 1 noise.

The causes of the two main differences are that, in the new method: i) previous values of a tagged RNA intensity confine the next ones into boundaries defined by the known properties of the signal. The main benefit of this is that it restricts backward propagation of inconsistent noise, which results in more precise results when  $p_{2\text{out}} > 0$ ; ii) the stepwise analysis of the signal hampers the removal

of consistent zero-mean noise.

We expect our method to be of use to a broad range of time-lapse microscopy measurements making use of fluorescence molecules in live cells, particular when the phenomenon of moving out of the focus plane is common for those molecules.

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