# Systemic characterization of pppGpp, ppGpp and pGpp targets in *Bacillus* reveal SatA converts (p)ppGpp to pGpp to regulate alarmone composition and signaling

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## 1 **Abstract**

The alarmones pppGpp and ppGpp (collectively (p)ppGpp) protect bacterial cells from

nutritional and other stresses. Here we demonstrate the physiological presence of pGpp

as a third closely related alarmone in bacterial cells and also characterize and compare

the proteomic targets of pGpp, ppGpp and pppGpp in Gram-positive *Bacillus* species.

We revealed two regulatory pathways for ppGpp and pppGpp that are highly conserved

across bacterial species: inhibition of purine nucleotide biosynthesis and control of

ribosome assembly/activity through GTPases. Strikingly, pGpp potently regulates the

purine biosynthesis pathway but does not interact with the GTPases. Importantly, we

identified a key enzyme SatA that efficiently produces pGpp by hydrolyzing (p)ppGpp,

thus tuning alarmone composition to uncouple the regulatory modules of the alarmones.

Correspondingly, a *satA* mutant displays significantly reduced pGpp levels and elevated

(p)ppGpp levels, slower growth recovery from nutrient downshift, and significant loss of

competitive fitness. These cellular consequences for regulating alarmone composition

strongly implicate an expanded repertoire of alarmones in a new strategy of stress

response in *Bacillus* and its relatives.

## Introduction

Organisms from bacteria to humans rely on timely and flexible responses to survive various environmental challenges. The stress signaling nucleotides guanosine tetraphosphate (ppGpp) and guanosine pentaphosphate (pppGpp) are conserved across bacterial species. When induced upon starvation and other stresses, they mediate multiple regulations and pathogenesis by dramatically remodeling the transcriptome, proteome and metabolome of bacteria in a rapid and consistent manner[1–3]. (p)ppGpp interacts with diverse targets including RNA polymerases in *Escherichia coli* [4–6], replication enzyme primase in *Bacillus subtilis*[7–9], purine nucleotide biosynthesis enzymes[10–13], and GTPases involved in ribosome assembly[14–17]. Identification of (p)ppGpp binding targets on a proteome-wide scale is one way to unravel a more extensive interaction network[13,16,18]. However, because binding targets differ between different species and most interactomes have not been characterized, the conserved and diversifying features of these interactomes remain incompletely understood.

Another poorly understood aspect of (p)ppGpp is that ppGpp and pppGpp are commonly referred to and characterized as a single species despite potential differences in specificity between the two alarmones[19]. There is evidence for potential existence of a third alarmone, guanosine-5′-monophosphate-3′-diphosphate (pGpp), since several small alarmone synthetases can synthesize pGpp *in vitro*[20,21]. However, pGpp has not been detected in bacterial cells.

Here we demonstrate pGpp as a third alarmone in Gram-positive bacteria by establishing its presence in cells, profiling its targets, and identifying a key enzyme for pGpp production through hydrolyzing (p)ppGpp. We also compare the targets of pGpp, ppGpp and pppGpp through proteomic screens in *Bacillus anthracis*. We found that both pppGpp and ppGpp regulate two major cellular pathways: purine synthesis and

ribosome biogenesis. In contrast, pGpp strongly regulates purine synthesis targets but

does not regulate ribosome biogenesis targets, indicating a separation of regulatory

function for these alarmones. In *B. subtilis* and *B. anthracis*, pGpp is efficiently produced

from pppGpp and ppGpp by the NuDiX (Nucleoside Diphosphate linked to any moiety

"X") hydrolase SatA (Small alarmone (guanosine) triphosphate synthase A), both *in vitro*

and *in vivo*. A Δ*satA* mutant has significantly stronger accumulation of pppGpp and

decreased accumulation of pGpp, slower recovery from stationary phase and reduced

fitness. Our work suggests a mechanism for the conversion and fine tuning of alarmone

regulation and the physiological production of the alarmone pGpp.

**Results**

**Proteome-wide screen for binding targets of pppGpp and ppGpp from *Bacillus***

***anthracis***

To systematically characterize the binding targets of (p)ppGpp and identify novel

(p)ppGpp binding proteins in *Bacillus* species, we screened an open reading frame

(ORF) library of 5341 ORFs from the pathogen *Bacillus anthracis* (**Figure 1a**). Using

Gateway cloning, we placed each ORF into two expression constructs, one expressing

the ORF with an N-terminal histidine (His) tag and the other with an N-terminal histidine

maltose binding protein (HisMBP) tag. Each ORF in the His-tagged and HisMBP-tagged

library was overexpressed and binding to [5′-α-$^{32}$P]-ppGpp was assayed using

differential radial capillary action of ligand assay (DRaCALA)[22] (**Figure 1a**). The fraction

of ligand bound to protein in each lysate was normalized as a Z-score of each plate to

reduce the influence of plate-to-plate variation (Table S1).  We found that the strongest

ppGpp-binding targets in *B. anthracis* can be categorized to three groups: 1) purine

nucleotide synthesis proteins (Hpt-1, Xpt, Gmk, GuaC, PurA, PurR); 2) ribosome and

translation regulatory GTPases (HflX, Der, Obg, RbgA, TrmE, Era); and 3) nucleotide

hydrolytic enzymes, including NuDiX hydrolases and nucleotidases (**Figure 1b**).

We compared these targets to those obtained from previous screens for ppGpp

targets in *E. coli* and for an unseparated mix of (p)pppGpp in *S. aureus* [16]. Comparison of

our results with these previous screens yielded conserved themes (**Figure 1b**). Among

the most conserved themes are the purine nucleotide synthesis proteins **(Figure 1c)** and

ribosome and translation regulation GTPases **(Figure 1d)**.

To date, the pppGpp interactome has not been systematically characterized in

bacteria. Therefore we performed a separate screen to characterize the binding of the *B.*

*anthracis* proteome to [5′-α-$^{32}$P]-pppGpp (**Figure 1a**).  We found that pppGpp shares

almost identical targets with ppGpp, with similar or reduced binding efficacy for most of

its targets compared to ppGpp (**Table S1**). pppGpp is the predominant alarmone

induced upon amino acid starvation in *Bacillus* species, and by sharing targets with

ppGpp, pppGpp also comprehensively regulates purine synthesis and ribosome

assembly. We also find that several proteins bind to pppGpp but not ppGpp, including

the small alarmone synthetase YjbM (SAS1). This is expected for YjbM, since it is

allosterically activated by pppGpp, but not ppGpp[23].

**SatA, a NuDiX hydrolase in the (p)ppGpp interactome in *Bacillus*, hydrolyzes**

**(p)ppGpp to produce pGpp *in vitro***

The putative NuDiX hydrolase, BA5385, was identified as a novel binding target

of (p)ppGpp. Protein sequence alignment showed that BA5385 has homologs in different

*Bacillus* species with extensive homology and a highly conserved NuDiX box (**Figure**

**S1**). We cloned its homolog, YvcI, from the related species *Bacillus subtilis* and showed

that overexpressed *B. subtilis* YvcI in cell lysate also binds ppGpp and pppGpp (**Figure**

**2a**). The binding is highly specific, as non-radiolabeled ppGpp effectively competes with

radiolabeled (p)ppGpp binding, whereas non-radiolabeled GTP failed to compete. EDTA

eradicated (p)ppGpp binding to His-MBP-YvcI cell lysate, which implies that the divalent

cations present in the reaction is essential for (p)ppGpp binding to YvcI (**Figure 2a**).

Even though YvcI overexpression cell lysate showed strong and specific binding

to (p)ppGpp, the purified protein does not appear to bind (p)ppGpp in DRaCALA **(Figure**

**S2)**. This can be due to two possibilities. Either YvcI requires a co-factor present in the

lysate to bind to (p)ppGpp; alternatively, YvcI may rapidly hydrolyse the (p)ppGpp and

release the product. Therefore, we incubated purified YvcI with [5'-$\alpha$-$^{32}$P]-(p)ppGpp and

ran the reaction product using TLC (**Figure S3**). We found that YvcI can hydrolyze both

ppGpp and pppGpp, but not GTP. The inability of YvcI to hydrolyze GTP and the strong

structural similarity between GTP and (p)ppGpp suggest that SatA is a specific (p)ppGpp

hydrolase which requires its substrate to have pyrophosphate group on the 3′ end.

However, unlike *B. subtilis* RelA, which hydrolyzes the 3'-pyrophosphate group from

ppGpp and pppGpp to produce GDP and GTP, SatA hydrolyzed ppGpp and pppGpp to

yield a single nucleotide species that migrated differently than GTP (**Figure S3a**) or GDP

(**Figure S3b**). To determine the identity of YvcI's (p)ppGpp hydrolysis product, we

analyzed a sample by liquid chromatography coupled with mass spectrometry (LC-MS),

revealing a peak of the same mass over charge ratio (m/z) as GTP but with a longer

retention time (11.75 min versus 11.15 min for GTP). When we ran a pGpp sample

produced by *E. faecalis* SAS [20], we found that it ran with the same retention time and

molecular weight (**Figure 2b**), suggesting that the hydrolysis product of YvcI is pGpp.

The production of pGpp from pppGpp and ppGpp agrees with the NuDiX

hydrolase function, inferring that pppGpp and ppGpp are hydrolyzed between the 5'-α

and 5'-β phosphate groups to produce guanosine-5'-monophosphate-3'-diphosphate

(pGpp). Therefore, we renamed the enzyme SatA (Small alarmone

(guanosine)triphosphate synthase A).

It is possible, although unlikely, that SatA hydrolyzes the 3'-phosphate to produce

ppGp, which would run at the same retention time as pGpp in LC-MS. To distinguish

these two possibilities, we analyzed the SatA cleavage products of [3'-β-$^{32}$P]-pppGpp. If

SatA cleaves the 5'-γ and β phosphates, the reaction would yield [3'-β-$^{32}$P]-pGpp. (In

contrast, if Sat A cleaves the 3'-β-phosphate and the 5'-γ-phosphate, the reaction would

yield free $^{32}$P-phosphate). TLC analysis revealed that the radioactive $^{32}$P after SatA

hydrolysis of [3'-β-$^{32}$P]-pppGpp co-migrates with the pGpp nucleotide rather than free

phosphate that migrates to the very end of TLC plate (**Figure 2c**). This result showed

that the product has an intact 3'-pyrophosphate group, confirming the product to be

pGpp rather than ppGp. Moreover, quantification of [3'-β-$^{32}$P]-pppGpp hydrolysis by SatA

showed that the decrease of substrate radioactivity mirrored the increase of the single

product radioactivity (**Figure 2d**), demonstrating the product is exclusively pGpp.

As a NuDiX hydrolase, SatA has been reported to have a modest activity in

removing the 5'-phosphate of mRNA [24]. We found that SatA is far more efficient at

hydrolyzing (p)ppGpp than at decapping mRNA. Enzymatic assays revealed that SatA

hydrolyzes ppGpp following Michaelis-Menten kinetics, with a $k_{cat}$ of 1.22 ± 0.17 s$^{-1}$ and a

$K_m$ of 7.5 ± 2.3 µM (**Figure 2e, Table 1**). SatA also effectively and cooperatively

hydrolyzes pppGpp, with a Hill coefficient of 2.78 ± 0.47, $k_{cat}$ of 10.0 ± 0.5 s$^{-1}$ and $K_m$ of

177.4 ± 0.4 µM (**Figure 2e, Table 1**). In contrast, its $k_{cat}$ to decap RNA is around 0.0003

$s^{-1}$ (estimation based on published figure) [24]. The difference in $k_{cat}$ *in vitro* suggest that

SatA's major function is to regulate (p)ppGpp rather than to decap the 5' cap of mRNA.

**SatA hydrolyzes (p)ppGpp to produce pGpp *in vivo***

SatA was previously identified as a constitutively expressed protein with ~600

copies per cell [25]. To examine its impact on (p)ppGpp *in vivo*, we engineered a *satA*

deletion strain, and developed an LC-MS metabolome quantification for pppGpp, ppGpp

and pGpp in *B. subtilis* cells (see Material & Methods). LC-MS measurement of cell

extracts showed that Δ*satA* mutants accumulates more pppGpp and ppGpp than wild

type cells during both log phase and stationary phase, in agreement with SatA's ability to

hydrolyze (p)ppGpp (**Figure 3a**). In contrast, Δ*satA* mutant accumulates less pGpp than

wild type cells. In fact, during log phase, pGpp levels are consistently detectable in wild

type cells but fall below the detection limit in Δ*satA* (**Figure 3a**). When we complement

Δ*satA* with an overexpressed copy of *satA*, the pGpp levels were restored to wild type

levels (**Figure S5**). These results support the function of SatA in producing pGpp.

We also used the drug arginine hydroxamate (RHX) to induce accumulation of

(p)ppGpp[10]. Using both LC-MS and TLC, we observed rapid accumulation of (p)ppGpp

after RHX treatment, with Δ*satA* cells showing stronger (p)ppGpp accumulation than wild

type cells (**Figure S4a-d**). We still observe the accumulation of pGpp in Δ*satA* cells,

although to a much less extent than wild type cells **(Figure S4e)**, this remaining pGpp in

Δ*satA* cells is likely due to the function of the enzyme SAS1, which can synthesize pGpp

from GMP and ATP[26].

**pGpp can be hydrolyzed by RelA *in vitro***

We have detected basal levels of pGpp in log phase and elevated levels of pGpp

in starved cells, suggesting that it is an alarmone in *B. subtilis*. Alarmones must be

eventually degraded for restoring bacterial growth. In *B. subtilis*, pppGpp and ppGpp are

both hydrolyzed by RelA, which has a functional (p)ppGpp hydrolase domain in

Firmicutes/Gram-positive bacteria. Therefore, we performed hydrolysis assays using

purified *B. subtilis* RelA and pGpp, ppGpp or pppGpp as substrates *in vitro* (**Figure 3b)**.

We found that all three nucleotides can be hydrolyzed efficiently by RelA, furthermore,

pGpp was hydrolyzed more rapidly than (p)ppGpp (**Figure 3b**).

**Protein binding spectrum of pGpp is distinct from (p)ppGpp**

To understand whether pGpp is just an intermediate of (p)ppGpp hydrolysis or is

a bona fide alarmone with its own regulatory targets, we used DRaCALA to

systematically screen the *B. anthracis* library for pGpp-binding targets (**Figure 1a-b**,

**Table S1**). Our screen showed that pGpp binds strongly to multiple purine nucleotide

synthesis enzymes which are also targets of (p)ppGpp (**Figure 1c**), but binds to none of

the (p)ppGpp-binding ribosome and translation regulation GTPases (**Figure 1d**). We

purified selected pGpp and (p)ppGpp binding targets and tested with [5′-α-$^{32}$P]-labeled

pGpp, ppGpp and pppGpp in DRaCALA (**Figure 3c-d**). This confirmed that the strongest

pGpp-binding targets are guanosine nucleotide synthesis proteins (Hpt1, Gmk, Xpt).

This also confirmed that GTPases involved in ribosome biogenesis bound by (p)ppGpp

(HflX, Obg, Der) were not bound by pGpp (**Figure 3c-e**). The $K_d$ of (p)ppGpp binding to

these GTPases (**Table S2**) showed their strong affinity to ppGpp, mediocre affinity to

pppGpp and lack of affinity to pGpp. Since these GTPases play important roles in

translational regulation, these results imply that pGpp does not directly regulate

translation unlike pppGpp and ppGpp.

**Loss of *satA* in *Bacillus* leads to stronger inhibition of translation upon amino acid starvation, delayed outgrowth and loss of competitive fitness**

Δ*satA* showed increased accumulation of (p)ppGpp and reduced levels of pGpp

**(Figure 3a)**. The fact that pGpp strongly regulates purine synthesis but does not directly

regulate ribosome biogenesis and translation implicates an *in vivo* function of SatA:

reducing (p)ppGpp levels to alleviate translation inhibition upon stress, while still keeping

purine biosynthesis in check. To test this hypothesis, we measured total protein

translation rate of wild type and Δ*satA B. subtilis* by incorporation of $^{35}$S-methionine. We

found that after RHX treatment, the rate of $^{35}$S-methionine incorporation is significantly

more strongly reduced in Δ*satA* than in wild type ($P<0.05$), indicating a stronger

inhibition of translation (**Figure 4a**).

Next, we examined the impact of *satA* on fitness of *B. subtilis*. In a growth

competition assay, the CFU ratio between Δ*satA* and wild type cells steadily decreased

over time (**Figure 4b**). The calculated relative fitness of Δ*satA* is 0.875 ± 0.008 (mean ±

S.D.), indicating significant loss of fitness due to *satA* deletion. We found that Δ*satA* has

a similar doubling time as wild type cells, but has a longer lag phase during outgrowth

upon amino acid downshift (**Figure 4c-d**). Together, these results suggest that SatA

tunes alarmone composition and alarmone levels to promote *B. subtilis* adjustment to

nutrient fluctuation and optimizes growth and fitness.

**Discussion**

Alarmones are universal stress signaling nucleotides in bacteria, however, the

repertoire of alarmones and the target spectrums for each alarmone are incompletely

understood. In this work, we have comprehensively characterized the interactomes of

the related alarmones pppGpp and ppGpp and established the *in vivo* presence of pGpp

as a closely related alarmone in Gram-positive *Bacillus* species. We characterized the

direct targets of (p)ppGpp by screening an open reading frame expression library from

*B. anthracis*. From this screen, we identified an enzyme SatA that converts (p)ppGpp to

pGpp as efficient means to produce pGpp and to reduce (p)ppGpp concentrations, thus

regulating the composition of the alarmones.  We demonstrated that pGpp binds a

distinct subset of protein receptors of (p)ppGpp in *Bacillus* species. The key role of SatA

in nutrient adaptation suggests that regulating alarmone composition may serve as a

separation-of-function strategy for optimal adaptation.

**Conservation of (p)ppGpp regulation of purine biosynthesis and ribosome**

**biogenesis pathways across different species of bacteria**

(p)ppGpp regulates diverse cellular targets that differ between different bacteria.

For example, (p)ppGpp directly binds to RNA polymerase in *E. coli* to control the

transcription of ribosomal and tRNA operons yet the (p)ppGpp binding sites on RNA

polymerase are not conserved beyond proteobacteria[4,5]. Instead, (p)ppGpp

accumulation in firmicutes strongly down-regulates synthesis of GTP, the exclusive

transcription initiating nucleotides of rRNA and tRNA operons in firmicutes, to achieve a

similar transcription control with different direct targets[10,27,28]. Therefore, identifying

whether certain aspects of (p)ppGpp regulation are conserved among bacterial species

is important for understanding bacterial survival and adaptation.

Our DRaCALA screen with a *B. anthracis* library revealed many ppGpp and

pppGpp binding targets in this pathogenic Gram-positive bacterium.  Comparison to

ppGpp-binding targets in *B. anthracis* to *S. aureus*[16] and *E. coli*[13,18] identified novel

targets but more importantly, revealed a clear theme of conservation. Most notably,

(p)ppGpp in all three species binds to multiple proteins in two key pathways: 1) purine

nucleotide synthesis, 2) translation-related GTPases including ribosome biogenesis

factors.

The regulation of purine nucleotide synthesis in firmicutes includes well

characterized targets Gmk and HprT whose regulation by (p)ppGpp protects *Bacillus*

*subtilis* against nutrient changes like amino acid starvation and purine fluctuation,

preventing cells from accumulating toxic high levels of intracellular GTP[10,12,29]. These

also include new-found likely targets such as enzymes GuaC and PurA and the *de novo*

pathway transcription factor PurR. Intriguingly, in the evolutionarily distant *E. coli*, the

ppGpp targets in the purine biosynthesis pathway are different. For example, Gmk is not

regulated by (p)ppGpp in *E. coli*.  On the other hand, (p)ppGpp directly targets the *de*

*novo* enzyme PurF[13], a target that is not conserved in firmicutes. Therefore, despite

differences in precise targets, (p)ppGpp extensively regulates the purine biosynthesis

pathway in evolutionarily diverse bacteria **(Figure 1c),** highlighting this critical

physiological role of (p)ppGpp.

(p)ppGpp also interacts with essential GTPases that are implicated in ribosome

biogenesis **(Figure 1d)**[16]. In contrast to the diversification of direct targets in purine

biogenesis, (p)ppGp's targets in GTPases from *E. coli* to firmicutes are conserved. This

can be due to the structural similarity between GTP/GDP and pppGpp/ppGpp, which

allows (p)ppGpp to bind to the GTP/GDP binding sites, respectively. The conservation of

ribosome biogenesis targets implicates the importance of translational control in stress

responses across bacteria.

**The third major alarmone pGpp in Gram positive species and its specific**

**regulatory effect**

In addition to pppGpp and ppGpp, it was long suspected that in *B. subtilis*, there are

additional alarmones such as pppApp, pGpp, and ppGp accumulating during the

stringent response [30,31]. However, their sources, mechanisms and targets are poorly

characterized. Here we detected pGpp in *B. subtilis* cells, characterized an enzyme for

its production *in vivo* and *in vitro*, and identified its targets. In contrast to our DRaCALA

screens for pppGpp and ppGpp which identify similar targets and functionalities between

these two alarmones, DRaCALA screen for pGpp displays a strong difference from

(p)ppGpp with regarding to two conserved pathways. The affinity of pGpp for purine

nucleotide synthesis proteins is equivalent or higher than that of (p)ppGpp. In contrast,

pGpp's affinity to GTPases involved in translational regulation is much lower, or

insignificant, compared to (p)ppGpp. The distinct profile of target receptors distinguish

pGpp as a different alarmone from (p)ppGpp, potentially allowing fine tuning of bacterial

stress response. We propose a model for the function of SatA in growth recovery and

competitive fitness by its role in transforming the alarmones. In wild type cells, (p)ppGpp

produced in response to amino acid starvation will be hydrolyzed in part by SatA to

pGpp. (p)ppGpp concentration in wild type cells during amino acid starvation can reach

~1 mM, which is well above the $K_M$ of (p)ppGpp for SatA and suggests SatA should be at

its maximum velocity. Given the copy number of SatA as ~600 copies per cell and its

maximum velocities for (p)ppGpp hydrolysis, intracellular SatA can hydrolyze ~6000

molecules of pppGpp and ~600 molecules of ppGpp per second. This corresponds to a

pppGpp hydrolysis rate of 6 µM/s and ppGpp hydrolysis rate of 0.6 µM/s (assuming 1

µm$^3$ intracellular volume). In 30 minutes, SatA can hydrolyze 10.8 mM pppGpp and 1.08

mM ppGpp. Clearly, SatA does not hydrolyze all pppGpp and ppGpp likely because

RelA replenishes the alarmones. We propose that (p)ppGpp concentrations observed in

wild type cells is a balance of RelA synthesis and SatA hydrolysis. Thus, in Δ*satA* cells,

(p)ppGpp accumulates higher than in wild type cells during amino acid starvation.

Stronger inhibition of translation due to overly high level of (p)ppGpp in Δ*satA* leads to

slower growth recovery after culture enduring nutrient downshift and thus may lead to

fitness loss when co-cultured with wild type strain. In addition, because pGpp is

hydrolyzed much more efficiently by RelA (**Figure 3b**), another benefit of SatA is

perhaps to speed up (p)ppGpp removal to promote recovery.

In *E. coli*, (p)ppGpp binding proteins also include NuDiX hydrolases NudG and

MutT[18]. Like SatA, NudG and MutT also hydrolize (p)ppGpp. Unlike SatA, NudG and

MutT produce guanosine 5'-monophosphate 3'-monophosphate (pGp) rather than pGpp.

Sequence alignment shows that *E. coli* NudG and MutT shares only marginal homology

with SatA proteins: the homology is almost restricted in the NuDiX box that is shared by

NuDiX hydrolase family (**Figure S1**). Therefore, NudG and MutT are considered

alternative (p)ppGpp hydrolysis pathways in addition to the SpoT hydrolase, rather than

an alarmone-producer.

In *E. coli*, the enzyme GppA converts pppGpp to ppGpp, which may also regulate

the composition of its alarmones[19]. In the absence of GppA, the alarmone pppGpp

accumulates to a higher level than ppGpp[32]. It is possible that a similar separation-of-

function regulation exists in *E. coli* by tuning pppGpp vs ppGpp levels. This can be

addressed by examining pppGpp interactome in *E. coli*, which may reveal a differential

theme than ppGpp.  Ultimately, discovery of more enzymes that interconvert signaling

molecules may reveal a universal theme of optimization through fine-tuning in signal

transduction.

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BWA) and R01AI110740 from NIAID and NIDDK (to VTL).

**Materials and Methods**

***Bacillus anthracis* ORFeome Library Construction**

*Bacillus anthracis* Gateway® Clone Set containing plasmids bearing *B. anthracis* open

reading frames was acquired from BEI Resources and used for Gateway cloning

(Invitrogen protocol) into overexpression vectors pVL791 (10xHis tag ampicillin-resistant)

and pVL847 (10xHis-MBP tag, gentamycin-resistant) and transformed into *Escherichia*

*coli* BL21 lacI$^q$ to produce two open reading frame proteome over-expression libraries

(ORFeome library). The resulting ORFeome library contains 5139 ORFs from the

genome of *B. anthracis str. Ames* (91.2% of 5632 ORFs in the genome). The

corresponding proteins were expressed in *E. coli* and the cells were lysed to prepare the

overexpression lysates for the downstream analysis.

**Plasmid and Strain Construction and Growth Conditions**

Plasmid for SatA purification was constructed as follows: *satA* encoding sequence was

PCR amplified and incorporated into pE-SUMO vector by Golden Gate assembly

method (New England BioLabs), and into pVL847 (His-MBP-tag overexpression vector)

by Gateway cloning method (Invitrogen). Δ*satA* mutant of *Bacillus subtilis* was

constructed by CRISPR/Cas9 editing method (Ref). Primers for plasmid construction

and mutation verification are listed in (**Table S3**). *satA* deletion was confirmed by DNA

sequencing.

If not specifically mentioned, *B. subtilis* strains were grown in S7 defined media [33] with

modifications (50 mM MOPS instead of 100 mM, 0.1% potassium glutamate, 1%

glucose,  no additional tryptophan or methionine) , with shaking at 250 rpm 37°C. The

modified S7 defined media with 20 amino acids contains 50 µg/mL alanine, 50 µg/mL

arginine, 50 µg/mL asparagine, 50 µg/mL glutamine, 50 µg/mL histidine, 50 µg/mL

lysine, 50 µg/mL proline, 50 µg/mL serine, 50 µg/mL threonine, 50 µg/mL glycine, 50

µg/mL isoleucine, 50 µg/mL leucine, 50 µg/mL methionine, 50 µg/mL valine, 50 µg/mL

phenylalanine, 500 µg/mL aspartic acid, 500 µg/mL glutamic acid, 20 µg/mL tryptophan,

20 µg/mL tyrosine, and 40 µg/mL cysteine.

**Nucleotide Preparation**

(p)ppGpp was synthesized *in vitro* using Rel*Seq*$_{1-385}$ and GppA, purified and quantified

as demonstrated[19]. pGpp was a gift from José A. Lemos Lab in University of Rochester

Medical Center.

Radiolabeled (p)ppGpp was synthesized *in vitro* using Rel*Seq*$_{1-385}$ and GppA as

demonstrated[19] with modifications. We replaced non-radiolabeled GTP with 750 µCi/mL

$^{32}$P-α-GTP (3000 mCi / mmol; PerkinElmer) for production of [5′-α-$^{32}$P]-(p)ppGpp. We

replaced non-radiolabeled ATP with 750 µCi/mL $^{32}$P-γ-ATP (3000 mCi/mmol;

PerkinElmer) for production of [3′-β-$^{32}$P]-ppGpp. After the reaction was done, we 1:10

diluted the reaction mix in Buffer A (0.1 mM LiCl, 0.5 mM EDTA, 25 mM Tris pH 7.5).

The mixture was loaded onto a Buffer-A-equilibrated 1 mL HiTrap QFF column (GE

Healthcare). Then the column was washed sequentially by 10 column volumes of Buffer

A, and 10 column volumes of Buffer A with 170 mM LiCl (for ppGpp purification, the LiCl

concentration was 160 mM) with 1 mL fractions. Radiolabeled (p)ppGpp was eluted by 5

column volumes of Buffer A with 500 mM LiCl with 1 mL fractions. The radioactivity and

purity of radiolabeled (p)ppGpp were analyzed by thin-layer chromatography and

phosphorimaging.

**Overexpression and Purification of SatA**

pE-SUMO-SatA was transformed into E. coli BL21(DE3) lacI$^q$ by chemical

transformation. A single colony of the corresponding strain was grown in LB with 30

μg/mL kanamycin overnight. Overnight culture was 1:100 diluted in LB-M9 media (7 g/L

$Na_2HPO_4$, 2 g/L $KH_2PO_4$, 0.5 g/L NaCl, 1 g/L $NH_4Cl$, 2 g/L glucose, 1 g/L sodium

succinate dibasic hexahydrate; 10 g/L tryptone, 5 g/L yeast extract and 3 mM $MgSO_4$)

with 30 μg/mL kanamycin and grown at 30°C with shaking for 4 hr. After adding 1 mM

IPTG for induction, the culture was further grown at 30°C for 4 hr. Then the culture was

centrifuged at 4000 g for 30 min at 4°C and the supernatant was discarded. The pellet

was stored at -80°C before cell lysis. All the following steps were performed at 4°C. Pellet

was re-suspended in Lysis Buffer (50mM Tris-HCl pH 8, 10% sucrose w/v, 300mM

NaCl) and lysed by French press. Cell lysate was centrifuged at 15000 rpm for 30 min,

and the supernatant was collected, filtered through 0.45 μm pore-size cellulose syringe

filter. His-SUMO-SatA filtered supernatant was purified using a 5 mL HisTrap FF column

(GE Healthcare) equipped on an ÄKTA FPLC apparatus (GE Healthcare). SUMO Buffer

A (50 mM Tris-HCl, 25 mM imidazole, 500 mM NaCl, 5% glycerol v/v) was used as

washing buffer, and SUMO Buffer C (50 mM Tris-HCl, 500 mM imidazole, 500 mM NaCl,

5% glycerol v/v) was used as the elution buffer. Fractions containing most abundant His-

SUMO-SatA were combined with 100 μg SUMO Protease and dialyzed twice against

SUMO Protease Buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, 500 mM NaCl, 5% glycerol v/v, 1 mM β-

mercaptoethanol) overnight. His-SUMO tag was removed by flowing through HisTrap FF

column and collecting the flow-through. Purified SatA was analyzed by SDS-PAGE and

the concentration was measured by the Bradford assay (Bio-rad).

**Differential Radial Capillary Action Ligand Assay (DRaCALA)**

Cell lysate with overexpressed protein and purified protein were used for DRaCALA as

described[22]. 10 µL cell lysate or diluted, purified protein was mixed with 10 µL diluted [5′-

α-$^{32}$P]-(p)ppGpp (~0.2 nM) in a buffer containing 10 mM Tris pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl and 5

mM MgCl$_2$, incubated at room temperature for 10 min. ~2 µL mixture was blotted onto

nitrocellulose membrane (Amersham; GE Healthcare) and allowed for diffusion and

drying. The nitrocellulose membrane loaded with mixture was exposed on phosphor

screen, which was scanned by a Typhoon FLA9000 scanner (GE Healthcare). Fraction

of (p)ppGpp binding was analyzed as described[22].

**Quantification of Intracellular Nucleotides by Thin-Layer Chromatography**

Quantification of ATP, GTP, and (p)ppGpp levels by thin-layer chromatography was

performed as described before [34,35] with modifications. Cells were grown in low

phosphate S7 defined media (0.5 mM phosphate instead of 5 mM), labeled with 50

µCi/mL culture decontaminated $^{32}$P-orthophosphate (9000 mCi/mmol; Perkin-Elmer)

(decontamination was performed as demonstrated previously[36]) at an optical density at

600 nm (OD$_{600nm}$) of ~0.01 and grown for two to three additional generations before

sampling. Nucleotides were extracted by adding 100 µL of sample into 20 µL 2 N formic

acid on ice for at least 20 min. Extracted samples were centrifuged at 15,000 g for 30

min to remove cell debris. Supernatant samples were spotted on PEI cellulose plates

(EMD-Millipore) and developed in 1.5 M or 0.85 M potassium phosphate monobasic

(KH$_2$PO$_4$) (pH 3.4). TLC plates were exposed on phosphor screens, which were scanned

by a Typhoon FLA9000 scanner (GE Healthcare). Nucleotide levels were quantified by

ImageJ (NIH). Nucleotide levels are normalized to ATP level at time zero.

**Kinetic Assay of (p)ppGpp Hydrolysis by SatA**

100 μL reaction mix was prepared with 40 mM Tris HCl pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl, 10 mM

$MgCl_2$, non-radioactive and $^{32}P$-radiolabeled (p)ppGpp (concentration as required by

specific experiments), 100 nM purified SatA (add enzyme last). Before adding enzyme,

reaction mix was prewarmed at 37℃ for at least 10 min. After adding enzyme, 10 μL

reaction mix was aliquoted into 10 μL ice-chilled 0.8 M formic acid to stop the reaction

and preserve nucleotides at every time point. Samples at each time point were resolved

by thin-layer chromatography on PEI-cellulose plates with 1.5 M $KH_2PO_4$ (pH 3.4).

Nucleotide levels were quantified as mentioned above and the phosphorimager counts

of substrate and product were used to calculate the concentration of product by a

formula:

418
$$c_P = c_{S0} \cdot \frac{V_P}{V_P + V_S}$$

Here $c_P$ was the concentration of product, $c_{S0}$ was the concentration of substrate before

the reaction starts, $V_P$ was the phosphorimager count of product, and $V_S$ was the

phosphorimager count of substrate. Initial rates of hydrolysis ($v_0$) were calculated using

the slope of the initial linear part of $c_P$ over time curve at different initial substrate

concentrations. Michaelis-Menten constant ($K_m$) and catalytic rate constant ($k_{cat}$) were

obtained by fitting the data of $v_0$-$c_{S0}$ to the model

425
$$v_0 = \frac{c_E \cdot k_{cat} \cdot c_{S0}^n}{K_m^n + c_{S0}^n}$$

by MATLAB, where $c_E$ was the concentration of SatA, $c_{S0}$ was the initial concentration of

substrate, and $n$ was the Hill's coefficient (for ppGpp hydrolysis, fix $n$ to 1).

**LC-MS Quantification of Nucleotides**

LC-MS quantification of nucleotides was performed as described[29] with modifications.

Cells were grown to designated $OD_{600nm}$. 5 mL of cultures were sampled and filtered

through PTFE membrane (Sartorius) at time points before and after 0.5 mg/mL arginine

hydroxamate treatment. Membranes with cell pellet were submerged in 3 mL extraction

solvent mix (on ice 50:50 (v/v) chloroform/water) to quench metabolism, lyse the cells

and extract metabolites. Mixture of cell extracts were centrifuged at 5000 g for 10 min to

remove organic phase, then centrifuged at 20000 g for 10 min to remove cell debris.

Samples were frozen at -80℃ if not analyzed immediately. Samples were analyzed

using HPLC-MS system consisting of a Vanquish UHPLC system linked to electrospray

ionization (ESI, negative mode) to a Q Exactive Orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo

Scientific) operated in full-scan mode to detect targeted metabolites based on their

accurate masses. LC was performed on an Aquity UPLC BEH C18 column (1.7 µm, 2.1

X 100 mm; Waters). Total run time was 30 min with a flow rate of 0.2 mL/min, using

Solvent A (97:3 (v/v) water/methanol, 10 mM tributylamine and 10 mM acetic acid) and

acetonitrile as Solvent B. The gradient was as follows: 0 min, 5% B; 2.5 min, 5% B; 19

min, 100% B; 23.5 min 100% B; 24 min, 5% B; 30 min, 5% B. Quantification of

metabolites were performed by using MAVEN software.

**Competition Assay**

LB broth cultures of erythromycin-sensitive and erythromycin-resistant strains were

diluted and mixed  in fresh LB broth to an $OD_{600nm}$ of 0.03; the mixture was incubated at

37°C at 250 rpm; after every 24 hrs the culture was diluted in fresh LB broth to an

$OD_{600nm}$ of 0.02 to initiate the recovery from late stationary phase; the culture was

sampled, serially diluted and spread over LB agar and LB agar containing 0.5 μg/mL

erythromycin and  12.5 μg/mL lincomycin (LB-mls agar). CFU calculated from LB agar

and LB-mls agar represented the CFU of total bacteria and erythromycin-resistant strain,

respectively. Relative fitness was calculated by the formula: $w = \frac{log_2(CFU_{erm^R_t}/CFU_{erm^R_0})}{log_2(CFU_{erm^S_t}/CFU_{erm^S_0})}$,

where w means relative fitness of the erythromycin-resistant strain to the erythromycin-

sensitive strain; $CFU_{erm^R_0}$ and $CFU_{erm^R_t}$ means the total CFU of erythromycin-resistant

strain before and after competition, respectively; $CFU_{erm^S_0}$ and $CFU_{erm^S_t}$ means the total

CFU of erythromycin-sensitive strain before and after competition, respectively.

**[$^{35}$S]-Methionine Incorporation Assay**

[$^{35}$S]-Methionine (10.2 mCi/mL, PerkinElmer) was diluted to 0.5 μCi/μL and aliquoted into

1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes (10 μL per tube, heated at 37°C). Cells were grown to $OD_{600nm}$

at around 0.2 (record the exact OD). Aliquots of 200 μL culture were taken at time points

before and after 0.5 mg/mL RHX treatment, added into tubes of aliquoted [$^{35}$S]-

Methionine, incubated at 37°C for 5 min and fixed by adding 200 μL ice-chilled 20% (w/v)

trichloroacetic acid. Fixed samples were chilled before filtration. Glass fiber filters

(24mm, GF6, Whatman) were prewetted with 3 mL ice-chilled 5%(w/v) trichloroacetic

acid and applied with fixed samples. Filters were then washed three times by 3 x 10 mL

ice-chilled 5%(w/v) trichloroacetic acid and dried by ethanol. Dried filters were put in

scintillation vials, mixed with 5 mL scintillation fluid and then sent for scintillation count in

the range of 2.0-18.6 eV. Counts per minutes (CPM) measured by scintillation counter

were used as the representative of translation rate. The ratio of the CPM of one sample

relative to the CPM at time zero was calculated as the relative translation rate.

**Out growth from nutrient downshift**

Cells were grown in rich medium (S7 + 20 amino acids) to mid log phase, and then

washed in poor medium (S7 without amino acid). Washed cultures were diluted into

fresh rich medium and the growth was monitored by a plate reader (Synergy 2, Biotek)

at 37$^{\circ}$C under shaking.

**Figure 1. Proteome-wide DRaCALA screen identifies both conserved categories of**

**binding targets and novel targets.**

**a)** The *Bacillus anthracis* ORF donor vector library was recombined by Gateway cloning

into overexpression vectors to generate ORFs with an N-terminal His-tag or His-MBP

tag. The plasmids were transformed into *E. coli* for overexpression of recombinant

proteins. Lysates of each ORF overexpressed in *E. coli* were assayed for binding to

pppGpp, ppGpp and pGpp using DRaCALA. **b)** List of identified (p)ppGpp binding

targets in *E. coli*, *S. aureus,* and *B. anthracis* and pGpp binding targets in *B. anthracis*.

**c-d)** Schematics of pathways differentially regulated by pGpp and (p)ppGpp: **c)**

Enzymes in purine nucleotide synthesis, including HprT, Xpt, Gmk and GuaC, bound

both pGpp and (p)ppGpp; **d)** GTPases, involved in ribosome biogenesis and

translational control (Obg, HflX, Der, RbgA and Era), bound (p)ppGpp, but not pGpp.

**Figure 2. SatA (YvcI) produces pGpp via (p)ppGpp hydrolysis.**

**a)** DRaCALA of [5'-α-$^{32}$P]-ppGpp binding to *B. subtilis* HisMBP labeled -YvcI (SatA)

overexpressed in *E. coli* cell lysate. Unlablled GTP (100 uM), unlabeled ppGpp (100 μM)

and EDTA (10 mM) were added as indicated. **b)** Ion count vs. retention time curves from

LC-MS of GTP and pGpp standards and SatA-catalyzed hydrolysis products from ppGpp

and pppGpp. **c)** TLC analysis of SatA activity over time with [3'-β-$^{32}$P]-pppGpp.

Expected SatA-catalyzed conversion of [3'-β-$^{32}$P]-pppGpp to [3'-β-$^{32}$P]-pGpp is shown on

the right. Radiolabeled [3'-β-$^{32}$P]-phosphorus atom is highlighted in red. **d)** Quantitation

of pppGpp and pGpp in the hydrolysis of pppGpp in (c). **e)** Initial velocity vs. pppGpp or

ppGpp concentration curves for SatA synthesis of pGpp. Data were obtained by kinetic

assay using radiolabels (see Methods). Curves represent the best fit of the data from

three independent experiments. Error bars represent standard error of the mean.

**Figure 3. pGpp is produced by SatA *in vivo* and has a distinct binding spectrum compared to (p)ppGpp.**

**a)** LC-MS analyses of metabolomes of wild type and Δ*satA* in log phase and stationary phase. Normalized ion count is ion count per $OD_{600}$ per unit volume of the culture. Error bars represent standard error of the mean of three biological replicates. A two-tailed two-sample equal-variance Student's *t* test was performed between samples indicated by asterisks. Asterisks indicate statistical significance of differences (* $P{\leqslant}0.05$, ** $P{\leqslant}0.01$, *** $P{\leqslant}0.001$). **b)** RelA hydrolysis of pGpp, ppGpp and pppGpp over time. For each nucleotide, 200 nM RelA was incubated with a mix of 100 μM unlabeled alarmone and a small amount of 5'-α-$^{32}$P-labeled version. The degradation of the alarmone was analyzed by TLC to measure the decreased radioactivity. Error bars represent standard error of the mean of three technical replicates. **c)** DRaCALA of purified His-MBP-tagged *B. anthracis* proteins (1 μM) with 5'-α-$^{32}$P-labeled pGpp, ppGpp, and pppGpp. **d)** (Upper left panel) Quantification of 3 technical replicates of DRaCALA as shown in (c). Quantification of 2 technical replicates of DRaCALA of purified His-MBP-tagged *B. anthracis* GTPases HflX (upper right panel), Obg (lower left panel) and translation elongation factor G (EF-G) (lower right panel). Error bars represent standard errors of the mean. **e)** Schematic showing the relationship between pGpp binding targets and (p)ppGpp binding targets.

**Figure 4. The effect of SatA on translation,  growth recovery and fitness of _B._**

**_subtilis_.** **a)** [$^{35}$S]-methionine incorporation assay of wild type and Δ*satA* strains after

arginine hydroxamate (RHX) treatment at t=0. Error bars represent standard errors of

the mean from three replicates. A two-tailed two-sample equal-variance Student's *t* test

was performed between samples indicated by asterisks. Asterisk indicates statistical

significance of difference (* *P*≤0.05). **b)** Change of percentage of Δ*satA::erm* and wild

type strains in total colony forming units (CFU) during a competition assay in LB broth

over time. Error bars represent standard errors of the mean from 3 repeats. **c)** Out

growth from nutrient downshift. Log phase cultures of wild type, Δ*satA* and *satA*

complementation strains in rich media were firstly washed in minimum media without

amino acids, and then diluted in rich media for outgrowth. **d)** Doubling times during log

phase of outgrowth shown in (c). Error bars in (c-d) represent standard errors from 6

replicates.

**Figure S1. Protein sequence alignment of SatA (YvcI) homologs in different**

**species.**

Multiple sequence alignment of YvcI homologs from *B. subtilis* (Bsub), *B. anthracis*

(Ban), *B. halodurans* (Bhalo), and *E. coli* (Ec). Alignment was obtained with MAFFT. Red

shading indicates identical residues in all sequences and orange shading indicates

identical residues only in *Bacillus* species. Red dots label the key residues for catalytic

activity. Numbers on the sides of the sequences indicate the residue numbers in the

corresponding proteins.

**Figure S2. Cell lysate containing YvcI, but not purified YvcI, binds (p)ppGpp.**

DRaCALA of cell lysate containing His-MBP-tagged *B. subtilis* YvcI(SatA) and purified

His-MBP-tagged *B. subtilis* YvcI(SatA) with 5'-α-$^{32}$P-labeled (p)ppGpp.

**Figure S3. SatA hydrolyzes (p)ppGpp** *in vitro.*

**a)** TLC analysis of pppGpp and ppGpp hydrolysis by SatA over time. The same assay

was also performed using GTP. **b)** TLC analysis of ppGpp hydrolysis by RelA and SatA

over time. Substrate and product identities are labeled on the left side of the figure.

**Figure S4. SatA hydrolyzes (p)ppGpp *in vivo* in *B. subtilis* treated by arginine hydroxamate.**

**a-b)** pppGpp (a) and ppGpp (b) levels in wild type and Δ*satA B. subtilis* treated with arginine hydroxamate (RHX). Nucleotide levels were assayed via TLC and are normalized to the ATP level at time zero (ATP$_{t=0}$). Error bars represent standard errors of mean of three independent experiments. **c-e)** LC-MS analyses of pppGpp (c), ppGpp (d) and pGpp (e) of wild type and Δ*satA* before and after RHX treatment. Normalized ion count is ion count per OD$_{600}$ per unit volume of the culture. Error bars represent standard error of the mean of two biological replicates. Asterisks indicate statistical significance of differences (* $P \leqslant 0.05$, ** $P \leqslant 0.01$).

**Figure S5. *satA* complementation rescues pGpp production *in vivo*.**

**a)** Intensity profile of pGpp m/z ratio from LC-MS profiling of mid log phase wild type,

Δ*satA* and *satA* ectopic complementation strain (Δ*satA amyE::Phy::satA*). For each

strain, a representative curve was shown. Dashed lines are the shoulders of the GTP

signal peak. **b)** Normalized ion count (ion count per $OD_{600}$ per unit volume of the culture)

of corresponding pGpp levels, obtained as the average of 3 biological replicates in **a)**.

Error bars represents standard error of the mean.

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quantification of intracellular nucleoside triphosphates by one-dimensional thin-

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|  | ppGpp | pppGpp |
|---|---|---|
| $k_{cat}$ (s$^{-1}$) | 1.22 ± 0.17 | 10.0 ± 0.5 |
| $K_M$ (µM) | 7.5 ± 2.3 | 177.4 ± 0.4 |
| Hill coefficient | 1 | 2.78 ± 0.47 |

Table 1. Kinetic parameters of (p)ppGpp hydrolysis by SatA.

**a**

**b**

| Name | B. anthracis (This Work) | | | E. coli [19,20] | S. aureus [18] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | pppGpp | ppGpp | pGpp | (p)ppGpp | ppGpp |
| **Purine Synthesis Pathway** | | | | | |
| HprT | √ | √ | √ | √[19,20] | √ |
| Xpt | √ | √ | √ | NA | |
| Gmk | √ | √ | √ | | √ |
| PurA | √ | √ | √ | √[20] | |
| GuaC | Pending | √ | √ | | |
| PurR | √ | √ | √ | | |
| PurB | | | | √[20] | |
| PurC | | | | √[20] | |
| PurD | | | | √[20] | |
| PurF | | | | √[20] | |
| Gpt | NA | NA | NA | √[19,20] | |
| **Ribosome and Translation Regulation** | | | | | |
| HflX | √ | √ | | √[19] | √ |
| Der | √ | √ | | √[19,20] | |
| Obg | √ | √ | | √[19,20] | √ |
| RbgA | √ | √ | | NA | √ |
| TrmE | √ | √ | | √[19,20] | |
| Era | √ | √ | | √[19,20] | √ |
| **(p)ppGpp Metabolism** | | | | | |
| (p)ppGpp synthetase | √ | √ | √ | √[19] | |
| NuDiX hydrolase | √ | √ | | √(MutT)[19] | |
| 5′-nucleotidase | √ | √ | √ | √(UshA)[19] | |

**c**                                                                                       **d**

Red: bound by pGpp, ppGpp and pppGpp

Blue: bound by ppGpp and pppGpp, but not by pGpp

Fig. 2

Fig. 3

Fig. 4

**a**

Relative [$^{35}$S]–met incorporation (%)

— WT
--- ΔsatA

Time after RHX treatment (min)

**b**

Competition Assay

Percentage in total CFU (%)

— WT
--- ΔsatA

Time (day)

**c**

Outgrowth from nutrient downshift

OD$_{600nm}$

WT
ΔsatA
ΔsatA
IPTG satA

Time (min)

**d**

Exponential growth

Doubling Time (min)

WT    ΔsatA    ΔsatA
IPTG satA

Fig. S1

```
1 Bsub_SatA       1 MTYLQRVTNCVLQTDDKVLLLQKP----RRGWWVAPGGKMESGFSVRDSVIREYREETGIYIINPQLKGVFTFIIKD-GDHIVSEWMMFT 85
2 Ban_YvcI(BA5385) 1 ---MQRVTNCVLIRDNEVLLLQKP----RRNWWVAPGGKMERGFTVRDSVVREYREETGIYLKNPALKGVFTFVIQE-GDKVVSEWMMFS 82
3 Bhalo_YvcI(BH3570) 1 ---MQRVTNCIVVDHDQVLLLQKP----RRGWWVAPGGKMEAGFSILETVKREYWEETGITVKNPELKGIFSMVIFD-EGKIVSEWMLFT 82
4 EcMutT          1 MKKLQIAVGIIRNENNEIFITRRAADAHMANKLEFPGGKIEMGFTPEQAVVRELQEEVGITPQHFSLFEKLEYEFPDRHITLWFWLVERW 90
5 EcNudG          1 MK-MIEVVAAIIERDGKILLAQRPAQSDQAGLWEFAGGKVEPDFSQRQALVRELREELGIEATVGEYVASHQREVSGRIIHLHAWHVPDF 89
```

NuDIX Box

```
1 Bsub_SatA       86 FVADSYTGQNV-SESEEGKLQWHDVNDIQNLPMAPGDGHILDFMMKGQGLLHGTFTYTPEFELLSYRLDPQ-HIK--- 158
2 Ban_YvcI(BA5385) 83 FLATDFAGENK-LESEEGIIGWHTFDKIDDLAMAPGDYHIIDYLIKGNGIIYGTFVYTPDFELLSYRLDPS------- 152
3 Bhalo_YvcI(BH3570) 83 FKATEHEGEML-KQSPEGKLEWKKKDEVLELPMAAGDKWIFKHVLHSDRLLYGTFHYTPDFELLSYRLDPEPQMKKGV 159
4 EcMutT          91 EGEPWGKEGQP------GEWMSLVGLNADDFP--PANEPVIAKLKR----------------L--------------- 129
5 EcNudG          90 HGTLQAHEHQA------LVWCS--PEEALQYPLAPADIPLLEAFMA----------------LRAAR--PAD------ 135
```

Fig. S2

**a**

pGpp

GTP

ppGpp

pppGpp

| 0 | 10 | 20 | 40 | 80 | 120 | 160 | 0 | 10 | 20 | 40 | 80 | 120 | 160 | 0 | 10 | 20 | 40 | 80 | 120 | 160 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

Time (min)

| ppGpp | pppGpp | GTP |
|---|---|---|

YvcI(SatA)

**b**

GDP

pGpp

ppGpp

| 0 | 10 | 20 | 40 | 80 | 0 | 10 | 20 | 40 | 80 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

Time (min)

| RelA | YvcI(SatA) |
|---|---|

Fig. S4

Fig. S5

a

pGpp

WT

ΔsatA

Intensity

$10^5$

ΔsatA
IPTG-satA

11.5   11.7

Retention Time (min)

b

pGpp