Protein arginine phosphorylation and de-phosphorylation facilitate protein homeostasis

by an AAA+ chaperone protease system

Regina Alver[1,2,4], Ingo Hantke[2,4], Fabián A. Cornejo[1], Katrin Gunka[2], Sebastian Rämisch[1], Noël

Molière[2], Emmanuelle Charpentier[1,3] & Kürşad Turgay[1,2*]

[1]*Max Planck Unit for the Science of Pathogens, Berlin, Germany*
[2]*Institut für Mikrobiologie, Leibniz-Universität Hannover, Hannover, Germany*
[3]*Institut für Biologie, Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin, Berlin, Germany*
8
[4]The authors contributed equally to this work.

[*]for correspondence: Kürşad Turgay, Max Planck Unit for the Science of Pathogens,
Charitéplatz 1, 10117 Berlin, Germany; e-mail turgay@mpusp.mpg.de

Running title: protein arginine phosphorylation in protein homeostasis

Keywords: Stress response, protein arginine phosphorylation, protein homeostasis,

chaperones, AAA+ proteins, adaptor proteins, McsB kinase, YwlE phosphatase, ClpCP

Abstract

In the Gram-positive model organism *Bacillus subtilis*, the AAA+ unfoldase ClpC associated

with the ClpP protease plays an important role in cellular protein homeostasis and stress

response. Here, we could demonstrate that the protein arginine kinase and adaptor protein

McsB, its activator McsA, the phosphatase YwlE, and ClpC form a unique chaperone system

necessary for protein aggregate removal *in vivo* and *in vitro*. Activated McsB phosphorylates

and targets aggregated substrate proteins for extraction and unfolding by ClpC. Sub-

stoichiometric amounts of catalytically active YwlE significantly enhanced ClpC/McsB-

mediated disaggregation and facilitated the refolding of unfolded, arginine-phosphorylated

substrate proteins *in vitro*. The refolded substrate proteins could escape the degradation by the

associated ClpP protease. In this unique chaperone system, protein unfolding, coordinated with

protein arginine phosphorylation and de-phosphorylation, facilitates protein refolding and

homeostasis.

Introduction

Molecular chaperone systems monitor and maintain cellular protein homeostasis. These include the highly conserved Hsp60 (GroE) and the Hsp70 (DnaKJE) systems which can prevent aggregation or refold and repair misfolded proteins. In many bacteria and yeast, AAA+ unfoldases such as Hsp104 (ClpB), can disaggregate and refold protein aggregates together with DnaK. In addition, related AAA+ protease complexes, such as ClpCP of *B. subtilis*, allow the general proteolysis and removal of potentially toxic, damaged proteins, which otherwise cannot be rescued or repaired. The substrate recognition and selection by these AAA+ unfoldases often depends on their interaction with adaptor proteins that can recognize and target substrate proteins and thereby define and expand the substrate spectrum. Notably, the control of adaptor protein activity and substrate recognition allows such AAA+ protease complexes to be involved in regulatory proteolysis, controlling, for example, the activity and stability of key transcription factors of stress response or developmental pathways (Battesti and Gottesman, 2013; Hartl et al., 2011; Kirstein et al., 2009; Mogk et al., 2011, 2018; Sauer and Baker, 2011). In these molecular machines, the substrate proteins are recognized and subsequently unfolded by ATPase-driven translocation through the central pore formed by the hexameric AAA+ proteins. The emerging unfolded polypeptide chain can be transferred for degradation into an associated compartmentalized ClpP protease complex (Mogk et al., 2018; Sauer and Baker, 2011; Weibezahn et al., 2004). The association of AAA+ proteins with ClpP is mediated by the tips of ClpP-interacting loops (P-loops) extending from the bottom of the AAA+ protein hexamer and interacting with binding pockets on the apical surface of the double-heptameric ClpP complex (Amor et al., 2019; Fei et al., 2020; Gatsogiannis et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2001; Ripstein et al., 2020; Weibezahn et al., 2004).

In *B. subtilis*, all the highly conserved chaperone systems are present, with the notable exception of the ClpB disaggregase. In addition to their role in general proteolysis, the *B. subtilis* AAA+ protease complexes ClpCP and ClpXP together with their different adaptor proteins are

intricately involved in regulatory proteolysis to control e.g. heat and oxidative stress response

or cell developmental pathways, such as competence development (Gerth et al., 2004; Hantke

et al., 2019; Kirstein et al., 2009; Krüger et al., 1994; Msadek et al., 1994; Runde et al., 2014;

Turgay et al., 1998). For *B. subtilis* ClpC, substrate recognition and its activation depend on its

three known adaptor proteins, MecA (Turgay et al., 1998), its paralog YpbH (Persuh et al.,

2002; Schlothauer et al., 2003) and the protein kinase McsB. The gene for McsB is part of the

clpC operon (*ctsR*, *mcsA*, *mcsB* and *clpC*) that is, like *clpP* and *clpE* genes, controlled by the

heat-sensitive transcription repressor CtsR (Derre et al., 1999; Elsholz et al., 2010, 2011;

Fuhrmann et al., 2009; Kirstein et al., 2007, 2009; Krüger and Hecker, 1998; Krüger et al.,

2000, 2001).

The protein kinase activity of the McsB adaptor protein catalyzes the formation of a phospho-

arginine protein modification with a high-energy phosphoramidate bond (Fuhrmann et al.,

2009). McsB autophosphorylates itself and McsA, further activating the McsB arginine kinase

activity, resulting in enhanced autophosphorylation and the phosphorylation of McsA, ClpC

and substrate proteins such as CtsR. YwlE is the cognate phospho-arginine phosphatase, which

can counteract the McsB kinase activity, thereby controlling the extent of this protein

modification in *B. subtilis* (Elsholz et al., 2012; Fuhrmann et al., 2009, 2013; Kirstein et al.,

2005, 2007; Schmidt et al., 2014; Suskiewicz et al., 2019; Trentini et al., 2016). The pleiotropic

influence of *ywlE* on *B. subtilis* physiology and regulatory pathways was observed (Elsholz et

al., 2012; Schmidt et al., 2014), more recently an important role of YwlE in *B. subtilis* spore

germination was discovered (Zhou et al., 2019, 2022).

McsB, as an adaptor protein, can interact with the NTD of ClpC and thereby targets the substrate

protein for ClpCP degradation. This activity can also occur independently of arginine

phosphorylation of the substrate (Elsholz et al., 2010; Kirstein et al., 2007; Stannek et al., 2014).

A clear link between the kinase activity of McsB, ClpC activation and its ability to target

substrate proteins was observed (Elsholz et al., 2012; Kirstein et al., 2005, 2007; Trentini et al.,

2016). Recently, another mechanism of substrate targeting to ClpC could be observed, where

protein arginine phosphorylation by McsB could create a degron to mark a model substrate

protein for direct recognition by the N-terminal domain of ClpC and subsequent degradation

by ClpCP (Morreale et al., 2022; Trentini et al., 2016).

The genetic organization and the stress-controlled expression of McsB, McsA and ClpC could

indicate a possible role of McsB, McsA and ClpC not only in the control of CtsR but also in

general protein homeostasis during stress response. McsB co-localizes with stress-induced sub-

cellular protein aggregates (Kirstein et al., 2008) and is necessary for disassembling large

proteinaceous structures, such as the DNA uptake complex during the escape from competence

(Hahn et al., 2009).

Here, we can demonstrate that the McsB kinase is the major ClpC adaptor protein necessary to

remove protein aggregates. ClpC, McsB and McsA, in the presence of sub-stoichiometric

amounts of YwlE phosphatase, establish a unique and effective disaggregation and refolding

system. Interestingly, in the presence of ClpP, the successfully refolded substrate protein was

released and not transferred for ClpP degradation.

Results

McsB is the main adaptor protein for the removal of subcellular protein aggregates by

ClpC

To identify which of the adaptor proteins is responsible for the general role of ClpC in protein

homeostasis *in vivo*, we constructed a triple adaptor mutant strain (TAM) lacking the genes for

the three known ClpC adaptor proteins (Δ*mecA*Δ*ypbH*Δ*mcsB*). This TAM strain was impaired

in thermoresistance and in its ability to develop thermotolerance (Fig 1A & S1A) (Runde et al.,

2014). To examine the individual impact of the different adaptor proteins, we re-introduced

each of the deleted genes under the control of the IPTG-inducible *hyper spank* (hs) promoter

(P$_{hs}$) in the *amyE* locus, allowing the independent expression of each adaptor protein in the

TAM strain (Fig 1BC Fig S1BD). We observed that only the expression of *mcsB*, and not *ypbH*

or *mecA*, was able to confer thermoresistance and thermotolerance at a level comparable to the

wildtype strain of *B. subtilis* (Fig 1B, Fig S1BC). Only the expression of *mcsB* resulted in the

complete removal of heat-induced protein aggregates after a 90 min recovery at 37 °C (Fig 1C,

FigS1E) (Hantke et al., 2019). Furthermore, McsB-GFP co-localizes with subcellular protein

aggregates marked by the YocM-mCherry reporter *in vivo* (Fig S1FG) (Kirstein et al., 2008).

These experiments suggest that McsB is the ClpC adaptor protein necessary and sufficient for

thermoresistance and thermotolerance development and to target subcellular protein aggregates

for ClpC dependent removal (Hantke et al., 2019) (Fig 1 & Fig S1).

Figure 1 Role of ClpC adaptor protein McsB in protein homeostasis

A) Thermotolerance (squares: with pre-shock) and Thermoresistance (triangles: without pre-shock)
experiments analyzing *B. subtilis* Δ*mecA*Δ*ypbH*Δ*mcsB* ('TAM', BIH737, red) and wildtype (black) strains.
B) *B. subtilis* TAM P$_{hs}$ *mcsB* strain (BIH739), with (black) and without IPTG (red) were examined in a
thermotolerance (squares: with pre-shock at 48 °C) and thermoresistance (triangles: no pre-shock)
experiment. Log$_{10}$-values of viable cell count were normalized, and three biological replicates were used to
calculate standard deviations (error bars) with significant differences indicated (*: p<0.05, **: p<0.01, ***:
p<0.001). **C)** Subcellular protein aggregates during recovery after heat stress *in vivo*. Ratio of cells containing
protein aggregates marked by YocM-mCherry of complemented *B. subtilis* TAM strains (TAM P$_{hs}$ *mscsB*
(BIH739), TAM P$_{hs}$ *mecA* (BIH740), TAM P$_{hs}$ *ypbH* (BIH741), which were heat shocked for 30 min at 50°C
and recovered for 90 min at 37°C, was determined based on three biological replicates including three
technical replicates of 50 – 100 cells. Samples were taken at indicated time points for analysis by fluorescence
microscopy (see also Fig S1D).

We used heat-aggregated and inactivated malate dehydrogenase (Mdh) as a model substrate for

measuring the disaggregation and refolding activities of this chaperone system *in vitro*

(Goloubinoff et al., 1999; Haslberger et al., 2008; Schlothauer et al., 2003). In a control

experiment, we confirmed that the native, enzymatically active, and folded Mdh was not

inactivated by the McsB kinase (Fig S1J).

We observed a fast disaggregation kinetic for the *E. coli* ClpB, DnaK, DnaJ and GrpE

disaggregation and refolding system, fully dissolving the protein aggregates and recovering

30% of enzyme activity after 120 minutes of incubation (Fig S1H). A slower disaggregation to

about 50% with a less effective refolding activity to about 15% of the initial Mdh activity could

be observed for the MecA/ClpC chaperone system (Schlothauer et al., 2003) (Fig S1H).

Adding McsB, McsA & ClpC to the heat-aggregated Mdh first increased light scattering,

peaking after 15 min, possibly indicating an apparent initial complex formation. The subsequent

disaggregation of the substrate protein reached only a level of 60% disaggregated protein

compared to 100% observed for ClpB/KJE (Fig S1H, left panel). Only very little refolding

(about 5%) could be observed for McsB and McsA with ClpC (Fig S1H, right panel).

In supernatant/pellet experiments, only the solubilization of aggregated Mdh by ClpB/KJE

could be detected (Fig S1I). With an antibody generated to detect protein arginine

phosphorylation (Fuhrmann et al., 2015), we observed that most of the phosphorylated substrate

could be detected after 15 min, mostly in the soluble fraction (Fig S1I). This coincides with the

initial disaggregation complex appeared to become stabilized and active (Fig S1H, Fig S1I).

The significant disaggregation but rather low refolding activity by ClpC, McsB and McsA (Fig

S1H) might be explained by the unhinged kinase activity of McsB (Fig S1I), whereby the

protein arginine phosphorylation of the substrate protein could interfere with its successful

refolding.

McsB lacking its kinase activity can partially function as a ClpC adaptor protein in

protein disaggregation and refolding

Therefore, we investigated the kinase-inactive McsB C167S variant (Kirstein et al., 2005, 2007)

in these *in vivo* and *in vitro* experiments. A *mcsB* deletion mutant and the kinase-inactive

mcsB C167S mutant strain were impaired by about one order of magnitude in their ability to

develop thermotolerance or thermoresistance (Fig S2A). However, a partial disaggregation

activity at about 25% of the wt *B. subtilis* level was still observed *in vivo* for the *mcsB* C167S

mutant, while no *in vivo* disaggregation activity was detected during recovery at 37°C in the

absence of McsB or McsB C167S (Fig S2B). McsB C167S could still activate the ClpC ATPase

activity *in vitro*; however, only to less than 50 % of McsB-mediated activation (Fig S2C). We

could observe a similar *in vivo* co-localization to subcellular protein aggregates by the kinase-

inactive McsB C167S-GFP and the McsB-GFP fusion proteins (Kirstein et al., 2008),

suggesting that McsB can recognize subcellular protein aggregates independently of its kinase

activity (Fig S2D).

McsB C167S was able to facilitate the ClpC mediated disaggregation reaction *in vitro*, albeit

not as fast as wt McsB with McsA, but reaching a similar yield after 120 min (Fig S2E).

However, with McsB C167S, we observed a significantly increased recovery of Mdh activity

by about 20% of the initial activity compared to the 5% of wt McsB with McsA (Fig. S2E) or

the 15% of MecA (Fig S1H). This suggests that the McsB C167S variant could still bind and

activate ClpC and concurrently recognize and target aggregated proteins to a certain extent of

disaggregation and refolding, even in the absence of arginine phosphorylation (Fig S2E & S2F).

The presence of sub-stoichiometric amounts of the YwlE phosphatase is necessary to

facilitate McsB kinase-mediated *in vitro* disaggregation and refolding by ClpC

McsA-activated McsB appeared to facilitate disaggregation but, in contrast to the kinase-

inactive McsB C167S variant, very little refolding of aggregated Mdh was observed (Fig S2E

& S2F). This suggests that controlling the level of protein arginine phosphorylation state by the

missing cognate phosphatase YwlE could be important for this chaperone system (Elsholz et

al., 2012; Schmidt et al., 2014). Previous *in vitro* experiments demonstrated that equimolar

amounts of YwlE inhibit the McsB and McsA-mediated activation of ClpC (Kirstein et al.,

2007). Therefore, we tested the effect of lowering the YwlE concentration on the ClpC ATPase

activity and observed that at sub-stoichiometric amounts of 0.01-0.05 µM of YwlE, the McsA

& McsB induced ClpC ATPase activity was not inhibited anymore (Fig 2A).

Figure 2 Sub-stoichiometric YwlE facilitates *in vitro* disaggregation and refolding
A) ATPase activity of ClpC/McsB/McsA (1/1/1 µM) was determined in absence or presence of indicated amounts of YwlE (0.01-1µM). **B**) Disaggregation and refolding experiments. Disaggregation of heat aggregated Mdh after addition of ClpB/KJE (filled black circles), ClpC/McsB/McsA (empty triangles, blue line), ClpC/McsB/McsA/YwlE (red filled triangles) or ClpC/McsB/McsA/YwlE C7S (empty triangles, red line) was monitored *in vitro* by measuring light scattering at 30 °C for 120 min (left panel). The refolding was determined by Mdh enzymatic activity (right panel). 0.05 µM YwlE or YwlE C7S were added when indicated. The plots show the mean of at least three replicates with standard deviation.

When we added such a sub-stoichiometric amount of YwlE (0.05 µM) to the *in vitro* disaggregation and refolding assay with ClpC, McsB & McsA (at 1.5, 1 & 1 µM), we observed an enhanced disaggregation of aggregated Mdh and a significantly increased refolding (Fig 2B). Remarkably, about 100% of the heat-aggregated Mdh was disaggregated before 90 min, and 50% was successfully refolded by ClpC, McsB & McsA in the presence of the low amount of YwlE. Accordingly, pellet-supernatant experiments displayed a clear shift of Mdh from the pellet to the soluble fraction in the presence of ClpC, McsB & McsA with sub-stoichiometric amounts of YwlE. Interestingly, arginine protein phosphorylation was close to or even below detection level by western blot (Fig S3A), suggesting that the presence of sub-stoichiometric amounts of active YwlE is sufficient to effectively lower the phosphorylation state of the involved proteins.

When we added the same sub-stoichiometric amount of the phosphatase inactive YwlE C7S variant (Fuhrmann et al., 2013) to the disaggregation and refolding experiment, we observed a more pronounced shift in light scattering, suggesting a larger protein complex formation after 15 min accompanied by a low disaggregation rate without apparent refolding (Fig 2B).

Furthermore, no solubilization of aggregated protein could be observed in the respective

supernatant pellet experiment with YwlE C7S (Fig S3A). In the presence of the YwlE C7S

variant, the concomitant protein arginine phosphorylation was at a maximum after 15 min,

concurrent with the raised light scattering signal observed in the absence of YwlE (Fig 2B &

S3A). With order-of-addition experiments, we observed that the later the addition of YwlE was,

the lower the disaggregation and the refolding yields were (Fig S4AB).

These experiments suggest that the YwlE phosphatase activity is necessary for efficient

disaggregation and refolding by the ClpC/McsB/McsA chaperone system. YwlE-mediated de-

phosphorylation might directly support refolding of unfolded substrate proteins (Fig 2B) and

could also modulate ClpC, McsB and McsA activities (Elsholz et al., 2012; Hajdusits et al.,

2021; Kirstein et al., 2007; Schmidt et al., 2014).

Low *in vivo* levels of the YwlE phosphatase are necessary for protein homeostasis

Our *in vitro* experiments suggested that the presence of sub-stoichiometric levels of YwlE

relative to the ClpC chaperone complex (1:20-1:30) facilitates efficient McsB-mediated

disaggregation and refolding of aggregated proteins. This ratio of YwlE to ClpC corresponds

relatively well to the observed *in vivo* ratio of about 20 to 100 times lower *in vivo* cellular

concentration of YwlE, compared to the higher abundant ClpC (Gerth et al., 2004; Muntel et

al., 2014; Turgay et al., 1998).

B. subtilis lacking *ywlE* was more thermosensitive and less thermotolerant than the wildtype

strain (Fig 3A), similar to what we observed for Δ*mcsB* cells (Fig S2A & S2E). Since the

relative levels of YwlE seem to play an important role, we wanted to assess the effect of

different cellular levels of YwlE on heat stress response and protein homeostasis in more detail.

Therefore, we complemented the Δ*ywlE* mutant *in trans* by IPTG inducible expression of *ywlE*

or *ywlE* C7S in the *amyE* locus.

We then estimated the cellular YwlE levels of these strains by quantitative western blotting (Fig

3D & S3E). We observed levels of about 134 (±34) and 64 (±11) YwlE molecules per cell in

in wildtype *B. subtilis* and the complemented Δ*ywlE* P$_{hs}$ *ywlE* strain without IPTG addition,

respectively (Fig S3E). Already the addition of 10 μM IPTG doubled the cellular YwlE to 274

(± 26) molecules/cell, going up to about 6500 (± 1702) molecules YwlE per cell when 2 mM

IPTG was added (Fig 3D & S3E). We observed that without induction, the Δ*ywlE* P$_{hs}$ *ywlE*

strain (about 64 molecules per cell) behaved like the wildtype (about 134 molecules per cell) in

protein homeostasis. The more IPTG inducer was added, the more YwlE was expressed, and

the less thermotolerant and thermoresistant these cells became (Fig 3AC & S3C), comparable

to the strains lacking YwlE or McsB (Fig S2A & 3AC). Thermotolerance and thermoresistance

were as low as in a Δ*ywlE* strain when complementing with the phosphatase inactive *ywlE* C7S

variant (Fig 3C).

Figure 3 Low *in vivo* levels of YwlE facilitate protein homeostasis

A) Thermoresistance (left panel no pre-shock) and thermotolerance (right panel 15 min pre-shock at 48 °C)

experiments with *B. subtilis* wildtype (black), Δ*ywlE* (BIH309, blue) and Δ*ywlE* P$_{hs}$ *ywlE* + 2 mM IPTG

(BIH828, red) were performed. Log$_{10}$-values of viable cell counts were normalized and three biological

replicates were used to calculate standard deviations (error bars). **B**) Subcellular protein aggregates during

recovery after heat stress *in vivo*. Cells of *B. subtilis* strains Δ*ywlE* P$_{hs}$ *ywlE* (BIH828) and Δ*ywlE* P$_{hs}$ *ywlE*

C7S (BIH829) both also encoding P$_{xyl}$ *yocM-mCherry* were heat shocked for 20 min at 52°C and recovered

for 60 min at 37°C. Cells were taken at the indicated timepoints and their subcellular protein aggregates
analyzed by fluorescence microscopy. Three biological replicates including three technical replicates with
about 50 – 100 cells were analyzed to calculate the ratio of cells containing protein aggregates marked by
YocM-mCherry. **C)** Thermoresistance (left panel no pre-shock) and thermotolerance (right panel 15 min pre-
shock at 48 °C) experiments with *B. subtilis* Δ*ywlE* (BIH309, red), Δ*ywlE* P$_{hs}$ *ywlE* (BIH828, black) and
Δ*ywlE* P$_{hs}$ *ywlE* C7S (BIH829, blue) without IPTG. Log$_{10}$-values of viable cell count were normalized, and
three biological replicates were used to calculate standard deviations (error bars) with significant of
differences indicated (*: $p<0.05$, **: $p<0.01$, ***: $p<0.001$, Welch's test). **D)** Table showing the number of
YwlE proteins / cell determined *in vivo* by quantitative Western blotting for the different *B. subtilis* strains
and indicated IPTG concentrations (see Fig S3E).
264
Assessing the subcellular aggregate formation revealed increased subcellular aggregates at

48°C and at 48/53°C during thermotolerance for the cells with increased *ywlE* expression, but

not when *ywlE* C7S was expressed (Fig S3B). In line with these experiments, high expression

of *ywlE* diminished the clearance of heat-induced aggregates during recovery from heat stress

(Fig 2D), which was not observed with low YwlE levels or for the Δ*ywlE* strain complemented

with the highly expressed *ywlE* C7S (Fig 3B).

Interestingly, we did not observe an influence of *ywlE* expression on the level of subcellular

aggregates during recovery from heat stress in a kinase-inactive *mcsB* C167S mutant (Fig S3D),

confirming that the presence of protein arginine phosphorylation activity is required for the

counteracting *ywlE* phosphatase mediated phenotypes to occur.

High levels of YwlE phosphatase interfere strongly with the McsB kinase and thereby impede

its positive influence on ClpC-mediated protein homeostasis, both *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

Controlling the cellular protein arginine phosphorylation state is therefore not only mediated

by the McsA-activated McsB kinase but has to be limited by the YwlE phosphatase, which, at

a certain sub-stoichiometric ratio to McsB, can counteract its kinase activity at a level which

facilitates a well-functioning *B. subtilis* protein homeostasis.

The ClpC unfolding activity is not directly influencing the subsequent YwlE-dependent

refolding of unfolded phosphorylated substrate protein *in vitro*

We wanted to assess whether the ClpC chaperone activity directly affects the YwlE-dependent

refolding of already unfolded phosphorylated substrate proteins. We employed a ClpC trap

variant (ClpC-DWB), which by forming mixed complexes, inhibits the ClpC ATPase and unfoldase activity (Fig S4C & S4D) (Babst et al., 1998; Kirstein et al., 2006; Weibezahn et al., 2003; Ye et al., 2001).

The McsB, McsA & ClpC mediated disaggregation was initiated and ClpC-DWB was added after 15 min when the larger protein complex formed and the maximal substrate protein arginine phosphorylation was observed (Fig S4C, Fig 2B & Fig S3A). As expected, the addition of ClpC-DWB led to the formation of a more extended binding peak and a halt of disaggregation, resulting in a decline to a lower but constant light scattering signal for the remaining time (Fig S4C), suggesting that the mixed ClpC/ClpC-DWB oligomers were not able to further process the aggregated substrate proteins (Kirstein et al., 2006). Simultaneous or subsequent addition of YwlE (at 15 (green squares) or 20 min (blue diamonds)), but not the addition of YwlE C7S (at 15 min (purple circles)), appeared to disrupt the apparent complex formation leading to drop to a similar lower level of constant light scattering, caused by ClpC-DWB addition (Fig S4C). Nevertheless, the addition of active YwlE facilitated up to 15 % recovery of enzyme activity after 120 min (green squares), despite ClpC-DWB inhibiting the disaggregation at that point. No considerable refolding occurred when YwlE C7S variant was added (purple circles) (Fig S4C). These experiments are consistent with the hypothesis that the YwlE phosphatase activity could support the refolding of previously unfolded and phosphorylated substrate proteins even while the ClpC activity was inhibited (Fig S4C).

The activation of McsB by McsA is necessary to initiate the disaggregation and refolding reaction *in vitro*

To investigate the McsB kinase activator McsA in more detail, we added McsA at different timepoints to the reaction (Fig S4E). A constant stable light scattering signal was detected, when no McsA was added to ClpC, McsB & YwlE incubated with aggregated Mdh. Adding McsA immediately increased the light scattering signal suggesting an initial protein complex formation, followed by the onset of the disaggregation reaction and Mdh activity starting to

become recovered. The refolding yield correlated to the length of disaggregation time after the

McsA addition (Fig S4E). Already about 5 min after McsA addition, the start of protein arginine

phosphorylation of ClpC, McsB and McsA could be detected, confirming the activation of the

McsB kinase activity by McsA (Fig S4F). These experiments suggest that McsB activation by

McsA is necessary to initiate the efficient disaggregation and subsequent refolding activity by

this chaperone system.

Figure 4 Influence of YwlE on ClpCP protease complex activity
Disaggregation, refolding and degradation experiments. **A**) Disaggregation of heat aggregated Mdh (1µM)
after addition of ClpC/ McsB/ McsA (empty diamonds, black) ClpC/ McsB/ McsA/ ClpP (filled diamonds,
black), ClpC/ McsB/ McsA/ YwlE (empty circles, red) and ClpC/ McsB/ McsA/ YwlE/ ClpP (filled circles,
red) was monitored *in vitro* by measuring light scattering at 30 °C for 120 min (left panel). The concurrent
refolding was examined by measuring the Mdh enzymatic activity at the indicated time points (right panel).
B) *In vitro* degradation experiments of heat aggregated Mdh as substrate were performed with ClpC/ McsB/
McsA/ ClpP in the presence or absence of YwlE. Samples for analysis by SDS PAGE and Coomassie stain
were taken after 0 min, 30 min, 60 min and 120 min. The relative amount of degraded Mdh after 120 min is
indicated. **C**) Disaggregation of heat aggregated Mdh (1µM) after addition of ClpC/ McsB/ McsA (filled
diamonds, black) ClpC VGF:IGF / McsB/ McsA (empty diamonds, black), ClpC/ McsB/ McsA/ YwlE (filled
squares, red), ClpC VGF:IGF / McsB/ McsA/ YwlE (empty squares, red) ClpC/ McsB/ McsA/ YwlE /ClpP
(filled triangles, blue) and ClpC VGF:IGF / McsB/ McsA/ YwlE (empty triangles, blue) was monitored *in
vitro* by measuring light scattering at 30 °C for 120 min (left panel). The concurrent refolding was examined
by measuring the Mdh enzymatic activity (right panel) **D**) *In vitro* degradation experiments of heat
aggregated Mdh as substrate were performed with ClpC VGF::IGF/McsB/McsA/ClpP in the presence or

334 absence of YwlE. Samples for analysis by SDS PAGE and Coomassie stain were taken after 0 min, 30 min,
335 60 min and 120 min. The relative amount of degraded Mdh after 120 min is indicated.
336

ClpP association with ClpC: allowing a switch between repair or removal?

Another important interacting partner of ClpC is the ClpP protease complex which associates

via the ClpC P-loops to form the ClpCP AAA+ protease complex (Amor et al., 2019; Kim et

al., 2001; Martin et al., 2007; Tryggvesson et al., 2012). Therefore, we investigated how the

presence of ClpP influences the *in vitro* disaggregation and refolding activity of McsB, McsA,

ClpC, with or without YwlE (Fig 4A&C).

Adding ClpP in the absence of YwlE significantly enhanced the disaggregation activity (Fig

4A, green squares) and about 90% of aggregated Mdh were degraded (Fig 4B). Still, about 10%

of the aggregated Mdh was refolded (Fig 4A, green squares). The raised disaggregation activity

(Fig 4A) is consistent with the observed concurrent induction of the ClpC ATPase activity by

adding the ClpP protease complex (Fig S5A). The additional presence of YwlE did not further

influence disaggregation efficiency, but resulted in about 40 % refolding of the aggregated Mdh

(Fig 4A, blue circles), similar to the reaction in the presence of YwlE but without ClpP (Fig

4A, red triangles). However, the remaining 60 % unfolded, not reactivated Mdh (Fig 4A, blue

circles) was targeted for degradation (Fig 4B).

This suggests a possible triage where the refolded Mdh species could escape the transfer to the

associated ClpP protease, but the still unfolded substrate proteins were successfully transferred

for degradation into the ClpP protease complex.

ClpC, unlike the disaggregase ClpB from *E. coli*, encodes a peptide loop to specifically interact

with apical binding pockets of the double-heptameric ClpP oligomer, allowing the formation

of a ClpCP protease complex (Kim et al., 2001; Kirstein et al., 2006; Weibezahn et al., 2004).

The P-loop of ClpC contains a VGF motif at its tip, while other Clp proteins like ClpX from *B.*

subtilis and *E. coli* or ClpA from *E. coli* possess IGF P-loops to facilitate this interaction.

Interestingly, it was demonstrated that in the context of *E. coli* ClpXP, the IGF loop allows a

tighter interaction between ClpX and ClpP compared to a VGF loop (Amor et al., 2019).

To analyze the likely difference between the VGF vs IGF P-loop for the interaction of ClpC

with ClpP, we utilized the information of the recently resolved Cryo-EM structure of a ClpX-

ClpP complex (Gatsogiannis et al., 2019). Here, the IGF P-loops in the binding pockets of the

ClpP complex are well resolved, which allows to use of this structural information, together

with the *B. subtilis* ClpP structure (Lee et al., 2010), as templates to model and calculate

thermodynamic parameters to estimate the relative binding energies of these interactions. While

not all six possible P-loop complexes with the *B. subtilis* ClpP binding pocket show stronger

binding with Ile, overall, the calculated binding energy is clearly stronger with the Val-to-Ile

exchange (Fig S5E). These *in silico* modeling and calculations suggest a stronger binding

interaction of the IGF P-loop with the ClpP binding pockets, compared to the VGF P-loop,

indicated by the larger differences in the negative $\Delta\Delta G$ binding energy values due to the missing

methyl group in Val (Fig S5E).

To investigate the possible role of the interaction strength of the P-loop, we replaced the VGF

motif in ClpC with the ClpX IGF loop. Notably, the ClpC VGF::IGF variant displayed a slightly

lower ATPase (Fig S5B) and lower disaggregation activity (Fig 4C), but a high refolding

activity of up to 80% in the presence of YwlE (Fig 4C). Addition of ClpP to the experiment

with ClpC VGF::IGF enhanced the disaggregation activity and switched the proteolytic activity

of this complex to a full degradation of Mdh, independent of the presence of YwlE (Fig 4, Fig

S5D).

The observed complete degradation of the substrate protein by the ClpC VGF::IGF/ClpP AAA+

protease complex (Fig 4D) is in contrast to the only partial degradation of the remaining

unfolded substrate protein (Fig 4B). This difference suggests that a closer and possibly tighter

interaction of ClpC VGF::IGF with ClpP might interfere with the escape of already folded

substrate protein from wild type ClpC-ClpP (Fig 4AB). Such a relatively transient, dynamic

ClpC-ClpP interaction during disaggregation and unfolding could allow the more unconstrained

folding of the extruding nascent peptide chains from ClpC and should also allow better access

by the YwlE phosphatase.

Figure 5 ClpC P-loop variants: rescue or removal?

A) Thermoresistance (left panel/triangles: no pre-shock) and thermotolerance (right panel/squares: 15 min pre-shock at 48 °C) experiments were performed with *B. subtilis* wildtype (black), Δ*clpC* (BIH19, blue) and *clpC* VGF::GGR (BIH217, red). Log$_{10}$-values of viable cell count were normalized and three biological replicates were used to calculate standard deviations (error bars) with significant differences indicated (*: $p < 0.05$, **: $p < 0.01$, ***: $p < 0.001$, Welch's test). **B)** Cells of *B. subtilis* strains Δ*mcsB* P$_{hs}$ *mcsB* P$_{xyl}$ *yocM-mCherry* (BIH414, black), *clpC* VGF::GGR Δ*mcsB* P$_{hs}$ *mcsB* P$_{xyl}$ *yocM-mCherry* (BIH485, red) were treated 30 min with a 50 °C heat shock and subsequently shifted to recover for 120 min to 37 °C in the absence (triangles, dashed line), or presence of IPTG (diamonds). Samples were taken at indicated time points for fluorescence microscopy to calculate the ratio of cells containing protein aggregates marked by YocM-mCherry. **C)** ClpC wt (BIH414), ClpC-DWB (BIH488), ClpC VGF::GGR BIH485) and ClpC VGF::IGF (BIH860) strains (all with additional Δ*mcsB* P$_{hs}$ *mcsB* P$_{xyl}$ *yocM-mCherry*) were treated with a 50 °C heat shock and shifted for 90 min to 37 °C in the absence or presence of IPTG. Samples were taken at 90 min for fluorescence microscopy analysis to calculate the ratio of cells containing protein aggregates. Three biological replicates including three technical replicates with 50 – 100 cells were analyzed. Log$_{10}$-values of viable cell count were normalized and three biological replicates were used to calculate standard deviations (error bars). **D)** *B. subtilis* clpC wt (Δ*mcsB* P$_{hs}$ *mcsB* P$_{xyl}$ *yocM-mCherry* (BIH414)) and *clpC* VGF::GGR Δ*mcsB* P$_{hs}$ *mcsB* P$_{xyl}$ *yocM-mCherry* (BIH485)) were treated with 25 µg/mL puromycin. After 15 min, puromycin was removed and the cells incubated in fresh media with xylose in the presence or absence of 2 mM IPTG at 37 °C for 150 min. Samples were taken for analysis by fluorescence microscopy and western blot analysis with anti-McsB or anti-ClpC antibodies (see also S6F & G). The ratio of cells containing protein aggregates was determined based on three biological replicates including three technical replicates with 50 – 100 cells. Log$_{10}$-values of viable cell count were normalized and three biological replicates were used to

413 calculate standard deviations (shown as error bars) with significant differences indicated (*: p<0.05, **:
414 p<0.01, ***: p<0.001, Welch's test).
415

A ClpC VGF::GGR variant, which cannot associate with ClpP, is functioning under heat

stress *in vivo* Our *in vitro* results suggest that the ClpCP complex can switch between a

refolding and a degradation mode, depending on the interaction of its P-loop with ClpP (Fig 4).

To evaluate the ClpC function independent of ClpP *in vivo*, we constructed a *B. subtilis* mutant

strain, encoding a P-loop ClpC VGF::GGR variant, which abolishes the interaction with the

ClpP complex and has therefore no proteolytic activity neither *in vivo* nor *in vitro* (Fig S6AB)

(Kirstein et al., 2007; Turgay et al., 1998), but it is active in the *in vitro* disaggregation and

refolding experiment (Fig S6E), yet a slightly lower ATPase compared to ClpC is observed

(Fig S6D).

Interestingly, while a Δ*clpC* deletion mutant showed impaired thermotolerance development

and increased protein aggregation during heat shock *in vivo*, a *clpC* VGF::GGR and the *clpC*

VGF::IGF mutant strain behaved like the wildtype strain in thermotolerance (Fig 5A & Fig

S5C). The *clpC* VGF::GGR appeared to be a little more thermoresistant compared to wildtype

strain (Fig 5A). A Δ*clpC* strain forms more heat-induced aggregates *in vivo* than the wildtype

and the comparable *clpC* VGF::GGR mutant strain (Fig S6C).

In addition, McsB-mediated removal of heat-induced protein aggregates during recovery from

heat shock was not affected in a wildtype or a *clpC* VGF::GGR and the *clpC* VGF::IGF mutant

strain, but strongly impaired in the ATPase inactive *clpC* DWB background strain (Fig 5BC).

These results confirmed that the ClpC VGF::GGR variant, although not able to associate with

ClpP, could very well replace wt ClpC in response to the different heat stress conditions,

including thermotolerance, thermoresistance, and protein aggregate removal during recovery

from heat stress (Fig 5ABC, Fig S6C). To further test the ability of the ClpC VGF::GGR

variant, we applied a more severe proteotoxic stress induced by puromycin. Puromycin is

known to impair protein translation, generating toxic and persistent aggregates of misfolded,

incompletely synthesized protein fragments, which cannot be refolded. As expected, the

addition of puromycin led to the formation of protein aggregates (Fig 5D & Fig S6F). After

removing puromycin, we observed the clearance of protein aggregates in the *mcsB* deletion

mutant after 150 min, only when *mcsB* expression was induced (Fig 5D & Fig S6F). However,

clearance of the puromycin-generated truncated protein aggregates was diminished in the *clpC*

VGF::GGR mutant (Fig 5D & Fig S6F). This suggests that the ability to remove non-refoldable

protein aggregates by ClpCP mediated degradation can be beneficial under severe protein

folding stress.

Discussion

Here, we could identify the McsB kinase as the adaptor protein necessary and sufficient for

removing subcellular protein aggregates by ClpCP-mediated disaggregation through refolding

or degradation (Fig 1&2). In addition, we observed that a specific low sub-stoichiometric

amount of YwlE phosphatase was necessary to limit McsB kinase activities, allowing an

efficient modulation of ClpC-mediated disaggregation, unfolding and refolding (Fig2 & 3).

Consistent with this McsB kinase controlling the function of YwlE, we observed that both the

lack (Elsholz et al., 2012; Schmidt et al., 2014) and the excess of YwlE (Fig2, 3 & S3) resulted

in either unconstrained or inhibited McsB kinase activities, both negatively affecting the heat

shock response, ClpC function and protein homeostasis *in vivo* and *in vitro*.

The kinase activity of the McsB adaptor protein adds complexity but also expands the

recognition and targeting abilities of McsB. The activation of ClpC by McsB can be facilitated

by binding to the NTD of ClpC, but also by phosphorylation of specific arginine residues

located, for example, in the NTD of ClpC (Elsholz et al., 2012; Schmidt et al., 2014; Trentini

et al., 2016). We could observe some basal adaptor protein activity for the kinase-inactive McsB

C167S variant, and this activity is independent of YwlE (Fig S3). In contrast, the kinase-active

McsB only efficiently functions in the presence of a specific sub-stoichiometric level of the

YwlE phosphatase (Fig 2 & 3). Both activities can be complementary to one another since

McsB, like other adaptor proteins, can directly recognize and target substrate proteins to ClpC

even when these lack arginines (Elsholz et al., 2012; Kirstein et al., 2007; Stannek et al., 2014).

Importantly we observed that both McsB and McsB C167S could recognize sub-cellular protein

aggregates (Fig S2) and could subsequently help to recruit ClpC and ClpP (Kirstein et al., 2007,

2008), as also observed for DnaK acting as an adaptor protein for ClpB (Winkler et al., 2012).

A distinct substrate recognition and modification pathway by the McsB kinase was reported,

where McsB is not necessarily interacting directly with ClpC. Here these phospho-arginine

modifications of unfolded substrate proteins, generated by McsB, can act as a degron, which

allows the direct targeting and interaction of these marked substrate proteins via specific

phospho-arginine interaction sites in the NTD of ClpC (Morreale et al., 2022; Trentini et al.,

2016).

Interestingly, McsB, which forms a dimer, can further oligomerize upon heat shock to form an

octameric compartmentalized kinase, which allows the preferred access of unfolded protein

substrates for phosphorylation (Hajdusits et al., 2021; Suskiewicz et al., 2019). The activity and

formation of the McsB octamer and the ability of ClpC to directly recognize phospho-arginine

degron represent a possible additional path of substrates to be processed by ClpC. Unfolded

phosphorylated substrate proteins that exit ClpC and do not get dephosphorylated nor degraded

could then become directly retargeted by their still present degron to the binding site on the

NTD of ClpC (Trentini et al., 2016).

The arginine phosphorylation of unfolded, misfolded or aggregated protein species might

change the physical properties of these protein species in different ways. Arginine

phosphorylation switches a positive charge to the negative phosphoryl group, which can, for

example, interfere with the specific or unspecific interaction with DNA or RNA (Fuhrmann et

al., 2009). Protein aggregates formed from these differently charged misfolded phosphorylated

protein species might be physically better accessible. In addition, ClpC might interact directly

via its NTD with protein arginine phosphorylated misfolded proteins on the surface of such

protein aggregates (Trentini et al., 2016).

We observed that a specific cellular level of arginine phosphorylation is critical, and this level

can be controlled and limited by sub-stoichiometric amounts of YwlE, which was also essential

to allow the refolding of unfolded protein substrates of the McsA/McsB/ClpC chaperone system

(Fig 2 & 4). Here we hypothesize that the released unfolded and phosphorylated substrate

protein species might be unable to refold. However, in the presence of YwlE, the inhibiting

phosphoryl group can be removed, possibly allowing the refolding of the substrate protein.

Notably, a high-energy P-N bond is formed in phospho-arginine by McsB (Fuhrmann et al.,

2009; Teague and Dobson, 1999). This might be an important aspect when considering possible

thermodynamic energy requirements of the folding process accompanying the YwlE-mediated

protein arginine dephosphorylation.

Protein stability, folding and function are intricately connected to post-translational protein

modification (Beltrao et al., 2013; Mijakovic et al., 2016). It is well established that protein

modification by glycosylation and de-glycosylation play an important role in protein

homeostasis in the endoplasmic reticulum (Ellgaard and Helenius, 2003; Smith et al., 2011;

Walter and Ron, 2011). Interestingly, ubiquitination and de-ubiquitination by the cytosolic

deubiquitinating enzyme USP19 were observed to support membrane protein folding at the

cytosolic side of the ER membrane (Perrody et al., 2016). An interplay between unfolding and

protein de-modification was observed for the deubiquitinating enzyme Otu1, which interacts

with the C-terminus of AAA+ p97/CDC48 unfoldase and is important for releasing the

egressing ubiquitinated substrate protein during the endoplasmic reticulum-associated

degradation (Bodnar and Rapoport, 2017; Rumpf and Jentsch, 2006; Twomey et al., 2019).

In the presence of ClpC-associated ClpP, unfolded or misfolded substrate proteins are targeted

for ClpP degradation. However, already folded protein species are not transferred due to the

dynamic interaction of the P-loops with the ClpP oligomer (Fig 4). Such a relatively loose

ClpC-ClpP interaction would allow YwlE access to the egressing unfolded peptide from ClpC

to facilitate refolding by removing the possibly interfering arginine phosphate. This suggests

that the McsB/McsA/ClpCP/YwlE complex could switch between repair or degradation,

depending on the folding status of the substrate proteins.

The ability of a cellular protein homeostasis system to repair misfolded and aggregated proteins

can be advantageous since it allows the recovery of already synthesized proteins. Our *in vivo*

experiments demonstrated that a ClpC, not interacting with ClpP, was sufficient for well-

functioning cellular protein homeostasis even under heat stress conditions (Fig 5). This suggests

that the switch to the repair mode observed *in vitro* (Fig 4) can occur *in vivo* and might even be

prevalent (Fig 5). Nevertheless, the ability to form a functioning ClpCP protease complex

would allow removing toxic aggregates under severe stress (Fig 5) or controlling a transcription

factor's stability by regulatory proteolysis.

Materials & Methods

General methods

B. subtilis strains were grown in Lysogeny Broth medium (5 g l^{-1} yeast extract, 10 g l^{-1}

tryptone-peptone, 5 g l^{-1} NaCl) at 37 °C. Supplemental Table S1 shows the strains derived from

transformations of indicated plasmids or PCR products (Table S2) derived from cloning with

primers/restriction enzymes (Table S3) with standard cloning procedures (restriction enzymes

and T4 DNA ligase from NEB) as described previously (Sambrook and Russell, 2001). Cloning

was performed in *E. coli* DH5α (Invitrogen) (ampicillin 100 µg ml^{-1}, kanamycin 50 µg ml^{-1})

with Phusion High Fidelity Polymerase (NEB). Transformation into *B. subtilis* with

chromosomal or plasmid DNA was performed by standard methods (Anagnostopoulos and

Spizizen, 1961). Successful *amyE* insertion in *B. subtilis* was identified by assessing α-amylase

activity on plates with 0.4 % starch (w/v) and Lugol's iodine. Insertions in *amyE* and other

genomic sites such as *lacA* were confirmed by PCR.

Protein purification

Protein production was performed in *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) cells. Cells were grown at 37 °C to an OD_{600} of 0.7 and induced with 1 mM IPTG overnight at 16 °C. Purification of His_6-tagged proteins was performed by nickel affinity chromatography after cell lysis by French press. YocM, McsB and McsB C167S were expressed and purified as N-terminal His-SUMO fusion proteins, which were released by overnight cleavage with Ulp-protease at 4 °C (Andréasson et al., 2008). ClpC, ClpC-DWB, ClpC-VGF:IGF, ClpC-VGF:GGR, ClpP, MecA, McsA, YwlE and YwlEC7S were purified as previously described (Kirstein et al., 2005, 2006).

Thermotolerance development and thermoresistance

Thermotolerance development and thermoresistance experiments were performed as previously described (Hantke et al., 2019; Runde et al., 2014). Cell cultures were separated at OD_{600} 0.4 and treated ± a 15 min pre-shock of 48°C before both samples were shifted to 53 °C or 54 °C. Samples were taken for microscopy or plated on LB agar at t_0, t_{30}, t_{60} and $t_{120\ min}$. Obtained *cfu* were plotted against time. At least three biological replicates were used to calculate standard deviations, and statistical significance was calculated using Welch's test.

Fluorescence microscopy

B. subtilis cells were inoculated with a fresh overnight culture to an OD600 of 0.05 in LB + 0.5 % xylose (w/v) to express *yocM-mCherry* fusion (Hantke et al., 2019). Fluorescence microscopy was performed at indicated time points on an object slide coated with 1 % agarose (w/v) in saline (0.9 % NaCl (w/v)). Oil immersion and 10x100 magnifications were used with a Zeiss fluorescence microscope with GFP and mCherry filters.

***In vivo* disaggregation assay**

B. subtilis strains grown in LB + 0.5 % xylose (w/v) were treated at OD_{600} 0.25 – 0.3 with a heat shock at 52 °C for 20 min or 50 °C for 30 mins if the strain lacks *mcsB*, which renders them more sensitive towards heat stress (Fig 1C). Cultures were separated and ± 2 mM IPTG was added while shifting the cells to 37 °C. Samples were taken for plating (colony forming

units (CFU)), western blotting and/or fluorescence microscopy as indicated. At least three

biological replicates were used to calculate standard deviations, and statistical significance was

calculated using Welch's test.

Biochemical assays

Light scattering and Mdh activity assays: Malate dehydrogenase (Roche) was inactivated and

aggregated by incubating 2 µM for 30 min at 47 C. Light scattering was determined at 360 nm

excitation and emission wavelength with a FP-6500-Spectrofluorometer (Jasco) at 30 °C.

1,5 µM ClpB, 1 µM DnaK, 0,2 µM DnaJ, 0,1 µM GrpE, 1,5 µM ClpC, 1 µM ClpP, 1 µM

MecA, 1 µM McsB, 1 µM McsA, 0,05 µM YwlE, proteins were incubated as indicated in the

respective experiments with 1 µM heat-treated Mdh in refolding buffer (50 mM Tris pH 7.8,

150 mM KCl, 20 mM MgCl$_2$, 2 mM DTT) supplemented with 20 µg/ml pyruvate kinase, 4 mM

phosphoenolpyruvate and 6 mM ATP as indicated in the respective experiments.

Mdh enzyme activity was determined before and after inactivation and at indicated time points

by diluting 2,5 µl reaction mixture in 125 µl Mdh activity buffer (150 mM potassium phosphate

buffer pH 7.6, 1 mM DTT, 0,5 mM oxalacetate, 0,28 mM NADH). The time dependent NADH

oxidation by Mdh was monitored at 340 nm in a Spectra Max MP3 Microplatereader

(Molecular Devices). At least three replicates of these experiments were analyzed, and the

resulting standard deviation included as error bars.

We also followed the protein aggregate solublization by supernatant pellet experiments.

Samples of the disaggregation and refolding experiments were taken at indicated time points,

centrifuged for 30 min, 14000 rpm at 4 °C. The supernatant was carefully separated from the

pellet, and mixed with the appropriate amount of 2xSDS sample buffer while the pellet, was

dissolved in 1 x SDS sample buffer to the same final volume. Both samples were incubated for

10 min at 90 °C and analyzed via SDS-PAGE and Coomassie stain (Schlothauer et al., 2003).

The in vitro degradation of aggregated Mdh or β-caseine in the presence of ClpP was analyzed

by SDS-PAGE and Coomassie stain. The relative amount of Coomassie stained protein band

was calculated using ImageJ analysis software to determine band intensities (Schneider et al.,

2012).

The ClpC ATPase activity was measured by phosphate release, colorimetrically detected with

the ammonium molybdate/malachite green assay as described previously (Lill et al., 1990;

Turgay et al., 1997). For this assay we used 1 µM ClpC, 1 µM ClpP, 1 µM MecA, 1 µM McsB,

1 µM McsA, 0,05 µM YwlE, and possible substrates such as 1 µM Mdh, 1 µM β-casein, as

indicated and if not mentioned otherwise. At least three replicates of the ATPase experiments

were implemented, and the resulting standard deviation was included as error bars.

Western blotting

SDS PAGE (15 % gels) loaded with similar amounts of protein (e.g. 5µg total protein for cell

extracts) was performed with standard methods as previously described (Laemmli 1970) with

anti-YwlE, anti-ClpC, anti-MecA, anti-McsB or anti-YpbH (Pineda Berlin) antiserum as

primary antibody and anti-rabbit alkaline phosphatase or horseradish peroxidase conjugate as

secondary antibody (1:10000). Blots were developed with standard BCIP (5 % (w/v) in DMF)

+ 250 µL NBT (5 % (w/v) in 70 % DMF) or using the ECL western blotting reagent (GE

Healthcare).

For phospho arginine protein detection, samples were taken from light scattering assays,

without heat treatment prior to loading. SDS PAGE and western blotting on nitrocellulose were

performed at 4 °C. The primary anti-phosphoarginine-specific antibody was used 1:3000 with

5 % skim milk powder in TBS. Secondary antibodies and imaging was performed as described

above (Fuhrmann et al., 2015).

YwlE quantification

B. subtilis 168 (wild-type) and IH820 ($\Delta ywlE$::*kanR* P$_{lac}$ *ywlE* spec) cells were grown to an OD

0.35 ± 0.02. Subsequently, IPTG was added to a final concentration of 0.01 and 2 mM IPTG to

the IH820 cultures as indicated, which were further incubated for 30 min (Fig S3C). To

determine the number of bacteria, an aliquot was fixed with 3.7% formaldehyde in PBS and

cells were counted in a Petroff-Hauser chamber. Cell extracts were prepared by sonication and

western blotting was performed as mentioned above with few modifications. Samples were

resolved in 4-15% Mini-PROTEAN TGX precast gels and transferred to 0.22 μm PVDF

membranes. Anti-YwlE serum was used in a 1:5,000 dilution in 5% skim milk in TBS-T and

anti-rabbit IgG antibodies from goat conjugated to HRP were used 1:20,000 in the same buffer.

Blots were developed using a chemiluminescent substrate (Thermo Scientific, 34577) and

documented in a Fusion FX imaging system (Vilber). Defined amounts of purified YwlE-His

were included as a calibration curve on each gel (Fig S3C). The concentration of purified YwlE-

His was quantified by MS. Briefly, defined amounts of synthesized heavy isotope-coded YwlE

peptides (Table S4; JPT Peptide Technologies, Berlin) were spiked into a sample of the purified

YwlE protein. The concentration of the YwlE protein was then determined by dividing the MS

signal of the endogenous "light" peptides by the synthetic "heavy" peptides. Western blot

images were processed using Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012).

Structure modelling

As a structural template for modelling the ClpC-ClpP interactions, we used the ClpP-ClpX

complex structure (PDB IDs: 6SFW, 6SFX) (Gatsogiannis et al., 2019). Each ClpX subunit and

the two interacting ClpP subunits were extracted and energy minimization was performed using

RosettaScripts (Fleishman et al., 2011) with the FastRelax (Khatib et al., 2011) mover and

strong coordinate constraints. To compare binding energies, the wt and ClpX I265V mutant

were again minimized, only allowing the backbone of the IGF-loop to move in an unconstrained

manner. Binding energies ($\Delta\Delta G_{bind}$) were calculated with the Rosetta energy function as

$\Delta G_{complex} - (\Delta G_{ClpP,separated} + \Delta G_{ClpC/X,separated})$ using the Rosetta InterfaceAnalyzer

application, allowing side chains to re-pack in the separated interactions partners. To estimate

the difference in binding in the *B. subtilis* ClpC-VGF and ClpC-IGF, the *B. subtilis* ClpP

structure representing the open conformation (PDB ID: 3KTK) (Lee et al., 2010) was

structurally aligned to 6SFX to have the L.m. ClpX IGF loops placed onto ClpP analogous to

the *L. monocytogenes* ClpP-ClpX complex structure. Due to the symmetry mismatch between

ClpP and ClpX, the six IGF loops were bound in distinct conformations, five of which are

relatively similar (conformation 1), whereas one loop has a different conformation

(conformation 2) (Fig S5E). In all conformations, changing Ile to Val diminishes the calculated

binding energy due to the missing methyl group in Val. (Fig S5E). Energy minimization and

binding energy calculations were done as described above.

Author contributions RA, IH, NM, EC & KT were involved in conceptualization. RA, IH,

FAC, KG & NM designed and performed the experiments. SR performed the *in silico* analysis

for the binding energies. IH, RA, FAC & KT wrote the initial manuscript. All authors

contributed to the manuscript writing, experimental design and analyzed the data. EC & KT

supervised the study and were responsible for funding acquisition.

Funding Work in our Lab was supported by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (Tu106/6,

Tu106/8 (SPP1879) to KT & Leibniz-Price to EC) the Max Planck Society (EC & KT) and a

PhD fellowship from the Hannover School for Biomolecular Drug Research (HSBDR) to IH.

Acknowledgements We want to thank Jakob Fuhrmann (Scripps Research Institute) & Paul

Thompson (University of Massachusetts Medical School) for samples of the anti-phospho-

arginine antibody. David Dubnau (PHRI, Newark, NJ) & Axel Mogk (ZMBH, Uni Heidelberg)

for strains and plasmids. Alex Elsholz (MPUSP, Berlin) for discussion. Christian Frese and

Florian Kondrot (MPUSP, Berlin) for the proteomic analysis.

References

Amor, A.J., Schmitz, K.R., Baker, T.A., and Sauer, R.T. (2019). Roles of the ClpX IGF loops in ClpP
association, dissociation, and protein degradation. Protein Sci. Publ. Protein Soc. *28*, 756–765.
https://doi.org/10.1002/pro.3590.

Anagnostopoulos, C., and Spizizen, J. (1961). REQUIREMENTS FOR TRANSFORMATION IN BACILLUS
SUBTILIS. J. Bacteriol. *81*, 741–746. .

Babst, M., Wendland, B., Estepa, E.J., and Emr, S.D. (1998). The Vps4p AAA ATPase regulates
membrane association of a Vps protein complex required for normal endosome function. EMBO J *17*,
2982–2993. .

Battesti, A., and Gottesman, S. (2013). Roles of adaptor proteins in regulation of bacterial proteolysis.
Curr. Opin. Microbiol. *16*, 140–147. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mib.2013.01.002.

Beltrao, P., Bork, P., Krogan, N.J., and van Noort, V. (2013). Evolution and functional cross-talk of
protein post-translational modifications. Mol. Syst. Biol. *9*, 714.
https://doi.org/10.1002/msb.201304521.

Bodnar, N., and Rapoport, T. (2017). Toward an understanding of the Cdc48/p97 ATPase.
F1000Research *6*, 1318. https://doi.org/10.12688/f1000research.11683.1.

Derre, I., Rapoport, G., and Msadek, T. (1999). CtsR, a novel regulator of stress and heat shock
response, controls clp and molecular chaperone gene expression in Gram-positive bacteria. Mol.
Microbiol. *31*, 117–131. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2958.1999.01152.x.

Ellgaard, L., and Helenius, A. (2003). Quality control in the endoplasmic reticulum. Nat Rev Mol Cell
Biol *4*, 181–191. .

Elsholz, A.K.W., Michalik, S., Zühlke, D., Hecker, M., and Gerth, U. (2010). CtsR, the Gram-positive
master regulator of protein quality control, feels the heat. EMBO J. *29*, 3621–3629.
https://doi.org/10.1038/emboj.2010.228.

Elsholz, A.K.W., Hempel, K., Michalik, S., Gronau, K., Becher, D., Hecker, M., and Gerth, U. (2011).
Activity Control of the ClpC Adaptor McsB in Bacillus subtilis ▽ . J. Bacteriol. *193*, 3887–3893.
https://doi.org/10.1128/JB.00079-11.

Elsholz, A.K.W., Turgay, K., Michalik, S., Hessling, B., Gronau, K., Oertel, D., Mäder, U., Bernhardt, J.,
Becher, D., Hecker, M., et al. (2012). Global impact of protein arginine phosphorylation on the
physiology of Bacillus subtilis. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. *109*, 7451–7456.
https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1117483109.

Fei, X., Bell, T.A., Jenni, S., Stinson, B.M., Baker, T.A., Harrison, S.C., and Sauer, R.T. (2020). Structures
of the ATP-fueled ClpXP proteolytic machine bound to protein substrate. ELife *9*.
https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.52774.

Fleishman, S.J., Leaver-Fay, A., Corn, J.E., Strauch, E.-M., Khare, S.D., Koga, N., Ashworth, J., Murphy,
P., Richter, F., Lemmon, G., et al. (2011). RosettaScripts: A Scripting Language Interface to the
Rosetta Macromolecular Modeling Suite. PLOS ONE *6*, e20161.
https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0020161.

Fuhrmann, J., Schmidt, A., Spiess, S., Lehner, A., Turgay, K., Mechtler, K., Charpentier, E., and Clausen,
T. (2009). McsB is a protein arginine kinase that phosphorylates and inhibits the heat-shock regulator
CtsR. Science *324*, 1323–1327. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1170088.

Fuhrmann, J., Mierzwa, B., Trentini, D.B., Spiess, S., Lehner, A., Charpentier, E., and Clausen, T.
(2013). Structural basis for recognizing phosphoarginine and evolving residue-specific protein
phosphatases in gram-positive bacteria. Cell Rep. *3*, 1832–1839.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2013.05.023.

Fuhrmann, J., Subramanian, V., and Thompson, P.R. (2015). Synthesis and Use of a Phosphonate
Amidine to Generate an Anti-Phosphoarginine-Specific Antibody. Angew. Chem. Int. Ed Engl. *54*,
14715–14718. https://doi.org/10.1002/anie.201506737.

Gatsogiannis, C., Balogh, D., Merino, F., Sieber, S., and Raunser, S. (2019). Cryo-EM structure of the
ClpXP protein degradation machinery. Nat. Struct. Mol. Biol. *26*, 946–954.
https://doi.org/10.1038/s41594-019-0304-0.

Gerth, U., Kirstein, J., Mostertz, J., Waldminghaus, T., Miethke, M., Kock, H., and Hecker, M. (2004).
Fine-tuning in regulation of Clp protein content in Bacillus subtilis. J. Bacteriol. *186*, 179–191. .

Goloubinoff, P., Mogk, A., Zvi, A.P., Tomoyasu, T., and Bukau, B. (1999). Sequential mechanism of
solubilization and refolding of stable protein aggregates by a bichaperone network. Proc Natl Acad
Sci U A *96*, 13732–13737. .

Hahn, J., Kramer, N., Briley, K., and Dubnau, D. (2009). McsA and B mediate the delocalization of
competence proteins from the cell poles of Bacillus subtilis. Mol Microbiol *72*, 202–215.
https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2958.2009.06636.x.

Hajdusits, B., Suskiewicz, M.J., Hundt, N., Meinhart, A., Kurzbauer, R., Leodolter, J., Kukura, P., and
Clausen, T. (2021). McsB forms a gated kinase chamber to mark aberrant bacterial proteins for
degradation. ELife *10*, e63505. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.63505.

Hantke, I., Schäfer, H., Janczikowski, A., and Turgay, K. (2019). YocM a small heat shock protein can
protect Bacillus subtilis cells during salt stress. Mol. Microbiol. *111*, 423–440.
https://doi.org/10.1111/mmi.14164.

Hartl, F.U., Bracher, A., and Hayer-Hartl, M. (2011). Molecular chaperones in protein folding and
proteostasis. Nature *475*, 324–332. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature10317.

Haslberger, T., Zdanowicz, A., Brand, I., Kirstein, J., Turgay, K., Mogk, A., and Bukau, B. (2008). Protein
disaggregation by the AAA+ chaperone ClpB involves partial threading of looped polypeptide
segments. Nat Struct Mol Biol *15*, 641–650. .

Khatib, F., Cooper, S., Tyka, M.D., Xu, K., Makedon, I., Popović, Z., Baker, D., and Players, F. (2011).
Algorithm discovery by protein folding game players. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.
https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1115898108.

Kim, Y.I., Levchenko, I., Fraczkowska, K., Woodruff, R.V., Sauer, R.T., and Baker, T.A. (2001).
Molecular determinants of complex formation between Clp/Hsp100 ATPases and the ClpP peptidase.
Nat Struct Biol *8*, 230-233. .

Kirstein, J., Zuhlke, D., Gerth, U., Turgay, K., and Hecker, M. (2005). A tyrosine kinase and its activator
control the activity of the CtsR heat shock repressor in B. subtilis. EMBO J *24*, 3435–3445. .

Kirstein, J., Schlothauer, T., Dougan, D.A., Lilie, H., Tischendorf, G., Mogk, A., Bukau, B., and Turgay, K.
(2006). Adaptor protein controlled oligomerization activates the AAA+ protein ClpC. EMBO J. *25*,
1481–1491. https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.emboj.7601042.

Kirstein, J., Dougan, D.A., Gerth, U., Hecker, M., and Turgay, K. (2007). The tyrosine kinase McsB is a
regulated adaptor protein for ClpCP. EMBO J. *26*, 2061–2070.
https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.emboj.7601655.

Kirstein, J., Strahl, H., Moliere, N., Hamoen, L.W., and Turgay, K. (2008). Localization of general and
regulatory proteolysis in Bacillus subtilis cells. Mol Microbiol *70*, 682–694.
https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2958.2008.06438.x.

Kirstein, J., Molière, N., Dougan, D.A., and Turgay, K. (2009). Adapting the machine: adaptor proteins
for Hsp100/Clp and AAA+ proteases. Nat. Rev. Microbiol. *7*, 589–599.
https://doi.org/10.1038/nrmicro2185.

Krüger, E., and Hecker, M. (1998). The first gene of the Bacillus subtilis clpC operon, ctsR, encodes a
negative regulator of its own operon and other class III heat shock genes. J. Bacteriol. *180*, 6681–
6688. .

Krüger, E., Völker, U., and Hecker, M. (1994). Stress induction of clpC in Bacillus subtilis and its
involvement in stress tolerance. J Bacteriol *176*, 3360–3367. .

Krüger, E., Witt, E., Ohlmeier, S., Hanschke, R., and Hecker, M. (2000). The clp proteases of Bacillus
subtilis are directly involved in degradation of misfolded proteins. J Bacteriol *182*, 3259–3265. .

Krüger, E., Zühlke, D., Witt, E., Ludwig, H., and Hecker, M. (2001). Clp-mediated proteolysis in Gram-
positive bacteria is autoregulated by the stability of a repressor. EMBO J. *20*, 852–863.
https://doi.org/10.1093/emboj/20.4.852.

Lee, B.G., Park, E.Y., Lee, K.E., Jeon, H., Sung, K.H., Paulsen, H., Rubsamen-Schaeff, H., Brotz-
Oesterhelt, H., and Song, H.K. (2010). Structures of ClpP in complex with acyldepsipeptide antibiotics
reveal its activation mechanism. Nat Struct Mol Biol *17*, 471–478.
https://doi.org/10.1038/nsmb.1787.

Lill, R., Dowhan, W., and Wickner, W. (1990). The ATPase activity of SecA is regulated by acidic
phospholipids, SecY, and the Leader and mature domains of precursor proteins. Cell *60*, 271–280. .

Martin, A., Baker, T.A., and Sauer, R.T. (2007). Distinct static and dynamic interactions control
ATPase-peptidase communication in a AAA+ protease. Mol Cell *27*, 41–52. .

Mijakovic, I., Grangeasse, C., and Turgay, K. (2016). Exploring the diversity of protein modifications:
special bacterial phosphorylation systems. FEMS Microbiol. Rev. *40*, 398–417.
https://doi.org/10.1093/femsre/fuw003.

Mogk, A., Huber, D., and Bukau, B. (2011). Integrating protein homeostasis strategies in prokaryotes.
Cold Spring Harb. Perspect. Biol. *3*. https://doi.org/10.1101/cshperspect.a004366.

Mogk, A., Bukau, B., and Kampinga, H.H. (2018). Cellular Handling of Protein Aggregates by
Disaggregation Machines. Mol. Cell *69*, 214–226. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molcel.2018.01.004.

Morreale, F.E., Kleine, S., Leodolter, J., Junker, S., Hoi, D.M., Ovchinnikov, S., Okun, A., Kley, J.,
Kurzbauer, R., Junk, L., et al. (2022). BacPROTACs mediate targeted protein degradation in bacteria.
Cell *185*, 2338-2353.e18. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2022.05.009.

Msadek, T., Kunst, F., and Rapoport, G. (1994). MecB of Bacillus subtilis, a member of the ClpC
ATPase family, is a pleiotropic regulator controlling competence gene expression and growth at high
temperature. Proc Natl Acad Sci U A *91*, 5788–5792. .

Muntel, J., Fromion, V., Goelzer, A., Maaβ, S., Mäder, U., Büttner, K., Hecker, M., and Becher, D.
(2014). Comprehensive absolute quantification of the cytosolic proteome of Bacillus subtilis by data
independent, parallel fragmentation in liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry (LC/MS(E)). Mol.
Cell. Proteomics MCP *13*, 1008–1019. https://doi.org/10.1074/mcp.M113.032631.

Perrody, E., Abrami, L., Feldman, M., Kunz, B., Urbé, S., and van der Goot, F.G. (2016). Ubiquitin-
dependent folding of the Wnt signaling coreceptor LRP6. ELife *5*.
https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.19083.

Persuh, M., Mandic-Mulec, I., and Dubnau, D. (2002). A MecA paralog, YpbH, binds ClpC, affecting
both competence and sporulation. J Bacteriol *184*, 2310-3. .

Ripstein, Z.A., Vahidi, S., Houry, W.A., Rubinstein, J.L., and Kay, L.E. (2020). A processive rotary
mechanism couples substrate unfolding and proteolysis in the ClpXP degradation machinery. ELife *9*.
https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.52158.

Rumpf, S., and Jentsch, S. (2006). Functional division of substrate processing cofactors of the
ubiquitin-selective Cdc48 chaperone. Mol. Cell *21*, 261–269.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molcel.2005.12.014.

Runde, S., Molière, N., Heinz, A., Maisonneuve, E., Janczikowski, A., Elsholz, A.K.W., Gerth, U.,
Hecker, M., and Turgay, K. (2014). The role of thiol oxidative stress response in heat-induced protein
aggregate formation during thermotolerance in Bacillus subtilis. Mol. Microbiol. *91*, 1036–1052.
https://doi.org/10.1111/mmi.12521.

Sambrook, J., and Russell, D.W. (2001). Molecular cloning: a laboratory manual (Cold Spring Harbor,
N.Y: Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press).

Sauer, R.T., and Baker, T.A. (2011). AAA+ proteases: ATP-fueled machines of protein destruction.
Annu. Rev. Biochem. *80*, 587–612. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-biochem-060408-172623.

Schindelin, J., Arganda-Carreras, I., Frise, E., Kaynig, V., Longair, M., Pietzsch, T., Preibisch, S., Rueden,
C., Saalfeld, S., Schmid, B., et al. (2012). Fiji: an open-source platform for biological-image analysis.
Nat. Methods *9*, 676–682. https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.2019.

Schlothauer, T., Mogk, A., Dougan, D.A., Bukau, B., and Turgay, K. (2003). MecA, an adaptor protein
necessary for ClpC chaperone activity. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. *100*, 2306–2311.
https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0535717100.

Schmidt, A., Trentini, D.B., Spiess, S., Fuhrmann, J., Ammerer, G., Mechtler, K., and Clausen, T. (2014).
Quantitative phosphoproteomics reveals the role of protein arginine phosphorylation in the bacterial
stress response. Mol. Cell. Proteomics MCP *13*, 537–550.
https://doi.org/10.1074/mcp.M113.032292.

Schneider, C.A., Rasband, W.S., and Eliceiri, K.W. (2012). NIH Image to ImageJ: 25 years of image
analysis. Nat. Methods *9*, 671–675. https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.2089.

Smith, M.H., Ploegh, H.L., and Weissman, J.S. (2011). Road to ruin: targeting proteins for degradation
in the endoplasmic reticulum. Science *334*, 1086–1090. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1209235.

Stannek, L., Gunka, K., Care, R.A., Gerth, U., and Commichau, F.M. (2014). Factors that mediate and
prevent degradation of the inactive and unstable GudB protein in Bacillus subtilis. Front. Microbiol. *5*,
758. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2014.00758.

Suskiewicz, M.J., Hajdusits, B., Beveridge, R., Heuck, A., Vu, L.D., Kurzbauer, R., Hauer, K., Thoeny, V.,
Rumpel, K., Mechtler, K., et al. (2019). Structure of McsB, a protein kinase for regulated arginine
phosphorylation. Nat. Chem. Biol. *15*, 510–518. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41589-019-0265-y.

Teague, W.E., and Dobson, G.P. (1999). Thermodynamics of the arginine kinase reaction. J. Biol.
Chem. *274*, 22459–22463. .

Trentini, D.B., Suskiewicz, M.J., Heuck, A., Kurzbauer, R., Deszcz, L., Mechtler, K., and Clausen, T.
(2016). Arginine phosphorylation marks proteins for degradation by a Clp protease. Nature *539*, 48–
53. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature20122.

Tryggvesson, A., Ståhlberg, F.M., Mogk, A., Zeth, K., and Clarke, A.K. (2012). Interaction specificity
between the chaperone and proteolytic components of the cyanobacterial Clp protease. Biochem. J.
446, 311–320. https://doi.org/10.1042/BJ20120649.

Turgay, K., Hamoen, L.W., Venema, G., and Dubnau, D. (1997). Biochemical characterization of a
molecular switch involving the heat shock protein ClpC, which controls the activity of ComK, the
competence transcription factor of Bacillus subtilis. Genes Dev *11*, 119-28. .

Turgay, K., Hahn, J., Burghoorn, J., and Dubnau, D. (1998). Competence in Bacillus subtilis is
controlled by regulated proteolysis of a transcription factor. EMBO J. *17*, 6730–6738.
https://doi.org/10.1093/emboj/17.22.6730.

Twomey, E.C., Ji, Z., Wales, T.E., Bodnar, N.O., Ficarro, S.B., Marto, J.A., Engen, J.R., and Rapoport,
T.A. (2019). Substrate processing by the Cdc48 ATPase complex is initiated by ubiquitin unfolding.
Science *365*, eaax1033. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aax1033.

Walter, P., and Ron, D. (2011). The unfolded protein response: from stress pathway to homeostatic
regulation. Science *334*, 1081–1086. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1209038.

Weibezahn, J., Schlieker, C., Bukau, B., and Mogk, A. (2003). Characterization of a trap mutant of the
AAA+ chaperone ClpB. J Biol Chem *278*, 32608–32617.

Weibezahn, J., Tessarz, P., Schlieker, C., Zahn, R., Maglica, Z., Lee, S., Zentgraf, H., Weber-Ban, E.U.,
Dougan, D.A., Tsai, F.T.F., et al. (2004). Thermotolerance requires refolding of aggregated proteins by
substrate translocation through the central pore of ClpB. Cell *119*, 653–665.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2004.11.027.

Winkler, J., Tyedmers, J., Bukau, B., and Mogk, A. (2012). Hsp70 targets Hsp100 chaperones to
substrates for protein disaggregation and prion fragmentation. J. Cell Biol. *198*, 387–404.
https://doi.org/10.1083/jcb.201201074.

Ye, Y., Meyer, H.H., and Rapoport, T.A. (2001). The AAA ATPase Cdc48/p97 and its partners transport
proteins from the ER into the cytosol. Nature *414*, 652–656. .

Zhou, B., Semanjski, M., Orlovetskie, N., Bhattacharya, S., Alon, S., Argaman, L., Jarrous, N., Zhang, Y.,
Macek, B., Sinai, L., et al. (2019). Arginine dephosphorylation propels spore germination in bacteria.
Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. *116*, 14228–14237. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1817742116.

Zhou, B., Alon, S., Rao, L., Sinai, L., and Ben-Yehuda, S. (2022). Reviving the view: evidence that
macromolecule synthesis fuels bacterial spore germination. MicroLife *3*, uqac004.
https://doi.org/10.1093/femsml/uqac004.