Multi ligand sensing by a bacterial histidine kinase through inhibition of dimerization

Gaurav D. Sankhe[1] Jiawei Xing[2], Merissa Xiao[3], John Buglino[1], Huilin Li[3], Igor B. Zhulin[2],
Michael S. Glickman[1,4,#]

1-Immunology Program, Sloan Kettering Institute

2-Department of Microbiology, The Ohio State University, 500 Aronoff Laboratory, 318 W. 12th
Avenue, Columbus, OH 43210

3- Department of Structural Biology, Van Andel Institute, Grand Rapids, Michigan, United States

4- Immunology and Microbial Pathogenesis Program, Weill Cornell Graduate School of Medical
Sciences

#Correspondence:

glickmam@mskcc.org

1275 York Ave

New York, NY 10025

646-888-2368

Abstract

Two component systems (TCS) mediate bacterial signal transduction in response to specific environmental conditions. The two components are the sensor kinase (SK), which senses the signal and autophosphorylates on a histidine residue, and a response regulator (RR), which is phosphorylated by the kinase and modifies gene expression. Despite intensive study, the mechanisms of signal sensing by sensor kinases are incompletely defined and the mechanisms by which SKs can sense multiple ligands are unclear. *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* PdtaS/PdtaR is a soluble TCS pair that participates in the Rip1 signal transduction cascade to control virulence by responding to copper and nitric oxide (NO). In contrast to paradigmatic ligand activated SKs, PdtaS is constitutively active without ligand and directly inhibited by Cu or NO, but it is unclear how such chemically diverse ligands are sensed. Here we show that PdtaS is a dimeric kinase that constitutively autophosphorylates in trans. Cu and NO both inhibit PdtaS phosphorylation by inhibiting dimerization. Phylogenetic analysis of the PdtaS family reveals conservation of the PAS/GAF dimer interface rather than the ligand binding pockets and mutations in the GAF dimer interface that alter dimerization impair multi-ligand sensing both in vitro and in *M. tuberculosis* cells. These results indicate that a single bacterial kinase can sense chemically diverse inputs through inhibition of dimerization dependent phosphorylation.

Introduction

All bacteria, both environmental and pathogenic, must adapt to their environments by sensing and responding via modified gene expression (*1*). Although there are many mechanisms by which bacteria sense the environment, two component systems (TCS) are a widespread mode in bacterial signal transduction. In the best characterized examples, a sensor kinase (SK), often membrane bound, senses a signal and autophosphorylates on a conserved histidine and then transfers the phosphoryl group to a cytosolic protein known as response regulator (RR). RRs effect the cellular response often through DNA binding and less commonly through second messenger, RNA and protein mediated mechanisms (*2-4*). SKs contain a characteristic kinase core consisting of a dimerization histidine phosphotransfer domain (DHp) and an ATP/ADP- binding catalytic domain (CA or C_ATPAse) (*5*). Depending upon features of the helix bundle loops between the DHp and CA domains, the autophosphorylation of SKs can occur in cis (intramolecular) or trans (intermolecular)(*6*). When SKs phosphorylate in *trans* (*7-10*) the ATP bound to the CA domain of one SK provides the phosphoryl group to the histidine residue of the dimeric partner. Autophosphorylation in trans therefore necessitates dimerization for kinase activity (*5, 11*). Cis autophosphorylation occurs when the ATP bound to the CA domain phosphorylates the histidine residue on the same SK polypeptide(*12-14*).

SKs sense a diverse spectrum of physical cues such as light (*15*), temperature (*16*), pH (*17*), NO (*18*), quinones from the respiratory chain (*19*) cyclic dinucleotides(*20*), cations (*21*) and many other compounds. SKs are usually activated by ligand induced conformational changes leading to kinase activation and autophosphorylation. However, for many TCSs, the ligands that directly bind and activate the SK remain elusive (*22*). In contrast to ligand activation, in some cases ligand binding inhibits signal transduction, as observed for WalK upon Zn^{2+} binding to the PAS domain (*21*) and the inhibition of the autophosphorylation of FixL by oxygen (*23*).

M. tuberculosis encodes 13 two-component systems, most of which follow the classic cognate sensor kinase-response regulator pairing, often encoded in an operonic arrangement in the chromosome (*24, 25*). These include the intensely studied DosS/R system (*18, 26*), the PhoP/R system (*17, 27, 28*) and the essential MtrAB system. The PdtaS/PdtaR TCS is atypical in several ways. First, PdtaS (encoded by *rv3220*) and PdtaR (encoded by *rv1626*) are encoded at distinct sites in the chromosome, in contrast to the usual operonic arrangement of SK-RR pairs. The PdtaS kinase has a C terminal kinase domain and N terminal GAF and PAS domains,

classically involved in ligand binding (*29-32*). However, studies of PdtaS kinase activity indicate

that PdtaS is constitutively active without ligands (*33-35*). In addition, the PdtaR RR is not a

DNA binding transcription factor. In addition to its receiver domain, which is phosphorylated by

PdtaS, PdtaR contains an ANTAR domain, which binds RNA hairpins (*36*). Although the full

functions of ANTAR domain RNA binding have not been defined, in some cases the ANTAR

domain interaction regulates transcriptional termination (*37, 38*).

PdtaS and PdtaR were implicated in the Rip1 pathway of *M. tuberculosis* signal transduction by

a genetic suppressor screen in which inactivation of either PdtaS or PdtaR reverted the copper

and nitric oxide sensitivity of *M. tuberculosis* lacking *rip1*. Copper and NO directly inhibit the

kinase activity of PdtaS, an inhibition that requires the N terminal GAF and PAS domains (*33*),

indicating that the GAF-PAS are necessary to transmit the inhibitory signal to the kinase

domain. The suppressor mutations in PdtaS were both in the N terminal GAF domain. One was

a premature termination mutation, but the other was a single amino acid substitution (V54F) in

the GAF domain near a dicysteine motif (C53/C57). Mutation of C53 or C57 to alanine did not

affect constitutive PdtaS kinase activity but did abolish PdtaS inhibition by both copper and NO

(*33*).

These data indicate that PdtaS is a direct sensor of multiple ligands, including NO and Cu, and

that inhibition of autophosphorylation is a mechanism of PdtaS signaling. However, it remains

unclear how a single kinase can sense such chemically diverse ligands. Ligand binding pockets

of GAF and PAS domains can bind a wide variety of ligands (*39*), but it remains to be

determined whether multi-ligand sensing by PdtaS represents a manifestation of specific

chemical recognition by the GAF-PAS domains or some other mechanism.

Results

PdtaS phosphorylates as a dimer in trans.

Although many TCS are dimeric, the mechanism of autophosphorylation by sensor kinases can

be either in cis or trans. Cis autophosphorylation occurs when ATP bound by a single kinase

polypeptide transfers phosphate to the histidine on the same molecule, whereas trans

autophosphorylation occurs when ATP bound by one kinase monomer transfers phosphate to

the histidine on the dimeric partner. To investigate the autophosphorylation mechanism of

PdtaS, we generated a structural model of the full length PdtaS dimer, including C terminal

kinase, GAF and PAS domains (Figure 1A). Detailed examination of the ATP binding site

revealed close proximity to the phosphorylated histidine 303 on the opposite PdtaS kinase

domain in the dimer, possibly suggesting trans autophosphorylation (Figure 1B). To test which

mode of phosphorylation is operative in PdtaS, we mixed wild type PdtaS with PdtaS-H303Q,

which can bind ATP but cannot be phosphorylated due to a mutation in the acceptor histidine,

and measured autophosphorylation using $[\gamma–^{32}P]$ ATP. Increasing PdtaS-H303Q inhibited the

phosphorylation of wild type PdtaS, a result that suggests trans phosphorylation since cis

phosphorylation should not be inhibited by an inactive dimeric partner (Fig 1C). A similar

inhibition of PdtaS autophosphorylation was observed with titration of the inactive and ATP

binding defective PdtaS-G443A, which in turn gained weak phosphorylation from the dimeric

WT protein (Figure 1D). To confirm trans phosphorylation, we mixed PdtaS-H303Q with PdtaS-

G443A and quantitated autophosphorylation. Each protein is inactive either due to loss of ATP

binding or the phosphoacceptor site (Fig 1C,D), but a mixture of the two proteins restored

phosphorylation of G443A, consistent with trans autophosphorylation of G443A with ATP

binding proficient H303Q (Fig 1E,F). To confirm that the inactivity of each mutant protein is not

due to loss of dimerization, we measured the dimerization affinity of PdtaS by microscale

thermophoresis (MST) with itself, PdtaS-H303Q or PdtaS-G443A and found nearly identical

dimerization affinities (Fig 1G, WT-WT-1400nM, WT-H303Q-1443nM, WT-G443A-1457nM).

These results demonstrate that PdtaS constitutively autophosphorylates in trans.

Ligands that inhibit PdtaS activity inhibit dimerization.

Having established an autophosphorylation assay that specifically reflects PdtaS dimerization,

we tested the ability of Cu and NO to inhibit autophosphorylation. Although 10 μM calcium had

no effect, 10 μM Cu strongly inhibited PdtaS trans autophosphorylation (Fig 2A). Similarly, 100

μM spermine NONOate strongly inhibited trans autophosphorylation in comparison to spent

NONOate control (Fig 2A). Although these data indicate that PdtaS ligands inhibit trans

phosphorylation, as demonstrated previously with wild type PdtaS protein (*33*), this effect could

either occur by inhibition of phosphotransfer without dissociation of the PdtaS dimer, or by

ligand induced dissociation of the PdtaS dimer. To test whether Cu and NO modify dimer

formation, we quantitated the affinity of dimer formation by MST using titration of unlabeled

PdtaS with fluorophore conjugated PdtaS. We detected PdtaS dimer formation with an apparent

Kd of 1543 nM (Fig 2B, 2D). Addition of 10µM Nickel or calcium did not change the apparent

Kd, but addition of 10µM Cu inhibited dimerization with an apparent Kd in the presence of Cu of

5072 nM (p=0.0088 for buffer vs Cu by one way ANOVA, Fig 2B, 2D). NO also inhibited

dimerization, increasing the apparent Kd from 1196 nM for spent NO control to 5717nM with

100µM NO (p=0.0044 by one way ANOVA, Fig 2C, 2D). These data indicate that both Cu and

NO specifically inhibit PdtaS dimer formation at concentrations that inhibit trans

autophosphorylation.

Bioinformatic analysis of the PdtaS kinase family reveals conservation of the dimer

interface.

Several biochemical properties of the PdtaS kinase differ from the usual model of sensor kinase

activation. Most prominent is the constitutive kinase activity, which is present without any

activating ligand. Although cyclic di-GMP has been proposed as a ligand for the PdtaS GAF

domain, this ligand is not needed for kinase activity (*35*). Additionally, copper and NO, two other

ligands for PdtaS, inhibit kinase activity and inhibit dimerization, possibly suggesting that

dimerization could be a mechanism of ligand sensing. The GAF and PAS domains that are N

terminal to the PdtaS kinase domain (Figure 1A) are widespread protein domains in signal

transduction systems with diverse functions, including direct ligand binding and dimerization (*39,*

40). Specifically, based on our previous study, the PAS domains of PdtaS homologs form a

cluster with a distinct conservation pattern (*39*) (Supplementary Fig. 1). To expand this analysis,

we collected 4,988 homologs from the reference protein sequence database using *M.*

tuberculosis PdtaS as the query, which resulted in 887 sequences after removing redundancy

(Supplementary Dataset 1, see Methods). We performed bioinformatic analyses of the

conservation of PdtaS across the Actinomycetota phyla and mapped this conservation onto the

predicted full length PdtaS dimer structure predicted using AlphaFold (*41*), which agrees well

with the truncated experimentally determined structure (PDB accession 2YKF) (*29*). We found

that conserved residues (>50% conservation) were distributed along the dimer interface in GAF,

PAS, and kinase domains (Fig 3A, Supplementary Dataset 2). In comparing the number of

conserved residues along the GAF and PAS dimer interfaces to the surface of the GAF/PAS

ligand binding cavity, we found more conservation (>90%) along the dimer interface than in the
cavities, particularly for the PAS domain (Fig 3B, Supplementary Dataset 2). This analysis
suggests that the PdtaS kinase family has evolved to conserve the dimerization interface,
shown above to be important for autokinase activity, but that the putative ligand binding
domains do not have a conserved ligand cavity, arguing against a specific ligand that binds in
the GAF or PAS pocket in this family of histidine kinases.
176
The cysteine motifs in the PdtaS GAF domain modulate ligand sensing and dimer
formation.
Our prior data indicated that a dicysteine motif (C53/C57) in the N terminal PdtaS GAF domain
(Fig 4A) was critical to ligand sensing. PdtaS-C53A or -C57A were both active kinases but could
not be inhibited by Cu or NO (*33*). However, the mechanism by which these cysteines mediate
ligand mediated kinase inhibition was not clear. We hypothesized that, given the effect of Cu
and NO on PdtaS dimerization, that the dicysteine motif might alter the dimer kinetics as a
mechanism of ligand insensitivity. We first queried the conservation of C53 and C57 across
PdtaS orthologs. We found that although C57 is conserved among a minority of PdtaS proteins
in the Actinomycetales, the Mycobacteriales order had striking conservation of these residues.
Almost all PdtaS proteins in the Mycobacteriales had conservation of C53 or both C53 and C57,
with a minority with only C57 (Fig 4B, Supplementary Dataset 1). To test whether C53 or C57
affect PdtaS dimerization, we purified PdtaS-C53A and PdtaS-C57A proteins and measured
dimerization Kd by MST. In comparison to WT PdtaS, both cysteine mutants displayed
enhanced dimerization affinities (WT:1318nm, C53A:445nM, C57A: 608nM, WT vs C53A
p<0.001, WT vs C57A p=0.008, both by one way ANOVA with Bonferroni correction, Fig 4C,D).
These data suggested that the conserved cysteines in the GAF weaken the dimer, and that
resistance of the GAF domain mutants to ligand inhibition might be due to enhanced dimer
formation. To test this hypothesis, we measured dimerization Kd of the C53A (Figure 4E) and
C57A (Figure 4F) proteins by MST in the presence of Cu and NO. In contrast to the wild-type
protein, the dimerization affinities of both cysteine GAF mutants were unaffected by either Cu or
NO. These data indicate that the ligand sensing by the GAF domain of PdtaS is mediated
through dimerization affinity.
200
Dimerization separation of function mutations impair PdtaS kinase activity.
In analyzing the dimer interface of PdtaS, we identified H67 and R137 as conserved residues
positioned in the dimer interface of the GAF domains (Fig 5A), suggesting that they may be

involved in dimerization mediated ligand sensing. We changed each residue to alanine by site
directed mutagenesis and purified PdtaS-H67A and PdtaS-R137A. PdtaS-R137A was refractory
to purification due to insolubility, but PdtaS-H67A was purified successfully. We tested the
dimerization affinity of PdtaS-H67A in comparison to PdtaS and observed reduced dimerization
with a Kd of 8777nM for H67A and 1501 nM for wild type (Fig 5B). Autophosphorylation assays
indicated that PdtaS-H67A was ~3 fold less active than wild type kinase (Fig 5C), consistent
with impaired dimerization. However, incubation with PdtaR revealed that both wild type and
H67A kinases were capable of phosphotransfer to PdtaR. Although the absolute quantity of
PdtaR phosphorylated by PdtaS-H67A was reduced, normalization of the PdtaR intensity to the
PdtaS autophosphorylated intensity revealed that phosphotransfer was unaffected by the H67A
mutation (Fig 5C), indicating that this mutation specifically affects autophosphorylation but not
phosphotransfer. To test whether the impairment of PdtaS dimerization affects ligand inhibition
by Cu, we tested PdtaS autophosphorylation in the presence of escalating concentrations of Cu.
Although wild type PdtaS was inhibited, as previously observed(*33*), PdtaS-H67A was highly
resistant to Cu inhibition with a Ki of 3262 mM vs 13.14 for wild type (Fig 5D). These data
indicate that weakening the dimer affinity of PdtaS dampens the dimer dependent trans
autophosphorylation activity and prevents further ligand inhibition.

Inhibition of PdtaS through GAF-PAS interdomain coupling

The data above indicates that the PdtaS kinase dimerizes in part through contacts in the N
terminal GAF domain. GAF mutations that either strengthen or weaken dimerization have
corresponding effects of kinase activity and inhibition by ligands that inhibit PdtaS autokinase
activity. However, the kinase domain at which ATP binding and autophosphorylation occur is C
terminal, suggesting that there must be some mechanism to couple the inhibition of dimerization
to the kinase domain. We further analyzed the PdtaS conservation and interpreted conserved
residues considering the predicted interdomain structure of the kinase dimer. Position 28 of the
GAF domain is occupied by aspartate or glutamate in 100% of PdtaS proteins in the
Actinomycetota phyla (Fig 6A, B, Supplementary Dataset 2). E28 of *M. tuberculosis* PdtaS is
predicted to form an interdomain contact to arginine 261 of the PAS domain (Fig 6A,B), which is
also conserved in 99% of PdtaS proteins. We hypothesized that this interdomain connection
might be involved in coupling the GAF domain dimer dissociation signal to the C terminal PAS
to ultimately inhibit autophosphorylation. The dimerization affinity of PdtaS-R261A by MST was
identical to WT, indicating that the GAF-PAS bridge does not affect dimerization (Fig 6C). In
contrast to wild type PdtaS, for which Cu inhibits dimerization, copper had no effect on the dimer

affinity of the PtdaS-R261A protein in comparison to calcium or control conditions (Fig 6D).

However, the GAF-PAS bridge mutant (R261A) displayed an attenuated inhibition by Cu in

comparison to wild type (Fig 6E, WT Ki 10.52 µM vs PdtaS-R261A Ki 181.9 µM). These results

are consistent with a model in which GAF-PAS interdomain coupling transmits the dimer

dissociation signal to inhibit phosphorylation.

PdtaS dimerization mediates signaling in vivo

To test whether PdtaS dimerization is important for PdtaS signaling in vivo, we expressed PdtaS

alleles carrying mutations that affect dimerization (C53, C57, or H67) or interdomain coupling

(R261), as defined above. Inactivating mutations in PdtaS suppress the copper sensitivity of the

M. tuberculosis Δ*rip1* strain (*33*), providing a sensitive system to interrogate PdtaS mutants.

Complementation of *M. tuberculosis* Δ*rip1pdtaS*-F37X with PdtaS alleles encoding an ALFA

epitope tag allowed monitoring of PdtaS expression (Fig 7A). All PdtaS protein were detectable,

although all mutant proteins accumulated to lower levels than WT PdtaS (Fig 7A). We tested the

copper sensitivity of these strains and observed that complementation with PdtaS-ALFA

restored the Cu sensitivity to Δ*rip1pdtaS*F37X indicating that ALFA tag does not impair PdtaS

function. In contrast, PdtaS-C53, PdtaS-C53A/C57A and H67A were inactive. However, PdtaS-

R261A, despite its resistance to Cu inhibition in vitro (Figure 6), was still active in vivo (Figure

7B). Although the three dimerization mutants that are inactive are expressed at lower levels

than WT PdtaS, their expression levels are very similar to R261A (Figure 7A), indicating that

these expression levels are sufficient for signaling.

Discussion

We have investigated the mechanism of signal sensing of the *M. tuberculosis* PdtaS kinase. PdtaS was previously implicated in sensing copper and nitric oxide as part of the Rip1 signal transduction cascade, in addition to binding cyclic di-GMP (*33, 35*). PdtaS is a soluble cytoplasmic protein that constitutively autophosphorylates in vitro without any added ligand. This constitutive activity is inhibited by both copper and nitric oxide and this inhibition shuts off the PdtaS/PdtaR pathway, thereby modifying gene expression via the RNA binding activity of the PdtaR ANTAR domain (*33*). Although dimeric sensor kinases can autophosphorylate either in cis or trans (*6*), our data indicate that PdtaS phosphorylates in trans. The paradigmatic mechanism of signal transduction by sensor kinase-response regulator pairs is that a signal is sensed by the SK through specific ligand recognition, activating the kinase to autophosphorylate and then phosphorylate the response regulator. PdtaS works by an inverted regulatory logic in which ligands inhibit the constitutively active kinase, but how chemically diverse ligands are sensed was not clear.

Based on the data presented above, we propose that inhibition of dimerization is the mechanism by which PdtaS can sense chemically diverse ligands rather than by specific recognition by the GAF and PAS domains, which are usually specific ligand sensors. This model is based on the following data:

1) Copper and NO inhibit dimer formation by PdtaS

2) Sequence analysis of the *M. tuberculosis* PdtaS protein indicates that mycobacterial PdtaS belongs to a distinct cluster. Sequence conservation of this cluster is observed in the dimer interface of the GAF and PAS domains rather than in the putative ligand binding pockets.

3) Two cysteine residues in the GAF domain, C53 and C57, are conserved in Mycobacteriales PdtaS. When mutated to alanine, PdtaS forms a tighter dimer, and these cysteine mutant proteins are resistant to inhibition by both Cu and NO.

4) Histidine 67 is at the dimer interface and PdtaS-H67A forms a weaker dimer than WT PdtaS but is fully competent for phosphotransfer to PdtaR. PdtaS H67A is resistant to inhibition by Cu.

5) PdtaS E28-R261 are predicted to form a bridge between the GAF and PAS domains, suggesting that they might transmit a signal between these two domains. Although PdtaS-R261A dimerizes with equal affinity as WT PdtaS, Cu cannot dissociate the dimer and therefore inhibition of autokinase activity by Cu is attenuated.

6) All of the mutations at the dimerization interface that abolish Cu sensing in vitro similarly
inactivate PdtaS function in in vivo in controlling Cu resistance. Hoever, the R261
mutation, which abolishes Cu sensing in vitro, is nevertheless active in vivo, suggesting
that this interdomain coupling model is incomplete or compensated by other mechanism
in vivo to inhibit trans autophosphorylation. However, this R261A PdtaS protein serves
as a useful control for the expression levels of the dimerization mutants. Although all
mutant proteins are underexpressed compared to WT PdtaS, R261A is still active and
expressed at similar levels to the other proteins, suggesting the lack of activity of
dimerization mutant proteins is not due to expression level.

Taken together, these data are consistent with a model in which modulation of dimer affinity is
the sensing mechanism of the mycobacterial clade of PdtaS kinases, rather than specific
recognition of Cu or NO by the ligand binding pockets of the GAF or PAS domains. We propose
that this mechanism of dimer sensing allows integration of multiple inputs into the kinase without
the constraints of specific ligand recognition. It is also possible that this mechanism is operative
in a cytoplasmic kinase for which dimer association is in solution rather than being constrained
by the membrane, as is the case with membrane bound SKs.

Our data does not identify the specific molecular details by which Cu and NO dissociate the
PdtaS dimer. Although we identify mutations with both positive and negative effects on dimer
affinity which have effects of ligand inhibition of the kinase, this data does not identify how
dimerization is inhibited and whether Cu and NO both interact with the same regions of the
dimer interface. It is also possible that other factors present in the bacterial cell might modify the
dimerization affinity and thereby tune the setpoint of the PdtaS/PdtaR system similar to setting
the signal detection thresholds of various mycobacterial SKs through sequestration by non-
cognate RRs(*42*). For example, a recent global phosphoproteomic study (*43*) identified multiple
phosphorylation sites in PdtaS which could modify the responses observed in vitro. Overall, our
data reveal a new mechanism of SK sensing based on dimer affinity, a mechanism that may be
applicable to other SKs for which the sensing mechanisms are not well defined.

Figure Legends

Figure 1: PtdaS phosphorylates in trans

A. Cartoon representation of the AlphaFold3 predicted structures of the PdtaS dimer with ATP and $Mg2^+$ bound in two orthogonal views. The two PdtaS monomers are distinguished by intensity of color shading and individual domains with (').

B. Expanded view of the dimeric HK domain, showing the potential trans-phosphorylation model. Residues interacting with ATP are shown as sticks. G443 is highlighted in green.

C. Autophosphorylation assay showing autoradiogram (P32, upper panel) or protein (Coomassie brilliant blue, CBB, lower panel) of SDS PAGE gels from kinase reactions containing gamma ^{32}P. The reactions contain PdtaS-SUMO alone, PdtaS-H303Q, which is inactive, or mixtures of these two proteins with escalating concentrations of H303Q.

D. Autophosphorylation assay with the same design as panel (C) using ATP binding defective PdtaS-G443A

E. Trans-autophosphorylation assay demonstrates phosphorylation in trans. Autophosphorylation as described in panel (D) of WT PdtaS, PdtaS-G443A, PdtaS-H303Q, or a 1:1 mixture of G443A and H303Q. Each mutant protein is inactive, but PdtaS-H303Q can phosphorylate G443A in trans.

F. Quantitation of biologic replicates of the assay in (E) with WT PdtaS normalized to 100%. P values were calculated by one way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison correction and error bars are SEM.

G. Dimerization affinities measured by MST using PdtaS, PdtaS-H303Q, or PdtaS-G443A each measured against WT PdtaS. Error bars are SEM, and each point represents average of 3 replicates

Figure 2: Ligands that inhibit PdtaS activity inhibit dimerization

A. Autophosphorylation assay with either wild type PdtaS or the trans autophosphorylation assay from 1E, with 1 mM Ca, 10 µM Cu, no addition (-), 100 µM spermine NONOate (NO), or 100 µM spent spermine NONOate (NC).

B. Copper inhibits PdtaS dimerization. Microscale thermophoresis (MST) was used to measure the dimerization affinity of PdtaS prelabeled with amine coupling dye (RED-NHS 2nd generation Nanotemper Technologies) and unlabeled PdtaS in the presence of buffer

(black), 10μM Cu (blue square), 10μM Ni (red triangle), or 10μM Ca (green triangle). Each

point is the average of 4 replicates and error bars are SEM.

C. Nitric oxide inhibits PdtaS dimerization. MST as described in panel B with 100μM spermine

NONOate or spent NO control. Each point is average of 3 replicates and error bars are

SEM.

D. Quantitation of dimerization dissociation constant (Kd, nM) calculated from replicate MST

experiments in the presence of Cu, Ca, Ni, NO, or spent NO. Statistical significance is

indicated and calculated by one way ANOVA with Bonferroni correction for multiple

comparisons.

Figure 3 Conservation of the Dimer interface of PdtaS

A. Structural model of the PdtaS dimer with PAS, GAF, and Histidine Kinase (HK) from

each monomer labeled. The conservation across Actinomycetota PdtaS proteins is

indicated by red shading at different conservation levels.

B. Interface residues of the GAF and PAS domains are more conserved than ligand pocket

residues. The table displays the number of conserved amino acid residues (present in

>90% sequences) across Actinomycetota PdtaS orthologs in the ligand binding cavity

(yellow) or dimerization interface (green). The structural model shows the GAF and PAS

domain of one PdtaS monomer in the dimer structure and separated in an exploded view

with color coding of residues according to the scheme in the table with interface residues

in green and cavity residues in yellow.

Figure 4: A dicysteine motif in the GAF domain modifies dimerization affinity and

multiligand sensing

A. Close-up view of the C53/C57 dicysteine motif in the GAF-PAS dimer structure (PDB ID:

2YKF). C53 and C57 are presented as spheres.

B. Conservation of C53 and C57 in PdtaS according to bacterial order

C. Effects of mutations at C53 or C57 on dimerization. Shown are MST plots of wild type

(black), PdtaS C53A-C53A (blue), or PdtaSC57A-C57A (green)

D. Quantitation of dimerization affinities of the indicated PdtaS proteins by MST of biologic

triplicates. P values were calculated by one way ANOVA with Bonferroni correction and

error bars are SEM.

E,F NO and copper do not inhibit PdtaSC53A-C53A (E) or PdtaSC57A-C57A (F)
dimerization. MST curves measuring the dimerization affinity of the indicated PdtaS
proteins in the presence of the indicated ligands.
398
Figure 5: GAF-PAS dimer interface controls ligand inhibition of PdtaS
A. The GAF-PAS dimer interface (PDB ID: 2YKF). H67 and R137 are in sticks. R137 and
Y146 coordinate a sulfate in the crystal structure. Hydrogen bonds are labeled as
dashed lines.
B. PdtaSH67A-H67A has a weakened dimer interface. MST measurement of the
dimerization affinities of WT PdtaS or PdtaSH67A-H67A.
C. The GAF dimer interface affects autophosphorylation but not phosphotransfer.
Autophosphorylation (PdtaS alone) or phosphotransfer reactions (PdtaS+PdtaR) with
autoradiograms (^{32}P, top) or Coomassie stained gels (CBB, bottom) for either WT PdtaS
or PdtaS-H67A. The graphs to the right quantitate autophosphorylation or normalized
phosphotransfer to PdtaR.
D. Copper does not inhibit PdtaS-H67A. Autophosphorylation reactions as in Figure 1 of
WT or PdtaS-H67A with increasing concentrations of copper as indicated. The dose
response curve is derived from quantitation of biologic triplicates.
413
Figure 6 Interdomain coupling of the GAF dimerization signal
A. Cartoon view of the GAF-PAS dimer (PDB ID 2YKF).
B. Close-up views of the interaction of E28 and R261 at the interface of GAF and PAS
domain.
C. Interdomain bridge does not affect dimerization. MST dimerization curves of the
indicated proteins.
D. The interdomain bridge is required for ligand induced inhibition of dimerization. MST
curves of PdtaS-R261A with buffer, calcium, or copper, demonstrating no effect on
apparent dimer affinity.
E. The interdomain bridge is required for ligand inhibited autophosphorylation. Inhibition
curves of autophosphorylation assays of WT PdtaS or PdtaS-R261A with increasing
copper concentrations.
426
427 **Figure 7 In vivo function of the PdtaS dimerization interface in copper resistance**
428

A. Immunoblot of lysates from *M. tuberculosis* strains with anti-ALFA nanobody (top) or

anti-SigA antibodies (bottom) as a loading control. Strains are all derived from *M.*

tuberculosis Erdman Δ*rip1pdtaS* F37X, which carries a frameshift suppressor mutation in

PdtaS as described in (33). Each strain carries an ALFA tagged PdtaS complementation

plasmid encoding nothing (vect), wild type PtdaS, or PdtaS with the indicated mutations

B. Copper sensitivity of PdtaS dimerization mutant proteins. The *M. tuberculosis*

strains in panel A, along with wild type and Δ*rip1* strain were cultured on agar media

containing no addition or 200/500 µM copper sulfate. Each point is a biologic replicate

from two technical replicates and statistical significance for the 500 µM condition by the

Mann-Whitney test with correction for multiple comparisons. Error bars are SEM.

**=p<0.01.

Materials and Methods

Reagents

Antibiotics IPTG (isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside) and DTT (dithiothreitol) were

purchased from GoldBio Inc., USA. Glycine, ATP, Tween-20 from Merck Sigma Aldrich, USA.

Protein marker from Thermo Scientific, USA. Co^{2+}-NTA TALON metal affinity resin from Takara,

Japan. Protease inhibitor cocktail from Amresco and $γ^{32}P$ labelled ATP (>3000 Ci/mmol) from

Perkin Elmer, USA. Media and salts were purchased from Fischer, USA.

Recombinant PdtaS/PdtaS mutant protein purification

Full length C-terminal 10x His tagged PdtaS/PdtaS mutant, and N-terminal 10xHisSmt3

PdtaS/PdtaS mutant fusion constructs, were both expressed and purified (Figure S2) from

Rosetta 2 (DE3) *E.coli* (Millipore Sigma). Cultures, 2-4L, grown in Luria-Bertani (LB) media to

an OD_{600} of 0.8 at 37ºC were equilibrated to 30ºC for 30 min prior to induction. Protein

expression was then induced with 0.5 mM isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactoside (IPTG), and the

cultures were allowed to grow post induction for 3-4 additional hours at 30ºC. Cells were then

collected by centrifugation, re-suspended in lysis (350mM sodium chloride, 20mM Tris-HCl pH

8.0, 20mM imidazole, 0.5mM β-mercaptoethanol) at a ratio of 2mL of buffer to 1g of wet pellet

weight and stored at -80ºC. The following day frozen cell pellets were thawed and disrupted by

2 passes thought a French pressure cell at an internal pressure of 14000 psi (Sim-Aminco,

40000 psi cell). Crude lysates were clarified by centrifugation at 25,000xg for 40 minutes in an

SS-34 Rotor (Sorvall), and then passed over TALON metal affinity resin (Takara, Japan)

equilibrated in wash buffer. Columns were then washed with 20 column volumes of Wash

buffer (350mM sodium chloride, 20mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 40mM imidazole, 0.5mM β-

mercaptoethanol). Proteins bound to the resin were eluted with 2 column volumes of Elution

Buffer (Wash Buffer + 200mM imidazole).

After elution from the TALON column PdtaS 10XHis was dialyzed and concentrated to ~2mg/ml

in a dialysis buffer containing 50mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 50 mM sodium chloride, 100 µM DTT

(dithiothreitol) with 40 %(v/v) glycerol.

Eluted 10xHis-Smt3-PdtaS/PdtaS mutant protein was further purified as follows. 10XHis-Smt3

was cleaved from PdtaS/PdtaS mutant protein by overnight treatment with Ulp1 protease at

4ºC. Free PdtaS was then recovered in the flow through fraction of a second round of TALON

resin purification. PdtaS/PdtaS mutant protein was then dialyzed and stored in the dialysis
buffer.

Sensor Kinase autophosphorylation activity using PAGE/Autoradiography technique

5 µM of the purified sensor kinase (SK) PdtaS/PdtaS mutant protein was incubated for 20
minutes in the autophosphorylation buffer (50 mM Tris HCl at pH 8.0, 50 mM KCl, 10 mM
$MgCl_2$) containing 50 µM ATP and 1µCi of $\gamma^{32}P$-labelled ATP at 30°C. The reaction was
terminated by adding 1× SDS-PAGE sample buffer (2% w/v SDS, 50 mM Tris HCl, pH 6.8,
0.02% w/v bromophenol blue, 1% v/v β-mercaptoethanol, 10% v/v glycerol). The samples were
resolved on 15% v/v SDS-PAGE. After electrophoresis the gel was washed and exposed to
phosphor screen (Fujifilm Bas cassette2, Japan) for 4 hours followed by imaging with Typhoon
9210 phosphorimager (GE Healthcare, USA). Quantitative densitometric analysis of the bands
present in autoradiogram corresponding to respective proteins visualized in Coomassie brilliant
blue (CBB) staining, was carried using ImageJ software.

Sensor kinase mechanism of activation (cis or trans)

PdtaS-H303Q (*35*) or PdtaS-G443A (*44*) were co incubated in the indicated escalating
concentrations with a fixed amount of 5 µM of PdtaS wild type protein for 10 mins in the
autophosphorylation buffer at 30°C. The reaction was initiated by adding 50 µM and 1 µCi of
$\gamma^{32}P$-labelled ATP for 20 mins at 30°C and terminated by adding 1X SDS-PAGE sample buffer
and separation by PAGE/Autoradiography. Similarly, the effect on kinase activity of 5 µM of
PdtaS protein was observed by titrating with increasing amounts of ATP binding defective
mutant (mutation in the catalytic ATPase domain),. 5 µM each of purified PdtaS^{H303Q} and
PdtaS^{G443A} mutant proteins were co-incubated in the autophosphorylation buffer for 10 mins at
30°C. The reaction was started by adding 50 µM of unlabeled and 1 µCi of $\gamma^{32}P$-labelled ATP at
30°C for 20 mins and terminated by adding 1X SDS-PAGE sample buffer. Samples were then
processed using PAGE/Autoradiography technique as described above.

PdtaS autophosphorylation inhibition assays

5 µM of the purified SK PdtaS was pre incubated for 10 minutes in the autophosphorylation
buffer with copper chloride at various concentrations as indicated in the figure legend and with 1
mM of calcium chloride as a control. Similarly, the effect nitric oxide (NO) and was studied by
preincubating 5 µM of PdtaS protein with spermine NONOate (Cayman Chemical Company,
USA) as a rapid NO donor for 40 minutes at a 100 µM concentration. A negative control for

spermine NONOate was prepared by preincubating 5 µM of PdtaS with 100 µM of spermine
NONOate which had been allowed to exhaust NO release by overnight incubation at room
temperature in Tris HCl buffer at pH= 6.8. The autophosphorylation reaction was initiated by
adding 50 µM ATP along with 1µCi of γ^{32}P-labelled ATP at 30°C for 20 minutes. The reaction
was terminated by adding 1× SDS-PAGE sample buffer. The samples were resolved on 15%
v/v SDS-PAGE. After electrophoresis the gel was washed and exposed to phosphor screen
(Fujifilm Bas cassette2, Japan) for 4 hours followed by imaging with Typhoon 9210
phosphorimager (GE Healthcare, USA). Quantitative densitometric analysis of the bands
present in autoradiogram corresponding to respective proteins visualized in Coomassie brilliant
blue (CBB) staining was carried using ImageJ software. The dose response curves were
plotted, and inhibition constant (K_i) was obtained by fitting the percentage inhibition to
concentration plot using one site specific binding fit in Graphpad Prism.

Determination of binding affinity of PdtaS G443A or H303Q by
MicroScaleThermophoresis (MST)

Purified PdtaS protein (100 nM) was prelabeled using amine coupling Monolith Protein Labeling
kit RED-NHS 2nd generation (Catalog No. MO-L011, Nanotemper Technologies, GmbH) as
prescribed in manufacturer's protocol. This fluorescently labeled PdtaS was mixed with
increasing concentrations of wild type PdtaS (0.61 nM to 10 µM) or mutant PdtaS^{H303Q} (0.45 nM
to 15 µM) or mutant PdtaS^{G443A} (0.45 nM to 15 µM) in the autophosphorylation buffer with 50 µM
of ATP and 0.025% Tween-20 for 10 mins kept at 30°C. The sample was then loaded into
standard treated capillaries using a Monolith NT. 115 instrument (NanoTemper Technologies
GmbH). The red laser was used for a duration of 35 s for excitation (MST power = 40%, LED
power 40%). The data were analyzed using MO Control software (NanoTemper Technologies
GmbH) to determine the apparent K_D values represented as fraction bound.

Determination of binding affinity for dimerization using MST

100 nM of PdtaS was prelabeled using amine coupling Monolith Protein Labeling kit RED-NHS
2nd generation (Catalog No. MO-L011, Nanotemper Technologies, GmbH) as prescribed in
manufacturer's protocol. To determine binding affinity for dimerization this fluorescently labeled
PdtaS protein was mixed with increased concentration of PdtaS protein (0.61 nM to 10 µM) in
the autophosphorylation buffer having 0.025% Tween-20 and 50 µM of ATP for 10 mins at
30°C. Similarly, binding affinity for dimerization of PdtaS^{C53A}, PdtaS^{C57A}, PdtaS^{R261A} and
PdtaS^{H67A} was determined using MST by pre labeling them with the amine coupling RED-NHS
2nd generation dye as prescribed and mixing the same respective unlabeled proteins in
increasing concentration of 0.15 nM to 5 µM for PdtaS C53A and C57A, 0.3 nM to 2.5 µM for
PdtaS R261A and 0.45 nM to 15 µM for PdtaS H67A respectively. Effect of individual ligands
and their respective controls on dimerization of PdtaS or its mutant were similarly measured
using MST by preincubating the ligand at concentrations mentioned in the respective figure
legends.

Sequence collection and conservation analysis
4,988 homologous sequences of PdtaS were collected from the NCBI reference protein
sequence database using a default BLAST search with *M. tuberculosis* PdtaS
WP_003416886.1 as the query (*45*). Sequence redundancy was reduced at a 90% level using
CD-HIT, resulting in 887 sequences(*46*). These sequences were aligned using MAFFT with the
E-INS-i algorithm(*47*). Sequence conservation was calculated using a custom python script
based on the percentage of each residue in the multiple sequence alignment. Conserved
residues at the interfaces were identified by PyMOL by selecting residues within 4.0 Å of other
domains(*48*). Conserved residues at the cavities were identified by CASTp with a default
parameter(*49*). Protein structures were visualized using PyMOL(*48*). Bacterial taxonomy was
determined using the Genome Taxonomy database (GTDB)(*50*).

Strain construction, verification, and Cu sensitivity testing
M.tb pdtaS ALFA point mutant strains were generated by overlap extension PCR and verified by
sanger sequencing of the resulting plasmids. *M. tuberculosis* Erdman Δ*rip1pdtaS* F37X
competent cells were transformed with the verified plasmids and the resulting transformants
were confirmed by immunoblotting and tested for resistance to copper toxicity as previously
described (33).

567
568 **Acknowledgements**
569

This work was supported by grant R01AI138446 (to MSG) and R35GM131760 (to I.B.Z),

R01AI070285 (to HL), and a Van Andel Institute P2i grant (to MX).

1.   P. C. Marijuan, J. Navarro, R. Del Moral, How prokaryotes 'encode' their environment:
Systemic tools for organizing the information flow. *Biosystems* **164**, 26-38 (2018).
2.   R. B. Bourret, R. E. Silversmith, Two-component signal transduction. *Curr Opin Microbiol*
13, 113-115 (2010).
3.   A. M. Stock, V. L. Robinson, P. N. Goudreau, Two-component signal transduction. *Annu*
Rev Biochem **69**, 183-215 (2000).
4.   L. E. Ulrich, E. V. Koonin, I. B. Zhulin, One-component systems dominate signal
transduction in prokaryotes. *Trends Microbiol* **13**, 52-56 (2005).
5.   R. Gao, A. M. Stock, Biological insights from structures of two-component proteins. *Annu*
Rev Microbiol **63**, 133-154 (2009).
6.   O. Ashenberg, A. E. Keating, M. T. Laub, Helix bundle loops determine whether histidine
kinases autophosphorylate in cis or in trans. *J Mol Biol* **425**, 1198-1209 (2013).
7.   M. P. Bhate, K. S. Molnar, M. Goulian, W. F. DeGrado, Signal transduction in histidine
kinases: insights from new structures. *Structure* **23**, 981-994 (2015).
8.   M. Jiang, W. Shao, M. Perego, J. A. Hoch, Multiple histidine kinases regulate entry into
stationary phase and sporulation in Bacillus subtilis. *Mol Microbiol* **38**, 535-542 (2000).
9.   R. V. Swanson, R. B. Bourret, M. I. Simon, Intermolecular complementation of the
kinase activity of CheA. *Mol Microbiol* **8**, 435-441 (1993).
10. C. P. Zschiedrich, V. Keidel, H. Szurmant, Molecular Mechanisms of Two-Component
Signal Transduction. *J Mol Biol* **428**, 3752-3775 (2016).
11. M. G. Surette *et al.*, Dimerization is required for the activity of the protein histidine kinase
CheA that mediates signal transduction in bacterial chemotaxis. *J Biol Chem* **271**, 939-
945 (1996).
12. P. Casino, L. Miguel-Romero, A. Marina, Visualizing autophosphorylation in histidine
kinases. *Nat Commun* **5**, 3258 (2014).
13. G. R. Pena-Sandoval, D. Georgellis, The ArcB sensor kinase of Escherichia coli
autophosphorylates by an intramolecular reaction. *J Bacteriol* **192**, 1735-1739 (2010).
14. G. D. Sankhe, N. M. Dixit, D. K. Saini, Activation of Bacterial Histidine Kinases: Insights
into the Kinetics of the cis Autophosphorylation Mechanism. *mSphere* **3**, (2018).
15. B. L. Taylor, I. B. Zhulin, PAS domains: internal sensors of oxygen, redox potential, and
light. *Microbiol Mol Biol Rev* **63**, 479-506 (1999).
16. L. A. Abriata, D. Albanesi, M. Dal Peraro, D. de Mendoza, Signal Sensing and
Transduction by Histidine Kinases as Unveiled through Studies on a Temperature
Sensor. *Acc Chem Res* **50**, 1359-1366 (2017).
17. R. B. Abramovitch, K. H. Rohde, F. F. Hsu, D. G. Russell, aprABC: a Mycobacterium
tuberculosis complex-specific locus that modulates pH-driven adaptation to the
macrophage phagosome. *Mol Microbiol* **80**, 678-694 (2011).
18. A. Kumar, J. C. Toledo, R. P. Patel, J. R. Lancaster, Jr., A. J. Steyn, Mycobacterium
tuberculosis DosS is a redox sensor and DosT is a hypoxia sensor. *Proc Natl Acad Sci*
U S A **104**, 11568-11573 (2007).
19. D. Georgellis, O. Kwon, E. C. Lin, Quinones as the redox signal for the arc two-
component system of bacteria. *Science* **292**, 2314-2316 (2001).
20. R. Tamayo, J. T. Pratt, A. Camilli, Roles of cyclic diguanylate in the regulation of
bacterial pathogenesis. *Annu Rev Microbiol* **61**, 131-148 (2007).
21. I. R. Monk *et al.*, Zinc-binding to the cytoplasmic PAS domain regulates the essential
WalK histidine kinase of Staphylococcus aureus. *Nat Commun* **10**, 3067 (2019).
22. J. Perry, K. Koteva, G. Wright, Receptor domains of two-component signal transduction
systems. *Mol Biosyst* **7**, 1388-1398 (2011).
23. K. Saito *et al.*, The uncoupling of oxygen sensing, phosphorylation signalling and
transcriptional activation in oxygen sensor FixL and FixJ mutants. *Mol Microbiol* **48**, 373-
383 (2003).

24. M. Stupar, J. Furness, C. J. De Voss, L. Tan, N. P. West, Two-component sensor
histidine kinases of Mycobacterium tuberculosis: Beacons for niche navigation.
Molecular Microbiology **117**, 973-985 (2022).
25. D. J. Bretl, C. Demetriadou, T. C. Zahrt, Adaptation to environmental stimuli within the
host: two-component signal transduction systems of Mycobacterium tuberculosis.
Microbiol Mol Biol Rev **75**, 566-582 (2011).
26. H. D. Park *et al.*, Rv3133c/dosR is a transcription factor that mediates the hypoxic
response of Mycobacterium tuberculosis. *Molecular microbiology* **48**, 833-843 (2003).
27. S. Tan, N. Sukumar, R. B. Abramovitch, T. Parish, D. G. Russell, Mycobacterium
tuberculosis responds to chloride and pH as synergistic cues to the immune status of its
host cell. *PLoS Pathog* **9**, e1003282 (2013).
28. E. Pérez *et al.*, An essential role for phoP in Mycobacterium tuberculosis virulence.
Molecular Microbiology **41**, 179-187 (2001).
29. J. Preu *et al.*, The sensor region of the ubiquitous cytosolic sensor kinase, PdtaS,
contains PAS and GAF domain sensing modules. *J Struct Biol* **177**, 498-505 (2012).
30. Y. S. Ho, L. M. Burden, J. H. Hurley, Structure of the GAF domain, a ubiquitous signaling
motif and a new class of cyclic GMP receptor. *EMBO J* **19**, 5288-5299 (2000).
31. R. Hengge, Principles of c-di-GMP signalling in bacteria. *Nat Rev Microbiol* **7**, 263-273
(2009).
32. J. Xing, V. M. Gumerov, I. B. Zhulin, Origin and functional diversification of PAS domain,
a ubiquitous intracellular sensor. *Sci Adv* **9**, eadi4517 (2023).
33. J. A. Buglino, G. D. Sankhe, N. Lazar, J. M. Bean, M. S. Glickman, Integrated sensing of
host stresses by inhibition of a cytoplasmic two-component system controls M.
tuberculosis acute lung infection. *Elife* **10**, (2021).
34. J. P. Morth, S. Gosmann, E. Nowak, P. A. Tucker, A novel two-component system found
in Mycobacterium tuberculosis. *FEBS Lett* **579**, 4145-4148 (2005).
35. V. N. Hariharan *et al.*, Cyclic di-GMP sensing histidine kinase PdtaS controls
mycobacterial adaptation to carbon sources. *FASEB J* **35**, e21475 (2021).
36. C. J. Shu, I. B. Zhulin, ANTAR: an RNA-binding domain in transcription antitermination
regulatory proteins. *Trends in biochemical sciences* **27**, 3-5 (2002).
37. J. L. Walshe, R. Siddiquee, K. Patel, S. F. Ataide, Structural characterization of the
ANTAR antiterminator domain bound to RNA. *Nucleic Acids Res* **50**, 2889-2904 (2022).
38. J. R. Goodson *et al.*, An autoinhibitory mechanism controls RNA-binding activity of the
nitrate-sensing protein NasR. *Mol Microbiol* **114**, 348-360 (2020).
39. J. Xing, V. M. Gumerov, I. B. Zhulin, Origin and functional diversification of PAS domain,
a ubiquitous intracellular sensor. *Science Advances* **9**, eadi4517 (2023).
40. E. C. Stuffle, M. S. Johnson, K. J. Watts, PAS domains in bacterial signal transduction.
Current Opinion in Microbiology **61**, 8-15 (2021).
41. J. Jumper *et al.*, Highly accurate protein structure prediction with AlphaFold. *Nature* **596**,
583-589 (2021).
42. G. D. Sankhe *et al.*, Sequestration of histidine kinases by non-cognate response
regulators establishes a threshold level of stimulation for bacterial two-component
signaling. *Nat Commun* **14**, 4483 (2023).
43. A. Frando *et al.*, The Mycobacterium tuberculosis protein O-phosphorylation landscape.
Nature Microbiology **8**, 548-561 (2023).
44. F. Trajtenberg, M. Graña, N. Ruétalo, H. Botti, A. Buschiazzo, Structural and enzymatic
insights into the ATP binding and autophosphorylation mechanism of a sensor histidine
kinase. *Journal of biological chemistry* **285**, 24892-24903 (2010).
45. N. A. O'Leary *et al.*, Reference sequence (RefSeq) database at NCBI: current status,
taxonomic expansion, and functional annotation. *Nucleic Acids Res* **44**, D733-745
(2016).

46. L. Fu, B. Niu, Z. Zhu, S. Wu, W. Li, CD-HIT: accelerated for clustering the next-
generation sequencing data. *Bioinformatics* **28**, 3150-3152 (2012).
47. K. Katoh, K. Misawa, K. Kuma, T. Miyata, MAFFT: a novel method for rapid multiple
sequence alignment based on fast Fourier transform. *Nucleic Acids Res* **30**, 3059-3066
(2002).
48. L. Schrodinger, . (2015).
49. W. Tian, C. Chen, X. Lei, J. Zhao, J. Liang, CASTp 3.0: computed atlas of surface
topography of proteins. *Nucleic Acids Res* **46**, W363-W367 (2018).
50. D. H. Parks *et al.*, GTDB: an ongoing census of bacterial and archaeal diversity through
a phylogenetically consistent, rank normalized and complete genome-based taxonomy.
Nucleic Acids Res **50**, D785-D794 (2022).
685

Supplementary Data

Figure S1

Sequence conservation of the PdtaS PAS domain cluster 120 from Xing et al. (*32*)

Figure S2

Purified proteins used in this study, Coomassie stained SDS-PAGE gel of the specified PdtaS

proteins used in biochemical assays.

Supplementary Dataset 1

PtdaS proteins using *M. tuberculosis* PdtaS as a query

Supplementary Dataset 2

Conservation of PdtaS amino acids positions

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7