Phage Portal Proteins Suppress Bacterial Stringent Response to Promote Infection

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Abstract

Bacteriophages must overcome host stress responses to replicate efficiently, yet how they engage with these pathways remains poorly understood. The bacterial stringent response (SR), mediated by the alarmone (p)ppGpp, globally suppresses metabolism and limits biosynthetic capacity, posing a potential barrier to phage infection. Here, we show that bacteriophage T7 directly counteracts the SR through its portal protein, Gp8. Using complementary genetic, biochemical, and infection assays, we demonstrate that Gp8 physically interacts with the (p)ppGpp synthetases RelA and SpoT, selectively inhibiting their synthetase activities and reducing intracellular (p)ppGpp levels during late infection. Disruption of this interaction delays host cell lysis and compromises phage replication, while elevated host (p)ppGpp levels impair infection efficiency. Remarkably, portal proteins from diverse *Escherichia coli* phages share similar structural and functional properties, suggesting a conserved viral strategy to suppress the stringent response. Together, our findings uncover an unexpected regulatory role for phage portal proteins and reveal a conserved mechanism by which phages modulate bacterial stress physiology to optimize replication.

Keywords

Stringent response, ppGpp, pppGpp, alarmone, RelA, SpoT, T7, phage, portal

Introduction

Bacteria continuously encounter environmental stresses that threaten growth and survival. To adapt, they rely on conserved stress response pathways that reprogram cellular physiology in response to nutrient limitation, metabolic imbalance, and environmental insults. Among these, the stringent response (SR) is one of the most ancient and pervasive regulatory systems in bacteria, coordinating a global shift from growth to survival through the alarmone (p)ppGpp[1-4]. Beyond its canonical role in stress adaptation, the SR profoundly influences antibiotic tolerance[5], persistence[6,7], virulence[8], and susceptibility to bacteriophages[9-11].

Despite growing recognition that bacterial stress responses shape phage–host interactions[12,13], how phages engage with these pathways remains poorly understood. While the SR has been implicated in limiting phage replication[9-11], the molecular mechanisms underlying this effect - and whether phages actively counteract it - remain largely unexplored.

The SR is mediated by the hyperphosphorylated guanine nucleotides ppGpp and pppGpp[4], synthesized primarily by the enzymes RelA and SpoT in *Escherichia coli*[3]. RelA is activated by amino acid starvation[14], whereas SpoT integrates diverse stress signals to maintain (p)ppGpp homeostasis[15-19]. Elevated (p)ppGpp levels remodel transcription by targeting RNA polymerase[20,21], suppressing ribosome biogenesis and nucleotide synthesis while promoting amino acid synthesis and stress resistance[22]. This metabolic state enhances bacterial survival under adverse conditions but also restricts biosynthetic capacity[23].

Intriguingly, several observations suggest that the SR may represent a major barrier to productive phage infection. Cells lacking (p)ppGpp display increased susceptibility to T7 phage killing[9], whereas stationary-phase cells - characterized by high (p)ppGpp levels - are often less sensitive to infection[24,25]. Conversely, phages appear to have evolved counter-

strategies to manipulate the SR. Some phages encode their own (p)ppGpp-modulating

toxins[26], while others, like T7, rely on the essential inhibition of the host RNA polymerase -

the primary target of (p)ppGpp - to initiate their transcriptional program. Indeed, the well-

characterized T7 protein Gp2 is a potent inhibitor of the host RNA polymerase[27].

Furthermore, the T7 protein Gp5.7 is critical for infection during stationary phase, a

physiological state governed by the (p)ppGpp-dependent general stress regulator RpoS[9].

These findings raise the possibility that phages exploit or manipulate the SR to optimize their

replication.

Here, we investigate the interplay between the stringent response and infection by

bacteriophage T7. Using complementary functional screens, biochemical assays, and mutant

phages, we identify the T7 portal protein Gp8 as a direct inhibitor of (p)ppGpp synthesis. We

show that Gp8 physically interacts with both RelA and SpoT, selectively suppressing their

synthetase activities and reducing intracellular (p)ppGpp levels during late infection.

Disrupting this interaction compromises phage replication and delays host cell lysis.

Remarkably, portal proteins from diverse *E. coli* phages exhibit similar properties, suggesting

a conserved viral strategy to disarm a universal bacterial alarm system. Together, our findings

reveal an unexpected regulatory role for phage portal proteins and uncover a fundamental

mechanism by which phages modulate bacterial stress physiology to promote efficient

replication.

Results

Bacteriophage T7 proteins do not interact directly with (p)ppGpp

Cells lacking (p)ppGpp display increased susceptibility to bacteriophage T7[9], suggesting a

functional interplay between the T7 infection cycle and the stringent response (SR). One

possibility is that (p)ppGpp directly binds and inhibits phage-encoded proteins. To test this,

we cloned the majority of T7 genes (**supplemented document 1**) and screened them for

(p)ppGpp binding using DRaCALA. Despite robust assay performance, we detected no

specific (p)ppGpp-binding activity among the tested T7 proteins (**supplemented Fig. 1**),

indicating that T7 does not encode proteins that directly sense (p)ppGpp. These findings

suggest that T7 may instead counteract the SR indirectly, by targeting (p)ppGpp synthesis or

signaling.

Many T7 proteins inhibit *E. coli* growth specifically under stringent conditions

If T7 antagonizes the SR, expression of such phage proteins would be expected to

compromise bacterial growth under conditions where (p)ppGpp is required (**Fig. 1a**). To test

this, we cloned all 53 T7 genes into an inducible expression system (**supplemented file S1**)

and assessed their effects on *E. coli* growth in rich and minimal media.

Strikingly, 34 of 53 T7 proteins caused severe growth inhibition when expressed in minimal

medium, whereas most were non-toxic in rich medium (**Fig. 1b; supplemented Fig. 2**).

Toxic proteins were enriched among early and intermediate genes but also included several

late structural proteins, suggesting that T7 deploys host-inhibitory activities throughout

infection. Notably, many toxic proteins lacked annotated functions, indicating the presence of

previously unrecognized phage-host interactions. These results point to a broad T7 strategy

targeting host processes that are conditionally essential during nutrient limitation, consistent

with interference in stress-response pathways.

Stringent RNA polymerase mutants suppress toxicity of a subset of T7 proteins

To identify T7 proteins that specifically interfere with the SR, we exploited so-called SR-like

mutant RNA polymerases (RNAP^{SR}) that bypass the requirement for (p)ppGpp to support

growth in minimal medium. Toxic T7 genes were expressed in RNAP[SR] strains (YZ920,

rpoB3449, ΔAla532[28]; YZ922, *rpoB3443*, L533P[29]) and compared with wild-type cells

(**supplemented Fig. 3**).

The toxicity of four T7 proteins - Gp1.5, Gp4.2, Gp6.5, and Gp8 - was reproducibly

suppressed by the two independent RNAP[SR] alleles (**supplemented Fig. 4**). Importantly, this

suppression persisted in a (p)ppGpp[0] background lacking RelA and SpoT but harboring

the *rpoB3449* allele [28] (**Fig. 1c**), indicating that RNAP[SR] -mediated rescue does not require

(p)ppGpp itself. These RNAP[SR] suppression screens narrowed the candidate set to a small

group of T7 proteins genetically linked to SR signaling.

Gp8 directly interacts with *E. coli* RelA and SpoT to inhibit (p)ppGpp synthesis

The results above suggested that one or more T7 proteins might directly target key

components of the SR, including RelA, SpoT, or RNA polymerase. To test this hypothesis,

we employed a bacterial two-hybrid (B2H) assay to systematically assess protein–protein

interactions between candidate T7 proteins and SR components.

Among the proteins tested, the T7 portal protein Gp8 showed robust interactions with both

RelA and SpoT across independent B2H configurations (**Fig. 2a**). These interactions were

independently validated by copurification assays using Flag-tagged Gp8 and His–MBP–

SUMO–tagged RelA or SpoT, confirming direct physical association *in vitro* (**Fig. 2b**).

Instead, no consistent interactions were detected between RelA or SpoT and the other

candidate T7 proteins examined.

We next asked whether Gp8 binding affected the catalytic activities of RelA and SpoT. To

address this, we purified Gp8, RelA, and SpoT variants selectively retaining synthetase or

hydrolase activity (YZ1632, YZ1607, YZ1070 and YZ1063, respectively). *In vitro* enzymatic

assays revealed that Gp8 potently inhibited the synthetase activities of both RelA and SpoT,

with IC_{50} values of 9.71 and 0.53 molar ratios, respectively (**Fig. 2c**). In contrast, Gp8 had no

detectable effect on the hydrolase activity of SpoT (**Fig. 2d**), indicating that Gp8 selectively

suppresses (p)ppGpp synthesis without perturbing degradation.

To determine whether this inhibition occurred *in vivo*, we measured intracellular (p)ppGpp

levels following Gp8 expression. Gp8 expression markedly suppressed (p)ppGpp

accumulation relative to control conditions (**Fig. 2e, supplemented Fig. 5**), consistent with

inhibition of RelA- and SpoT-mediated synthesis *in vivo*.

Together, these results demonstrate that the T7 portal protein Gp8 directly inhibits (p)ppGpp

synthesis by both RelA and SpoT through physical interaction, providing a molecular

mechanism by which T7 suppresses the host SR during infection.

Gp8 residues essential for interaction with RelA and SpoT

The T7 portal protein Gp8 assembles into a dodecameric ring composed of four structured

domains-clip, stem, wing, and crown-forming a central channel for phage DNA

translocation[30]. Structural analyses indicate that the exterior surface of the ring is

predominantly negatively charged, with acidic residues distributed across the wing, stem, and

crown domains, interrupted only by a narrow positively charged region near the clip domain

(**Fig. 2f**).

To define the regions of Gp8 required for interaction with RelA and SpoT, we generated a

series of domain truncations and tested their interactions using the bacterial two-hybrid

(B2H) assay (**Fig. 3**). Deletion of either the N- or C-terminal regions of Gp8 abolished

interactions with both RelA and SpoT (**Fig. 3a**). In contrast, deletion of the clip domain

modestly enhanced interaction signals, whereas further deletion extending into the stem

domain eliminated interactions. These results indicate that an intact Gp8 ring structure is

required for interaction with RelA and SpoT and suggest that the clip domain may negatively

modulate accessibility of the interaction interface.

Given the strongly electronegative surface of the Gp8 ring, we next tested whether

electrostatic interactions contribute to RelA and SpoT binding. We generated 43 charge-

reversal mutants targeting clusters of surface-exposed acidic and basic residues and assessed

their interactions with RelA and SpoT using the B2H assay (**supplemented Fig. 6**).

Approximately half of the mutants exhibited substantial loss of interaction with RelA, and the

same mutations similarly impaired SpoT binding (**supplemented Fig. 6a–e**). Several charge-

reversal mutations (for example, D220R/E221R, D457K/D460K, E280R/E284R, K4D/R5D,

and K288D/K295D) completely abolished interaction, whereas others caused partial defects.

These results identify discrete charged regions on the Gp8 surface that are critical for

interaction with both RelA and SpoT (**Fig. 3b**), supporting an electrostatically mediated

binding mechanism.

To identify the corresponding interaction regions on RelA and SpoT, we generated domain

truncations of both proteins and tested their ability to interact with wild-type Gp8. Removal

of the N-terminal catalytic domains of SpoT abolished its interaction with Gp8, whereas

truncation of the C-terminal ACT and CC regulatory domains of RelA disrupted binding

(**Fig. 3c, 3d**). These results indicate that Gp8 engages RelA and SpoT through distinct

domain interfaces.

Gp8 promotes efficient phage infection by suppressing (p)ppGpp synthesis

To determine whether Gp8-RelA/SpoT interactions contribute to T7 infection, we generated

T7 phages carrying Gp8 mutations that disrupt binding to RelA and SpoT. Using

the *trxA* method coupled with Red recombineering[31], we successfully isolated two mutant

phages - $T7_{D220R/E221R}$ and $T7_{E10K/D11K}$ - exhibiting complete and partial defects, respectively,

in RelA/SpoT interaction (**supplemented Fig. 6**). Impaired binding was confirmed by pull-

down assays (**Fig. 4a**).

In plaque assays on wild-type *E. coli*, $T7_{D220R/E221R}$ formed significantly smaller plaques than

$T7_{wt}$ (plaque diameter 2.7 ± 0.7 vs 4.7 ± 0.6 mm, respectively; Student's t-test, $p<0.0001$),

whereas $T7_{E10K/D11K}$ displayed an intermediate phenotype (**Fig. 4b,4c**). When infecting $\Delta relA$

cells, plaque size increased only for the partially defective $T7_{E10K/D11K}$ mutant, whereas

infection of a $(p)ppGpp^0$ strain increased plaque sizes for all phages tested. These results

suggest that Gp8-mediated suppression of (p)ppGpp contributes to efficient plaque formation.

We expected the $T7_{D220R/E221R}$ mutant to lyse the $(p)ppGpp^0$ strain as efficiently as $T7_{wt}$ if its

sole defect were impaired inhibition of RelA/SpoT; however, this was not observed (**Fig. 4c**).

Because plaque assays can underestimate infection efficiency due to restricted virion diffusion

in soft agar, we next assessed infection dynamics using a liquid killing assay. Compared with

$T7_{wt}$, $T7_{D220R/E221R}$ exhibited a marked delay in host cell lysis of wild-type *E. coli* (**Fig. 4d**; 25

min i.e., $25/44 = 57\%$ delay). This delay was substantially reduced in $\Delta relA$ and $(p)ppGpp^0$

strains (20- and 6.6-min, i.e. 45% and 15% delay, respectively), indicating that impaired

infection of wild-type cells is largely attributable to uncontrolled elevated (p)ppGpp levels.

These data demonstrate that Gp8–RelA/SpoT interactions are important for efficient T7

infection under physiological conditions.

Consistent with this interpretation, increasing host (p)ppGpp levels hindered phage infection.

$T7_{wt}$ infection of strains producing elevated (p)ppGpp *($\Delta relA$ spoT202* and *$\Delta relA$ spoT203*;

with 4× and 7× higher (p)ppGpp levels than wt *E. coli,* respectively[32]) resulted in delayed and

slower lysis kinetics compared with wt cells (**supplemented Fig. 7a**), supporting an inverse

relationship between (p)ppGpp abundance and phage infection efficiency.

To directly monitor (p)ppGpp dynamics during infection, we labeled (p)ppGpp with ^{32}P and

monitored its dynamics during infection (MOI = 0.1) by T7$_{wt}$ and T7$_{D220R/E221R}$. In T7$_{wt}$

infections, (p)ppGpp levels declined immediately prior to lysis, whereas this decline was

delayed in cells infected with T7$_{D220R/E221R}$ (**supplemented Fig. 7b–d**). Because (p)ppGpp

labeling in LB was inefficient, we repeated the experiment in chemically defined MOPS

medium supplemented with 0.2% glucose and low phosphate (0.2 mM), which allowed clear

resolution of ATP, GTP, ppGpp, and pppGpp by thin layer chromatography (TLC). Under

these conditions, T7$_{D220R/E221R}$ again caused delayed killing relative to T7$_{wt}$ (**supplemented**

Fig. 7e). Although (p)ppGpp became detectable by 10 min post-infection in both strains

(**supplemented Fig. 7f,7g**), substantially higher levels accumulated in T7$_{D220R/E221R}$ –infected

cells (**Fig. 4e**), reaching ~20% of the total ATP+GTP+(p)ppGpp pool compared with ~5% in

T7$_{wt}$ infections. This sustained elevation of (p)ppGpp correlated with delayed first-cycle lysis

of host cells and slower population collapse.

Together, these results demonstrate that Gp8 suppresses (p)ppGpp accumulation prior to

lysis, thereby promoting efficient lytic progression and phage infection.

Gp8-mediated suppression of the stringent response is conserved among coliphages

Gp8 is highly conserved in phages and is essential for capsid assembly and DNA packaging.

To assess whether Gp8-mediated suppression of the SR represents a conserved strategy, we

analyzed portal proteins from 18 phylogenetically distinct and representative *E. coli* phages

out of the BASEL collection[33]. Structural predictions using AlphaFold3 indicated that most

portal proteins form negatively charged ring-like assemblies similar to T7 Gp8

(**supplemented document 2**).

Consistent with a conserved role for the SR in phage defense, many (11/18) of these phages

infected (p)ppGpp⁰ cells more efficiently than wt cells, producing larger or clearer plaques or

increased plague forming units (PFU) (**supplemented document 2**). To test whether this

involved RelA/SpoT, we examined portal proteins from phages P1 and N4. Both were toxic

when expressed in *E. coli*, and this toxicity was partially suppressed by RNAP^{SR} alleles

(**supplemented Fig. 8**). Both proteins interacted with RelA and SpoT in B2H assays (**Fig.**

5a).

Collectively, these findings indicate that phage portal proteins from diverse lineages interact

with RelA and SpoT to modulate the host SR, revealing a conserved viral strategy to

overcome bacterial stress defenses.

Discussion

A conserved role for phage portal proteins in repression of the stringent

response

In this study, we identify a conserved mechanism by which bacteriophages directly repress

the bacterial stringent response (SR) through their portal proteins, essential and ubiquitous

components of the viral capsid. We show that the T7 portal protein Gp8 physically interacts

with the (p)ppGpp synthetases RelA and SpoT, selectively inhibiting (p)ppGpp synthesis.

This conclusion is supported by complementary genetic, biochemical, and infection-based

evidence, including direct protein–protein interactions, inhibition of synthetase activity *in*

vitro, suppression of (p)ppGpp accumulation *in vivo*, and impaired phage infection when

these interactions are disrupted. Importantly, portal proteins from diverse coliphages share

similar structural and functional properties, indicating that modulation of the SR by portal

proteins represents a broadly conserved viral strategy.

These findings expand the current view of phage–host interactions by positioning the SR as a

dynamic regulatory axis that phages actively manipulate, rather than merely endure. While

the SR is widely recognized as a bacterial defense mechanism that limits phage replication,

our results demonstrate that successful phages can both tolerate and exploit this response in a

temporally controlled manner.

A biphasic model for stringent response modulation during T7 infection

Based on our data, we propose a biphasic model for the role of (p)ppGpp during T7 infection

(**Fig. 5b**). Early in infection, phage entry and host takeover inevitably trigger stress responses

that activate (p)ppGpp synthesis. At this stage, suppression of host metabolism, particularly

inhibition of host RNA polymerase, is advantageous to the phage, as it limits competing

cellular processes and facilitates the transition to phage-directed transcription[34]. Notably,

(p)ppGpp preferentially inhibits *E. coli* RNA polymerase while having little effect on T7

RNA polymerase[35,36], allowing phage transcription to proceed efficiently. This effect is

reinforced by multiple T7-encoded inhibitors of host RNA polymerase (Gp2[37], Gp5.7[9],

Gp0.7[38]), underscoring the importance of early host transcriptional shutdown for productive

infection[34].

As infection progresses, however, the physiological requirements of the phage shift. Late

stages of infection involve massive synthesis of structural proteins and energy-intensive

genome packaging by the terminase–portal complex, processes that place high demands on

cellular amino acids and nucleotide pools[39,40]. Uncontrolled (p)ppGpp accumulation becomes

detrimental at this stage, as it depletes ATP and GTP and further suppresses their

biosynthesis[41-44]. Our data indicate that Gp8-mediated inhibition of RelA and SpoT alleviates

this constraint by suppressing (p)ppGpp levels prior to lysis, thereby restoring nucleotide

availability and enabling efficient virion assembly and release.

In this framework, the portal protein functions as a molecular gatekeeper that coordinates the

transition from early host metabolic repression to late-stage resource mobilization, ensuring

optimal timing of lysis and maximal phage yield.

Multifunctional phage proteins and conditionally essential host processes

The identification of a regulatory role for the portal protein highlights a broader principle in

phage biology: the evolution of multifunctional proteins that target host processes essential

under specific physiological conditions. Such functional layering is not unique to Gp8. For

example, T7 lysozyme (Gp3.5) not only mediates host cell lysis but also regulates T7 RNA

polymerase to coordinate transcription and replication[45,46]. These dual-purpose proteins

enable phages to maximize functional output from compact genomes.

Consistent with this idea, our functional screens revealed numerous T7 proteins that are toxic

specifically under nutrient-limited conditions but not in rich media. This conditional toxicity

suggests that phages encode factors targeting host pathways that become essential during

stress, a context frequently encountered in natural and clinical environments but rarely

captured in standard laboratory assays. As bacteria in nature often reside in nutrient-poor or

otherwise stressful niches, phage strategies that exploit stress-adapted host physiology are

likely widespread and ecologically relevant.

Deciphering the targets and mechanisms of these conditionally toxic phage proteins will be

critical for a comprehensive understanding of phage infection dynamics in realistic

environments. Our findings establish a conceptual framework for exploring how phages

engage bacterial stress responses and provide a foundation for uncovering additional,

previously hidden layers of phage–host coevolution.

Figures and Legends

Figure 1. Systematic screening of T7 proteins interfering the stringent response in *E.*

coli. (**a**) Scheme of screening for T7 toxic proteins to *E. coli* on M9 minimal medium. See

Material and Methods for details. (**b**) Heatmaps summarizing the CFUs/ml/OD$_{600nm}$ of *E. coli*

cells expressing each individual T7 proteins on five different media. Glucose and arabinose

were used to suppress and induce the expression of T7 genes on pBAD33 plasmid,

respectively. LB Glc and LB Ara are LB media supplemented with 0.2% glucose and 0.2%

arabinose, respectively. M9 Glc, M9 Gly and M9 Gly Ara are M9 media supplemented with

0.4% glucose, 0.4% glycerol and 0.4% glycerol+0.2% arabinose, respectively. See

supplemented Figure S2 for original plate growth. (**c**) Ten-fold serial dilutions (top to

bottom) of WT MG1655 or an isogenic *ΔrelA ΔspoT* strain carrying the SR-like mutation

rpoB3449 were spotted on M9Glc or M9GlyAra plates. Cells expressed the indicated T7

genes (gp4.2, gp1.5, gp8, gp6.5) or an empty vector (EV). Plates were photographed after 72

h of growth at 37 °C.

Figure 2. Gp8 directly inhibits the synthetic activities of RelA and SpoT. (**a**) Bacterial two-hybrid assays assessing interactions between Gp8, Gp4.2, Gp1.5, and Gp6.5 with RelA, SpoT, and RpoZ (the ω-subunit of RNAP). NC and PC denote negative and positive controls, respectively. (**b**) Pull down assays using the HMS (Histidine6-MBP-SUMO) tag, HMS-RelA, or HMS-SpoT on Flag tagged Gp8. Top, SDS-PAGE of the bait proteins; bottom, Western blot of Flag-Gp8 probed with anti-Flag antibody. (**c**) Synthetase activity assays of RelA and SpoT with increasing molar ratios of Gp8. Activities were normalized to the no-Gp8 condition. Data represent the mean ± SD of three replicates. (**d**) SpoT hydrolytic activity in the absence and presence of Gp8. Data represent three biological replicates. (**e**) Quantification of the percentage of ppGpp relative to total ppGpp+GTP in cells expressing wild-type or mutant Gp8, or an empty vector pBAD30. The corresponding thin layer chromatography plate is shown in **supplemented Figure S5**. (**f**) Electrostatic surface charge of the T7 dodecameric portal complex (PDB: 7EY6).

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Figure 3. Genetic analysis of the interactions between RelA and SpoT, and Gp8.

(**a**) Bacterial two-hybrid assays examining interactions between Gp8 truncations and full-

length RelA or SpoT. Δclip, deletion of residues 299–330; Δ(clip-stem), deletion of residues

269–355; ΔNt, deletion of residues 6–42; ΔCt, deletion of residues 484–543. NC and PC

denote negative and positive controls, respectively. (**b**) Gp8 portal ring (grey, ribbon model,

PDB 7EY6) with the mutagenized residues highlighted in red (negatively charged) or blue

(positively charged). The AlphaFold model of full-length Gp8 (cyan) is shown overlaid with

a single Gp8 monomer (green) to indicate the N- and C-terminal regions, including the

mutated K4 and R5 residues. Mutants that lose interaction with RelA/SpoT are shown as

spheres and labeled. (**c**) Schematic overview of RelA and SpoT domain architectures and the

truncation constructs tested in panel (**d**). Start and end residue numbers are indicated. (**d**)

Figure 4. Portal interactions with RelA and SpoT enhance infection efficiency. (**a**) Pull-

down assays using HMS-tag, HMS-RelA, or HMS-SpoT as bait with Flag-tagged wild-type

(WT) or mutant Gp8 proteins. Top: SDS–PAGE of the bait proteins; bottom: Western blot of

Flag-Gp8 probed with anti-Flag antibody. (**b**) Representative plaque morphologies of WT or

mutant T7 phages infecting WT *E. coli* MG1655 cells 18 h post-infection. (**c**) Scatter plot of

plaque sizes (corresponding to panel **b**) for WT and mutant T7 phages infecting WT, *ΔrelA*,

or (p)ppGpp⁰ (*ΔrelA ΔspoT*) strains. **, ***, **** indicate Student's *t*-test $p < 0.01$, 0.001,

and 0.0001, respectively. (**d**) Liquid infection assays of WT or mutant T7 phages infecting

WT, *ΔrelA*, or (p)ppGpp⁰ (*ΔrelA ΔspoT*) strains. Dashed lines mark the time points at which

half of the total decrease in OD_{600nm} before and after lysis occurred; the corresponding

durations and difference are indicated. (**e**) Quantification of ATP, GTP, and (p)ppGpp levels

in radiolabeled *E. coli* MG1655 cells following infection with WT or mutant T7 phage.

OD_{600nm} values of both host cultures are plotted on the secondary (right) Y-axis. Assays were

performed in MOPS medium supplemented with 0.2 mM K_2HPO_4 and 0.2% (g/ml) glucose.

Raw thin layer chromatography plates are shown in **Figure S7**. The first cycle of cell lysis

occurred ca. 30 minutes post infection.

Figure 5. Model of how portal protein controls stringent response for efficient phage

infection. (**a**) Bacterial two-hybrid assays testing the interactions between RelA/SpoT and

portal proteins of phages P1, N4 and, as controls, T7. NC, PC: negative and positive controls,

respectively. (**b**) Biphasic model of host resource control during T7 infection. (Left) Early

Infection: Phage invasion stress triggers ppGpp production. Host *E. coli* RNAP is inhibited by

(p)ppGpp, Gp2, and Gp0.7, enabling a switch to T7 RNAP for middle/late gene transcription.

(Right) Late Infection: The structural protein Gp8 (portal vertex) plays a second, non-structural

role by suppressing (p)ppGpp. This preserves and derepresses GTP/ATP synthesis, fueling the

massive GTP-dependent translation and ATP-dependent DNA packaging required for virion

assembly. *E. coli* RNAP, from PDB 4JK1; T7 RNAP, from PDB 1CEZ; T7 Gp8, from PDB

7EY6.

 Supplementary figures

gp0.3		gp1.2	gp1.6	gp2.5	gp3.8	gp4.2	
gp0.4	gp0.7	gp1.3	gp1.7	gp2.8		gp4.3	
gp0.5		gp1.4	gp1.8	gp3		gp4.5	gp5.5
gp0.6A	gp1.1	gp1.5	gp2	gp3.5	gp4.1	gp4.7	gp5.7
gp5.9	gp6.7	gp8	gp11	gp15	gp18	gp19.2	
gp6	gp7	gp9	gp12	gp16	gp18.5	gp19.3	
gp6.3	gp7.3	gp10A	gp13	gp17	gp18.7	gp19.5	
gp6.5	gp7.7	gp10B	gp14	gp17.5	gp19		

Figure S1. DRaCALA screen of T7 proteins binding to (p)ppGpp. (Top) Representative screening plates. The spot at the bottom right corner shows the buffer binding control. (Bottom) The identity of each protein spot is indicated in the table. See Materials and Methods for details.

Figure S2. Toxicity test of T7 proteins in *E. coli* MG1655 across five different media.

Cells were spotted as serial 10-fold dilutions of normalized culture densities onto the indicated media and incubated at 37 °C. Images for LB Glc and LB Ara plates were taken after 24 h, whereas images for M9-based media were taken after 72 h. The T7 proteins tested are indicated above each plate. EV, empty vector control.

Figure S3. Screening of toxic T7 proteins suppressed by a stringent-like RNAP[SR] strain.
The YZ920 strain carrying the stringent-like *rpoB3449* mutation was transformed with
pBAD33 constructs expressing T7 proteins that exhibited toxicity in the wild-type MG1655
strain (see **Figure S2**). Cells were tested on M9Glc (**a**) or M9GlyAra (**b**) media and incubated
for 72 h.

Figure S4. Suppression of T7 proteins toxicities by stringent-like RNAP[SR] strains. Ten-
fold serial dilutions (top to bottom) of WT MG1655 or YZ920 and YZ922 strains carrying the
stringent-like *rpoB3449 and rpoB3443* mutations were spotted on M9Glc or M9GlyAra plates.
Cells expressed the indicated T7 genes (*gp4.2*, *gp1.5*, *gp8*, *gp6.5*) or an empty vector (EV).
Plates were photographed after 72 h of growth at 37 °C.

Figure S5. Thin layer chromatography (TLC) analysis of ^{32}P-labeled (p)ppGpp during expression of wild-type and mutant *gp8*$_{D220R/E221R}$ from the pBAD30 vector. Expression of gp8 was induced with 0.2% arabinose, and 25 µL of each sample was assessed by TLC plate (see Materials and Methods for details). GTP and ppGpp spots, as well as the time points (in minutes) after arabinose induction, are indicated.

393   **Figure S6.** Bacterial two-hybrid assays testing the interactions between Gp8 mutants and

394   RelA (**a,c**), and SpoT (**b,d**). Three replicate spots are shown for each mutant, with the

395   numbers indicating the mutants that are specified in panel (**e**), wherein mutants shown in bold

396   are the more defective ones. Mutants shown in italics are the ones partially defective in

397   RelA/SpoT interaction.

Figure S7. Radiolabeling assays show (p)ppGpp levels during infection with T7 encoding mutant Gp8. (**a**) Liquid infection assays of wt T7 infecting different *E. coli* strains. *spoT202* and *spoT203* have 4× and 7× higher basal level of (p)ppGpp, respectively. The lag phase lengths and the cell lysis slopes are indicated. (**b,c**) ^{32}P labelling of T7 encoding wt (**b**) and mutant (**c**) *gp8* during infection of *E. coli* MG1655 in LB medium. White boxes indicate ppGpp spots. The big black areas are contamination. (**d**) Quantification of ppGpp and OD$_{600nm}$ (plotted to the right Y axis) form the labelling shown in (**b**) and (**c**). (**e**) Lysis curve of *E. coli* MG1655

during infection with wt and mutant *gp8*. Box in (**e**) indicates the time points quantified and

presented in **Figure 4E**. (**f,g**) ^{32}P labelling of T7 encoding wt (**f**) and mutant (**g**) *gp8* during

infection of *E. coli* MG1655 in MOP S medium. Note that quantification methods differ

between assays performed in LB (**b-d**) and in MOPS (**e-g**). In LB, only GTP and ppGpp spots

are visible, and quantification is expressed as percentage of ppGpp relative to total signal

(GTP+ppGpp). In MOPS medium, ATP, GTP, ppGpp and pppGpp are detectable, and

quantification is expressed as the percentage of (p)ppGpp relative to the sum of the total signal

(ATP+GTP+(p)ppGpp). These differences account for the differing (p)ppGpp percentages

displayed here in (**d**) and in **Figure 4e**.

24 h   42 h

Figure S8. Toxicity assay of portal proteins from phages N4 and P1.

Portal proteins from phages N4 and P1 were cloned into the pBAD33 plasmid and expressed

in WT MG1655 and in the stringent mutants YZ920 and YZ922, which carry the *rpoB3449*

and *rpoB3443* alleles, respectively. Toxicity was assessed on M9 medium supplemented with

0.4% glycerol and 0.2% arabinose. Images were taken after 24 and 42 h of incubation at 37°C.

N4, P1, and T7 indicate portal proteins from the respective phages; EV denotes the empty-

vector control.

Materials and Methods

Cloning all T7 genes into the pET28b and pBAD33 vectors

Genomic DNA of *E. coli* T7 bacteriophage was used as the template for amplification of individual T7 genes with Q5 High-Fidelity DNA polymerase (New England Biolabs). PCR amplicons were gel-purified, quantified spectrophotometrically, and digested with *EcoRI* and *NcoI* at 37°C for 3 h followed by enzyme inactivation at 80°C for 20 min. The digested fragments were ligated into the similarly treated pET28b vector using T4 DNA ligase at room temperature for 30 min. Ligation mixtures were transformed into chemically competent *E. coli* DH5α cells and plated on LB agar supplemented with kanamycin (25 μg mL⁻¹). Individual transformants were screened by colony PCR, and clones displaying expected insert sizes were cultured in LB medium for plasmid purification. All constructs were verified by Sanger sequencing, yielding a pET28b–T7 gene library encompassing 51 of 59 targeted genes; 8 highly toxic genes could not be cloned or yielded unstable plasmids.

To place the T7 genes under the arabinose-inducible promoter, verified pET–T7 plasmids were digested with *XbaI*, *HindIII* and *EcoRV*, and ligated into pBAD33 linearized with *XbaI* and *HindIII*. This procedure transferred the pET Shine-Dalgarno sequence and corresponding T7 gene inserts into pBAD33 under the control of the pBAD promoter. Using the iVEC cloning strategy[47], we successfully obtained pBAD33-*gp0.4* and pBAD33-*gp0.7* plasmids, the pET versions of which were impossible. The resulting library, designated pBAD–T7, comprised 53 of 59 T7 genes. For expression of T7 proteins in strain YZ921, the T7 genes were subcloned from the pBAD33 (cat) vector into the pBAD30 (bla) vector using the *XbaI* and *HindIII* restriction sites, as YZ921 carries a chloramphenicol resistance gene (cat).

DRaCALA assay

To identify T7 proteins that interact with (p)ppGpp, we carried out a DRaCALA assay

following previously described methods[48,49]. In brief, BL21(DE3) strains harboring individual

pET28-T7 constructs (**supplemented document 1**) were cultured overnight at 30°C in 1 mL

LB supplemented with 25 µg/mL kanamycin in 96-deep-well plates (Greiner). Subsequent

steps, including protein induction, cell lysis, and the DRaCALA procedure, were performed as

previously described[48,49].

Toxicity assay of pBAD33-T7 genes on five media

Each of the 53 verified pBAD–T7 plasmids was individually transformed into chemically

competent *E. coli* MG1655 cells. Transformants were streaked as single colonies on LB agar

plates supplemented with chloramphenicol (25 µg mL^{-1}) and a single colony from each

transformant was inoculated into 1 mL LB broth and cultured overnight at 37°C with shaking

(200 rpm). From each culture, 300 µL was diluted in 800 µL fresh LB to measure optical

density at 600 nm (OD_{600nm}), while another 300 µL aliquot was pelleted by centrifugation at

13,000 rpm for 3 min, washed twice with 1 mL PBS, and resuspended to an $OD_{600nm} = 1$. Serial

tenfold dilutions (10^8–10^1 CFU mL^{-1}) were prepared in 96-well plates by mixing 20 µL of

bacterial suspension with 180 µL PBS per well. From each dilution, 5 µL was spotted onto five

pre-dried chloramphenicol-containing agar media: LB + 0.4% glucose, LB + 0.2% L-arabinose,

M9 + 0.4% glucose, M9 + 0.4% glycerol, and M9 + 0.4% glycerol + 0.2% L-arabinose. Plates

were incubated at 37°C and photographed every 24 h to monitor colony growth and induction-

dependent phenotypic changes.

Construction of bacterial two-hybrid vectors

Cloning relA, spoT and their truncates

spoT and *relA* were cloned into the bacterial two-hybrid vectors pUT18C and pKT25. The

full-length genes were amplified from *E. coli* MG1655 chromosomal DNA using primer pairs

pYZ479/pYZ480 (*spoT*) and pYZ481/pYZ482 (*relA*). PCR products and recipient plasmids

were digested with *XbaI* and *XmaI*, ligated, and transformed into *E. coli*. Truncated *spoT*

variants corresponding to the HS, HST, TCA, and CA regions were generated by PCR using

primer pairs pYZ473/pYZ474, pYZ473/pYZ475, pYZ477/pYZ476, and pYZ478/pYZ476,

respectively. The resulting fragments were digested with *XbaI*/*XmaI* and cloned into pUT18C

or pKT25. Truncated *relA* variants (HS, HST, TCA, and CA) were amplified using primer

pairs pYZ917/pYZ919, pYZ917/pYZ918, pYZ920/pYZ921, and pYZ920/pYZ922,

respectively, digested with *XbaI*/*XmaI*, and cloned into pUT18C.

Cloning of the portal protein from phages P1 and N4 into pKT25

Portal protein from phages P1 and N4 were amplified using primer pairs pYZ1285/pYZ1286

and pYZ1287/pYZ1288 for phage P1 and N4, respectively. The pKT25 was digested with *KpnI*

and *EcoRI*, assembled with both PCR products by the iVEC cloning method[47].

pUT18-rpoZ and pKNT25-rpoZ

To generate pUT18-*rpoZ*, the full-length *rpoZ* gene was PCR-amplified from *E. coli* MG1655

genomic DNA using primers pYZ867 and pYZ868. The amplified fragment and pUT18 vector

were digested with *HindIII* and *XbaI*, ligated, and transformed into *E. coli* DH5α. For

construction of pKNT25-*rpoZ*, the pKNT25 vector was first modified by site-directed

mutagenesis using primers pYZ871 and pYZ872 following the QuickChange protocol to

introduce an *NcoI* restriction site, generating pKNT25-*NcoI*. The *rpoZ* insert was excised from

pUT18-rpoZ by digestion with *ScaI*, *HindIII*, and *XbaI*, and ligated into *HindIII*/*XbaI*-digested

pKNT25-*NcoI*.

pUT18/KT25-gp4.2/gp1.5/gp8/gp6.5

An *NcoI* restriction site was introduced into pUT18C (YZ709) by site-directed mutagenesis

using primers pYZ864 and pYZ866, generating pUT18C-*NcoI*. For pKT25 (YZ705), the

native *NcoI* site was first removed using primers pYZ863 and pYZ862, followed by

introduction of a new *NcoI* site using primers pYZ864 and pYZ865 to generate pKT25-*NcoI*.

Plasmids pET28-gp4.2, pET28-gp1.5, pET28-gp8, and pET28-gp6.5 were digested with

EcoRI, *NcoI*, and *HindIII*, and the resulting inserts were individually cloned into pUT18C-

NcoI or pKT25-*NcoI* vectors digested with *NcoI* and *HindIII*.

Construction of Gp8 truncations

Truncations of Gp8 were generated by site-directed mutagenesis of the *gp8* gene on the pKT25

vector in *E. coli* DH5α using the QuickChange method. Primer pairs pYZ1063/pYZ1064,

pYZ1065/pYZ1066, pYZ1067/pYZ1068, and pYZ1069/pYZ1070, were used to construct the

clip truncation, clip+stem truncation, N-terminal truncation, and C-terminal truncation,

respectively. PCR reactions were carried out with Q5 DNA polymerase using an extension

time of 3 min and an annealing temperature gradient of 50-70°C across eight 12 μL samples.

After amplification, the samples were pooled and digested with 2.5 μL *DpnI* at 37°C for 3 h,

followed by inactivation at 80°C for 20 min. The reaction mixture was then transformed into

E. coli DH5α via chemical transformation. Successful truncations were confirmed by Sanger

sequencing using primers pYZ471 and p472.

Bacterial two-hybrid assay

E. coli BTH101 was co-transformed with pUT18C and pKT25, where one plasmid carried

either *relA* or *spoT* and the other carried the phage gene of interest. Transformants were selected

on LB agar supplemented with 0.2% glucose, 25 μg/mL kanamycin and 100 μg/mL ampicillin

and incubated at 37°C. Overnight cultures were grown at 37°C with shaking at 170 rpm. The

following day, cells were washed twice in PBS, then resuspended in PBS to an OD_{600nm} of 5.

Subsequently, 5 μL normalized cell suspension was spotted onto LB agar with 0.2% glucose,

25 μg/mL kanamycin, 100 μg/mL ampicillin, and 40 μg/mL X-gal. Plates were incubated at

30°C overnight.

Cloning of the pET28-HMS-relA and -spoT vectors

pET28-HMS-spoT and derivatives

Plasmids pET28a and pMAL-c2x were digested with *NdeI* and *EcoRI* and ligated to generate

pET28-His$_6$-MBP (YZ913). The *sumo* and *spoT* genes were PCR-amplified using primers

pYZ692/693 and pYZ694/695, fused by overlap PCR, and cloned into pET28a using *NcoI* and

HindIII to generate pET28a-His$_6$-SUMO-SpoT (YZ307). The SUMO-SpoT fragment was

excised with *EcoRI* and *HindIII* and ligated into pET28a-His$_6$-MBP. Missing SUMO sequences

were amplified using primers pYZ684/685, digested with *EcoRI*, and inserted into this

intermediate construct to generate pET28-His$_6$-MBP-SUMO-SpoT (pET28-HMS-spoT).

Generation of SpoT point mutants

The E319Q and H72A/D73A mutations were introduced into pET28-HMS-spoT using PCR-

amplified fragments derived from chromosomal *spoT* mutant strains YZ586 and YZ905,

respectively[50]. PCR products generated with primers pYZ702 and pYZ703 were digested with

PmlI and *SalI* and ligated into pET28-HMS-spoT to generate the corresponding mutant

constructs. The *spoT* gene was deleted from pET28-HMS-spoT using primers pYZ905 and

pYZ906 to generate the pET28b-HMS vector (YZ1515).

Construction of *pET28-HMS-relA*

The *relA* gene was PCR-amplified from *E. coli* MG1655 using primers pYZ927 and pYZ928.

Both the PCR product and pET28b-HMS were digested with *BamHI* and *HindIII*, ligated using

T4 DNA ligase, and transformed into *E. coli* DH5α to generate pET28-HMS-relA.

Co-immunoprecipitation

Overnight cultures of *E. coli* BL21 DE3 strains expressing pRARE, pET28b-HMS, *-relA* or -

spoT, and pBAD30-*gp8-Flag* (see Strain list) were incubated in LB medium with 25 µg/mL

kanamycin, 25 µg/mL chloramphenicol, and 30 µg/mL ampicillin at 37°C with shaking at 160

rpm. The following day, cultures were back-diluted to an OD_{600nm} of 0.05 in 50 mL fresh LB

medium containing the same antibiotics as above and incubated at 37°C with shaking at 160

rpm until reaching OD_{600nm} of ~ 0.2-0.3. Gene expression was induced by addition of arabinose

and IPTG to final concentrations of 0.2% and 0.5 mM, respectively, followed by incubation

for 4 hours at 37°C with shaking at 160 rpm. Cells were harvested by centrifugation (10 min,

4000 rpm, 4°C), resuspended in 10 mL PBS and centrifuged again as above. Supernatant was

discarded and cell pellets were stored at -20°C. Pellets were thawed on ice, resuspended in 400

µL lysis buffer (50 mM HEPES (pH 8), 0.25 M NaCl, 10 mM imidazole, 200 µM $ZnCl_2$, and

2 mM $MgCl_2$) and disrupted with glass beads (Sigma, G4649) using a MagNA Lyser (20 s at

6500 rpm, done twice with cooling on ice between runs). Lysates were centrifuged (5 min,

5000 rpm, 4°C) and supernatants were collected. Total protein concentration was measured via

Bradford Assay, and samples were normalized with lysis buffer to equal total protein

concentrations. Equal volumes of normalized lysates were incubated with 50 µL Ni-NTA

Agarose resins (Qiagen) overnight at 4°C with gentle inversion. The next day, samples were

centrifuged (2 min, 1000 rpm, 4°C), and supernatant was removed. Resins were gently

resuspended with 1 mL lysis buffer and incubated for 1 h at 4°C with gentle inversion. Samples

were centrifuged (2 min, 1000 rpm, 4°C), and supernatant was removed. Resins were

subsequently resuspended in 1 mL wash buffer (50 mM HEPES (pH 8), 0.25 M NaCl, 20 mM

imidazole, 200 µM $ZnCl_2$, 2 mM $MgCl_2$) and incubated for 1 h at 4°C with gentle inversion.

Following incubation, samples were transferred to a 0.5 mL Eppendorf tube and centrifuged

(first for 2 min at 1000 rpm, then for 1 min at 13000 rpm). Supernatant was removed and

proteins were eluted with 20 µL elution buffer (50 mM HEPES (pH 8), 0.25 M NaCl, 1.25 M

imidazole, 200 µM $ZnCl_2$, 2 mM $MgCl_2$) to yield a final imidazole concentration of

approximately 500 mM). Samples were incubated for 15 min at 4°C (gently disturbing the

resins occasionally). Samples were then centrifuged (2 min, 1000 rpm), and 35 µL supernatant

was transferred to 11.6 µL 4x Leammli buffer, boiled for 15 min at 95°C and 12 µL of each

sample was loaded onto a 10% SDS-PAGE gel. Following electrophoresis, proteins were

transferred to a PVDF membrane by wet transfer (300 mA, 1 h, 4°C) using transfer buffer

composed of 20% methanol, 0.2 M glycine, and 25 mM Tris (pH 8.3). Membrane was blocked

overnight at 4°C in TBST + 5% (w/v) milk powder. Next day, the membrane was incubated

with anti-FLAG primary antibody diluted in TBST + 5% (w/v) milk powder for 1 h, 4°C,

washed three times (10 min each) in TBST, and subsequently incubated with anti-mouse

secondary antibody in TBST + 5% (w/v) milk powder for 1 h, 4°C. After three additional

washes in TBST, the membrane was developed using Pierce® ECL Western Blotting Substrate

(Thermo Scientific, #32209) for 1 min and imaged via ImageQuant LAS4000.

Protein purification for biochemical assays

RelA (YZ1607), SpoT hydrolysis only (HYD, YZ1063), SpoT synthesis only (SYN, YZ1070),

and Gp8 (YZ1632) constructs bearing an N-terminal His–MBP–SUMO (HMS) tag were

expressed from pET28b in *E. coli* BL21(DE3). Overnight cultures of these strains were grown

in LB medium supplemented with appropriate antibiotics at 37°C, with shaking at 160 rpm.

The following day, cultures were back-diluted 1:50 into 0.5-1 L fresh LB medium

supplemented with appropriate antibiotics and grown at 37°C with shaking at 160 rpm until reaching an OD of 0.4-0.7. Protein expression was induced by the addition of IPTG to a final concentration of 0.1 mM, and cultures were incubated overnight at 24°C, shaking with aeration. The next day, cells were harvested by centrifugation (5000 rpm, 10 min, 4°C), washed in 30 mL cold PBS, and pelleted again (4000 rpm, 20 min, 4°C). Resulting pellets were resuspended in 40 mL cold lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH=8, 1 M NaCl, 2 mM DTT, 10 mM imidazole) supplemented with Pierce[TM] Protease Inhibitor Mini (Thermo Scientific, A32955). Cells were lysed by sonication on ice for 24 min at 20% amplitude, and lysates were cleared by centrifugation (14000 rpm for 45 min at 4 °C). Cleared lysates were incubated with 0.5-1 mL Ni-NTA Agarose resins (Qiagen) overnight at 4°C with gentle inversion. The next day, the resins were collected by centrifugation (1000 rpm, 2 min) and washed once with 30 mL lysis buffer (1 h, 4°C), followed by 30 mL wash buffer (same composition as lysis buffer, except imidazole increased to 20 mM). Resins were transferred onto a Bio-Rad Gravity Flow Column, and bound proteins were eluted with 700 μL elution buffer (50 mM tris-HCl pH=8, 1 M NaCl, 2 mM DTT, 500 mM imidazole). The eluted fraction was subjected to size-exclusion chromatography using an ÄKTA Pure[TM] system (Cytiva) equilibrated gel filtration buffer (50 mM HEPES pH=8, 1 M NaCl, 2 mM DTT, 5% glycerol). Protein concentrations were determined via Bradford Assay.

Synthesis of [α-³²P](p)ppGpp via RelSeq

[α-³²P](p)ppGpp was synthesized using[α-³²P]GTP (revvity, BLU006X250UC) as substrate in a RelSeq-catalyzed reaction[48]. RelSeq (YZ8) was expressed and purified as described above except that protein expression was induced with 0.5 mM IPTG for 3 h at 30°C. The purification buffer contained 500 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8), and 5% glycerol, with imidazole concentrations of 20, 40, and 500 mM for lysis, wash, and elution buffers, respectively. The

gel filtration buffer was identical but without imidazole. For the enzyme reaction, a 10× reaction buffer was prepared containing 250 mM Tris (pH 9), 1 M NaCl, and 150 mM MgCl$_2$. The final reaction system contained 1× reaction buffer, 8 mM ATP, 125 nM [α-^{32}P]GTP, and 4 µM RelSeq, and was incubated at 37°C for 1 h. The reaction was terminated by boiling for 5 min at 95°C, followed by centrifugation (14000 rpm, 5 min). Conversion of substrate was verified by thin-layer chromatography (TLC) using 0.5 µL of the reaction mixture and 1.5 M KH$_2$PO$_4$ (pH 3.4) as the mobile phase.

Biochemical assays

Synthetase activity of RelA and SpoT (SYN), was assayed in reaction mixtures containing 50 mM HEPES (pH 7.4), 100 mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl$_2$, 2 mM DTT, 0.2 mg/mL BSA, 2 mM GTP, and 6 nM [α-^{32}P]GTP (revvity, BLU006X250UC) were prepared. Protein was added to final concentrations of 0.5 µM (RelA) or 3 µM (SpoT (SYN)). Gp8 was added to varying final concentrations, and samples were incubated at room temperature for 10 min before enzyme reactions were initiated by addition of 5 mM ATP. Hydrolase activity of SpoT (HYD) was assayed in a reaction mixture containing 50 mM HEPES (pH 8), 100 mM KCl, 5 mM MnCl$_2$, 2 mM DTT, and 0.2mg/mL BSA was prepared. SpoT (HYD) was added to a final concentration of 100 nM, while Gp8 was added at varying final concentrations. Reaction mixtures were incubated at room temperature for 10 min before enzyme reaction was initiated by the simultaneous addition of ppGpp (Jena Biocience, NU-884L), and hot [α-^{32}P](p)ppGpp to final concentrations of 31.25 and 6 nM, respectively. Enzyme reactions were stopped by transferring 4 µL of the reaction mixtures into 1 µL cold 250 mM EDTA (final concentration 50 mM). Samples were loaded onto a PEI Cellulose plates and resolved using 1.5 M KH$_2$PO$_4$ (pH 3.4) as the mobile phase. Plates were exposed to a BAS-MS imaging plate and scanned using a Typhoon phosphorimager.

Phage handling and propagation

Phages were propagated using *E. coli* MG1655 as host. A 50 mL MG1655 culture in LB

supplemented with 1 mM $MgCl_2$ and 1 mM $CaCl_2$ was grown at 37°C with shaking at 160 rpm

to an OD_{600nm} of ~ 0.5. Phage stock (100 µL; PFU ~10^8-10^{10}) was added and incubation was

continued until extensive lysis was observed (1-3 h for T7). The lysate was treated with

chloroform (1 mL per 10 mL culture), vortexed, incubated for 5-10 min at room temperature,

and centrifuged (5 min, 5000 rpm). The supernatant was transferred to a new tube, centrifuged

again and collected into a clean tube. The phage stock was concentrated, and the buffer was

exchanged following the protocol described here[51]. Briefly, a 5× PEG solution (5 M NaCl, 20%

(w/v) PEG800) was added to the cleared lysate and incubated overnight at 4°C. The

precipitated phages were pelleted (1 h, 4°C, 19000 g), resuspended in 0.5-1 mL phage buffer

(150 mM NaCl, 40 mM Tris, 10 mM $MgSO_4$), and PFU was determined via plaque assay.

Phage stocks were stored at 4°C.

Plaque assay

Plaque assays were performed as described here[52]. Briefly, cultures of the appropriate strains

were prepared in LB with appropriate antibiotics and incubated overnight at 37°C shaking at

160 rpm. The following day, cultures were adjusted to OD_{600nm}=2, and 200 µL normalized

culture was mixed with 100 µL of 10-fold serially diluted phage and incubated at room

temperature for 10 min. The mixtures were then mixed with 3 ml melted 0.7% LB agar (kept

at 50°C) and immediately poured onto prewarmed 1% LB agar plates. Plates were incubated

overnight at 37°C.

Liquid killing assay

E. coli strains MG1655, Δ*relA*, and Δ*relA*Δ*spoT*, were incubated overnight in LB medium at

37°C with shaking at 160 rpm. The following day, cultures were backdiluted into fresh LB

medium and incubated in flasks at 37°C with shaking at 160 rpm until reaching an OD_{600nm} of

~ 0.4. Cultures were normalized to OD_{600nm}=0.4, and 150 μL normalized culture was mixed

with T7 phage in a clear 96-well plate to the desired MOIs. The OD_{600nm} was recorded every

five minutes at 37°C without shaking.

T7 phage engineering

To enable targeted mutagenesis of the essential T7 *gp8* gene, we established a genetic

dependency between the host and the phage based on the *trxA* gene, which is a host factor

essential for T7 replication. The endogenous *trxA* gene was deleted from the host chromosome,

rendering the host non-permissive to wild-type T7 infection. To restore infectivity, *trxA* was

introduced into the T7 genome via homologous recombination in place of *gp8*, and the *gp8* was

instead provided on the plasmid vector pCA24N[53] transformed to this Δ*trxA* host. This created

an interdependent system where the *gp8* sequence on the plasmid could be easily manipulated

prior to transformation. Due to homology sequences, the plasmid-encoded *gp8* mutant could

integrate into its original position on the T7 genome and thus create a mutant T7 particle that

can be counter selected using its independence of a plasmid borne *gp8*.

Delete *trxA* in MG1655 using P1 phage transduction

To delete *trxA* from *E. coli* MG1655, a P1 lysate was first prepared using *E. coli* Δ*trxA* strain

from the Keio collection[54]. Then, the P1 transduction method was used to generate a MG1655

Δ*trxA::kan* strain[55] and the kanamycin resistance maker was flipped out by using pCP20[56].

Replace *gp8* with *trxA* in T7

The *trxA* gene was PCR-amplified using genomic DNA from *E. coli* strain MG1655 as a

template and primers pYZ1189 and pYZ1190, each containing 40 bp extensions homologous

to sequences flanking the *gp8* locus in the T7 phage genome. The purified PCR product was

introduced into *E. coli* MG1655 cells by electroporation during co-infection with T7 phage.

Immediately following electroporation, LB medium was added, and the culture was incubated

at 37°C,160 rpm until lysis was observed (around 1.5 hours). Phage lysates were then harvested

with chloroform and clarified via centrifugation (5 min, 5000 rpm).

Cloning of pCA24N-gp8 and quick-change mutagenesis of *gp8*

The *gp8* gene as well as 350 bp flanking regions from T7 was PCR amplified using primers

pYZ1191 and pYZ1192 that also encoded a *XhoI* and *HindIII* restriction site, respectively. This

PCR product as well as the pCA24N[53] plasmid were both digested with *XhoI* and *HindIII* and

ligated together using T4 ligase. The constructed pCA24N-gp8 was purified and used as

template for quick-change mutagenesis with primers pYZ1085-pYZ1136 (see Primer list).

Constructing mutant T7 phages with *gp8* mutations

pCA24N plasmids encoding mutant *gp8* were purified and transformed into *E. coli* MG1655

Δ*trxA*. This strain was then infected with T7 *gp8::trxA* phage lysate (prepared as described

above). Through homologous recombination between the plasmid-encoded *gp8* mutant and

the corresponding flanking regions in the T7 genome (where *trxA* is inserted), the mutant *gp8*

sequence can replace *trxA*, and results in T7 progeny that carry the desired *gp8* mutation. The

mutant T7 phage particles can be counter selected using its independence of the pCA24N-

gp8.

Measurement of (p)ppGpp by radiolabeling and autoradiography

(p)ppGpp is a very labile molecule not suited for analysis by HPLC or mass spectrometry[57].

We therefore, performed thin layer chromatography (TLC) to quantify both pppGpp and ppGpp.

As phosphates in the medium impairs efficient incorporation of $H_3^{32}PO_4$ during labelling,

MOPS medium supplemented with 0.2 mM K_2HPO_4 (low phosphate concentration), and 0.2%

(v/v) glucose was used[41]. MG1655 was grown for ca. 18 hrs in MOPS-lowP$_i$-Glc media at

37 °C with agitation (160 rpm). Afterwards, the strains were adjusted to OD_{600nm}=0.05 in

MOPS-lowP$_i$-Glc and grown at 37 °C with agitation (160 rpm) until OD_{600nm} of 0.2-0-3 was

reached. Then, cells were transferred to a 2-ml Eppendorf tube and $H_3^{32}PO_4$ was added, equal

to 100 μCi/ml (Revvity, NEX053001MC). After 1.5 h at 37 °C with 600 rpm agitation, cells

were transferred to a new tube and infected with phage to an MOI of 0.1. Immediately after,

150 μl infected cells were transferred to a clear 96-well plate and OD_{600nm} at 37°C was

monitored every 2 min via a plate reader (BioTek). Simultaneously, 25 μl sample was collected

every 2 min and transferred to 5 μl cold 2 M formic acid. Samples were stores at -20°C until

analysed by TLC using 1.5 M KH_2PO_4 (pH 3.4) as mobile phase.

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