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- A subset of exoribonucleases serve as degradative enzymes for
- pGpG in c-di-GMP signaling 2
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- 5 RNases degrade pGpG to complete c-di-GMP degradation
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Abstract

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Cyclic-di-GMP (c-di-GMP) is a bacterial second messenger that regulates processes such as biofilm formation and virulence. During degradation, c-di-GMP is first linearized to pGpG and subsequently hydrolyzed to two GMPs by a previously unknown enzyme, which was recently identified in Pseudomonas aeruginosa as the 3' to 5' exoribonuclease Oligoribonuclease (Orn). Mutants of orn accumulated pGpG, which inhibited linearization of c-di-GMP. This product inhibition led to elevated c-di-GMP levels, resulting in increased aggregate and biofilm formation. Thus, the hydrolysis of pGpG is crucial to maintenance of c-di-GMP homeostasis. How species that utilize c-di-GMP signaling but lack an orn ortholog hydrolyze pGpG remains unknown. Because Orn is an exoribonuclease, we asked whether pGpG hydrolysis can be carried out by genes that encode protein domains found in exoribonucleases. From a screen of these genes from Vibrio cholerae and Bacillus anthracis, we found only enzymes known to cleave oligoribonucleotides (orn and nrnA), rescued the P. aeruginosa Δ orn phenotypes to wild-type. Thus, we tested additional RNases with demonstrated activity against short oligoribonucleotides. These experiments show that only exoribonucleases previously reported to degrade short RNAs (nrnA, nrnB, nrnC and orn) can also hydrolyze pGpG. A B. subtilis nrnA and nrnB mutant had elevated c-di-GMP, suggesting that these two genes serve as the primary enzymes to degrade pGpG. These results indicate that the requirement for pGpG hydrolysis to complete c-di-GMP signaling is conserved across species. The final

- steps of RNA turnover and c-di-GMP turnover appear to converge at a subset of 47
- 48 RNases specific for short oligoribonucleotides.
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Importance

The bacterial cyclic-di-GMP (c-di-GMP) signaling molecule regulates
complex processes such as biofilm formation. C-di-GMP is degraded in two-
steps: linearization into pGpG and subsequently cleavage to two GMPs. The 3' to
5' exonuclease oligoribonuclease (Orn) serves as the enzyme that degrades
pGpG in Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Many phyla contain species that utilize c-di-
GMP signaling but lack an Orn homolog and the protein that functions to degrade
pGpG remains uncharacterized. Here, systematic screening of genes encoding
proteins containing domains found in exoribonucleases revealed a subset of
genes encoded within the genomes of Bacillus anthracis and Vibrio cholerae that
degrade pGpG to GMP and are functionally analogous to Orn. Feedback
inhibition by pGpG is a conserved process as strains lacking these genes
accumulate c-di-GMP.

Introduction

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Bis-(3'-5')-cyclic dimeric guanosine monophosphate (c-di-GMP) was originally described in 1987 by the Benziman lab as an allosteric activator of cellulose synthase in Acetobacter xylinum (since renamed Komagataeibacter xylinus) (1). C-di-GMP is utilized by many bacterial species to govern behaviors such as biofilm formation, motility, virulence, development, and cell cycle progression, making c-di-GMP a crucial regulator of bacterial lifestyle transitions. In general, high levels of c-di-GMP promote a sessile, biofilm forming lifestyle while low levels of c-di-GMP promote a motile, planktonic lifestyle (see (2) for a comprehensive review of c-di-GMP signaling).

In their initial report, the Benziman lab demonstrated that c-di-GMP is synthesized from two GTP molecules by enzymes with diguanylate cyclase (DGC) activity. C-di-GMP is degraded to two GMP molecules via a two-step process. First, it is hydrolyzed into linear 5'-phosphoguanylyl-(3',5')-guanosine (pGpG) by enzymes the authors referred to as phosphodiesterase A. This linearization process can be inhibited by Ca²⁺ ions (1) while the subsequent hydrolysis of pGpG to two GMPs is not inhibited by Ca²⁺, which the authors interpreted as evidence for a second, distinct enzyme which they termed phosphodiesterase B (1). Numerous follow-up experimental and bioinformatics studies revealed the motifs and domains for DGC activity (GGDEF domains) (3-5) and c-di-GMP linearization activity (EAL (4, 6, 7) and HD-GYP (8) domains), vet the identity of the enzyme responsible for pGpG cleavage remained unknown. While EAL domain and HD-GYP proteins have been shown to degrade

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pGpG in vitro, their contribution to pGpG turnover in bacterial cells remains under investigation. Recently, two publications identified Orn as the primary PDE-B in Pseudomonas aeruginosa (9, 10). Using cell lysates, we showed that ³²P-labeled pGpG is turned over at a much lower rate in the PA14 \(\Delta orn \) compared to wild type (9). The Δorn strain likely continued to express EAL and HD-GYP domain proteins, but their contribution towards pGpG turnover was less than 5% of Orn, indicating that Orn is the primary enzyme responsible for pGpG hydrolysis in vivo.

While c-di-GMP signaling is used across the bacterial domain, homologs of orn are restricted to Betaproteobacteria, Deltaproteobacteria Gammaproteobacteria, and Actinobacteria (9). For bacterial phyla that utilize cdi-GMP signaling but lack orn homologs, these organisms must encode another group of enzymes that fulfill the role of Orn in pGpG cleavage. Orn is a 3' to 5' exoribonuclease that is the major enzyme responsible for degrading short oligoribonucleotides in Escherichia coli. Orn was first isolated from E. coli in the 1970's and shown to degrade short polyA oligos (5-mer and shorter) in vitro (11, 12). The orn gene is essential in E. coli. To determine the function of Orn in vivo, a temperature-dependent mutant was generated by introducing a chromosomal interruption in the *orn* locus while supplying *orn* on a temperature-sensitive plasmid (13). Upon growth of this temperature-dependent orn mutant E. coli at the non-permissive conditions, the strain accumulated oligoribonucleotides that are 2-5 nucleotides long (13). In bacterial species that do not encode an orn homolog, other RNases were later identified to degrade oligoribonucleotides by

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screening for genes that rescue growth of the E. coli orn mutant. Genes that rescued the orn mutant included NrnA and NrnB, which are widely found in Firmicutes (14, 15), and NrnC, which is widely found in Alphaproteobacteria (16). However, direct evidence of a role in degradation of short RNA in vivo was lacking. In addition, two RNases, YhaM and RNase J1, from B. subtilis also partially rescued the E. coli conditional orn deletion mutant (15). In vitro, the 3' to 5' exoribonuclease YhaM (17) can degrade 5-mer oligo RNA, but was able to degrade oligo DNA at a faster rate, suggesting that DNA could be a preferred substrate (15). The 5' to 3' exoribonuclease RNase J1 (18) had low activity in vitro against 5-mer cytosine and adenine (15). These reports suggest that other RNases may degrade pGpG to terminate c-di-GMP signaling in species that lack orn. Currently these candidates have not been experimentally tested for hydrolysis of pGpG and their effects on c-di-GMP signaling. We thus used a similar complementation approach to assay the effect of RNases on pGpG turnover.

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P. aeruginosa \(\Delta orn \) mutants are viable, but have increased levels of cytosolic c-di-GMP due to pGpG feedback inhibition, resulting in elevated c-di-GMP-regulated processes such as biofilm formation (19, 20). We hypothesized that genes encoding domains found in known RNA exonucleases could cleave pGpG in species that do not encode orn and should be able to restore the behavior of the *P. aeruginosa* Δorn strain to wild type. Thus, we identified genes that contained domains found in RNA exoribonucleases from B. anthracis, an organism that lacks orn, and V. cholerae, another species that encodes orn and

is well-known to utilize c-di-GMP signaling and thus may encode additional proteins for pGpG turnover. These genes were tested for their ability to degrade pGpG through complementation of the *P. aeruginosa* Δ orn strain. Of the genes tested, only the known "nanoRNases" NrnA, NrnB, and NrnC could reduce aggregation of the *P. aeruginosa* ∆orn strain to wild type levels. Cells that express NrnA, NrnB and NrnC reduced levels of pGpG and c-di-GMP found in the P. aeruginosa ∆orn strain. Purified recombinant NrnA, NrnB and NrnC proteins were able to cleave pGpG in a manner similar to Orn. Bacillus subtilis lacking both nrnA and nrnB accumulated c-di-GMP. These results demonstrate that a specific subset of RNases act to hydrolyze pGpG, indicating that RNases serve as the final processing enzyme to terminate c-di-GMP signaling across bacteria.

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Results

146 A screen identifies exoribonucleases that rescue cell aggregation and biofilm

147 formation in *P. aeruginosa* PA14 ∆orn

A bioinformatic approach was used to identify candidate exoribonucleases for screening to identify additional enzymes responsible for turning over pGpG. Previously reported exoribonucleases in E. coli and B. subtilis include Oligoribonuclease, RNase B, RNase BN, RNase D, RNase J, RNase PH, RNase R, RNase T, PNPase, YhaM and Nrn proteins (21-24). These proteins were used as a starting point for bioinformatic identification of putative exoribonucleases

based on Pfam domains (see Table S1). The Pfam HMM model obtained from

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the Pfam database version 31 (March 2017) was searched against the complete proteomes of B. anthracis str. Ames and V. cholerae serotype O1 using the Hmmer 3.1b2 hmmsearch command (25), and resulted in a list of fifty-one unique protein sequences with a signficant E-value as reported by Hmmer (See Table S1) (26). Of these fifty-one, fifty genes (polC (BA3955) was not available) were obtained from the B. anthracis and V. cholerae (27) Gateway clone set libraries and introduced into a replicative plasmid in *P. aeruginosa*.

The PA14 $\triangle orn$ strain has elevated levels of pGpG and c-di-GMP resulting in increased autoaggregation (Fig. 1) (9). The ability of each of the 50 genes to cleave pGpG was tested by trans complementation of the PA14 Δ orn to reduce autoaggregation. Expression of the PA14 orn (orn_{Pa}) complemented the PA14 Δ orn mutant and prevented aggregate formation, whereas the vector control aggregated. Expression of genes encoding RNase B, RNase BN, RNase D, RNase J, RNase PH or PNPase domains in Δ orn did not prevent aggregation indicating that they do not hydrolyze pGpG (Fig. 1). Of the genes encoding the RNase T domain, only VC0341 (orn_{Vc}) from V. cholerae was able to reverse aggregation (Fig. 1). For genes encoding DHH or DHHA1 domains, only BA4852 (nrnA_{Ba}) from B. anthracis prevented aggregation.

In addition to aggregation, the $\triangle orn$ strain forms more pellicle biofilm (9). The pellicle biofilm was assayed using a crystal violet microtiter plate biofilm assay (28). Complementation of a PA14 Δ orn mutant with orn_{Pa} decreased biofilm two-fold compared to the empty vector (p < 0.05, Fig. 2A). Expression of BA4852 (nrnA_{Ba}) and VC0341 (orn_{Vc}) reduced the biofilm similar to expression of

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 orn_{Pa} (p > 0.05) while expression of other RNases tested had no effect in the Δ orn strain (Fig. 2A). Similar to the aggregation assay, only VC0341 (orn_{Vc}) and BA4852 (nrnA_{Ba}) were able to reduce the enhanced biofilm formation of PA14 Δorn. These results suggest that Orn and NrnA are able to degrade pGpG in V. cholerae and B. anthracis, respectively.

Both BA4852 (nrnA_{Ba}) and VC0341 (orn_{Vc}) are 3' to 5' exoribonucleases with known activity against short oligoribonucleotides. NrnA from B. subtilis was originally idientified from a screen that rescued the growth of an E. coli orn conditional mutant (14). From similar screens, other RNases from Bacillus subtilis and Caulobacter crescentus, namely nrnB, rnjA, yhaM and nrnC, were also identified that could hydrolyze short oligoribonucletides in vitro (14-16). We therefore asked whether these proteins could cleave pGpG by assaying for complementation of the PA14 \(\Delta orn \) strain. \(nrnA, nrnB, rnjA, \) and \(yhaM \) were cloned from B. subtilis 168 and nrnC was cloned from C. crescentus CB15 and expressed in PA14 \(\Delta orn. \) Expression of B. subtilis nrnA (nrnA_{Bs}), B. subtilis nrnB $(nrnB_{Bs})$, and C. crescentus nrnC $(nrnC_{Cc})$ were able to prevent aggregation of the PA14 orn mutant while yhaM and rnjA were not (Fig. 2B). These strains were also assayed for pellicle biofilm formation. Complementation with nrnA_{Bs}, nrnB_{Bs} and $nrnC_{Cc}$ reduced A₅₉₅ readings to 0.15 ± 0.02, 0.14 ± 0.2, and 0.15 ± 0.02, respectively, as compared to the vector control A_{595} readings 0.47 \pm 0.05 (Fig. 2C). This reduction is similar to complementation with PA14 orn. Expression of B. subtilis rnaseJ1 (rnjA_{Bs})and B. subtilis yhaM (yhaM_{Bs}) did not prevent aggregation, but resulted in a modest reduction in biofilm with A₅₉₅ readings of

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 0.31 ± 0.02 and at 0.36 ± 0.04 , respecively (Fig. 2C). When combined with the aggregation data, expression of rnjA_{Bs} and yhaM_{Bs} do not efficiently complement the *\(\Delta orn \)* mutant. Since pGpG accumulation causes decreased c-di-GMP turnover via feedback inhibition of the phosphodiesterase responsible for linearizing c-di-GMP, these data suggest that the genes nrnA, nrnB, and nrnC could degrade pGpG in species that do not have orn. Orn, NrnA, NrnB and NrnC convert pGpG to GMP

The elevated c-di-GMP-related phenotypes seen in the PA14 Δorn mutant strain was shown to be complemented by orn_{Pa}, but not catalytically inactive alleles of orn_{Pa} (9, 10). As previously reported (9), the rate of pGpG turnover in whole cell lystates was barely detectable after 20 mins incubation in the empty vector control, while plasmid-provided PA14 orn showed full conversion of pGpG to GMP by 20 mins, with a half life of ~6 mins (Fig. 3A). To determine the ability of each of the RNases to degrade pGpG, the lysates of PA14 Δ orn expressing each RNase from B. anthracis and V. cholerae were tested for their ability to hydrolyze ³²P-pGpG to ³²P-GMP. Of the strains expressing RNases from *B*. anthracis, only BA4852 (nrnA_{Ba}) decreased the pGpG half life to 0.23 minutes (Fig. 3B). Of the strains expressing RNases from V. cholerae, VC0341 (orn_{Vc}) reduced the pGpG half life to 0.25 minutes (Fig. 3C), while the expression of other RNases did not alter rates of pGpG degradation. When complemented with nrnA_{Bs}, nrnB_{Bs}, and nrnC_{Cc}, the pGpG half life was decreased to 16.5 minutes 2.7 minutes and 1.5 minutes, respectively (Fig. 3D). Complementation with the other

RNases had similar pGpG hydrolysis rates to the empty vector control. These results suggest that these genes act on pGpG turnover in a manner similar to orn in P. aeguinosa.

To support the enzymatic activity of NrnA, NrnB and NrnC against pGpG. purified recombinant NrnA_{Bs}, NrnB_{Bs}, and NrnC_{Cc} proteins were tested for the ability degrade pGpG. As expected, all were able to convert pGpG to GMP. When using 10 nM of each enzyme, the pGpG turnover rates were determined to be 517.4 \pm 7.846 nM/min for Orn_{Vc}, 338.1 \pm 14.3 nM/min for NrnA_{Bs}, 271 \pm 26.31 nM/min for NrnB_{Bs} and 150.6 \pm 14.49 nM/min for NrnC_{Cc} (Fig. 4).

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HD-GYPs do not cleave pGpG in cells lacking orn

Previous studies have shown that HD-GYPs can cleave both c-di-GMP and pGpG in vitro (8). This has led to the suggestion that proteins containing the HD-GYP domain can act to both linearize c-di-GMP and cleave pGpG in vivo. However, deconvolution of the in vivo pGpG hydrolysis activity of HD-GYP from Orn was difficult due to essentiality of orn in other proteobacterial species. Using the viable *P. aeruginosa* ∆*orn* strain, we asked whether HD-GYP proteins can cleave pGpG by expressing each of the nine genes from V. cholerae that contain a HD-GYP domain in an Δ orn background. Lysates from these strains were tested for pGpG turnover by addition of ³²P-pGpG. Similar to the vector control, expression of any of the HD-GYP genes failed to increase pGpG hydrolysis (Figure 5). Since expression of Orn_{Vc} was able to restore pGpG hydrolysis, these results indicate that HD-GYP proteins do not cleave pGpG in vivo.

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247 The intracellular concentration of pGpG and c-di-GMP in P. aeruginosa PA14 248 <u>Aorn</u> is reduced by complementation with *nrnA*, *nrnB*, *nrnC*, *VC0341*, and 249 BA4852 250 To confirm that these changes in phenotype were due to reducing c-di-251 GMP in the complementation strains, nucleotides were extracted from wild type 252 PA14 and the PA14 *\(\Delta orn \)* strains containing empty vector or vector expressing 253 wild type orn_{Pa}, nrnA_{Bs}, nrnB_{Bs}, nrnC_{Cc}, VC0341 (orn_{Vc}), and BA4852 (nrnA_{Ba}) 254 and the levels of c-di-GMP and pGpG were detected by LC-MS/MS. The PA14 255 strain with vector control had 2.2 \pm 0.4 μ M pGpG, while PA14 Δ orn strain with 256 vector control had 17.4 \pm 3.7 μ M pGpG. Complementation of the PA14 Δ orn 257 strain with all genes tested reduced pGpG and c-di-GMP levels (Table 1). 258 Together, these results demonstrate that a specific subset of RNases can cleave 259 pGpG to terminate c-di-GMP signaling. 260 B. subtilis 168 $\triangle nrnA \triangle nrnB$ double mutant and $\triangle nrnA \triangle nrnB \triangle yhaM$ triple mutant 261 262 have elevated levels of c-di-GMP 263 The ability of *nrnA_{Bs}* and *nrnB_{Bs}* from *B. subtilis* to complement *P.* 264 aeruginosa \(\Delta orn \) suggests that these enzymes could be responsible for pGpG 265 cleavage in B. subtilis in a manner that is analogous to Orn function in P. 266 aeruginosa. Thus, we generated an unmarked $\Delta nrnB$ double mutant in B. 267 subtilis and assayed for c-di-GMP levels using a fluorescent riboswitch reporter

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of c-di-GMP levels. This riboswitch reporter construct consists of a constitutively

active promoter followed by a c-di-GMP-specific riboswitch from B. licheniformis

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found upstream of the Ich operon (IchAA UTR) fused to yfp. When the riboswitch is bound to c-di-GMP, it forms a terminator prior to yfp, resulting in lower fluorescence levels; when the riboswitch is not bound to c-di-GMP, it folds differently permitting transcription elongation through the *yfp* gene, resulting in elevated fluorescence (Fig. 6A). As a control, we used a constitutively active promoter without the riboswitch before the yfp reporter (Pconst-yfp, Fig. 6A). As expected, the control reporter showed no differences in fluorescence between the wild type and the $\triangle nrnA \triangle nrnB$ double mutant, with the same histogram distribution of fluorescence intensity in both strains (Fig. 6B, 6D). Inserting the IchAA UTR containing the c-di-GMP-specific riboswitch between the promoter and yfp is expected to render yfp expression sensitive to c-di-GMP levels. The ∆nrnA ∆nrnB had very low fluorescence compared to wild type indicating that cdi-GMP is indeed higher in this strain (Fig. 6C, 6E). As previously reported in P. aeruginosa (9, 10), this could be due to pGpG accumulation that competitively inhibits linearization of c-di-GMP. Although YhaM could not rescue aggregation in our assay in P. aeruginosa, (Fig. 2B) it could partially reduce pellicle biofilm formation (Fig. 2C). These data, in conjunction with the report that expression of yhaM could partially rescue an E. coli orn mutant and purified YhaM could turn over RNAs (15), led us to also generate an unmarked $\Delta yhaM$ mutant. The $\Delta yhaM$ had similar YFP levels as the parental 168 strain (Fig. S1). Furthermore, the $\triangle nrnA \triangle nrnB \triangle yhaM$ triple mutant had similar results (Fig. S2) as the $\triangle nrnA$ △nrnB double mutant. These results indicate that NrnA and NrnB are the enzymes primarily responsible for degradation of pGpG in B. subtilis.

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To support the changes in c-di-GMP observed with the fluorescent riboswitch reporter construct, c-di-GMP and pGpG extracted from wild type B. subtilis and the $\triangle nrnA \triangle nrnB$ strains were quantified by LC-MS/MS in which pGpG and c-di-GMP generated two daughter ions (Table 2). For the wild type, the concentration of pGpG was below the limit of detection. In contrast, the ΔnrnA ΔnrnB double mutant strain exhibited 1.9 μM of pGpG. For c-di-GMP, wildtype bacteria had 1 μ M while the $\Delta nrnA$ double mutant strain had 3. This 3-fold increase agrees with the effect on the fluorescent c-di-GMP reporter. These results demonstrate that NrnA and NrnB degrade pGpG in B. subtilis and suggest that product inhibition of c-di-GMP linearization by pGpG is a widespread phenomenon.

Discussion

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A subset of RNases degrade pGpG

Only Orn, NrnA, NrnB and NrnC can degrade pGpG. These four genes have previously been referred to as "nanoRNases" to describe the enzymes that can cleave "extremely short oligonucleotides" that are shorter than microRNA (14). pGpG and other linearized dinucleotides from signaling cyclic dinucleotides are two-nucleotide-long RNA molecules and represent appropriate substrates for nanoRNases. Despite being functionally similar, these four proteins contain different domains and different catalytic sites. Orn belongs to the RNase T superfamily (PFAM PF00929), NrnA and NrnB belong to the NrnA family with two adjacent DHH and DHHA1 domains (PF01368 and PF02272) (14, 15) and NrnC belongs to the RNase D superfamily (PF01612) (16). Nonetheless, these specific proteins appear to be distinct from other members of their family since other RNases and proteins that share these domains do not appear to cleave pGpG.

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Whether additional proteins that were not identified in this study can turn over pGpG remains an outstanding question. It is possible that the transgenic approach used in this screen could result in false negatives and yet-unidentified exoribonuclease families would not have been included in the candidate for screening. A more general question is what are the total number and identity of exoribonucleases in prokaryotes. The most well characterized exoribonucleases are in two model organisms: E. coli and B. subtilis. E. coli encodes Orn, PNPase, Rbn RNase II, Rnd, Rnr, Rph and Rnt (21). Of the RNases found in E. coli, B. subtilis encodes only PNPase, Rph and Rnr (22). In the past decade, a number

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of additional exoribonucleases have been characterized in B. subtilis including RNase J, NrnA, NrnB and YhaM (14, 15). Thus, there likely are additional yet uncharacterized genes that degrade short oligonucleotides and thus can cleave pGpG and other linear dinucleotide intermediates of c-di-nucleotide turnover. The enzymes that complement PA14 *\(\Delta orn \)* were previously identified through their ability to rescue lethality in a conditional orn mutant in E. coli. However, while YhaM and RNase J also rescued growth of the E. coli orn mutant, they did not complement the biofilm phenotypes observed in PA14 Δ orn. These differences indicate that complementation of Orn essentiality in E. coli is a distinct phenotype from complementation of the *orn* activity in *P. aeruginosa*. Future experiments using the PA14 $\triangle orn$ strain as a surrogate host can allow identification of genes encoding enzymes from targeted organisms or from complex microbiomes.

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Enzymes that cleave linear dinucleotides are required to reduce cellular concentration of cyclic dinucleotides.

The termination of cyclic di-nucleotide signaling requires cleavage of the linear dinucleotide intermediate. In the absence of Orn in P. aeruginosa, pGpG is not degraded and can competitively inhibit linearization of c-di-GMP (9, 10) (Figure 7). As a consequence, c-di-GMP accumulates, leading to prolonged signaling and enhanced c-di-GMP dependent phenotypes (9, 10). Data shown here for B. subtilis indicate that NrnA and NrnB degrade pGpG in this organism. YhaM is not likely to be important in pGpG turnover since the c-di-GMP

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riboswitch reporter showed similar c-di-GMP levels in the parental 168 strain and the $\triangle yhaM$ single mutant. As observed in *P. aeruginosa*, the loss of the primary enzymes responsible for pGpG hydrolysis in B. subtilis leads to accumulation of pGpG and c-di-GMP. These results suggest that feedback inhibition by pGpG on the enzymes that linearize c-di-GMP is a conserved property of c-di-GMP signaling. This feedback inhibition appears to also hold true for c-di-AMP signaling. C-di-AMP is linearized by enzymes that contain HD (29) and DHH-DHHA1 domain (30). Recent studies of PDE2 in Staphylococcus aureus revealed that this protein cleaves pApA in c-di-AMP signaling (31). Furthermore, in the absence of pde2, S. aureus cells accumulate both pApA and c-di-AMP (31) (Figure 7). Together, these studies suggest that feedback inhibition by the linear dinucleotide product of cyclic di-nucleotide turnover may be conserved. For cGAMP (32), linearization to pApG is mediated by three V-cGAP enzymes (33). How the pApG linear product of cGAMP is hydrolyzed to mononucleotide is currently unknown. Since cGAMP is produced in V. cholerae, we anticipate that Orn_{Vc} can serve to degrade both pApG and pGpG dinucleotides. Future studies in additional organisms will reveal whether feedback inhibition of linearization enzyme by linear dinucleotides is a general property of the known bacterial cyclic dinucleotide signaling molecules: c-di-GMP, c-di-AMP and cGAMP (Figure 7). Proteins containing HD-GYP domain may not cleave pGpG in cells Previous studies of HD-GYP proteins demonstrated that these proteins are able

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to degrade c-di-GMP and pGpG in vitro (2). In vivo studies in V. cholerae

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revealed that expression of HD-GYP proteins reduced c-di-GMP levels (34). Furthermore, lysates of *E. coli* overexpressing of *V. cholerae* HD-GYP domain proteins was able to both degrade c-di-GMP into pGpG and subsequently to GMPs (35). However, the cleavage of pGpG to GMP cannot be specifically attributed to HD-GYP proteins due to the presence of Orn in the E. coli strain background. To clearly test pGpG hydrolysis activity of proteins containing a HD-GYP domain without Orn, we tested lysates of *P. aeruginosa* ∆orn expressing each of the HD-GYP genes from V. cholerae. Since expression of these genes failed to increase pGpG cleavage, these results provide additional evidence that HD-GYP do not function as the main pGpG degrading enzymes in vivo (9, 10). NanoRNases degrade pGpG.

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Unlike the linearization step of c-di-GMP, which relies on c-di-GMPspecific phosphodiesterases, our results suggest that the degradation of pGpG does not appear to require a pGpG-specific enzyme. Instead, the turnover of pGpG appears to be carried out by a subset of RNases. These RNases, dubbed "nanoRNases", were identified in screens to find genes able to rescue growth in an E. coli conditional orn mutant and were shown to be able to turn over short oligoribonucleotides in vitro (14-16). However, although RNase J1 and YhaM were shown to partially rescue the E. coli orn growth defect (15), we did not observe that these enzymes were able to hydrolyze pGpG or rescue the P. aeruginosa orn biofilm and aggregation phenotypes, suggesting that not all enzymes possessing nanoRNase activity have pGpG degrading activity.

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Nevertheless, the final steps of c-di-GMP and RNA turnover appear to intersect at RNases. Thus, the relative affinity for and rate of cleavage of oligoribonucleotides of different sequence and length may matter during periods in which bacteria need to rapidly remove c-di-GMP. Whether this overlap in source of oligoribonucleotides substrates for these RNases has consequences for cellular regulation or mRNA turnover is at present an open question.

The current experiments have focused on the identification of the enzymes responsible for cleaving pGpG. Since nanoRNases are hypothesized to cleave all short oligoribonucleotides regardless of sequence, we also expect them to have activity against the linearized form of the other two cyclic dinucleotide signaling molecules (pApA from c-di-AMP and pApG from cAG). Whether the linear cAG can also engage in product inhibition is currently unknown. However, the finding that all cyclic di-nucleotides share the final processing enzymes that are also responsible for degrading 2-mer RNAs would not be surprising.

Materials and Methods

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Strains and culture conditions

The strains, plasmids, and primers used in this study are listed in Tables S2, S3, and S4, respectively. Bacteria were grown in LB or LB-agar supplemented with 50 µg/mL carbenicillin at 37 °C except when otherwise noted. Plasmids were induced with 1 mM IPTG. All B. subtilis strains in this study are derived from 168. To make $\triangle yhaM$, $\triangle nrnA$ $\triangle nrnB$, and $\triangle nrnA$ $\triangle nrnB$ $\triangle yhaM$, strains harboring gene knockouts of locus tags BSU29250, BSU18200 and BSU09930 were obtained from the BKE collection. The erythromycin-resistance cassette inserted in each locus was then removed in each strain, and markerless deletions were created through transformation with pDR244 ((36), Bacillus Genetic Stock Center). A series of transformation protocols were performed with each BKE strain as well as pDR244 until the double and triple mutant strains were achieved. Removal of the erythromycin-resistance cassette was verified by Sanger sequencing. For construction of the fluorescent yfp reporters used in this study, integration at the amyE locus of 168 was performed with plasmids derived from pJG019 (GenBank: KX499653.1). To construct pRSL_F4, the IchAA leader sequence (complete sequence is provided in the supplemental materials) was synthesized (GenScript) and inserted at the HindIII restriction site of the vector. pJG019 and pRSL F4 were transformed into 168, Δ *yhaM*, Δ *nrnA* Δ *nrnB*, and $\Delta nrnA \Delta nrnB \Delta yhaM$ by using cells induced for competence through growth in nitrogen limiting media (37).

Cloning

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436	The V. cholerae O1 biovar El Tor str. N16961 and B. anthracis Gateway
437	compatible ORFeome libraries were obtained from BEI Resources. The ORFs
438	were moved into the desired expression vectors (see Table S2 for primers) using
439	LR-clonase enzyme II (Invitrogen) and introduced into chemically competent E.
440	coli strain T7Iq (NEB) following the manufacturer's protocols. The B. subtilis
441	nrnA, nrnB, rnjA and yhaM and the C. crescentus nrnC were cloned using the
442	primers shown in Table S1.
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444	Protein purification
445	His_{10} -VC0341, His_{10} - BA4852, His_{10} -NrnA, His_{10} -NrnB, His_{10} -NrnC, and
446	His ₁₀ -YhaM were purified from <i>E. coli</i> T7lq strains containing expression
447	plasmids (Table S2) as described previously (38). Briefly, strains were grown in
448	LB with appropriate antibiotic at 37°C overnight, subcultured in fresh media and
449	grown to $OD_{600} \sim 1.0$ when protein production was induced with the addition of 1
450	mM IPTG. Induced bacteria were pelleted and resuspended in 10 mM Tris, pH 8,
451	100 mM NaCl, and 25 mM imidazole and frozen at -80°C until purification.
452	Proteins were purified over a Ni-NTA column followed by desalting on a
453	Sephadex G-25 column into reaction buffer. Proteins were flash frozen in liquid
454	nitrogen for storage at -80°C until use.

Synthesis of radiolabeled dinucleotides

³²P-pGpG was generated by the linearization of ³²P-c-di-GMP with RocR from P. aeruginosa. For this reaction, ³²P-c-di-GMP (0.167 µM final) was incubated with RocR (20 µM final) in 10 mM Tris, pH 8, 100 mM NaCl and 5 mM MqCl₂ at room temperature for 1 h and the reaction was stopped by heat inactivation at 98 °C for 10 min, then passed over a 3 kDa molecular weight cutoff column to remove the protein. ³²P-c-di-GMP was enzymatically synthesized as previously described (39). Purity was checked by TLC.

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Cell lysate and enzymatic activity assays

The activity of whole cell lysates and purified proteins against ³²P-pGpG was assayed as previously described (9). Briefly, 0.1 µM of purified in reaction buffer (50 mM Tris, pH 8, 100 mM NaCl, and 5 mM MgCl₂ for NrnA, NrnB, NrnC, and YhaM; 50 mM Tris, pH 8, 100 mM NaCl, and 5 mM MnCl₂ for Orn) was incubated with 0.1 mM of pGpG spiked with 4 pM ³²P-pGpG tracer. For cell lysates, PA14 \(\Delta orn \) carrying the indicated complementation vectors were grown overnight, subcultured 1:100 into fresh LB supplemented with carbenicillin, and induced with 100 mM IPTG and grown at 37°C or 30°C as indicated to OD₆₀₀ ~ 0.4 with shaking. The cultures were pelleted and resuspended in 1/10th volume of reaction buffer, adjusted to the same OD₆₀₀, and supplemented with 10 µg/mL DNase, 250 µg/mL lysozyme, 10 mM PMSF, and lysed by sonication. At indicated times, aliquots were removed and the reaction stopped by adding an equal volume of 0.2 M EDTA, pH 8, and heated at 98 °C for 10 min.

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Thin-layer chromatography
Performed as previously described (9). Briefly, 0.5 µL of each sample was
spotted on polyethyleneimine-cellulose TLC plates (EMD Chemicals), dried, and
developed in mobile phase consisting of 1:1.5 (vol:vol) saturated NH ₄ SO ₄ and 1.5
M KH ₂ PO ₄ , pH 3.60. The TLC plate was dried and imaged using Fujifilm FLA-
7000 phosphorimager (GE) and the intensity of the radiolabel was quantified
using Fujifilm Multi Gauge software v3.0.
Microtiter plate crystal violet biofilm assay
Briefly, overnight cultures were diluted 1:100 in LB and grown as static
cultures in a 96-well polystyrene plate (Greiner) at 30 °C inside a humidified
chamber for 24 h. The cultures were washed of planktonic cells and stained with
crystal violet as previously described (28). The A ₅₉₅ was measured on a
SpectraMax M5 spectrophotometer (Molecular Devices).
Aggregation assay
Cultures of P. aeruginosa strains were grown in 10 mL LB with appropriate
antibiotic and IPTG induction for 24 h at 37 °C with shaking. Culture tubes were
allowed to settling at room temperature for 30 mins and photographed.

B. subtilis 168 WT, ΔnrnA ΔnrnB, and ΔnrnA ΔnrnB ΔyhaM-derived

reporter strains were grown at 37°C on LB plates supplemented with 1.5% Bacto

Fluorescence microscopy & quantification

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agar and 5 ug/mL chloramphenicol, when appropriate. Single colonies were used to inoculate liquid MSgg medium (40) and grown at 37°C shaking overnight. The following day, cultures of each strain were inoculated 1:50 on fresh medium and grown at 37°C shaking until reaching an optical density at 600 nm (OD₆₀₀) of 1.0. Aliquots of these cultures were placed on 1.5% low-melting agarose MSgg pads and allowed to dry for 10 minutes. Agarose pads were inverted onto a glass bottom dish (Willco Wells). Cells were imaged at room temperature using a Zeiss Axio-Observer Z1 inverted fluorescence microscope, equipped with a Rolera EM-C₂ electron-multiplying charge-coupled (EMCC) camera, and an environmental chamber. Fluorescence intensity per cell was quantified using Oufti analysis software (41). Images were analyzed and adjusted with FIJI software (42). Quantification of Intracellular c-di-GMP and pGpG in P. aeruginosa Extraction, quantification and CFU determination were performed as previously described (9) using previously published MS and UPLC parameters (43, 44). Briefly, P. aeruginosa strains were grown overnight in LB at 37 °C with shaking, subcultured 1:100 in LB, and grown at 37 °C with shaking. Cells were

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pelleted, resuspended in 100 µL ice-cold 40:40:20 (vol:vol:vol) MeOH, acetonitrile, and water with 0.1 N formic acid, incubated 30 min at -20 °C for lysis, and neutralized after a 30-min incubation with 4 µL 15% (wt/vol) NH₄NCO₃. Cellular debris was pelleted, and the supernatant was removed for desiccation by

a Savant SpeedVac Concentrator (Thermo Scientific). Desiccated samples were

suspended in 100 µL ultra-pure water, and insoluble material was pelleted. The

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mm) before quantification of c-di-GMP and pGpG using LC-MS/MS on a Quattro Premier XE mass spectrometer (Waters) coupled with an Acquity Ultra Performance LC system (Waters). Cyclic-di-GMP was detected in 10-µL injections of filtered extracts. For the detection of pGpG, filtered extracts were diluted 1:100 in ultra-pure water, and 10-µL injections of the diluted extracts were then analyzed. The intracellular concentrations of c-di-GMP and pGpG were determined by calculating the total number of colony-forming units in each sample and multiplying this value by the intracellular volume of a single bacterium. The total c-di-GMP and pGpG extracted in each sample were then divided by the total intracellular volume of the cells in the sample to provide the intracellular concentration of each analyte. Metabolite extraction and quantification of c-di-GMP and pGpG in B. subtilis Three independent replicates of *B. subtilis* 168 WT and $\Delta nrnA \Delta nrnB$ were grown overnight in liquid MSgg medium (40) shaking at 37°C. The following day cultures of each strain were inoculated 1:50 and grown shaking at 37°C until

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soluble supernatant was filtered through a Titan syringe filter (PVDF, 0.45 µm, 4

reaching an optical density at 600 nm (OD₆₀₀) of 1.0. Metabolite extraction was

extracted by inverting the filters into petri dishes that contained 1.5 mL pre-chilled

extraction solvent composed of 40:40:20 acetonitrile/methanol/water. Dishes

described previously (45). 5 mL cultures were passed through 0.2 µm nylon

filters (EMD Millipore). Metabolism was guenched and metabolites were

were placed on dry ice for 15 minutes before the wash was collected in

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microcentrifuge tubes and allowed to spin at max speed for 5 minutes at 4°C. The supernatant was then transferred to new microcentrifuge tubes and placed in a vacuum centrifuge until metabolite extracts were dry. Detection of c-di-GMP by LC-MS/MS was described previously (46). Briefly, bacterial extract was resuspended in Solvent A (10 mM tributylamine in water, pH 5.0) and centrifuged twice to remove insoluble particles. Metabolites were then separated on a Synergi Fusion-RP column (4 µm particle size, 80 Å pore size, 150 mm x 2 mm, Phenomenex) using a Shimadzu high performance liquid chromatography machine and simultaneously analyzed by a triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (3200 QTRAP, ABSCIEX). The total run time was 20 min at a binary flow rate of 0.5 ml min⁻¹, with 10 mM tributylamine in water (pH 5.0) as Solvent A and 100% methanol as Solvent B. The following gradient was performed: 0.01 min, 0% B, 4 min, 0% B, 11 min, 50% B, 13 min, 100% B, 15 min, 100% B, 16 min, 0% B, 20 min, 0% B. C-di-GMP and pGpG were detected by multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) under negative mode using the ion pairs 689/79 and 689/344 (c-di-GMP) and 707/79 and 707/150 (pGpG). C-di-GMP and pGpG were quantified using the Analyst® software (version 1.6.2) by calculating the total peak area and normalized by total ion current (TIC). Authentic c-di-GMP and pGpG standards were injected and analyzed alongside samples.

569	Figure legends
570	Figure 1. A subset of genes with RNase domains reduce aggregation by
571	PA14 Δ orn. Photograph of overnight cultures of PA14 Δ orn with empty vector
572	(EV), complementation vectors expressing the indicated genes. Genes are
573	grouped by RNase domain. Strains were growing with shaking and induction
574	overnight, allowed to sediment for 30 minutes by gravity, and photographed.
575	Daggers indicate strains grown and induced at 30°C while the remaining were
576	grown and induced at 37°C. Red boxs indicate genes that prevented
577	autoaggregation.
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579	Figure 2. nrnA, nrnB, and nrnC can reduce biofilm formation and
580	aggregation by PA14 ∆ <i>orn</i> .
581	(A) Quantification of the crystal violet assay for pellicle biofilm formation of the
582	PA14 Δorn strain with either empty vector or complementation by indicated
583	genes carried on a pMMB-based a single-copy IPTG inducible plasmid after 24 h
584	of static growth. (B) Photographs of the aggregation assay and (C) quantification
585	of the crystal violet assay for pellicle biofilm formation of PA14 Δorn
586	complemented with the indicated genes carried on a pMMB-based plasmid.
587	Values shown are the average and SD of three independent experiments. *
588	indicates p < 0.05 Students' unpaired two-tailed <i>t</i> -test.
589	
590	Figure 3. A subset of RNases can rescue PA14 ∆orn pGpG hydrolysis

defect. The rate of pGpG cleavage by whole cell lysates of P. aeruginosa PA14

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592 Δ orn complemented with the indicated genes carried on a pMMB-based plasmid. (A) The 3' to 5' exoribonucleases from B. anthracis, (B) the 3' to 5' 593 594 exoribonucleases from *V. cholerae*, and (C) *nrnA_{Bs}*, *nrnB_{Bs}*, *rnjA_{Bs}*, *yhaM_{Bs}* and 595 $nrnC_{Cc}$. * indicates p < 0.05 Students' unpaired two-tailed *t*-test. 596 Figure 4. Hydrolysis of pGpG by purified RNases. The rate of ³²P-pGpG 597 598 hydrolysis by 10 nM purified Orn_{Vc}, NrnA_{Bs}, NrnB_{Bs}, and NrnC_{Cc} incubated with 1 μM pGpG supplemented with ³²P-pGpG tracer over a period of 30 min. Aliquots 599 600 were removed for analysis and the reaction was stopped by addition of EDTA at 601 the indicated time points. Radiolabeled nucleotides were separated by TLC and the fraction of ³²P-pGpG remaining over total radiolabel was quantified. Values 602 603 shown are the average and SD of three independent experiments. * indicates p < 604 0.05 Students' unpaired two-tailed *t*-test. 605 Figure 5. Proteins containing HD-GYP domain do not cleave pGpG in cells 606 607 lacking orn. Lysates from PA14 Δ orn expressing individual genes encoding an 608 HD-GYP domain from *V. cholerae* were tested for pGpG hydrolysis by monitoring conversion of ³²P-pGpG to GMP. Values shown are the average and SD of three 609 610 independent experiments. * indicates p < 0.05 Students' unpaired two-tailed t-611 test. 612

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Figure 6. Cyclic di-GMP fluorescence riboswitch detection of c-di-GMP levels in B. subtilis 168. Representative images of fluorescence of the

constitutively expressed YFP reporter P_{const}-yfp (A) or the c-di-GMP riboswitch reporter construct P_{const}-IchAA UTR-yfp (B) in either B. subtilis 168 wild type (WT) or the double deletion mutant $\triangle nrnA \triangle nrnB$. Histograms of the quantification of average fluorescence intensity of B. subtilis 168 wild type and $\triangle nrnA \triangle nrnB$ with P_{const} -yfp (C) or P_{const} -lchAA UTR-yfp cells (D) (n ~ 300).

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Figure 7. Model for degradation of cyclic dinucleotides. Cartoon of the twostep degradation process of (A) c-di-GMP, (B) c-di-AMP, and (C) cGAMP. Step 1 is cyclic dinucleotides linearization (indicated by the gray boxes). Step 2 is pNpN hydrolysis (indicated by the green boxes). In scenarios in which the linear dinucleotide accumulates, there is feedback inhibition on the enzymes that linearize cyclic dinucleotides. Dashed lines indicate potential inhibition and? mark indicate the presence of additional categories of enzymes that hydrolyze dinucleotides.

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Table 1. Intracellular concentration of pGpG following complementation of

PA14 ∆orn strains

Strain	μM pGpG [*]	μM c-di-GMP [*]
Wild type pMMB	2.2 ± 0.4	0.016 ± 0.008
∆ <i>orn</i> pMMB	17.4 ± 3.7	0.58 ± 0.10
∆orn pMMB-orn _{Pa}	5.2 ± 1.4	0.028 ± 0.013
Δorn pMMB- orn_{Vc}	6.5 ± 1.8	0.017 ± 0.011
Δ <i>orn</i> pMMB- <i>nrnA</i> _{Bs}	3.6 ± 1.4	0.022 ± 0.016

∆orn pMMB-nrnA_{Bs}

∆orn pMMB-nrnB_{Bs}

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∆ <i>orn</i> pMM	B- <i>nrnC_{Cc}</i>	2.4 ± 1.	1 0.020 ± 0.001	
*average a	nd standard devi	ation of 3 experime	ents, calculated ass	_ suming the
volume of a single bacterium equals 4.3×10^{-1} fL (9).				
Table 2. Ir	ntracellular conc	entration of pGp	G and c-di-GMP ir	n <i>B. subtilis</i> and
∆nrn A ∆nı	rnB strains			
			∆nrnA ∆nrnB	Fold Change
		WT 168 (□M)	(□ M)	(∆/WT)
pGpG	daughter ion 1	ND	1.8 ± 0.6	NA
	daughter ion 2	ND	1.8 ± 0.4	NA
c-di-GMP	daughter ion 1	0.8 ± 0.2	2.4 ± 0.5	3.0
	daughter ion 2	0.9 ± 0.1	3.0 ± 0.9	3.3

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 0.024 ± 0.636

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 3.3 ± 1.2

 2.5 ± 1.1

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Figure 1. A subset of genes with RNase domains reduce aggregation by PA14 ∆orn.

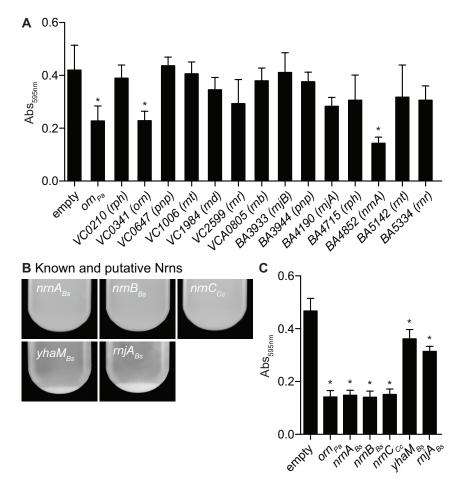


Figure 2. *nrnA*, *nrnB* and *nrnC* can reduce biofilm formation and aggregation by PA14 ∆*orn*.

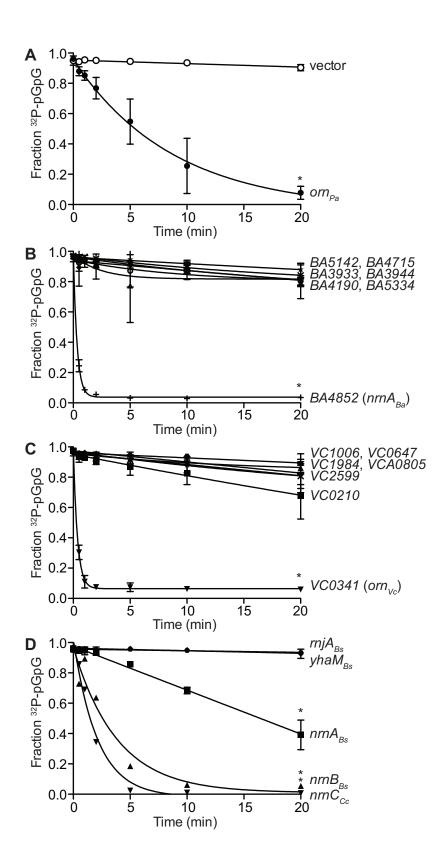


Figure 3. A subset of RNases can rescue PA14 Δorn pGpG hydrolysis defect.

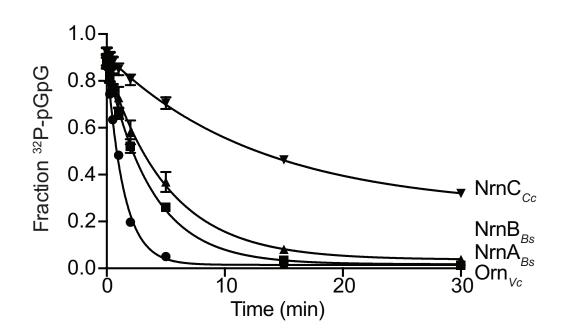


Figure 4. Hydrolysis of pGpG by purified RNases.

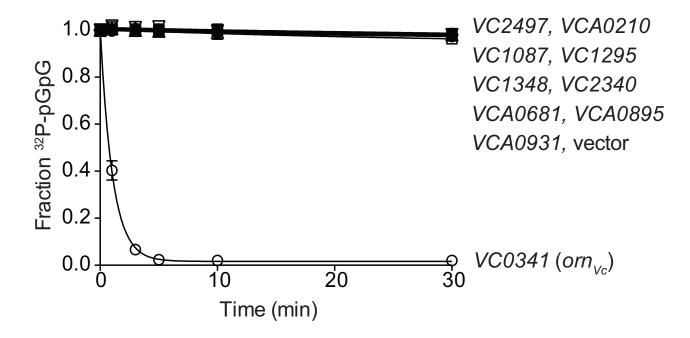


Figure 5. Proteins containing HD-GYP domain do not cleave pGpG in cells lacking *orn*.

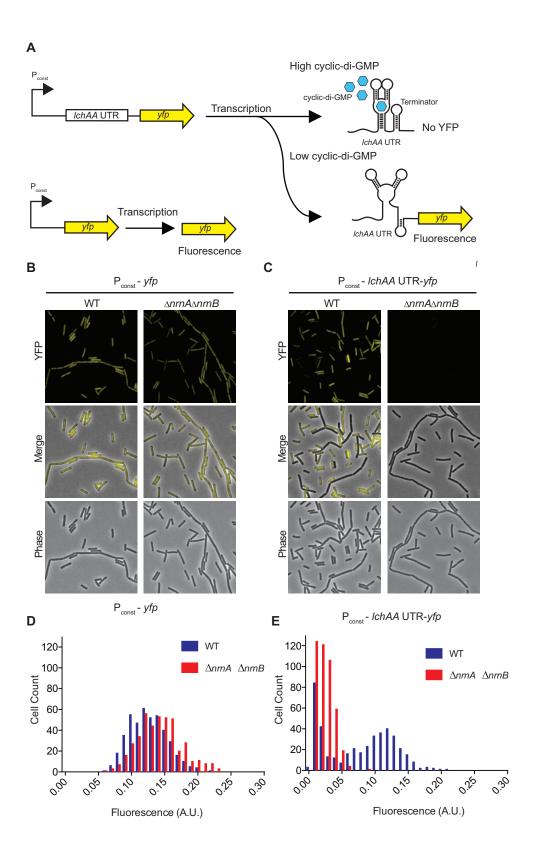


Figure 6. Cyclic di-GMP fluorescence riboswitch detection of c-di-GMP levels in B. subtilis 168.

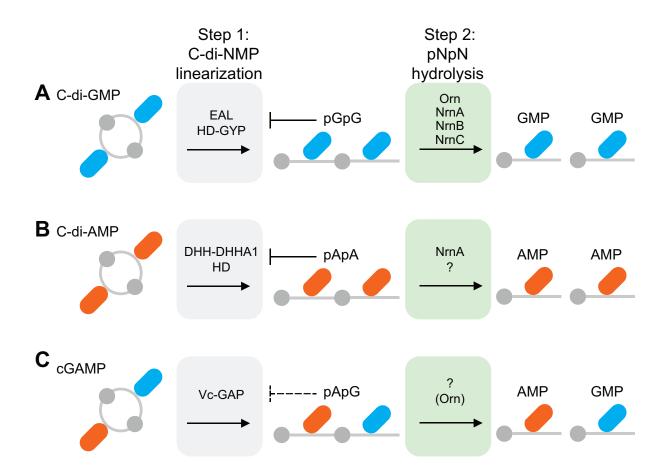


Figure 7. Model for degradation of cyclic dinucleotides.