1   The WalKR two-component regulator coordinates cell wall homeostasis with

2   DNA replication in *Staphylococcus aureus*

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Abstract

Among the 16 two-component systems (TCSs) in the opportunistic human pathogen *Staphylococcus aureus*, only WalKR is essential. Like orthologous systems in other Bacillota, *S. aureus* WalKR controls autolysins involved in peptidoglycan remodelling and is therefore intimately involved in cell division. However, despite the importance of WalKR in *S. aureus*, the basis for its essentiality is not understood and the regulon poorly defined. Here, we use a panel of isogenic *walKR* mutants with a spectrum of activity, combined with functional genomics including ChIP-seq to identify a consensus WalR DNA-binding motif and define the direct WalKR regulon. As previously shown, the direct regulon includes multiple autolysin genes. However, we also show WalR directly regulates at least five essential genes involved in (i) lipoteichoic acid synthesis (*ltaS*), (ii) translation *(rplK)*, (iii) DNA compaction (*hup*), (iv) initiation of DNA replication (*dnaA, hup*) and (v) purine nucleotide metabolism (*prs*). Thus, WalKR in *S. aureus* is a polyfunctional regulator with fundamental control over critical cell systems, linking cell wall homeostasis with purine biosynthesis, protein biosynthesis, and DNA replication. Our findings explain the essentiality of this locus and should reignite interest in WalKR as a *bona fide* target for novel anti-staphylococcal therapeutics.

Introduction

Staphylococcus aureus is an opportunistic pathogen that causes a wide range of hospital and community acquired infections. Antibiotic-resistant strains (in particular methicillin resistant [MRSA] and vancomycin-intermediate [VISA] strains) are persistent problems, with last-line agents, such as vancomycin, linezolid, and daptomycin, commonly failing [1, 2]. MRSA is a World Health Organisation "priority antibiotic-resistant pathogen" for the research and development of new antibiotics. In industrialised countries, *S. aureus* is responsible for an annual bacteraemia rate of 10-30 cases/100,000 individuals per year, as well as high rates of endocarditis, osteomyelitis, and skin and soft tissue infections [3]. Mortality from serious *S. aureus* infection is high (20 - 50% of bacteraemias) [4], and the socioeconomic burden of *S. aureus* disease is significant [5].

S. aureus encodes 16 core genome two-component systems (TCSs) which allow it to sense and respond to a range of stimuli, providing regulatory flexibility in changeable environments. Of these 16 TCSs, only WalKR is essential for cell viability under laboratory conditions [6, 7, 8, 9]. WalKR is a canonical TCS that is conserved amongst low-GC Gram-positive bacteria. It is composed of a multi-domain transmembrane sensor histidine kinase (WalK) and DNA binding response regulator (WalR) of the OmpR family [10, 11]. Upon activation by an extracellular signal WalK auto-phosphorylates a conserved histidine residue (H385) and subsequently transfers the phosphoryl group to a conserved aspartate residue on WalR (D53). Phosphorylated WalR binds to promoter regions of genes within the WalKR regulon, operating as either a transcriptional activator or repressor.

WalKR is a master regulator of cell-wall homeostasis through the control of a suite of

autolysins [8, 12, 13, 14]. Although the locus is highly conserved, several points of difference

between bacterial genera suggest variation in the precise cellular function of the system and

resultant mechanism(s) of the essentiality. WalKR is within an operon of 3-6 genes that also

includes varying numbers of accessory factors. The operon can be classified into three

structures; bacilli and listeria have a six-gene operon (*walR*, *walK*, *yycH*, *yycI*, *yycJ*, *yycK*),

whereas staphylococci, lactobacilli and enterococci lack the final gene *yycK* (a serine protease)

[15], with only three genes present in streptococci; *walR, walK,* and *yycJ* [16]. Two accessory

genes, *yycH* and *yycI* encode membrane associated proteins that differ in their function across

genera; in *S. aureus* these proteins are activators of WalKR activity whereas in *Bacillus subtilis*

they function as repressors [17, 18]. A second key difference between the systems is how WalKR

interacts with the division septum. In *B. subtilis*, WalK controls the expression of FtsZ [19], it is

localised to the division septum in an FtsZ dependent manner and interacts with proteins of

the divisome. Consequently, WalKR essentiality in *B. subtilis* arises from the co-ordination of

cell wall remodelling with cell division, in response to signalling via an extracellular PAS

domain [16, 20, 21, 22]. In *S. aureus*, WalK is also reported to localise to the division septum in

growing cells [23]. However, there is no evidence of interaction with proteins of the divisome

and FtsZ has not been mapped to the staphylococcal WalKR regulon. In *Streptococcus*

pneumoniae, WalKR essentiality can be attributed to the regulation of a single gene encoding

the cell wall amidase PcsB [24]. The situation in *S. aureus* is more complex. Complementing

WalKR depleted *S. aureus* with constitutively overexpressed autolysins *lytM* or *ssaA* can

restore viability but the resultant cells have morphological defects and neither of these genes

are themselves essential [7]. The *B. subtilis* extracellular PAS domain of WalK senses

peptidoglycan cleavage products generated by autolysins that fall within the WalKR regulon,

leading to homeostatic control of cell wall remodelling [25]. The signal sensed by the

extracellular PAS domain in *S. aureus* is not known. However, the activity of WalK in

staphylococci (and predicted in enterococci) but not in other bacillota is modulated through

co-ordination of a divalent metal ion by an intracellular PAS domain [26], raising the possibility

of differing roles in regulation beyond peptidoglycan biosynthesis in these genera.

The WalKR regulon in *S. aureus* has been determined by comparative transcriptomics

by depleting WalKR [8, 13] or by the expression a constitutively active WalR phosphomemetic

amino acid substitution (D53E) [27, 28]. These studies, coupled with motif searching using a WalR

DNA binding motif defined in *B. subtilis* [12] have built a partial map of the WalKR regulon that

includes genes involved in cell wall homeostasis [8, 13] and virulence [27]. Here, we applied a

customised implementation of chromatin immunoprecipitation sequencing (ChIP-seq), to

define a 17bp *S. aureus* WalR consensus-binding motif. Using this motif to scan

the *S. aureus* chromosome *in silico*, we found 118 putative intergenic WalR binding regions.

We then confirmed that WalR directly controls expression of multiple peptidoglycan

hydrolases. However, we also show that WalR directly negatively regulates *ltaS*, encoding an

essential protein necessary for the biosynthesis of mature lipoteichoic acid (LTA), and *hup*,

encoding the DNA binding protein HU, which is a nucleoid-associated protein involved in DNA

supercoiling and is also essential. Furthermore, we found that WalR positively regulates the

expression of *rplK*, encoding the essential ribosomal protein L11, *prs*, purine nucleotide

salvage/*de novo* synthesis and *dnaA*, which initiates DNA replication. These data connect the

regulation of cell division with chromosomal replication in *S. aureus* for the first time and

identify pathways outside the regulation of autolysins that explain the essentiality of WalKR.

Results

Defining an *in vivo* WalR regulon using ChIP-seq

The direct regulon of WalR was investigated using chromatin-immunoprecipitation coupled with Illumina sequencing (ChIP-seq). To permit immunoprecipitation, a 1xFLAG-tag was incorporated onto the C-terminus of WalR using a modified anhydrotetracycline (aTc) inducible pRAB11 expression plasmid [29]. To validate functionally, the transcriptome of *S. aureus* NRS384 with chromosomally C-terminally FLAG tagged WalR [26] was compared to Wt NRS384. This strain had a gene expression profile that matched NRS384 Wt during mid-log phase, as determined by RNA-seq (no significant changes in gene expression (0.585 Log$_2$FC, 0.05 false discovery rate (FDR)). Subsequently, FLAG-tagged expression constructs were also made in pRAB11 for three other response regulators with known DNA-binding motifs (HptR, and SaeR, and VraR) [Figure 1A] [30, 31, 32]. The four plasmids and an empty vector control were each transformed into the CA-MRSA USA300 strain NRS384 with the *spa* gene (encoding Protein A) deleted to reduce non-specific IgG-binding. Dose dependant aTc induction was observed (induced at OD600nm = 0.6 for 1h) for *walR* [Figure 1B]. We looked at the impact of increasing aTc concentration on tag-counts (mapped sequence reads for ChIP purified DNA) and selected an aTc concentration of 100 ng/ml for subsequent ChIP-seq experiments [Figure 1C]. We then conducted ChIP-seq with each of the four constructs and the empty vector. Initial analysis of the resulting sequence reads revealed a high background of reads mapping across the entire *S. aureus* chromosome. To improve the signal-to-noise ratio for each of the four ChIP-seq experiments, we performed *in silico* subtraction of the read sets for the three non-target response-regulators and the empty vector from the read set for the target response-regulator [Figure S1, Table S1]. This approach led to some of the expected peaks for HptR and SaeR, upstream of *hpt* and *hla*, respectively [Figure 1D, Figure S1] and revealed WalR

binding sites upstream of six genes that included autolysins SAUSA300_2249 (*ssaA*),

SAUSA300_2506 (*isaA*), SAUSA300_0438 (*sle1)*, cell wall cross linked SAUSA300_0136 (*sasD)*,

hypothetical secreted SAUSA300_0602*,* and SAUSA300_0703 (*ltaS*) which encodes

lipoteichoic acid (LTA) synthase responsible for polymerising glycerol-6-phosphate into LTA

chains [33] [Figure 1D] [Table S1].

Figure 1. ChIP-seq analysis of S. aureus WalR chromosome binding sites. *A) Four response regulators with C-*

terminal FLAG-tags for immunoprecipitation after induction with anhydrotetracycline (aTc) in S. aureus strain

NRS384Δspa. B) Dose dependent production of WalR-FLAG (inset Western blot) with increasing concentrations

of aTc. C) Plot showing increasing numbers of WalR ChIP-seq mapped reads (Tag count) as the aTc concentration

increases. D) Summary of key ChIP-seq binding sites across the S. aureus chromosome, showing binding motif

and direction, including four WalR sites, one SaeR, VraR and HptR site.

All of these genes were previously identified members of the WalKR regulon [8, 27]. For

VraR, we observed a ChIP-seq binding site upstream of *ltaS*, that was adjacent to the putative

WalR-binding site [Figure 1]. A total of 22 WalR ChIP-seq peaks upstream of 21 genes were

identified, with 12 set aside due to small peak size (7-20 nt) and poor peak prediction scores.

Two peaks were identified in 16S rRNA genes, but the use of ribosomal RNA depletion

precluded interpretation of RNA-seq data (see below) for these loci. The peak upstream of

SAUSA300_0681 was not pursued, as no candidate WalR binding sites were identified. The

identification of previously known DNA-binding sites for SaeR and HptR indicated that our

ChIP-seq approach was identifying authentic DNA-binding regions [Figure 1]. However, we

reasoned that the high stringency of our *in silico* subtraction was likely eliminating peaks

corresponding to lower affinity DNA binding regions and therefore would not reveal the

entirety of the direct WalR regulon. Consequently, we used ChIP-seq defined WalR binding

regions in conjunction with previously validated WalR binding sites [13, 27] to generate a 17bp

consensus *S. aureus* WalR-binding motif (5'-TGTHH[N]$_6$WGTNDD-3') [Figure S2AB] and

conducted an *in-silico* search of the genome for potential WalR binding sites. In total, 118

putative intergenic WalR binding sites were identified along the NRS384 chromosome [Figure

S2B], 109 of which were within 500 bp of a predicted CDS transcriptional start site [Table S2].

Specific mutations in the *walKR* locus increase and decrease WalKR activity.

The essential nature of WalKR means that the locus cannot be deleted for functional analyses.

To further explore the WalR regulon, we assembled a panel of mutants with altered WalK or

WalR activity. We used two previously described 'down' mutants with decreased WalKR

activity; *S. aureus* NRS384 Δ*yycHI*, with the deletion of both WalKR auxiliary proteins (*yycH*

and *yycI*) [17], and NRS384 WalR$_{T101A}$, in which second site PknB phosphorylation at residue T101

was abolished [34]. Additionally, we selected two 'up' mutants that have increased WalKR

activity; NRS384 WalK$_{Y32C}$ with a mutation in the first trans-membrane domain, and NRS384

WalK$_{T389A}$ that is predicted to prevent the dephosphorylation of WalR [35]. We then confirmed

that each mutant exhibited the expected WalKR 'up' and 'down' phenotypes. 'Up' mutations

result in an increased susceptibility to vancomycin and lysostaphin, increased haemolysis,

reduced growth rate, and increased autolysis [13, 27, 36]. Both the WalK$_{Y32C}$ and WalK$_{T389A}$

exhibited 'up' mutant phenotypes, with WalK$_{T389A}$ showing the most prominent differences,

suggesting the highest level of activation [Figure 2A-C].

In contrast, 'down' mutants are more vancomycin and lysostaphin resistant, less

haemolytic, and less autolytic [13, 27, 36], phenotypes we confirmed for our two 'down' mutants

[Figure 2A-C]. Mutants were also tested for heat sensitivity and susceptibility to a panel of

antibacterial agents. In *B. subtilis* mutational activation of WalKR leads to a growth defect at

elevated temperatures [22]. However, in *S. aureus* we observed the opposite effect; the growth

of 'down' mutants was dramatically impacted at 45°C, whereas 'up' mutants were unaffected

[Figure S3A]. Mutational activation of WalKR caused a striking increase in susceptibility to

oxacillin and tunicamycin, eliciting >16-fold changes in susceptibility to these cell wall

targeting agents. Conversely, mutational dampening of WalKR activity caused a small but

reproducible (2-fold) decrease in erythromycin susceptibility, but we did not observe

erythromycin or lincomycin hypersensitivity upon WalKR modulation as has previously been

reported [6, 37]. Susceptibility to compounds targeting other cellular pathways was unchanged

[Figure 2D].

Figure 2. Phenotypic characterisation of WalKR mutant strains. A) Vancomycin gradient assay (VGA), sheep

blood agar (SBA) Micrococcus luteus agar (MLA) for the comparison of vancomycin susceptibility, haemolysis and

Atl mediated autolytic activity, respectively. B) Growth curves, C) Susceptibility to lysostaphin after a 90 min

exposure (LOD – Limit of detection) and D) Minimal inhibitory concentration of antibiotics against the different

WalKR mutant strains. E) Kinetic split luciferase interaction of native WalR-SmBIT / WalK-LgBIT and WalKR

mutant proteins throughout growth in NRS384. OD600nm: black filled circle (WalR/WalK Wt) and filled black

triangle (WalR/WalK mutant). RLU: grey filled circle (WalR/WalK Wt) and either red ('down' mutation) or green

('up' mutation) filled triangle. Results are the mean from three independent determinations and the error bars

show the standard deviation. F)) Immunofluorescence microscopy showing the impact of WalKR activity on

distribution of Protein A and cell morphology in S. aureus. Scale bar is 1 micron.

TCS phosphoryl transfer from the sensor histidine kinase to the cognate DNA-binding

response regulator requires direct interaction [38]. To assess this transfer and the impact of the

'up' and 'down' mutations on interaction dynamics between WalK and WalR across growth,

we implemented the Promega NanoLuc® split luciferase system, as recently described for

S. aureus, with modifications [39]. Proteins were C-terminally tagged (separated by a glycine

serine linker) with either the small bit (SmBIT- 11 amino acids) or large bit (LgBIT – 17.6 kDa)

to reconstitute a functional luciferase that emits light in the presence of the furimazine

substrate. Our modifications (*S. aureus* codon-optimised luciferase subunits, with expression

from two separate plasmids, leaky expression from the Pxyl/tetO* promoter and addition of

the substrate to the growth media) allowed the kinetics of protein-protein interaction to be

non-invasively measured throughout *S. aureus* growth. Chromosomal C-terminal tagging of

WalR-SmBIT and WalK-LgBIT at the native locus showed that the proteins tolerated the

presence of either tag, with no growth defect [Figure S3B].

We then constructed WalR-SmBIT and WalK-LgBIT fusions in the plasmid system with

native and mutant proteins, following cell density (OD600nm) and light emission (RLU)

throughout growth. We observed immediate interaction of WalK with WalR upon dilution in

fresh media, with the peak interaction in the mid-exponential phase of growth, and

subsequent rapid decline of the interaction to undetectable levels (5h) in stationary phase.

This pattern was exaggerated in the 'up' mutants with higher light emission throughout

growth (including lag phase) for both WalK$_{Y32C,}$ WalK$_{T389A}$ or the previously described WalR$_{D53E}$

mutant [27, 28] compared to the native WalK/WalR interaction [Figure 2E]. 'Down' mutants

including WalR$_{D53A}$ (cannot be phosphorylated by WalK), WalR$_{T101A,}$ WalK$_{D53A/T101A}$ and

WalK$_{G223D}$ (reduced autophosphorylation and transfer to WalR [40]) exhibited a consistent

profile of reduced initial WalK/WalR interaction during lag phase compared to native

WalK/WalR. Loss of either D53 or T101 phosphorylation led to a right-shifted peak of

interaction, correlating with the reduced growth rate of the 'down' strains [Figure 2E]. D53

was dominant over the T101 phosphorylation site, which is consistent with the essentiality of

the D53 compared to the T101 residue. Loss of D53 phosphorylation also reduced the total

level of WalK/WalR interaction. The kinetic profile of the WalR$_{T101A}$ mutant mimicked the

interaction profile of the WalK$_{G223D}$ mutant with a 1.5-fold increase in the maximal level of

interaction (compared to native WalK/WalR). This increase correlated with the same mid-log

phase time point as seen in the native interaction [Figure 2E]. 'Down' mutants also yielded

detectable interactions into stationary phase. These interaction profiles combined with

phenotypic profiling validate our panel of 'up' and 'down' mutants.

We then used high-resolution immunofluorescence microscopy to assess the impact

of *walKR* mutations on *S. aureus* cell morphology and localisation of the well-characterised

cell wall cross-linked Protein A [Figure 2F]. Both mutants imaged (Δ*yycHI* 'down' and WalK$_{T389A}$

'up') deviated from wild-type morphology and exhibited altered Protein A distribution. In the

wild-type, Protein A was found away from the septal planes with defined foci, in agreement

with the model of distribution observed for signal sequence containing YSIRK/GS motif

surface proteins [41] [Figure 2F]. Whereas cells of the Δ*yycHI* down mutant displayed a more

uniform, peri-cellular distribution of Protein A with increased fluorescence per cell [Figure 2F,

S3C]. By contrast, the cell wall integrity of WalK$_{T389A}$ was visibly compromised compared to

both the wild-type and the Δ*yycHI* 'down' mutant, resulting in low cell circularity [Figure 2F,

S3]. WalK activation caused significantly reduced Protein A fluorescence per cell and a change

in distribution towards small, discrete foci, suggesting an association with membrane blebs.

This contention was reinforced by flow cytometry that showed a large subpopulation of

WalK$_{T389A}$ cells reacting with an anti-cell envelope antibody (SA-AF549 [Mu *et al.* 2023 in

review]) but lacking DAPI stained DNA [Figure S4].

WalKR activation causes a global change in gene expression

To assess the impact of WalKR activation on *S. aureus* gene expression we performed

RNA-seq from RNA extracted during exponential phase, comparing WalK$_{T389A}$, the most

activate 'up' mutant, to the NRS384 wild type. Activation of WalKR caused a global change in

gene expression, with ~55% of genes (1117) undergoing a significant change in expression

(FDR $\leq$0.05, log$_2$FC $\geq$0.585), of which approximately half (551) were up-regulated and half

(564) were down-regulated [Figure 3C]. Activation of WalKR predominantly increased

expression ($\geq$1.5 log$_2$FC, FDR $\leq$0.05) of genes encoding autolysins, virulence factors,

membrane transporters, and proteins of the amino acid, purine, and fatty acid biosynthesis

pathways [Figure 3A, Table S3]. Genes involved in oxidative stress response, metal ion

homeostasis, and protein fate were primarily decreased in expression (log$_2$FC $\leq$-1.5, FDR

$\leq$0.05) [Figure 3A, Table S3]. Whereas the expression of genes encoding ribosomal proteins,

transcription factors, and proteins involved in carbohydrate metabolism, DNA maintenance,

and cell wall organisation were both up- and down-regulated (FDR $\leq$0.05, log$_2$FC $\geq$1.5 or $\leq$-

1.5)[Figure 3A, Table S3]. Genes predicted to be directly controlled by WalKR, or those

identified via ChIP-seq, were not necessarily those that exhibited the largest changes in

expression [Figure 3BC].

Explanations for two of our observed WalKR phenotypes can be found in the WalK$_{T389A}$

RNA-seq data. Firstly, increased haemoylsis [Figure 2A] in WalK$_{T389A}$ mutants is explained by

an increase in *hla* expression (+1.7 log$_2$FC), encoding alpha-toxin, upon WalK activation.

Secondly, enhanced zones of clearing surrounding WalK$_{T389A}$ on heat killed *Micrococcus luteus*

agar plates [Figure 2A] arise due to increased peptidoglycan degradation by the dual activity

autolysin Atl [42] (+2.85 $\log_2$ FC).

Figure 3. The direct and indirect WalKR regulon. *A) The number of genes in each category that are positively or*

negatively regulated upon WalK activation (FDR $\leq$0.05, $\log_2$FC $\geq$1.5 or $\leq$-1.5). For clarity, categories where n $\leq$ 2

are not shown B) Gene expression changes of the predicted direct WalKR regulon upon WalK activation (WT vs

WalK$_{T389A}$). Genes with WalR binding sites confirmed by ChIP-seq are highlighted. C) Global change in

transcriptome upon mutational activation of WalK (WT vs WalK$_{T389A}$). Members of gene sets undergoing a $\log_2$FC

$\geq$1.5 or $\leq$-1.5 are highlighted. Y-axis labels in panel A serve as the legend for panels B and C.

Positioning of WalR binding site, not sequence or orientation, dictates of mode of regulation.

To investigate whether the sequence of WalR motifs could determine the mode (positive or negative regulation), or degree, of change in gene expression, WalR motif diversity was visualised as a maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree and the tips labelled with gene expression changes upon WalK activation [Figure S5]. Functional groups of regulated genes were also mapped to examine whether specific motif signatures were linked to gene sets [Figure S5]. We did not observe clustering of positively or negatively regulated genes, nor did branches of the tree correspond to specific gene functions [Figure S2C]. Therefore, the sequence of WalR motifs does not dictate the mode of regulation, nor is it linked to the functional class of the gene it controls.

Previous work in *B. subtilis* examined the relationship between the position of WalR binding sites and the promoter regions of a small number of WalR regulated genes, finding that positively regulated genes were predominantly bound upstream of the promoter -35 element, whereas negatively regulated genes were bound between -35 and -10 regions [14]. Using a similar approach, the positions of WalR binding sites of the direct regulon were mapped in relation to predicted transcriptional start sites and promoters [43] [Table S4]. The orientation of WalR binding site in relation to the downstream gene was not significantly associated with the magnitude (Student's t test, $p = 0.288$) or mode (Chi-squared Test, $p = 0.878$) of expression change. However, the position of the WalR binding site did dictate the mode of regulation (Chi-Squared Test, $p = 0.000551$); WalR binding upstream of the -35 element was associated with positive regulation, while WalR binding between, or downstream of, -35 and -10 elements was associated with negative regulation [Table S3].

Thus, whether WalR activates or represses the expression of a gene is determined primarily

by its position relative to the promoter rather than motif sequence.

Functional validation of WalR directly regulated genes

WalR binding to promoters of the six loci identified by ChIP-seq was assessed *in vitro* using

electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSAs) with recombinant WalR [Figure 4A, Figure S6].

Fluorescently labelled DNA duplex probes corresponding to promoter regions encompassing

WalR binding sites were incubated with increasing concentrations of WalR. All six DNA regions

underwent mobility shifts upon addition of increasing concentrations of WalR, demonstrating

binding affinity greater than for a non-specific DNA control lacking the WalR binding motif

[Figure 4A]. Binding specificity was confirmed by competition experiments; addition of an

excess of unlabelled specific duplex abrogated binding, whereas unlabelled non-specific

duplex did not [Figure S7]. As the phosphorylation status of recombinant WalR is unknown,

the impact of phosphorylation on WalR binding affinity was investigated using

phosphomimetic mutations. WalR modified at the WalK phosphorylation site (WalR$_{D53E}$)

caused a modest increase in affinity for the two probes tested (p*sle1*, p*sasD*) [Figure S7].

However, introduction of a second potential phosphomimetic mutation at a site modified by

the serine-threonine kinase PknB [44] (WalR$_{D53E,T101E}$) did not increase binding affinity further,

instead reducing affinity to the level of wild type WalR [Figure S7]. This result was

corroborated by construction of a chromosomal WalR$_{T101E}$ mutation, which did not yield an

'up' mutant but instead decreased WalR activity leading to reduced vancomycin susceptibility

(MIC of 4 vs 1 µg/ml in the Wt).

As a result of ChIP-seq, we also identified VraR binding to the *ltaS* promoter, with the

peak overlapping with the consensus VraR binding motif (5'-TGA[N$_{1-3}$]TCA-3') [30, 45] [Figure

S8A]. We then investigated the specificity of WalR and VraR binding within the promoter

region of *ltaS*. WalR had no affinity for the duplex encompassing the *ltaS* VraR binding site

[Figure S7B]. VraR did exhibit affinity for the WalR binding site, however, this binding was

shown to be non-specific by competition assay [Figure S7C]. Therefore, WalR and VraR bound

to the *ltaS* promoter at discrete sites dictated by their respective recognition motifs.

Following the *in vitro* confirmation of WalR binding to sites identified by ChIP-seq, we

sought to assess the impact of WalR binding on *S. aureus* promoter activity [Figure 4B].

Promoter regions encompassing the WalR binding motif were transcriptionally fused with

yellow fluorescent protein (YFP) in the promoter-less pIMC8-YFP vector. To assess the impact

of WalR activity on gene expression, each construct and a paired WalR binding motif mutant

(first TGT in WalR motif mutated to CCC) were transformed into NRS384. Additionally, the

native promoter construct was transformed into NRS384 Δ*yycHI* ('down' mutant) and

WalK$_{Y32C}$ ('up' mutant). The WalK$_{Y32C}$ strain was chosen rather than WalK$_{T389A}$, as suppressor

mutants arose in this background through genetic instability, which was not observed in

WalK$_{Y32C}$. As a positive control, we included the promoter for the *hpt gene* encoding the

glucose-6-phosphate transporter which is responsive to the presence of glucose-6-phosphate

[32] [Figure 4B]. Strains were grown to stationary phase with fluorescence and CFU determined.

From the RNA-seq data, half the genes were upregulated by WalKR activation (*sle1*, *ssaA* and

isaA), and half downregulated (*sasD*, *ltaS,* and SAUSA300_0602) [Figure 4B]. Of the down

regulated genes, all exhibited increased fluorescence upon abrogation of the WalR binding

motif, showed increased fluorescence in the Δ*yycHI* mutant, and decreased fluorescence in

the WalK$_{Y32C}$ background, indicative of their negative regulation by WalR [Figure 4B]. For

upregulated genes, abrogation of the WalR motif reduced fluorescence, with increased

fluorescence in WalK$_{Y32C}$ and decreased fluorescence in the Δ*yycHI*, indicative of positive WalR

regulation [Figure 4B]. As the *isaA* and *ssaA* promoter regions contain two WalR binding

motifs, both were individually mutated. For *isaA*, the WalR binding site closest to the TSS

(CCCI, 37 bp to TSS) caused the greatest decrease in promoter activity [36], whereas for *ssaA*,

only the more distal binding site (CCCII, 167 bp from the TSS) reduced expression, which

corresponded to the ChIP-seq peak for *ssaA* [Figure 1D].

Figure 4. In vitro and in cellulo confirmation of WalR regulation. *A) Dose dependent band shifts caused through*

specific WalR binding to the ChIP-seq identified promoter regions. An intragenic region of the walR gene was

used as a non-specific control (iwalR). A total of 5 doubling dilutions (plus a no protein control) of WalR (starting

at 20 μM for all except PssaA where 40 μM) was used. B) Cumulative YFP fluorescence of S. aureus reporter strains

 from stationary phase cultures. The glucose-6-phosphate (G6P) inducible hpt gene was used as a positive assay

control through addition of 25µM of G6P. Promoter activity was assessed in wild type NRS384, with or without

an abrogating (ccc) mutation in the WalR binding site. The native promoter construct was also analysed in

WalK$_{Y32C}$ (up mutant) or ΔyycHI (down mutant). Results are means from three independent experiments with the

error bars showing the standard deviation of the mean. The significance of the CCC mutation was determined

using an unpaired Student's t test; ns: not significant, <0.0001: **** versus the Wt promoter in NRS384.

Control of essential genes by WalKR

To investigate WalKR essentiality in *S. aureus* and triage genes for further analysis based on

their likely contribution to the essentiality phenotype, we analysed intersecting data sets

where genes fulfilled the following criteria: (i) contain a predicted upstream WalR-binding site

(ii) belong to the core *S. aureus* genome, (iii) are essential for growth in rich media, and (iv)

their expression is significantly changed upon WalK activation as defined by RNA-seq [Figure

5A]. We found that within the predicted direct WalR regulon, seven essential genes undergo

a significant change in gene expression upon activation by WalKR (FDR ≤0.05, log$_2$FC ≥0.585)

[Figure 5AB]. These genes were *dnaA, hup, ltaS, prs, and rplK, tagG,* and *tarF*; encoding

chromosomal replication initiator protein DnaA, the sole DNA-binding protein HU,

lipoteichoic acid synthase, ribose-phosphate pyrophosphokinase (purine salvage/de novo

synthesis), ribosomal protein L11 (50S subunit component), teichoic acid biosynthetic

proteins TagG and TarF, respectively [Figure 5B]. Additionally, three essential genes had a

predicted upstream WalR binding site but did not undergo a significant change in expression:

dnaD, rnz, and *sufB*, encoding putative replication restart protein DnaD, ribonuclease Z, and

FeS assembly protein SufB. Of these essential genes, a ChIP-seq peak was identified upstream

of *ltaS* and *dnaD* [Figure 5A]*.*

Figure 5. Analysis of putative WalR controlled essential genes. A) Intersections between essentiality analysis and -omics data displayed as an UpSet plot. Members of gene sets where n<10 are shown. RNA-seq sig is RNA-seq significance (FDR <0.05, log2FC ≥0.585). B) Gene expression changes of the predicted direct WalKR regulon upon WalK activation (WT vs WalK$_{T389A}$). Essential genes with predicted WalR binding sites are highlighted.

S. aureus WalKR directly controls *five* essential genes

To further characterise the seven essential genes within the predicted direct WalR regulon (*dnaA, hup, ltaS, prs, rplK, tarF, and tarG*) [Figure 6AB, Table S2], we next built a time-resolved

picture of their expression. The *dnaD* locus was also included in the analysis due to functional

links between DnaD and DnaA previously described in *B. subtilis* [46, 47]. The promoter regions

for these genes, with or without an abrogating mutation (TGT to CCC) in the WalR-binding

site, were introduced into a luciferase reporter plasmid and transformed into *S. aureus*

NRS384. The resulting *S. aureus* strains were monitored for growth and light emission every

10 min over an 8 h period. For comparison, promoters from the previously characterised WalR

regulated genes and the *walR* gene itself were included [Figure 6A]. Expression from the *walR*

promoter rapidly peaked in mid-exponential phase and then tapered off, as has been

observed previously [48] [Figure 6A]. The previously ascribed WalR regulation of the six ChIP-

seq hits were corroborated by the luciferase reporter assays; mutation of the WalR binding

site yielded a significant reduction in the level of expression throughout growth for the

positively regulated genes (*sle1, ssaA* and *isaA*). While an increased level of expression was

observed in the negatively regulated genes upon mutation of the WalR binding site mutation

(*sasD*, SAUSA300_0602 and *ltaS*). Loss of the WalR negative regulation was shown to relieve

repression of *sasD,* while the impact on SAUSA300_0602 was most pronounced into

stationary phase of growth. Only a subtle difference in expression was observed for *ltaS*;

mutational abrogation of WalR binding prevented "turning off" of gene expression, resulting

in prolonged expression into stationary phase [Figure 6A]. We then examined the impact on

the additional essential genes identified from the analysis of the direct regulon. No regulation

was detected for *tagG, tarF* or *dnaD.* However, the very low level of *dnaD* and *tarF* promoter

activity under the conditions tested precluded a definitive determination. Whereas a strong

positive regulation was observed for *rplK. prs* was also shown to be positively regulated*. hup*

was shown to be weakly negatively regulated by WalR, which caused a reduction in the

expression upon the transition into stationary phase, similar to *ltaS*. For hup there was a bi-

phasic change at 190 min present in the Wt which was lost when the binding site was

mutated.

Figure 6: Temporal control of essential genes by WalR. A) Luciferase reporters (pIMK1-LUX) showing the changes in promoter activity of the Wt (open grey circle: relative light units (RLU); filled black circles: OD600nm) or the ccc (open red diamond: relative light units (RLU); filled black diamond: OD600nm) mutated WalR binding site in LB media over time. Results are the combined means from three independent experiments and the error bars showing the standard deviation. The expression profile for walR is shown in green open circles and growth in filled black circles. B) Schematic of the dnaA promoter region with four identified WalR motifs denoted (to scale except dnaA is truncated). The Wt and the three dnaA motif mutants (ccc I to ccc III, with site X not examined) were analysed as described above. The 56bp deletion previously identified to reduce DnaA mediated DNA replication [49] is highlighted, as are the -35/-10 boxes for the dnaA promoter [43].

Closer inspection of the large (730 bp) upstream intergenic region between the

divergent *dnaA* and *rpmH* genes revealed an enrichment of potential WalR binding motifs

upstream of *dnaA* [Figure 6B]. The three sites proximal to the dnaA gene were chosen for

further analysis (site X excluded, Figure 6B). From reporter analysis, sites ccc II and ccc III

impacted the expression of *dnaA* while no change in expression was observed for the

mutation of ccc I [Figure 6B]. We observed both a negative regulation for ccc II and a complete

abrogation of expression for ccc III, suggesting a complex fine tuning of *dnaA* expression

afforded by WalR. Recently, a suppressor mutant with a deletion in the *dnaA* promoter that

reduced the level of DnaA activity (initiation of DNA replication) was identified in a *S. aureus*

Δnoc strain [49]. This deletion removed a 56 bp region surrounding the WalR binding site

denoted by ccc II [Figure 6B]. Here, in agreement with this previous observation, we identified

the reduced expression from the *dnaA* promoter upon abrogation of the ccc II WalR binding

site.

Modulation of WalKR activity alters LTA structure and susceptibility to Congo red

The physiological impact of negative *ltaS* regulation by WalR was assessed by extraction of

the LtaS product, lipoteichoic acid (LTA), from strains of differing WalKR activity grown to

stationary phase. LTA is an anionic polymer composed of a repeating chain of glycerol

phosphate units anchored to the cell membrane via a diacylglycerol group and decorated with

side chain modifications of D-alanine and/or glycosyl moieties [50]. Analysis of LTA extracted

from cells by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) yields a distinctive laddered banding

pattern, with each subsequent band representing a polymer chain length of n + 1 [51]. The

degree of side chain modification can also be observed, where high levels of heterogenous

modification cause a smearing pattern and loss of single band resolution [51]. LTA derived from

cells with differing levels of WalKR activity (NRS384, NRS384 $\Delta yycHI$, NRS384 WalK$_{T389A}$)

revealed alterations to LTA structure upon activation of WalKR. Activation of WalKR resulted

in changes to LTA chain length, with a reduction in mid-length LTA [Figure 7A, orange line]

and increase in high molecular weight LTA [Figure 7A, black line]. Additionally, LTA from

NRS384 with wild-type or decreased WalKR activity gave a characteristic smeared banding

pattern, indicating a high-degree of side-chain modification, whereas activation of WalKR

resulted in LTA with clear, single band resolution, showing a reduction in side-chain

modification. Analysis of the LTA content in the supernatant showed that activation of WalK

(NRS384 WalK$_{T389A}$) caused a large increase in LTA shedding, consistent with prior

observations of the strains compromised cell wall and membrane blebbing [Figures 2E, S4].

Subsequently, we investigated the impact of modulating WalKR activity on the

susceptibility to Congo red, an azo dye reported to inhibit LtaS [52]. Typically, titration of a drug

target will alter susceptibility to that drug, with an inverse relationship between target

expression level (amount of target) and the resultant level of susceptibility [53]. Based on this

principle, we predicted that WalKR up mutants, in which *ltaS* expression is reduced would be

more susceptible to Congo red. However, we observed the opposite effect, with activation of

WalKR decreasing susceptibility to the dye, while a reduction in WalKR activity increased dye

susceptibility [Figure 7B].

Figure 7. *PAGE analysis of purified LTA from NRS384 isogenic mutants. Each band indicates a glycerol phosphate polymer length of n+1. Black and orange lines indicate regions of difference between mutants. B) Activity of Congo red against isogenic NRS384 mutants. Spots result from serial dilution of cultures grown overnight to saturation and plated onto TSA with varying amounts of Congo red.*

WalR controls DNA compaction through regulation of DNA binding protein HU

The second essential gene that was *lux* reporter validated as negatively regulated by WalR was *hup,* encoding the sole DNA-binding protein HU in *S. aureus*. Belonging to a family of low molecular weight nucleoid-associated proteins (NAPs), the function of *S. aureus* HU is

largely uncharacterised, although its structure has been determined [54]. However, HU NAP

orthologs from other bacteria have previously been shown to control DNA compaction,

introducing negative supercoils into relaxed DNA [55, 56] and, recently, the *B. subtilis* HU

ortholog (HBsu) was shown to play an essential role in the initiation of DNA replication [57]. To

investigate potential changes in DNA topology mediated by *S. aureus* HU and WalR regulation

of HU, we performed CRISPRi knockdown of *walR, hup,* and, as a negative control, *hla*. The

CRISPRi knockdown titrated the expression of each targeted gene [Figure 8A], resulting in 57x,

20x, and 78x fold downregulation of *hup*, *walR*, and *hla* respectively with the highest

concentration of inducer tested. A degree of knockdown in the absence of inducer indicated

"leaky" expression of the CRISPRi guide or due to the location of the guide for *hup*.

Due to the small size of the *hup* gene, only two guide RNAs could be designed, with

one targeting the middle of the 270 bp gene (non-functional) and the second functional guide

overlapping the start codon/promoter region. Knockdown of HU resulted in a relaxation of

plasmid supercoiling, evidenced as an increase in DNA band intensity during chloroquine gel

electrophoresis, resulting from more slowly migrating topoisomers in comparison to the

empty vector control [Figure 8A pSD1 vs pSD1*hup*, white up arrow]. In contrast, knockdown

of *walR* had the opposite effect, increasing the intensity of DNA bands resulting from

topoisomers with higher supercoiling density that migrate faster through the gel [Figure 8A

pSD1 vs pSD1*walR*, white down arrow], consistent with the negative regulation exerted over

HU by WalR. As expected, knockdown of *hla* or the empty vector had no impact on DNA

topology [Figure 8A pSD1 vs pSD1*hla*]. These results show that *S. aureus* HU, as observed in

other bacteria, increases the supercoiling density of DNA. We propose that the negative

regulation of *hup* by WalR has the opposite effect, causing the relaxation of supercoiling and

leading to decreased compaction of cellular DNA.

Changes in initiation of DNA replication mediated by WalR and HU

HBsu is essential for the initiation of DNA replication in *B. subtilis*, with depletion of

the protein resulting in the reduction of the *ori*-to-*ter* ratio equating to reduced DNA

replication. This is measured by whole genome sequencing using genomic DNA extracted

from cells during exponential growth [57]. This technique provides an indication of the number

of chromosome replication origins per cell [49, 57]. To assess whether modulation of *hup* could

also impact the initiation of DNA replication in *S. aureus*, we applied the same genome

sequencing approach to our CRISPRi knockdown constructs of *walR, hup, hla* and empty

vector with either, 0 or 100 ng/mL aTc induction. Calculation of mean *ori*-to-*ter* ratios based

on quadruplicate biological replicates for each of the four constructs revealed the expected

phenotypes, with a significant reduction in the *ori*-to-*ter* ratio from around 2.60 for the empty

vector or non-target *hla* control compared to a mean ori-ter of 2.15 when the expression of

hup was repressed [Figure 8BC]. This compared with a significant increase above the controls

of the *ori*-to-*ter* ration to 2.88 when *walR* was repressed [Figure 8BC], consistent with our

earlier finding that WalR negatively regulates *hup* expression [Figure 6A]. Additionally,

knocking down WalR expression could directly impact *dnaA* expression through alleviating

the negative regulation exerted through WalR binding sites ccc I/ccc IV in the *dnaA* promoter.

These experiments suggest that *S. aureus* HU plays an important role in the direct regulation

of DnaA to promote initiation of DNA replication, as recently reported for *B. subtilis* [58].

Figure 8. Impact of CRISPRi mediated downregulation of hup or walR on DNA topology. *A) NRS384 containing either pSD1 (empty vector), pSD1hup, pSD1walR or the negative control pSD1hla were induced with increasing concentrations of aTc (0, 10, 50 and 100 ng/ml) to knockdown expression. At 5h post induction total RNA and plasmids were isolated. Plasmids were run on a 1% TBE gel containing 2.5 µg/ml chloroquine to allow for the resolution and visualisation of discrete topoisomers of supercoiled plasmid DNA. Relative fold downregulation of each targeted gene compared to uninduced vector control (pSD1, 0) as determined by RT-qPCR is denoted at the bottom of the image. The image is representative of three repeat experiments. B) A representative whole genome*

sequencing read-coverage graph showing the ori-ter ratios for the four CRISPRi constructs under 100 ng/mL aTc

induction. Each plot represents one of four biological sequencing replicates for each CRISPRi construct. Shown in

the bottom right quadrant of each graph is the mean ori-ter ratio across the four replicates. The ori-ter ratio

between the sequence read coverage at the origin and terminus of replication is also called peak-to-trough ratio,

PTR. C) Summary graph of ori-ter ratios for each of the four CRISPRi constructs induced with 100 ng/ml of aTc to

downregulate expression of the three targeted genes (hla, walR and hup). Shown are the mean of quadruplicate,

independent biological replicate sequencing experiments. Differences between means assessed using an

unpaired student's t test, **p=0.0059, ***p=<0.0001.

Discussion

It has been over two decades since the characterisation of temperature sensitive

mutants led to discovery of the *walKR* (then *yycFG*) locus in *B. subtilis* [10] and shortly afterwards

in *S. aureus* [6]. In the intervening years, a substantial body of work has characterised this TCS

in several Bacillota genera, finding the locus to be both highly conserved and ubiquitously

essential [6, 10, 59, 60, 61, 62]. Although there are differences in the WalKR regulon between species,

its core is made up of genes controlling cell wall metabolism, primarily those that encode

autolysins or hydrolase inhibitors [11, 13, 61]. In *S. aureus*, a series of seminal papers mapped the

staphylococcal WalKR regulon and found that activation of the system positively controls

expression of a suite of virulence genes in addition to the repertoire of autolysins required for

maintaining peptidoglycan homeostasis [8, 13, 27]. More recently, an elegant study using a strain

deleted in all TCSs other than WalKR described the regulon in isolation, without crosstalk from

other TCSs, and found control of a smaller set of genes, including autolysins but not the

virulence genes controlled by SaeR [28].

Here, for the first time in *S. aureus*, we use ChIP-seq to define the WalKR regulon from

a starting point for direct mapping of WalR binding to chromosomal DNA within the

bacterium. Subsequently, we used these data to generate a *S. aureus* specific WalR consensus

binding motif and to inform physiologically relevant cut-offs for interrogating transcriptomic

data obtained when mutationally activating WalK. These experiments allowed us to define a

direct and indirect WalKR regulon. Our results confirm and expand the pioneering discoveries

of Dubrac and Msadek *et al*., with WalKR directly regulating several genes encoding autolysins

and activation of the system leading to increased expression of many virulence genes [8, 13, 27].

Additionally, consistent with our earlier work [63], we observed upregulation of a variety of

genes involved in central metabolism upon WalK activation, particularly those involved in

amino acid, purine, and fatty acid biosynthesis. Filtering our results to identify essential genes

directly controlled by WalKR in *S. aureus*, we identify and characterise new members of the

WalKR direct regulon; *rplK*, *hup, ltaS, prs* and *dnaA*. Of which, *prs* and *rplK*, belong to the

central metabolic pathways of purine and protein biosynthesis respectively.

We find that WalKR negatively regulates the expression of *ltaS,* dampening expression

of the gene from late exponential into stationary phase. To our knowledge, this is the first

report of direct transcriptional regulation of *ltaS*, although post-translational regulation

through cleavage of the extracellular enzymatic domain has been described [64]. We also

detected VraR binding to a second site further upstream in the *ltaS* promoter. We note that

ltaS has been previously mapped to the VraR regulon though comparative transcriptomics

that found upregulation of the gene on VraR activation [65]. However, direct control was not

demonstrated, as this was prior to the identification of polyglycerol phosphate synthase

activity in *S. aureus* [33]. The fact that WalKR and VraSR regulate *ltaS* transcription is perhaps

not surprising. Both TCSs are intimately connected to cell wall homeostasis, with WalKR

maintaining a balance of peptidoglycan autolysis that allows the cell to grow but not lyse [11,

16], and VraSR governing the cell wall stress stimulon in response to extracellular insult [66, 67].

Together, LTA and wall teichoic acid are present in the Gram-positive cell wall in roughly equal

proportion to peptidoglycan [68]. Modulation of *ltaS* expression by two TCSs that integrate

different signals, alongside post-translational regulation of the enzyme, presumably ensures

tight and finely tuned control of *ltaS* activity, enabling co-ordination of LTA synthesis with

peptidoglycan remodelling.

We observed a change to LTA structure upon activation of WalK, consisting of

alterations to LTA chain length and a reduction in LTA modification. As LTA chain length is an

intrinsic property of the LtaS enzyme that is dictated by the availability of lipid starter units

[69], it is unlikely that the chain length differences observed upon activation of WalK are solely

attributable to direct negative regulation of *ltaS*. We speculate that the global transcriptional

rewiring of the cell upon WalK activation may affect the availability of lipid starter units,

although this remains to be investigated. After LTA structure analysis, we aimed to use the

posited *ltaS* inhibitor Congo red as a tool to probe *ltaS* activity in WalKR mutants [52]. However,

contrary to our expectation that activation of WalKR, and therefore down regulation of *ltaS*,

would increase Congo red susceptibility, we observed an increase in susceptibility to Congo

red of WalKR down mutants. Although this did not match our prediction, similar results have

been recently reported, with laboratory evolution of VISA strains showing increased Congo

red susceptibility in strains with and without WalKR mutations [70, 71]. We propose that Congo

red susceptibility arises due to genotype-naïve pleotropic effects of the VISA phenotype on

cell wall structure, limiting its utility as a direct *ltaS* probe in this instance.

In addition to its role in teichoic acid biosynthesis, we found that WalKR controls

essential genes involved in initiation of DNA replication. In *S. aureus*, DNA replication is

initiated by binding of DnaA to AT-rich regions at the origin of replication, *oriC* [72]. This process

is tightly controlled, as mistiming of initiation results in aberrant cell division [73]. Here we find

that WalKR can both positively and negatively regulate the expression of *dnaA* and negatively

regulates *hup.* The role of *hup* in staphylococcal DNA replication initiation has not previously

been investigated but in *B. subtilis hup* homologue *hbs* has been shown to promote initiation

[74]. Here, we find that this function is conserved in *S. aureus*; knocking down expression of *hup*

resulted in reduced initiation of DNA replication. In addition to *hup,* two other regulators of

DNA replication initiation have been characterised in *S. aureus*; Noc and CcrZ [73]. Noc is a

negative regulator of DnaA driven initiation [49], whereas CcrZ is a positive regulator [73]. The

mechanisms underlying DnaA control by these proteins are yet to be fully defined, however

it is unlikely that Noc directly regulates *dnaA* expression [49] and CcrZ may act post-

translationally, by phosphorylating an unknown intermediate factor [73]. In a recent dissection

of the role of Noc in *S. aureus*, a suppressor mutant down regulating the activity of DnaA was

identified with a deletion of a 56bp region [Figure 6B] within the 5'UTR of *dnaA* [49]. As this

region encompasses one of two characterised WalR binding motifs upstream of the gene, we

propose that the loss of positive WalR control through deletion of the binding site explains

the observed decease in DnaA activity. Additionally, RNA-seq showed an overall increase in

dnaA expression (1.05 Log_2FC - $\text{WalK}_{\text{T389A}}$ vs Wt) in exponential phase upon WalK activation,

further highlighting the positive role WalR has on *dnaA* expression.

That WalR was found to positively regulate *dnaA* and negatively regulate *hup*, both of

which are promoters of initiation, is somewhat counterintuitive. Knockdown of *walR*

expression caused under-initiation, consistent with its negative control of *hup* but

contradictory to its positive regulation of *dnaA*. It may be that loss of HU is a dominant

phenotype, reducing initiation even in the presence of higher levels of DnaA, or alternatively,

that regulation of each gene is temporally distinct. The latter hypothesis is supported by our

observation that *dnaA* regulation occurred during exponential phase whereas regulation of

hup was in stationary phase. However, exactly how WalKR transcriptional regulation of both

dnaA and *hup* works in concert with post-translational control mediated by HU, Noc and CcrZ

to ensure tight, spatiotemporally accurate, control of initiation of DNA replication remains to

be elucidated. It is of note that during the discovery of WalR in *B. subtilis* using a temperature-

sensitive mutant, anucleate cells were observed at the non-permissive temperature. This

observation hints at the possibility of a wider association between WalR and DNA replication

in other Bacillota [10].

HU is a multifunctional protein, in addition to its role in DNA replication initiation, it

also contributes to DNA compaction, introduces negative supercoils into DNA [55] and can

impact localised gene regulation [75]. As we observed opposite changes to DNA supercoiling

caused by depletion of *walR* and *hup*, we propose that the negative regulation of HU by WalR

causes relaxation of supercoiling and may lead to decreased compaction of cellular DNA.

Transcriptional regulation of *hup* expression has not previously been described in *S. aureus*.

However, qualitative western blots have shown HU to be continuously present in the

staphylococcal nucleoid throughout all growth phases [76]. Taking this into account, we propose

that WalKR regulation of *hup* is not a binary switch, but rather provides tuneable control of

this essential system. Intriguingly, in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* the serine/threonine kinase

PknB negatively regulates HU DNA binding through phosphorylation [77] and in *S. aureus*, PknB

mediated phosphorylation activates WalR [44]. Furthermore, a PknB phosphorylation site on

HU has been experimentally identified in *S. aureus* [78]. Therefore, PknB may directly repress

HU DNA binding through post-translational modification and indirectly represses *hup*

expression through activation of WalR.

The reason for essentiality of WalKR differs across Bacillota species [79]. In *S. aureus,*

essentiality is proposed to result from polygenic control of non-essential autolysins involved

in the cleavage and relaxation of peptidoglycan crosslinks, allowing expansion of the cell wall

[7]. Here, we extend this hypothesis, showing WalKR direct control of at least five essential

genes (*rplK*, *hup, ltaS, prs* and *dnaA*) not directly involved in peptidoglycan biosynthesis but

intimately linked with cell growth and cell division. Thus, we propose that WalKR essentiality

arises though polygenic co-ordination of multiple cellular processes; ribosome assembly,

peptidoglycan homeostasis, LTA polymerisation, DNA topology, and the initiation of DNA

replication, ultimately making WalKR an indispensable link between cell wall homeostasis and

DNA replication. We propose a model in which WalK senses an unknown ligand during

logarithmic growth through its extracytoplasmic PAS domain, resulting in

autophosphorylation, dimerisation, and maximal interaction between WalK and WalR [Figure

9AB]. The level of WalK activation can also be dynamically tuned in response to the metalation

state of the intracellular PAS domain [36]. WalR:WalK interaction allows phosphotransfer to

WalR residue D53, whilst a second WalR site T101 can be phosphorylated through the PknB

kinase (recognises muropeptide fragments[80]). Phosphorylated WalR binds the cognate

recognition motifs of its direct regulon as a dimer, causing either negative or positive changes

to gene expression, primarily dependent on the position of the binding motif in relation to

the transcriptional start site [Figure 9B]. The direct WalR regulon has three broad functions;

i) control of cell wall metabolism through regulation of a suite of autolysins governing

peptidoglycan homeostasis and fine tuning of LTA biosynthesis through negative regulation

of lipoteichoic acid synthase; ii) linking initiation of DNA replication to cell wall homeostasis

through regulation of *dnaA* and *hup*; iii) signal amplification through modulation of

transcription factors, selected other TCSs, and via negative regulation of DNA binding protein

HU [Figure 9C]. Together with the downstream effects of changes in cell wall metabolism,

signal amplification drives changes in expression of the indirect WalKR regulon, producing a

large shift in cellular transcription that includes the increased expression of virulence factors

and metabolic genes [Figure 9C].

Figure 9. A model of the role of WalKR in cell division. *A) Changes in the interaction of WalK with WalR*

throughout growth. B) Mechanism of signal transduction and transcriptional control of WalKR. -35 and -10

denote promoter regions. PAS: Per-Arnt-Sim, HAMP: present in Histidine kinases, CAT: catalytic domain. C)

Transcriptional changes and their outcomes for the direct and indirect WalKR regulon during different growth

phases. Yellow and dark blue denote positively, and negatively, regulated gene sets respectively.

WalKR has long been considered a promising target for the development of novel anti-

Gram-positive agents [81], although to date no WalKR targeted compounds have been

successfully developed. Despite this, the system remains a viable target for conventional

antibacterial chemotherapy due to its role as a signal integrating nexus of essential cellular

functions and the presence of two PAS domains capable of binding small molecules inside and

outside of the cell [16, 36]. Increasingly, alternative strategies to traditional antibacterial

chemotherapy are being explored, including the development of so called "antibiotic

resistance breaking (ARB) compounds" that re-sensitise resistant strains to existing antibiotics

[82, 83].

Here, we found that mutationally activated WalKR 'up' mutants were more sensitive

to three different antibiotic classes targeting the cell wall: oxacillin, tunicamycin, and

vancomycin. In contrast, recent work conducted using the methicillin sensitive *S. aureus*

(MSSA) strain ATCC29213 found the opposite; a WalKR 'down' mutation (WalR$_{T101M}$)

increased tunicamycin sensitivity [84]. Tunicamycin is a dual targeted antibiotic, binding to MraY

and TarO, which belong to the peptidoglycan recycling and wall teichoic acid synthesis

pathways respectively [85]. In *S. aureus* ATCC29213, decreased WalKR activity results in indirect

downregulation of enzymes within the peptidoglycan recycling *mupG* operon, as well as direct

downregulation of autolysins. Together these gene expression changes starve MraY of

precursor molecules, making the enzyme exquisitely sensitive to tunicamycin [84]. In *S. aureus*

NRS384 the genes of the *mupG* operon were not differentially regulated upon WalKR

activation. Consequently, we conclude that tunicamycin sensitivity in NRS384 'up' mutants

likely arises through a different mechanism. More broadly, differences in the indirect WalR

regulon between MRSA and MSSA may reflect regulatory adaptions necessary to

accommodate the exogenous, *mecA* encoded, PBP2a transpeptidase into the complex

process of cell wall homeostasis [86]. Here, we found that mutational stimulation of normal

WalKR activity rendered NRS384 MRSA susceptible to oxacillin despite the presence of *mecA*,

opening an alternative avenue for future WalKR focused drug development; the discovery of

ARB compounds that phenocopy WalKR activating mutations.

Materials and Methods

Strains, oligonucleotides, media, and reagents

Bacterial strains and plasmids are listed in Table S5. Oligonucleotides (IDT) used in this study

are listed in Table S6. *Escherichia coli* were routinely cultured in LB (Merck) or on L-agar (1.5%

[w/v] agar added) unless stated otherwise. *S. aureus* were routinely grown on BHI agar (Bacto,

BD Biosciences) or Sheep blood agar. When cultured in broth, they were grown in Brain heart

infusion broth Trypticase soy broth (TSB, Oxoid), or LB with shaking at 200 rpm. For selection,

antibiotics (Sigma) were added at the following concentrations for *E. coli* (*E.c*) and *S. aureus*

(*S.a.*): Ampicillin 100 µg/ml – *E.c.*, Kanamycin 50 µg/ml – *E.c./S.a.*, Chloramphenicol 10 µg/ml

– *E.c./S.a.* Restriction enzymes, Phusion DNA polymerase, and T4 ligase were purchased from

New England Biolabs. Phire Hotstart II DNA polymerase for colony PCR was purchased from

Thermo Fisher.

S. aureus site-directed mutagenesis by allelic exchange

Upstream   and   downstream   regions   of   the   point   mutation   for   *walK*$^{\text{T389A}}$

(IM7/IM120/IM121/IM10),   *walR*$^{\text{T101A}}$ (IM31/IM232/IM233/IM10)   or   *spa*   deletion

(IMT275/IMT353/IMT354/IMT278) were PCR amplified and then a SOE-PCR was performed

on the gel extracted template to generate an amplicon for SLiCE cloning into pIMAY-Z [87]. This

yielded plasmids pIMAY-Z *walK*[T389A], pIMAY-Z *walR*[T101A] and pIMAY-Z Δ*spa*. To construct

pIMAY-Z *walK*[Y32C], genomic DNA from a sectored mutant of NRS384 Δ*yycHI* (containing an

additional *walK*[Y32C] mutation) was amplified with primers IM107/IM10 and the amplicon

cloned as described above. Construction of isogenic mutants of NRS384 by allelic exchange

was performed as described previously [87]. The WalK enhancing mutations could visually be

discriminated from the wild type due to reduced colony size and opacity. For the WalR[T101A],

the mutation was screened by colony PCR (70°C annealing temperature) with primers

IM233/IM181. From putative mutants, genomic DNA was extracted from 1 ml of overnight

culture (DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit—Qiagen) pre-treated with 100 µg of lysostaphin (Sigma

cat. no. L7386) and sequenced on an Illumina NextSeq by the Doherty Applied Microbial

Genomics facility (University of Melbourne). Resultant reads were mapped to a NRS384

reference genome [88] and mutations identified using Snippy

(https://github.com/tseemann/snippy).

Construction of pRAB11-FLAG

To construct a vector for the C-terminal FLAG tagging of *S. aureus* proteins, the

anhydrotetracycline inducible vector pRAB11 [29] was digested with KpnI to linearise and gel

extracted. The 6.4kb vector was then amplified with primers IM512/IM513 to add in a

consensus ribosome binding site (IM512), a 1xFLAG tag and downstream *tonB* transcriptional

terminator (IM513). The amplimer was digested with KpnI, gel extracted, re-ligated to yield

pRAB11-FT. The sequence of the plasmid was verified by sequencing on the Illumina platform.

To clone into pRAB11-FT, the vector was digested with KpnI, gel extracted and used as

template with primers IM514/IM515 to amplify the vector backbone. Response regulators

(WalR - IM516/IM517), (SaeR - IM518/IM519), (VraR - IM520/IM521), (HptR - IM522/IM523)

were amplified from the start codon and omitting the stop codon with NRS384 genomic DNA.

The products were gel extracted, SLiCE cloned into amplified pRAB11-FT and transformed into

IM08B, yielding pRAB11:*walR*^{FLAG}, pRAB11:*saeR*^{FLAG}, pRAB11:*vraR*^{FLAG} and pRAB11:*hptR*^{FLAG}.

The plasmids were electroporated into NRS384Δ*spa*.

Construction of pIMC8-YFP reporter strains and assay for YFP activity.

Promoter regions for *sasD* (IM1127/IM1107), *sle1* (IM1108/IM1109), *P602* (IM1129/IM1110),

ltaS (IM1111/IM1112), *ssaA* (IM1130/IM366) *isaA* (IM1128/IM364 were PCR amplified from

NRS384 genomic DNA and gel extracted. The vector pIMC8-YFP [36] was digested with KpnI, gel

extracted and PCR amplified with IM1/IM385. The amplified promoters and vector were SLiCE

cloned, transformed into IM08B and subsequently electroporated into NRS384, NRS384

Δ*yycHI* or NRS384 *walK*^{Y32C}. Mutations disrupting the WalR motif (1st TGT to CCC) were

introduced by SOE-PCR with the bracketed primers sets for *hpt* (IMT300/IMT301); *sle1*

(IM1108/IM1115;   IM1114/1109),   *P0602*   (IM1129/1119;   IM1118/IM1110),   *ltaS*

(IM1111/IM1117;   IM1116/IM1112),   *ssaA*^{CCCI} (LS371/LS376;   LS375/LS372),   *ssaA*^{CCCII}

(LS371/IM1121;   IM1120/LS372),   *isaA*^{CCCI} (IM1128/IM1123;   IM1122/IM364),   *isaA*^{CCCII}

(IM1128/IM1125; IM1124/IM364). The resultant mutated promoters were gel extracted,

SLiCE cloned, transformed into IM08B and subsequently electroporated into NRS384. For the

sasD promoter the mutation was incorporated into the reverse primer (IM1113) in

combination with IM1127. To assess YFP production, each strain was grown in 5 ml of LB

containing 10 µg/ml chloramphenicol in a 50 ml tube for overnight at 37°C with shaking at

200 rpm. The culture was diluted 1:100 in 5 ml of fresh LB containing chloramphenicol and

incubated overnight. The fluorescence (excitation 512 nm, emission 527 nm) of each strain

(200 μl – Nunc black well plates) was read in triplicate using an Ensight multimode plate

reader (PerkinElmer) set to 100 flashes per well. Resultant data was plotted using the

GraphPad Prism (v9.3.1) software package.

786   Production and purification of proteins.

For production of WalR, Rosetta 2 (DE3) pET28(a):*walR* was grown in 2 L of autoinduction

media [89] at 25°C for four days with vigorous shaking, and cells were harvested by

centrifugation. For production of VraR Rosetta 2 (DE3) pET21(d): *vraR* was grown in 2 L of LB

at 37 °C with vigorous shaking to an OD600 nm of 0.6, chilled on ice for 10 min then induced

with 1 mM IPTG. Subsequently, cells were grown for a further 16-20 h at 18 °C with vigorous

shaking and harvested by centrifugation. For purification of both proteins, cell pellets were

resuspended at 3 ml/ g in buffer A (50 mM NaH_2PO_4 [pH 8.0]) with 300 mM NaCl and 10 mM

imidazole. To enhance lysis and prevent proteolysis, 7000 U chicken egg-white lysozyme

(Sigma), two complete EDTA-free protease inhibitor tablets (Roche) and 20 U DNase I (NEB)

were added. Cells were lysed by sonication and lysates were clarified by centrifugation at

30,000 x *g* for 30 minutes at 4°C. The cleared lysate was loaded onto a 25 mL free-flow gravity

column (GeneFlow) packed with 3 ml TALON® Metal Affinity Resin (Takara Bio), washed with

10 column volumes (CV) of buffer A containing 20 mM imidazole and 2 M NaCl. The protein

was eluted in 2 CV of buffer A containing 150 mM imidazole and 300 mM NaCl and dialysed

overnight 6 kDa MWCO, CelluSep) into storage buffer (25 mM Tris [pH 8.0], 300 mM NaCl,

20 mM KCl, 10 mM $MgCl_2$, 1 mM DTT, 5% glycerol). The proteins were spin concentrated to 5

mg / ml (3 kDa MWCO, vivaspin 20, Sartorius), aliquoted, snap frozen in liquid nitrogen, and

stored at -80°C until required.

Electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSAs)

DNA duplex probes for electrophoretic mobility shift assay binding assays were generated by

annealing two 70 bp single-stranded oligonucleotides, one of which was labelled with Cy5

fluorophore on the 5' end (Table S6). Annealing was performed in duplex buffer (30 mM

HEPES [pH 7.5], 100 mM potassium acetate) by heating equimolar concentrations of

complimentary single-stranded oligonucleotide at 94°C for two min and then cooling to room

temperature over 30 min. Duplexes were subsequently gel-extracted from a 2% (w/v) agarose

1xTBE gel. Binding reactions were performed in a final volume of 25 µl of binding buffer

(25 mM Tris [pH 8.0], 300 mM NaCl, 20 mM KCl, 10 mM $MgCl_2$, 1 mM DTT, 4 µg BSA, 0.5 µg

salmon sperm DNA). Initially, varying concentrations of WalR/VraR were incubated for 5 min

at 25°C in binding buffer, then DNA probe was added to a final concentration of 16 nM and

the reaction was incubated for a further 15 min. After incubation, reactions were mixed (5:1)

with 6x Orange G loading buffer [90] and 5 µl was electrophoresed on an 8% polyacrylamide

native gel (29:1 acrylamide:bisacrylamide ratio) in 1xTBE at 4 °C. Bands were visualised using

a GE Amersham 600 imager in the Cy5 channel with a 10 min exposure time.

Total RNA extraction and rRNA depletion

A 10 ml LB (50 ml tube) culture was grown overnight at 37°C with shaking at 200rpm. The

saturated culture was diluted 1:100 into fresh 10 ml TSB and grown to an OD600nm of 0.8-

1.0. A 5 ml aliquot of culture was removed and added to 10 ml of RNAprotect Bacteria Reagent

(Qiagen) and mixed by vortexing. The sample was incubated at room temperature for 5 min.

Cells were then harvested by centrifugation (7,000xg/5min/22°C), the supernatant discarded

and the cell pellet resuspended in 1 ml of TRIzol (Invitrogen). Cells were lysed by bead beating

(Precellys 24 instrument - 6000 rpm, 1 min, 100 µm zirconium beads) and cell lysates were

clarified by centrifugation (20,000xg/10 min/4°C). Subsequently, 700 µl of supernatant was

removed and mixed with 700 µl of ethanol. RNA was extracted using a Direct-Zol RNA

miniprep plus kit (ZymoResearch) according to manufactures instructions, including the on-

column DNase I treatment step. Following RNA extraction, an additional DNA removal step

was performed using a TURBO DNA-free kit (Invitrogen) according to manufacturer's

instructions. The absence of DNA was accessed *by gyrB* PCR (IM1020/IM1021) on 1µl of RNA

template, yielding no amplification. RNA quality was determined on the Bioanalyser (Agilent)

with all yielding a RIN score of above 8. For each strain three independent RNA extractions

were made. A 5 µg aliquot of total RNA was depleted for rRNA with the mRNA then converted

into cDNA with the Scriptseq complete bacteria kit (Epicentre). The libraries were sequenced

on the Illumina HiSeq platform for 50 bp single end reads.

RNA-seq data analysis

RNA-seq data was analysed using the *S. aureus* USA300 FPR3757 reference genome

(accession number: NC_007793) and Kallisto [91], a kmer based pseudoalignment tool, with

analysis and visualization using Degust [https://github.com/drpowell/degust]. Degust uses

Voom/Limma [92] and generates an interactive website to analyse and explore the data.

Preparation of samples for ChIP-seq

An overnight culture (10 ml LB in 50 ml tube) of each strain NRS384Δ*spa* containing either

pRAB11: *walR*FLAG / *vraR*FLAG / *hptR*FLAG / *saeR*FLAG or pRAB11FLAG only were grown at 37°C with

shaking at 200 rpm. Overnight cultures were diluted 1:100 in fresh LB (100 ml) in a 1 L baffled

flask and grown to an OD600nm of 0.5, induced with 100 ng/ml of anhydrotetracycline and

grown for a further hour. Cells were crosslinked by direct addition of methanol free

formaldehyde (Pierce) to cultures (final concentration of 1% (v/v)) and incubated with gentle

mixing (rotating platform) for 15 min at room temperature. The crosslinking reaction was

quenched by addition of glycine to a final concentration of 400 mM and incubated a further

15 min. Cells were pelleted (7,000xg/10min/4°C), washed three times with ice-cold PBS and

the pellet stored at -80°C. For cell lysis, cells were suspended in 1ml of lysis buffer (50 mM

Tris-HCl [pH 7.4], 150 mM NaCl, 0.1% Triton X-100, 100 µg / ml lysostaphin (Ambi), 500 µg /

ml RNaseA, complete mini protease inhibitor EDTA free containing 100 um zirconium beads)

and incubated for 20 min at 37°C. The weakened cells were then disrupted using bead beating

(6000 rpm for 1 min; Precellys 24 instrument) and the cell lysate clarified by centrifugation

(20,000*xg*/10min/4°C). The cation concentration of the lysate was adjusted with $MgCl_2$ and

$CaCl_2$ to 100 mM. The DNA was sheared by the addition of a range of DNase I (NEB)

concentrations (0.5 – 2U), in a 200 µL volume, followed by incubation at 37°C for 10 min. The

reaction was quenched by the addition of EDTA to 50 mM on ice. The degree of DNA

fragmentation was assessed by electrophoresis of samples on a 2% (v/v) agarose TAE gel.

Samples showing maximal fragmentation at between 100-300 bp were subjected to

immunoprecipitation. Lysis buffer (made up to 4 ml - omitting lysostaphin and RNase A)

containing 10 µg of M2-anti FLAG antibody was added and incubated overnight at 4°C on a

rotating platform in a 15 ml tube. A 100 µl aliquot of Protein G agarose (Pierce) was added to

the lysate and incubated a further 2h at room temperature. The sample was centrifuged

(2,500 *xg*/3 min/22°C) and the agarose pellet washed three time with 4 ml of IP buffer (25mM

Tris.Cl [pH 7.2], 150mM NaCl) and finally resuspended in 200 µl of elution buffer (10mM Tris.Cl

[pH 8], 1mM EDTA, 1% SDS containing 100µg of proteinase K). Crosslinks were reversed

incubation for 2h at 37°C and then 9h at 65°C with shaking at 1400 rpm. Finally, eluted DNA

was cleaned up by PCR purification (QiaQuick PCR purification kit, Qiagen). DNA libraries were

prepared with NEBNext® Ultra™ II DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina and sequenced using an

Illumina MiSeq.

ChIP-seq read mapping, peak identification, and motif searching.

MiSeq reads from each of the five experiments (pRAB11: *walR*[FLAG] / *vraR*[FLAG] / *hptR*[FLAG] /

saeR[FLAG] or pRAB11[FLAG] only) were first mapped to the *S. aureus* USA300 NC_007793 reference

chromosome using *samtools*. The resulting *.bam* and *.sam* files were used to create tag counts

(*i.e.* mapped reads) with the *makeTagDirectory* script within *homer* [93]. The *homer* peak

identification tool (*findPeaks*) was extensively explored but high levels of background reads

were detected and precluded further use of *homer* for peak detection. An alternative strategy

was developed by building read coverage plots for viewing in Artemis [94], using *samtools* and

the command *% samtools depth -aa [target_file_name].bam [subtraction_file_name].bam |*

cut -f3,4 | perl -nae 'use List::Util qw(max); print max(0, $F[0]-$F[1]),"\n";' >

[target_peaks].userplot. This created a coverage plot of those regions of the *S. aureus* USA300

NC_007793 chromosome specifically bound by a given response regulator, relative the

response regulator sequence reads in the subtraction set. These subtraction sets were a

concatenation of a random selection of 20% of the sequence reads for the three response

regulators and the plasmid-only control combined. Thus, for peak discovery of WalR-binding

sites, an Artemis userplot was prepared from *vraR*[FLAG] / *hptR*[FLAG] / *saeR*[FLAG] and pRAB11[FLAG]

subtracted from *walR*[FLAG]. The same method was used to generate userplots and discover

binding peaks for the remaining three response regulators. The '*create feature from graph*

function' in *Artemis* was then used to define chromosome regions represented by the

subtraction coverage plots. These regions were mapped to the NRS384 genome in Geneious

Prime (v2023.03) and searched using TGTNNNNNNNNTGT +/- 5bp as input. Output sequences

were combined with motif regions +/- 5bp for the following previously experimentally

validated WalR regulon members; SAUSA300_0739, SAUSA300_0955, SAUSA300_2051,

SAUSA300_2253, SAUSA300_2503 [13, 27] and input to WebLogo [95]. The resultant sequence logo

was converted to IUPAC code and used to search the NRS384 genome using Geneious Prime

(v2023.03).

Mapping TSS in relation to WalR binding sites

The *S. aureus* NRS384 genome was annotated in Geneious Prime (v2023.03) with predicted

transcriptional start sites (TSS) as defined in a previous study [43]. The 500 bp upstream of a

predicted TSS were extracted and manually annotated with -35 and -10 elements and

predicted WalR binding sites. T-tests (run in Stata v16.0) were used to test associations

between WalR binding site position and orientation, with gene expression data from RNA-

seq.

Essentiality analysis

Essentiality of *S. aureus* genes was called if a locus had been described as essential in two

previous studies [96, 97] and did not harbour a transposon insertion in the Nebraska transposon

library [98]. Genes were defined as belonging to the core genome if they were present in every

strain of the *Aureo*Wiki orthologue table (https://aureowiki.med.uni-

greifswald.de/download_orthologue_table)[99]. Data from RNA-seq, ChIP-seq, and the

essentiality and core genome analysis was integrated in R (v4.0.3, https://www.r-

project.org/) with RStudio 2022.02.0+443 using dplyr (v1.0.8) and tibble (v3.1.6), then

visualised using UpSetR (v1.4.0) [98] with ggplot2(v3.3.5).

Immunofluorescence microscopy and image analysis

S. aureus cells were grown in LB to exponential phase. Bacteria corresponding to an OD_{600nm}

of 10 were centrifuged at 4000 x g for 15 min at 4°C and the pellets washed twice with sterile

ice-cold PBS. Bacterial pellets were resuspended with paraformaldehyde 4% (Sigma) and fixed

for 10 min on ice. Cells are pelleted at 3000 x *g* and washed three time with PBS. Fixed cells

were resuspended at a density of 1 unit OD^{600}/ml in PBS. Twenty-five microlitres of fixed *S.*

aureus cells were applied on round coverslips pre-treated with 0.1% poly-L-lysin (Thermo

Fisher Scientific) and allowed to adhere for 20 minutes. Coverslips were washed twice with

PBS and incubated with a blocking buffer (PBS-BSA 1% supplemented with normal donkey

serum 1:10, Abcam) during 1h. Coverslips were then incubated with primary anti-protein A

antibody (Jackson Immunoresearch, chicken IgY) at 1:500 concentration in blocking buffer for

2 hours at room temperature. Coverslips were then washed three times with PBS and

incubated with 1:1000 secondary antibody (Jackson Immunoresearch, donkey IgG anti-IgY

coupled to A647) diluted in blocking buffer for 1h in the dark at room temperature. Coverslips

were then washed three times with PBS and incubated with 1:500 BODIPY-Vancomycin FL

(Thermo Fisher Scientific) and 1:1000 Hoescht 33342 solution (Sigma) during 15 minutes in

the dark. Coverslips are washed twice in PBS and once in distilled water, air-dried and

mounted on slides with Prolong platinum (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Imaging was performed

using the LSM900 confocal microscope (Carl Zeiss, North Ride). Images were taken using an

Airyscan2 SR mode and the raw data was deconvolved using Huygens Deconvolution software

(Scientific Volume Imaging b.v., Netherlands). Images were analysed in a semi-automated

way using a custom script written with ImageJ macro and FIJI [100]. Briefly, individual bacterial

cells were segmented from the channel 488 (BODIPY-Vancomycin) staining using

Morphological Segmentation Plugin [82]. The intensity of protein A signal (channel1) was

measured from the outline of each *S. aureus* cell and presented as a coefficient of variation

(the ratio of the standard deviation to the mean).

Growth curves, other phenotypic testing.

For measurement of growth curves, *S. aureus* was grown overnight in BHI broth at 37°C and

subsequently diluted into fresh BHI broth to an $OD600_{nm}$ of 0.05. Growth was measured for 8

hours at 37°C with 300 rpm dual orbital shaking in a 96 well plate (Corning) using a Clariostar

Plus (BMG) plate reader.

Antibacterial susceptibility testing

Minimum inhibitory concentrations of antibacterial agents were determined by broth

microdilution; bacteria were exposed to 2-fold serial dilutions of antibacterial agents in

Mueller-Hinton broth 2 (BBL, BD) according to the guidelines provided by the Clinical and

Laboratory Standards Institute . Vancomycin susceptibility was assessed using gradient plates

as previously described [101].

Lysostaphin sensitivity

An overnight 5ml BHI culture of each strain was diluted 1:100 in an Eppendorf tube containing

fresh BHI containing different final concentrations (0 - 1.6 μg / ml) of lysostaphin (Ambi). Cells

were then incubated statically for 90 min at 37°C in a water bath with the CFU/ml determined

by dilution and spot plating onto BHI agar. Plates were incubated for 18 h at 37°C before

enumeration.

Heat and Congo red sensitivity

An overnight 5ml BHI culture of each strain was diluted in PBS to 10^{-6} before 5 μl of each

dilution was spotted onto either BHI agar (heat) or BHI agar containing 0.1 or 0.25 μg/ml of

congo red (Sigma). Plates were incubated for 18 h at 37°C before photography.

Flowcytometry analysis

Bacterial cells were grown in LB to exponential phase. One-unit OD600 equivalent of WT,

Δ$yycHI$ and WalK$_{T389A}$ strains (corresponding to 5×10^8 bacterial per ml) were centrifuged at

5000xg for 5 min, and the bacterial pellet washed three times with sterile PBS. Bacterial cells

were fixed with paraformaldehyde 4% (in PBS) for 10 minutes at room temperature (RT) and

fixed cells were washed 5 times with PBS. Cells were incubated in blocking buffer (PBS with

3% BSA (Sigma), 1:100 FcR-blocker (Miltenyi Biotec) and Tween 0.02%) during 1 hour at RT.

Bacterial cells were then incubated with polyclonal antibodies raised in rabbit against whole

fixed cells of *S. aureus* USA300 strain JE2::*spa* [98], (1:1000 anti-SA, WEHI antibody technology

platform), resuspended in blocking buffer supplemented with normal donkey serum (1:10,

Abcam) for two hours on a rotary tube mixer at RT, protected from light. Following incubation,

bacterial cells were washed three times with blocking buffer and incubated 45 min protected

from light, with secondary antibodies resuspended in blocking buffer with anti-rabbit

secondary antibody (donkey anti-rabbit coupled to Alexa 555 fluorophore, 1:2000 dilution,

Invitrogen), separately or in combination with SYTO9 (4 mM, Invitrogen).

Labelled bacteria were washed three times with blocking buffer, then twice with PBS, and

resuspended in a final volume of 500 mL of PBS. Bacterial cells (n: 80,000) were analysed by

flow cytometry using the CytoFLEX S and CytExpert software (Beckman and Coulter). Data

analysis was performed using FlowJo software (version 10.8.1).

LTA extraction, purification, and analysis by PAGE

For extraction and analysis of LTA, 50 ml of LB was inoculated with a single colony of NRS384,

NRS384 Δ*yycHI,* NRS384 *walK*$_{T101A}$, NRS384 *walK*$_{T389A,}$ or RN4220, and grown at 37°C with

vigorous shaking for 18 h. Cells were harvested from 30 ml of saturated culture by

centrifugation of (5000 *x g*, 10 min) and LTA was extracted and analysed by PAGE as described

previously [102].

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CRISPRi constructs and knockdown analysis.

To generate pSD1 CRISPRi knockdown constructs for *walR, hla* and *hup,* primers corresponding to the previously described for *walR* (IM1180/IM1181) and *hla* (IM1182/IM1183) were synthesised from Zhao *et al* [103]. Knockdown primers for *hup* (targeted the region overlapping and upstream of the *hup* start codon(IM1559/IM1560)) were designed with the annealed primer pairs for *walR*, *hla* and *hup* cloned into the SapI site of pSD1 as described previously [104]. Plasmids were then transformed into NRS384. Overnight cultures (5ml LB, chloramphenicol 10 µg/ml in 50 ml tubes) were then diluted in fresh media 1:100 containing different concentrations of aTc to induce expression of dCAS9, with the optical density of the cultures followed.

RNA isolation: RNA was isolated from 1ml of cells (induced with either 0 or 100 ng/ml of aTc) after 5h of growth, as described above. A 1ug aliquot of total RNA was converted into cDNA with Superscript IV and random hexamers as described previously [105]. For RT-qPCR, 1 µl of cDNA was used as template with primers for *gyrB* (IM1020/IM1021), *hla* (IM1026/IM1027), *walR* (IM1153/IM1154) and *hu* (IM1586/IM1587) with Luna Universal qPCR Master Mix (NEB) on a Quantstudio 1 PCR machine. The data was normalised to the *gyrB* gene and analysed with the $\Delta\Delta$ CT method [106].

Plasmid isolation: Plasmid DNA was isolated from 10 ml of cells at 5h post induction (induced with 0, 10, 50 and 100 ng/ml aTc). Cells were centrifuged 7,000*xg*/2min pellet was washed in 1ml of PBS and then resuspended in 400 µl of the resuspension buffer (Monarch Miniprep kit – NEB) containing 50 µg of lysostaphin. The cells were lysed at 37°C for 30 min and then processed following the kit instructions through one column with elution in 30 µl of elution buffer. DNA was quantified with the Qubit BR DNA quantification kit and normalised to 15

ng/µl, with the normalised loading (150ng of purified plasmid) assessed on a 1% TAE gel.

Subsequent 1% agarose gels (in 2xTBE) containing 2.5 µg/ml chloroquine were run as

described by Cameron *et al* [107]. Gels (10cm) were run at 10V for 16h which were washed twice

(30 min each wash) in dH$_2$O and then stained with Sybr Gold for 30 min and subsequently

imaged.

Genomic isolation: Genomic DNA was isolated from the equivalent of OD600nm of 5 after 5h

of growth (induced with 0 or 100 ng/ml aTc). The cell pellet was washed with 1ml of PBS and

resuspended in 90 µl of PBS containing 5 µl of 20 mg/ml RNase A, 50 µg of lysostaphin and

100 µl of the tissue lysis buffer (Monarch Genomic DNA purification kit, NEB). Cells were lysed

at 37°C for 30 min and then processed following the manufactures instructions.

Analysis of ori-ter ratios

To measure to ori-ter ratios, genomic DNA prepared after CRISPRi knockdown (as above) was

sequenced using the Illumnia NextSeq (by the Doherty Applied Microbial Genomics facility,

University of Melbourne). Illumina reads were processed and analysed using iRep, as

previously described (v1.1 https://github.com/christophertbrown/iRep [108]).

Construction of pSmBIT and pLgBIT split luciferase vectors.

The vector pRAB11(pC194 replicon) [29] was modified by PCR to restore the consensus *tetO*

upstream of the *tetR* gene (IM1290/IM1291) [109]. As described previously, this reduced the

impact of high level TetR production and allowed leaky expression of the target gene in the

absence of aTc. The above 6.4 kb PCR product was gel extracted, treated with SLiCE and

transformed into *E. coli* IM08B, yielding pRAB11*. To introduce a consensus ribosome binding

site and 8 nt spacer before the start codon (AGGAGGAATTGGAAA) downstream of the two

tetO sites (proceeding the gene of interest), pRAB11* was first digested with KpnI and gel

extracted. This was used a template in a PCR (IM513/IM1355), the product digested with KpnI,

gel extracted and ligated. The ligation product was transformed into IM08B yielding

pRAB11*RBS. The *tetR*-RBS fragment was digested from pRAB11*RBS (SphI/KpnI) and

ligated into complementary digested pCN34 (pT181 replicon) [110] yielding pCN34*RBS. Both

pRAB11*RBS and pCN34*RBS were digested with KpnI, gel extracted and used as template in

a PCR (IM515/IM1356). The following combinations were combined with 50 ng of each 1.

pRAB11*RBS PCR and LINKER(GSSGGGGSGGGGSSG)-SmBIT gBlock. 2. pCN34*RBS PCR and

LINKER-LgBIT gBlock. gBlock sequences were codon optimised for *S. aureus* The SLiCE

reactions were transformed into IM08B yielding either pSmBIT or pLgBIT, with both vectors

were fully sequenced to validate.

Cloning into split luciferase vectors

Either pSmBIT and pLgBIT were digested with KpnI, gel extracted and used as template for

PCR with primers IM515/IM1360. The pSmBIT or pLgBIT amplimers were combined with

amplified open reading frames with stop codon removed and tailed with 5'-

GATAGAGTATGATGAGGAGGAATTGGAAA-3' forward or 5'-GAACCACCACCACCACTAGAACC-3'

sequences complementary to the vector.

WalR and WalK alleles were PCR amplified with IM1363/IM1364 and IM1365/IM1366,

respectively, then SLiCE cloned into pSmBIT (for *walR* alleles) or pLgBIT (for *walK* alleles) and

transformed into IM08B. For *S. aureus* transformations, at least 1 µg of pLgBIT(+*walK* allele)

and pSmBIT(+ *walR* allele) were purified from IM08B and co-electroporated into NRS384 with

selection on BHI agar containing 10 ug/ml chloramphenicol and 50 ug/ml kanamycin.

Chromosomal tagging of WalR-SmBIT and WalK-LgBIT

To access the functional interaction of WalR/WalK under native levels of protein of

production, the native copy on the chromosome was tagged with SmBIT for WalR and LgBIT

for WalK. The regions of DNA were assembled as follows. 1. *walR*-SmBIT-*walK*: *walR*-SmBIT

was amplified from pSmBIT-*walR* with IM107/IM1517 and a downstream fragment

encompassing *walK* was amplified with IM1516/IM10 from NRS384 genomic DNA. Both were

gel extracted and joined by SOE-PCR. 2. *walK*-LgBIT-*yycH*: *walK*-LgBIT was amplified from

pLgBIT-*walK* with IM7/IM1519 and a downstream fragment encompassing 500bp of *yycH* was

amplified with IM1518/IM44 on NRS384 genomic DNA. Both were gel extracted and joined

by SOE-PCR. Either amplimer was SLiCE cloned into pIMAY-Z and transformed into IM08B. The

above cloning steps and *S. aureus* allelic exchange was performed as described by Monk and

Stinear [87]. Presence of *walR*-SmBIT and *walK*-LgBIT were screened by colony PCR with

IM1360/IM1368 and IM1360/IM44, respectively. Genomic DNA was isolated from the strains

and whole genome sequenced.

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Growth and luciferase curves

An overnight 5 ml LB containing antibiotics (in a 50ml tube) were grown overnight. The culture

was diluted 1:100 in fresh LB supplemented with chloramphenicol and kanamycin including a

1:5000 dilution of the Nano-Glo® Luciferase Assay Substrate (Promega). Preliminary growth

curves in the presence of the substrate showed no impact on growth at this concentration.

The culture was then dispensed in triplicate (200 µl) black/clear bottom 96 well plates (Cat

no. 165305, Themofisher). The plates were sealed with MicroAmp™ Optical Adhesive Film

(Thermofisher) and incubated at 37°C with dual orbital shaking at 300 rpm (Clariostar Plus,

BMG). Every 10 minutes the plate was read at OD600nm and light emission (1s exposure)

collected over a 8 h period.

Bacterial luciferase reporter plasmid

To construct pIMK1-LUX, the Listeria phage integrase vector pIMK was digested with

SphI/BglII to excise the PSA integrase and replace it with the PCR amplified (IM1241/IM1242)

low copy number pSK41 replicon from pLOW, yielding pIMK1. Vectors pIMK1 and pPL2*lux*

were then digested with SalI/PstI and the gel extracted pIMK1 backbone ligated to the

bacterial luciferase operon from pPL2*lux*. The vector pIMK1-LUX produces exact promoter

fusions which can be cloned into the SalI/SwaI digested vector, as described previously [111].

Promoters for *walR* (IM1222/IM32), *sasD* (IM1216/IM248 (Wt) or IM1217(ccc)), *sle1*

(IM1295/IM1115; IM1114/IM1296), *0602* (IM1294/IM1119; IM1118/IM1062), *ltaS*

(IM1218/IM1117; IM1116/IM1219), *ssaA^{CCCII}* (IM1297/IM1121; IM1120/IM1298), *isaA^{CCCI}*

(IM1220/IM1123; IM1122/IM1221), *isaA^{CCCII}* (IM1220/IM1125; IM1124/IM1221), *tarF*

(LS451/LS448; LS449/LS452), *tagG* (LS457/LS454; LS455/LS458), *dnaA* (IM1745/IM1744;

IM1743/IM1746), *dnaD^{CCCI}* (LS471/LS466; LS467/LS472), *dnaD^{CCCII}* (LS471/LS468;

LS469/LS472,) *rplK* (IM1734/LS143; LS144/IM1735), *hup* (IM1289/IM1290; IM1291/IM1292),

dnaA^{CCCI} (LS443/LS440; LS441/IM1746), *dnaA^{CCCII}* (LS443/LS438; LS439/IM1746)*, dnaA^{CCCIII}*

(LS443/IM1743; IM1744/IM1746)*,* and *prs* (IM1285/LS139; IM140/IM1288) were PCR

amplified from genomic DNA with either the outer set (Wt promoter) or SOE-PCR with the

four primers (ccc promoter). The amplimers were digested with SalI, gel extracted and cloned

into the above double digested vector. Plasmids isolated from IM08B were transformed into

NRS384 Wt. An overnight 5ml LB culture with kanamycin was diluted 1:100 in fresh LB

containing kanamycin with growth curves and light emission measured as described above

for the split luciferase with the substrate omitted.

Data visualisation

Graphs were generated in R (v4.0.3, https://www.r-project.org/)or GraphPad Prism (v9.3.1)

software packages.

Data availability: The DNA sequence reads for ChIP-seq and RNA-seq have been submitted to

the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) repository under accession number GSE212321.

DNA sequence reads for ori-ter analysis have been submitted to NCBI under Bioproject ID

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