Cell splitting in *Staphylococcus aureus* is controlled by an adaptor protein

facilitating degradation of a peptidoglycan hydrolase

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Abstract

Regulated protein degradation by Clp proteases is a highly conserved post-translational control mechanism in bacteria. In *Staphylococcus aureus*, the ClpXP complex targets the peptidoglycan hydrolase Sle1, maintaining a tightly regulated balance between peptidoglycan biosynthesis and hydrolysis, which is required to ensure proper cell splitting without compromising cell integrity. β-lactams antibiotics disturb this balance, leading to their bactericidal effects. The mechanism underlying the specific targeting of Sle1 by the conserved ClpXP complex remains unknown. From a genome-wide screen for determinants of penicillin G susceptibility in *S. aureus*, we here identify the uncharacterized protein CxaR (for ClpXP-associated autolytic regulator). Growth defects, premature cell splitting, and increased cell lysis were observed in the absence of CxaR. Interestingly, these defects were mitigated by sublethal concentrations of β-lactams. Through sequencing *cxaR* suppressor mutants, followed by immunoblotting, we show that the *cxaR* phenotypes are caused by excessive Sle1 accumulation. Indeed, exposure to β-lactams reduces Sle1 levels, thereby rescuing the cells lacking CxaR. Furthermore, *in vivo* protein-protein interaction assays demonstrated that CxaR directly interacts with both ClpXP and Sle1, whereas no direct interaction was detected between Sle1 and ClpX. In line with this, CxaR was found to co-localize with ClpX in septal-adjacent foci by fluorescence microscopy. Taken together, these findings reveal that CxaR is a new regulatory factor controlling staphylococcal cell splitting by acting as an adaptor protein for controlled ClpXP-mediated degradation of Sle1.

Introduction

Bacterial proliferation depends on the precise coordination of cell division, a complex process that culminates in the separation of daughter cells. In the Gram-positive coccoid pathogen *Staphylococcus aureus*, division initiates with the synthesis of a septal cross-wall at midcell, generating two hemispherical daughter cells that remain transiently connected via a peripheral wall ring [1-4]. Only after the septum is fully formed does this septum-adjacent peripheral cell wall undergo rapid resolution ("popping") [1, 2]. This step, occurring in less than two milliseconds, is highly regulated to prevent premature splitting of the septum, which would compromise cell integrity and viability, ultimately leading to cell lysis [5, 6]. Septal splitting is facilitated by peptidoglycan hydrolases (PGHs) that create small perforations in the peripheral peptidoglycan ring, causing mechanical crack propagation [1, 7]. *S. aureus* encodes at least 20 PGHs with different physiological roles during bacterial growth and division [5, 8]. Among these, the amidase Sle1, which cleaves the amide bond linking the stem peptide to the glycan chain (**Fig. 6C**), plays a particularly important role in cell splitting, as its absence results in cell clustering, delays in cell cycle progression, and the formation of tetrad cells [2, 7, 9, 10]. Sle1 is translocated to the extracellular milieu by active secretion, facilitated by its N-terminal signal peptide. The three cell wall-binding LysM domains ensure localization to the division septum, where the catalytic CHAP domain facilitates peptidoglycan cleavage (**Fig. 6B**) [11, 12].

As with all PGHs, Sle1 activity must be tightly regulated both spatially and temporally to prevent unintended breaches in the cell wall [5, 6]. Targeted recruitment of these enzymes to specific regions of the cell serves as a key regulatory mechanism in many bacteria, including *S. aureus* [11, 13, 14]. The localization of Sle1 is dependent on the anionic glycopolymers wall teichoic acids (WTAs). The reduced levels of WTA at the septum promote Sle1 accumulation and peptidoglycan cleavage in this region [11, 15]. The essential two-component system WalKR, facilitates transcriptional regulation of several PGHs, including Sle1, ensuring proper coordination of cell wall remodeling and division [16-18]. Sle1 is additionally upregulated by

the two-component system GraSR [19]. Furthermore, recent studies have identified the DNA

translocase and cell division protein FtsK [10] as well as a non-coding RNA named Rbc1 [20]

as positive regulators of Sle1. Finally, and importantly, Sle1 is regulated by the ClpXP protease

through targeted degradation [7].

Regulated protein degradation by Clp proteases affects all biological pathways, playing a

crucial role in both general protein quality control and the targeted degradation of specific

proteins in bacterial cells [21-23]. The ClpXP complex consist of the ATP-dependent hexameric

ClpX ring, which recognizes, unfolds, and translocates specific protein substrates into the ClpP

proteolytic chamber for degradation (**Fig. 7A**) [24]. While ClpXP can directly target various

substrates, efficient recognition of certain proteins requires separately encoded adaptor

proteins that recognize specific substrates and assist in their delivery to ClpXP for degradation

[21-23]. The vital roles of ClpXP adaptor proteins have been characterized in different bacteria,

including *Escherichia coli* with SspB [25-27], UmuD [28, 29], and RssB [30, 31]. The only

known adaptor protein for ClpXP in *S. aureus* is YjbH, which targets the stress-associated

transcriptional regulator Spx for degradation [32-34], similar to its role in *B. subtilis* [35, 36].

Only a few ClpXP substrates have been verified in *S. aureus*, including Spx and Sle1 [37-39].

Unlike Spx, the mechanism by which ClpXP recognizes Sle1 is unknown. Nonetheless, the

targeted degradation of Sle1 has been shown to be crucial for the survival of staphylococcal

cells [7, 39-41]. Deletion of *clpX* results in abnormal septum formation and premature splitting

of daughter cells [40-42]. This phenotype is mainly attributed to the impaired proteolytic

regulation and subsequent accumulation of PGHs, particularly Sle1 [7, 38-40, 42, 43]. Beyond

proteolysis, ClpX also appears to contribute to cell division independently of ClpP, as only *clpX*

mutants exhibit heat stability and cold sensitivity [39, 44], a temperature dependent growth

defect that can be alleviated by a mutation in the essential cell division protein FtsA [43]. ClpX

has additionally been found to impact transcription of genes involved in peptidoglycan

synthesis and cell division independently of ClpP [45]. Interestingly, addition of β-lactams,

inhibition of lipoteichoic acid (LTA) and wall teichoic acid (WTA) biosynthesis, or inactivation of

Sle1 can rescue growth of *clpX* mutants [41, 42], further evidencing a tight interplay between

ClpXP, Sle1 and cell wall biogenesis in *S. aureus*.

The wide range of regulatory mechanisms invested into governing PGHs, and particularly Sle1,

underlines the importance of maintaining control of these enzymes at all times. Indeed, the

bactericidal mechanism of β-lactam antibiotics appears to involve the dysregulation of PGH

activity [46]. β-lactams inhibit the peptidoglycan cross-linking capacity of penicillin-binding

proteins (PBPs) by covalently binding their active site [47-49]. This is believed to disturb the

delicate balance between polymerization and autolytic degradation of peptidoglycan, which

ultimately result in cell lysis [46, 50-52]. The relationship between PBPs and PGHs appears to

be highly complex. On one hand, low-dose treatment with β-lactams has been shown to result

in thickened septal walls, delay cell separation, and significantly reduce the levels of specific

PGHs, including Sle1 [7, 41, 53-56]. These findings suggest that β-lactams may exert their

bactericidal effects, in part, by lowering the activity of specific PGHs like Sle1, resulting in

aberrant septum formation that does not permit further cell growth and division. [49, 50, 57].

On the other hand, β-lactam treatment has frequently been associated with activation of PGHs,

leading to excessive cell wall degradation and subsequent cell lysis [50-52, 57]. Studies in

various bacteria, including *Streptococcus pneumoniae* and *Bacillus subtilis*, have shown that

when autolytic activity is suppressed, exposure to penicillin primarily results in growth inhibition

rather than lysis [49, 50, 57]. The contrasting observations underscore that the exact mode of

action of β-lactams is more complex than initially assumed and may depend on species-

specific factors.

In the current study, we show that SAOUHSC_00659, a hitherto uncharacterized protein here

renamed CxaR (for ClpXP-associated autolytic regulator), controls cellular levels of Sle1 by

mediating its targeted degradation by the ClpXP complex. Deletion or knockdown of the gene

encoding CxaR resulted in accumulation of Sle1, which in turn contributed to growth

deficiencies, accelerated daughter cell splitting, and increased cell lysis. Co-localization

analyses combined with protein-protein interaction assays revealed that CxaR depends on

ClpX for its localization in septal-adjacent foci. While both proteins directly interact with each

other, our results suggest that only CxaR interacts with Sle1. Together, these findings identify

and elucidate the mechanism of a new adaptor protein required for spatiotemporal regulation

of bacterial cell splitting.

Results

Sublethal concentrations of cell wall targeting antibiotics stimulate growth of cells lacking *cxaR*

A genome-wide, pooled CRISPR interference sequencing (CRISPRi-seq) screen [58-60] was conducted to identify genetic factors modulating susceptibility to β-lactams in *S. aureus* NCTC8325-4 (see **S1 Table** and **S1 Fig**). By knocking down the expression of transcriptional units, both in the presence and absence of inhibitory concentrations of penicillin G, we could quantify the associated growth fitness cost for each unit. The most prominent hit from this screen was a gene of unknown function, *SAOUHSC_00659* (hereafter referred to as *cxaR*), whose knockdown led to reduced fitness, an effect that appeared to be counteracted by the presence of penicillin G (**S1 Fig**).

To validate this result, a *cxaR* CRISPRi knockdown strain was created in *S. aureus* NCTC8325-4. CxaR depletion resulted in a distinct growth profile in TSB at 37°C, characterized by reduced initial growth rate, followed by a transient decline in optical density (OD), and a subsequent gradual recovery of growth (**Fig 1A**). The growth defect of *cxaR* knockdown was similar, although even more pronounced, in the MRSA strain JE2 (**Fig 1A**). A *cxaR* deletion mutant was also constructed in NCTC8325-4 by allelic exchange with a spectinomycin resistance cassette. The resulting strain (NCTC8325-4 Δ*cxaR*::*spc*) exhibited the same biphasic growth (**Fig 1B**), confirming that the growth phenotype was not caused by the CRISPRi-system. Finally, to exclude the possibility that the phenotype observed upon knockdown or deletion of *cxaR* was caused by polar effect on neighboring genes, we designed sgRNAs for CRISPRi knockdown of five adjacent genetic loci, located both upstream and downstream of *cxaR* (**S2A Fig**). Growth analyses revealed that none of these strains exhibited growth patterns similar to the *cxaR* mutant (**S2B-C Fig**), confirming that the observed effects are specifically attributable to *cxaR*.

Strikingly, and in line with the results from the CRISPRi-seq screen, subinhibitory

concentrations of penicillin G rescued the growth defects of the *cxaR* knockdown and deletion

mutants. When treated with penicillin G, the mutants grew similarly to the controls, both in

liquid and on solid medium (**Fig 1**, **S3A Fig**, **S5A Fig**). The minimal inhibitory concentration

(MIC) of the *cxaR* mutants, however, remained unaltered (**S3A Fig**).

To determine whether the penicillin G-mediated growth stimulation was a general response to

growth inhibition or specific to certain antibiotics, the JE2 *cxaR* knockdown strain was tested

against a panel of antibiotics, targeting different cellular processes (**Fig 1D** and **S3 Fig**).

Subinhibitory concentrations of all tested β-lactams (penicillin G, oxacillin, and cefoxitin) fully

rescued growth of CxaR depleted cells (**Fig 1D**, **S3A-C Fig**). Similarly, other antibiotics

targeting the cell wall, such as moenomycin (inhibiting transglycosylation activity) and

tunicamycin (inhibiting early stages in wall teichoic acid and peptidoglycan biosynthesis), also

fully restored growth (**Fig 1D**, **S3G-H Fig**). Partial growth rescue was observed for bacitracin

(inhibiting lipid carrier recycling) and teicoplanin (glycopeptide inhibiting cell wall synthesis by

binding to the D-Ala-D-Ala terminus of peptidoglycan precursors), while another glycopeptide

with the same mechanism of action, vancomycin, did not seem to stimulate growth (**Fig 1D**,

Fig S3D-F). Furthermore, translation inhibitors binding to the 30S ribosomal subunit, including

kanamycin and streptomycin, as well as the DNA gyrase inhibitor novobiocin, partially restored

growth of the CxaR depleted strain (**Fig 1D**, **S3N,O,J Fig**). On the other hand, the tested

antibiotics targeting topoisomerase IV (ciprofloxacin), folate biosynthesis (trimethoprim),

transcription (rifampicin), and the 50S ribosomal subunit (erythromycin) did not stimulate

growth at any concentration (**Fig 1D**, **S3I,K,L,M Fig**).

CxaR affects splitting of daughter cells

To better understand the growth phenotypes of the *cxaR* mutants, phase contrast and

epifluorescence microscopy were performed on samples taken at different stages of growth

(indicated in **Fig 2A**). Cells lacking CxaR clearly displayed increased lytic activity. Even before

the drop in OD, mutant cells exhibited a noticeably higher frequency of lysis compared to wild-

type cells (hour 6 and 8, **Fig 2B and D**, **S4 Fig**). While the morphology of the live mutant cells

did not significantly diverge from the wild-type, including comparable cell size (**Fig 2C**), we

often observed *cxaR* mutant cells with a nick at septum displaying DNA dispersal, as visualized

by DAPI-staining (**Fig 2B and D**). After the temporal decline in OD, few intact cells remained,

and a large amount of cellular debris was observed (**Fig 2B**). During the subsequent growth

recovery phase, less lysis was observed. Strikingly, addition of penicillin G to cells lacking

CxaR significantly reduced lysis at all recorded time points, with a particularly notable reduction

at the 10-hour mark, when the majority of CxaR-deficient cells would otherwise have lysed (**S4**

Fig).

CxaR overexpression was also analyzed (**Fig 2E-F**). Elevated levels of CxaR did not result in

any growth deficiency. In fact, these cells reach a slightly higher final OD compared to those

with normal CxaR levels (**Fig 2F**). Morphologically, cells with excess CxaR clustered together,

frequently forming tetrads, where a second round of division is initiated before the previous

pair of daughter cells have separated (**Fig 2E**). Notably, very few of the CxaR overexpressing

cells were observed without a septum, indicating that excess CxaR does not impair septum

synthesis but rather disrupts the separation of daughter cells after septum completion.

The lysis phenotype was further investigated by transmission electron microscopy (TEM). As

expected, TEM analysis of CxaR depleted cells also revealed a significantly higher frequency

of cell lysis compared the control strain (**Fig 3A and C**). Consistent with earlier observations,

penicillin-treated *cxaR* samples showed a drastic reduction in lysis compared to the untreated

samples (**Fig 3A and C**). Interestingly, the mutant cells frequently displayed premature splitting

of daughter cells, where the septum appeared to be degraded before it was completed (marked

with red asterisks in **Fig 3A and G-I**). Variations of this phenotype were observed, with some

cells exhibiting a nick prior to or at early stages of septal growth (**Fig 3G**), while others

underwent splitting just before septum completion (**Fig 3H**). Some cells also underwent

splitting at both ends of the septum simultaneously (**Fig 3I**). Furthermore, while most live *cxaR*

cells resembled the control cells (**Fig 3D-E**), a subset exhibited a significantly thicker cell wall

(**Fig 3F**), potentially a strategy adapted by some mutant cells to evade lysis. Taken together,

these findings indicate that the lysis observed in cells lacking CxaR is due to premature septum

splitting, and that penicillin G mitigates this by preventing spontaneous lysis in the mutant.

Reduced Sle1 activity can compensate for the lack of CxaR

Since cell splitting in *S. aureus* is known to be temperature-responsive [20], we examined the

growth of *cxaR* mutant cells across a range of temperatures. The mutants exhibited a clear

temperature-dependent growth phenotype (**Fig 4A**, **S5 Fig**); the growth defect was

exaggerated at 30°C, while it was recovered at higher temperatures (42-45°C). Notably, when

plated at 30°C, the *cxaR* deletion mutant displayed heterogeneous colony size, with both small

and large-sized colonies, in contrast to the uniform, large colony size of the wild-type (**Fig 4B**).

The colony size variation also appeared at 37°C, although to a lesser extent (**Fig 4A**, **S6B**

Fig). We hypothesized that the larger sized colonies at 30°C had obtained suppressor

mutations. Five Δ*cxaR* colonies were picked and shown to exhibit wild-type like growth patterns

(**Fig 4B and 4C**). Whole-genome re-sequencing of these mutants revealed that each had

independently acquired additional mutations associated with the PGH *sle1* (**S2 Table**). Two of

the suppressor mutants had substitutions in the catalytically active CHAP-domain, responsible

for the hydrolytic activity of Sle1 (M292I and G315C), two resulted in truncated versions of Sle1

(Q197* and V5*), while the last one acquired an alteration in the Shine-Dalgarno sequence of

sle1 (G>A in the RBS). The mutations thus likely resulted in inactivation and/or reduced activity

of Sle1 (see below).

To further confirm that the growth defects caused by a lack of CxaR can be rescued by the

absence of *sle1*, *sle1* was knocked down in the Δ*cxaR* strain (**S6 Fig**). As expected, depletion

of Sle1 in the *cxaR* mutant resulted in loss of the biphasic growth and thus a reversion to a

wild type-like growth phenotype (**S6 Fig**).

Sle1 levels are highly elevated in the absence of CxaR and reduced upon CxaR

overexpression

To investigate the apparent functional link between CxaR and Sle1 levels, we performed

Western blot analyses using an antibody that recognizes Sle1 (35.8 kDa) [20]. Strikingly, a

clear accumulation of Sle1 was detected in cells lacking CxaR ($\Delta cxaR$ and $cxaR_{down}$ in **Fig. 5,**

S7 Fig, S8 Fig). Sle1 accumulation was observed both in the cell wall fraction, the extracellular

fraction, and the whole cell lysate. In contrast, when CxaR is overexpressed, Sle1 completely

disappears in all fractions (**Fig. 5, S7 Fig, S8 Fig**). Thus, the cellular levels of Sle1 are

controlled by CxaR, as both its presence and absence directly correlate with Sle1 protein

levels.

We then performed immunoblot assays with cell wall-associated and extracellular protein

extracts from the $cxaR$ suppressor mutants (**Fig 4D**). This revealed reduced levels of cell wall-

associated Sle1 in cells with the $sle1$ RBS mutation as well as in those encoding truncated

Sle1 versions, compared to the wild-type. The mutants with single CHAP-domain substitutions

also exhibited slightly reduced Sle1 levels, although not restored to wild-type levels. This

further supports the notion that reducing Sle1 levels or activity can compensate for the loss of

CxaR.

Given that reduced levels of Sle1 seem to rescue growth of cells lacking CxaR, we investigated

whether the same mechanism was at play when growth was restored at high temperatures

and/or with the addition of penicillin G. Indeed, both treatment with penicillin G and incubation

at 42°C reduced Sle1 levels, both in wild-type cells and cells without CxaR (**S9A-B Fig**). We

also tested whether the other antibiotics that stimulated growth of the $cxaR_{down}$ mutant had a

similar effect on Sle1 levels (**Fig 1D**). Indeed, a reduction in cell wall-associated Sle1 was

observed, although the extent of reduction varied. Oxacillin, bacitracin, moenomycin,

tunicamycin, and kanamycin all appeared to decrease Sle1 levels in the Δ*cxaR* strain to some

degree. However, for teicoplanin and novobiocin, the effect on Sle1 levels was less evident

(**S9C Fig**), consistent with their comparable limited ability to rescue growth of the *cxaR*$_{down}$

mutant. Together, this suggests that the stimulatory effects of antibiotics observed for the

Δ*cxaR* strain at least partially can be explained by reduced levels of Sle1.

CxaR regulates Sle1 levels in a ClpXP-dependent manner

Previous studies have shown that the cellular levels of Sle1 are regulated by the ClpXP

protease complex [38, 39], and similarly, we observed a strong accumulation of Sle1 Δ*clpX*

cells and cells devoid of ClpXP complex formation (ClpX$_{I265E}$) (**Fig 5**, **S8 Fig**). In fact, *cxaR*

mutant cells phenocopies *clpX* mutants to a large degree, including the observed temperature-

dependent growth defect and growth rescue by cell wall targeting antibiotics (**S10 Fig**) [39, 41,

44]. These parallels suggest that CxaR plays a role in the ClpXP-mediated Sle1 degradation.

Notably, the level of Sle1 accumulation in cells lacking either ClpXP activity or CxaR was

comparable (**Fig. 5**, **S8 Fig**). If CxaR was primarily involved in regulating *sle1* expression, one

would expect the combined loss of CxaR and ClpXP to produce a significantly stronger Sle1

accumulation compared to either single mutant. However, ClpX$_{I265E}$ cells with CxaR depletion

showed no greater Sle1 accumulation than ClpX$_{I265E}$ cells (**S8 Fig**). In addition, there was no

reduction in cell wall-associated Sle1 when CxaR was overexpressed in the Δ*clpX* mutant,

indicating that the mechanism in which CxaR controls Sle1 levels is not active when *clpX* is

deleted (**S8 Fig**). Furthermore, a *cxaR clpX* double knockdown strain did not exacerbate the

phenotypes of the two single knockdowns (**S10A and C Fig**). Together, this suggests that CxaR

and ClpXP likely operate within a shared pathway rather than through independent

mechanisms.

CxaR is conserved among *Staphylococcaceae* and has structural resemblance to TPR

motifs

cxaR is part of the *S. aureus* core genome, and phylogenetic analysis of CxaR homologues

from 55 different species within the *Staphylococcaceae* family demonstrated a high degree of

conservation among the homologs from the closely related genera *Staphylococcus*,

Macrococcus, and *Mammaliicoccus*, with 44 out of 165 amino acids being completely

invariable (**S11A-B Fig**). *cxaR* does not encode any signal peptide nor any transmembrane

helices. The high-confidence AlphaFold-predicted structure of CxaR consists of two short N-

terminal α-helices, six similarly sized antiparallel α-helices forming a slightly concave groove,

and finally a longer C-terminal α-helix protruding from the rest of the structure (**Fig 6A)**. When

mapping residue conservation onto the predicted structure of CxaR, we found that highly

conserved residues were primarily located at positions mediating hydrophobic interactions

between the antiparallel α-helices and within the groove (**Fig 6A**, **S11 Fig**). HHpred [61] and

HMMER [62] were used to identify potential protein domains of CxaR. Interestingly, both tools

revealed a substantial number of significant hits with tetratricopeptide repeat (TPR) motifs.

TPR motifs consist of 34-residue antiparallel helix pairs, typically repeated 3 to 16 times to

form grooved, amphipathic binding surfaces that facilitate protein-protein interactions [63-65].

Although the sequences of TPR motifs are highly variable and therefore at times difficult to

detect, they are involved in a wide range of cellular processes [63, 66]. The most probable

TPR helix pairs of CxaR, along with the resulting binding groove, are labelled in **Fig 6A**.

CxaR directly interacts with ClpXP and Sle1

Seeing that structural modeling of CxaR suggests it may contain a TPR-like domain (**Fig 6A**)

commonly associated with protein-protein interactions [63-65], we investigated the potential

role of CxaR in mediating interactions between Sle1 and ClpXP. We employed the split

luciferase system [67], where the proteins of interest are conjugated to the complementary

small (SmBit) and large (LgBit) subunits of luciferase, which produce a quantifiable

luminescence signal if they come into close proximity when expressed in *S. aureus*.

Initially, CxaR self-interaction was tested, as TPR-containing proteins commonly exhibit self-

oligomerization when involved in regulatory roles [68, 69]. Indeed, CxaR appears to

oligomerize, as that the self-interaction displayed a significant 10-fold higher value than the

control (**Fig 7B**). Next, interactions between CxaR, ClpX, and ClpP were tested. Luminescence

readings between all three were highly significant (**Fig 7B-C**). While it is well established that

ClpX and ClpP form a proteolytic complex (**Fig 7A and C**), CxaR also appears to interact with

both proteins, displaying a 25-fold and 13-fold increase in signal compared to the control,

respectively (**Fig 7B**). However, the interaction between CxaR and ClpX appears to be lost

when ClpX does not form a complex with ClpP (**Fig 7C**). Notably, the interaction of CxaR with

ClpX generated a stronger signal than the interaction with ClpP.

Moreover, CxaR also displayed a significant interaction with the precursor of Sle1, with a 4-

fold increase in luminescence signal compared to the control (**Fig 6D**). Interestingly, however,

this interaction was not observed when Sle1 was expressed without the signal peptide (**Fig**

6D). Indeed, in the AlphaFold3 predicted interaction model, supported by a high interaction

score, the first LysM domain of Sle1 (located in the N-terminal part close to the signal

sequence) interacts with the predicted binding groove of CxaR (**Fig 6A**, **S12 Fig**). Neither the

precursor nor the mature form of Sle1 showed any detectable interaction with ClpX (**Fig 6E**).

Together this strongly suggests that CxaR functions as an adaptor or intermediary to mediate

the interaction between Sle1 and the ClpXP complex, facilitating Sle1 degradation. Since the

Sle1 precursor is transported across the cytoplasmic membrane via its N-terminal signal

peptide (**Fig 6B**), it is expected that only the precursor of Sle1 is accessible for degradation by

the cytoplasmic ClpXP complex.

CxaR localizes in foci in a ClpX-dependent manner

ClpX has been shown to localize in single foci near the membrane, positioned close to the

ingrowing septum, in *S. aureus* cells undergoing septation [45]. This was confirmed here by

expressing a ClpX-mCherry fusion (**Fig 7E**, **S13C Fig**). Similarly, a CxaR-GFP fusion also

appeared to form single foci at midcell in dividing cells (**Fig 7D**, **S13A-B Fig**). Indeed, when co-expressing ClpX-mCherry and CxaR-GFP, a clear co-localization of the two proteins was observed, with their fluorescent foci appearing at the exact same positions in approximately 92% of cells (n = 635) (**Fig 7E and G)**. To determine whether CxaR depends on ClpX for its localization, a plasmid encoding CxaR-GFP was transformed into the Δ*clpX* mutant. In these cells, the distinct signal pattern was lost (**Fig 7H**), suggesting that CxaR requires ClpX for its spatiotemporal localization. However, when ClpX-mCherry was introduced into Δ*cxaR* cells, the localization remained unchanged (**Fig 7I**), indicating that ClpX localization is independent of CxaR. It should be noted that while the CxaR-GFP fusion seems to be functional in terms of growth (**Fig 7F**), cells expressing CxaR-GFP, either from its native promoter on the chromosome or from a plasmid, exhibited cell separation defects, including cell clumping (**Fig 7D**, **S13A-B Fig**).

Discussion

The levels and activity of peptidoglycan hydrolases (PGHs) need to be tightly regulated during cell division to maintain cell wall integrity while at the same time allowing cell splitting to occur. These regulatory mechanisms include transcriptional control via two-component systems, spatial regulation by protein-protein interactions and teichoic acids, a non-coding RNA, as well as proteolytic degradation to modulate the levels of PGHs [5, 6, 20]. In this work, we have discovered a novel factor critical for regulating cell splitting in *S. aureus*. Our results demonstrate that the hitherto unstudied protein CxaR acts as an adaptor protein, controlling the levels of Sle1, a PGH crucial for staphylococcal cell separation. Specifically, our model proposes that CxaR binds the Sle1 precursor prior to its export and translocates it to the ClpXP protease for degradation (**Fig 8**).

This model is supported by several experimental observations. First, we observed that *cxaR* mutants phenocopies *clpX* mutants in a number of aspects, including biphasic growth profiles, temperature-dependent growth phenotypes with exacerbation of the growth defect at suboptimal and improved growth at supraoptimal temperatures [44], high lysis frequency due to premature cell splitting [41], and accumulation of Sle1 [38]. These defects were found to be alleviated by certain antibiotics, including β-lactams and tunicamycin, as well as inactivation of Sle1, similar to what has previously been observed for cells lacking ClpX [41]. Consistently, overexpression of CxaR led to depletion of cellular Sle1 due to enhanced degradation, causing severely impaired cell splitting. Second, split luciferase assays, used to assess protein-protein interactions *in vivo*, showed that CxaR interacts directly with the ClpXP complex, as well as Sle1. However, no direct interaction between Sle1 and ClpX was detected in these assays, suggesting that an intermediate protein facilitates the delivery of Sle1 to ClpXP for targeted degradation. Third, subcellular localization analysis showed that CxaR co-localizes with ClpX in foci near the septum in dividing *S. aureus* cells. Additionally, the focal localization of CxaR was dependent on the presence of ClpX, indicating that its function is closely linked to ClpX

and likely cell division. Moreover, it should also be noted that CxaR exhibited the highest score

among identified staphylococcal ClpXP substrates when a proteolytically inactive ClpP variant

(ClpP^trap) was expressed *in vivo* in *S. aureus* [38]. However, CxaR-GFP does not appear to

accumulate in *S. aureus* cells lacking ClpXP activity (**S13D Fig**), suggesting that its retention

in the ClpP^trap is likely due to other interactions than direct degradation. Finally, structural

analyses revealed that CxaR resembles proteins containing TPR motifs, which are typically

involved in facilitating protein-protein interactions [63-65]. This structural similarity suggests

that CxaR may bind specific substrates to mediate their interactions or delivery. Thus,

dysregulation of CxaR levels have detrimental effects on cell splitting and growth; Sle1

accumulates in the absence of CxaR, resulting in cell lysis due to premature splitting, while

high levels of CxaR, on the other hand, significantly delay cell splitting, leading to cell clumping

and cells with multiple septa, by reducing Sle1 abundances.

cxaR was uncharacterized prior to this study, but its transcription has been shown to increase

under various stress conditions, including treatment with vancomycin [70], oxacillin [71],

mersacidin [72], brilacidin [73], and under heat shock [74]. This pattern of transcriptional

upregulation in response to envelope damage is consistent with the finding that expression of

cxaR likely is regulated by the two-component system VraSR (vancomycin-resistance

associated sensor/regulator). VraSR is activated by cell wall targeting antimicrobials, such as

β-lactams and glycopeptides, and controls transcriptional induction of several cell wall-

associated genes [71, 75]. While Sle1 and other PGHs are not directly regulated by the VraSR

system, it can thus be speculated that VraSR-mediated upregulation of CxaR serves as a

regulatory mechanism to reduce Sle1 levels under these conditions, thereby delaying cell

splitting in response to cell wall stress. This delay could provide the cells with enough time to

repair damaged peptidoglycan and reinforce cell wall integrity, ultimately enhancing bacterial

survival.

While our results show that CxaR regulates Sle1 levels via ClpXP-mediated degradation, it

may have additional roles in the cell that remain to be elucidated. For example, when

performing localization microscopy with fluorescently tagged versions of CxaR, we surprisingly

observed that overexpression of CxaR-GFP in Δ*clpX* appeared to improve growth of the

deletion strain (**Fig 7H**). This was also confirmed with a non-tagged CxaR in the *clpX* deletion

mutant (**S14 Fig**). Western blot assays did not indicate any decrease in cell wall-associated

Sle1 during CxaR overexpression in Δ*clpX* cells (**S8 Fig**), which suggests that CxaR may have

an additional role which helps the cells mitigate the impact of elevated Sle1 levels, potentially

by rendering Sle1 non-functional. Additionally, the CxaR overexpression phenotype appears

to be more severe than the expected defects from *sle1* deletion alone [2, 7, 9, 10], more closely

resembling mutants with deletions of several PGHs [9, 76]. This could indicate an additional

role of CxaR in cell division, or that CxaR facilitates ClpXP-mediated degradation of other

proteins in addition to Sle1.

In this work, we found that sublethal concentrations of different antibiotics could rescue the

growth defects observed in *cxaR* mutants, a phenomenon previously reported in *clpX* mutants

[41]. We show that for some antibiotics, the growth rescue can be directly attributed to reduced

levels of Sle1 in the treated cells (**S9B-C Fig**). This is in line with previous observations that

expression of certain PGHs, including *sle1,* is positively correlated with PBP transpeptidase

activity [55, 56]. Thus, inhibition of the transpeptidase domain, either through genetic

inactivation or the addition of β-lactams, possibly caused the growth rescue of the *cxaR*

mutants through reducing Sle1 levels. Sle1 levels are also highly temperature dependent,

increasing at 30°C and decreasing at temperatures exceeding 40°C [20]. The temperature-

dependent growth phenotype of cells lacking CxaR is likely attributed to these fluctuating Sle1

levels. The exact mechanism by which temperature influences the levels of Sle1 is unknown,

but the observed upregulation of CxaR under heat [74] and envelope stress [71, 75] suggest

that elevated temperatures may enhance CxaR abundances, leading to increased Sle1

degradation.

Beyond the direct impact antibiotics have on hydrolase activity, additional mechanisms are

likely involved in the antibiotic-mediated growth rescue of *cxaR* mutants. The growth

stimulation mediated by sublethal concentrations of tunicamycin may be attributed to the role

of teichoic acids in directing septal hydrolysis, in addition to its effect on Sle1 levels. A decrease

in wall teichoic acid abundance has been shown to reduce septum-directed localization of

PGHs and thus delay septal resolution [11, 15, 77, 78]. The same growth-rescue by

tunicamycin has also been observed in a Δ*clpX* mutant [41], which additionally acquired

spontaneous, growth-rescuing loss-of-function mutations in the gene encoding the lipoteichoic

acid synthase, *ltaS* [42]. Furthermore, sublethal concentrations of β-lactams have been

observed to prolong the duration of peptidoglycan biosynthesis at the septal wall, leading to

cells with thickened, unresolved septa, due to the retention of septal PBPs [41, 53, 54]. A

thicker septum could potentially mitigate the effects of increased autolytic activity caused by

Sle1 accumulation in *cxaR* mutants. It should also be noted that all of these cell wall-targeting

antibiotics can induce the VraSR regulon through envelope stress, leading to upregulation of

key cell wall synthesis genes, such as *pbp2*, *murZ*, and *sgtB* [71, 73, 75]. However, it remains

to be determined whether the observed growth rescue is directly linked to enhanced cell wall

integrity from VraSR activation.

S. aureus employs a complex network of regulatory mechanisms to effectively control the

autolytic activity driving cell splitting. Given the important role of Sle1 in septum resolution, our

findings establish CxaR as a key regulatory factor in maintaining the balance between

peptidoglycan synthesis and hydrolysis – a balance which is critical to the function of

antibiotics. As CxaR represents a previously unrecognized component in this process, further

studies investigating its potential additional roles may provide new insight into the mode of

action of widely used antibiotic classes, including β-lactams.

Materials and methods

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

Strains used in this work are listed in **S3 Table**. All *S. aureus* strains were grown in tryptic soy broth (TSB) and *E. coli* strains were grown in lysogeny broth (LB) aerobically at 37°C, unless stated otherwise. Growth in liquid media was carried out in an orbital shaker at 180 rpm, while for growth on solid media 1.5% (w/v) agar was added to the respective medium base. When appropriate, the following antibiotics were added for selection: ampicillin (Amp, 100 µg/mL), chloramphenicol (Cam, 10 or 25 µg/mL), spectinomycin (Spc, 100 or 1,000 µg/mL for NCTC8325-4 and JE2, respectively), and erythromycin (Ery, 5 µg/mL). In addition, isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) or anhydrotetracycline (aTc) was added for induction of gene expression when needed.

For *E. coli* transformation, chemically competent IM08B cells were prepared using calcium chloride treatment, followed by heat shock transformation according to standard protocols. Plasmids isolated from *E. coli* IM08B were transformed into electrocompetent *S. aureus* by electroporation, as previously described [79].

Strain and plasmid construction

See **S3, S4 and S5 Tables** for strains, plasmids, and oligonucleotides used in this work. Every construct was verified by PCR and sequencing.

Construction of CRISPRi knockdown strains

For gene knockdown, we used the two-plasmid CRISPR interference (CRISPRi) system described previously [59, 80, 81]. In this system, dCas9 is expressed from an IPTG-inducible promoter on the plasmid pLOW-*dcas9*, while the gene-specific single guide RNA (sgRNA) is constitutively expressed from a second plasmid (pCG248-sgRNA(*x*) or pVL2336-sgRNA(*x*), where *x* denotes the targeted gene). Upon co-expression, the dCas9-sgRNA complex binds

the gene of interest thereby blocking transcription by the RNA polymerase. The sgRNA plasmids were constructed using inverse PCR for pCG248 [80] or Golden Gate cloning for pVL2336 [59], with the oligonucleotide primers listed in **S5 Table**.

Construction of the cxaR deletion mutant

cxaR was replaced by a spectinomycin resistance cassette in its native loci in *S. aureus* NCTC8325-4 using the temperature-sensitive pMAD system. First, the pMAD-*cxaR*::*spc* plasmid was constructed by assembling a fragment containing the *cxaR* up- and downstream regions (amplified using primer pairs mk591/mk592 and mk593/mk594, respectively) flanking a spectinomycin resistance cassette (amplified from pCN55 with primers mk188 and mk189) using overlap extension PCR. The fragment was ligated into pMAD using restriction cloning with NcoI and BamHI, and the resulting plasmid was transformed into *E. coli* IM08B. Construction of Δ*cxaR*::*spc* in strain NCTC8325-4 was then performed using a standard pMAD protocol with temperature shifts, as described before [82].

Construction of suppressor mutants

When the NCTC8325-4 *cxaR* deletion mutant was plated at 30°C, larger colonies consistently appeared among the very small colonies observed at 37°C. To determine whether these larger colonies had restored growth due to acquisition of spontaneous suppressor mutations, we performed a genetic suppressor screen similar to what has been described previously [42]. The Δ*cxaR* mutant was streaked for single colonies on TSA plates and incubated at 37°C overnight. Single small colonies were picked, resuspended in TSB, and grown overnight at 37°C with shaking. The following day, each independent overnight culture was plated on TSA and incubated overnight at 30°C. On some plates, visibly larger colonies had appeared. In those cases, a single large colony from each independent culture was selected, grown overnight in TSB at 30°C with shaking, and stored. For cultures without initially detectable larger colonies, a random colony was picked, grown overnight in TSB at 30°C, and then replated on TSA at 30°C. By the next day, all plates had a majority of large colonies. One large

colony per plate was picked, grown overnight in TSB at 30°C, and stored. The growth of the

stored cultures was analyzed, and five were selected for whole-genome re-sequencing.

Construction of plasmids for complementation and overexpression

cxaR and *clpX* were amplified from *S. aureus* genomic DNA using the primer pairs

mhu28/mhu27 and mdb98/mdb99, respectively. The resulting fragments were digested with

SalI and EcoRI and subsequently ligated into the corresponding restriction sites of plasmid

pLOW-*m(sf)gfp-SA1477* to produce pLOW-*cxaR* and pLOW-*clpX*, which enable IPTG-

inducible expression of the respective genes.

Construction of plasmids for localization analysis of CxaR and ClpX

To study the subcellular localization of C-terminally tagged CxaR, *cxaR* was amplified from *S.*

aureus genomic DNA using primers mhu28 and mhu29, digested with SalI and BamHI, and

ligated into the respective sites of pLOW-*SA0948-m(sf)gfp*. For N-terminally tagged CxaR,

cxaR was amplified from *S. aureus* genomic DNA using primers mhu26 and mhu27, digested

with BamHI and EcoRI, and ligated into the respective sites of pLOW-*m(sf)gfp-SA1477*. To

study the subcellular localization of C-terminally tagged ClpX, *clpX* was amplified from *S.*

aureus genomic DNA using primers mdb98 and mdb102, digested with SalI and BamHI, and

ligated into the respective sites of pLOW-*lacA-mCherry*.

Construction of a chromosomally integrated cxaR-m(sf)gfp fusion

The temperature-sensitive pMAD system was used to GFP-tag *cxaR* in its native loci in *S.*

aureus NCTC8325-4. To construct pMAD-*cxaR-m(sf)gfp_spc* the following four fragments

were amplified: (1) the upstream region of *cxaR* with primers mdb58 and mdb59 using gDNA

from *S. aureus* NCTC8325-4 as a template, (2) the *cxaR-m(sf)gfp* fusion from plasmid pLOW-

cxaR-m(sf)gfp using primers mdb60 and mdb61, (3) the spectinomycin resistance cassette

using primers mk503 and mk504 from plasmid pCN55, and (4) the downstream region of *cxaR*

from *S. aureus* NCTC8325-4 gDNA using mdb62 and mdb63. These fragments were

subsequently fused by overlap extension PCR and ligated into pMAD using the NcoI and SalI

restriction sites introduced by the outer primers. Finally, chromosomal integration of the fusion

construct was performed following a standard pMAD protocol [83].

Construction of split luciferase plasmids

To C-terminally fuse CxaR, ClpX, and ClpX$_{I265E}$ to the small luciferase subunit

(SmBit), *cxaR*, *clpX*, and *clpX$_{I265E}$* were amplified from *S. aureus* NCTC8325-4 WT or *clpX$_{I265E}$*

genomic DNA using the primer pairs efs7/efs8 for *cxaR* and mdb93/mdb94 for *clpX*

and *clpX$_{I265E}$*. The amplified fragments and vectors pAF256-P$_{tet}$-*hupA-smbit/lgbit* and pAP118-

P$_{tet}$-*hupA-smbit/hupA-lgbit* were then digested with SacI and XhoI. The digested fragments

were ligated into the vectors and subsequently transformed into *E. coli* IM08B. The pAF256

vectors, encoding CxaR, ClpX, or ClpX$_{I265E}$ fused to SmBit and LgBit not part of a fusion

protein, served as negative controls in the split luciferase assays. The pAP118 vectors were

further modified to C-terminally fuse CxaR, ClpX, ClpP, Sle1, or Sle1 (without signal peptide)

to the large luciferase subunit (LgBit). All fragments were amplified using NCTC8325-4 WT

genomic DNA as template and the following primer pairs: (1) efs20/efs21 for *cxaR*, (2)

efs5/efs6 for *clpX*, (3) efs9/efs10 for *clpP*, (4) mdb88/mdb89 for *sle1*, and (5) mdb90/mdb89

for *sle1* (without signal peptide). The amplified fragments and the corresponding pAP118

vectors were then digested with PvuI and NotI, ligated, and subsequently transformed into *E.*

coli.

Genome re-sequencing and analysis

Whole-genome sequencing of Δ*cxaR* (MK2047), the strain expressing chromosomally

integrated CxaR-GFP (MDB376), and the *cxaR* suppressor mutants (EFS104, EFS105,

MDB390, MDB401, and MDB404) was performed. Genomic DNA was isolated from the

respective strains using The Wizard Genomic DNA Purification Kit (Promega) and sent to

Novogene for Illumina sequencing. Sequence assembly to the reference genomes and SNP

detection were done using Geneious Prime [84].

CRISPRi-sequencing screen

The explorative CRISPRi-seq screen for penicillin G susceptibility determinants was performed as described before, using an already constructed genome-wide CRISPRi library in the *S. aureus* strain NCTC8325-4 [59, 60]. Briefly, the library (pre-grown in BHI to OD_{600} = 0.8) was diluted 1:1,000 in 100 mL ultra-high temperature (UHT) treated milk (Tine SA, Norway) and incubated at 37 °C with shaking for 7 hours. After, it was reinoculated 1:1,000 in fresh UHT milk and grown for another 6 hours. Chloramphenicol (10 µg/mL) was added for selection, and when appropriate, 30 ng/mL anhydrotetracycline was added for induction of the CRISPRi-system. Furthermore, to identify fitness determinant affected by β-lactam treatment, the library was grown in the presence and absence of 0.008 µg/mL penicillin G (corresponding to the MIC for NCTC8325-4 in milk). Four parallels were included per condition. After growth, cells were harvested by centrifugation, and plasmids were isolated as previously described [60]. Illumina amplicon libraries were prepared, and sequencing was performed on a NovaSeq platform using 150 bp paired-end reads (performed by Novogene, UK) following established protocols [60]. CRISPRi-seq differential enrichment analyses was done as described by Bakker et al. [58] and Mårli et al. [60]. Notably, due to the inhibitory concentration of penicillin G used in this explorative screen, the number of generations for growth of the penicillin G treated library was significantly lower than for the untreated library.

Growth assays in liquid media

To assess bacterial growth in a liquid medium, overnight cultures of the strains to be monitored were diluted 1:1,000 in TSB medium supplemented with the appropriate antibiotics and inducers. For MIC analysis, the following panel of antibiotics were tested against the JE2 *cxaR* knockdown mutant and CRISPRi control strain in two-fold dilution series: penicillin G (PEN), oxacillin (OXA), cefoxitin (CXI), vancomycin (VAN), teicoplanin (TEC), bacitracin (BAC), moenomycin (MOE), tunicamycin (TUN), ciprofloxacin (CIP), novobiocin (NOV), trimethoprim (TMP), rifampicin (RIF), erythromycin (ERY), kanamycin (KAN), and streptomycin (STR).

Bacterial dilutions were added to a 96-well microtiter plate and incubated in a plate reader at

37°C for 20 hours, unless otherwise stated. OD_{600} measurements were taken every 10

minutes, with a brief shaking of the plate for 5 seconds prior to each measurement. All growth

curves in this work are the mean of three replicate measurements, with the exception of the

MIC panel (**S3 Fig**), growth at different temperatures (**S5A Fig**), and CxaR/ClpX

overexpression (**S14 Fig**) which represent the mean value of two replicates, and they are all

representative of at least two independent experiments.

Spotting assays

Overnight cultures diluted 1:1,000 in TSB with the appropriate antibiotics were grown at 37°C

until they reached an OD_{600} of 0.5 or the indicated time point. The cultures were diluted in a

ten-fold dilution series from 10^{-1} to 10^{-8} and 5 µL from each dilution was spotted on TSA. The

TSA, in addition to the appropriate selective antibiotics, contained 500 µM IPTG for CRISPRi

knockdown strains and 1 ng/mL penicillin G or 6 ng/mL oxacillin when assessing growth rescue

by β-lactams. The plates were incubated for 24 hours at their indicated temperature. All

presented spotting assays are representative of three technical replicates from at least three

independent experiments.

Western blot analyses of Sle1 levels

Cell harvesting

Overnight cultures were diluted 1:1,000 in TSB medium with the appropriate antibiotics and

inducers and incubated at either 37°C or 42°C with shaking until an OD_{600} of approximately

0.4 was reached.

Preparation of extracellular and cell wall-associated protein extracts

Culture volumes of 50 mL were harvested by centrifugation at 6,000 x *g* for five minutes at 4°C.

To extract extracellular proteins, 30 mL of the supernatants were mixed with 30 mL 96%

ethanol and incubated overnight at 4°C. To extract cell wall-associated proteins, the pellets

were washed with 10 mL cold 0.9% (w/v) NaCl and centrifuged at 6,000 x g at 4°C for five

minutes. The supernatants were discarded, and cell wall-associated proteins were eluted with

10 mL 4% (w/v) SDS at 25°C for 45 minutes with shaking. The samples were then centrifuged

at 6,000 x g for five minutes at 4°C, and the resulting supernatants were mixed with 10 mL

96% ethanol and left to precipitate at 4°C overnight. The following day, the protein extracts

were pelleted by centrifugation at 10,000 x g for 30 minutes at 4°C, dried in a fume hood, and

normalized with 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4). The normalized extracts were mixed 1:1 with 2x

SDS loading buffer and heated at 95°C for five minutes prior to SDS-PAGE.

Preparation of whole cell lysate

Culture volumes of 50 mL, normalized to an OD_{600} of 0.4, were harvested by centrifugation at

4,000 x g for five minutes at 4°C. The pellets were resuspended in 100 µL TBS buffer and

mechanically lysed using the Fast Prep method with ≤106 µm glass beads in three cycles of

20 seconds at 6 m/s, with one minute incubation on ice between cycles. Insoluble material

was removed by centrifugation at 20,000 × g for 2 minutes. Next, the supernatants were

mixed with equal volumes 2x SDS loading buffer and heated at 95°C for 5 minutes prior to

SDS-PAGE.

SDS-PAGE, Western blotting, and detection

The protein samples were separated by SDS-PAGE on a polyacrylamide gel, which consisted

of a 12% separation gel with a 4% stacking gel layered on top. The proteins were then

electroblotted onto a PVDF membrane using the Trans-Blot Turbo System (Bio-Rad).

Afterward, the membrane was trimmed to retain proteins below 60 kDa and blocked in TBST,

containing 5% (w/v) bovine serum albumin (BSA) and 1 µg/mL human IgG, for 1 hour at room

temperature, followed by overnight incubation at 4°C. After washing the membrane with TBST,

the following day, it was incubated with an anti-Sle1 primary antibody [20] (diluted 1:10,000 in

TBST with 2% (w/v) BSA and 1 μg/mL human IgG) for 1 hour. Next, unbound antibodies were removed by three TBST washes, and the membrane was then incubated for another hour with an anti-mouse IgG HRP-conjugate secondary antibody (Promega) (diluted 1:10,000 in TBST with 1 μg/mL human IgG). After another series of washes, the membrane was finally developed using the SuperSignal West Pico PLUS Chemiluminescent Substrate kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific), and blot images were captured with an Azure Imager c400 (Azure Biosystems).

Western blot analysis of GFP-tagged CxaR

Overnight cultures of MDB376 (NCTC8325-4 with a chromosomally integrated *cxaR-m(sf)gfp* fusion), MDB430 (NCTC8325-4 carrying pLOW-*cxaR-m(sf)gfp*), and MDB395 (NCTC8325-4 *clpX*$_{I265E}$ carrying pLOW-*cxaR-m(sf)gfp*) were diluted 1:1,000 in TSB medium supplemented with 100 μg/mL spectinomycin (for MDB376) or 5 μg/mL erythromycin and 10 μM IPTG (for MDB430 and MDB395). The bacterial cultures were incubated at 37°C until they reached an OD_{600} of approximately 0.5 and 1. They were then normalized to an OD_{600} of 0.5, and harvested by centrifugation at 4,000 × *g* for 5 minutes at 4°C. The pellets were resuspended in 200 μL TBS buffer and lysed mechanically using the Fast Prep method with ≤106 μm glass beads at 6 m/s for three cycles of 20 seconds each. Insoluble material was removed by centrifugation at 20,000 × g for 2 minutes. Next, the supernatants were mixed with equal volumes 2x SDS loading buffer and heated at 95°C for 5 minutes.

The subsequent SDS-PAGE, blotting, and GFP detection were performed as described above for Sle1 immunoblotting, with the exception of antibody selection. GFP-tagged CxaR was detected using an anti-GFP primary antibody (Invitrogen) (diluted 1:4,000 in TBST) and an anti-rabbit IgG HRP-conjugated secondary antibody (Promega) (diluted 1:5,000 in TBST).

Phase contrast and epifluorescence microscopy

Microscopy

Overnight cultures were diluted 1:1,000 in TSB medium with the appropriate antibiotics and inducers. These cultures were incubated at 37°C with shaking until they reached the desired optical density (OD_{600} ~0.4) or time point, followed by cooling on ice. In some cases, cells were then stained with fluorescent vancomycin (VanFL, 0.8 µg/mL [Invitrogen]) to visualize the cell wall and/or 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI, 7.5 µg/mL [Invitrogen]) to visualize the nucleoid. Bacterial cells were immobilized on 1.2% (w/v) agarose pads before imaging on either a Zeiss Axio Observer microscope or a Leica DMi8 microscope. The bacteria were visualized with a 100× phase contrast objective, and images were captured using an ORCA-Flash4.0 V3 Digital CMOS (for the Zeiss microscope) or a K8 Scientific CMOS (for the Leica microscope) camera.

Image analysis

Cell size distribution among different *S. aureus* strains was determined using MicrobeJ [85]. Bacterial cells were automatically detected using phase contrast image stacks, and every image was subsequently manually corrected by adding unidentified cells or removing incorrectly identified cells. Additionally, co-localization of CxaR-GFP and ClpX-mCherry was analyzed manually by examining both signals in 300–350 randomly selected cells from two biological replicates (n = 635).

Transmission electron microscopy

Overnight cultures of the NCTC8325-4 *cxaR* CRISPRi knockdown and control strains were diluted 1:1,000 in 10 mL TSB with the appropriate selective antibiotics and inducers, with and without 1 ng/mL penicillin G. The cultures were grown at 37°C for 11 hours, corresponding to the transient minimum of the *cxaR* knockdown strain. The cultures were added to fixative to a final concentration of 1.25% (v/v) glutaraldehyde, 2% (v/v) paraformaldehyde, and 100 mM cacodylate (CaCo) buffer. The cells were fixed for one hour at room temperature and overnight

at 4°C, before being washed in 100 mM CaCo buffer three times. The final pellets were

embedded in 3% (w/v) low-melt agarose and stored in 100 mM CaCo buffer. Post-fixation with

1% osmium tetroxide was performed for one hour. Excess osmium tetroxide was removed by

washing with 100 mM CaCo buffer and the pellets were dehydrated using gradually increasing

concentrations of cold acetone. The dehydrated pellets were embedded in EPON epoxy resin

and polymerized at 60°C. The samples were sectioned 60 nm thick and stained with uranyl

acetate and lead citrate. A Jeol JEM-2100Plus was used for imaging.

Split luciferase assays

Pairwise protein-protein interactions were assessed *in vivo* in *S. aures* NCTC8325-4 using the

split luciferase system developed by Paiva et al. [67] for *C. difficile*, following the same

approach as described before [86].

Structural and phylogenetic analysis

The presence of general structural features, including transmembrane helices and signal

peptides, were predicted using SignalP-6.0 and DeepTMHMM [87, 88]. Homologs of CxaR

within *Staphylococcaceae* were identified through BLASTp, using the NCTC8325-4 CxaR

peptide sequence as the query [89]. Sequence representatives from 55 species within

Staphylococcus, *Mammaliicoccus*, and *Macrococcus* were aligned by Clustal Omega, and the

multiple sequence alignment (MSA) was visualized using Jalview [90, 91]. Phylogenetic trees

from the homologs were generated using MEGA11 [92]. HMMER and HHpred were applied

for sensitive hidden Markov model-based homolog searches to detect structural motifs [61,

62]. TPRpred from the HH-suite was used to detect TPR-like motifs in CxaR homologs [93].

***In silico* protein interaction modelling**

AlphaFold 3 [94] was used for the modelling of every protein structure and protein interactions

in this work. The top ranked predictions were selected and visualized using either ChimeraX

[95] or PyMOL [96].

Acknowledgements

748 We would like to thank the NMBU Imaging Center for help with TEM, and Zhian Salehian and

749 Anne Ohren Nordraak at NMBU for laboratory assistance.

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Figures

Fig. 1. Lack of CxaR leads to a biphasic growth defect that can be rescued by sublethal concentrations of various antibiotics.

(**A**) Growth curves of the *cxaR* knockdown mutants (*cxaR*down) and CRISPRi control strains in TSB at 37°C for both NCTC8325-4 and JE2. Gene knockdown was induced with addition of 500 µM IPTG, and growth of the *cxaR*down mutants was restored with addition of penicillin G (1 ng/mL for NCTC8325-4 and 5 ng/mL for JE2). The graphs represent averages with standard deviation from triplicate measurements.

(**B**) Growth curves of the NCTC8325-4 *cxaR* deletion mutant and wild-type in TSB at 37°C. Growth of
the Δ*cxaR* mutant was restored with addition of penicillin G (1 ng/mL). The graphs represent averages
with standard deviation from triplicate measurements.

(**C**) Growth of the NCTC8325-4 *cxaR* deletion mutant and wild-type on TSA with or without penicillin G
(1 ng/mL) after 10 hours of incubation at 37°C. The bacterial cultures were sampled after 10 hours of
incubation in TSB (± penicillin G) and 10-fold dilution series were spotted onto TSA plates (± penicillin
G).

(**D**) Relative growth of the JE2 *cxaR*$_{down}$ mutant compared to the CRISPRi control after 8 hours of
incubation at 37°C in the presence or absence of MIC$_1$ concentrations of various antibiotics. Data
represent the average growth ratio ± standard deviation from the mean of two biological replicates for
the antibiotic-treated samples, and from 30 biological replicates for the untreated control. A ratio of 1
indicates that the two strains have reached the exact same OD$_{600}$ after 8 hours of incubation. In the
absence of antibiotics, the ratio was approximately 0.16. Notably, several of the antibiotics stimulated
growth of the *cxaR*$_{down}$ mutant, leading to a significant increase in the growth ratio. For the individual
growth of the *cxaR*$_{down}$ and CRISPRi control strain with increasing concentrations of the various
antibiotics, see **Fig. S3**.

1085
1086 **Fig. 2. *cxaR* deletion increases lytic activity, while overexpression impairs cell division.**

1087 (**A**) Growth curves of NCTC8325-4 Δ*cxaR* and wild-type, with the timepoints for cell sampling used in
1088 microscopy (shown in panel **B**). The graphs represent averages from triplicate measurements.

(**B**) Representative phase-contrast and fluorescence micrographs of Δ*cxaR* and wild-type cells stained with VanFL (cell wall) and DAPI (nucleoid) after 6, 10, and 16 hours of incubation at 37°C. White arrows point to cells with peptidoglycan hydrolysis (VanFL), nucleoid dispersal (DAPI), and anucleate cells (merged). The scale bars are 2 μm.

(**C**) Violin plots showing the cell area distributions (in μm^2) for wild-type (1.00 ± 0.24 μm^2) and Δ*cxaR* (0.99 ± 0.22 μm^2) after 6 hours at 37°C, determined using MicrobeJ. No significant difference in size was detected between the strains (ns, *P*-value > 0.05, Mann-Whitney U test). The number of cells analyzed is indicated in the figure.

(**D**) Magnified merged fluorescence images showing the predominant lytic phenotypes of the Δ*cxaR* cells. Cells commonly exhibited a nick at septum accompanied by DNA dispersal at the earlier timepoints, progressing to crescent-shaped debris by the 10-hour mark, indicative of widespread lysis.

(**E**) Representative phase-contrast and fluorescence micrographs of NCTC8325-4 cells carrying the pLOW-*cxaR* plasmid for inducible overexpression of CxaR, stained with VanFL (cell wall) and DAPI (nucleoid). Cells were grown at 37°C with or without 500 μM IPTG until an OD_{600} of approximately 0.4 was reached. Upon induction, cells displayed clear separation defects, including cell clumping and enlarged cells with multiple septa. The scale bars are 2 μm.

(**F**) Growth curves of NCTC8325-4 cells with the pLOW-*cxaR* plasmid, grown in the absence (gray) or presence (green) of 500 μM IPTG for CxaR overexpression. The graphs represent averages from triplicate measurements.

Fig. 3. The increased lysis observed in the absence of CxaR is due to premature splitting of daughter cells, a phenomenon significantly mitigated by penicillin G treatment.

(**A**) TEM images of the NCTC8325-4 *cxaR* knockdown mutant (*cxaR*down) and CRISPRi control strain grown in TSB for 11 hours at 37°C, in the absence or presence of sublethal concentrations of penicillin G (1 ng/mL). Red asterisks mark cells that have undergone cell splitting prior to septum completion. The scale bars are 2 µm.

(**B**) Growth curves of NCTC8325-4 $cxaR_{down}$ and CRISPRi control, with (dashed line) or without (solid line) sublethal concentrations of penicillin G (1 ng/mL), showing the sampling timepoint for TEM imaging. The graphs represent averages from triplicate measurements.

(**C**) Box plots showing the proportion of lysed cells, as observed by TEM, that retained minimal structural integrity. Significant differences between the strains are indicated with asterisks (***, P-value < 0.0005, Tukey's Honest Significant Difference test). The number of cells analyzed, from left to right, is 231, 303, 241, and 250.

(**D-I**) Representative TEM images of CRISPRi control and $cxaR_{down}$ cells, highlighting their characteristic morphologies. (**D**) Control cells displaying normal coccoid morphology. $cxaR$ knockdown cells displaying: (**E**) wild-type-like morphology, (**F**) significantly thicker cell wall, (**G**) a septal nick prior to or at early stages of septal growth, (**H**) premature daughter cell splitting occurring just before septum completion, and (**I**) simultaneous splitting at both ends of the forming septum. Black asterisks mark cells in which hydrolysis of the peripheral septal wall occurred after septum completion, while red asterisks mark cells initiating daughter cell separation, despite an incomplete septum.

1129

Fig. 4. Spontaneous *sle1*-associated mutations frequently rescued the defects of the *cxaR* deletion mutant at 30°C.

(**A**) Spotting assays comparing growth of the NCTC8325-4 *cxaR* knockdown mutant ($cxaR_{down}$) and CRISPRi control at 30°C, 37°C, and 42°C. The bacterial cultures were grown at 37°C to an OD_{600} of 0.5, 10-fold serially diluted, and 5 µL of each dilution was spotted onto TSA plates that were incubated at the indicated temperatures. Compared to the control, the $cxaR_{down}$ mutant was cold-sensitive and heat-stable.

(**B**) At 30°C, the NCTC8325-4 Δ*cxaR* mutant formed both very small colonies and larger suppressor colonies, unlike the homogeneous colony size observed for wild-type. When overnight cultures of Δ*cxaR* grown at 37°C were plated on TSA and incubated at 30°C, some larger colonies appeared among the very small ones (day 1). When single colonies from these plates were grown overnight at 30°C and replated on TSA at 30°C, the plates exhibited predominantly large suppressor colonies (day 2).

(**C**) Growth of five independently isolated large Δ*cxaR* colonies, all found to have different *sle1*-associated mutations, in TSB at 37°C. All five suppressor mutants displayed growth patterns more closely resembling the wild-type than the original Δ*cxaR* strain. The graphs represent averages from triplicate measurements.

(D) Western blot analysis of Sle1 levels in the extracellular and cell wall-associated protein fractions of the Δ*cxaR* suppressors with *sle1*-associated mutations. The Sle1 levels of the suppressor mutants were compared to those of wild-type, *cxaR* deletion, and *cxaR* overexpressing cells.

1149

Fig. 5. Sle1 accumulates in the absence of CxaR, while overexpression of CxaR causes Sle1 depletion below detectable levels.

Western blot analysis of Sle1 levels in cell wall-associated protein fractions, extracellular protein fractions, and whole-cell lysates using an anti-Sle1 antibody. The blots show that Sle1 levels were elevated in NCTC8325-4 cells lacking CxaR (ΔcxaR and $cxaR_{down}$) or ClpX (ΔclpX), while Sle1 was depleted in NCTC8325-4 cells overexpressing CxaR (ΔcxaR, pLOW-cxaR), compared to the wild-type and CRISPRi control cells.

1157
Fig. 6. With structural resemblance to TPR motifs, CxaR directly interacts with Sle1.

(**A**) The AlphaFold 3-predicted structure of CxaR, with its three proposed anti-parallel sets of TPR-like
helices colored red, blue, and purple. These helices form a slightly concave surface groove, as indicated
in the figure.

(**B**) The modular structure of the Sle1 amidase, consisting of a N-terminal signal peptide (SP) for
secretion, three cell wall-binding LysM domains, and an enzymatically active histidine-dependent
amidohydrolase/peptidase (CHAP) C-terminal domain. The signal peptide of Sle1 is post-translationally
processed, as indicated by the arrow.

(**C**) Schematic illustration of *S. aureus* peptidoglycan (PG) structure, with the cleavage site of Sle1
highlighted. PG is composed of N-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc)-N-acetylmuramic acid (MurNAc)
disaccharide units, with a stem peptide (L-Ala, D-isoGln, L-Lys, D-Ala, D-Ala) linked to MurNAc.
Crosslinking occurs via pentaglycine bridges attached to the L-Lys residue of the stem peptide, creating
a mesh-like structure. The amidase Sle1 facilitates daughter cell separation by cleaving the amide bond
between MurNAc and L-Ala, thereby disrupting the mesh-like PG network.

(**D-E**) Split luciferase assays assessing potential protein-protein interactions between (**D**) CxaR and
Sle1 (with and without the signal peptide), and (**E**) ClpX and Sle1 (with and without the signal peptide).
Bars represent mean luminescence (RLU/OD$_{600}$) from four replicates, with error bars indicating the
standard deviation. Significant interactions were assessed with one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's
Honest Significant Difference test (***, *P*-value < 0.001). CxaR showed interaction with the precursor of
Sle1 (with signal peptide), while ClpX did not interact with the precursor nor the mature form of Sle1.

Fig. 7. CxaR directly interacts with ClpXP and localizes in septal-adjacent foci in a ClpX-dependent manner.

(**A**) Schematic overview of a single-capped ClpXP structure and its function. Single-capped ClpXP consist of a hexameric ClpX ATPase ring and two heptameric rings of the ClpP peptidase, forming a proteolytic complex. ClpX recognizes and unfolds protein substrates, either directly or via adaptor proteins, and translocates them through its central pore into the proteolytic chamber of ClpP, where they are degraded into small peptide fragments, ensuring selective and irreversible degradation of proteins in the cell.

(**B-C**) Split luciferase assays identifying potential protein-protein interactions between (**B**) CxaR and CxaR/ClpX/ClpP, and (**C**) ClpX/ClpX$_{I265E}$ and CxaR/ClpP. Bars represent mean luminescence (RLU/OD$_{600}$) from four replicates, with error bars indicating the standard deviation. Significant interactions were assessed with one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's Honest Significant Difference test (***, P-value < 0.001). CxaR displayed self-interaction and interactions with both ClpX and ClpP.

Similarly, ClpX interacted with CxaR and ClpP, however the interaction with CxaR appears to be lost
when ClpX does not form a complex with ClpP.

(**D**) Fluorescence microscopy of the NCTC8325-4 strain expressing chromosomally integrated CxaR-
GFP under its native promoter, showing that CxaR-GFP forms single foci at midcell in dividing cells. The
scale bar represents 2 µm.

(**E**) Growth curves of NCTC8325-4 wild-type and chromosomally expressing CxaR-GFP cells in TSB at
37°C, demonstrating that GFP tagging of CxaR does not impair growth. The graphs represent averages
from triplicate measurements.

(**F**) Fluorescent microscopy of NCTC8325-4 cells co-expressing CxaR-GFP (from the chromosome) and
ClpX-mCherry (from a plasmid induced with 80 µM IPTG), showing clear co-localization of the two
proteins in fluorescent foci.

(**G**) Quantification of CxaR-GFP and ClpX-mCherry co-localization in NCTC8325-4 cells expressing both
fusion proteins. Co-localization was analyzed by manual examination of the fluorescence signals in 300–
350 randomly selected cells from two biological replicates (n = 635). CxaR-GFP and ClpX-mCherry were
co-localized in 92.4 ± 2.4% of cells, 6.9 ± 1.9% of cells displayed only CxaR-GFP signal, and 0.6 ± 0.5%
showed only ClpX-mCherry, confirming spatiotemporal co-localization of the two proteins during cell
division.

(**H-I**) Fluorescence microscopy of (**H**) Δ*clpX* cells expressing CxaR-GFP from a plasmid and (**I**) Δ*cxaR*
cells expressing ClpX-mCherry from a plasmid. Expression of the plasmids were induced with the
addition of 10 µM and 160 uM IPTG, respectively. In the absence of ClpX, CxaR-GFP no longer localized
in septal-adjacent foci, indicating that CxaR requires ClpX for its spatiotemporal localization. In contrast,
ClpX-mCherry retained its focal localization pattern in Δ*cxaR* cells, demonstrating that ClpX localization
does not depend on the presence of CxaR.

Fig. 8. CxaR facilitates ClpXP-mediated degradation of Sle1, ensuring proper separation of staphylococcal daughter cells.

Under normal conditions, CxaR regulates Sle1 levels by delivering its precursor to ClpXP for degradation, ensuring that cell splitting is triggered only after septum completion. In the absence of CxaR, ClpX and ClpP still form a proteolytic complex capable of degrading various proteins, but not Sle1, as its mode of delivery is missing. Consequently, Sle1 accumulates to high levels, causing hydrolysis of the incomplete septum and subsequent cell lysis.

Supporting information

S1 Fig. CRISPRi-seq identified genetic factors modulating susceptibility to β-lactams in *S. aureus*. The growth fitness impact of knocking down each transcriptional unit was assessed under conditions with (*x-axis*) and without (*y-axis*) penicillin G. sgRNAs found to be significantly reduced upon penicillin G treatment, indicating that knockdown of these transcriptional units increases sensitivity to penicillin G, are highlighted in blue ($log_2FC < -1$, $P_{adj} < 0.05$). In contrast, sgRNAs that were significantly enriched, indicating that their knockdown reduces sensitivity to penicillin G, are highlighted in red ($log_2FC > 1$, $P_{adj} < 0.05$). Among the significantly enriched sgRNA, *SAOUHSC_00659* (*cxaR*) was the top hit.

S2 Fig. The phenotype observed upon knockdown or deletion of *cxaR* is not caused by polar effect on neighboring genes. (**A**) Schematic overview of the genes surrounding *cxaR* in its operon. Red lines indicate the approximate location of sgRNA targets used for CRISPRi knockdown. (**B**) Growth curves of an NCTC8325-4 *cxaR*down strain in TSB at 37°C with (dashed line) and without (solid line) 1 ng/mL of penicillin G. Knockdown was induced by 30 ng/mL aTc. (**C**) Growth curves showing the effects of CRISPRi knockdown of genes in NCTC8325-4 located upstream (*SAOUHSC_00655*, *SAOUHSC_00656* and *SAOUHSC_00658*) and downstream (*S245* and *SAOUHSC_00660*) of *cxaR*, with (dashed line) and without (solid line) 1 ng/mL of penicillin G. The strains were grown at 37°C in TSB with 30 ng/mL aTc to induce knockdown.

S3 Fig. Sublethal concentrations of various antibiotics stimulate growth of cells lacking *cxaR*. The JE2 *cxaR*down strain (left panels) and the CRISPRi control (middle panels) subjected to various concentrations of different antibiotics during growth in TSB at 37°C. Knockdown was induced by 500 µM IPTG. The antibiotics tested included the β-lactams (**A**) penicillin G, (**B**) oxacillin, and (**C**) cefoxitin, the glycopeptides (**D**) vancomycin and (**E**) teicoplanin, the polypeptide antibiotic (**F**) bacitracin, the phosphoglycolipid antibiotic (**G**) moenomycin, the WTA-inhibiting nucleoside antibiotic (**H**) tunicamycin, the fluoroquinolone (**I**) ciprofloxacin, the aminocoumarin (**J**) novobiocin, the folate biosynthesis inhibitor (**K**) trimethoprim, the ansamycin (**L**) rifampicin, the macrolide (**M**) erythromycin, and the aminoglycosides (**N**) kanamycin and (**O**) streptomycin. The right panels show the OD_{600} for each strain after 8 hours of growth for each concentration of the antibiotics tested.

S4 Fig. Sublethal concentrations penicillin G significantly reduce lysis of cell lacking *cxaR*. Phase contrast and fluorescence microscopy of the JE2 *cxaR*down strain after 6, 8, 10, and 12 hours of incubation in TSB at 37°C, with and without 5 ng/mL penicillin G. CRISPRi knockdown of *cxaR* expression was induced by adding IPTG to a final concentration of 500 µM. The cells were stained with VanFL (cell wall) and DAPI (nucleoid). White arrows indicate abnormal and recently lysed cells. Scale bars represent 2 µm.

S5 Fig. *cxaR* mutants exhibit heat stability and cold sensitivity. (**A**) The NCTC8325-4 *cxaR*down and CRISPRi control strains grown in TSB at 30°C, 37°C, and 45°C with different concentrations of penicillin G. Gene knockdown was induced with the addition of 500 µM IPTG. The graphs represent averages from duplicate measurements. (**B**) Spotting of the NCTC8325-4 *cxaR*down and CRISPRi control strains at different temperatures with or without addition on oxacillin. The strains were grown until an OD_{600} of 0.5 was reached, serially diluted in 10-fold dilution series, and 5 µL of each dilution was spotted on TSA containing 500 µM IPTG, with or without 6 ng/mL oxacillin. The plates were incubated at 30°C, 37°C, or 42°C for 24 hours before imaging.

S6 Fig. Reduced Sle1 activity can compensate for the lack of CxaR. Growth of an NCTC8325-4 Δ*cxaR* mutant with (green) and without (grey) knockdown of *sle1* in TSB at 37°C. Gene knockdown was induced with the addition of 500 µM IPTG. The graphs represent averages from triplicate measurements.

S7 Fig. Sle1 levels are elevated in the absence of CxaR and reduced upon CxaR overexpression. Western blot analysis of Sle1 levels in (**A**) cell wall-associated protein fractions and (**B**) whole-cell lysates from NCTC8325-4 wild-type, *cxaR* deletion, and *cxaR* overexpressing cells. Band intensities were quantified using ImageJ and normalized to the wild-type signal. (**A**) In cell wall-associated fractions, Sle1 levels were increased in Δ*cxaR* cells (4.681 ± 1.270) and reduced in CxaR overexpressing cells (0.007 ± 0.003), relative to the wild-type (1.000 ± 0.220). (**B**) Similarly, in whole-cell lysates, Sle1 levels were highly elevated in Δ*cxaR* cells (147.847 ± 45.768) and depleted in CxaR overexpressing cells (0.015 ± 0.043), compared to the wild-type (1.000 ± 1.095). Statistical significance was assessed using one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's Honest Significant Difference (HSD) test (***, P-value < 0.001). Column height represents the mean, and error bars the standard deviation from four biological replicates. Representative Sle1 blots are shown below the corresponding graphs.

S8 Fig. CxaR regulates Sle1 levels in a ClpXP-dependent manner. (**A**) Western blots of extracellular, cell wall-associated, and whole cell Sle1 levels in the NCTC8325-4 wildtype, Δ*cxaR* mutant, *cxaR* overexpressing strain, Δ*clpX* mutant, Δ*clpX* mutant overexpressing *cxaR*, *clpX*$_{I265E}$ mutant, *clpX*$_{I265E}$ mutant with knockdown of *cxaR*, and *cxaR* knockdown strain. Gene knockdown and overexpression were induced with the addition of 500 µM IPTG. (**B**) Growth curves displaying the growth phenotypes of the strains Western blotted in **A** at 37°C in TSB. Gene knockdown and overexpression were induced with the addition of 500 µM IPTG. The graphs represent averages from triplicate measurements.

S9 Fig. Supraoptimal temperatures and various antibiotics reduce the level of cell wall-associated Sle1. (**A**) Western blots displaying the difference in cell wall-associated and extracellular Sle1 levels in the NCTC8325-4 *cxaR*$_{down}$ strain and CRISPRi control incubated at 37°C and 42°C. IPTG (500 µM) was added for gene knockdown. Band intensities were quantified using ImageJ. Values for cell wall-associated Sle1 were normalized to the control band at 37 °C, while extracellular Sle1 values were normalized to the *cxaR*$_{down}$ band at 37 °C. The intensities, shown below the corresponding bands, represent the mean of two biological replicates, with standard deviation. (**B**) The effect of sublethal concentrations of penicillin G (1 ng/mL) on the cell wall-associated and extracellular levels of Sle1 in the NCTC8325-4 wild-type and Δ*cxaR* mutant, shown by Western blotting. Band intensities were quantified using ImageJ. Values for cell wall-associated Sle1 were normalized to the wild-type band without penicillin G, while extracellular Sle1 values were normalized to the Δ*cxaR* band without penicillin G. The intensities, shown below the corresponding bands, represent the mean of two biological replicates, with standard deviation. (**C**) Western blotting of cell wall-associated Sle1 in the NCTC8325-4 Δ*cxaR* mutant in response to sublethal concentrations of various antibiotics. From left to right; - (without antibiotics), OXA (7 ng/mL oxacillin), TEC (62.5 ng/mL teicoplanin), BAC (1 µg/mL bacitracin), MOE (7.5 ng/mL moenomycin), TUN (200 ng/mL tunicamycin), NOV (15 ng/mL novobiocin), KAN (300 ng/mL kanamycin). Band intensities were quantified using ImageJ. Values for cell wall-associated Sle1 were normalized to the Δ*cxaR* band without antibiotics. The intensities, shown below the corresponding bands, represent the mean of two biological replicates, with standard deviation.

S10 Fig. *cxaR* mutant cells resemble *clpX* mutants, exhibiting a comparable temperature-dependent growth defect. (**A**) The effect of concurrent CRISPRi knockdown of *clpX* and *cxaR* (purple) in NCTC8325-4 compared to the CRISPRi control (grey) and single knockdown of *clpX* (green) or *cxaR* (red) during growth in TSB at 37°C. Gene knockdown was induced with addition of 500 µM IPTG. The graphs represent averages from triplicate measurements. (**B**) Growth of an NCTC8325-4 Δ*clpX* mutant in TSB at 37°C with (red) and without (grey) knockdown of *cxaR*. Gene knockdown was induced with addition of 500 µM IPTG. The graphs represent averages from triplicate measurements. (**C**) Spotting

1324 assay of cells with single knockdown of either *clpX* (*clpX*down) or *cxaR* (*cxaR*down), and double knockdown
1325 of both *clpX* and *cxaR* (*clpX*down *cxaR*down) compared to the CRISPRi control at 30°C, 37°C, and 42°C.
1326 The strains were grown to mid-exponential phase (OD_{600} of 0.5), 10-fold serially diluted, and spotted in
1327 volumes of 5 µL on TSA with 500 µM IPTG.

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S 11 Fig. CxaR is conserved among *Staphylococcaceae*. (**A**) Phylogenetic tree of CxaR homologues
from 55 species within the *Staphylococcaceae* family. The phylogenetic relatedness of the homologues
generally clustered by genera, with the exception of *Staphylococcus schleiferi* which appeared to utilize
a CxaR homolog more closely resembling those found in *Mammaliicoccus*. (**B**) AlphaFold 3-predicted
structure of CxaR with residue conservation from the phylogenetic analysis in **A** mapped on to it. The
colors represent conservation scores ranging from 0 (least conserved) to 11 (most conserved),
accounting for both conservation of specific amino acids and their stereochemical properties. (**C**)
Coulombic electrostatic potential of the predicted CxaR structure, with red for negative potential
through white to blue for positive potential. (**D**) Hydrophobicity (molecular lipophilicity potential) of the
predicted CxaR structure, with dark cyan for most hydrophilic through white to dark goldenrod for most
hydrophobic.

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1341 **S12 Fig. The AlphaFold 3-predicted interaction between CxaR and Sle1.** The domains of Sle1 are
1342 colored in accordance with the structure in **Fig. 6B**, with the signal peptide in purple, LysM domains in
1343 light green, and CHAP domain in dark green. The predicted complex has a high confidence interaction
1344 score (ipTM) of 0.86.

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S13 Fig. C-terminally tagged CxaR and ClpX localize in foci. (**A**) Phase contrast and fluorescence
microscopy of NCTC8325-4 carrying plasmids encoding an N-terminal (left) and C-terminal (right) CxaR-
GFP fusion, with and without induction of expression by 50 µM IPTG. (**B**) Various induction levels of the
plasmid-borne C-terminal CxaR-GFP fusion in NCTC8325-4. The concentrations of the IPTG inducer
ranged from 0.5 µM to 100 µM, and localization was assessed with phase contrast and fluorescence
microscopy. (**C**) Phase contrast and fluorescence microscopy of a C-terminal ClpX-mCherry fusion in
NCTC8325-4, with inducer concentrations between 5 µM and 320 µM IPTG. (**D**) Western blot of the C-
terminal CxaR-GFP fusion from whole cell lysate expressed from the native *cxaR* chromosomal locus
in NCTC8325-4 (MDB376), from the pLOW plasmid in the NCTC8325-4 wild-type and from the pLOW
plasmid in the NCTC8325-4 *clpX*$_{I265E}$ mutant. Expression of the fusion from pLOW was induced by 10
µM IPTG. Cultures were harvested at OD_{600} 0.5 and 1.0.

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1358 **S14 Fig. Overexpression of CxaR can compensate for the absence of ClpX, whereas ClpX
1359 overexpression further exacerbates the growth defect of Δ*cxaR*.** Overexpression of *cxaR* and *clpX*
1360 in the NCTC8325-4 wild-type (green), Δ*clpX* mutant (blue) and Δ*cxaR* mutant (red) from pLOW-*cxaR*
1361 and pLOW-*clpX*, respectively. Concentrations of IPTG ranged from 0 to 500 µM.

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**S1 Table. CRISPRi-seq identified genetic factors modulating susceptibility to β-lactams in *S.
aureus*.** Our CRISPRi library, targeting over 97% of the genomic features of *S. aureus* NCTC8325-4
[59], was transformed into a NCTC8325-4 strain where *dCas9* expression is controlled by a tetracycline-
inducible promoter on the chromosome [60]. The induced library was grown in the presence and
absence of sublethal concentrations of penicillin G for ~20 generations at 37ºC in milk. Plasmids were
subsequently isolated, and the sgRNA abundances were determined by Illumina sequencing, as
previously described [58]. Log$_2$ fold-changes (Log$_2$FC) between penicillin G treated (PenG) and non-
treated (minPenG) samples are presented for each sgRNA, along with the corresponding p-values (P_{adj}).
Transcriptional units that were found to have significant interactions are noted as either increasing (blue)
or reducing (red) sensitivity to penicillin G.

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1374 **S2 Table. The spontaneous mutations acquired when the *cxaR* deletion mutant was grown at a**
1375 **30°C.** List of mutations, with over 90% variant frequency, identified when re-sequencing five
1376 independently isolated, visibly larger NCTC8325-4 Δ*cxaR* colonies formed at 30°C.

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1378 **S3 Table.** Strains and mutants used in this work.
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1380 **S4 Table.** Plasmids used in this work.
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1382 **S5 Table.** Oligonucleotide primers used in this work.
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